

英語学習者の語用論的能力育成に関する
多元的情報サイトの構築

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Construction of a Multi-information Site
Related to English Learners' Pragmatic Competence

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も く じ

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はしがき 「本研究の概要」

Preface – Summary of This Research Project

(1) 研究課題及び課題番号 Research Title and Code

「英語学習者の語用論的能力育成に関する多元的情報サイトの構築」

Construction of a Multi-information Site Related to English Learners' Pragmatic Competence

課題番号 Research Code [14580306]

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Years and Grant Category: 2004-2006 Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (B)

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※研究協力者 (平成 17 年度から) Outside participant from 2005

ザンボルリン キアラ (名古屋芸術大学音楽学部講師)
ZAMBORLIN, Chiara (Nagoya University of Arts)

(5) 交付決定額(配分額) Summary of Grant Support (in yen) (金額単位：千円)

	直接経費	間接経費	合計
平成 16 年	2,400,000	0	2,400,000
平成 17 年	1,600,000	0	1,600,000
平成 18 年	700,000	0	700,000
総計	4,700,000	0	4,700,000

(6) 研究発表 Research Outcomes

ア. 学会誌等 Journal Papers

- Iwai, C., Sato, J., Rinnert, C., Zamborlin, C., Kawamura, M., & Nogami, Y. (2006). NNSs' attention to grammatical and pragmatic features. *Proceedings of JALT 2005*

Annual International Conference, pp. 296-307.

2. 岩井千秋, リナート, C. (2006). 「具体的使用目的を設定した英語学習機会の提供－広島市立大学夏期集中講座 (Summer Intensive Program) HIROSHIMA and PEACE を事例として」、『大学英語教育学会中国・四国支部研究紀要』3号, pp. 143-152.
3. 横山知幸. (2006). 「Content Management System (CMS) と Questionnaire Management System (QMS) との関係」『大学英語教育学会中国・四国支部研究紀要』3号, pp.121-132.
4. Yoko, N. (2006). Learners' pragmatic awareness of softener use. *Proceedings of JALT 2005 Annual International Conference*, pp. 274-284.
5. Iwai, C., Rinnert, C., Yokoyama, T., Zamborlin, C., & Nogami, Y. (2006). Toward dynamic intercultural pragmatics for English as an international language. *Proceedings of JALT PanSIG2006*, pp. 25-31.
6. Rinnert, C., Nogami, Y., & Iwai, C. (2006). Preferred complaint strategies in Japanese and English. *Proceedings of JALT PanSIG2006*, pp. 32-47.
7. 岩井千秋 「海外学生との合同授業に向けた事前英語ワークショップ」『高等教育における英語授業の研究－授業実践事例を中心に』、岩井千秋 (他、著者多数)、大学英語教育学会授業学研究会編、松柏社. pp. 152-153. (2006).

※論文1～6は本報告書第2章に収録

Papers 1 to 6 are compiled in Chapter 2 of this report.

イ. 学会等での口頭発表 Conference Paper Presentations

平成17年度 (2005)

1. 岩井千秋. 「具体的使用目的を設定した英語学習機会の提供－夏期集中講座 HIROSHIMA and PEACE を事例として」 第22回 JACET 中国四国支部大会パネルディスカッション、平成17年6月11日、島根大学.
2. Iwai, C. “NNSs attention to pragmatic features.” The 31st JALT (Japan Association of Language Teachers) Annual International Conference, October 8, 2005.
3. Rinnert, C., & Nogami, Y. “How can we complain appropriately and effectively?” The 31st JALT (Japan Association of Language Teachers) Annual International Conference, October 9, 2005.
4. 野上陽子、岩井千秋. 「大学生英語学習者の日本語と英語による Complaint 発話行為の比較研究」 JACET 中国四国支部研究会、平成17年10月15日、安田女子大学.
5. 横山知幸. 「Content Management System (CMS) と Questionnaire Management System (QMS) の連携」 JACET 中国四国支部研究会、平成17年10月15日、安田女子大学.
6. Iwai, C. “Pedagogical and linguistic values of teaching communication strategies.” AILA (World Congress of Applied Linguistics, July 25, 2005, University of Wisconsin.

平成 18 年度 (2006)

7. Iwai, C. et al. "Toward dynamic intercultural pragmatics for English as an international language." JALT PanSIG 2006 Conference, Invited Colloquium, May 14, 2006, Tokai University.
 - 1) Yokoyama, T. "A questionnaire management system called ChauSer and some free tools for data analysis and collaboration"
 - 2) Nogami, Y. "Complaining softly in Japanese and English"
 - 3) Rinnert, C. "Learning to complain: Development of awareness of English pragmatic strategies among Japanese EFL students"
 - 4) Zamborlin, C. "Cross-cultural pragmatic dissonances: Going beyond bi-dimensional transfer"
 - 5) Iwai, C. "NNSs in different learning contexts and their attention to phonological, grammatical, and pragmatic features"
8. Rinnert, C. "Learning to complain: Development of awareness of English pragmatic strategies among Japanese students." The 5th Pacific Second Language Research Forum 2006, July 2-10, 2006, The University of Queensland, St. Lucia Campus.
9. Iwai, C. "Perceptions of English: Cross-cultural comparison among learners in four EFL contexts." AsiaTEFL, August 20, 2006, Seinan Gakuin University.
10. 岩井千秋. 「ミクロからマクロへのパラダイムシフトーCS 研究発展の可能性」第 45 回 JACET 全国大会シンポジウム、平成 18 年 9 月 10 日、関西学院大学.
11. Iwai, C. "Studies on communication strategies: From theories to practice." Invited Lecture at JALT Matsuyama Chapter, October 8, 2006.

ウ. 出版物 Book Publications なし None

エ. その他ー作成教材 Miscellaneous – Textbook

Iwai, C., & Rinnert, C. (2007). *HIROSHIMA & PEACE - English Glossary 868*. 全 120 頁. 鯉城印刷.

(7) 研究成果による工業所有権の出願・取得状況 該当せず

(8) 研究成果 Research Outcomes

本報告書、第 1 章に詳述

Detailed reports in Chapter 1

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 Dr. Marco Mezzadri, University of Parma, Italy
 Professor Guido Michellini, University of Parma, Italy

The cross-cultural empirical data for our project were collected from the students at these universities in three countries, and needless to say the data would have been absolutely unobtainable unless the survey opportunities had been kindly offered to us. Personally, I, the coordinator of the project, would also like to express my appreciation to each one of them for their hospitality while my visit to their universities. I also want to thank Fu Nianping Laoshi (Professor) at the School of Arts and Dr. Yang Dong, Professor at School of Psychology, both at Southwest University for their friendship and kind invitation to their university. I also cannot forget Ms. Ma Guoyu or Maggie, an English-major MA student at Southwest University, who voluntarily helped me as a translator with her excellent English. I feel that she is a perfect, successful model of English learners who have acquired a superb proficiency without ever having visited overseas.

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We are indebted to Mr. Yukio Tachikawa at Korinkan Ltd. for the technical support for the development of ChauSer and Kinsai (see Chapter 1 for their details). It is not the first time that the coordinator of this Kaken study has asked him to develop such research tools, so I am not surprised by his talent. Even so, the developed sites are marvelous, and they have already become powerful tools for our research and pedagogical use. Our gratitude is also directed to the official staff at Hiroshima City University, Mr. Tetsuji Yamaoka in particular, who managed the finances of our grant efficiently.

Finally, we would like to thank all the student and teacher participants in the questionnaire surveys of the present research projects. In total, there were about 1,000 participants. It is not an exaggeration to say that this Kaken project could not have been completed without the voluntary willingness from each of them to facilitate our project.

第1章 研究目的、実施研究内容の評価

Chapter 1: Research Objectives and Assessment of the Outcomes

(See the end of this chapter for its English digest.)

はじめに

本研究は、代表者1名と研究分担者2名の計3名で科研費申請を行い、平成16年～18年の3ヵ年研究として実施した。研究に際しては、研究協力者1名を加え、さらに3名の大学院生（広島市立大学国際学研究科、博士後期課程）に参加を呼びかけ、協同プロジェクトを立ち上げた。以下、本科研費交付申請書に記載した「研究目的・研究実施計画」に対応させて、本研究によって得られた主な結果と今後の研究の展開に関して述べることとする（本報告書用の体裁に統一するため、交付申請書に記載した表現や番号などの一部を変更した）。

1. 平成16年度(初年度)の研究（交付申請書の提出：平成16年4月28日付）

科研費交付申請書記載内容	研究成果
<p>研究の目的</p> <p>本研究の研究題目にある「語用論的能力」とは、実際の言語使用に求められる言語能力のことを意味し、社会慣用的な表現方法や言語慣用的な表現方法などから構成される。研究対象言語は、国際補助言語として実質的役割を担っている英語であり、特に英語学習者に求められる語用論的能力を扱うこととする。語用論的能力には、話者の文化背景、母語、認知能力など多くの要因が関与しており、研究者3名の各専門分野の特性を活かして、学習者の語用論的能力を育成するための学習教材と研究情報を提供するウェブサイトを構築することが本研究の最終目的である。</p> <p>この目的を目指して、本年度(H16年度)は2年目に実施を予定している実証データ収集サイトの構築を中心に研究を行う。開発に伴い、試作ウェブサイトを英語授業等でテスト使用するなどして、次年度の本場に備えることとする。また、研究者それぞれの研究内容や研究状況を共有するため、学内外から関係者を招いて研究会を開催する。</p>	<p>初年度は、研究の最終目標（英語教育・研究のための語用論ウェブサイト作成）に向け、基盤整備を行うことを目的とし次の2つを予定通り行った。</p> <p>①インターネットを利用して行う言語データ収集システムの構築</p> <p>②研究参加者それぞれの専門領域の視点から①を活用して実証研究を行うための事前準備。</p>
<p>本年度(平成17年3月31日まで)の研究実施計画</p> <p>本年度(平成16)は本研究の最終目標であるウェブサイトの作成に向けた準備、基礎研究を重点的に行う。具体的には、①インターネットを利用して行う言語データ収集システムの構築、②研究参加者それぞれの専門領域の視点からの理論研究、2つを行うこととする</p> <p>本研究で開発を予定しているデータ収集用システムとは、a)研究者たちの研究用途に応じて自由自在に調査用紙(HTMLファイル)を変更できる機能を有していること、b)アンケート等によりデータ収集を行うと、リアルタイムで収集データが処理され記述統計結果がブラウザ上で表示されること、c)収集データが蓄積され研究に必要な言語データコーパスが自動的に作成されること、の3つの機能を備えていることが条件である。データ収集システム作成は、研究代表者が中心になって分担者2名の希望を取り入れながら、専門のプログラマーと契約して開発を進めていく。収集データは、1)国内外の英語学習者及び英語母語話者を対象とした、各種設定場面における発話行為に関する調査、2)英語表現の許容度(acceptability)に関する調査、3)語用論的問題を含む日本語の翻訳に関する調査から構成される。</p> <p>データ収集システムの構築と平行して、研究者3名がそれぞれ独自のテーマ</p>	<p>①について - 平成17年1月に開発をほぼ完了。開発に向けては、業務委託したプログラマーと月に数度の割合で会合を持ち、研究代表者と分担者1名(横山)が担当授業等で繰り返しテスト運用を行った。(開発サイトについては、この一覧表のすぐ後に詳述。)さらに、①の発展として、協同で書き込み作業のできるサイトの構築の検討し、この作業は平成17年度に継続して行うこととした。</p> <p>②について - ①の開発システムを使って2年目に実証研究を予定しており、そのための事前準備を行った。準備に際しては、3名の研究者以外にも大学院生など語用論研究に関心の</p>

<p>を設定して基礎研究に取り組む。これにより、「英語学習者の語用論的能力」という極めて多要因が関与する問題を、異なる視点から研究することによって複眼的にこの問題を捉えることを試みる。研究成果は、定期的に学内外の研究者も交えて研究会を開き、研究者間の情報交換、意思疎通を図るとともに、サイト構築に向けた準備を進めていく。それぞれが取り組む個別研究課題は次のとおり:</p> <p>研究代表者(岩井):「国際補助言語としての英語に求められる語用論的能力とコミュニケーション能力の類型化」</p> <p>研究分担者(リナート):「日本語と英語の異文化的差異に起因する発話行為の比較分析」</p> <p>研究分担者(横山):「英日・日英翻訳における語用論的能力の諸相」</p>	<p>ある研究者を交え主に 12 月～3 月に研究会を開催し、2年目に共同プロジェクトとして取り組めるようにした。</p>
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上の一覧表にまとめたように、初年度の主な研究は、①本研究で使用するデータ収集を目的とするサイトの構築と② 2年目以降の研究を行うための基盤整備であった。以下では②、①の順でこれらをさらに詳しく説明する。

1.1 研究プロジェクトの立ち上げ

研究には、最終的に代表者と分担者の合計 3 名のほか、学外の研究者 1 名（平成 17 年度から研究協力者として「交付申請書に記載」、申請書記載時は広島市立大学非常勤講師で、現在は名古屋芸術大学講師）と、代表者の所属する広島市立大学国際学研究科博士後期課程の大学院生 3 名が加わり、総勢 7 名からなる研究プロジェクトを立ち上げた。大学院生に対しては、代表者、分担者、それに研究協力者が行う研究に補助的に参加することを奨励したものであり、研究参加は本人たちの希望によるものである。

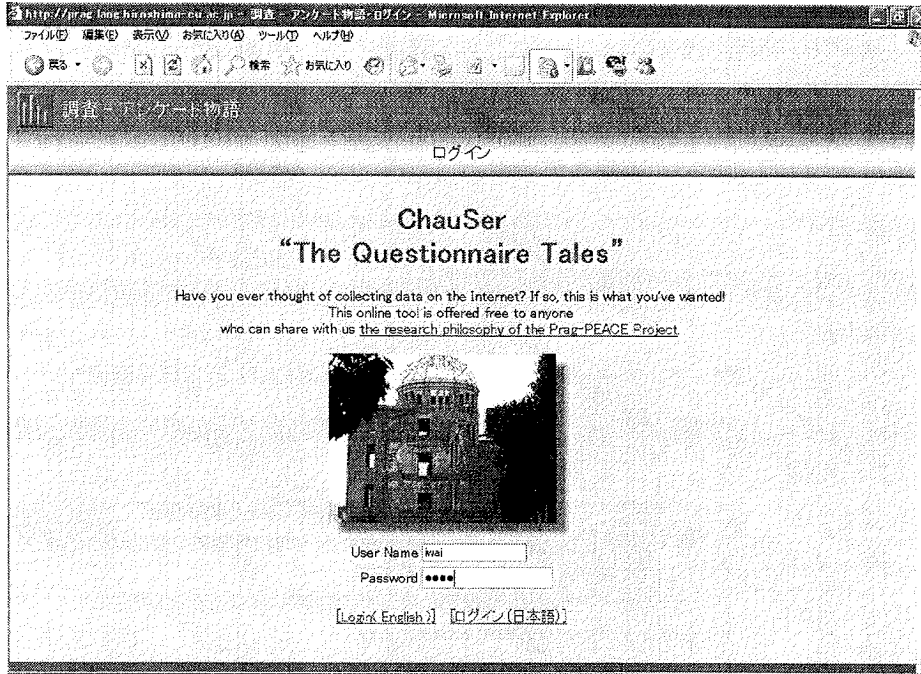
次にこのプロジェクトの名称についてであるが、これは Prag-PEACE Project (PPP) とした。これは Pragmatic Paradise of Easy Access for Communicative English at Hiroshima City University の頭文字を合わせて命名したものである。この名称は、後述する本プロジェクトのウェブサイトで使用、さらに投稿論文などでも紹介している。加えて、プロジェクトが目指す方向、目標を明確にするため、以下のようなモットーに基づいて研究に臨むこととした。

Motto of the Prag-PEACE Project

*If English is going to be a shared property for global village citizens,
equal opportunities to learn and use it should be guaranteed
since any language on this planet is the most superb masterpiece of humankind
with no personal ownership right.
It is a desire for the participants of this joint project to share the research outcomes with
anyone who is hoping to acquire this communication property.*

このモットーは、英語が「国際共通語」として認知されるためには、その学習に公平性が確保されるべきとの代表者たちの主張を取り入れたもので、本研究は非営利を目的とし、少しでも研究成果が本プロジェクトの理想に貢献することを願ったものである。このモットーを念頭に、7 名のメンバーは、初年度から 2 年目の実証データ収集まで再三にわたって勉強会を開き、研究テーマやデータ収集方法などを協議した。このようにして決めた具体的研究テーマについては、事項で詳述する。

図1 ChauSer のトップ画面

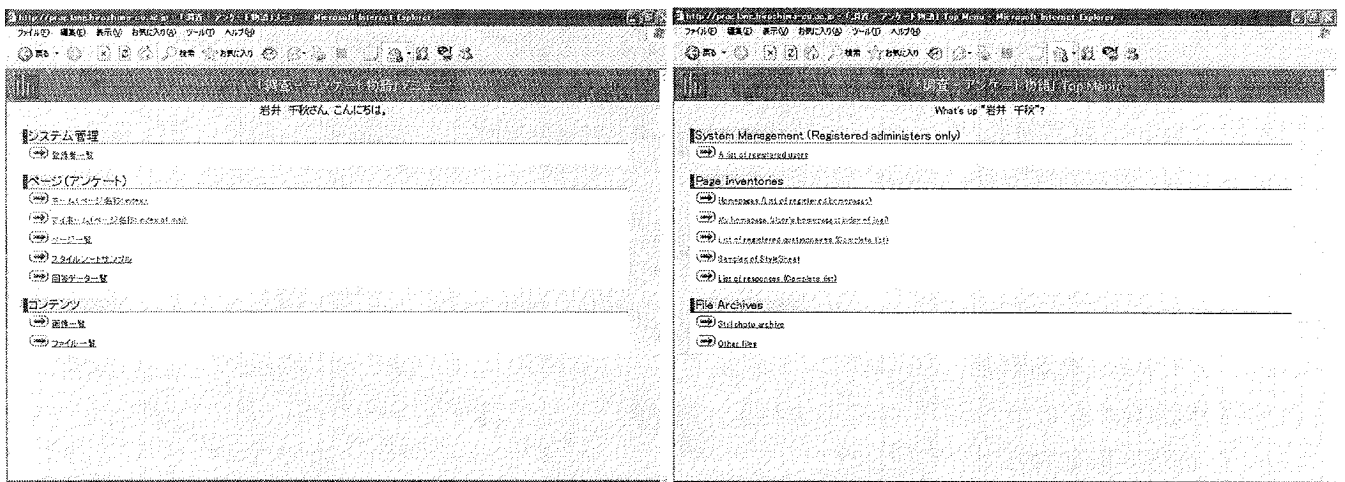


※ChauSer の URL: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/start.do>

1.2 開発サイトの特徴

本研究で開発したサイトは、「調査（ちょうさ）」を文字って“ChauSer”と名づけ、サブタイトルを“The Questionnaire Tale”（「アンケート物語」）とした。図1はChauSerの開始画面である。ChauSerは、研究に必要なアンケートによる調査データをインターネット上で国内、海外の区別なく収集できるようにすることを目的に、本研究の代表者と分担者（横山）が中心となって開発した。アンケートと言っても質問には様々な形式の設問が想定されるので、音声ファイルや画像ファイルをアンケートサイトにリンクさせられるようにした。これにより、例えばある音声ファイルを聴いて、それを評価するといった調査ができるようになっている。また、研究用としてのみの開発では使用が限定されるため、授業等でも使用できるよう様々な工夫を凝らした（詳細は

図2 初期画面 - 日本語(上)と英語(下)による提示



後述)。実際に、すでに 300 を超える調査サイトがすでに作成されており（平成 19 年 3 月現在）、研究代表者や分担者の授業では、小テストや簡単な調査などで頻繁に使用している。各調査サイトの作成は極めて簡単で、授業中に思いついたような質問でも、単純なものであればその場で作成して使うこともある。また、様々な使用者を想定して、日本語と英語の表示を選択できるようにした（図 2）。以下、ChauSer の主な画面と、アンケート作成手順について簡単に触れてみよう。

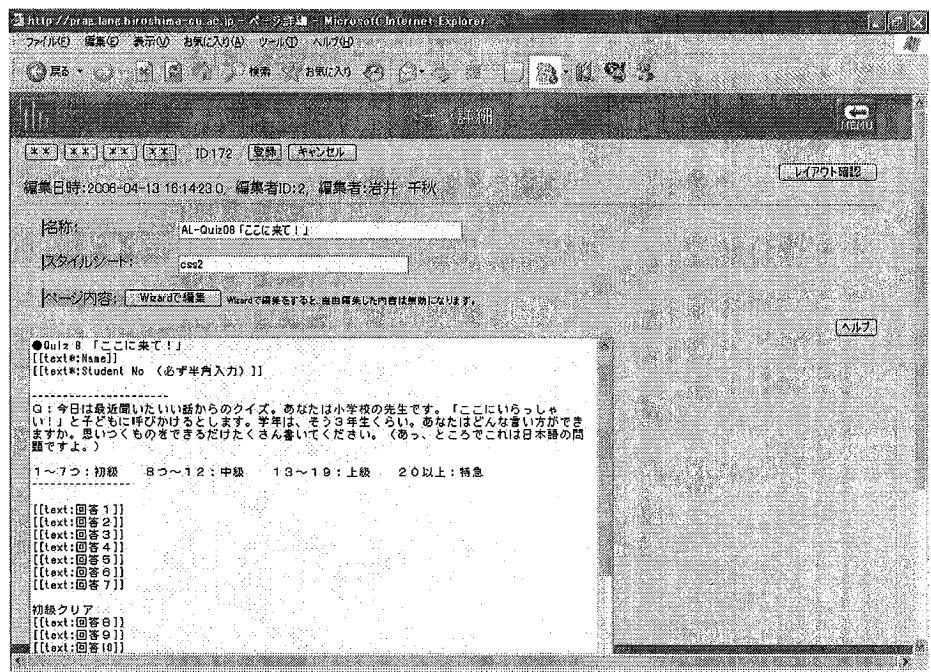
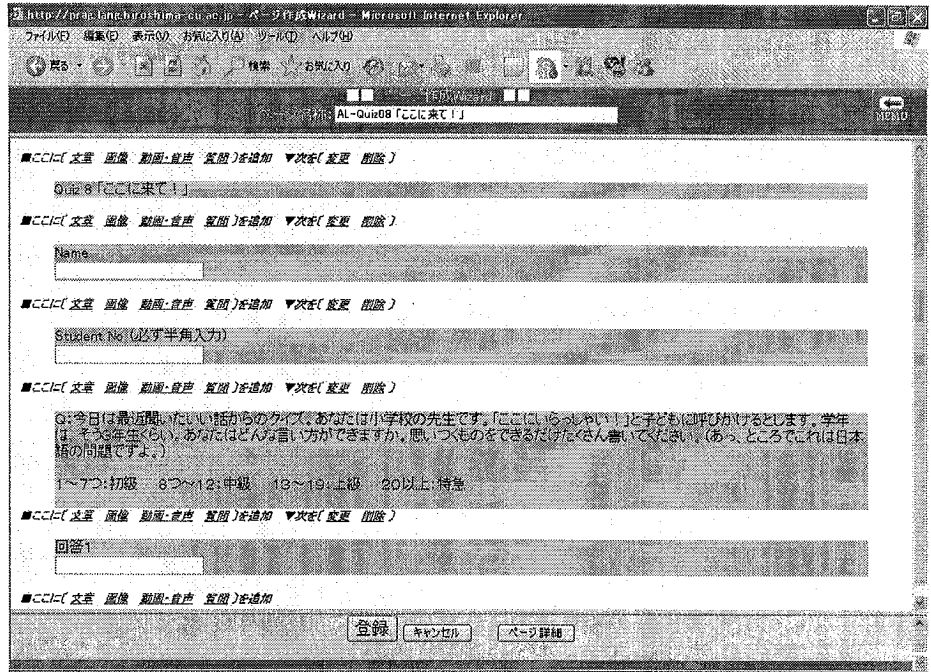
ChauSer の主な特徴

(1) アンケート作成に HTML などの専門知識を要しないこと

本研究参加者のほとんどは、コンピュータやネットワークの専門家ではない。例えそれらにある程度精通していたとしても、一つひとつのアンケート作成に時間を要している、研究や授業に支障が生じかねない。そこで、ChauSer は専門的知識を有しなくても、「ワープロ感覚でアンケートが作れること」を開発条件とした。

この簡潔さを ChauSer では、簡易編集画面（Wizard）と通常編集画面（図 3）の 2 つを準備することで実現した。前者は、ChauSer に不慣れ、あるいはウェブサイト作成に必要な HTML を知らない使用者用の、そして後者はこれらにある程度慣れた使用者用である。「簡易編集」と言っても、通常の見出しや自由記述形式のアンケートはもちろん、画像や音声などを使ったアンケート調査サイトも、表示画面にあまり凝ったものでなければ、作成手順に従って必要事項を選択、または入

図 3 アンケート作成画面 — 簡易編集画面(上)と通常編集画面(下)



力すればただちにアンケート質問紙が作成され、インターネット上で調査が可能になる。文字のみで作成されている図4と画像の入った図5と図6はいずれもこの簡易編集画面によって作成した実際のアンケート画面である。一方、表示に少し工夫を必要とした図7のアンケートは「通常編集画面」で作成した。このアンケートでは音声ファイルも使われている。

図4 簡易編集による作成アンケート(文字のみ)

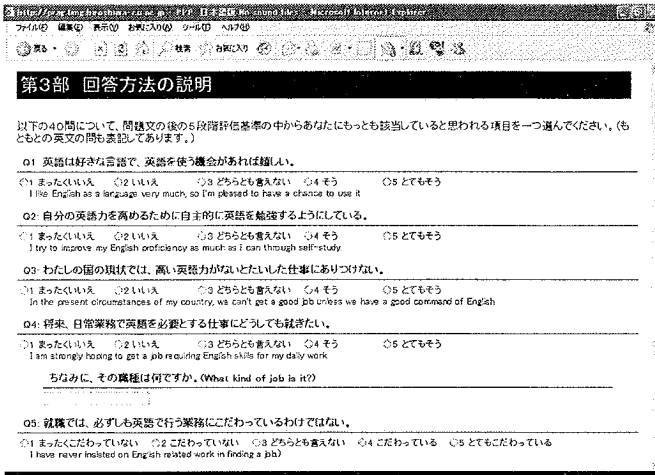


図5 簡易編集による作成アンケート1(画像込み)

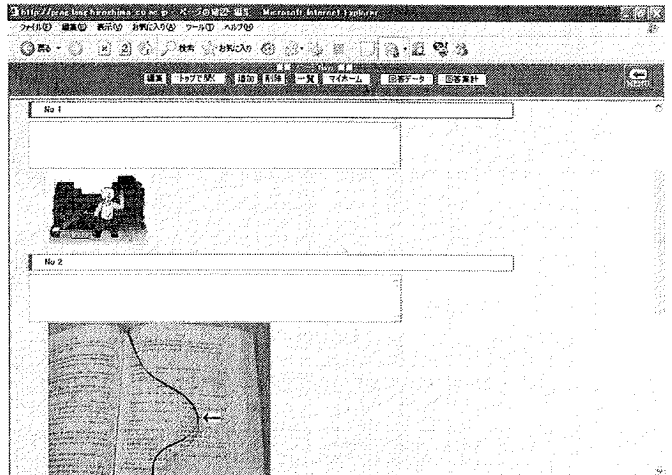


図6 簡易編集による作成アンケート2(画像込み)

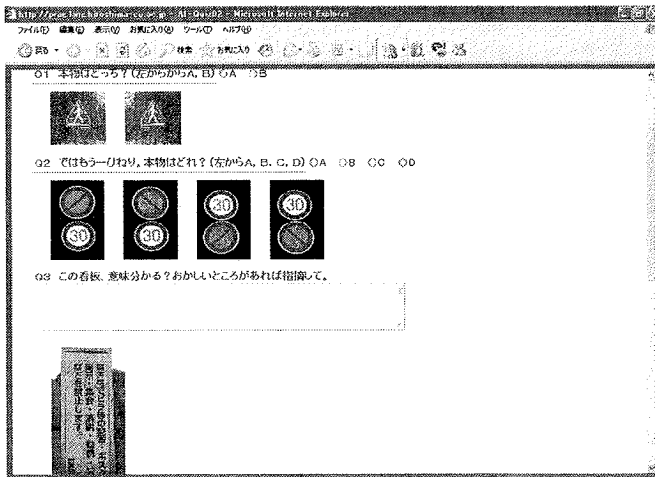
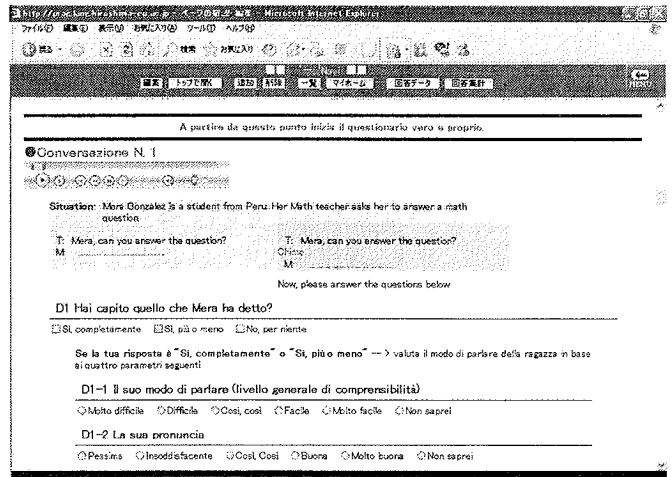


図7 通常編集による作成アンケート(音声ファイル込み)



(2) 収集データの自動処理

インターネット上でデータ収集できるようにしたのは、学外や海外などのアクセスが難しい人たちに対して調査を行うためだけではない。もう一つ主な開発理由は、データ処理を短時間で、正確に行えるようにするためである。特に、記述式設問では、アンケート調査後、入力に長時間を要したり、手書きの回答が読めなかったりと、様々な問題に直面することは多くの研究者が経験するところである。

ChauSer では収集データの集計結果を2つの形式で表示できるようにした。ひとつは、授業等

での使用を想定した「即時集計」形式で、もうひとつは表計算ソフト (EXCEL¹) へのデータ書き出しである。「即時集計」では、選択肢形式の設問であれば図 8 のようなグラフによって結果が示され、記述形式の設問であれば、図 8 の下半分のように、そのまま記述データとして表示される。表計算ソフトへの書き出し (図 9) は、さらに詳しいデータ処理を必要とする場合のために、統計処理などを要する場合には、その専用ソフト等にデータを移して分析すればよい。

図 8 「即時集計結果」画面

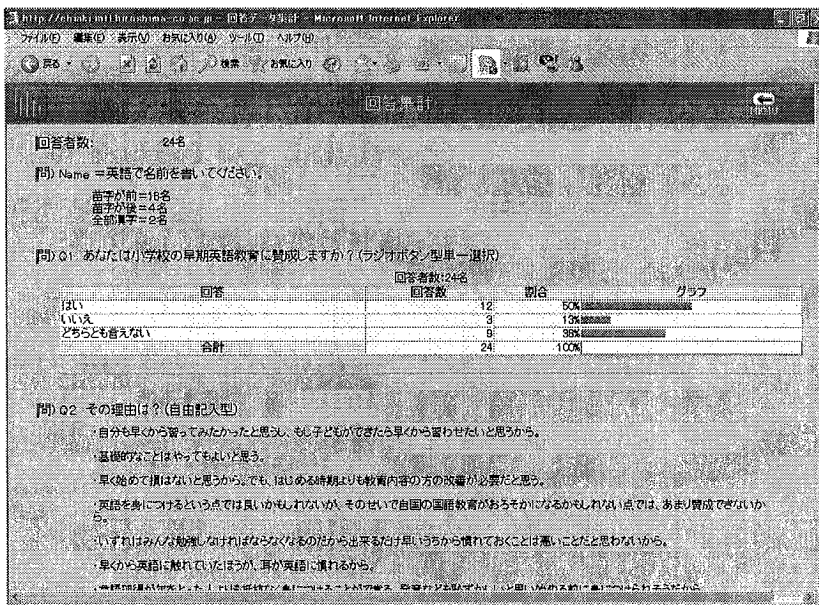
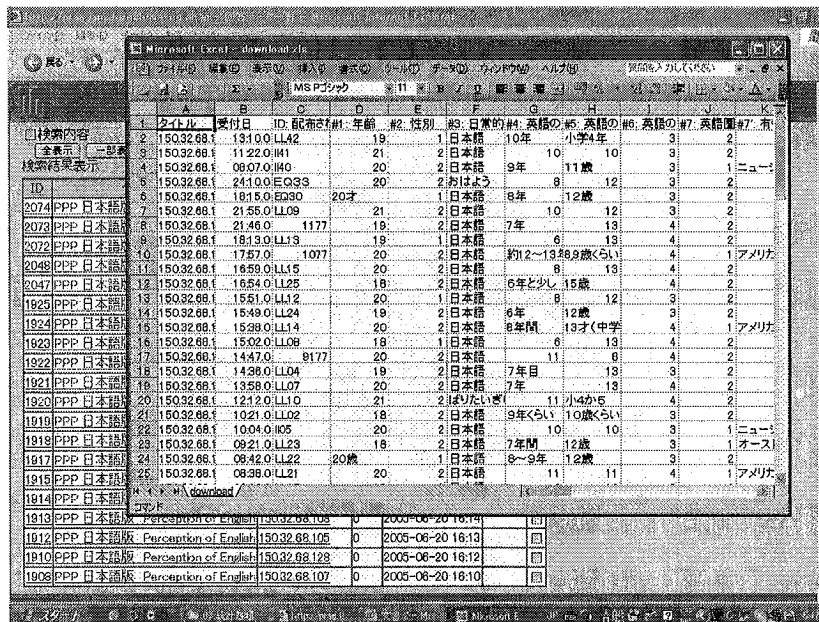


図 9 表計算ソフトへのデータ書き出し画面



3) 言語データコーパスの自動作成 - 「特殊書き込みサイト」の開発

交付申請書には開発サイトの特徴として「言語データコーパスの自動作成」も記述していた。

¹ EXCEL は、米国 Microsoft Corp. が開発したソフトウェア名称です。

しかし、上の(2)に記したとおり、収集データはすべて表計算ソフトに取り込むことが可能である。そのため、わざわざ「言語データコーパスの自動作成」機能を開発サイトそのものに追加する必要はないことが分かった。

そこでこれを開発するかわりに、ChauSerの技術応用が可能な「特殊書き込みサイト」を作成することとし、平成17年度の研究にこれを継続した。最終的な開発サイトは「きんさい」²と名づけた。「きんさい」開発は、後述の「ひろしまを英語で語るための教科書」作成プロジェクトで使用するためであった(詳細は、この後の「2. 2年目の研究」の欄参照)。「きんさい」は通常の手書きサイトからヒントを得て、本研究用に特化した機能を加えてものである。例えば、教科書作成に必要な情報や文章、画像などをこのサイトに個人がアップロードする。その上で、欠けている情報(例えば日本語文に対する英訳やその逆)や間違っている情報(例えば誤訳)を他の参加者が修正できるようになっている。サイトに登録された者であれば、新しい情報の追加や修正は誰でも適宜できるようになっている。上記の教科書作成プロジェクトでは、このサイトを

図10 「きんさい」のトップ画面

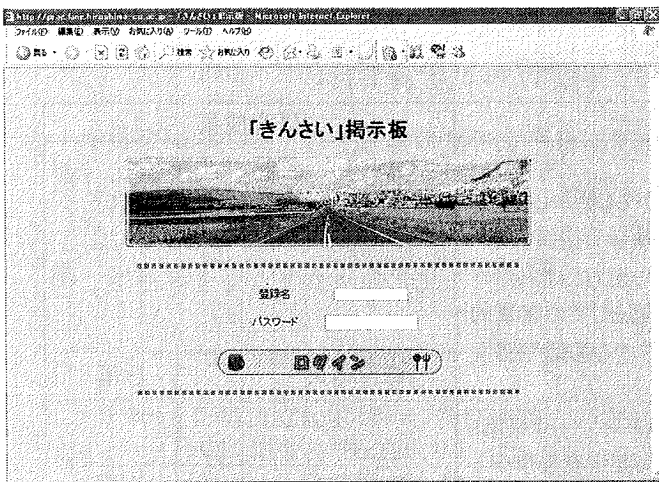


図11 「きんさい」のメニュー画面

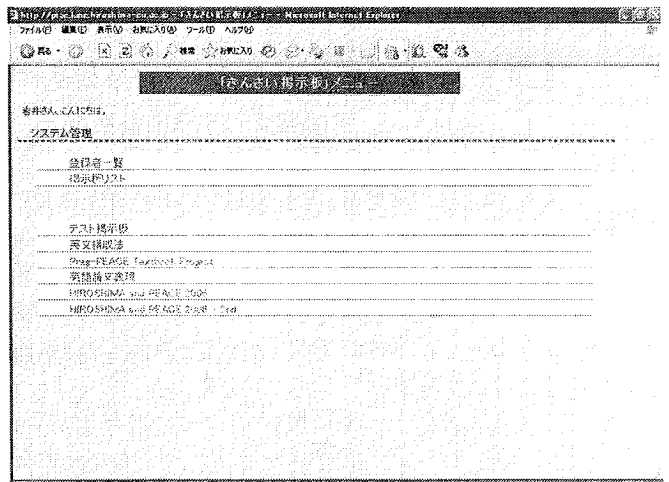


図12 「きんさい」のデータ入力画面

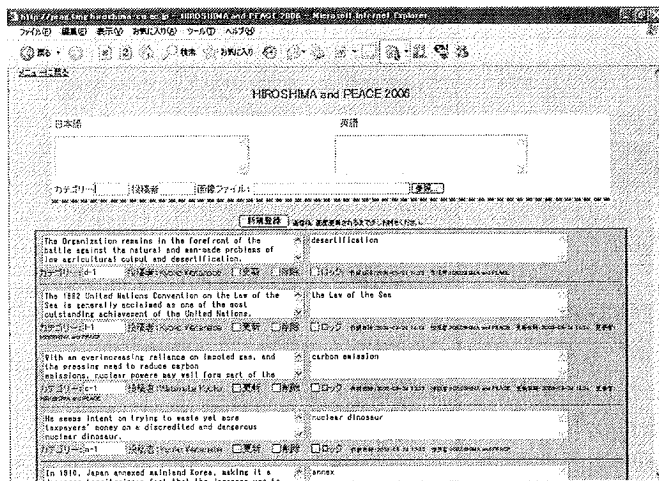
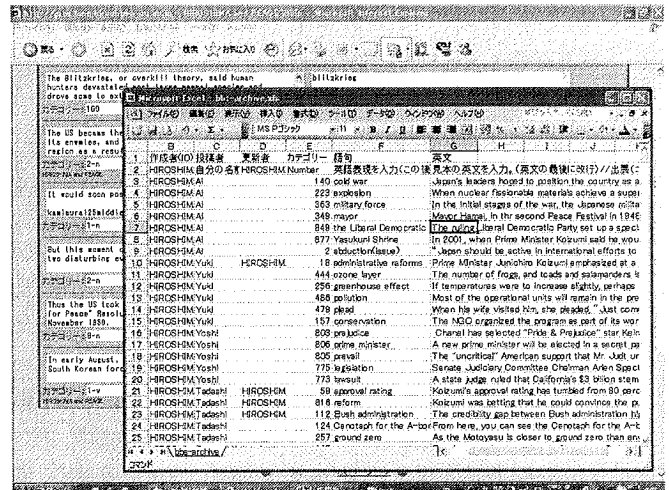
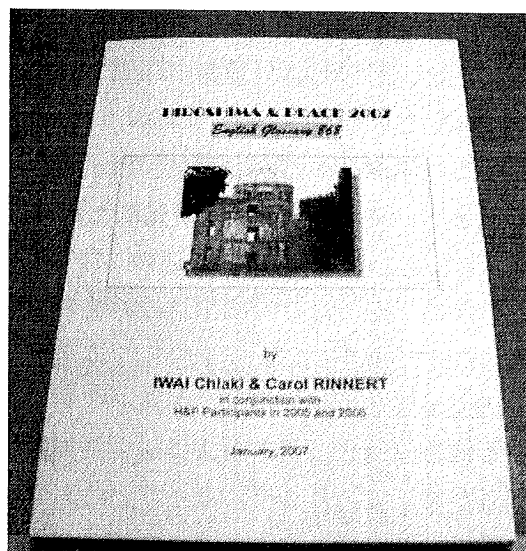


図13 「きんさい」の表計算ソフトへのデータ取り込み



² 「きんさい」は広島弁で「こちらにおいて」の意味である。開発サイトが、多くの学習者が参加して一緒に作業をすることを目的としているため、このように命名した。

使って 1,000 を超える「平和や戦争などに関する」見出し語をある授業³の受講生が収集し、本研究の最終年には 868 の見出し語からなるグロサリー *HIROSHIMA and PEACE English Glossary 868* を作成した。図 10～13 は「きんさい」の主要画面を紹介したものである。ChauSer と同じように、「きんさい」にとって収集された言語データ（書き込み情報）は表計算ソフトによって書き出しができるようになってきている。また、同じ言語項目の書き込みの重複を避けるための工夫も行われている（ただし、この機能は英語のみ）。



HIROSHIMA and PEACE English Glossary 868

2. 平成 17 年度(2年目)の研究 (交付申請書の提出：平成 17 年 4 月 28 日付)

科研費交付申請書記載内容	研究成果
<p>研究の目的</p> <p>本研究は、応用言語学、社会言語学関係の研究者 3 名の特性を活かして、英語学習者の語用論的能力を育成するための学習教材と研究情報を提供するウェブサイト構築することを目的としている。ここで言う語用論的能力とは実際の言語使用に求められる言語能力のことを意味し、国際補助言語としての実質的役割を担っている英語を方略的に使用すること、また英語に対する意識や態度なども含む広義の意味合いとして用いている。</p> <p>この目的を目指して、初年度(H16年度)は、①実証データ(アンケート)収集・自動処理サイトの構築、②国内外の英語学習者を対象とした実証研究の準備とそれに向けた共同研究プロジェクトの発起、③提供教材の作成準備、を行った。本年度は、これらの準備を経て、実証データを収集・分析すること、教材作成を進めていくことを目的とする。研究で得られる結果は、本研究全体のウェブサイト適宜公表していく予定である。</p>	<p>2 年目の研究は、左欄の目的に沿って主に研究データの収集を行った。</p>
<p>本年度(平成18年3月31日まで)の研究実施計画</p> <p>初年度の研究を基に、今年度の具体的な研究テーマを次のように決めた。</p> <p>①英語発話行為の語用論的効果について NS-NNS 対 NNS-NNS インタラクションの比較 (※NS:母語話者、NNS:非母語話者)</p> <p>②非英語圏における英語学習、英語使用に対する国際比較調査</p> <p>③「要求」「不平」の発話行為表現の発話プロセスについて</p> <p>④英語教材作成プロジェクト「地域性(ひろしま)に立脚した発信型英語力を養成するためのテキスト」</p> <p>⑤開発サイトの英語、および英語関連授業への応用と授業の活性化</p> <p>これらのうち、①と②については申請時の計画通り、国内と海外の非英語圏における英語学習者を対象として実証データを収集する。海外の対象は、主に研</p>	<p>①、②について — 広島市立大学提携先などの協力を得て、日本(219名)、中国(314名)、韓国(237名)、イタリア(213名)の計4カ国の大学生から、アンケート法による2つの調査を実施。米国の大学生も予定していたが、調査に必要な許可取得が一時的訪問者には容易ではなかったため、これを断念した。</p> <p>③について — 実証データを収集し、その成果の一部は学会発表を行</p>

³ これは本研究の代表者、分担者が所属する広島市立大学国際学部の代表的プログラム「国際研究特講 HIROSHIMA and PEACE」という英語のみで行われる授業で、毎年夏期に実施されている。同学部の学生 25 名程度と、海外十数カ国からの 30 名程度の学生が参加して、平和関係の講義を受け、討論を行う集中講義形式の授業である。

<p>究者たちの所属する大学と姉妹校関係にある大学で、中国、韓国、イタリア、それに比較目的から英語母語話者(米国)からもデータを集める予定である。なお、本研究の申請時にはドイツハノーバ専科大学を想定していたが、先方大学の学部改組により、本研究に望まれるデータ収集の見込みがなくなかった。これに替えてイタリアを加えることとし、下記研究協力者に協力してもらうこととした。</p> <p>③については、日本人大学生を対象としてデータ収集を行うこととしている。④については、すでに初年度末からプロジェクトを立ち上げている。これには開発中のデータ収集・処理サイト内の機能である共同作業用掲示板を使っている。具体的には「ひろしまを英語で語るためのテキスト」と題する教材を作成中で、本研究の研究者3名だけではなく、院生や学部生などに広く参加を呼びかけ、地域参加型のプロジェクトとして発展させられるようプロジェクトを推進している。5の開発サイトを授業で活用することについては、すでにサイト開発のテスト段階から行っているが、今後はこれを体系的に利用するための方法や具体案を研究する。</p> <p>〔研究協力者〕 広島市立大学・国際学部協力研究員 ザンボルリン・キアラ (ZAMBORLIN Chiara)、イタリアの大学 (University of Venice を予定) におけるデータ収集</p>	<p>った。</p> <p>④について - 開発サイトの一部を利用して、「ひろしまを英語で語るテキスト」作成プロジェクトとして教材作成に取り組み、その一部は広島市立大学国際部専門科目「HIROSHIMA and PEACE」の事前英語研究で使用した。このプロジェクトは18年度も継続して行った。</p> <p>⑤について - データ収集等に必要専用サイトは、すでに16年度に開発を終了した。17年度はこれを上記1、2、3の実証研究のデータ収集にはもちろん、本研究関係者の授業でも頻りに利用して、授業活性化の工夫を行った。その成果についても、すでに論文として発表した。</p>
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一覧表に示したとおり、本研究の2年目にあたる平成17年度は、初年度に開発したサイトを利用して、主に研究データの収集を行い、分析を終えたものから、可能な限り順次学会発表等を行った(詳細は、pp. iii-vの「はしがき」の6参照)。次の一覧表は、上記①、②のデータ収集の日時、場所等をまとめたものである。

国名	大学名など	日 時	回答者数
日本	広島市立大学(市大)及び近隣の男女共学の私立大学	平成17年4月と6月～7月	英語専攻生 $n = 102$ 英語非専攻生 $n = 117$
中国	市大との提携校である西南大学(重慶市)	平成17年11月	英語専攻生 $n = 182$ 英語非専攻生 $n = 123$
韓国	市大との提携校である西京大(ソウル)	平成18年3月	英語専攻生 $n = 126$ 英語非専攻生 $n = 113$
イタリア	University of Padua University of Venice University of Parma	平成17年9月と11月	言語専攻生 $n = 198$

※広島市立大学国際学部生については、学部で英語教育が重視されていることから、英語専攻生の扱いとした。
 ※表中の回答者数は、上の交付申請書表に記載した数字と一致していない箇所がある。これはアンケート回収後に、明らかに有効回答とは見なされない回答があり、それらを取り除いていたためである。

3. 平成18年度(最終年)の研究 (交付申請書の提出：平成18年4月27日付)

研究交付申請書記載内容	研究成果
<p>研究の目的</p> <p>平成18年度は本研究の最終年度であり、本年度は研究全体のとりまとめ、学会等での発表、論文執筆、そして研究報告書の作成を行うこととする。本研究は、初年度(平成16年度)に実証データ(アンケート)収集・自動処理サイトの構築を行い、2年目の昨年(平成17年度)はこのサイトを利用してのデータ収集を行うなど、以下の実施計画に記載している5項目からなるプロジェクトを実施し</p>	<p>3年継続研究の最終年にあたり、左欄に記載した目標に沿って、学会での口頭発表や論文投稿に努めた。</p>

<p>た。それぞれ担当責任者を割り当てて実施したので、その担当者を中心に口頭発表、論文発表を行い、さらに最終報告書を纏めることとする。</p>	
<p>本年度(平成19年3月31日まで)の研究実施計画</p> <p>本研究では実証データ収集サイトを開発し、それを利用して主に次の5つからなる共同プロジェクトを立ち上げた。</p> <p>①英語発話行為の語用論的効果について NS-NNS 対 NNS-NNS インタラクションの比較 (※NS:母語話者、NNS:非母語話者)</p> <p>②非英語圏における英語学習、英語使用に対する国際比較調査</p> <p>③「要求」「不平」の発話行為表現の発話プロセスについて</p> <p>④英語教材作成プロジェクト「地域性(ひろしま)に立脚した発信型英語力を養成するためのテキスト」</p> <p>⑤開発サイトの英語、および英語関連授業への応用と授業の活性化</p> <p>これらの研究から得られた結果は多岐に渡っており、ひとつの学会や論文でそれらを網羅することはできないため、複数の学会での口頭発表や論文によって公表することにしている。これらのうち、4番以外の4つのプロジェクトについては、すでに国内外の学会発表に向けて準備を行っている。すでに申請を受理された発表 (3は申請中)は次の通りである:</p> <p>1)①②③⑤ JALT PanSIG 2006 での共同シンポジウムでの発表(5月)</p> <p>2)③ PacSLRF 2006(7月)</p> <p>3)① 2006 ASIA TEFL International Conference (8月)</p> <p>4)①② JACET the 45th Convention (9月)</p> <p>④については、学会等の発表は行わないが、完成教材を学習者(広島市立大学国際学部の専門科目「国際研究特講 HIROSHIMA and PEACE」受講生)に提供できるよう製本し、将来的に利用できるようにすることとしている。</p> <p>最後に、研究報告書の作成は本年度 10 月頃に着手し、平成 19 年1月下旬から2月上旬に入稿し、3月上旬には製本を終える計画である。</p>	<p>交付申請書に記載した研究実施計画を滞りなく、遂行した。</p> <p>学会発表について</p> <p>1)は代表者(岩井)、分担者2名、それに研究協力者、参加大学院生1名の計5名でシンポジウムを行った。</p> <p>2)は分担者(リナート)が発表を行った。</p> <p>3)と4)は代表者が発表を行った。</p> <p>④については、平成19年1月に装丁を完了し、教材作成を終えた。</p> <p>⑤については、本研究で開発したデータ収集サイトを継続して授業等で使用している。</p>

上表の通り、平成 18 年度の最終年は、主に収集データの分析、成果発表、論文執筆を行った。学会での口頭発表と学会誌等へ投稿した論文については、本報告書の「はしがき」の(6)研究発表の箇所に詳細を記したので、そちらを参照してもらいたい。

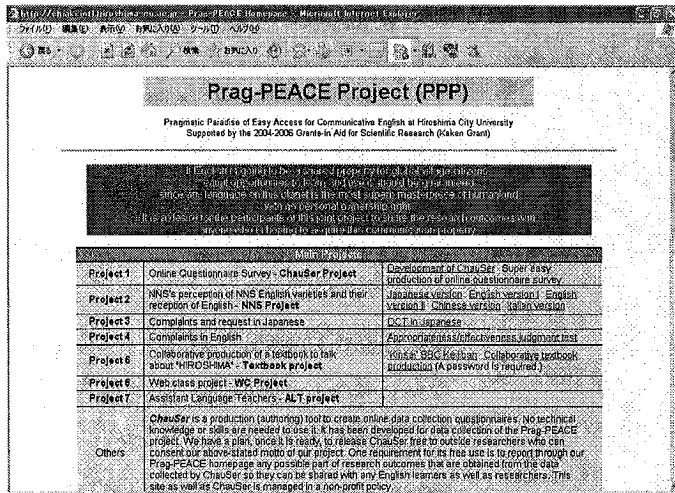
これらとは別に、本研究で得られた研究成果と本研究で開発した ChauSer と「きんさい」については、研究成果専用のホームページを開設して、これらを公表している。⁴ 以下は、このサイトについての情報である。

現在までに2つのページを立ち上げている。図 14 の左側は研究代表者が作成した臨時のサイトである。右側は分担者の一人が作成したサイトで、パスワード管理等できるようになっており、こちらを Prag-PEACE 全体のトップページとしている。両方ともリンクされているため、得られる情報は、実質的には両サイトで異なるものではない。

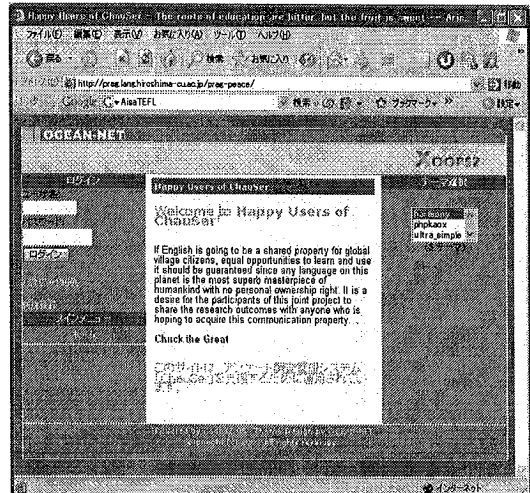
臨時サイトの方には、Prag-PEACE で行った研究テーマのほか、研究から得られた成果や学会発表の情報をほぼ満載している。また、ChauSer で作成した実証データ収集用のアンケートはすべ

⁴ ただし、ChauSer と「きんさい」は、パスワード管理しており、トップページは誰でも閲覧できるものの、そこからはユーザ名とパスワードが必要である。これらのサイトへの登録は無条件で行っているわけではなく、研究用途で、かつ Prag-PEACE のモットーに則って、研究成果の一部をこのサイトで紹介してもらうことを登録の条件としている。このようにすることで、研究者や学習者に無償で研究成果を伝え、学習に活かしてもらいたいというのが、Prag-PEACE プロジェクトメンバーの願いである。

図14 Prag-PEACEのホームページ



URL: <http://chiaki.intl.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/Prag-PEACE/index.html>



<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/prag-peace/>

てこのサイトにリンクして開示している。研究成果については、平成18年度の後半に発表したものは、一部リンクされていないものもあるが（本報告書作成現在）、最終的にはすべての関係ファイルをPDFファイル等にしてリンクさせる予定である。

4. 今後の研究の展開に関する計画

3年間の研究から実に多くの成果が得られ、また今後の研究に発展させたい新たな研究課題も出てきた。何にも増して、ChauSerや「きんさい」といった研究ツールが研究副産物として手元に残ったことの意味は計り知れない。インターネットの発達、データ収集という観点からも学術研究にとっては革命的だと言えよう。とりわけ、本研究参加者のように、英語を対象とする言語研究では、広く海外の英語学習者や英語教師などから研究データを集めなくてはならないことは決して稀ではない。ネット上で音声や画像も容易に送信できるようになったことも、研究者にとっては朗報で、今後は本研究で行ったようなデータ収集がますます盛んになるだろう。開発ツールは今後も継続して使いたいし、さらにバージョンアップして使いやすさや実用性を追求したいと考えている。

こうした実用面での副産物はさておき、本研究を今後は次のように発展させる予定である。

- ① 語用論的能力養成に向けた中・上級英語学習者の発話指導とタスクの開発
- ② 「英語でひろしまを語るテキスト」作成プロジェクトの継続
- ③ Prag-PEACE ホームページの充実・発展

本研究の中心的課題は英語学習者の語用論的能力を育成するのに必要な教育的要因を探索することであった。言うまでもなく、これは本研究だけをもって完結できるほど単純な課題ではない。しかし、異なる環境で英語を学習しているEFL (English as a foreign language) 学習者間の比較や、日本語話者－英語母語話者間の特定発話行為 (complaints) の研究からは多くの教育的示唆が得られた。本研究が基本的に応用言語学研究の一貫として行われたことを考えると、今後はこれらの研究成果を実際の授業や外国語指導にどのように活かしていくかが重要だと考えている。実際、その応用研究に向けて、平成19～21年度の3年間で想定した次の科学研究費にすでに申請を行い、現在その審査結果を待っているところである。

応用研究で特に力点をおきたいと考えているのが、中・上級英語学習者を対象としたコミュニケーション方略（岩井）や語用論的方略（リナート）を助長するための指導方法を工夫することと、指導に不可欠な具体的タスクの開発である。これらは、学習者を対象とした実証研究を伴うが、授業実践の場として、上でも触れた（注 3 参照）広島市立大学国際学部で行われている HIROSHIMA and PEACE (H&P) と英語討論技法の 2 つの授業を予定している。特に、前者の受講生は英語で討論できる高度な英語力を求められており、日本人参加者の英語力は平均的大学生のそれをかなり上回っている。それでも、海外からの受講生を交えて行われる本番の H&P では、日本人参加学生の英語力不足は否めず、とりわけ英語使用能力という観点からするとまだ相当に訓練する必要があることは疑いようがない。本研究代表者たちは、H&P の事前英語トレーニングプログラ（Preliminary English Training Program, PET Program）を過去 3 年にわたって実施しており、今回の科学研究の成果や、次に予定している研究の成果はこうした授業に活かしていく予定である。

次に、本研究では、科研申請時（平成 15 年 11 月）には想定していなかった内容を、平成 17 年の交付申請書で一つ追加した。それが上述の英語グロサリーの作成である。これは代表者が「英語でひろしまを語るテキスト」プロジェクトと称して、自身の学部専門演習（ゼミ）等で取り組んでいる課題でもある。ChauSer のプログラマーに相談したところ、これの開発に要した技術を少し応用すれば協同作業書き込みサイト作成ができるということで、追加で作成を依頼した。このテキスト作成プロジェクトも H&P に直接関係するものであるが、装丁を終えた小冊子は平成 19 年度 PET Program 用教材として使用することにしている。さらに、このプロジェクトは、この小冊子 1 冊をもって完了するものではなく、今後も大いに発展させていきたいと考えている。教材作成に拘る理由は 2 つあって、ひとつは Prag-PEACE のモットーでも述べたように、外国語学習、とりわけ英語学習に関係する研究者や英語学習者はお互いに知り得た学習に関する知識や方法を共有すべきだとする筆者らの信念に基づくものである。もう一つの理由は、教材作成のプロセスには多くの学習要素が含まれており、教材を作成してその利益を最も享受するのは学習者ではなく、教材作成者だと思われることである。実際、*H&P English Glossary 868* 作成に向けて、PET Program 参加者は平和や戦争などに関する文献、ウェブサイト、あるいは広島市の刊行物などを渉猟した。このプロセスそのものを学習と見なすことができるだろうし、こうした学習活動が教材作成という具体的目標設定になるのであれば、これを外国語学習に取り入れられない手はないだろう。「外国語学習用教科書作成は教師がすべきではない」という「逆転の発想」は本研究代表者が今後追及してみたい研究テーマのひとつでもある。

最後に、上の③についてであるが、これは本研究の最終目標である「語用論的能力育成に関する多元的情報サイトの構築」そのものである。本研究で作ったサイトは、データ収集用のサイト 2 つ（上記の ChauSer と「きんさい」と研究成果公表用のサイトである。インターネットを使った技術は、今後も姿形を変え、言語や外国語学習研究ツールとしてもその威力を発揮することであろう。本研究の取り組みは、可能な技術の一部を応用したに過ぎないが、今後とも研究の必要に応じてこうしたサイトを充実させていきたいと考えている。このように考えると、この③についても本研究は極めて探索的であったし、この手探りを今後も是非続けていきたいと考えている。

Digest of Chapter 1

This chapter will report the main outcomes of the three-year *Kaken* Grant research project according to the pre-reported contents in the Grant application forms submitted at the beginning of each fiscal year. Originally, three researchers were involved in its application: Chiaki IWAI (Professor, Faculty of International studies, Hiroshima City University) as a research coordinator, and Carol RINNERT and Tomoyuki YOKOYAMA (both professors of the same affiliation as IWAI) as research collaborators. Later, four more researchers joined the project, including one researcher from an outside university and three graduate students in the doctoral program at Hiroshima City University (HCU). The entire project has been referred to as the “Prag-PEACE” project from an acronym of Pragmatic Paradise of Easy Access for Communicative English at Hiroshima City University.

The ultimate goal of the Prag-PEACE project was to produce a website through which we can deliver any kinds of information related to pragmatic competence necessary for English learners and share them with other researchers as well as learners. It also aimed at creating a data collection website – a research tool to make questionnaires and conduct them on the Internet.

In this chapter, research plans of each year will be reviewed ; then, they will be assessed regarding to what extent they have been achieved.

First Year (2004)

Research plans for the year

1. Construction of a data collection site on the website
2. Organization of a research project team and preparation for empirical data collection in the year 2005

Outcomes

With respect to the first plan, an entire year was spent to construct the site. Meetings were repeatedly held among two researchers of this study (Iwai and Yokoyama) and a programmer. The produced site was named “ChauSer – The Questionnaire Tale” (see Figure 1 in the above Japanese description showing its top page), where its name ChauSer derived from a phonologically associated Japanese word “choosa” (which literally means “examination” or “investigation”).⁵ The produced site was tested over and over in the classes where the researchers were teaching, and its production was completed by the end of the year 2004.

Next, as stated at the beginning of this abstract, a project team with seven members was organized in the first year. The members assembled from time to time and brainstormed how each one of them would be involved in this project. Consequently, five research topics were determined at the beginning of the second year (see their description below).⁶

⁵ The URL information for the ChauSer site and other sites is summarized at the end of this abstract.

⁶ Actually, there were six topics determined at first. One of them related to assistant language teachers

Second Year (2005)

Research plans of the year
 Partially using the developed data collection site, the team would engage in the following five research proposals:

1. Pragmatic effects of English utterances in different types of NS and NNS interactions,
2. Perception of English by EFL learners in different learning contexts
3. Utterance processes in speech acts of 'request' and 'complaint'
4. Production of an English textbook, which is part of a Textbook Production Project to "Talk about Hiroshima", and
5. Pedagogical application of the developed website ChauSer in English classes and other related classes

Outcomes

The main objective of the second year in this project was to collect empirical data that were needed to achieve the purpose of the entire project. Thus, questionnaire surveys were conducted for Topics 1, 2, and 3. Of these, data for Topic 3 were collected domestically, with its targets being Japanese college English learners (students at HCU) and native English teachers and/or English teachers with near-native fluency. Those English teachers were invited to participate in a questionnaire survey through a mailing list of an academic organization (JALT).⁷ With respect to Topics 1 and 2, meanwhile, cross cultural data collection was required, so surveys were carried out in four different countries, including Japan. The following table summarizes the data collection in these countries:⁸

Country	Universities	Date	Number of respondents
Japan	Hiroshima City University and a private university in its vicinity	April, June-July, 2005	EM n = 102 NEM n = 117
China	Southwest University, Chongqing	November, 2005	EM n = 182 NEM n = 123
Korea	Seokyeong University, Seoul	March, 2006	EM n = 126 NEM n = 113
Italy	University of Padua University of Venice University of Parma	September and November, 2005	LM n = 198

N.B.: EM = English major (or English-emphasized), NEM = Non-English majors, LM = language majors

(ALTs) was, however, abandoned later due to the extreme difficulty of running six different projects at the same time.

⁷ See Paper 2 in Chapter 2 for the details of the questionnaire survey of Topic 3.

⁸ The researchers of this Kaken research project deeply appreciate the assistance of those who generously welcomed us to conduct data collection at each one of these universities. Our acknowledging comments are presented on p. vii.

No empirical data collection was involved for Topics 4 and 5. Topic 5 was newly added to this Kaken project since it was found through the process of the ChauSer production that a web-bulletin board could be produced easily by applying the programming technology used for ChauSer. This bulletin board, which was named “Kinsai” from a Hiroshima dialect meaning “Come and join us”, can be used for collaborative activities among English learners to collect English expressions, share them with other learners, and revise them once they find any missing or wrong information. Using this site, two researchers of this project (Iwai and Rinnert) produced an English glossary (*HIROSHIMA and PEACE English Glossary 868*) in conjunction with students who took part in a special intensive program offered at the Faculty of International Studies at HCU.⁹ This glossary is to be used in a preliminary English training program offered to HCU participants in the next year’s program.

Finally, Topic 5 is concerned with a pedagogical application of ChauSer. The developed data collection site allows us to produce questionnaire survey forms easily with no special knowledge or skill requirement. The site has been used in researchers’ classes at HCU, and by now more than 300 survey forms have been created. They are used not only for research purposes but also for ordinary class activities such as quizzes, attendance check, and Question/Answer activities.

The data collection and other plans were successfully completed within the year 2005. The obtained data were submitted to analyses as soon as they were collected, and these analyses were carried over to the final year of the project.

Final Year (2006)

Research plans of the year

The third, final year was mainly dedicated to the presentation of research outcomes. Research outcomes of the project topics listed above in the section of the second year were presented at the following conferences:

Topic 1, 2, 3, 5: Symposium at JALT (Japan Association of Language Teachers) Pan SIG Conference 2006, Tokai University

Topic 3: The 5th Pacific Second Language Research Forum (PacSLRF) 2006, The University of Queensland, St. Lucia Campus, Australia

Topic 1: 2006 AsiaTEFL, Seinan Gakuin University

Topic 1, 2: JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers) 45th Annual Convention, Kansai Gaidai University

⁹ The name of the program is HIROSHIMA and PEACE (H&P), which is held intensively in the summer time at HCU. Participants consist of HCU students and overseas students from more than 10 countries. The program lasts for about two weeks, during which the participants take two or three lectures every day and engage in several discussion sessions. The first program was held in 2003, and it has been held every year since then. The popularity of the program is soaring year after year, and there are more than 60 applicants from foreign countries. Due to the capacity of the program itself, less than half of them can now be accepted.

Outcomes

Five members of this project (Iwai, Rinnert, Yokoyama, Zamborlin, and Nogami) were invited to a featured symposium of the JALT PanSIG conference. Each one of the members presented his/her own share of the entire study. The papers presented at the conference were revised later and accepted for its proceedings (see Paper 1 and Paper 2 in Chapter 1 for these papers).

In addition to this symposium, the coordinator of this Kaken project (Iwai) presented partial outcomes of the entire project at 2006 AsiaTEFL and at the 45th JACET annual convention, and one of the members (Rinnert) presented her study at the 5th PacSLRF conference.

Additionally, part of the research outcomes were presented either orally or as research papers in the years 2005 and 2006. They are summarized in Section (6) of Preface on pp. iii-v of this report. Of these, seven papers are compiled in Chapter 2, and additionally some results of Topic 1, 2, and 3 that have not been published as papers yet are summarized in Chapter 4.

Website information of this project¹⁰

The following are URLs of the websites of the Prag-PEACE project:

Prag-PEACE Homepage (Open to the public)

<http://chiaki.intl.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/Prag-PEACE/index.html>

<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/prag-peace/>

ChauSer site (A password is required.)

<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/start.do>

Kinsai site (A password is required.)

<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/kinsai/home/login.do>

¹⁰ To protect the site from unknown outsiders' free access, a user name and a password are required to get into ChauSer and Kinsai sites. However, the sites are open to any researchers interested in them since they were developed for non-profit purposes. Those who are interested in them, please contact the coordinator of this project at iwai@intl.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp. New users will be registered once they agree to accept the usage principles of these sites, that is, to offer part of the outcomes from a study or studies so that they can be shared for nothing with other language researchers, practitioners, and/or learners.

Chapter 2: Research Papers

Paper 1: Toward Dynamic Intercultural Pragmatics for English as an International Language

Iwai, C., Rinnert, C., Yokoyama, T., Zamborlin, C., & Nogami, Y.

Paper 2: Preferred Complaint Strategies in Japanese and English

Rinnert, C., Nogami, Y., & Iwai, C.

Paper 3: NNSs' Attention to Grammatical and Pragmatic Features

Iwai, C., Sato, J., Rinnert, C., Zamborlin, C., Kawamura, M., & Nogami, Y.

Paper 4: Learners' Pragmatic Awareness of Softener Use

Nogami, Y.

Paper 5: Listening dissonances: Educational pragmatics for intercultural communication

Zamborlin, C.

Paper 6: Content Management System (CMS) と Questionnaire Management System (QMS) との関係

横山 知幸 (Yokoyama, T.)

Paper 7: 具体的使用目的を設定した英語学習機会の提供－広島市立大学夏期集中講座 (Summer Intensive Program) HIROSHIMA and PEACE を事例として

岩井 千秋、リナート キャロル (Iwai, C., & Rinnert, C.)

Toward Dynamic Intercultural Pragmatics for English as an International Language*¹

Chiaki IWAI (Hiroshima City University)

Carol RINNERT (Hiroshima City University)

Tomoyuki YOKOYAMA (Hiroshima City University)

Chiara ZAMBORLIN (Nagoya University of Arts)

Yoko NOGAMI (Graduate student, Hiroshima City University)

Key Words:

Intercultural pragmatics, English as an international language, pragmatic competence

キーワード

異文化間語用論、国際語としての英語、語用論的能力

Introduction

This paper summarizes five related studies presented at the invited pragmatics colloquium during the JALT 2006 Pan SIG Conference held at Tokai University Shimizu Campus. These studies were conducted by the researchers listed below, who worked together in a collaborative research project named Prag-PEACE (see Appendix for web site information on this project). The main objective of this project was to seek necessary and ideal conditions to promote intercultural pragmatics for pedagogical purposes.

Three practical proposals discussed at the colloquium by integrating these five studies provided future research objectives and directions in studies of pragmatics. These proposals are stated first in this paper. Summaries of the five studies follow, and then rationales for the proposals are mentioned at the end. The main focus of the colloquium was primarily methodological and pedagogical, rather than theoretical; furthermore, the findings presented by the members of this project are considered exploratory instead of confirmatory or conclusive.

Three proposals

Following are the three proposals underlying the five studies:

- 1) Researchers of intercultural pragmatics should develop and share useful and practical data collection methods that allow them to facilitate studies across different contexts of language learning and use.

* The original draft of this paper was presented at the 2006 JALT PanSIG Conference held at Tokai University on May 14, 2006. The revised paper was accepted later and published in its proceedings.

- 2) A refined theoretical framework that can account for pragmatic problems of both non-native speakers (NNSs) and native speakers (NSs) equally should be established.
- 3) It is necessary to incorporate research findings from different types of English user interactions (e.g., NS-NNS interactions and NNS-NNS interactions) and investigate dynamically how one type of interaction can be extended to other types.

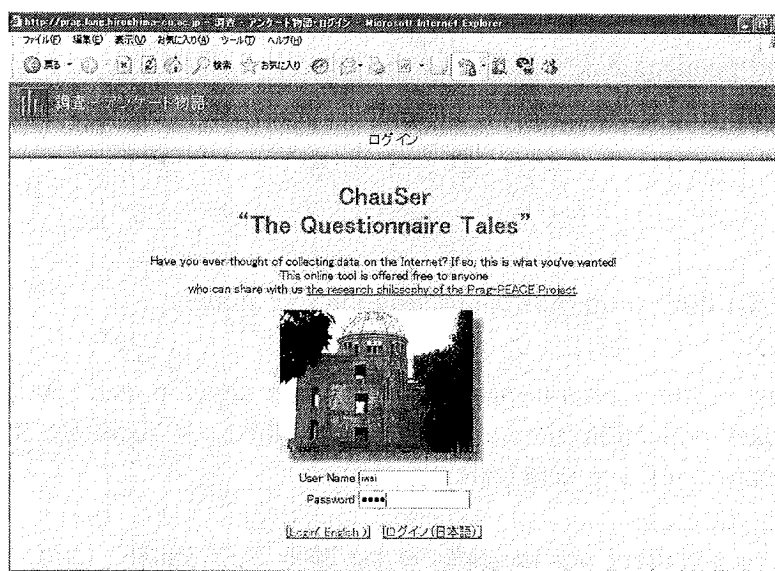
Of the five studies reported in the next section, the first study (Study 1) directly addresses the first proposal. Study 2 deals with a theoretical issue related to the second proposal. Finally, concrete empirical studies (Studies 3, 4, and 5) relate to the third proposal. The newly developed data collection tool reported in Study 1 was utilized in these empirical studies.

Study 1 (Tomoyuki YOKOYAMA)

A Methodological Proposal – A Questionnaire Management System Called ChauSer and Some Free Tools for Data Analysis and Collaboration

Research in pragmatic aspects of language requires linguistic data and tools for analyzing them, but many of the programs and services for data collection and data analysis seem to have been insufficient for linguistic purposes or too expensive to employ as an individual user. To solve these problems, this study proposed a coordinated way of using a newly developed questionnaire management system called ChauSer (Figure 1) and two useful free systems available on the Internet – R and XOOPS Cube (see References for more about these systems). R is a tool for statistical analysis which can work either as an application on a local computer or as an Internet Web service. XOOPS Cube is one of the most well-known and widely used

Figure 1: ChauSer's login page



content management systems, and it allows the users to create a dynamic community website for collaboration.

Of these three, ChauSer is an original product of the Prag-PEACE project, and it enables users to make up Web-based questionnaires using a simple wizard, which is an interactive computer program that uses step-by-step dialogs. Even audio and video files can easily be uploaded and utilized as part of a questionnaire. Skilled users can also employ an HTML tag writing subsystem with an editor-like interface to make more elaborate pages.

Study 2 (Chiara ZAMBORLIN)

A Theoretical Framework – Cross-cultural Pragmatic *Dissonances*: Going beyond Bi-dimensional Transfers

The second study discussed the notion of pragmatic '*dissonance*' (Zamborlin, 2004), subsuming in the concept any occurrence of grammatically correct but pragmatically inappropriate verbal behavior, resulting from speakers' lack of awareness. *Dissonances* are therefore marked forms of behavior, and being such, seldom go unnoticed. They are very likely to occur in intercultural encounters and the exploration of their possible causes and effects can help us to understand the reasons why foreigners sometimes sound strange to NSs of a target language/culture in which some communicative effort takes place. This exploration can enable researchers to comprehend the causes of numerous stereotypes that the natives of a language/culture may attach to people coming from different languages/cultures who, despite the grammaticality of their utterances, may act according to different speech styles. The notion of *dissonance* can also be regarded as an ample container embracing a large variety of instances of miscommunication stemming from pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic causes, as well as from divergences in the mental frames of the participants.

The data examined in this study consisted of utterances extracted from authentic discourse and produced in actual situations by NNSs interacting in English or in Japanese. The study aimed to show that *dissonances* often result from different overlapping categories of transfers (e.g., pragma-linguistic, socio-pragmatic, encyclopedic) and involve more than one pragmatic domain at the same time (e.g., illocution, style, discourse). This analysis, moreover, can be considered as a reexamination and an expansion of Thomas' (1983) notion of '*cross-cultural pragmatic failure*'.

This study also argued that the distinction Thomas (1983) introduced between *pragma-linguistic* and *socio-pragmatic* failures may be too narrow. In fact, failures stemming from pragma-linguistic causes (such as infelicitous selection of lexical forms, erroneous socio-linguistic encodings, and wrong selection of terms of address) can easily convey the impression of being failures of a socio-pragmatic nature originating from cross-culturally different assessments of interpersonal parameters. The analysis of the examples that were examined in this study show that this is not always the case and that a broader, more dynamic criterion for classifying failures often needs to be adopted.

The study, finally, aimed at illustrating how the effects *dissonances* can bring about are

context-bound and quite at the mercy of hearers' tolerance: depending on the situation, the feelings that a *dissonance* can produce on the audience are unpredictable and assessable only along a very flexible scale of markedness. In fact, they can range quite erratically from a sense of irritation and disapproval to a sense of hilarity, that is to say, from negatively to positively marked effects, emotionally speaking.

Three Empirical Studies

Study 3 (Carol RINNERT) – Learning to Complain: Development of Awareness of English Pragmatic Strategies among Japanese EFL Students

This study aimed to (1) determine what English complaint strategies are perceived as most appropriate and effective by Japanese English as a foreign language (JEFL) learners at an intermediate proficiency level, (2) compare their perceptions with previously collected data from native and fluent non-native English speakers (NFES), and (3) determine which strategies might prove to be most problematic for these learners. A full account of this study is given in the paper by Rinnert et al. in this PanSIG proceedings volume.

Study 4 (Yoko NOGAMI) – Complaining Softly in Japanese and English

This study is a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic analysis of softeners which appeared in Japanese and English complaints. Complaining to an interlocutor can be face-threatening. In such perilous interactions, a speaker may want to mitigate the force of the speech act by using softeners. Softening speakers' utterances can be regarded as being a universal linguistic feature because of the nature of 'negative politeness' (Brown and Levinson, 1987). This study aimed to explore English softeners used by English NSs and Japanese EFL students, and Japanese softeners used by Japanese NSs collected from complaint discourse completion tests (DCT). The data were collected for two situations (the same situations as those in Study 3 above) which students may possibly encounter through their college years: (1) complaining to a professor who made an apparent error in grading (Professor situation); (2) complaining to a roommate who repeatedly made noise late at night (Friend situation).

The L1 and L2 English complaints were part of the data which were collected in 1996 ($N=100$ for each group): Japanese responding in English (JE), and US Americans responding in English (US) (Iwai & Rinnert, 2001). The L1 Japanese complaint DCT data (JJ) were collected from 196 Japanese college students by using ChauSer in 2005. Softeners, in this study, consist of lexical and syntactic devices to soften messages or propositions asserted in discourses. They include such markers as *could*, *probably*, *I think*, and *a little* in English; and *-yone*, *chotto*, and *-to omou*, in Japanese.

Identified softeners were analyzed quantitatively in each situation. In the Professor situation, the US group showed a high frequency of multiple softener use (56.4% of respondents used more than one softener.). In the JE and JJ data, a considerable number of respondents (64.8% for JE, and 54.2 % for JJ) did not use any softeners. In the Friend situation, similarities were observed between the JJ and US groups in that both groups

showed a high frequency of multiple softener use (57.8% and 57.1%, for JJ and US groups, representatively). In contrast, 71.4% of the JE group did not use any softeners at all.

Overall, the US and JE groups demonstrated similar tendencies in the use of softeners in both situations, although the JJ group showed substantial differences in their use, as the percentages above indicate. This could be explained as a characteristic of the Japanese mitigation system. The Japanese honorific language is recognized as a means of mitigating messages. This study showed the systematic differentiations of mitigation in English and Japanese. Most notably, Japanese mitigation is characterized by the fact that there are two distinctive formulas depending on social distance/age differences among interlocutors. When speaking to higher status or/and older interlocutors, Japanese speakers' usage of honorific expressions is crucial, based on the cultural norms of the society. Therefore, it would not be necessary to use several softeners because of the application of honorific expressions to discourses. On the other hand, when talking with people in close relationships, for example, friends in the same generation and family members, there will be no/less need to mitigate utterances with honorific expressions. Instead, people use a large number of softeners, with postpositional particles heading the list for Japanese softeners.

This study concluded that the less frequent softener use by the JE group could be due to respondents' grammatical or pragmalinguistic problems in both situations. In the Professor situation, it can be said that Japanese honorifics could not be reflected in English speaking as softening. Moreover, in the Friend situation, softeners, especially Japanese postpositional particles, could not be easily transferred into English.

The results suggested that considering Japanese softeners and honorifics separately could reveal better ways to understand JE group's use of softeners in English. In-depth investigations focusing on which Japanese and English softeners are interrelated in L1 and L2 and the frequency counts and kinds of both English and Japanese softeners (cross-culturally) are necessary to obtain a more precise understanding of L1 and L2 softener use.

Study 5 (Chiaki IWAI) – NNSs in Different Learning Contexts and Their Attention to Phonological, Grammatical, and Pragmatic Features

The last study began with the assumption that in rapidly globalizing contexts, it is not uncommon for speakers to use English without knowing the pragmatic norms of other interlocutors. Highly sophisticated strategic competence beyond mere compensatory skills tends to become a *must* in these contexts (see Kasper & Kellerman 1997 for a comprehensive overview of strategic competence and communication strategies). Little is known, however, in intercultural pragmatics about the growth of English learners' strategic competence, especially that of EFL learners with a limited amount of 'authentic' exposure. As an initial exploratory attempt at revealing the strategic competence of such speakers, this study investigated empirically whether learners in different learning contexts differ in their ways of attending to phonological, grammatical, and pragmatic features of utterances by NNSs and NSs. Two of the main observation targets were (1) English learning contexts (a *country*

factor) and (2) learners' English proficiency levels (a *proficiency* factor).

An audio-equipped questionnaire survey was conducted in four EFL contexts: Japan ($N = 213$), China ($N = 281$), Korea ($N = 216$), and Italy ($N = 194$).² The questionnaire as well as fundamental discussions of this study were based on Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998: B&D). In their prototype study, B&D compared two different types of English learners and teachers (EFL vs. ESL) using judgment tasks with several pragmatic/grammatical problems embedded, and found that EFL learners and teachers were more grammar-oriented, while their ESL counterparts were more pragmatic-oriented. Referring to B&D's tasks, the present study prepared both NS and NNS audio samples, where similar types of pragmatic/grammatical problems along with several NNS phonological features were inserted. The NNS samples were performed by four NNS speakers, each one of them representing one of the four respondent nationality groups, and two NSs (American and Canadian).

Among various findings, the following four appeared to be of special importance in relation to teaching English for cross-cultural communication. First, there seemed to have been a hierarchical order in EFL learners' attention while listening to the audio models, in the order of phonology to pragmatics and finally to grammar. Second, although proficiency affected EFL learners' judgment accuracy, the country factor was more influential than the proficiency factor. Third, not only was EFL learners' attention to grammar low, but also their attention to it was highly inaccurate or unavailable. Fourth, EFL learners' judgment toward the two NS samples was more positive than that toward those by NNS performers, although one of the NS samples had an equal number of similar grammatical and pragmatic problems.

Several implications could be drawn from these results. Of them, the most important would be that EFL learners' pragmatic awareness grows somewhat apart from their growth in language proficiency, and the country factor, which must have a lot to do with how the language is taught as well as their native pragmatic norms, affects their pragmatic sensitivity to a large extent. This is also indirect evidence, the study concluded, that pragmatic competence would be teachable in EFL contexts, and such competence would play a more important role for actual communication than mere grammatical knowledge.

Rationales of the proposals

In this final section, the reasoning underlying the three over-arching proposals is explained in relation to the studies reported in this paper. It should be emphasized that although the first proposal has actually been implemented on a practical level, the other two are far from implementation and require much further work before they can be realized in more complete, tangible form.

The first proposal concerns one of the primary goals of the Prag-PEACE project, namely, the development of powerful data-collection and data-sharing tools. As explained in Study 1, above, it is not easy to collect research data in different intercultural contexts. One practical and highly promising solution would make the best use of modern technology, particularly the

Internet. ChauSer is such an example, and we need similar innovative methodological tools available to the pragmatic research community.

The second proposal addresses the need for theoretical refinements in the field of intercultural pragmatics. The absolute nature of a term such as “failure” (as in “pragmatic failure,” Thomas, 1983) carries too narrow a meaning to cover the full range of pragmatic mismatches across and within cultures. As explained in Study 2, the term “dissonance” seems to be more appropriate to describe non-absolute criteria of native speakers’ pragmatic norms. As the presenter suggested, many other such theoretical refinements are required in order to create a comprehensive pragmatic framework.

The third proposal concerns the dynamic extension of pragmatic research findings to different types of interactions. The three empirical studies represented the beginnings of this kind of extension. In one direction, two of the studies compared pragmatic production and perceptions across different cultural groups, building on earlier studies. They also investigated Japanese EFL learners intensively by limiting their scope to one speech act, that of complaints. In another direction, the third study made a cross-cultural comparison in four different EFL contexts. Both the first and third empirical studies examined receptive aspects of language learners’ pragmatic competence. The presenters suggested that these studies should be extended to productive aspects, investigating whether strategies for pragmatic solutions to potential dissonances can be taught, and if so, how.

The colloquium presenters explained that in many ways, attempts through the Prag-PEACE project were merely a beginning. The members of the project expressed their profound hope that the spirit of sharing and reaching out to the intercultural pragmatic research community would grow. Moreover, they eagerly anticipated continuing their attempts to improve their understanding of the pragmatic needs of speakers of English as an international language.

Notes

1. The authors of this study are aware that ideological controversies have been raised with respect to “English as an international language” (e.g., Phillipson, 1992). They neither desire nor intend to address such ideological debates in their project, even though they do not accept the perspective of regarding English as an international language unconditionally.

2. About one-half of three EFL groups other than the Italian group were English majors, while the other half were non-English majors. The Italian group consisted only of language major students.

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Appendix

Prag-PEACE project: <http://chiaki.intl.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/Prag-PEACE/index.html> or <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/prag-peace/>.

ChauSer: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/start.do> (A user name and a password are required to log into the ChauSer site. The readers interested in using the site are invited to contact the first author of this study.)

On-line questionnaires for the three empirical studies

Study 3: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser7/page.do?id=281>

<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser7/page.do?id=218>

Study 4: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser7/page.do?id=139>

Study 5 (English version): <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser7/page.do?id=232>

Preferred Complaint Strategies in Japanese and English*¹

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Chiaki IWAI (Hiroshima City University)

Abstract

This study, based on two data collection stages, aims to determine what English complaint strategies are preferred by Japanese university EFL (JEFL) learners. The first stage compared Japanese complaint formulations with previously collected English responses by JEFL learners and native English speakers in two complaint situations. The second stage elicited judgments of appropriateness and effectiveness of various complaint formulations in the same two situations. The findings from the two-stage study indicate which aspects of complaints may cause difficulties for JEFL learners and suggest the need to raise their pragmatic awareness regarding the use of complaint strategies in particular contexts.

Introduction

The speech act of complaint is defined as an expression of “displeasure or annoyance” in response to an action that is seen by the speaker as unfavorable (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993, p. 108). Complaining about a perceived problem can be extremely face-threatening for both speaker and hearer, whether in one’s native language (L1) or a second (L2) one (Brown & Levinson, 1987; JACET SLA SIG, 2005). Most seriously, non-native speakers (NNSs) run the risk of unintentionally offending the hearer, for example by complaining too directly, which can be seen as criticism and lead to unpleasant consequences (Murphy & Neu, 1996).

In a previous cross-cultural survey of speech act production (Iwai & Rinnert, 2001), English Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs) were used to elicit complaints in two fairly serious situations differing in terms of the relationship between speaker and hearer (see Appendix 1 for exact wording):

Situation 1 (Professor): A Professor made an apparent error in grading

Situation 2 (Friend): A roommate frequently made noise late at night.

The data were collected from college students in 3 regions, and the analysis compared complaint strategies used by Japanese, Singaporean and American speakers (Rinnert & Iwai,

* The original draft of this paper was presented as part of the presentation in the preceding paper (Paper 1 in this chapter). Later, this paper was separated from the original draft and submitted to the PanSIG Proceedings according to a suggestion by the editorial board of this proceedings.

2003). The results showed that Japanese students' responses differed significantly from those of the other students. Most notably, they used (1) fewer initiators (e.g., greetings, address terms, other opening moves); (2) significantly fewer words in the Friend situation (F-situation); (3) less mitigation; and (4) more direct complaints in both situations than the other two groups.

These findings led to the question of why the Japanese students tended to employ different English complaint strategies than those used by the other groups. Three causes are plausible: inadequate English grammatical competence; inadequate pragmalinguistic competence (i.e., inability to choose linguistic forms that express particular pragmatic intentions); and conflicting sociopragmatic norms (i.e., differing perceptions of appropriate pragmatic intentions in specific social situations, Thomas, 1983).

The aim of the present study is two-fold. The first goal is to determine which of the above factors (grammatical, pragmalinguistic, or sociopragmatic) may have caused the Japanese students' English complaint strategy choice by comparing their English complaints with Japanese complaints produced by similar Japanese university students. The second goal is to determine what English complaint strategies are judged to be most socially appropriate and potentially effective by English NSs, fluent NNSs, and JEFL learners in these same two situations, and by extension which strategies may be potentially problematic across cultures.

Method

Data Collection

For the first stage of the present study, a questionnaire survey about complaint speech acts in the Japanese language (a translation of the original DCT situations, Appendix 1) was conducted on-line in the fall of 2005. A total of 196 Japanese university students (JJ) answered the questionnaire. A majority of them were first to third year students, majoring mainly in international studies, arts, economics, humanities, and information technology. Additionally, in order to compare the JJ complaints with English complaints by native English speakers (US) and Japanese EFL learners (JE), the previously collected DCT responses by American and Japanese respondents (N=100 for each group, Rinnert & Iwai, 2003) were also used.

For the second stage, a questionnaire was constructed based on prototypical and potentially problematic English complaint strategies from the Rinnert and Iwai (2003) study (see Appendix 2 for sample questionnaire items). The English questionnaire was administered on-line to elicit judgments of appropriateness and effectiveness from native (NS) and fluent non-native (NNS) English speakers (N = 31) in the summer of 2005, and a translated Japanese version was given to less fluent JEFL students (N = 40) in the spring of 2006. The NSs (N=20) and Fluent NNSs (N=11) had an average age of 44.8 years (range 22–70). They were mainly teachers with high levels of education (8 held BA, 15 MA, and 7 PhD degrees) from 8 countries, including the U.S., Japan, U.K., Canada, Denmark, Australia,

Germany, and Italy. In contrast, the less fluent JEFs (N=40) were all Japanese undergraduate students (2nd & 3rd year International Studies majors) with little or no overseas experience.

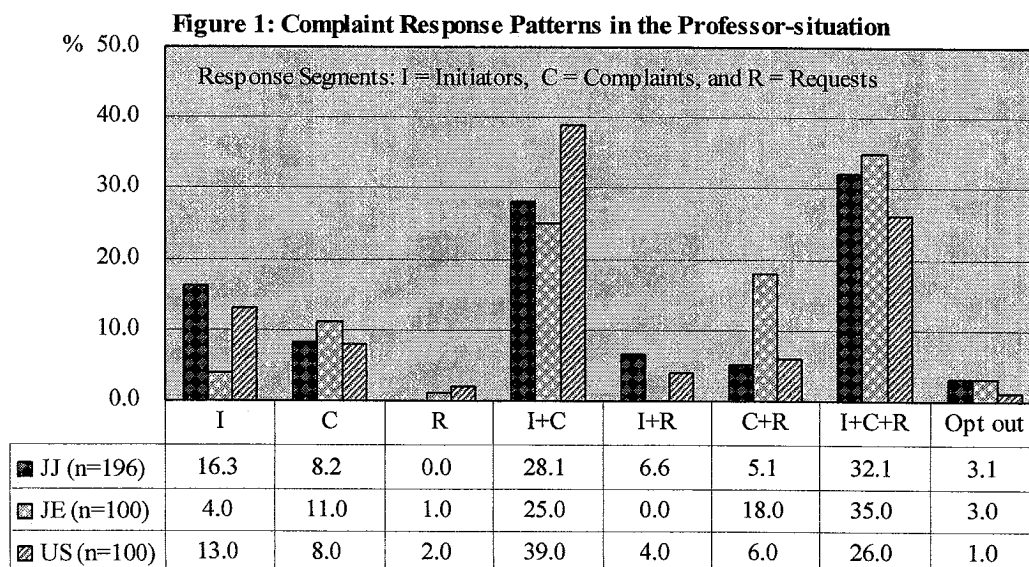
Analysis

The analysis of the data collected in the first stage of the present study focused on three aspects of the complaints: (1) main components, (2) level of directness, and (3) amount of mitigation. The main components consisted of *Initiators* (I: greetings, address terms, and other opening formulas), *Complaints* (C: expressions of negative evaluation, including justification) and *Requests* (R: direct or indirect attempts to get the hearer to redress the situation), or combinations of these components. Three levels of directness of the complaints were identified:

1. Indirect (no explicit mention of offense, implied offense only);
2. Somewhat direct (mention of offense, but no mention of the hearer's responsibility);
3. Very direct (explicit mention of offense and hearer's responsibility for it).

For the determination of the amount of mitigation, softening expressions were identified and counted. Examples of softeners from the previously analyzed English complaints included *a little, sort of, you know, would/could, and I think/wonder*; Japanese softeners found in the Japanese complaints included *chotto* (a little/a bit), *toka* (or something), *warui kedo* (sorry but), *dekireba* (if possible), and *ki ga suru* (feel like) (see Appendixes 3 and 4 for complete lists of all softeners).

The second-stage analysis looked at the relative effects of the same three aspects (components, directness, mitigation) on the judgments of appropriateness and effectiveness of 12 systematically constructed complaints and four distracters, using a 5-point scale ranging from very appropriate/effective (5 points) to very inappropriate/ineffective (1 point), along with a choice of "I can't determine" (see Appendix 2). The effects of the three factors were tested statistically by means of a 3-way analysis of variance [ANOVA: components (3 levels: I + C, I + R, I + C + R) x directness (2 levels: Direct, Indirect) x mitigation (2 levels: minimal softening, multiple softeners)]. In addition, the judgment scores were compared across the two groups: NSs/fluent NNSs (hereafter referred to as NFSs)² vs. less fluent EFL learners (hereafter referred to as JEFs) through a 4-way ANOVA (components x directness x mitigation x group).



Results

Stage 1

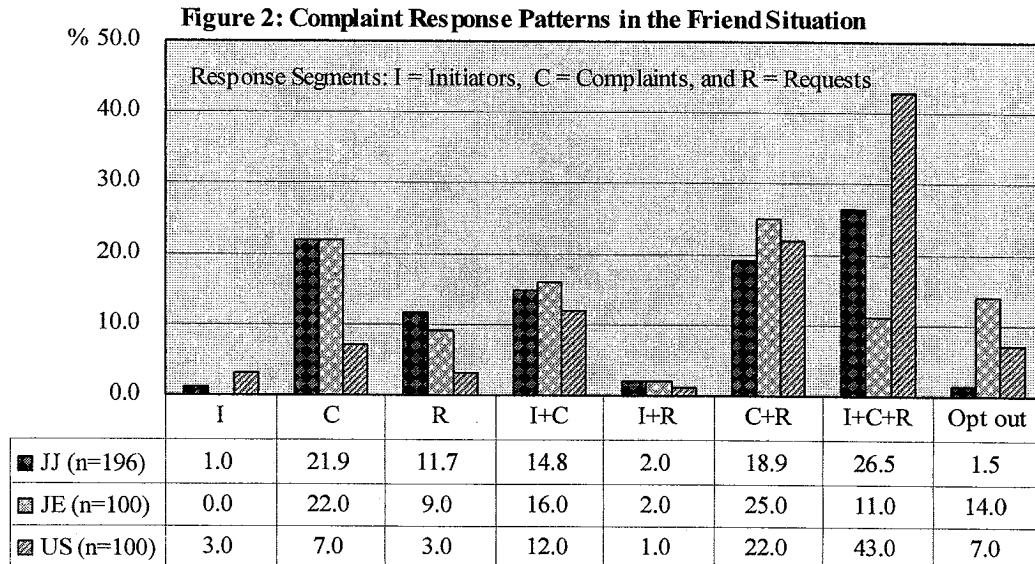
Component analysis

The first analysis concerns overall response patterns. As explained above, each response in the DCT data was classified into one of seven response patterns based on which speech act combinations (Initiator, Request, Complaint) it contained.

For the professor situation (P-situation, Figure 1), equally across the three groups, the most and the second most popular response patterns were I + C and I + C + R combinations. C + R and I-only segments indicated some differences. I-only usage by the JE group was less than one-third the frequency of the other two groups. Conversely, for C + R, the percentage of the JE usage was three times more than that of the other two groups. Although none of the results were statistically significant, a statistical difference was observed among the three groups for combinations in which no initiator appeared (i.e., total percentage of C, R, and C + R combined) according to further analysis (chi-square = 8.44, $p = 0.015$, Table 1). Thus, the presence or absence of initiators appeared to constitute the major difference among the three groups.

Table 1: No Initiator component patterns (C, R, & C+R) frequency

	JJ	JE	US
N	196	100	100
No initiator use (%)	13.3	30.0	16.0



Compared to the outcome of the P-situation, that of the F-situation revealed more clear-cut differences across the three groups (Figure 2).

Most notably, the I + C + R combination differed significantly among the three groups (chi-square = 15.25, $p = 0.001$). Almost half of the US group used I + C + R combination responses. However, JE respondents offered this combination at only about a 10% level, while 27% of JJ respondents employed this pattern. The production of the JE respondents demonstrates the fact that they tended to use a different strategy in the English language, which differed from their native language and the target language norms.

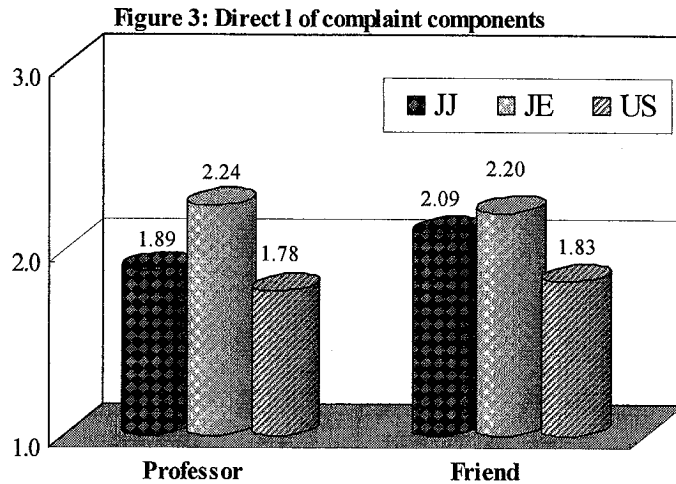
Other features which stand out include the fact that C + R and I + C combinations were analogous among the three groups at around 20% and 15%, respectively. Furthermore, variations can be seen in the C-only segment. Making complaints (including justifications) without Initiators and Requests was significantly more frequent in the JJ and JE groups than the US group (chi-square = 8.59, $p = 0.014$). It is likely that whether response patterns included an Initiator component or not was one of the important differences across the three groups (Table 2). The differences among the groups for the two factors were significant

Table 2: Initiator (non)containing patterns; F-situation (frequency)

	JJ	JE	US
N	196	100	100
Initiator contained (%) ¹	44.4	29.0	59.0
No initiator (%) ²	52.5	56.0	32.0

N.B.: 1: Including I, I + C, I + R, and I + C + R response patterns

2: Including C, R, and C + R response patterns

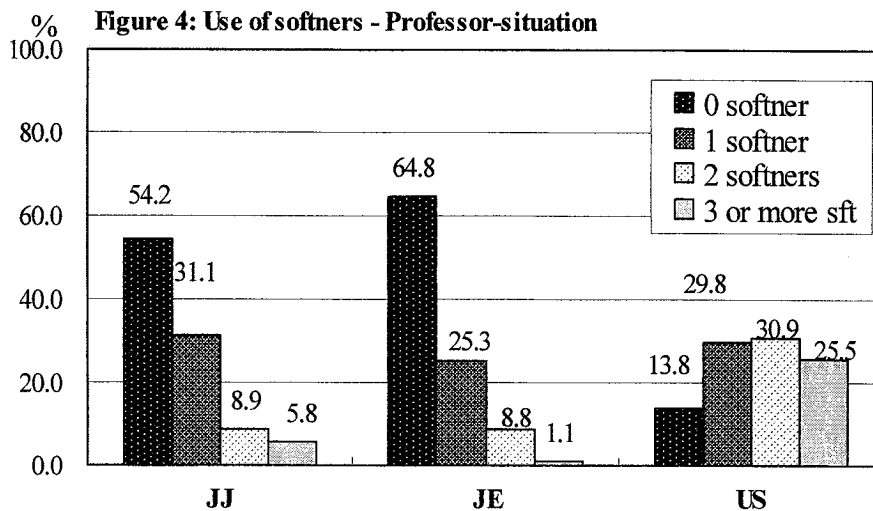


(chi-square = 7.17, $p = .027$ and chi-square = 11.79, $p = .003$ levels, respectively).

Directness

The second analysis concerns the level of directness of complaint components. The numbers given in Figure 3 are the means degrees of directness, based on three levels.

A one-way ANOVA was carried out for each situation, and the results indicate that the group difference was significant in both situations (P-situation: $F = 18.29$, $p = .000$; F-situation: $F = 5.29$, $p = .005$). In the P-situation the JE average directness was notably higher than the other two groups, which showed a similar tendency to each other. The results indicate that both the differences between the JJ and JE groups, and between the JE and US groups were significant in accordance with post hoc Scheffé tests (at $p = .000$ levels for both). The F-situation results also indicate that the group differences for JJ vs. US as well as JE vs. US were significant. The average levels of directness of the JJ and JE groups were similar, and higher than that of the US group (between JJ and US groups, $p = .034$, and between JE and US groups, $p = .01$).



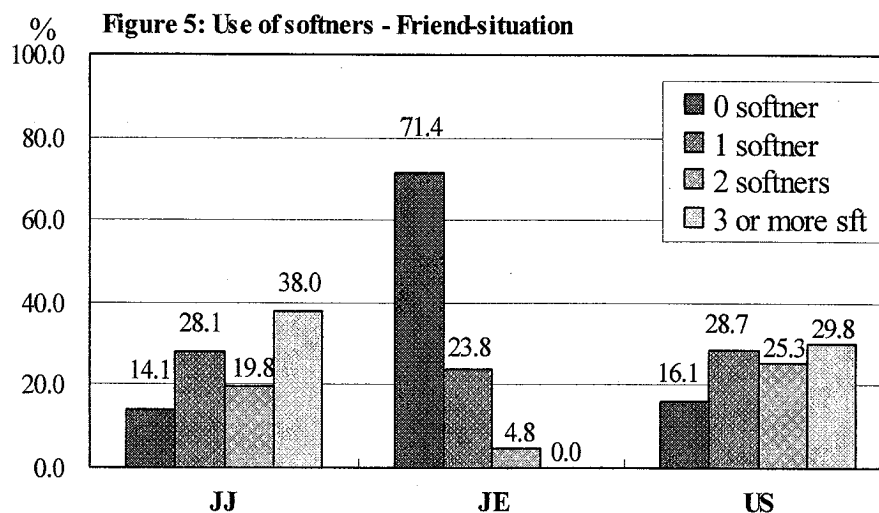
Softeners

Thirdly, we investigated softeners in both the P- and F-situations quantitatively. Figure 4 displays a summary for the P-situation. The results for the JJ and JE groups appear similar to each other, but not to those of the US group (chi-square = 89.34, $p = 0.000$).

Almost 65% of the JE respondents and over half of the JJ respondents did not use any softeners. In contrast, more than 56% of the US group used multiple softeners. This illustrates that native Japanese speakers and JEFLs used considerably smaller numbers of softeners than English NSs.

In the F-situation, more than 55% of the US respondents employed manifold softeners. Most notably, more than two-thirds of the JE respondents did not apply any softeners, and none used more than two softeners. The JJ group softener usage was similar to the US group usage. No-softener use was only 14%; however, the percentage of multiple softeners reached 38%.

Examining the JJ group softener use in the two situations, large differences (chi-square = 98.42, $p = .000$ level) can be observed, as seen in Figures 4 and 5.



Stage 2

Complaint Evaluations

The second analysis focuses on evaluations of selected English complaint formulations. The separate judgments of appropriateness and effectiveness for each complaint item on the evaluation questionnaire were compared across the two groups: NFSs and JEFLs.

Professor situation

The mean appropriateness and effectiveness judgment scores in the P-situation are displayed in Figure 6. The left third of the graph (containing four judgment scores for each line) represents the Initiator + Complaint component combination; the middle section, the Initiator + Request combination; and the right section, the three components combined (Initiator + Complaint + Request). Within each of the component sections, the two

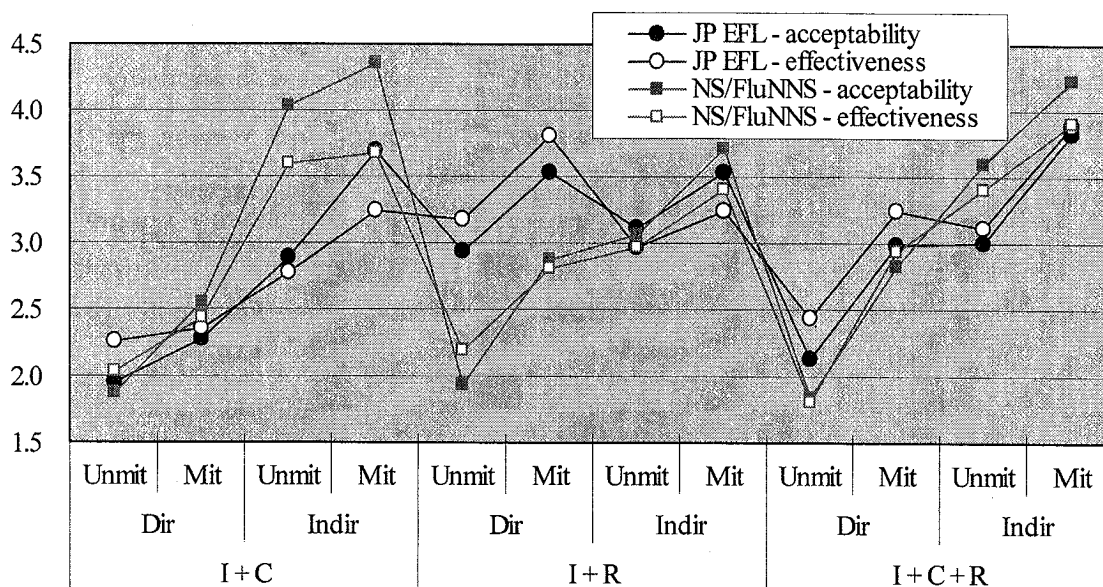


Figure 6: Group means of acceptability/effectiveness in the Professor-situation

judgments of the direct versions are shown on the left (the unmitigated version first, then the mitigated one), and the indirect versions are on the right (again unmitigated, followed by mitigated).

As can be seen in Figure 6, the NFS judgments of appropriateness for each of the three component combinations form a clear progression from the lowest scores on the left (direct, unmitigated), second lowest next (direct, mitigated), to second highest (indirect, unmitigated) after that, and the highest (indirect, mitigated) on the right. Thus for the NFS group, the indirect complaint versions were perceived as more acceptable than the direct ones, and within each of these categories the mitigated version was judged more acceptable than the unmitigated one. As can be seen by comparing the two lines for each group, in most cases the judgments of appropriateness and effectiveness were fairly similar, especially for the NFS group.

Statistical analysis of the judgment scores showed that although component was not a significant factor, indirectness and mitigation both strongly influenced judgments of acceptability and effectiveness of complaints in the P-situation. In particular, indirect strategies were rated as much more acceptable ($F = 252.56, p = .000$) and effective ($F = 14.80, p = .000$) than direct ones, and mitigated versions were much more acceptable ($F = 90.34, p = .000$) and somewhat more effective than unmitigated ones ($F = 4.51, p = .011$) for the two groups combined.

Although the groups did not significantly differ overall, their assessments of indirectness and components were somewhat different. Most notably, within the Initiator + Request component, JEFLs judged direct and indirect requests as equally appropriate, and direct requests as more effective than indirect ones. The two groups also differed in their component preferences: Initiator + Complaint alone by the NFS group, Initiator + Request alone by the JEFL group.

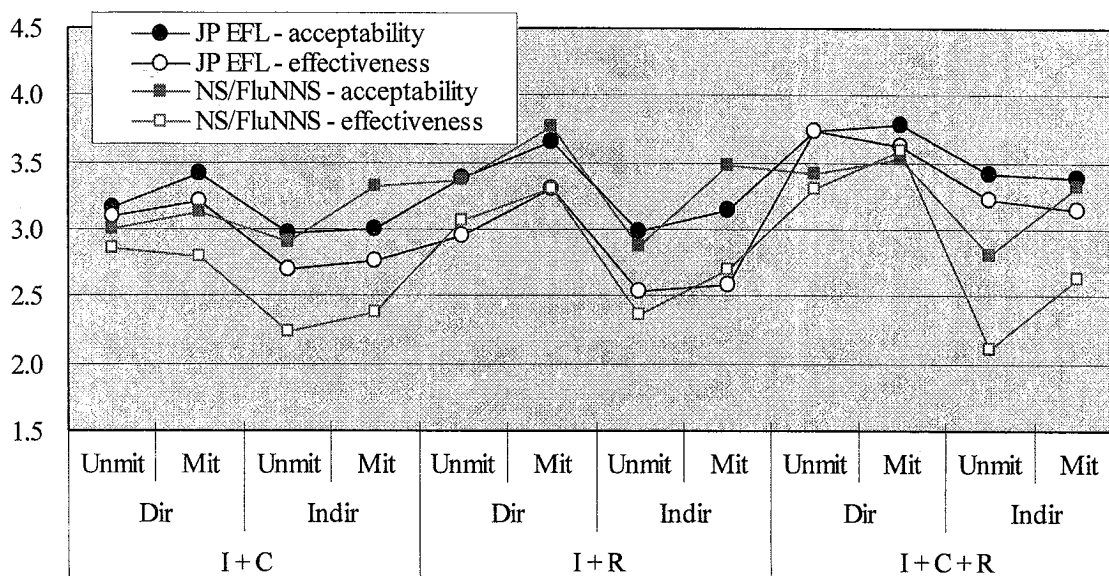


Figure 7: Group means of acceptability/effectiveness in the Friend-situation

Friend situation

The mean judgment scores for appropriateness and effectiveness in the F-situation for the two groups are presented in Figure 7.

Opposite to the P- situation, in the F-situation directness was perceived to be significantly more appropriate ($F = 17.25, p = .000$) and effective ($F = 73.43, p = .000$) than indirectness for the two groups combined. Thus, both groups preferred more direct strategies when complaining to a friend.

On the other hand, although mitigation significantly raised the level of both appropriateness ($F = 8.32, p = .004$) and effectiveness ($F = 4.20, p = .041$), for the NFS group, it had no effect on those judgments for the JEFL group. In other words, the NFS group preferred softened complaints over non-softened ones to a friend, just as they did to a professor, whereas the learners apparently did not see the same necessity to soften their complaints to a friend as they did to a higher status interlocutor.

Third, component exerted a significant effect on the appropriateness ($F = 6.12, p = .002$) and effectiveness ($F = 12.12, p = .000$) judgments of the two groups combined. In particular, complaint strategies that included Requests were judged more appropriate and effective than those without Requests, and for both groups, the combination of Initiator + Complaint was considered least appropriate and effective in this situation.

Finally, the group factor was found to be statistically significant. Overall, the EFL effectiveness judgments were significantly higher than those of NFSs. In other words, the learner group showed more optimism about the success of complaining to a friend, regardless of the strategies employed.

Discussion

The first research aim concerned which factors (grammatical, pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic) may lead to Japanese EFL learner's dissonant complaint production as compared to other speakers of English as a first or second language. This question was addressed mainly from three aspects using the cross-cultural and cross-linguistic DCT data.

First, regarding components the use of Initiators showed a significant difference among the three groups as attested by Rinnert and Iwai's (2003) cross-regional study. JEFL students did not use Initiators as much as respondents of the JJ and US groups in either situation. This leads us to infer that pragmalinguistic problems arose for Japanese producing English complaints, especially, for the P-situation, where the difference appeared clearly. For the F-situation, the frequency of Initiators decreased from US, to JJ, to JE groups, which may indicate that there are slightly different sociopragmatic norms in Japanese and English in this kind of situation between friends. Moreover, in the F-situation, the JE's infrequent use of the I + C + R response pattern appears to reflect JEFLs' inadequate knowledge of the pattern, and to manifest potentially complex problems related to pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness.

As for the directness analysis, the results appeared to be dissimilar in the two situations. In the P-situation, the JJ and US groups' levels of directness can be seen to reflect similar socio-cultural norms. The JE group showed a significantly higher level of directness than the other two groups. Therefore, we can say that Japanese socio-cultural norms when complaining to a professor are not reflected in JEFL learners' production in the target language, meaning that there is an underlying pragmalinguistic problem. This interpretation is supported by Nakabachi's (1996) investigation of Japanese and English complaints by Japanese EFL learners, elicited in a similar situational setting to our P-situation, which also showed that 33% of learners used mitigated and implicit expressions in Japanese, as opposed to unmitigated and explicit ones in English.

In contrast, for the F-situation, the problematic aspect regarding directness is likely to reflect differences in cross-linguistic norms. The correspondence of higher complaint directness levels across Japanese and English by Japanese students as opposed to American respondents can be explained in terms of sociopragmatic conflicts (Blum-Kulka, 1982; JACET SLA SIG., 2005; Nakabachi, 1996; Olshtain, & Weinbach, 1993).

The last aspect of the Stage 1 analysis concerns the amount of softener use. The previous study (Rinnert & Iwai, 2003) reported less use of softeners by JEFLs. The present study showed that for the P-situation the JJ group used fewer softeners than both the other groups. On the other hand, for the F-situation, the usage of softeners was similar to the US group quantitatively. However, this is because Japanese tends to use post-positional particles such as '*-yone*', and '*-desyo*' as mitigation, which has a function like that of English modals, e.g., '*could*' and '*would*', in friendly and casual talk, but not in a formal setting (Nakabachi, 1996). On such occasions, honorific expressions (which also often come at the end of the sentences) are applied in order to mitigate. Japanese honorific language has a more

systematic character than softeners; thus, honorifics were not counted as softeners in this study. Consequently, this led to identification of less softener use by the JJ group in the P-situation. By taking into consideration the characteristics of Japanese mitigation described above, JEFs' fewer English softeners can be explained as a pragmalinguistic problem because Japanese softeners, especially particles, are difficult to translate into English. Thus, it is highly likely that softener usage is not easily transferred from Japanese socio-cultural practice to English pragmatic use, even though many research studies on pragmatics have shown the high possibility of pragmatic transfer (e.g., Blum-Kulka 1982; Takahashi 1996).

The investigations of these three aspects illustrated that the explanation for JEFs' inharmonious complaining compared to English native and second language speakers may not be clarified through a simple interpretation, but rather through a multifaceted analysis relating to both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic concerns.

The second research goal was to determine which complaint strategies had been acquired by the JEFs in the second stage of this study. To this end, the same three aspects analyzed in the first stage were tested, using an experimental design, and the degree of acquisition of awareness of these strategies by the learners in this study was inferred through comparison of their answers with those of the NFSs.

With regard to the first aspect, choice of components, the differences between the groups appear to match some of those found in the earlier study (Rinnert & Iwai, 2003) and Stage 1 of this study.³ In particular, in the P-situation, the JEFs, like the NFSs and many of the Stage 1 participants, preferred the three-part (I + C + R) component formulation. Similarly, the frequent use of the I + C pattern by the US students in Stage 1 was reflected in the higher preference for complaints alone among the NFS group in Stage 2, whereas the learners showed a greater preference for requests alone. However, the learners' high regard for requests (I + R pattern) in this stage does not match the performance of any of the groups in Stage 1. Uncovering the reasons for such a positive assessment of requests would seem worthwhile, particularly because the low assessment of requests alone by the NFS group suggests that it could lead to potential problems for the learners who might use them. In contrast, for the F-situation, the learners' strong preference for the I + C + R pattern (the preferred one for both groups of native speakers, but not the learners in Stage 1) suggests that these intermediate learners have acquired an awareness of the merits of using this pattern when complaining to a friend.

Concerning directness, the second aspect tested in Stage 2 of this study, the results from the P-situation suggest that these JEF learners had acquired pragmalinguistic knowledge about the expression of indirectness in English complaints to a higher status interlocutor. That is, their positive judgments of indirect complaints in this situation corresponded to the frequent use of indirectness in the Japanese and US English complaints, and contrasted with the more frequent use of directness by the JEFs in the preceding stage. At the same time, the learners' relatively positive assessment of direct requests contrasted strikingly with those of the native/fluent group, indicating that problems could arise from the use of directness in

request components as part of complaints to a person of higher status.

Turning to the F-situation, the results of this experimental study appear to contradict the earlier results, in that both groups chose directness over indirectness when complaining to a friend, whereas the Americans in Stage 1 used significantly more indirect complaints. However, this apparent lack of correspondence between production and perceptions among native English speakers probably stems from the fact that Stage 1 measured the directness of only complaint components, as opposed to a combination of complaint and request components in Stage 2. Also, 3 levels of directness were identified in the first stage, whereas only 2 levels were included in the second stage. Nevertheless, further investigation is necessary to determine the most appropriate/effective levels of directness for English complaints to a friend.

Finally, the third complaint strategy examined was mitigation. The findings from the P-situation indicate recognition by these learners of the appropriateness and effectiveness of mitigating complaints to a professor. Thus, even though the JEFs in Stage 1 were unable to produce much mitigation in their complaints in this situation, the learners in Stage 2 were clearly aware of the benefits of using multiple softeners to someone of higher status. On the other hand, the F-situation results show no recognition by the learners of the importance of softening an English complaint to a friend, even though multiple softening was found in the Japanese complaints in this situation in Stage 1. This result matches that in the previous stage, where the learners produced little or no softening in their English complaints. However, a question remains as to why the learners in the second stage preferred softening in the P-situation but not in the F-situation. It is likely that the answer relates to Japanese socio-cultural norms of politeness that require deference to be shown to higher status interlocutors (Niyekawa, 1999), which would make it easier to transfer awareness of the need for mitigation in this situation, as opposed to a situation with a same-status interlocutor.

Overall, the findings from Stage 2 of this study suggest that receptive pragmatic competence precedes productive competence. That is, an awareness of the appropriateness and effectiveness of such strategies as using particular component choices, indirectness and mitigation appears to come earlier than the ability to use these strategies in producing complaints, even when learners are given the time to reflect on their strategic choices, as they were in Stage 1.

Conclusion

This two-stage study has investigated the production and evaluation of complaints by Japanese EFL learners in their L1 and L2 compared to English complaints by native/fluent English speakers in order to discover what English complaint strategies are preferred by these learners, and why. The findings indicate that a complex combination of linguistic, pragmatic and sociopragmatic factors appears to affect learners' knowledge of appropriate and effective ways to complain. Thus, in order to teach appropriate ways of performing intricate face-threatening acts such as complaints, English teachers need to raise their own awareness

of the complexity of factors involved. Once teachers and researchers have established a relatively clear picture of acceptable norms across languages, as well as the current level of their students' pragmatic knowledge, they should be able to develop effective teaching methods (cf. Occhi 2006) to empower their EFL students to complain appropriately and effectively.

Notes

1. This research was undertaken as part of the Prag-PEACE Project (Pragmatic Paradise of Easy Access for Communicative English) at Hiroshima City University. Prag-PEACE sites can be accessed at the following Internet addresses:

<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/start.do>

<http://chiaki.intl.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/Prag-PEACE/index.html>

2. The two groups were combined due to the small respondent numbers.

3. Unfortunately, the component 'Initiator' was not tested in this design, as it was deemed necessary to limit the number of questionnaire items to avoid the fatigue factor. It was assumed that learners at an intermediate level of English proficiency would recognize that an Initiator would raise the levels of appropriateness and effectiveness of most English complaints, but this assumption requires empirical confirmation.

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Appendix 1

Two Complaint Situations in English and Japanese

Situation 1:

Complaint to a professor (P-situation)

You received your final grades. You were shocked that Professor Naomi Suzuki gave you a C. Her class was one of your favorites, and you studied very hard. You got an A on your report, so you don't understand why your final grade was so low. You knock on the door of her office.

S: Come in.

You:

Complaint to a professor (P-situation)

あなたは大学生。学年末の成績を受け取ったところです。成績表を見ると、鈴木教授（女性、50歳）の評価が何とC（可）、あなたはびっくり。鈴木教授の授業は大好きで、熱心に勉強していたし、学期中のレポートはA（優）でした。なのに、なぜこんなにひどい成績なのか、納得できません。そこで、あなたは鈴木教授の研究室に行きます。今、ドアをノック：

鈴木教授：どうぞ。

あなた：

Situation 2:

Complaint to a friend (F-situation)

You are sharing an apartment with your friend. Recently, (s)he comes home very late almost every night and makes a lot of noise. You and your friend agreed to be quiet after 11:30 p.m. when you first decided to live together. You've put up with the noise for several days, but tonight you feel you should say something.

R:(watching TV).....

You:

Complaint to a friend (F-situation)

あなたは友人（あなたと同性、同年齢）と同じアパートに同居中。その友人と同居を決めたとき、午後11時半以降は静かにすると約束しました。それなのに、このごろ友人は、連日深夜に帰宅しては、うるさく物音をたてます。しばらくはそれを我慢していたあなたも、もう限界。今夜は何かひとこと言うべきだと思い、テレビを見ている友人に話しかけます。:

あなた:

Appendix 2**a. Sample Questionnaire Item in English**

1-6 “Professor Suzuki, I am curious about my final grade. I’m confused because I thought I had done better.”

1-6a Social acceptability/appropriateness

1. very rude 2. somewhat rude 3. so-so 4. somewhat okay 5. perfectly okay 6. can’t determine*

1-6b Effectiveness/success

1. very ineffective 2. somewhat ineffective 3. so-so 4. somewhat effective 5. perfectly okay
6. can’t determine*

Comment (reason for your judgment): ()

*eliminated from ANOVA analysis; similar to opting out

b. Sample Questionnaire Item in Japanese

1-6 “Professor Suzuki, I am curious about my final grade. I’m confused because I thought I had done better.”

1-6a. この場面でこの発話はどの程度社会的にふさわしいですか。

1. 全くふさわしくない 2. あまりふさわしくない 3. まあまあ 4. まあ、ふさわしい
5. 実にふさわしい 6. 判らない*

1-6b この場面でこの発話は問題に折り合いをつける為にどの程度好ましいですか。

1. 全く好ましくない 2. あまり好ましくない 3. まあまあ 4. まあ、好ましい
5. 実に好ましい 6. 判らない*

コメント (あなたの評価の理由): ()

*eliminated from ANOVA analysis; similar to opting out

Appendix 3

Inventory of English softeners collected from JE and US groups (N= frequency of occurrences)

Group	Friend				Professor			
	JE	N	US	N	JE	N	US	N
Hesitation markers	Well	1	Um	3	Well,	2	Umm	1
		2	You know	4	Oh,	1	Well	1
			After all,	1	Ah,	1	You see	2
			uh	1	I mean	1		
Emotion verbs	I think	2	I thought	4	In fact	1		
					I think	11	I feel like	3
	I don't think	1	I don't think	1	I guess	1	I feel	2
	I didn't think	1	I know	1	I wonder	1	I felt	2
	I realize	1	I feel	1	Do you mind		I don't feel	1
	I have thought	1	we need	1			I thought	9
			I want(ed) to ask you	2			I think	2
			Do you think	5			I believe	1
			You realize	1			I was hoping	3
			Is it cool	1			I can't get away from feeling	1
Hedges			What's your deal	1			I wonder	1
	just	1	just	6	just	2	just	23
	a little/a little bit	2	a little	19	like	1	a little/ a little bit	10
	Didn't (we promise)	1	just a little	3	a little while	1	a bit	2
	Do your best to (stop the noise)	1	a bit	1	one more time	1	a few	1
			kind of/sort of	3	not very much	1	briefly	1
			almost	1			pretty	2
			some	3			kind of	1
			and all	1			rather	2
			maybe	2			some	1
			probably	1			(is there) any way	1
			really	2			maybe	1
			pretty	3			perhaps	1
			very	1			possibly	1
			try to	9			seems (wrong)	1
			try and	1			seemed	1
			tends to	1			managed to (get)	1
Tags			Is there any way	2				
	O.K?	3	okay?	1	isn't it?	1	, if you would.	1
	, don't you?	4	alright?	1				
	, didn't we?	2	you know	1				
	, isn't it?	1						
Apology/ Disarmers	, right?	1						
	I don't like to tell you like this..., but	1	I don't want to argue	1	Sorry interrupting	for 1	if you aren't too busy	1
	Sorry, but	1	I don't want to sound like an ass/ a bitch/ a whiner	1			if you don't mind	1
	if you don't mind	1	I don't want to seem bossy	1			sorry to bother you	5
	don't mind	1	I am not trying to be ugly	1			I'm afraid	1
	ask a favor of you	1	I hate to be a bitch/ bitchy	1			I won't argue with it	1
			I hate to bother you	1				
			I hate to say anything	1				
			Not to be a stickler to rules	1				
			I don't mind	1				
		I don't ask for much	1					

		I didn't care what time you come home	1			
		If you want to come home late that is fine	1			
		I don't want you to tiptoe or do anything extreme	1			
		I have never said anything about this before I haven't said anything till now	1			
Gratitude		I would (really) appreciate	10			
Lexical/syntactic substitutions		could	41	could	4	could 24
		would	9	couldn't	2	could have 2
		am wondering	2	would	2	might 1
		was wondering	3	would like	3	would 2
		wanted	3	d like	1	would like 6
		respected	1	may	1	d like 4
		kept	1	was thinking	1	may 2
		I don't know if you realized	1			wanted 16
						was wondering 17
						am wondering 3
						had (a question) 1
						was (curious) 2
						didn't (understand) 1
Encouragement		You probably didn't meant to disturb me	1			I respect your assessment 1
		So feel free to remind me	1			Help (me) understand 2

Appendix 4

Inventory of Japanese softeners collected from JJ group (N= frequency of occurrences)

	Friend		N	Professor		N
Affective particles	~よね?	~yone?	26			
	~じゃない(か/ん)?	~jyanai(ka/n)?	7			
	~じゃろ?	~jyaro?	3			
	~じゃん?	~jyan?	4			
	~だろ(う)?	~daro(u)?	2			
	~でしょ?	~desyo?	2			
	~ない(か)?	~nai(ka)?	13			
	~へん?	~hen?	1			
	~やろ?	~yaro?	3			
	~やん(か)?	~yan(ka)?	2			
	~よな?	~yona?	4			
	~よ(imperative form+よ; informative よ)	~yo	33			
	~や	~ya	24			
	~ぞ	~zo	3			
	~わ	~wa	1			
	informative よ+ね	~yo+ne?	11			
	~ね	~ne	16			
	~かな	~kana	13			
Hedges	ちよっと/ちよいちいた あ	chotto	94	ちよっと		26

Chapter 2: Research Papers

	(もう) 少し	sukoshi	27	少し/少々		15
	あ(ん) まり~ない	amari+nai	2	あ(ん) まり~ない		4
	できれば/できたら	dekireba/dekitara	6	できれば		1
	せめて	semete	3	せめて		1
	なんか	nannka	7	(もし) よろしかったら/ よければ	moshi yoroshikattara/yoker eba	5
	とか	~toka	7	自分なりに	jibun narini	4
	~みたい/ようなんだけど	~mitai/younandak edo	6	いくつか/2,3	ikutuka/2,3	3
	~だろう/じやろうけど	~darou/jyaroukedo	2	実は	jitsu ha	3
	一応	ichiou	2	~だけでも	~dakedemo	1
	ちよつとでいいから	chottode iikara	1	どうしても~ない	doushitemo~nai	1
	~かも	~kamo	1	差し支えなければ	sashitsukae nakereba	1
	~のはず	~no hazu	1	自分としては	jibun to shiteha	1
	さすがに	sasuga ni	1	それなりに	sorenar ini	1
Emotion verbs	~と思う/思った	~to omou/omotta	7	~と思う/思った/思っ		10
	つもり	tumori	1	つもり		15
	気がする	kigasuru	4			
	~してみた	~shitemita	1			
Hesitation markers	あのね/あのさ	anone/anosa	18	あの、		18
	てか/っていうか	tteka	3	てか		1
Apology	ごめん(けど)	gomen(kedo)	11	すみません	sumimasen	21
	悪い(んだ)けど	warui(nnda)kedo	4			
Sympathizers	もしなんかあるんやったら しかたないけど/仕方 がないけど	moshi nannka arun yattara shikatanai kedo	5			
	ちよつとくらいなら別に いいんだけど/~は別に いいとして	chotto kurainara betsuni iindakedo/~wa betsuni shite	4			
	~かもしれないけど	~kamo shirenaikedo	3			
	~はいいけど/かまわん のんじゃけど	~wa iikedo/kamawanno njyakedo	2			
Disarmers	~も分かるけど	~mo wakaru kedo	1			
	~はいいけど	~wa iikedo	2			
	言い難いんだけど	iinikuindakedo	2			
	とやかく言う権利はない けれど	toyakaku iu kennriha naikeredo	1			
	~とは言わんけど	~towa iwankedo	1			
	私も気をつけるけえ	watashimo kiotukeruke	1			
Gratitude	~してくれるといいな/ 嬉しい	~shitekureruto iina/ureshii	2	~たら幸いです。	~tara saiwai desu	1
	~なら助かる	~nara tasukaru	1			

Note: Shaded cells are variations of the softener immediately above them.

NNSs' Attention to Grammatical and Pragmatic Features*

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Abstract

This study makes an exploratory attempt to integrate the notion of interlanguage pragmatics with that of English as an international lingua franca. The study, which was modeled after Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's study (1998), is based on empirical data collected from 181 Japanese college English learners (JCELS) with respect to English spoken by four non-native English speakers (NNSs: Chinese, Italian, Japanese, and Korean) as well as two native-English speakers (NSs). The analysis outcomes reveal that the JCELS show somewhat ambivalent judgments toward English spoken by familiar speakers (a Japanese speaker in particular), and more importantly that their judgments seem to be not only inaccurate but also affected by their stereotypical image, especially of native English speakers. Several methodological and pedagogical implications are discussed based on the results.

本研究は中間言語語用論の理論を国際共通語としての英語の研究に取り入れることを目的とした探索的研究である。研究は、Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) の実証研究をモデルにしており、4人の英語非母語話者（中国語、イタリア語、日本語、韓国語の母語話者）及び2人の英語母語話者の発話に関して収集した181人の日本人英語学習者のデータに基づいている。分析の結果、日本人英語学習者の判断は、親しみのある英語、特に日本語話者のそれには相反的な反応を示し、さらに重要な点として、判断があまり正確ではないこと、そして英語母語話者についてはある種のステレオタイプ化したイメージに影響されていると思われることである。これらの結果に基づき、研究から得られる方法論的、及び教育的示唆について論じている。

Introduction

English now plays a de facto role as an international lingua franca (ILF). Accordingly, investigation into English use from the perspective of non-native speakers (NNSs) is becoming more important than at any time in the past (Iwai & Rinnert, 2002). Reflecting such recent trends of English diffusion, researchers are becoming eager to explore new research domains such as *world Englishes* from a sociolinguistic perspective (see Bolton, 2005, for a good review of studies on world Englishes), English curricula from a sociopolitical

* The original draft of this paper was presented at the JALT 2005 International Conference held in Shizuoka on October 8, 2005. The paper was revised later and published in JALT2005 Conference Proceedings.

perspective in language education (Nunan, 2003), and interlanguage pragmatics from a pedagogical perspective for classroom applications (e.g., Rose & Kasper, 2001).

Following these recent exploratory attempts, the present study deals empirically with English spoken by NNSs. Methodologically, the study was modeled after a unique interlanguage pragmatics study by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998: BH&D study hereafter), in which they made cross-cultural comparisons with respect to NNS (and partially NS) judgments on grammatical accuracy and pragmatic appropriateness. Below, first the BH&D study is reviewed. After the review of their study, empirical data collection for the present study and outcomes from the data analysis are presented. Finally, several pedagogical and methodological implications are discussed on the basis of the outcomes from the study.

Literature Review: Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei (1998)

Both learners and teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) and those of English as a second language (ESL) are involved in the BH&D study. The study was conducted to discover whether there would be any difference between EFL learners (370 Hungarians and 112 Italians) and ESL learners (173 ESL students in the U.S.) and between EFL teachers (25 Hungarians) and ESL teachers (28 NS teachers in the U.S.). The comparison across the three learner groups and that between the two teacher groups were made on the basis of quantitative data collected through a questionnaire survey. In this survey, 20 video scenarios were displayed to the participants, and they were requested to judge the quality of an English utterance spoken by one designated person appearing in each video scenario. The judgment targets were assigned to grammatical accuracy and pragmatic appropriateness of the utterance. Either a grammatical problem or a pragmatic problem had been inserted in advance in each scenario, except for a few intact cases that served as distractors.

The major findings from this empirical investigation were that 1) the learning/teaching contexts of EFL/ESL affects their grammatical and pragmatic awareness; that is, the EFL learners and teachers paid more attention to grammatical problems, but ESL learners and teachers were more concerned with pragmatic problems, and 2) EFL learners' English proficiency correlated positively with their grammaticality and pragmatic judgments in the EFL context, while ESL learners' proficiency had a similar correlation with pragmatic judgments but not with grammatical judgments.

The present Study

Research questions

BH&D interpret the findings of their study as evidence for the necessity of strengthening pragmatic instruction in EFL contexts. Their argument is worth taking into account, but there seem to be further considerations necessary to generalize their findings and to integrate this kind of discussion into studies on English as an ILF. Among other concerns, their investigation is based only on norms of English native speakers (NSs), and one may wonder if the learners' reactions would have been the same if the judgment targets were NNS utterances

instead. Additionally, one may question whether learners in different EFL contexts whose English proficiency is on a similar level as BH&D's participants (pre-intermediate) can perceive grammatical/pragmatic problems as accurately as BH&D's participants so that BH&D's findings can be generalized regardless of learning contexts.

To examine these issues, an empirical study related to the BH&D study was planned, in which Japanese college English learners (JCELS) were chosen as observation targets. More specifically, the following research questions were formulated in this study:

1. Are JCELS' judgments of NNS and NS utterances consistent in assessing the following items: comprehensibility, pronunciation acceptability, grammatical correctness, and pragmatic appropriateness (in order to avoid redundancy, these four are referred to hereafter as C, Pro, G, and P or CProGP items)? (RQ1)
2. Are JCELS more similar to EFL or ESL respondents of the H&D study in terms of grammatical and pragmatic judgments? (RQ2)
3. Can JCELS make grammatical and pragmatic judgments accurately? (RQ3)
4. Does proficiency affect JCELS' grammatical and pragmatic judgments? (RQ4)

Data collection method and participants

Empirical data collection of this study was conducted by using eight *audio* scenarios (see Appendix 1 of this paper for a complete transcription of the entire scenarios), instead of *video* scenarios as in the BH&D study. In addition, the scenarios of this study consisted only of *request refusals* rather than mixed speech acts as in their study. Some request refusal situations from their study were borrowed, and similar situations were newly created in this study to maintain the necessary number of scenarios. Despite the difference in speech act selection, the task format itself was unchanged. That is, an audio scenario was presented in a dialogue format between a male NS teacher and a female NNS student (six scenarios) or in a dialogue between a male NS teacher and a female NS student (two scenarios),¹ and then the JCEL respondents judged the students' utterance in each dialogue with respect to the four assessment points, i.e., the CProGP items (Table 1). The NNS students in the six scenarios represent the following nationalities: Chinese, Japanese, Italian, Korean, Spanish, and Vietnamese. The NS student

Table 1. Audio scenarios for the judgment task

No	Name	Nationality	C	Pro	G	P
Warm-up & distractors	Mera	Peruvian		-	+	-
	Nguen	Vietnamese		-	+	+
1	Ming	Chinese		-	-	-
2	Choi	Korean		-	-	-
3	Kana	Japanese		-	-	-
4	Anna	Italian		-	-	-
5	Emily	NS		+	-	-
6	Nancy	NS		+	+	+

N.B.: '-' stands for deviations from standard English norms. C = comprehensibility, Pro = pronunciation, G = Grammaticality, P = pragmatics

roles were played by an NS of American English. Of these eight scenarios, a Spanish speaker's utterance was used for a practice session, and the Vietnamese speaker's was used as a distractor. Hence, the total number of task scenarios used for the actual data analysis was six, including the two NS scenarios.²

As in the following example, both a grammatical error and a pragmatically inappropriate segment (direct request refusal) were inserted in each one of these six scenarios, except for one NS utterance (Nancy: see the "+" mark in both G and P items in Table 1).

(e.g.) Interaction between NS-NNS (Kana Tanaka)

Kana Tanaka is a Japanese student. She knows it is her day to give a talk in class, but she is not ready.

Teacher: Thank you Mary, that was very interesting. Kana, it's your turn to give your talk.

Kana: **I don't want to do it today. But I am do it next week.** (G problem: verb form; P problem: direct request refusal)

N.B.: Each dialogue was played twice. A chime sound was inserted before the recording of the student utterance in the second display to signal the judgment target clearly.

As in the above example, all the grammatical problems in the scenarios are made up of apparent violations of English rules, including the use of 'many' for an uncountable noun ('many time'), wrong past tense ('did not brought'), a subject-verb disagreement ('a person who have'), and a wrong comparative form (much more busier). Pragmatic problems in all the scenarios are concerned with a rather direct request refusal as in the above example.

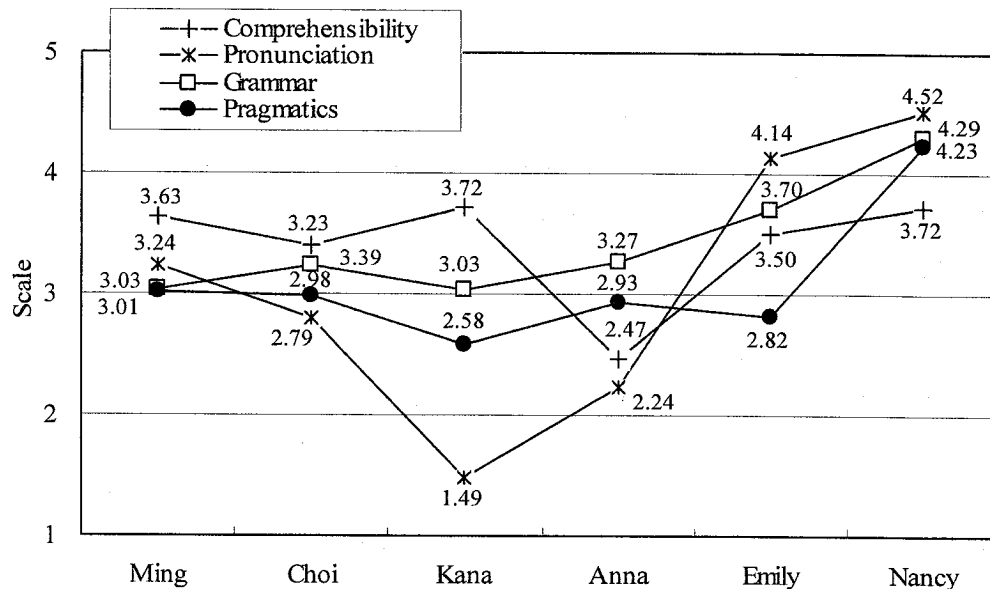
Immediately after listening to each scenario, the participants answered the first question about their understanding of the dialogue (see Appendix 2 for the details of the task questions). To avoid responses made only by guessing, the respondents were directed to skip the remaining CProGP questions if they did not understand a scenario. The CProGP questions were formatted in a five-point Likert scale ranging from "very difficult/bad" to "very easy/good" with an additional sixth choice of "I can't determine", which was also intended to avoid responses by guessing. The total participants in the study were 181 JCELS (87 males and 94 females),³ who can be divided into three proficiency groups: high, mid, and low ($N = 77, 57, \text{ and } 47$, respectively) according to their responses to a self-evaluation question on their English proficiency (Appendix 3: the high group members are those who chose 'A' or 'B' in the question; the mid group, 'C'; and the low group, 'D' and 'E', respectively).⁴

Results

Descriptive statistics

For ease of grasping the entire response patterns, the means of overall responses are plotted on a graph (Figure 1) by each tested item (see Appendix 4 for detailed descriptive statistics).

Figure 1. Means of CProGP judged by JCEL respondents



N.B.: Scale for 'Comprehensibility': 1-very difficult to 5-very easy.

Scale for 'Pronunciation', 'Grammar', and 'Pragmatics': 1-very bad to 5-very good.

Those who did not understand the dialogue (Q1) and those who chose "I can't determine" in the CProGP questions were excluded from the calculation of means. See the section of *Responses of "I can't determine"* below for more about these responses.

It should be noted in interpreting these results that, except for Nancy's utterance, low judgments (below 3.0) were expected for all the scenarios, especially on the G and P questions, due to the intentional insertions of problems in these two items. Salient features are noticeable in the response means, and the four main ones are mentioned here.

The first feature is concerned with a peculiarity of Kana's means. Although the comprehensibility of her utterance was highest along with that of Nancy's, Kana's utterance was ranked lowest in the Pro and P items among all the NNS utterances. The second feature is that the two NSs represented by Emily and Nancy were assessed higher on most items than the other NNSs, except for Emily's mean for the P item. Next, Anna's means were lower in the C and Pro items; however, the means of her other two judgment items stayed in the middle. Finally, Choi and Ming, the two non-Japanese Asian NNSs, were judged neither high nor low on all the items, except for Ming's C item.

Difference of means between grammar and pragmatics

Next, the analysis focused specifically on the difference of means between the items of G and P in order to discern if the JCEL participants were grammar-oriented or pragmatics-oriented, as in BH&D's EFL/ESL dichotomy. A difference of means (G - P) for each speaker, which can be obtained from Figure 1, is .02 for Ming, .26 for Choi, .044 for Kana, .028 for Anna, .95 for Emily, and -.06 for Nancy. To examine whether these differences are significant, a paired *t*-test was run for each NNS speaker separately, and the results obtained were significant for all the speakers, except for Ming and Nancy: Ming, $t = 0.138$, p

= 0.889; Choi, $t = 3.908$, $p < .001$; Kana, $t = 5.184$, $p < .001$; Anna, $t = 2.750$, $p < .01$; Emily, $t = 8.556$, $p < .001$; Nancy, $t = -1.221$, $p = .225$. Judging from these results, one may want to conclude that the JCEs are more similar to BH&D's ESL learners, who were more sensitive to pragmatic problems than grammatical problems (note again as already mentioned in the preceding section that lower means of the G and P items signifies more sensitive perception of G or P problems.) However, caution must be maintained regarding this interpretation due to the results shown in the next section.

Responses of "I can't determine"

As annotated in Figure 1, the means of the CProGP items were calculated by excluding those who did not understand the audio scenarios and those who answered "I can't determine" in the CProGP items. The *N* row in the Table 2 shows the total number of respondents who could understand each scenario "completely" or "more or less" (see Appendix 2), and the figures in the remaining rows represent the numbers of those who chose "I can't determine" in each one of the four judgment questions.

Table 2. Total respondents who chose "I can't determine"

Name	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
<i>N</i>	177	176	178	133	172	152
C	4	3	1	2	2	3
Pro	6	2	2	4	4	2
G	31	43	30	45	41	33
P	16	12	16	20	13	7
C	2.3	1.7	0.6	1.5	1.2	2.0
Pro	3.4	1.1	1.1	3.0	2.3	1.3
G	17.5	24.4	16.9	33.8	23.8	21.7
P	9.0	6.8	9.0	15.0	7.6	4.6

N.B. The upper half of the table shows the raw numbers, and the lower half percentile shares of the respondents shown in the *N* row.

From the *N* row of the table, we can know that, among the 181 respondents, from a minimum of 3 respondents (Kana: 181-178) to a maximum of 48 respondents (Anna: 181-133) could not understand the scenarios. Moreover, we also can know from the table that quite a large number of respondents could not judge the G and P items as the highlighted areas in the table indicate. Compared with the C and Pro items (ranging from a minimum 0.6% to a maximum 3.4%), the ratios of the "I can't determine" choosers are extremely high in the G item (from 16.9% to 33.8%) and the P item (from 4.6% to 15.0%).

In addition to these undetermined responses, Figure 1 indicates that most NNS means are centered around 3.0, and this could be attributed to the possibility that the participants were not confident enough to make a definite decision. These NNS means contrast somewhat with the NS means of Emily and Nancy in the G item and of Nancy in the P item. Here we should

not overlook the fact that Emily’s utterance has a similar grammatical problem to those of the NNS speakers, which means that the participants might have given a higher G score only due to the fact that Emily was an NS speaker (see Note 1 regarding how the NS status of Emily and Nancy was delivered to the respondents).

Proficiency difference in the G and P items

Finally, how the participants’ proficiency had influenced their judgments on the G and P items was examined. The results are presented in the two tables below for each item along with the graphs that are displayed vertically. The results of a one-way ANOVA for the three-group comparison are also summarized at the bottom of the table and graph display.

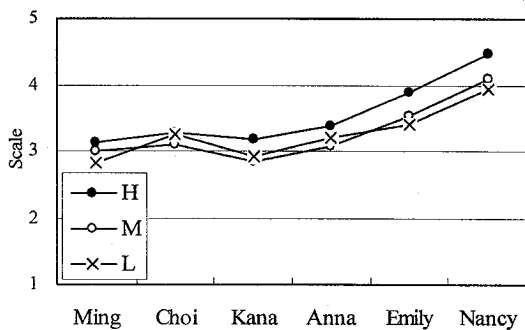
Table 3. Means of G item by proficiency & speaker

Name	M			SD		
	H	M	L	H	M	L
Ming	3.12	3.00	2.83	1.24	0.96	0.91
Choi	3.28	3.11	3.25	0.86	0.80	0.68
Kana	3.19	2.84	2.93	1.34	1.06	0.98
Anna	3.39	3.07	3.20	0.80	0.68	0.63
Emily	3.90	3.54	3.41	0.88	0.78	0.69
Nancy	4.46	4.09	3.93	0.61	0.71	0.62

Table 4. Means of P item by proficiency & speaker

Name	M			SD		
	H	M	L	H	M	L
Ming	2.86	2.98	3.35	1.16	0.88	0.79
Choi	2.95	2.92	3.11	0.89	0.66	0.70
Kana	2.55	2.58	2.63	1.02	0.79	0.91
Anna	2.95	2.83	3.06	0.85	0.82	0.73
Emily	2.57	2.92	3.19	1.18	0.98	0.98
Nancy	4.43	4.19	3.69	0.80	0.71	0.62

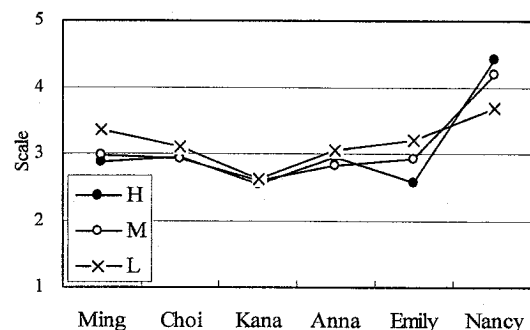
Figure 2. Graph display of Table 3



N.B.: Scale: 1-very bad to 5-very good

Ming: $F(2, 143) = 0.747, p = 0.476$
 Choi: $F(2, 130) = 0.592, p = 0.554$
 Kana: $F(2, 145) = 1.305, p = 0.274$
 Anna: $F(2, 85) = 1.648, p = 0.199$
 Emily: $F(2, 128) = 4.413, p = 0.014$
 Nancy: $F(2, 116) = 6.593, p = 0.002$

Figure 3. Graph display of Table 4



N.B.: Scale: 1-very bad to 5-very good

Choi: $F(2, 161) = 0.698, p = 0.499$
 Kana: $F(2, 159) = 0.090, p = 0.914$
 Anna: $F(2, 110) = 0.491, p = 0.613$
 Emily: $F(2, 156) = 4.349, p = 0.015$
 Nancy: $F(2, 142) = 9.558, p = 0.000$

Two salient features emerged from this analysis. One is that proficiency yielded a significant difference only in the NS judgments (but none of the NNS judgments) both on the G and P items. The other is that, despite the intentional insertion of the G and P problems in each scenario other than Nancy’s, the learners with higher proficiency tended to make more

positive judgments on the G item. This sounds somewhat contradictory to our general expectancy of learners' proficiency since the learners with higher proficiency by definition have a better command of grammar. The most plausible reason for this would be that most of these learners actually could not notice the problems, but they chose to make more positive judgments, especially toward the NSs. Conversely, the less proficient learners chose rather to be neutral (i.e., chose 3) due to their lesser confidence in their English.

Discussion and implications

We will discuss the main findings presented in the preceding section according to the order of the four research questions of the study.

First, regarding RQ1 on JCELS' judgment consistency, consistent judgments were observed with respect to the NSs' utterances and those of the two non-Japanese Asian NNS speakers (Ming and Choi). However, Kana, the Japanese speaker who represents the JCELS' most familiar variety of English, was judged best in comprehension but worst in the Pro and G items. This asymmetric pattern could be accounted for by a stereotypical negative image that Japanese people have toward strong Japanese accents in English, while the positive judgments of the NSs would simply reflect the participants' innocent belief that English spoken by NSs is perfect and they are always good models for study. In contrast to these judgments regarding the scenarios by the Japanese NNS and the NSs, both of whose varieties the JCELS are frequently exposed to, the neutral judgments on Ming and Choi can be ascribed to the JCELS' unfamiliarity with their ways of speaking. As for the Italian NNS, her pronunciation must have seemed to the participants extremely different from that of the others, and thus her utterance was determined to be difficult to understand. Consequently, the JCELS must have made a negative judgment on her highly 'exotic' pronunciation to them.

With respect to RQ2 in reference to the HB&D study, the JCELS seem most similar to their ESL learners; however, this interpretation appears to be too simplistic. RQ3 asked about the accuracy of their judgments on the G and P items, and the results obtained were not as expected. Therefore, it is highly doubtful that the grammatical mistakes and pragmatically inappropriate factors were accurately perceived by the JCELS, except for those cases involving varieties familiar to them, such as that of Kana (but not regarding her utterance grammaticality) and the two NSs. Moreover, the analysis of proficiency differences, i.e., RQ4, indicates that even the learners in the highest proficiency group have not reached a threshold level to perceive simple G or P problems. In fact, the higher learners were more inaccurate than the lower two groups in their grammaticality judgments.

There are several implications from these findings. Among others, the most important and serious one is the fact that the JCEL participants' grammatical and pragmatic competence was in practice insufficient to help them make proper judgments on the fairly simple utterances that they may encounter in quite ordinary language use. It should be noted that about half of the participants belong to a department where paramount importance is placed on English proficiency, and additionally their English scores in the nationwide unified entrance

examination is far higher than the average. Overemphasis on grammatical knowledge in English education in Japan is often critically viewed; however, the fact would most probably be that their grammatical knowledge has not been nurtured adequately as practical ‘live’ knowledge that is necessary either for grammatical or pragmatic judgments.

Another important implication is the JCELS’ irrelevant, naïve belief in the NS myth, which probably derives from their unfamiliarity with and/or ignorance of NNS varieties. In actual language teaching, it should be stressed that NSs make mistakes similar to those of NNSs, and more importantly, pragmatically careful utterances by NNSs are often accepted as better than arrogant-sounding utterances by NSs on the part of most English speakers who know how to use English in the international context.

Methodologically, the present study has an important implication. The current study can primarily be categorized as a study of interlanguage pragmatics. In this research area, the majority of past studies are based on NS norms as the BH&D study typically shows. In fact, however, English is not the native speaker’s property any longer, and from this standpoint the present study claims the necessity of integrating an additional perspective of English as an ILF into studies of interlanguage pragmatics. In such new types of interlanguage pragmatic study, a methodological innovation, as attempted in this study, seems to be essential.

Finally, the present study is exploratory and it is weak in some points. The most serious one is the fact that the study is based solely on the JCEL judgments, even though it claimed the necessity of introducing the view of English as an ILF into studies of interlanguage pragmatics. To promote the study, therefore, responses in other EFL contexts must be collected, and they must be compared with the JCEL responses. In fact, while writing this paper, the authors of the study have been trying to collect such responses from EFL learners in China, Italy, and Korea, i.e., three other NNS groups for this study. Thus, the authors are hoping that they will be able to present findings from the extended data collection at the next JALT conference.

Notes

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1. In each scenario, the speaker’s nationality was explicitly announced. Regarding the two NS speakers, they were introduced as “Emily Smith is an American student” and “Nancy Watson is a Canadian student”, by which it was indicated that these speakers would be native English speakers.

2. An alternative data collection design is to employ different profiles of one specific NNS variety, the Japanese one in particular as in (G+, P-), (G-, P+), and (G+, P+). We chose the one presented in Table 1 since we intended to conduct a cross-cultural study that will be mentioned in the section of *Discussion and implications* of this study.

3. Whether the respondents of this study represent Japanese college English learners in general is a controversial point. To avoid responses by a specific student population, the respondents were chosen in this study from two local, co-educational universities (one public and one private) in fairly diverse major areas (e.g., business, law, international studies, and information sciences). Even so, the statistical sampling problem is not completely solved and, therefore, we have to be careful not to generalize the findings of the study too excessively.

4. This self-evaluation method of determining participants' proficiency was also borrowed from the BH&D study, where some practical problems as well as merits of using this method are discussed. Unarguably, a more reliable method is to use test scores, but they are not always easily obtainable due to practical restrictions of giving a test or tests. In this study, it was impossible to give any tests at a university where the authors were unaffiliated.

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Appendix 1: A complete transcription of the entire Scenarios (highlighted utterances were the actual judgment targets.)

1 Warm-up

Mera Gonzalez is a student from Peru. Her Math teacher asks her to answer a math question.

T: Mera, can you answer the question?

M: What? Me?

2. NS-Japanese (Kana Tanaka) P-, Pg-, G-

Kana Tanaka is a Japanese student. She knows it is her day to give a talk in class, but she is not ready.

T: Thank you Mary, that was very interesting. Kana, it's your turn to give your talk.

K: I don't want to do it today. But I am do it next week. (verb form)

3. NS-Italian (Anna Bruni) P-, Pg-, G-

Anna Bruni is an Italian student. Her teacher asks her to go to library and check whether the book he talked about in class is in the library.

T: OK, more information is available in this book, but I'm not sure if our university library has it or not. Anna, do you have time to check it for us?

A: **No, I don't.** It would be better to ask a person who have time. (S-V agreement in a relative clause)

4. NS- Chinese (Li Ming) P-, Pg-, G-

Li Ming is a Chinese student. Her teacher advises her to turn in her paper by tomorrow.

T: Ming, the paper was due today, but I'll wait for yours until tomorrow. Do you think you can turn it in by then?

L: **No, I can't.** I don't have many time today. (wrong uncountable noun modifier)

5. NS-Korean (Choi Ji Woo) P-, Pg-, G-

Choi Ji Woo is a Korean student. Her teacher knows that she is good at taking photos.

T: Choi Ji Woo, I heard you are good at taking pictures. Could you show me some of your favorite ones you took in your country?

C: **No, that's not possible.** In fact, I didn't brought them from my home. (double tense marking)

6. Distractor 1: P-, Pg+, G+

Nguyen Hai is a student from Vietnam. Her teacher, Professor Gordon, notices that Nguyen has a beautiful photo book of her country.

T: Nguyen, your book looks very interesting. Could I possibly borrow it for the weekend, if you don't need it?

M: I'm sorry, Professor Gordon. I borrowed this from my friend, and I have to return it to her today.

7. Distractor 2: NS P+, Pg-, G-

Emily Smith is an American student. She helped her teacher a week ago.

T: Emily, I wonder if you could help me again by copying some parts of these books this afternoon.

E: No way. I'm more busier than I was last week.

8. Distractor 2: P+, Pg+, G+

Nancy Watson is a British student. She was asked by her professor to help with student registration.

T: Nancy, we have an international students' gathering this weekend, and we have to find volunteer students who help us at the registration. I wonder if you could be one of them.

N: I wish I could, since I enjoy talking with foreign students. But unfortunately, I have an important appointment already scheduled at that time.

Appendix 2: Questions for each scenario (translated into English)

Q1: Did you understand what the speaker was saying? "Yes, completely." "Yes, more or less." "No, not at all."

If your answer to Q1 is "Yes, completely" or "Yes, more or less"

→ Evaluate her talking on the following four points:

1) Difficulty to understand her talking

1. Very difficult 2. Difficult 3. So so 4. Easy 5. Very easy 6. I can't determine

2) Her pronunciation

1. Very bad 2. Bad 3. So so 4. Good 5. Very good 6. I can't determine

3) Her grammar

1. Very bad 2. Bad 3. So so 4. Good 5. Very good 6. I can't determine

4) Her manner of talking (polite/appropriate enough?)

1. Very bad 2. Bad 3. So so 4. Good 5. Very good 6. I can't determine

Appendix 3: Self-evaluation question on proficiency (Translated into English)

Q: How well can you communicate in English?

- A: I can express my opinions in English freely. (Advanced)
- B: I can say most of what I want to say despite some difficulty of doing so. (High-intermediate)
- C: I can say what I want to say, but have much difficulty in doing so. (Low-intermediate)
- D: I can't say most of what I want to say. (Beginning)
- E: I can't express myself at all. (True beginner)

Appendix 4: Descriptive statistics of scenario judgments

Item	Name	N'	M	SD
C	1 Ming	173	3.63	0.85
	2 Choi	173	3.39	0.83
	3 Kana	177	3.72	1.02
	4 Anna	131	2.47	0.95
	5 Emily	170	3.50	1.03
	6 Nancy	149	3.72	1.13
Pro	1 Ming	171	3.24	0.79
	2 Choi	174	2.79	0.72
	3 Kana	176	1.49	0.68
	4 Anna	129	2.24	0.85
	5 Emily	168	4.14	0.82
	6 Nancy	150	4.52	0.75
G	1 Ming	146	3.03	1.10
	2 Choi	133	3.23	0.81
	3 Kana	148	3.03	1.20
	4 Anna	88	3.27	0.75
	5 Emily	131	3.70	0.84
	6 Nancy	119	4.29	0.67
P	1 Ming	161	3.01	1.01
	2 Choi	164	2.98	0.78
	3 Kana	162	2.58	0.93
	4 Anna	113	2.93	0.82
	5 Emily	159	2.82	1.10
	6 Nancy	145	4.23	0.79

N.B.: N's stand for the respondents who chose either "Yes, completely" or "Yes, more or less" in the first judgment question (see Appendix 1 above for the detail of this question).

Learners' Pragmatic Awareness of Softener Use*

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Abstract

Japanese EFL learners' fewer varieties and less frequent English softener use than NSs' were observed in a previous study conducted by Nogami (2004). This study aims to measure NNSs' awareness and intentions regarding softening messages because it seems to be unknown whether NNSs intentionally or unintentionally use only a few softeners. For example, it is possible that they may not know how to soften their messages. Alternatively, they may not regard softening their utterances as necessary. The main research questions were: (1) Are NNSs aware of modifying their illocutionary force? (2) Do NNSs' utterances correlate with their intentions? Data was collected by open-ended role play discussion and a retrospective questionnaire. The results indicated that NNSs were generally not aware of softening messages. Their limited use of softeners was seemingly caused by their low levels of pragmatic awareness and lack of linguistic knowledge in spontaneous verbal communication.

日本人英語学習者が英語の *softener* を英語母語話者よりもより少ない種類を、及びより低頻度使用する、ということが前研究で検証された (Nogami, 2004)。本研究では語用論領域ではまだあまり研究がされていない *softener* 使用に関する非英語母語話者の語用論的意識、意図を図ることを目的とした。例えば、彼らがあまり発話を和らげないのは意図的なのか、又は必要性がないと判断しているからなのかという事項は未知のままである。よって本研究課題は以下の二点とする。1) 非英語母語話者は発話内効力を和らげるということに留意しているかどうか。2) 非英語母語話者の発話と意図・意識との間に関連性が見られるかどうか。

研究方法としては回顧的アンケートを用いた。そのアンケート結果により非英語母語話者の語用論的意識は低く、及び彼らの *softener* の低頻度使用は自然発話においての言語知識の欠如が原因となって起こると結論づけられた。

At the relatively early stage of language learning, nonnative speakers of English (NNSs) focus on making themselves understood in terms of the content of what they want to say. Similarly, their interlocutors would probably not pay much attention to pragmatic aspects of language use when they are trying to understand the message being conveyed. On the other hand, as learners' language proficiency increases, they may be expected to speak more appropriately than lower proficiency learners when communicating in a target language. Softeners play a role to facilitate the speaker-hearer relationship, including the enhancement of solidarity and the maintenance of social distance (Holmes, 1982, 1984a, 1984b).

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Therefore, various studies on softening elucidate some of the essential aspects of communication.

Many studies provide evidence that NNSs use fewer softeners than native speakers of English (NSs). For instance, House & Kasper (1981) conducted a cross-cultural comparative observation, and found that German EFL students softened messages less frequently than NSs. As additional examples, LoCastro's (1993) study in the setting of a business meeting; Nogami's (2004) study in open-ended discussions; and Rinnert & Iwai's (2003) three regional (U.S., Japan, and Singapore) cross-cultural questionnaire studies on complaints showed that Japanese speakers of English mitigate their messages less often than NSs. Many interlanguage pragmatics or second language acquisition researchers tend to be occupied with consideration of linguistic politeness matters that arise from cross-cultural norms of language use, the role of pragmatic instruction, input and output. In contrast, it seems that few researchers have devoted themselves to the investigation of nonnative speakers' intentions toward their utterances, especially with respect to their softener usage. For instance, it is not known whether they intentionally or unintentionally use only a few softeners. Similarly, it remains to be determined why they show little use of softeners. For example, it could come from their not knowing how to soften their messages, or it could be that they had learned the particular softeners they wanted to use but could not remember and say them spontaneously. Alternatively, it could be because they regard that softening their utterances is not necessary. Therefore, I formulated the following two research questions.

- 1) Are NNSs aware of modifying their illocutionary force?
- 2) Do NNSs' utterances correlate with their intentions?

In this study, softeners mean lexical devices to soften messages or propositions asserted, such as *would, probably, I think, I wonder, kind of, a little, like, you know, as far as I knew from what information I had here, and it's nice to think about* (Nogami, 2004). The present study deals with the analysis of a retrospective questionnaire, which was answered by Japanese EFL students to examine the two research questions above. However, it should be noted that this questionnaire survey is the latter stage of a larger investigation. At the earlier stage, I collected open-ended discussion data from Japanese EFLs and NSs, and on the basis of the conversational data, I analyzed softeners quantitatively and found that NNSs softener use was much less than that of NSs in terms of variety and frequency (Nogami, 2004). After this first stage, a retrospective questionnaire was administered. I will explain details of the original discussion data collection and the post-discussion retrospective questionnaire in the following section.

Methodology

In this section, I will describe background information of the participants and the procedure of the investigation.

The participants in this research were eight Japanese EFL college students majoring in international studies, all female. Their English language proficiencies were high intermediate to high advanced. Their TOEIC scores ranged from 720 to 965. The length of their experiences staying in English speaking countries ranged from zero to five years (Table 1).

Table 1. Japanese participants' backgrounds

NNSs' pseudonyms	MOMO	NAZUNA	DAISY	FREESIA	KAEDE	SAKURA	SATSUKI	SUMIRE
TOEIC score	965	855	885	875	750	785	720	745
Stay Experience*	5 yrs	5 yrs	6 mos	1 yrs	3 wks	4wks	3wks	0

*Stay Experience: the duration of experiences staying in English speaking countries.

As mentioned above, prior to the questionnaire survey, spoken English data was collected during discussion sessions. The students were divided into four groups, each of which included one native speaker of English, and asked to discuss a given topic related to a contemporary social issue.¹ Each discussion lasted approximately 30 minutes, and all the sessions were video- and tape-recorded and transcribed.

Two to three weeks after their discussion sessions, participants answered the retrospective questionnaire survey in Japanese.² The questionnaire was given to them with the transcription of their own spoken data. In the transcription, softeners used by their native interlocutors' were highlighted for the respondents in order to give them some idea of what softeners are like.³

The retrospective questionnaire consisted of four questions:

- Question A: The participants were asked to circle one number on a five-point Likert scale from 1 = never being careful to 5 = always being careful in order to measure to what degree they were aware of softening their messages when they spoke in English.
- Question B: The participants were then asked to identify and highlight softeners that were used by the respondents themselves.
- Question C: Each respondent was asked to judge each of her utterances with respect to softening messages. Judgment criteria were mainly the following seven points:
 - 1) Even though you wanted to soften messages, you changed the way you spoke because you did not know how to express it or because you have forgot expressions.
 - 2) Even though you wanted to soften messages, you omitted or left it out because you did not know or forgot expressions.
 - 3) You consciously softened messages, as you wanted.
 - 4) You softened messages unconsciously.

- 5) Even though you wanted to soften messages, you did not know appropriate expressions, and still now you do not know how to do it.
- 6) You had no idea about whether you should soften messages or not.
- 7) You did not think that you had to soften messages.

After answering the questions above, for the utterances they judged under criteria 1 and 2, the respondents were asked to recall and write down expressions that they initially had wanted to say or would say in retrospect instead of what they had said.

- Question D: The respondents were asked to evaluate their own utterances overall in terms of the extent to which they thought they softened their utterances. As the evaluation criteria, the five-point Likert scale was provided.

Results and discussion

In this section, I will show the results and discussion related to each question in the same order as they were presented on the questionnaire. First, the result and observations on Question A: Awareness of softening message will be introduced. Question B: retrospective self-judgments and Question C: self-modification will follow this. Lastly the results and discussion on Question D: self-evaluation will be presented.

Question A: Awareness of softening messages

First, participants responded to the question: To what extent are you aware of using softeners when you usually speak in English? (See Table 2.) Only one participant chose level 4 on the five-point scale of awareness, which indicated that she was often careful about softening her messages. This is the only reply showing a clear positive response. The other seven participants showed neutral and negative responses. Three of them rated their awareness as level 3, which could be interpreted as being undecided or as not knowing whether they pay attention to using softeners. The other three NNSs selected level 2, meaning that they are rarely conscious of applying softeners. Lastly, one chose level 1. This implies that she felt she would never be careful about using softeners. Thus, it can be said that most of the participants were reportedly not aware of softening their messages except for one participant (MOMO). However, this may have resulted from the fact that she majored in sociolinguistics as an undergraduate, picking up ideas throughout the course and reading papers on subjects related to pragmatics and second language studies.

Table 2. Awareness of softening messages

NNSs' pseudonyms	MOMO	NAZUNA	DAISY	FREESIA	KAEDE	SAKURA	SATSUKI	SUMIRE
Question A scale	4	2	2	3	3	1	3	2

*1: Never being careful, 2: Usually not being careful, 3: I don't know, 4: Sometimes being careful, 5: Always being careful

Question B: Retrospective self-judgments

The second question of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to identify softeners within their own utterances, and to look back and judge what they said during the discussion regarding their softener use. The responses to the task were rather diverse because the number of total words spoken, turn-taking, and softeners differed greatly from person to person; thus, due to space limitations, only those findings which seem to give us interesting insights will be introduced.

By observing the responses as a whole, I found three main features: a) Softeners were mostly used unconsciously; b) Places where no softeners were used tended to be evaluated as having no need for softening; c) Softeners were sometimes used consciously. Respondents who have experienced living in U.S. for five years (MOMO & NAZUNA) showed a strong tendency toward findings A and B. Almost all of their softener use was conducted unconsciously. This is probably because they are both near-bilingual NNSs; in essence, they may have enough control when speaking English and their softeners may be automatized in their English language use.

Question C: Self-modifications

As shown in Table 3, four of the participants made modifications and the other four did not.

Table 3. Self-modification of utterances

NNSs' pseudonyms	MOMO	NAZUNA	DAISY	FREESIA	KAEDE	SAKURA	SATSUKI	SUMIRE
*Self-modification	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0

*0: No modifications made, 1: modifications made

Next, I will describe the modifications made by the four participants who made them (DAISY, FREESIA, KAEDE, SATSUKI) below (Table 4).⁴ In the *Original* column, the participants' original spoken discourse samples are listed. Underlined words and phrases in the Original column are those parts deleted after participants' modifications. Single caret marks indicate points where participants inserted words. The *After modification* column shows the results of modifications made by the respondents. The words and phrases in capital and highlighted letters in the After modifications column are those added as modifications by the participants themselves. Softeners that were identified at the original stage of the study (Nogami, 2004) are shown in italics as references for the readers.

There are 24 modifications in total made by the four participants. All of them are utterances that contained messages that the respondents initially desired to soften while talking. First, we have 3 modification samples made reportedly because the participant did not know how to soften the utterance (Examples 1, 2, & 3 in Table 4). In other words, for instance, in example 2, the respondent said, "I see." during the discussion, but actually she wanted to say,

“Might be.” These samples could explain the speakers’ intentions to soften messages and their maneuverings to deal with the problematic situations.

From examples 4 to 24 in Table 4, we can see the other 21 modifications the respondents made, in all of which cases in spite of their desire to soften expressions, they failed to do because of limitations in their linguistic knowledge. For instance, one respondent (example 4: FREESIA) actually said, “Yeah, we are putting much the same”; nevertheless she wanted to mitigate the assertion to some extent by using “pretty.”

Table 4. Lists of modifications made by the participants

Ex	Respondent	Original	After modifications
1	KAEDE	She <u>is</u> staying on the bed long time, <i>I think</i> .	She MAY BE staying on the bed long time, <i>I think</i> .
2	DAISY	<u>I see</u> .*	MIGHT BE.
3	DAISY	<i>I think</i> it's just [^] because it says she collapsed during the trial claiming her innocence.	<i>I think</i> it's just IT WOULD BE JUST because it says she collapsed during the trial claiming her innocence.
4	FREESIA	Yeah, we are putting [^] much the same.	Yeah, we are putting PRETTY much the same.
5	FREESIA	[^] I never faced to this kind of situation [^]	I THINK I never faced to this kind of situation, HAVE YOU?
6	FREESIA	We put it [^] different place [^]	We put it PRETTY different place, DIDN'T WE?
7	FREESIA	She [^] is living Virginia <i>or somewhere</i> .	She SEEMS TO BE living Virginia <i>or somewhere</i> .
8	SATSUKI	Yeah [^] the surgery will be easy, more easier than using to B patient B, to patient D or.	Yeah I THINK the surgery will be easy, more easier than using to B patient B, to patient D or.
9	SATSUKI	Because <u>she is</u> she hasn't she didn't do anything but she will be punished, -.	Because she SEEMS TO BE (that) she hasn't she didn't do anything but she will be punished, -.
10	SATSUKI	[^] She is not; she is innocent enough to tell you.	I THINK she is not; she is innocent enough to tell you.
11	SATSUKI	- if the heart transp ahh, transferred to him <i>maybe</i> ahh, <i>maybe</i> , or <i>possibly</i> he <u>will be</u> reject more so.	- if the heart transp ahh, transferred to him <i>maybe</i> ahh, <i>maybe</i> , or <i>possibly</i> he WOULD reject more so.
12	SATSUKI	I,, <i>I think</i> (...) kids are really important but not only the numbers but [^] also ages for kids, ages of kids or their	I,, <i>I think</i> (...) kids are really important but not only the numbers but I THINK also ages for kids, ages of kids or their parents

		parents or one? It is difficult.	or one? It is difficult.
13	SATSUKI	^Very little small kids, babies mmm. than other children who, if the person who has children now <i>maybe</i> their children has no parents <i>maybe</i> adopted (.....).	I THINK very little small kids, babies mmm. than other children who, if the person who has children now <i>maybe</i> their children has no parents <i>maybe</i> adopted (.....).
14	SATSUKI	<u>No, no no no, ahh</u> , he, his heart problem is ah, congenital one,	No, I DON'T THINK SO, ACTUALLY he, his heart problem is ah, congenital one,
15	SATSUKI	- possibility of his rejecting <u>be</u> one more occurred yes, it <i>can</i> be, so.	- possibility of his rejecting WOULD be one more occurred yes, it <i>can</i> be, so.
16	KAEDE	- so if she die after she die, umm, children^ have to live alone.	- so if she die after she die, umm, children MAYBE have to live alone.
17	KAEDE	- So, umm, someone say that she is very famous.^ So, it's valuable, wealthy but it's not problem .	- So, umm, someone MAY say that she is very famous. So, it's valuable, wealthy but it's not problem, I THINK.
18	KAEDE	Because he is young, so <u>he</u> has a future (.), so.	Because he is young, so HE MAY HAVE BRIGHT FUTURE (.), so.
19	KAEDE	- industrial spy case and, umm she <u>can't</u> explain um, why she claiming her innocence	- industrial spy case and, umm she MAY WANT TO explain um, why she claiming her innocence
20	KAEDE	I thought that if she gets the heart and operation was successful, she <u>can</u> get a chance to work and get job.	I thought that if she gets the heart and operation was successful, she COULD get a chance to work and get job.
21	KAEDE	I don't think so^ their children, (.) children have to stay in dangerous place.	I don't think so, their children, (.) children MAYBE have to stay in dangerous place.
22	KAEDE	- she <u>should</u> solve this problem, so <i>I thought</i> third person she is.	- she MAY BE ABLE TO solve this problem IF SHE GETS FOR OPERATION, so <i>I thought</i> third person she is.
23	DAISY	She^ grows up at New York.	She MIGHT grow up at New York.
24	DAISY	- so their age^ affect our decisions? What do you think?	- so their age WOULDNT affect our decisions? What do you think?

*This was not regarded by me as a softener.

An interesting alternation can be seen in example 22. Originally the respondent used a booster, i.e., a device that reinforces the message, *should*, even though she wanted to soften the message. In the task, she changed this booster to the softener *may* and in the following context, as well. I assume that similar cases are quite possibly happening for NNSs, i.e., using boosters that are instantly available when people's intention does not link to certain words or phrases to soften messages spontaneously. They might choose expressions on the basis of grammatical or syntactic features rather than semantic aspects. This assumption may provide a possible reason for some early research findings that suggest nonnative speakers use boosting devices more frequently than native speakers do (House & Kasper, 1981; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992).

When observing all the examples of self-modification in Table 4, we can see that the participants modified their utterances with several new strategies. That is, they applied new softeners, which were never used by each of them in the actual discussion. Examples of such innovative selfmodification can be seen below:

KAEDE: e.g. 1, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22: *may, could*

DAISY: e.g. 2, 3, 23, 24: *might, would, wouldn't*

FREESIA: e.g. 4, 6, 7: *pretty, seems to be, -, didn't we?*

SATSUKI: e.g. 9, 11, 14, 15: *actually, would, seems to be*

Those newly used softeners may have previously been learned by each respondent; if so, that would explain why they were able to apply those familiar terms in this task. In such cases, those terms apparently had not been automatized enough for them to use these softeners spontaneously. This might be because of the fact that second language (L2) oral production is not immediately connected to what they have acquired (Kasper and Kellerman, 1997).

Another possibility could be that the above four participants learned the new softeners while they were working on the task by looking through their NS interlocutors' softener usage in the transcripts. In that case, it is anticipated that they learned softeners implicitly when they worked through the sequence of tasks.

Overall, the results seem, consistent with these examples, to provide some evidence that NNSs do sometimes have the desire to soften messages; that is, they are aware of a need for softening messages. However, in most situations they find it difficult to recall softening devices and/or to deal with strategies to soften messages due to limitations of linguistic knowledge. Therefore, it appears to indicate that NNSs' infrequent use of softeners can sometimes be caused by lack of availability of softening devices when they verbally produce language spontaneously.

Question D: Self-evaluation

As the last question (See Table 5), respondents were asked to evaluate to what extent they positively evaluated their softener use on the 5-point Likert-scale. Only one

(SATSUKI) out of the eight participants responded as being neutral (rating 3); alternatively, this neutral response could indicate her uncertainty toward this question. The remaining seven participants valued their use of softeners as not quite sufficient (rating 2), as they were basically not satisfied with their softener use.

Table 5. Self-evaluation of softener uses

NNSs' pseudonyms	MOMO	NAZUNA	DAISY	FREESIA	KAEDE	SAKURA	SATSUKI	SUMIRE
Question D scale	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2

*1: Not using sufficiently, 2:somewhat insufficiently, 3: I don't know, 4:Somewhat satisfactory, 5: Using softeners satisfactorily

One participant (MOMO) provided the following comment on her response:

"In spite of the fact that I always try to mitigate my messages, especially when I speak to older and higher status people, when I compared my own softener usage with that of the native speaker in discussion, I realized my use was too few" (translated from original Japanese).

Her response lends support to the possibility that NNSs can comprehend how many softeners NSs apply in discourse and become aware of the extent to which NNSs themselves use mitigation devices. However, I cannot be very sure whether the findings mean that NNSs' recognitions led them to try to use more mitigators in their messages. Moreover, the findings indicate how NSs express their doubt and uncertainty in their propositions and convey solidarity and camaraderie through those mitigators. This study did not aim to reveal those points, but it could be fruitful to investigate them in future investigations.

Conclusion

I investigated NNS participants' self-reported behavior and attitudes in terms of measuring Japanese speakers' awareness and intentions regarding English softener use. Many did not appear to have been aware of softening their messages when they were speaking in English. Only one NNS showed a positive response, which can indicate she was aware of either softening her utterances or the need to soften her utterances to some extent. However, it is not clear which of these two states of awareness she held. In contrast, the other seven NNSs only showed neutral or negative responses.

Additionally, the analysis revealed the following aspects of NNSs intentions toward using softeners. First, the results regarding this aim of the study appeared to vary individually. The responses of the participants who have lived in U.S. for five years seem to indicate that they use softeners without conscious recognition of doing so. As well as these two participants, the other six participants also indicated that they softened messages unintentionally to some extent. Second, the four participants who modified their utterances

in the retrospective task offered additional evidence regarding their situations related to softening messages. Taking their responses into consideration, NNSs sometimes cannot use softeners even though they want to, which is possibly related to their lack of linguistic knowledge that makes them unable to mitigate messages. Because of time limitations, the present study applied a retrospective multiple-choice questionnaire to understand nonnative speakers' awareness toward softening. However, such a written questionnaire could not reach beyond the most obvious participants' intentions. Therefore, a retrospective protocol interview could have been more productive to collect data to approach the more core components of participants' thoughts, as well as to analyze learners' intentions and awareness of mitigating messages.

In conclusion, NNSs' less frequent softener use in comparison with that of native speakers of English found in my previous empirical investigation (Nogami, 2004) could be caused by low pragmatic awareness and limitations of grammatical knowledge with respect to softening messages. It seems that there is a mixture of several factors to explain NNSs' limited usage of softeners. As well as the aspects investigated in the present study, there could be some other factors, such as influence from the NNSs' first language. Softening is one method to decrease the force of utterances both in English and Japanese. However, ways of softening differ syntactically in the two languages (Kanemaru, 1988⁵; Oshima, 1997⁶). Thus, it can be beneficial in the near future, to explore the use of softeners both in Japanese and English by native Japanese speakers and Japanese speakers of English. By doing this, more insightful observations could be made.

Notes

1. The topic of the debate was "Who gets the heart?" which was composed based on a topic from an ESL discussion practice book (Rooks, 1988, pp. 7-11). The participants were fictive members of a citizens' committee to advise the heart transplant surgery team at a university hospital, and they had to decide which of the five patients was to receive the heart that had become available for transplantation. The participants had several pieces of information about five patients who were all classified as "critically ill."
2. The delay in administering the questionnaire survey was caused by the time it took to transcribe and analyze the recorded discussion data.
3. The retrospective survey was conducted individually in front of me. I confirmed with each respondent that they understood what softeners are.
4. Several expressions were adapted slightly by me when the original expressions were not grammatically correct. However, they were not modified completely since the original utterance was to be respected.

5. Kanemaru (1988) analyzed overlapping functions of hedges in Japanese and English, and identified adjunctive expressions (*more or less, possibly*) that are used in English, and postpositional particles (*~ne*) and auxiliary verbs (*~rashii, ~mitai*) used in Japanese to soften illocutionary force.

6. Oshima (1997) investigated English and Japanese hedges (he called them modal adjuncts) that express probability including *maybe* and *probably*. He says modal adjuncts, modal verbs (*can, might*), interrogatives, and subjunctives are mainly used to soften messages in English; on the other hand, in Japanese, verbs (*~hazuda*), postpositional particles (*~kamo*), or adverbs (*~darou*) play major roles as softeners.

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Listening dissonances: Educational pragmatics for intercultural communication

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1 Dissonances in intercultural communication

The present paper aims at discussing some pedagogical ideas regarding how pragmatics can be usefully employed when teaching cross-cultural communication.¹ My reflections will be organized as follows. In the next sections I will first discuss the pedagogical framework I refer to (section 2), then I will put the theory into operation by offering some pedagogical suggestions (sections 3 and 4) regarding how notions of pragmatics can be used when analyzing *dissonances* that occur in intercultural encounters. These suggestions are structured as exercises and consist of the material I plan to use in one module of a cross-cultural communication course directed to Japanese university students.² As a premise, I would like to make clear that the exercises proposed in the applicative section of this paper are to be intended as simply prototypical suggestions. Obviously, their structure and content need to be modified according to the needs of each particular teaching context, starting with the vehicular language used in class. In this paper, for instance, English is used as a *lingua franca* merely for academic purposes, while in the class I teach Japanese will be used.

The peculiarity of these exercises is that they feature short stories which talk about *dissonances* that have actually occurred in intercultural encounters. Given that the notion of “intercultural pragmatic dissonance” represents the focal point of these reflections, in this introductory section I shall give a concise definition of what I intend by this term.

As I have discussed in Zamborlin (2007), under the label of “pragmatic dissonance”, I propose to include any production of (verbal) behavior that originates either intentionally or unintentionally and which, on the part of the hearer(s), comes across as unexpected within an array of evaluation that may range from the slightly incongruous to the extremely out of place.

¹ In this paper the words “cross-cultural” and “intercultural” will not be used interchangeably. Generally, as Gudykunst (2000: 314) explains, cross-cultural research compares behavior in two or more cultures by observing individuals who interact with members of their own culture. Intercultural research, on the other hand, examines behavior when members of two or more cultures interact. Here, the term “intercultural” will be used when describing or analyzing episodes of miscommunication that actually occurred in interactions between members of two different languages and cultures. The term “cross-cultural”, on the other hand, will be employed when the same episodes are re-interpreted from the outside, that is to say, by adopting a broader interpretative approach through which the phenomena under analysis are contrastively explained in light of some historical and societal factors which characterize students’ culture and the culture under analysis.

² By “module” I refer to an autonomous section (i.e., three lessons) within the syllabus (Balboni 2002:107).

As for the nature of the phenomenon, we may assume that pragmatic dissonances can result either from 1) speakers' intent to violate or 2) speakers' inability to conform to the norms/principles of linguistic etiquette followed in the speech community in which the interaction takes place.³

Concerning their dynamics, based on Spencer-Oatey (2000: 19-20) we can suppose that pragmatic dissonances may be produced across at least the following three pragmatic domains, which often intersect each other:

- 1) *Illocution*, when an utterance is perceived as face threatening, for example because of its surprising force, or because of the strategy the speaker employs, which might be too direct or too indirect.
- 2) *Style*, when an utterance is perceived as inappropriate as a result of the choice of lexis, syntax, term of address, ritualized formulae, honorific language, etc.
- 3) *Discourse*, when utterances are noticed because an unexpected topic was chosen, or because of an unexpected variation in the procedural aspects of the interchange (i.e., turn-taking, inclusion or exclusion of people present).

Regarding cases of miscommunication generated unintentionally by non-native speakers, no matter the grammaticality of what is uttered, we can assume that pragmatic dissonances can be set off by different overlapping categories of transfers, the nature of which can be:

- 1) *Linguistic*, when speakers transfer from their native language syntactic structures or lexis that generate semantic ambiguity or incongruity.
- 2) *Sociolinguistic*, when speakers fail to conform to the expected sociolinguistic norms, by transferring from their native language constructions, lexis or formulae which are perceived as unnatural or inappropriate in the L2.
- 3) *Pragmatic*, when speakers operate relying exclusively on the pragmatic knowledge they hold. Intended here by "pragmatic knowledge" is the aspect of encyclopedic knowledge (i.e., vision of the world) containing culture-specific frames of mind which involve an existing disposition to think and behave in a particular way (cf. Zegarac and Pennington 2000).

Finally, the perlocutionary consequences of a pragmatic dissonance can be analyzed in both pragmatic and emotional terms. With regard to the pragmatic consequences, it can be conjectured that pragmatic dissonances may be either rude or over-polite in nature.

As for the emotional consequences, we can assume that the psychological effects a pragmatic dissonance may provoke on addressees can range quite broadly from a sense of irritation to a sense of hilarity, that is to say, from unpleasant to humorous feelings.

³ Kasper (1997) described "linguistic etiquette" as the practice in any speech community of organizing linguistic action so that it is perceived as appropriate/harmonious within the frame of the ongoing communication event. This practice, however, can be said to represent just one aspect of what Locher and Watts (2005) defined as "relational work", i.e. "the "work" individuals invest in negotiating relationships with others" (Locher & Watts 2005: 10), which might be aimed at maintaining harmony and social equilibrium, but might also be oriented toward exploiting the social norms of communication, with the purpose of generating aggressive or conflictual behavior, among other possible effects.

It is important however to point out that the consequences of a dissonance are always bound to contextual conditions and, ultimately, to personal judgments. Despite the fact that pragmatic dissonances can be produced either intentionally or unintentionally, both intra-culturally and inter-culturally, this paper focuses exclusively on dissonances *involuntarily* generated in *intercultural* communication, as a consequence of speaker's inadequate linguistic, socio-linguistic, and/or pragmatic competence.

2 Pedagogical framework

Let us begin this section with an anecdote (cf. Zamborlin 2005: 227):

I remember as it were yesterday, the clear and melancholic autumn night on which my Japanese sister in law, staring at the moon, asked me: "Don't you see a rabbit making *o-mochi*?" I had arrived in Japan only one month before, and I happened to discover what *o-mochi* was that very day, because we went to a *matsuri* (festival) in which several men standing on the roof of a temple dressed as people of the Edo age were throwing *mochi* (i.e., rice cakes) to the screaming crowd beneath them. For me that experience was just awful because of the confusion. I was still trying to recover from the distress of the *matsuri*, when my sister in law asked me that nonsensical question. When I heard that question I felt more than puzzled: I was furious. Like any 'normal' person I had ever known, I had always seen *a face* in the moon's shadows. How could one possibly see *a rabbit*? I also remember that that night I said to myself: I cannot live in this country. This is insane. People here are too strange. Many years have passed since that night, and now, whenever I stare at the moon, I keep seeing an oblique face with eyes, nose and mouth. But, especially in the autumn moon that illuminates the Japanese sky, I have also learned to see a rabbit with long ears making rice cakes. And now, I also think that the rabbit *can* make perfectly sense.

The purpose of this anecdote is to introduce vividly the pedagogical framework I will be referring to, which is based on Sclavi's (2000) essay *Arte d'ascoltare e mondi possibili* (Art of listening and possible worlds). Consistent with Sclavi (2000), it is possible to interpret any instance of human communication from a cross-cultural perspective, only if we look at it *in a phenomenological way*, that is to say, by considering it within a complex system of thought.

In a simple system of thought the most suitable mental attitude is one that relies on classical logic, in terms of analytic and linear rationality. This is a dimension in which phenomena are interpreted according to similar premises and in which the same things appear to carry the same meanings (Sclavi 2000: 42-43). When we move from a simple system to a complex one, for example from a mono-cultural to a pluri-cultural dimension, the same phenomenon (e.g., the same speech act in two different languages/cultures) may appear to be loaded with unfamiliar meanings. To illustrate very simply how events related to people's knowledge of the world can be observed in a phenomenological way, an experiment carried out by Tokui (2000) can be exemplificative.

In a class of Japanese as a second language in Japan, foreign students were asked to draw a picture based on this haiku:

枯れ枝に	<i>On a withered branch,</i>
鳥の留りけり	<i>a bird alights.</i>
秋の暮れ	<i>Autumn twilight.</i>

Since Japanese nouns do not have singular and plural forms, and given the minimal amount of information supplied in this synthetic genre of poetry, in Tokui's (2000) experiment students drew sketches relying basically on their particular knowledge of the world. A Malaysian student, for example, drew a scene in which many birds were settling on a tree. Other Asian students drew romantic sunset landscapes. A Japanese however, would most likely associate this haiku with an impression of loneliness and melancholy (Tokui 2000: 8).

This experiment inform us that people generally infer meanings based on the premises they share within the culture they belong to. In their own culture, people learn to classify phenomena in a certain way, casting light on some details and leaving others in the shadow (Scalvi 2000: 43). These classifications are usually taken for granted and become habitual and automatic ways of observing the world, that is, implicit shared knowledge, which possibly comes to the surface only when different cultural frames clash with our own.

2.1 How to become intercultural communicators: One basic rule

According to Sclavi (2000), whose suggestions are mainly developed from the works of Bateson (1972) and Sachs (1984), looking at events from a phenomenological point of view means observing them from the outside, that is to say, from a an enlarged angle or macroscopic perspective. In order to become competent intercultural communicators people need precisely to acquire this mental attitude along with three indispensable, interrelated competences which can be taught and acquired: 1) the skill of listening actively, 2) the ability to manage conflicts creatively, and 3) the awareness of the important role played by our emotions.

In intercultural encounters, dissonances (either verbal or non-verbal) are very likely to be produced. Actually, we can even say that under those circumstances, the production of dissonances is the norm. It would be quite extraordinary to experience an intercultural encounter in which no slight dissonance is felt by at least one of the two parties. Nonetheless it is constructive to highlight the fact that, if we learn how to look at things from a phenomenological perspective, many potential ruptures that dissonances in intercultural communication may conceal (e.g., serious communication breakdowns, hasty creation of ethnic stereotypes, etc.) can be, if not neutralized, at least contained.

At this point, I would like to make clear that by drawing attention to the need for looking at reality in a phenomenological way, I do not intend to propose a cultural-relativistic approach. I believe that notwithstanding the differences in our mental frames – or *software of the mind* to use Hofstede's (1991) terminology – there are primitive moral values which are grounded in principles universally shared and which go beyond cultural boundaries. My analysis, of course, does not take into account values of such a kind. Being exclusively

focused on verbal communication, this paper will consider exclusively socially and historically culture-determined values and frames that characterize the way people communicate.

But how can a phenomenological perspective be acquired? As showed in Table 1, we can suppose that phenomena are interpretable according to three different mental attitudes displayed along three different levels.

Table 1 Three different mental attitudes in interpreting phenomena (Sclavi 2000: 77)

	<i>Noesis</i> (mental attitude)	<i>Noema</i> (what is seen)
level I	Apodictic	<i>It is something.</i>
level II	Polymorphic	<i>It can be something₁, or something₂, or something₃, or something₄.</i>
level III	Variational Inquiry (Polymorphic r+i)	<i>It can be ...</i>

In the language of phenomenology *noesis* is the word used to indicate the mental attitude (i.e., the way we observe things), and *noema* is the term used to indicate what we actually see. (The two terms were used by Edmund Husserl (1859-1938) to explain respectively the subjective aspect, i.e., *noesis*, and the objective aspect, i.e., *noema*, of perception). Quite often people see reality only according to the mental attitude represented at level I. At this level phenomena are seen as something, and cannot possibly be seen as something else. However, in order to become intercultural communicators by adopting a phenomenological way of observing reality, in the first place we need to follow one basic rule, that is: remove from our speech the verb “to be” (Sclavi 2000: 71).

2.2 How to apply the rule: Jumping from the apodictic to the polymorphic level

As a practical example regarding how this mental attitude can be achieved, let us consider the following exercise devised by Don Ihde (1979: 67-79), that Sclavi (2000: 71) used in one of her classes at the Polytechnic of Milan.

First she drew on the whiteboard the sketch showed in Figure 1. Then she asked students to tell her what the figure represented. Obviously, she obtained several interpretations such as “*It is a chocolate*”, “No. *It is a truncated pyramid*”, “*It is a stage observed from above*”, and so forth.

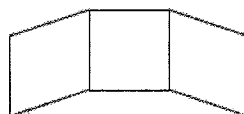


Figure 1: A truncated pyramid, a stage or a chocolate? (Sclavi 2000: 71)

As Scalvi (2000: 73) puts it, this interpretation consists of apodictic estimations, that is, judgments which exclude any possible doubt or contradiction. In order to interpret reality within a phenomenological perspective, however, we need to move from level I into level II.

Level II represents an open-minded way of observing the world. Sclavi (2000: 73) calls it “polymorphic vision”, that is to say, a way of interpreting things which implies a reflection on our way of observing. Looking at Figure 1 through this mental attitude, one would say: “I see it as a stage, but someone *can also see* it as a truncated pyramid, or a chocolate”. At this level, people become active observers, conscious of the fact that they are the constructors of the sense of what they look at (Sclavi 2000: 73). This point of view is acquirable through the experience of making changes in our mental frames.

Nevertheless in intercultural communication, sometimes, even the second level of interpretation can be reductive. To make communication effective at an intercultural level, we often need to jump onto a third level. And this jump is by no means an easy one.

2.3 Going a step forward

To illustrate how the leap from level II into level III can be attempted, Sclavi (2000: 75) adopts a hermeneutic approach:

[Let us imagine that now] the door opens and someone comes in who, observing the figure that we call stage/truncated pyramid, says: “Oh, you have drawn a robot without the head!”. Now, what I want you to do is to try to observe this figure in such a way that you can see it as a robot without the head. (Translated from the Italian)

To facilitate the addressees’ effort, the missing head can be sketched (Figure 2):

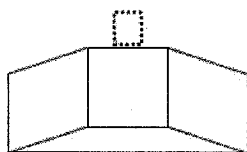


Figure 2: A robot without the head (Sclavi 2000: 76)

This transformation requires an effort which is much harder than the change in mental frames operated by jumping from the apodictic level (level I) to the polymorphic one (level II). Sclavi (2000: 75) calls “variational inquiry” the jump onto the third level. It represents an experience involving emotional sensations such as bewilderment, unease and a sense of paradox which, if we really can make the jump, gradually may evolve into “a feeling of discovery, of recognition, and amusement, along with the sensation of putting down new roots” (Sclavi 2000: 75). All these emotions play a fundamental cognitive role.

But how can we actually see a robot without a head in Figure 1? Sclavi (2000: 76) explains that the striped rectangular can be seen as the body, the two lateral upper lines can represent the arms, and the two inferior lines can be seen as the legs. The horizontal line is the line of the floor and the two vertical lines ... are two sticks the robot uses to walk. Or, as one of Sclavi’s (2000: 76) students suggested the figure can be seen as robot without the head who ... is jumping rope!

The transformation from tri-dimensionality (i.e., the truncated pyramid) into bi-dimensionality (i.e., the robot) is quite dramatic. However, it informs us about an extraordinary fact: that we come across another way of looking at the phenomenon just when we had run through all possible logical interpretations (i.e. the figure *can be* a stage, a chocolate, a truncated pyramid ... period). The change also informs us that in intercultural experiences stopping at level II may not be enough:

The ghost-head of the robot is undoubtedly upsetting. It gives us the impression that the game is becoming artificial and going somehow against the rules. [...] We feel a sense of disturbance. At the same time, we are compelled to recognize something that is missing: a ghost-head that we have added artificially and which enabled us to move from a tri-dimensional to a bi-dimensional dimension. [...] When we go to a foreign country, what upset us are the *missing parts*. We take it for granted that people in certain circumstances are supposed to react in certain ways. But this is not always the case: [quite often] people do not behave as they are expected. However, when we talk to the locals about our expectancies, it is just as if we were drawing artificial heads. If both parties practice active listening, the artificial heads are precisely what can help us to interpret “those circumstances” in a different way. (Sclavi 2000: 77, translated from the Italian)

The mental attitude which has to be assumed in order to carry out a variational inquiry is also the mental attitude that is needed in intercultural communication. It originates when we become aware of the distinction between variation *within* the field of possibilities (level II) and variation *of* the field all together (level III). This mental attitude presupposes the recognition that we can always find a new field of exploration, much broader and much more complex than the one we were exploring. At level III we are not simply confronted with a supplementary change of the *noema*, but it is the entire foundation of the *noetic* context which changes: first it was intended as having boundaries, next it appears to be unlimited (Sclavi 2000: 78).

In Sclavi's schema (Table 1) the gloss “Polimorphic r+i” is added under the label “Variational Inquiry”. “r” means “resistance” and indicates that the passage from level II to level III is not painless, but requires a special effort or even some kind of training. Sclavi (2000: 78) also suggests that “i”, which stands for “imagination”, can be added to “r” since imagination plays a vital role in the passage from *what is missing* within the *normal* array of possibilities. Sometimes what is missing can help us to jump from one entire field of possibilities, i.e. from a whole system of perspectives, into a new one.

3 Analyzing true stories of intercultural pragmatic dissonance

Below, I will put theory into practice by proposing four exercises. To accomplish the tasks, learners need to have been previously acquainted with the pedagogical framework discussed in the previous section, along with some fundamental concepts of pragmatics.

Each exercises feature one or more dissonances introduced through short stories relating

episodes that have actually occurred in which the author of this paper was involved or of which she was informed. Each story ends by posing readers some open questions. In order to find plausible answers, students could be instructed to discuss the matter among themselves, in small groups. After the feedback they exchange among themselves, students will be requested to report their judgments.⁴ The educational aim of the exercises is to induce learners to interpret each episode by adopting a phenomenological mental attitude.

3.1 Dissonance in illocution: Misinterpretation of speech acts

There is a large variety of routines that the Japanese language provides for thanking, the most general of which is “*arigatoo*” (“thank you”). However, as Kumatoridani (1999) pointed out, the formula “*sumimasen*”, which is used for both thanking and apologizing, is more diffused (cf. also Ide 1998). When employing “*sumimasen*” (or its variant “*sumimasen-deshita*” referring to events that occurred in the past), speakers do not focus empathically on the object of the gratitude only (as they do when employing “*arigatoo*”) but also on the effort the hearer went through to produce the benefit (Kumatoridani 1999; Sasaki 2000). Morphologically, this formula consists of a verb in the negative form, the literal translation of which roughly corresponds to “this is not the end”. Semantically, therefore, it attests to the perception that the current situation cannot be considered concluded until the benefactor, in the case of thanks, or the offended person, in the case of apologies, has been repaid (Coulmas 1981). Among learners of Japanese whose mother tongues are European languages or Asian languages (cf. Tokui 2000), dissonances largely stem from the confusion between the two Japanese thanking formulae. Not being able to retrieve in their native language a similar distinction reflecting culturally determined interpersonal dynamics, foreign learners very often generalize the use of “*arigatoo*”, extending its employment even to situations in which acknowledging that the benefit implicated a cost on the benefactor would be mandatory. The same way, they might misinterpret the force of an expression of gratitude with “*sumimasen*” as in the following story.

Short story 1: Common speech acts, different nuances

A Japanese lady, whom henceforth I will be calling Keiko, once told me this story. Years ago she became a good friend of an Italian woman, a middle-aged housewife from the south of Italy, who happened to be her neighbor for a while. The Italian woman, who could speak a little Japanese, used to bring Italian food to Keiko’s place. She was an excellent cook. At that time, Keiko was living with her old mother who really appreciated the Italian woman’s kindness and any time she received her gastronomic gifts used to thank her with the formula “*doomo, sumimasen*”. One day, however, the Italian woman said to Keiko what follows: “I do not understand why your mother keeps saying *sumimasen* instead of *arigatoo*, every time I bring you my cooking. Is there something wrong with my behavior?”. Keiko was surprised but quite soon she understood that her friend was interpreting the formula “*sumimasen*” not as

⁴ The size of the class I teach is particularly huge (100 to 120 students). In cases like this I generally collect students responses through written reports.

a thanks – as it was supposed to be interpreted – but as an excuse implying a refusal.

Inquiry Make a list of routine formulae that Japanese people employ for thanking. Why, compared to other languages, does Japanese dispose of a large number of routine formulae for expressing gratitude? Why, in your opinion, did Keiko’s friend misinterpret Keiko’s mother’s expression of thanks? Do not be afraid of saying something wrong: whatever your opinion, it will be appreciated.⁵

3.2 Dissonance in style: Misuse of honorific language

The following story features an instance of dissonance that, in Ide’s (1989: 227) terms, may be defined as a dissonance “of socio-pragmatic concord”. This socio-pragmatic concord is the equivalent of grammatical concordance: in the same way that subject and predicate have to agree according to the grammar rules, they have to agree according to the social rules. In Japanese, and to some extent also in European languages, depending on the contexts, certain addressees are “authorized to receive formal forms as the token of deference, according to the social convention of society” (Ide 1989: 228). In Japanese, however, the mechanisms governing deference are far more complex compared to European languages. This is why quite often foreigners learners of Japanese produce dissonances of socio-pragmatic concord which are determined not by a miscalculation along the scale of social distance and relative power, but by the selection of wrong morphological encodings. This can be due to their inability to retrieve into their inter-language a suitable structure which could be quickly and safely transferred into Japanese (e.g. “*taberu*” is less marked than “*meshiagaru*”; therefore, it is perceived as the form directly corresponding to the English verb “to eat” or the Italian verb “*mangiare*”). In other cases, however, dissonances of this kind can be explained as a lack of pragmatic competence with regard to what constitutes politic (i.e., appropriate) verbal behavior, for example, by confusing deference with politeness or by confusing the use of honorific language with a tribute of respect or as a “political” stance. This is what happened in the next story.

Short story 2: Misinterpreting politeness strategies

I am often asked by Japanese people: “What is the most difficult part in mastering Japanese?”. I think that, for a foreigner, one of the most difficult aspects of this language concerns the use of words depending on the context and on the addressee. Actually, this is a problem in every language. But in Japanese matters seem to be particularly complex. For example, I worked for a short while at *Baskin Robbins* in the U.S. At that time my English was pretty bad. In Japan, on the other hand, I have never seen a foreigner (at least a foreigner with a low competence in the language) working, for example, at a restaurant, or at a supermarket. The reason is probably that in Japan, one is supposed to possess a quite sophisticated competence: that is, the ability to treat customers according to certain norms of linguistic etiquette, which are far more elaborated than the English ones. Let me give you some examples. Years ago I was

⁵ At this stage it is important that students understand that what matters is not *the solution* of the problem (also because there might be problems without solutions), but their *awareness* of the problem.

struggling with the rules of *sonkeigo* (honorific) and *kenjoogo* (humble honorific). One day, in a class I was teaching, I asked a student to show me his textbook by telling him “*Haiken sasete kudasai*”. He and other students in the class laughed. At that time I did not understand why. After all, I was just trying to be nice and polite.

A similar example concerns the remark I heard from an American man who lived in Japan for many years and whose proficiency in Japanese appeared to be very good. One day this man told me that he never used *sonkeigo* to his Japanese co-workers, even if they were superiors, unless they were people he deeply respected. He also remarked that he did not like to use the honorific language because he was a very democratic person.

Inquiry How can you explain the dissonance concerning the inappropriate use of humble honorific language? What about the remarks of the American man? Do not be afraid of saying something wrong: whatever your opinion, it will be appreciated.

3.4 Dissonance in discourse (I): Using “forbidden” words

The dimension of discourse deals with the contents and the structures of an interchange. The passage from the illocutionary/stylistic to the discourse level involves a broader perspective. Of course the three pragmatic levels considered here are not to be regarded as hermetically sealed categories. They in fact intersect each other. However, when for analytical purposes we observe phenomena from the illocutionary or the stylistic point of view, our attention is placed on force, speech act management, or stylistic features of single utterances. By observing phenomena from the point of view of discourse, the focus of our analysis is placed on topics (contents) and in their organization (structure).

As for topics, it is interesting to notice that, depending on the context, their appropriateness may be differently assessed from culture to culture. For instance, American speakers appear not to feel embarrassed to talk about money (i.e. one’s salary) to the same extent that Italians do (cf. also Balboni 1999). I have also noticed that Japanese talk about problems of body functioning such as “*bempi*” (constipation), or “*onaka wo koashita koto*” (e.g., diarrhea, literally “breaking one’s belly”) much more extensively (i.e., in talk-shows on TV) and much more naturally than Italians dare to do (cf. also Nannini 2002). An interesting, but very delicate, subject related to the discourse dimension concerns the dramatic degree of force concealed in taboo words or topics, as the following story illustrates.

Short story 3: Common words, different feelings

Recently a Japanese friend of mine told me an episode that quite surprised me. He has been studying Italian for many years and his proficiency in this language is very good. He also travels a lot to Italy, for fun and for his job. About one year ago, returning from a trip to Florence, this friend of mine told me that he was shocked at hearing one word which, in his view, was improperly used by the Italian mass media. One night, watching the Italian news, he heard that the word “*kamikaze*” was being employed in place of the word “*terrorista*” (terrorist). The newscaster was reporting on a terrible episode that occurred in Iraq in which several men killed themselves in a terrorist attack. My friend was right. In Italian someone who kills him/herself in a terrorist attack is not called “*terrorista*”. Such a person is referred

to with the Japanese word “*kamikaze*”. The Italian language, in fact, makes a distinction between someone who kills several innocent people and escapes (i.e., “*terrorista*”) and someone who voluntarily dies in a terrorist attack (i.e. “*kamikaze*”). My Japanese friend told me that, in his opinion, the word “*kamikaze*” should not be employed, because it refers to Japanese pilots who during War World II attacked only military objectives. Their action can be regarded as foolish, and condemned (of course, the people doing this see themselves as being at war and probably believe they are behaving honorably), but, as he remarked, there seems to be a big difference in dying at war while killing soldiers, and dying while killing innocent people who demand nothing but to live in peace. This observation made me think that, when a foreign word enters a language, it can assume a completely different meaning. This reminded me of another fact. I was once watching a Japanese TV show hosted by Takeshi Kitano in which foreign residents in Japan coming from different countries were exchanging opinions. At some point, the atmosphere become a little tense as a young man coming from an Islamic country told the guests that he was very disturbed whenever he happened to hear English expressions using the word “Mecca”, such as “Las Vegas is the Mecca of gamblers”. He explained that Mecca is a sacred place and should not be used in vain, especially to refer to profane locations. I also thought that both in English and in Italian there is a practice of using (or abusing?) the word “Bible” with the purpose of meaning “a very important manual” (such as, “*The Macintosh Bible*”).

Inquiry What is your opinion about this story? Do not be afraid of saying something wrong: whatever your opinion, it will be appreciated.

3.4 Dissonance in discourse (II): Differing procedural aspects of interaction

Procedural aspects of an interchange concern the way conversation needs to be structured and handled in order to keep harmonious relations. Turn taking, inclusion or exclusion of interlocutors, use or non-use of listener responses (called *aizuchi* in Japanese), use of formulaic expressions expected in certain specific contexts, etc. are instances of this kind. The following story relates an episode in which during a communication event (a dinner among friends) something “strange” was perceived.

Short story 4: Apologizing for another

Alex is an Italian young man from Naples, working as a painter, who, at the time the episode told here occurred, had been living in Japan for one year. He is married to Mari, a Japanese girl. One night, Alex and his wife decided to invite some Japanese friends to an Italian restaurant they know. I was also invited. Therefore, Alex and I were the only two Italians present. The chef of this restaurant, a Japanese man who could speak Italian, was a good friend of Alex. For that special occasion, Alex had settled the menu in advance with him. Among the regular dishes, they decided to include also a couple of original recipes that Alex himself had taught the chef. During the supper, Alex behaved the way he would in Naples. He often went to the kitchen to talk with the chef, to offer him help and to check that everything was going fine. He even asked the waiter to change the music because, in his view, it was old-fashioned (they were connected to a radio channel playing Italian songs of the Sixties). When Alex made the request, Mari, Alex’s wife, smiled to the waiter and said “*gomen, ne*”. Since Alex at that time did not speak a single word of Japanese, his conversation with the chef,

the waiters and with the other guests was carried out mainly in Italian or in English. At the end of the evening, when the waiter came in with the coffee, Alex asked him for a “caffè corretto al Baileys” (i.e., an espresso with a few drops of Baileys in it). The waiter seemed a little confused but, eventually, he satisfied Alex’s request. When the waiter arrived with the “caffè corretto al Baileys”, Mari, Alex’s wife, said to him “*sumimasen, ne*”. Moreover, when the party was over, Mari greeted the chef and the waiters thanking them for the delicious food and apologizing for her husband extravagant behavior. She repeatedly said to them “*doomo sumimasen deshita*”, “*moshiwake arimasen deshita, ne*”, and so on. Alex did not pay attention, because he did not understand the language. So he just left the restaurant saying goodbye to chef and the waiters. Retrospectively, I think I understood Mari’s apologies. However, I wanted to perform an experiment by asking some Italians who did not have any information about Japanese culture, what they thought about the situation. So I wrote a story, similar to this one, but without informing the readers of the country in which the speech event took place. I just explained that it was abroad. All the rest was the same as in the above story. I asked my respondents to read the story and to answer the following question: Why did Mari apologize for Alex extravagant behavior? Most of my informants said that Alex is, for sure, an extravagant guy (in fact he is an artist). It can be a little annoying when a guest goes to bother the chef, even if they are good friends. However, most of my respondents also acknowledged that, after all, Alex did nothing bad. Furthermore, someone remarked that the chef was indebted to Alex since he learned some original recipes from him. The general conclusion was that Mari’s excuses were a little too “over the top”, especially considering that Alex was not a child.

Inquiry The story shows that in intercultural encounters we might observe behavior which, in that particular context, from our point of view, may appear quite strange, but that, for the parameters of linguistic etiquette of the speech community in which communication takes place, it represents the norm. Think about Mari’s apologies and explain why from a Japanese point of view there is nothing particularly strange about them. Do not be afraid of saying something wrong: whatever your opinion, it will be appreciated.

4 Going out of the frame

The dissonances described in the above short stories represent just a simple expedient, the purpose of which is to make readers aware that, cross-culturally, what we take for granted can always be observed under a different light. The development of this awareness is the point from which we have to depart if we intend to become active listeners to intercultural dissonances. As we have seen above, however, becoming active listeners and good intercultural communicators may involve an emotional burden made up of resistance, puzzlement, discomfort or even embarrassment. It could be embarrassing, for instance, when you have to deal with a speech act which does not happen to be the one you were expecting (short story 1). It could be frustrating when you find out that you have been considered bizarre or impolite because of a wrong stylistic choice (short story 2). It could be disturbing when someone talks about topics you are not comfortable with, or when one improperly uses words to which you attach a particular meaning (short story 3). You may also be overwhelmed when observing behaviors you do not quite understand (short story 4).

However, communicating inter-culturally means becoming able to manage all these possible clashes in a creative way. In order to do so, we need to jump from an apodictic mental attitude to a polymorphic one. In order to find a plausible answer to the dissonances analyzed above, however, making some change in our mental frames (level II) might not be sufficient. We must be prepared to go even outside of them. This mental attitude, that we labeled “polymorphic r+i” (cf. Table 1), presupposes the recognition that we may not simply be confronted with a supplementary change of the *noema*, but that it might be the entire foundations of the *noetic* context which is going to change from top to bottom.

4.1 The exercise of the nine dots

To make students understand visually what is meant by going outside the frame, Sclavi (2000) proposes the following exercise.⁶ Students are invited to take a piece of paper and to draw on it nine dots, at least three times, as shown in Figure 3:

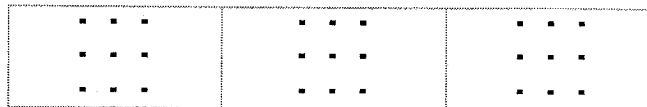


Figure 3 The nine dots reproduced three times (Sclavi 2000: 30)

Students are then instructed to join the nine dots through a single line made up of four segments. There is one condition: in drawing the line, the pencil should never be lifted from the surface of the sheet. Each group of dots represents one chance. In Figure 3 we have three chances but students could increase their attempts without limitations. The task, however, has to be accomplished in five minutes. It would be advisable to ask the class if there is anyone who already knows the game. If it is the case, they should remain quiet and refrain from suggesting the solution to their classmates. Sclavi (2000: 29) informs us that usually in a class of about 80 students no more than two are able to discover the solution within five minutes. Figure 4 represents a failed attempt.

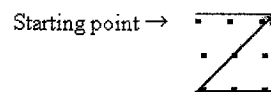


Figure 4 Example of failed attempt (Sclavi 2000: 30)

As Figure 5 shows, in order to solve the problem one has to go out of the imaginary square (i.e., the frame we are accustomed to see, but in reality there is no square at all) made up by the nine dots.

⁶ The exercise was taken from Watzlawick, Weakland & Fish (1974).

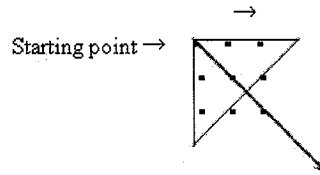


Figure 5 The solution (Sclavi 2000: 31)

Sclavi (2000: 31-32) explains the exercise in the following terms:

The failed attempts [Figure 4] are like different patterns. Each of them represents a change or a correction of the previous one. However, all of them have a common point: they are carried out within one field of possibilities which has definite boundaries. In these attempts we behaved as if going out of the square was prohibited or irrational. [...] Those people who solved the problem did not just change the pattern: they changed the premises. [...] We can learn new things, get new information, have different points of view, conforming to one general way of focusing on things. When it is not necessary to redefine the implicit premises, this cognitive process is fine. [...] Or we can change the way of focusing on things. Whenever we try to understand again and again without finding a solution, probably we should ask ourselves if it is not the case of needing to change the premises. Moving within one frame and changing the frame itself are two absolutely different cognitive processes. They represent two different ways of confronting ourselves and the world. Learning the art of listening/observing means getting familiar with these two different ways of confronting ourselves and the world. (Translated from the Italian)

4.2 Looking for different premises

After evaluating students interpretations, each dissonance analyzed in the previous section can be further explained by adopting a broader cross-cultural pragmatic approach. This further step consists in the conclusive phase of the module during which the final feedback will be provided and the jump into a “polimorphic r+i” will be accomplished.

4.2.1 Directions of fit

The dissonance in short story 1 represents a case in point in which pragmatics clearly proves to be useful to disentangle the dilemma. In Searle’s (1979) terms, speech acts such as apologies and thanks are classifiable under the category of *expressives*. One of their characteristics is that of not having a direction of *fit*. The notion of “fit” describes the phenomenon in which words can 1) correspond to the world or 2) change the world (at least potentially). The fit therefore can follow two directions: from world to words, or from words to world. Along the first direction, for example, are the speech acts that Searle (1979) defined as *representatives* or *assertives* (i.e., speech acts in which reality is described and which thus carry the value of ‘true’ or ‘false’). The second direction, on the other hand, is followed by *directives* (i.e., requests) and *commissives* (i.e., promises).

According to Searle (1979), *expressives* (i.e., thanks and apologies) do not have a

direction of fit. When speakers express their emotions, as for instance in thanks and in apologies, it does not necessarily follow that there could be a correspondence between what is uttered and the real world (from world to words), or that what is uttered can produce any change in reality (from words to world).

This description, however, holds true for English and other European languages. In order to interpret the dissonance occurred in story 1, Searle's frame has to be enriched with an additional interpretation. That is to say, the premise that *expressives* cannot have a direction of fit should be dropped and a new premise has to be discovered. The "solution" to the problem is offered by Mey (1994: 174):

In certain parts of the world, such as West Africa, the use of an 'excuse me' (or equivalent expressions) does not connote any guilt or direct responsibility on the part of the speaker (as it would do in our culture). If I see someone falling off his bicycle in Ghana, and I happen to be passing by, it would be perfectly all right for me to utter 'Sorry' or something like that, even though it wasn't my fault that the rider lost his balance. Similarly, in Japan one would utter *Sumimasen* (the multi-purpose 'Excuse me') in situations where an excuse would be highly inappropriate in our culture, such as when we are offered a gift, or when we accept an invitation.

As Mey (1994: 174) explains, in these cases what happens is an adjustment of the fit. The use of the formula "*sumimasen*", in story 1, can in fact be interpreted as a "realignment of the world in the wake of a temporary disturbance in which the speaker and the hearer have been somehow involved" (Mey 1994: 174). In Japanese, therefore, the formula "*sumimasen*" used for thanking appears to have a direction of fit from words to world.

What the Italian lady interpreted as an excuse implying a refusal was in fact a thanking formula that in Japanese is used by beneficiaries in order to show their appreciation to benefactors when they receive a benefit which comes as unexpected (i.e., a gift), which might have caused a sort of trouble, even a minor one to the benefactor, or when the benefit surpasses the benefactor's duties toward the beneficiary. For instance, in Japanese you may say just "*doomo*", or "*arigatoo*" to the waiter who brings the coffee to your table, but you would definitely say "*sumimasen*" if the waiter picks up something that you have dropped (Kumatoridani 1994, 1999).

4.2.2 Deference and politeness as two distinct aspects

Short story 2 concerns the stylistic dimension of an interaction. The function of humble and honorific language is that of expressing rather unambiguously the kind of relation taking place among the interactants. In European languages words cannot mark the interaction to the same degree of accuracy. This does not necessarily imply, however, that the principles governing social distance and deference are necessarily dissimilar. At the core, they might even be identical, although at the surface they are made explicit through completely different stylistic means. As Ide (2005: 62-63) explains, while high context cultures such as Japan's,

require that speakers *obligatorily* pay attention to the contextual factors at play in the speech event in order to make the linguistic forms agree with the context, this statement does not imply that low context cultures, such as the Italian or the American, do not also require appropriate linguistic choices according to situational contexts (Ide 2005: 62). The choice of linguistic forms appropriate to the context of interaction may be seen as a universal phenomenon (even though it is true that it still needs to be systematically investigated in Western languages, Ide 2005: 63).

Short story 2, furthermore, offers a chance to talk about politeness and deference as two separate though interrelating phenomena. The dissonance in the story was produced because the foreign speaker confused politeness (i.e., the intent to be nice and polite) with deference. What happened in this case was that the lexical item the speaker selected for the purpose of being polite produced a ridiculous effect of incongruous over-politeness. She used a humble super-deferential form, but in that particular context, politeness/appropriateness could have been automatically conveyed by the use of *teineigo* (i.e. the polite form). The speaker miscalculated her strategy because she was unaware that in Japanese honorific forms do not guarantee polite or appropriate outcomes on all occasions. The American man did the same. Through his assertion he proved to ignore the fact that honorific language does not necessarily imply respect or lowering oneself. Eventually, in fact, honorific language can also be used when being extremely rude, or when being extremely cold (as when keeping someone at a distance). Finally, an interesting point regarding these contrastive linguistic considerations is that they may help students to become aware of the mechanisms of their own language, which they normally learn unconsciously.

4.2.3 Taboos and cultural values

As for short story 3, the dissonance felt by the Japanese man can be accounted for in the following way. We may assume that there is a moral value universally respected: that of the preciousness of human life. In Italy, however, as in other European countries, from the early Middle Ages a taboo regarding suicide developed, which was unknown in the Roman age and which comes straight from the Christian culture. While in Japan, probably as a result of the influence of the samurai ethic, in some cases suicide was regarded as an action of extreme courage and dignity, in the Italian culture the same action came to represent one of the supreme sins against God, with no exception.

European plays, novels and lyrics are full of characters committing suicide (e.g., Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina*, Puccini's *Tosca*, to mention only a few cases). Nonetheless, they always represent tragic heroes, examples of desperation, whom one is supposed to feel pity for, not admire. Consider for instance that still in the 1800s people who committed suicide were not given proper funerals in Italy and had a separate, non-consecrated place in the cemeteries where they were required to be buried. This might explain, comparatively, the different impact that the concept has in the Italian culture. The Italian language therefore might have felt the necessity of employing a word which could

vividly and dramatically express the act of killing oneself in a terrorist attack, distinguishing it from the act of killing people in a terrorist attack but saving oneself. The two concepts are equally subsumable under the idea of terrorism. The former, however, in Italian is more marked than the latter. The word the Italian language was looking for in order to express the marked concept could be borrowed from Japanese, which had a ready-made term, i.e., “*kamikaze*”. Through the loan, though, the original meaning of the word was partially damaged.

The potentially dangerous dissonance regarding the use of words such as “Mecca” can be more easily explained. In all cultures, I presume, we might find a principle of interaction, which is not strictly a socio-pragmatic one. It is rather a principle of common sense. It can be traceable in proverbs, which represent the ancient wisdom of the people – the *vox populi*, so to speak. In Italian there is a good example: “*Gioca coi fanti ma lascia stare i santi*” (‘Play with the knights but don’t bother the saints’). In Japanese we find something analogous: “*Sawaranu kami ni tatari nashi*” (‘You don’t get cursed if you don’t touch the god’). It is reasonable to assume that words related to religion might disturb, in some way, people who believe in that religion. The fact, for instance, that Muslims can be particularly offended if someone makes misuse of a word such as “Mecca” (the birth place of the prophet Mohammed which each Muslim is supposed to visit once in his life) can be explained by the fact that in Islamic countries people have a stronger religious sensibility compared to people in Western countries or in Japan. However, it would be interesting to look deeper into the matter and try to understand where this sensibility comes from. In this case, the cultural differences are historically explainable. In the Western countries – predominantly of Christian religion – the law of God and the law of the state have always been kept separated. This principle is clearly stated in the Gospel: “Give to God what belongs to God, and give to Caesar (i.e. the emperor or the maximum authority of the state) what belongs to Caesar” In European history, for example, the Popes have always struggled to exert a real ‘power of the sword’, but they have never succeeded (Brague 2005: 161-174). They always used their influential spiritual authority to control political matters, but ultimately, they always had to confront the real power of emperors, feudal lords and kings (Sartori 2000: 118). The same can be said for Japan. Asian religions such as Buddhism, or Confucianism, developed as a philosophy of meditation or as an ethic of wisdom. They were never directly concerned with the public law, but with the domain of the human conscience (Sartori 2000: 131). In the countries of Islamic religion, on the other hand, the legal system originated from the Koran. In these countries, although to different extents, there is not a clear-cut division between the law of God and the law of the state (Sartori 2000: 117-129).⁷ As for the fact that in English and in Italian the word “Bible” can be employed to mean a very recommended manual which everybody is supposed to read (e.g., *The Macintosh Bible*), it shows that in these languages/cultures there is a comparatively higher level of tolerance toward the practice of “playing with knights but also with saints”, to

⁷ In this respect, Turkey represents an exception.

paraphrase the proverb. Nevertheless, this does not guarantee that the profane use of the word would not disturb people who regard the Bible only as a sacred book and not as a metaphor.

4.2.4 Societal dynamics and historical factors

Along these lines, we can interpret the speech act of apologizing for an adult member of the speaker's group/entourage observed in story 4. In this case, by using Mey's (1994: 175) words, we can say that "the speech act of 'excusing' serves to ensure that all the social and psychological mechanisms are set back to 'normal', and the green light is given for further, safe interaction at the 'unmarked' level". Story 4, nevertheless, conceals a dissonance which could be potentially dangerous. When speakers apologize, they humiliate themselves in order to enhance the hearer's face. When speakers apologize for another person they humiliate both themselves and the third party. The problem here concerns the extent to what the third party is willing to be humiliated. Admitting one's faults and one's responsibility is probably a value that is cross-culturally (i.e., in both Italy and Japan) appreciated, in view of the fact that it denotes the speaker's maturity. Nonetheless, some comments I obtained through 12 written questionnaires and two follow up interviews I administered to Italian respondents suggested that in the Japanese society this value might be appreciated to a higher extent compared to the Italian. The interviews, furthermore, indicated that apologizing for the fault of an adult member of the same group/family/entourage might not always be considered appropriate by Italians.⁸ The study is still in progress; however, the same comment offered by the two respondents during the two interviews appears to be suggestive.⁹ I asked them individually how they would react if their boss apologized for a fault they had committed. They said that the apology, both if they are present or absent, would be appropriate under one condition: that it was aimed not only at acknowledging the fault, but also at justifying somewhat the perpetrator. Otherwise, they said, it would be unacceptable.

This example is useful because it can make us realize how easily, at this point, we could risk falling into the fabrication of moral judgments (i.e., Italians: "That is unacceptable" vs. Japanese: "This is how things have to be done") or the production of stereotypes (i.e., Japanese: "They are shameless" vs. Italian: "They are too rigid"). The speech act of apologizing for another adult described in story 4 could probably never be understood if it is taken apart from societal factors depending on historical reasons. Nakane (1992), for instance, can help in elucidating the phenomenon. Japanese people developed the structure of a vertical society because the cohesion of groups developed along a vertical structure: from the top to the bottom. In Japan, groups (e.g., armies, enterprises) traditionally have been fighting among themselves according to the following dynamic: group A vs. group B vs. group C, etc. In

⁸ For this study on the speech act of apologizing for another adult I used short story 4 without giving respondents any indication about the country in which the speech event took place. I only informed them that it was a foreign country.

⁹ The respondents were a male and a female, 37 and 32 years old respectively, the male working for an European airline company, the female working as a secretary in a public office.

Western countries, on the other hand, from the French Revolution on, the struggle was between social classes cutting horizontally across the boundaries of groups (i.e. the working class in groups A, B, C vs. the capitalists in groups A, B, C). As a result, the sense of belonging to the group developed differently. It can be said that in Japan the members of one group share their responsibilities among themselves to a comparatively higher degree. In Italy, on the other hand, within one group each adult member generally feels responsible exclusively for his or her own individual actions.

5 Conclusion

This paper aimed at providing some pedagogical suggestions regarding how notions of pragmatics can be used when analyzing dissonances that occur in intercultural encounters. The pedagogical framework I referred to considers intercultural communication as “art of listening” (Sclavi 2000) and proposes that in order to manage intercultural dissonances it is necessary to observe reality by assuming a phenomenological perspective. After providing some examples of how this mental attitude can be achieved, theory has been put into operation through a series of exercises I devised for a university class in cross-cultural communication. The purpose of the exercises is to elicit students’ responses regarding four instances of pragmatic dissonances actually occurred in intercultural encounters, including 1) the misinterpretation of a speech act (a thanking), 2) misjudgment concerning the use of honorific language, 3) the use of taboo words, 4) and perplexity regarding the management of a speech act (an apology).

Finally, in the last section of this paper I discussed how students’ responses can be interpreted cross-culturally by focusing on societal and historic factors that determine people’s cultural values and their styles of interaction.

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Content Management System (CMS) と Questionnaire Management System (QMS) との関係*

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Abstract Technological development has made our society and work extremely network-based. English language teaching is no exception. Computers connected to the Internet are making their way into every classroom and staffroom. This report proposes a coordinated way of using a content management system (CMS) called XOOPS and a questionnaire management system (QMS) called ChauSer in order to facilitate the management of language-related classes.

1. ネットワークを中心とした授業への無理のない移行

既に社会の多くの分野で、各種業務がネットワーク化され、それなりに効率的に運用されている。学校もその流れと無縁ではあり得ない。しかし、文部科学省による「学校における教育の情報化の実態等に関する調査結果」(http://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/houdou/17/08/05080101.htm)の平成16年度のデータによれば、高等学校あたりまでの教育現場では、目標とされている水準にはまだまだ届いていない。コンピュータの整備済みの普通教室などは、最終的には100パーセントになるはずだが、まだ23.4パーセントにすぎない。しかし、職員室のコンピュータ整備率は95.5パーセントであり、LANの接続率も86.9パーセントである。まだ不十分な側面もあるが、次第に整備されてゆくであろう。大学などの高等教育機関の場合、学校間の格差も大きいですが、やはり変化は起こりつつある。

また、日本教育工学振興会の「教育の情報化の現状等に関する調査」(学習研究社『NEW 教育とコンピュータ』2005年10月号に掲載されていたものを利用)によると、ITの利用が進まない主な理由は、「整備の遅れ」、「利用に伴う負担感」、「サポート(支援)体制がない、または十分でない」、「授業で使えるコンテンツが不足している」、「教育のIT活用指導力育成研修が十分でない」、「予算がない」、「利用のしかたがわからない」というものである。ハードウェアの整備が進んでいない場合は仕方がないが、そちらの側面の整備が進むにつれ、技術面で比較的容易に導入・管理が出来、しかも、予算面でも大きな問題の生じない低コストの「教師の授業を支援するしくみ」が必要となっていくはずである。これは、大学などでも同じであろう。

そこで、本研究では、技術面でのハードルが低く、導入コストがソフトウェア面ではゼロであるオープンソース系のソフトウェアを主として利用し、学習者コミュニティーサイトを構築して、授業実践の

* 本項は大学英語教育学会中国四国支部大会で発表した原稿に修正加筆したもので、同学会紀要第3号に掲載された論文である。

「後方支援」を行う方法を提案する。そして、現在広島市立大学の岩井千秋教授が中心となって科学研究費補助金を受けて開発している ChauSer という名前のアンケート調査管理システムとこのコミュニティーサイトを連係させることによって、さらなる可能性を引き出す試みを検討したいと思う。ここでは、コンピュータが人間の教師に代わって授業を行うという特別な環境ではなく、学習者のコミュニティーを育て、そのコミュニティーに対して人間の教師が授業を行うというごく普通の授業環境を前提としている。そして、コンピュータとネットワークに、そうした普通の授業を手伝わせようとするのである。

これによって、教師の授業管理面での仕事負担がある程度減少するのだが、学習者に要求される技能は通常のインターネット利用とあまり変わらないものであり、学習者同士のつながりが形成され、各種学習活動もネットワーク化により便利になる。また、LAN がすでにある場合、追加の導入コストがほぼゼロであるという大きな利点がある。巨大な予算を伴う急激な変化を起こすのではなく、きわめて現実的なネットワーク化を提案するのである。

2. ホームページの発展型としてのネットワーク中心の授業

ほとんどの人になじみのあるホームページ、つまり、Web をベースにすることにより、ネットワーク中心型の授業への移行のための負担を軽減することができるということを、以下で説明してみる。

まず、コンピュータやネットワークを利用すると言う場合、最も普通に行われているのが、電子メールのやりとりとホームページの閲覧であろう。いわゆる「メールとインターネット」である。この二つを行うために必要とされる知識や技能を、現在では、ほとんどの学習者や教師が持っている。新たに何かを学ぶ必要はないことが多い。ホームページ上にある掲示板やブログへの書き込みは、そのような操作の延長線上にあり、初めて行う場合でも、何かを学習すると言うほどの手間はかからないことが多い。ここまで述べてきたよりは多くの技能が要求されるソフトウェアでも、Web ベースのものの方が、その他のものより、慣れるまでの時間が短いと思われる。

このような点に関しては、ユーザとなる学習者も管理者となる教師も同じである。ホームページを見るためのブラウザ上でほとんどのサイト管理作業が出来れば、それほど本格的なコンピュータやネットワークの知識がない教師でも、多少の勉強をするだけで、サーバ自体の管理は無理としても、日常的なサイトの更新・管理などは容易に行える時代になってしまった。多くの人が日常的に行っている活動を、ほとんどそのまま授業に持ち込めるのである。

しかし、このような環境は、従来型のホームページを中心にした場合、容易には構築できない。従来型のホームページの作成・更新作業では、操作の簡単なホームページ作成ソフトを使うことが多いとしても、一つ一つのページを手作業で作成し、サーバに FTP でアップロードするような作業が必要である。それなりのコンピュータとネットワークに関する知識が要求され、更新作業もかなりの負担になる。そのようなこともあってか、大学を含めて多くの教育機関のホームページが非常に簡単なものにとどまっており、更新も充分に行われていないことが少なくない。このような行き詰まった状況から管理者を解放し、サイト全体の作成・更新を簡単に行えるようにしてくれる管理システムと、サイト全体

の統一性のあるデザインの枠組みなどを提供してくれるのが次に述べる CMS である。CMS の導入により、個人レベルでもかなり大きな複合サイトの構築・管理が可能になる。自前のサーバを用意する場合には、やはりそれなりのコンピュータやネットワークに関する知識・技能が必要となるが、既に存在している環境の整えられた学校のサーバに間借りするような場合や、CMS をインストールすることの出来るレンタルサーバを利用するような場合、さらには、CMS までもが既にインストール済みのレンタルサーバを利用する場合なら、管理者である教師に必要とされる知識は、その CMS の管理画面をブラウザ上で操作する程度のものであり、技術的ハードルは実に低いものとなる。多少パソコンに詳しい程度の教師でも、少し背伸びをすれば、充分手の届くところにある。

3. CMS とは何か？

ここでは、CMS の持つ性質に関する説明を行い、数多くの CMS の中から、授業支援に有効だと思われるものを選択してみたいと思う。

インターネット上の百科事典である「ウィキペディア」(<http://ja.wikipedia.org/wiki/>)による説明を引用すれば、CMS とは次のようなものであることになる。ちなみに、この巨大な百科事典自体が Wiki (ウィキ)、つまり、CMS の一種で構築されている。

コンテンツマネジメントシステム(CMS: Content Management System)は、データベースを利用してウェブサイト、ポータルサイトを構築、管理するシステム。PHP や MySQL などを利用して構築される。コンテンツ管理システムともいう。モジュールにより機能を追加したり、テンプレートにより全体のデザインを容易に変更することができる。フリーソフトウェアとして提供されているものも多い。Weblog 構築ソフトウェアも CMS の一種。

この説明に見られるように、CMS とは、非常に複雑なサイトを簡単に構築・管理することの出来るシステムなのであり、統一的な全体のデザインも容易に変更することが出来るので、個性的なデザインのサイトを運営することが出来る。

3.1 CMS の多様性：XOOPS, Wiki, MOVABLE TYPE, Moodle など

ここでは、簡単に代表的なフリーソフトの CMS を紹介してみる。まず、最近流行の Blog によく使われているものに、MOVABLE TYPE がある。Blog では、簡単に記事を投稿することが可能で、更新作業が楽であることはよく知られているのではないかと思う。また、基本的に誰でも書き込みや編集を行うことが出来るので、グループでの共同作業などに使われることの多い各種 Wiki がある。また、教育目的に特化した Moodle などもあり、e ラーニング・サイトを容易に構築できるらしいが、発表者はまだ導入経験がないので、この CMS は今後の課題にしたいと思う。そして、多様なモジュールを組み込むことで、非常に多くの機能を実装できる XOOPS がある。その他にもいろいろなものがあり、そのバリエーションも含めると相当な数になるが、本研究では、XOOPS の利用を提案したいと思う。

3.2 教育を目的とする CMS の運用における XOOPS の優位性

XOOPS に関しては、XOOPS2 から派生した、XOOPS Cube が、日本語を含めたマルチバイト環境での利用では最も良いと思われるので、以下本研究で XOOPS という場合には XOOPS Cube のことを指していると理解してほしい。XOOPS の利点としては、まず、Linux, Mac OS X, Windows といった多様なプラットフォームで動くことが挙げられる。特に、LAMP(Linux, Apache, MySQL, PHP)というフリーソフトウェアの組み合わせによって、極めて低コストでの導入が可能である。また、公開されている各種モジュールを組み込むことにより、多くの機能を付け足してゆくことが出来る。筆者の運用している授業用のサイトでも、外部モジュールを導入することで、例えば前節で述べた Wiki のような、それ自体が独立した CMS として開発されているものを XOOPS の中に取り込んで、その一部として運用している。そして、何より一般ユーザ向けの書籍などの情報が非常に多い。筆者の手元にあつて、実際に大いに参考になったものだけでも、上田修子 (2005)、小川晃夫 & 南大沢ブロードバンド研究会 (2005)、久岡貴弘 (2005)、GIJOE & matchan (2005) などがある。XOOPS なら、CMS 初心者にも扱いやすい状況になっているのである。さらに、モジュールの実例を少し挙げれば、スケジュールを書き込めるカレンダー、フォーラム(掲示板)、ニュース、Wiki、Blog、FAQ、リンク集、ダウンロードなどがある。

4. ChauSer というソフトウェアの開発と QMS という概念の提案

ここまで述べてきたように、XOOPS などを用いれば、かなり快適な授業支援環境が構築できるのだが、学習者に何か「問い」を發し、それに対する「答え」を集計してまた学習者にフィードバックするという授業ならではの機能が不十分だと思われる。多肢選択法で簡単なアンケートの行える「投票」モジュールが標準で用意はされているが、授業支援には機能的に充分とまでは言えない。ただ、標準のモジュールとしてはじめから用意されており、使い方も簡単なので、まずはここから始めてみるという選択もあり得よう。

筆者は、上述の ChauSer を利用した授業を実験的に行っている。ChauSer は、ネットワーク利用のアンケート調査を容易に作成・管理できるシステムであり、CMS などに倣って、Questionnaire Management System (QMS) と呼んでみたい。非常に高機能なネットワーク型アンケート調査作成・管理システムなのである。初心者向けの簡易作成モードと上級者用のコード編集モードをあわせ持ち、極めて柔軟なインターフェイスで、簡単なミニアンケートから各種メディアと連携した学術調査用アンケートまで、多様な調査を、インターネットを通じて行うことができる。これは、QMS と呼ぶにふさわしいものだと思う。ちなみに QMS という表現は筆者の造語である。

5. CMS と QMS の組み合わせによる授業のマネージメント

実際の操作や授業運営がどのようなものになるかのサンプルを見てみよう。筆者の運用する XOOPS を利用したサイトと、筆者の担当する授業で、受講生の協力を仰ぎ、実際に行ったいくつかのミニアンケートの作成と実施に関する画面を見ることにする。

5. 1 筆者のサイトのトップページなど（登録ユーザとしてログインした場合）

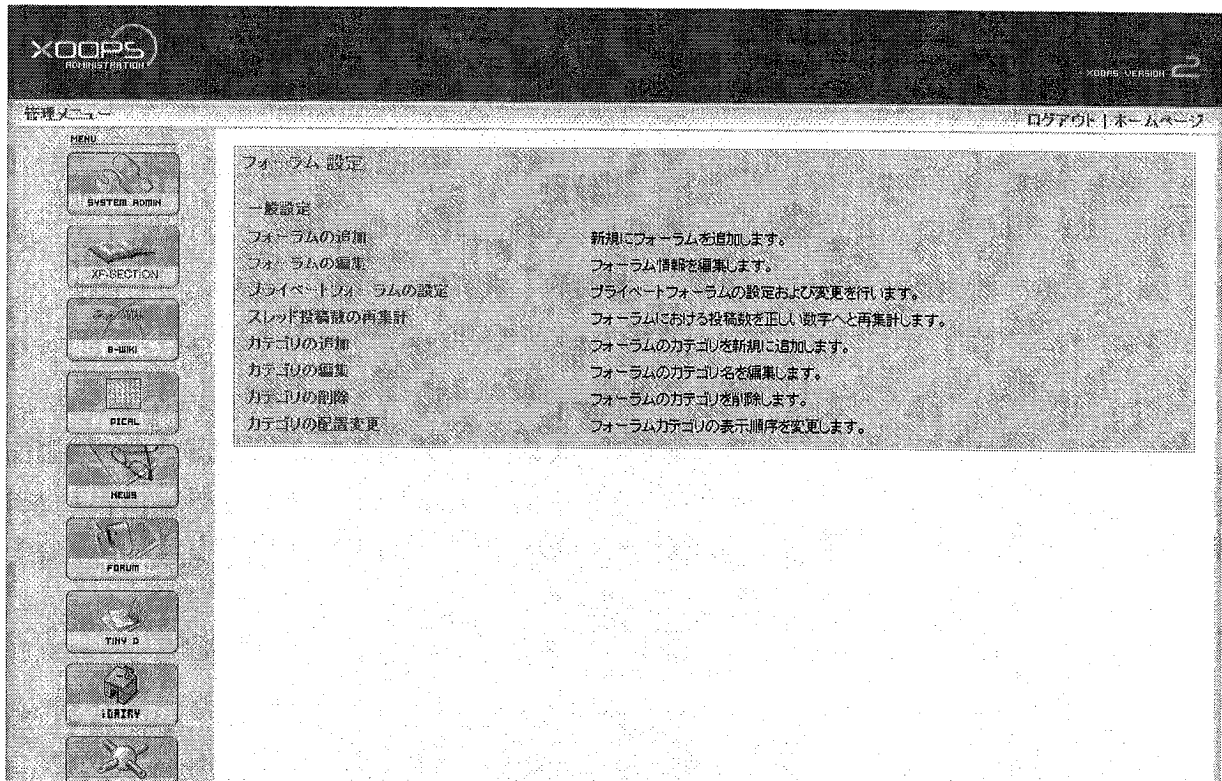
以下のスクリーンショット画像に見えるように、中央のブロックに、このサイトのモットーと、最新ニュース、筆者の新着日記、新着リンク、新着ダウンロードが表示されている。右側のブロックには、スケジュールを書き込めるミニカレンダーがあり、サイト内の検索メニューが見える。また、サイト全体のデザインを変更できるテーマの選択メニューも表示されている。さらに、現在何人のユーザがこのサイトを利用しているかの情報もわかる。左のブロックには、かなりの数のメニューが並んでいる。中央や右側のブロックに表示されているものも、左のメインのメニューからも利用できる。メインメニューには、まだ説明していないものとして、HTML ファイル（つまり普通のウェブページのようなもの）を簡単に作成提示できるエディタ機能も持っている XF セクションや、グループの共同作業などに便利な Wiki、高機能の掲示板であるフォーラム、サイトに関する情報を書き込んでおける FAQ、多肢選択法の簡単なアンケートを行うことの出来る投票モジュールなどが見える。これだけのモジュールがあれば、通常の授業に必要な情報や教材それ自体も、ほとんどこのサイトに置いておくことが出来る。また、ユーザメニューに受信箱というものがあるが、これはこのサイトの中だけではあるが、ユーザ間でプライベートなメッセージをやりとりできるようにした仕組みであり、各種連絡に便利である。

管理者としてログインした場合には、さらに詳細な管理者用のメニューが加わるのだが、実際のユーザに関わる情報も出てくるので、ここでは具体的なサンプルの提示はさけ、一般的な操作画面の一例（フォーラムの管理画面のトップ）を挙げるだけにしておく。また、登録ユーザ・管理者としてログインしない場合はゲストとして扱われ、トップページに表示されるのはごく一部のメニューとなるように設定してある。コンテンツだけではなく、ユーザの管理も出来るのである。

○サイトのトップページ

The screenshot shows a website interface with a dark-themed navigation menu on the left. The main content area features a quote by Thomas von Jung about education and a '最新ニュースブロック' (Latest News Block) with several news items. Below the news is a '新着日記' (New Diary) section with dates and titles. To the right, there is a 'ミニカレンダー (piCal)' showing the month of November 2005, a search box, and a 'テーマ選択' (Theme Selection) dropdown menu currently set to 'phpkaox x2t'. At the bottom right, an 'オンライン状況' (Online Status) section indicates that 4 users are currently online.

○フォーラム設定のトップページ



5.2 授業で行ったミニアンケートの例

まずは、ChauSer で新規のアンケート調査を作成する場合の画面を見てみよう。デフォルトでは手作業でタグを入力するタイプの編集画面が出てくるのだが、「Wizardで編集」というボタンをクリックすると、文章・画像・質問などを ChauSer の指示に従って入力してゆくことの出来る画面が出てくる。質問を作成するのも、ウィザードに従えば簡単である。そして、単純な操作の組み合わせで、かなり複雑なものを作成することが可能である。以下に、ウィザードを利用して簡単な操作で多肢選択法の質問を作成する例を見てみよう。

○ ウィザードで質問を作成する場合の例

コンテンツ(質問)

質問文を入力してください。

一日何時間くらい英語の勉強をしますか？

質問への回答は

任意 必須

質問の種類

プルダウン型(回答を一つだけ選択) ▼

選択肢を入力してください。(最大10個)

30分未満
30分以上1時間未満
1時間以上2時間未満
2時間以上

コピー ペースト

作成 キャンセル

アンケートに応えた人は、「thanks of yokoyama」という名称のページに飛びます。

次に、実際に筆者が授業で行った二つのアンケートの例を以下に示す。最初は、質問が一つだけの「翻訳書読書調査」というタイトルの簡略なものである。どの程度翻訳された文学系テキストを読むかを尋ねているものである。学生用提示画面、そして、回答集計画面を以下に提示している。その次は、辞書・文法書調査というタイトルのもので、英和・和英・英英辞典、英文法書の利用状況などを尋ねている。同じく、学生用提示画面、そして、回答集計画面を以下に提示している。ちなみに、和英辞典と英英辞典の具体的な名前が挙がっていないが、それは、日常的に使っていると答えている受講生がいるのに、その名称を誰もかけなかったので、データがないのである。簡単なアンケートなのだが、意外に興味深い結果を得ることが出来たと思われる。

○翻訳書読書調査(学生提示画面)

純文学、ミステリー、SFなどの広い意味での文学系テキストを読みますか？

よく読む。 ▼

送る

○翻訳書読書調査(回答集計画面)

回答者数:14名

問) 純文学、ミステリー、SFなどの広い意味での文学系テキストを読みますか？(プルダウン型単一選択)

回答者数:14名

回答	回答数	割合	グラフ
よく読む。	2	14%	
たまには読む。	3	21%	
まれにしか読まない。	3	21%	
(ほとんど全く読まない。	6	43%	
合計	14	100%	

○辞書・文法書調査(学生提示画面)

1 英和辞典を日常的によく使っていますか？

はい いいえ

はい、と答えた人は、その辞書の名前を書いてください。

2 和英辞典を日常的によく使っていますか？

はい いいえ

はい、と答えた人は、その辞書の名前を書いてください。

3 英英辞典を日常的によく使っていますか？

はい いいえ

はい、と答えた人は、その辞書の名前を書いてください。

4 英文法書を日常的によく使っていますか？

はい いいえ

はい、と答えた人は、その文法書の名前を書いてください。

3 英文法の知識は英語学習に役立っていますか？

はい いいえ

はい、と答えた人は、その理由を簡単に書いてください。

○辞書・文法書調査(回答集計画面)

回答者数:11名

問) 1 英和辞典を日常的によく使っていますか？(ラジオボタン型単一選択)

回答者数:11名

回答	回答数	割合	グラフ
はい	11	100%	
いいえ	0	0%	
合計	11	100%	

問) 2 和英辞典を日常的によく使っていますか？(ラジオボタン型単一選択)

回答者数:11名

回答	回答数	割合	グラフ
はい	8	73%	
いいえ	3	27%	
合計	11	100%	

問) はい、と答えた人は、その辞書の名前を書いてください。(自由記入型)

回答者数:11名

- ・ジーニアス
- ・ジーニアス//ルミナス
- ・ジーニアス ルミナス
- ・ジーニアス英和大辞典(電子辞書)

- ・ジーニアス英和辞典
- ・リーダーズ英和辞典
- ・ジーニアス英和大辞典
- ・ジーニアス英和辞典
- ・ジーニアス英和辞典
- ・よく覚えていません。

問) 3 英英辞典を日常的によく使っていますか？(ラジオボタン型単一選択)

回答者数:11名

回答	回答数	割合	グラフ
はい	3	27%	
いいえ	8	73%	
合計	11	100%	

問) 4 英文法書を日常的によく使っていますか？(ラジオボタン型単一選択)

回答者数:11名

回答	回答数	割合	グラフ
はい	2	18%	
いいえ	8	73%	
	1	9%	
合計	11	100%	

問) はい、と答えた人は、その文法書の名前を書いてください。(自由記入型)

回答者数:11名

*forest

・???覚えてないです。

問) 3 英文法の知識は英語学習に役立っていますか？(ラジオボタン型単一選択)

回答者数:11名

回答	回答数	割合	グラフ
はい	11	100%	
いいえ	0	0%	
合計	11	100%	

問) はい、と答えた人は、その理由を簡単に書いてください。(自由記入型)

回答者数: 11名

- ・文法がわからないと文章の作りが分かりにくいから。
- ・長文をスムーズに読むことができるから//
- ・文章が読みやすくなるから
- ・英文法の知識がないと、会話をしようと思っても無理だから。
- ・文法がわかっていしないと始まらないと思う。
- ・英文を訳す上での組み換えに役立っている。
- ・英文を書いていて、ふと文章が正しいかどうか不安になったとき、役に立つこともある。ただし、私自身は英文法の知識が浅いため、和英辞典等で確認しておくことが多い。
- ・授業の中で使用する英文の資料が簡単な内容であれば少しは理解できるから。
- ・英語学習にあたって、英語の文章を読んで内容を理解するには、文章を構造的に読む必要があると考える。英文を構造的に読んでいくには英文法の知識が不可欠であると考え、このような点で、英文法の知識は英語学習に役立っていると思う。
- ・文法がわからないときに調べるのに便利だから。
- ・文法が違えば、意味が違ってくることがよくあるからです。

このような調査を、FXセクションのページやWikiのページに置いた授業用の資料と組み合わせれば、かなり多様な授業運営が可能になる。さらに、簡単なアンケートを作るのにかかる時間は数分なので、場合によっては授業中、学習者にちょっとした作業をさせている間にアンケートを作って実施するというようなことも可能である。

今回は、英語学習に関わるようなアンケートの例を挙げたが、英文などの通常の教材をそのまま提示し、設問をその後に続け、解答を回答欄に書かせれば、通常の英語のテストのようなものにも十分利用できる。筆者はそのような使い方もしている。

6. おわりに

以上見てきたように、CMSを利用し、さらにそれをQMSと組み合わせれば、かなり魅力的な授業支援環境を構築することが出来る。しかし、やはり要となるのは人間であることを忘れてはならない。本研究の執筆中にも、XOOPS Cubeのセキュリティ上のバグが複数見つかリ、不正アクセスをさけるためにアップデート作業を行っているし、学習者のコミュニティでは、不注意やいたずらによるトラブルが皆無とは言えない。人間という要素こそが、最も重要なものであることは、これからも変わらない。しかし、それを取り巻く環境の全体像は変化してゆく。変わるものと変わらないもの、変えるべきものと変えてはいけないものをしっかりと考えてゆきたい。

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具体的使用目的を設定した英語学習機会の提供— 広島市立大学夏期集中講座 (Summer Intensive Program) HIROSHIMA and PEACE を事例として (注1)

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1. はじめに

日本各地の大学は教育カリキュラムの見直し・改革に余念がない。一方で国立大学法人化に代表される国際競争力強化に向けたグローバルな変革もあれば、地域性を求めるローカルな変革もある。本稿で紹介する広島市立大学国際学部の「HIROSHIMA and PEACE」(以下、市大、及びH&P)は、グローバルとローカルの折衷、いわゆるグローカル(例えば岡戸, 2002; Pakir, 2000)の実現を目指す教育プログラムである。端的に言えば、H&Pは国内外の大学生が一堂に会し、平和問題に関係するレクチャーを聴講し、それに基づいた討論を、英語を共通言語として行うプログラムである(詳細は後述)。そもそも英語教育の目的で導入されたわけではないが、英語を介して行われるため、必然的にそれとの関連付けが必要になってくる。いわゆる authenticity の観点からすれば、日本の英語使用環境は貧弱極まりない。しかし、H&Pのような具体的言語使用を想定した英語機会の提供の試みは、English for Special Purposes (ESP) や English for Academic Purposes (EAP) などの、より専門的な英語教育のあり方を追求することに繋がり、「英語が使える日本人」育成の構想とも決して矛盾しない研究・教育の機会を提供してくれるものと期待される。

以下では最初に H&P の概要に触れる。続いて過去3回の H&P について、特に事前英語研修 (Preliminary English Workshop, 以下 PEW) について述べ、専門性を視野に入れた大学英語教育のあり方について、私見を述べることとする。

2. H&P とは

2.1 H&P 開設の経緯

H&P は 2003 年度に初回プログラムが実施された。H&P 開講のそもそものきっかけは、内発的希求によってと言うよりもむしろ外圧によってという方が正確である。発端は 2001 年に市大とハワイ大学マノア校(以下ハワイ大)で交わされた大学間協定にある。協定提携後、先方での授業料免除を条件に、市大国際学部からは毎年 2~3 名程度を交換留学生として 1~2 学期間(半年~1年)派遣し、同時に教員派遣や研究交流も行ってきた。一方で、研究交流

とは裏腹にハワイ大から市大への派遣学生はなく、先方からは不均衡が是正されない場合、協定継続に支障をきたす恐れがあることが指摘されていた。

H&P はこうした状況を改善するために講じられた起死回生の策だったわけである。加えて、地方の公立大学に求められる地域性に鑑みても、その立ち上げの理由が何であれ、国際学部を有する市大にとって H&P は市大が掲げる教育理念「世界平和と地域に貢献する国際的な大学」に合致した理想的プログラムであったと言えよう。このようにして、2003 年度の実施に向けて、国際学部内にただちにワーキンググループが発足させられ、予算措置等に時間を要する公立大学の新規企画としては極めて異例と言える短期間の準備で発足に漕ぎ着けたわけである。

2.2 参加者数の推移

初回からの参加者数は表 1～3 の通りである。初年度の実施に向けて不安材料は後を経たず、とりわけ提携校ハワイ大からの参加者数が懸念された。当面は同大生を優先しつつも、海外参加者は他国からも希望者があれば受け入れる方針で募集が行われた。その結果、ハワイ大から 5 名、ドイツからも 1 名の参加者があり、市大生 25 名と合わせて、合計 31 名で H&P をスタートさせることとなった。

翌年度からは海外参加者が大幅に増えた。これは、マスメディア学専門の教員が 2 回目の H&P から実質的担当者となり、その人脈を活かして国内外に向けた H&P の広報に尽力したことが功を奏した結果である。本来ならば、応募者全員の受け入れが理想であるが、各授業の収容能力、ホームステイ先の確保（参加者の財政的負担軽減のため、全員無償で提供）などの事由から、2 回目以降、海外参加者は 2 年生以上に限定し、参加者の選抜を行わざるを得ない状況である。参加者の顔ぶれは多彩で、理工系の学部生もいれば、博士課程で平和学

表 1: 2003 年(第 1 回)

国籍	応募	受講
ハワイ大	5	5
ドイツ	1	1
計	6	6
市立大生	25	25
総計	31	31

表 2: 2004 年(第 2 回)

国籍	応募	受講
アメリカ	11	11
シンガポール	16	6
ドイツ	2	2
スペイン	1	1
ポーランド	1	1
ニュージーランド	1	1
オーストラリア	1	1
ウガンダ	1	1
日本	7	4
その他 8 カ国	9	0
計	50	28
市立大生	33	21
総計	89	49

表 3: 2005 年(第 3 回)

国籍	応募	受講
アメリカ	23	10
イギリス	4	3
韓国	3	3
ドイツ	3	2
タイ	2	2
UAE	3	1
ネパール	1	1
フランス	1	1
スウェーデン	1	1
日本	6	3
その他 7 カ国	15	0
計	62	27
市立大生	33	21
総計	94	48

※「日本」は日本国内の他大学からの参加者を指している

を専攻している大学院生も含まれている。市大国際学部からの参加者についても、初回は希望者全員の受講を認めたが、2回目以降は2年生以上を対象とすることとした。これは、2.3節で敷衍する英語能力の問題と合わせ、学部専門科目の受講が不足しているとの指摘が講義担当者から寄せられたことによる。

2.3 受講内容

上述のように、H&Pは英語による講義と討論の2本立てとしている。前期終了時の7月末に開始し、8月6日の平和記念式典参列とその直後の最終討論会をもって2週間の集中プログラムが完了する。この間に行われる講義の題目(2005年度プログラム)と主なイベントを表4にまとめた。講義は、国際学部教員と市大平和研究所専任スタッフによるオムニバス形式である。討論(discussion)は、参加者を小グループに分けて行われ、円滑にこれを進めるため、2名程度の教員がティームティーチング形式で参加者をサポートしている。

約2週間で行われる講義、討論の総授業時間数は1学期(セメスター)の通常授業の1.5倍以上に相当する。そのため、期末テストに合格すれば、3単位が認定されることになっている。市大生については、後述する英語事前研修が追加されるため、これを含めて4単位が与えられる。科目分類上、学部専門科目の扱いで、「国際研究特講 HIROSHIMA and PEACE」として開講されている。

表4: 2005年度H&Pの講義題目と主なイベント

Date	Lecture/Event
7/27	Orientation and university campus tour; Welcome party
7/28	Roles of the media in foreign image building, international relations, and world peace
	Discussion: Breaking down stereotypes for better understanding across cultures
7/29	Sustainable development for peace: Promoting access to natural resources to alleviate rural poverty
	Women in war and war in women's eyes: The Russo-Japanese War
	Field study: Radiation Effects Research Foundation (a Japan-U.S. Research Institution)
7/30	(<i>symposium</i>)
7/31	Free
8/1	Peace and security: Case for Europe?
	For globalized "Hibakusha": A campaign against DU (Depleted Uranium) weapons
	Discussion: What does Hiroshima mean to you?
8/2	Explaining the Korean situation in Northeast Asia
	Southeast Asia: Past trends, current trajectories
	War and peace in East Asia
8/3	Terror from the sky: A history of indiscriminate bombing
	Godzilla and the Bravo Shot - Who created and killed the monster?
	Field study: Testimony of an atomic bomb survivor and Peace Memorial Museum/Park
8/4	Islam and political violence in Southeast Asia
	Establishing peace across cultures, sub-cultures and genders: The role of communication styles
	Discussion: Overcoming hostilities among groups
8/5	The atomic bomb myth: Saving lives and ending the war?
	Japanese civil society and the US alliance: An analysis of dilemmas in alliance relationships
	Final exam
8/6	Participate in Peace Memorial Ceremony
	Final Discussion: 60th Anniversary of atomic bombing: What we have learned and what we can do.

2.4 市大参加者の英語能力の問題

H&Pを学部正規科目として提供する以上、それは市大受講生にとって「取り得る科目」であることが必然である。しかし、いわゆる共通科目としての英語と異なり、H&P参加者には英語で討論に参加できるなど高い英語能力が求められている。予想されたこととはいえ、初年度プログラム終了後には講義担当者から英語能力不足を指摘する意見が多く聞かれた。

ちなみに、2005年度H&Pのアンケート調査で参加者に自分の英語力を自己申告してもらったところ、TOEIC[®]スコアで平均約590点（得点範囲は400点前半～最高約900点）であった（注2）。さらに、市大国際学部で開講されている1,2年次の英語関連科目（表5）について、参加者の英語クラス成績を、優良可を各3.0, 2.0, 1.0としていわゆるGPAを算出した。その結果、GPA平均は2.52（範囲は1.88～3.00）であった。

こうした客観的基準で判断すると、参加者の平均的英語能力は英語非専攻学生のそれとしては決して悪くないと思えるし、GPAからすれば学部で提供している英語科目も無難にこなしていると言えるだろう。しかし、H&Pが英語のみの授業であることを考えると、授業に求められる英語レベルと市大生のそれとは相当なギャップがあることは紛れもない事実である。さらに、得点範囲で示したように、TOEICスコアで400点前半の英語熟達度の低い参加者も含まれている。市大生に関しては、こうした学生をどのように動機付け、本番のH&Pに備えさせるかがH&Pを円滑に進めるための鍵を握っているというのが実情である。

3. 事前英語研修 (PEW)

3.1 初期の取り組み

初回H&Pの反省から、第2回プログラムではPEWを実施することになった。研修内容は、コミュニケーション方略 (communication strategies, 以下CS) やインタラクションに伴う方略の集中訓練と本番の討論を想定したグループディスカッションの練習とした。授業形式は、英語母語話者の専任教員とのチームティーチングとし、通常の大学授業回数にして3コマ分の研修であった。試行錯誤による研修であったが、効果は予想以上であったようで、講義担当者からは、「参加意欲が感じられた」「前年とは比較にならないほど発話量が増えた」などといったコメントがあり、さらに体系的なPEW実施が望まれた。

冷静に判断すると、3回程度の研修で英語能力そのものが変化したと考えるのは早計である。むしろその原因は参加者間の連帯意識、本番に対する心構え・参加意識の高揚、そして方略的言語使用による言語運用 (performance) への準備ができたと解するほうが道理である

表5: 広島市立大学国際学部英語カリキュラム一覧

科目名	単位数	開講学年
共通英語		
英語講読 I, II	1 x 2	1
英会話 I, II	1 x 2	1
CALL 英語集中 I, II	1 x 2	1
英語総合 I, II	1 x 2	2
英語特論 (専門科目: 3科目のうち1科目選択必修)		
英語読解法 I, II		
英語討論技法 I, II	2 x 2	2
英文作法 I, II		

※共通英語8単位 + 専門英語4単位必修
Iは前期, IIは後期の半期科目である。

う。しかし、外国語として英語を教えなければならない日本の閉鎖的言語使用コンテキストからすると、こうした言語運用面の変化は、英語学習者がそれを通じて実際の言語使用により関心を寄せる契機になる、あるいはより専門的な英語能力を身に付けるようとする動機付けに寄与するのであれば、決して侮れない教育効果と言えるだろう。

3.2 体系的な PEW に向けて

しかし、初回の PEW は所詮付焼刃であり、これを本格化させるには体系的アクションリサーチが不可欠である。そこで第3回プログラムでは、単に研修を行うだけではなく、アンケートやテストなどにより各種の必要データを収集して授業改善に役立てることとした。研修は、通常の90分授業で4回実施した。研修及び調査内容は以下の通りである。

表6: 第3回 H&P の事前英語研修の内容

<p>第1回 ガイダンスと事前調査</p> <p>①事前テスト, アンケート調査 ②ミニ講義実施とビデオ撮影による授業分析 ③CS, 授業方略, 討論方略の説明・課題 ④H&P Glossary 作成の説明</p>	<p>第3回 バーチャル討論会</p> <p>①ミニ講義 ②質疑応答 ③ミニ講義に基づいた討論会(学部教員に参加要請) ④討論結果の発表</p>
<p>第2回 各種方略の運用トレーニング</p> <p>①Information-gap を使ったインタラクション(warm-up) ②ミニ講義と授業インタラクション ③グループディスカッションと発表 ④事前語彙テスト(Glossary から)</p>	<p>第4回 仕上げ</p> <p>①事後データ, アンケート ②学習内容のまとめ ③H & P 参加の心得(意見交換)</p>

表6に示した研修の個々の内容について若干補足説明をしておこう。

- 1) アンケート調査 — 研修を通じた参加者の意識変化状態を把握するため、PEWの事前(調査1)、事後(調査2)、それに本番のH&P直後(調査3)の、合計3回のアンケート調査を実施した。海外からの参加者に対しても、市大生の英語使用についてのアンケートを実施した。(3回の調査の主な結果は4.1節参照。)
- 2) 英語母語話者によるミニレクチャー(10分) — 講義内容は平和問題を報じた新聞記事の解説で、講義終了後に質問時間を設け、それに続いて、講義担当者から受講生に質問が行われた。授業の様子はビデオ観察により分析。すべての講義終了後、英文記事の理解に関する少テストを実施。
- 3) 方略使用の練習 — CS研究の先行研究で使用されたタスク(岩井, 2000 参照)やインタラクションに必要な方略(例えば, Dörnyei & Scott, 1997)を参照に、ハンドアウトを配布し、各種の方略使用を練習。Information-gap(例, 間違いさがし)や新聞記事内の難しい語彙の説明練習などを行った。
- 4) 討論会 — 2回目と3回目の研修では討論会を実施した。2回目は参加者だけで行い、3回目はより臨場感を高めるため、学部内で英語のできる教員に協力してもらって、1グループに1名または2名の教員を割り当てた。各グループの討論は、個別に発表してもらい、参加者全員による質疑応答を行った。
- 5) H&P Glossary の作成 — H&Pの講義内容は平和や世界の紛争問題など広範囲にわたる(表4参照)。高度なテクニカルタームは個々の授業担当者に委ねるしかないが、nuclear

proliferation, genocide などといった新聞等のメディアで頻繁に登場する英語知識を持ち合わせていないようでは講義理解はおぼつかない。参加者の意識をこうした高度な英語知識に向けるよう、PEW 参加者全員で協力して、平和問題関係の英語語彙グロサリーを作成した。方法は、新聞、広島市のパンフレット、各種出版物を漁渉し、見つけた表現とその日本語訳を、専用に準備した共同作業用書き込みウェブサイトに入力する方法とした(注3)。参加者一人 50 個の表現を最低ノルマとし、約一月(5月~6月)で 800 語程度のグロサリーが完成した。これと平行して、講義担当者にも、講義で使用が想定されるテクニカルタームとその簡単な解説資料の提出を求めたが、こちらは指示が不徹底であったため、担当者全員からこれを集めることはできなかった。結局こちらは 200 語程度のリストとなった。これら2つを合わせて約 1,000 語のグロサリーが完成し、参加者全員に資料をコピーして配布した。最終回の PEW で語彙テストを実施することとした。

以上が PEW の概要である。PWE 期間中に収集したデータは多岐にわたるため、紙幅の限られた本稿で網羅することはできない。以下では主にアンケート調査に的を絞って調査結果を述べることとする。

4. アンケート調査の結果

4.1 参加者の英語学習・使用状況

調査1では上記の TOEIC の得点に関する質問に加え、英語圏への滞在経験、英語使用状況、授業以外での英語学習状況などについて尋ねた。その結果、参加者全体の約 8 割が過去に英語圏に滞在した経験を有しているが、ほとんどは1ヶ月未満の短期滞在で、例外的に半年未満が2名、1年未満が1名含まれていた。現在の英語使用状況については、半数が「そういう機会がまったくない」と答え、あるいは「ある」と回答した場合も大半は月に1、2度程度で、「日常的な英語使用の機会がある」としたのは1名のみであった。さらに、自主的英語学習の取り組みについては、「まったく何もしていない」とする回答が全体の約半数の9名、残りはテレビ・ラジオの番組を利用したり、一部英会話学校に通ったりしているようである。しかし、その取り組みの姿勢を尋ねた質問では、必ずしも全員が切羽詰った心情で取り組んでいるというわけではないことが伺える。

PEW 直後の調査2で変化が著しかったのは、参加者のこうした自主的な英語学習への取り組みの姿勢と、その学習内容であろう。PEW 前の「何もしていない」とする回答者は、調査2では5名に減り、さらに調査3では4名に減っている。数字以上に如実に変化が伺えるのが学習内容である。PEW 前の会話重視の学習から、英字新聞や CNN, BBC などといったより時事性の高い自学習の試みや、日記を英語で書くといった工夫を始めたとする回答が過半数を占めていた。これらは、近年の学習方略研究でよく言われる自律学習者 (autonomous language learners, 例えば Benson, 2001) 育成という観点からも侮れない変化と言えるだろう。

4.2 PEW の直接的効果

では、PEW は、学習者の英語使用に対する態度や考え方に何らかの影響を与え得るのだろうか。これについては、いわゆる Likert scale (1「とてもそう」~5「まったくいいえ」

の5段階)による40問を使って3回とも同じ調査を行った。これらの質問項目は、①英語学習に関する一般的な質問(表7のQ1~Q10)、②具体的発話場面でどの程度英語で話せる自信があるか(同Q11~Q20)、③少人数による英語討論について(同Q21~Q30)、④英語に対する考え方(同Q31~Q40)についてである。3回の調査結果は表7のとおりである。

表7: アンケート調査3回分の結果

質問項目	調査1	調査2	調査3
Q1 私は人前で英語を話すことに慣れている。	3.39	3.50	3.06
Q2 クラスで英語で話すときには、いつも発音や文法のことごとくも気になる。	2.44	2.67	2.89
Q3 英語の知識不足は、臨機応変に、言い換えや機転を利かした言い方で対応することが多い。	2.72	2.67	2.44
Q4 英語で言えないことを、あの手この手で工夫して話すことをこれまでも頻繁に実行してきた。	2.67	2.50	2.28
Q5 頭では分かっているが、クラスの人前で英語で話すのはやっぱりためらってしまう。	2.78	2.72	2.78
Q6* 自分の英語に自信がないときでも、言いたいことはリスク覚悟で発話するようにしている。	2.94	2.83	2.33
Q7 英語の授業で発言を求められたときには、私は率先してそれを実行する方である。	3.17	3.11	3.44
Q8 英語、日本語に関わらず、クラスではあまり発言するのが好きではない。	3.22	3.11	3.00
Q9 英会話クラスでは、自分の英語を意図的に試すことが頻繁にある。	2.89	3.06	3.11
Q10 英語で話す機会を自ら求める努力を意図的にしてきた。	2.56	2.17	2.28
Q11* 事前準備なしに自己紹介(大学の所属、趣味、家族、将来の希望、など)を求められた場合。	2.33	2.00	1.94
Q12* 国際学部とはどんな学部でどんな特徴があるかを尋ねられた場合。	3.17	2.89	2.56
Q13 DVDの使い方を教えてほしいと頼まれたとき。(使い方は知っているものとします。)	2.61	2.33	2.33
Q14** 「日本社会はいまだ排他的だ」と言う先生の意見に反論したいとき。	3.78	3.67	2.89
Q15** 「ひろしまの役割は今後ますます重要になる」という先生の発言に同意する意見を述べたいとき。	2.72	2.39	2.17
Q16 宗教儀式についての先生の説明が抽象的過ぎるので、分かりやすく説明してほしいとき。	2.61	2.61	2.28
Q17 国連安保理についての先生の説明を自分が正しく理解しているかどうか、確認したいとき。	3.11	3.11	2.94
Q18 先生の話し方が早口すぎるので、少しゆっくり説明してもらうように頼みたいとき。	1.67	1.78	1.89
Q19 課題量が多すぎて、とても次回授業までにはできないと先生に苦情を言いたいとき。	2.33	2.56	2.50
Q20 夏期集中講座を受講することにした理由の説明を求められたとき。	2.22	2.06	1.89
Q21* 小人数での英語討論は好き。	2.78	2.11	2.22
Q22 どちらかというと、受身的に参加してしまう方。	2.61	3.17	2.78
Q23 相手の意見に反対するのは気が引ける。	3.28	3.67	3.50
Q24 自分の意見は主張しないと気がすまない。	2.89	2.72	2.72
Q25 何とかして発話する機会を見つけようとする。	2.56	2.50	2.28
Q26 英語のことが心配で、討論どころではない。	3.33	3.44	3.39
Q27 分からない意見や説明に対しては、分かりやすく言ってもらうようためらいなく頼める。	2.44	2.72	2.61
Q28 声の小さい相手に対しては、大きい声で話してもらうよう頼める。	2.11	2.44	2.50
Q29 長々と話して討論を独占している人の話を中断することができる。	3.78	3.61	3.67
Q30 自分の発話に割り込もうとする人に対しては、最後まで自分の話を聞くよう注意できる。	3.44	3.17	3.33
Q31 英語はよく国際語だと言われるが、まったくその通りだ。	1.89	1.67	1.67
Q32 いくら英語能力が高くても、フィリピン人やシンガポール人の英語教師より、やはり英米人の英語教師から英語を学びたい。	2.78	2.56	2.72
Q33 日本の学校は、むしろフィリピン人やシンガポール人の英語教師をもっと積極的に採用すべきだ。	3.06	2.94	2.89
Q34 英語母語話者以外の人たちの使う英語を聞いたり、そういう人たちと話す機会が大学生にはもっとも必要だ。	1.67	1.39	1.44
Q35 英語がペラペラな人を見ると、「かっこいい」「すごいなあ」と感じる。	1.28	1.28	1.50
Q36 韓国朝鮮語や中国語がペラペラな人を見ると、「かっこいい」「すごいなあ」と感じる。	1.33	1.22	1.44
Q37 英語学習を通じて、英語だけではなく、話す態度においても英米人のように振舞えるようになりたい。	2.50	2.83	3.00
Q38 意味が通じれば、別にJapanese English(例えば日本語的な発音)であることを恥じる必要はない。	2.22	2.22	1.94
Q39 目標とする英語は、アメリカ英語やイギリス英語などいわゆる「標準英語」がいい。	2.00	1.83	2.28
Q40 英語は自分の母語ではないが、そのことで不当な扱いを受けた場合には、躊躇なく相手にそうしないよう求める。(希望ではなく、本当にそうするかどうか。)	2.61	3.06	2.89

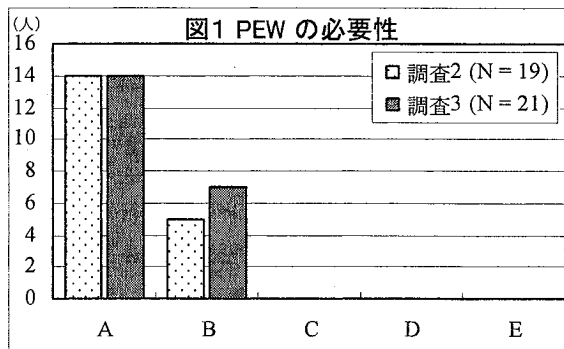
※ * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. 調査1はPEWの前に、調査2はPEWの直後、調査3は本番のH&P直後に実施した。各質問の回答分布については正規性が疑わしいため、Friedman testによるノンパラメトリック検定を行った。また、有意差の得られた設問については、Bonferroniの不等式によって $p < 0.05 \div 3 = 0.0167$ に設定して多重比較を行った。

全体的には、PEW が参加者の英語使用実態や英語そのものに対する意識に劇的変化をもたらしたとは言い難いが、それでも6項目に統計的に有意な変化が生じている。ひとつは「リスク覚悟で英語使用を試みる」という意識の変化(Q6)である。これは方略的言語使用に対する意識が高まったことを意味していると思われる。「少人数の討論に抵抗がなくなった」(Q21)とする回答も、多分に「慣れ」による効果であろう。もっとも有意な変化が生じたのはカテゴリ②の「それぞれの場面でどの程度話せる自信があるか」に関する項目で、4つがこれに該当する(表の網掛け部分)。しかし、これら6項目すべてがPEWの結果と結論付けることはできない。多重比較の結果(詳細は略)からすると、有意差は主に2回目と3回目の調査間で生じており、これらの項目における変化はH&P本番を体験したことの方がより強く影響していると考えられるからである。

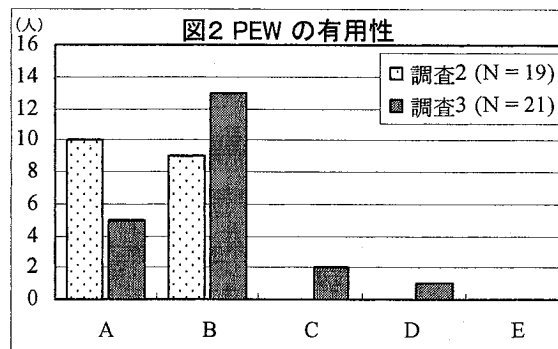
4.3 PEWの必要性と参加者の要望

では市大生はPEWが不要であったと感じているかと言うと、事実はまったくその反対である。上述の質問に加え、アンケートでは、1) PEWの必要性、2) PEWの有用性、3) 研修回数の適切さ、4) 研修内容の妥当性、について、調査2と3で尋ねた。1~3についての回答結果は以下の図の通りである。

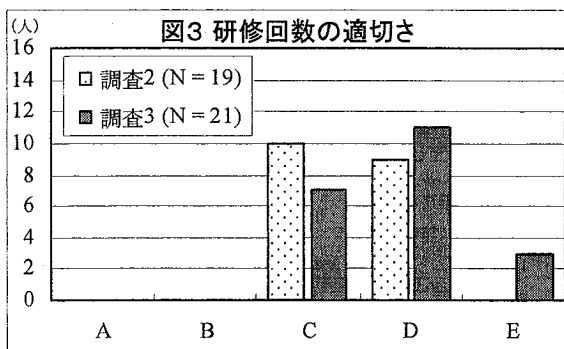
これらの結果から明らかなように、市大参加者はPEWの必要性を強く感じているのみならず、その有用性も認めていることが分かる。むしろ4回程度の事前研修には満足しておらず、



A=全体必要 B=あった方がいい C=どちらとも言えない D=なくてもいい E=絶対不要
※2回目の調査は2名が欠席したため、N=19であった。



A=とても役立つ B=少し役立った C=どちらとも言えない D=あまり役に立たなかった E=まったく役に立たなかった



A=とても多すぎた B=やや多すぎた C=どちらとも言えない D=やや少なすぎた E=とても少なすぎた

追加の問で理想回数を尋ねたところ、「1 学期を通じて」、あるいは「大学の英語教育全体を通じて行われるべき」とする回答が過半数を超えていた。さらに、図 2, 3 で注意すべき点は、PEW 直後よりも、本番の H&P 後に PEW に対する意見が厳しくなり、かつ回数増加に対する要望が H&P 実施後より強くなっていることである。

では、PEW の学習内容そのものについてどのように感じたのであろうか。これを自由記述で尋ねたところ、多くの建設的意見が聞かれた。それらのうち代表的な意見を第 3 回の調査から拾ってみよう（表現は一部修正）。

- ・ PEW で心構えができた点ではよかった。しかし英語を使っても、日本人同士で行うディスカッションと留学生と行うディスカッションとは違って本番ではなかなか発言せきなかった。
- ・ ディスカッションは、事前に日本人だけででも行っていてよかった。でないと本番では本当に悲惨なことになっていた。
- ・ 日本人のディスカッションで話す英語と、ネイティブのそれでは、差がありすぎた。聞き取ることさえままならない状態で、大変であった。
- ・ 本番と違い、事前研究は英語で話すことに緊張はしていたが切迫していなかった。本番になって「英語で話さないに通じない」という臨場感が必要。
- ・ 英語に慣れるという点では良かったが、海外参加者に広島をより良く知ってもらうために、広島歴史も学んでいた方がよい。海外参加者は自国の歴史や地理にとっても詳しく、あまりにも自分の国の歴史、文化を知らないことを情けなく感じた。
- ・ 内容はよかったが、実際に授業を受けてみると雰囲気の違いが違いすぎて、授業についていけなかった。事前研修は日本人だけなのだから、もっと積極的に行動をしておくべき。
- ・ 少人数のグループのディスカッションが、実際の講義でもよく行われたので、事前研究の学習内容は適合していた。しかし、先生方の講義内容では、事前研修とは比べものにならないほど単語も難しく、話す速度も速くて理解に苦しんだ。
- ・ H&P で学習する内容に目を向けるには善かったが、H&P はレクチャーが多く、リスニング強化を含めた英語力の強化が必要。

5. 今後の展望

学習者の要望を聞くまでもなく、筆者を含め PEW に関与した教員は既成の PEW で満足しているわけではない。したがって、PEW の当面の目標は、参加者のほとんどが希望しているように、少なくとも一学期を通じた準備プログラムとして体系化することである。その上で、単なる英語パフォーマンスとしての学習効果だけではなく、実質的な伝達能力、とりわけ文法的能力の育成、専門知識の育成が火急の課題であると考えている。

冒頭にも述べたように、筆者は H&P における事前研修を ESP、あるいは EAP の一貫として捉えている。大学英語教育学会では、全学共通の英語教育についての議論はこれまで繰り返して行われてきたが、こと専門としての英語教育、あるいは共通英語と専門教育の関連づけの部分についてはあまり議論されてこなかったように思われる。言うまでもなく、英語教育と専門教育のドッキングは、英語関連科目担当教員だけで達成できるものではなく、同時

に専門科目担当教員だけでも手に余す課題であるだろう。さらに、「英語の使える日本人」構想が単に大学生全般の平均的英語力を多少底上げする程度で達成できるわけがないと嘲笑しているのは筆者だけではあるまいし、用足し程度の英語力であれば英語関係者が粉骨砕身で取り組むにも値しないだろう。大学英語教育が、高校までの英語学習を発展させ、英語学習の段階から英語使用への移行期と位置づけられるとするならば、これからの大学英語教育に必要な課題は「具体的使用目的を設定した英語学習」であろうし、そのためにも専門課程をも視野に入れた英語教育が今以上に求められることになるだろう。すでにその試みは、一部の大学で始められつつある。さらに「面白くて、ためになる」英語プログラムを目指して、大学英語教育関係者はそのノウハウを共有しあうときを迎えつつあるのではないだろうか(注4)。

注

- 1 本稿で紹介する前研修の一部は、平成 17 年度広島市立大学指定研究(課題番号 5202)の助成を受けて実施した。
- 2 TOEIC はエデュケーション・テスト・サービス(ETS)の登録商標です。
- 3 このサイト(掲示板「きんさい」)の作成は、注 1 の研究助成に加え、筆者が他の研究で助成を受けている平成 16~18 年度科研費(基盤研究 B, 課題番号 16320074)研究で開発したサイトを一部活用した。サイト URL は以下の通りである。
<http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/prag-peace/> または,
<http://chiaki.intl.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/Prag-PEACE/index.html>
- 4 2005 年の支部研究大会(鳥取大学)でパネリストとして H&P の事例を紹介したのはまさにこのような理由からである。また、本稿執筆の最中、本紀要 1 号, 2 号で特集論文を寄稿された鳥取大学の筏津成一教授から、平成 17~19 年度文部科学省「大学教育の国際化推進プログラム(「戦略的国際連携支援」)」に採択された同大学の海外教育プログラムに関する資料をご提供いただいた。語学教育も含まれる極めて斬新、かつ先駆的の取組みで、大学教育のあり方を考える上でとても示唆に富んでいる。

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Chapter 3: Invited Feature Article

Englishes beyond English: An Outline of Non-native and
Other Contact Varieties and their Teaching Implications

Matteo Santipolo
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Dr. Matteo Santipolo is a sociolinguist and an Associate Professor at the University of Padua, Italy. As the coordinator of this grant study project, I (Iwai) became acquainted with him through my academic visit to Italy in November, 2006. Later, Dr. Santipolo presented me with a signed copy of his most recent book, *Le Varietà Dell'inglese Contemporaneo* (2006), written in Italian. Using my limited capability in its sister language, Spanish, I managed to comprehend some parts of his book and then could notice that its final chapter discussed the roles of New Englishes, which is such an important topic for the members of this grant study that I was convinced of its value for all of us. Later, I sent him a request to contribute an English translation for us. Immediately, I received a very pleasing reply from him. Now I am delighted that we can share his paper of great interest with all the readers of this outcome report, and I would like to thank Dr. Santipolo for his contribution and his friendship.

Englishes beyond English

An Outline of Non-native and Other Contact Varieties and their Teaching Implications¹

Matteo SANTIPOLO (University of Padua, Italy)

According to Indian-born linguist Braj Kachru's well-established model to explain the spread of English worldwide, today's situation can be graphically represented as in Figure 1 (Kachru, 1985):

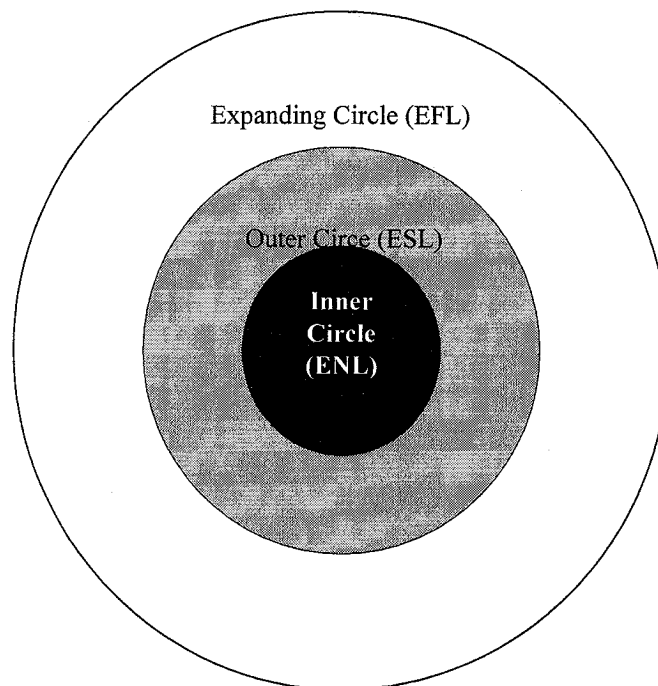


Figure 1: The spread of English worldwide according to Kachru's model

The *Inner Circle* includes all English native speakers, mostly living in such countries as the UK, USA, Canada, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, etc. The *Outer Circle* refers to speakers of English as a second language and is mainly represented by such former British colonies as India, Pakistan, Zambia, Nigeria, etc. The *Expanding Circle* comprehends all those countries where English is studied as a foreign tongue, principally as a consequence of the recognition of its role as an International Language.

Historically, each of the three circles has played a very well-defined part on the linguistic scene:

- Members of the Inner Circle have always been *rule makers*;

¹ The present article is an adaptation with modifications and integrations of Santipolo, 2006: 105-19.

- Members of the Outer Circle have always been *rule developers*;
- Members of the Expanding Circle have always been *rule dependent*.

Nonetheless, given the recent huge increase in the number of the members of the last circle, so much so that non-native speakers of English have by now almost trebled the native ones (cfr. Crystal 1997; Graddol 2000; McArthur 1998), things have lately started to change. The Expanding Circle, at least in certain contexts, seems to have taken on the role of rule maker, with the problems that may ensue from such a revolutionary change (first of all the growth of new varieties, and the decrease in the degree of intelligibility among them).

In this contribution I will focus my attention on the situation of the second and third circles and will try to provide an up-to-date outline of what has been going on for some time and its (socio-)linguistic consequences within and around the English-speaking world.

2. English beyond the native speakers' boundaries: the *New Englishes* phenomenon

In the Outer Circle, as has already been pointed out, no one speaks English as a mother tongue. In most cases the knowledge of the language is the consequence of a previous British rule which, after the colonists' retrieval, has not left behind a permanent settlement to fully or even partially subdue the local populations and their cultures (as was the case, for instance, with the USA or Canada). In these particular conditions, in which English accomplishes the double function of lingua franca among different ethnolinguistic groups (as is the case with South Africa), or medium for international communication, the length and depth of the contact with local languages may give birth to new varieties of English, which have sometimes been defined as *New Englishes* (Melchers – Shaw, 2003: 127-77; McCrum – Cran – MacNeil, 1986: 307-41). Other countries where English seems to play a role as a lingua franca include:

- In Oceania (besides Australia and New Zealand): Papua New Guinea, Fiji, Samoa;
- In Asia: Malaysia, Philippines, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Seychelles;
- In Western Africa: Cameroon, Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone;
- In Eastern Africa: Tanzania, Kenya, Uganda;
- In Southern Africa: (besides South Africa) Namibia, Botswana, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Swaziland;
- In Europe: (besides Great Britain and Ireland) Malta, Cyprus;
- In America: (besides USA and Canada) Puerto Rico, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, Saint Lucia, Barbados.

Among all Asian countries, special consideration undoubtedly has to be devoted to India, the most important for the use that is made of English in the country. English first reached India during the first half of the XVII century and ever since it has played the role of a lingua franca among the hundreds of languages spoken in the huge country. This context has opened the way to the appearance of many new varieties, based on substratum effects (i.e. *Butler English*, *Babu English* *Kitchen English* etc.) that can be considered pidginised forms of the

language. Since 1960 the language policy in India's school system has been characterised by the so-called *Three Language Formula*, according to which all pupils have to study their own mother tongue, Hindi or a Dravidic language and English.

What is still to be universally agreed on is whether such linguistic outcomes are simply to be considered as new dialects of English or, rather, ought to be interpreted as new languages altogether. Sometimes the criterion employed to discriminate which line of thought to follow is to evaluate the degree of intelligibility, that is to estimate how mutually understandable the languages are among one another. However, this way too, seems to provide no full guarantee as there exist many cases of dialects that are hard or even impossible to understand for those who speak only the standard variety.

2. Other English-based pidgins and creoles

The cases of language contacts and of the consequent formation of New Englishes discussed in the previous section, may, to some extent, be interpreted as cases of development pidgins and creoles. As is well known, when a socially, politically and economically stronger language is, for one reason or another, imposed upon a weaker one, the merging of them can produce a pidgin (cf. Holm 2000). The heyday of the formation of pidgins coincided with the golden age of European colonialism. It must be pointed out that a pidgin based on a certain language is not an incorrect variety of it, but rather a language on its own, with a proper speech community made up of the speakers of the languages contributing to the pidgin. In other words, a pidgin is used among members of different speech communities with linguistic repertoires lacking common grounds: it is a linguistic system that develops on the two sides of a communication gap that speakers with different linguistic backgrounds try to fill in. Rather than an *intracommunity* means of communication, it is therefore an *intercommunity* tool. This means that a pidgin is hardly ever used to carry out affective and emotional functions, but is used almost exclusively referentially.

Although all languages involved in the formation of a pidgin equally contribute to the process, it seems that the more prestigious one, that is the one on which the pidgin is said to be based, is particularly relevant to the development of the vocabulary; whereas the less prestigious more strongly affects the grammar of the new language. When a pidgin "acquires" native speakers, that is to say when there are children learning it as their mother tongue, by convention, it changes its name from a pidgin to a creole. This mainly happens when the pidgin is the only means of intercommunity communication in a context of non-intelligibility among the linguistic repertoires of the different speech communities (this is for example the case with the cotton plantations in the 19th century Southern States of the USA or in the Caribbean). A creole always presents a more complex linguistic structure than a pidgin (*recomplexified*) and can be used to convey semantically and functionally richer and more articulated messages. To put it in a different way, whereas a pidgin is used to fulfil immediate pragmatic needs (for example business at a basic level), a creole aims at covering all aspects of human life and the whole range of functions that can be pursued through a language. The

fact that a creole owns a proper speech community that employs it as a native language not only entails a higher degree of structural stability and regularity (corresponding to a decrease in idiolectal variation), but also opens the way to a different social interpretation. Therefore, a creole can develop a sociolinguistic structure similar to that of any other natural language. Once a pidgin has turned into a creole, it can be hard to identify its origin as the result of the contact between different languages, unless through a detailed diachronic analysis. Just to cite one example: according to some scholars, contemporary English itself should be interpreted as the outcome at first of a process of pidginisation between Old English, a substratum of Celtic languages and Medieval French and later of *creolisation* (a similar process seems to have to be seen at the origin of Romance languages: French, Italian, Spanish, etc.)

When, on the other hand, a creole is used in a context side by side with the dominant language which has contributed to the formation of the pidgin from which the creole has originated, the creole, especially if it has not reached a prestigious status yet, may undergo a process of *decreolisation*, that is to say it may change in the direction of the parent language. This particular situation leads to the development of a so-called *post-creole continuum* with at its extremes the dominant language at the one end and the creole at the other end, and a series of intermediate varieties in-between. An example of this kind is represented by the *Ebonics* (or *African American Vernacular English*) of the United States. Ebonics was originally generated as a pidgin through a process of contact among English and the languages spoken by the slaves in the cotton plantations in the Southern States of the country, and quickly evolved into a creole. Nowadays the post-creole continuum sees General American placed at one end of it and Ebonics on the other (cf. Bonfiglio 2002; Wolfram-Thomas 2002).

Alternatively, a creole may reach a prestigious position within the community and then be promoted to an official status in the country where it is spoken. This is what happened to *Tok Pisin*, an English-based creole which is today one of the three official languages of Papua New Guinea (along with [Standard] English and Motu) and which is spoken by roughly one million people. In order just to give an illustration of the differences existing between a creole and the main language on which it is based, we provide here a short passage in Tok Pisin and its translation into English (Romaine 1988: 152):

Nau tasol, Mista Kiku, na ol wokman long Nesenel Musium i amams tru bikos em i nanumba wan taim tru long wanpela viles i bungim samting tumbuna na salim fri i kam long musium.

“Now, however, Mr Kaiku and the employees of the National Museum are very pleased because this is the first time that a village can collect artefacts and send them free to the museum”

Another example of a similar development is represented by *Afrikaans* (the latest-born Germanic language spoken in South Africa). This language is sometimes classified as a creole deriving from the contact between Dutch, English and several Bantu languages, which occurred in the 19th and early 20th century.

Given the width of diffusion reached by English worldwide in the last four centuries, it is absolutely understandable that the number of situations in which English-based pidgins and creoles have developed is almost endless. Therefore, in the following list we simply provide some significant examples:

- *Amerindian Pidgin(s)*: originally spoken in North America by the English to communicate with the native Americans, now extinct;
- *Englog* (also known as *Konyo English*): a creole spoken in the Philippines. It is the result of merging between English, Tagalog, and some Spanish words and phrases. The creole was originally spoken by Filipino mestizo teenagers who intend to Filipinize themselves. However, due to massive media attention, it gradually became part of the mainstream culture.
- *Fanagalo*: is a pidgin based on Zulu, English and Afrikaans. It is used as a lingua franca, mainly in the gold, diamond, coal and copper mining industries in South Africa. Fanagalo is the only Zulu-based pidgin language, and is a rare example of a pidgin based on an indigenous language rather than on the language of a colonising or trading power. With mine workers coming from a range of countries and having a vast range of different mother tongues, Fanagalo provided a simple way to communicate and is still used as a training and operating medium. In the mid-20th century there were white efforts in South Africa to promote and standardise Fanagalo as a universal second language, under the name of “Basic Bantu”.
- *Gullah*: a creole spoken on the Southeastern coast (South Carolina and Georgia) of the USA by about 250,000 people, with influences from Western African languages; it is related to Jamaican Creole and Krio [as well as Ebonics].
- *Hawaiian Pidgin/creole*: presents influences from Chinese, Japanese, Hawaiian, Portuguese, Tagalog; it is spoken by roughly 300,000 people.
- *Jamaican Creole*: not to be confused with Jamaican English, which is a dialect of English. Jamaican Creole is an English-based creole language spoken in Jamaica. It is naturally understandable to speakers of creoles in Guyana, Nicaragua, Panama and Costa Rica, and is reported to be extremely close to Belize Creole, the English Creole of the Bahamas, close to Guyana, Grenada, Virgin Islands and Saint Vincent creoles, as well as being very close to Sierra Leone Krio. Jamaica Creole is the dominant language in Jamaica and is gaining in prestige.
- *Krio*: spoken by about 100,000 descendants of freed slaves living in Sierra Leone's capital city of Freetown. It is also spoken as a lingua franca, or second language, by about 4 million Sierra Leoneans of other ethnic groups, and by thousands of Krio descendants living in other parts of West Africa. The vocabulary derives mainly from English, while its sound system, grammar and sentence structure are strongly influenced by African languages, particularly Yoruba.

- *Singlish*: a creole based on British English. It originated in Singapore, and spread to parts of Malaysia (known locally as *Manglish*). It is a mixture of mainly Malay, Mandarin, Hokkien (a Chinese dialect), Tamil, and British English.

3. Some observations on *Euro-English*: a new European pidgin?

All the pidgins and creoles I have listed so far developed outside Europe. This, however, does not mean that in the Old Continent there have never been any contact languages. On the contrary, perhaps one of the very first pidgins we have news of is *Sabir* (from the Spanish verb *saber* “to know”). It was a hybrid between Italian, Spanish and Arabic that originated in the basin of the Mediterranean Sea and the coasts along it.

A case of contact language which has recently been born in Europe and seems to be acquiring more and more importance on the international scene is represented by *Euro-English*. Its importance does not lie simply in the use it can be made of as a means of communication among non-natives, but, sociolinguistically speaking, above all in the revolutionary attitude that it has produced. Euro-English was born in the corridors of Brussels’ bureaucracy through two main kinds of processes (Jenkins – Modiano – Seidlhofer 2001):

- a. *Discoursal nativisation*: concepts and expressions taken from other European languages, and therefore not present in any native varieties of English, are accepted and included in English and thus become useful means of communication.
 - Phase 1: expressions of foreign origin are understood at first only by those who know the language and the context from which they derive (e.g. *Schengen flights*, referring to flights within those European States that have subscribed an International Agreement promoting free circulation of people and goods requiring non customs procedures as if they were a single state).
 - Phase 2: expressions that entered through phase 1 begin to be understood also by other speakers, both native and non-native, who do not speak the language from which they derive, to such an extent that they acquire full communicative legitimacy.
- b. *Fossilisation*: non-standard or grammatically incorrect structures, thanks to their repeated use, become acceptable. One example of this is the expression *We were five at the party* instead of *There were five of us at the party*.

Although no detailed and full description of Euro-English’s main structural and sociolinguistic features has been so far carried out, a study is currently being attempted at the University of Vienna (Jenkins – Modiano – Seidlhofer 2001). Here is a list of principle traits that have so far been singled out:

- -s dropping in 3rd person singular verb conjugation (*he know, she go*, etc.);
- definite and indefinite article omission in contexts where Standard English would use them (*our countries have signed (an) agreement about this*);

- *who/which* used indistinctively for people and things (*The man which was speaking...; the bag who I saw...*);
- *isn't it?* used as a *universal tag*, instead of the forms employing the verb of the main clause (*You're going to be late, isn't it?* instead of *aren't you?*).

However, the structural aspect of Euro-English that perhaps more than any other seems to move away from native models is phonetics. This is undoubtedly to be explained in relation to the many substratum effects leaking from the various mother tongues of the Euro-English speakers. After all, it is well known that the phonological system of a language is the first to be established in the process of learning one's mother tongue, and it is therefore the most difficult to be modified, enlarged or simply adapted when learning a second or foreign language as adults. Some phonemes of the phonetic repertoire of English find no equivalent in any other European language and consequently tend to result in being particularly hard to articulate for non-natives. An example of this kind is represented by the realisation of <th> in a word like *this* (voiced interdental fricative) or in a word like *think* (voiceless interdental fricative). The only other languages of the European Union in which these phonemes can be found are Spanish (only the latter) and Welsh (and in neither case is the phoneme written in the same way as in English). Through a process of assimilation to the phonemes of one's own mother tongue, the two English phonemes are generally replaced by /t/ and /d/ or /s/ and /z/. Whereas the former realisations are typical of Italians and Scandinavians; the latter are more common among the French and the Germans. Although it is currently not possible to state which of the two will prevail in Euro-English in the end, it is plausible to think that there may be a certain degree of tolerance, with the two variants accepted as allophonic and having the context to decide which word is actually being pronounced in case of semantic ambiguity (cf. Jenkins, Modiano, Seidlhofer 2001). The matter is even more complex dealing with vowel qualities, but it is thought that the final result may be comparable, to some extent, to *Airspeak* or *Seaspeak*, the international varieties of English spoken in aviation and maritime communication.

It must be pointed out that the term Euro-English has often been used to mean 'bad English perpetuated in Brussels' (McArthur, 2003), where it is sometimes associated to even more hybridised and peculiar phenomena such as *Eurojargon* and *Eurospeak*. The former corresponds, in particular, to the huge amount of new terminology (words, acronyms, abbreviations, nicknames) the European Union has created. Following are some examples (Cf. http://europa.eu/abc/eurojargon/index_en.htm):

- *EFTA*: This is the abbreviation for the European Free Trade Association – an organization founded in 1960 to promote free trade in goods amongst its member states. There were originally seven EFTA countries: Austria, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom (UK). Finland joined in 1961, Iceland in 1970, and Liechtenstein in 1991. In 1973, Denmark and the UK left EFTA and joined the EEC (see above). They were followed by Portugal in 1986, and by Austria, Finland

and Sweden in 1995. Today the EFTA members are Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

- *Eurocrat*: The term “Eurocrats” (a pun on the word “bureaucrats”) refers to the many thousands of EU citizens who work for the European institutions (Parliament, the Council, the Commission, etc.).
- *Euroseptic*: This term is often used to mean a person who is opposed to European integration or who is 'sceptical' of the EU and its aims.

As emerges clearly from these examples, the aim of Eurojargon is therefore to name new concepts that have developed within the European Union and it may be so little comprehensible to outsiders as even to lead to the publication of a specific dictionary (Ramsay 2000).

Eurospeak, on the other hand, is the EU’s hybrid language that helps when a project has different partners from several countries, cultures and languages: is a hermetic insider medium with its own idiosyncratic grammar and syntax (Grzega, 2005).

Words and phrases typical of Eurojargon and Eurospeak have by now crept into the everyday use of the various European languages and, accordingly and consequently, into Euro-English.

As a whole, it seems that this European New English will, sooner or later, develop different (national) regional varieties. By being exposed for a long time to different accents and dialects, speakers of new varieties of Euro-English will have to be able to understand other realisations, in the same way as native speakers understand and distinguish, for example, British, American or Irish English. In a macrosociolinguistic perspective this complex situation can be described as *Interlinguistic diglossia* (in the case of non-native speakers of English using it for international communication, but still sticking to their mother tongue for internal communication); and *Intralinguistic diglossia* (in the case of English native speakers using a Standard variety of the language among themselves but using Euro-English to communicate outside their community).

As we have seen from the examples just presented, some of the features of Euro-English are comparable to those of other pidgin languages. They are for the most part simplifications of the morphological, syntactic and phonological systems. In my opinion, however, this analogy is only apparent, because the processes giving birth to Euro-English and to pidgin languages are quite different. As we have previously explained, pidgins are contact languages or “emergency” languages that typically generate in colonial contexts. Euro-English, in contrast, is the result of modifications of a native model on behalf of learned and cultivated people who have received a formal linguistic education, and on these changes there insert transfer effects from their mother tongues. It is for this reason that we can assume that Euro-English is probably more similar to a *fossilised* (or fossilising) or *crystallised interlanguage* than to a real pidgin.

4. English among other prestigious languages

The importance of English as a world lingua franca unavoidably also affects other “prestigious” languages it comes in touch with. Two main kinds of situations may occur:

- *structural influence*: in this case English exerts a certain pressure on the languages it comes in contact with. According to the intensity of such pressure, how long it lasts, and the quality of the contact, influence regards different structural levels of the language(s) involved. The most superficial level is the lexical one (which is, at the beginning, further limited to very specific and restricted semantic fields in which the English-speaking world plays an unequalled role on the international scene, such as Computer Sciences; then, there may even be cases of the appearance in the vocabulary of the affected language of English-derived synonyms to live side by side with indigenous words), but as time goes by, there may be cases of morphosyntactic and phonological changes as well.
- *glottophagy*: we can suggest adopting this term (as an alternative to the more common *killer language*. Cf. Crystal, 2000; Crystal 2004) to refer to any situation in which a language, metaphorically, “eats up” domains formerly belonging to another language, to such an extent that it may eventually even replace it completely. In this second circumstance the influence is not of a structural kind, but a (macro-)sociolinguistic one.

In other words, the first kind of situation described affects the *corpus* of the language, whereas the second affects its *status*, and in both cases we can easily see that English is today the protagonist *par excellence*.

As far as the structural influence is concerned, the outcome may be the birth of *hybrid languages*, which may then turn into real pidgins, as we saw in the previous section. What differentiates hybrids from pidgins seems to be the degree and level of distance from the receiving language in its standard variety. Hybrids, mainly made up of code-mixing, have a long tradition in the history of human languages, and new cases are extremely frequent today especially within the English-speaking world. Following is a general outline of some of them.

4.1 *Franglais*

This language name (or glottonomy) is employed to refer to an improper use of anglicisms for which there exist equivalents in French. It also refers to a hybrid produced by the merging of English and French elements as a consequence of a partial competence in either language, or with humorous intentions. *Franglais* is not to be confused with *Québécoise*, that is a Canadian variety of French, which is the result of centuries of living together of the Francophone and the Anglophone communities and does not show any signs of weak linguistic competence. There exists, besides, a rich literature in *Franglais*, the most significant exponent of which is probably Miles Kingston, whose works have illustrative titles of what the phenomenon consists in: *Let's Parler Franglais*, *Let's Parler Franglais Again!*, *Parlez-vous Franglais?*, *Let's Parler Franglais One More Temps*.

4.2 *Denglish*

Sometimes also referred to as *Germish*, *Engleutsch*, *Genglish* or *Ginglish*, this is another hybrid made up of English elements inserted in a German utterance. Quite popular all over the German-speaking world, it is probably the most relevant product of the Anglo-American hegemony in the fields of pop and rock music and computer sciences and technologies. From a morphosyntactic point of view, it often happens that English words are fully received in German and are therefore used as if they were autochthonous. German, much more than Spanish or French, seems to be open to welcoming English words or even idioms, and this can probably be explained as in relation to the ancient closeness between the two Germanic languages. So, for example, some German idioms have progressively been replaced by calques from English:

- (a) “Das macht Sinn” (That makes sense), instead of “Das ergibt Sinn”;
- (b) “Ich erinnere, dass...” (I remember that...), instead of “Ich erinnere mich, dass...”
- (c) “Oh, Hölle!” (Oh, hell!), an ironic expression only recently appearing in German;
- (d) “Nicht wirklich!” (Not really!), instead of “Eigentlich nicht”.

Some of these idioms can exclusively be found in the youths’ slang. Among them one of the most frequently heard is probably: “coole Events”.

Examples of *Denglish* can also occur when hybrid utterances are pronounced by an English-native speaker with limited competence in German.

4.3 *Spanglish*

Of all English-based hybrids, Spanglish is probably the one that has recently become most popular thanks to the size the phenomenon has by now reached and to the fact that it involves two of the most widely spoken languages in the world.

At least three main phenomena can be included under the umbrella-term *Spanglish*:

- *Cyberspanglish*;
- *Spanglish* of USA and Puerto Rico;
- *Yanito*

Cyberspanglish refers to the frequent insertion in principally Spanish utterances of English words without translating them completely or translating them incorrectly, and semantically related especially to computer sciences and technologies. Examples of incorrect translations are: *librerías de programas* to translate English *library*, whereas the correct form would be *biblioteca*; English *language* rendered with *lenguajes de programación*, whereas the best translation would be *idiomas de programación*; etc.

The more widespread kind of Spanglish is however represented by the contact language that first developed in some areas of the United States where Hispanic immigration has been most conspicuous (New Mexico, Texas, California, Florida, New York) and in Puerto Rico. Despite the unavoidable differences existing even within this kind of Spanglish due to the geographical extension of the phenomenon, some common feature can be singled out:

- Code-switching and code-mixing: *You've not so astuto* (sly, clever) *about it!*
- Lexical adaptations: *Quiero parquear* (from *to park* used instead of *estacionar*) *el coche*
- Syntactical translations: *Te llamo para atrás* (literally "I call you back")
- Phonetic adaptations: *Vick's Vapor Rub* becomes *bibaporú*
- Semantic shift: *Voy a vacumear* (from *to vacuum*) *la carpeta* (in Spanish there exists the word *carpeta* meaning "file, folder", but in this context it is used with the new meaning of *carpet*, which in Spanish is *alfombra*).

Sociolinguistically speaking, mainly Spanish utterances with English insertions seem to be used to indicate the speakers' desire to be accepted in the English-speaking community when they have not developed a fully-fledged competence. On the other hand, mainly English utterances with Spanish insertions are probably to be interpreted as signs of a better, though not yet perfect competence in English or, when this has been reached, as real means of declaration of one's cultural identity, attempts to keep their sociolinguistic background alive (cf. Stavans, 2003)

Although this kind of Spanglish has only recently reached a vast diffusion, its origins seem to go further back in time, as is proved by Spanish-English tombstone inscriptions dating from the 19th century found in Texas and California.

As is often the case, the Spanglish phenomenon is in constant evolution and with little or no internal consistency and homogeneity. Nonetheless, we can try and explain it as the first stages of the formation of a new language, in some respect, comparable to what happened with Yiddish.

The last kind of Spanish-English hybrid hinted at above is *Yanito*. This, structurally closer to a real creole than the other two, is spoken in Gibraltar and derived from the merging of English and Andalusian Spanish and with many Genoese, Moroccan Arabic and Hebrew influences. Although the origin of the language name is uncertain, it seems to derive from Spanish *llano* "flat", with reference to the geographical feature of the Gibraltar isthmus.

4.4. *Italiense*

Among Romance languages, Italian seems to be the one that has been most open to the influence of English, so much so that even such structural levels of language as morphology and idioms appear to have started being affected. One example of this is the by now accepted alternation between the prepositions *al* "at the" and *sul* "on the", in an expression like *chiamare qualcuno al/sul cellulare* "to call someone *at/on the cell", where Standard Italian would only accept the former.

This high degree of tolerability is to be seen in relation to the almost complete lack in Italians' attitudes of any form of purism (as opposed, for example, to what happens with the French).

If this is the overall philosophy lying behind the *Italiense* phenomenon, it does not mean that the term refers to a clear-cut situation. It is actually used in relation to any variety of language arising from the contact between English and Italian and that presents features of both, though not necessarily uniformly distributed. According to this definition at least two main kinds of *Italiense* can be identified (Santipolo, 2004):

- a. Principally Italian-based with insertions of Anglicisms or Pseudo-Anglicisms, that is loanwords that “sound” English but may not necessarily be so (e.g. *slip* is used in Italian to indicate underpants). This kind of *Italiense* can be further divided into two subgroups:
 - *Italiense* of speakers of Italian as a native language and living in Italy, who use English words as part of a jargon or a cant. In one case, English words may be used to reduce communication ambiguity or eliminate it altogether; in another case, instead, English words may be used snobbishly or with humorous purposes. Yet another case is characterised by English loanwords that have by now been, consciously or not, completely accepted in Italian and are felt to be part of the word hoard of the language, e.g. *guardrail*, *decoder*, *computer*, etc.
 - *Italiense* of speakers of Italian as a native language and living in English-speaking countries and with a partial competence in English (this is often the case with first generation emigrants). In this situation *Italiense* can be interpreted as a kind of Interlanguage. The more English words or structures a speaker uses, the more advanced they can be considered in terms of their Interlanguage in the direction of the acquisition of English as a target language.
- b. Principally English-based with insertions of Italianisms or Pseudo-Italianisms. This kind of *Italiense* is typical of Italian communities that have been living for some time in English-speaking countries. At its first stages, this type of *Italiense* is similar to a pidgin, as the speaker has recourse to Italianisms when he/she cannot find English equivalents; but later it may be used as a *we-code*, that is a real act of sociocultural identity, as for example often happens in Canada.

A third kind of *Italiense* which cuts across both previously-described typologies is what we may define as *School Italiense*: this is typical of Italians studying English or vice versa. In both cases, transfers occur in order to reach the target of *communicating in one way or another*.

5. New Englishes and language teaching implications

If English no longer belongs to its native speakers, then who does it belong to? The effects of a process of *deculturalisation* and unwilling *disappropriation* like the one English has been undergoing for some decades now, unprecedented for its spread and depth in the history of humankind, can only have major consequences touching all language matters. In particular, if native speakers seem to be losing ground in relation to their role as rule makers,

what models should be taken (if not looked up to) when teaching English as a foreign language? In our opinion, the choice should be made keeping at least two principles well clear in mind:

- Language variation and change is a physiological phenomenon, not a pathological one. The more people speak a language, the wider its diffusion, within and outside the borders of the native speakers' community, the more dialects of it will form and develop. Therefore, getting used to different accents and varieties, without taking on prescriptivistic attitudes, is a necessity for anyone using the language. Moreover, teachers of English as a foreign language should train pupils to this, working in order to raise their variation and sociolinguistic awareness.
- Nevertheless, it must be always remembered that a language "becomes international" in order to fill a gap of communication among speakers with different and mutually unintelligible linguistic backgrounds. If we want English to keep accomplishing this mission we cannot allow it to move too far apart and away from certain "universally" recognised standards of acceptability and comprehensibility. Should this not be the case, English would no longer be able to serve as an international language and it is easily foreseeable that humankind, as it has always done since ancient times, would start looking for another means to carry out this objective (were it an artificial language, like Esperanto, or another natural language, as with Latin or French in the past);

On the basis of these two principles, we can assume that tolerance towards variation should stop where mutual intelligibility is at risk (cf. also Alatis, 2005; Bex – Watts, 1999; Jenkins, 1998; Kachru, 1986).

6. Where is English going? From *BASIC* English to *Globish*

In 1928 writer and linguist Charles Kay Ogden devised *BASIC* English, where the adjective was in fact an acronym meaning: "British American Scientific International Commercial". Supported even by Churchill and Roosevelt, this stimulating example of language planning, which starting from Standard English simplified its vocabulary and grammar, had three purposes: to be used in international communication; to represent the first step towards the acquisition of a full competence in the language; to make English accessible and plain. After some years the attempt was abandoned.

Half a century later, a French retired marketing manager of IBM, Jean-Paul Nerrière, tried to walk down a similar road, conceiving *Globish* (Global + English) (Blume, 2005). Based on a vocabulary of only 1,500 words (as opposed to the 615,000 of the *Oxford English Dictionary*), and on repetition and gestural expressiveness, its inventor did not call it a language, but rather a *tool*, since it does not convey any specific culture as a language should do to be considered as such (Nerrière, 2004). The purpose, once again, is therefore to let anyone who does not know English at an adequate level communicate in any case. In order to do so, says Nerrière, even native speakers themselves will have to study *Globish*.

It is hard to know whether this attempt will be more successful than Ogden's, or whether it will vanish similarly in a few years. At the same time, it is just as difficult to know in which direction the first language on which the sun literally never sets will develop. What we can stay assured of, nonetheless, is that a phenomenon of such breadth, depth and impact on the history of human communication on a planetary scale will be hard to coop up and restrain. It is more than plausible that there will be still for a long time to come be someone who will behave like Geoffrey Chaucer's monk in the *Canterbury Tales*: "Somewhat he lipsed, for his wantownesse, to make his Englissh sweet upon his tongue",... regardless of what or whose English it will be.

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Chapter 4: Unpublished Outcomes of This study

- 1. Outcomes of the Cross-cultural Questionnaire Survey in Four Countries – Japan, China, Korea, and Italy, by Iwai, C**

- 2. Complaining Appropriately and Effectively in English: Further Findings of the Evaluation Study, by Rinnert, C.**

Outcomes of the Cross-cultural Questionnaire Survey in Four Countries – Japan, China, Korea, and Italy

IWAI Chiaki

Introduction

Overall, the entire Prag-PEACE project (see the digest of Chapter 1) has been concerned with English learners' pragmatic competence, in particular, competence of learners who are studying English as a foreign language (EFL). Accordingly, one of its main research objectives was to conduct a cross-cultural survey with respect to EFL learners' pragmatic awareness toward different varieties of English spoken by non-native and native English speakers. Following this objective, the project team members intensively discussed concrete survey formats and question items prior to the actual survey. A survey form consisting of the following two different questionnaires was eventually created partially in reference to some literature resources: (1) an utterance judgment questionnaire and (2) a questionnaire examining EFL learners' perception of English (the details of these questionnaires will be explained below).

Actual questionnaire surveys were conducted in four different EFL countries, Japan, China, Korea, and Italy, throughout the entire year of 2005, including pilot data collection at Hiroshima City University. Consequently, more than 900 responses were collected in those countries. As was reported in the Preface of this outcome report and the papers in Chapter 2 (see Paper 1 and Paper 3), partial findings from the utterance judgment questionnaire have been presented through these publications. Regarding the second questionnaire above, however, results of the survey have been reported neither orally at any academic conferences nor through paper media. In fact, I am planning to submit a presentation application to an upcoming international conference, and then publish a paper or papers based on this questionnaire survey.

Even though the data analyses of the second survey as well as that of the first survey are still in progress, I have completed their major analyses by now. Thus, I would like to present them and share them with the readers of this report. In doing so, no literature review is offered below, as is generally the case in a full academic paper, and no research questions or hypotheses are presented, either. Instead, the paper in this section is presented in a pure report-format, where only analysis outcomes are described objectively.

Methodology

In this section, the questionnaire format of the perception questionnaire will be described. Regarding the utterance judgment (UJ) questionnaire, it has already been explained in Paper 3 of Chapter 2 (see its section of *Data collection method and participants*). Thus, explanation on the format of the UJ questionnaire will not be repeated here (see Appendix A for more information on these questionnaires).

The questionnaire examining EFL learners' perception of English (P questionnaire)

The perception (P) questionnaire was created by the researchers of the Prag-PEACE project. In determining question items, several different categories were kept in mind. They include: EFL learners' preference for English variety, the relation between learning English and employment in their home country, teaching English as a national policy, conditions of equality in using English in an international context, desirable English norms for EFL learners, learning English and its culture, behaviors toward English, attitudes toward native speakers of English, English taught at school, and EFL learners' admiration for and desire toward English. On the basis of these categories, 50 question items were first proposed by the Prag-PEACE members, and then a small pilot study was conducted to test the clarity of expression of these questions and ease of answering them. Taking the results of the pilot study into consideration, the researchers of the project jointly revised the question items and/or eliminated some redundant or unnecessary items. Through these processes, a perception questionnaire consisting of 40 question items was finally produced.

A five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (Definitely yes) to 1 (Absolutely no) was used for all the 40 questions.¹ The researchers actually hoped to include some open-ended questions to elicit further information from the respondents; however, this had to be sacrificed simply due to a practical reason for conducting the survey within a limited amount of the time that was allotted to the researcher by the supervisors of English classes at the foreign universities (see Chapter 1 for the names and countries of these universities).² That is, the maximum length of time that was given to the researcher (Iwai) within a total class time was 30 minutes, within which both the UJ and the P questionnaires had to be finished.³ Approximately 20 minutes were needed to complete the UJ questionnaire, including some questions about respondents' background; thus, the P questionnaire had to be an instrument that could be answered within 10 minutes. Due to these practical restrictions, the perception questionnaire adopted the less time-consuming multiple choice format, and the optimal number of questions was determined to be 40 by measuring the necessary amount of time to answer them all.

For the actual survey, the P questionnaire was translated into the language of the target country by its native speakers. As for the Chinese and Korean versions, the questionnaire was first translated by one native speaker, and then it was interpreted by another native speaker to test the comprehensibility of the translated questions. A 'back-translation' into

¹ Expressions of the scale criteria vary slightly according to each question, e.g., from 5 (very often) to 1 (very rare) or from 5 (absolutely necessary) to 1 (absolutely unnecessary).

² English classes at the universities in China and Korea were scheduled systematically throughout the semester; thus, I had to be careful enough not to interrupt their class schedule and activities. Under such circumstances, I appreciated the supervisors' generosity for allowing me, a temporal visitor from an outside, to use their valuable class time of 30 minutes.

³ The coordinator visited the university in China and the one in Korea a few months before the actual data collection, and he had made a concrete data collection schedule on the basis of the suggestions provided by supervisors of their English programs.

Japanese was not conducted due to inadequate preparation time before the researcher's departure to the target countries. Regarding the Italian version, only one native speaker, one of the researchers of the Prag-PEACE project, worked on its translation because of the difficulty of finding another native Italian speaker. To avoid between-language translation gaps, the original English question sentences were also presented on the questionnaire form in addition to the translation.

Results of the questionnaires

1. Results of the UJ questionnaire

1.1 Number of respondents

This section deals with the results of the two questionnaires – the UJ questionnaire first and then the P questionnaire next.⁴

Table 1: Number of participants and their self-reported proficiency levels

Groups	Original <i>n</i>	A	B	C	D	E	No answer	Total <i>n</i>	<i>M</i>
JP1	102	0	12	69	16	0	0	97	2.96
JP2	117	0	4	55	46	11	0	116	2.45
CH1	182	0	69	96	3	0	3	171	3.33
CH2	123	0	33	71	9	0	0	113	3.21
KO1	126	1	15	74	25	3	3	121	2.81
KO2	113	0	6	57	32	3	2	100	2.62
IT	198	24	126	43	0	1	3	197	3.83

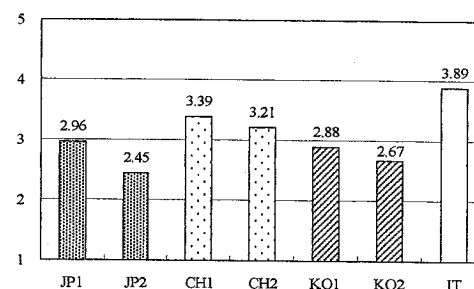
N.B.:

1. JP = Japan, CH = China, KO = Korea, and IT = Italy.
2. Groups with 1 = English majors or English-emphasized majors (EMs), Groups with 2 = Non-English majors (NEMs)
3. All Italian respondents are language majors, and thus their responses are used only as referential data in this study (i.e., excluded from statistical comparison).
4. Respondents excluded from the survey include 1) those who have stayed in English speaking countries more than 6 months in the past, 2) those for whom about 80% of the entire responses are missing, and 3) those who apparently did not respond seriously (e.g., choosing the same response number throughout the questionnaire).
5. Self-reported proficiency is based on the following questionnaire item and scales:
How well can you communicate in English?
A: I can express my opinions in English freely. (Advanced)
B: I can say most of what I want to say despite some difficulty of doing so. (High-intermediate)
C: I can say what I want to say, but have much difficulty in doing so. (Low-intermediate)
D: I can't say most of what I want to say. (Beginning)
E: I can't express myself at all. (True beginner)

1.2 Descriptive statistics for each judgment item (audio scenario)

In the UJ questionnaire, there were 6 audio scenarios, of which 4 were concerned with utterances by non-native speakers (NNSs) and 2 by native speakers (NSs) (see pp. 54-55 for their complete transcriptions). A target utterance in each scenario was judged by respondents based on five questions: first whether they understood the utterance itself, then, if so, four additional questions about 1) difficulty of comprehending the utterance (C), 2) pronunciation (Pro), 3)

Figure 1: Participants' self-reported proficiency (means)



⁴ Some of the results of the former survey have already been presented orally at the 2006 PanSIG Conference (see Preface on pp. iii-iv), and later published as a paper in its proceedings (see Paper 1 in Chapter 2). Due to time and space restrictions, however, their presentation was limited to a small portion of the entire results shown in this section.

grammatical accuracy (G), and 4) manner of speaking (i.e., pragmatic appropriateness or P). The following tables summarize the results of these five judgment questions in each scenario (these four are abbreviated as CProGP questions below).

Tables 2-1 to 2-6: Response frequencies and means for each judgment item

2-1. Ming (NNS-Chinese)							2-2. Choi (NNS-Korean)												
Respondents who did not understand the speaker							Respondents who did not understand the speaker												
Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	1/2	3	% of 3	Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	1/2	3	% of 3						
JP1	97	68	26	3	0	0.0	JP1	97	50	44	3	0	0.0						
JP2	116	38	74	0	4	3.4	JP2	116	29	82	0	5	4.3						
CH1	171	115	12	43	1	0.6	CH1	171	90	35	46	0	0.0						
CH2	113	74	23	15	1	0.9	CH2	113	45	48	17	3	2.7						
KO1	121	52	68	1	0	0.0	KO1	121	61	57	2	1	0.8						
KO2	100	35	57	6	2	2.0	KO2	100	40	51	8	1	1.0						
IT	197	166	30	0	1	0.5	IT	197	156	35	4	2	1.0						
1. Difficulty to comprehend the speaker's talking (comprehensibility)							1. Difficulty to comprehend the speaker's talking (comprehensibility)												
Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>	Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	5	27	41	24	0	0	3.87	JP1	97	0	14	40	33	10	0	0	3.40
JP2	116	1	7	54	35	11	4	12	3.44	JP2	116	1	10	51	41	5	3	11	3.36
CH1	171	2	6	20	42	98	2	5	4.36	CH1	171	2	8	50	63	47	0	1	3.86
CH2	113	1	2	20	30	57	1	4	4.27	CH2	113	2	5	50	34	17	1	6	3.55
KO1	121	0	8	36	54	22	0	1	3.75	KO1	121	0	1	28	73	18	0	1	3.90
KO2	100	1	9	38	37	12	0	3	3.52	KO2	100	0	3	36	43	17	0	1	3.75
IT	197	2	7	31	65	88	2	6	4.19	IT	197	1	8	32	78	73	1	6	4.11
2. Pronunciation							2. Pronunciation												
Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>	Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	17	48	27	3	2	4	3.17	JP1	97	4	31	50	11	0	1	2	2.71
JP2	116	0	13	51	34	8	6	16	3.35	JP2	116	2	32	57	17	1	2	9	2.84
CH1	171	3	24	88	40	12	2	6	3.20	CH1	171	1	27	98	36	7	1	3	3.12
CH2	113	2	15	48	34	12	0	2	3.35	CH2	113	0	10	70	24	4	2	7	3.20
KO1	121	2	33	66	20	0	0	0	2.36	KO1	121	3	24	76	16	1	0	1	2.90
KO2	100	1	27	47	21	1	1	4	2.94	KO2	100	1	23	57	14	3	1	3	2.95
IT	197	16	37	59	51	26	6	14	3.18	IT	197	4	42	80	44	22	3	8	3.20
3. Grammatical accuracy							3. Grammatical accuracy												
Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>	Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	9	27	18	30	6	7	14	2.97	JP1	97	3	15	30	27	5	16	33	3.20
JP2	116	5	18	32	19	9	29	62	3.11	JP2	116	0	9	39	25	1	37	79	3.24
CH1	171	14	64	35	41	13	2	6	2.85	CH1	171	1	23	69	62	11	4	9	3.36
CH2	113	7	24	17	47	8	7	17	3.24	CH2	113	2	11	43	34	5	15	33	3.31
KO1	121	6	39	37	25	2	11	23	2.30	KO1	121	3	13	39	42	3	20	41	3.29
KO2	100	1	23	33	21	1	19	40	2.97	KO2	100	0	16	41	19	5	18	37	3.16
IT	197	28	48	46	42	19	12	26	2.87	IT	197	8	40	76	37	26	8	18	3.18
4. Manner of talking (politeness, appropriateness)							4. Manner of talking (politeness, appropriateness)												
Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>	Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	10	29	27	23	7	1	2	2.88	JP1	97	5	21	43	25	0	3	6	2.94
JP2	116	4	13	47	24	9	15	34	3.22	JP2	116	4	13	62	20	1	10	26	3.01
CH1	171	33	74	34	21	6	1	4	2.36	CH1	171	49	68	39	11	3	0	1	2.12
CH2	113	16	40	33	17	6	0	1	2.62	CH2	113	17	42	24	21	2	4	11	2.52
KO1	121	3	30	43	39	2	4	8	3.06	KO1	121	4	16	42	49	2	7	15	3.26
KO2	100	1	16	36	37	2	6	14	3.25	KO2	100	1	16	43	27	6	6	13	3.23
IT	197	10	36	51	58	34	7	15	3.37	IT	197	6	27	71	65	23	3	8	3.38

2-3. Kana (NNS-Japanese)

Respondents who did not understand the speaker

Country	n	1	2	1/2	3	% of 3
JP1	97	79	14	4	0	0.0
JP2	116	54	57	2	3	2.6
CH1	171	107	20	41	3	1.8
CH2	113	52	40	16	5	4.4
KO1	121	25	85	5	6	5.0
KO2	100	12	66	11	11	11.0
IT	197	169	27	0	1	0.5

4. 2-Anna (NNS-Italian)

Respondents who did not understand the speaker

Country	n	1	2	1/2	3	% of 3
JP1	97	22	61	3	11	11.3
JP2	116	1	75	1	39	33.6
CH1	171	29	84	51	7	4.1
CH2	113	9	74	16	14	12.4
KO1	121	4	64	15	38	31.4
KO2	100	1	58	12	29	29.0
IT	197	182	12	3	0	0.0

1. Difficulty to comprehend the speaker's talking (comprehensibility)

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	2	10	21	29	35	0	0	3.88
JP2	116	1	14	39	36	22	1	5	3.57
CH1	171	3	8	32	54	70	0	4	4.08
CH2	113	1	10	31	37	29	0	5	3.77
KO1	121	4	31	40	37	2	1	8	3.02
KO2	100	4	26	35	21	3	1	12	2.92
IT	197	7	10	35	47	93	4	9	4.09

1. Difficulty to comprehend the speaker's talking (comprehensibility)

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	13	49	17	3	4	0	11	2.26
JP2	116	6	33	27	7	2	2	43	2.55
CH1	171	3	28	76	32	20	4	16	3.24
CH2	113	1	27	46	12	8	4	23	2.99
KO1	121	10	49	19	3	0	2	42	2.19
KO2	100	10	38	14	5	0	3	36	2.21
IT	197	15	10	18	11	138	3	8	4.29

2. Pronunciation

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	62	32	3	0	0	0	0	1.39
JP2	116	63	40	6	1	1	2	7	1.53
CH1	171	29	71	52	13	3	0	3	2.35
CH2	113	6	29	53	15	2	3	11	2.79
KO1	121	31	67	14	1	0	1	9	1.87
KO2	100	20	55	12	2	0	1	12	1.98
IT	197	45	78	53	13	5	2	5	2.25

2. Pronunciation

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	15	54	14	1	0	2	15	2.01
JP2	116	8	37	20	7	3	2	43	2.47
CH1	171	48	75	26	10	1	2	13	2.01
CH2	113	4	36	38	8	7	4	24	2.76
KO1	121	26	50	6	0	0	1	40	1.76
KO2	100	25	33	11	3	0	1	29	1.89
IT	197	147	28	7	4	11	0	0	1.50

3. Grammatical accuracy

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	13	25	19	24	12	4	8	2.97
JP2	116	8	18	29	20	10	28	59	3.07
CH1	171	3	24	55	72	8	6	15	3.36
CH2	113	1	10	41	41	2	13	31	3.35
KO1	121	6	23	36	33	2	14	35	3.02
KO2	100	5	15	35	14	0	21	52	2.84
IT	197	27	51	65	31	11	11	23	2.72

3. Grammatical accuracy

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	0	10	21	29	6	20	51	3.47
JP2	116	1	4	26	12	1	33	105	3.18
CH1	171	4	36	59	26	4	33	75	2.92
CH2	113	0	14	35	19	3	26	68	3.15
KO1	121	3	19	25	11	0	24	87	2.76
KO2	100	2	16	25	2	0	26	81	2.60
IT	197	45	58	41	34	12	6	13	2.53

4. Manner of talking (politeness, appropriateness)

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	12	41	27	10	4	3	6	2.50
JP2	116	9	31	43	14	2	14	31	2.69
CH1	171	35	78	32	20	3	0	3	2.27
CH2	113	12	39	32	18	4	3	11	2.65
KO1	121	4	31	38	35	2	4	15	3.00
KO2	100	4	16	41	21	0	8	26	2.96
IT	197	58	54	50	14	13	6	14	2.31

4. Manner of talking (politeness, appropriateness)

Country	n	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	M
JP1	97	4	16	29	21	5	11	33	3.09
JP2	116	2	14	33	13	0	15	69	2.92
CH1	171	48	77	31	6	0	0	9	1.97
CH2	113	10	43	26	9	2	7	30	2.44
KO1	121	6	25	25	17	0	8	56	2.73
KO2	100	5	11	32	8	0	15	59	2.77
IT	197	80	51	30	26	9	0	1	2.15

2-5. Emily (NS-American)

Respondents who did not understand the speaker

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	1/2	3	% of 3
JP1	97	62	30	3	2	2.1
JP2	116	19	90	1	6	5.2
CH1	171	88	37	46	0	0.0
CH2	113	34	57	17	5	4.4
KO1	121	46	70	3	2	1.7
KO2	100	22	62	9	7	7.0
IT	197	87	93	0	17	8.6

2-6. Nancy (NS-Canadian)

Respondents who did not understand the speaker

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	1/2	3	% of 3
JP1	97	74	22	1	0	0.0
JP2	116	16	71	0	29	25.0
CH1	171	106	20	44	1	0.6
CH2	113	30	59	18	6	5.3
KO1	121	71	47	1	2	1.7
KO2	100	27	59	9	5	5.0
IT	197	139	50	3	5	2.5

1. Difficulty to comprehend the speaker's talking (comprehensibility)

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	6	22	38	28	0	3	3.94
JP2	116	1	27	43	24	13	2	10	3.19
CH1	171	2	7	56	54	51	1	2	3.85
CH2	113	1	13	42	28	21	2	10	3.52
KO1	121	0	15	33	59	11	1	4	3.56
KO2	100	0	11	46	28	8	0	7	3.35
IT	197	12	33	43	51	40	1	19	3.41

1. Difficulty to comprehend the speaker's talking (comprehensibility)

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	3	8	44	42	0	0	4.29
JP2	116	3	22	22	20	17	3	35	3.31
CH1	171	1	15	50	51	53	0	1	3.82
CH2	113	5	26	47	17	12	0	6	3.05
KO1	121	0	3	26	56	32	1	5	4.00
KO2	100	0	16	33	34	12	0	5	3.44
IT	197	6	29	44	62	50	1	7	3.63

2. Pronunciation

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	0	4	29	60	2	6	4.60
JP2	116	0	5	27	45	28	5	16	3.91
CH1	171	0	13	51	69	36	2	4	3.76
CH2	113	1	7	29	46	18	5	17	3.72
KO1	121	2	14	40	44	17	1	5	3.51
KO2	100	2	11	37	30	11	2	11	3.41
IT	197	4	15	27	50	76	8	33	4.04

2. Pronunciation

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	1	0	4	19	73	0	0	4.68
JP2	116	0	1	10	25	49	2	33	4.44
CH1	171	2	2	11	77	77	1	3	4.33
CH2	113	1	4	20	53	27	2	10	3.96
KO1	121	0	4	8	51	56	0	2	4.34
KO2	100	0	0	15	46	32	2	9	4.18
IT	197	1	0	4	19	166	2	9	4.84

3. Grammatical accuracy

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	9	10	44	21	9	22	3.92
JP2	116	0	6	25	36	6	37	80	3.58
CH1	171	5	22	48	62	26	8	16	3.50
CH2	113	1	12	22	50	7	14	35	3.54
KO1	121	0	32	33	33	6	14	31	3.13
KO2	100	0	13	33	20	4	23	53	3.21
IT	197	6	13	34	46	64	16	50	3.91

3. Grammatical accuracy

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	0	0	3	35	50	9	18	4.53
JP2	116	0	0	12	31	15	28	86	4.05
CH1	171	1	2	12	80	69	5	12	4.30
CH2	113	0	9	21	52	12	13	32	3.71
KO1	121	0	1	10	65	26	17	36	4.14
KO2	100	1	0	17	44	8	24	54	3.83
IT	197	1	0	2	27	158	4	13	4.81

4. Manner of talking (politeness, appropriateness)

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	13	41	14	17	6	4	10	2.58
JP2	116	5	25	31	30	8	11	28	3.11
CH1	171	95	54	16	4	0	1	3	1.58
CH2	113	40	35	18	9	2	3	12	2.02
KO1	121	19	39	33	22	2	4	10	2.56
KO2	100	6	32	29	20	1	5	17	2.75
IT	197	53	38	31	24	23	10	38	2.56

4. Manner of talking (politeness, appropriateness)

Country	<i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	Excluded	<i>M</i>
JP1	97	2	1	3	26	65	0	0	4.56
JP2	116	0	0	20	40	20	7	43	4.00
CH1	171	9	0	12	55	93	1	3	4.32
CH2	113	0	3	13	52	33	5	17	4.14
KO1	121	1	3	3	61	47	4	10	4.30
KO2	100	0	0	21	41	24	8	22	4.03
IT	197	2	0	3	26	160	1	7	4.79

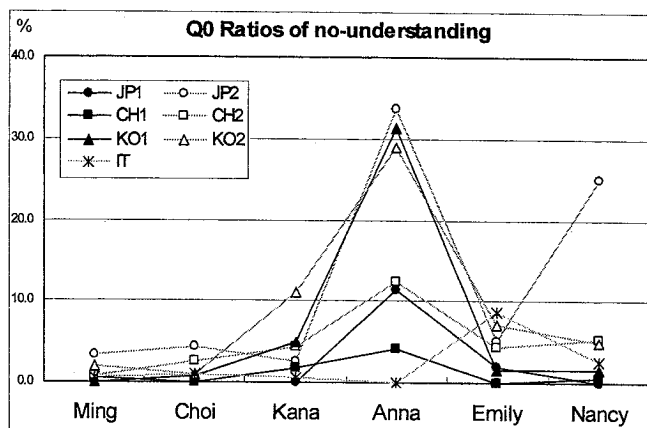
1.3 Cross sectional comparison among the six scenarios

The results of descriptive statistics in Tables 2-1 to 2-6 are now re-arranged according to each judgment question across the six scenarios.

Table 3: Respondents who did not understand the speaker's (scenario) utterance

Count	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	0	0	0	11	2	0
JP2	4	5	3	39	6	29
CH1	1	0	3	7	0	1
CH2	1	3	5	14	5	6
KO1	0	1	6	38	2	2
KO2	2	1	11	29	7	5
IT	1	2	1	0	17	5

%	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.3	2.1	0.0
JP2	3.4	4.3	2.6	33.6	5.2	25.0
CH1	0.6	0.0	1.8	4.1	0.0	0.6
CH2	0.9	2.7	4.4	12.4	4.4	5.3
KO1	0.0	0.8	5.0	31.4	1.7	1.7
KO2	2.0	1.0	11.0	29.0	7.0	5.0
IT	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.0	8.6	2.5



Of the six speakers (4 NNSs and 2 NSs), Anna (Italian) was the most difficult speaker for many respondents to understand; however, this variety was not so difficult for Italian respondents and Chinese English-majors (EMs). One more interesting pattern is that the two NS speakers were judged somewhat difficult to understand, and Nancy's utterance was extremely difficult for the Japanese non-English majors (NEMs).

Next, the numbers of respondents who chose "I can't determine" in the CProGP questions are displayed in the tables and graphs below, according to their EFL nationalities and their major distinctions (EM vs. NEM).

Table 4-1: "I can't determine" in comprehensibility

Count	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	0	0	0	0	0	0
JP2	4	3	1	2	2	3
CH1	2	0	0	4	1	0
CH2	1	1	0	4	2	0
KO1	0	0	1	2	1	1
KO2	0	0	1	3	0	0
IT	2	1	4	3	1	1

%	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
JP2	3.4	2.6	0.9	1.7	1.7	2.6
CH1	1.2	0.0	0.0	2.3	0.6	0.0
CH2	0.9	0.9	0.0	3.5	1.8	0.0
KO1	0.0	0.0	0.8	1.7	0.8	0.8
KO2	0.0	0.0	1.0	3.0	0.0	0.0
IT	1.0	0.5	2.0	1.5	0.5	0.5

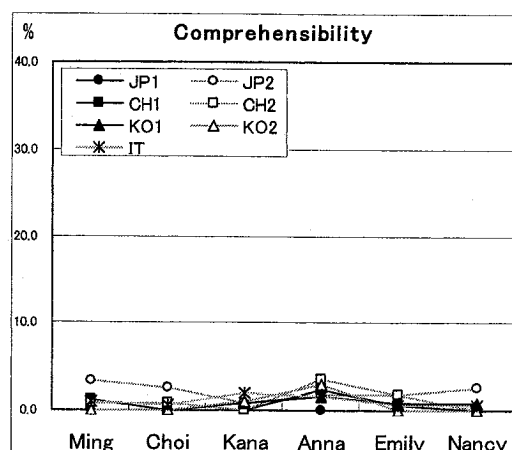


Table 4-2: "I can't determine" in pronunciation

Count	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	2	1	0	2	2	0
JP2	6	2	2	2	5	2
CH1	2	1	0	2	2	1
CH2	0	2	3	4	5	2
KO1	0	0	1	1	1	0
KO2	1	1	1	1	2	2
IT	6	3	2	0	8	2

%	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	2.1	1.0	0.0	2.1	2.1	0.0
JP2	5.2	1.7	1.7	1.7	4.3	1.7
CH1	1.2	0.6	0.0	1.2	1.2	0.6
CH2	0.0	1.8	2.7	3.5	4.4	1.8
KO1	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.0
KO2	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	2.0
IT	3.0	1.5	1.0	0.0	4.1	1.0

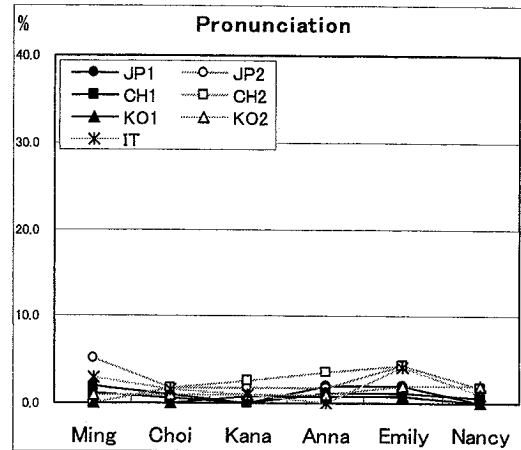


Table 4-3: "I can't determine" in grammatical accuracy

Count	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	7	16	4	20	9	9
JP2	29	37	28	33	37	28
CH1	2	4	6	33	8	5
CH2	7	15	13	26	14	13
KO1	11	20	14	24	14	17
KO2	19	18	21	26	23	24
IT	12	8	11	6	16	4

%	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	7.2	16.5	4.1	20.6	9.3	9.3
JP2	25.0	31.9	24.1	28.4	31.9	24.1
CH1	1.2	2.3	3.5	19.3	4.7	2.9
CH2	6.2	13.3	11.5	23.0	12.4	11.5
KO1	9.1	16.5	11.6	19.8	11.6	14.0
KO2	19.0	18.0	21.0	26.0	23.0	24.0
IT	6.1	4.1	5.6	3.0	8.1	2.0

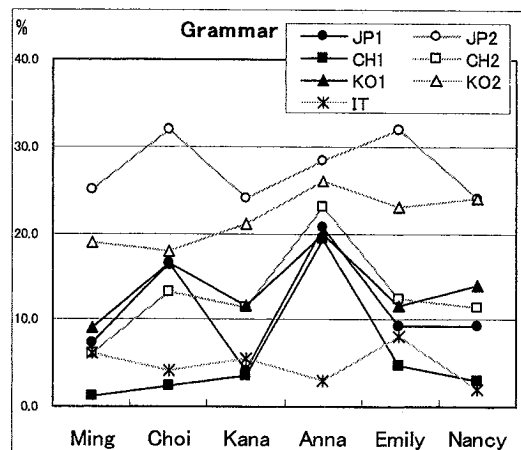
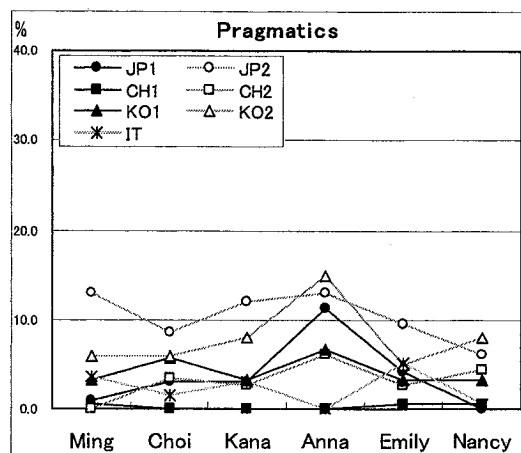


Table 4-4: "I can't determine" in manner of speaking

Count	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	1	3	3	11	4	0
JP2	15	10	14	15	11	7
CH1	1	0	0	0	1	1
CH2	0	4	3	7	3	5
KO1	4	7	4	8	4	4
KO2	6	6	8	15	5	8
IT	7	3	6	0	10	1

%	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	1.0	3.1	3.1	11.3	4.1	0.0
JP2	12.9	8.6	12.1	12.9	9.5	6.0
CH1	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6
CH2	0.0	3.5	2.7	6.2	2.7	4.4
KO1	3.3	5.8	3.3	6.6	3.3	3.3
KO2	6.0	6.0	8.0	15.0	5.0	8.0
IT	3.6	1.5	3.0	0.0	5.1	0.5



The results in Tables 4-1 to 4-4 show that apparently the judgment of grammatical accuracy was most difficult for EFL respondents, which was followed by that of manner of speaking. In contrast, the judgment of the first two questions (i.e., C and Pro) seemed not to be very troublesome for them.

Finally, the mean judgment scores of the CProGP questions are shown in the tables and graphs below. Those who chose “I can’t understand” the target utterance and/or “I can’t determine” in the CProGP questions were excluded from the calculation of the mean for each question.

Table 5-1: Evaluation of *Comprehensibility*

	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	3.87	3.40	3.88	2.26	3.94	4.29
JP2	3.44	3.36	3.57	2.55	3.19	3.31
CH1	4.36	3.85	4.08	3.24	3.85	3.82
CH2	4.27	3.55	3.77	2.99	3.52	3.05
KO1	3.75	3.90	3.02	2.19	3.56	4.00
KO2	3.52	3.75	2.92	2.21	3.35	3.44
IT	4.19	4.11	4.09	4.29	3.41	3.63

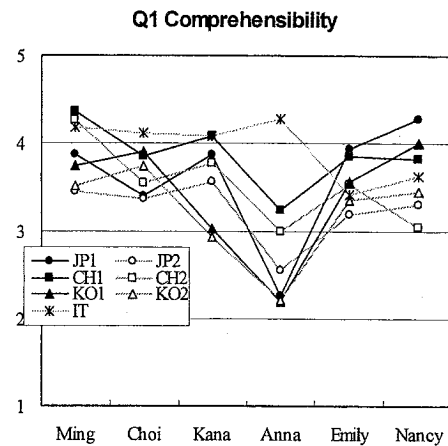


Table 5-2: Evaluation of *Pronunciation*

	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	3.17	2.71	1.39	2.01	4.60	4.68
JP2	3.35	2.84	1.53	2.47	3.91	4.44
CH1	3.20	3.12	2.35	2.01	3.76	4.33
CH2	3.35	3.20	2.79	2.76	3.72	3.96
KO1	2.86	2.90	1.87	1.76	3.51	4.34
KO2	2.94	2.95	1.96	1.89	3.41	4.18
IT	3.18	3.20	2.25	1.50	4.04	4.84

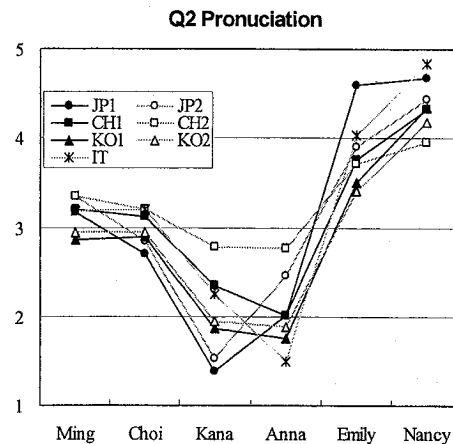


Table 5-3: Evaluation of *Grammatical Accuracy*

	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	2.97	3.20	2.97	3.47	3.92	4.53
JP2	3.11	3.24	3.07	3.18	3.58	4.05
CH1	2.85	3.36	3.36	2.92	3.50	4.30
CH2	3.24	3.31	3.35	3.15	3.54	3.71
KO1	2.80	3.29	3.02	2.76	3.13	4.14
KO2	2.97	3.16	2.84	2.60	3.21	3.83
IT	2.87	3.18	2.72	2.53	3.91	4.81

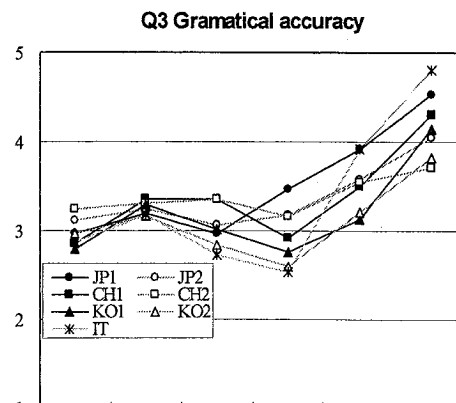
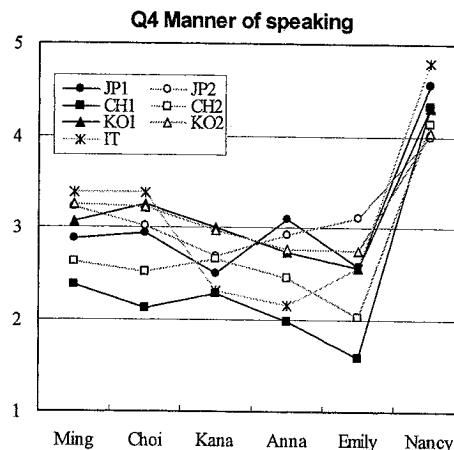


Table 5-4: Evaluation of Manner of speaking

	Ming	Choi	Kana	Anna	Emily	Nancy
JP1	2.88	2.94	2.50	3.09	2.58	4.56
JP2	3.22	3.01	2.69	2.92	3.11	4.00
CH1	2.36	2.12	2.27	1.97	1.58	4.32
CH2	2.62	2.52	2.65	2.44	2.02	4.14
KO1	3.06	3.26	3.00	2.73	2.56	4.30
KO2	3.25	3.23	2.96	2.77	2.75	4.03
IT	3.37	3.38	2.31	2.15	2.56	4.79



The interpretation of these judgment results is by no means easy, but several interesting patterns can be observed in the four judgment questions (CProGP). Of the four NNS varieties (i.e., Ming, Choi, Kana, and Anna), Anna’s (Italian) variety was the most difficult for the EFL respondents to understand, except for the Italian group. In terms of pronunciation, Anna and Kana were judged ‘bad’ by all the respondent groups. In contrast, the two NS varieties, Emily and Nancy, received fairly high judgment means for all EFL respondent groups.

The primary interest of this survey was in fact placed on the latter two judgment questions: grammatical accuracy (G) and manner of speaking (P). In all NNS and NS utterances in the UJ questionnaire, a grammatical problem and a pragmatic problem were inserted intentionally. Thus, it was expected that the utterance judgment means would be lower than the mid point of 3.0. Interestingly, the means of the G judgment item were scattered around 3.0 for the NNS utterances and higher than 3.0 for the NS utterances in the all EFL groups (Table 5.3 and its graph). In contrast, for the results of the P judgment item, the means of the most EFL groups were lower than 3.0, except for the judgment of Nancy (Table 5.4 and its graph).

To test the statistical significance of the difference among the three nationality groups (the Italian group was excluded) and the difference between the two major groups (EMs vs. NEMs), responses for each scenario were compared using a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test (comparison among or between independent groups). The results of this test are summarized in Table 6 (by respondents’ nationalities) and Table 7 (respondents’ majors).⁵

Table 6: Summary of Kruskal-Wallis test - Nationality

	C	Pro	G	P
Ming	0.000	0.000	0.298	0.000
Choi	0.000	0.000	0.306	0.000
Kana	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Anna	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Emily	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000
Nancy	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.087

Table 7: Summary of Kruskal-Wallis tests - Major

	C	Pro	G	P
Ming	0.000	0.032	0.002	0.000
Choi	0.000	0.452	0.224	0.004
Kana	0.001	0.069	0.422	0.003
Anna	0.404	0.000	0.818	0.001
Emily	0.000	0.004	0.497	0.000
Nancy	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

⁵ The non parametric test was used because normal distributions were skeptical in the judgment responses.

The results obtained from the group comparisons indicate that both the nationality (3 countries) and the major (English vs. non-English) factors affected the respondents' judgments in the C and Pro questions. The results for the other two questions, i.e., the G and P questions, are more interesting. Apparently, the P question was more sensitively affected by the Nationality and Major factors than the G question. In fact, the Chinese groups, regardless of their Majors, captured the pragmatic problems of the utterances most sensitively (see Table 5-4 and its graph). Regarding the G question, it is probably the case that the EFL respondents could not detect the grammatical problem of each utterance accurately, which is predicted by the fact that most of their judgment means were not below 3.0 and also the fact that many of the respondents actually chose "I can't determine" in this question (see Table 4-3 and its graph).

Finally, multiple-comparisons among the three nationality groups (Japan, China, and Korea) were made by a non-parametric Mann-Whitney test in order to find among which groups these significant differences shown in Table 6 above occurred (no such comparisons were made with respect to the results in Table 7 since only two groups are concerned with the Major factor). The results of the multiple-comparison are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8: Summary of multiple comparison by Mann-Whitney test

Speaker	C	Pro	G	P
Ming	CH JP = KO	CH = JP KO	ns	JP = KO CH
Choi	CH = KO JP	CH KO JP	ns	KO JP CH
Kana	CH JP KO	CH KO JP	CH JP = KO	KO CH = JP
Anna	CH JP = KO	CH = JP KO	JP CH KO	JP KO CH
Emily	CH = JP JP = KO	JP CH KO	JP CH KO	JP = KO CH
Nancy	JP = KO CH = KO	JP CH = KO	JP CH = KO	ns

N.B.:

- A significant level is set at $p < .017$ (i.e., $.05 \div 3$) by making a Bonferroni inequality adjustment.
- CH = China, JP = Japan, KO = Korea.
- The abbreviation(s) in the upper place in each cell indicates its mean is higher than the lower one. An equal sign represents no significant difference between the two means. Thus, CH and JP = KO in the comprehensibility cell shows that the Chinese students' mean of this variable is significantly higher than the Japanese one and the Korean one, but no such difference between the latter two country groups (i.e., $CH > JP = KO$).

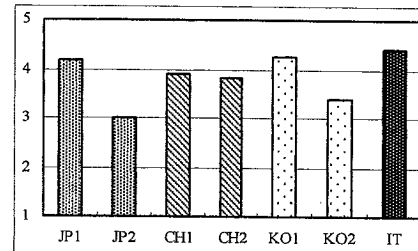
2. Results of the P questionnaire

In this section, first results of the responses to the entire 40 questions in the P questionnaire are displayed in tables and graphs one by one (Section 2.1). Then, the results of factor analysis conducted on the basis of these questions are presented (Section 2.2), which is followed by the results of an ANOVA test that was applied to the means of some of the factors obtained from the factor analysis.

2.1 Responses to the 40 questions

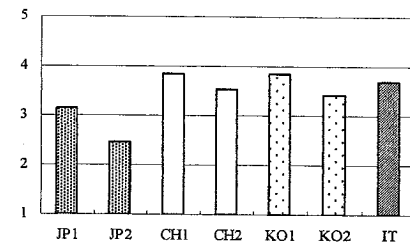
Q1: I like English as a language very much, so I'm pleased to have a chance to use it.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	2	1	15	40	39	4.16	0.87
JP2	116	14	26	37	22	17	3.02	1.22
CH1	171	2	18	19	85	47	3.92	0.95
CH2	113	0	14	21	48	30	3.83	0.96
KO1	121	0	3	10	59	49	4.27	0.72
KO2	100	6	16	28	34	16	3.38	1.12
IT	197	1	5	11	72	108	4.43	0.76



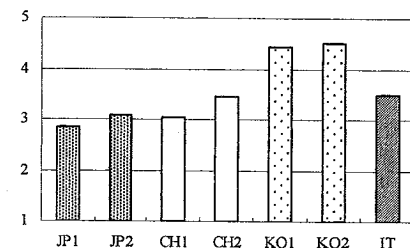
Q2: I try to improve my English proficiency as much as I can through self-study.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	4	19	38	31	5	3.14	0.94
JP2	116	15	54	28	18	1	2.45	0.94
CH1	171	2	12	27	102	28	3.83	0.83
CH2	113	1	24	18	54	16	3.53	1.01
KO1	121	0	15	7	81	18	3.84	0.83
KO2	100	1	24	17	49	9	3.41	0.99
IT	197	1	34	27	101	34	3.68	0.97



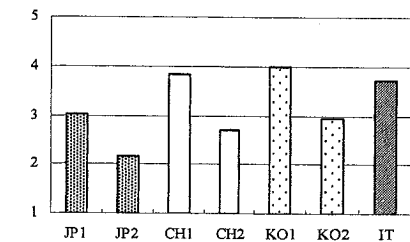
Q3: In the present circumstances of my country, we can't get a good job unless we have a good command of English.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	11	25	35	19	7	2.86	1.09
JP2	116	1	28	56	24	7	3.07	0.85
CH1	171	3	54	58	47	9	3.03	0.94
CH2	113	1	25	27	43	17	3.44	1.03
KO1	121	0	6	5	42	68	4.42	0.79
KO2	100	0	2	3	36	59	4.52	0.66
IT	197	4	44	43	67	39	3.47	1.10



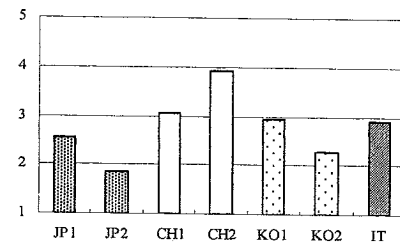
Q4: I am strongly hoping to get a job requiring English skills for my daily work.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	5	29	33	19	11	3.02	1.08
JP2	116	32	46	28	7	3	2.16	0.99
CH1	171	1	20	25	84	41	3.84	0.94
CH2	113	8	47	35	17	6	2.70	0.99
KO1	121	2	13	15	46	45	3.98	1.04
KO2	100	8	30	33	17	12	2.95	1.13
IT	197	7	19	54	60	57	3.72	1.09



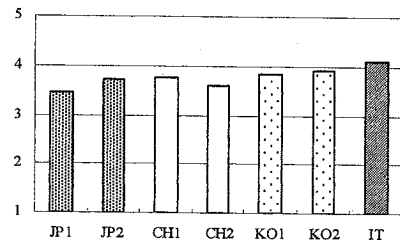
Q5: I have never insisted on English related work in finding a job.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	9	47	23	16	2	2.54	0.95
JP2	116	41	59	10	5	1	1.84	0.82
CH1	170	12	42	43	67	6	3.08	1.03
CH2	111	2	6	15	64	24	3.92	0.85
KO1	119	6	49	19	38	7	2.92	1.08
KO2	100	15	51	26	8	0	2.27	0.81
IT	197	26	58	33	69	11	2.90	1.18



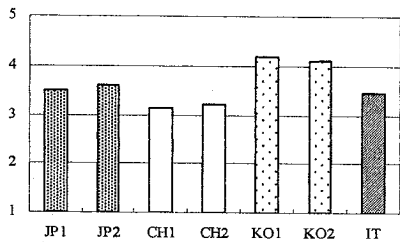
Q6: English education should be given thoroughly as an educational policy of the country.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	2	13	36	32	14	3.44	0.97
JP2	116	2	10	32	48	24	3.71	0.95
CH1	171	2	24	27	76	42	3.77	1.01
CH2	113	3	14	25	54	17	3.60	0.98
KO1	121	3	4	27	61	26	3.85	0.88
KO2	100	3	5	13	55	24	3.92	0.92
IT	197	2	4	32	91	68	4.11	0.82



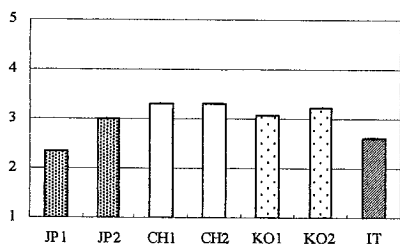
Q7: Inadequate English education will weaken national strength in this globalizing world.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	1	15	26	46	9	3.48	0.90
JP2	116	3	12	34	48	19	3.59	0.97
CH1	171	5	38	64	54	10	3.15	0.93
CH2	113	7	19	36	45	6	3.21	1.00
KO1	121	0	4	12	63	42	4.18	0.74
KO2	100	2	7	6	50	35	4.09	0.93
IT	197	11	21	65	67	33	3.46	1.07



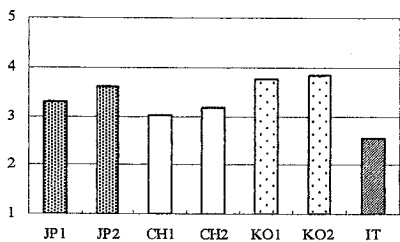
Q8: The main objective of teaching English should be on vitalize economic activities.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	9	53	29	5	1	2.34	0.76
JP2	116	4	25	59	22	6	3.01	0.87
CH1	171	5	45	31	71	19	3.32	1.07
CH2	113	2	29	25	45	12	3.32	1.03
KO1	121	2	40	33	41	5	3.06	0.95
KO2	100	3	26	23	40	8	3.24	1.03
IT	197	19	72	71	32	3	2.63	0.92



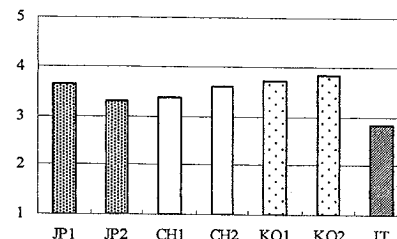
Q9: In international communication, non-native English speakers are placed in an unfair position from the onset.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	5	17	24	46	5	3.30	0.99
JP2	116	4	12	31	47	22	3.61	1.02
CH1	170	7	67	22	64	10	3.02	1.08
CH2	113	4	31	24	49	5	3.18	1.00
KO1	121	3	16	13	66	23	3.74	1.00
KO2	100	3	9	16	46	26	3.83	1.02
IT	197	23	94	32	41	7	2.57	1.06



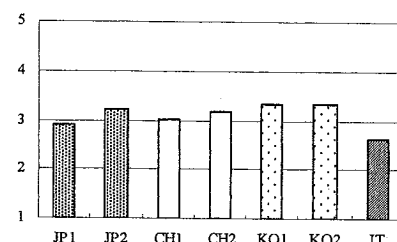
Q10: I've never thought about whether non-native English speakers are disadvantaged in international communication or not.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	4	15	8	55	15	3.64	1.05
JP2	116	13	17	22	49	15	3.31	1.20
CH1	171	3	52	16	78	22	3.37	1.10
CH2	112	3	24	9	56	20	3.59	1.10
KO1	121	7	15	13	58	28	3.70	1.13
KO2	99	3	14	6	50	26	3.83	1.07
IT	197	30	76	12	55	24	2.83	1.32



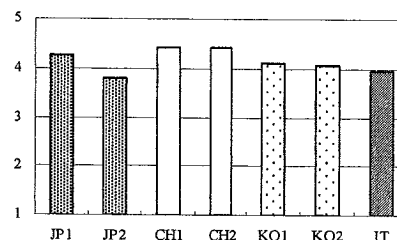
Q11: It is non-native speakers' responsibility for inadequate English learning if they can't communicate well in international communication.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	3	28	43	20	3	2.92	0.86
JP2	116	5	19	46	36	10	3.23	0.97
CH1	171	5	54	54	49	9	3.02	0.97
CH2	113	2	34	27	44	6	3.16	0.98
KO1	121	4	28	25	54	10	3.31	1.02
KO2	100	6	22	15	48	9	3.32	1.10
IT	189	16	94	31	40	8	2.63	1.04



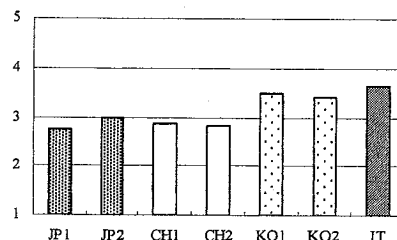
Q12: Native English speakers should also learn how to use English for international communication (for example, acquiring tolerant behaviors toward accents and grammatical mistakes, and learning gestures and specific culture-based expressions).

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	0	2	3	60	32	4.26	0.62
JP2	116	3	4	28	60	21	3.79	0.87
CH1	171	2	2	3	77	87	4.43	0.70
CH2	113	1	0	2	60	50	4.40	0.62
KO1	121	0	3	14	71	33	4.11	0.69
KO2	99	1	4	10	56	28	4.07	0.80
IT	197	1	17	25	101	53	3.95	0.89



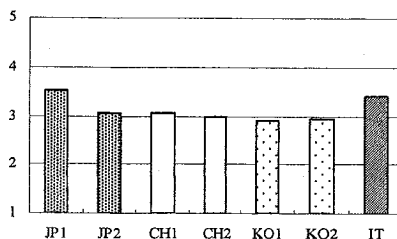
Q13: We do not need to be ashamed of our native language accent (e.g., pronunciation, grammar, expressions), as long as it works when we communicate in English.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	12	37	19	23	6	2.73	1.14
JP2	116	16	33	25	22	20	2.97	1.32
CH1	171	23	57	18	65	8	2.87	1.20
CH2	113	6	51	15	37	4	2.84	1.06
KO1	121	3	22	18	70	8	3.48	0.95
KO2	100	5	18	14	57	6	3.41	1.02
IT	197	4	36	23	101	33	3.62	1.03



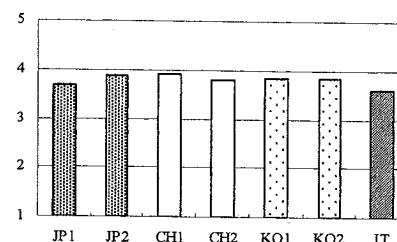
Q14: I feel a little embarrassed myself if I speak English with a strong accent associated with my native language.

Groups	Total n	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
JP1	97	3	17	16	49	12	3.52	1.02
JP2	116	9	26	36	38	7	3.07	1.05
CH1	171	11	60	13	79	8	3.08	1.12
CH2	113	11	39	8	53	2	2.96	1.13
KO1	121	18	30	20	51	2	2.91	1.15
KO2	100	10	29	19	40	2	2.95	1.09
IT	197	11	49	17	87	33	3.42	1.19



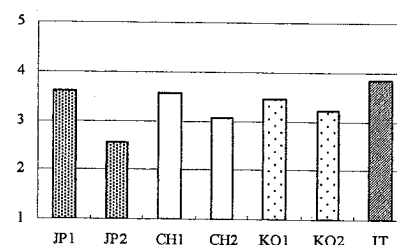
Q15: We should learn the “standard” varieties of English, such as American or British English.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	2	10	22	47	16	3.67	0.94
JP2	116	1	8	19	63	25	3.89	0.85
CH1	171	5	14	18	90	44	3.90	0.97
CH2	113	3	9	18	62	21	3.79	0.93
KO1	121	1	12	19	64	25	3.83	0.90
KO2	99	5	3	9	67	15	3.85	0.90
IT	197	7	18	49	92	31	3.62	0.98



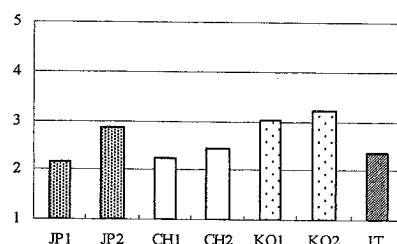
Q16: I've never thought about which English the English I'm learning is based on.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	6	13	7	60	11	3.59	1.06
JP2	116	25	43	11	34	3	2.54	1.20
CH1	171	11	36	12	69	43	3.57	1.25
CH2	113	9	45	4	40	15	3.06	1.27
KO1	121	13	19	13	54	22	3.44	1.26
KO2	100	10	23	12	45	10	3.22	1.20
IT	197	13	27	13	71	73	3.83	1.25



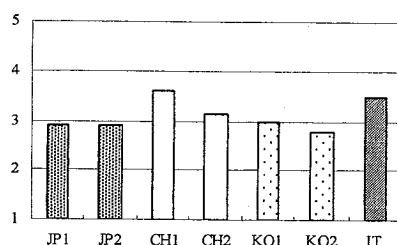
Q17: Now that English has become an international language, English should be learned separately from learning cultures of native English speakers.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	16	52	25	4	0	2.18	0.75
JP2	116	6	26	68	12	4	2.84	0.81
CH1	171	56	67	11	26	11	2.23	1.24
CH2	113	16	55	19	21	2	2.45	1.01
KO1	120	15	27	27	42	9	3.03	1.18
KO2	100	8	20	23	41	8	3.21	1.10
IT	197	36	89	43	22	7	2.37	1.02



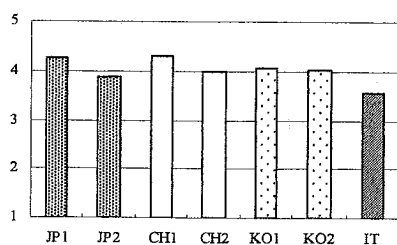
Q18: It is desirable to have the culture of native English speakers spread globally through English education.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	6	23	44	21	3	2.92	0.91
JP2	116	18	18	45	27	8	2.91	1.13
CH1	171	5	24	26	95	21	3.60	0.97
CH2	113	7	27	28	45	6	3.14	1.04
KO1	121	9	23	56	27	6	2.98	0.96
KO2	100	12	24	40	23	1	2.77	0.97
IT	196	6	20	60	94	16	3.48	0.90



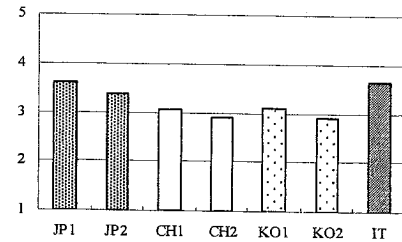
Q19: It is important for us to explain our history, culture and customs in English to foreigners (e.g., tourists or foreigners temporarily residing in our country) and people in other countries.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	1	9	50	37	4.27	0.67
JP2	116	2	6	21	64	23	3.86	0.85
CH1	170	2	12	3	69	84	4.30	0.90
CH2	112	4	10	7	54	37	3.98	1.04
KO1	120	1	5	19	53	42	4.08	0.87
KO2	100	1	6	12	50	31	4.04	0.88
IT	197	3	28	46	92	28	3.58	0.95



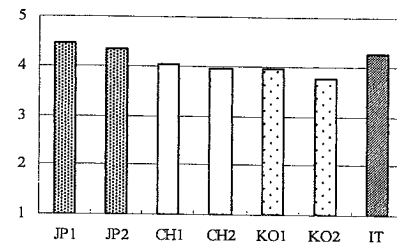
Q20: I think English should be used as a common language in the world for international purposes.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	1	5	31	54	6	3.61	0.73
JP2	116	7	7	46	50	6	3.35	0.91
CH1	171	13	42	38	76	2	3.07	1.02
CH2	113	11	27	37	38	0	2.90	0.98
KO1	121	4	23	57	31	6	3.10	0.88
KO2	100	8	16	54	20	2	2.92	0.87
IT	195	6	27	34	94	34	3.63	1.02



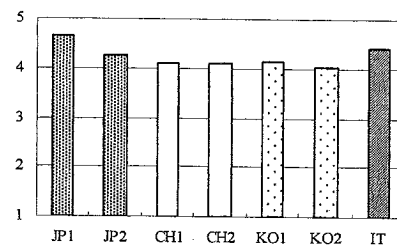
Q21: Whether we like it or not, English is becoming a common language used in the world for international purposes.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	1	0	1	45	50	4.47	0.63
JP2	116	1	3	2	61	49	4.33	0.72
CH1	171	0	4	9	133	25	4.05	0.54
CH2	113	0	2	9	93	9	3.96	0.48
KO1	121	2	6	12	79	22	3.93	0.79
KO2	100	3	11	9	62	15	3.75	0.95
IT	197	0	5	6	118	68	4.26	0.64



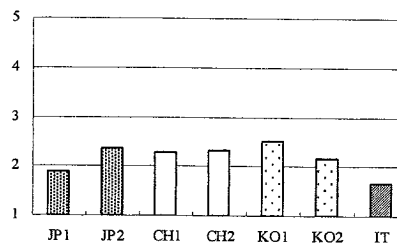
Q22: When I see someone speak English fluently, I feel "S/he's cool" or "I wish I could be like him/her."

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	2	1	26	68	4.65	0.61
JP2	116	3	4	7	46	56	4.28	0.92
CH1	171	1	9	7	106	48	4.12	0.76
CH2	112	0	7	6	65	34	4.13	0.77
KO1	121	2	6	9	61	43	4.13	0.88
KO2	100	2	4	14	50	30	4.02	0.89
IT	197	3	11	6	57	120	4.42	0.91



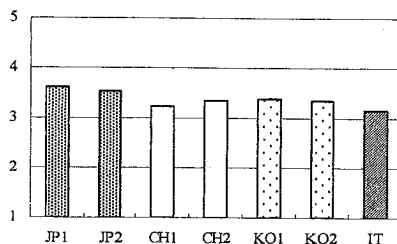
Q23: When I see someone learning a less popular language, I honestly feel, "What's the use?"

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	43	35	8	10	1	1.88	1.01
JP2	116	35	42	10	22	7	2.34	1.26
CH1	170	35	87	16	29	3	2.28	1.03
CH2	113	13	69	11	20	0	2.34	0.90
KO1	121	30	40	12	35	4	2.53	1.24
KO2	100	34	36	13	13	4	2.17	1.16
IT	197	99	77	9	10	2	1.68	0.86



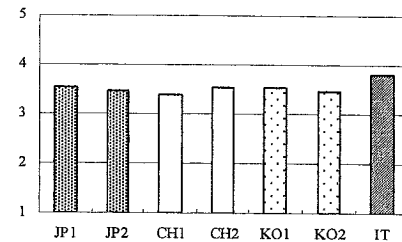
Q24: I trust native English teachers more than non-native English teachers of my country in their teaching.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	2	15	23	35	22	3.62	1.07
JP2	116	1	12	48	33	22	3.54	0.95
CH1	171	6	43	43	63	16	3.23	1.04
CH2	113	2	21	34	49	7	3.34	0.91
KO1	121	4	25	32	41	19	3.38	1.08
KO2	100	4	20	26	37	13	3.35	1.07
IT	197	17	53	35	63	29	3.17	1.23



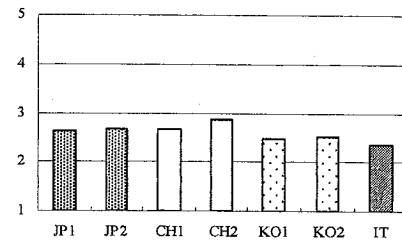
Q25: It is best to study English from native English speakers.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	5	48	30	14	3.55	0.80
JP2	116	3	9	55	31	18	3.45	0.94
CH1	171	2	41	38	67	23	3.40	1.03
CH2	112	1	15	27	59	10	3.55	0.87
KO1	121	4	19	31	44	23	3.52	1.07
KO2	100	5	14	30	33	18	3.45	1.10
IT	197	5	14	41	93	44	3.80	0.95



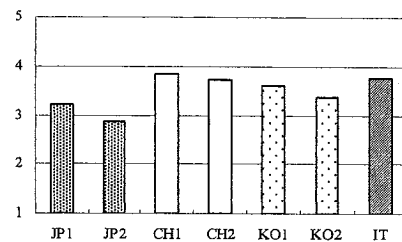
Q26: I hope to be taught by teachers from non-native English regions since English is used in various regions.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	3	41	44	8	1	2.62	0.73
JP2	116	5	37	65	8	1	2.68	0.71
CH1	170	9	72	58	28	3	2.67	0.88
CH2	113	1	45	35	32	0	2.87	0.84
KO1	121	14	47	49	10	1	2.48	0.84
KO2	100	9	40	42	7	2	2.53	0.83
IT	197	29	82	70	16	0	2.37	0.83



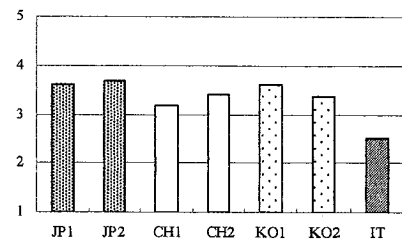
Q27: Languages other than English should be promoted more in high schools. It is unreasonable that only English should receive special treatment.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	1	19	41	31	5	3.21	0.85
JP2	116	6	37	44	24	5	2.87	0.95
CH1	171	1	11	29	102	28	3.85	0.79
CH2	112	0	10	27	58	17	3.73	0.83
KO1	121	3	13	27	66	12	3.59	0.90
KO2	100	3	20	24	42	11	3.38	1.02
IT	197	3	26	30	95	43	3.76	0.99



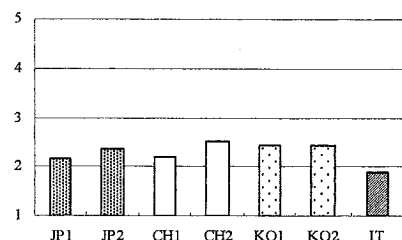
Q28: In high school, it is better to learn English rather than other foreign languages.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	1	6	31	51	8	3.61	0.77
JP2	116	2	6	36	56	16	3.67	0.84
CH1	171	4	40	56	65	6	3.17	0.91
CH2	112	0	20	29	59	4	3.42	0.82
KO1	121	1	13	28	71	8	3.60	0.80
KO2	100	4	17	24	48	7	3.37	0.98
IT	197	31	89	30	37	10	2.52	1.12



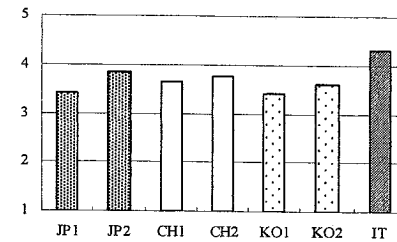
Q29: It is not reasonable to require foreign language learning at high school. It should be taught only to those who think it will be necessary in the future.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	17	55	17	8	0	2.16	0.81
JP2	116	22	53	28	5	8	2.34	1.06
CH1	171	36	92	18	22	3	2.20	0.98
CH2	113	18	51	17	20	7	2.53	1.14
KO1	121	16	60	22	20	3	2.45	1.00
KO2	99	15	51	10	19	4	2.45	1.09
IT	197	74	90	19	10	4	1.88	0.92



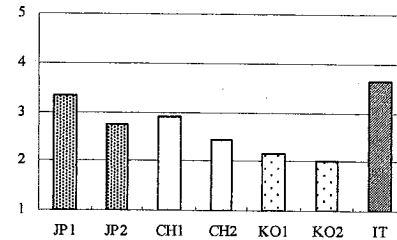
Q30: English should be taught from the early stage of elementary education.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	6	12	30	35	14	3.40	1.08
JP2	116	6	6	24	46	34	3.83	1.07
CH1	171	8	23	16	98	26	3.65	1.04
CH2	113	4	13	13	59	24	3.76	1.03
KO1	121	6	24	23	50	18	3.41	1.12
KO2	100	4	15	16	45	20	3.62	1.09
IT	197	7	7	10	67	106	4.31	0.98



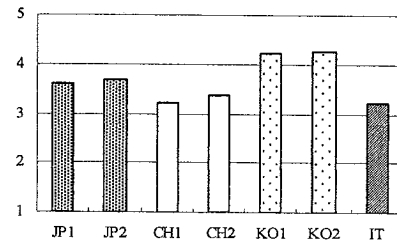
Q31: I feel an attraction to the American or British cultures.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	5	20	26	29	17	3.34	1.14
JP2	116	17	35	37	15	12	2.74	1.17
CH1	170	13	63	32	51	11	2.91	1.11
CH2	110	12	53	31	14	0	2.43	0.85
KO1	121	30	54	28	7	2	2.15	0.92
KO2	100	34	39	20	7	0	2.00	0.91
IT	197	11	26	29	88	43	3.64	1.13



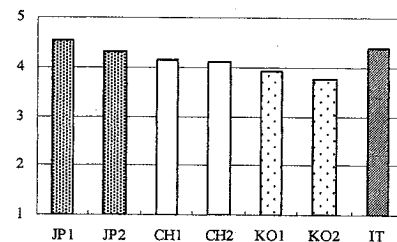
Q32: We should not be influenced strongly by the cultures of English-speaking countries by learning English.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	11	27	50	9	3.59	0.81
JP2	116	2	5	40	51	18	3.67	0.85
CH1	171	4	46	45	61	15	3.22	1.01
CH2	112	0	26	28	49	9	3.37	0.93
KO1	121	0	1	14	63	43	4.22	0.68
KO2	100	2	3	5	46	44	4.27	0.85
IT	196	10	38	68	62	18	3.20	1.02



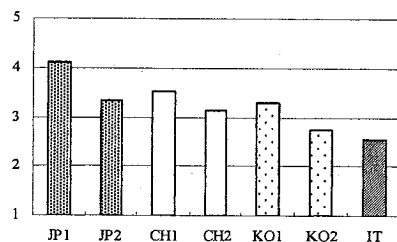
Q33: Learning English opens up various new possibilities.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	0	1	42	54	4.55	0.52
JP2	116	3	2	6	53	52	4.28	0.85
CH1	171	1	2	11	117	40	4.13	0.62
CH2	113	0	3	11	71	28	4.10	0.67
KO1	121	1	10	17	65	28	3.90	0.88
KO2	100	3	8	19	52	18	3.74	0.95
IT	196	1	0	9	103	83	4.36	0.62



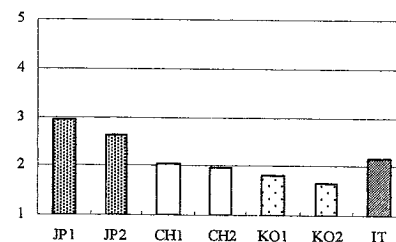
Q34: Learning English helps us deepen our understanding of our native language.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	1	3	13	48	32	4.10	0.82
JP2	116	6	21	34	37	18	3.34	1.10
CH1	171	5	31	28	82	25	3.53	1.04
CH2	113	6	31	20	55	1	3.12	1.00
KO1	121	2	34	28	40	17	3.30	1.08
KO2	100	15	32	20	28	5	2.76	1.16
IT	197	41	64	44	36	12	2.56	1.18



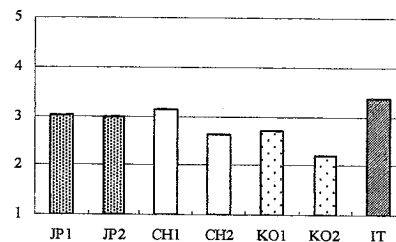
Q35: I think that English is a more logical language than my native language.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	4	23	46	22	2	2.95	0.85
JP2	116	15	23	70	5	3	2.64	0.86
CH1	171	42	95	16	17	1	2.06	0.89
CH2	113	31	61	13	8	0	1.98	0.82
KO1	121	49	53	12	4	3	1.83	0.92
KO2	100	48	43	7	0	2	1.65	0.78
IT	196	65	64	41	19	7	2.18	1.11



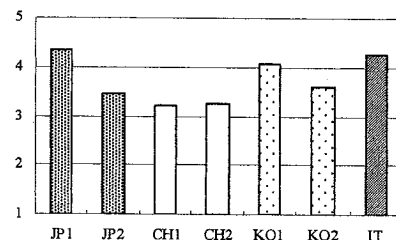
Q36: I think English is an easier language to learn than other languages.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	7	23	31	33	3	3.02	1.00
JP2	116	8	22	56	22	8	3.00	0.97
CH1	171	8	39	56	60	8	3.12	0.97
CH2	113	6	58	23	24	2	2.63	0.94
KO1	120	10	55	22	27	6	2.70	1.07
KO2	100	20	49	23	7	1	2.20	0.88
IT	197	18	37	26	85	31	3.38	1.22



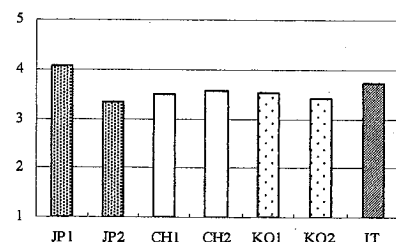
Q37: I am very eager to make friends with people in English-speaking countries.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	0	10	45	42	4.33	0.66
JP2	116	5	12	44	34	21	3.47	1.04
CH1	170	5	36	62	54	13	3.20	0.96
CH2	113	1	25	39	41	7	3.25	0.90
KO1	121	0	6	20	55	40	4.07	0.83
KO2	100	4	10	24	45	17	3.61	1.01
IT	196	5	2	18	84	87	4.26	0.86



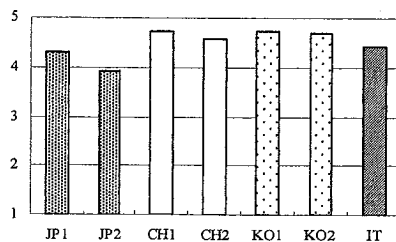
Q38: I am very eager to make friends with people in Asian or Middle Eastern countries.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	2	21	43	31	4.06	0.79
JP2	116	5	12	54	30	15	3.33	0.98
CH1	171	3	24	49	77	3	3.49	0.92
CH2	113	3	8	34	58	10	3.57	0.85
KO1	121	0	17	39	50	15	3.52	0.89
KO2	100	4	11	35	42	8	3.39	0.93
IT	196	10	13	49	75	49	3.71	1.07



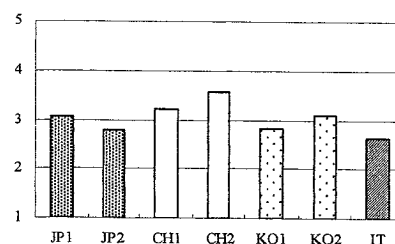
Q39: I am proud of my mother tongue.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	0	2	10	40	45	4.32	0.74
JP2	116	0	4	35	44	33	3.91	0.85
CH1	170	2	2	0	29	137	4.75	0.63
CH2	110	4	1	0	28	77	4.57	0.86
KO1	121	1	0	3	25	92	4.71	0.60
KO2	100	1	0	0	29	70	4.67	0.59
IT	197	3	1	20	62	111	4.41	0.81



Q40: I often experience or have experienced difficulty in daily life that derived from my insufficient English.

Groups	Total <i>n</i>	1	2	3	4	5	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
JP1	97	7	31	18	33	8	3.04	1.14
JP2	116	12	37	33	30	4	2.80	1.05
CH1	171	4	55	27	73	12	3.20	1.04
CH2	113	4	20	8	72	9	3.55	0.99
KO1	121	7	50	30	27	7	2.81	1.04
KO2	100	5	27	29	32	7	3.09	1.04
IT	197	21	92	32	41	11	2.64	1.10



2.2 Factor Analysis

Based on these 40 question items in the P questionnaire, a factor analysis was conducted. A ceiling and floor effect of each question item was examined prior to this analysis. In doing so, questions whose $M + SD$ is larger than 5 or $M - SD$ is smaller 1 are regarded as having a ceiling effect or a floor effect, respectively. As a result, Questions 22 and 39 were excluded because of the ceiling effects on these question items.

The remaining 38 questions were subjected to Principle Components Factor Analysis, with Eigen values set at one and Varimax Rotation. In identifying factors, loadings of .4 and above were set to be included in a given factor. As a result, 6 factors were identified, and they are presented in Table 9 along with the question items involved and their means and standard deviations (see Appendix B for the actual loadings of each question item). The factor names were determined by examining similarities among or between the questions for each factor: "Future investment", "English for deepening our understanding of language and culture", "English education", "NNS disadvantage", "NS admiration", and "International friendship".

Once these factors were identified, group means for the 6 factors were calculated by averaging the responses of all the questions for each factor (e.g, responses of Q2 + Q4 + Q1 + Q5 divided by 4 for Factor 1). The means obtained in this way are summarized in Table 10.

Following these procedures, a two-way ANOVA (3 levels in Nationality and 2 levels in Majors) was conducted to examine group differences statistically for each factor. The results of the ANOVA are presented in Section 2.3.

Table 9: Means and SDs for the Items with their Factor Names (N = 915)

Items	Questions	M	SD
Factor 1 – Future investment			
Q02	I try to improve my English proficiency as much as I can through self-study.	3.47	1.02
Q04	I am strongly hoping to get a job requiring English skills for my daily work.	3.30	1.21
Q01	I like English as a language very much, so I'm pleased to have a chance to use it.	3.92	1.05
Q05	I have never insisted on English related work in finding a job.	2.82	1.15
Factor 2 – English for deepening our understanding of language and culture			
Q33	Learning English opens up various new possibilities.	4.17	0.76
Q34	Learning English helps us deepen our understanding of our native language.	3.19	1.17
Q31	I feel an attraction to the American or British cultures.	2.83	1.20
Q20	I think English should be used as a common language in the world for international purposes.	3.25	0.98
Q35	I think that English is a more logical language than my native language.	2.17	0.99
Factor 3 – English education			
Q06	English education should be given thoroughly as an educational policy of the country.	3.81	0.95
Q07	Inadequate English education will weaken national strength in this globalizing world.	3.55	1.01
Q30	English should be taught from the early stage of elementary education.	3.77	1.09
Factor 4 – NNS disadvantage			
Q09	In international communication, non-native English speakers are placed in an unfair position from the onset.	3.23	1.12
Q32	We should not be influenced strongly by the cultures of English-speaking countries by learning English.	3.58	1.00
Q10	I've never thought about whether non-native English speakers are disadvantaged in international communication or not.	3.40	1.20
Factor 5 – NS admiration			
Q24	I trust native English teachers more than non-native English teachers of my country in their teaching.	3.35	1.08
Q25	It is best to study English from native English speakers.	3.55	0.98
Factor 6 – International friendship			
Q37	I am very eager to make friends with people in English-speaking countries.	3.75	1.01
Q38	I am very eager to make friends with people in Asian or Middle Eastern countries.	4.49	0.78

Table 10: Group means (3 nationalities x 2 majors) for the 6 factors

Factors	Country	<i>n</i>		<i>M</i>		<i>SD</i>	
		EM	NEM	EM	NEM	EM	NEM
Factor 1	Japan	97	116	3.22	2.37	0.76	0.83
	China	170	111	3.66	3.50	0.51	0.55
	Korea	119	100	3.76	3.00	0.63	0.70
Factor 2	Japan	97	116	3.71	3.27	0.48	0.68
	China	170	110	3.14	2.92	0.53	0.53
	Korea	121	100	2.86	2.61	0.56	0.60
Factor 3	Japan	97	116	3.44	3.71	0.77	0.80
	China	171	113	3.52	3.53	0.73	0.73
	Korea	121	100	3.82	3.88	0.67	0.72
Factor 4	Japan	97	116	3.51	3.53	0.62	0.72
	China	170	111	3.20	3.37	0.68	0.66
	Korea	121	99	3.89	3.98	0.59	0.58
Factor 5	Japan	97	116	3.58	3.50	0.75	0.81
	China	171	112	3.32	3.45	0.84	0.71
	Korea	121	100	3.45	3.40	0.98	0.98
Factor 6	Japan	97	116	4.20	3.40	0.66	0.94
	China	170	113	3.34	3.41	0.78	0.65
	Korea	121	100	3.79	3.50	0.73	0.83

2.3 Results of ANOVA

Factor 1 – Future investment

First, regarding the result of the ANOVA with respect to Factor 1 (Future Investment), both Nationalities and Major variables showed a significant difference (both $p < .001$)⁶, and a significant interaction effect between them ($p < .001$) was also obtained. The result of multiple comparisons indicates that the difference between each pair of the three nationality groups was significant.

Table 11: Result of a 2-way ANOVA - Factor 1 Future investment

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
country	76.827	2	38.414	87.942	0.000
EM	60.187	1	60.187	137.789	0.000
country * EM	16.884	2	8.442	19.326	0.000
Error	308.823	707	0.437		
Total	8,188.563	713			

Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
1	2	-.8441(*)	0.000
	3	-.6597(*)	0.000
2	1	.8441(*)	0.000
	3	.1844(*)	0.006
3	1	.6597(*)	0.000
	2	-.1844(*)	0.006

* $P < .05$

⁶ The variable of 'Nationality' is described as 'country' in the tables due to a restriction of the statistical package used for the analysis, SPSS 13.0, which allows only 8 characters for variable names. Thus, 'country' (7 characters) was used as a variable name rather than 'nationality'.

We can see from the means presented in Table 10 that the learners in the Chinese groups considered, regardless of their majors, that they enjoyed studying English and thought the chance for a better job becomes higher by studying it. In the Korean group, the English-majors (EMs) were similar to the Chinese groups, but the non-English major (NEMs) were less likely to think in these ways than the EMs. As for the Japanese groups, such tendencies were much weaker, and the means of the NEMs in particular were far below those of the other groups.

Factor 2 – English for deepening our understanding of language and culture

While Factor 1 appears to be related to respondents' instrumental motivation, Factor 2 would have more to do with an integrative aspect of their motivation in studying English. The results of the ANOVA indicate that the group means are significantly different in terms of the Nationality variable and the Major variable, but there is no significant interaction effect. The result of multiple comparison also shows that the three nationality groups were significantly different between each two of the three groups. In contrast to Factor 1, the means of the Japanese groups tended to be higher than the other two nationality groups for both EMs and NEMs. These Japanese groups were followed by the Chinese groups, and then by the Korean groups. Together with the results of Factor 1, it could be pointed out that the Korean groups were more instrumentally motivated, while the Japanese groups were more integratively motivated. The Chinese groups lay between these two nationality groups.

Table 12: Result of a 2-way ANOVA - Factor 2 English for deepening one's understanding of language and culture

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
country	62.389	2	31.194	97.695	0.000
EM	15.598	1	15.598	48.850	0.000
country * EM	1.562	2	0.781	2.446	0.087
Error	226.067	708	0.319		
Total	7,087.400	714			

Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
1	2	.4178(*)	0.000
	3	.7248(*)	0.000
2	1	-.4178(*)	0.000
	3	.3070(*)	0.000
3	1	-.7248(*)	0.000
	2	-.3070(*)	0.000

* P < .05

Factor 3 – English education

Factor 3 is concerned with whether teaching English should be emphasized as part of the education policy in the respondents' country. Only the Nationality variable resulted in a significant difference in group means. The result of the multiple comparisons indicates that the Korean respondents were significantly different from the Japanese and the Chinese respondents, where there was no identifiable difference between the latter two groups. Regardless of their majors, the Korean students tended to respect the importance of strengthening English education at school. An early introduction of English into elementary school curriculum was started in 1997 in Korea, so it is likely the case that emphasizing English education in their national policy is taken for granted in Korea.

Table 13: Result of a 2-way ANOVA - Factor 3 English education

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
country	13.805	2	6.902	12.752	0.000
EM	2.042	1	2.042	3.773	0.052
country * EM	2.167	2	1.083	2.001	0.136
Error	385.379	712	0.541		
Total	9,921.889	718			

Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
1	2	0.0622	1.000
	3	-.2563(*)	0.001
2	1	-0.0622	1.000
	3	-.3185(*)	0.000
3	1	.2563(*)	0.001
	2	.3185(*)	0.000

* P < .05

Factor 4 – NNS disadvantage

The result of the analysis for Factor 4 also yields a significant difference only in the Nationality variable, where the means of the Korean groups turned out to be highest, that of the Chinese groups next, and the Japanese groups lowest. Their major areas did not significantly affect the group difference.

Table 14: Result of a 2-way ANOVA - Factor 4 NNS disadvantage

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
country	50.729	2	25.364	60.476	0.000
EM	1.450	1	1.450	3.457	0.063
country * EM	0.610	2	0.305	0.727	0.484
Error	296.945	708	0.419		
Total	9,339.222	714			

Multiple Comparisons (Bonferroni)

(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
1	2	.2519(*)	0.000
	3	-.4077(*)	0.000
2	1	-.2519(*)	0.000
	3	-.6595(*)	0.000
3	1	.4077(*)	0.000
	2	.6595(*)	0.000

* P < .05

Factor 5 – NS admiration

Factor 5 is concerned with to what extent the EFL learners admired native English speakers as a teacher. The results of the ANOVA test revealed that significant difference was caused by neither the Nationality variable nor the Major variable. The means of the six groups presented in Table 10 are slightly higher than 3.0 (ranging from 3.32 to 3.58), which means that they considered native English teachers to be somewhat better (but not absolutely better) than their non-native counterparts.

Table 15: Result of a 2-way ANOVA - Factor 5 NS admiration

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
country	2.983	2	1.492	2.057	0.129
EM	0.000	1	0.000	0.000	0.991
country * EM	1.754	2	0.877	1.209	0.299
Error	515.718	711	0.725		
Total	8,988.500	717			

Factor 6 – International friendship

Finally, the ANOVA test was applied to Factor 6, which consists of questions about making friends overseas. Both the Nationality and Major variables showed a significant difference in this analysis, and there is also a significant interaction effect as presented in Table 16. The result of the multiple comparisons among the three groups shows that the difference was significant between the Japanese and the Chinese groups and between the Korean and the Chinese groups, but not between the Japanese and the Korean groups. The Japanese EM group scored an extremely high mean on this factor ($M = 4.20$), which was followed by the Korean EM group ($M = 3.79$). The means of the Chinese groups were much lower in both the EM group ($M = 3.34$) and the NEM group ($M = 3.41$)

Table 16: Result of a 2-way ANOVA - Factor 6 International friendship

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
country	22.502	2	11.251	18.803	0.000
EM	20.188	1	20.188	33.738	0.000
country * EM	22.403	2	11.201	18.719	0.000
Error	425.447	711	0.598		
Total	9,643.750	717			

(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
1	2	.3948(*)	0.000
	3	0.0999	0.537
2	1	-.3948(*)	0.000
	3	-.2949(*)	0.000
3	1	-0.0999	0.537
	2	.2949(*)	0.000

* P < .05

3. Final remarks

As stated in Introduction of this chapter, the results of the questionnaire survey, especially of the P questionnaire, have not been published yet, and they are to be presented at some academic conferences and/or through papers within a year or so. In the process, their restrictions and weakness have to be acknowledged. First of all, the collected data may not represent the population of EFL learners in the countries investigated because the questionnaire survey was conducted through the researchers' personal connections, not by randomly selecting respondents from these countries. Second, there would be a translation mismatch among the questionnaires. Strictly speaking, each questionnaire translated into the language of the target EFL learners should have been back-translated to the original questionnaire. Third, which is concerned only with the UJ questionnaire, the English varieties for the judgment task need to be carefully prepared. As reported above already, the Japanese and the Italian varieties were rated as being 'bad' by most respondents in terms of their comprehensibility and pronunciation. The speakers of these two recordings may have overemphasized their non-native accents in making their utterances according to the researcher's request. Fourth, a certain international collaboration would be ideal to conduct this kind of cross-cultural investigation. I have visited three countries in order to conduct the survey; however, it was by no means easy to do 'everything' within a limited amount of time. In addition, it cannot be denied that the limitation of my language ability in the EFL learners' native languages naturally restricted my activities for the data collection.

Despite such limitations, the results of the present exploratory study are full of invaluable implications for our language education and future studies. They are not conclusive at all, but I believe that our continued investigation into the different types of EFL learners will benefit us in terms of how we can consider the role of English as an international lingua franca in our globalizing world. Last but not least, I would like to express my gratitude to all the participants in this research project for giving a good chance for me and the members of the Prag-PEACE project to begin our journey to this end.

Appendix A

The actual questionnaires are available at the following websites:

English version: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/page.do?id=232>

Japanese version: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/page.do?id=214>

Italian version: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/page.do?id=202>

Chinese version: <http://prag.lang.hiroshima-cu.ac.jp/chauser/page.do?id=216>

Korean version: (Unavailable since this was conducted only in a paper format.)

Appendix B

Factor Analysis of Questionnaire Items (N=915)

Items	Factor Loadings						Communalities
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Q02	0.691						0.479
Q04	0.683						0.529
Q01	0.622						0.515
Q05	0.427						0.201
Q33		0.508					0.347
Q34		0.490					0.298
Q31		0.470					0.443
Q20		0.431					0.334
Q35		0.429					0.212
Q06			0.664				0.489
Q07			0.510				0.477
Q30			0.491				0.300
Q09				0.531			0.330
Q32				0.448			0.328
Q10				0.403			0.170
Q24					0.682		0.497
Q25					0.650		0.465
Q37						0.543	0.560
Q38						0.451	0.268
Expl. Var.	1.980	1.942	1.612	1.519	1.109	1.071	

Complaining Appropriately and Effectively in English: Further Findings of the Evaluation Study

Carol RINNERT

Introduction

The paper “Preferred Complaint Strategies in Japanese and English” by Rinnert, Nogami and Iwai (2006, Paper 2 in Chapter 2 of this report) presents two stages of a large-scale cross-cultural study of English and Japanese complaints. As explained in that paper, the second stage of the study aimed to determine the effects of the three factors of *components*, *directness*, and *mitigation* on judgments of appropriateness and effectiveness of English complaints in two situations differing mainly in terms of the relationship between the speakers (student to professor and roommate to roommate). In that second stage, an on-line questionnaire elicited judgments and comments from native and fluent English speakers (N = 31) and compared them with judgments by Japanese EFL learners (N = 40). In this supplement to that paper, further analysis of the data from that on-line questionnaire will be presented in order to look more closely at the specific complaint formulations from the study. The goal will be to determine (1) which complaint strategies the two groups agreed were most and least appropriate and effective, and (2) which formulas could prove problematic because the two groups reported widely different perceptions of their appropriateness and effectiveness. Finally, a few directions for future research will be suggested.

Method of Analysis

In this paper, the basic statistical findings will be examined and interpreted in light of the optional comments offered by the members of the two groups. Appendixes 1 and 2 present complete lists of the complaint formulations tested in this study, with a breakdown of the categories of components, directness and mitigation for each, along with the group mean judgment scores for appropriateness and effectiveness. The complaints for Situation 1 (the Professor situation), consisting of a student complaining to a professor about an unexpectedly low grade, are shown in Appendix 1; those for Situation 2 (the Friend situation), where one roommate is complaining about the late-night noisiness of the other roommate, are shown in Appendix 2. In both lists, the 12 systematically constructed complaints are presented in the following order: numbers 1 to 4 contain Complaint components alone, the first two Direct, the second two Indirect, 1 and 3 being Unmitigated, and 2 and 4, Mitigated; numbers 5 to 8 contain Request components alone, following the same order for directness and mitigation as the first four; and numbers 9 to 12 contain both Complaint and Request components, given in the same order again. The remaining four complaint formulations in both Appendixes, which served as ‘distractors’ for the statistical analysis, are also considered in terms of what

they can contribute to the goals of the study. (See Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai, 2006, for detailed descriptions of the situations and procedures.)

Professor Situation

As reported in Rinnert, Nogami and Iwai (2006), in the Professor situation, indirectness and mitigation both strongly influenced the judgments of acceptability and effectiveness. For both groups overall, in complaints to a Professor, indirect strategies were more acceptable and effective than direct ones, and mitigated were much more acceptable and effective than unmitigated ones. Regarding the choice of components, there was found to be interaction between component and directness, in that Indirect Complaint and Complaint + Request strategies were judged more appropriate and somewhat more effective than Direct ones, but Indirect Request strategies were not judged to be much more appropriate or effective than Direct ones.

Most Appropriate and Effective Formulations

Looking at the individual formulations, the most socially appropriate complaint formula in this study for the NFES group (4.35) was the following Indirect, Mitigated Complaint formula:

- (1) *Professor Suzuki, I was wondering about my final grade. I'm a little confused because I thought I had done somewhat better.* (Appendix 1, number 4)

Members of the group commented that this formula was polite and deferential, although a few suggested that it would have been better with a greeting, and two said it was a little vague.

The JEFL group also rated this formula relatively high (3.69), but slightly preferred the comparable combination of Complaint + Request formulation (3.83), which was also judged highly appropriate by the NFES group (4.23):

- (2) *Professor Suzuki, I was wondering about my final grade. I'm a little confused because I thought I had done somewhat better. If possible could we go over the grades together?* (Appendix 1, number 12)

Both groups said this formula showed respect to the teacher, and the NFES group praised it as being non-confrontational. However, 4 out of 15 NFES commenters said that it was inappropriate for a student to suggest going over the grades together with a teacher, because they are not equals.

For both groups the highest scores for effectiveness (NFES: 4.07; JEFL: 4.13), and the highest score for appropriateness among the JEFL group (4.21), were given to the following distractor:

- (3) *Excuse me, Professor Suzuki. Sorry to bother you, but I was hoping to discuss my final grade. I put a lot of effort into your class and enjoyed it very, very much. But I was rather surprised and disappointed with the grade. Perhaps we could look at it briefly together?* (Appendix 1, number 16)

This formula, which is indirect and mitigated, includes a number of additional politeness

strategies, including an initiator in the form of an apology (*sorry to bother you*) and positive politeness in the form of a compliment (referring to the class as enjoyable). Here again the NFES group commented that it was very polite and non-confrontational, and the JEFL group said that it was a good way to speak to older people, and the professor would be willing to discuss the problem sincerely. On the negative side, a few people in both groups suggested it was a bit verbose and could be simplified or made “more to the point,” and 5/16 of the NFES group mentioned a problem of inappropriateness for a student to suggest to a teacher that they look at the grades together, because of their unequal status.

Potential problems of specific formulation of the request aside, these results support the conclusion that indirectness and mitigation raise the level of appropriateness and effectiveness of complaints. They also suggest that adding negative and positive politeness (e.g., apologizing/excusing and complimenting) may raise the level of effectiveness even further.

Least Appropriate and Effective Formulations

For both groups, the worst complaint formula in this study was the following very direct, unmitigated complaint distractor (respective scores for appropriateness and effectiveness: NFES: 1.29, 1.33; JEFL: 1.68, 1.78):

- (4) *Professor Suzuki, I don't understand why you gave me a C. Did you make a mistake?*
(Appendix 1, number 13)

Comments by the NFES group stressed that it was rude and confrontational, and those by the JEFL group emphasized the problem of blaming the teacher unilaterally.

Among the 12 experimentally manipulated formulas, the two lowest for both groups were the Direct, Unmitigated Complaint (NEFS: 1.87, 2.03; JEFL: 1.95, 2.26):

- (5) *Professor Suzuki, I don't understand why my grade is a C. There must have been a mistake.* (Appendix 1, number 1)

and the Direct Unmitigated Complaint + Request (NEFS: 1.84, 1.80; JEFL: 2.13, 2.43):

- (6) *Professor Suzuki, I don't understand why my grade is a C. There must have been a mistake. Please explain why I got a C.* (Appendix 1, number 9)

Again, the comments from both groups emphasized the rudeness of these formulations, with the NFES group complaining that they were confrontational and harsh, and the JEFL group criticizing the idea of pointing out the professor's mistake.

Clearly, direct, unmitigated complaint formulations are perceived by both groups as threatening to a higher status interlocutor, and thus inappropriate and ineffective.

Potentially Problematic Formulas

Two of the complaint formulas are potentially problematic because they were judged as much more acceptable by JEFL than NFES evaluators. The relatively large differences in these evaluations suggest that the formulations could cause offense to native/fluent English teachers if used by English learners who consider them acceptable.

The first of these potentially problematic complaints was a Direct, Mitigated Request

formulation:

(7) *Professor Suzuki, I would like to discuss my final grade with you. I was hoping you could explain why I got a C.* (Appendix 1, number 6)

Both the appropriateness and particularly the effectiveness judgments for this item were substantially higher for the JEFL (3.53, 3.80) than for the NFES (2.87, 2.8) groups. Only one of the JEFL group made a slightly negative comment that it seemed to be insisting too strongly to mention the 'C' grade. In contrast, 8 out of the 14 NFES group members who made comments said that it was too demanding, pushy, or inappropriate because of the status difference, although 2 others mentioned that the softeners (mitigation) were good, and one said it was less friendly and more businesslike than some of the other formulations, but showed respect for the teacher's time.

The second possibly problematic formula was the unmitigated version of the same formulation:

(8) *Professor Suzuki, I want to discuss my final grade with you. Please explain why I got a C.* (Appendix 1, number 5)

While the scores for this unmitigated version were much lower for both groups, the JEFL group scores (2.93, 3.18) were again much higher than those for the NFES group (1.93, 2.20). A total of 14/17 of the NFES group criticized this formula as being too direct and demanding. A number of the JEFL group made critical comments, as well, for example, by saying that the students should show respect before making the complaint or that an apology was needed first, or by pointing out that it was a bit rude to an older person because it would be better to use "could you" rather than just "please". These comments, along with the lower mean scores, can be considered a sign of acquisition among these learners of the pragmatic value of mitigation.

Two other complaint formulas in this situation could be considered potentially problematic, but in these cases the evaluations were higher for the NFES group than the JEFL one. With these strategies, there is little danger that the learners would offend others, but there could be a risk that they might be offended or confused by native/fluent speakers' use of these complaints.

The first of these possibly problematic discrepancies concerns an Indirect, Unmitigated Complaint component formula:

(9) *Professor Suzuki, I am curious about my final grade. I'm confused because I thought I had done better.* (Appendix 1, number 7)

Whereas the NFES group evaluated this formula very highly (4.03, 3.60), the JEFL scores were much lower (2.89, 2.78). Among the NFES group, 10/14 commenters said it was polite and non-threatening, although 2 said it was a little vague. On the other hand, JEFL comments criticized it as being too abrupt and suggested that it would be better to ask the reason for the grade before complaining.

The second member of this category was a distractor, which was similarly an Indirect, Unmitigated Complaint component formulation that contained an adjunct expressing positive

politeness:

(10) *Professor Suzuki, I was in your class and I truly enjoyed your lectures and the overall atmosphere of the class. However, I am concerned about the final grade I received.*

(Appendix 1, number 15)

For this formula, the discrepancy between the two groups was not as striking (NFES: 4.16, 3.75; JEFL: 3.30, 2.95), but it does represent a difference in mean scores of almost a full point for both appropriateness and effectiveness, representing two of the highest scores for the NFES group, but only middle scores for the JEFL evaluators. In their comments, both groups said it was a good start, but the only slightly negative comments by the NFES group mentioned that it could be seen as “buttering up” the teacher, whereas the negative JEFL comments criticized the indirect formula for “not saying what they really want to say.”

These latter two formulas may relate to a difference in classroom cultures, particularly with respect to the roles and responsibilities of teachers and students. As was suggested in an earlier study (Rinnert & Iwai, 2003), many native English speakers appear to prefer a “hint” formulation when complaining to a teacher, both because they wish to avoid appearing too pushy and because they would expect teachers in this kind of institutional situation to fulfill their responsibility by offering to check the accuracy of the grading. Such assumptions regarding the expected behavior of teachers and students may differ in Japanese educational contexts, where, for example, hints could possibly be seen as carrying more negative nuances (e.g., of veiled criticism) than a more explicit request to explain the grading would imply.

Friend Situation

According to the analysis presented in Rinnert, Nogami and Iwai (2006), the overall findings in the Friend situation were found to differ rather markedly from those in the Professor situation. The results were similar in that mitigation generally raised the level of both appropriateness and effectiveness in both situations. However, unlike the Professor situation, in the Friend situation directness was found to be more appropriate and effective than indirectness for both groups, and complaint strategies that included Requests were judged more effective than those without Requests. Thus, it would appear that in complaints between status equals, a more direct approach to seeking a resolution of the problem is expected.

Most Appropriate and Effective Formulations

For the friend situation, the formula that the NFES group judged by far the most appropriate (4.45) and effective (4.10) was the following distractor, which consists of a direct, mitigated request and a reason (grounders) to support the request:

(11) *Kani/Ken, could I possibly ask you to be a little quieter when you come in after 11:30? I'm usually asleep before then, and I sometimes wake up when you come home.* (Appendix 2, number 13)

Their comments mentioned that it was rather direct, but clear and polite. (This formula will be discussed further below, under Potentially Problematic Complaints.)

The second most appropriate formula for the NFES group (3.77), which was also judged as relatively appropriate by the JEFL group (3.65) was the following direct, mitigated Request:

(12) *Kani/Ken, I was hoping you'd try to be a little more quiet when you come in at night.*

The highest score on appropriateness by the JEFL group (3.78) and the second highest scores on effectiveness for both groups (NFES: 3.59, JEFL: 3.63) were given to the following Direct, Mitigated Complaint + Request formula:

(13) *Kani/Ken, it seems you've been making a little too much noise at night recently. I was hoping you'd try to be a little more quiet when you come in at night.* (Appendix 2, number 10)

However, both groups made some negative comments on this formulations. Some of the NFES group pointed out that “seems like” was too indirect or said that the complaint sounded “judgmental” or “preachy,” whereas several of the JEFL group thought it was not strong enough.

Overall, these results reinforce the findings reported earlier that in this status-equal complaint situation, directness is much more effective and also more appropriate than indirectness; mitigation generally raises the level of both appropriateness and effectiveness; and requests are more effective than complaints. Moreover, they suggest that giving a reason (ground) for a request may raise the appropriateness and effectiveness even more, at least for native/fluent English speakers.

Least Appropriate Formulations

Although the groups did not agree on the most inappropriate and ineffective complaint formulas among the test items (which will be discussed in the following section), both groups did give equally low scores to two of the distractors. The first one was the following very indirect, unmitigated expression:

(14) *Oh, wow, Kani/Ken! Look at the time. I guess it must be quiet time!* (Appendix 2, number 14)

The NFES speaker commenters (10/15) said that it sounded sarcastic, treated the hearer like a child or someone stupid, or was too indirect/annoying/standoffish. Similarly, one of the JEFL commenters said that they did not like to be talked to like this, whereas another said it was okay for a friend, and a third thought that it was not offensive, but perhaps was not clear enough.

The second was the following indirect, unmitigated complaint, which both groups said they found too indirect, but also potentially too intrusive:

(15) *Kani/Ken, I thought we agreed not to make any noise after 11:30? What have you been up to lately? Coming back kind of late?* (Appendix 2, number 15)

These judgments and comments support the findings reported earlier that too much

indirectness is not appropriate or effective in complaints among status equals.

Potentially Problematic Complaints

For three of the complaint formulations, the judgments by the Japanese learners were substantially higher than those by the native/fluent English speakers and thus could lead to misunderstandings across the two groups. Potentially most seriously, for the NFES group the following Indirect, Unmitigated Complaint + Request was judged least appropriate (2.81) and least effective (2.1) of the 12 test items for the Friend situation, whereas the JEFLL group rated this item relatively high in both appropriateness (3.41) and effectiveness (3.23):

(16) *Kani/Ken, did you forget our agreement recently? Can you keep our agreement in mind?* (Appendix 2, number 11)

A majority of the NFES comments (9/13) stated that it was too direct, patronizing and/or critical, and 4/13 said it was too vague. In contrast, the JEFLL group made no negative comments about it.

Second, the following Direct, Unmitigated Complaint + Request formulation received the second highest ranking for appropriateness and the highest for effectiveness among the JEFLL group (both 3.74), whereas it was rated lower on both scales by the NFES group (3.42 and 3.31, respectively):

(17) *Kani/Ken, you've been making too much noise at night recently. Please be quiet when you come in at night.* (Appendix 2, number 9)

The comments by both groups showed some ambivalence, but those by the JEFLL group were more positive, saying mainly that it was good and simple, though one suggested it was too straightforward and another that it could advocate more strongly. While half of the NFES (5/10) comments were positive, characterizing it as "straight adult-to-adult talk" or appropriate among friends, three said it sounded somewhat rude/accusatory, and two said it sounded like something a mother would say to a child.

Third, the following Direct, Mitigated Complaint was considered more acceptable by the learners than the native/fluent speakers.

(18) *Kani/Ken, it seems you've been making a little too much noise at night recently.* (Appendix 2, number 2)

In their comments, both groups criticized the use of "it seems" as too indirect, but only the NFES group (2/14) stated that it sounded too judgmental.

In contrast with the preceding formulas, the one discrepant case where the NFES scores were substantially higher than those of the JEFLL group was the following distractor, which was presented above as the most favored choice of the NFES group:

(19) *Kani/Ken, could I possibly ask you to be a little quieter when you come in after 11:30? I'm usually asleep before then, and I sometimes wake up when you come home.* (Appendix 2, number 13)

Although the JEFLL group gave this formula fairly positive scores (3.44 and 3.25 for appropriateness and effectiveness, respectively), it was not among their strongest choices.

As mentioned above, the NFES comments described it as clear and polite, whereas the JEFLL group suggested that it would be better to mention the promise made. The reason for this large discrepancy is unclear. One Japanese participant in the Australian conference where these results were presented suggested that the first person focus of this formula may not be as comfortable for Japanese speakers as a second person focus would be, an insight that appears to accord with the findings of other studies that have found a preference among native English speakers for speaker-oriented strategies as opposed to a preference among Japanese speakers for hearer-oriented ones (e.g., Iwai & Rinnert, 2001; Zamborlin, 2004). This possibility requires further investigation.

Conclusion

For continued future study of complaint formulations, a number of key issues need to be resolved. First, given that intonation can easily affect the appropriateness and effectiveness of a complaint, voice recordings should be incorporated in this type of study. Second, the choice of specific content of the complaint formulas needs to be refined, and alternative formulations tested. For example, as mentioned above, in the Professor situation, a number of NFES teachers objected to the indirect request formulation (*can we go over the grades together*) corresponding to the more direct one (*please explain why I got a C*), on the grounds that it was socially inappropriate for a student to ask a professor to go over the professor's grade sheet. Third, based on the comments from participants, the contribution of adjuncts/supporting moves ought to be explored. It would appear that longer initiators, grounders (reasons) for requests and/or positive politeness markers (e.g., compliments) might improve the appropriateness and effectiveness of the complaints in this study.

Once these issues are dealt with, it should be possible to use the findings to create on-line teaching materials. It is hoped that such materials might be used to raise learners' pragmatic awareness of complaint strategies and the consequences of their use in particular situations.

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Appendix 1

PROFESSOR SITUATION

Complaint Item	Comp	Dir	Mit	NFES Scores		JEFL Scores	
				Acc	Eff	Acc	Eff
SYSTEMATICALLY CONSTRUCTED FORMULAS							
1. Professor Suzuki, I don't understand why my grade is a C. There must have been a mistake. (1-5)*	C	D	U	1.87	2.03	1.95	2.26
2. Professor Suzuki, I don't quite understand why my grade is a C. I think there might have been a mistake. (1-15)	C	D	M	2.55	2.43	2.28	2.35
3. Professor Suzuki, I'm curious about my final grade. I'm confused because I thought I had done better. (1-6)	C	I	U	4.03	3.60	2.89	2.78
4. Professor Suzuki, I was wondering about my final grade. I'm a little confused because I thought I had done somewhat better. (1-1)	C	I	M	4.35	3.68	3.69	3.24
5. Professor Suzuki, I want to discuss my final grade with you. Please explain why I got a C. (1-3)	R	D	U	1.93	2.20	2.93	3.18
6. Professor Suzuki, I would like to discuss my final grade with you. I was hoping you could explain why I got a C. (1-9)	R	D	M	2.87	2.80	3.53	3.80
7. Professor Suzuki, I hope to acquire some information on my final grade. Can we go over the grades together? (1-16)	R	I	U	3.06	2.97	3.12	2.97
8. Professor Suzuki, I was hoping to acquire some information on my final grade. If possible, could we go over the grades together? (1-14)	R	I	M	3.71	3.40	3.53	3.29
9. Professor Suzuki, I don't understand why my grade is a C. There must have been a mistake. Please explain why I got a C. (1-12)	CR	D	U	1.84	1.80	2.13	2.43
10. Professor Suzuki, I don't quite understand why my grade is a C. I think there might have been a mistake. I was hoping you could explain why I got a C. (1-2)	CR	D	M	2.55	2.43	2.28	2.35
11. Professor Suzuki, I'm curious about my final grade. I'm confused because I thought I had done better. Can we go over the grades together? (1-8)	CR	I	U	3.60	3.40	3.00	3.11
12. Professor Suzuki, I was wondering about my final grade. I'm a little confused because I thought I had done somewhat better. If possible, could we go over the grades together? (1-10)	CR	I	M	4.23	3.90	3.83	3.88
OTHER FORMULAS (DISTRACTORS)							
13. Professor Suzuki, I don't understand why you gave me a C. Did you make a mistake? (1-11)	C	D	U	1.29	1.33	1.68	1.78
14. Professor Suzuki, I don't quite understand why my grade is a C. I think there might have been a mistake. I was hoping you could explain why I got a C. (1-7)	C	I	U	3.84	2.87	2.62	2.33
15. Professor Suzuki, I was in your class and I truly enjoyed your lectures and the overall atmosphere of the class. However, I am concerned about the final grade I received. (1-13)	C	I	U	4.16	3.75	3.30	2.95
16. Excuse me, Professor Suzuki, Sorry to bother you, but I was hoping to discuss my final grade, I put a lot of effort into your class and enjoyed it very, very much. But I was rather surprised and disappointed with the grade. Perhaps we could look at it briefly together? (1-4)	CR	I	M	4.23	4.07	4.21	4.13

NFES = Native and fluent English speakers; JEFL = Japanese university English learners (intermediate proficiency level)

Acc = Mean acceptability score; Eff = Mean effectiveness score

C = Complaint, R = Request, D = Direct, I = Indirect, U = Unmitigated, M = Mitigated

*(number on the original questionnaire)

Appendix 2

FRIEND SITUATION

Complaint Item	Comp	Dir	Mit	NFES Scores		JEFL Scores	
				Acc	Eff	Acc	Eff
SYSTEMATICALLY CONSTRUCTED FORMULAS							
1. Kani/Ken, you've been making too much noise at night recently. (2-9)*	C	D	U	3.00	2.86	3.16	3.10
2. Kani/Ken, it seems you've been making a little too much noise at night recently. (2-13)	C	D	M	3.13	2.79	3.41	3.21
3. Kani/Ken, did you forget our agreement recently? (2-12)	C	I	U	2.90	2.24	2.97	2.70
4. Kani/Ken, I've been wondering if you might have forgotten our agreement recently? (2-8)	C	I	M	3.32	2.38	3.00	2.76
5. Kani/Ken, please be quiet when you come in at night. (2-4)	R	D	U	3.36	3.07	3.38	2.95
6. Kani/Ken, I was hoping you'd try to be a little more quiet when you come in at night. (2-1)	R	D	M	3.77	3.3	3.65	3.30
7. Kani/Ken, can you keep our agreement in mind? (2-10)	R	I	U	2.87	2.36	2.98	2.53
8. Kani/Ken, if possible, could you try to keep our agreement in mind? (2-6)	R	I	M	3.48	2.69	3.15	2.58
9. Kani/Ken, you've been making too much noise at night recently. Please be quiet when you come in. (2-16)	CR	D	U	3.42	3.31	3.74	3.74
10. Kani/Ken, it seems you've been making a little too much noise at night recently. I was hoping you'd try to be a little more quiet when you come in at night. (2-14)	CR	D	M	3.52	3.59	3.78	3.63
11. Kani/Ken, did you forget our agreement recently? Can you keep our agreement in mind? (2-5)	CR	I	U	2.81	2.10	3.41	3.23
12. Kani/Ken, I've been wondering if you might have forgotten our agreement recently? If possible, could you try to keep our agreement in mind? (2-3)	CR	I	M	3.32	2.63	3.38	3.15
OTHER FORMULAS (DISTRACTORS)							
13. Kani/Ken, could I possibly ask you to be a little quieter when you come in after 11:30? I'm usually asleep before then, and I sometimes wake up when you come home. (1-11)	R	D	M	4.45	4.10	3.44	3.25
14. Oh, wow, Kani/Ken! Look at the time. I guess it must be quiet time! (2-11)	C?	I	M	3.00	2.28	2.70	2.65
15. Kani/Ken, I thought we agreed not to make any noise after 11:30? What have you been up to lately? Coming back kind of late? (2-15)	C	I	U	2.65	2.76	2.97	2.89
16. Kani/Ken, what time is it now? Ah, I thought our deal initially was no loud noise after 11:30 p.m.? Maybe if you really need to work out something, would you mind just lowering down your volume a bit for the sake of our neighbors and also for me? (2-2)	CR	I	M	3.29	2.75	3.18	3.18

NFES = Native and fluent English speakers; JEFL = Japanese university English learners (intermediate proficiency level)

Acc = Mean acceptability score; Eff = Mean effectiveness score

C = Complaint, R = Request, D = Direct, I = Indirect, U = Unmitigated, M = Mitigated

*(number on the original questionnaire)

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英語学習者の語用論的能力育成に関する
多元的情報サイトの構築

**Construction of a Multi-information Site
Related to English Learners' Pragmatic Competence**

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