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THE ENGLISH OF JAPANESE BUSINESSMEN
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ABSTRACT AND KEY WORDS

1 INTRODUCTION, METHODS AND AIM

Language is born within a group, within its community or its society, designed primarily to serve and fulfill all of its communication needs. It is also an extremely powerful means of both unifying the group of its origin and, at the same time, making it distinct and standing apart from all others. During its life, a group, community or society undergoes a constant process of changing, which is also reflected in its language changes as well. Actually, the only thing that is consistent in a language is change. When a language stops changing, it becomes purely academic or limited to a special use, for example, in religious rites, literature or science.

As a group, community or society comes into contact with other groups, communities and societies, so do their languages, too. Any number and manner of infinite variety of items can be shared in such contacts, from simple material products to actual ideas and abstract concepts, all of which come packed up in a language of a giving group, community or society. There are some languages spoken by just a few thousand of (mainly elderly) speakers and there are languages called “*the major* languages of economic and political power, such as English, Mandarin Chinese, Spanish, and a few more with millions of speakers each” (Anderson 2010: 1).

Out of the enormous number of the world’s languages, this paper will focus on English, *the* language of the world today, and Japanese, a language which is even today still somewhat mysterious and really not fully understandable to non-Japanese circles.

So what does actually happen with or to English when it encounters such a distant language, not only geographically, but orthographically and lexically as well? What happens if that other language does not even belong to the Indo-European language family or, like Japanese, to any known language family at all?

Is the world domination of the English language strong enough to make the receiving language, in this case Japanese, adapt and bend to its rules or is English going to adapt in the new language and social surrounding?

Can or does English nevertheless actually influence the receiving Japanese language and to what extent or is it vice versa, the Japanese language influencing English, a possible or even the more probable outcome?

Or is there something completely new born in the process?

After a brief outline based on various written materials of the English and the Japanese languages *per se*, this paper will explore and answer these questions on the basis of a case

study where patterns were detected in interviews by three high ranking Japanese businessmen speaking English. It will illustrate what happens on the phonological, lexical, grammatical and semantical level, as well as outline what happens with rhythm, discourse and pragmatics of the English language when spoken by Japanese speakers.

Combining the two methods and approaches above, the results will show that, despite its absolute domination in all spheres and areas of today's communication across the world, English nevertheless gets so adapted by Japanese speakers that the resulting English really cannot be classified as any traditionally known variety of English any more. It is therefore likely that the usage of a newly-coined word, such as *Japlish*, is very much in order if we wish to clearly describe the result of these two languages' interaction.

2 ENGLISH IN JAPAN

This section will in most general terms deal with the origin and development of the Japanese language and outline the status of and the need for improving the English language competence in Japan.

2.1 THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF JAPANESE

Much about the roots of the Japanese language is unclear. According to the most widely accepted theory, Japanese is a *language isolate*, i.e., it is not related to any other language and cannot be placed into any currently existing language family. It is, therefore, the only major world language whose genetic affiliation is not known (Shibatani 2017).

Various linguists and numerous hypotheses have been trying to connect Japanese to the language groups of South Asia, such as the Austronesian, the Austroasiatic, and the Tibeto-Burman family of the Sino-Tibetan languages. According to an increasingly popular theory, during the prehistoric Jōmon era (c. 10 500 to c. 300 B.C.), a language of southern origin with a phonological system similar to those of Austronesian languages was spoken in Japan. The strongest hypothesis currently is the one relating Japanese to a language of southern Korea, through contacts with Yayoi culture way back around 300 B.C. Seeing that the migration from Korea was relatively small, the new language did not eradicate the existing language, but did influence it to a certain extent (Shibatani 2017).

The first clearly notable and permanent contact and influence on Japan was made by China between the ninth and thirteenth centuries through the spread of Buddhism. Then,

between the fourteenth and sixteenth centuries, Japan came into contact with European languages and cultures through Christian missionaries. However, their influence was rather restricted, due to historical and political reasons of military conflicts and general unrest on the Japanese islands, and had instead caused the creation of a national policy of isolation from 1640 to 1853 (Morrow 1987).

In 1853, American Commodore Matthew Perry landed with his fleet in Edo Bay and the Treaty of Kanagawa (*Japan-US Treaty of Peace and Amity*) was forced onto Japan. This event, however, had marked the beginning of a new period in Japan's history. During the Meiji Era (1868 - 1912), the Japanese government realized that there was a need for industrialization and adoption of western technology in Japan as well. Trade, commercial and diplomatic ties were established, Japanese scholars were sent abroad for further education and foreign experts were brought to Japan (Morrow 1987). The Meiji reformation in 1868 included the establishment of a dominant national language to replace regional dialects. The *hyōjungo* dialect became the standard language, based upon the linguistic patterns of Tokyo's warrior classes (Shibatani 2017). Education reform was also initiated, making education available on a broader scale. Even though the government had supported these innovations and influences, it was careful not to let them affect Japanese traditions and way of thinking (Morrow 1987).

This new policy of openness to western influences was, of course, reflected in the Japanese language as well, which received a great influx of English loanwords. Since then, there has been a steady flow of English words into Japanese. This trend was interrupted by occasional periods of resistance caused by bursts of national awareness or unmasked nationalism, especially during the 1930s and 1940s, marked by the attempts to purify the Japanese language from all foreign forms. Since the end of the Second World War, however, English has returned to Japan again, due to the country's rapid and strong industrial growth after the war destruction and the resultant increase in trade relations, rise in general standard of living and educational opportunities (Morrow 1987).

Today, Japanese is one of the world's major languages, with more than 127 million speakers. It is primarily spoken in Japan, but there are also around 1.5 million Japanese immigrants and their descendants living abroad, mainly in North and South America, who have varying degrees of proficiency in Japanese. Since the mid-twentieth century, no nation other than Japan has used Japanese as a first or second language (Shibatani 2017).

2.2 THE STATUS OF ENGLISH IN JAPAN

Japan is placed in the Expanding Circle of English, i.e. among the countries where English is used for all kinds of purposes, however without any official status. Also, English in Japan is a foreign language and perhaps, at best, a *lingua franca* in which a great majority of Japanese people should be able to easily communicate with foreigners in the lack of another mutually understandable common language.

According to the categorization by Kachru (1983, 1986) (as paraphrased in Morrow 1987), the English language spoken in Japan has a very limited functional range. English is used for teaching and learning, but to a very limited extent. Its regulative function is practically non-existent, as is its interpersonal function. English is used for communication between speakers of different languages in only a few domains. English in Japan serves a communicative function only in the use of English loanwords in advertising. On the other hand, the number of users of English spoken in Japan is not limited at all, seeing that English loanwords are used by speakers of all classes in almost all registers. As far as the last three characteristics are concerned, there is practically no significant literature in Japan written in English (with the exception, of course, of scientific studies and articles aiming at international acceptance), neither well-defined nor any kind of defined endocentric norms exist for the usage of English in Japan, and English most definitely has no official status in Japan. All these facts support the view that English in Japan is not an institutionalized variety but rather that it is moving more towards being a performance variety (Morrow 1987).

2.3 ATTEMPTS AT MAKING ENGLISH AN OFFICIAL LANGUAGE IN JAPAN

The great importance of English in Japan and the almost painful awareness of the Japanese people of its importance can perhaps be seen best in the fact that there have been several proposals to make English an official language in Japan.

The first one was suggested in 1872 by Arinori Mori, the first Japanese diplomat in the United States. His proposal was based on the idea that Japan needs to adopt a language which would be better suited for the necessities of the growing Empire (Tukahara 2002).

The last proposal to that effect was made in January 2000 by the Advisory panel to then Prime Minister Obuchi. This proposal suggested that all citizens should acquire a working knowledge of English and that the government and public institutions should use it alongside Japanese for their publications and similar documents (Takeshita 2010). Both of these proposals view the language “as a tool for the State strategy and are lacking therefore of a linguistics rights background.” (Tukahara 2002: 1)

2.4 THE NEED FOR ENGLISH IN JAPAN

Despite the fact that English in Japan is neither an institutionalized variety nor an official language and along the above view expressed by Tukahara of a language being used as a tool for national strategy, English is still viewed as an essential skill needed in today's world. Philip Seargeant points to a part of the Japanese government's policy document on the nation's *Goals in the twenty-first century* which describes the attitude towards English:

The advance of globalization and the information-technology revolution call for a world-class level of excellence. Achieving world-class excellence demands that, in addition to mastering information technology, all Japanese acquire a working knowledge of English – not as simply a foreign language but as the international *lingua franca*. English in this sense is a prerequisite for obtaining global information, expressing intentions, and sharing values.

(Seargeant 2012: 29)

In accordance with this attitude, various projects have been initiated concerning Japan's internationalization.

In 2003, a tourism promotion project called the *Visit Japan Campaign* started in order to balance the number of outgoing tourists with the number of incoming ones. This campaign promotes Japan's attractiveness as a tourist destination. Therefore, once foreign tourists come to Japan, Japanese citizens will have to communicate with them, mostly in English, which in turn should be perceived as a motivating factor for Japanese speakers to learn English (Takeshita 2010).

Another project has been the establishment of *The Japan International Broadcasting Inc.* (JIBtv) in April 2008. The main goal of this project has been the improvement of visibility of Japan in the world and providing a better understanding of the country. JIBtv transmits 24-hour programming in English and reaches some 110 million households throughout the world (Takeshita 2010).

2.5 ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH IN JAPAN

English started to be taught in schools in Japan in 1872. Since then, it has become an integral part of the curricula and the number one foreign language taught in schools (Takeshita 2010).

The first contact Japanese children have with English within compulsory education used to be in primary school, during a lesson called a 'Period of Integrated Study' in which they have educational activities using English (Takeshita 2010).

However, according to Takeshita, by April 2011, English was introduced to all primary schools as a required subject for the fifth and sixth grades (2010). All students at junior high school (age 12 to 15) must learn some foreign language, which is in most cases English. A similar situation happens in senior high school, where students (age 15 to 18) must continue to study a foreign language. Moreover, university students (age 18 and up) have to learn two foreign languages, one of which usually is again English (Tukahara 2002).

Even though the percentage of students continuing on to higher education in Japan is relatively high, their English proficiency upon graduation is not as high as expected. This unfortunate situation has caused curriculum revisions, suggestions for better teacher-training programs and improved methods and learning materials as well as the call for the reliance on non-Japanese teachers of English (Takeshita 2010).

All of this clearly shows the awareness of the need for free and easy communication with the world in Japan, which cannot be fully realized in its native, Japanese language. Therefore, a strong emphasis is placed on English learning and the development of better English proficiency, which is seen as a tool to realize Japan's constant wish to increase its international presence (Takeshita 2010).

As even basic general knowledge has it, Japan today is one of the world's top countries in any number of fields and domains - economic, political, financial, scientific, technological and so on. Despite the tremendous power that Japan has been accumulating since the Second World War, it is also obvious that English, not its native language, Japanese, plays a vital role and is of utmost importance in Japan's ability to communicate with the world.

3 LINGUISTIC CHARACTERISTICS AND COMPARISON BETWEEN ENGLISH AND JAPANESE

English and Japanese show rather significant differences in their origin, development, expansion and consequent enrichment from the resultant language contacts. These differences can most easily be seen on the lexical level, but can also be detected in their syntax (for expressing complex tenses, aspect and mood, as well as passive constructions, interrogatives and some negation), and usage of accent and intonation. However, the most striking differences are orthography (writing and reading); a complex system of honorifics in Japanese (with verb forms and vocabulary to indicate the relative status of the speaker, the listener and the persons mentioned); sentence-final particles (which are in Japanese used to add emotional

or emphatic impact, or make questions), as well as a significant usage of onomatopoeic expression in Japanese.

The following section will outline the differences in more details.

3.1 PHONOLOGY

Simply speaking, as far as phonology is concerned, Japanese has five pure vowel sounds that may be short or long. The syllable structure is simple, generally with the vowel sound preceded by one of fifteen or so consonant sounds, depending on the phonological interpretation. There are only a few complex consonant sound combinations in the Japanese language (Shoebottom, esl.fis.edu/grammar/langdiff/japanese.htm).

3.1.1 VOWELS

Two main differences between the English and Japanese vowel systems can be found in the number of vowels and in the tense/lax distinctions.

There are twelve pure vowels in English and up to nine diphthongs, depending on rhoticity (cf. Cruttenden 2008). Japanese, on the other hand, has only five pure vowels. Although these numbers can vary depending on the analysis, it is obvious that the English vocalic system is more complex than the Japanese one, which can possibly cause some problems for Japanese speakers of English, who are not accustomed to making so many distinctions between vowels.

As far as the other main differences in the vocalic systems are concerned, English makes a distinction between tense and lax vowels, while in Japanese, vowels are differentiated only as being long or short. Referring to Ladefoged (1982), Ohata (2004: 4) notes that the production of tense and lax vowels depends on “how much muscle tension or movement in the mouth is involved in producing vowels.” In English, there are tense/lax vowel pairs such as /i/ (as in ‘eat’) and /ɪ/ (as in ‘it’). Although Japanese has long vowels, they cannot be compared to tense vowels in English since the long vowels in Japanese are not always contrastive in nature, but convey some other features essential for the Japanese language (such as, politeness and respect, i.e., Japanese use longer forms to show respect towards ones interlocutor). It is obvious that not correctly producing or hearing the tense/lax vowel differences can lead to misunderstandings or miscommunications between Japanese speakers and native speakers of English.

3.1.2 CONSONANTS

The comparison of the consonant systems of English and Japanese will reveal that there are both similarities and differences between these two languages.

Japanese has a similar set of oral stops as in English, i.e. /p, b, t, d, k, g/. One difference is that the voiceless stops are not aspirated in Japanese (Tsujimura 1996).

With regard to fricatives, there are no labio-dental and interdental fricatives in Japanese, but there are voiced and voiceless alveolar fricatives /z/ and /s/ (Tsujimura 1996). More specifically, the following consonants /f, v, θ, ð, ʃ, ʒ, ʧ, dʒ/ do not exist in the Japanese consonant system. Consequently, because of the lack of the /v/ consonant, Japanese speakers often substitute it for the voiced bilabial stop /b/. On the other hand, there are two fricative sounds in Japanese which are not found in the English consonant system. These are the voiceless bilabial fricative /ɸ/ (as in 'fujisan' – Mt. Fuji) and the voiceless palatal fricative /ç/ (as in 'hito' - human) (Ohata 2004).

The affricates in Japanese are the alveo-palatal /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ and the alveolar /tʰ/ and /dʰ/. There are three approximants in Japanese, /r/, /w/, /y/. The alveolar liquid /r/ is phonetically quite different from either the English consonant /l/ or /r/. According to Tsujimura, it is a flap, transcribed in the IPA notational system by the symbol [ɾ]. The same nasal sounds found in English occur in Japanese as well. There are instances in which long consonants, or more accurately, geminates appear in Japanese (Tsujimura 1996).

However, some of the consonants which are not found in the Japanese phonemic system can be covered by allophonic realizations of other Japanese consonants. For example, when /s/ and /z/ or /t/ and /d/ appear before the vowels /i/ and /u/, they are pronounced /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ or /tʃ/, and /dʒ/ allophonically (Ohata 2004).

As can be expected, the sound patterns of a speaker's native language may and do influence their speech production in speaking foreign languages. It is considered that the pronunciation errors made by such speakers are in fact reflections of the sound system, rules of sound combinations, stress and intonation patterns of their native language (Ohata 2004).

3.1.3 MORA AND SYLLABLE

Another feature that makes a phonological comparison between English and Japanese even more complicated is the syllable structure of the Japanese language. In Japanese phonology, two suprasegmental units, the syllable and the mora, are recognized. The mora, a subsyllabic unit, is a rhythmic unit based on length. It is the

tone-bearing unit having a more important role in the phonological system than the syllable. Seeing that Japanese is a language with a very restricted phonological inventory, there are only five types of moras: CV, CCV, V, nasal coda, and geminate (doubled) consonant (Otake et al. 1993). According to Kubozono, the syllable can be either long, consisting of two moras, or short, consisting of one mora (1989).

This fact is very nicely illustrated by the historic appearance of even two orthographic systems using the mora as the basic unit, *hiragana* and *katakana* with 46 characters or symbols each, invented to supplement the earlier adopted Chinese writing system, *kanji* with several thousands of characters, and adjust it to the needs of their unrelated native Japanese language system (Shibatanji 2017). Another fact, which shows the importance of moras, is that, contrary to popular belief, haiku, a traditional Japanese short poem, consists of seventeen moras, not syllables.

The above explained syllable structure may cause Japanese speakers to have difficulty with pronouncing consonant clusters. Because of that, they may put a vowel next to a consonant in a consonant cluster to make the word easier to pronounce (Takeshita 2010). For example, a word with initial consonant cluster and a closed syllable such as ‘street’ may be pronounced by Japanese speakers as ‘sutoreeto’ to conform to the Japanese syllable structure (Ohata 2004).

3.2 GRAMMAR

Basic Japanese morphology is relatively simple. Nouns always appear in the same form and no distinction is made between countability and uncountability, singular or plural and male, female and neutral gender. Verbs do not change for person and number, and auxiliary verbs do not exist. There are also no articles or relative pronouns in Japanese (Shoebottom, esl.fis.edu/grammar/langdiff/japanese.htm).

The lack of inflections in Japanese may be the reason why Japanese speakers tend to overlook the distinction between singular and plural, or definite and indefinite articles in English (Takeshita 2010).

3.3 SYNTAX

There are very significant differences between Japanese and English, particularly in sentence structure, which may cause difficulties for Japanese speakers in producing the correct English syntax.

Japanese, as a consistent subject–object–verb (SOV) language, places modifiers before the modified word, so adjectives and relative clauses, no matter how long and complicated, precede the modified nouns and adverbs are placed before verbs. A predicate complex consists of the stem followed by various suffixal elements expressing various relational concepts, tenses and modes, e.g. *Ik-ase-rare-ru darō ka ne* (literally, go -[causative]-[passive]-[present], [wonder], [question particle], [final particle]) ‘I wonder will I be made to go?’ (Shibatani 2017)

In many sentences there is no subject. The listener can guess what the subject is by thinking about the context and the form of the verb. Actually, the context in which something is said crucially determines the meaning of the words, seeing that elements recoverable from the context are freely omitted in Japanese making it a pro-drop language. Therefore, it is imperative to understand the situation to fully appreciate the response (Shibatani 2017).

Some clues for recovering missing elements are provided for by means of honorific forms, expressed in the usage of various verb forms (one and the same verb is used in one form when addressing or referring to someone honored or superior, to someone equal, to someone socially inferior or to an indefinite audience), the forms of personal address, (non)honorific suffixes and so on. When, for example, the verb *kaku* (‘to write’) is used to refer to someone honored and superior, it has the form *kakakeru* or *o-kaki-ni naru*. When the humble form *o-kaki suru* is used, the speaker is likely referring to himself. The plain form *kaku* is used in addressing an equal, a lower-status person or an indefinite audience (Shibatani 2017).

3.4 LEXIS

The most noticeable result of the contact between English and Japanese is the high number of English loanwords that appear in the Japanese language. According to some studies, almost eighty one percent of borrowed words or approximately eight percent of the total vocabulary of Japanese comes from English (Kachru and Nelson 2006). Loanwords are not reserved only for certain domains or groups of people. They have become an integral part of the Japanese language and are used in practically all domains and registers and by almost all speakers, regardless of their age, level of education or position in society (Morrow 1987).

English loanwords have been phonologically assimilated into Japanese to conform to its structure. The Japanese pronunciation of these words has then been transferred to the pronunciation of English in general, which has resulted in Japanese English sounding quite different from other varieties of English (Kachru and Nelson 2006).

To illustrate this, a brief overview of the characteristics of English loanwords in Japanese is given.

Kachru and Nelson (2006: 172-173) citing Stanlaw (2004: 74) list the major processes of segmental modification of loanwords:

1. Insertion of a vowel to simplify consonant clusters, e.g. stool - sutuuru
2. Addition of *-o* and *-i* as a final, e.g. street - sutoreeto
3. Syllabic after words ending in *t*, *d*, and *tʃ*, *dʒ*, respectively, e.g. thought - sooto
4. Addition of *-u* as a final syllabic in all other cases, e.g. this - zisu
5. The realization of Θ as *s*, *z*, *ʃ*, *t*, or *ts*, δ as *z* or *dʒ*, *l* as *r*, final *r* as *a:* and *v* as *b*, e.g. seven-eleven - sebunirebun.

The only consonant in which a word can end is *-n*.

Some loanwords also go through grammatical modifications. For example, adverbs are derived with the postpositional particle *ni* ('in, at') instead of *ku* which is used for Japanese words (*naisu ni* 'nicely') (Kachru and Nelson 2006).

Compounding is a process often applied to loanwords and may take several forms. "Hybrids are phrases containing an element from each language." For example, *amerika + jin* ('American person') or *ha + burashi* ('tooth brush'). Verbs are constructed by adding *suru* 'do' as in *gorofu o suru* ('to play golf') (Kachru and Nelson, 2006: 173).

Some English words may be shortened by using either the first or the last part of the word, as in *depāto* 'department store'. Whole phrases or fixed collocations are also loaned into Japanese; for instance, *ofu dei* ('off day'), *kyaria ūman* ('career woman') and *fāsuto fūdo* ('fast food') (Kachru and Nelson 2006).

Semantically, loanwords can go through the processes of semantic restriction, semantic shift or semantic extension. Semantic restriction refers to the case in which a loanword retains only one of its several meanings in the language it is loaned into. For example, 'machine' becomes *mishin* and refers only to sewing machines; *pantsu* 'pants' refers only to underwear; and *kuuraa* 'cooler' stands for air conditioner. Semantic shift means that there is some shift in the nuance of the word's meaning in the language it is borrowed from. For example, *baiku* is used for 'motorbike', *sain* means 'signature'. The last process, semantic extension, refers to loanwords which acquired new and different meanings in the recipient

language. One example of this is *manshon* ‘mansion’, which in Japanese means an ‘apartment’ or ‘condominium’. Another example is the word *saabisu* ‘service’, which refers to a small complementary gift (Morrow 1987).

3.5 RYTHM, STRESS AND INTONATION

Languages that display a particular kind of rhythm can either be stress-based or syllable-based. In stress-based languages, there is an impression that stressed syllables occur in regular intervals regardless of the number of unstressed syllables (Ohata 2004). In syllable-based languages, on the other hand, there is an impression that all syllables in a stress group contribute equally to the duration of the prosodic domain. There is also a subcategory of syllable-based languages called mora-based languages in which moras recur regularly and each takes roughly the same amount of time (Warner and Arai 2001). Since mora is considered to be the basic phonological unit, Japanese is seen as a mora-based language, in contrast to stress-based languages, such as English (Otake et al. 1993).

Connected with this is the difference between pitch-accent languages and stress-accent languages. Both moras and syllables play an important role in the Japanese accentual system, which can be characterized as a word-pitch accent system, meaning that each word has a specific lexical tone pattern. Syllables are the units that determine the number of potential accentual distinctions in a word, so, given the possibility of unaccented forms, one-syllable words make two potential distinctions, two-syllable words three potential distinctions, and so forth. However, in most cases, the pitch change occurs at the mora boundary (Shibatani 2017). There are two rules related to accentuation in Japanese. The first one is that the accented mora and the moras preceding it all receive a high pitch or tone and that the moras after the accented mora receive a low pitch. The second rule is called Initial Lowering Rule by Haraguchi (1977). According to this rule, the pitch of the first mora is low unless the accent is placed on that mora (Tsujimura 1996). This can explain the mora-based rhythm of Japanese. On the other hand, in stress-accent languages, such as English, word stress is placed on stressed, i.e. metrically prominent syllables, which, in turn, contributes to creating a stress-based rhythmic pattern of English (Ohata 2004).

English and Japanese have some intonation patterns in common, such as final rising intonation pattern in yes-no questions or final rising-falling intonation in statements. However, they have different pitch functions in uttering a sentence.

English pitch changes are connected with the major sentence stress, while Japanese uses pitch to mark stress on a word level (Ohata 2004).

All of these differences in rhythm, stress and intonation between English and Japanese can cause difficulties for Japanese speakers to produce native-like utterances in English and can sometimes affect the intelligibility of their language (Ohata 2004).

3.6 DISCOURSE

There are also some differences on the discourse level between Japanese and English. According to a study carried out by Yamada (1990) as cited in Morrow (2004), there are some differences in turn-taking between Japanese and Americans participating in a business meeting. The Japanese “took short turns and shared turns fairly equally, [while] Americans took long monologic turns and distributed them unequally.” (Morrow 2004: 91)

Another discourse feature of Japanese English is the extensive use of back-channeling, i.e., Japanese listeners produce a high number of verbal and non-verbal signals to indicate that they are listening to the speaker. There are several studies which indicate that Japanese speakers use more back-channeling than American speakers do, and that even the type and placement of back-channel responses differ. Japanese speakers use head movement as the most frequent type of response and give it within the phrasal unit while their interlocutor is speaking (Morrow 2004).

Referring to Murata (1995), Morrow (2004) notes that there are also differences in the use of repetition, especially hesitation repetition between Japanese and English speakers. One possible explanation is that quick turn-taking may appear too aggressive and intrusive to Japanese speakers, who then try to mitigate this and show respect to their conversation partner by using repetitions (Morrow, *ib.* 2004).

In a study of pitch, carried out by Loveday (1981) and referred to by Morrow (2004), male Japanese speakers used different pitches from those of male British speakers. Although physiologically Japanese and British males have about the same pitch range, the Japanese speakers used lower pitch than the British speakers, especially for greetings, goodbyes and thank you's. This was true for Japanese speakers when they spoke in both Japanese and English (Morrow 2004). This could indicate that some Japanese speakers transfer pitch from their native language when speaking English.

3.7 PRAGMATICS

Several studies of pragmatics showed some differences in the way Japanese and English speakers carried out certain speech acts. For instance, in refusals, Japanese speakers showed evidence of negative transfer in the order, frequency and content of elements. More specifically, in refusing a request to a lower-status person, Japanese speakers gave the excuse after an expression of positive opinion or regret. Their excuses were also vaguer in content. One study also found that Japanese speakers used less politeness than American speakers when they refused a request made by a lower-status person or a family member (Morrow 2004).

In other, simpler words, communication style in Japan is marked not only by verbal, but also by non-verbal signs to a much greater extent than in English. The Japanese rely on facial expression, tone of voice and posture to tell them what someone feels. They often trust non-verbal messages more than the spoken word as words can have several meanings. As mentioned before, the context in which something is said actually can and does affect the meaning of the words. Frowning while someone is speaking is interpreted as a sign of disagreement so usually most Japanese (try to) maintain an impassive expression when speaking (Commisceo Global 2017).

Some of the difficulties that Japanese speakers have with English are the result of cultural differences. Since communication between people in Japan is heavily influenced by considerations such as age, gender, relationship and social status, and since they always strive to show respect towards their interlocutor, this can cause Japanese speakers to struggle to find the most appropriate, and in turn, most natural way to express themselves in English.

4 CASE STUDY - EXAMPLES OF L1 TRANSFER IN ENGLISH USED BY JAPANESE BUSINESSMEN

4.1 MATERIAL DESCRIPTION

This case study is based on three interviews given by three high-ranking Japanese businessmen currently available on YouTube.

The first interview is given by Yuzaburo Mogi (82), a Chairman of the Board of Directors and Honorary CEO of the *Kikkoman Corporation*, a Japanese food

manufacturing company and the world's largest soy sauce producer. The interview was given at the 14th Nikkei Global Management Forum.

The second interview is given by Hiroshi Mikitani (52), the Chairman and CEO of *Rakuten*, one of the world's leading e-commerce companies. The interview was given at the Business Insider IGNITION, New York, USA, following his speech on the topic entitled *Englishnization and Diversity*.

The third interview was given by Yasuchika Hasegawa (71), CEO and President of Takeda Pharmaceuticals, the largest pharmaceutical company in Japan and Asia, for Boss Talk.

4.2 VIDEO 1, 08:18 min

4.2.1 VIDEO 1 - TRANSCRIPT AND CHARACTERISTICS DETECTED

The interview was given by Yuzaburo Mogi, Chairman of the Board of Directors, *Kikkoman Corporation* at the 14th Nikkei Global Management Forum. The interviewer was Dr. Dominique Turpin, IMD President, Nestlé Professor.

Source: www.youtube.com/watch?v=IZxCYcVA8t8

Line 9: **family** - pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 12: **the** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/;

Line 13: **prefecture** – liquid /r/

Line 16: **Then** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **corporation** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 19: **three** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 20: **Family** - pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 21: **branches** – liquid /r/

Line 22: **those** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **branches** – liquid /r/; **together** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 23: **corporation** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 26: **original** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/; **family** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 28: **fifteenth** - /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 33: **family** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 34: **family** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/; **that** - /ð/ pronounces as /z/

Line 35: **families** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/; **together** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **corporation** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/; **start corporation** – missing article

Line 36: **family** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 37: **right** – liquid /r/

Line 38: **generation** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 39: **the** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/;

Line 42: **that they** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **become board member** – missing article

Line 43: **family** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 45: **retire** – liquid /r/

Line 48: **become board member** – missing article

Line 50: **forth** - /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 57: **not, you know, family business** – missing article; **family** – pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 58: **legally** - /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 62: **listed** - /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 67: **legally** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 68: **we are not family business** – missing article

Line 73: **family** - pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/, /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/; **altogether** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 82: **Around** – liquid /r/

Line 86: **consumption** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 89: **grow** – liquid /r/

Line 92: **consumption** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 94: **grew** – liquid /r/

Line 98: **Then** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 99: **management** – allophonic realization of /dʒ/

Line 101: **international operations** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 104: **then** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **global** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 105: **international** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 112: **in American market** – missing definite article

Line 113: **Then** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 114: **grew** – liquid /r/

Line 116: (in 1973) **we are able** – use of present tense instead of past tense; **able** to **build** - /l/ pronounced more closely to the English /l/; **factory** – liquid /r/

Line 123: **business account for** – use of plural verb form instead of singular

Line 130: <food> **servicing** – not entirely intelligible

Line 131: (business) **account for** – use of plural verb form instead of singular; **forth** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 133: (business) **account for**– use of plural verb form instead of singular

Line 136: **distribution** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 137: **distribution** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 139: **related** – liquid /r/

Line 141: **Asia** – allophonic realization of /ʒ/

Line 143: **forth** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 143: **juice** – allophonic realization of /dʒ/

Line 144: **health** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 151: **is most important** – missing article

Line 152: **gradually** – liquid /r/

Line 153: **market growing** – no use of auxiliary verb

Line 161: **Asian** – allophonic realization of /ʒ/

Line 162: **they** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 163: **they** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 168: **they** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 170: **poor price** – liquid /r/

Line 173: **very** - /v/ pronounced as /b/

Line 175: **cheap** – allophonic realization of /tʃ/

Line 179: **three** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 180: **higher** - /h/ pronounced as /f/; **than** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 181: **local product** – missing article

Line 183: **Asian** – allophonic realization of /ʒ/

Line 184: **attractive** – liquid /r/

Line 190: **growth** – liquid /r/, /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 191: **Asian** – allophonic realization of /ʒ/

Line 192: <part> after – not entirely intelligible

Line 193: **those** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 194: **Then** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **they** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **Then they become** – no use of auxiliary to mark future tense

Line 195: **they** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **they become** – no use of auxiliary to mark future tense

Line 196: **good market** – missing article

Line 197: **attractive market** – missing article

Line 205: **international** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/

Line 207: **best way** – missing article; **them** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 208: **them** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 209: **overseas** – /v/ pronounced as /b/

Line 210: **they** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 212: **that** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 213: **best way** – missing article; **them** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 216: **language** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/, does not pronounce /w/, allophonic realization of /ɹ/

Line 217: **international** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/; **language** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/, does not pronounce /w/, allophonic realization of /ɹ/

Line 220: **language** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/, does not pronounce /w/, allophonic realization of /ɹ/

Line 222: **culture** – allophonic realization of /tʃ/

Line 225: **global** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

4.2.2 VIDEO 1 - ANALYSIS

The most notable and easily detected characteristics found in this video have to do with the phonological system, specifically the ones concerning the pronunciation of /θ/ and /ð/, as well as /r/ and /l/ in English words.

Regarding the fact that /θ/ and /ð/ are typical sounds of the English language and one of its most distinctive features, and for the same reason also, generally speaking, the most difficult sounds to produce correctly by non-native English speakers, the fact that Mr. Mogi pronounces them as /s/ and /z/ respectively, in accordance with the sounds existing in his native Japanese language, is not surprising at all. Two among numerous examples in his interview are Line 16: **Then** – /ð/ pronounced as /z/ and line 19: **three** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/.

As far as the English /l/ consonant is concerned and regarding the fact that it does not exist in the Japanese language, it is pronounced as something (**a**) in between

the English /r/ and /l/ consonants, or **(b)** leaning more towards a clearly articulated /l/, for the speakers with relatively high language skill, training and education who really try their best to speak English correctly. Examples of this can be seen for (a) in Line 26: **original** – /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/, and for (b) in line 116: we are **able** to **build** - /l/ pronounced more closely to the English /l/.

While pronouncing /ʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʒ/ and /tʃ/, Mr. Mogi realizes them as allophones similar to the sounds that exist in Japanese, for example in line 92: **consumption** – allophonic realization of /ʃ/.

In Japanese, the /h/ consonant has three different realizations, depending on the following vowel. These realizations are: /h/, /ɸ/ and /ç/. It is no surprise that Japanese speakers apply a similar pronunciation to the English /h/ consonant. An example of this can be seen in line 180: **higher** - /h/ pronounced as /ɸ/.

The same principle is repeated with the vowels. If a vowel does not exist in the Japanese vocalic system, like, for example, /æ/ in English, it is replaced with a vowel that is found in Japanese, in this case /a/ as can be seen in line 9: **family** - pronounced /a/ instead of /æ/.

With regard to grammar, Mr. Mogi sometimes tends to leave out articles, both definite and indefinite ones as in line 151: **is most important** – missing article. In verbs he sometimes uses plural form instead of singular as in line 133: **(business) account for**– use of plural verb form instead of singular and leaves out auxiliary verbs, as in line 153: **market growing** – no use of auxiliary verb.

In his interview, Yuzaburo Mogi uses rhythm, stress and intonation typical of the Japanese language, even though he speaks English and addresses an English-speaking audience. Japanese is a mora-timed language with pitch accent, which, as shown above, is completely different than English. Mr. Mogi also places pauses in his sentences in the same way he would place them when speaking Japanese, i.e. after what he feels in his speech as particles denoting time, place, frequency and so on, and not where a native English language speaker would place them. Mr Mogi also uses stress on word level, rather than on sentence level. However, he uses final rising-falling intonation in statements, which is the same in both languages.

Although he went to Columbia Business School and is one of the main people in *Kikkoman* responsible for its spread to the American market, there are still many characteristics of the Japanese influence on his English in his speech. Granted, not to the point that it is completely unintelligible to other speakers of English, but there were two instances

in this interview where it was quite difficult, if not impossible, to understand what he had said (lines 130 ‘<food> serving’ and 192 ‘<part> after’).

This confirms the thesis that English does get adapted by the speakers’ native language, even if that speaker is highly educated and spent a part of his life in an English speaking country, and even though he had clearly stated in his interview that the English language is very important today and that one needs to master it in order to become a successful businessman.

4.3 VIDEO 2, 03:15 min

4.3.1 VIDEO 2 - TRANSCRIPT AND CHARACTERISTICS DETECTED

This interview was given by Hiroshi Mikitani at Business Insider IGNITION following his speech on *Englishnization and Diversity* in New York, NY.

Source: www.youtube.com/watch?v=DeH83Q14qNo

Line 7: **front** - /r/ leaning more towards the retroflex frictionless continuant [ɹ]; **a** three **thousand** employees – use of indefinite article; /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 8: **suddenly announce**: - instead of /ə/ used /o/; no past tense ending

Line 10: **language** – instead of /w/ pronounces something between /v/ and /b

Line 11: **everybody** - liquid /r/, /b/ pronounced between /b/ and /v/; **really** - liquid /r/, **does it mean** - no inversion in indirect question

Line 13: **the** English – use of definite article

Line 14: five years **has** passed - singular vs plural distinction

Line 15: **hiring** – /h/ pronounced as /ϕ/

Line 17: **and** - pronounced just /a/

Line 21: **important; Rakuten** – liquid /r/, especially in the name of the company

Line 27: **diversified** – liquid /r/

Line 28: **executive** are – no plural ending

Line 29: **forth** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 30: **a** some **kind** project – use of indefinite article; pronounces only /ka/

Line 32: **mountain**. – instead of /ə/ used /e/

Line 33: **mountain** climbing **with** – instead of /ə/ uses /e/; /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 37: **executive need help** – no plural ending, no to infinitive

Line 38: **to be climb up** – use of the verb ‘to be’

Line 47: **Right** – liquid /r/

Line 51: **Right, right** – liquid /r/

Line 52: **really** – liquid /r/, pronounced just /ri/

Line 57: **really** – liquid /r/, pronounced just /ri/

Line 58: **retail** – liquid /r/

Line 61: **those** – use of plural demonstrative instead of singular; **talent** - /l/ pronounced as something between /r/ and /l/ but leaning more towards /l/, /a/ instead of /æ/

Line 63: one of the most comfortable **city** – no plural ending

Line 64: **it's metropolitan** - no indefinite article

Line 68: **difficult** – instead of /ə/ used /u/

Line 69: **hire** - /h/ pronounced as [ϕ]

4.3.2 VIDEO 2 - ANALYSIS

To begin with the phonological level, the English /r/ consonant can be realized as **(a)** a Japanese flap [ɾ] or **(b)** closer to the typical American English retroflex frictionless continuant [ɻ] for those with relatively high language skill or training/education who really try their best to speak English correctly. An example of **(a)** can be seen in line 47: **Right** – liquid /r/, and of **(b)** in line 7: **front** - /r/ leaning more towards the retroflex frictionless continuant [ɻ]. As the /l/ consonant, in fact, does not exist in Japanese /l/, it can also be pronounced as something **(a)** in between the English /r/ and /l/ sounds, or **(b)** leaning more towards the English /l/ for those with relatively high language skill. Examples of this can be seen for (a) in line 61: **talent** - /l/ pronounced as something between /r/ and /l/ but leaning more towards /l/. However, it was interesting to observe that the distinction in pronouncing the /r/ consonant was greater when pronouncing the name of his company, *Rakuten*, than when pronouncing English words, possibly because the name of his company is in itself a Japanese word and he automatically switches back to his native Japanese. Namely, in line 21, he uses the words *important* and *Rakuten* in the same sentence, but the liquid /r/ or the specific way of pronouncing it is noticeably more visible in the company name.

He also sometimes pronounces /θ/ as /s/, as in line 29: **forth** – /θ/ pronounced as /s/, because this sound does not exist in the Japanese sound system. This, however, does not happen in all the instances, which can indicate his higher level of language competence in English.

The English /h/ consonant has three realizations (/h/, /ϕ/ and /ç/) when pronounced by Japanese speakers, as can be seen in line 15: **hire** - /h/ pronounced as /ϕ/.

There is also a distinction in pronouncing some vowels, mainly in substituting /ə/ with another vowel, as in line 32: **mountain** – instead of /ə/, he uses /e/, because /ə/ does not exist in Japanese. He also uses the vowel /a/ instead of /æ/ which does not exist in Japanese either, as in line 61: **talent** - /a/ instead of /æ/. There are also a few instances where he pronounced only the first syllable of the word (line 30: **some** kind of - pronounces only /ka/ and line 52: **really** - pronounces just /ri/).

On the grammatical level, Mr. Mikitani sometimes does not use an article (line 64: **it's metropolitan** - no indefinite article) and sometimes uses an article where it should not be used (line 13: **our e-mail is going to be the English** – use of definite article). This is probably because there are no articles in Japanese and the correct usage must be learnt by heart. He also sometimes uses the present tense instead of past (as in line 8: suddenly **announce** – no past tense ending) and singular instead of plural (as in line 14: five years **has** passed - singular vs plural distinction) or vice versa. There is one instance where he did not use inversion in an indirect question (line 11: understand **what does it mean**).

Mr. Mikitani's rhythm, stress and intonation while speaking English are not entirely influenced by Japanese. In this interview, his speech patterns were closer to English, with realizing word stress by longer and louder vowels and sentence stress by difference in pitch. In Japanese, it is typical to make pauses in sentences after particles, which denote time, place, frequency and so on. However, Mr. Mikitani does not translate this characteristic into his English, thus making it sound a bit closer to native English.

With regard to the discourse, he uses back-channeling, i.e. gives his interlocutor signals which show her that he is listening to her. In this case, he uses more head movement than verbal signals, which is, according to some studies, typical for Japanese speakers. This is the only interview in which this can be observed because the video shows both speakers at the same time, while in other interviews, either the interviewer or the interviewee is showed.

Although Hiroshi Mikitani had lived in the United States for two years when he was seven and subsequently studied at Harvard Business School, the influence of his native Japanese on his English is still present. He is highly educated and his English is far from unintelligible, but there still exist some characteristics of his speech which give away his native language. However, he is highly aware of the importance of the English language in today's world which can be seen in the fact that he made

English the main language of his company, seven years ago, in order for it to develop and grow.

4.4 VIDEO 3, 02:14 min

4.4.1 VIDEO 3 - TRANSCRIPT AND CHARACTERISTICS DETECTED

This interview was given by Yasuchika Hasegawa, CEO and President of Takeda Pharmaceuticals for Boss Talk.

Source: www.youtube.com/watch?v=AIW9WObCsL8

Line 1: **Pharmaceutical** - /f/ pronounced as /ϕ/

Line 2: **is a number one** - use of indefinite article instead of the definite article;

pharmaceutical - /f/ pronounced as /ϕ/; **probably** - liquid /r/; **Asia** - allomorphic realization of /ʃ/

Line 4: **general** - liquid /r/, /l/ pronounced closer to the English /l/

Line 5: **depend** - omission of the subject; **position** - allomorphic realization of /ʃ/

Line 6: **time time** - omission of 'to': **personal** - /ə/ pronounced as /a/, **network** - /ə/ pronounced as /a/, liquid /r/

Line 7: **or** - pronounced as /oa/, **recruiting** - /r/ pronounced closer to the English /r/; **firms** - /ə/ pronounced as /a/

Line 9: **general** - liquid /r/, /l/ pronounced closer to the English /l/

Line 10: **identify** - omission of 'to'; **global** - /ə/ pronounced as /a/; **standard** - /æ/ pronounced as /a/; **talent** - /æ/ pronounced as /a/, /l/ pronounced closer to the English /l/

Line 11: **who** - /h/ pronounced as /ϕ/; **willing** - liquid /r/; **relocate** - liquid /r/

Line 13: **very** - liquid /r/; **logical** - allophonic realization of /dʒ/

Line 15: **probably** - /ə/ pronounced as /a/, /r/ pronounced closer to /r/; **analytical** - omission of indefinite article

Line 17: **general** - liquid /r/, /l/ pronounced closer to the English /l/

Line 18: **decisions** - allophonic realization of /ʒ/

Line 20: **try** - liquid /r/; **with** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 21: **management** - /æ/ pronounced as /a/; /ə/ pronounced as /a/ and then /e/

Line 23: **management** - /æ/ pronounced as /a/; /ə/ pronounced as /a/ and then /e/

Line 26: (from time to time) **we couldn't reach** - use of past tense instead of present tense; **agreement** - liquid /r/

Line 27: **a final judgment** - use of indefinite article instead of the definite article

Line 30: **are spending** - omission of subject; **under discussing** - addition of ‘under’

Line 31: **reach** - liquid /r/: **conclusion** - allomorphic realization of /ʃ/

Line 33: **management** - /æ/ pronounced as /a/; /ə/ pronounced as /a/ and then /e/; **philosophy** - /f/ pronounced as /ϕ/

Line 35: **represented** - liquid /r/;

Line 36: **integrity** - liquid /r/

Line 38: **integrity** - liquid /r/; **three** - /θ/ pronounced as /s/

Line 41: **perseverance** - /z/ pronounced as /a/, /ə/ pronounced as /a/

Line 42: **understand the** - omission of ‘that’; **more** - liquid /r/; **philosophy** - /f/ pronounced as /ϕ/; **credo** - liquid /r/; **code** - /ʊ/ pronounced as /o/

Line 44: **others** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/

Line 45: **seriously** - /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/

Line 46: **tried** - liquid /r/

Line 47: **That** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/; **other** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/

4.4.2 VIDEO 3 - ANALYSIS

As observed above, the English /h/ consonant is pronounced by Japanese speakers as one of the three possible realizations: /h/, /ϕ/ and /ç/. This can also be seen in this analysis, for example in **who** - /h/ pronounced as /ϕ/. The English /f/ consonant does not exist in Japanese and it is usually realized as /ϕ/ by Japanese speakers, which can be seen in line 1: **Pharmaceutical** - /f/ pronounced as /ϕ/.

The English /r/ consonant can be realized as (a) a Japanese flap [r] or (b) closer to the American English retroflex frictionless continuant [ɻ]. An example of (a) can be seen in line 35: **represented** - liquid /r/, however, an example of (b) was not found in this interview. With regard to the English /l/ consonant and the fact does not exist in Japanese, it can also be pronounced as (a) something in between the English /r/ and /l/ sounds, or (b) leaning more towards the English /l/ for those with relatively high language skill. Examples of this can be seen for (a) in line 45: **seriously** - /l/ pronounced between /r/ and /l/ and for (b) in line 17: **general** - liquid /r/, /l/ pronounced closer to the English /l/.

This speaker also sometimes pronounces /θ/ as /s/, as in line 39: **three** - /θ/ pronounced as /s/, and /ð/ as /z/, as in line 44: **others** - /ð/ pronounced as /z/ because sounds /θ/ and /ð/ do not exist in the Japanese sound system.

There is also a distinction in pronouncing some vowels, mainly in substituting /ə/ with another vowel, as in line 6: **network** - /ə/ pronounced as /a/, because /ə/ does not exist in Japanese or the vowel /a/ instead of /æ/ which does not exist in Japanese either, as in line 21: **management** - /æ/ pronounced as /a/.

On the grammatical level, Mr. Hasegawa sometimes uses an indefinite article instead of a definite one (line 27: **a final judgment** - use of an indefinite article instead of the definite article). This is probably caused by the fact that there are no articles in Japanese and their correct usage must be learnt by heart. The speaker also sometimes uses the past tense instead of present (as in line 26: (from time to time) **we couldn't reach** - use of past tense instead of present tense), as tense distinction is rather different, simpler and much more contextually based in Japanese than in English. There are also two instances where he does not state the subject of the sentence (as in line 5: **depend** - omission of the subject, probably 'I', and in line 30: **are spending** - omission of subject, probably 'we'). This probably happens since in Japanese the subject of a sentence can be omitted if it is contextually clear both to the speaker and the listeners.

In his interview, Yasuchika Hasegawa uses rhythm, stress and intonation typical of the Japanese language, even though he speaks English. As shown above, Japanese is a mora-timed language with pitch accent, which is completely different than English. Mr. Hasegawa's speech sounds a bit monotonous, which is a common feature of Japanese speakers of English.

Although Mr. Hasegawa had lived and worked in the United States for ten years as Vice President and then President of TAP Pharmaceuticals Inc. in Chicago, some characteristics of his native Japanese language can still be found in his English. These influences, however, are not so severe as to cause his speech to be unintelligible to other speakers, but they do fall in line with supporting the claim that English is influenced and gets adapted by the speaker's native language.

5 CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of the three interviews, some common characteristics were found in their use of English.

The most notable and easily detected characteristics have to do with the phonological systems of the two languages. Seeing that the /θ/ and /ð/ are typical sounds of the English language and do not exist in Japanese, all three speakers had difficulties with pronouncing

them correctly. All three of them pronounced them as /s/ and /z/ respectively at least a few times during the interviews, in the manner of natural Japanese sounds that come closest to the natural English /θ/ and /ð/. As far as the English /r/ consonant is concerned, it was pronounced in one of the two ways: either as a Japanese flap [ɾ], or leaning more towards a typical American English retroflex frictionless continuant [ɻ]. Seeing that the English /l/ consonant does not exist in Japanese, it was pronounced either as between the /r/ and /l/ sounds or leaning more towards a clearly articulated /l/. The /h/ consonant has three different realizations, [h], [ϕ] and [ç], depending on the following vowel.

The same pattern was also detected in the vocalic system: if a vowel does not exist in Japanese, it is replaced with a vowel that is found in Japanese. This was most commonly the case with the English vowel /ə/ being replaced by the phonetically closest Japanese vowel in a given phonological context and /æ/ being replaced by /a/ in Japanese.

The grammatical characteristics in the interviews analyzed referred mainly to the usage of articles, either using an indefinite article instead of a definite one or vice versa or not using them at all. There were also cases of mixing singular and plural forms, present and past tense and leaving out auxiliary verbs. All these can also be explained by the interference of Japanese in their use of English.

All three businessmen used rhythm, stress and intonation typical of the Japanese language. This characteristic was more prominent in the first and third speaker than in the second speaker; however, it was found in all three interviews. This is not surprising, seeing that Japanese and English are quite different when it comes to rhythm, stress and intonation.

Most of the time, the influence of the Japanese language detected in the English used in the interviews under consideration is not strong enough to affect intelligibility. However, on some occasions, especially on the levels of grammar, rhythm and intonation patterns, it made understanding very difficult or left at the level of an educated guess at the best. The fact that English is influenced by the native Japanese language cannot be denied and it needs to be taken into account to ensure better and easier communication with Japanese speakers of English.

As the corpus used in this paper did not provide enough material for a more detailed study of discourse, it would be interesting to further examine the use of back-channeling and repetition and the differences in turn-taking between Japanese and English speakers. It would also be a challenge to explore the language situation in other social strata and circumstances to see if English is influenced by the same, different or some new elements of Japanese and to

what extent. In short, the contact between two so different languages definitely provides a wealth of interesting material to study.

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VIDEOS:

Interview with Yuzaburo Mogi, The 14th Nikkei Global Management Forum,
www.youtube.com/watch?v=IZxCYcVA8t8, Interviewer: Dr. Dominique Turpin,
IMD President, Nestlé Professor.

Interview with Hiroshi Mikitani, At Business Insider IGNITION: “Englishnization and
Diversity”, New York, NY, www.youtube.com/watch?v=DeH83Q14qNo.

Interview with Yasuchika Hasegawa, CEO and President of Takeda Pharmaceuticals for Boss
Talk, www.youtube.com/watch?v=AIW9WObCsL8.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW WITH YUZABURO MOGI, CHAIRMAN OF THE BOARD OF
DIRECTORS, KIKKOMAN CORPORATION
The 14th Nikkei Global Management Forum

Source: www.youtube.com/watch?v=IZxCYcVA8t8

Interviewer: Dr. Dominique Turpin, IMD President, Nestlé Professor

- 1 Well, Mr. Mogi,
2 may thank you very much for being with us today.
- 3 Oh, thank you very much.
- 4 You are the chairman of the board of one of the
5 very old family business here in Japan.
6 Can you can you tell us a little bit about the history of the company?
- 7 Yes,
8 we started business,
9 I mean, I, our family
10 started business
11 in the 17th century,
12 in the city of Noda,
13 in Chiba prefecture.
14 And we start, we started
15 to make soy sauce.
16 Then we became corporation,
17 UM 95 years ago.
18 UM there there is a, you know,
19 three hundred years history.
20 Family, the original family divided into,
21 you know, eight branches

22 and those branches got together again
23 and to start a corporation,
24 UM in 1917.

25 So you are the 15th generation.

26 Ah, yes, from the original, you know, family,
27 now UM yes UM almost, yes,
28 you know, fifteenth generation, yes.

29 Do your children are planning to
30 continue the tradition?

31 Now you see UM
32 now you see, you know,
33 each family,
34 I mean each family that, you know,
35 eight families got together to start corporation,
36 and each family UM
37 has a right to send UM
38 one child per generation
39 to the company, you see.
40 Only one child.

41 And we don't, you know,
42 guarantee that they become board member.

43 So some family member,
44 UM you know UM,
45 retire from the company as employee.

46 (I see.)

47 And some of the families members
48 become board member.

49 (I see, I see.)

50 So on and do forth.

51 So is there any specificities
52 to family business in Japan?
53 Or you would say family business in Japan
54 are very much like
55 family business in the rest of the world?

56 However, you know,
57 we are not, you know, family business,
58 you know, legally.
59 (Yes, I see.)
60 We are listed company.
61 (I see.)
62 We listed, you know,
63 stock in the Tokyo Stock Exchange in 1947.

64 (All right)
65 So many years ago.
66 (I see.)
67 So legally
68 we are not family business.

69 But in the spirit?

70 Yeah, spirit
71 and also, UM for,
72 I mean, you know,
73 our family altogether
74 has about 20 percent
75 of capital.

76 So what are
77 the trends that are affecting your business today?
78 You are global, right?
79 You are selling you product
80 all over the world.

81 Yes. Yes.
82 Around 1955,
83 UM in Japan, UM
84 soy sauce,
85 UM you know,
86 UM consumption,
87 UM started to,
88 you know, UM, you know, they don't increase,
89 they don't grow, you see.
90 During the 19-,
91 I mean between 1946 and 1950,
92 soy sauce consumption of soy sauce
93 (started to flat)
94 grew
95 (ah, grew).
96 However, you know, it stops,
97 stopped around 1955.
98 Then UM
99 Kikkoman management people
100 decided to UM
101 start international operations.
102 To sell our product
103 to overseas market.
104 Then, you know, global business,
105 international business started.
106 And we started,
107 we organized
108 our sales company
109 in San Francisco, California,
110 in the United States
111 in 1957
112 and we started marketing in American market.
113 Then, fortunately, UM

114 you know, sales grew UM
115 and in 1973
116 we are able to build a soy sauce factory
117 in America.

118 So you, your business is very focused, right?
119 You're focusing on soy sauce.
120 Do you have any other
121 diversified products?

122 Now we,
123 Now soy sauce business account for
124 about 30 percent
125 (Oh, ok)
126 our total sales.
127 And 20 perc-, UM
128 UM, the trading business,
129 I mean, Japanese food
130 <food> serving business
131 account for 20 percent so on and so forth.
132 So soy sauce business
133 account for 30 percent.

134 And what are the other businesses
135 that you are involved?

136 So distribution, you know,
137 Japanese food distribution business
138 (OK, I see)
139 and soy sauce related product business
140 and we have Del Monte
141 UM business in Japan and Asia
142 making tomato ketchup
143 and also tomato juice and so forth.

144 Also we have health food business.

145 OK.

146 So where are the best opportunities

147 from a geographic point of view

148 for you company?

149 UM now,

150 American market

151 is most important market for us.

152 And gradually,

153 European market growing, you see.

154 I see.

155 So it's a bit counterintuitive

156 because we would have expected to see a Japanese company

157 probably very strong in Asia or

158 But you have been focusing on America.

159 Yes, America and Europe, yes.

160 So why did you put the focus on America and Europe and not so much on Asia?

161 In Asian market, of course,

162 they have of course soy sauce,

163 they use soy sauce.

164 (Yes, lot of competition)

165 However, UM

166 you know, for instance in the case of China,

168 they are using a lot of soy sauce,

169 however, you know,

170 UM poor price

171 (Yes)

172 of local, you know, product

173 is, you know, very
174 (Cheap)
175 you know cheap
176 (Yes)
177 Actually, our price in China
179 is three to five times
180 higher than
181 local product.
182 So, you know,
183 Asian market, including China
184 is not so attractive, you see,
185 (Yes, I see)
186 to us at this point,
187 at this moment.
188 Maybe, you know,
189 during the next 10 years
190 UM because of the economic growth
191 in Asian countries,
192 I think <part> after income
193 in those countries will increase.
194 Then they become,
195 I believe they become
196 good market for us,
197 attractive market for us.
198 But now,
199 American market and European market
200 are more attractive to us.

201 I understand.
202 So how do you develop the global talent for your
203 international operation?

204 Well we need, you know,
205 good people to expand our international business.

206 I think UM
207 best way to UM train them
208 is send them
209 to overseas business
210 when they are young.
211 (Yes)
212 I think that is, you know,
213 best way to train them.
214 And als-, UM,
215 and of course, you know,
216 language is important,
217 you know, English is now, you know, international language
218 so UM English is very important.
219 However, you know,
220 in addition to language,
221 you know, adaptability, you see,
222 to foreign culture
223 is quite important
224 to become
225 a global business man.

226 Right, right, right, right.
227 Well, thank you very much, Mr. Mogi.

228 Oh, thank you very much.

229 Thank you. Thank you.

230 Thank you.

APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEW WITH HIROSHI MIKITANI

At Business Insider IGNITION

“Englishnization and Diversity”

New York, NY

Source: www.youtube.com/watch?v=DeH83Ql4qNo

- 1 Part of your global strategy in 2012,
- 2 you told the company:
- 3 “I know we’re Japanese company,
- 4 I know that there is 11 000 of you here,
- 5 but English is gonna be our first language.”
- 6 Well, how did you do that?

- 7 I stood in front of a three thousand employees
- 8 and suddenly announce
- 9 “OK, from today
- 10 we are gonna use English as our standard communication language.”
- 11 And everybody didn’t really understand what does it mean.
- 12 The official meetings are done in English.
- 13 Our e-mail is going to be the English,
- 14 and since then five years has passed.
- 15 eighty percent of new engineers we are hiring right now in Tokyo
- 16 are non-Japanese.
- 17 So we see many Indians, Americans, Europeans and Chinese,
- 18 and I think we have done a great job, you know.
- 19 It’s not hundred percent perfect.
- 20 And diversity
- 21 it is the most important strategy for Rakuten.

- 22 So one other interesting thing that you guys do is
- 23 you used to have golf corporate outings.

24 But now
25 your executives climb this mountain that has supposedly claimed more deaths than Mt.
Everest.

26 To have a team-building,
27 because we are so diversified company,
28 our executive are not only Japanese
29 but many of course Americans, Europeans and Chinese and so forth
30 so I wanted to create a some kind project
31 to re-enhance our team spirit.
32 So I found this mountain.
33 I did mountain climbing with my son once and found,
34 oh, this is kinda tough.
35 Maybe not so tough
36 but just tough enough.
37 Our executive need help each other
38 to be climb up as a group.
39 So that was the motivation and
40 we have been doing this for seven years.

41 One thing it seems like,
42 I think I was reading that the number of developers that are there,
43 just, it's,
44 the sheer number is game.
45 I think 20 000 engineers graduate from Japanese colleges (UM) every year
46 vs 160 000 in the States (Yes)
47 and a million in China (Right).
48 Um, so is that part of your strategy
49 or are you trying to,
50 I know your, you said you're hiring
51 I think 80 percent (Right, right) of engineers around the world.

52 Yeah, we cannot really just do business with Japanese engineers anymore.
54 You know, 90 percent of our data scientists

55 are non-Japanese in Japan, right.
57 And they have really diversified background.
58 Some people work for retail business over here.
59 You know, most of them are PhDs
60 from very tough class universities,
61 and you cannot find those kind of talent
62 unfortunately in Japan.
63 So I think Tokyo is one of the most comfortable city today
64 it's metropolitan,
65 it's diversified,
66 it's secure,
67 so I think UM
68 it's not so difficult
69 for us to hire global talent
70 and convince them to move to Tokyo, as a matter of fact.

APPENDIX 3

BOSS TALK

YASUCHIKA HASEGAWA, CEO & PRESIDENT, TAKEDA PHARMACEUTICAL

Source: www.youtube.com/watch?v=AIW9WObCsL8

Line 1: My name is Yasa Hasegawa, President and CEO Takeda Pharmaceutical.

Line 2: Takeda is a number one pharmaceutical company in Japan and probably in Asia.

Line 3: How do you find talent and make hires?

Line 4: In general

Line 5: depend on the target position.

Line 6: I from time time use my personal network

Line 7: or use recruiting firms.

Line 8: But the biggest challenge

Line 9: is in general

Line 10: identify global standard talent

Line 11: who is willing to relocate to Japan.

Line 12: How do you describe your management style?

Line 13: I am a very logical

Line 14: person

Line 15: and UM probably analytical person

Line 16: but UM

Line 17: in general

Line 18: I don't make decisions all by myself.

Line 19: Instead

Line 20: I try to bounce my idea with

Line 21: senior management team members

Line 22: and I also encourage

Line 23: my senior management team members

Line 24: to do the same.

Line 25: From time to time

Line 26: we couldn't reach agreement,

Line 27: then I will make a final judgment

Line 28: but that doesn't happen often.

Line 29: Most of the times

Line 30: are spending enough time under discussing openly

Line 31: we can reach a real logical and good conclusion.

Line 32: Could you explain the company philosophy "Takeda-ism"?

Line 33: The highest, you know, management philosophy

Line 34: which we call "Takeda-ism".

Line 35: "Takeda-ism" is represented by one word,

Line 36: integrity,

Line 37: but we

Line 38: divide that integrity into the three components

Line 39: which are fairness,

Line 40: honesty

Line 41: and perseverance

Line 42: and I understand the many companies have more or less the same kind of philosophy or credo or code of conduct,

Line 43: but the one thing in my opinion

Line 44: that makes Takeda different from others

Line 45: is how much seriously we

Line 46: tried to abide by Takeda-ism in day-to-day business.

Line 47: That makes us different from other companies.

ABSTRACT

The contact of English, as the world's most widely spread and internationally used language today and Japanese, a language belonging to no language family and restricted mainly to the narrow area of the Japanese archipelago, is illustrated on the analyses of three interviews given by high ranking Japanese businessmen speaking English. In all three cases the interference of the Japanese language has been detected. It was most notable in the pronunciation of English sounds that do not exist in Japanese and covered with the sounds belonging to the Japanese phonological system, or their variations. The influence of Japanese on English was also noticed in grammar, specifically in the usage of articles, singular and plural forms, tenses and auxiliary verbs, all being the areas where English and Japanese differ the most. Finally, in all three cases rhythm, stress and intonation typical of the Japanese language were found. As expected, there is a notable interference of the native Japanese language, which needs to be taken into account to ensure better and easier communication with Japanese speakers of English.

KEY WORDS: English, Japanese, linguistic characteristics, Japanese businessmen