

OWNING ENGLISH: PERCEPTIONS AND VIEWS OF ENGLISH OF JAPANESE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

by

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CERTIFICATION OF PROJECT WORK

We, the undersigned, certify that this project entitled OWNING ENGLISH: PERCEPTIONS AND VIEWS OF ENGLISH OF JAPANESE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS by Carleen E. Gabrys, Candidate for the Degree of Master of Science in Education, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, is acceptable in form and content and demonstrates a satisfactory knowledge of the field covered by this project.



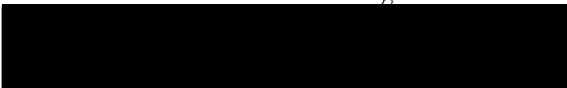
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Abstract

As English continues to spread throughout the world, there are many problems faced with regards to ownership of the language for second language learners. In Japan, English has had historical significance as an important second language taught in schools beginning at an early age (Oda, 2007). Even though Japanese learners of English have experience learning the language, they often lack a feeling of English ownership and awareness of other varieties of English. This study addresses perceptions Japanese students living abroad have on different varieties of English and how these perceptions affect their own views of English ownership. Using a five point Likert-scale survey, eleven Japanese participants answered questions on perceptions of English, their view of different varieties of English, their relationship of English and Japanese, and their view of their own English use and identity. Surveys were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Results from this study suggest that there is a dichotomy in how Japanese learners feel with regard to how they should use English fluently and accurately, but that American English may not be the ideal form of English to maintain and address Japanese identity issues. Results suggest that Japanese students are aware of the importance of English as a communicative tool with other Asian people, but lack a desire to learn about other varieties of Asian Englishes. Implications for further research are discussed.

Table of Contents

	Page
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Introduction.....	1
Problem	1
Purpose	3
Significance.....	3
Literature Review.....	5
The Spread of English.....	5
Varieties of English.	8
History of the Language in Japan.....	13
English education in Japan.	15
Perceptions of English and English Varieties	17
The Ownership of English.....	20
Second language ownership and identity.	22
Study abroad experience and identity.	23
Japanese learners and English language ownership.	27
Method	30

OWNING ENGLISH

Sample.....	30
Procedures	31
Participants	32
Instrument.....	33
Data Analysis.....	34
Validity.....	35
Results.....	37
Demographic Information	38
Perception of English	39
View of Different Varieties of English	42
Relationship of English and Japanese	44
View of English Use, Self-Identity, and Ownership.....	48
English use.....	49
Self-identity and Ownership.....	51
Effect of experience in an English-speaking country.....	52
Discussion.....	56
Perceptions of English.....	56
View of English Varieties	57
Relationship of English and Japanese	58
View of English Use, Self-Identity, and Ownership.....	58

OWNING ENGLISH

Effects of Living in an English-Speaking Country	59
Limitations	60
Further Research	61
Conclusion.....	64
References.....	65
Appendix A.....	69
Appendix B	70
Appendix C	71
Appendix D.....	72

List of Tables

Table	Page
Table 1: Questions on survey grouped by topic.....	35
Table 2: Length of time living in English-speaking area.....	39
Table 3: Mean attitude of score per participant for perception of English	40
Table 4: Mean attitude score per participant for view of different varieties of English	42
Table 5: Mean attitude score per participant for relationship of English and Japanese	45
Table 6: Mean attitude score per participant for view of English use, self-identity.....	49

List of Figures

Figure	Page
Figure 1. Responses to the question of whether English	40
Figure 2. Responses to the question of English use to understand foreigners	41
Figure 3. Responses to the question of desire to speak English	43
Figure 4. Responses to the question of interest in Englishes	44
Figure 5. Responses to the question of avoiding Japanese-made words	46
Figure 6. Responses to the question of Japanese-English	47
Figure 7. Responses to the question of not wanting to lose	48
Figure 8. Responses to the question of using English	50
Figure 9. Responses to the question of using English	50
Figure 10. Responses to the question of feeling shy	52
Figure 11. Length of study, English ownership, and view of varieties of English.....	54
Figure 12. Mean of responses for each category	55

Introduction

The role that English plays in the world today is a complex and controversial one. Although the language is used in many contexts to connect people from different cultures around the world together by serving as a *lingua franca* (Crystal, 2010, Pakir, 2009; Seidlhoffer, 2009), there is growing concern as to how far the language will spread and the negative impacts that it can have as a result on different societies that may not want to accept this global language (Phillipson, 2008). In addition, as English begins to be used by more people of different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, new questions are being raised as to which varieties of English should be taught to learners and who can claim the right of ownership to the language. Does ownership of English rest with those who are born speaking the language in what are considered traditionally English-speaking countries, or should ownership of the language be allocated to any person who can use the language as a result of the fact that English is a *lingua franca*? While many stress the latter (Higgins, 2003; Matsuda, 2000; Matsuda, 2003; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011; Parmegiani, 2010), there still exists a problem that many of those who are learning English feel that the language is not theirs to own until they have mastered the language like a native speaker (McKenzie, 2008; Saito & Hatoss, 2011; Tokimoto & Shibata, 2011). The goal of this research proposal is to address this paradox while focusing on Japanese learners of English.

Problem

With regards to the current status of English in Japan, there exists a contradiction as to how Japanese speakers view different varieties of English and how Japanese speakers of English feel about their own ownership of the language (Matsuda, 2000; Matsuda, 2003; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). While more Japanese students continue to learn English and varieties of English increase, Japanese students often have a negative view of their own variety of English while viewing the

OWNING ENGLISH

native speaking varieties from the United States and Great Britain in a positive and idealized way, in addition to believing that the ownership of English rests with the native speaker (Matsuda, 2003). In many studies, Japanese speakers often devalue their own form of English, and view it negatively as a result (Matsuda, 2000; Matsuda, 2003; Saito & Hatoss, 2011; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011). This is the case even though there are many other English varieties that are much closer geographically to Japan. Until recently, the stress in Japanese schools has been for students to attain native-like fluency in English thus placing greater importance on native English varieties, and this mentality is apparent in much of the literature (Matsuda, 2000; Matsuda 2003; Oda, 2007; Saito & Hatoss, 2011; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011). There is an imbalance between how the educational system views English as important, how government officials view English as imperative to learn, and how Japanese students learning English have little confidence or ownership of their own variety because they feel that they do not meet the native speaker ideal (Oda 2007; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). Therefore, as English continues to spread and grow in importance, the problem facing Japanese students learning English is that they do not feel like they can claim the language as their own because they feel that they do not meet the idealized English of the native speakers from countries like the United States and Great Britain. As a result, this feeling of inferiority in their English and lack of ownership of the language could indicate that the perceptions that Japanese learners of English have on varieties of English may affect their own feelings of ownership and view of their English. Thus, these perceptions may have a negative effect on the willingness that Japanese speakers of English have to communicate in the language (Hashimoto, 2002; Matsuda, 2003; Matsuoka, 2008).

OWNING ENGLISH

Purpose

For Japanese students learning English, the perceptions that they have of different varieties of English with regard to their own variety can lead to the problem of feeling a lack of ownership of the language and inferiority of their own variety of English. This then can lead to unwillingness to use the language or anxiety while using it. The purpose of this study is to investigate the contradictory relationship that appears to exist as demonstrated by the literature between the idealized views of the native English speaker and how Japanese students view their own English. The overall goal of this study is to investigate the perceptions that Japanese students have on different varieties of English and how these perceptions affect their own views of ownership and feelings about their use of English. This study will add to the current literature on this topic of perceptions of Japanese learners with regards to English and English language use. The reason for using a survey and an interview option is to first obtain a basic understanding of the perceptions that Japanese speakers have about English from many different individuals with the survey. From there, the interview portion of this research will expand on these views to capture a more thorough conceptualization of how these perceptions and attitudes affect the participants on a more personal, individual level.

Significance

This study will add to the literature on the current situation of English language ownership by Japanese second language speakers of English. There are many problems with the current dichotomy in Japan with regards to valuing native English varieties from the United States and Great Britain as the ideal, while restricting exposure to other English varieties that are much closer geographically, such as English from Singapore, the Philippines, and so forth, which ultimately leads to a negative view of English language ownership on behalf of the Japanese

OWNING ENGLISH

users (Matsuda 2003; Matsuoka, 2008; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). Therefore, this study is an attempt to demonstrate the importance of greater exposure to English varieties in not only an international context, but as a positive influence on Japanese students learning English. The majority of studies that focus specifically on English language ownership by Japanese learners of the language primarily target secondary school students (Matsuda, 2003; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). Alternatively, some research has been done on university students that are currently in Japan (Yashima, 2008). As a result, the justification of this study is that there is a need for more research on the specific area involving students that are in a setting in which English is being used on a regular basis by being in a predominantly English-speaking country. This study will set out to investigate further the views of ownership that Japanese university students have with regard to their English and English use when in a setting in which they are exposed to English on a regular basis. In addition, although this study is focusing on Japanese learners of English, the problem of English language ownership is one affecting many students learning English as a second or foreign language (Evans, 2010; Higgins, 2003; No & Park, 2008; Parmegiani, 2010). Therefore, results of this study can be used to illuminate the problem of lack of English ownership by second language learners of English as a whole and contribute to the literature on the current status of English as a global language.

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Literature Review

The literature review for this study examines the current body of research pertaining to areas of English as a lingua franca and the current spread of English throughout the world beyond the scope of the native English-speaking community. Included in this is a review of different perceptions that different communities have on various varieties of English, incorporating views expressed by both native and non-native speakers. The literature covered in this study also attempts to examine the relationship that the spread of English has had in Japan as a result of historical, cultural, economic, and contextual factors that have led to the rise and importance of English education in Japan. As a result of the growing use and importance of English in a global world, new problems have emerged with regard to feelings of language identity and ownership that come with learning and using English. Following a review of studies on English ownership and second language identity, with particular regard to studies on the effect that overseas study has on second language identity, more specific consideration is taken on the feelings of Japanese students in particular have on English ownership and second language identity.

The Spread of English

Within the current studies of the international role of English, there are currently three different conceptualizations that have been used to explain the varying situations and reasons for which English is being utilized (Seidlhoffer, 2009). Older conceptualizations refer to the spread and use of English globally using the term *international English* (EIL). Under this paradigm, the importance of native speakers is fully realized as emphasis is on “the distribution of native-speaker Standard English” as opposed to “the way English has changed to meet international needs” (Seidlhoffer, 2009, p. 237). With the phrase international English there is stress placed

OWNING ENGLISH

on the notion that native varieties of English, such as varieties from the United States, Great Britain, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand, are correct, and that those seeking to learn English must emulate these varieties if they want to master and speak English. However, the *World Englishes* (WE) movement began by Braj Kachru (1985) as well as the alternative conceptualization of *English as a lingua franca* (ELF) challenge the concept that English rightly belongs to others besides speakers from traditionally English-speaking countries (Pakir, 2009; Seidlhoffer, 2009). However, to understand the current role of English and why it is where it is today with regard to its extensive use on a global scale, including in Japan, it is imperative to first observe the historical roots of the spread of the English language.

Historically, English has not always been a particularly prestigious, wide-spread, or influential language (Hogg & Denison, 2008). The history of English as a global language begins with the start of exploration from Europe, the spread of the British Empire, the growth of the United States as a political power, the colonization of Africa and parts of Asia by Britain and the United States, and into the modern era with the remaining influences left in these areas as a result of British or American rule (Crystal, 2010). In many of the places in which an English-speaking country was in power, there were language policies which accompanied them and supported the expansion of the use of English. Phillipson (2008) documents that under British policy, although English was not directly imposed or required to be used by the colonized peoples, there existed practices through which the prestige of English was increased by making it the language of education, particularly for the elite. An example of this can still be seen in South Africa today, where although apartheid as a form of segregation was officially ended, there still exists a form of linguistic segregation through which the economically disadvantaged are kept such because of their lack of knowledge of English (Parmegiani, 2010). In cases in which the

OWNING ENGLISH

vernacular was used, it was generally used among the poorer classes or was used in the first few years of education, but phased out as the people learned English. This was the case for the majority of nations under the rule of either the United States or Britain at one point or another. In multilingual places like India and Singapore, English is used in such roles as government and education as a result of the colonial rule and despite there being other native languages that are historically and culturally more relevant to these nations (Crystal, 2010).

The expansion of English is not restricted to colonial situations only. The colonial influence cannot account for the large number of countries with no historical or political ties with the United States or Great Britain that use English or encourage the use in education. Kachru (1985) states that “the unparalleled diffusion of English is essentially a post-World War II phenomenon” (p. 207) and in his work he finds that in every region in which English is found there are shifts in attitudes towards English based on power, culture, and its role in society. This viewpoint is emphasized by Shen (2009), who discusses the spread of English in relation to its role in science, business, technology, and the ever-growing infrastructure in international communication. Use of English in these areas has resulted in its increased importance and spread to areas that have no historical ties with English-speaking countries like the United States and Britain. In many of the former countries in which English was only considered a foreign language as opposed to a second language, there is a shift towards English being used in places in which the native language would have previously been used. This is epitomized with an example from Phillipson (2008) who explains the state of English use in Scandinavia. In the domain of education, which would have been formerly restricted to Finnish or Swedish, English has taken over as the main language of academia, and high performance in English language ability is a marker of success in high education (Phillipson, 2008). Similar circumstances are

OWNING ENGLISH

occurring all over the world, with nations that have no historical ties with English-speaking countries placing a high value and prestige on English. This phenomenon is attributed by Crystal (2010) to the widespread use of English through media, with communication, technology, travel, safety, and economics.

English is no longer restricted to the borders of the lands in which native speakers reside and the demand for English is growing in countries that have very few historical or cultural ties with the English language. According to Crystal (2010), English is currently the language that is being taught most widely as a foreign language. Over the past century, English has seen considerable growth in its usage, becoming an official language in many nations and taking semi-official roles of language in many others. Shen (2009) states that English gained its *lingua franca* status in the modern era as the result of its use in new technologies involving communication, technology, science, and education. Others such as Phillipson (2008) contend that the growth and expansion of English is the result of linguistic imperialism, which came as a result of the political, economic, and social power of English-speaking countries. He stresses that the use of the language is a tool for manipulating the roles of third world countries and maintaining a political and economic status quo in which English speakers remain the dominant party. Both Phillipson (2008) and Kachru and Nelson (1996) claim that the use of English is connected with educational and political power, and that this prestige of English, especially of valuing the native-speaker, puts unprecedented value or power on individuals and nations who are native speakers (Kachru & Nelson, 1996).

Varieties of English. The distinction between countries that use English primarily as the result of colonial rule and countries in which English is used more as a foreign language demonstrate the distinction between the difference the terms WE and ELF. For the purpose of

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clarification, WE refers to the phrase that Kachru coined to refer specifically to Englishes that are used in the formal colonial regions (Kachru, 1985) and focus on the nativized forms of English as found in places like Singapore, India, and the Philippines. Pakir (2009) and Seidlhofer (2009) also explain that the WE paradigm extends to include the linguistic realities of English outside of these countries to the areas in which English did not have a historically relevant role. Alternatively, the term ELF as used by Pakir (2009) and Seidlhofer (2009) is used to explain the current spread of English to regions where English has not seen a traditional role, but is growing as a result of its role in the spheres of education, business, science, technology, and communication. In contrast, Phillipson (2008) explains that “the term is now frequently applied to dominant international languages which happen to be formal colonial language” (p. 41), and thus places significance on the fact that with lingua franca, there is an implied imbalance of power between those who have access to this language and those who do not.

Crystal (2010) and Matsuda and Friedrich (2011), however, refer to English as a global or international language (EIL). This terminology places importance on the growing role of English beyond use by the native speakers and its role in a global setting and reflects the sentiments found in Pakir (2009) and Seidlhofer’s (2009) definition of ELF. Based on this definition, the title of a global or international language is not given solely based on the number of native speakers a language has. For example, Spanish is the native language spoken by the majority of people living in central and South America, but this is not enough to be considered a lingua franca, as stated by Crystal (2010). In order for a language to be considered a global language, it must be “taken up by other countries around the world” and “they must decide to give it a special place within their communities, even though they may have a few (or no) mother tongue speakers” (Crystal, 2010, p. 4). Based on these qualifications, English has reached the

OWNING ENGLISH

point at which it can be considered a global language and thus fits into the paradigm of English as a lingua franca.

According to Kachru's (1982) current model of English under the WE paradigm, the spread of English and English speakers is outlined into three groups. This model begins with the native speakers of English where it has a traditional place in use and serves as the primary language in this area. The *inner circle* contains countries such as the United States, Great Britain, Ireland, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand and has approximately 320 to 380 million native speakers (Crystal, 2010). The next circle, as defined by Kachru (1982) is the *outer circle*, includes places in which English has spread with no traditional role, but often as the result of influence from a historical connection or colonial imperialism. In these countries, English is used often in government, economic, or social institutions in important ways. In this circle, English has attained an important role as an official second language in many of these countries that are often multilingual, and it includes Singapore, India, and the Philippines, among others. English speakers are approximated at 300-500 million in these countries (Crystal, 2010). The English varieties of these regions are often referred to as nativized or institutionalized varieties of English as a result of their long standing roles in the institutions of government and education in these areas (Higgins & Kachru, 1982; Kachru, 1985; Pakir, 2009; Seidlhoffer, 2009).

However, it is with the *expanding circle* with which there has been the most growth of English and in which English has had no cultural or historical significance, but it is taught as a foreign language (Crystal, 2010; Pakir, 2009; Seidlhoffer, 2009). Within this circle, countries such as Japan, China, Russia, Sweden, and so forth are found. Although the numbers of native speakers are limited in these areas, there is not a lack of English speakers. Recent estimates total the number of English speakers in the expanding circle between 500 to 1,000 million, which is

OWNING ENGLISH

significantly greater than the number of native English speakers found within the inner circle (Crystal, 2010).

Whether the WE paradigm or the ELF viewpoint is being used to study the current situation of English, it is apparent that the language is being used regularly as a communication tool between non-native speakers of English that have differing first languages and that its use in all circle of speakers will continue to grow. This point is illustrated best by Kachru and Nelson (1996) who state that “the sheer numbers of English users worldwide are almost unimaginable to the monolingual, monoculture English teacher” (p. 78). English is no longer a language restricted to use by those wanting to visit an inner circle country, and as a result, the importance of attaining the variety of English as possessed by native speakers is a question that is asked frequently in research. As the demand for English and English education increases around the world, it is imperative that English language teaching professionals understand that as a result of its global status, there are a variety of different forms of English that are as diverse and unique as those who use the language (Kachru & Nelson, 1996).

Within inner circle nations, language purists still argue over which variety of English is better, that of Britain or that of the United States (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). They debate which form of the language is the most pure, which the most idealistic form of English is, which is the most conservative, and which should be held as the idealized English form (Kachru & Nelson, 1996). Traditionally, the view that native speakers had towards non-native varieties was from a deficit perspective. This refers to the fact that the native speakers, ones from the inner circle regions, felt that that the forms of English found in the outer and expanding circles are not acceptable forms of the English language. However, as more varieties of English are acknowledged, there is a push for these varieties to be held as a standard among themselves, as

OWNING ENGLISH

opposed to being compared to native forms of the language. For example, English in Singapore, an extended territory, classifies English found in this country in two forms, Singapore Standard English (SSE) and Singapore Colloquial English (SCE or Singlish), and it is only when a child enters school that they are formally introduced to SSE. However, even though SCE is the variety of English that Singaporeans learn from birth, it is criticized by its own citizens and speakers, particularly from the government or education standpoint as being bad English as it differs far more from than British English or American English that SSE does (Chang, 2011). What is important to note is that Singlish is a native variety of English and is not an inner circle variety, and even its own speakers are critical and hesitant to accept it as a variety of English without reservations. Similarly, Kachru (1982) notes this effect in many nativized or localized varieties of English, citing the situation in Ghana in particular. For clarification, a nativized or localized variety of English is a variety of English, like SSE as discussed above, that has taken on some of the lexical, phonological, or other linguistic components from the language or culture of that particular area or region.

Kachru (1982) refers to this phenomenon of devaluing and harboring an unwillingness to accept a localized variety of English as “linguistic schizophrenia” (p. 43). Through this phenomenon, non-native speakers of English, or speakers of varieties of English from extended or expanding circle countries, are unable to accept their own varieties “without reservations” (p. 44) as to their validity when compared to the English of inner circle speakers of English. It is Kachru and Nelson (1996) that state that there must be a shift from the viewpoint that “native-speaker English is best” (p. 94), but that English can be used instead a versatile and important vehicle for expanding and spreading multicultural ideas across cultures and countries. When the focus is shifted away from using English as a native speaker would and putting a deficit

OWNING ENGLISH

perspective on non-native or outer circle varieties, the value of English as a bidirectional tool for sharing knowledge, culture, and ideas becomes immediately apparent (Kachru & Nelson, 1996).

History of the Language in Japan

From an historical standpoint, the influence of English in a Japanese context is restricted for the most part to the latter half of the 20th century, with emphasis placed on the post-war reconstruction of Japan after their loss of World War II. Before World War II, English was not a particularly influential language on the island nation. The first contact that Japan had with English-speaking peoples occurred in the 17th century with the advent of trade with Japan and the West (Chang, 2010). However, contact with the English language was limited as a result of the fact that Japan essentially shut off its borders to foreign nations, with the exception of a small island on which the Dutch were able to trade. However, when Japan opened its borders again to the American Navy Commander, Commodore Perry, in 1853, the emergence of English influence began to take hold (Chang, 2010). Unlike many of the other Asian nations who had succumbed to colonial rule by the British, Japan maintained its autonomy by entering in a treaty with the United States in 1858, and as a result of this treaty, “English had replaced Dutch as the main foreign language in Japan” (Chang, 2010, p. 197).

During the Meiji (1868-1912) era, English received recognition as a useful and important language to learn, as Japan pushed towards westernization and modernization. A traditional Japanese practice referred to as いいとこ取り *iitokodori*, which translates into English as the concept of adopting beneficial elements of foreign cultures, assisted in Japan’s ability to Westernize quickly and allowed the country to industrialize and create economic ties with Western nations more rapidly than other Asian countries (Davies & Ikeno, 2002). Through contacts with foreign dignitaries and cultural exchanges, English and western ideas began to

OWNING ENGLISH

emerge as being important to many Japanese government officials, and thus in this period, formal English education in Japan began to emerge (Chang, 2010). English gained a highly regarded status among some Japanese in power who were pushing to reform the island nation. By the Taishō period (1912-1926), the Japanese government endeavored to emulate European-style constitutional democracy, and thus, they sought to model their new government structure on primarily the German and English governments. This led to Japanese interest in the English language as a means to communicate with a global community. However, towards the end of the Taishō period, English use and public opinion of the language declined in favor, particularly because English was seen as irrelevant for use in the daily life of the average Japanese person (Chang, 2010).

The sharpest decline in interest with English education in Japan occurred directly before the advent of World War II, as a result of the tense situation with the English-speaking countries of the Allied nations (Oda, 2007). This remained true throughout the war, as Japanese nationalism continued to rise and as a result of English being the language of the enemy (Oda, 2007). However, with the end of the war and in particular, the role that the United States played with the restructuring and reconstruction of Japan, English once again became an important and influential language (Chang, 2010). In 1956, English was deemed significant enough an academic language that it became one of the main subjects tested on entrance examinations for Japanese secondary schools (Chang 2010; Oda, 2007). It is important to note that the Japanese government, until recently, had not officially mandated that English be compulsory, meaning that there was no law in Japan stating that learning English is required. However, it was required for Japanese students to learn a foreign language, and often, English was the only one offered that students may learn (Oda, 2007). This, in conjunction with its placement on the entrance

OWNING ENGLISH

exams for secondary schools in Japan, essentially made English the main foreign language learned in Japanese schools.

English education in Japan. In the modern era, there is a consensus among many Japanese people that learning English is necessary in order for Japan to participate in the global world. This is demonstrated by the inclusion of English as a compulsory subject for grades 5 and 6 in 2008 and English lessons increasing across schools to four days a week in 2010 (Chang, 2010). In addition, there had been a push within Japan to introduce English education earlier and earlier into the curriculum. According to Nunan (2003), “many primary schools were planning to introduce English, focusing on listening and speaking, within the General Studies program” (p. 599). Because of the young age of the students, the focus in these programs is to make learning English fun and enjoyable to the students, as opposed to the use of textbooks (Nunan, 2003). This increase in importance of English is reflected in the feelings of many of the recent and current officials in Japan. Oda (2007) discusses the viewpoint provided by Terasawa, a former secretary of Economic Planning in Japan, who stressed that unless Japan pushed for greater competence in English, the nation would not be able to participate in a global world, and would thus flounder. In addition, Oda cites Funabashi, a major influence of one of Japan’s largest newspapers, as another individual who stresses the importance of advancing English education in Japan. In his argument, however, Oda explains that although Funabashi tries to stress that English is a global language that is not owned by certain cultures, there is still a strong sense in his writing that English belongs to the native speakers, that being primarily the Inner Circle varieties found in the United States, Great Britain, and Australia. A similar mentality is reflected in the textbook and education system with regards to English. While the government stresses the importance of learning English for communication, still much of the material taught

OWNING ENGLISH

in Japanese schools with regards to learning English does not focus on speaking and listening skills. Contrary to learning English in meaningful ways, the majority of English classes in Japan focus on learning reading and writing skills in order for the students to perform admirably on entrance exams for admittance into prestigious senior high schools and universities (Nunan, 2003).

Although in recent years there has been a shift in incorporating different varieties of English into the language learning classroom environment in Japan, generally, the climate remains that the preferred varieties to teach Japanese school children are native, inner circle varieties of English, predominately from the United States and Great Britain (Matsuda, 2003; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). This fact is reflected in the current numbers of the JET Programme. The JET program (Japanese Exchange and Teaching and Exchange Programme) was created in 1987 and brings English-speaking individuals to Japan to help with the exchange of cultures and languages within Japan. Although there is no requirement that one must be a native English speaker to apply, the program is mainly concerned with providing assistance with English language instruction within schools (Shen, 2009). This program is entirely government sponsored and employs approximately 5,000 individuals on a yearly contract basis. As expressed above, the current enrollment of participants in the JET program is primarily from native speakers of English from inner Circle countries. According to the 2013 statistics for participants, of the 4,372 positions, 2,359 went to individuals from the United States alone (<http://www.jetprogramme.org>). The following countries had the next highest number of participants in the following order: the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and Ireland with a combined total of 1,526. Therefore, of the total positions offered, approximately 89% of the participants in the JET program in 2013 came from counties that are considered

OWNING ENGLISH

native speakers from the Inner Circle. In addition, the JET programme has received much criticism by JET participants as well as the Japanese with regards to its effectiveness and costliness, making people question the concept of whether native English speakers are the standard to which Japanese speakers of English should be held (Nunan, 2003). However, the current state of English in Japan is that “native speakership thereby signifies the target that potential learners should aspire to which showcases the mythical image of the native English speaker” (Saito & Hatoss, 2011, p. 109). This viewpoint of native speakers being the standard, to which Japanese students are taught, however, leads to varying views on how English is perceived by these Japanese learners of English.

Perceptions of English and English Varieties

Current research suggests that there is often a contradiction between how learners of English view different varieties of English and how the learners of English view their own varieties (Evans, 2010; Kachru, 1982; Matsuda, 2003; Matsuoka, 2008; McKenzie, 2008; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011; Yashima, 2001). These perceptions of English and English varieties can impact which variety learners feel like they should be learning and are often tied to stereotypical representations of the countries from which different varieties of English come. In a study done by Evans (2010), the perceptions of Chinese learners of English were studied in order to examine the attitudes that they had of different native varieties of English. Within this study, the researchers asked the participants to answer questions via an open-ended questionnaire and respond to items such as which countries they associated with English as a native language and what their thoughts were on these varieties. The original questions were asked in Chinese and then translated into English. Based on the responses, the feedback received implied that the majority of Chinese participants viewed the United Kingdom and the United States as the

OWNING ENGLISH

majority places where English was spoken as a native language, with only a fraction of respondents even mentioning Australia or New Zealand. When given their opinions on the varieties of English from the United Kingdom and the United States, however, a pattern in how the Chinese participants viewed the two different varieties emerged. According to Evans (2010), the general conclusion that can be made from the study is that the perceptions that the Chinese learners of English had about varieties from the United Kingdom was that these varieties were viewed as being traditional, formal, pleasant, polite, orthodox, and standard. In contrast, themes with regards to the perceptions that the Chinese participants had about American English focused around concepts such as casualness, pleasantness, modernism, and freedom. This study suggests that these perceptions place a different value on British English and American English, but it also suggests that there is the elevation and regard for British English as being the correct or standard English for these Chinese students.

In another study of perceptions and attitudes toward different varieties of English done by McKenzie (2008), Japanese students learning English were asked to listen to six different speech samples of English of different varieties and asked to evaluate the speech by rating characteristics of the speech using a scale. Of the varieties chosen for the participants to listen to, two were from the United States, two were from Scotland, and two were accented varieties of Japanese English. In addition, that varieties were broken down further so that one example was a standard form, while another was a non-standard or more accented form, as was the case in the distinction of the two Japanese English samples chosen. Unlike the study done by Evans (2010) which demonstrated a preference for English from the UK, this study suggested that the Japanese participants, the most preferred variety for competence was for the standard variety selected of American English. However, the study found that with regard to social factors, the most heavily

OWNING ENGLISH

accented Japanese variety was found most attractive, followed by the other two non-standard varieties of British and American English (McKenzie, 2008). As a result, this study suggests that perceptions of English varieties can vary based on whether it is being judged on perceived correctness and understandability, or whether it is being judged in how comfortable one feels hearing the variety and how much they relate to the speakers of said variety. This study demonstrates what was mentioned previously by Kachru (1985), that the speakers of the variety, in the case Japanese English, do not accept their variety as being the most competent or correct English variety. They do, however, value it for social reasons.

Unlike McKenzie (2008) and Evans (2010), Tokimoto and Shibata (2011) focused on the perceptions that Japanese, Korean, and Malaysian learners of English had on varieties of English from other their own countries and other parts of Asia. This study did not have the participants access any native English-speaking varieties from inner circle speakers, but instead focused on the perceptions that the participants had on non-native, expanding circle varieties of English. A self-assessment questionnaire was used and included items that focused on how well the participant thought their variety of English could be understood by native speakers, whether or not they felt speaking like native speakers was important, and other similar items about feelings with regards to the target language and the role of English in the world (Tokimoto & Shibata, 2011). Based on the results of this study, of the three groups of students surveyed (Japanese, Korean, and Malaysian) the Japanese students were the most critical of their variety of English and were the group to devalue their variety the most. As compared with the other groups, the Japanese students overwhelming felt that native like fluency was important to be understood in English, whereas the Malaysian students were less concerned. Therefore, as demonstrated in the study done by McKenzie, the Japanese speakers in the study done by Tokimoto and Shibata

OWNING ENGLISH

(2011) also perceived that their variety of English was not correct and that emulating the native speaker is the ideal.

The Ownership of English

One of the current controversies in the realm of modern English linguistics and English education is the debate over where ownership of English should be placed: does the ownership of English belong to the native speakers (NS) who were born into English-speaking communities in the inner circle, or does English also belong to non-native speakers (NNS), those who learn non inner circle varieties or those that learn English as a foreign language? This debate is one that continues to exist as English spreads to more areas and as more people continue to learn English (Higgins, 2003; Mastusda, 2003; Parmegiani, 2010). An example of this debate over ownership can be found in a study done by Parmegiani (2010) in which she analyzes the feelings of ownership that South African non-native speakers of English have with regard to English. Her study suggests that the ownership of English in a multilingual setting such as South Africa is a multifaceted and complicated one. Her findings support the notion that many of the students who do not speak English as their first language still associate the claim of ownership of a language related to the inheritance and ethnic identity. However, these students also supported a more inclusive view towards English ownership based on the notion that the speakers that were the best speakers are not necessarily native speakers and that this notion of best speaker resides with anyone who has learned the language well (Parmegiani, 2010). This study highlights the current dichotomy facing many non-native speakers of English or those who speak varieties from the outer circle. There exists a feeling with many learners of English that English still belongs to the native speakers from inner circle countries, despite there being multiple other varieties of English spoken throughout the world.

OWNING ENGLISH

In another study by Matsuda (2003), a similar mentality was found as to whom non-native speakers believe English belongs. In her research with Japanese high school students, these students express that although they feel English is used by speakers from all different nations and all different cultures, and that they viewed it as an international language, like the students in the study done by Parmegiani (2010), the Japanese students in Matsuda's study also expressed their belief that English is owned or by the native speakers (2003). In addition to believing that English was owned by native speakers, the students also devalued their own Japanese variety, believing it wrong in comparison to the English spoken by native speakers.

However, there have been studies which suggest that non-native English speakers do and can demonstrate their ownership of English with the same authority of native English speakers. One such study was done by Higgins (2003) which challenged the dichotomy of native speaker versus non-native speaker ownership. Within her study, students who were both native and non-native speakers were asked to judge sentences on whether they were correct or not. The results indicated that non-native speakers oriented themselves to judging the sentences in similar ways to native speakers. Although the non-native speakers did demonstrate less certainty than the native speakers, they still demonstrated ownership of English based on their ability to make judgments as to whether they felt a sentence was acceptable in English or not. It is this ability to judge the correctness of the language, or *expertise* as it is called by Parmegiani (2010), that is considered in this case means for ownership of English, as opposed to the concept of native versus non-native speaker of a language. This exemplifies the notion that English does not belong to the native speakers, but it belongs to anyone who speaks the language and feels that they can place a stake in the language. However, the problem still exists that in many cases, the views and perceptions of varieties of English by non-native English speakers influences what

OWNING ENGLISH

speakers feel about these varieties as well as their own English which can affect the feelings of ownership that one has on their second language.

Second language ownership and identity.. Although it may seem that ownership over one's first language and the impact that it has on one's identity is apparent, the relationship and feelings of ownership and the effect the second language may have on identity can be more problematic and more difficult to pinpoint or understand. Much of the research suggests that there is often a concept that second language learners of English have with regard to English, that when learning the language, they are limited to a prescriptive interpretation of the language and how they can use it, especially when it comes to attaining native speaker like fluency (Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott, & Brown 2012; Kang, 2014; Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014; Matsuda, 2003; Saito & Hatoss, 2011). It is often the cases that in instances when individuals go abroad to study a target language, they bring these prescriptive ideas with them and integrated them into their second language identity as part of their second language ideology.

When addressing the idea of language identity and learning a second language, the concept of *imagined communities* is often used. An imagined community is regarded as the community that the language learner imagines that they will join upon learning a new language and relate to the concept of identity in that the individual invests a part of how they see themselves participating with this group of people (Hornberger & McKay, 2010). However, how a second language learner views the imagined community, their participation in it, their investment in it, and how it effects their identity is a largely individualistic and personal one and varies from learner to learner. As a result the way a person learning a second language, for example a person learning English, interacts with the English language community or views the imagined community can affect the individual's interpretation of their second language, or

OWNING ENGLISH

English-speaking, identity. Norton (1997) also discusses the concept of investment in a language community with regards to identity. She states that the relationship that the learner has to the target language as it relates to identity deals with the views and preconceived ideas that the learner has about the target language. This may be affected by cultural or historical factors or individual interpretations that the learner has about the language community. As a result, as a learner of a second language acquires and learns more of the language, their identity may change over time with both how they view themselves as a speaker of the language, but also how they view themselves as a member of society and in that language community.

According to Benson, Bodycott, and Brown (2013), learning a second language can be considered “identify work” (p. 19) in that when an individual learns a second language, he or she is becoming a different person than the person who he or she was before without knowledge of the language. In addition, dimensions of identity are often multifaceted and can lead to frustration on the part of an individual by not being able to reach their identity goals. This in part relates to the concept of imagined communities as well, in that many learners of a second language seek to attain native-like fluency, which becomes integrated into the notion of what they seek to attain with part of their identity by participating in the imagined community.

Study abroad experience and identity. Many studies have been conducted to determine the amount of influence that living in an area where the target language is primarily spoken has on the individual’s relationship with the second language with regards to language ownership and identity. In a study done by Benson et al. (2012), a group of students from Hong Kong were studied during either a thirteen or six week study abroad program in order to determine if the programs had an effect on the students’ feelings of language identity and language use. The study examined these students in various countries where English was the prominent language of

OWNING ENGLISH

study, including the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia through a series of pre- and post-study interviews and diaries through blog entries. What the study found was that although the students for the most part did not report a marked improvement in proficiency, which was largely attributed to the short length of the study abroad experience, the data suggested that the students felt an improvement in their overall communication skills in English (Benson et al., 2012). In addition, one of the students in this study expressed her improvement in the ability to think in English as a result of the experience (Benson et al., 2012). A minority of their students were able to relate their study abroad experience to how it affected their feelings of language identity and ownership. These students expressed that using English altered their identity in that they recognized that in order to make friends in the English linguistic community they must use English in order to interact. One student also stated that she had felt shy and timid before, however by developing her English language to help her in her overseas study, her identity developed in order to allow her to interact with more international people both where she studied and upon her return (Benson et al., 2012). This study also illustrated that the students experienced a marked change in linguistic self-concept with regards to English before and after their study abroad experience. One student describes this change as feeling like a learner of English before her study abroad experience to a user of English afterwards and many of the other students felt similarly (Benson et al., 2012). Although it is not definitive, this study demonstrates that change in feelings of ownership that students may have a result of studying abroad in an area where their second language was predominantly spoken.

In another study, the willingness to communicate in English was examined as it related to a study abroad experience by Korean students in an English-speaking environment. Kang (2014) examined the experiences that these students had, before the study abroad experience and after

OWNING ENGLISH

the experience through a series of questionnaires and interviews focusing on language confidence and proficiency. According to this study, the study abroad experience increased the willingness to communicate on the part of the participants, although the increase was also affected by individual learning beliefs, learner autonomy, and other contextual factors. While factors of identity are not explicitly addressed, the concept of the relationship between willingness to communicate and language identity can be seen from excerpts from a student interview in this study with regard to their increased confidence in speaking English as a result of the study abroad experience. However, increased confidence and increased proficiency as a result of using the language in an English-speaking community does not necessarily indicate changes in feelings of ownership of the language, even if the student's language identity has changed.

Hashimoto (2002) also studied the willingness to communicate, but as a predictor of L2 usage on a larger scale, while still looking at individuals living in an area where English was used on a predominant basis. This study looked at a group of Japanese students studying at a university in Hawai'i in which all the students were L2 speakers of English. Although the concepts of language ownership and identity with the target language were not explicitly addressed, the categories that were studied under the concept of willingness to communicate are relatable to a person's identity and ownership of a second language. For example, this study looked at the motivation as well as the amount of anxiety that participants had when using English, both of which are factors that relate to identity in a second language speaking community. The study came to the conclusion that the feelings of anxiety and perceptions of having a low level of proficiency, especially among students that are of a higher level of proficiency, can have a negative effect on the students' willingness to communicate in the target

OWNING ENGLISH

language. In addition, the study found that the self-confidence with the language was a predictor for a high level of motivation to learn the language. Therefore, this study suggests that the participants who had strong feelings of self-confidence in the language and perceived their language use as proficient were more willing to communicate in the second language community, and thus affect their feelings of ownership and second language identity.

Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014) performed a similar study in which they looked at the study abroad experiences of Turkish students and how the experience affected their feelings of ownership and English language use. The study examined the experiences of Turkish universities students who studied in various English-speaking communities where English was spoken as a foreign language (EFL communities) for a five month, or one semester, long period. Using pre- and post- study questionnaires, the perceptions and beliefs about the study abroad experience was studied as well as the perceptions that the students had about their own English language use. One of the most relevant conclusions that was drawn from this study was that while the students felt that accurate grammar and native-like fluency was the idealized outcome for their English language study before the study abroad experience, after the experience, the majority of the students acknowledge that “error-free grammar was not really necessary to communicate fluently with other people” (p. 363). The students did still view the native-speaker fluency as the norm or standard to which English was held, however, many of their language ideologies were shifted to accommodate the importance of using English for meaning as opposed to solely attaining native-like fluency or perfect grammar. This may be attributed to the fact that the students were studying in EFL communities as opposed to native English-speaking communities, however, as seen in other studies) the students also recognized the importance of using English as a global language with international speakers of the language and not solely

OWNING ENGLISH

native speakers (Benson et al., 2012). This then raises the questions that even though these second language learners of English may recognize the importance of English as a tool for communication as a lingua franca, this does not answer the question of whether or not they felt that they can lay claim to English as their own language.

Japanese learners and English language ownership. This problem of ownership of English is epitomized in Matsuda's (2003) study of Japanese high school students. The struggle between whether or not Japanese students feel they have ownership of the language was the subject of this research. A combination of survey and then more in depth interview questions were asked to collect information on how Japanese students viewed English, different varieties of English, relationship between English and Japanese, as well as their feelings of ownership with regard to English. The study found that there was a definite conflict between how the students viewed their ownership of the language and whether or not they felt Japanese English was an acceptable variety to use or if they should try and emulate the more traditionally viewed native varieties of English like the ones from the United States and Britain. To demonstrate this dichotomous relationship, Matsuda (2003) states "concerns and negative attitudes expressed toward a Japanese accent, often by the same students who argued that it should be accepted, suggest that the Japanese accent is still positioned negatively and as an 'incorrect' form of English" (p. 492). Essentially, the results from this study suggest that although on one level, Japanese learners feel a solidarity with Japanese English and they recognize the importance of different varieties of English, because of the influence and exposure to the inner circle varieties of English, they are unable to accept ownership and see correctness of their own variety because it does not match what they believe is the correct variety of English.

OWNING ENGLISH

In a similar study conducted by Saito and Hatoss (2011), the perceptions of Japanese high school students were also evaluated with regard to their feelings. However, in this study, the added variable of experience of visiting an English-speaking country was evaluated in order to see if this influenced the students' perception of varieties of English as well as their feelings of ownership of the language. In the study, a questionnaire was given to the participants to first ascertain their feelings towards the varieties of English from the following countries: UK, US, India, Singapore, Japan, and China (Saito & Hatoss, 2011). For the second portion of the questionnaire, the items dealt with the participants' feelings of motivation and attitudes with regard to the native similar ideal. Similar to the findings by Matsuda (2003), Tokimoto and Shibata (2011), McKenzie, (2008), Saito and Hatoss (2011) also found that the Japanese students felt that the native English varieties from inner circle nations like the United States and the United Kingdom were the ideal, and these varieties received the most positive feedback from the students. In addition, the students in this study evaluated English from the United States as being the most desirable, which parallels the results found in the study done by McKenzie (2008). However, this study also included the added element of comparing students who experienced English in an Anglophone environment for an extended period of time as opposed to those that did not. Based on the results, Saito and Hatoss (2011) found that students who had spent time in an Anglophone environment were influenced by this experience. They theorized that "by using English overseas as non-native speakers themselves, the participants may have raised the awareness of lingua franca functionality of English and their second language identity" (p. 119). Therefore, although the students may not have been necessarily exposed to multiple different varieties of English, the results from this study indicate that by experiencing English in an

OWNING ENGLISH

Anglophone environment, their awareness of the multi-functionality of English increased, which additionally affected their own views of their English language use.

Based then on these previous studies, there is a dichotomy to be found in the current relationship that Japanese learners of English have with regard to their second language identity as well as the feelings of ownership that they have about the language. As English continues to be used as a lingua franca and with no signs of this changing, recognizing the relationship that second language learners with the language is paramount in understand the role that English will continue to play in the global world. Language identity and ownership is a multifaceted and complicated issue and it relies heavily on an individual's own motivations and experiences with the target language. These experiences may include interaction with the target language in real language communities where English is predominantly spoken or imagined communities.

Therefore, the specific question that this study sought to answer was: *What are the views that Japanese learners of English had on different varieties of English?* In addition this study also sought to answer the question: *Do these views of different varieties of English have any effect on their own view of their ownership, their language identity, and their own variety of English?*

Method

The purpose of this study was to investigate in detail the perceptions that Japanese students who are learning English have about varieties of English and the impact that these perceptions have on their own feelings of ownership of the English language. The overall goal was to look at these perceptions of Japanese students older than 18 who are currently studying or have studied abroad in an English-speaking country and gather data on their feelings towards English and their English use. This was accomplished via a survey and the data was gathered and used to determine the relationship between their perceptions about English and how these Japanese English language learners view their own variety of English and whether this impacts their language use. The objective was to add to the current research on Japanese perceptions of an English language identity while focusing on students that have been in a predominantly English-speaking country for an extended period of time.

Sample

The participants for this study were recruited using snowball sampling. The first set of participants that were contacted were Japanese students who were learning or studying English as a second or foreign language at a local university and assisted the Japanese program as tutors for students learning Japanese. These students were contacted through a professor and the director of Japanese studies at the university. The sample pool expanded to include other participants gathered via Facebook groups. These Facebook groups targeted students that were involved in Japanese student association groups at various universities, local and national, and Japanese-English student language exchange groups. This was done to ensure that the majority of the sample that was reached would have a native Japanese speaking background.

OWNING ENGLISH

Procedures

The first step in the research process was to make contact with participants via snowball sampling. This recruitment process was done in two steps. After receiving approval and consent from the contact at the university, the principal researcher sent the *Initial Email For Participants For Survey Portion* (Appendix A) to the contact, who then forwarded the email to the potential participants. This email contained information about the study as well as the link to the survey. If participants chose to take the survey, the link contained at the bottom of the email took them to an online survey hosted on www.surveymoneky.com. The first page of the survey (Appendix B) explained in more detail about the survey, confidentiality, as well as confirmed consent for participants. By clicking “next” on this initial page, participants consented to the statement that they were over 18 years of age, that they agreed to participate, and that they understood that the results and data would be anonymous and that they may withdraw at any time.

The second stage of contacting participants was done via Facebook. The primary researcher made the post *Initial Facebook Post For Recruitment* to inform potential participants (Appendix C) on various Facebook groups. This post was similar to the email sent to the contact at the local university; however, it was shortened in length in order to make it more visible for a Facebook post. Because of this shortened post, further details about the nature of the survey were left out in order to keep this post small. Therefore, the link that the participants clicked from the Facebook post took them to a slightly different survey which contained the information found in the email (Appendix A) on the first page of the survey. The second page of the survey taken by persons recruited from Facebook contained Appendix B on the second page of the survey. This was to ensure that the participants recruited from Facebook received the same

OWNING ENGLISH

information as the participants recruited from email upon taking the survey. These were the only differences between the surveys.

The survey was administered electronically via www.surveymonkey.com (Appendix D) and contained a total of 31 items taken from Matsuda (2000) and Hashimoto (2002). The first five items asked the participants about the individual's background. The first two items were used to verify that the participants were native speakers of Japanese and that they were studying or had studied English. Questions 3 through 5 asked demographic questions regarding length and location of living in a predominantly English-speaking country. The following 26 items were asked using a five-point Likert scale. These questions asked a variety of different things, but focused around the following four different themes: (a) perceptions of English; (b) the view of different varieties of English; (c) the relationship of English and Japanese; and (d) the view of English use, self-identity, and ownership. The final item on the survey explained the option to be involved in an interview in which participants would have been able to contact the primary researcher to participate further in an interview via email. The survey responses were gathered from the middle of March, 2014 to the middle of April, 2014.

Participants

A total number of eleven individuals were able to be recruited for participating in the survey. They ranged in time of studying English between 10 months to 15 years with a mean 2.48 years living in an English-speaking community. All surveys that were used in the data analysis portion indicated that they were native Japanese speakers learning English. All the participants with the exception of three indicated that the location of English study was in the United States.

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Instrument

Questions for the survey¹ were taken from both Matsuda (2000) and Hashimoto (2002). The majority of the questions were taken verbatim with a small exception, which were modified slightly to better clarify understanding of the participants for the purpose of this study, such as providing parameters or examples. The alterations were minimal to avoid any unintentional bias or prompting on the part of the participants. Survey questions from each study were chosen based on relevance to the study and others were chosen to be omitted because of irrelevance to the topic being inquired with this particular research project. In addition, certain questions were omitted to shorten the length of the survey and make it more manageable for participants to take in a half hour time frame. The majority of questions, numbers 6 through 26 were taken from Matsuda (2000) and participants were asked to answer the questions on a five-point Likert scale configuration ranking the response from *strongly agree*, *agree*, *no opinion*, *disagree*, or *strongly disagree*. However, there were no questions that addressed specifically anxiety while speaking English. In addition, there were more questions that were needed to address perceptions of the second language community as well as the desire to learn English and attitude in general toward the English language. As a result, questions 27 through 31 were taken from Hashimoto (2002). These questions also solicited responses on a five-point Likert scale, however, depending on the nature of the questions, the actual response varied. For example, one question listed degrees of favorability, while another question listed degrees of calmness. These responses were maintained to honor the integrity of the survey questions from the survey that they were taken

¹ Although a semi-structured interview portion had been purposed for this study, as seen in the last statement on the survey it did not occur due to lack of contact from participants.

OWNING ENGLISH

from. Of the 26 questions in the survey related to the research topic, each fell into one of four categories: perception of English, view of different varieties of English, view of the relationship of English with Japanese, and view of English use, self-identity, and ownership of English.

Data Analysis. Survey responses were gathered and imported into a spreadsheet using Microsoft Excel. To organize the responses to the demographic questions, a table was created to list the length of time that participants spent living in an area where English was predominantly spoken as it was the only one with variability. Therefore, only distinctions for time needed to be addressed.

In order to analyze the data, the majority of the responses were interpreted using a positive Likert scale. Because the possible question choices on the survey were words and not numbers, they were assigned numeric values for a quantitative interpretation of the data. The majority of the questions were assigned numeric values on a positive rating scale such that 5=*strongly agree* and 1=*strongly disagree* as the majority of the questions involved a positive correlation of the data with the nature of the question. However, some of the questions were negative in nature, meaning that disagreement to the statement indicated a positive response to the question. Therefore, to keep the integrity of the question and to avoid numeric misinterpretation, a negative rating scale was used for these questions so that 5=*strongly disagree* and 1=*strongly agree*. These were the rating scales used for questions 6 through 26. The remaining five questions were interpreted using the same rating scales despite the responses on the survey being slightly different.

For each question on the survey from each respondent, a score between 1 and 5 was assigned to the response. This score was recorded into the Excel spreadsheet for each question. The mean score was calculated in the following ways. First, the mean score was determined

OWNING ENGLISH

with each question in order to see an overall response value for all the participants per question. In addition, the scores were also separated into four separate categories based on the topic for which the question did address. The organization of these questions into the categories in which they belong are as they appear in the survey is listed below in Table 1.

Table 1

Questions on survey grouped by topic

Category of question	Item number in survey
Demographic/background	1,2,3,4,5
Perception of English	7,8,9,26
View of different varieties of English	12,13,14,15,16,22,27,28
Relationship of English and Japanese	6,17,18,19,20
View of English Use, self-identity, and ownership	10,11,21,23,24,25,29,30,31

For each category, the mean of the responses were then calculated for each based on all of the responses per each question in each category. This allowed for an individual interpretation of the survey responses per participant and questions, an overall score from all the participants for each question, an individual interpretation of the scores per category, and an overall interpretation of the survey scores based on the category.

Validity

Validity in this study was primarily maintained by employing previously used and tested survey questions. By doing so, it was assured that bias and unintentional leading in the question could be avoided. In addition, the use of these survey questions This ensured that the content validity was maintained in that the questions in the survey had been used previously in similar studies which answered questions of a similar nature to the one that this study sought to answer.

OWNING ENGLISH

In order to avoid selection bias from occurring, internal validity concerns were addressed by having anonymous participation in the survey. The use of an intermediary party as a way to contact the email participants also minimized selection bias as the primary researcher was unaware of whom the surveys were being sent to, maintaining anonymity. In addition, by using Facebook groups and snowball sampling, anonymity and internal validity was maintained as the primary researcher did not directly interact with the participants of the survey and was not aware of the names of any of the people who clicked the link. Only once they clicked the link and began to participate in the survey were questions about first language, English study, and so forth addressed.

By incorporating the consent page into the first page of the survey and the demographic information into the question portion, selection bias was also reduced. The first page simply asked participants if they were capable of consent with age and willingness to participate. By incorporating the questions about linguistic background in the survey as opposed to before, bias did not occur during the selection of the participants. If individuals were not native Japanese speaking, they were allowed to take the survey but their results were not utilized in the data collection process as they were not relevant to the study. However, this was the result of the nature of the survey and not related to selection bias.

Results

The first stage of contacting participants for research using an email contact was relatively unsuccessful. Although the rate of success is undeterminable because the number of participants that the survey was sent to in the first stage is unknown, only one survey was received back from the first stage of email participants. This low return rate can be possibly explained by the timing of when the initial surveys were sent out, as they were sent multiple times around spring break for the university, which also coincided with midterm examinations for many of the students. In addition, they were sent to students via a third party so there was less control for the number of times that the emails could be sent.

For the second stage of the study, participants were contacted via Facebook groups. Once again, because the number of people who saw the survey cannot be determined, a rate of success on return cannot be given. The majority of the usable surveys were obtained via this method. Although this method of contacting participants was more successful than the method via email, there were still overall a very low number of participants. This could be attributed to multiple factors. One contributing factor can be attributed to the nature of how Facebook posts are seen by users. When a post is first made on a page, it is only visible for a short period of time before it gets pushed down by other posts. In addition, visibility of the post is also affected by the number of friends and individual has and how many other posts from other people or groups that they may see. As a result, it is likely that the posts were only viewed by a limited number of people.

A total of 16 surveys were started online via the Survey Monkey link. Of those 16, four were started by non-native Japanese speakers and were left incomplete. Additionally, two more surveys were also incomplete, but the data from one of these surveys was included in the sample

OWNING ENGLISH

because the respondent did answer some of the content related questions. Therefore a total of 11 surveys were used to collect data out of the 16 received back, giving a percentage of 69% of the surveys being usable. Of the surveys that were received back, three of the participants indicated that they would be interested in participating further with an interview portion, however the researcher was never contacted and thus was unable to set up interviews with these participants. Therefore, the second phase of research could not be conducted. The data presented is only from the survey portion from the total number of eleven respondents (N=11).

Demographic Information

Questions 1 through 5 of the survey solicited responses of a demographic nature of the participants. Question 1 asked the participants whether or not they were native speakers of Japanese. Question 2 asked if they were currently studying English. These two questions served to filter out potential participants that were not native Japanese speakers or who were not studying English. As a result, all of the respondents answered yes to both question 1 and 2 and these are not recorded as it was criteria for use in the study. In addition, question 3 asked the participants if they are currently living or have ever lived in an area where English is used on a daily basis, with all of the respondents saying yes. Question 5 asked for the location in which the participants have or had lived where English was predominantly spoken and the majority of respondents answered USA. One participant (S4) indicated that he or she studied in both the United States and Australia in separate intervals of one and a half months and one year and seven months. However, because of the nature of the question, it cannot be determined which length of study was completed in which location. Participant 8 indicated 0 years of study in an English-speaking country and did not indicate a country. Participant 1 skipped questions 4 and 5 and it is indicated with an X (see Table 2).

Table 2
Length of time living in English-speaking area

Participant	Time
S1	X ^a
S2	3 years
S3	5 years
S4	1.5 months, 1 year 7 months
S5	15 years
S6	10 months
S7	1 year
S8	0
S9	6 years
S10	6 years +
S11	10 months

^aX, Respondent skipped this question

Perception of English

To determine the perceptions that the respondents had about English, the questions 7, 8, 9, and 26 were included in the survey and were examined. These questions dealt with the overall general feelings towards English in general and its perceived usefulness as a lingua franca.

The overall perception of English based on the data is an agreeable or positive one. The mean of all the responses from all the participants in this category averaged out to 3.58, which translates to an agree response overall (see Table 3)

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Table 3

Mean attitude of score per participant for perception of English

Participant	Q.7	Q.8	Q.9	Q.26	Mean
S1	5	4	5	2	4.00
S2	4	2	4	3	3.25
S3	5	4	5	5	4.75
S4	5	4	4	3	4.00
S5	5	2	4	X ^a	3.67
S6	4	3	2	2	2.75
S7	4	4	4	2	3.50
S8	3	3	4	3	3.25
S9	5	4	3	2	3.50
S10	4	2	4	3	3.25
S11	4	3	4	3	3.5
Overall	4.36	3.27	3.9	2.8	3.58

^aX, respondent skipped question

Overwhelmingly, the majority of respondents ($n = 10$, 91%) agreed with question 7, which asked if they felt English should be used as an international lingua franca. The other participant did not have an opinion on this (see Figure 1).

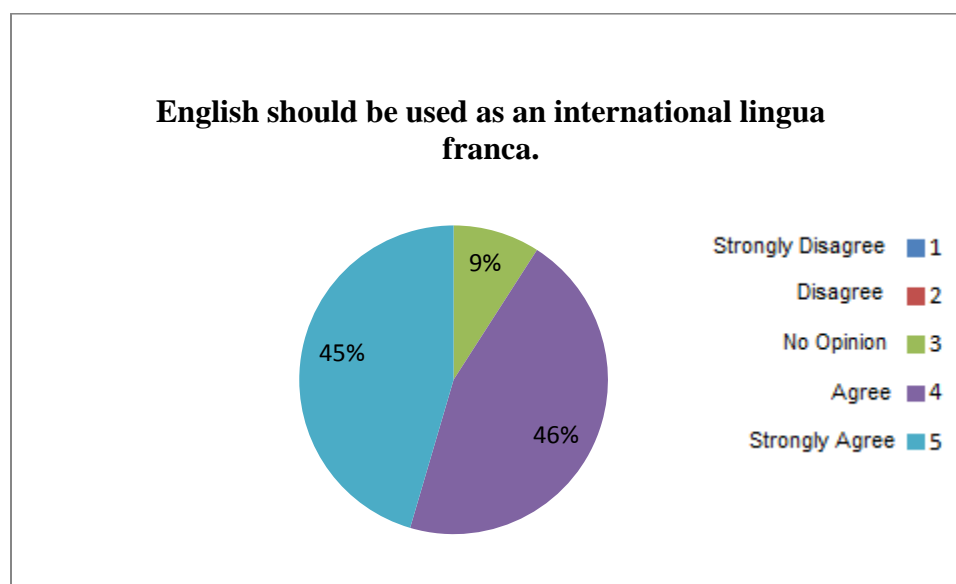


Figure 1. Responses to the question of whether English should be used as a lingua franca

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In addition, participants also perceived that having a command of English was important to understand foreigners and their cultures by with the majority ($n = 8$, 82%) agreeing with question 9. The rest of the participants ($n = 2$, 18%) either disagreed or had no opinion (see Figure 2).

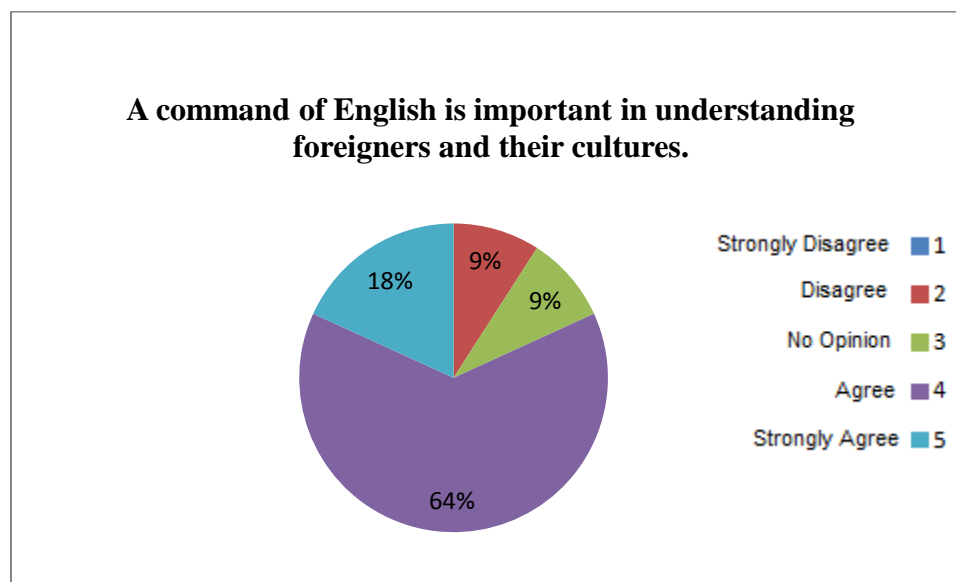


Figure 2. Responses to the question of English use to understand foreigners

This would indicate that the majority of participants perceived English as being a very useful tool for communicating across different groups of people and recognized the role of English as a lingua franca in today's modern world.

Responses to the other two questions that dealt with the participants' perceptions of English however reflected a less favorable view and were more divided with their responses. Question 8 asked the participants if they felt English was a beautiful language. The results of this question were more divided. Just under half ($n = 5$, 46%) agreed that English was a beautiful language, while the rest were divided as to whether or not they disagreed ($n = 3$, 27%) or had no opinion ($n = 3$, 27%). Similarly, the overall response for question 26, which asked if the participants felt that English was the best foreign language to learn, was of no opinion ($n = 5$,

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50%) or disagreement ($n = 4$, 40%). Only one respondent strongly agreed that it was the best foreign language to learn.

Therefore, because the responses to two of the questions were more positive and the responses to the other two were more neutral or negative in nature, the overall nature of perceptions of English based on the sample was a relatively neutral view.

View of Different Varieties of English

The next category that was taken into consideration was the view that participants had with regard to various varieties of English. Questions 12 through 16, 27, and 28 dealt with this area were examined in order to determine the view that the participants had about different varieties of English. These questions focused on whether or not participants felt any importance or distinctions between different varieties of English, including inner circle varieties, outer circle varieties, non-native varieties, as well varying English varieties as a whole. Overall, the mean score for this category was 3.56, although the category did have a wide range of scores (see Table 4).

Table 4

Mean attitude score per participant for view of different varieties of English

Participant	<u>Q.12</u>	<u>Q.13</u>	<u>Q.14</u>	<u>Q.15</u>	<u>Q.16</u>	<u>Q.22</u>	<u>Q.27</u>	<u>Q.28</u>	Mean
S1	5	5	5	3	4	5	3	4	4.14
S2	5	4	2	4	5	4	2	3	3.57
S3	3	5	3	4	2	2	2	3	3.14
S4	2	4	4	5	3	4	4	5	3.86
S5	X ^a	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
S6	4	5	1	2	3	5	3	3	3.00
S7	5	5	2	4	2	4	3	4	3.57
S8	4	4	2	4	5	2	2	3	3.43
S9	5	5	4	2	4	2	5	5	4.29
S10	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	5	3.86
S11	2	5	2	2	2	5	3	3	2.71
Overall	3.90	4.60	2.80	3.40	3.40	3.60	3.00	3.80	3.56

^aX, respondent skipped question

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In this category, the question with the highest overall mean score was question 13 which asked participants if they felt that they wanted to pronounce English as an American or British native speaker. A mean score of 4.60 indicated that the majority of the participants strongly agreed to this statement.

Because there were significantly more questions in this category than in the previous, the questions with the highest and lowest scores were assessed in further detail. The question with the highest overall mean score was question 13 which asked participants if they felt that they wanted to pronounce English as an American or British person with mean score of 4.60. One hundred percent ($n = 10$) of the participants who answered this question indicated that they felt they wanted to speak English as an American or British person (see Figure 3). This indicates that the participants involved in this study placed a high value on American or British English as varieties of English that are highly desirable and sought after in terms of a standard for pronunciation.

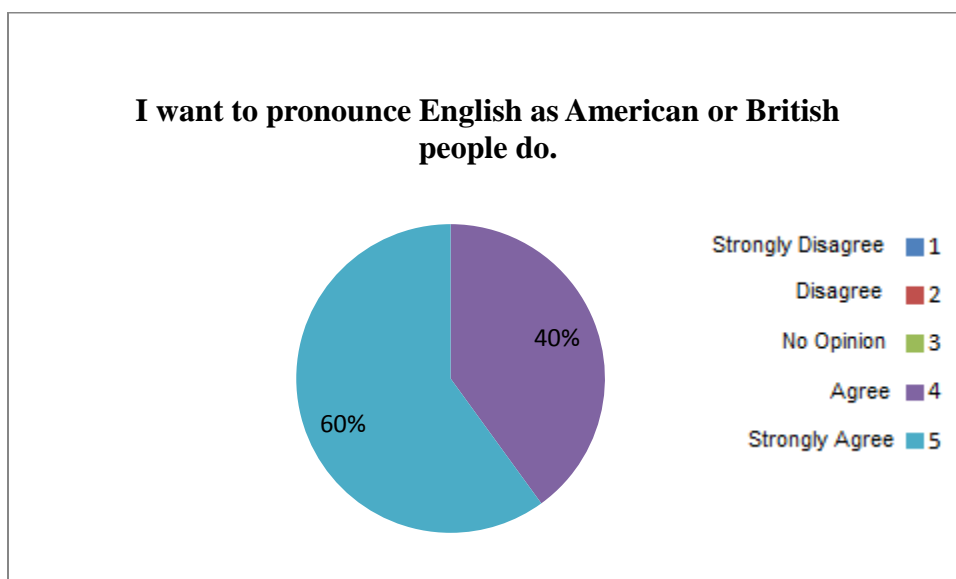


Figure 3. Responses to the question of desire to speak English like an American/British person

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In comparison, the question which received the lowest score in this category was question 14, which asked participants if they were interested in the Englishes spoken in Singapore and India. The majority of participants expressed disagreement with the mean score for this question a 2.8. Half of the participants ($n = 5$) expressed that they disagreed with this statement. Forty percent ($n = 4$) either agreed or 10% ($n = 1$) stated that he or she had no opinion (see Figure 4).

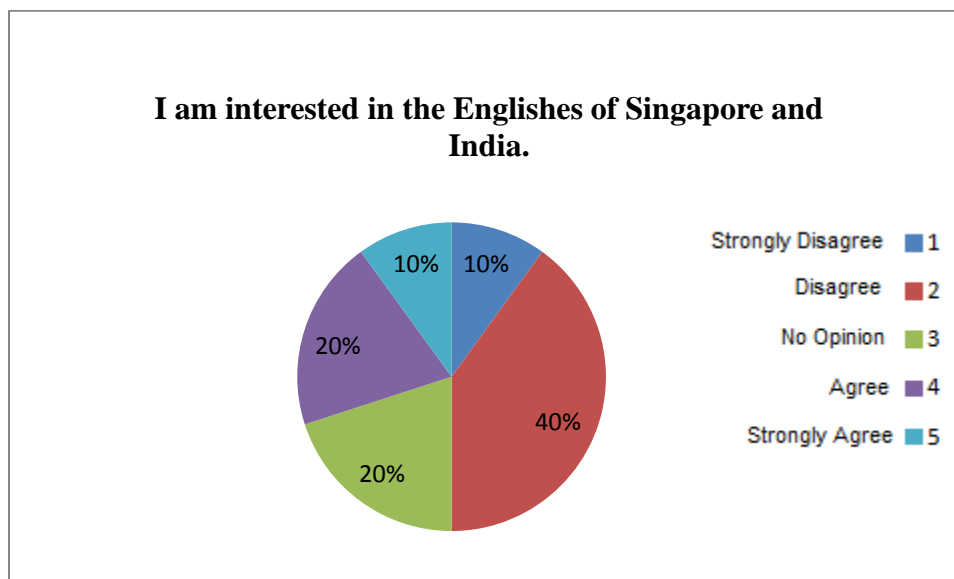


Figure 4. Percentage of responses to the question of interest in Englishes of India or Singapore

Relationship of English and Japanese

In addition to looking at the views that the participants had on different varieties of English, the relationship that English and Japanese shared for the participants was also examined. Questions 6 and questions 17 through 20 were used to analyze this area. The mean score of the responses in this category was 3.15, which is just above the response of no opinion, which can be interpreted to mean that the participants had no opinion on the relationship of English and Japanese. However, when the means for each question are examined (see Table 5), there are certain conclusions that can be made for each of the questions in this category.

Table 5
Mean attitude score per participant for relationship of English and Japanese

Participant	<u>Q.6</u>	<u>Q.17</u>	<u>Q.18</u>	<u>Q.19</u>	<u>Q.20</u>	<u>Mean</u>
S1	4	5	3	4	4	4.00
S2	2	5	4	2	3	3.20
S3	5	4	1	4	1	3.00
S4	4	3	2	2	4	3.00
S5	5	X ^a	X	X	X	5.00
S6	4	5	3	4	2	3.60
S7	5	4	3	4	4	4.00
S8	4	4	2	4	4	3.60
S9	5	5	2	4	2	3.60
S10	4	2	3	4	3	3.20
S11	5	2	3	4	3	3.40
Overall	4.27	3.90	2.60	2.00	3.0	3.15

^aX, respondent skipped question

When the means were looked at further for the questions in this category and compared to the overall mean of the category, it becomes apparent that the range in the scores leads to a mean reflective of a median score of 3. The scores range in mean from question 6 at 4.27 and 2.00 for question 19.

Question 6 was the first question that was answered in this category in which the participants were asked if they felt knowing English was more useful than knowing any other language in Japan. It was also the question that received the highest overall mean score from the participants. The mean of this question for all participants was 4.27, with only one person disagreeing and the remainder either answering strongly agree or agree. This was an anticipated result based on the strong presence of English language education in Japan.

Question 17 through 20 more directly looked at the participants' feelings of using Japanese words or concepts in English and whether or not the participants felt these should be

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avoided. In question 17, the participants were asked whether they felt Japanese-made words should be avoided when using English. The majority of 70% ($n = 7$) agreed or strongly agreed to this, while the remaining 30% ($n = 3$) either had no opinion or disagreed (see Figure 5).

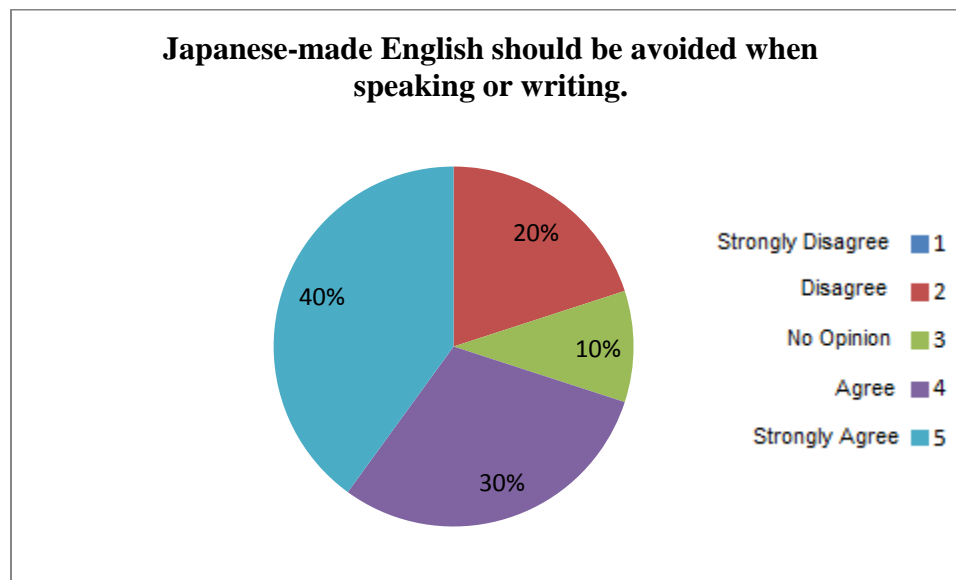


Figure 5. Responses to the question of avoiding Japanese-made words in English

Therefore, it can be stated that the majority of participants felt that Japanese words should be avoided when speaking and writing English.

In contrast, however, the data gathered in question 19 suggest that although the participants may have felt it was important to avoid Japanese words in English when speaking and writing, they also were aware that those Japanese words in English lead to the maintenance of their Japanese identity while speaking in English. The question in number 19 asked the participants if they felt Japanese-made English expressed Japanese things better than American English and the majority of responses were agree at 70% ($n = 7$) (see Figure 6).

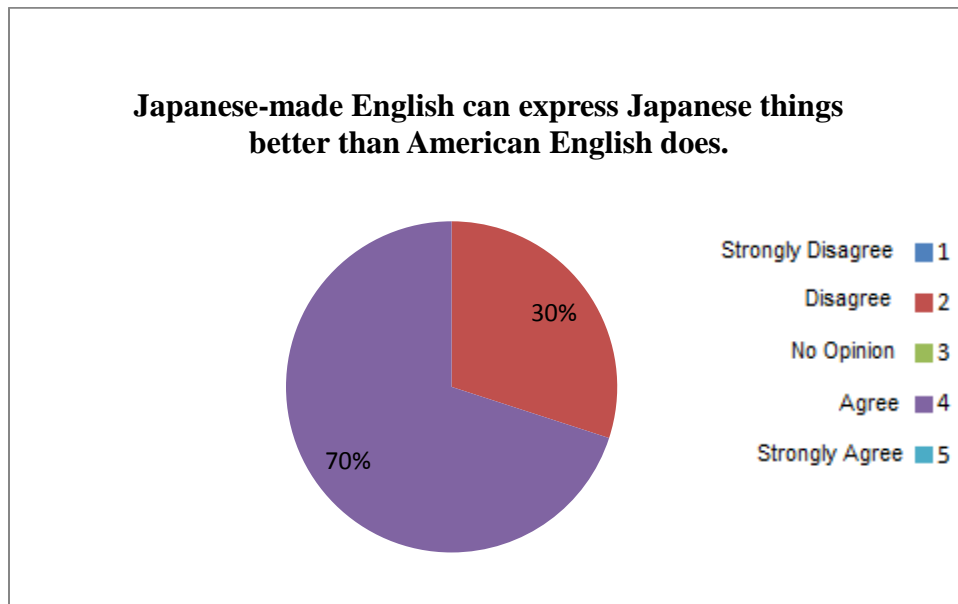


Figure 6. Responses to the question of Japanese-English expressing Japanese concepts better than American English

Question 20 addressed a similar concept to question 19 in that it asked participants if they did not want to lose their Japanese-ness even while they spoke English. In contrast to both question 17 and 19, data gathered from question 20 was more divided. While 40% ($n = 4$) felt that they agreed with this statement, 30% ($n = 3$) either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 30% had no opinion (see Figure 7).

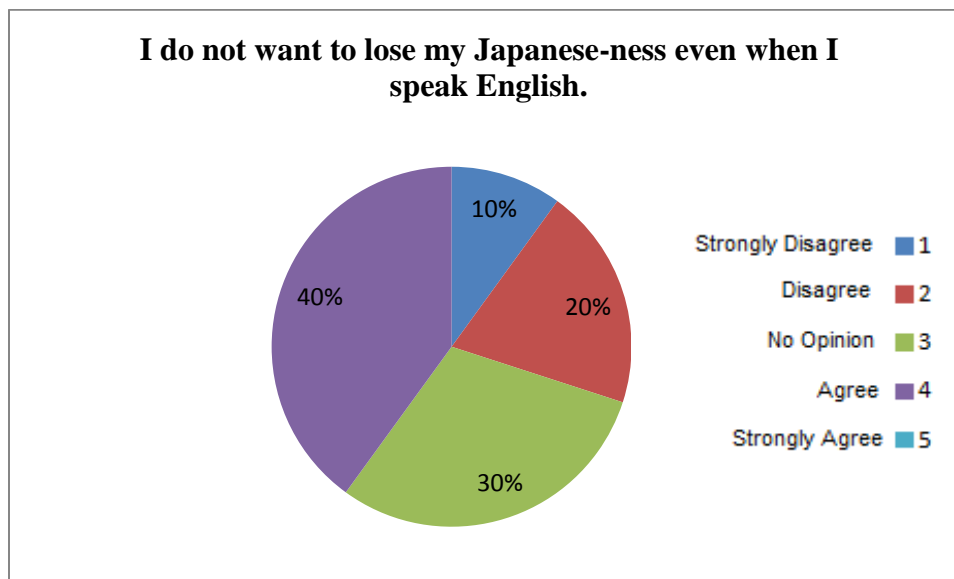


Figure 7. Responses to the question of not wanting to lose their Japanese-ness even while speaking English

Therefore, it can be concluded that although the majority Japanese speakers in this study recognized the importance of the role that English had in Japan and desired to refrain from using Japanese words while speaking and writing English, the majority also felt that Japanese-made English was helpful for expressing Japanese concepts. In addition, the feeling towards maintaining Japanese-ness was mixed.

View of English Use, Self-Identity, and Ownership

This category of questions dealing with topics related to English use, self-identity, and English ownership was comprised of more questions than any other category (see Table 6).

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Table 6

Mean attitude score per participant for view of English use, self-identity, and ownership

Participant	English Use				Self-identity and Ownership					Mean
	Q.10	Q.11	Q.24	Q.23	Q.21	Q.25	Q.29	Q.30	Q.31	
S1	5	4	4	4	5	2	4	4	2	3.90
S2	5	3	4	4	5	2	4	4	4	3.90
S3	5	5	5	4	5	1	3	3	4	3.70
S4	5	4	5	4	4	2	5	5	4	4.20
S5	X ^a	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
S6	5	3	2	5	4	4	4	3	2	3.70
S7	5	5	2	4	4	2	3	3	2	3.30
S8	5	4	3	4	4	2	2	2	3	3.10
S9	5	5	4	5	4	1	5	5	5	4.10
S10	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3.50
S11	5	4	3	5	4	2	5	4	3	4.00
Overall	4.90	4.10	3.60	4.30	4.20	2.10	3.80	3.60	3.20	3.76

^aX, respondent skipped question

The overall mean for this category was determined to be 3.76, which corresponds to the response of agreement on the survey. This suggests that the participants had a more positive view of English ownership and identity than what had been anticipated. However, the data was broken down further to better understand and analyze the data, especially considering the range in responses had a high score of 4.90 for the mean response to question 10 and a low score of 2.10 for question 25. Therefore, to better understand this range, the questions were examined in smaller categories of English use and self-identity and ownership.

English use. There was an overwhelmingly positive response to question 10, which asked respondents if they felt if they would use English when talking with American people. 100% (n=11) agreed with this question, although it must be taken into consideration that all of the participants that listed a location of where they lived in a predominantly English-speaking country indicated the United States (see Figure 8).

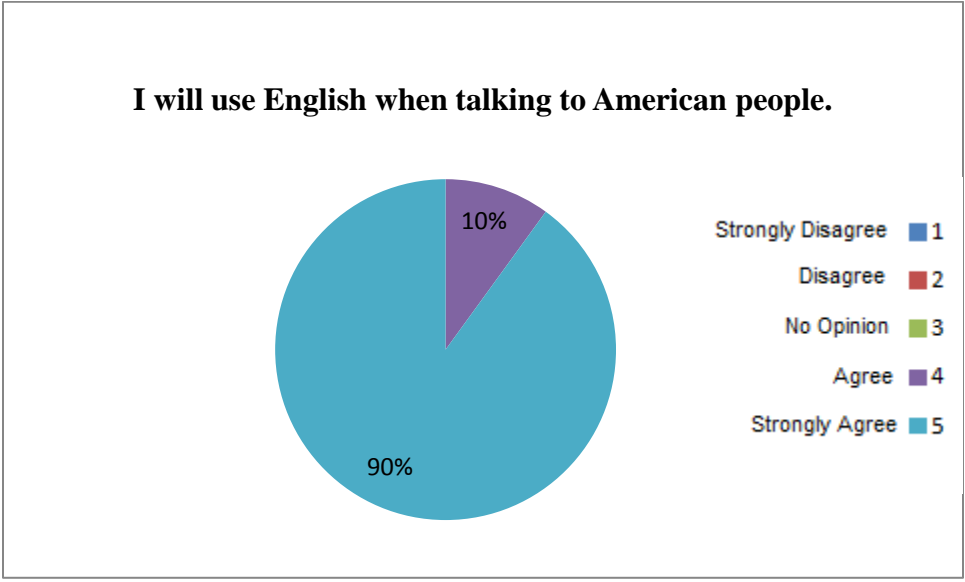


Figure 8. Responses to the question of using English to talk with American people

Respondents also favorably answered question 11, indicating that 80% ($n = 8$) agreed or strongly agreed to the statement that they felt they would use English with people from other Asian countries (see Figure 9).

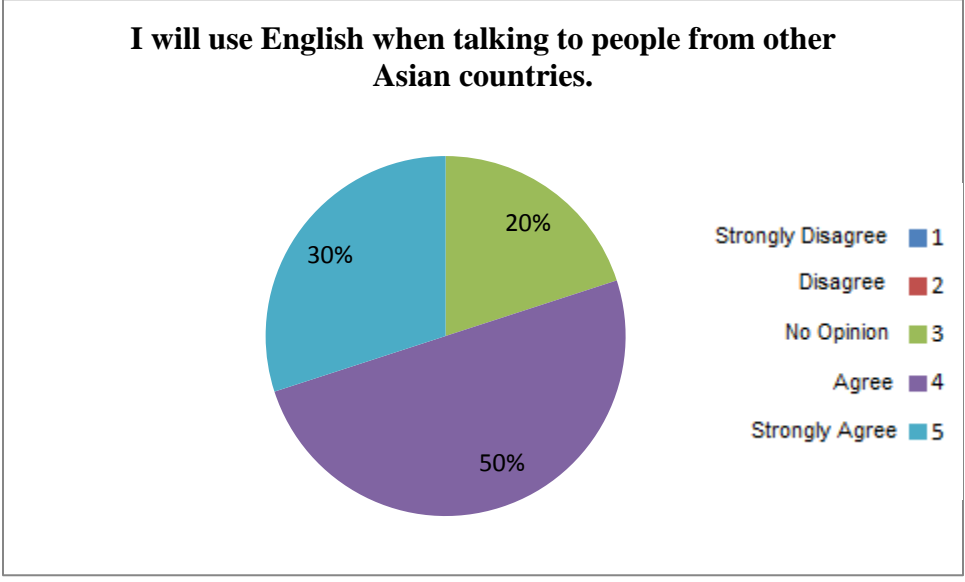


Figure 9. Responses to the question of using English with other people from Asia

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With the data from these two questions, it can be concluded that the participants of this studied felt that English can be used with native speakers from typically English-speaking areas such as the United States, but also with people from other areas as well.

Questions 23 and 24 dealt with a more specific view of English use with regards to grammar and fluency. All of the respondents ($n = 10$) answered agreeably to question 23 and felt that it was important to speak English fluently and accurately. In addition, the majority of respondents ($n = 6$, 60%) also felt that incorrect English is acceptable as long as it is understood as the response to question 24. This indicates that although most of the participants value correct English, the majority also feel that comprehensibility and understanding is equally important to grammatical accuracy and fluency. Overall, responses indicate a positive outlook of English use with a mean score of 4.25, indicating positive agreement to the majority of the questions.

Self-identity and Ownership. The majority of the responses indicate that speakers have a generally favorable and positive view of their self-identity and their ownership of English. The overall mean for this category was 4.50, which weighs on the side of highly favorable/strongly agree

Question 25 was one of the few questions that were interpreted on a negative versus positive scale. This meant that the values for the questions were reversed to reflect shyness as a negative trait associated with the lack of ownership and self-identity in the language. Therefore, disagreement in this question indicated a positive, as opposed to a negative, response. This meant that if a participant disagreed with this question, it actually conversely indicates a positive attribute, and implies that the participant does not feel shy when imitating or trying to imitate native English speakers and shows a greater sense of ownership. This question asked whether students felt shy when trying to imitate native speakers' pronunciation of English. The majority

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at 80% ($n = 8$) of responses indicated disagreement to this statement, while one person indicated a neutral feeling and another person indicated agreement (see Figure 10).

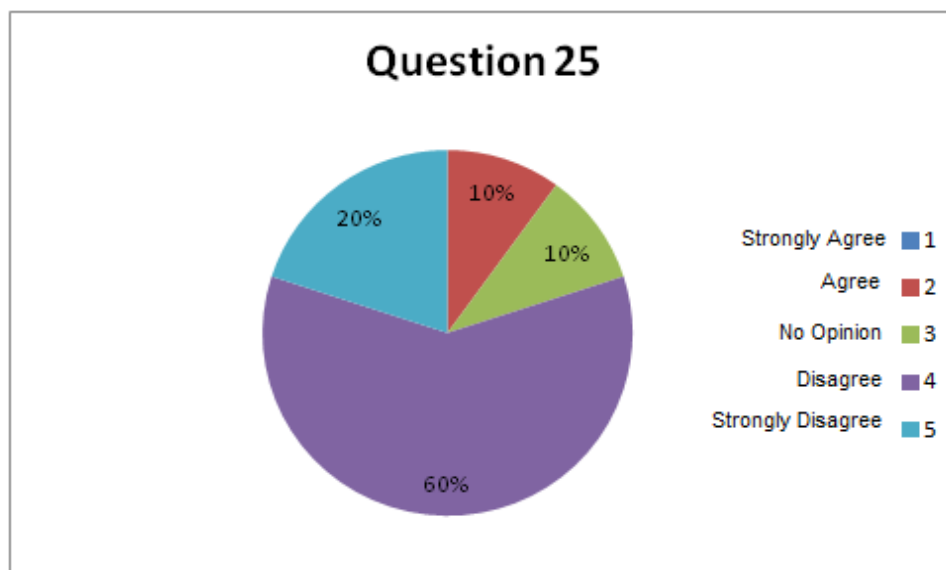


Figure 10. Responses to the question of feeling shy when trying to imitate native speakers' pronunciation

The one participant that indicated agreement had one of the lower amounts of time spent living in a predominantly English-speaking country and as a result, this may have been a factor in the respondent agreeing to this statement as studies indicate that study in a country where the language being studied is spoken can have an effect on anxiety when using the language (Hashimoto, 2002). Based on this data, the majority ($n = 8$, 80%) of respondents did not feel shy attempting to imitate native speaker's English, which shows a higher investment and ownership of the language.

Effect of experience in an English-speaking country

In order to determine if there was a relationship or any effect on the views of language ownership and identity with regard to other varieties of English and time spent in a predominantly English-speaking country, the length of time spent in an English was compared to

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the mean of responses from each participants in the categories of view of English varieties and view of English use, self-identity, and ownership. To examine if there was any relation, the following graph was made to compare the means taken from categories 2 and 4 of the questions and include the time spent in an English-speaking country for each participants (see Figure 11). This created a visual representation to determine if there was any relationship between the categories and time spent in an English-speaking country.

Relationship between years spent living in an English speaking area with view of English varieties and English use, self-identity, and ownership

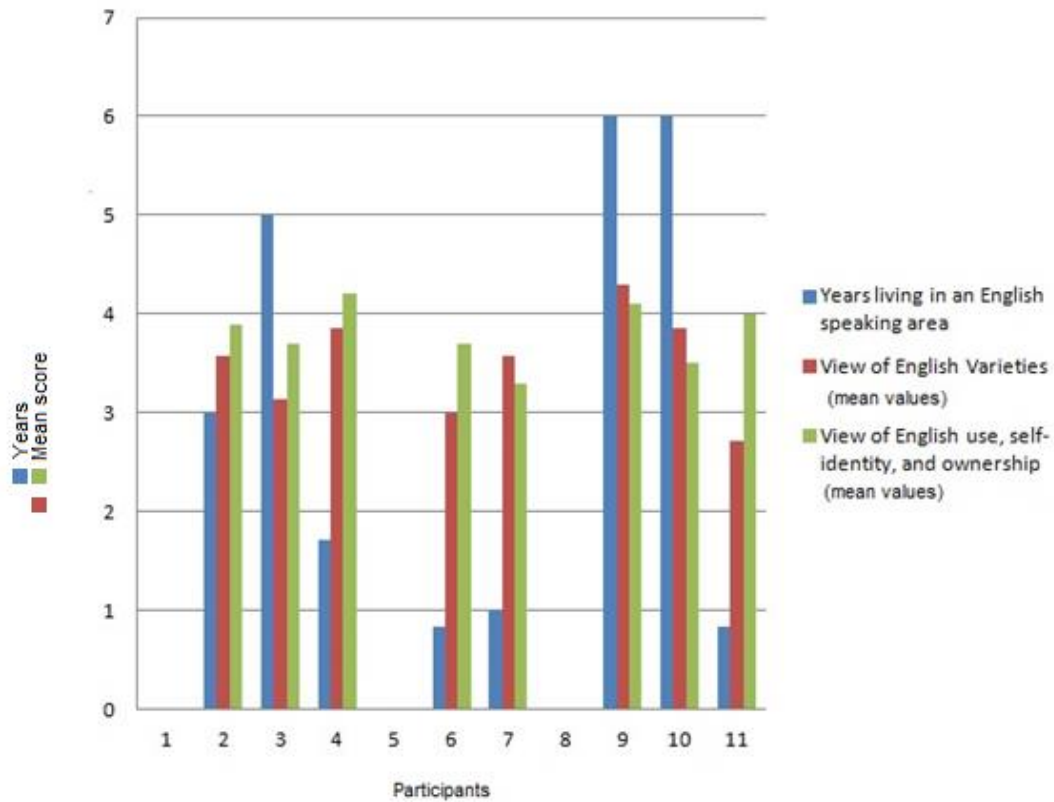


Figure 11. Length of study, English ownership, and view of varieties of English
Note. Data from S1, S5, and S8 have been omitted from this chart as respondents did not answer all questions pertaining to these categories and thus did not provided a complete picture for comparison.

Based on examining this data, there were no patterns that were discernible with the connection the time spent in a predominantly English-speaking country, exposure to different varieties of English, and language ownership. However, further explanations are however illuminated in the discussion portion of this study

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In addition to analyzing to the time spent in an English speaking country to these two categories, the mean scores of all categories were compared as an overview of all the responses. Based on the data received, the category with the highest overall score was the view of English use, self-identity, and ownership with an overall score of 3.76, indicating high agreement, while the category with the lowest score was the relationship between English and Japanese with a score of 3.15 indicating overall neutrality on the subject (Fig. 12).

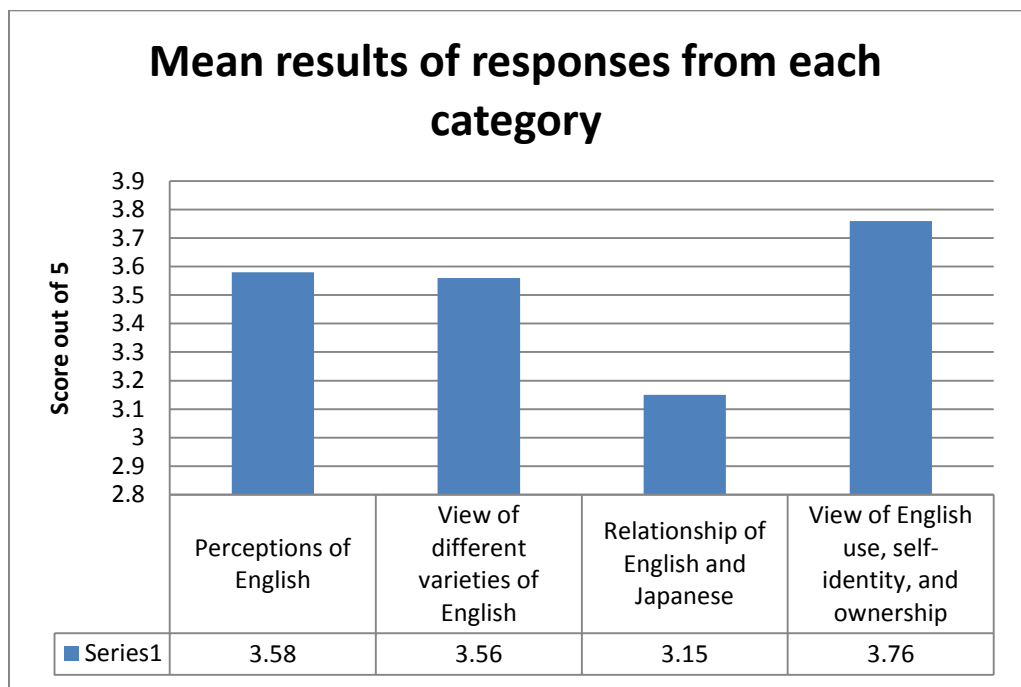


Figure 12. Mean of responses for each category

Discussion

The goal of this study was to examine the relationship that Japanese learners of English have with the language, including the feelings of ownership that they have of the language, as well as the varying views that they have of the language, including various varieties. This study put a particular focus on Japanese individuals who have lived or currently live in an area where English is the predominant language and is used on a day to day basis. In the case of this study, this happened to be the United States of America. The goal of the research question was to answer the following questions: what are the perceptions that Japanese students who are learning English have about varieties of English and what is the impact that these perceptions have on their own feelings of ownership of the English language.

Perceptions of English

In this study, the results found suggested that overall, the participants had an agreeable view on the perceptions of English. Although the participants did not necessarily think that English was the best foreign language to learn or the most beautiful based on the low score received on those two questions, it was apparent that they recognized the important role English plays as a lingua franca and in communication on a global scale. These results reflect what previous studies have suggested with both Japanese speakers and speakers of other languages. For example, results from this study corroborate the results found in the study done by Saito and Hatoss (2011) where it was found that the experience of living in an Anglophone environment raised awareness of other varieties of English and the importance of use of English as a lingua franca. Additionally, these results also correspond with the concept discussed in the study done by Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott, and Brown (2012) and the imagined communities with which the English language learners felt that they would be using English. Just like in that study, the

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results here demonstrate the participants in this study do not see the community in which they will use English containing solely native speakers of the language, but that the imagined community goes beyond this scope to contain English-speaking communities on a global scale.

View of English Varieties

The overall mean of this category was a value of 3.56 which indicated a general agreement to the statements in these questions. Although this on the surface would indicate a general positive interpretation of the views of English varieties by participants, certain questions were looked at to compare them to results found in previous studies. For example, question 13 examined the view that the participants had with regard to the distinction of the differences between American and British English as important. All the participants agreed to this statement, which parallels results found in a majority of other studies. As stated previously, in the studies done by Matsuda (2003), Tokimoto and Shibata (2011), McKenzie (2008), and Saito and Hatoss (2011), Japanese students valued and desired to emulate these native English varieties. If the participants in this study considered the differences between these varieties important, it can be assumed that they are aware of them and place value on them.

In addition, this category of questions revealed another similarity in the results of this study with previous studies. In this study, the participants expressed varying degrees of interest in learning about the English varieties in India and Singapore. Although as seen in the previous category that the Japanese participants in this study were aware that English use can be extended beyond the scope of use with inner circle speakers of English (i.e., Americans), this divided view on learning about Outer Circle varieties exemplifies what much of the current research addresses with regards to the view of Outer circle varieties of English (Matsuda, 2003).

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Results found in this portion, in particular these two questions reflect similar results found in the study done by Matsuda (2003) and match the anticipated results that Japanese learners of English would value American and British varieties. In addition, the divided view on interest in learning about outer circle varieties of English, in this case the varieties of India and Singapore was also an anticipated result based on the mixed views that learners of English have with regard to outer circle varieties.

Relationship of English and Japanese

The data in this study determined that overall, the view the Japanese participants had with regard to the relationship between English and Japanese was for the most part positive. However, the same concerns that Matsuda (2003) encountered in her participants about the Japanese variety of English were also apparent in this study. Similarly to her study, the majority of participants in this study expressed that using Japanese-words in English was not desirable. This study also found the same contradiction that was found in her study, that although the majority of participants felt Japanese-words should be avoided when speaking or writing English, Japanese-English was better at expressing Japanese concepts even while speaking English. This is an important correlation to make even with this small sample because it highlights that this is a theme is very relevant to how Japanese individuals view their English that may have deeper roots that just on an individual level.

View of English Use, Self-Identity, and Ownership

The results from this section acknowledge that the majority of participants felt that they would use English with native English speakers, but also that they recognized that they would use English with non-native English speakers from other Asian countries. This result supported what had been found in the previous studies such as Matsuda (2003), Tokimoto and Shibata

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(2011), McKenzie (2008), and Saito and Hatoss (2011), and also the results found in the perceptions of English category of this study. Although in that category of view of English varieties, the participants expressed a mixed view on interest in Singaporean and Indian English varieties, the majority of the participants felt that they would use English with other Asian people, which once again demonstrates that the participants recognized the role of English as a lingua franca even if they did not desire to learn English varieties outside of the Inner Circle.

Effects of Living in an English-Speaking Country

Based on the results gathered from this survey, there was no evidence to suggest a correlation that could be determined which would be able to answer the question of whether or not there was a discernible effect on the perceptions of different varieties of English and the impact that had on the speakers own feelings of ownership. This does not mean that there is no impact on Japanese English language learners' perceptions and views of English or their feelings of language ownership and identity as a result living in an Anglophone environment. This study was just not able to find enough evidence to answer this question. This runs contrary to previous studies including Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014) and Benson, et al. (2012) which anticipated a correlation between spending time in an English-speaking environment and an effect on self-identity and English ownership. However, because of the limited scope of this study in both time and participants, as well as this study being primarily quantitative in nature as opposed to qualitative in nature, the results of this study cannot be entirely compared to the results found in previous studies. Even though this study did not find a connection, it does not mean a connection does not exist, but that further research is needed in this area

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Limitations

Overall, this study was limited in multiple respects. Firstly, it was severely limited in the scope of its sample. More responses from the survey would be needed to make a more accurate depiction of the state of Japanese views on English for those who are living in predominantly English-speaking countries. This sample of eleven was very small and only captured a minute snapshot compared to the number of native Japanese speaking individuals living, working, and studying in English-speaking communities. In addition, the fact that there were no interviews that were able to be conducted is another severe limitation. The interviews would have provided a more in depth look at the emotions or ideas that the participants have about English and Japanese especially in their day to day lives. These interviews would have also allowed the primary researcher to ask questions with regards to some of the survey questions and the topics would have been able to have been covered in significant more detail.

Time also played a role in the factors that limited this research project. The study was conducting in a time span of approximately a month, which limited the number of potential participants from the sample because there was less time to send the emails or view the Facebook posts. A longer time span would have allowed more participants to be contacted via email or Facebook. Also, having more time may have increased the chances that there would have been participants for the survey portion. Another problem that was discovered during the disbursement of the surveys was the timing of the study. The first emails were sent when the students at the university were on Spring break. This timing also corresponded with when students would be taking or studying for midterm. It is possible that students were unable to participate in the study because they were preoccupied with their academics. Timing also played a factor in how potential participants saw the Facebook posts. Due to the nature of Facebook,

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posts are seen differently whether they are posted on pages or groups. In addition, visibility of the posts depends on the individuals own homepage, the time at which the post was made, and whether or not potential participants in the sample were online and signed into Facebook at the time. As a result, having a longer time frame with more opportunities to share the post and email would have possibly increased the number of participants in the study.

Location of the sample was also a limitation of this study. Participants were recruited from various different locations in the United States. Because of this geographic diversity, it is much harder to determine or generalize the type of experiences or exposure that survey participants had with the English-speaking community. In addition, the survey was not designed to gather this type of information about experience with their English-speaking community. Such questions would have been beneficial to determining the experiences that participants had with regard to the English community and whether or not they impacted the perceptions that the participants had of English and their ownership of the language. Also, the reasons for why the participants were studying English were not asked. As there are different types of motivation in language learning, these motivations may have had an impact on why the participants chose the responses that they did. Because the survey did not include questions that addressed motivation, this aspect of second language acquisition with regards to identity and ownership could not be addressed.

Further Research

Further implications of study could incorporate a longitudinal aspect into the study, looking at the changes in the viewpoints of native Japanese speaking individuals over the time that is spent in an English-speaking country. Many of the study abroad studies that were examined in the literature review portion approached this topic of examining second language

OWNING ENGLISH

identity and language ownership used qualitative format in order to research this topic (Benson et al., 2012; Kang, 2014). In addition, the majority of the studies also looked at the changes that occurred over time by comparing surveys or questionnaires before and after the experience in addition to interviews or observations. Therefore, this study or a study of a similar nature could be implicated on a larger scale focusing on following a smaller group of Japanese speaking students and study the changes in their perceptions of English and their English ownership over an extended period of time.

An additional implication that this study was unable to address but that future studies may seek to answer is to compare the effects of living in a predominantly Inner Circle English-speaking area with the effects of living in an Outer Circle English-speaking area in addition to an Expanding circle or in areas where English is spoken in a foreign language context outside of Japan. As found by Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014), the exposure to language communities outside of the Anglosphere seemed to change the students' goals of attaining native-like fluency in English to valuing English as a communicative tool for expressing meaning first and putting less emphasis on grammatical correctness. As a result, comparing the effects of living in the three different locations could offer insight into how different language communities effect views of English language and ownership of the language for second language learners.

Further study could also be pursued in the area of the historical context and relationship that English and the West has had in Japan as well as how Japanese cultural norms may have an effect on how students view their own variety of English as well as other varieties of English. Although some of the historic and cultural factors for English in Japan were discussed this study in the literature review, the study itself only examined individual views of English without taking Japanese cultural factors into consideration. As a result, including these factors into further

OWNING ENGLISH

study may provide reasons as to why Japanese learners of English feel the way they do about English from a historical or cultural perspective.

There are still many unanswered questions with regards to how native Japanese speakers view English. Much of the data found in this study supports much of the previous research on a similar topic where there are many contradictions between how English is seen and how Japanese speakers view their own English and their own identity. In addition, data found in this study also supports the previous studies which found that although Japanese speakers are aware of other varieties of English in Asia and they feel that it is an important tool when speaking with other people from Asian, there is still a strong, predominant idea that British or American varieties of English are the ideal to which Japanese learners of English wish to attain. This then can be interpreted that there is a fundamental issue with how Japanese speakers of English are exposed to the language. Even though there are multiple varieties of English, the majority seem to still be exposed to mostly British English or American English, often considered the native varieties. Therefore, the implication from this study could be that there needs to be more exposure, and more positive reinforcement of other, typically considered non-standard varieties of English. In doing so, there could be a change from how Japanese speakers of English view other Asian varieties of English in addition to how they view their own. Based on this data, it seems that although these speakers recognize the importance of Japanese-English, they do not value it the way that they value British or American English as a standard. As a result, implications for this study indicate that more research needs to be done as to why these speakers feel this way and what can be done to shift this mentality to a more positive view.

OWNING ENGLISH

Conclusion

English is an international language. It is used as a lingua franca by millions of people around the world who may or may not be native speakers. As the English language continues to spread and the demand for English-speaking abilities increases, non-native will continue to play an extremely important and large role in the community of English speakers. As a result, their feelings of identity and of language ownership cannot be pushed aside solely on the basis that they are not born speaking the language. As presented in this study, Japanese speakers of English felt divided on the desire to emulate native speakers of English, such as making the idealized American or British varieties, but they also recognized value in their own variety not necessarily when it comes grammatical deviations that they feel their variety may have compared to native-speaker varieties, but in the idea that it maintains their sense of Japanese-ness or self when speaking this variety. Therefore, it is important that second language learners of English, such as the Japanese participants in this study, feel a sense of ownership of English through their variety and not feel tied to the prescriptive notion of emulating native-like fluency.

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Appendix A

Initial Email for participants for survey

Hello!

My name is Carleen Gabrys and I am a graduate student from SUNY Fredonia located in Fredonia, NY. I am currently working on a research project for the completion of my Master's degree in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages). I am looking for participants to take part in my study. The first portion involves a short survey consisting of 30 items about yourself and your perceptions and feelings about English. The survey should take 20 to 30 minutes of your time and is entirely optional. The survey is anonymous and if you chose not to participate, ignore or delete this. However, if you choose to participate, click the link provided below, which will take you to the online survey. Upon completion of the survey, there is an option at the end with information about optional further participation. Once again, all participation is strictly confidential and optional and there will be no penalty to you if you chose not to participate. Thank you for your time!

This is the link to the survey if you wish to participate [insert link to surveymonkey.com survey]

Thank you!

Carleen Gabrys

Appendix B

Consent form as it will appear on the first page of survey on surveymonkey.com

Hello! Thank you for taking the time to click on the link for this survey. This survey consists of 32 items and a final option to participate further in this study. This survey should take between 20 and 30 minutes. The purpose of this study is to gain insight into attitudes that Japanese learners have about English in multiple contexts.

This research survey is voluntary, and you may answer all, some, or none of the questions. There are no risks to your participation. You may withdraw at any time, with no penalty to you. All survey responses will be kept confidential and are anonymous.

If you have any further questions, you may contact me at gabr9345@fredonia.edu .

By clicking 'Next' below, you are acknowledging the following:

- I certify that I am 18 years of age or older
- I agree to participate in this online survey
- I understand all information will be confidential and that I may withdraw at any time without penalty to me.

If you would not like to participate in this survey, click the exit browser button and close the browser window.

[“NEXT” link will be here on Survey Monkey]

Appendix C

Initial Facebook post for recruitment

Hello! My name is Carleen Gabrys and I am a graduate student at SUNY Fredonia. I am currently conducting research to obtain my Master's degree in TESOL. I am looking for anonymous participants to take part in a research survey. If you are interested, please follow the link below for more information. Thank you!

[Link here to second SurveyMonkey survey containing Appendix C as the first page]

OWNING ENGLISH

Appendix D

Questions form survey taken and adapted from Matsuda (2000) and Hashimoto (2002)

Survey was not delivered in this format, but on www.surveymonkey.com. It is presented in this format for ease of readability.

- 1) Are you a native speaker of Japanese?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

- 2) Are you currently learning or have studied English?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

- 3) Have you ever or are you currently living in an area where English is used on a daily basis? (ie. Have you ever or are you living in a predominantly English-speaking country?)
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

- 4) If you answered 'yes' to question #3, how long have/did you study abroad?

- 5) If you answered 'yes' to question #3, where did you study abroad?

- 6) In Japan, knowing English is more useful than knowing any other foreign language.
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree

- 7) English should be used as an international lingua franca (a language that can be used by many people of different language backgrounds so that they can communicate with one another even if they don't share the same first language)
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion

OWNING ENGLISH

- d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 8) English is a beautiful language.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 9) A command of English is important in understanding foreigners and their cultures.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 10) I will use English when talking to American people.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 11) I will use English when talking to people from other Asian countries.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 12) The differences between American and British English are important to me.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree

OWNING ENGLISH

- 13) I want to pronounce English as American or British people do.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 14) I am interested in the Englishes of Singapore and India.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 15) It doesn't matter to me what variety of English I speak as long as people understand me.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 16) Foreigners do not understand us if we talk to them in Japanese-people English.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 17) Japanese-made English should be avoided when speaking or writing.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 18) I am opposed to using English loan words in Japanese.
- a. Strongly agree

OWNING ENGLISH

- b. Agree
- c. No opinion
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly disagree

19) Japanese-made English can express Japanese things better than American English does.

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. No opinion
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly disagree

20) I do not want to lose my Japanese-ness even when I speak English.

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. No opinion
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly disagree

21) I respect my friends who can speak English.

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. No opinion
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly disagree

22) I envy those who can pronounce English liked an American or British person.

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. No opinion
- d. Disagree
- e. Strongly disagree

23) It is important to me to speak English fluently and accurately.

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. No opinion
- d. Disagree

OWNING ENGLISH

- e. Strongly disagree
- 24) As long as it is understood, incorrect English is acceptable.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 25) I feel shy about trying to imitate native speakers' pronunciation of English.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 26) Of all the foreign languages, English is the best language.
- a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. No opinion
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
- 27) My feelings about learning English in order to interact with members of the second language community (for example, USA) are:
- a. Weak
 - b. Somewhat weak
 - c. Neutral
 - d. Somewhat strong
 - e. Strong
- 28) My attitude towards members of the second language community of English speakers is
- a. Unfavorable
 - b. Somewhat unfavorable
 - c. Neutral
 - d. Somewhat favorable
 - e. Favorable
- 29) If I were to rate my desire to learn English, I would say that it is:
- a. Very low
 - b. Low
 - c. Neutral
 - d. High

OWNING ENGLISH

e. Very high

30) If I were to rate my attitude toward English, I would say that it is

- a. Unfavorable
- b. Somewhat unfavorable
- c. Neutral
- d. Somewhat Favorable
- e. Favorable

31) If I were to rate my anxiety when speaking English, I would rate myself as:

- a. Very Calm
- b. Somewhat Calm
- c. Neutral
- d. Somewhat nervous
- e. Very Nervous

32) Would you be willing to participate in an interview session about further discussions on your perceptions of varieties of English and your feelings about using English? For the interview, I would ask you questions individually, one on one. Interviews will last between 45 and 60 minutes and occur once at your convenience.

- a. Yes! I am willing to participate further in an interview. I will contact the researcher by email at gabr9345@fredonia.edu
- b. No thank you, I am NOT willing to participate in an interview.