



124
232
THS

THESIS



This is to certify that the
thesis entitled
Learning Japanese As A Third Language

presented by
Shizuka Sakurai

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for
A MA degree in Linguistics


Major professor

Date 11-16-94

**LIBRARY
Michigan State
University**

PLACE IN RETURN BOX to remove this checkout from your record.
TO AVOID FINES return on or before date due.

DATE DUE	DATE DUE	DATE DUE
JUN 06 2002	MAY 07 2002 12 08 16	
JAN 13 1999		
6/3/07		
MAY 12 2008 01 02 08		

MSU is An Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity Institution

ct:ctrc/datedue.pm3-p.1

LEARNING JAPANESE AS A THIRD LANGUAGE

By

Shizuka Sakurai

A THESIS

**Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirement
for the degree of**

MASTER OF ARTS

**Department of Linguistics and Germanic,
Slavic, Asian and African Languages**

1994

ABSTRACT

LEARNING JAPANESE AS A THIRD LANGUAGE

By

Shizuka Sakurai

The present study investigates bilinguals learning L3. The Korean and Chinese subjects, who are bilinguals in their native language and English and who are learning Japanese as L3, are compared with Americans studying Japanese as L2 at Michigan State University. There are nineteen Asians and twenty Americans as subjects who are chosen from Japanese first and second-year levels. Negative questions and some phrases in Japanese which contrast in word order in English are selected as the items for the tests. The main questions were the existence of L2 transfer into L3 and a question: does bilingualism have any impact on an individual's L3 learning? . The results between two levels and two contexts, conversation and reading, are compared. It was found that the recognizable number of errors reflect the transfer from L2, English, into L3, Japanese. The paper points out one of the possible areas where multilingualism works disadvantageously.

1. Introduction.

In second language acquisition (SLA), there have been numerous studies done and much discussion about language transfer (Gass and Selinker 1983, for example). The main focus of such research has been on the interference between one's first language (L1) and a second language (L2), in this case the target language. The present thesis investigates a phenomenon in learning multiple foreign languages, which has been an understudied topic in SLA. It examines the L2 influence on the third language (L3). Specifically, I attempt to answer the following question: "Is there any language interference between L2 and L3 in L3 learning?" , and to determine whether L2 is transferred into L3 just as L1 transfers into L2. Additionally, it addresses the question of whether bilingualism has any impact on an individual's L3 acquisition. The answers to these questions will give us a clearer picture of what is happening in a learner's head in trilingual learning.

As a result of the increasing internationalization and heterogeneity of the population in modern societies, more and more people are becoming multilingual. Japanese is one of the languages for which the number of learners has risen rapidly worldwide in recent days. In the Japanese classes at Michigan State University, too, there are many nationalities of students represented. I chose American, Chinese, and Korean students as the subjects of this study. I became interested in this topic as a result of teaching Japanese as a foreign language. In the Japanese classes which I teach, there are some Chinese and Korean students who have learned English as L2 and who are studying Japanese as L3.

English is the medium of instruction in their Japanese classes as well as in their learning materials, and I have observed that these students

make some of the same English-influenced errors in Japanese as do their native English speaking peers. This was surprising because many features of Korean grammar and some of Chinese grammar are similar to Japanese and one would, therefore, expect the positive transfer from L1 to L3. Actually we do often times find this kind of positive transfer from L1 in their interlanguage. However some of their errors in Japanese reveal the influence of English sentence structure. It appears that these errors arise from their exposure to English on an everyday basis. Therefore, regardless of the syntactic similarities and the expectation of positive language transfer from L1 to L3, the transfer from L2 to L3 also appears to exist.

In the present study several grammatical structures and negative questions were selected as the items to be asked. Chinese, Korean, and Japanese all share similar properties in their structures, while English does not. My teaching experience has indicated that the items are all highly predictable sources of error for native speakers of English. The study tries to confirm whether the same errors by Americans are committed by native speakers of Chinese and Koreans. The data were collected through oral and reading materials and grammatical judgment tests. Background information on the subjects was also gathered. There were four Chinese and fifteen Korean, and twenty American students, in total thirty nine, who were enrolled in first-year and second-year Japanese courses in spring semester in 1994..

Contrary to the common notion that it is easier for a bilingual to acquire a third language than it is for a monolingual (Cenoz 1994), my hypothesis is that knowing another language sometimes can be a disadvantage in learning a third language. When one has to use some structure in one language, a few different structures in different

languages may merge in one's head and one may choose an inappropriate structure. Why such an inappropriate structure from one language is chosen is also an interesting question to examine. In this study, I view and approach "language transfer" from a wider angle, that is, from that of knowing several languages.

2. Previous studies.

Discussion on transfer started from Lado's claim in 1957 [p. 25]:

We know from the observation of many cases that the grammatical structure of the native language tends to be transferred to the foreign language. The students tend to transfer the sentence forms, modification devices, the number, gender, and case patterns of his native language. We know that this transfer occurs very subtly so that the learner is not even aware of it unless it is called to his attention in specific instances.

His claim had a great impact on the field of second language acquisition. Since then, various studies have been conducted to prove the existence of transfer, and to answer questions such as: what can be or actually is transferred?, how does language transfer occur? What types of language transfer occur? For instance, Schumann (1979) researched the acquisition of English negation by native speakers of Spanish and compared it to speakers of other languages like Japanese, French, German, Norwegian, Taiwanese, Greek, and Italian learning the same form. His finding was that the position of negation tends to be determined by the position in L1, either pre-verbal or post-verbal.

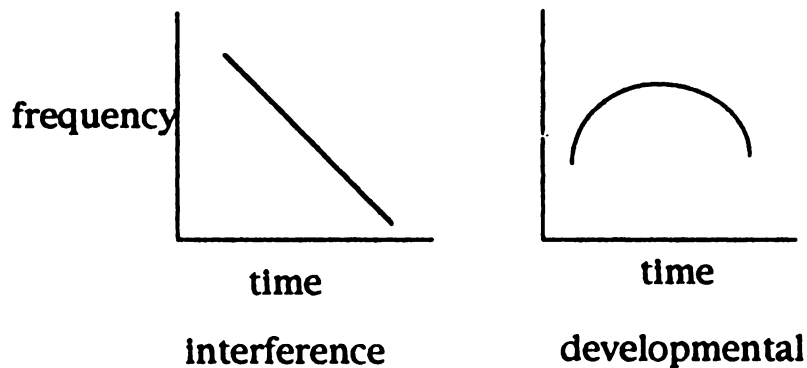
However, this notion of transfer has been challenged by the important research of linking L1 and L2 acquisition. "L2 = L1 hypothesis" was questioned first by Selinker (1966). Then, a paper by Dulay and Burt (1973) exemplified this. Dulay & Burt argued that Chinese and Spanish

children acquired English morphemes the same way and said [p. 256]
 "there does seem to be a common order of acquisition for certain structures in L2 acquisition" . Therefore, they denied the difference which comes from different L1 and stated that L2 is acquired as L1 is acquired.
 Furthermore, Bailey et al (1974) did research using seventy-three Spanish and non-Spanish speaking adult subjects learning English as a second language and reached the same conclusion as Dulay and Burt did. That is, there was no L1 transfer in L2, supporting the "L2 = L1 hypothesis". They claimed that errors are not transferred but are developmental, caused by, for instance, overgeneralization of rules.

However, the issue is not so black and white. We cannot decisively declare what is the source of errors. It may be due to transfer from L1 or other languages, or it may be due to developmental errors. According to George (1972), one third of errors were attributed to L1 transfer, while Dulay and Burt (1975 cited in Gass 1979) found less than five percent of errors caused by L1 transfer. They all implied the existence of the source of errors other than L1 interference. Major (1987) investigated the interrelationship of interference and developmental elements in L2 phonological acquisition, and while admitting considerable evidence for L1 transfer in L2 learning, he said [P.120]:

Interference processes first predominate and then decrease over time. However, developmental processes are at first infrequent, but later they increase and then decrease in frequency.

His theory of the relationship of interference and developmental processes to time is described as the "Ontogeny Model" and is illustrated by the following figure [p. 103]:



He claims that this model for phonology may also apply to syntax. Taylor (1975) presented a similar model in syntax: beginning learners have more interference errors than intermediate learners for whom developmental errors such as overgeneralization are more common. It may be that since a learner does not know much about the target language in the beginning he/she relies on his/her L1 more than he/she does later. However, identifying the source of errors is actually not an easy task and how to account for the criteria for transfer and developmental errors is problematic. As Zobl (1982) stated, transfer and developmental influences interact with each other and it is hard to differentiate them. We cannot ignore the ambiguity with regard to this problem (Gass 1984).

Despite the above views to the contrary, it would be unwise for us to deny the phenomenon of language transfer. In addition to other possible sources of error, my teaching experience has led me to believe that language transfer does exist and I agree with Gass and Selinker (1983) in that [p. 7]:

We feel, however, that there is overwhelming evidence that language transfer is indeed a real and central phenomenon that must be considered in any full account of the second language acquisition process.

Language transfer needs to be investigated as an important phenomenon in order to better understand language acquisition in general, human capacity for language, and for its pedagogical implications. Later in this thesis, I shall return to this issue and relate it to my research.

Below, I discuss some other notions which are related to language transfer, which may give some insight about the present project. Transfer is said to be determined by the distance, that is, similarities and dissimilarities between L1 and L2, from which the concept of contrastive analysis came out. In the contrastive analysis, it was believed that errors can be predicted and reduced by a systematic comparison of any two languages. The structures of L2 that coincide with corresponding structures of L1 are assimilated with great ease as a result of positive transfer. Having an L1 which is closely related to L2 can be advantageous in many ways, including the carryover of L1 items and structures to the L2. On the other hand, contrasting structures present considerable difficulty and give rise to errors as a result of negative transfer or interference between two languages that are distant. Also, a lack of congruence between the L1 and the L2 may result in slower development of the target language, or it may cause fossilized productions. Keller-Cohen (1979) conducted eight-month longitudinal study about Japanese, Finnish, and Swiss German children acquiring the question formation in English. She found that the different developmental patterns are able to be explained by the similarities and dissimilarities between English and their native languages. The slow development of the productive use of yes/no questions in English on the part of the Finnish child in comparison with German and Japanese children was found. Also, an interesting observation concerning transfer issue has been made by Ulijn and Kemmpem (1976, cited in

Krashen 1983), that is, L1-L2 differences do not appear to present a problem in reading. If this is true, then errors caused by L1 transfer should not be found in understanding of written text which requires more attention, as often as in conversation which requires quicker response.

As Lado (1957) states, transfer occurs unconsciously and students are not aware of doing so. Krashen (1983), however, states that errors by L1 transfer can be reduced or "cured" by monitor use, or in carefully monitored speech. He relates his theory to the "cure" of language transfer. His monitor theory has to do with an effort in conscious language learning made by the learner to control his language production and to self-correct it. Krashen's hypothesis is [p.136]:

Monitor can repair errors caused by the use of the first language in cases where the rule is learned but not yet acquired. This cure, however, is only short-term.

The monitor use not only repairs interlingual errors, but also plays a role in avoidance of some structure rather than troubling to repair it with the monitor when a rule has been learned but has not yet been acquired.

Schachter (1974) first mentioned the phenomenon of avoidance due to difficulties, which can be predicted when the two languages are compared. She also showed an example of avoidance of relative clauses in English by Chinese and Japanese learners of English. However, as Krashen points out, there are individual differences among learners and they may or may not be effective monitor users. If the monitor is "on", it facilitates the accuracy of items which are not yet acquired.

While what has been usually discussed in the literature is the transfer from L1 to L2, Mackey (1968) addresses unique interference cases from L2 to L1. He reports several phenomena in which various features in

the foreign language actually replace features in the native language. This suggests that transfer does not necessarily have to be in the direction from L1 to L2. It can be bi-directional.

A second language refers to (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991 p. 7) "any languages other than the language learner's native language". Therefore, with this broader definition in mind, we can expand the notion of transfer from the conventional one (L1 to L2) to that which includes transfer from L1 to L2, L2 to L3, and L1 to L3.

When examining language transfer in multilingual cases, it soon becomes obvious that not many previous studies have been done. Language transfer by multilingual speakers seems to be regarded rarer than by monolingual speakers. However, there are many countries in which multilingualism is quite common. The study of language transfer in the multilingual context seems to be an important but as yet understudied field. There is a need for more research in this area.

Research in multilingual context has been done by some scholars, such as Magiste (1979, 1986) and Balke-Aurell and Lindblad (1982 cited in Magiste 1986). They all tried to answer the question: "Is learning a third language easier for bilingual immigrant students than learning a second language is for monolingual students?" In Balke-Aurell and Lindblad's study in Sweden, Grade eight immigrant students who are bilingual in Finnish and Swedish are compared in a standardized test in English (L3) with Swedish monolingual students. Among the bilinguals, there are two groups: group 1 are those who use L 2 (Swedish) dominantly at home and group 2 are those who use L1 (Finnish) dominantly at home. The result was that group 1, passive user of L1, performed clearly better than group 2, active user of L1, and group 1 did slightly better than group 3,

monolingual Swedish students. In Magiste's study (1979), a similar result was obtained. In his research, the L1 was Swedish, L2 was German, and L3 was English and a group of seventy-four German/Swedish bilingual high school students are compared to a group of trilingual students and German/Swedish monolinguals. He found that [p.116] "trilingual subjects needed more time to perform the more tasks in their second and third language than bilingual subjects did in their first and second language". He argued that monolingualism and passive bilingualism seemed to be facilitated in learning a third language, while active bilingualism may delay L3 acquisition. The finding goes against the common idea that the third language learning is easier in general. The longer reaction time of multilinguals may be explained as an effect of interference of competing language systems. Kovac (1965) stated that [p.158-159] "real multilingualism may be a disadvantage in all situations in which extremely prompt responses are required to verbal stimuli,..." Therefore, it seems that for an active two language user, learning a third language is not as easy as was thought to be the case.

In the studies by Magiste, Balke-Aerell, and Lindblad, they examine whether active use of L1 influences L3 acquisition in a negative way or not. Here, being an active bilingual is found to be disadvantageous. However, in Jaspaert and Lemmens' study (1989), in which grade school children in Brussels whose L1 was Italian and L2 was French were learning Dutch as the target language (L3), they found that bilingual children do not show much difference from monolingual children in the results of L3 tests. Also, being bilingual did not impede acquisition of L3 or a successful transition to secondary education. This is supported by a Wagner and Spratt (1989)'s investigation in Morocco that the instruction in L2 did not

hinder L3 acquisition. In addition, Cenoz and Valencia (1994) tried to test the effect of bilingualism (Spanish and Basque) on L3 (English) acquisition and also the effect of instruction in L2 on L3 learning that was a minority language. Their findings were more positive than the findings in Jaspaert and Lemmens' study (1989). One of the results found by Cenoz and Valencia is that both being bilingual and using L2 as a medium of instruction facilitate positive outcomes in L3 acquisition because [p.207]:

...they (bilingual students) use their knowledge of two other linguistic systems (Basque, Spanish) and compare them to the new code. This metalinguistic awareness could possibly account for a higher level of linguistic competence in a third language.

In addition, he attributed these positive outcomes to the subjects' "very strong, positive attitudes toward their language." [pp. 206-207] . In actuality, a success of second and third language learning is bound to be affected by various conditions like the languages, ages, motivation, the environment in which the language is used, and so forth. We have to view various cases of acquisition from several angles in order to reach a better understanding of second and third language acquisition.

Finally, Akiyama's (1979) study concerns the acquisition of negative questions by American and Japanese bilingual and monolingual children in the United States. Their mean ages were four to ten for Japanese-English bilinguals, five for English monolinguals, and four to eleven for Japanese monolinguals. (I shall explain the system of Japanese negative questions in more detail in the following section, 1.3. Comparison of selected structures.) Negative questions are answered differently in English and Japanese. The difference is shown in the table below cited in Akiyama [p. 488].

Table 1

speaker	Negative question	Answer	Underlying intention
English speaker	Aren't you going? Aren't you going?	Yes, No,	I am going. I am not going.
Japanese speaker	Aren't you going? Aren't you going?	No, Yes,	I am going. I am not going.

In English one answers "yes" or "no" depending on one's intention about the matter being asked, while in Japanese one affirms or denies questioner's assumption by "yes" or "no". Therefore, the assumption is that the person being asked might not go, and in Japanese "yes" means that "what you seem to be assuming is right, I'm not going" whereas "no" means that "what you seem to be assuming is wrong, I'm going". Akiyama's question was which of the two linguistic systems was acquired earlier and whether the two systems work independently or interactively in Japanese-English bilingual children. He found that the two systems in answering negative questions interact with each other in bilingual children, and that the English way of answering was acquired earlier than the Japanese way. It is interesting that, when the bilingual children were asked negative questions in Japanese, a high percentage of them used the English answering system. What Akiyama found has a great implication for the present study in terms of English (L2) transfer to Japanese (L3) in answering negative questions, although my subjects are adults and they acquired English as their L2.

3. Comparison of selected structures.

In this study, I selected syntactic Japanese structures that are negative questions and four phrases, which Chinese, Korean, and Japanese

share, but which English does not. Hence, they are all highly probable sources of errors for native speakers of English. As for the equivalents in Chinese and Korean, it was confirmed in some grammar books, references and by my informants ¹ that basically their arrangement of words was the same as that in Japanese. The Chinese, Korean, and Japanese structures were formed one group, while the English structure was formed as the other. If Chinese and Korean subjects make errors using English word order, then we may assume that there is English influence. ²

The items treated in this study are classified into several types: negative questions, time related expressions and modifier-head phrases. First, as for negative questions, Table 1 from Akiyama (1979) in the previous section shows the basic contrast between Japanese and English systems of answering. Additionally, according to Martin (1962), Japanese "yes" and "no" in negative questions can be analyzed as follows:

The words *hai* (oree) and *iie* are used to mean 'what you've said is correct' and what you've said is incorrect'. So if you state a question in a negative way, the standard Japanese answer turns out to be the opposite of standard English 'yes' and 'no', which affirm or deny the FACT rather than the STATEMENT of the facts. [pp. 364-365]

However, Kuno (1973) views Martin's explanation to be too simplistic and he classifies negative questions roughly into two patterns: one is a "neutral (negative) question" in which a questioner is expecting a negative answer from the listener or a questioner has no presupposition about what the listener is going to answer [p. 274]. The other is "one that contains the

¹ The informants are native speakers of each language whose major is linguistics.

² Although this assumption is possible, there still remained a question: It is not very certain that Korean and Chinese students have actually mastered the system of negative questions in English. Sometimes even native speakers of English may make a mistakes. It may be interesting to investigate how native speakers of English would respond to this kind of formal tests of negative questions in English.

questioner's expectation of a positive answer", which is like "an affirmative sentence with a tag question at the end". If one is asked the former "neutral (negative) question", the answer is the one that Martin defines. Hai ("Yes") corresponds to the English "no", while ie ("No") corresponds to the English "yes". However, regarding the latter negative question with a positive expectation, since the questioner's assumption is a positive one, as in English, hai is used for an affirmative answer and ie for a negative answer. The following are some examples:

(1) a. "neutral (negative) question"

A. kinoo toshokan e ikimasen deshita ka.
yesterday library to go-not did
"Didn't you go to the library yesterday?"

B. *Hai*, ikimasen deshita.
yes go-not did
"No, I didn't go."

Iie, ikimashita.
no go-did
"Yes, I did."

(2) b. negative question with a positive expectation

A. Gakusee ja arimasen ka.
student be-not
"Aren't you a student?"

B. *Hai*, soo desu.
yes right be
"Yes, I am"

Iie, chigaimasu.
no wrong
"No, I'm not."

Kuno says that the cues to distinguish the two types lies in the intonations or nonlinguistic environments such as conversational contexts. In the present study, negative questions with a positive expectation as in (2) was regarded as a tag question and was eliminated. To make a contrast in

systems between Japanese and English clear, I used only neutral (negative) questions as in (1).

In Chinese and Korean, the system of answering negative questions is basically the same as in Japanese. According to *Introduction to Spoken Korean* by Horne and Yun (1950, p. 23), "..., when you use ne (or ye) 'yes' and aniyo 'no' in replying to NEGATIVE question, they are used just the opposite from English 'yes' and 'no'". In Chinese, *Mandarin Primer An Intensive Course in Spoken Chinese* by Chao (1957) says that "If the question is in the negative, then the answer in Chinese will seem to be the opposite to that of the English". As these materials are old, I asked some native speakers of Chinese and Koreans (whose major is linguistics). They all agreed with the statements in these books. Thus, it is possible to group Chinese, Korean, and Japanese languages with regard to the ways of answering negative questions.

As for the rest of the items treated, namely, time related expressions and modifier-head phrases, the examples used in this study are given in the following table.

Table 2

	English	Japanese
time related expression	(1) 5:00 PM	gogo go-ji PM 5-o'clock
	(2) three times an hour	ichi-ji-kan ni ichi-do 1-hour per 3-time
	(3) May 2, 1994	1994-nen go-gatsu hutsuka 1994-nen 5-month 2nd
modifier-head expression	(4) restaurant named Kyoto	Kyoto toiu resutoran Kyoto named restaurant

As seen in (1) gogo goji ("5:00 PM"), examples were chosen in which the word order in English and Japanese was contrastive. In Japanese, gogo ("PM") is placed before the time, go-ji ("5:00"), whereas they are in the opposite order. In modifier-head expression as in (4) Kyoto toiu restoran ("restaurant named Kyoto"), in Japanese, a modifying phrase comes before the head noun which is the opposite of the order in English. Therefore, Kyoto toiu ("Kyoto named") is placed before eega ("movie"), and it modifies eega. In this sense Japanese is a left-brancing and head-final language. Basically, the word order in the Japanese examples in Table 2 also is the same in the Chinese and Korean equivalents.

4. Method

4.1. Subjects.

		total
Korean students studying first-year Japanese -----	9	
Chinese students studying first-year Japanese -----	4	19
Korean students studying second-year Japanese -----	6	
American students studying first-year Japanese -----	13	20
American students studying second-year Japanese-----	7	

There are nineteen Asian students, consisting of nine Koreans and four Chinese in first-year Japanese (in total, thirteen), and six Koreans in the second-year course, which nearly corresponds with thirteen Americans in the first year and seven Americans in the second year. There are twenty female and nineteen male subjects. They are all students at Michigan State University. All the American students are English monolinguals, whereas Chinese and Korean students are bilinguals in their native languages and English(the degree to which they are bilingual must vary). At the end of experimental session the Asian subjects are asked to complete a questionnaire about their English proficiency, language background,

length of residence in the U. S., languages spoken outside of classes, and their study of Japanese. The following table presents the summary.

Table 3

	Korean (1st-year)	Chinese (1st-year)	Korean (2nd-year)
average length of stay in the U.S.(yrs.)	2.4	2.1	4.7
TOEFL score (average)	569.2	581.5	571.6
% of time speaking (outside the classes) ³			
English	28.8	57.7	49.5
Japanese	7.2	3.5	7.5
Native lg.	63.3	38.7	45
% of students who think studying Jap. in Eng. is inefficient	66.6	25	50
use of native language in studying Jap.(% of students)	88.8	50	83.3

The questionnaire used in this survey appears in the appendix.

4. 2. Procedure

The data were gathered from five kinds of tests. Word order question and the way of responding to negative questions are investigated each in an oral context and in a written context. The first part of the four tests concerns negative questions in oral context, and the second part in a written text. In the third part, the word order of some expressions (see p. 14) uttered orally is studied, and the fourth part treats word order in a written text. The oral context prompts the subjects to have a quick response. On the other hand, the written text allows them to have enough time to think. American and Asian student's responds were compared, as

³ We have to admit that this percentage is subjective estimation by the subjects.

well as the difference between the first-year and second-year levels. The fifth part is designed only for Koreans and Chinese students to attain general information about their studying in the U. S. The outline of each part is summarized in the next page.

- Part 1: 8-to 10-minute individual conversation in Japanese including 8 to 10 negative questions
- Part 2: Choosing the right answers to 4 questions (including 2 negative questions) following a reading passage
- Part 3: Explaining a schedule in Japanese, which is given in English. The task includes the target phrases which contrast in word order between Japanese and English.
- Part 4: Grammatical judgment task. Students read sentences, which include 2 grammatical and 2 ungrammatical sentences, and answer whether they are grammatically right or wrong.
- Part 5: General information about studying in the U.S. (only Asians)

In the first part, students had an eight to ten minute conversation in Japanese with me. The topics of the conversation were generally about their spring and summer breaks, sports and music, trips, and so on. In the course of the conversation, I tried to ask eight to ten negative questions in a natural context. The type of negative question is limited only to "neutral (negative) question", as defined by Kuno(1973), in which a questioner is expecting a negative answer from the listener or he/she has no presupposition about the listener's answer. In this case, the responses make a contrast with those of negative questions in English. The conversation was recorded.

Secondly, I asked students to read a short passage which consisted of four sentences. The passage was the one that even first-year students are able to read and comprehend. Therefore, most of the subjects had no difficulty in understanding it. The passage was followed by four questions,

including two negative questions. The other two questions served as fillers. The students were asked to read them and choose the right answer from the given choices. The translation of the passage is "I went to Japan with my friend last year. I wanted to go to Mt. Fuji. But since it was snowing hard, neither of us went there. That was too bad. " The translation of questions and choices of answers are:

- (1) Did this person go to Japan by himself?
 - 1. Yes, he went there by himself
 - 2. No, he went there with his friend. (the right answer)
- (2) Did this person go to Mt. Fuji?
 - 1. Yes, he did.
 - 2. No, he didn't. (the right answer)
- (3) Didn't this person want to go there?
 - 1. Yes, he did.
 - 2. Yes, he didn't.
 - 3. No, he did. (the right answer)
 - 4. No, he didn't.
- (4) Didn't his friend go there, either?
 - 1. Yes, he did.
 - 2. Yes, he didn't. (the right answer)
 - 3. No, he did.
 - 4. No, he didn't.

The choices include both English and Japanese ways of answering to test which answer the students would choose. In addition, the question (3) requires students to affirm the thing that the question concerns, while (4) requires them to negate it.

In the third part, the subjects were asked to skim the following notes written in English and to explain it to me in Japanese:

Please explain in Japanese what you did on Sunday

1:00P M got up

2:00—4:00 stayed home because it was raining

6:00 went to a restaurant named Kyoto

9:00 called my parents three times an hour

2:00A M went to bed

schedule of March 15, 1994

The bold phrases are the tested phrases chosen for this study. They were not in bold on the note given to the subjects had these notes. The four items in bold form the opposite word order in Japanese and it is intended to test whether any English influence on the word order in their Japanese could be observed in a speaking context.

The fourth part also concerns testing of word order, but in a written text in Japanese. The students read sixteen sentences, in which each sentence contains one of the same four items of word order as the previous part has. Each item has four sentences that consist of two grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. For example, two sentences have the phrase appearing as go-ji gozen/gogo ("5:00 AM/PM") and two other sentences with gozen/gogo go-ji("AM/PM 5:00") in Japanese. All the sentences are in random order and they are judged on a four-point scale: wrong, probably wrong, right, and probably right. This four-way distinction serves to indicate their degree of certainty. In order to exclude extraneous factors, I asked subjects to underline a place that they think is ungrammatical or probably ungrammatical. If they marked phrases that do not concern any of the four items that I am studying, I eliminated them from the data so that the data would be based on the students' knowledge about the four items

only. The subjects were told that there were no mistakes in particles, characters, and so on. They should not go back to the previous sentences to change the choice that they made. The actual sheet that was used for this test is in the appendix.

The fifth part was filling out the information sheet. A brief summary of the chart appeared in "3. 1. subject" section. The sheet that I used is in the appendix. This part was added to obtain the students' background information about studying Japanese and English and about languages they use in daily life, which may give some insight when interpreting the data.

5. Result.

5. 1. Negative questions in conversation.

The results of each parts are summarized in the following tables. First, Table 4 shows the results of negative questions in conversation. The table illustrates the background of the subjects: first-year and second-year levels, and Chinese, Korean, and American. Five ways to answer negative questions were found. The correct ways were, for example, either ee shimasen deshita ("Yes, I didn't") or iee shimashita ("No, I did") They sometimes answered incorrectly, ee shimashita ("Yes, I do") or iee shimasendeshita ("No, I don't") which are the same as English way of answering. Additionally, some subjects did not say clarify "Yes" or "No" overtly and just said shimashita ("I did") or shimasendeshita ("I didn't"). Thus there were a total of five types of answers.

Table 4

		correct A. in Jap. way			wrong A. in Eng. way			No Y/N	Total#
		Yes, I don't	No, I do	(total)	Yes, I do	No, I don't	(total)		
Asian	Korean	28	13	41(49.3%)	3	15	18(21.6%)	24(28.9%)	83
	1st-yr.								
	Chinese	13	6	19(51.3%)	4	3	7(18.9%)	11(29.7%)	37
	1st-yr.								
	1st-yr. total	41	19	60(50.0%)	7	18	25(20.8%)	35(29.1%)	120
(Korean & Chinese)									
	Korean	16	7	23(34.3%)	3	16	19(28.3%)	25(37.3%)	67
	2nd yr.								
	1st & 2nd yr	57	26	83(44.3%)	10	34	44(23.5%)	60(32.0%)	187
	total								
American	American	44	26	70(57.8%)	12	20	32(26.4%)	19(15.7%)	121
	1st-yr.								
	American	11	8	19(28.3%)	8	8	16(23.8%)	32(47.7%)	67
	2nd-yr.								
	1st & 2nd yr	55	34	89(47.3%)	20	28	48(25.5%)	51(27.1%)	188
	total								
total		112	60	172(45.7%)	30	62	92(24.4%)	112(29.7%)	376

Five types of answers:

1. Wrong answers (ways of answering in English)

(1) Yes, I do.

(2) No, I don't.

2. Correct answers in Japanese way (ways of answering in Japanese)

(3) Yes, I don't.

(4) No, I do.

3. Other

(5) Answers without overt Yes or No

Table 4 is the summary of the result in part 1.

In this test, similar results are found among Americans, Korean, and Chinese. About half of the answers are grammatical, which follows the Japanese pattern, while about one fourth of the answers are ungrammatical, which uses the way of answering in English. Although we have to admit the limit of this study that there are only two levels of students, first and second and the number of subjects is not very large, a few differences between two levels are found. At the higher level, fewer correct answers and more incorrect answers with the English pattern are obtained for Korean subjects. (However, this may be due to the fact that first-year students had the instruction of negative questions more recently than second-year students.) Additionally, at the second level, the percentage of self-correction increases among Koreans and Chinese and the percentage of answers without Yes/No increased among both Americans, Koreans, and Chinese.

Table 5 presents the result of Americans that is partially taken from Table 4. First, regarding American subjects, it turns out that the percentage of the correct answers is not very high and that about one fourth of their answers are marked wrong in the English way. The category called "self correction" is for the answers that is corrected from the English way to the Japanese way. For example, they first answered by

saying "No, I didn't", realized that they made a mistake, and changed it into "Yes, I didn't". The numbers of self correction are included in correct answer.

Table 5

	correct A. in Jap. way	self correction	wrong A. in Eng. way	no Y/N	total
American 1st yr.	70 (57.8%)	8 (11.4%)	32 (26.4%)	19 (15.7%)	121
American 2nd yr.	19(28.3%)	0 (0%)	16 (23.8%)	32 (47.7%)	67
total	89 (47.3%)	8 (8.9%)	48 (25.5%)	52 (27.6%)	188

$$\chi^2 = 2.355 \quad P = 0.125 > 0.05$$

The self correction is more frequently used by the first-year American subjects than by the second-year Americans. Instead, the second-year American students avoided stating "Yes" or "No" overtly, which is explained by a large increase from 15.7% by the first-year students to 47.7 % the second-year students in "no Yes/No category". With this increase, there is a decrease in second-year level students in the percentage of correct answer: from 57.8% (first-year level) to 28.3% (second-year level). Therefore, it seems that this large decrease is explained by the large increase of avoidance in "Yes/No" usage. However the Chi square test does not show a significant difference.

Table 6 compares American and Asian, Chinese and Korean, students.

Table 6

	correct A. in total Jap. way	self correction	wrong A. in Eng. way	no Y/N
American 121 1st & 2nd yr.	89 (49.0%)	8 (8.9%)	48 (25.3%)	52 (27.5%)
Asian 187 1st & 2nd yr.	83 (44.3%)	7 (8.4%)	44 (23.5%)	60 (32.0%)

$$\chi^2 = 0.004 \quad P = 0.998 > 0.05$$

Similar results among Americans and Asians were obtained as shown in Table 6. The Chi square test ⁴ also shows that they are not significantly different. This result can support my hypothesis that there may be a second language (English) interference in a third language (Japanese) learning. Chinese and Korean students have a similar tendency to use the English way of answering negative questions. American students show the higher percentage in answering in the Japanese way than Asians, while Asians make use of the avoidance of saying "Yes/No", which is sometimes found also in Japanese.

Table 7 shows an unexpected result that, at the higher level, fewer correct answers and more incorrect answers were obtained. In addition, the percentage of self correction increases. One fact that the percentage of "no Yes/No" increases in the second-year level, from 29.1% to 37.3%, may be due to the students purposely avoiding "Yes" or "No" and come to utilize avoiding saying "Yes" or "No", although not saying Yes or No in Japanese is not incorrect but rather typical.

⁴ The Chi square test shows the relations between "correct answers in Japanese way" and "wrong answers in English way".

Table 7

	correct A. in Jap. way	self correction	wrong A. in Eng. way	no Y/N	total
Asian 1st yr.	60 (50.0%)	4 (6.6%)	25 (20.8%)	35 (29.1%)	120
Asian 2nd yr.	23 (34.3%)	3 (13.0%)	19 (28.3%)	25 (37.3%)	67

$$\chi^2 = 3.110 \quad P = 0.078 > 0.05$$

The comparison between Chinese and Korean in the first-year level is presented in Table 8. The figures for the percentage of each category turn out to be similar. The Chi square test also shows that they are not significantly different. Therefore it can be concluded that Chinese and Korean students tend to perform in a similar way in negative questions in conversation.

Table 8

	correct A. in Jap. way	self correction	wrong A. in Eng. way	no Y/N	total
Korean 1st yr.	41 (49.3%)	3 (7.3%)	18 (21.6%)	24 (28.9%)	83
Chinese 1st yr.	19 (51.3%)	1 (5.2%)	7 (18.9%)	11 (29.7%)	37

$$\chi^2 = 0.112 \quad P = 0.738 > 0.05$$

5. 2. Negative questions in reading.

The next page shows an overall table of the result in negative questions in the reading task. The subjects first read a passage in Japanese and answered four questions including two negative questions. The students had four multiple choices in each of two negative questions, in

which there are two choices of Japanese way and two of English way. Of the two choices of Japanese way, only one is the correct answer to the question. Therefore, in Table 9, all of the answers are categorized in two ways: "Answers in Japanese way" and "Answers in English way". Then, each category is divided into two again: "Understanding" and "not understanding". " Understanding" means that the subjects understand the reading passage and question, and they are right with regard to the content, for instance, in the "he, did" part, but they may be wrong grammatically on the "Yes/No" part. For example, in a negative question (3):

- (3) fuji-san e ikitakunakatta n desu ka
 Mt. Fuji to go wanted-not that
 'Did this person not want to go there?'

1. ee ikitakatta desu.
 yes go wanted-not
 'Yes, he did.'
2. ee ikitakuarimasen deshita.
 yes go want-not did
 'Yes, he didn't.'
3. ie ikitakatta desu
 no go wanted
 'No, he did.' (the right answer)
4. ie ikitakuarimasen deshita.
 no go want-not did
 'No, he didn't.'

Table 9

Answers in Japanese way										Answers in English way										total	
understanding					not understanding					understanding					not understanding						
	(3) No, he did.	(4) Yes, he didn't.			(3) Yes, he didn't.	(4) No, he did.			(3) Yes, he did.	(4) No, he didn't.			(3) No, he didn't.	(4) Yes, he did.							
Asian																					
Korean	5	9	14	1	0	1	15	3	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	3	18				
1st. yr.			77.7%			5.5%	83.3%			16.6%					0%	16.6%					
Chinese	1	2	3	1	0	1	4	2	1	3	0	0	0	3	0	3	7				
1st. yr.			42.8%			14.2%	57.1%			42.8%					0%	42.8%					
total	6	11	17	2	0	2	19	5	1	6	0	0	0	6	0	6	25				
1st. yr.			68%			8%	76%			24%					0%	24%					
Korean	5	0	5	0	0	0	5	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	6				
2nd. yr.			83.3%			0%	83.3%			16.6%					0%	16.6%					
total	11	11	22	2	0	2	24	6	1	7	0	0	0	7	0	7	31				
1st. & 2nd.			70.9%			6.4%	77.4%			22.5%					0%	22.5%					
American																					
1st. yr.	7	10	17	1	0	1	18	3	3	6	1	0	0	7	1	7	25				
			68%			4%	72%			24%					4%	28%					
American	3	7	10	0	0	0	10	4	0	4	0	0	0	4	0	4	14				
2nd. yr.			71.4%			0%	71.4%			28.5%					0%	28.5%					
total	10	17	27	1	0	1	28	7	3	10	1	0	0	11	1	11	39				
1st. & 2nd.			69.2%			2.5%	71.7%			25.6%					2.5%	25.3%					
total	22	28	50	3	0	3	53	13	4	17	1	0	0	18	1	18	71				
			70.4%			4.2%	74.6%			23.7%					5.5%	25.3%					

2. "Yes, he didn't" and 3 "No, he did" are labeled as "Answers in Japanese way", while 1. "Yes, he did" and 4. "No, he didn't" are labeled as "Answers in English way". Of the choice 2 and 3, 2 is correct in the form, "Answers in Japanese way", but not in the content. Therefore, it is considered "not understanding". 3 is right both in the form and content, which is categorized as "Answers in Japanese way" and "understanding". As for 1, it is wrong in form, "Answers in English way", although it is right in the content, "understanding". 4 is categorized as "Answers in Japanese way" and "not understanding". Therefore, there are four categories, and each category has two boxes for question (3) and (4) in Table 9.

Some findings in part 2 in reading task are similar to those in part 1 in conversation, although part 2 obtained lower percentage of influence from English shown in "Answers in English way". In part 2, American and Asian subjects present similar percentages in "Answers in Japanese way" and "Answers in English way", that is, Asian students have the similar tendency to use the English system of answering negative questions in Japanese. In the second-year level, American and Korean students show no difference in performance. At the first-year level, compared with the Korean students, Chinese students present much lower percentage in accuracy and higher percentage in wrong answer in the English way. That may be correlated with their higher percentage in speaking English outside classes than Korean students.

As in the previous tables, the vertical rows represent the subjects' nationalities and levels. First, the results among American subjects is presented in Table 10:

Table 10

	Answers in Jap. way	Answers in Eng. way	total
American 1st yr.	18 (72.0%)	7 (28.0%)	25
American 2nd yr.	10 (71.4%)	4 (28.5%)	14
American total	28 (71.7%)	11(25.3%)	39

$$\chi^2 = 0.001 \text{ } P = 0.970 > 0.05$$

As seen in part 1, about twenty five percent of wrong answers in English way is found and the correct answers occupy about seventy percent. Chi square shows that there is no significant difference between the first and second-year levels.

Table 11 presents the comparison between American and Asian students. The Asian subjects show a little better results than American subjects, although the Chi square test shows that there is not a significant difference.

Table 11

	Answers in Jap. way	Answers in Eng. way	total
American total	28 (71.7%)	11 (25.3%)	39
Asian total	24 (77.4%)	7 (22.5%)	31

$$\chi^2 = 0.286 \text{ } P = 0.593 > 0.05$$

In part 1, at the level, the percentage in "Answers in English way" did not decrease in both Americans and Asians. In part 2, as for Americans,

the same result is found. However, in Table 12 of part 2, regarding Asians, the accuracy rises in the second-year level; from 76.0 percent to 83.3 percent. With this improvement, there seen the decrease in percentage in "Answers in English way"; from 24.0 percent to 16.6 percent. According to the percentage in the table, there is a difference between the first and second-year levels. (Chi square test is not applicable due to the small numbers of the result.)

Table 12

	Answers in Jap. way	Answers in Eng. way	total
Asian 1st yr.	19 (76.0%)	6 (24.0%)	25
Asian 2nd yr.	5 (83.3%)	1 (16.6%)	6

(Chi-square test is not applicable)

Therefore, in the reading task, provided with ample time to think about the answer, the second-year Asians performed better at answering negative questions.

The first-year Asian subjects consist of Chinese and Koreans. But the second-year subjects are only Koreans. When I focus only on Korean subjects, it is found that there is no improvement observed in the second-year level, and the percentage of "Answers in English way" is exactly the same as in Table 13.

Table 13

	Answers in Jap. way	Answers in Eng. way	total
Korean 1st yr.	15 (83.3%)	3 (16.6%)	18
Korean 2nd yr.	5 (83.3%)	1 (16.6%)	6

(Chi-square test is not applicable)

Therefore, it is Chinese subjects who lower the performance of the first-year level.

Table 14

	Answers in Jap. way	Answers in Eng. way	total
Korean 1st yr.	15 (83.3%)	3 (16.6%)	18
Chinese 1st yr.	4 (57.1%)	3 (42.8%)	7
Asian total	19 (76.0%)	6 (24.0%)	25

$\chi^2 = 1.895$ $P = 0.169 > 0.05$

The accuracy shown in "Answers in Japanese way" differs significantly between Koreans and Chinese: 83.3 percent vs. 57.1 percent. Also, the percentage of "Answers in English way" shows a big difference between the two nationalities: 16.6 percent vs. 42.8 percent. In other words, Chinese subjects performed much poorer than Korean subjects. However, since there was no Chinese subject available in the second-year level, it was not possible to investigate any change in Chinese students performance in the second-year level.

Table 15 shows the percentage of speaking English, Japanese, and their native language outside classes :

Table 15

language	% of speaking English	Japanese	native
Korean 1st yr.	28.8 %	7.2 %	63.3 %
Chinese 1st yr.	57.7 %	3.5 %	38.7 %

There is a big difference between Korean and Chinese subjects in terms of speaking English and their native languages. Koreans use their native language much more than English: Korean is spoken 63.3 percent, whereas English is spoken 28.8 percent. Contrary to this ratio by Korean subjects, Chinese subjects use English more than their native language: Chinese is spoken 38.7 percent, while English is spoken 57.7 percent. It may be that the high possibility that Chinese subjects are more influenced by English since they are exposed to more English in their daily life. This could explain why Chinese subjects have the higher percentage in "Answers in English way" than Korean subjects.

3. 3. Word order in oral explanation.

In this section, the subjects were asked to explain a schedule in Japanese according to English cues. The English cues included four items which contrast in word order in Japanese. The four items are arranged horizontally in Table 16. Under each item, the subjects' answers are categorized either in two ways, "Japanese way", (the right answer), or "English way", (the incorrect answer).

Table 16

		5:00 PM			3 times an hour			5/2/1994			A named B		
		Jap. way	Eng. way		Jap. way	Eng. way		Jap. way	Eng. way		Jap. way	Eng. way	
Asian	Korean	7	1	8	4	4	8	2	5	7	6	1	7
	1st yr.	87.5%	12.5%		50%	50%		28.5%	71.4%		85.7%	14.2%	
	Chinese	2	2	4	4	0	4	1	3	4	4	0	4
	1st yr.	50%	50%		100%	0%		25%	75%		100%	0%	
	total	9	3	12	8	4	12	3	8	11	10	1	11
	1st yr.	75%	25%		66.6%	33.3%		27.2%	76.7%		90.9%	9%	
	Korean	5	1	6	5	1	6	1	5	6	6	0	6
	2nd yr.	83.3%	16.6%		83.3%	16.6%		16.6%	83.3%		100%	0%	
	total	14	4	18	13	5	18	4	13	17	16	1	17
	1st & 2nd	77.7%	22.2%		72.2%	27.7%		23.5%	76.4%		94.1%	5.8%	
American	American	5	8	13	9	4	13	2	11	13	8	4	12
	1st yr.	27.7%	61.5%		69.2%	30.7%		15.3%	84.6%		66.6%	33.3%	
	American	2	5	7	5	1	6	0	7	7	5	1	6
	2nd yr.	28.5%	71.4%		83.3%	16.6%		0%	100%		83.3%	16.6%	
	total	7	13	20	14	5	19	2	18	20	13	5	18
	1st & 2nd	35%	65%		73.6%	26.3%		10%	90%		72.2%	27.7%	
	total	21	17	38	27	10	37	6	31	37	29	6	35
		55.2%	44.7%		72.9%	27%		16.2%	83.7%		82.8%	17.1%	

Table 17 compares the American and Asian subjects in their overall performance, in which the four items are included. Asian students generally did better than Americans: 32.8 percent for Asians and 53.2 percent for Americans. Although Asians' percentage of "Answers in English way" is lower than Americans, it is still recognizable as interference from English. However Koreans, the second-year students, generally performed more accurately than the first-year students.

Table 17

	Jap. way	Eng. way	total
Korean 1st yr.	19 (63.3%)	11 (36.6%)	30
Chinese 1st yr.	11 (68.7%)	5 (31.2%)	16
total 1st yr.	30 (65.2%)	16 (34.7%)	46
Korean 2nd yr.	17 (70.8%)	7 (29.1%)	24
Asian total	47 (67.1%)	23 (32.5%)	70
American 1st yr.	24 (47.0%)	27 (52.9%)	51
American 2nd yr.	12 (46.1%)	14 (53.8%)	26
American total	36 (46.7%)	41 (53.2%)	77
total	83 (56.4%)	64 (43.5%)	147

The Chinese students performed slightly better than Koreans. However, depending on the items, different results obtained. For example, a poorer performance was seen in the phrase 1994-nen 5-gatsu 15-nichi ("May 15, 1994") than in other items and in the item of Kyoto tolu resutoran ("a restaurant named Kyoto"), the students performed better than other items. Therefore, for students, there is a phrase that has been acquired, while there is another phrase, in which English word order is not still differentiated from Japanese word order and transferred into Japanese.

Regarding the expression gozen/gogo go-ji (5:00 PM/AM) (see table 16), the incorrect answer in the English word order is found in higher percentage among Americans. This influence from English does not diminish in the second-year level and it even increases almost ten percent: 61.5 percent in the first-year level and 71.4 percent in the second-year level. This may be due to the fact that first-year students learned this expression more recently than second-year students, or due to the dissimilarities between English and Japanese which causes the enduring interference. However, compared with Americans, the Asian subjects shows higher accuracy and a lower percentage in answers of "English way": the average percentage in "English way" is 22.2 percent. Korean subjects, in the second-year level, the percentage in answers of "English way" increases: from 12.5 percent to 16.6 percent. Chinese subjects present a much higher percentage in wrong answer than Korean subjects, with fifty percent.

Another phrase of time expressions is ichi-ji-kan ni san-do ("three times an hour"). In this case, unlike the previous item, "5:00 PM", American and Asian students show a similar result overall: about twenty seven percent of "English way" is found in total among both Americans and Koreans. However, Chinese subjects show no mistake this time. The first-year Koreans present a high percentage in answers of "English way", that is, fifty percent. In the case of both Americans and Koreans in the second-year level, their accuracy rises and "English way" decreases: both Americans and Koreans have 16.6 percent of "English way", which is improved from 50.0 percent for Koreans and 30.7 percent for Americans.

In the expression 1994 nen 5 gatsu 15 nichi ("May 15, 1994"), "English way" is used much more often than "Japanese way". Regardless of

their levels, high percentages are marked by both Americans and Asians. The students in their second-year level did even poorer than the students in the first-year level in all nationalities. The second-year Americans performed 100 percent in the "English way". Generally, Asian students did better than Americans: 90.0 percent for Americans and 76.7 percent for Asians. There is not much difference between Chinese and Koreans this time. It seems that a general rule in Japanese that a bigger unit comes before smaller units tends not to be retrieved and the English cue induces the English order in which a small unit comes first.

Contrary to the previous result in 1994 nen 5 gatsu 15 nichi ("May 15, 1994"), in an expression of Kyoto tolu resutoran ("a restaurant named Kyoto"), Asian students performed much better. The errors by Asian subjects that are found in the first year disappear in the second year: 14.2 percent in the first year to 0 percent in the second year. Chinese students did not make any mistake in this phrase. As for Americans, the first-year students show twice as high percentage in answers of "English way" than those of Koreans, a decrease to 16.6 percent in the second year. Therefore, in this expression, the English influence is not seen as much as the other expressions. Especially, Asian students show high accuracy.

5. 4. Word order and grammatical judgment.

In the fourth part, the students were asked to read sixteen sentences in Japanese which consisted of four sentences in each four items. In each item, there are two sentences that have the right word order and two that have the wrong word order that reflects the English word order. The subjects were instructed to mark their grammatical judgment on the four-

scale choices: "wrong", "probably wrong", "correct", or "probably correct". In the following charts, if the right sentences were marked either "right" or "probably right" and if the wrong sentences were marked either "wrong" or "probably wrong", they are counted as "understanding". On the other hand, if the wrong or right sentences were not identified as such, especially if the subjects did not recognize the incorrect word order, those sentences are counted as "not understanding". In "not understanding" category, the subjects think that the English word order in the wrong sentences is right or that the Japanese right word order in the right sentences is wrong. Therefore, "not understanding" category is considered to represent the English influence. Under "understanding" and "not understanding" categories, there are sub-categories of "wrong sentence" and "right sentence", which are, again, divided into two of four scales: either "correct" and "probably correct", or "wrong" and "probably wrong". Those categories are presented horizontally in the following charts.

The following Table 18 is the summary of part 4 that compares the answers in the word order "Japanese way" and the word order in "English way" among all nationalities and levels. In this part 4 Asians do not show as high percentage of word order in the "English way" as Americans do. One of the differences between the Asian students and American students is that in the second-year level, the Korean students performed much better than American students. Even in the higher level, the percentage of answers in "English way" did not decrease much for American students. The Asian students showed more certainty about their answers than the American students.

Table 18

	Jap. way	Eng. way	total
Korean 1st yr.	97 (71.3%)	39 (28.6%)	136
Chinese 1st yr.	47 (75.8%)	15 (24.1%)	62
total 1st yr.	144 (72.7%)	54 (27.2%)	198
Korean 2nd yr.	76 (90.4%)	8 (9.5%)	84
Asian total	220 (78.0%)	62 (21.9%)	282
American 1st yr.	114 (59.0%)	79 (40.9%)	193
American 2nd yr.	78 (65%)	42 (35%)	120
American total	192 (61.3%)	121 (38.6%)	313
total	412 (69.2%)	183 (30.7%)	595

Table 19 presents the result of a item, gogo go-ji ("5:00 PM"). Among all subjects, 36.3 percent of "not understanding" and 63.6 percent of "understanding" are found. 44.2 percent of the Americans are in the category "not understanding" in all levels, and show an improvement in their second-year level. Asian students show a still lower percentage in "not understanding", 27.4 percent, than Americans, and in their second-year level, they also show a lower percentage than the percentage in their first-year level: from 30.6 percent to 15.3 percent. As for Chinese students, their percentage is about 10 percent higher than that of Koreans.

Table 19 (5:00PM)

		understanding (Jap. way)					
kind of sentence		wrong sentence			correct sentence		
subject's choice		wrong	probably		correct	probably	
			wrong			correct	
Asian	Korean	8	3	11	6	7	13
	1st yr.			33.3%			39.3%
	Chinese	5	0	5	4	1	5
	1st yr.			31.2%			31.2%
	total	13	3	16	10	8	18
	1st yr.			32.6%			36.7%
	Korean	0	1	1	8	2	10
	2nd yr.			7.6%			76.9%
	total	13	4	17	18	10	28
	1st & 2nd			27.4%			45.1%
American	American	3	5	8	8	8	16
	1st yr.			17.3%			34.7%
	American	3	3	6	6	3	9
	2nd yr.			25%			37.5%
	total	6	8	14	14	11	25
	1st & 2nd			24.2%			35.7%
total		19	12	31	32	21	53
				23.4%			40.1%
							63.6%

		not understanding (Ing. way)						total
kind of sentence		wrong sentence			correct sentence			
subject's choice		correct	probably		wrong	probably		
			correct			wrong		
Asian	Korean	4	2	6	0	3	3	9
	1st yr.			18.1%			9%	27.2%
	Chinese	3	0	3	3	0	3	6
	1st yr.			18.7%			18.7%	37.5%
	total	7	2	9	3	3	6	15
	1st yr.			18.3%			12.2%	30.6%
	Korean	1	0	1	0	1	1	2
	2nd yr.			7.6%			7.6%	15.3%
	total	8	2	10	3	4	7	17
	1st & 2nd			16.1%			11.2%	27.4%
American	American	8	7	15	4	3	7	22
	1st yr.			32.6%			15.2%	47.8%
	American	4	4	8	1	0	1	9
	2nd yr.			33.3%			4.1%	37.5%
	total	12	11	23	5	3	8	31
	1st & 2nd			32.8%			11.4%	44.2%
total		20	13	33	8	7	15	48
				25%			11.3%	36.3%

Table 20 below shows the subjects' certainty about their answer: whether they choose "right" and "wrong", or "probably right" and "probably wrong".

Table 20

	sure "right" or "wrong"	unsure "probably _"	total
Americans	37 (52.8%)	33 (47.1%)	70
Asians	42 (67.7%)	20 (32.2%)	62
total	79 (59.9%)	53 (40.1%)	132

$$\chi^2 = 3.031 \quad P = 0.082 > 0.05$$

The Americans were more uncertain about their answers than Asians. In general, about forty percent of uncertainty obtains with regard to the word order of gogo go-ji ("5:00 PM"). Almost half of Americans express their uncertainty.

Table 21 concerns the phrase 1994-nen 5-gatsu 15-nichi ("May 15, 1994"). In this table, a similar tendency to the previous "5:00 PM" is found. In general however, among the Asians, this "May 15, 1994" phrase obtained poorer results than the previous phrase, gogo go-ji ("5:00 PM"). This is true especially of the case for the first-year Asians. Also, an improvement in performance from the first-year to the second-year level is found. Again, the Chinese subjects show poorer results than the Korean subjects.

Table 21 (5/15/1994)

		understanding (lap. way)						
		wrong sentence			correct sentence			
		wrong	probably		correct	probably		
			wrong			correct		
Asian	Korean 1st yr.	5	2	7 20%	14	3	17 48.5%	24 68.5%
	Chinese 1st yr.	1	1	2 12.5%	7	0	7 43.7%	9 56.2%
	total 1st yr.	6	3	9 17.6%	21	3	24 47%	33 64.7%
	Korean 2nd yr.	6	4	10 43.4%	10	0	10 43.4%	20 86.9%
	total 1st & 2nd	12	7	19 25.6%	31	3	34 45.9%	53 71.6%
American	American 1st yr.	5	2	7 14%	13	6	19 25.6%	26 35.1%
	American 2nd yr.	4	1	5 18.5%	9	2	11 40.7%	16 59.2%
	total 1st & 2nd	9	3	12 15.5%	22	8	30 38.9%	42 54.5%
total		21	10	31 20.5%	53	11	64 42.3%	95 62.9%

		not understanding (ling. way)							total
kind of sentence		wrong sentence			correct sentence				
subject's choice		correct	probably		wrong	probably			
			correct			wrong			
Asian	Korean 1st yr.	5	6	11 31.4%	0	0	0 0%	11 31.4%	35
	Chinese 1st yr.	4	2	6 37.5%	0	1	1 6.2%	7 43.7%	16
	total 1st yr.	9	8	17 33.3%	0	1	1 1.9%	18 35.2%	51
	Korean 2nd yr.	1	1	2 3.9%	0	1	1 4.3%	3 13.9%	23
	total 1st & 2nd	10	9	19 25.6%	0	2	2 2.7%	21 28.3%	74
American	American 1st yr.	13	5	18 36.6%	5	1	6 12.9%	24 32.4%	50
	American 2nd yr.	7	2	9 33.3%	1	1	2 7.4%	11 40.7%	27
	total 1st & 2nd	20	7	27 35.9%	6	2	8 10.3%	35 45.4%	77
total		30	16	46 30.4%	6	4	10 6.6%	56 37.9%	151

However, with regard to the subjects' certainty about their answers, the item 1994-nen 5-gatsu 15-nichi (" May 15, 1994") were higher percentages of certainty than the previous item. Almost 73 percent of sureness is attained in this item, whereas sixty percent in gogo go-ji ("5:00 PM"). This time, Americans show higher certainty than Asians, although Americans have lower accuracy than Asians.

Table 22

	sure "right" or " wrong"	unsure "probably _"	total
Americans	57 (74.0%)	20 (25.9%)	77
Asians	53 (71.6%)	21 (28.3%)	74
total	110 (72.8%)	41 (27.1%)	151

Table 23 in the next page shows the result with ichi-jikan ni san-do ("three times an hour"). Overall, the high percentage of "understanding", is shown at 77.8 percent, while 22.1 percent of " not understanding" obtains. The Asians did much better than the Americans: 13.3 percent was categorized in "not understanding" by the Asians compared with 31 percent by Americans. Among both the Americans and the Asians, the second-year subjects show better results than the first-year subjects. Koreans especially, show a big improvement, which is from 19.4 percent to 8.3 percent. Among the first-year subjects, the Chinese subjects performed more accurately than the Korean subjects: only 6.6 percent in "not understanding".

Table 23 (3 times an hour)

		understanding (Jap. way)						
		wrong sentence			correct sentence			
		wrong	probably		correct	probably		
			wrong			correct		
Asian	Korean 1st yr.	6	7	13 36.1%	12	4	16 44.4%	29 80.5%
	Chinese 1st yr.	4	2	6 40%	5	3	8 53.3%	14 93.3%
	total 1st yr.	10	9	19 37.2%	17	7	24 47%	43 84.3%
	Korean 2nd yr.	7	3	10 41.6%	11	1	12 50%	22 91.6%
	total 1st & 2nd	17	12	29 38.6%	28	8	36 48%	65 86.6%
American	American 1st yr.	6	8	14 23.7%	9	9	18 30.5%	32 54.2%
	American 2nd yr.	7	2	9 36%	8	2	10 40%	19 76%
	total 1st & 2nd	13	10	23 31%	17	11	28 37.8%	51 68.9%
total		30	22	52 34.8%	45	19	64 42.9%	115 77.8%

		not understanding (Eng. way)							total
kind of sentence		wrong sentence			correct sentence				
subject's choice		correct	probably		wrong	probably			
			correct			wrong			
Asian	Korean 1st yr.	4	1	5 13.8%	2	0	2 5.5%	7 19.4%	36
	Chinese 1st yr.	0	1	1 6.6%	0	0	0 0%	1 6.6%	15
	total 1st yr.	4	2	6 11.7%	2	0	2 3.9%	8 15.6%	51
	Korean 2nd yr.	2	0	2 8.3%	0	0	0 0%	2 8.3%	24
	total 1st & 2nd	6	2	8 10.6%	2	0	2 2.6%	10 13.3%	75
American	American 1st yr.	4	5	9 15.2%	2	6	8 13.5%	17 28.8%	59
	American 2nd yr.	2	3	5 20%	0	1	1 4%	6 24%	25
	total 1st & 2nd	6	8	14 18.9%	2	7	9 12.1%	23 31%	74
total		12	10	22 14.7%	4	7	11 7.3%	33 22.1%	149

As for the subjects' certainty about their answers, a big difference between the Asians and the Americans is found. The Chi square test shows the difference. The Asians are more sure of their answers than the Americans: in "understanding", 70.6 percent by Asians and 51.3 percent by Americans.

Table 24

	sure "right" or " wrong"	unsure "probably _"	total
Americans	38 (51.3%)	36 (48.6%)	70
Asians	53 (70.6%)	22 (29.3%)	62
total	91 (61.0%)	58 (38.9%)	149

$$\chi^2 = 5.845 \quad P = 0.016 < 0.05$$

The result with the last item, Kyoto toiu restoran("a restaurant named Kyoto"), is shown in Table 25. In this phrase, the first-year Chinese subjects show high accuracy with only 6.6 percent of "not understanding", whereas the first-year Koreans show 37.5 percent, which is slightly higher than that of the first- and second-year Americans. However, this 37.5 percent by the first-year Koreans decreased about by 30 percent in the second-year level. As for Americans, the second-year students do not improve and they even show higher percentage in "not understanding": 33.3 percent in the first-year level and 36.3 percent in the second-year level.

Table 25 (a restaurant named Kyoto)

		understanding (Jap. way)					
kind of sentence		wrong sentence			correct sentence		
subject's choice		wrong	probably		correct	probably	
			wrong			correct	
Asian	Korean	5	2	7	9	4	13
	1st yr.			21.8%			40.6%
	Chinese	6	0	6	6	2	8
	1st yr.			4%			53.3%
	total	11	2	13	15	6	21
	1st yr.			27.6%			44.6%
	Korean	12	0	12	11	0	11
	2nd yr.			50%			45.8%
	total	23	2	25	26	6	32
	1st & 2nd			35.2%			45%
American	American	8	4	12	15	5	20
	1st yr.			25%			41.6%
	American	5	3	8	15	5	20
	2nd yr.			18.1%			45.6%
	total	13	7	20	30	10	40
	1st & 2nd			21.7%			43.4%
total		36	9	45	52	12	72
				27.6%			44.1%
							117
							71.7%

		not understanding (Eng. way)						total
kind of sentence		wrong sentence			correct sentence			
subject's choice		correct	probably		wrong	probably		
			correct			wrong		
Asian	Korean	6	3	9	1	2	3	12
	1st yr.			28.1%			9.3%	37.5%
	Chinese	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
	1st yr.			6.6%			0%	6.6%
	total	7	3	10	1	2	3	13
	1st yr.			21.1%			0.3%	27.6%
	Korean	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
	2nd yr.			0%			4.1%	4.1%
	total	7	3	10	2	2	4	14
	1st & 2nd			14%			5.6%	19.7%
American	American	7	5	12	2	2	4	16
	1st yr.			25%			8.3%	33.3%
	American	7	5	12	2	2	4	16
	2nd yr.			27.2%			9%	36.3%
	total	14	10	24	4	4	8	32
	1st & 2nd			26%			8.6%	34.7%
total		21	13	34	6	6	12	46
				20.8%			7.3%	28.2%

In this item Kyoto tolu restoran("a restaurant named Kyoto"), the Asian students feel most confident about their answers: 81.6 percent of sureness obtains. Also, the Americans show relatively high certainty, 72 percent, although their accuracy is not high, which is 34.7 percent of incorrect answers, which is shown in the word order test.

Table 26

	sure "right" or " wrong"	unsure "probably _"	total
Americans	54 (72%)	21 (28%)	75
Asians	58 (81.6%)	13 (18.3%)	71
total	112 (76.7%)	34 (23.2%)	146

$$\chi^2 = 1.7917 \quad P = 0.166 > 0.05$$

The certainty of all four items is presented in Table 27:

Table 27

	sure "right" or " wrong"	unsure "probably _"	total
Americans	186 (63.6%)	110 (37.2%)	292
Asians	206 (76.5%)	76 (28.2%)	269
total	392 (67.8%)	186 (32.1%)	578

$$\chi^2 = 6.900 \quad P = 0.009 < 0.05$$

The Chi square test shows that the results by the Americans and the Asians are different. It shows that the Asians feel more confident with their answers and the word order.

Table 28

		5:00 PM			3 times an hour			5/2/1994			A named B		
		Jap. way	Eng. way		Jap. way	Eng. way		Jap. way	Eng. way		Jap. way	Eng. way	
Asian	Korean	24	9	33	29	7	36	24	11	35	20	12	32
	1st yr.	72.7%	27.2%		80.5%	19.4%		68.5%	31.4%		62.5%	37.5%	
	Chinese	10	6	16	14	1	15	9	7	16	14	1	15
	1st yr.	62.5%	37.5%		93.3%	6.6%		56.2%	43.7%		93.3%	6.6%	
	total	34	15	49	43	8	51	33	18	51	34	13	47
	1st yr.	69.3%	30.6%		84.3%	15.6%		64.7%	35.2%		72.3%	27.6%	
	Korean	11	2	13	22	2	24	20	3	23	23	1	24
	2nd yr.	84.6%	15.3%		91.6%	8.3%		86.9%	13%		95.8%	4.1%	
	total	45	17	62	65	10	75	53	21	74	57	14	71
	1st & 2nd	72.5%	27.4%		86.6%	13.3%		71.6%	28.3%		80.2%	19.7%	
	American	24	22	46	32	17	59	26	24	50	32	16	48
	1st yr.	52.1%	47.8%		54.2%	28.8%		35.1%	32.4%		66.6%	33.3%	
	American	15	9	24	19	6	25	16	11	27	28	16	44
	2nd yr.	62.5%	37.5%		76%	24%		59.2%	40.7%		63.6%	36.3%	
	total	39	31	70	51	23	74	42	35	77	60	32	92
	1st & 2nd	55.7%	44.2%		68.9%	31%		54.5%	45.4%		65.2%	34.7%	
	total	84	48	132	116	33	149	95	56	151	117	46	163
	total	63.6%	36.3%		77.8%	22.1%		62.9%	37%		71.7%	28.2%	

Table 28 is the summary of results including all four items.

Comparing four items together, it is clear that the first-year Koreans and Americans show a relatively high percentage in "not understanding (English way)". The results vary depending on items, which can be explained by some reasons: it can be due to the time when the students learned the item (The later, the more fresh their memory is.) and the frequency of the usage. In the second year, the Koreans become more accurate, whereas Americans do not show much improvement in their second year. The Chinese subjects sometimes do well and sometimes do poorly: high percentage of "not understanding (English way)" is seen in "5:00 PM" and "May 15, 1994" items, but not in the other items.

Let us compare Table 28 in the previous page in part 4 to Table 16 , which is the result of the word order test of oral test in part 3, to see the difference between the oral and written contexts. First, generally the result in part 3, the oral context, has higher percentages in "English way" than the result in part 4. As for the degree of improvement from the first-year to the second-year, it is more apparent in part 4 than in part 3. The second-year Americans in part 3 show even a higher percentage in the English way than the first-year Americans. The improvement seen in the Koreans in part 3, which is from 36.6 percent to 29.1 percent, is not as much as the improvement in part 4, which is from 28.6 percent to 9.5 percent. The Chinese subjects also show a better result in part 4 than in part 3. Thus, generally, the written context results in better performance, which exhibits less of the "English way" than in oral test.

Table 29 is an overall summary of all parts that includes part 1 to part 4. It compares the final ratio of "Japanese way" and "English way", and Americans and Koreans. The data collected from Chinese subjects is

eliminated from the table since their data tend to be a little different from the data from the first-year Koreans. The general conclusion is that the answers that reflect English features are found among Asians as seen in Americans although the percentage in Asians is lower than that in Americans. Both Americans and Asians perform better in the written context than in oral context. In negative questions task, in Part 1 and 2, no decrease of percentage in the "English way" in the second year is seen. For negative question in the oral test, it even increases and at the same time, the avoidance strategy is made use of in the second year, too. As for word order task, in Part 3 and 4, however, answers in the "English way" decrease in the second year, especially in the written context. Therefore, there is no consistent result through all parts, nationalities, and levels, and the results really vary depending on each variable.

Table 29

	Part 1		Part 2	
	Jap. way	Eng. way	Jap. way	Eng. way
Korean 1st yr.	49.3 %	21.6 %	83.3 %	16.6 %
Korean 2nd yr.	34.3 %	28.3 %	83.3 %	16.6 %
Korean total	41.8 %	24.9 %	83.3 %	16.6 %
American 1st yr.	57.8 %	26.4 %	72 %	28 %
American 2nd yr.	28.3 %	23.8 %	71.4 %	28.5 %
American total	47.3 %	25.5 %	71.7 %	25.3 %
total	42.5 %	24.8 %	75.6 %	24.2 %

	Part 3		Part 4	
	Jap. way	Eng. way	Jap. way	Eng. way
Korean 1st yr.	63.3 %	36.6 %	71.3 %	28.6 %
Korean 2nd yr.	70.8 %	29.1 %	90.4 %	9.5 %
Korean total	67 %	32.8 %	80.8 %	19 %
American 1st yr.	47 %	52.9 %	59 %	40.9 %
American 2nd yr.	46.1 %	53.8 %	65 %	35 %
American total	46.7 %	53.2 %	61.3 %	38.6 %
total	56.4 %	43.5 %	69.2 %	30.7 %

5.5. Discussion.

The present study investigates the L2 interference in L3, particularly in learning negative questions and word order of certain phrases. The results of the data indicate that the Asian students learning Japanese as a third language have some interference from English, though to a lesser degree than the L1 interference for the Americans. In the study by George (1972), one third of errors was due to transfer. In this study, generally, about 28.5 percent of English influence in oral context and 21.1 percent in written context are found in Asians.

However, there remained a problem: it has to be proven that the subjects are really influenced by English and they are transferring it into Japanese. The subjects' mistakes may be due to English interference, but they may also be due to developmental problem in learning a new language. How can we tell that transfer is really happening? In chapter two, I discussed the ambiguous relationship between transfer and developmental errors, which is not a clear-cut but an interactive phenomenon. As Zobl (1982) states, it is hard to differentiate the two of them.

Major (1987) states that interference processes are predominant at the early stage of acquisition and they decrease over time, while developmental processes increase. In this study, although there are only two levels to compare, Major's theory applies to the word order test in Part 3 and 4. The number of errors caused by English structures diminish at the higher level. However, his theory does not apply to the case of negative questions in Part 1 and 2. Even in their second-year level, English way of answering does not decrease. However, to claim this theory, further longitudinal study that includes more levels should be conducted.

According to the present study, the transfer from English system in Japanese negative questions does not decrease much even in the second year. First, the reason is that originally, perhaps to answer English negative questions is easier than Japanese negative questions. In English answers, "Yes" precedes the affirmative, "I do", and "No" precedes the negative, "I don't". However, to answer Japanese negative questions, "Yes" means negative and "No" means affirmative. In addition, an answer in Japanese has to do with both the questioner's presupposition about the matter involved, whereas in English, an answer depends on an answerer's intention about the matter. Therefore, grammatically and pragmatically, English system of negative questions tends to be simpler than Japanese system.

Secondly, for the Asian subjects, we can speculate that their conscious efforts to acquire and use the answers in the English way forces an automatic response in the English way even when asked a question in Japanese. It may be possible that for Asians who start living in an English speaking environment, there is a tendency that it takes time and efforts to acquire the way of answering negative questions in English, which was the opinions given by the subjects in this study. When they try to answer, they are conscious not to use the way of their native language but to respond in English way. It is possible that this conscious efforts in speaking English function unconsciously in Japanese, too, even if they are taught the Japanese negative questions.

It was discussed in chapter two that dissimilarities between L1 and L2 cause slower development (e.g. Keller-Cohen, 1979, Schumann, 1982). In the present, it is found that sometimes the dissimilarities between L2 and L3 (target language) cause the transfer from L2 to L3, which could stay at a

higher level even when there are similarities between L1 and L3. In negative questions, it is possible that the dissimilarity between L2 and L3 or L1 and L2 is so outstanding that the advantage of similarity between L1 and L3 is erased. This could be a disadvantage for multilinguals. If one knows several languages, there may be several competing different parameters in a learner's head and one may choose wrong parameters in learning a new language. Therefore, in this case, knowing a language that relates to L3 closely may not be an advantage. This study shows that the likelihood of transfer lies in the situation when there is some distance between previously learned languages.

Additionally, the dissimilarity between L2 and L3 and its resultant difficulty for students brings about avoidance of the structure as Schachter (1974) mentioned. The present thesis shows one example of this avoidance. In part 1, negative questions in conversation, about one third to half of answers lack "Yes/No". The interesting thing is that the ratio of this avoidance is higher among the second-year level American and Asian students. However, the answers without saying Yes/No is not incorrect but common in native speaker's speech. The avoidance found in this study is different in this point from Schachter's avoidance. However, the avoidance in this study still shows a learners' strategies and the influence from the previously known languages.

In addition to this avoidance, some self-correction from "English way" to "Japanese way" is also found, although the percentage is not very high and it varies from five percent to thirteen percent depending on nationalities and levels. According to Krashen (1983), self-correction and avoidance can be accounted for by his monitor theory. The monitor refers to the efforts in conscious language learning to control one's language

production. The results in this thesis that sometimes the subjects were making use of not saying Yes/No and self-correcting their errors may be accounted for by his theory, too. The subjects were sometimes conscious not to make errors which is caused by the transfer from English. The data in this study is similar to his theory. It is possible that Krashen's monitor theory can also apply to multilingual learning situations like this study.

One of the general results is that the subjects perform better in the written context than in the oral context. However, that does not mean that there is no influence from English in written text of Part 2 and 4. Ulijn and Kemmpem (1976) state: errors caused by L1 transfer should not be found in understanding of written text. Although the higher accuracy is found in the reading test than in the oral test, there is still some English transfer in their answers in the reading test. The subjects sometimes cannot find the ungrammatical structures in Japanese that reflect English patterns in reading situation, though in reading test the subjects can have enough time to pay careful attention to the structures than they can in oral test.

The reason why the higher accuracy is found in the written context lies in the difference between spoken and written discourses. In casual spoken discourse, the speaker pays more attention to content than to form in a situation where a prompt response is required. On the other hand, in written discourse, the reader has more time and careful attention to both content and form. Therefore, it is natural that the test in written context shows higher accuracy than the test in conversation.

Lastly, the question that Magiste (1979, 1986) and Balke-Aurel and Lindblad (1982) try to answer is: is a third language easier for bilingual than learning a second language is for monolinguals? In the present

paper, overall, bilingual Asians, do better than monolingual Americans. In this study's case, the fact that L1 and L3 are close for Asians may help in many ways. In this sense, it is not advantageous for American whose L1 has many dissimilarities to learn Japanese as L2. Therefore, generally speaking, learning Japanese as a third language is easier for Asians than it is as a second language for Americans because of many similarities. However, it cannot be neglected that the bilingualism in Asians may have a negative impact on their L3 learning, too. Knowing and actively using L2 gives rise to the transfer from L2 to L3, blocking the help from similar parameters in L1 to L3. It has to be acknowledged that it is not always easy for bilinguals to learn L3 and it is likely that the bilingualism could result in difficulties or some errors which are caused by knowing a few languages, although this depends on what L1, L2 and L3 are.

6. Conclusion

The present study investigates bilinguals learning L3. The Korean and Chinese subjects, who are bilinguals in their native language and English and who are learning Japanese as L3, are compared with Americans studying Japanese as L2 at Michigan State University. There are nineteen Asians and twenty Americans as subjects who are chosen from Japanese first and second-year levels. Negative questions and some phrases in Japanese which contrast in word order in English are selected as the items for the tests. The main questions were the existence of L2 transfer into L3 and a question: does bilingualism have any impact on an individual's L3 learning? . The results between two levels and two contexts, conversation and reading, are compared.

In my experiment, it is found that Asian students make the same mistakes that Americans make. Those mistakes in Japanese reflect English grammar and structures, which indicates the English transfer into Japanese both in Asians and Americans. Although the percentage of the English influence varies depending on nationalities, levels, and chosen items, Asians show higher accuracy in general and higher accuracy in their second year than Americans. The interference of English in Japanese is more persistent in monolingual Americans. The word order test presents a higher percentage of the influence from English than the negative question test. However, the results in negative question test reveal persistent errors caused by the English system even in the second year in both nationalities. In the second-year level, more subjects begin to make use of "monitor" to self-correct errors and to avoid saying ee/ iie ("Yes/No") that is different from the English system. In some cases, the similarity between L1 and L3 in Asians is of no use and may be erased by the dissimilarity between L2 and L3. The students attain higher accuracy in reading context than in oral context and less influence from English is seen in the written context. In a prompt response, the transfer more likely occurs.

These results indicate that when learning Japanese as a third language, circumstances favor bilingual Asians. However, the recognizable numbers of errors caused by the interference between L2 and L3 suggest that there may be competing systems of previously learned languages in the learners' cognitive system. Sometimes a different parameter from the languages previously learned may be retrieved. These can give us some insight about how learners make some errors. In addition, pedagogically, the finding in this study reminds us that when

Korean and Chinese learn Japanese (the case that L1 is close to L3), it is sometimes helpful to mention the similarity between L1 and L3 if possible. It is not necessarily an easy task for adult bilinguals or multilinguals to learn a new foreign language.

The present paper points out one of the possible areas where multilingualism works disadvantageously. However, the study of multilingual acquisition is usually too complicated and diversified to reach a general conclusion. Further study on multilingual acquisition from different angles is necessary in order to attain better grasp of language learning in general.

Appendix I

Part 2

Please read the passage and answer the questions.

私はきょねん友だちと日本へ行きました。ふじ山へ行きたかったんです。でもゆきがたくさんふっていたので、私も友だちもふじ山へいきませんでした。さんねんでした。

(1) この人は日本へ一人で行きましたか。

1 ええ、行きました。

2 いいえ、行きませんでした。

(2) この人は日本でふじ山へ行きましたか。

1 ええ、行きました。

2 いいえ、行きませんでした。

(3) ふじ山へ行きたくなかったんですか。

1 ええ、行きたかったです。

2 ええ、行きたくありませんでした。

3 いいえ、行きたかったです。

4 いいえ、行きたくありませんでした。

(4) 友だちもふじ山へ行きませんでしたか。

1 ええ、行きました。

2 ええ、行きませんでした。

3 いいえ、行きました。

4 いいえ、行きませんでした。

Part 4

Please read the following sentences. Then, if you are sure that a sentence is ungrammatical, please circle 1, if it is probably ungrammatical, circle 2, if it is probably correct, circle 3, if you are sure that it is correct, circle 4. Also, please underline the places where you think they are wrong or probably wrong.

		wrong	probably	probably	
correct					
1	このしゃしんは1990年5月1日にとりました。	1	wrong 2	correct 3	4
2	NYは今4時午後です。	1	2	3	4
3	ランシングというところにすんでいます。	1	2	3	4
4	オリンピックは1ど4年にあります。	1	2	3	4
5	午前10時にでんわがありました。	1	2	3	4
6	週末にピアノというえいがを見ました。	1	2	3	4
7	おとといは3時午前にねました。	1	2	3	4
8	今日は1月1日1992年です。	1	2	3	4
9	5日1週間に大学へ行きます。	1	2	3	4
10	きのう男の人という田中さんにあいました。	1	2	3	4
11	たんじょう日は8月5日1969年です。	1	2	3	4
12	1年に3週間休みがあります。	1	2	3	4
13	かいしゃというIBMにつとめています。	1	2	3	4
14	中国語のクラスは1週間に3どあります。	1	2	3	4
15	テストは午後1時にはじまります。	1	2	3	4
16	私は1988年5月5日にけっこんしました。	1	2	3	4

Appendix II

Part 5

Answers to the following questions regarding your Japanese study in the U.S. will be used as a part of the data in my project only if you give me verbal permission to do so. At the same time, no names are attached to the data.

Please answer the following questions.

- the length of your stay in the U.S. and the length of your study of English

- your TOEFL score and the date when it was taken (if you don't mind)

- your level of Japanese first-year second-year

- What percentage of time do you spend speaking outside of your classes?

1. English-- % 2. Japanese -- % 3. your native language-- %

- Do you have any difficulty in using English in daily life, including studying?

- When you study Japanese, do you usually use (or think in) your native language?

- Do you think that studying Japanese in English is inefficient, difficult, or uncomfortable?

- Do you wish you could study Japanese in your native language?

- Do you think that studying Japanese is easy in general?

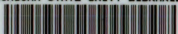
BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Akiyama, M. Michael. 1979. Yes-No Answering Systems in Young Children. In *Cognitive Psychology* 11. 485-504.
- Bailey, Nathalie. Carolyn Madden. and Stephen D Krashen. 1974. Is there a "natural sequence" in adult second learning" *Language Learning* 24:2. 235-243
- Balke-Aurell, G. & Lindblad, T. 1982. Immigrant students and their language. Report No. 23. Dept. of Education Research. University of Gothenburg, Sweden. 79-89.
- Cenoz, Jasone and Jose F. Valencia. 1994. Additive trilingualism: Evidence from the Basque Country. in *Applied Psycholinguistics* 15. 197-209.
- Chamot, Anna U. 1978. Grammatical Problems in Learning English as a Third Language. in Marcussen, E. Hatch (ed.) *second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings*. 175-190.
- DiPietro, R. 1961. Borrowing: its effect as a mechanism of linguistic change in American Sicilian. *General Linguistics*. 5. 30-36.
- Dulay, Heidi C. and Marina K. Burt. 1974 a. Natural Sequences in Second Language Acquisition. *Language Learning* 24:1. 37-53.
- Gass, Susan. 1979. Language Transfer and Universal Grammatical Relations. *Language Learning*. 29: 2. 327-344.
- Gass, Susan and Larry Selinker. 1983. Introduction. in Gass and Selinker ed. 1983. *Language transfer in language learning*. Mass. Newbury House Publishers. 1-18.
- Gass, Susan. 1985. A Review of Interlanguage syntax: Language transfer and Language Universals. *Language Learning*. 34: 115-132.
- Horne, Elinor Clark and Yun, Sang Soon. 1950. Introduction to spoken Korean Volume I. Connecticut: Yale University.
- Jaspaert, Koen and Gertrud. 1989. Linguistic Evaluation of Dutch as a Third Language. in Byram, Michael and Johan Leman (eds.), *Bicultural and Trilingual Education: The Foyer Model in Brussels*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Keller-Cohen, Deborah. 1979. Systematically and variation in the non-native child's acquisition of conversational skills *Language Learning*. 29: 27-44.
- Klein, Wolfgang. 1986. *Second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press. 23-32.
- Kovac, D. 1965. On psychological problems of commanding more languages by an individual. *Studia Psychologica*. 7. 158-159.

- Krashen, D. Stephen. 1978. Individual variation in the use of the Monitor. in W. Ritchie ed. *Principles of second language learning*. New York. Academic Press. 175-183.
- Krashen, D. Stephen. 1983. Newmarkk's "ignorance hypothesis" and current second language acquisition theory. in Gass and Selinker. 1983. *Language transfer in language learning*. 135-153.
- Kuno, Susumu. 1973. *The structure of the Japanese Language*. Massachusetts: The MIT Press.
- Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistics across Cultures*. Ann Arbor. University of Michigan Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, Diane and Michael H. Long. 1991. *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. New York. Longman. 1-9.
- Li, Charles N. and Sandra A. Thompson, 1940. *Mandarin Chinese, A Functional Grammar*. California: University of California Press.
- Mackey F. William. 1968. the description of bilingualism. in Fishman, J. A. ed. *Readings in the Sociology of Language*. The Hague. Monton. 554-584.
- Magiste, Edith. 1986. Selected Issue in Second and Third Learning. in *Language Processing in Bilinguals: Psycholinguistic and Neuropsychological Perspectives*. ed.. Jyotsna Vaid. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers. London. 97-122.
- Major, Roy C. 1987. A Model for Interlanguage Phonology. in Ioup, Georgette and Steven H. Weinberger (eds.) *Interlanugage Phonology: The Acquisition of a Second Language Sound System*. Cambridge, MA.: Newbury House Publishers. 101-124.
- Mclaughlin, Barry. 1984, 1985 (First ed. 1978). *Second-language acquisition in childhood*, 2nd ed.. 2 vol. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbum. 59-71, 215-231.
- Odlin, Terence. 1989. *Language Transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ree, Jung-No. 1974. *Topics in Korean Syntax with Notes to Japanese*. Korea: Yonsei University Press.
- Richards, Jack C. (ed.) 1974. *Error Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Schachter, Jacquelyn. 1974. An error in error analysis. *Language Learning*. 24: 2. 205-214.
- Schumann, II. John. 1979. The acquisition of English negation by speakers of Spanish: a review of the literature. In R. Anderson ed.. *The Acquisition and Use of Spanish and English as First and Second Languages*. Washington, D.C.:TESOL. 5-32.

- Schumann, J. 1982. Simplification, transfer and relexification as aspects of pidginization and early second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 32
- Selinker, Larry. 1966. A psycholinguistic study of language transfer. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Georgetown University.
- Taylor, B. P. 1975. The use of overgeneralization and transfer learning strategies by elementary and intermediate students of ESL. *Language Learning*, 25: 73-107.
- Ulijn, J. and G. Kempen. 1976. the role of the first language in second language reading comprehension-some experimental evidence. *Proceedings of the fourth international congress of applied linguistics*. Stuttgart. 495-507.
- Wagner, Daniel A. and Jennifer E. Sparrt. 1989. Does learning to read in a second language always put the child at a disadvantage? Some counter evidence from Morocco. in *Applied Psycholinguistics*. 10. 31-48.
- Zobl, Helmut. 1982. A direction for contrastive analysis: the comparative study of developmental sequences. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16: 169-184.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293010445223