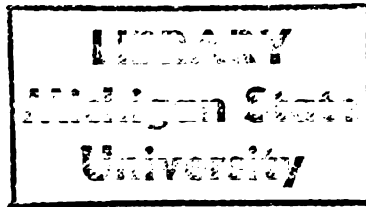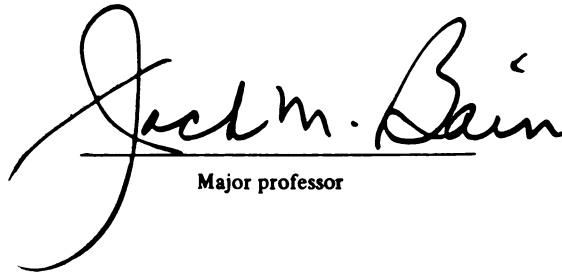This is to certify that the

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BY NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS

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INFLUENCES ON THE USE OF
FOREIGNER TALK AND FOREIGNER REGISTER
BY NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS

By

Susan Kathleen Kitao

A THESIS

Submitted to
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ABSTRACT

INFLUENCES ON THE USE OF
FOREIGNER TALK AND FOREIGNER REGISTER
BY NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS

By

Susan Kathleen Kitao

Foreigner talk (FT) and foreigner register (FR) are simplified language used to address foreigners perceived to be deficient in the target language. FT is often ungrammatical by the standards of the target language, while FR, though simplified, follows the grammatical rules of the target language.

I studied the effects of the grammatical proficiency and fluency of a Japanese non-native English speaker on native English speakers use of FR and FT. I also looked at how prejudice against Japanese, ethnocentrism, experience with non-native speakers, and experience using a foreign language affected the choice to use FT or FR.

The results of this study indicate that differences in grammatical proficiency and fluency did not affect use of FR and FT. However, prejudice and experience with NNSs are negatively correlated with the use of FR and FT; ethnocentrism and experience with foreign language are positively correlated with use of FR and FT.

For my husband, Kenji Kitao,

and

my parents, Menno and Ruth Ediger,

with deepest appreciation

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Chapter I

Review of Literature

Introduction

Ferguson (1971) has suggested that all speech communi-
ties have varieties of simplified speech regarded as appro-
priate for use when hearers do not have a full command of
the language. These include baby talk, ways of talking to
people who are hard of hearing, and ways of speaking to non-
native speakers of the language judged deficient in language
proficiency. These codes are conventionalized and are
learned by the same process of cultural transmission as
other language behaviors (Corder, 1975).

The purpose of this study is to look at some variables
that have been posited to trigger the simplified language
that is directed at non-native speakers (NNSs) of that
language.

Foreigner Talk

The term foreigner talk (FT) was first used by Ferguson
(1971) to describe speech used with foreigners perceived to
be deficient in proficiency in the target language.
Ferguson speculated that FT was a representation of the way
native speakers (NSs) thought non-native speakers spoke,
since FT closely resembles the language elicited when NSs
are asked to imitate foreigners (Ferguson, 1975). In fact,

in English, secondary uses of FT include reporting the speech of foreigners (Ferguson, 1981). Also, in German and in Dutch, correlations have been found between the errors made in NNSs' speech and the errors used in the FT of their NS partners (Meisel, 1977 and Snow, van Eeden and Muysken, 1981).

Some characteristics of FT in English that Ferguson (1975) described included absence of the copula (be verb); absence of certain morphological markers (e.g., possessives, past tense, and 3rd person -s); and presence of words that do not usually appear in English spoken to other NSs (e.g., savvy as a verb and heap [meaning much or very]). Other characteristics include use of full forms instead of contractions; short sentences; repetition of words; selection of one all purpose form (e.g., me used for I, me, mine, and my in English or infinitive for all non-past verb forms in Italian); and feedback devices, such as tag questions (Ferguson and DeBose, 1977). These linguistic features generally include the most stereotypical features of the language of NNSs known to the community of NSs (Valdman, 1981). FT often differs from what is acceptable in standard language, as the characteristics listed by Ferguson and DeBose would indicate.

Some non-linguistic features of FT have also been described. They include slowing down and enunciating words carefully; increased volume, especially for important

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content words; and use of exaggerated gestures (Ramamurti, 1980). As Hammerly (1982) pointed out, these features have the effect of distorting speech. It is also difficult for NNSs who have come to depend on slowed, carefully enunciated speech to become accustomed to language spoken at natural speed.

Ferguson (1971) posited that FT contributed to the development of pidgins, since it prevented non-native speakers from hearing well-formed, standard language. Comprehensible language is necessary for acquiring a target language (Krashen and Seliger, 1975). If the comprehensible language that a NNS hears consists of non-standard language, it is non-standard language that is repeatedly reinforced.

Ferguson believed that FT was intended to derogate the person it was addressed to. Valdman (1981) agreed and suggested that NSs also use FT to maintain social distance from NNSs considered socially inferior or subservient. The NS recognizes his/her native language as an emblem of membership in the society and symbolically protects it from the outsider. In this way, the NS exerts control by presenting an impoverished variety of the target language. This denial of the opportunity to assimilate has the effect of reducing the foreign learner's motivation and fossilizing the foreigner's language at a highly deviant stage.

Foreigner Register

In contrast to FT, there is a second variety of language for speaking to NNSs. This variety is called foreigner register (FR), a term coined by Arthur, Weiner, Culver, Lee, and Thomas (1979). FR was defined as a simplified register which follows the rules of the standard language, used by NSs in speaking to NNSs. The main difference between FT and FR is that FR follows the rules of the standard language while FT does not.

Characteristics of FR that have been identified include use of high frequency vocabulary, simplified grammatical structure, and avoidance of idioms (Gass and Varonis, 1985). FR also has a higher percentage of yes/no questions (e.g., Are you going to class?) and or/choice questions (e.g., Are you going to class or to the cafeteria?) than wh- questions (e.g., Where are you going?) (Long, 1981). Native speaker register (NSR), used by NSs to speak with other NSs, has more wh- questions than yes/no questions. While FT can generally be distinguished from FR or NSR by its pidgin-like characteristics, the differences between FR and NSR are, in many cases, quantitative rather than qualitative. Therefore, this distinctions between FR and NSR are not always clear and precise. There is extensive overlap between syntactic forms that are used in FR and those used in NSR. The same structure may occur in both registers. For example, wh- questions and yes/no questions appear in both FR and

NSR; the difference is in the percentage of each (Long, 1981). This fact has sometimes made it difficult to distinguish FR from NSR.

Not all researchers make the distinction between FR and FT. Some (Henzl, 1979; Tarone, 1980) consider both to be part of the same phenomenon. However, the distinction appears to be useful and will be employed in this paper. Also, these terms are not universally used for the distinction. For example, Long (1981) uses the term grammatical foreigner talk for FR.

It has been hypothesized that an NNS's linguistic insufficiency triggers FT or FR (Freed, 1981), or more accurately, the NS's perception of the NNS's linguistic insufficiency (Gass and Varonis, 1985; Schinke-Llano, 1983). Gass and Varonis speculated that in listening to and interacting with the NNS, the NS forms an impression about whether the NNS can understand NSR. If the NS forms the impression that the NNS will not understand NSR, he/she may use FT or FR to make messages easier for the NNS to understand (Ferguson, 1971), i.e., to lighten the NNS's interactional burden.

Strategies in FT and FR

This effort to lighten the interactional burden can take several forms (Long, 1981). The most obvious is that of simplifying grammatical structures. This notion of simplifying can be nebulous, since it is not always easy to

determine whether one grammatical structure is "simpler" than another (Ferguson and DeBose, 1977). Strategies for simplification include omitting material (e.g., copulas and articles); reducing irregularity; and using short, simple sentences rather than longer ones with relative or subordinate clauses (e.g., "His aunt came to visit him. She lives in California," rather than, "His aunt, who lives in California, came to visit him.").

NSs may also simplify the lexicon and use high frequency words words likely to be within the vocabulary range of the NNS. Yes/no questions and or/choice questions are more frequent in FT and FR, because it is considered easier for the NNS to respond with a "yes" or "no" or to repeat one of the choices given in the question rather than to respond with completely new information (Long and Sato, 1983).

Other strategies involve not so much simplifying as clarifying the message (Ferguson and DeBose, 1977). This may involve adding redundancy to the message, supplying material that is normally omitted (e.g., "You close the door," rather than "Close the door.") and using full forms instead of contractions or reductions.

NSs may also use different strategies for certain functions when speaking to a NNS. For example, questions have a higher frequency as topic-initiating moves in FT or FR than in NSR. Long (1981) found that 96% of topic-initiating moves were in the form of questions in NS-NNS

interaction but only 62% in NS-NS interaction. Long specu-
lated on several reasons for this. Questions lead naturally
to answers, while statements do not. Questions give the NNS
more encouragement to participate in the conversation. Lin-
guistic markers associated with questions (e.g., subject-
auxiliary inversion [changing "He can go," to "Can he go?"]
and rising intonation) can signal the NNS that a speaking
turn is approaching. Questions encode at least part of the
expected response and therefore make responding easier
(e.g., it is easier to respond to "Where do you come from?"
than "I can see that you're not an American."). It also
seems easier for the NNS to understand what response is
expected to a question than to a statement.

Triggers of FT and FR

NNS traits that have been posited to trigger FR or FT
include pronunciation, grammatical proficiency, vocabulary,
fluency (ability to speak smoothly, without unnecessary
pauses), demonstration of lack of comprehension, and an
interaction among these (Gass and Varonis, 1985). NNSs
obviously vary widely in their ability to pronounce English,
and pronunciation may be taken as an indication of overall
proficiency. If the NNS's production is not fluent, i.e.,
if the rate of speaking is slow or if the speech is
punctuated by long or inappropriate pauses, this is inter-
preted as indicating time required to process the grammati-
cal structures or to search for a lexical item (Butterworth,

1975). The NNS's grammatical and lexical proficiency in speaking may be taken as an indication of the level of proficiency at which he/she can comprehend the language. If the NNS demonstrates a lack of comprehension, the NS may respond by switching from NSR to FR or FT, recognizing an initial overestimation of the NNS's proficiency.

NS traits may also affect the use of FR or FT. However, while numerous studies look at the effects that NNS traits have on use of FT or FR, I could not find any that systematically looked at the traits of the NS. One possible factor is familiarity with non-native speech (Gass and Varonis, 1985). While Gass and Varonis do not try to explain this relationship, one possible explanation is that familiarity with non-native speech may make the NS more familiar with possible simplification strategies, which he/she may put to use in FR or FT. Another explanation is that the NS assumes that the NNS can comprehend what he/she can produce, and bases FR or FT on utterances that NNSs produce.

Another possible variable is experience dealing with NNSs (Hatch, Shapira, and Gough, 1978). Presumably, a person who has had experience interacting with NNSs will be more sensitive to their areas of difficulty and have well-developed simplification and clarification strategies for dealing with those difficulties. It was my experience in conversing in Japanese that people who knew me seemed more

likely to use FR than strangers did. Strangers seemed more likely to use NSR.

Another influence on the choice to use FT or FR may be experience speaking a foreign language with native speakers of that language. A person who has had the experience of being the object of FR or FT in another language may be aware of simplification or clarification strategies and their usefulness in facilitating communication. I could not find any studies that mentioned this relationship. However, it was my experience that I became more conscious of the FR strategies I used in English as a result of the FR that native Japanese speakers used in speaking Japanese to me.

It is not clear what triggers FT rather than FR. Among the traits that might affect the choice to use of FT or FR are ethnocentricity (belief in the superiority of one's own ethnic group) and prejudice (an adverse opinion about a certain group, formed without direct knowledge) against foreigners or against persons of a particular nationality (Valdman, 1981). As mentioned above, Ferguson (1971) and Valdman (1981) have suggested FT indicates a desire to maintain distance from foreigners, to indicate to them that their assimilation in the target culture is not desirable. If this is true, then ethnocentric NSs and NSs who are prejudiced against foreigners would be more inclined to use FT.

Types of Studies

Studies of FT and FR have fallen into three categories: interactional, ideological, and fictional (Valdman, 1981). Interactional studies involve observing NSs speaking with NNSs in natural settings, recording the conversation, and analyzing the results. Ideological studies are studies of what NSs report that they think they would say in interactions with NNSs. Fictional studies are studies of representations of FT or FR in literature. Each type of study has have both advantages and disadvantages.

Interactional studies are obviously ideal, because they provide examples of NSs actually using FR and FT. However, they generally involve narrow linguistic descriptions of language and lack a sociological perspective (Valdman, 1981). According to Valdman, most interactional research involves studying language use in isolation and does not take into account non-linguistic characteristics of the participants, such as prejudice or ethnocentrism.

Another problem is that, while the general characteristics of the stimulus utterances can be described, (e.g., heavily accented correct language or heavily accented broken language), it is impossible to guarantee that all participants get exactly the same stimulus, even if the same NNS is used. Because the participants get different stimuli, it is difficult to isolate the characteristics of the language or of the NNS that they are responding to. If more than one

NNS provides the stimulus utterances, this problem is exacerbated, because there are even more differences among the stimuli.

In a field study (as interactional studies typically seem to be [Gass and Varonis, 1985; Long, 1983; Long and Sato, 1983; Meisel, 1971; Hatch, Shapira, and Gough, 1978; Henzl, 1981; and Ramamurti, 1980]), it is difficult or impossible to measure NS attribute variables. While the language produced can be analyzed, the attributes of the NS who produced it are unknown and may have effects on the production of FR or FT that researchers do not recognize.

Ideological studies solve some of these problems, even as they create others. In an ideological study, it is possible to control the input from the NNS with a video or audio tape and to measure the attributes of the participants. However, the study is dependent on the accuracy of the participants' reports of what they would say, rather than on samples of what they actually do say. Valdman (1981) argued that, because of the unconscious nature of the use of FT and FR, these self-reports do have value, though they might not show the entire picture. In spite of this, he suggested that ideological studies and fictional studies (which share many of the advantages and disadvantages of ideological studies) were useful, at minimum, for identifying possible relationships that could be more fully researched in interactional studies. As Ferguson (1971)

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pointed out, FR and FT are conventionalized in each language and are learned by speakers in the same way that the native language is learned.

Hypotheses

The null hypotheses considered in this study were:

H_1: FR or FT will be used least with the NNS who has both interference errors and exaggerated pauses.

H_2: FT or FR will be used less with the NNS with exaggerated pauses but no interference errors, than the NNS who has interference errors but no exaggerated pauses.

H_3: FR or FT will be used least with the NNS who is rated low in both grammatical proficiency and fluency.

H_4: FT or FR will be used less with a NNS rated low in fluency than one rated low in grammatical proficiency.

H_5: Ethnocentric participants will adjust their language less than participants who are not ethnocentric.

H_6: Participants prejudiced against Japanese will adjust their language less than participants who are not prejudiced against Japanese.

H_7: Participants with experience with NNSs will adjust their language more than participants with out experience.

H_8: Participants with experience using a foreign language will adjust their language less than participants without experience.

Chapter II

Methods

Overview

This experiment focused on the effect of two variables,
fluency and grammatical proficiency, on use of FT and FR.
Participants were shown video tapes of a NNS exhibiting
different levels of grammatical proficiency and fluency in
conversing with a NS in an effort to find out whether one of
these, or a combination, triggers FT or FR. In addition,
four other variables, experience with NNSs, experience with
foreign language, prejudice against Japanese, and ethnocen-
trism, were measured and their correlations to use of FT and
FR calculated.

Participants

Participants were 201 students from four Communication
100 classes at Michigan State University. The study was
done on a day set aside for research. Participants were
mostly freshmen and sophomores of various majors. There
were approximately fifty students in each class. Each class
was shown a different video tape.

Design

This study utilized a control group posttest design.
The independent variables (grammatical proficiency and
fluency) were presented to participants in four conditions:
(1) high fluency and high grammatical proficiency, (2) high
fluency and low grammatical proficiency, (3) low fluency and

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high grammatical proficiency, and (4) low fluency and low grammatical proficiency. Participants were administered a questionnaire to determine their responses to FT, FR and NSR in each condition. In addition, the questionnaire included scales to measure the participants' experience with NNSs, experience with foreign language, prejudice against Japanese people, and ethnocentrism.

Procedures

The study took place in the participants' classrooms during the regular class time. Participants were shown a video tape approximately one minute in length of a native Japanese speaker and a native English speaker conversing. After listening to the tape, participants filled out a questionnaire that described different scenarios and asked them to choose among utterances written according to NSR, FT, and FR style. The questionnaire also asked them to rate the native Japanese speaker's pronunciation, fluency, grammatical proficiency, and overall English proficiency. Because of the possibility of testing effect, half of the participants were given the scenarios first and the other half were given the proficiency scales first. Finally, participants answered questions about their experiences with NNSs and foreign languages and questions intended to find out whether they were ethnocentric and whether they were prejudiced against Japanese people. (See the questionnaire in Appendix A.)

Stimulus Materials

Part I of the questionnaire, the FT/FR scale, included ten scenarios (see Appendix A, questions 1-10). Participants were asked what they would say in those situations. They were asked to chose from among examples of FT, FR, and NSR the response closest to what they would say in that situation. They were, in addition, given an opportunity to specify another response and asked to write out exactly what they would say in that situation, if none of the alternatives were close. If they chose to do this, the specified response was classified as FT, FR or NSR by coders blind to the group to which the participant belonged. Two coders looked at the specified responses and classified it with the FT, FR or NSR response that it most closely resembled. When the coders agreed on the classification, the specified response was changed to FT, FR, or NSR. If the coders could not agree on the classification, the participant was eliminated from consideration. Of 243 responses, the coders were able to agree on classifications for 88% of them.

In order to get examples of NSR for these situations, I gave a questionnaire to forty business communication students, mostly juniors and seniors, asking them what they would say to an American during an initial interaction in each of the situations. Responses were chosen that seemed representative of the responses given to that question and that had characteristics not likely to occur in FR or FT.

These utterances were changed to FT using the characteristics of FT described by Ferguson (1971) and Ferguson and DeBose (1977). The utterances were changed to FR using the characteristics described by Gass and Varonis (1985) and Long (1981).

Participants were asked to rate the NNS on overall English proficiency, pronunciation, fluency, and grammatical proficiency (see Appendix A, questions 16-21).

This study considered four NS variables: experience with NNSs, including experience with Japanese people; experience using a foreign language; ethnocentricity; and prejudice against Japanese. The first two were measured by asking respondents about their background and experiences (see Appendix A, questions 16-24).

Ethnocentricity and prejudice against Japanese people were measured using two scales. The scale measuring prejudice is derived from one developed by Greenberg and Rosenfield (1979) (see Appendix A, questions 32-41). Since I was unable to find measures related to prejudice against Asians in general or Japanese people in particular, I modified a scale originally used to measure prejudice against Blacks.

The original scale consisted of bipolar adjectives. It was rewritten as a Likert scale to make it easier for participants to respond to. The scale consists of five general statements about Japanese and the same five statements about Americans. Since three of the dimensions of the original

scale (industriousness, politeness, and intelligence) seemed more applicable to prejudice against Blacks in the United States than against Japanese people, I substituted creative/imitative, open/underhanded, and fair/unfair dimensions. These seem more likely to be dimensions of prejudice against Japanese people than the original dimensions. The other two dimensions (reliability and honesty) were retained. The scale is applied by subtracting the score for Americans from the score for Japanese.

The scale of ethnocentricity was derived from one developed by Bredemeier, Bernstein, and Oxman (1982). Of the twenty-two questions included in the original scale, eight were chosen that seemed to reflect ethnocentricity in relation to people from other cultures in particular (see Appendix A, questions 25-32).

In addition to the above scales, two questions intended to measure sympathy for a NNS speaking English were included (see Appendix A, questions 33-34). The intention of these questions was to see whether sympathy for the NNS influenced ratings on proficiency, i.e., whether participants who were sympathetic toward the NNS's efforts to speak English were more lenient in rating proficiency.

Manipulations

Of the possible NNS variables that Varonis and Gass mentioned (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, demonstration of lack of comprehension), I looked at two:

fluency and grammar, and at the interaction between the two. Specifically, I looked at the effects that the Japanese NNS's interference errors (errors caused by direct translation from the NNS's native language) and exaggerated pauses have on NS's use of FT or FR.

Exaggerated pauses were operationalized as long pauses at sentence junctures and between phrases. According to Nakasone (1979), these are the major differences between pauses in the speech of native English speakers and native Japanese speakers speaking English. In addition, long switching pauses (pauses between the utterance of the current speaker and that of the non-current speaker) were inserted between the NS's question and the NNS's answer. Switching pauses are a function of encoding difficulty or the extent to which a response is readily available. Switching pauses of more than three seconds in a dyadic encounter, the focus of which is conversation, are considered "awkward" in the sense that it reflects on the competency of the communicator (McLaughlin, 1984). If the information contained in the response is readily available, presumably a long switching pause is caused by encoding difficulty, or, in the case of a NNS, possibly a combination of difficulty with decoding the question and difficulty with encoding the answer.

Interference errors were chosen because they are typical of the grammatical errors that NSs of Japanese make when

speaking English (see Appendix C for text of dialogue with interference errors). Most articles (a, an, and the) and plural morphemes (-s) were deleted from Kazuko's utterances. In addition, two mistakes related to modifiers of countable nouns (much bus and much handicraft) and two mistakes related to prepositions (near from Osaka and graduation of MSU) were inserted. All of these are typical of interference errors that Japanese people make in speaking English (personal communication, M. Komiya, December 23, 1985; Bryant, 1984).

I made four video tapes of one-minute conversations between a Japanese and a native English speaking American. The content of the conversations was the same. The conversations were an initial interaction between two female classmates arriving early for class. They introduce themselves, and Laura, the American, asks Kazuko, the Japanese, questions about where she is from, whether she lives off campus, and what her major is. Kazuko answers the questions and gives additional details (see Appendix B for text of dialogue). These topics were chosen for the conversation, because they are common in initial interactions (Kellermann, Broetzmann, Lim, and Kitao, 1986). Laura's utterances were kept to a minimum so that the amount of FT, FR or NSR would not prejudice the participants' responses. Kazuko spoke more than Laura, to give the participants a larger sample of her language, and to allow her an opportunity to make a

variety of mistakes.

Both the video tapes and the questionnaire were pre-tested with Communication 100 students. The questionnaire was revised slightly in response to their comments.

The part of Laura was played by a 23-year-old American undergraduate. The part of Kazuko was played by a 40-year-old Japanese graduate student. This age difference did not seem to be a problem, since the students who viewed the tape during the pretest estimated Laura's age to be between twenty and twenty-two and Kazuko's age to be approximately one year older.

In four conversations, the conditions were I. no interference errors and no exaggerated pauses, II. interference errors and no exaggerated pauses, III. no interference errors and exaggerated pauses, and IV. interference errors and exaggerated pauses.

Chapter III

Results

Manipulation Checks

Pilot Study. In order to identify research partici-
pants' perceptions of the grammatical proficiency and fluen-
cy of the actor in each stimulus tape manipulation, checks
were conducted. To check the grammatical proficiency
manipulation, the grammatical proficiency ratings from the
pilot study were subjected to an analysis of variance
(ANOVA) with manipulation levels of fluency and grammatical
proficiency as the independent variables. Ratings of gram-
matical proficiency and fluency were used as dependent
variables.

Participants exposed to the stimulus with interference
errors rated the source's grammatical proficiency sig-
nificantly lower ($F = 13.11$, $p < .05$, $df = 1,23$, $\eta^2 = .35$)
than participants exposed to the stimulus with no inter-
ference errors. Participants exposed to the stimulus with
exaggerated pauses also rated the source's grammatical pro-
ficiency lower ($F = 5.09$, $p < .05$, $df = 1,23$, $\eta^2 = .14$)
than participants exposed to the stimulus with natural
pauses. Although the fluency manipulation seems to have had
some effect, these data clearly suggest that the grammatical
proficiency manipulation was effective. The cell means for
the grammatical proficiency ratings are found in Table 1.
Higher means indicate perceptions of higher proficiency.

Grammatical Proficiency

	Interference Errors	No Interference Errors
Natural Pauses	3.56	2.00
Exag. Pauses	4.17	3.10

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Table 1--Cell means with ratings of grammatical
         proficiency as D.V.

When ratings of fluency were used as the dependent variable, participants exposed to the stimulus with natural pauses did not give the source significantly different fluency ratings (F = .44, p > .05, df = 1,23, η^2 = .03) than participants exposed to the stimulus with exaggerated pauses. Also, participants exposed to the stimulus with interference errors did not give significantly different fluency ratings (F = .09, p > .05, df = 1,23, η^2 = .00) from participants exposed to the stimulus with no interference errors. This indicates that the fluency manipulation was not effective, as measured by the fluency ratings of the participants. This problem will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter IV. Cell means for fluency ratings are found in Table 2. Higher means indicate higher ratings of fluency.

Grammatical Proficiency

	Interference Errors	No Interference Errors
Natural Pauses	2.89	4.00
Exag. Pauses	3.17	2.50

(left margin vertical label: F l u e n c y)

Table 2--Cell means with ratings of fluency as D.V.

Because participants in the first pretest mentioned that it was sometimes difficult to remember the NNS's proficiency after filling out the FT/FR scale, a second pretest was done. In this second pretest, participants only rated the grammatical proficiency, fluency, pronunciation ability, and overall proficiency of the Japanese speaker. Using ANOVA to analyze the results, no significant main effects or interaction effects were found. This indicates that participants in the second pretest did not perceive any differences among the proficiency levels of the NNS, and suggests that the manipulation was not effective.

Coders. In order to check the actual grammatical proficiency and fluency produced by the manipulation, as opposed to the perceived proficiency, two coders blind to the purpose of the study evaluated the tapes. They counted the number of grammatical errors and the number of pauses and timed the length of the pauses. The reliability of the two coders was 1.00 for grammatical errors, .99 for number of pauses, and .94 for length of pauses.

Comparison of the mean frequencies of these coded be-
haviors served as another form of manipulation check. These
comparisons using one-tailed t-tests at the .05 level sug-
gest that the actor manipulated the desired behavior ef-
fectively. The number of pauses in the natural pause condi-
tion was less than the number in the exaggerated pause
condition (t = 2.64, p < .05). Also, the total length of
pauses in the natural pause condition was less than the
total length of pauses in the exaggerated pause condition
(t = 21.23, p < .05). Finally, the number of interference
errors in the no errors condition was less than the number
of errors in the interference errors condition (t = 27.08,
p < .05).

The combined results of these manipulation checks pro-
vide evidence that the actor was able to manipulate the
intended behavior. The coders who observed these stimuli
perceived the differences in behavior produced by the
manipulations. However, these differences were not neces-
sarily perceived by participants rating the proficiency of
the NNS.

Reliabilities

Reliabilities were calculated for all scales. For the
scale using FT, FR, and NSR (FT/FR scale), alpha was equal
to .48. For the proficiency scale, alpha was equal to .75.
Alpha for experience with NNSs equal to was .30. When Item
3 (See Appendix A, Item 18) was deleted, alpha increased

to .43. Because Item 3 had a low correlation with other items, it was deleted for the purposes of these analyses. Alpha for the experience with a foreign language scale was .68. For the prejudice scale alpha was found to be equal to .61. For ethnocentricity, alpha was found to be equal to .40. Since Item 5 (See Appendix A, Item 29) was not well correlated with the other items, it was deleted for the purposes of analysis. This increased alpha to .45.

None of these reliabilities are more than moderately high. Reliabilities for experience with NNSs, the FT/FR scale, and ethnocentricity were particularly low. This indicates that not all of the items of each scale were measuring the same construct, or there were not enough items.

Scatterplots

A scatterplot was made with the FT/FR scale as the dependent variable and proficiency as the independent variable. In addition, scatterplots were made with the FT/FR scale as the dependent variable and individual ratings for grammatical proficiency, fluency, and overall proficiency as the independent variables. Scatterplots showed random relationships between the pairs of variables. The correlation between the proficiency scale and FT/FR was .04, between fluency and FT/FR was .01, grammatical proficiency and FT/FR .01, and between FT/FR and overall proficiency was -.02. The relationships do not appear to be curvilinear.

In addition, there was no evidence of other forms of non-linearity in these relationships.

Analysis of Variance

An independent groups ANOVA was calculated with two levels of the independent variables grammatical proficiency (without interference errors, with interference errors) and fluency (with natural pauses, with exaggerated pauses). The dependent variable was the scores on the FT/FR scale. The cell means are presented in Table 3. Higher scores indicate greater adjustment of language.

Grammatical Proficiency

		No Errors	Errors
Fluency	Natural Pauses	17.05	17.02
	Exag. Pauses	16.78	16.75

Table 3--Cell means with FT/FR as D.V.

The results of the analysis (Table 4) indicate that manipulation levels of fluency and grammatical proficiency had no effect on participants use of FT/FR. The effects for fluency ($F = .45$, $df = 1,172$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$), grammatical proficiency ($F = .01$, $df = 1,172$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .00$) and the fluency by grammatical proficiency interaction ($F = .00$, $df = 1,172$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2 = .00$) were all non-significant and trivial in size. These results indicate

that the levels of grammatical proficiency and fluency did
not influence the participants' use for FT, FR or NSR.

	SS	df	MS	F	p	eta^2
Main Effects						
Fluency	3.20	1	3.20	.45	>.05	.005
Gram. Prof.	.04	1	.04	.01	>.05	.00
2-Way Inter.						
Fluency x Gram.						
Prof.	.00	1	.00	.00	>.05	.00
Within cell						
variance	616.95	172	3.59			
Total	620.16	175	3.54			

Table 4--Source table for ANOVA with manipulation as
I.V. and FT/FR scale as D.V.

Because it is possible that perception of proficiency
mediates between the NNS's proficiency and the use of FT or
FR (Gass and Varonis, 1985), another ANOVA was computed with
participants' perceptions of grammatical proficiency and
fluency as the independent variable and scores on the FT/FR
scale as the dependent variable. Participants were assigned
to high/low levels of grammatical proficiency and fluency
using median splits of individual ratings for fluency and
grammatical proficiency. ANOVAs were also computed using
the entire FT/FR scale as a dependent variable and each of
the individual items of the scale as a dependent variable.
No significant effects were found for the analysis involving
the FT/FR scale as the dependent variable. In addition,
when analyzed separately as a dependent variable, only one

of the ten items from the FT/FR scale produced significant effects. Item 6 of the FT/FR scale (see Appendix A, Item 6) was the only item that with a significant F-ratio. For Item 6, there was a significant F-ratio for the interaction between fluency and grammatical proficiency. The cell means and source table are presented in Tables 5 and 6. Higher means indicate greater adjustment of language.

Grammatical Proficiency

		Interference Errors	No Interference Errors
F l u e n c y	Natural Pauses	1.88	1.83
	Exag. Pauses	1.74	1.97

Table 5--Cell means with FT/FR, Item 6 as D.V.

	SS	df	MS	F	p	eta^2
Main Effects						
Fluency	.08	1	.08	.61	>.05	.00
Gram. Prof.	.21	1	.21	1.59	>.05	.01
2-Way Inter.						
Fluen. x Gram. Prof.	.67	1	.67	5.12	<.05	.03
Within cell variance	22.54	172	.13			
Total	23.45	175	.13			

Table 6--Source table for ANOVA with perceived proficiency as I.V. and FT/FR, item 6 as D.V.

This interaction does not appear to be a "magic cell" interaction. Special effect coding for a magic cell is not significant. Examination of the cell means indicates that the interaction is a disordinal one. There are no differences in adjustment of language for the level of grammatical proficiency (with interference errors, without interference errors) when pauses are natural. However, when pauses are exaggerated, there was more adjustment of language with interference errors than without interference errors. The least adjustment was found in the exaggerated pauses, no interference errors cell; the greatest adjustment was found in the exaggerated pauses, no interference errors cell.

Correlations

Correlations were calculated among scales for FT/FR, proficiency, experience with non-native speakers, experience speaking a foreign language, prejudice and ethnocentrism. Pearson correlations and their probabilities are reported in Table 7.

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Correlations

Correlations were calculated among scales for FT/FR, proficiency, experience with non-native speakers, experience speaking a foreign language, prejudice and ethnocentrism. Pearson correlations and their probabilities are reported in Table 7.

	FT/FR	ethno-centrism	profi-ciency	exper. with NNSs	exper. with foreign language	prej-udice
FT/FR	1.00					
ethnocen-trism	.01 (.02)	1.00				
profi-ciency	.02 (.03)	-.07 (-.12)	1.00			
exper. with NNSs	-.03 (-.07)	-.15 * (-.34)*	.04 (.07)	1.00		
exper. with foreign language	.09 (.16)*	-.28 * (-.50)*	-.02 (-.03)	.20 * (.37)*	1.00	
prejud-ice	-.08 (-.15)*	.20 * (.38)*	.04 (.12)	-.14 * (-.27)*	-.10 (-.16)*	1.00

Table 7--Pearson correlations
       ( ) = correlations corrected for attenua-
             tion due to measurement error
         * = p < .05

The correlations corrected for attenuation due to measurement error include several interesting correlations that are significantly different from zero. Ethnocentrism has strong negative correlations with both experience with NNSs and experience with foreign language. Prejudice has a somewhat weaker, but still significant, negative correlations with these variables. These correlations indicate that participants who had experience with NNSs and with foreign language tended not to be prejudiced or ethnocentric. The correlation between ethnocentrism and prejudice was also significantly different from zero.

Partial correlations between FT/FR and the other five variables were calculated using the Pearson correlations corrected for attenuation. In each of the five cases, the other four variables were held constant. The results are presented in Table 8.

	ethno-centrism	profi-ciency	exper. with NNSs	exper. with foreign language	prej-udice
FT/FR	.16*	.02	−.16*	.24*	−.20*

Table 8--Fourth-order partial correlations, from
        Pearson correlations corrected for measure-
        ment error
        * = p < .05

Correlations between FT/FR and ethnocentrism, experience with NNSs, experience with a foreign language, and prejudice, with four other variables held constant, were significantly different from zero. While these correlations are not extremely strong, they do indicate that the NS variables have an influence on the extent to which a speaker uses FT or FR. This will be discussed further in Chapter IV.

Chapter IV

Discussion

Manipulation Checks

Pretests. The results of the manipulation check showed that the differences in pauses and interference errors among the tapes were not reflected in the ratings of proficiency made by the participants. In the first pretest, participants' ratings of the NNS's grammatical proficiency were higher for the conditions where there were no errors than where there were interference errors. However, these results were not replicated in the second pretest, where no significant main or interaction effects were found.

It is difficult to draw definite conclusions from these data, since contradictory results were found. Participants of the first pretest seem to have been more aware of grammatical proficiency than fluency. Grammatical errors may stand out more than exaggerated pauses, since participants are likely to be more accustomed to thinking of "good" and "bad" English in terms of grammatical correctness rather than fluency. Exaggerated pauses may be attended to only when the pauses are so long as to interfere with comprehension.

These results indicate that a NNS who speaks with exaggerated pauses is rated as being more grammatically proficient than one who speaks with natural pauses. One reason for this might be that, because pauses are taken to

indicate cognition (McLaughlin, 1984), a NNS who appears to be pausing and thinking carefully about his/her words is assumed to be producing better grammatical structures than one who does not.

There are several possible explanations for the lack of correspondence between the manipulation of the levels of grammatical proficiency and fluency and the ratings of proficiency. One is that participants tend to be sympathetic toward a person experiencing difficulty in communicating in a foreign language. However, this explanation can be ruled out by the small correlation between the sympathy scale and the ratings of proficiency were low $(r = .04, p > .05)$.

A more likely explanation is that it is difficult for untrained participants to reliably rate the language proficiency of a NNS. Organizations that test the language proficiency of NNSs require evaluators to take hours of training. (For example, the raters who will evaluate the speaking proficiency of foreign teaching assistants at Michigan State University next Fall must undergo ten hours of training, much of which is spent listening to tapes of NNSs and discussing differences among different levels of proficiency [personal communication, Barrett, R.P., May, 1986]). This indicates that there may be problems in using paper and pencil evaluations to reliably evaluate the language proficiency of NNSs, so evaluations of untrained participants may not reflect the "real" proficiency of the NNS.

An additional complicating factor is that it may have been difficult for participants to keep the proficiency of the NNS in mind while filling out the scale, since they did not fill out the proficiency scales until the tape had finished. Since the participants are not likely to have had experience in filling out such evaluations, the time lapse may have decreased the validity and reliability of the ratings.

Another explanation is that NSs may, in listening to a NNS, be concentrating more on communication than on proficiency. If there is no interference with communication, the NS may not pay much attention to the grammatical proficiency or fluency of the NNS. Therefore, participants may not distinguish between the grammatical proficiency and fluency of NNSs of different levels as long as they can understand the NNS.

These results have implications for future research on triggers of FT or FR. Proficiency ratings of untrained observers may not reflect the actual proficiency of the NNS. Since training participants would be a lengthy process, researchers may have to depend on the results of a standardized test of speaking proficiency to measure to relative proficiency of confederates. The training of these raters would include differentiating among different aspects of language proficiency. Therefore, their ratings of gram- matical proficiency, for example, would be less likely to be

influenced by the confederate's fluency. If a study involves participants interacting with a NNS confederate, confederates of different levels of proficiency could be chosen according to the results of a standardized test.

Coders. In spite of the problems in the ratings of proficiency by participants, significant differences were found by the coders. The coders counted the number of grammatical errors, the number of pauses, and the total length of the pauses. There was very high reliability between the two coders. They found significant differences between the number of grammatical errors in the cells with and without interference errors and significant differences in the number and total length of pauses in in the cells with natural pauses and exaggerated pauses. This indicates that there were indeed differences among the four cells, even if these differences apparently did not strongly influence the participants' ratings of the NNS's proficiency.

Reliabilities

One problem with this study was low reliabilities among the items of the scales. Alpha for the FT/FR scale was .48. In writing the FT/FR scale, I attempted to make use of various characteristics of FT and FR, including avoidance of slang and idioms, predominance of or/choice and yes/no questions rather than wh- questions, and use of coordination in preference to subordination. Possibly the use of so many different simplification and clarification strategies

reduced the reliability of the scale. Also, it is difficult to look at FR and NSR in particular outside of the context of a conversation, since in many cases, it is the percentage of certain structures rather than the incidence of those structures that differentiates FR from NSR.

More reliable scales need to be used in further research. If a pencil and paper measure is used in other studies, it may yield more reliable results if only one aspect of FT or FR, for example, simplification of grammatical structures, is tapped.

As mentioned above, reliability of the proficiency scale could be improved by using trained raters rather than participants to rate the proficiency of the NNS.

Some of the other scales were unreliable as well. Experience with NNSs was a particularly unreliable scale, with alpha of .43 with the least reliable item deleted. Ethnocentrism was also an unreliable scale, with alpha of only .45, even with the most unreliable item deleted.

For the ethnocentrism scale, as mentioned in Chapter II, items that seemed related to ethnocentrism in relation to people from other countries were chosen from a larger scale. Apparently, these items are not as closely related as they appeared to be. By replacing two or three more of the items that are not highly correlated with the others, the reliability of the scale would be increased. Item 2 (See Appendix A, Item 25), for example, does not have high

correlations with other items and could be deleted.

Similarly, the reliability of the prejudice scale appears that it would be increased if the first two items of the American scale and the first two of the Japanese scale (See Appendix A, Items 35, 36, 40 and 41) were replaced, since they are less well correlated than the others.

Major Hypotheses

The manipulated levels of fluency and grammatical proficiency had no significant effects on use of FT and FR. These findings fail to support any of the major hypotheses of the study. There are several possible explanations for this.

The manipulation involved four different levels of proficiency on the part of the NNS--no interference errors, natural pauses; interference errors, natural pauses; no interference errors, exaggerated pauses; and interference errors, exaggerated pauses. However, in all cases, the NNS was able to understand the questions asked by the NS and was able to respond appropriately to them. One reason for the lack of differentiation in the responses to the different conditions may be due to the fact that comprehension did not vary much from condition to condition. Speakers may adjust their language when they realize that they are speaking to a NNS in comparison to speaking to a NS. However, they may not differentiate among levels of proficiency in NNSs unless there are problems in communication, i.e., unless the NNS

does not understand what the NS says and/or has difficulty responding to it appropriately. In fact, other research had used misunderstanding on the part of the NNS to elicit FT or FR (Gass and Varonis, 1985).

Another possible explanation is related to the salient characteristics on which NS base their judgment about the NNSs proficiency. It is possible that NSs do differentiate among levels of proficiency of even NNSs who do not show evidence of lack of comprehension. However, perhaps grammatical proficiency and fluency are not the characteristics of the NNS's speech that the NS uses to estimate the NNS's proficiency. Pronunciation is another variable that has been proposed to trigger FT/FR, and it may be pronunciation that NSs use to differentiate among NNSs who don't demonstrate difficulty with comprehension.

Another explanation has to do with the methodology of this study. In Valdman's (1981) terms, this was an ideological study, one where participants report what they would say in a given situation. Since participants were not actually interacting with the NNS, they were not constantly reminded of the NNS's proficiency. In an interactional study, participants have constant reminders of the proficiency of the NNS.

When ratings for fluency and grammatical proficiency were used as independent variables, no significant effects were found using the FT/FR scale as the dependent variable.

When individual items were used as dependent variables, there was one significant interaction effect. This indicates a linear interaction between ratings of grammatical proficiency and of fluency. Since so many different analyses were done, it would be expected that at least one would be significant, and it is therefore difficult to draw any definite conclusions.

In future research, lack of comprehension on the part of the NNS should be used as a variable. This would help determine whether the above explanation--NSs adjust their language when NNSs demonstrate lack of comprehension, but they do not differentiate among levels of proficiency on the part of the NNS--is accurate. Also, other NNS variables, such as pronunciation, should be included to see whether they have more salience to NSs in their adjustment of the language they used in speaking to NNSs.

Also, controlled interactional studies should be done to further investigate the findings of this study. While ideological studies are useful, they do involve what participants report that they would say rather than what they actually say. By definition, an interactional study would have greater external validity.

Correlational Analyses

Several variables were related to the use of FR and FT. While these relationships are not strong, the partial correlations between the FT/FR scale and ethnocentrism,

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Correlational Analyses

Several variables were related to the use of FR and FT. While these relationships are not strong, the partial correlations between the FT/FR scale and ethnocentrism,

experience speaking a foreign language, experience with NNSs, and prejudice against Japanese people, are all significant. As mentioned in Chapter I, most literature on FT and FR emphasizes the characteristics of FT and FR and the roles that the proficiency of the NNS and other NNS characteristics play in triggering FT and FR. While some authors discussed NS characteristics such as familiarity with non-native speech, prejudice against NNSs, and ethnocentrism (Valdman, 1981; Ferguson, 1971; Gass and Varonis, 1985; Hatch, Shapira and Gough, 1978), I could not find any researchers who had studied these relationships in any systematic way and very few who discussed possible explanations for the relationships. Therefore, these results must be treated as preliminary and the suggested explanations as speculative.

Prejudice against Japanese. The partial correlation between the FT/FR scales and the prejudice scale was -.20 (p < .05), while experience with NNSs, experience speaking a foreign language, ethnocentrism and ratings of proficiency were held constant. This indicates that the more prejudiced a person is against Japanese people, as measured by the prejudice scale, the less likely they are to adjust the language that they use when they speak to NNSs.

This contradicts the speculations of Valdman (1981) and Ferguson (1971) about the relationship between prejudice and FT. Valdman and Ferguson would suggest that participants

prejudiced against Japanese people would be more likely to use FT. However, this study indicates that people who are prejudiced against Japanese people report that they are less likely to use FT and, in fact, are less likely to report that they adjust their speech when speaking to a Japanese person. Apparently, NSs who are prejudiced against NNSs do not, as Valdman speculated, attempt to prevent NNSs from hearing well-formed language. Instead, it appears that NSs who are prejudiced against Japanese people are less likely to adjust their language at all.

Since the purpose of adjustment for NNSs is to improve communication, it could be that people who are prejudiced against Japanese people are less concerned about the communication and whether the communication is successful than people who are not prejudiced. Therefore, people who are prejudiced against Japanese may be less likely to adjust their language.

Ethnocentrism. The partial correlation between the FT/FR scale and ethnocentrism was .16 (p < .05), with ratings of proficiency, experience with NNSs, experience speaking a foreign language, and prejudice against Japanese people held constant. This indicates that participants who score high on the ethnocentrism scale are more likely to adjust their language for a NNS.

Participants who consider their own culture to be better than any other appear to be somewhat more inclined to

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use FT, or at least less likely to use NSR, than partici-
pants that are more open to other cultures, as measured by
the ethnocentrism scale.

While Valdman (1981) and Ferguson (1971) did not
directly mention ethnocentrism in their discussions of the
sociological aspects of FT, this is the relationship that
they probably would have predicted. People who think that
their culture is better than any other seem to be more
inclined to use FT, thus reducing the amount of well-formed
language, the badge of group membership, that the NNS is
able to hear, and making it more difficult for the NNS to
acquire the language as NSs speak it.

Experience with NNSs. The partial correlation between
experience with NNSs and the FT/FR scale was -.16 (p < .05),
holding ratings of proficiency, ethnocentrism, experience
speaking a foreign language, and prejudice against Japanese
people, constant. Participants who had experience with NNSs
were somewhat less likely to adjust their language.

A possible explanation for that is that NSs with ex-
perience with NNSs may recognize that the NNS's production
may not reflect receptive ability, i.e., NNSs can generally
understand more complex grammatical structures than they can
produce.

Experience speaking a foreign language. The partial
correlation between experience speaking a foreign language
and the FT/FR scale was .24 (p < .05), holding prejudice,

ethnocentrism, experience with NNSs, and ratings of proficiency, constant. Participants who had experience speaking a foreign language were more likely to adjust their language for NNSs.

One possible explanation for this is that people with experience speaking a foreign language have themselves been the object of FT or FR and may be more aware of the benefits to successful communication derived from using these. Having had FT or FR directed at them, they may also be more aware of the strategies that NSs of the foreign language use, and may therefore apply those strategies when they themselves speak to a NNS of their native language. Subjects who have had experience may have more awareness of different registers, since they may hear both language that is modified--the language that is directed toward them--and language that is not modified--the language that NSs of that language use among themselves, the language that they hear in the mass media, etc.

Conclusions

Hypotheses related to NNS variables. The first two null hypotheses were accepted. No main effects or interaction effects were found when the manipulations of grammatical proficiency and fluency were used as the independent variables. The third and fourth null hypotheses would also have to be accepted. Only one interaction was found between ratings of grammatical proficiency and fluency. Considering

the number of analyses performed, this cannot be given much weight. The analysis did not indicate that there were main effects, and only one interaction effect was found for one item of the FT/FR scale.

Hypotheses related to NS characteristics. The fifth null hypothesis was rejected. A positive correlation was found between the ethnocentrism of a participant and the amount of adjustment he/she made for a NNS. This indicates that ethnocentric NSs are more likely to adjust their language when speaking to NNSs than NSs who are not ethnocentric.

The sixth null hypothesis was accepted. In fact, a difference in the opposite direction of what was predicted was found; participants who were prejudiced against Japanese people reported that they were less likely to make adjustments of their language in speaking to a Japanese than participants that were not prejudiced. This contradicts speculation by Valdman (1981) and Ferguson (1971) that NSs who are prejudiced use FT in order to exclude them from the community of NSs.

The seventh null hypothesis was accepted. Again, the study found an effect that was the opposite of the one predicted. Experience with NNSs and use of FT/FR were negatively correlated. Participants with experience with NNSs were less likely to adjust their language for NNSs.

The eighth null hypothesis was rejected. The study

the number of analyses performed, this cannot be given much weight. The analysis did not indicate that there were main effects, and only one interaction effect was found for one item of the FT/FR scale.

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The seventh null hypothesis was accepted. Again, the study found an effect that was the opposite of the one predicted. Experience with NNSs and use of FT/FR were negatively correlated. Participants with experience with NNSs were less likely to adjust their language for NNSs.

The eighth null hypothesis was rejected. The study

found that participants with experience using a foreign language were more likely to adjust their language.

Key findings. The most important and interesting findings of this study are the importance of the roles that NS variables play in influencing the use of FT/FR. While these variables have been, to a great extent, neglected in the study of FT and FR, they appear to have an influence, perhaps a stronger influence than the proficiency of the NNS. Experience with NNSs and prejudice have negative correlations with the use of FT/FR, while ethnocentrism have positive correlations with use of FT/FR.

Suggestions for Future Research

Generally, studies of FT and FR have been directed at describing their characteristics and at finding out what NNS characteristics trigger them. The study failed to reject the null hypotheses of this study related to the relationships between interference errors, pause behavior and the choice to use FT, FR, or NSR. However, connections between use of FT/FR and four NS variables (ethnocentrism, prejudice against Japanese, experience with NNSs, and experience with a foreign language), while not extremely strong, were significant.

In the future, more research on influences on FT and FR that involves interactional and ideological methods is needed. This study, done using an ideological method, should be replicated using an interactional method. Also,

future research on FR and FT should include measurement and analysis of NS characteristics such as prejudice, ethnocen- trism, experience with NNSs, and experience with a foreign language.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Scenario Questionnaire

I. Imagine that you were the American talking to Kazuko in the video that you saw. Remember that this is an informal conversation with a student that you just met. What would you say to Kazuko in each of the following situations? Choose the response that is closest to what you would say. Choose your answer according to the form of the response (how it is said) rather than the content of the response (what is said). If none of the responses are close to what you would say, mark d and specify exactly what you would say in the conversation, in everyday language. All are legitimate responses and might be used in conversation. There is no "right" or "wrong" answer.

1. Kazuko takes out a pack of cigarettes, lights one, and sets the pack down on a desk. Assuming that you smoke and that you would like to borrow a cigarette from her, how would you request a cigarette?

   a. Could I bum a cigarette?

   b. Could I borrow a cigarette?

   c. Could I borrow cigarette?

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

   _____."

2. You took a course last term that Kazuko is planning on taking next term. How do you tell her that it is a very easy course?

   a. That's an easy class.

   b. That's a blow off class.

   c. That is easy class.

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

_____."

3. Due to various problems in your life, you have been experiencing a lot of tension this term. How do you describe the tension you have been feeling?

   a. I really tense these days.

   b. I'm really stressed out these days.

   c. I'm really tense these days.

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

_____."

4. You thought that the midterm in the class you and Kazuko are taking was very difficult. How do you say that?

   a. Wasn't that test difficult?

   b. Wasn't test difficult?

   c. Wasn't that test a killer?

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

_____."

5. You just realized that you forgot to bring a pen to class. How do you ask Kazuko if you can borrow a pen?

   a. Do you have an extra pen?

   b. Borrow a pen?

   c. Could I borrow a pen?

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

_____."

6. You have heard that Professor Smith, one of the professors that teaches a class Kazuko is taking next term, is tough. How do you tell her to avoid that section?

   a. Don't take Professor Smith's class.

   b. You don't take Professor Smith's class.

   c. Stay away from Professor Smith.

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

_____."

7. Kazuko gets up to put out her cigarette in an ashtray in the hall. You want to ask her to close the door. What do you say?

   a. Please close door on way back.

   b. Would you mind closing the door on your way back?

   c. Please close the door on your way back.

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

_____."

5. You just realized that you forgot to bring a pen to class. How do you ask Kazuko if you can borrow a pen?

   a. Do you have an extra pen?

   b. Borrow a pen?

   c. Could I borrow a pen?

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

   _____."

6. You have heard that Professor Smith, one of the profes- sors that teaches a class Kazuko is taking next term, is tough. How do you tell her to avoid that section?

   a. Don't take Professor Smith's class.

   b. You don't take Professor Smith's class.

   c. Stay away from Professor Smith.

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

   _____."

7. Kazuko gets up to put out her cigarette in an ashtray in the hall. You want to ask her to close the door. What do you say?

   a. Please close door on way back.

   b. Would you mind closing the door on your way back?

   c. Please close the door on your way back.

   d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

   _____."

8. The class that you and Kazuko are taking is one mostly taken by seniors. How do you find out what year Kazuko is?

    a. You senior?

    b. What year are you?

    c. Are you a senior?

    d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

    _____."

9. How do you find out how long Kazuko has been in Michigan?

    a. Have you been in Michigan long?

    b. How long have you been in Michigan?

    c. You in Michigan long?

    d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

    _____."

10. How would you ask Kazuko whether she has a job?

    a. Are you working or just taking classes?

    b. You work or just take class?

    c. Are you working while taking classes?

    d. Other (specify): I would say: "_____

    _____."

II. Rate Kazuko's language proficiency in the following areas. For example, if you think that her proficiency is the same as a native speaker's, mark "1". If you think she has no proficiency in that area, mark "7". If you think that her proficiency is between these two extremes, mark "2", "3", "4", "5" or "6".

11. fluency (ability to speak smoothly, without unnecessary pauses)

native speaker 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 no proficiency

12. grammatical proficiency

native speaker 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 no proficiency

13. pronunciation

native speaker 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 no proficiency

14. overall English proficiency

native speaker 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 no proficiency

III. Mark the answers to the following questions.

15. Is English your native language?

a. yes

b. no

c. I am equally proficient in English and another language/other languages.

16. How often do you talk with people who are not native speakers of English?

a. daily

b. two or more times a week

c. two or more times a month

d. ten or more times a year

e. five or fewer times a year

f. one or fewer times a year

17. How many friends have you had who were not native speakers of English?

a. none

b. one

c. two

d. three

e. four or more

18. How often do you talk with Japanese people (born in Japan, not in the United States)?

a. daily

b. two or more times a week

c. two or more times a month

d. ten or more times a year

e. five or fewer times a year

f. one or fewer times a year

19. How many Japanese friends do you have?

    a. none

    b. one

    c. two

    d. three

    e. four or more

20. How many foreign languages have you studied, both in high school and in college?

    a. none

    b. one

    c. two

    d. three or more

21. In total, how long have you studied foreign languages?

    a. never

    b. less than one academic year

    c. one to two academic years

    d. two to three academic years

    e. three or more academic years

22. How many times have you spoken to native speakers of the language(s) that you studied? (If you have never studied a foreign language, mark "never".)

    a. never

    b. one to five times

    c. six to ten times

    d. ten to fifteen times

    e. more than fifteen times

23. Have you ever visited another country, other than an English-speaking country?

    a. yes

    b. no

24. How much did you use a foreign language while you were there?

    a. 75% of the time or more

    b. 50-75% of the time

    c. 25-50% of the time

    d. 25% of the time or less

    e. not at all

IV. If you strongly agree (SA) with the following statements, mark "1". If you agree (A) with it, mark "2". If you are neutral, (N) mark "3". If you disagree (D), mark "4". If you strongly disagree (SD), mark "5".

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5   25. The greater variety of different points of view a person can sympathize with, the more weak-willed that person probably is.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5   26. Without the friendly cooperation of many other nations, the United States would not survive for very long.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5   27. No matter how different another group's culture is, it can probably be justified as readily as ours.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 28. America may not be perfect, but the American Way has brought us about as close as human beings can get to a perfect society.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 29. No reasonable person can avoid feeling personally enriched when they are with people who think and act differently from them.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 30. It is tempting to stick with one's kind for the comfort and assurance it brings, but the cost is self-narrowing.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 31. It is tempting to try to understand different points of view for the interest it brings, but the cost is self-confusion.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 32. One should always be on guard against the temptation to think that tolerance of different views is always a good thing.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 33. When speaking to a foreigner who doesn't speak English well, I tend to get impatient with him/her.

SA A N D SD
1 2 3 4 5 34. If a foreigner is trying hard to speak English, I feel sympathetic toward him/her.

V. If you strongly agree (SA) with the following statements,
mark "1". If you agree (A) with it, mark "2". If you
are neutral, (N) mark "3". If you disagree (D), mark
"4". If you strongly disagree (SD), mark "5". The
statements refer to Japanese people born in Japan, not
Americans of Japanese descent.

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   35. The average Japanese is honest.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   36. Japanese people are, in general, fair in
                    their dealings with others.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   37. The Japanese are imitative rather than
                    creative people.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   38. Japanese people are unreliable.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   39. In general, the Japanese are underhanded.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   40. The average American is honest.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   41. Americans are, in general, fair in their
                    dealings with others.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   42. Americans are imitative rather than crea-
                    tive people.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   43. Americans are unreliable.
```

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5   44. In general, Americans are underhanded.
```

V. If you strongly agree (SA) with the following statements, mark "1". If you agree (A) with it, mark "2". If you are neutral, (N) mark "3". If you disagree (D), mark "4". If you strongly disagree (SD), mark "5". The statements refer to Japanese people born in Japan, not Americans of Japanese descent.

```
SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    35. The average Japanese is honest.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    36. Japanese people are, in general, fair in
                     their dealings with others.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    37. The Japanese are imitative rather than
                     creative people.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    38. Japanese people are unreliable.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    39. In general, the Japanese are underhanded.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    40. The average American is honest.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    41. Americans are, in general, fair in their
                     dealings with others.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    42. Americans are imitative rather than crea-
                     tive people.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    43. Americans are unreliable.

SA A  N  D SD
1  2  3  4  5    44. In general, Americans are underhanded.
```

APPENDIX B

Basic Dialogue

Laura: Hi, how are you?

Kazuko: Fine, how are you?

Laura: Fine. My name is Laura.

Kazuko: My name is Kazuko.

Laura: Where are you from?

Kazuko: I come from Kyoto, Japan.

Laura: I don't know Kyoto. Is that near Tokyo?

Kazuko: No, it is near Osaka. It is a very old city. It is about one thousand two hundred years old, and it was the capital before Tokyo. It is famous for temples and for handicrafts like weaving and pottery.

Laura: Do you live on campus?

Kazuko: No, I live off campus. I live in an apartment. It is about two miles from campus. I take the bus to school every day, but there are not many busses. It is not very convenient.

Laura: What is your major?

Kazuko: My major is business. I want to go home and work for a bank or a large company after graduation from MSU.

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

Dialogue with Interference Errors

Laura: Hi, how are you?

Kazuko: Fine, how are you?

Laura: Fine. My name is Laura.

Kazuko: My name is Kazuko.

Laura: Where are you from?

Kazuko: I come from Kyoto, Japan.

Laura: I don't know Kyoto. Is that near Tokyo?

Kazuko: No, it is near from Osaka. It is very old city. It is about one thousand two hundred years old, and it was capital before Tokyo. It is famous for temple and for much handicraft like weaving and pottery.

Laura: Do you live on campus?

Kazuko: No, I live off campus. I live in apartment. It is about two miles from campus. I take bus to school every day, but there are not much bus. It is not very convenient.

Laura: What is your major?

Kazuko: My major is business. I want to go home and work for bank or large company after graduation of MSU.

Dialogue with Interference Errors

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Kazuko: Fine, how are you?

Laura: Fine. My name is Laura.

Kazuko: My name is Kazuko.

Laura: Where are you from?

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Laura: I don't know Kyoto. Is that near Tokyo?

Kazuko: No, it is near from Osaka.   It is very old city.
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            and it was capital before Tokyo. It is famous for
            temple and for much handicraft like weaving and
            pottery.

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Kazuko: No, I live off campus.   I live in apartment.   It
            is about two miles from campus.   I take bus to
            school every day, but there are not much bus. It
            is not very convenient.

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            for bank or large company after graduation of MSU.

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APPENDIX C

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