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Development and Validation of
the Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ) in Japanese Undergraduate Students

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Abstract

The Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ) became a popular measurement for gratitude research, yet there was no Japanese version published. The purpose of this study was to create a valid and reliable Japanese version of the GQ. One hundred thirty Japanese undergraduate students completed the GQ, subjective happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive and negative affect questionnaires. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) found that the sixth item did not have a significant factor loading, and the 5-item version indicated a better model fit than the original 6-item version. The 5-item version of the GQ was negatively correlated with negative affect and positively correlated with subjective happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive affect. A coefficient alpha was .70 and a 4-week test-retest correlation coefficient was .72. All other CFAs brought affirmative results for its discriminant validity. The 5-item version GQ was recommended for use as a measurement of dispositional gratitude of Japanese undergraduate students.

Keywords: gratitude, Japan, positive psychology, cross-cultural, indebtedness

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Psychologists have conducted more research on gratitude since the turn of this century (Emmons, 2007; Emmons & McCullough, 2004; Emmons & Mishra, 2011). Today, there are several measurements of gratitude for adults (Wood, Froh, & Geraghty, 2010). Among them, one of the most widely used measurements for gratitude is the Gratitude Questionnaire (GQ) by McCullough, Emmons, and Tsang (2002). The GQ has six items that are supposed to measure the latent factor of gratitude. Previous studies have already found that the GQ is an excellent measure for predicting adults' personality and well-being (for review see Wood, et al.). Besides, the GQ has been translated to different languages (e.g., German, Chinese, Spanish, Hungarian, Polish, Lithuanian, and Farsi) and utilized in various countries.

Froh, et al. (2011) assessed psychometric properties of the GQ for studying gratitude of children and adolescents. They reported the low factor loadings of the sixth item (i.e., "Long amounts of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone.") in three adult undergraduate student samples in the United States (.33 and .38) and United Kingdom (.44), and even lower factor loading in an American youth sample (.21). Additionally, the youth participants ten to nineteen years of age, commented their difficulty in comprehending the meaning of the sixth item due to its abstractness. Therefore, the sixth item was removed and the final version of the GQ for the English-speaking youth became the remaining five items. The study underscored the necessity of psychometric testing when the researchers use an established instrument with a different population.

Cultural psychologists know that even the best translation of a psychological measurement cannot guarantee sound psychometric properties for the translated measurement when used with a different culture (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). After translating with the utmost care, the translated measurement should have its reliability and validity tested with local samples in the different culture. Chen, Chen, Kee, and Tsai (2008) tested the reliability and validity of the Chinese version of the GQ with Taiwanese samples. After data collection, they made two equal samples from the undergraduate sample. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the first sample (n = 304) found that the sixth item did not load to a latent factor (standardized factor loading = .01, *ns*). The sixth item was removed and they compared the 5-item version of GQ and the original 6-item version and found that the former exhibited a better model fit than the latter. They repeatedly achieved the similar CFA result and the model fit preference from the second sample (n = 304). Thus, the sixth item was removed. The construct validity of the GQ was supported with the scales of subjective happiness (i.e., Taiwan Social Change Survey), optimism (i.e., Chinese Life Orientation Test-Revised), agreeableness, neuroticism, and extraversion (i.e., Chinese Big Five personality scale). They reported a coefficient alpha of .80 and concluded that the 5-item version of the Chinese GQ would be useful to measure gratitude in Taiwanese undergraduate students. The study epitomized the necessity of psychometric testing on local samples after the development of a translated measurement. However, an anomaly was found in a situation in which local people are bilingual. Another Chinese researcher in Hong Kong simultaneously administered the Chinese and English versions of the GQ and reported no psychometric problems (Chan, 2010).

There are many different conceptualizations for gratitude, such as an emotion, an attitude, a moral virtue, a habit, a personality trait, and so forth (Emmons & McCullough, 2003). However, Emmons, McCullough, and Tsang (2003) defined gratitude, that was supposed to be measured by the GQ, as "a generalized tendency to recognize and respond

with positive emotions (appreciation, thankfulness) to the role of other moral agents' benevolence in the positive experiences and outcomes that one obtains" (p. 335). It means that the GQ is supposed to measure a response tendency of positive emotions that are evoked by the benevolence from others.

Cultural psychologists have emphasized the importance of cultural differences in social scripts to understand human emotions (Kitayama & Markus, 1994). For example, Mesquita (2010) claimed that traditionally, psychologists have recognized that human emotions are psychological properties of each individual. Yet in reality, human emotion emanates from the dynamic interaction between an individual and the environment and thus called it "emoting" (p. 84) to underscore the magnitude of the cultural context where each emotion emerges. In American culture, gratitude is typically assumed as a positive emotion among researchers (Tsang, 2007). In American culture, where the GQ was conceived, psychologists customarily assume that an individual would respond with positive emotions (e.g., gratitude) more than negative emotions (e.g., indebtedness) when they receive help from others because it is a standard social script in the U.S. Watkins, Scheer, Ovnicek, and Kolts (2006) empirically demonstrated that American undergraduate students initially exhibited gratitude over indebtedness when receiving a gift. However, the more they were expected to return the favor, gratitude decreased and indebtedness increased. In a contemporary American psychological lexicon, gratitude and indebtedness are two distinctive emotions (Tsang, 2006).

In Japanese culture, an embedded nature of gratitude and indebtedness has been discussed by anthropologists (Benedict, 1946; Lebra, 1976), psychiatrist (Doi, 1993), and sociolinguists (Ide, 1998; Kimura, 1994; Kumatoridani, 1999). Japanese speakers can express gratitude in two different ways: (a) "arigatou", meaning "thank you" and (b) "sumimasen", meaning "I am sorry." Although such an intermingled expression might seem bizarre to English speakers, Ide (1998) stressed that "the use of sumimasen in expressing thanks, apologies, and other functional meanings represents one of the defining traits of Japanese public discourse" (p. 524). The Japanese, who possess interdependence as one of their treasured values (e.g., Kitayama, Park, Sevincer, Karasawa, & Uskul, 2009; Markus & Kitayama, 1991), are aware of both the value of the help they received and the preciousness of others' efforts and sacrifice to them (Lebra, 1976). When they perceive their own benefits, the "thank you" expression appears. The "I am sorry" expression emerges when they empathize with the efforts and sacrifice that are made by others (Kumatoridani, 1999). Not only in the case of gratitude, the empirical study of general emotion vocabulary that is used by rural populations of Japan and the U.S. has also shown that the conceptualization of emotion varies significantly culture to culture (Kobayashi, Schallert, & Ogren, 2003).

Following these studies, Naito, Wangwan, and Tani (2005) hypothesized gratitude in Japanese culture as a construct that has both positive and negative feelings. Both Japanese and Thai undergraduate students read the vignettes in cases in which they were injured and received various kinds of help from others and were asked about their evoked emotions. A factor analysis found two major factors: positive feelings (i.e., pleasure, warmth, happiness, & thankfulness) and negative feelings (i.e., shame, regret about causing a problem, feeling uneasy, & indebtedness). Additionally, they found that the negative feelings (i.e., the second factor) of Thai participants were significantly lower than that of Japanese counterparts. This suggested that indebtedness has more significant existence in the concept of gratitude in a Japanese culture than that of a Thai culture. Japanese psychologists studying gratitude generally assume that gratitude is a mixture of positive and negative emotions that are evoked from receiving favors (Ikeda, 2006; Kuranaga & Higuchi, 2011; Naito & Sakata, 2010; Naito, et al.).

Further, Naito and Sakata (2010) translated the GQ and reported adequate internal consistency in the study 1 ($\alpha = .77$) and the study 2 ($\alpha = .73$). From the data of Japanese female undergraduate students, they found that positive and negative feelings from receiving help had different roles: the former related with the enhancement of prosocial motivation and the latter related with the enhancement of obligatory help toward others.

Although Naito and Sakata (2010) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients of their translated GQ, other psychometric properties of it were unknown. The Japanese version of the GQ should be validated and used for various reasons, even though it is supposed to measure only positive emotions of Japanese gratitude. First, as long as I am aware of, there is no Japanese measurement that is published in journals and supposed to measure dispositional gratitude. Second, the Japanese version of the GQ with sound psychometric properties is essential in order to facilitate further development of gratitude research in Japan. Third, such a measurement can promote international and cross-cultural comparisons and dialogues regarding gratitude because the GQ has been used in several different languages and cultures.

The present study tested the reliability and validity of the Japanese version of GQ. There was one research question and four hypotheses in the present study. In considering the results of Chen, et al. (2008), the factor structure of the Japanese GQ was investigated. Following the validation process of the original GQ (McCullough, et al., 2002), I hypothesized that the Japanese GQ would (1) be negatively correlated with negative affect and positively correlated with happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive affect, and (2) indicate acceptable levels of Cronbach's alpha and (3) test-retest reliability.

In order to demonstrate discriminant validity of the GQ, McCullough, et al. (2002) exhibited that the two correlated factor solution was superior to the one factor solution in accounting for the covariances among the combination of the GQ items and items of each relevant scale. Accordingly, as the fourth hypothesis, the two correlated factor solution for the combination items of each relevant scale (i.e., happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive and negative affect) and the items of GQ would demonstrate better model fit than the one factor solution.

Method

Participants

The 130 Japanese participant sample consisted of 41 men, 82 women, with 7 participants not indicating their gender (*M* age = 20.4, *SD* age =1.6, age range: 18-27). All participants are undergraduate students at a liberal arts college in Miyazaki, Japan.

Materials

Gratitude. The GQ has already demonstrated sound psychometric properties in English-speaking adult samples (e.g., Kashdan, Mishra, Breen, & Froh, 2009; McCullough, et al., 2002; Wood, Joseph, & Maltby, 2009). As can be seen in Table 1, there are six items and each is rated from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) in a Likert-type scale. After obtaining permission to develop a Japanese version of the GQ from the authors of the GQ, a translation assistant with proficiency in English and I translated it to Japanese, then revised it five times to create more natural Japanese sentences. Then, it was back-translated to English by a bilingual English speaker who is an instructor of English and Linguistics with Japanese undergraduate students. Finally, the translation assistant and I confirmed the equivalence between the original and the back-translated versions. Participants rated each item in the same way as the original GQ did.

Hope. The Hope Scale (Snyder, et al., 1991) has 12 items. Among them, eight items are intended to measure two dimensions of hope: agency and passways, and with the four remaining items being fillers. The dimension of agency refers "a sense of successful determination in meeting goals in the past, present, and future" (Snyder, et al., 1991, p. 570) and the dimension of passways means "a sense of being able to generate successful plans to meet goals" (Snyder, et al., 1991, p. 570). Each item is rated from 1 (*definitely false*) to 4 (*definitely true*) in a Likert-type scale. The scale has already demonstrated excellent psychometric properties in English speaking samples (Snyder, 2000). Shinohara and Katsumata (2000, 2001) translated the scale to Japanese in order to use it for validation of their newly created KU competence scale for elementary school students (Shinohara & Katsumata, 2000) and junior high school students (Shinohara & Katsumata, 2001). From samples of 526 elementary school students and 701 junior high school students, they conducted factor analyses of the Japanese hope scale to test its construct validity. They repeatedly found two major factors that had significant loadings of the target items. They reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients as follows: .671 (agency), .651 (passways) and .760 (total score) from the elementary school student sample and .678 (agency), .657 (passways) and .754 (total score) from the junior high school student sample. Participants rated each item in the same way as the original scale did.

Subjective Happiness. Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999) developed the Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS) to measure global subjective happiness. The SHS has four items and each is rated as a 7-point Likert-type scale. In 14 studies with 2,732 participants, the scale demonstrated excellent psychometric properties. Shimai, Otake, Utsuki, Ikemi, and Lyubomirsky (2004) developed a Japanese SHS and tested its psychometric properties with 364 Japanese undergraduate students. The Japanese SHS demonstrated a coefficient alpha of .82 and a 5-week test-retest correlation coefficient of .86. Also, it exhibited adequate validity. In keeping with the hypothesis, a latent factor that had significant loadings from all the items emerged from a factor analysis. It correlated positively with self-esteem and positive health and negatively with physical symptoms, anxiety and sleeplessness, problems in social activity, and depression. Participants rated each item in the same way as the original SHS did.

Life Satisfaction. Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin (1985) created the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS), which has five items that are supposed to measure cognitive aspects of subjective well-being. Each item is rated from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) in a Likert-type scale. The scale's reliability and validity have already been established by many studies (see Pavot & Diener, 1993, for a review). Sumino (1994) translated the SWLS to Japanese and tested its psychometric properties in five different studies with Japanese samples. The factor analysis found a latent factor with significant loadings from all the items, as it was hypothesized. The construct validity was demonstrated with significant correlations with five relevant scales (e.g., happiness, self-esteem, depression). The Japanese SWLS evidenced sound internal consistency in 200 undergraduate sample ($\alpha = .84$) and 72 middle-age adult sample ($\alpha = .90$). It exhibited a test-retest correlation coefficient of .80 with a 4-week interval. Participants rated each item in the same way as the original SWLS did.

Optimism. The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) by Scheier, Carver, and Bridges (1994), has ten items and each item is rated from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*) in a Likert-type scale. Among these items are four filler items. It demonstrated sound internal consistency ($\alpha = .78$) and test-retest correlation coefficients that ranged from .56 (24

months) to .79 (28 months). The LOT-R evidenced high correlations with the scales of self-mastery, anxiety, self-esteem, and neuroticism. Regarding the results of factor analyses, they reported two different solutions: one factor model and two factor model. Although Scheier, et al. supported the former because they viewed "optimism and pessimism as opposite poles of the same dimension" (p. 1076), both models "provided an acceptable fit to the observed data" (p. 1076). The LOT-R has established solid psychometric properties in various studies (see Carver, Scheier, & Segerstrom, 2010, for a review). Sakamoto and Tanaka (2002) developed a Japanese version of the LOT-R and tested its psychometric properties using 668 Japanese undergraduate students. Each item of the Japanese LOT-R is rated from 1 (*do not think so at all*) to 5 (*strongly think so*) in a Likert-type scale. They reported a coefficient alpha of .62 and a test-retest correlation coefficient of .84 with a 3-week interval. Results of the CFA indicated superior model fit of the two factor solutions over the one factor solution. Sakamoto and Tanaka (2002) admitted that they could not support the two factor solutions strongly due to a high correlation between the two factors (r = -.79). Hashimoto and Koyasu (2011) conducted the CFA of the Japanese LOT-R using 337 undergraduate students and selected the one factor solution instead of the two factor solutions because of (a) low Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the two factors, (b) a high correlation between the two factors, and (c) two of the six items received influences from both factors. They reported a coefficient alpha of .61. Although the Japanese LOT-R indicated low Cronbach's alpha coefficients, it demonstrated sound construct validity (Hashimoto & Koyasu, 2011; Kawahito & Otsuka, 2010).

Positive and Negative Affect. Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) created the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) to measure both positive and negative emotions. There is a list of 20 adjectives and participants rate them from 1 (*very slightly or not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*) as their emotional state in a Likert-type scale. The PANAS is able to measure participants' emotional state of different time (e.g., this moment, today, past few days, week, past few weeks, year, and general) according to the needs of the researchers. The PANAS has already demonstrated an excellent reliability and validity in a large sample of English speakers (Crawford & Henry, 2004). Sato and Yasuda (2001) translated the PANAS and tested its validity and reliability. The factor analysis found two major factors that had significant loadings from many of the target adjectives. Nevertheless, two adjectives for negative affect were excluded due to their low loadings (i.e., lower than .30). Also, two adjectives for positive affect were excluded due to (a) negative influence on Cronbach's alpha coefficient or (b) relatively high loading on a negative affect factor. The final version of the Japanese PANAS has eight adjectives for positive affect and eight adjectives for negative affect and the participants rate each adjective from 1 (*does not apply to me at all*) to 6 (*apply to me extremely*) in a Likert-type scale. It exhibited strong internal consistency for both positive affect (α = .90) and negative affect (α = .91).

Procedure

After obtaining institutional review board approval to collect data, five other faculty members and I invited undergraduate students to participate the research. At the end of the classes, the survey sheets with relevant scales (i.e., gratitude, subjective happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive and negative affect) and the informed consent were given to students who wished to participate. When the students returned answered survey sheets, a small packet of chocolate was given to each participant in appreciation for their involvement. It took less than 20 minutes in the whole process. Four weeks later, these students were invited to fill out the GQ again. When they returned the answered GQ, another small packet

of chocolate was given again as in appreciation for their involvement. It took less than several minutes in the whole process.

Results

In order to answer the research question and test the fourth hypothesis, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) by using the AMOS version 20. In keeping with West, Finch, and Curran (1995), I chose maximum likelihood estimation because all the relevant variables did not exhibit non-normality (i.e., -2 < skewness < 2, -7 < kurtosis < 7).

Table 1 described the means, standard deviations, standardized estimates, errors for estimates, and *p* values of the six items of the GQ. Except for the sixth item, all five other items loaded significantly on a latent factor. Similar to the Chinese GQ (Chen, et al., 2008), the sixth item indicated virtually no loading (standardized factor loading = .02, *ns*). The model fit indices were as follows; $\chi^{2\,(9)} = 14.79$, $p = .10$, normed fit index (NFI) = .92, comparative fit index (CFI) = .96, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06, Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) = 50.79, and expected cross-validation index (ECVI) = 0.25. I surmised that removal of the sixth item would result a better model fit and conducted the second CFA on the remaining five items. The standardized factor loadings and *p* values for these five items did not change from the results from the first CFA. The model fit indicated improvement; $\chi^{2\,(5)} = 10.96$, $p = .05$, NFI = .94, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .08, AIC = 40.96, ECVI = 0.20. In accordance to the model fit criteria of CFA that were recommended by Stevens (1996, see pp. 402-407), I regarded the one-factor model with five items as more valid than the original one-factor model with six items. Thus, the Japanese GQ became the 5-item version.

In order to test the first three hypotheses, I calculated (a) Pearson's correlation coefficients between gratitude and the theoretically relevant variables (i.e., subjective happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive and negative affects), (b) a coefficient alpha, and (c) a test-retest correlation coefficient by using the SPSS version 19.

As shown in Table 2, the 5-item version of the Japanese GQ was negatively correlated with negative affect ($r = -.31$, $p < .01$) and positively correlated with subjective happiness ($r = .48$, $p < .01$), optimism ($r = .42$, $p < .01$), life satisfaction ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), hope (pathways) ($r = .40$, $p < .01$), hope (agency) ($r = .46$, $p < .01$), and positive affect ($r = .23$, $p < .05$). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .70 and test-retest reliability coefficient was .72 ($p < .01$) with a 4-week interval.

The comparative results of CFAs of the two correlated factor solution for the combination items of each relevant scale (i.e., subjective happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, positive affect, and negative affect) and the five items of GQ demonstrated a better model fit than the one factor solution according to the criteria of Stevens (1996). See Table 3 for details. Thus, all the four hypotheses were supported.

Discussion

After observing similar results with the Chinese GQ (Chen, et al., 2008), such as virtually no factor loading of the sixth item and a better model fit of the 5-item version GQ (GQ5) than the original GQ (GQ6), I contacted other researchers who used a translated GQ in gratitude research. No such phenomena were reported in the German version (R. T. Proyer, personal communication, February 8, 2012) and in Farsi (N. Aghababai, personal communication, February 8, 2012).

However, the Polish GQ exhibited a similar problem. The sixth item loaded only .22 and its coefficient alpha reached .67 after removal of the sixth item (M. Kossakowska,

personal communication, February 16, 2012). Dr. Takashi Naito, who used his version of the Japanese GQ in his study (Naito & Sakata, 2010), mentioned similar problems. After the back-translation procedure in Naito's study, the sixth item indicated a low loading on a latent factor and also a coefficient alpha was low. Therefore, he tried an innovative translation of the sixth item. Then, both the factor loadings of these six items and the coefficient alpha improved and reached to levels of significance (T. Naito, personal communication, February 22, 2012).

The sixth item is a reversal item and has a unique sentence structure: A subject is time. From Japanese linguistic viewpoint, this is an unusual sentence structure. The present study utilized one of the common procedures in cross-cultural research: a back-translation method with a committee (i.e., two bilinguals and a native Japanese speaker with high English ability) and decided the equivalence of the both English and Japanese versions as the first priority in the translation process. Dr. Naito speculated that such a Japanese translation of the sixth item could have been interpreted, "I ponder over the grateful actions from others thoroughly for a long time then I started to feel grateful." Thus, it could have tapped a different dimension of gratitude: thoughtful gratitude (T. Naito, personal communication, February 22, 2012).

After presenting the results of this research at the 55th Annual Meeting of the Japanese Association of Educational Psychology, Dr. Kenji Hatori kindly informed me that he also conducted the similar study to the present study (K. Hatori, personal communication, August 23, 2013). Without knowing each other, Dr. Hatori and I separately received translation permissions from Dr. McCullough (i.e., the first author of the original GQ article) and started to test reliability and validity of our own Japanese versions of GQ. Using the data from 199 Japanese undergraduate students, Hatori and Ishimura (2012) found that their GQ was significantly correlated with life satisfaction, optimism, hope, positive affect, subjective happiness, and negatively correlated with depression and envy. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .75. They also conducted an exploratory factor analysis and reported similar factor loadings of the items to the present study. Although the first, second, fourth, and fifth items loaded over .80, the third item loaded only .36 and there was virtually no factor loading of the sixth item (.06).

The researchers are responsible for presenting solid and reliable results to the public, and thereupon, cannot compromise the precision of psychological measurements that they use. The sixth item has been problematic to various versions of the GQ (i.e., English-speaking youth, and the Chinese, Japanese, and Polish versions, at least). Although an innovative translation of the sixth item may improve the psychometric qualities of the GQ, its equivalence to the original becomes questionable. Scientists should make progress with certainty, instead of moving forward with the slightest doubt. In considering all the available facts, as a tentative conclusion, I recommend using the GQ5, instead of the GQ6, to measure the dispositional gratitude of Japanese undergraduate students.

The Japanese GQ in this particular sample evidenced sound reliability: adequate internal consistency and test-retest stability. It also exhibited solid construct validity with theoretically relevant constructs (i.e., subjective happiness, optimism, life satisfaction, hope, and positive and negative affect) and discriminant validity from the results of the CFAs. In other words, the present study demonstrated that more grateful Japanese undergraduate students were happier, more optimistic, more hopeful, more satisfied with their lives, and felt more positive and less negative affect than the less grateful counterparts, as same as the American students indicated in McCullough, et al. (2002).

Although the factor loading of the third item (i.e., "When I look at the world, I don't see much to be grateful for.") was lower than the others (.28), it was retained. There were two main reasons. First, if that item was removed, the scale might lose its detection ability for

gratitude from different aspects, as Chen, et al. (2008) argued. Second, no other versions of the GQ (i.e., GQs of Chinese, Farsi, German, Polish, and the GQ for English-speaking youth) omitted the third item. In order to communicate the results of Japanese gratitude research on an international basis, the third item must be retained.

There are several shortcomings in this study. First, the sample size is small and all the participants are undergraduate students who attend a particular college in Japan. It is possible that results from this study might be created by an idiosyncrasy of the sample. Future studies using different samples are imperative. Second, the reliability and validity of the Japanese GQ for other populations (e.g., children, adolescents, senior citizens) is unknown. There should be psychometric investigations regarding use with other populations before using it with those who are not undergraduate students. Third, the Japanese GQ can measure only positive portions of Japanese gratitude. There are distinct cultural differences in the conceptualization of gratitude between English and Japanese. In such cases, development of a new scale might be indispensable and worthwhile as a future study (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997). Fourth, the present study measured gratitude with only self-reports. Future gratitude studies should utilize more diverse methods (e.g., observer reports, behavioral measurements, content analyses, and manipulations in experiments).

There are both cultural differences and similarities in gratitude. Thanks to wide usages of the GQ in various languages and countries, it is possible for the researchers around the world to discuss one of the significant aspects of gratitude: a response tendency of positive emotions that are evoked by the help from others. I recommend researchers to use scores from the GQ5 when making cross-cultural comparisons of gratitude, due to problems with the sixth item. The "psychology" we learn and teach in colleges and universities worldwide is mainly based on results from the samples in North American and European countries. I believe that psychology should advance to a new stage that encompasses all the people in this small planet. The GQ would become an excellent tool for researchers in facilitating international and cross-cultural dialogues regarding gratitude, one of the important virtues of our species.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and the Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Each Item of the GQ

GQ Item	*n*	*M*	*SD*	Standardized estimate	*p*
1. I have so much in life to be thankful for.	130	6.50	0.71	.85 (.14)	< .001
2. If I had to list everything that I felt grateful for, it would be a very long list.	130	5.98	1.21	.80 (.54)	< .001
3. When I look at the world, I don't see much to be grateful for.	130	2.37	1.53	.28 (2.1)	.003
4. I am grateful to a wide variety of people.	130	5.59	1.37	.49 (1.4)	< .001
5. As I get older I find myself more able to appreciate the people, events, and situations that have been part of my life history.	130	6.02	1.26	.60 (1.0)	< .001
6. Long amounts of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone.	129	4.67	1.66	.02 (2.7)	.803

Note. Item 3 and 6 are reverse scored. Values in parentheses are errors for estimates.

Table 2

Psychometric Properties of the Major Variables and Their Correlations

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	α	1	2	3	4a	4b	5	6	7
1. Gratitude	130	29.7	4.20	.70	1.00							
2. Life Satisfaction	123	19.1	6.56	.83	.47**	1.00						
3. Optimism	123	19.0	4.25	.69	.42**	.47**	1.00					
4a. Hope (Pathways)	123	11.7	2.03	.68	.40**	.48**	.36**	1.00				
4b. Hope (Agency)	123	11.2	2.37	.77	.46**	.65**	.47**	.66**	1.00			
5. Subjective Happiness	122	19.5	4.16	.81	.48**	.68**	.61**	.51**	.56**	1.00		
6. Positive Affect	114	25.7	7.97	.87	.23*	.44**	.31**	.46**	.47**	.45**	1.00	
7. Negative Affect	114	19.5	8.42	.88	-.31**	-.37**	-.42**	-.24**	-.21*	-.41**	-.06	1.00

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Comparison of One Factor Solution With Two Correlated Factors Solution for Each Combined Scale

Combined Scales	χ^2	*df*	*p*	NFI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC	ECVI	*r*
1a. Gratitude & Life Satisfaction (1)	127.36	35	< .001	.73	.78	.11	187.36	0.91	
1b. Gratitude & Life Satisfaction (2)	53.66	34	.017	.88	.95	.05	115.66	0.56	.59***
2a. Gratitude & Happiness (1)	154.42	27	< .001	.65	.68	.15	208.42	1.01	
2b. Gratitude & Happiness (2)	61.94	26	< .001	.86	.91	.08	117.94	0.57	.48***
3a. Gratitude & Optimism (1)	132.51	44	< .001	.63	.70	.10	198.51	0.96	
3b. Gratitude & Optimism (2)	63.49	43	.023	.82	.93	.05	131.49	0.64	.44***
4a. Gratitude & Hope (Agency) (1)	124.61	27	< .001	.68	.71	.13	178.61	0.86	
4b. Gratitude & Hope (Agency) (2)	72.99	26	< .001	.81	.86	.09	128.99	0.62	.54***
5a. Gratitude & Hope (Passways) (1)	91.94	27	< .001	.69	.74	.11	145.94	0.71	
5b. Gratitude & Hope (Passways) (2)	47.28	26	.007	.84	.92	.06	103.28	0.50	.47***
6a. Gratitude & Positive Affect (1)	262.66	65	< .001	.59	.64	.12	340.66	1.65	
6b. Gratitude & Positive Affect (2)	127.96	64	< .001	.80	.88	.07	207.96	1.01	.27**
7a. Gratitude & Negative Affect (1)	302.14	65	< .001	.58	.62	.13	380.14	1.84	
7b. Gratitude & Negative Affect (2)	163.71	64	< .001	.77	.84	.09	243.71	1.18	-.22*

Note. Values in parentheses are numbers for factor solution. Happiness means subjective happiness. NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; ECVI = expected cross-validation index; *r* = correlation between two latent factors; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Appendix

日本語版感謝尺度

以下の基準を手引きとして使い、あなた自身がどれくらい各陳述に当てはまるかを 示すために各陳述の横に数字を記入してください。

1 = まったく当てはまらない
2 = 当てはまらない
3 = あまり当てはまらない
4 = どちらともいえない
5 = 少し当てはまる
6 = 当てはまる
7 = 大変よく当てはまる

_____1. 私には自分の人生の中で感謝することがたくさんある。

_____2. もし、自分が感謝を感じていることを全てリストにあげなければならないならば、それはとても長いリストになるだろう。

_____3. 私が世の中を見るとき、感謝すべきことはあまり見当たらない。

_____4. 私は広範囲にわたる多種多様な人々に感謝している。

_____5. 年齢を重ねるにつれて、私は自分の人生の一部分となってきた人々、出来事、状況について、自分自身がより感謝ができるようになっていることを発見する。

Changes in English Language Teaching: An Interview with Hironobu Tomitaka, Miyazaki Prefecture Board of Education, Educational Policy Division

Julia Christmas

Introduction

English language education in Japan, always an area fraught with controversy, is receiving even more scrutiny in the last several years due to major Ministry of Education (MEXT) Course of Study guideline changes. One of these changes asks English language teachers to conduct their classes predominantly through English (MEXT, 2010) (rather than simply teaching about English language forms via the medium of Japanese) and the other major curricular change has made English language activities a required subject in the 5th and 6th grades of primary school—a requirement that will soon be lowered to the 3rd grade (MEXT, 2010, p.8; Clavel, 2014a). These revisions, particularly those affecting elementary education have garnered focus from the media (Clavel, 2014a; 2014b) as well as from scholars who approve of the more communication-oriented focus that these modifications could bring to secondary schools but do not anticipate great differences unless shifts also

occur in university entrance testing (Clavel, 2014b).

Knowledge regarding these national curricular changes is useful for universities, like ours, that are involved in professional development (workshops, lectures, presentations) for elementary and secondary in-service teachers of English because it is essential that professional development instructors have up-to-date information in order to meet the needs of participants. It is hoped that the following interview will

help to inform professional development programs at Miyazaki International College and other universities with similar programs and that this discussion can add to the body of knowledge we have already gathered on the circumstances and needs of primary and secondary teachers in Miyazaki.

Background on the Interviewee: Hironobu Tomitaka

Q: What is your background? How long have you been working for the Prefecture?

A: I used to be a high school English teacher. I started teaching English at Miyazaki Nishi senior high school and worked there for 8 years. Then I moved to Nobeoka senior high school and taught English there for ten years. After that, I was transferred to the Personnel Division of the Prefectural Board of Education, completely away from English education for 4 years. Then I became an English Teachers' Consultant at the Prefectural In-Service Training Center, (*Kyoiku Kenshu Center*). After that, I came to the Educational Policy Division and this is my 4th year here.

Q: Can you describe your role/job working for the Prefectural Board of Education?

A: I work in the high school education section which is in charge of prefectural high school education. Within this section, we are responsible for our respective subjects such as math or science, and I'm in charge of English. One aspect of this role is professional development. For instance, we visit ten high schools a year out of 39 schools, to observe classes and to give advice to improve teaching. To be more specific about English education, I have a responsibility to carry out the *English Education Improvement Project* by planning lectures and workshops for teachers.

Q: How many, on average, workshops do English Teachers get?

A: It depends on the length of service. Professional development requirements change depending on how long a teacher has been teaching in schools. First year teachers may have to attend four days per year, and this will go down after the first year. In addition, the types of professional development also change based on their length of experience teaching. Also, professional development is required by local prefectures (nationally MEXT specifically indicates that first year and tenth year teachers must take part in professional development) but not connected to pay raises. Every year, throughout the year, there are also non-required professional development courses and programs that are available for teachers. Basically, all these programs are developed and carried out by the Prefectural In-Service Training Center.

I also planned the in-service training for English teachers as part of our prefecture's project which is separate from the Prefectural In-Service Training Center projects but also required. We require principals from each school in Miyazaki Prefecture to send one teacher to our high school seminars. For the elementary and junior high school seminars the budget is a bit too tight, so we require teacher attendance from 30 handpicked schools. Typically, the required attendance is rotated; so different teachers can have an opportunity to attend.

There are two kinds of professional development seminars/workshops going on now which have been developed by my department. One is a seminar about *CAN-DO lists* (Based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), which are long term goals for students and teachers. The other is a Teaching Skills Development Seminar at MIC.

Q: Can you tell me more about the *English Education Improvement Project*?

Every year, MEXT asks each prefecture to find ways, aside from the required professional development, to improve their English Education programs in schools. They also offer funding to prefectures which need it and this is where my department gets its budget that allows us to carry out the two types of professional development workshops we run including those done in cooperation with MIC. We think that teaching English in English is a rather big issue for teachers and thus we have enlisted MIC's help to strengthen teachers' skills in this area.

Q: Could you explain the changes in the high school English curriculum that have occurred because of the "New Course of Study"?

A: New Courses of Study have been implemented for all levels of education, from Kindergarten to high school. This year, 2013, the implementation of the New Course of Study for senior high school has taken place. The biggest change is the use of English in class. The New Course of Study states, "classes, in principle, should be conducted in English in order to enhance the opportunities for students to be exposed to English, transforming classes into real communication scenes. Consideration should be given to use English in accordance with the students' level of comprehension (MEXT, 2010, p.8)."

Q: The New Course of Study tells us that English classes "in principle" should be taught in English. Do you think that is realistic? What is holding English teachers back from teaching English in English?

A: This is the first time for a statement like "classes should be conducted in English" to be officially included in a written document. This doesn't mean that the English teacher alone speaks English and explains language rules and grammatical points in English.

This ("Classes, in principle, should be conducted in English.") is important for both teachers and students. Students should be given enough opportunities to share, write, and talk about their ideas and opinions in English.

I think most teachers are capable of teaching English in English. There are some reasons or excuses teachers often mention, such as; my students are not good at English so they can't understand spoken English; entrance exams should change first, and so on. In my experience, teachers tend to teach English as they were taught, because they were successful English learners when they were high school students and believe they should follow a proven example. It seems very difficult for teachers to change their way of teaching because they are worried about whether they will succeed or fail by teaching differently.

d) Do you think that entrance exams are a barrier to learning English communication?

Maybe they are a barrier to teaching English communicatively. If we look at what the entrance exams measure, there is no spoken test—no interview. The Center Test includes listening, which has a good "backwash" effect on those who prepare their students to take the test. When I was teaching, the Center Test did not include a listening section, so I didn't need to make my students practice that skill, but now schools have to train students in listening. This can help improve students' listening comprehension. So everyone involved sees the Center Test as having strong influences on teacher practices. Teachers at highly academic secondary schools believe that they have to cover all of the grammatical items that will appear on the Center Test and that they need time to explain and go over homework. Few teachers give time for a balanced approach to language learning. However I believe that if students are offered a balanced approach, more

English will actually be acquired. It will stay with them longer. So, actually teaching in a balanced way can help them succeed on the Center Test. But in order to do this, teachers (both ALTs and JTEs) need common goals. That is where the Can-Do list and alternative assessment such as performance assessment, not just paper-based assessment and scoring will be helpful.

Q: Schools lose English "oral communication courses". How will that affect the roles of ALTs and JTEs? I mean typically, "oral communication courses" were the places where ALTs had time to teach more "communication" or "conversation" based lessons.

A: The subjects in the previous Course of Study consist of English I and II, and skill-based Oral Communications, Reading and Writing. It is true that most team-teaching classes have been done in Oral Communications because the subject goals of these communication courses are clear, to teach more communication, as you pointed out.

The new subjects are *English Communication, English Expression* and *English Conversation*. It is expected that students will develop a balance among the 4 skills, as well as logical thinking and expressions. Before the New Course of Study the required subject was either *English I* or *Oral Communication I*, but under the New Course of Study, all students will have to take "*English Communication I*" for integrative and overall development of the 4 skills.

It is becoming more and more important to set teaching goals and to use these goals to think about how to teach English and how to evaluate student achievements. It will also be important to think about in what stage or capacity ALTs can be made the best use of in the classroom.

Many academic high schools seem to have adopted the strategy of team-teaching with ALTs in the subject "English Expression I." The main reason for this is that as the subject name suggests, this class includes communication activities such as writing and speaking. Another reason is that this subject has 2 classes a week which generally fits the ALTs and JTEs schedule and working hours.

Q: I know part of your job entails managing ALTs. How many ALTs are there in Miyazaki (City) and Prefecture?

A: The Prefectural Board of Education has employed 36 ALTs this year and there are about 90 ALTs in the Municipal Board of Education.

Q: I also know that you are involved with training for ALTs in Miyazaki Prefecture. What kind of training do the ALTs in Miyazaki get? Has that been different in the past? Will it change in the near future? What training could enhance the ALT/JTE team teaching situation?

A: Training for ALTs has been much the same for the past several years. When the new ALTs first arrive in summer, they have a one-day orientation, where they are given a general picture of English language education in Miyazaki. Prefectural and Municipal ALTs are grouped separately to observe TT demonstration and practice planning a lesson. This year ALTs were also given tips for coaching English debate and speech contests, which is one of the roles of the ALT at school.

Students at respective schools, especially high schools, have different attitudes and achievements in English, so ALTs are expected to have on the job training at each school.

In January, we have the ALT Skill Development Conference for all JET programme ALTs.

About 63 ALTs, not only the new comers but also ALTs in their 2nd year and beyond, and about 32 JTEs get together. The program includes a key note lecture and several workshops; team-teaching demonstrations, teaching strategies discussion sessions and lifestyle information forums. Last year two English teachers' consultants, Mr. Ishii and I, were in charge of the key note lecture. We believed that it was necessary and important for ALTs to understand the New Course of Study and how they can facilitate team-teaching under the New Course of Study.

We are always looking for and thinking about ways to further improve the training of ALTs and JTEs.

Q: In your opinion, based on your knowledge of the challenges of team teaching and teaching English in English, how could the kenshu system or the system in general be improved?

A: I think it is important for JTEs and ALTs to share common teaching goals. What kind of English abilities are students supposed to have by the end of the school year or at the end of their three years.

I also think that teachers should experience how to learn English in English as a student and feel successful in classroom activities. They should sometimes wear the student's hat. It also seems effective for teachers to experience microteaching and have discussions about these demonstrations, sharing problems, ideas and solutions.

Q: MIC works with the BOE to augment your English teacher *kenshu* (professional development) program. What advice would you give to other prefecture Boards of Education who are trying to develop *kenshu* projects in cooperation with other universities?

A: I appreciate your support and cooperation for the English teacher kenshu program in Miyazaki. Those who participated in the seminar enjoyed workshops conducted by MIC teachers. I think we are lucky to have MIC in Miyazaki because of its human resources, i.e. native speakers of English who teach English in English on daily basis.

My advice to other prefectures would be to find and make use of these and other resources available, to continue improving English Education in Japan.

Q: Can you offer any other specific advice, e.g. how to make sure the universities have access to information about the realities of classroom teaching situations in elementary, junior high and high schools in Japan?

There are two ways that could work. One is to take advantage of the "fuzoku" attached schools that are open to your university. If there are open channels between schools, professors can go and observe classes and you can also offer professional development for junior high or high school teachers similar to what is being done at Miyazaki Daigaku. Another way is to offer voluntary workshops or seminars for teachers in the prefecture. They would have to be done on weekends, but it is possible to attract teachers who want to improve their skills for teaching English in English.

Conclusions and further advice

At MIC we can offer, through professional development, more opportunities for teachers to learn about communicative practices in classroom ESL. It goes without saying, however, that it is essential for us, and those at other institutions to have a clear picture of the teaching situations of participants in our professional development activities. General needs analysis and specific surveys of teacher perceptions should be

thoroughly taken into account when deciding specific content. Current literature that is available in English language mediums may not be accurate because of changes in the national Course of Study or never have been an accurate reflection of one's local schools (Matheny, 2005; Aline & Hosoda, 2006). Therefore it is wise to make use of the resources available through liaisons with local and prefectural boards of education. It is a disservice to already very busy teachers to offer workshops that do not meet their situational needs. Teachers may balk during professional development workshops when they encounter hands-on activities which they were not expecting (Moser et al, 2012) however this is very different from teachers' justified unwillingness to take part in professional development that is not designed with an eye to specific in-service needs (Hiramatsu, 2005).

This interview has been undertaken in the hopes that it can offer some insight into the current situation regarding changes in the national curriculum for secondary English language teachers in Japan and professional development contexts in Miyazaki Prefecture.

The trend in English language education in Japan is now leaning toward the communicative side of the pendulum. Thus, teachers at the university level who have long been making use of good practices in communicative language teaching can offer assistance to elementary and secondary veterans who are struggling with the dramatic remodeling of the national Course of Study. However, we can only help them if we are well-aware of both the guidelines and what skills need to be bolstered.

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A Corpus-Based Study of Attitudes towards Children in Hilary Mantel's *Every Day Is Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

Johanna Sandberg

Abstract

This paper applies corpus-based methods to a stylistic analysis of the first two novels of one of Britain's foremost contemporary writers, Hilary Mantel. The hypothesis tested is that the two novels, *Every Day Is Mother's Day* (1985) and its sequel, *Vacant Possession* (1986), express a particularly negative attitude towards children. The concordance program *Antconc* is used to calculate frequencies, plot distributions, and identify collocations, and the British National Corpus (BNC) is used as a reference corpus. The results show that the lemmas MOTHER, MUM, FATHER, DAD, CHILD, BOY and BABY occur more frequently in the two novels than in the BNC or, with the exception of FATHER and BOY, in the BNC fiction subcorpus, and that they are distributed evenly throughout the texts. The study also shows that most adjective collocates pre-modifying CHILD in the novels are either neutral or have negative connotations, while most of the top 50 pre-modifying adjective collocates in the BNC fiction subcorpus are neutral or positive.

Keywords: Mantel, Hilary; corpus stylistics; children; connotation

Introduction

British writer Hilary Mantel is the author of eleven novels and a substantial body of essays, articles, and autobiographical writings. Her work has been well-received by critics and readers alike (her Man Booker prize-winning novel *Wolf Hall* was also that year's popular favourite at the bookmakers), and she is the only woman ever to have received the prestigious Man Booker prize twice (in 2009 and 2012). In spite of this success, very little critical work has been done on her novels. Her autobiographical writing and her writings on illness have garnered some attention (see for example Gilmore 2012), as has her historical novel *Wolf Hall* and its sequel *Bring Up the Bodies* (Mosely 2010 and 2013), but the remainder of her work has been largely ignored by literary scholars. While this may not be unusual for a contemporary writer, it is peculiar that more than three decades of literary production should have received so little attention when it is generally acknowledged to be so good. In a 1996 review in *The New York Times* of Mantel's *An Experiment in Love*, for example, Margaret Atwood described her as "an exceptionally good writer" and the novel as "haunting" due to "its brilliance, its sharpness, and its clear-eyed wit". In another review in the same paper, Francine Prose referred to Mantel's writing as "smart, astringent and marvellously upsetting". However, the paucity of scholarly discussion is one of the reasons why other

analytical approaches are particularly useful in a study of Mantel's work.

The use of electronic corpora is a comparatively new concept in linguistics and an even newer one in stylistics, a field which links linguistics and literary studies. Although pre-electronic corpora go back centuries,[1] few literary texts outside of Shakespeare were considered important enough for the painstaking work of compiling concordances by hand. With the advent of computers the creation and analysis of corpora has been facilitated, and the field of corpus linguistics has grown rapidly over the past few decades. However, computer-aided corpus methods have been slow to catch on among literary critics who, as Miall (1995) put it, rarely use computers for anything beyond word processing. Nevertheless, as Fischer-Starcke (2010) has pointed out, one of the main advantages of corpus stylistics is the fact that it can help identify "language patterns which are objectively in the data" which can, and this is significant in the case of Mantel, provide insights that are not only "neutral", but "independent of . . . previous knowledge of the reception of the work or of genre conventions" (p. 6). Since little research has been done on Mantel, corpus-based methods thus provide much needed data to support and supplement the interpretation and analysis provided by close reading. These circumstances also satisfactorily answer what Fischer-Starcke (2010) has

[1] The first Bible concordance, for example, was completed in 1230 and Samuel Ayscough's *Index to the Remarkable Passages and Words Made Use of by Shakespeare* was published in 1790.

described as a fundamental issue in corpus stylistics: "the question whether the effort to analyse a text in its electronic form is necessary and useful, or whether the analyses are mainly interesting because they use modern technologies" (24). Computer technology has been known to cause exaggerated enthusiasm and unrealistic expectations, and corpus methods are sometimes used simply because they can be. In Mantel's case, however, the electronic approach is justified, at least in part, by the absence of more traditional commentary.

The Mantel Corpus

This paper will focus on an analysis of Mantel's first two published novels, *Every Day Is Mother's Day* (1985)[2], and its sequel *Vacant Possession* (1986). The first is set in 1974, the second approximately ten years later, and both focus on three families: the Sidneys, the Axons, and the Fields. Colin and Sylvia Sidney and their three (later four) children are linked to the Axons via Colin's spinster sister Florence who lives in their childhood home, where she has been caring for their elderly and ailing mother. Next door live Evelyn Axon, a widowed medium, and her grown-up daughter Muriel who is either "half mad or half-witted" (Mantel, 1985, p. 119). The third family becomes

[2] Hereafter referred to as *Mother's Day.*

involved when social worker Isabel Fields is assigned a new client (Muriel) and starts an affair with a married man (Colin), while her father impregnates a woman after a brief liaison in a park (Muriel again). The first novel ends with the deaths of Muriel's new-born child and her mother, Muriel's admission to a mental institution, and the Sidneys' move into the house vacated by the Axons. In *Vacant Possession* matters are complicated further when Colin and Sylvia's eldest daughter Suzanne, now an undergraduate, returns home pregnant after an affair with Isabel Field's husband, and Muriel is released from the institution where she has been kept for the past ten years, intent on revenge.

While the two novels are at times hilarious, they are pervaded by a sense of gloom and despair. Hauntings, madness, abuse, murder and malice abound. These themes are by no means limited to *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*; in fact they recur throughout Mantel's work. Prose (1997) has described two of Mantel's later novels as "witty" and "disturbing", and that would in fact be a fairly accurate description of most of her writing; in the words of another reviewer, "Mantel manages to make us laugh even as our hair stands on end" (O'Conner, 2000). This is true also of *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*, and in the brilliant confusion of comedy, tragedy and horror which ensues, one important aspect of the two novels is in danger of being

overlooked: an extremely negative view of children.

Many of the relationships described in the two novels occur between parents and children. Colin, for example, is both the disillusioned father of his own noisy brood and the rather neglectful son of a hospitalized elderly mother. Similarly, Isabel's father is a constant worry to her, and Muriel murders both her mother and her own new-born child. However, most of these relationships are between adults and their parents. The only children in the novels are the Sidneys', and they do not play any major part as individuals in the novels until, as in Suzanne's case, they are grown. While they are young, they are simply a nuisance. This is made particularly clear through Mantel's use of free indirect discourse, a narrative technique which allows the reader access to the interiority of a wide range of characters. Mantel skips effortlessly from husband to wife to sister-in-law to neighbour to social worker, and the reader sympathises with, or is horrified by, the thoughts of each in turn. Not so with the Sydney children, however, who remain flat, undeveloped characters, available to the reader only through the eyes of the other characters: Suzanne, who as a child is no more than an occasional obstacle to her father's infidelities; Alistair, the juvenile Satanist and delinquent in the making; Karen, clever and pimply; and Claire, the annoying Brownie.

These claims are, however, based entirely on subjective intuition and

interpretation. The aim of this paper is thus to discover whether, in the absence of a body of literary scholarship, a corpus-based analysis of the two novels can provide evidence for the claim that children, although superficially not the main focus of the two novels, are in fact central to them, and that children, as well as adult attitudes towards them, are portrayed in an over-whelmingly negative manner.

Material and Methods

The sources used in this study were ebook versions of the two Mantel novels, converted into .txt files. All paratext such as blurbs, publishing details and biographical information was deleted, as were repetitions of the titles. The texts were then analysed using *Antconc*, a freeware concordance program that can be used, for example, to calculate word frequencies, show keywords in context (KWIC), generate keyword lists, plot the distribution of words in texts, and identify clusters of words (N-Grams). Since "individual texts can be explained only against a background of what is normal and expected in general language use" (Stubbs, 2005, p. 5) the results were then compared to a reference corpus. *The British National Corpus* (BNC) was chosen for this purpose as Mantel is a British writer and the two novels under consideration were written during the time period covered by the BNC (1980s to 1993). The BNC contains approximately

100 million words, 90% from written texts and 10% from speech transcripts, and aims to be as representative of modern British English as possible. The written section includes samples from newspapers, popular and academic periodicals and journals, fiction and non-fiction books, as well as letters, memoranda and essays, while the speech samples cover a range of genres, contexts and demographical groups (McEnery, Xiao & Tono, 2006).

There are a number of different ways to electronically analyse literary texts. Wynne (2005) mentions two common techniques used in electronic stylistics: "corpus annotation" and "analysis of collocation" (p. 1). Corpus annotation usually entails the tagging of a corpus for parts of speech, i.e. assigning each word a grammatical tag, but semantic, prosodic and other types of annotation are also carried out. However, due to the limited scope of this paper, the two Mantel texts were neither tagged nor annotated. Instead, the focus was on studying "literary effects . . . by using the evidence of language norms in a reference corpus" (Wynne, 2005, p. 3), and especially by analysing and comparing the use of collocations, multi-word items that frequently co-occur.

First, a simple frequency search was carried out to examine whether the parent-child relationship could be shown empirically to be of major concern in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*. The text files of the two novels were searched for specific

words from this lexical field using *Antconc*. The words chosen were the lemmas MOTHER, FATHER, BABY, and CHILD, as well as the more colloquial MUM, DAD and KID, and the gender-specific BOY and GIRL.[3] For comparison, a similar search was made both in the whole of the BNC and the BNC fiction subcorpus. The interface chosen to search the BNC was the Brigham Young University version of the corpus created by Mark Davies.

Secondly, a distribution analysis was carried out. As Stubbs (2005) has pointed out, "textual frequency is not the same as salience", and one problem with counting words is that they may not be evenly distributed throughout the text (p. 11-12). High frequency words may for instance be used exclusively by one character, or in only one section of the text. The *Antconc* Concordance Plot tool was therefore used to assess the distribution of the four lemmas most frequent in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*, MOTHER, FATHER, CHILD and BABY.

As the main hypothesis to be tested was that Mantel's novels demonstrate particularly negative attitudes towards children, an additional search was made for adjective collocations with the node words *child* and *children*, again using *Antconc*. Since the text files of the two novels are not POS-tagged, a search was made for

[3] In this paper, *lemma* refers to the singular and plural forms of nouns.

adjective collocates functioning both as premodifiers and predicatives. The list produced was manually examined, and all irrelevant concordance lines discarded. Due to the very low frequency of predicative adjective collocates, the focus in this study was on premodifying adjectives. Moreover, as "collocations create connotations" (Stubbs, 2005, p.14), a semantic analysis of the adjective collocates and their contexts was then performed to determine whether they had negative or positive connotations, or were used as neutral descriptors. Negative connotations were defined as those reflecting a negative attitude towards children, and vice versa. This type of categorization is inevitably subjective. Therefore, I was conservative in my evaluation, and adjectives of only vaguely negative or positive connotation were placed in the neutral category. Finally, the BNC fiction subcorpus was searched for adjective collocates with the lemma CHILD in order to compare the findings from the novels with a larger corpus of texts within the same genre.

Results and Discussion

Frequency

The results of the first frequency search are presented in Table 1. Although singular and plural forms of nouns often occur in different contexts (Lindquist, 2009), they have

been grouped together here as the objective of the comparison is simply to establish whether the search terms occur more frequently in the novels than in other texts.

GIRL occurred quite frequently in the Mantel texts (116 tokens), but a closer look at the context revealed that it was used predominantly to refer to young women, as in: "Let's have a kitty, girls,' she called. The girls fumbled in their bags, tossed five-pound notes into the centre of the table." *(Mantel, 1986,* p. 63). In fact, only 18 occurrences of *girl* referred to children. The BNC concordance lines showed similar results: *Janet's a lovely girl. We get on well together.* (tabloid); *it does not become a girl to live with a master who has no lady for her to wait upon* (drama); *in her parents-in-law's home a girl is completely vulnerable* (non-academic social science). Since GIRL is thus not generally a part of the semantic field examined here, it has been excluded from the table below.

The results show that all the lemmas occur more frequently in the BNC fiction subcorpus than in the whole of the BNC. Moreover, with the exception of FATHER and BOY which, interestingly, are far less common in Mantel's novels than in the fiction subcorpus, all the lemmas are more frequent in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession* than in the subcorpus, and much more frequent in the novels than in the BNC as a whole. It thus seems reasonable to conclude that, from a lexical point of view, the two

Mantel novels deal more explicitly with issues involving parents, especially mothers, and children, than non-fiction texts, or even other texts within the same genre.

Table 1 Comparison of absolute and normalised frequencies in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*, the fiction subcorpus of the BNC, and the BNC.

	Mantel's novels total tokens: 154,694		**BNC fiction sub-corpus total tokens: 15,909,312**		**BNC total tokens: ~100 million**	
LEMMA	**absolute frequency**	**tokens per 1,000 words**	**absolute frequency**	**tokens per 1,000 words**	**absolute frequency**	**tokens per 1,000 words**
MOTHER	243	1.57	10,925	0.68	27,326	0.28
MUM	37	0.24	1,697	0.11	8,391	0.08
FATHER	56	0.36	10,269	0.64	23,689	0.23
DAD	29	0.30	1,981	0.12	6,576	0.06
CHILD	175	1.13	9,207	0.87	68,820	0.71
BABY	122	0.78	2,835	0.17	10,845	0.11
KID	17	0.10	1,529	0.09	5,713	0.05
BOY	10	0.06	7,507	0.47	20,227	0,21

Distribution

The *Antconc* Concordance Plot Tool was then used to determine the position of the four most frequent keywords in the novels. As the figures below illustrate, MOTHER, FATHER and CHILD are fairly evenly distributed throughout the novels, although the use of MOTHER is particularly frequent in the beginning of *Vacant Possession*, a part of the novel in which Muriel reminisces about her earlier life with her mother. BABY is less evenly distributed. Especially in *Mother's Day*, BABY is concentrated towards the end of

the novel, involving the birth and murder of Muriel's baby. Nevertheless, the overall distribution patterns indicate that the higher than normal frequency of the keywords compared with the BNC is not coincidental, but an integral part of the novels.

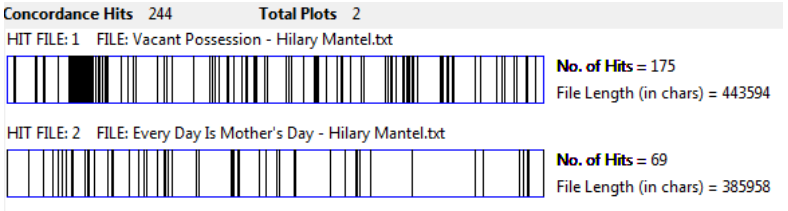

Figure 1 The distribution of MOTHER in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

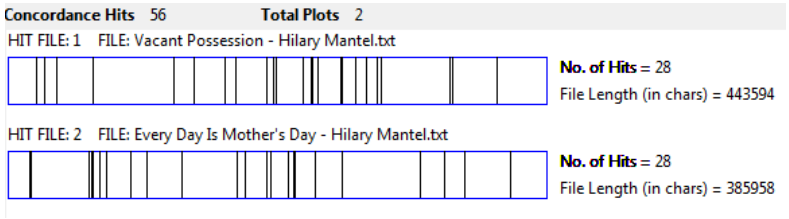

Figure 2 The distribution of FATHER in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

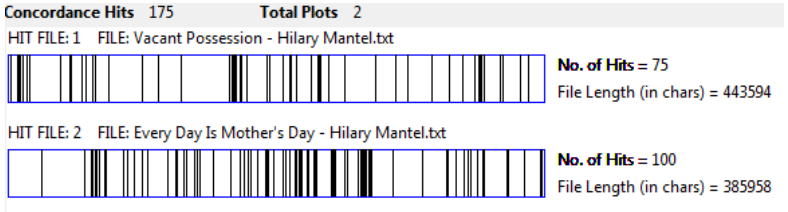

Figure 3 The distribution of CHILD in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

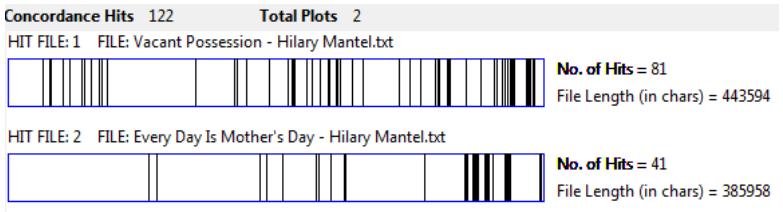

Figure 4 The distribution of BABY in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

Collocation

In order to determine whether the novels present particularly negative attitudes towards children, a search was made for premodifying adjective collocations with the node words *child* and *children*. The results are presented in Table 2. Since the Mantel corpus is very small, all the collocates (a total of 31) are listed (see Appendix A for the concordance lines). Again, the co-occurrences are presented with the singular and the plural form of the lemma grouped together as the main point of interest is not specific collocates, but their connotation. Raw frequencies are given in diamond brackets and percentages are presented in parentheses. Since it is difficult to determine the significance of raw frequency data there is also a column presenting the Mutual Information (MI) score which is a measure of collocational strength. A high MI score indicates a strong link between the node word and its collocate, while a collocation with a low score is likely to be coincidental. A score of three or higher is considered evidence that two items are really collocates (McEnery, Xiao & Tono, 2006). One drawback to the MI score is the fact that low frequency words with restricted collocations tend to get high MI scores; on the other hand it is not dependent on the size of the corpus and can thus be used to compare corpora of varying sizes (Hunston, 2002).

Table 2 Premodifying adjective collocates with CHILD in *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

Total number of pre-modifying adjective collocates with CHILD <31>					
Negative connotations <9> (29%)		**Neutral <19> (61%)**		**Positive connotations <3> (10%)**	
Raw frequency	**MI score**	**Raw frequency**	**MI score**	**Raw frequency**	**MI score**
half-witted <2>	10.10	small <2>	6.43	gifted <1>	11.10
screaming <2>	8.78	human <2>	6.75	good <1>	4.01
bad <1>	6.15	younger <2>	9.10	studious <1>	11.10
delinquent <1>	10.10	young <1>	5.22		
convulsing <1>	11.10	youngest <1>	10.10		
skeletal <1>	9.52	skinny <1>	11.10		
spiteful <1>	11.10	teenage <1>	11.10		
		brown <1>	6.58		
		chubby <1>	11.10		
		other <1>	3.77		
		schizophrenic<1>	9.52		
		half-born <1>	6.71		
		illegitimate <1>	11.10		
		untended <1>	11.10		
		half-emerged <1>	8.78		
		unbaptized <1>	11.10		

Most of the adjectives used by Mantel to modify CHILD were deemed to be neutral. In order to avoid bias in favour of my hypothesis, several words that may arguably be considered to have negative connotations in their specific contexts were included in the neutral category (they are found towards the bottom of the 'Neutral' column). Nevertheless, even judged conservatively, adjectives with negative connotations are almost three times more frequent than ones with positive connotations. Moreover, one of the positive adjectives, *gifted*, is in fact used in a negative context: "Why can't I have gifted children?" (Mantel, 1985, p. 42). Thus, one of only three positive descriptions of

children in the novels indirectly reveals a father's negative attitude towards his offspring.

As mentioned earlier, predicative adjectives are rarely used with CHILD in the two novels. For this reason, no comparison was made with the BNC. However, the fact that the few predicatives that are used to describe CHILD in the two novels are almost exclusively negative or used in a negative context (for details see Appendix B) further supports the hypothesis that attitudes towards children in the two novels are decidedly negative.

Table 3 shows the top 50 hits for premodifying adjectives that co-occur with CHILD in the BNC fiction subcorpus. As in the previous table, the adjectives have been divided into three groups, based on the connotations of each word. Raw frequencies are given in diamond brackets and percentages are presented in parentheses. There is also a column representing the MI score of each of the collocates.

In total, there are 911 occurrences of the top 50 adjective collocates in the BNC fiction subcorpus. Out of these 84% were deemed neutral, 12% positive, and 4% negative. However, closer analysis reveals that a number of these collocates have an MI score below three which means that they may be co-occurring by chance (in the table these adjectives are preceded by an asterisk). If these collocates are disregarded, the

number of instances of the top 50 adjectives premodifying CHILD falls to a total of 531, 82% of which were deemed neutral, 12% positive, and 6% negative. While the total number of adjective collocates is affected by the MI score, the proportion of them that are deemed neutral, negative or positive remains more or less the same. We may thus conclude that adjective collocates with negative connotations are markedly more frequent in Mantel's two novels than in fiction in general.

Table 3 Top 50 hits for pre-modifying adjective collocates with CHILD in the fiction subcorpus of the BNC

Total number of instances of the top 50 adjectives premodifying CHILD: <911>							
Negative connotations <38> (4%)		**Neutral <767> (84%)**				**Positive connotations <106> (12%)**	
Raw frequency	**MI score**	**Raw frequency**	**MI score**	**Raw frequency**	**MI score**	**Raw frequency**	**MI score**
naughty <14>	7.02	*only <115>	2.99	tiny <10>	3.18	dear <37>	4.16
bad <7>	*1.69	small <104>	4.34	unborn <10>	8.99	*good <14>	0.56
spoiled <7>	6.25	*other <84>	2.95	*strange <9>	2.48	innocent <13>	4.84
recalcitrant <5>	8.17	*little <68>	2.64	*human <8>	2.83	*beautiful <12>	2.82
spoilt <5>	6.27	poor <66>	5.08	handicapped <7>	8.35	*pretty <9>	2.54
		young <61>	3.74	*happy <7>	1.94	sweet <8>	3.28
		sleeping <19>	5.16	smaller <7>	4.26	*bright <5>	2.00
		frightened <15>	4.31	terrified <7>	4.70	beloved <4>	4.72
		older <15>	4.15	*thin <6>	2.34	clever <4>	3.03
		*dead <14>	2.30	*alone <5>	0.98		
		illegitimate <13>	8.60	dirty <5>	3.18		
		*lost <13>	2.16	fatherless<5>	9.62		
		younger <13>	4.40	gipsy <5>	6.12		
		youngest <13>	6.64	grown-up <5>	6.18		
		eldest <10>	6.51	lonely <5>	3.57		
		local <10>	3.40	neglected <5>	5.75		
		ragged <10>	5.70	*black <4>	0.06		
		sick <10>	3.61	curious <4>	3.19		

Conclusion

Fischer-Starke (2010) has argued that identifying linguistic patterns through electronic text analysis may help explain "intuitive reactions from readers" (p. 25). This is certainly the case with Hilary Mantel's *Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*. The two novels, which on one level deal almost exclusively with the fraught relationships between adults — husbands and wives, lovers, colleagues and neighbours — also leave the reader with a vague but uncomfortable feeling that children are central. A simple search of the Mantel corpus showed that lemmas belonging to the lexical field of the parent-child relationship are indeed more frequent in Mantel's novels than in the fiction represented in the BNC or in the BNC in general. Furthermore, although interpretation of the adjective collocates co-occurring with the lemma CHILD may vary, the overall evidence showed that the attitudes towards children expressed in the novel are largely very negative.

According to Kenny (cited in Stubbs, 2005) a computational approach to literature should yield results available only through the use of computers, as well as make a genuine contribution to literary scholarship. While parts of this study could certainly have been carried out by hand, a comparison with a reference corpus the size of the BNC would have been impossible. Furthermore, while the present study is

limited in scope it might easily be expanded, for instance by including an analysis of verb collocates used to describe both what children do and what is done to them; this would enhance its value to literary studies.

A study of this kind can be accused of circularity, a term used by Fish to describe the risk stylistics runs of selecting features we "already know are important, describ[ing] them, and then claim[ing] that they are important" (cited in Stubbs, 2005, p. 6). However, it is hoped that the corpus approach offers a valid complement to more traditional methods. While close reading of *Every Day Is Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession* must form the basis of any interpretation of the two novels, electronic text analysis does offer empirical proof that the words *child* and *children* co-occur with adjective collocates that have negative connotations more frequently in these novels than in other contemporary literary texts.

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Appendix A

Concordance lines showing premodifying adjective collocates with *child|children* in Mantel's *Every Day Is Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

1. Karen had colonised the living room. A **studious child**, she did her homework with a green felt-tipped pen,
2. sis. Deep Trance. Tell me," he says, "why couldn't I have **gifted children**? It would have been an interest for me.
3. d and grows fat. The bad child you put in the canal and the **good child** you get out are the same one, but the Devil
4. Who was it?" "It was some **half-witted child** called Tracey who it seems you've engaged as babysitter. Sh
5. babysitter, because you make arrangements with some **half-witted child** that doesn't turn up. Do you really think
6. banging at the front door. The screams and laughter of **spiteful children** rang in Evelyn's ears. She went down the
7. e neck. It was not circumstantial, not related to the **delinquent children** or the size of the mortgage. He had
8. s the Devil out; the child gets contented and grows fat. The **bad child** you put in the canal and the good child you
9. ld get fond of it. Slowly, trailing green weed, her own **skeletal child** swam to the bank. "Resurrection is a fact,"
10. isfied needs that doubled and raged inside him like a **convulsing child**; and there would be one word, and she
11. . said. The estate was shutting down for the night. The **screaming children** were tranquillised and the tipsy

wives 12-13. n gate, the front door flew open and a gang of **screaming teenage children** swarmed down the path and

14. he hands of her two **younger children**. "Thank you very much, Florence. Say thank you to you're a
15. lin went down, twitching his tie. Behind him, the three **younger children** were preparing for their day. He heard
16. ple's business would satisfy. Before the birth of their **youngest child** Claire, when they had lived on a large
17. ink that if I could contemplate leaving a woman with three **young children**, then I could leave her with four; but
18. ouse, a city house with many staircases. Half a mile away **skinny children** played in the streets. On certain days a

19-20. hed her attention back to the road. She slowed down. **Small brown children** played by the kerb, barelegged in

21. hild in the house. She was energetic enough to cope with a **small child** while Suzanne went off to finish her
22. take a firm line, stand no nonsense, and arrange to get a **human child** back. How? You find some water, a river;
23. oated her off one day in the hope of getting in exchange a **human child**. She brushed the thought away, rubbing
24. es into their chairs. "Brownies tonight," Claire said: a **chubby child,** putting out her paws for everything edible
25. to belong to you." "I'd like to think I have **other children** somewhere. Ones that aren't so particular."
26. hen I was a student I spent some time working with **schizophrenic children**. They frightened me. I used to
27. rom her musty undersea dreams to find the girl and her **half-born child** scraping at the bedroom door. What if
28. well, I don't know, some sort of responsibility, an **illegitimate child** I think, some woman he met in a park. Now
29. Flo would be found out in some lewdness, and Suzanne's **untended child** would wail from the back garden,
30. hat composite creature that would be Muriel and the **half-emerged child**; no, she could not stomach it. They
31. ed to, before they took him back to Fulmers Moor. The **unbaptised child** is the lodge of the devil; and wasn't it

Appendix B

Concordance lines showing predicative adjective collocates with *child|children* in *Every Day Is Mother's Day* and *Vacant Possession*

1-2. of her swollen body. It was as if, Evelyn thought, the **child was *withdrawn* and *inert*** as its mother. A thing. A

3. s a new approach, small numbers, a good staffing ratio. It's for **children who are *mentally ill*.**" Colin noticed the

4. e Welfare visitors used. Talk loudly; keeps matters at bay. The **child was not *deformed***, but she did not take to it.

5. ne of my colleagues returned to its parents a **child that is now *dead***, a snivelling and unappealing brat with im

6. her people's children than your own." "Oh, teachers' **children are always *worse*** than others. Their parents know

7. ant to give my child a better life. Well, it's natural." "Your **child's *dead,*** " Mr. Field said in alarm. "That's what

8. ering at them down the stairs? Baptism drives the Devil out; the **child gets *contented and grows fat***. The bad child

9. esurrection is a fact," she whispered. She drew the **child from the water; *rigid***, but not with cold. With damp and

Saizu: A Very Big Loanword in Japanese

Debra J Occhi, Yuri Arimura, Daichi Irinaka, Keisuke Kawano, Yuria Maeda, Asako Minowa, Shiori Nasu, Satomi Takimoto, and Tomohiro Yoshida

Abstract

The tradition of student-centered active learning for development of critical thinking at Miyazaki International College provides valuable opportunities for discovery in the classroom. This brief paper outlines the results of one such student project in LL3141, Topics in Linguistics, taught by Debra J Occhi in fall semester of 2013. Students were

inspired to undertake this research while reading and discussing *Language Contact Meets Cognitive Linguistics: A Case of* Getto-suru *in Japanese* (Horie & Occhi 2001). This paper reviews those findings, presents issues students found especially relevant about loanword behavior discussed in Olah (2007) and about English made in Japan (*wasei eigo*, discussed in Miller 1997), lists noun loanwords found in Japanese-English dictionaries, presents and analyzes instances of use of the loanword *saizu* (from English "size").

Introduction

Japanese learners of English must deal with loanwords and the differences between their meanings as part of their acquisition process. Most modern loanwords in Japanese come from English, and most carry a narrower meaning in the target language than in their source language. For instance, *kyatti-suru* (from English

"catch") does not share the same range of meaning in Japanese as in English; as a loanword it applies to sports, e.g., catching a ball, and to the receipt of information (Horie & Occhi, p. 23). Contrary to this overall tendency, *getto-suru* applies over a broad range of acquisition scenarios, even superseding the 'thinking for speaking' necessary to use typical Japanese donatory verbs it may replace (Horie & Occhi,13). The overall framework guiding this research is known as cognitive semantics, which is characterized in Evans & Green (2006) by four principles:

1. Conceptual structure is embodied.

2. Semantic structure is conceptual structure.

3. Meaning representation is encyclopaedic.

4. Meaning-construction is conceptualisation (p. 153).

As part of the critical thinking-based approach to reading texts, students were asked to think of other loanwords that may behave similarly to *getto* in having an atypically wide range of use. They suggested *saizu* 'size' as a candidate for investigation. As *getto* describes a basic human action of acquisition, *saizu* pertains to a basic conceptualization of objects in the world. Furthermore, as a loanword it has a wide range of usage compared to typical loanwords as does *getto suru* but is a noun. Thus it seemed like an especially good case for comparative research. This article discusses our research findings on the unusual quality of *saizu* 'saizu' as a loanword. It also

provides our students with a venue to discuss scholarly findings on loanwords and made-in-Japan English (*wasei eigo*) in context of their own experiences as Japanese learners of English.

Our research process proceeded similarly to that employed by Horie & Occhi: students brainstormed possible instances of usage and created sample sentences, generating examples to elucidate the particularities of the English loanword 'saizu' whose range of use in Japanese is not consistent with the usual pattern of loanword behavior in Japanese.

Because of its wide range of usage, we decided it was important to show where *saizu* may either overlap with other Japanese lexemes, allowing nuance, or fill a semantic gap which no existing Japanese word would fit. Students also reviewed relevant literature, and examined Japanese-English loanwords in dictionaries to find loaned nouns, separating them into these two categories: those which added semantic nuance to a category already described in Japanese, and those that added a semantic category to Japanese.

Relevant issues of loanword phenomena: student reflections

We also took this opportunity to survey relevant research on loanwords and related phenomena; students took parts they found especially useful in expanding their knowledge and reported them in the following section.

Shiori: The National Institute for Japanese Language has, since April 2003, put out four lists of *gairaigo* that they need feel to be simplified or changed. The main reason this organization gives for this practice follows from its claim that problems

arise with *gairaigo.* For instance,

older people have trouble understanding the language of younger generations who excessively use loanwords (Olah, B. 2007, p.183) In my experience, my grandparents use *saizu* but not *getto,* whereas my parents and I use both terms. For example, my grandparents almost always use *saizu* for clothes and shoes, and my parents use *saizu* for other things also like tables, TV, glasses rings, gifts and so on.

However, my grandparents don't use *getto* to replace other Japanese words like *toru* (take) *teniireru* (acquire) *mitsukeru* (find) because they aren't used to using them. My parents and I use *getto* because it is easy or fast to catch the semantics. In my opinion, using loanwords depends on the age of people from children to adults; the children use new loanwords, but also adults might use old loanwords. This means the use of loanwords varies over generations.

Asako: Loanwords are used in media sources such as TV and newspapers. We cannot often understand them. Also, loanwords should be explicitly compared to their English versions in educational settings According to the Olah article, English teachers, both Japanese and native speakers must study loanwords, and understand their semantic disparities when used in English and Japanese. Also, teachers have to teach these differences to their students. (Olah, B. 2007) According to Olah's survey, many students want to take such a technical class, and it would have two benefits. One is improving spoken English ability. The other benefit is many people would tend to understand loanwords used in the Japanese media. (Olah, B. 2007)

Yuri: There are problems with words like *OL 'ooeeru'* (office lady) that have no direct English counterpart (Olah, B. 2007). Groddol describes in detail the worldwide spread of English and points out that when the number of non-native speakers of

English is more than native speakers of English, they will have more influence on development of English than those who speak it as a first language (Olah, B. 2007). The real

number of loanwords that Japanese know means that even though loanwords can create obstruction to communicating in spoken English, they also can't be avoided when a Japanese person speaks English (Olah, B. 2007). "Negative attitudes towards loanwords could create negative attitudes towards learning English, and the converse holds as well" (Olah, B. 2007). In my opinion, we shouldn't have such a negative attitude to them because I think they may be useful things for learning English. We should refer to loanwords and *gairaigo*.

Keisuke: As Olah describes, "The loanwords used in Japanese create problems for Japanese people when they speak English because the poor pronunciation of these loanwords acts as a barrier to understanding. In addition, the meaning of some loanwords are considerably different to the English words from which they came, a semantic gap that creates further problems when Japanese speak English" (Olah, B. 2007). In my opinion, the shift from a loanword's original phonetics to the Japanese *katakana* sound makes Japanese speakers used to using this wrong pronunciation in English. Japanese doesn't have sounds like L, R, TH, V, F, etc. For example, Japanese speakers want to say "rice" but for English speakers it is difficult to catch the meaning. However, in Japan such *katakana* sounds generally permeate our culture and Japanese speakers don't mind them.

Does *saizu* do things in Japanese that size does NOT do in English?

There is a category of Japanese words that may seem like English to Japanese speakers but are not recognized as such by native English speakers. These neologisms are commonly referred to as *wasei eigo* (English made in Japan). As Miller demonstrates, "*wasei eigo* are exploited for aesthetic, expressive, humorous, playful, visual, elaborative, euphemistic and affective uses in everyday life" (1997:136). Of course, the presence of *wasei eigo* along with Eglish-based *gairaigo* (loanwords in the general sense) complicates the learning of either language as much as it points our awareness towards the processes by which new words are created. Here again, the reflections of student learners are useful.

Yuria: There are potential problems for Japanese speakers who use English words that are also loanwords in Japanese. Misunderstandings may arise because they may use Japanese pronounciation or rely on loanword meaning, both of which may differ from that of the original English term (Olah, 2007, p.180). *Suree saizu* (three sizes, BWH) is a case of this. Suree saizu is really an interesting case. Each word, "*suree* (three), *saizu* (size) come from English, and Japanese use *suree saizu* as if it was English. However, native English speakers don't use this word.
Moreover, the word, "three size" doesn't exist as English. *Suree saizu* is called " measurements" or "vital statistics" in English. Therefore, it is totally an example of *wasei-eigo*. This *wasei-eigo* would probably lead to misunderstanding, and cause the confusion when Japanese speak English. Also, there is a social matter that is related to gender. Have you considered men's *suree saizu* before? Have you ever seen a page in which men's *suree saizu* are written in magazines? Although *suree saizu* is potentially used for men and women, it is almost always a word for women. I'm wondering why this matter happens.

Tomohiro: The "Wasei Eigo" examples based on English words Idling-stop (*aidoringu sutoppu*) and Day-service (*dei saabisu*) show some similarity to *saizu suru*. *Saizu suru* is a loanword that shows about how to identify the size. In this case *saizu* is just size, and the word *suru* means 'to do something' in Japanese. The next word "Idling-stop" (*aidoringu sutoppu*) means, stop the engine of your car while you are waiting for the traffic light changes. And the word "Day-service" (*dei saabisu*) means a service to help weak people who have a health problem or to help old people every day. These words are both idioms. But, we can understand their meaning as if each is just one word. In English-speaking countries they don't have these words. So, these kinds of words are made by Japanese people, and we call them *wasei eigo*.

Student survey of loanwords in Japanese-English dictionaries

Satomi: I collected loanwords from *a* to *ha*, and found *puuru* which did not have a Japanese equivalent. This is because there perhaps was no similar object when concrete pools were imported into Japan. In addition, there are some interesting words. For example, 'can' is an English word, but Japanese has the same word in Kanji '缶'.

Kan is a genuine Japanese word, but its original meaning is 'kettle', so '缶' is made up to fit 'can'. Moreover, there are several loanwords not from English. Through this dictionary project, I came to realize that there are lots of loanwords that I thought were Japanese and also that there are loanwords that I thought were from English but are not. For example, I thought 'dilemma' or 'trauma' were perfect Japanese. Also, the word 'pan' (bread) is thought to be English in Japan, but it is Portuguese. If Japanese people say 'pan' in English, they mean 'bread', but English

speakers won't understand this term. This kind of problem is not uncommon; as the following lists of loanwords show, not all are from English.

English nouns borrowed into modern Japanese that fill in semantic gap (by Keisuke Kawano, Tomohiro Yoshida)

arcade (ake-do), Earth (a-su), art theater (a-to siata), Amen (a-men), eye shadow (ai shadou), ice cream (aisukuri-mu), ice coffee (aisu ko-hi-), ice skate (aisu suke-to), ice hockey (aisu hokkei), idol (aidoru), idea (aidea), out (auto), accordion (ako-dion), up (appu), apartment (apa-tomento), amateur (amatyua), alib i(alibai), alcohole (aruko-ru), aluminum (aruminiumu), alto (aruto), allergy (arerugii), encore (anko-ru), underwear (anda-wea), antenna (antena), unbalance (anbalansu), easy order (iiziioodaa), yes (iesu), yesman (iesman), ion (ion), evening (ibuninngu), inning (iningu), equal (ikooru), image (imeeji), earring (iyaringu), illustrator (irasutoreta), ink (inku), influenza (infuruenza), earphone (iyahon), weekend (wiikuendo), virus (uirusu), wink (uinku), wool (uuru), wave (ueibu), waist (uesuto), airmail (eamairu), ace (eesu), ego (ego), S.O.S (esu o-esu), eskimo (esukimo-), egoist (egoisut), escalator (esukareita), energy (enerugii), episode (episoodo), apron (epuron), epoch (epokku), error (eraa), elite (eriito), elevator (erebaeeta), engineer (enzinia), engine (enjin), order made (oodaamaido), aurora (oorora), office (ofisu), opera (opera), olympic (orinpikku), organ (orugan), orange (orenji), gauze (gaaze), curtain (kaaten), cade (kaado), carnival (kaanibaru), curve (kaabu), curl (kaaru), guidance (gaidansu), cowboy (kauboui), gown (gaun), counter (kauntaa), gas (gasu), cassette (kasetto), gasoline (gasorin), canoe (kanuu), glass (garasu), karennda (karendaa), calorie (karorii) , can (kan), key (kii), catcher (kyattya),captain (kyaputen), cabbage

(kyabetu), caramel (kyarameru), gang (gyangu), candy (kyandei), camp (kyanpu), quiz (kuizu), coupon (kuupon), cushion (kussyonn), club (kurabu), grauph (gurafu), ground (guraundo), cleaning (kuriiningu), cream (kuriimu), christmas (kurisumasu), clip (kurippu), grill (guriru), group (guruupu), crane (kureen), credit (crejitto), crayon (kureyon), glove (guroobu), groggy (gurokkii), grotesque (gurotesuku), cake (keiki), game (geimu), guerilla (gerira), course (koosu), coat (kooto), cord (koodo), coffee (koohii), chorus (koorasu), goal (gooru), called game (koorudogamu), gossip (gosippu), commercial (komaasyaru), comedy (komedyii), collection (korekusyon), computer (konpyuutaa), circus (saakasu), service (saabisu), size (saizu), soccer (sakkaa), sapphire (safaia), salad (sarada), saloon (saron), santa claus (sanntakurousu), sandwiches (sandoitti), sample (sanpuru), seesaw (siisou), seed (siido), journalist (zyaanarisuto), journalism (zyaanarizumu), jazz (zyazu), shirt (syatu), shovel (syaberu), junior (zyunia), short (syouto), jinx (zinkusu), switch (suitti), suit (suutu), supermarket (suupaamaaketto), superman (suupaaman), soup (suupu), skirt (sukaato), screan (sukuriin), schedulele (sukezyuuru), sketch (suketti), score (sukoa), squall (sukouru), staff (sutahu), terminal (taaminaru), tie•up (taiappu), digest (daizyesuto), dynamite (dainamaito), diving (daibingu), type (taipu), tire (taiya), diamond (daiyamondo), dial (detairu), towel (taoru), taxi (takusii), dam (damu), dance (dansu), tumbler (tanburaa), cheese (tiizu), team (tiimu), chain (tyeen), chess (tyesu), check (tyekku), cello (tyero), chicken (tikin), charming (tyaamingu), channel (tyanneru), champion (tyanpion), chewinggum (tyuuingugamu), tube (tyuubu), tulip (tyuurippu), director (derekutaa), technique (tekunikku), decoration (dekoreisyon), dessert (dezaato), designer (dezainaa), design (dezain), deathmask (desumasuku), deck (dekki), toaster (toosutaa), toast (toosuto), doughnut (doonatu), dome (doome), driver (doraibaa), drive (doraibu), tractor (torakutaa), track

(torakku), trouble (toraburu), drama (dorama), trunk (toranku), trainer (toreinaa), trophy (torofii), tunnel (tonnaru), knife (naifu), nylon (nairon), nickname (nikkunaime), news (nyuusu), name (neimu), neon (neon), net (netto), network (nettowaaku), nonfiction (nonfikusyon), bar (baa), bargain sale (baagensairu), party (paatei), partner (paatonaa), pie (pai), hiking (haikingu), pipe (paipu), high heeled (haihiiru), highlight (hairaito), pilot (pairotto), bucket (baketu), bazaar (bazaa/bazaaru), pajamas (pazyama), basket (basuketto), bust (basuto), puzzle (pazuru), butter (bataa), bag (baggu), batter (battaa), battery (batterii), bat (batto), hum (hamu), balance (baransu), hurricane (harikeen), ballet (barei), volleyball (bareibouru), hunter (hantaa), punch (panti), pumps (panpusu), piano (piano), beer (biiru), picnic (pikunikku), vitamin (bitamin), pitcher (pittyaa), vinyl (biniiru), heroine (hiroin), ping-pong (pinpon), fine play (fainpurei), foul (fauru), fastener (fasnaa), fashion (fassyion), fan (fan), filter (firutaa), film (fuirumu), pool (puuru), fair (feia), brandy (burandai), brake (bureiki), present (purezento), program (proguramu), page (peizi), base (beesu), best (besuto), veteran (veteran), pennant (penanto), veranda (beranda), helicopter (herikoputaa), bell (belu), belt (beruto), pen (pen), boycott (boikotto), point (pointo), boy (booi), pose (poozu), boat (booto), bonus (boonasu), home (hhoomu), home run (hoomuran), hall (hooru), ball (booru), boxing (bokusingu), pump (ponpu),margarine (magarin), mahjong (ma-zyan), marble (maburu), marmalade (mamaredo), microwave (maikurowebu), microfilm (maikurofyirumu), mound (maundo), mass production (masupuro), mass media (masumedia), madam (madamu), mantle (manto), mushroom (massurumu), match (mattchi), manicure (manikyua), manager (mane-zya), muffler (mafura), meeting (mi-tyingu), micro (mikuro), missile (misairu), mineral (mineralu), mood (mu-do), mechanism (mekanizumu), melody (melodyi), motion (mo-tyon), motor (mo-ta),

monitor (monita), yard (ya-do), humor (yumoa), uni-que (uniku), uniform (unifo-mu), yoghurt (yo-guruto), lard (ra-do), license (laisensu), lighter (laita), light (laito), liner (laina), rival (raibaru), radio (rajio), lucky (lakii), lap (lappu), label (laberu), rum (ramu), rally (ralii), ranking (rankingu), lantern (lantan), lunch (ranchi), laundry (randorii), runner (ranna), lamp (lanpu), ring (ringu), rookie (ruukki), loose-leaf (luzu-lifu), loop (lu-pu), room (ru- mu), radar (re-da), regular (regyura), recreation (rekure-shion), recorder (reko-da), receipt (reshiito), wrestler (resula), lettuce (letasu), lesson (lessun), rhenium (reniumu), lemonade (lemoneido), lotion (lo-shion), wine (wain), wax (wakkusu), waffle (waffuru)

English nouns borrowed into modern Japanese that fill semantic nuance: (by Daichi Irinaka)

idea (aidea, omoitsuki), amateur (syoshinsya, amatyua) comedy (owarai, komedi,) club (bukatsu, kurabu, guru-pu) equal (iko-ru, onazi) image (ime-zi,souzou,) madam (madamu, obasan, zyukuzyo),mood (hunniki, mu-do), moniter (gamen, monita-) noodle (nu-doru, ra-men) up (zyunbitaisou,appu) room (ru-mu, heya), meeting (kaigi, mi-thingu) unique (omosiroi, yuni-ku) uniform (seihuku, yunifomu) license (sikaku, raisensu, menkyo) light (akari, denki, raito) lunch (tyu-syoku, ranchi, hirumeshi) lesson (ressun, zyugyou) sos (esuo-esu, pinchi) ranking (zyuni, rankingu) ring (wakka, yubiwa, ringu) rookie (ru-ki-, nyumonsya) rival (raibaru, syukuteki) runner (ranna-, soukousya) lucky (rakki-, koun,) motion (ugoki, mo-syon) melody (merodhi-, onkai,) virus (uirusu, kansensyou) yard (ya-do, kyori) mushroom (massyuru-mu, kinoko)

There are English nouns borrowed into modern Japanese that fill semantic nuance.

Japanese has a long history of borrowing, and it continues to borrow from other language. For instance, 'image' is *imeezi*. But we can say also *souzou-suru*. Japanese has a lot of loanwords. Recently, a lot of young age people are using loanwords. However, the majority of people do not know original meanings of loanwords. They are just using these words. On the other hand, older people do not often use loanwords. If Japanese have a chance to go to study abroad or something, they may be confused by each word. We need to know original meaning of loanwords.

Usage of the English loanword *saizu* based on questionnaire responses and the popular media

Following is a set of example sentences generated by student-authors themselves or in collaboration with other students. Transcription format follows standard linguistic practice; the asterisk (*) is used to indicate that the following word or utterance is infelicitous. It appears that while *saizu* is possible for many items and circumstances, it does have constraints on usage as well.

(a) Clothing

i) *Watashi-no ti-syatsu-no (saizu/okisa)-ha M desu.*

My t-shirt of size TOP Medium is

"My T-shirt is M size."

iii) *kono jyaketto-ga mouhitotsu chisai (saizu/okisa)-dattara yokattanoni*
This jacket SU one more small size is-COND good-PAST if only

"I hope the jacket was one size smaller."

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(b) Shoes

i) *Anata-no kutsu-no (saizu/okisa)-ha nandesuka?*

your shoe size TOP what is Q

"What is the size of your shoes?"

ii) *(saizu/okisa)-wo hakaru-tameni kutsu-wo haite-mite!*

size to measure shoes wear-try to

"Try to wear the shoes for size!"

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(c) Grams/ kg

i) *Ookii L saizu -no Poteto wo itadakemasuka?*
Big L size French fries OBJ receive-POL-Q

"Can I get the L size french fries, please?"

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(d) Font

i) *Moji-no (saizu/okisa/syurui) ha 12 de essei -wo kakana-kereba narimasen.*

Word size/kinds TOP 12 essay write have to

“You have to write an essay in 12 size font.”

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(e) Length/Width/cm

i) *Watashi-ha A4-no (saizu/syurui/okisa)-no yoshi-ga hitsuyou desu.*

I TOP A4 of size/kinds of paper SU need is

“I need A4 size paper.”

ii) *Anata ha A3-no (saizu/syurui/okisa)-no baindar-wo kau-beki desu.*

You TOP A3 of size/kinds of binder buy should

“You should buy A3 size binder”

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(f) ml/package

i) *dono (saizu/okisa)-no juusu-ga ii desu ka?*

which size of juice SU good is Q

“Which size of juice do you want?”

ii) *Oki (Saizu/gurasu)-no biiru nomitai na*

Big size/a glass of beer drink wish EMPH

“I wish I could drink a big size beer.”

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(g)) Depth

i) *Puuru-no hukasa-wo (saizu-suru/hakaru)-koto ha kanou da.*

Pool of depth of OBJ measure NOM TOP possible is "It is possible to measure the depth of the pool."

ii) *Atarashi puuru-wo tsukuru-tameni (saizu/okisa/hukasa)-wo kimeyo*

new pool OBJ build sake size/depth decide-HORT

"Let's decide what size new pool to build."

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(h)) Nature/Land

i) *Kino-no jishin-wa donokurai okikattano (*donokurai-no saizu dattano)?*

Yesterday of earthquake how big was Q

"How big was the earthquake yesterday?"

ii) *Kono kawa-wa sekai-de ichiban nagai kawa (*saizu)-da.*[69]

This river TOP in the world most long is

"This river is the longest in the world."

iii) *Sono oka-kara-wa sodai-na (*saizu-no) gurandokyanion-no nagame-ga miwataseru.*

The hilltop from TOP spectacular of Grand Canyon of view survey

"The hilltop commands a spectacular view."

iv) *Umi-no suke-ru (*saizu) nante wakaranai.*

The ocean's scale how understand not

"How can I get to know the Ocean's scale"

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

(i) Nature/Sky

i) *Konkai-no taihu-wa donokurai-no okisa (*saizu) ni narukana?*

At this time that typhoon how much going to be wonder?

"How big is the typhoon going to be this time?"

iii) *Miro! Ano kumo (*saizu) dekai•zo!*

Look! The cloud big is EMPH

"Look! The cloud is big!"

(questionnaire response: Miyazaki International College)

We cannot use *saizu* or "size" as examples of natural phenomena. If we use *saizu* or "size" in these cases, the sentence becomes unnatural.

Natural phenomena are therefore a category of exception for usage of *saizu* and "size" in Japanese and English.

Conclusions and thoughts for further research

As this paper shows, there are English-origin loanwords in Japanese such as *getto* and *saizu* whose range of usage is wider than that of typical loanwords crosslinguistically. We wonder if this phenomenon is an outcome of ongoing English education and exposure to English in the Japanese linguistic landscape.

There are two cases, first is that 'size' in English describes what native words Japanese replace with "saizu" in Japanese. Japanese words do replace largeness (okisa), kind (syurui), size (sunpo), length (nagasa), width (haba), depth/length (okuyuki), height (takasa), depth (hukasa), area (menseki), cubic volume (taiseki), height/stature (sincho), weight (taijyu), chest measurement (kyoi), waist measurement (kosimawari), feet measurement (ashi), degree (teido), and decision of size (okisa-wo-kimeru) with 'size' in English. On the other hand, Japanese words do not replace bust-waist-hip measurements (surii•saizu,) to size/measure (saizu suru), nature (sizen), cloud (kumo), river (kawa), mountain (yama), the sea/the ocean (umi), sky (sora), the earth (daichi), planet (wakusei), the universe/space/the cosmos (uchu), disaster (saigai), typhoon (taihu), wind (kaze), whirlwind/tornado (tatsumaki), earthquake (jishin), fire (kaji), tsunami/tidal wave (tsunami), accident (jiko), life (inochi), mind/heart/soul (kokoro), human being (ningen), body (shintai), head (atama), face (kao), neck (kubi), shoulder (kata), eye (me), ear (mimi), nose (hana), mouth (kuchi), forehead (hitai), bone (hone), organ (kikan), or hair (ke) with 'size' in English.

Although Japanese use the word, ‘saizu’ for many things which show how big they are such as clothes, foods, drinks, these Japanese uses of *saizu* aren’t used in English much by native speakers because there are suitable and accurate words for size. Examples of them are length (*nagasa*), depth (*hukasa*), volume (*oosa*), and height (*takasa*). Japanese tend to make shortened words or use one word in many ways and situations because even though there are plenty of Japanese words for size they seem serious and kind of too formal. On the other hand, loanwords and *wasei eigo* seem friendly and quick. Moreover, Japanese care about the meanings of the word and how they express the word. For these reasons loanwords and *wasei eigo* are used by generations of Japanese.

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Appendix: Critical Thinking Questions

The following questions are offered by the students for possible classroom use, categorized into the critical thinking skills they engage:

1. Knowledge: According to page two, where and how are loanwords used in general? When did Japanese people start using wasei-eigo? Which kind of people tend to have trouble with loanword? Which examples does or does not "*saizu*" replace in Japanese? In which examples does "size" get used in English? How does Katakana sound give an influence to the pronunciation of English loanwords? Who claimed that young people more use loanwords?

2. Comprehension: Describe the differences between loanwords and wasei•eigo by using examples. According to the introduction, is there a difference between *'kyatti-suru'* and *'getto-suru'*? If so, what? What are the four main ideas or characteristics of the overall framework guiding this research? What differences exist between loanwords and wasei-eigo?

3. Application: Can you give an example of *wasei eigo* like *suree saizu*? How is *suree-saizu* related to a social matter? Do you know of another instance of loanwords having broad range of semantics like "*getto*" and "*saizu*"?

4. Analysis: What are some possible reasons for the difference in acceptability in using the word "saizu" for nature or with foods or drinks?

5. Synthesis: What solutions would you suggest for misunderstanding of English which is caused by loanwords and *wasei-eigo*? What reasons may lie behind the tendency that Japanese tend to make a word shorter or use a loanword in ways and situations beyond its original meaning? Please give examples.

6. Evaluation How do you feel about *gairaigo* (loanwords) and *wasei-eigo* (English made in Japan)? What do you think about the situation of unused original Japanese words in favor of the use of loanwords and *wasei-eigo*? Do you agree that your parents or grandparents do not use "*getto*" to replace other Japanese words? Why or Why not? What do you think about the idea that Japanese care about the meaning of a word or how to express the word, so *wasei eigo* are used over generations? Do you agree with that? Why or Why not? Do you agree that a lot of media use loanwords in public? Can you explain why?