

Západočeská univerzita v Plzni
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**Influence of the English language on Japanese and
its business culture**

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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracoval samostatně a použil jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

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1. Introduction

This bachelor's thesis is focused on an influence the English language has on the Japanese language. Its aim is to demonstrate both linguistic and cultural impacts the English language create in Japan. In order to understand all the context of this matter, we will look at the issue from different points of view.

Firstly, to have a basic understanding of the Japan's background, we will have a brief look at the Japanese recent history regarding mostly contact with the outer world, especially the West. Special attention will be given to the history of trade, doing business and the structure of the Japanese economy. We will also focus on the language contact between Japan and the corresponding trading nation. This introductory part will be made by the method of factual research and compilation.

In another part, we will compare English and Japanese from the linguistic point of view and on some practical examples, we will see how different these languages are and what changes English borrowings in Japanese are subjected to. Brief research with the help of corpus linguistics and working with dictionaries will help us to understand the issue from a wider perspective. In this part, we will practically examine how words, phrases, and collocations of English origin are used in Japanese texts and we will try to draw some conclusions.

After that, we will describe the linguistic situation in Japan in general and what place English holds in Japanese society. We also try to decide whether the English language is used as the language of business here in the same way as it is used in the rest of the world. We will also mention some typical linguistic misunderstandings which can occur between American and Japanese businessmen and provide linguistic and cultural reasons.

Following will be practical part in the form of research with the help of questionnaires about business in Japan, filled in by people who have some experience with the Japanese way of business either in Japan itself or who worked in a Japanese company on the Czech territory. We will be interested in the linguistic policies of Japanese companies in everyday practice. Then we will try to make some conclusions, which will follow.

I chose this topic due to the reason that it is my long-time field of interest and also because I see it as a very interesting and somewhat exotic issue to be dealing with. This bachelor's thesis will be trying to contribute to the field of applied philology. Regarding the fact that this science is multidisciplinary, we will not only use the knowledge of linguistics, but we will also take advantage of economics, history, international relations or cultural studies.

Apart from using respected academic sources, we will also try to make use of related articles from periodicals intended for businesspeople. Handbooks which aim to help businessmen from the West to better understand Japanese culture will be also used.

The work is going to be divided into several chapters, each of them focused on a different issue. In each chapter, firstly theoretical description will take place, and the practical part may follow next.

The intended aim of this work in the first place should be an academic contribution to this field with a multidisciplinary approach, but in the second place also a creation of a comprehensive work which could potentially help Western businesspeople operating in Japan to better understand the background of Japanese peculiarities, providing information related to their professions.

In this place of the thesis, I present two working hypotheses, which are as follows:

Hypothesis number one: *The English language in Japan holds a very specific position, distinct from any other country in the world.*

Hypothesis number two: *Despite broad cultural differences between Japan and English-speaking countries, the influx of the English language helps to weaken them, which is happening also in the field of business.*

In the very end of this work, our attempts should answer whether these hypotheses can be described as true, false, or whether the truth lies somewhere else.

2. The brief overview of the recent Japanese history with regard to language contact and trade with the Western world

2.1

To track the influence one language can have on the other, we will have to follow language contacts Japanese had in the past over the last couple of centuries.

For successful language contact, there has to be established contact between nations, representing native language speakers. Contact between nations can be of various kinds – a share of the living space, contact through international trade, military intervention, political dominance, cultural dominance, or dominance in any other human activity.

The Japanese archipelago was always rather isolated from many military conquests, and regarding also the intended focus of this thesis, we will have a look on the contact with the outer world through international trade.

A Brief History of Chinese and Japanese Civilizations (Schirokauer, Brown, Lurie and Gay, 2013, p. 128) states that the “*major theme in the history of Japan is the interplay between local and imported elements*”. In the long history, it was the elements mainly from China, cultural elements from European nations came much later. This was also the case of language and borrowings.

Native Japanese vocabulary is called *wago* and consists of words whose origins can be traced back to Old Japanese. These words often carry the meaning connected to the way the Japanese people lived in traditional Japanese society. *Wago* words are therefore often related to nature, weather, crops, fish, rice, rain or feelings (Sarah, Japanese, The Borrower Language, 2012).

The first language which had an impact on Japanese was the Chinese language. The vocabulary of Chinese origin in Japanese is called *kango*, which influenced the Japanese language so significantly that *kango* is estimated to constitute 60 % of the contemporary Japanese language, although their frequency in speech is probably much lower. It is believed that Chinese words came to the Japanese archipelago around the first century A.D. with the Chinese books of science and religion, therefore they are used for academic words and abstract concepts and carry the stylistic character of sophistication (Sarah, 2012).

Loanwords from the other languages are called *gairaigo* and they are almost always written in *katakana* script. Nowadays they are predominantly of English origin, although it was not the case in the past (Sarah, 2012).

The first European nation to have established trade routes with Japan was the Portuguese in 1543. They also served as the middlemen in trade with Asian countries, trading Chinese silk to Japan, and Japanese silver to China. But trade was not the only thing Portuguese cared about – the spread of Christianity was the second important issue. Jesuit priests introduced Christianity to Japanese. In the reflection of linguistic borrowing, it is no wonder *gairaigo* from the Portuguese language had something to do with the products they traded, the technology of those times, and Christianity. For example:

Bread	pão	パン	pan
Tabaco	tabaco	タバコ	tabako
Alcohol	álcool	アルコール	arukōru
Jesus	Jesus	イエス	iesu
Christian	cristão	キリシタン	kirishitan

(Sarah, 2012) and (Schirokauer, Brown, Lurie and Gay, 2013, p. 310)

The next European nation having contact with Japan were the Spanish. In 1571 they completed the colonisation of the Philippines in the close neighbourhood of Japan and in 1587 the first Franciscan monk arrived from the Philippines into Japan to spread Christianity (Schirokauer, Brown, Lurie and Gay, 2013, p. 315).

Spanish words were fewer, but Stanlaw (Japanese English language and culture contact, 2004, p.46) provides examples such as カステラ – *kasutera* (a type of cake originated in Spanish Castile) or ゲリラ – *gerira* (from the Spanish word for guerrilla).

Landes (The Wealth and Poverty of Nations, 1999, p. 354) tells us an impressive story of how Japan became a closed country. In 1597 a rich Spanish galleon arrived on Japanese shores and the Japanese wanted to keep the cargo. The pilot appealed to the shogun Hideyoshi and tried to scare him with the power of Spain, showing the extent of Spanish dominions from the Americas to the Philippines on the globe. *“How come so small a nation has such extensive dominions?”* Hideyoshi asked. *“Oh,”* said the incautious seaman, *“His Very Catholic Majesty would first send out priests to christianize the population, and these converts would then help the Spanish forces in their conquest.”* Having heard this, Hideyoshi refused to return the cargo and ordered the crucifixion of twenty-six Christians, seventeen of them Japanese, the others Jesuits and Franciscans from Europe (Landes, 1999, p. 354).

Other policies of isolations followed and 1633 is the official beginning of the era *sakoku*, with the meaning of closed country. Japan was closed to the outer world, and the only European nation permitted to trade were the Dutch (and only through one tiny artificial island). Reason for this was that the Dutch were Protestants and did not care about missionary activity. First guilds of interpreters – closely monitored – were established, and Dutch was learnt by native Japanese speakers (the Dutch learning Japanese were considered dangerous

and were discouraged from doing so). Among the goods the Dutch traded were raw materials, spices, tropical woods, Chinese silk, European eyeglasses, clocks and mirrors, Japanese porcelain and so on. After 1720 import of the Dutch books was allowed and the Dutch language starts to be more influential. The Japanese studied western science, mostly medicine, astronomy, geography and alike – all kinds, except for social sciences, such as political, religious, or philosophical teachings. This attitude was nicely expressed in the slogan “*Eastern ethics, Western science*”. Studies of Western science were called *rangaku* and this word itself is a good example of a blend of *gairaigo* word *oranda* (Holland) and the Japanese word *gaku* – studies.

(Schirokauer, Brown, Lurie and Gay, 2013, pp. 351-352) and (Jansen, The making of modern Japan, 2000, pp. 80-82)

It is no surprise that loanwords of the Dutch origin are often technical terms from the field of science, and/or items they traded.

Lens	lens	レンズ	renzu
Germany	duits	ドイツ	doitsu
Coffee	koffie	コーヒー	kōhī
Glass	glas	グラス	gurasu
Rubber	gom	ゴム	gomu

(Sarah, 2012)

Stanlaw (2004, pp. 48-49) takes notice that many linguists claimed that the influence of the Dutch language went beyond the layer of loanwords and had also impact on Japanese syntax. Stanlaw mentions that written Japanese began to use much more pronouns, such as *this*, *that*, *she* or *he*. Since written and spoken Dutch were highly similar to each other, Japanese translators began to create translations more resembling Japanese vernacular language, disrupting the tradition of written Japanese with old Chinese expressions, ancient

grammatical forms, and strange Sino-Japanese characters. This contributed to later reforms of the written language standards.

Stanlaw (2004, p. 49) writes that the language policy began to change in the beginning of the 19th century, when other languages, such as English, Russian and French began to be also studied by the Japanese.

But the most important change in language acquiring began with the political change when in 1853, American armed mission led by Commodore Matthew C. Perry forcibly demanded Japan to end the seclusion period. The Kanagawa treaty of 1854 between America and Japan and following Ansei Treaties of 1858 – between Japan and the United States, Great Britain, Russia, France, and the Netherlands respectively – laid the foundations of international relations and trade. The linguistic landscape changed soon later, and Japan began to acquire words from these respective languages (Stanlaw, 2004, pp. 52-53).

As Sarah (2012) points out, French loanwords were mainly connected to culture, diplomacy, and art.

Novel, romance	roman	ロマン	roman
Restaurant	restaurant	レストラン	resutoran

There also appeared loanwords from British English, such as パンツ – *pantsu* (pants – underwear), from Russian – イクラ – *ikura* (икра – salmon roe), or from German – リュックサック – *ryukkusakku* (rucksack – backpack).

First major language contact between English and Japanese took place in Yokohama, the first Japanese port opened to the world trade, which resulted in the creation of the so-called Yokohama Pidgin Japanese, the mixture of English and Japanese, which Stanlaw (2004, pp. 56-59) describes as based on

Japanese vocabulary without proper Japanese grammar with some number of English loanwords, mainly related to foreign community.

Although the Yokohama Pidgin died out, English and English borrowings were coming to the nation through the arrival of Western experts attracted by the new Meiji government attempting to modernize the country. These experts were not willing to study Japanese and English was the language of intercultural communication. English obtained a high level of prestige and was associated with modernization. To drop some English borrowings into everyday conversation became fashionable among Japanese students and people welcoming progress, which is an attitude able to be seen up till now. Another contemporary phenomenon whose origins can be traced back to this period is businessmen and scholars studying English thoroughly, nevertheless unable to reach the level of English which would not sound weird to the native English speaker (Stanlaw, 2004, pp. 60-62).

As Hagerman (English Language Policy and Practice in Japan, 2009) mentions, 1871 marks the beginning of the compulsory English education and also the initiation of entrance exams held by universities which consisted of testing English grammar and advanced translation skills. This contributed to the spread of the English language among the vast population and helped with the general awareness of English among Japanese, although, as Hagerman notes, it is reasonable to assume that the Japanese government did not really want Japanese to be fluent in foreign language, as it opposed suggestions to change teaching methods from translation-grammar to oral-aural. And again, this attitude towards foreign language education prevails also in contemporary Japan.

Meiji Restoration period (from 1868) was basically the era of openness, modernization and reforms, when Western ideas, goods, and culture in general were considered to be an enrichment of Japanese society, but, as it is recurring

theme throughout the Japanese history, attitudes to the West – and therefore also to the English language – were slowly changing and the early 1900s marks the beginning of the nationalistic and anti-Western sentiments (Hagerman, 2009).

Despite slowly changing attitudes towards the English language, Stanlaw (2004, p. 68) claims that the heyday of Japanese-English language contact and borrowing was just before and after the First World War. Although the much greater influx of the English borrowings began after the Second World War, which continues up till now, it was during this period when it was “*established patterns of taking, modifying, and creating English vocabulary items and English-language concepts and cognitive schemas which continue to this day.*” The semantic field of borrowings also switched – instead of previous Meiji Era loanwords, which were rather abstract and dealt with modernization or Westernization, these Taisho period loanwords were mainly connected with practical life or popular culture, and they were often coming directly from the United States.

Loveday (Language Contact in Japan: A Socio-linguistic History, 1996, pp. 72-74) observes that English was for the first time spread through the means of the new technology – radio, cinema or gramophone records, which made listening of spoken English possible. Newspapers and magazines contributed to the distribution of English, with their advertisements making use of English with its perceived freshness and modernity.

This is also probably the first time when *wasei-eigo*, as a specific part of the Japanese vocabulary, was introduced into Japan in significant numbers. After *wago*, *kango*, and *gairaigo*, *wasei-eigo* form probably the newest and the most interesting part of the contemporary Japanese vocabulary. *Wasei-eigo* are pseudo-English loanwords – they are made up entirely in Japan by the means of the creative combination of English words, often by clipping and blending,

either with another foreign word or with native Japanese word. Their pronunciation is also “japanized” and they are written in *katakana* script the same way as *gairaigo*, but the main difference is that the meaning of the source words is shifted to such an extent that their meaning is unable to guess from their original words by native English speaker. New ones are constantly being made up, some of them are integrated into the Japanese lexicon, some of them are quickly forgotten (Bernard, *Wasei Eigo: It's English but It's Not*, 2014).

The 1930s and the 1940s with its Japanese nationalism meant a certain break in foreign language influence, English language teaching was officially ceased, and this period even saw some efforts for replacement of already-borrowed words with native words, nevertheless, after the Second World War, English regained its former levels of prestige and popularity. American occupation gave birth to another linguistic phenomenon, i.e. creation of another pidgin, often referred to as “Bamboo English”, which served the purposes of communication between US armed forces and local Japanese. However, this pidgin died out as well as former Yokohama pidgin. English regained, and significantly extended and intensified its positions in which it was in the pre-war period. The dominant position of the English language results in the substantial influx of English *gairaigo*, as well as the creation of popular *wasei-eigo*, which is a trend which characterises language contact situation in Japan from the end of the Second World War up till now. Language contact is made almost entirely on the basis of American English. The influx of English is probably unparalleled to any other language contact. It is estimated that *gairaigo* comprise around 5 to 10 percent of ordinary daily vocabulary, and around 94 percent of them are from English. Special dictionaries devoted to *gairaigo* typically contain from 20 000 to 30 000 entries.

(Stanlaw, 2004, pp. 69-70, 12-13), (Daulton, *A sociolinguist explanation of Japan's prolific borrowing of English*, 2009), (Loveday, 1996, pp. 74-75) and (Hagerman, 2009)

2.2 The Japanese economy and its connection to America

The intended aim of this work is to show the influence the English language has on the Japanese language and culture, especially in the field of business. Contemporary linguistic influence is manifested mainly in the form of borrowings, either *gairaigo* or *wasei-eigo*, whose examples will be provided in the next chapter. Regarding the intended aim of this work, which should be business-oriented, it is probably impossible to understand the prolific borrowing of English without also understanding the economies of the respective states.

The English language holds the dominant position throughout the world and can be characterised as the current *lingua franca* of the world. Nevertheless, we could pronounce a great number of various reasons for so significant borrowing of English into Japanese, going beyond just the mere status of the English language.

In this subchapter I will closely examine the development of the Japanese economy after the Second World War, point out the important role which the USA played in this development and finally conclude that the strong interconnection between the American and Japanese economy may be one of the reasons why we can encounter such a significantly large number of English borrowings in the Japanese language.

We have already covered the Westernization and modernization of the 19th and early 20th century, namely in the Meiji and Taisho period, where we were following the way of English borrowings of that period, but the outlines of the contemporary Japanese economy started after the Second World War. Cameron (Stručné ekonomické dějiny světa: od doby kamenné do současnosti, 1996, p. 451) put this economic boom into the broader context of the post-war economic expansion, which took its place almost all over the world. According to him, the Japanese economic boom was even longer and more intensive than

in Europe – from the end of the 1940s and to the beginning of the 1970s, the growth of the Japanese gross national product was above 10 percent every year, which is exceptionally unique in the economic history of the world. Even in the 1970s and the 1980s, when the world experienced the first bigger recession from the end of the Second World War, the growth rate of Japan slightly fell down, but still was higher than in other areas of the world economy. He states that this “Japanese economic miracle” is often explained by the “catch-up effect”, which is *“a theory speculating that poorer economies will tend to grow more rapidly than wealthier economies, and so all economies in time will converge [...] to the more robust economies (Investopedia, 2019),”* which happens mainly by the so-called technology transfer. Nevertheless, this “catch-up effect” fails to explain why other countries did not experience a similar economic boom, therefore this unique economic miracle has to be explained by other reasons. Cameron states that the high level of the human capital was more important, it enabled this new technology to be exploited by the Japanese. Japan not only caught up but quickly began to be a leader in new technologies, especially electronics and robotics. Cameron name some other factors, namely high levels of savings and investments, improvements of the Japanese management, or high investments into the research and development. Last, but not least, he points out to the Japanese national spirit, which is collectivistic, cooperating and fond of team plays. This also manifests itself in industrial relations and governmental policies (Cameron, 1996, p. 451).

Stellner et al. (Hospodářské dějiny (16.-20. století), 2006, pp. 89-90) show us how political decisions taken by Americans influenced the Japanese economy and how Americans empowered Japanese and allowed them to achieve their economic miracle. After the Second World War, Americans forbid Japanese to maintain a stable army, which was a great shift for a country which was used to give enormous amounts of money for military purposes. Americans introduced an agricultural reform, which split lands into smaller farms, they as well split 9

traditional “*zaibatsu*” (industrial and financial conglomerates) into 85 smaller companies. But this policy was changed after the Korean War, when Americans recognized the danger of communism and realized that they need a stable, democratic and industrially developed ally. Americans stabilized the Japanese currency (with the export-favourable exchange rate), allowed conglomerates (under the name of “*keiretsu*”, although these conglomerates were not so strongly interconnected as before and were more democratic) to regain their former power and reduced the power of trade unions. In 1951, Japan officially became a sovereign state. UN military forces deployed in Korea were based in Japan, and their supplying, contracted and paid by the Americans, resulted in the influx of foreign currency. These resources were then used in the support of the industry. Heavy industry (coal and steel industry, energy industry, shipbuilding) was built at first with the American help, the second half of the 1950s saw the rise of petrochemistry, steel industry, automotive and aviation industry. After that, the economy focused on electronics, the export of know-how, technology and providing foreign loans. Japanese were the best at camera manufacturing, motorcycles, electronics and so on (Stellner et al., 2006, pp. 89-90).

Reischauer and Craig (Dějiny Japonska, 2009, p. 282) claim that international trade was one of the main factors which contributed to the Japanese economic miracle and state that the most important trading partner were the United States, as more than 22 percent of all the Japanese export was aimed to the USA. The openness of the American market was of crucial importance for Japan. Some critics argued that given the fact that more than half of the American export into Japan was made of mineral resources and agricultural production, the USA transformed itself into the economic colony of Japan. Japanese reversed this argument and were pronouncing that Japan became a factory manufacturing for the USA, which is abundant in mineral resources and has more effective agriculture (Reischauer and Craig, 2009, p. 282).

Reischauer and Craig (2009, pp. 309-312) describe that the 1970s saw the slowdown of the growth rate, nevertheless, from 1980 to 1985, the structure of the Japanese economy changed significantly. Whilst in the 1970s, Japanese external trade balance was rather even, from the 1980s we can observe a sharp decline in Japanese imports and a sharp increase in Japanese exports, which was caused by the great demand for Japanese high-quality products, namely automobiles, cameras, or electronics. Authors observe that the most affected were the United States. The trade deficit between the USA and Japan increased to \$40 billion in 1985. As a result of this, Japan became the largest creditor of those times, and the USA became the largest debtor. Japanese banks were purchasing US government bonds, buildings in New York or Los Angeles, or agricultural lands in the Midwest (Reischauer and Craig, 2009, pp. 309-312).

In conclusion, we saw that from the end of the Second World War, the Japanese economy is strongly connected to the American one. Because of the political needs to have an industrially developed ally in this part of the world, the USA provided know-how and technology and this technology was often elaborated and improved by Japanese. Japanese exports were heavily dependent upon the American market, and finally, Japan started to invest in the USA.

If we would like to understand the language contact and influence between the English and Japanese language, it is necessary to understand the important role the USA played in the development of the Japanese economy. We have already seen that loanwords often came into Japanese from nations, which were trading with Japan. We also observed that after the Second World War, Americans played a key role in the Japanese economy and this period is also characterized by unparalleled borrowing of the English words into the Japanese lexicon. For now, we should not announce conclusions about definite causation (that economic reasons are reflected in the linguistic borrowing), but we may observe a strong correlation.

Additionally, it is generally accepted fact that the dominant position the English language holds in the contemporary world may be viewed upon as a result of the influence of the British Empire – empire, which was mostly based on mutual trade and continuous efforts of capitalism. It is an open question whether this spread of English in Japan may be regarded as a similar example.

3. When English meets Japanese

3.1 Theoretical linguistics

In this theoretical part I will describe the English and Japanese language from the linguistic point of view, and building on the differences, I will try to introduce some obstacles and necessary changes the English language is undergoing in Japan.

The English language is a Germanic language, whose roots get to the Proto-Germanic language, which was spoken in the first millennium BC in the south of the Scandinavian peninsula and today's Denmark, and which was then carried with the migration of the Germanic tribes onto the British Isles. Through the continuous evolution, including the impact of the usage of Latin in the Church, Norman Conquest, the usage of the French language among the nobility, and many other influences constituting the contemporary English language, around the year 1500 early modern English came into existence. From now on, the English language, as the language of a powerful British Empire, penetrated to most of the places on the Earth. Since the practical part of this thesis will be dealing mostly with the loanwords, we will have a look mainly at the description of phonetics, phonology, and morphology of the English words. If, and how, the English language can influence Japanese regarding its syntax is the question going much beyond the possibilities and scope of this work.

(Potter, Crystal et al., English language, 2018) and (Genzor, Jazyky světa: historie a současnost, 2015, pp. 145-152)

The English language has 7 short vowels, 5 long vowels, 8 diphthongs, and 24 consonants. Stress is variable and usually on the first syllable, but can be also on the second one. Two stresses – primary and secondary – can occur in multisyllabic words. Vowel reduction is widely used, an unreduced vowel is

typically only in the stressed syllable, unstressed syllables usually contain a reduced vowel. English orthography is usually very complicated and mostly based on the spelling from the 15th century, resulting in broad differences between written and spoken language.

(Potter, Crystal et al., 2018) and (Genzor, 2015, pp.152-153)

The Japanese language is due to its dissimilarity to any other language commonly classified as a language isolate. Nevertheless, according to structural similarities in grammar with Korean, Japanese hypothetical relation with this language would, therefore, mean belonging to the Altaic language family. Other linguists were hypothesizing about some relation with languages located to the south of Japan, noticing lexical similarities present in original native *wago* vocabulary. Anyway, Japanese and English are certainly two mutually unrelated languages. Japanese has only 5 vowels, short or long (long ones are typically only “*u*” and “*o*”). “*i*” and “*u*” are pronounced voiceless if they are located between voiceless consonants. Japanese is a language based on syllables, whose number is (in the traditional Japanese language) quite limited. Traditionally they are organized into the table called *gojūon*, 5×10 pattern comprising the first line of vowels and nine other lines with syllables (with stable pattern consonant + vowel). Some syllables are no longer used in the contemporary language, one consonant is pronounced as a syllable on its own (“*n*”), and most of the syllables can be pronounced with the “*y*” sound in the middle (this pronunciation can occur only in Sino-Japanese words), so Stanlaw (2004, p. 84) gives the final number of Japanese syllables to be 107. Although *gairaigo* is able to be more creative and produce some more, we can conclude that the Japanese phonetics is not profoundly rich. From the syllabical structure of the language and quite a poor inventory of sounds (especially in comparison with English, whose phonetics rules are less strict and more varied), we can presume that if Japanese accepts a word, it will be subjected to substantial

changes.

(Shibatani et al., Japanese language, 2017) and (Genzor, 2015, pp. 287-292)

Complete *katakana* syllabary, which is used for the transcription of foreign words, is able to be seen in the appendix.

These changes Stanlaw (2004, 73-78) describes at the levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Stanlaw summarizes changes at the level of phonology by two basic changes:

1) Syllabification of English consonant clusters and consonants which does not form a syllable, i.e. syllable-final consonants. A syllable is the building block of the Japanese language and these sounds do not fit into the Japanese simple phonology, often they are unable to be pronounced by native Japanese. For example, word “*christmas*” becomes “*kurisumasu*”, where we can observe the insertion of the vowel “*u*” after the first consonant, which represents the syllabification of consonant cluster, and we can also observe the addition of “*u*” after the syllable-final consonant. Vowel “*u*” is added after most final consonants, nevertheless, “*o*” is often added after final stops “*t*” or “*d*”, for example “*hot*” becomes “*hotto*”, and “*i*” is added after “*tʃ*” or “*dʒ*”, as in “*punch*” becomes “*panchi*” and “*bridge*” becomes “*burijji*”.

2) The phonological changes of sounds unknown to the Japanese language. Some English consonants do not fit into the poor Japanese phonetics, they are unpronounceable by Japanese and need to be changed. For example, “*θ*” have to be changed into “*s*”, “*z*”, “*f*”, “*t*”, or “*ts*”, so “*theory*” becomes “*seorii*”. “*ð*” can become “*z*” or “*dʒ*”, as in “*this*” becomes “*jisu*”. “*L*” becomes “*r*”, as in “*ballet*” becomes “*baree*”. Final “*r*” is changed into “*a:*”, as in “*car*” becomes “*kā*”. And finally, “*v*” becomes “*b*”, as “*love*” is changed into “*rabu*”. These phonological changes are mostly regularly followed, but some variations may appear (Stanlaw, 2004, p. 74).

Stanlaw also provides a number of morphological changes, which are:

1) Truncation (or shortening, clipping): longer words are shortened, mainly by dropping the latter syllable(s) and remaining only the first two or three, for example:

professional:	プロ	puro
television:	テレビ	terebi

(Stanlaw, 2004, p. 75)

2) Creation of acronyms and abbreviations written in the Latin alphabet: They “*form a distinctive subset in the contemporary Japanese lexicon*”. Many of them are created in Japan and therefore create another group of *wasei-eigo*, some of them have an international origin, but their pronunciation has changed according to the Japanese phonetics. For example:

commercial message:	CM	shī emu
Japanese popular music:	J-pop	jē poppu
office lady	OL	ō eru
water closet, toilet	WC	daburu shī

(Stanlaw, 2004, p. 75)

3) Compounding or blending. Two words of English origin which form a phrase are blended into one Japanese loanword, while they may or may not be shortened. For example:

mass communication:	マスコミ	masukomi
breakdown, stall (from “engine stop”):	エンジンストップ	enjinsutoppu
	エンスト	ensuto

Hybrid compounds can also take place:

nude picture:	ヌード しゃしん	nūdo shashin
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(Stanlaw, 2004, pp. 75-76)

4) Affixation. Combining the loanword with the native Japanese affixes helps to incorporate them into Japanese. For example:

American + person:	アメリカ人	amerika-jin
bread + store: (bakery)	パン屋	pan-ya

On the other hand, English borrowings can also be used as an affix for other words already borrowed into Japanese, therefore this is another example of how *wasei-eigo* can be created. For example:

one track mind, repetitive:	one + pattern	ワンパターン	wanpatān
having good taste or sense:	high + sense:	ハイセンス	haisensu

(Stanlaw, 2004, p. 76)

Regarding syntax, Stanlaw states that borrowings generally follow the grammar of Japanese. Nouns are incorporated into the Japanese sentence the most easily and without any problem, adjectives and adverbs are often declined with the help of Japanese affixes. Verbs are as well conjugated by Japanese affixes. Japanese auxiliary verb *suru* even allow almost every noun to be verbalized and this also apply to borrowings:

to play soccer:	soccer + to do	サッカーする	sakkā suru
to drive:	driving + to do	ドライブする	doraibu suru

(Stanlaw, 2004, pp. 77-78)

3.2 Practical part

In this practical part, I will try to provide typical examples of “Japanized English”, i.e. borrowings from English, in the field of business. Then I will make remarks concerning the way these words are both linguistically and semantically changed. To find out the typical examples of *gairaigo* in the field of business, I will firstly find out what are the keywords of business English, and then, I will try to find out, if these keywords have *gairaigo* equivalent. To find out the keywords of business English, I will make use of corpus linguistics. What is corpus linguistics?

Corpus linguistics is a “*method based on detailed searches for words and phrases in multiple contexts across large amounts of text*” and “*nowadays it is perhaps most readily associated in the minds of linguists with searching through screen after screen of concordance lines and wordlists generated by computer software, in an attempt to make sense of phenomena in big texts or big collections of smaller texts* (Anne O’ Keeffe and Michael McCarthy, *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics*, 2010, p. 3).”

Program *AntConc* is able to show us which words in one piece of text are used remarkably more frequently in comparison with the words in a reference corpus. For the text, which should serve as the example of the business English, I have chosen the textbook *Business vocabulary in use: advanced* from Bill Mascull, printed by Cambridge University Press in 2004. I assumed that the textbook should present the way business English is really used. Besides, the textbook itself was created with the help of the corpus linguistics, taking into account texts with millions of English words. As the reference corpus, I have chosen the text of “Alice in Wonderland”, as we may assume that the text of the fairy tale will be sufficiently different from the business texts. Then, I focused my effort on nouns, verbs, and adjectives, which have anything to do with business. As a result, I obtained a list of words, which could be considered to be the keywords of

business English: company, business, work, management, product, and so on. In the following paragraphs, I will try to search for every word one by one to find out if these English words have *gairaigo* equivalent. I will comment on my findings in terms of peculiarities regarding weird differences in pronunciation, meaning, creation of *wasei-eigo*, odd collocations of borrowed words and the like. If possible, I will work with one of the best online English-Japanese dictionary, jisho.org, tangorin.com, or Japanese explanatory dictionary kotobank.jp. (The name kotobank is interesting itself, as it also combines native Japanese word こと (koto) – word, and English loanword *bank*, although for bank, there is native Japanese word ぎんこう (ginkō).)

Company. カンパニー (kanpanī) According to the Jisho dictionary, this is a common loanword. Beside this word with the meaning of business, Tangorin dictionary also provides the word コンパニー (konpanī), with the meaning of “group of friends”. Although coming from only one word, the different pronunciation of the loanwords gives also a semantical difference. Tangorin dictionary also provides more strangely sounding loanwords, for example:

company economist:	カンパニー・エコノミスト	kanpanī ekonomisuto
company paper:	カンパニー・ペーパー	kanpanī pēpā
company union:	カンパニー・ユニオン	kanpanī yunion
trading company:	トレーディング・カンパニー	torēdingu kanpanī
leading company:	リーディング・カンパニー	rīdingu kanpanī

コンパ (konpa) Common word and another example of semantical change and differentiation original word “company” was subjected to in Japan. Clipping, which occurred here, helped to differentiate among the different meanings. Jisho dictionary explains this as a “*party; social event; get-together; mixer*“, or, as Jisho mentions Wikipedia definition, „*Japanese drinking gathering held by*

university students in a casual drinking establishment“. On this place, it is claimed that the exact root is unknown, but the most probably this word originally came from German *Kompanie*, English *company*, or French *compagnie*.

Business. ビジネス (bijinesu) Common and very productive word. We can find examples of *wasei-eigo*, such as ビジネス・ホテル (bijinesu hoteru – from English “business hotel”) with the meaning of „*cheap but conveniently located hotel with only basic conveniences, targeted at business travellers*“, or ビジネス・ガール (bijinesu gāru – from English “business girl”) with the meaning of “*female office worker*“. And ビジネス・バイク (bijinesu baiku – from English “business bike”) is a “*motorcycle designed for delivery of newspapers or other goods*“. Among others, there are compound words such as commonly used ビジネス・マン (bijinesuman – businessman) or ビジネス・プラン (bijinesu puran – business plan) or funny sounding モンキー・ビジネス (monkī bijinesu – monkey business) and many others.

Work. ワーク (wāku) Common word, according to Jisho dictionary. Kotobank states that this word is most often used either as an abbreviation for workbook (ワークブック – wākubukku) or with combination with other loanwords:

ハード・ワーク	(hādowāku)	hard work
ライフ・ワーク	(raifuwāku)	life work
オーバー・ワーク	(ōbawāku)	over work
チーム・ワーク	(chīmuwāku)	team work

Management. Common word. This word was borrowed, nevertheless probably not yet coined, as we can find three possible loanwords with a different pronunciation, namely – *manejimento*, *manējimento* or *menejimento*, always written with respective *katakana*. As there exists standard Japanese word with

this meaning (*kanri* – management, control, administration), there is probably little reason to borrow this word, apart from some effort to sound modern, but this reason will probably be very important.

Product. プロダクト (*purodakuto*) Common word, and also quite productive. We can find this borrowed word as a part of many collocations. These collocations were probably borrowed into Japanese as a whole, and not just as words on its own and then combined into collocations in Japan.

product design: プロダクト・デザイン *purodakuto dezain*
product manager: プロダクト・マネージャー *purodakuto manējā*
product placement: プロダクト・プレースメント *purodakuto purēsumento*
product life cycle: プロダクト・ライフ・サイクル *purodakuto raifu saikuru*

And many others follow. In terms of phonetics, we may notice that two English consonant clusters “*pr*” and “*ct*” were syllabized by adding vowel “*u*”, and also final “*o*” was added to create a syllable “*to*”, as both processes were noticed by Stanlaw (2004, p. 74) and referred above.

Money. マネー (*manē*) Common word. Tangorin dictionary provides also other compounds, such as:

ポケット・マネー (*poketto manē*) pocket money
マネー・サプライ (*manē sapurai*) money supply (economic term)
オイル・マネー (*oiru manē*) petrodollar – from English “oil money” – *wasei-eigo*

Customer. カスタマー (*kasutamā*) or also (less often) カスタマ (kasutama) Common word. As we mentioned above, as we were able to find many business English collocations, we may presume that many of these phrases were again taken into Japanese as whole phrases. We may observe some phrases from

computer terminology, such as カスタマー・サポート (kasutamā sapōto) – customer support, but phrases from business English prevail. For example:

カスタマー・サービス (kasutamā sābisu) – customer service

カスタマー・コミュニケーション・マネジメント (kasutamā komyunikēshon manejimento) – customer communication management.

Japanese Wikipedia provides one humorous example of *wasei-eigo*: monster customer: モンスター・カスタマー (monsutā kasutamā), with the definition of “*very demanding customer; customer, who makes unreasonable claims (モンスターカスタマー, Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia, 2019).*” Another example of possible misunderstanding between the native English and Japanese speakers may be collocation “loyal customer”, which is borrowed into Japanese as ロイヤル・カスタマー (roiyaru kasutamā) and may be easily mistaken for having something to do with the word “*royal*”, as the Japanese language does not distinguish between “*r*” and “*l*” sounds.

Quality. Common word. Jisho vocabulary regards this loanword as a common word and we may find this word in four different possible spelling:

クオリティ (kuoriti)

クオリティー (kuoritī)

クワリティ (kworiti)

クワリティー (kworitī)

This is due to two differences. The first difference is the variation between short and long final vowel, the second difference is the use of standard or extended *katakana*. This extended *katakana* is used in loanwords to better reflect their pronunciation. The first character of normal size refers to the first consonant of the syllable and the second, smaller character refers to the pronunciation of the

vowel. The use of extended *katakana* instead of the standard one suggests that “クオ” / “*kwo*” is pronounced as one syllable, rather than two syllables “*ku*” and “*o*”, as is the case of standard *katakana* “クオ”. This is reflected also in the transcription into the Latin alphabet (Stanlaw, 2004, p. 91) (Transcription into Japanese, Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia, 2019). And again, we may observe borrowing of whole noun phrases, such as ハイ・クオリティ (*hai kuoriti*) – high quality.

Financial. ファイナンシャル (*finansharu*) or (less often) ファイナンシャル (*fainansharu*). This loanword is not very common, it appears mainly in the transcriptions of English names, such as the Financial Times: ファイナンシャル・タイムズ (*finansharu taimuzu*), but we may encounter interesting example of *wasei-eigo*, namely in an initialism *UFJ*, which stood for the name of the former company *United Financial of Japan*, one of the biggest banks of Japan back then. As “financial” is an adjective, it is clear that this use of the word “financial” is not proper. Creation of initialisms was observed by Stanlaw and discussed above. As these Latin alphabetic abbreviations are pronounced by the rules of the Japanese phonetics, this applies also to the case of *UFJ*: it is pronounced as “*yū efu jei*” (*UFJ グループ*, Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia, 2019).

Organization. オーガニゼーション (*ōganizēshon*) or オーガニゼイション (*ōganizeishon*). The loanword is not very commonly used, but we may find borrowed collocations such as インフォーマル・オーガニゼーション (*infōmaru ōganizēshon* – informal organization) or コミュニティー・オーガニゼーション (*komyunitī ōganizēshon* – community organization). In addition to that, we may find that some companies use this *katakana* transcript if they happen to have this word in their name:

Nuffield Organization: ナッフールド・オーガニゼーション (*naffīrudo ōganizēshon*)

Employee. This word probably does not create any kind of borrowing in the Japanese language. Nevertheless, similar word *employer*, which was, according to the corpus analysis of our text less common, is borrowed into the Japanese language. (Employer was much less common also according to the number of results of Google search, which can be considered as work with corpus texts as well; the word employee gave nearly ten times more results than the word employer.) Thus, we can find エンプロイヤー (enpuroiyā) or エンプロイヤ (enpuroiya) with the meaning of employer.

Social. ソーシャル (sōsharu) or (less common) ソシアル (soshiaru). Jisho dictionary marks ソーシャル・ワーカー (sōsharu wākā – social worker) as a common word. We may also find numerous other phrases, for example ソーシャル・セキユリティー (sōsharu sekjuritī – social security).

Brand. ブランド (burando) Common word. An interesting thing about this loanword is that it can stand for two different meanings – brand or bland, both of which are used in Japanese as loanwords. This peculiar fact results from the fact that the Japanese language does not distinguish between consonants “r” and “l”, as was discussed in the case of “loyal customer”. Nevertheless, brand is used in many collocations borrowed in a whole from the English language:

ブランド・イメージ (burando imēji) brand image

ブランド・ロイヤリティー (burando roiyaritī) brand loyalty

(Regarding r/l differentiation in the collocation *brand loyalty*, it contains both possible misunderstandings discussed above – brand/bland and loyalty/royalty.)

Information. インフォメーション (infomēshon), but also *infōmēshon* or *infōmēshion*, again marked as a common word. We may notice that this loanword may be shortened to simple インフォ (info), confirming what was said

above about Stanlaw's notice regarding shortening as the common practice applied to borrowed words.

Internet. インターネット (intānetto) or インタネット (intanetto). Common word. Considering that this word is truly international and is not really a true example of business English, it would be probable for this word to enter the Japanese lexicon even without the whole phenomenon of fashionability of the English language. From the economic terms used in Japan, we may notice for example インターネット・バンキング (intānetto bankingu – internet banking) or インターネット・マーケティング (intānetto māketingu – internet marketing), but there are many more collocations from the IT sector. We may also notice that shortened version ネット (netto) is possible as well.

Job. ジョブ (jobu) Apart from some business English collocations, such as ジョブ・タイトル (jobu taitoru – job title) or ジョブ・タイトル (jobu hoppā – job hopper – someone who often changes jobs instead of focusing on one career), we may also find that somewhat bigger number of collocations comes from the IT sector, which is related to the word's meaning “a *task*” (for a computer to do).

Shareholder. This word probably does not create any kind of borrowing in the Japanese language.

Service. サービス (sābisu) Common word. Apart from its preserved meaning, it may be also used in the shifted meaning of “discount, free gift”. This word collocates with many words from the lexical field of economics, but some of the collocates have something to do with IT, as this word has its own meaning in this field “a *function provided by one program for another* (Wiktionary, 2019).” *Wasei-eigo*, which is often mentioned as a model example of “English made in Japan”, is アフター・サービス (afutā sābisu – from English “after service”) with the meaning of warranty service or after-sales service. Another interesting

example of *wasei-eigo* may be サービス・ガール (sābisu gāru – from English service girl) with the meaning of waitress. (You may note here that the usage of *gāru* is the same as in the abovementioned “*bijinesu gāru*”. Stanlaw (2004, p. 69) notes that “*various -girl words were some of the most productive of the times.*”)

Value. バリュウ (baryū) From the point of view of phonetics, native English speaker probably would not understand this loanword, as “*v*” is changed into “*b*” and “*l*” is changed into “*r*”. Again, we may find a few business English noun phrases, such as バリュウ・エンジニアリング (baryū enjiniaringu – value engineering) or バリュウ・チェーン (baryū chēn – value chain).

Profit. プロフィット (purofitto)

Market. マーケット (māketto) Common word. As with many previous entries, collocations are easy to find:

マーケット・シェア (māketto shea) market share

マーケット・リーダー (māketto rīdā) market leader

We can also find *wasei-eigo* マーケット・イン (māketto in – from English “market in”) with the meaning of “*incorporating the needs of the market into a product (Jisho dictionary)*”. A loanword, which is worth mentioning, since it can be easily confused, is フリー・マーケット (furī māketto). It can stand for two original English noun phrases – free market, but also flea market. Misunderstanding is again caused by non-differentiation between “*r*” and “*l*”.

Activity. アクティビティ (akutibiti) Common word. Dictionaries state five other possible variations, so we may assume difficult pronunciation and that the word is not yet incorporated into the Japanese word-stock. Nevertheless, we may find only IT terminology collocations, so we could state that the IT sector was the

probable channel from which the word entered the Japanese lexicon, not business.

Development. ディベロップメント (diberoppumento)

Industry. インダストリー (indasutorī) Some collocations can be found:

キー・インダストリー (kī indasutorī) key industry

リーディング・インダストリー (rīdingu indasutorī) leading industry

Asset. アセット (asetto) Some collocation can be found: アセット・マネージメント (asetto manējimento – asset management).

Pay. ペイ (pei) Common word. Again, some collocations can be found: バック・ペイ (bakku pei – back pay) or whole phrases: ノー・ワーク・ノー・ペイ (nō wāku nō pei – no work, no pay – the basic principle of industrial relations – if the work assigned is not carried out, the employee is not eligible for any payment).

Investment. インベストメント (inbesutomento) Collocation may be again found: インベストメント・バンク (inbesutomento banku – investment bank) or インベストメント・テクノロジー (inbesutomento tekunorojī – investment technology).

Earning. This word probably does not create any kind of borrowing in the Japanese language.

Goods. グッズ (guzzu) Common word. It can be used in two meanings: in the original meaning of goods, or in the shifted meaning of “*promotional items, merchandise, merch (Jisho dictionary)*”. Wiktionary states that the meaning of merchandise is much more used than the original meaning. We can also find some *wasei-eigo* words:

アダルト・グッズ (adaruto guzzu – from English adult goods) – sex toy
コミュニケーション・グッズ (komyunikēshon guzzu – from English communication goods) – “*well-chosen gifts (with a positive message) (Jisho dictionary).*”

Competitor. コンペティター (konpetitā) or コンペチター (konpechitā). We can also find relative words コンペティション (konpetishon) or clipped コンペ (konpe) with the meaning of competition.

Corporate. コーポレート (kōporēto) Some business English collocations may be found, for example commonly used コーポレート・アイデンティティー (kōporēto aidentitī – corporate identity) or コーポレート・カルチャー (kōporēto karuchā – corporate culture).

Team. チーム (chīmu) or (less often) ティーム (tīmu). Common word. Compound noun チーム・ワーク (chīmuwāku – teamwork) is also a common business English word, and some others follow. From the point of view of pronunciation, we may note that the first syllable was changed into the “*chi*” sound, as in the original Japanese language, “*i*” always soften/palatalize the previous consonant and therefore there was no “hard” “*tj*” sound. This is changing under the influence of other languages, so we may encounter also the version of pronunciation as “*tīmu*”.

Conclusion:

The most interesting fact about our research was that out of 32 most used words in business English, the overwhelming majority of them had their equivalent as a loanword in the Japanese language. More than that, a large number of them were marked as a common word in Japanese. Only a few of English words had no equivalent. A large number were borrowed not only as a word on its own but

also as a part of many business English collocations. This suggests that business, international trade and international economic relations between Japan and the USA or other countries of the West is very probably a significant source of this linguistic influx.

As we have shown in the introductory chapter, in the history of Japanese linguistic borrowing, different languages were backgrounds for borrowings of different semantic fields – Portuguese loanwords had often something to do with Christianity, Dutch borrowings were technical and were mainly connected with the items traded by the Dutch, French words were often connected to culture or diplomacy, and so on. It is very probable that business English borrowings form another distinctive part of the Japanese lexicon.

Loveday (1996) as cited in Daulton (2009, p. 35) confirmed that some topics are predominantly receptive to English loanwords, when he found out that 52 percent of flower names, about one third of fruit or vegetable names, one quarter of animal names and 9 percent of colour names came from English. He stated that some traditional fields, such as law and politics, are strictly lexically conservative, whereas some “new and modern” fields are much more receptive. We could state that business is also this “new and modern” field receptive to foreign influence, as Loveday on another place of the same book (*Language Contact in Japan: A Sociolinguistic History*, 1996, p. 100-101) states that channels through which English entered the Japanese lexicon were mainly technology, commerce, and the media, and words also had the semantics of this field. Also, he found out in a recent terminology dictionary “*that the proportion of borrowing is extremely high in economic and ‘high-tech’ fields: 75 per cent of marketing terminology, 67 per cent of engineering terminology, and 99 per cent of computer technology is English-based*”. These extremely high numbers agree with the results we obtained, nevertheless, we have to have in

mind that we proceeded the other way around – the most frequent business English words were searched for in Japanese dictionaries.

If the most of frequent business English words were found in the Japanese lexicon, but Japanese economic terminology would not show us such high numbers, it would mean that Japanese is very tolerant to English, but Japanese economic terminology uses the majority of native Japanese words. If the most of frequent business English words were not to be found in the Japanese lexicon, but Japanese economic terminology would use a high percentage of English loanwords, it would mean that Japanese economic terminology uses mostly words, which are not used so much in everyday life.

The results suggest that Japanese economic terminology is probably the proper reflection of the frequency of business English vocabulary, and therefore the reflection of a living language, how it is spoken and used.

Nevertheless, to make the research more comprehensive, it would also be interesting to find the list of the mostly used *gairaigo* words of English origin, and then find the words with business connotations, to find out the proportion of these words in a whole *gairaigo* corpus. Whether these proportion would be low or high would indicate how important is business as a channel through which borrowings flow.

We also found out that many loanwords are not coined yet since there often exist more than one version of these “japanized” *gairaigo*. This contributes to the conclusion that *gairaigo* from the semantic field of business are not yet fully integrated into the Japanese vocabulary and are at constant change. This was already noted by many scholars (for example Daulton, 2009, p. 35) when dealing with general *gairaigo* lexicon, and thus we can assume that business-oriented *gairaigo* behaves the same, considering perceived fashionability and prestige.

Also, we found out that a great number of “japanized” *gairaigo* was able to be found also as a part of English collocations, which were borrowed into Japanese as whole phrases. Also, many keywords of business English collocate with each other and this is kept also in their “japanized” equivalents, since one word was often found in many business English collocations.

Also, we could find out many examples of *wasei-eigo*, and we can pronounce that this lexical field of business also create some.

Some number of words were found with the meaning of computer technology. This is because of the fact that English words are very often ambiguous, polysemantic, and in this case they are able to be used both in business and in computer science.

Some of the words were marked by a dictionary as a *-suru* word. As was discussed above, this auxiliary word (which can be translated as “to do” or “to make”) enables many nouns to be converted into verbs. As for our words, this was the case of for example:

サービスする	(sābisu suru)	to do service, to help, to assist
ペイする	(pei suru)	to pay

This also helps to incorporate English words into Japanese.

3.3 Examples of English loanwords in the Japanese business

To provide the evidence that English loanwords are commonly used in the Japanese business, some examples found on the Internet, which prove the usage of English loanwords in the Japanese business, follow.

Firstly, I would like to discuss some examples from the web page of MUFG – Mitsubishi UFJ Financial Group, Inc., company, which we encountered in the subchapter above.



(Mitsubishi UFJ Financial Group, Inc., 2019)

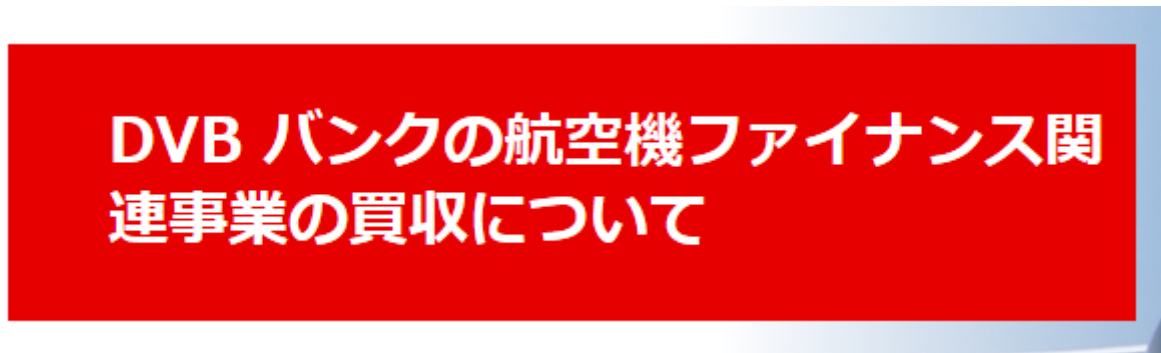
Picture from the part of the MUFG webpage shows using all Japanese scripts – the Roman alphabet, *hiragana*, *katakana* (クオリティ – transcription of quality, as discussed above; and we may also see “ニュースリリース” – “nyūsu rirīsu” – loanword from English “news release”) and some *kanji*.

The following screenshot of MUFG webpage shows us the using of loanword “フィナンシャル・グループ” – finansharu gurūpu – from English “financial group”.

三菱UFJフィナンシャル・グループ®

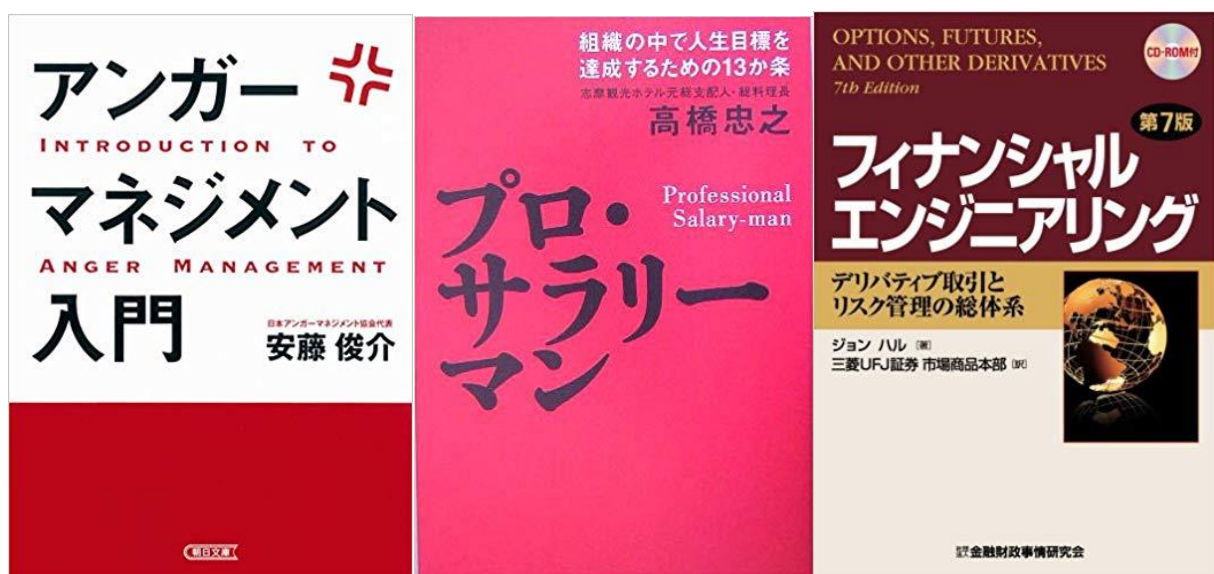
(Mitsubishi UFJ Financial Group, Inc., 2019)

Another part of MUFG webpage shows once again using of the Roman alphabet, *hiragana*, *kanji*, and our field of interest – words of English origin written in *katakana* – here we can see “バンク” – “*banku*” – from English “*bank*”, and “ファイナンス” – “*fainansu*” – from English “*finance*”.



(Mitsubishi UFJ Financial Group, Inc., 2019)

Another proof of using English loanwords may be the names of specialized books on economic topics. Pictures from Amazon prove the using of English loanwords as the names of the books – below you may see “anger management, professional salary-man” and “financial engineering” japonized and written in *katakana*.



(Amazon, 2019)

Japanized English written in *katakana* is not limited only to this usage, it may even appear in the names of companies. The Nikkei 225, a stock market index for the Tokyo Stock Exchange, which measures the performance of 225 large, publicly-owned companies in Japan, lists companies such as:

ユニー・ファミリーマート・ホールディングス (yunī famirīmāto hōrudingusu)
– UNY FamilyMart Holdings

J.フロント・リテイリング (J. furonto riteiringu) – J.FRONT RETAILING

ファースト・リテイリング (fāsuto riteiringu) – Fast retailing

リクルート・ホールディングス (rikurūto hōrudingusu) – Recruit Holdings

サイバー・エージェント (saibā ējento) – CyberAgent

(Nikkei 225, Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia, 2019)

4. Cultural and social context

In this chapter, I will attempt to put the English influence and business English borrowings into a broader context of contemporary culture and society. This will be made by covering several topics. In the first subchapter, we will investigate the role of the English language in Japanese society. In the second subchapter, we will describe how English is used in Japanese companies with regard to the way how globalization works in Japan, and we will attempt to foresee the future of this linguistic and cultural influence. Finally, we will briefly state the typical linguistic and cultural conflicts which may occur between American and Japanese businessmen.

4.1 The role of the English language in Japanese society

Japanese society can be described as a monolingual one. The Japanese language is used by almost all native citizens of Japan, two small ethnic groups (Ryukyuan and Ainu) speak languages related to Japanese, but mutually unintelligible. Foreigners residing in Japan also speak their native languages, such as Korean, Chinese, Philippine, Thai, or English. It is important to mention that *“for everyday life, there is no need to know any language other than Japanese (Tukahara, The Sociolinguistic Situation of English in Japan, 2002).”*

In the introductory chapter, we have already mentioned that the English language has been the subject of study from the beginning of the 19th century, and with some periods of interruptions, it is up till now. We also mentioned that English was compulsory in schools from the beginning of the Meiji period, which was cancelled in the era of nationalism and restored after the Second World War, but we also have to have in mind that in the pre-war era, the level of formal education of the Japanese population was much lower than in the post-war era – before the Second World War, universities were attended by less than 3 percent of the population; in the year 1975, 30 percent of students, who finished their high school education, continued to study at universities.

Percentage of people who finished high school also rose (Reischauer and Craig, 2009, pp. 290-291). We can observe that more and more people went through formal English education.

Tukahara (2002) describes that nowadays almost every Japanese from the years of 12 to 18 learns English as a second language in school, and English is also taught at university, regardless of the main subject of study. Nevertheless, *“the few areas in which English is used generally are limited to some university courses and certain departments of large international corporations (Tukahara, 2002).”* In conclusion, we may say that although almost every Japanese is exposed to many hours of formal English education, this direct experience with the foreign language is predominantly limited to the walls of a classroom.

Thus, now we will pay our attention to the use of English in business.

4.2 The English language in the Japanese business as a result of economic globalization and expectations in the future

In the introductory chapter we have already mentioned the fact that after the Second World War, Americans enabled and helped Japan to restructure and modernize their economy according to the Western model. More than that, the Japanese economy became integrated into the global economy, and special interconnection of economic relations was made with the American economy. Ever since this period, English obtained another connotation – it became the language of business. Rudolf (English and Discourses of Identity in Japan, 2002) states that ever since this period, *“the business community continues to promote the necessity of English in sustaining Japan’s ability to compete in the global business world,”* as there is a belief that without a good ability of Japanese businessmen to speak proper English, Japan could be under threat of losing its competitive edge in international business and international politics (Rudolf, 2002).

The McKinsey Quarterly, which is a business magazine, being published by McKinsey & Company, one of the most prestigious management consulting company, published an article named *“Japan’s globalization imperative”*. Authors of the article (Iwatani, Orr, Salsberg, 2011) observe the slowdown of the Japanese economy in the past years and state that the survival of Japanese companies may heavily depend upon the ability to increase overseas revenues and profits, which means deeper internationalization and globalization.

We have to point out the important problem Japanese society faces – the fall of birth-rate and the consequent shortage of labour force. The shortage of labour force is able to be solved by two basic approaches – either by accepting foreign workers or by the export of capital and therefore the export of job positions. We can draw parallels with the case of the German economy, which is also heavily based on the import of raw materials, manufacturing and the export of finished

goods, and which has been also suffering for some time from the shortage of unskilled or semi-skilled labour force. The German economy is known to be dealing with the problem of the shortage of labour force by combining both means, both investing in the central European countries and accepting foreign workers. The Japanese economy has been known for a long time to export the capital into the countries with a cheaper labour force in the southeast Asia, and not accepting foreign workers into the domestic labour market. Nevertheless, not every post is able to be exported and held by local non-Japanese (Iwatani, Orr, Salsberg, 2011).

The article “*Japan’s globalization imperative*” observes that Japanese companies are less global than the ones from the other countries, nevertheless, the Japanese economy is slowly becoming more globalized. International mergers and acquisitions are taking place, some progressive companies began to use English as a global corporate language or recruit talented non-Japanese executives, which are things unthinkable in the past. The article further explains that the shrinking population will also reduce the level of consumption, tax revenues, and GDP. Japanese workers also tend to be ineffective. Japanese domestic market is becoming to be occupied by foreign products. Japanese companies, once leaders in innovations, are losing their competitive edge since innovations very often come from other countries – for example Singapore or South Korea. All these facts are profound reasons for Japanese companies to go global (Iwatani, Orr, Salsberg, 2011). Eventually, the globalization of Japanese companies will most likely help to westernize all Japan in the future.

The article also points out that the English language may be one of the keys for Japanese companies not to lose their competitiveness. Although making English the main company language may be difficult and challenging in the Japanese environment, McKinsey’s past experience proves that making English the company *lingua franca* is the key factor in the globalization effort. The most

importantly, it enables companies to hire talented individuals from various backgrounds, which consequently brings new viewpoints, new experiences, and, eventually, better business solutions (Iwatani, Orr, Salsberg, 2011).

In the end, we may observe that the economic needs of Japan will probably make the English language even more important in Japanese companies and Japanese society in general. The English language as the company *lingua franca* will probably bring talented employees from all over the world into Japanese corporations and even to Japan itself. It is probable that this will help to reduce some cultural differences between Japan and the West and contribute to the Westernization of Japan and Japanese culture in general.

Some examples of this are already happening. Rudolf (2002) mentions companies such as Kyocera or Rakuten. Rakuten president Hiroshi Mikitani officially announced English as the new primary working language of the company. Mikitani's philosophy "*Englishnization*" does not intend only to increase the abilities of his company; he rather desires to change Japanese society as a whole, he believes that his company can be "*the role model for a new Japan*". Mikitani believes that "*Englishnization*" is a manner to modernize Japanese conservative customs, a manner to open up to the Western world. Overall, after some initial shock, his controversial step has been viewed as a rather positive one by the Japanese media (Rudolf, 2002).

There are also other means in practice which are aimed to help with the overall poor linguistic ability of Japanese. Rudolf (2002) further mentions the project for the internationalization of Japanese universities, which was backed by the Japanese business community. Hagerman (2009) also mentions the JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) Programme, which places mostly native English speakers throughout secondary schools in Japan with an aim to assist in English lessons.

4.3 Typical linguistic and cultural misunderstandings between American and Japanese businessmen

This part of the thesis will be devoted to the description of typical linguistic and cultural misunderstandings which can occur between American and Japanese businessmen. Drawing upon the abovementioned linguistic part, I will make use of a handbook published in 1999 by Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO) *Communicating with Japanese in Business*, and extract the most important and necessary information for our purposes.

The handbook states that at the basis of many communication gaps or misunderstandings between American and Japanese businessmen is often *“indirectness of Japanese communication style, certain peculiarities of the Japanese use of English, or Japanese nonverbal behaviour or paralinguistics (sounds made when surprised, thinking, etc.) (JETRO, 1999, p. 22).”* The handbook further says that we should keep in mind that Japanese are speaking a foreign language, and therefore we should be patient and tolerant.

As we observed in the chapters above, we have already mentioned *wasei-eigo*, words with a different meaning than in English, but we should be aware of other unintended mistakes Japanese may often make. The handbook mentions that for example word “yes” *“can mean anything from ‘I’m listening to you,’ to ‘I understand what you’re saying’ to ‘I understand what you’re saying, but don’t agree with you’ (JETRO, 1999, p. 22).”* Another example of indirectness is *“I understand,”* which often means just *“I have listened to what you have to say.”* And finally, *“We will consider it”* very likely means just *“No”* (JETRO, 1999, pp. 22-23).

The handbook further describes that *“Oftentimes Japanese are misusing expressions that they have been taught are polite, or directly translating a form*

which conveys politeness in Japanese, but which has quite a different impact in English (JETRO, 1999, p. 24)."

Apart from Japanese English words, which we have already spoken about, the handbook further explains that Japanese often confuse "by" and "until", which could cause serious misunderstanding if related to business meetings. They also often misuse the "-ed" and "-ing" forms of adjectives, gerunds and infinitives, and subject and object of a sentence. This all stems from the different nature of the Japanese language (JETRO, 1999, p. 28).

Finally, the handbook describes that another source of misunderstanding can be nonverbal communication – Japanese often laugh when they are in an unexpected situation, which is uncomfortable for American businessman. Conversely, drawing in air through the teeth may not indicate complete disagreement, which would assume businessman from the West, but rather means only partial disagreement. Also, silence cannot be always interpreted completely negatively, as it often means just thinking, trust, confusion, or just partial disagreement (JETRO, 1999, pp. 30-31).

In conclusion, while communicating with Japanese, we should have in mind that some misunderstandings may stem not only from poor English abilities but also from some social and cultural facts. (Indirectness, ill-intentioned politeness, different body language and so on.)

5. Questionnaire analysis

To find out whether all this academic theoretical description corresponds with the experience of people who have some first-hand experience with the Japanese business, a questionnaire was created and distributed. We acquired 13 responses about language use in Japanese corporations, thus now we can attempt to make some conclusion.

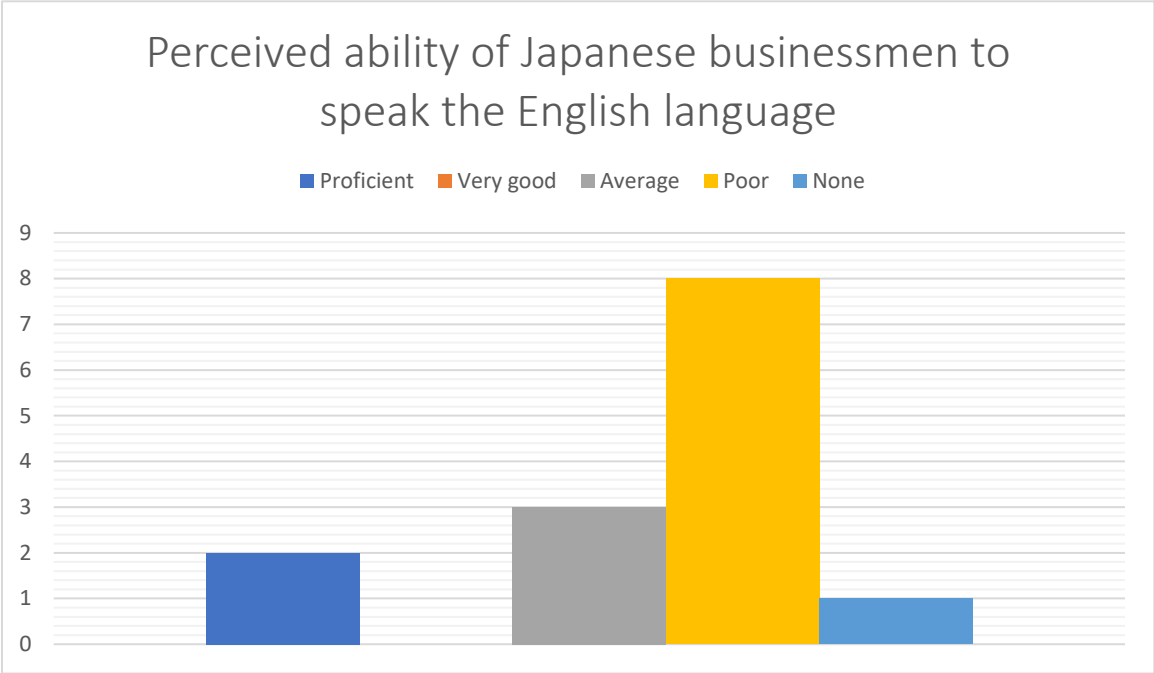
In the first question, we were interested in the place the interviewees have worked. From 9 respondents who filled out this question, 8 of them had experience from the Japanese company in the Czech Republic, most of them mentioned various companies in Pilsen, one of them stated that he had worked for two months in Japan itself. Types of occupation varied – from R&D specialists and quality managers to workers in finance. One respondent claimed he had worked part-time as a convenience store staff in Japan.

In the second question, we inquired about the language policy of the company respondents had worked in. 8 out of 13 (62 %) stated that English was considered necessary. (One wrote that English was necessary for the whole department he worked in and all internal meetings were held in English.) 4 (31 %) stated that the English language was an advantage, but not necessary. Only 1 (8 %) declared that English was not necessary and communication was held with the help of interpreters. None of the respondents claimed that any other language than English was considered necessary.

In another question we were interested about the experience with the ability of Japanese businessmen to speak the English language. 2 respondents (15 %) claimed that according to their experience, the ability of Japanese businessman could be characterized as proficient. 3 respondents (23 %) characterized their English ability as average, 8 (62 %) as poor, and one (8 %) stated that their

command of English is poor to none. One respondent wrote a note that their knowledge is good, but pronunciation terrible.

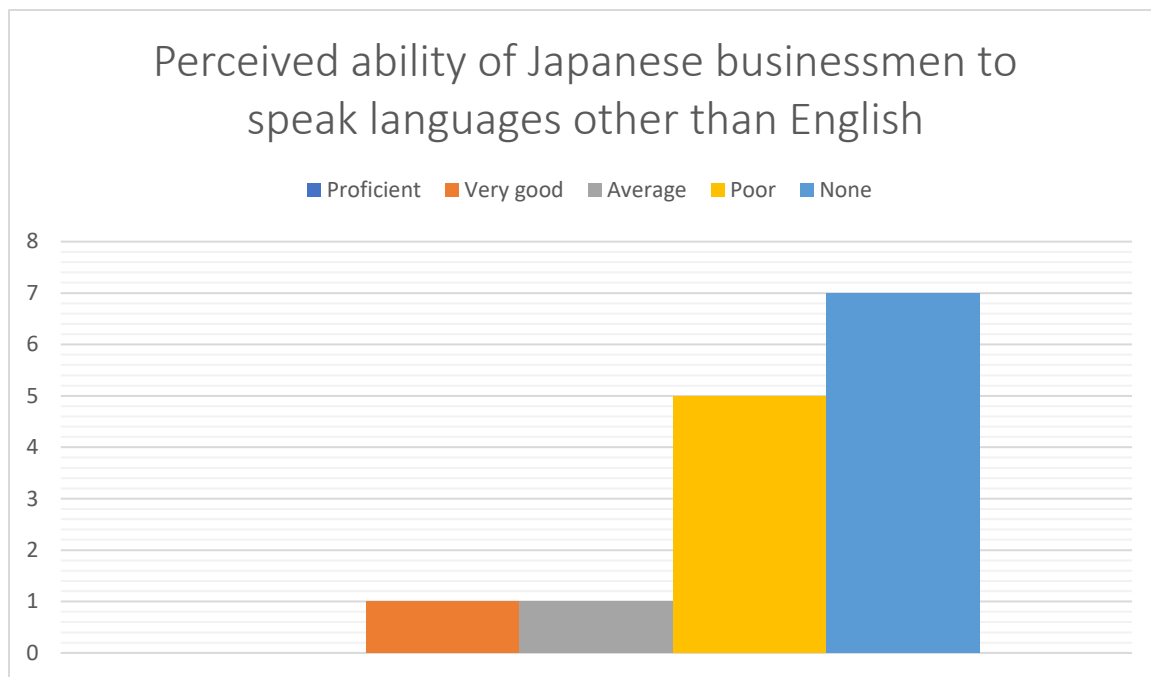
Question: *According to your experience, what is the general knowledge of Japanese businessmen of the English language?*



(Own research, 2019)

Another question was about the ability of Japanese businessmen to speak other languages. The results were even more adverse. None of the respondents claimed that their ability of other languages is proficient. Only one (8 %) stated that this ability is very good, one (8 %) stated average, 5 (38 %) stated poor and 7 (54 %) stated none. One respondent added a note saying that only one Japanese manager learned to speak Czech.

Question: *According to your experience, what is the general knowledge of Japanese businessmen of other languages?*



(Own research, 2019)

Another question inquired about the common mistakes of Japanese speakers of English. According to our research, Japanese speakers are just bad at English – 8 respondents (62 %) claimed that Japanese have bad grammar and poor vocabulary. 4 respondents (31 %) answered that English spoken by Japanese is unnatural – they observed weird collocations and shifts of meaning. Only 2 (15 %) noticed the creative use of English, i.e. intentional play with words, puns or ambiguities. 2 respondents (15 %) claimed that wrong, unnatural or creative use of English was not a common practice.

One respondent answered: *“Vocabulary is very good, but pronunciation is very difficult for Japanese, and so is grammar.”*

In another question we asked respondents to state some typical unusual use of English they were witnesses of. We asked them to write their answers out. The first respondent stated: *“Using suffix -son by every first name. For example ‘Michaelson’.”* Another interviewee mentioned just their specific pronunciation.

Other two observed confusion of verbs – for example between “to teach” and “to tell”, or “I do not know” in the meaning of “I was not interested in it.” The last respondent who filled out this question mentioned the using of “Japanized English” with shifted meaning, such as “image” or “smart”.

As a next question, we were interested about the connotation the English language has – whether it is generally taken as a “language of modernity, fashionability, and prestige,” or whether it is perceived as a mere instrument. Only 2 (16 %) stated that the English language is perceived as a “language of modernity, fashionability, and prestige,” whereas 10 respondents (83 %) claimed that English for Japanese businessmen is just a mere instrument. One interviewee added that *“Japanese had generally low interest in any foreign language”*. Another wrote that *„Japanese managers don't want to speak English. But sometimes they haven't other choice”*.

In the last but one question, we were interested whether they could observe some recent trends regarding the using of the English language. Answers generally varied. One claimed that *“Lately no big improvement regarding the knowledge of English”*. Other stated that *“The level of English is generally improving amongst most Asian people, also Chinese and Korean, in my opinion”*. Another observed that *“As the number of foreigners in Japan is rapidly increasing, there are bigger needs of English speakers”*. The last noticed this: *“I think other job skills are required for older generations than English, even though they are in an English-speaking environment. But for young generation English is regarded as one of the job skills. (Though, of course, it depends on job/company type...)”*

Lastly, respondents could add their own final remarks if they wanted to do so. The first interviewee stated: *“I met several managers with high level of English, but I'm afraid it was an exception.”* The second wrote that *“I think Europeans should take example from their work ethics and also politeness.”*

Overall, this questionnaire proved that the knowledge of English by Japanese people is a difficult issue which is still in need of its solution. The questionnaire was limited in scope, we acquired only 13 responses and most of the respondents claimed that their experience is limited to some Japanese company around Pilsen. We may conclude that the English language is indeed *lingua franca* for the Japanese companies operating on the Czech territory, nevertheless, Japanese proved to be poor speakers of English. Although we must mention that a small number of respondents stated that Japanese they met had proficient command of English. We also found out that Japanese are even worse in other language abilities. Answers about common mistakes by Japanese showed us that Japanese are just bad in English (since this was observed by most people) and their unnatural or creative use of English (which is a common topic among academic writers) is probably the consequence of this lack of English language ability. Results of the question about their attitude to the English language was rather surprising for me personally, as academic articles often claim that Japanese view English as a language of “modernity, fashionability, and prestige”. As the results have shown, at least among the Japanese operating in the companies based in the Czech Republic, it is not the case (83 % of interviewees stated that English is just a mere instrument for Japanese). Results from the last two questions proved that the future is hard to foresee. Some claimed that the level of English is improving, some claimed that no big improvement is taking place.

6. Conclusion

The main objective of this bachelor's thesis was to show and describe multiple influences of the English language on the Japanese language and Japanese business culture. The theoretical framework was made with the help of factual research and compilation of specialized literature, monographs, articles in academic journals, but also by analysis of trade journals for businessmen or respected business handbooks. The first part provided the basic information about language contact between Japanese and other languages, notably English. Description of the Japanese economy also took place. Practical chapter compared the English and Japanese language and presented multiple examples of English loanwords in the Japanese language. This phenomenon was then put into the context of using English in Japanese society and business. Typical linguistic and cultural misunderstandings were mentioned. Final chapter interviewed employees with the experience with the Japanese business.

The main aim of the thesis was achieved. The bachelor's thesis showed and described multiple ways how the English language influences the Japanese language and what role does it play in Japanese contemporary business culture.

Apart from the main objective, the thesis defined two working hypotheses, which were as follows:

- 1) The English language in Japan holds a very specific position, distinct from any other country in the world.
- 2) Despite broad cultural differences between Japan and English-speaking countries, the influx of the English language helps to weaken them, which is happening also in the field of business.

Hypothesis number one: *The English language in Japan holds a very specific position, distinct from any other country in the world.*

Conclusion: **True.**

We have shown that despite the relative isolation of the Japanese archipelago, the Japanese language has been always borrowing words from other languages, especially from nations, which had some cultural or economic contact with Japan. However, borrowing from the English language – which is happening from the second half of the 20th century – probably has no comparison, especially in regard to its great scope. Although some may argue that similar processes of language mixing happen all around the world, we should have in mind that other mixed languages or pidgins mostly arise from the means of colonization, or as a result of two populations with different languages living in the same area. This is not the case of Japan, as Japan has never been a colony (although it was occupied by Americans for seven years after the Second World War), and Japanese society is vastly monocultural and monoethnic. The English language is spread mainly via universal English education and via using English borrowings in all kinds of human activity, including business, trade, marketing, popular culture, or IT. As we have found out, terminology of these fields is dominated by English loanwords.

Hypothesis number two: *Despite broad cultural differences between Japan and English-speaking countries, the influx of the English language helps to weaken them, which is happening also in the field of business*

Conclusion: **Probably true.**

As we have already seen, the Westernization of Japan was always closely linked to the learning of English and the spread of English borrowings, whether it was in the Meiji or Taisho period, or after the Second World War. Nevertheless, it is hard to tell whether we could see only correlation or causation. The influx of the English language in history was probably just a consequence of

Westernization and modernization. Nevertheless, it is very probable that this causation is going to reverse in the future, as we have already seen that many policies of the government or company managements aim to promote English as a language of business, with an aim to benefit more from globalization and not to lose their competitiveness. This would cause an even higher influx of the English language and English borrowings. More than that, if these policies prove successful, the English language, especially its use in business organizations, and also English-speaking professionals coming to Japan, may assist in another wave of the Westernization of Japan. Whether this is going to happen in the future remains an open question.

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8. Resume

Angličtina hraje v současném Japonsku významnou a zajímavou roli. Její dosah může být charakterizován hlavně rozsáhlým výskytem lexikálních výpůjček, které jsou do japonštiny často přejímány jako celá sousloví. Vzhledem k naprosto odlišné struktuře anglického a japonského jazyka, a to jak v rovině fonetické, morfologické nebo syntaktické, jsou výpůjčky často změněny natolik, že je rodilý mluvčí angličtiny často nerozpozná. Kromě toho dochází k posunům i v rovině významové. Vliv angličtiny na japonštinu je patrný nejvíce v některých moderních oblastech lidské činnosti, jako je například obchod, marketing, IT nebo populární kultura. Angličtina jako jazyk obchodu získala své postavení v Japonsku po druhé světové válce, a právě v tomto období můžeme též pozorovat velký politický, ale i ekonomický vliv Ameriky. Amerika vystupovala zpočátku v roli investora, poskytovatele technologií a know-how, později se stala největším partnerem Japonska v mezinárodním obchodě, a nakonec i v kapitálových tocích. Dnes se vzájemná provázanost ekonomik snížila ve prospěch jiných ekonomik, přesto je vzájemný obchod významný. Velké množství lexikálních výpůjček v japonštině je pozoruhodné hlavně v kontrastu s tím, že Japonci jsou povětšinou známí svou špatnou angličtinou. To může mít své příčiny například ve špatné výuce na školách, faktem, že Japonská společnost je stále relativně monokulturní, ale třeba i v typicky Japonské mentalitě, která spočívá ve strachu otevřít se zahraničním vlivům a z toho vyplývající všeobecné neochotě učit se jakýkoli cizí jazyk. Všeobecně malé jazykové schopnosti jsou obchodními kruhy často kritizovány a zmiňovány jako jedna z překážek, které brání lepšímu výkonu ekonomiky. Japonská ekonomika se nachází v bodě, kdy je vyčerpán potenciál domácího trhu a pokud chtějí japonské firmy růst, musí zvýšit podíl operací na zahraničních trzích. Pro větší internacionalizaci je angličtina klíčovým faktorem. Některé firmy a vládní programy již uskutečňují některé strategické kroky, jak zlepšit úroveň angličtiny svých zaměstnanců nebo studentů, jak ale zjistil i náš skromný průzkum,

výsledky zatím nejsou příliš viditelné. Jestli se úroveň angličtiny mezi japonskými byznysmeny zlepší nebo ne, záleží v konečném důsledku také na tom, jestli se Japonsko rozhodne k další vlně otevření se světu, nebo jestli se rozhodne, že přišel čas na politiku izolacionalismu, i přes negativní ekonomické důsledky, které toto rozhodnutí s sebou může nést.

В современной Японии английский язык занимает интересное и значительное место. Его значение можно характеризовать, прежде всего, большим появлением лексических заимствований, которые в японский язык зачастую входят как целые словосочетания. Учитывая совершенно разную структуру английского и японского языков на всех уровнях – фонетики, морфологии и синтаксиса – заимствования зачастую изменяются до такого уровня, что носитель английского языка не способен их узнать. Кроме того, часто происходит семантический сдвиг. Влияние английского языка на японский наиболее очевидно в некоторых современных сферах человеческой деятельности, как, например, торговля, маркетинг, ИТ или популярная культура. Английский язык в Японии приобрёл свой статус делового языка после окончания Второй мировой войны. Именно в этот период можно наблюдать значительное не только политическое, но и экономическое влияние США. Америка выступала сначала в роли инвестора, поставщика технологий и ноу-хау, затем стала самым крупным партнёром Японии в международной торговле, и, наконец, в потоках капитала. В настоящее время, взаимозависимость экономик уменьшилась в пользу других экономик, но взаимная торговля даже сейчас не теряет своей значимости. Большое количество лексических заимствований в японском языке интересно, прежде всего, учитывая тот факт, что Японцы известны своей плохой способностью говорить на английском языке. Причинами этого могут быть,

например, плохой уровень образования в учебных заведениях, отсутствие мультикультурализма в Японском обществе, а также, например, типичный японский менталитет, заключающийся в страхе открыться влиянию зарубежья, из чего вытекает всеобщее нежелание учиться любой иностранный язык. Низкий уровень владения любым языком часто подвергается критике со стороны бизнеса; он понимается как один из барьеров, мешающий улучшению экономических показателей. Японская экономика находится на грани исчерпания потенциала внутреннего рынка. Если японские фирмы намерены улучшать свои экономические результаты, то им необходимо повысить уровень своей экономической деятельности на зарубежных рынках. Для углубления интернационализации английский язык является ключевым фактором. Некоторые компании или государственные программы уже принимают некоторые стратегические шаги для повышения уровня владения английским языком своих сотрудников или студентов, однако, и по результатам нашего скромного исследования, уровень владения английским языком пока не улучшается. Улучшение уровня владения английским языком японскими бизнесменами, в конце концов, зависит тоже и от того, примет ли Япония решение опять открыться миру, или пойдёт ли по пути политики изоляционизма, несмотря на негативные экономические последствия, которые данное решение может вызвать.

9. Abstract

This bachelor's thesis is devoted to the detailed and extensive description of the influence of the English language on the Japanese language and its role in the Japanese business culture. The thesis deals with the history of linguistic borrowing in Japan and emphasizes economic reasons for this linguistic influence. English and Japanese are analysed from the linguistical point of view, typical examples of business English borrowings are provided and commented on. The thesis further shows the role of the English language in Japanese society and the Japanese business and attempts to foresee the future of this phenomenon. The work also mentions typical linguistic misunderstandings and finally interviews employees with some experience with the Japanese business. The methodology of the work was based mostly upon research and compilation of specialized literature and trade press, corpus linguistics, work with dictionaries, and questionnaire analysis.

Keywords: business English, Japanese English, *gairaigo*, *wasei-eigo*, loanword, linguistic influence, globalization

10. Appendix

	-a	-i	-u	-e	-o	-ya	-yu	-yo	
∅	ア a	イ i	ウ u	エ e	オ o	ヤ ya	ユ yu	ヨ yo	
k-	カ ka	キ ki	ク ku	ケ ke	コ ko	キャ kya	キュ kyu	キョ kyo	
g-	ガ ga	ギ gi	グ gu	ゲ ge	ゴ go	ギャ gya	ギユ gyu	ギョ gyo	
s-	サ sa	シ shi	ス su	セ se	ソ so	シャ sha	シュ shu	ショ sho	
z-	ザ za	ジ ji	ズ zu	ゼ ze	ゾ zo	ジャ ja	ジュ ju	ジョ jo	
t-	タ ta	チ chi	ツ tsu	テ te	ト to	チャ cha	チュ chu	チョ cho	
d-	ダ da	ヂ ji	ヅ zu	デ de	ド do				
n-	ナ na	ニ ni	ヌ nu	ネ ne	ノ no	ニャ nya	ニユ nyu	ニョ nyo	ン (-n)
h-	ハ ha	ヒ hi	フ fu	ヘ he	ホ ho	ヒャ hya	ヒュ hyu	ヒョ hyo	
b-	バ ba	ビ bi	ブ bu	ベ be	ボ bo	ビャ bya	ビュ byu	ビョ byo	
p-	パ pa	ピ pi	プ pu	ペ pe	ポ po	ピャ pya	ピュ pyu	ピョ pyo	
m-	マ ma	ミ mi	ム mu	メ me	モ mo	ミャ mya	ミュ myu	ミョ myo	
r-	ラ ra	リ ri	ル ru	レ re	ロ ro	リャ rya	リュ ryu	リョ ryo	
w-	ワ wa				ヲ (o)				

The complete *katakana* syllabary (Stanlaw, 2004, p. 305)