

Research paper

## The Function of Address Terms in English and Japanese: Analysis Using Scenarios

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### ABSTRACT

Address terms are substantives which designate collocutors or refer to them in some other way (cf. Braun 1988), and include personal nouns, kinship/role terms, and proper nouns (Suzuki 1973). This paper investigates address terms in English and Japanese by using movie and TV drama scenarios as data. First, as address terms are used as vocatives and pronouns, this paper will discuss the functions of vocatives and the way address terms are utilized as pronouns. Secondly, although Biber et al. (1999) list three functions of vocatives, the paper will show that there are other functions that cannot be explained in the listed functions. The article will also discuss the use of address terms from a viewpoint of politeness. The article then analyzes politeness strategies in English and Japanese concerning the vocatives. Lastly, the paper refers to the significance of using scenarios as teaching materials.

### KEYWORDS

address terms, politeness, pronouns, person, scenarios

### 研究論文

## 日本語および英語における対称詞の機能：シナリオを使用した分析

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### 要旨

対称詞とは「話の相手に言及することばの総称」(鈴木 1973)であるが、本論文では日本語および英語における対称詞について、映画やテレビドラマのシナリオをデータとし、発話における名前の呼びかけと代名詞的な振る舞い、またそれに派生する問題としての人称という点をポライトネスとの関わりから論じる。また、シナリオを会話教材として使用する意義に関しても言及する。

対称詞には人称名詞、定記述、固有名詞が用いられ、その用法には呼格的用法と代名詞的用法がある(鈴木 1973)が、まず Biber et al. (1999)による呼格の機能の種類だけでは説明しきれない機能があることを論ずる。

次に、ポライトネスを表現する方略の中の一つとして、特に英語の場合、呼格によるポライトネスはポジティブ・ポライトネスとネガティブ・ポライトネスが同時に実現されるような働きがあり、それが直示性の忌避によるものであることを論ずる。

また、対話の場にはいるが話し手が直接話をしていない人について言及したり、対話の場に物理的にいなくても身内と考えられる人間に言及する場合の三人称の忌避も、やはり人称代名詞の直示性を嫌うことによるものであることを論じる。

最後に、こうした対称詞使用の語用論的機能を理解するため、教材としてシナリオを使用する意義について言及する。

### キーワード

対称詞, ポライトネス, 代名詞, 人称, シナリオ

## 1. Introduction

This paper investigates English and Japanese systems of addressing, focusing on their functions and their roles to express politeness by using movie and TV drama scenarios as data.

Addressing is using a particular title or name when speaking or writing to someone (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, the Third Edition*), and this is an example in an English conversation:

(1a) Paul: Hi, Cathy! I've never thought I'd see you here.

Cathy: Hi, Paul. I was thinking the same thing about you.

(Yamagishi 1995: 159)

In Japanese, its translation would be like this:

(1b) Pooru: Yaa, Kyasii! Koko-de au-towa omowanakatta-yo.

Kyasii: Ara, Pooru. Watashi-mo sooyo.

(Yamagishi 1995: 159)

Although the translation is grammatically correct, it sounds a little awkward to native speakers of Japanese. Yamagishi (1995) points out that there is no such linguistic convention in Japanese to put the name of the addressee into a conversation (160). Let us look at another example that comes in English and Japanese:

(2a) Joey: No it's not weird, it's a miracle!

Rachel: It's not a miracle Joey! I'm sure there's some explanation.

Joey: Oh there is! If you want something enough and your heart is  
pure, wondrous things can happen!

Rachel: Joey, I really don't...

Joey: (interrupting her) Can you tell me how this happened?

(2b) Joi: Hen-ja nai, kiseki-da!

Reicheru: Kiseki-ja nai-yo! Kitto nani-ka aru-yo.

Joi: Aru-sa! Issho-kemmei negatte kokoro-ga junsui-naraba  
odoroku-beki koto-mo aru!

Reicheru: Honto-ni chigau-to...

Joi: (Saegiru) Ja, setsumei-dekiru?

(Kimura 2002 (partly altered); henceforth it is referred to as "A".)

In the English conversational example, Rachel calls Joey twice, but none in the Japanese translation, and yet it sounds natural. Let's look at one more example:

(3a) Rachel: Well, it's a long story, but umm I broke Joey's chair...

Chandler: Whoa-whoa-whoa! You broke Joey's chair?

(3b) Reicheru: Hanashi nagai-kedo, Joi-no isu kowashichatte...

Chandolaa: Ma, ma, matte! Reicheru-ga kowashita-no? (A)

This English example uses *you* while its Japanese translation uses her name *Rachel* as its functionally equivalent. The translation sounds much more natural although it does not use *anata* or *kimi*, both of which would be grammatically equivalent words for *you* in Japanese.

In the following paper, first, address terms in both languages will be described. Then, since address terms are used as vocatives and personal pronouns, I will discuss the functions of vocatives and the way address terms are utilized as personal pronouns. Although Biber et al. (1999) list three functions of vocatives, it will be shown that there are other functions that cannot be explained in the listed functions. There will also be a focus on the use of address terms from a viewpoint of politeness. Consequently, the paper analyzes politeness strategies in English and Japanese concerning the address terms. Lastly, the significance of using scenarios as teaching materials will be referred to.

## 2. Address Terms in Japanese

### 2.1 Varieties of Address Terms

Address terms are substantives which designate collocutors or refer to them in some other way (cf. Braun 1988), and include personal nouns, kinship and role terms, and proper nouns (Suzuki 1973: 146).

Here are several examples in Japanese:

(4) Kimi-wa kono kyoku-ga suki?

'Do you like this music?'

(5) Sempai-dattara kitto hikemasu-yo.

'I'm sure you can play it.'

(6) Sorede Ryoko-chan-wa dooshitai-no?

'So what do you want to do (, Ryoko)?'

(7) Nee, Ryoko-chan, kooiu-no-wa doo?

'Look, Ryoko, how about things like this?'

(All from Kitagawa 2004; henceforth "B")

Japanese has various words to illustrate each person. Words that indicate the addressee of the speaker include *anata*, *omae* and *kimi*, and one finds *kimi* in example (4) as an equivalent of *you*. *Kimi* refers to the addressed recipient directly, and it is deictic as the referent would change when the

referent is someone else. Being deictic makes *kimi* look like a second person pronoun. Words like this will be chosen by the speaker considering the relationship between the speaker and the addressee. The word that the speaker calls himself or herself, and the word that refers to the addressed recipient are compatible, and the terms of address would change as the relationship between the parties changes. Japanese has various ways to express first person and second person, which means the categories for 'first person' and 'second person' reference are not grammatically closed. They are not as grammaticalized as personal pronouns should be, and therefore I will call them "personal nouns" (cf. Takubo 1997, Suzuki 1973).

In example (5), definite description is used as an address term. Definite description includes kinship terms such as *o-too-san* 'father' and *o-kaa-san* 'mother'; terms to express hierarchical relationships such as *sempai* 'someone who is senior'; terms to describe the addressee's title at work such as *shachoo* 'president,' and *kachoo* 'manager'; and terms of vocations such as *o-hana-ya-san* 'flower shop,' and *pan-ya-san* 'bakery.' When *o-too-san* and *shachoo* are used as terms of address, the referents are set and they work as if they were proper nouns (cf. Takubo 1997).

Lastly, proper nouns are used as terms of address. In example (6), *Ryoko* can be the third person who is neither the speaker nor the addressed recipient, but it is perfectly all right when *Ryoko* is the addressee. Naturally, there is no hidden personal noun such as *anata*, and examples (5) and (6) require the unique concept of address terms in Japanese. Table 1 shows how address terms are constructed in Japanese.

Table 1 Variety of Address Terms

Address Terms	
Personal noun	<i>atana, kimi</i>
Definite description	<i>o-too-san, o-kaa-san, sempai, shachoo, o-hana-ya-san</i>
Proper noun	<i>Suzuki-san, Hanako-chan</i>

## 2.2 The Usage of Address Terms

Address terms have two different usages. The first one is "vocative use," in which one would use address terms "when you would like to draw the addressee's attention or you would like to appeal to the addressee's emotions" (Suzuki 1973: 146). Example (7) illustrates this type of usage. The other one is called "pronominal use." It is so named as "for the subject or the object of the sentence whose referent is the addressee, the second person pronoun (in English, *you*) would usually be used in Indo-European languages (Suzuki 1973: 147)." Examples (4) to (6) represent this usage. The term may be easily understandable but as is discussed earlier, personal pronouns are not grammatically set in Japanese, and hence, it might not be an appropriate naming. Definitive description and proper nouns are not personal pronouns either, but the referent of these nouns is the addressed recipient, and it is equivalent to *you* in English.

### 2.3 Characteristics of Personal Nouns as Address Terms

It would not be appropriate to use a personal noun to someone who is senior to the speaker from a viewpoint of politeness (cf. Suzuki 1973, Takubo 1997).

(8a) (To a teacher by his or her student) Do you like this music?

(8b) (Seito-ga sensei-ni) Anata-wa kono-kyoku-ga suki-desu-ka?

Nothing is grammatically wrong with the example (8b), but there is a problem from a viewpoint of politeness and it is not appropriate as an actual utterance from a student. We will review and discuss it more in the following section.

### 3. Address Terms in English

In English, personal pronouns are grammatically established and second person reference takes the form *you* and its variants such as *your* and *yours*. Therefore, definitive description and proper nouns are not used to function as pronouns, and they are only used in vocative use.

(9a) There, mother, there's your luggage.

(9b) \*There, mother, there's mother's luggage.

(9c) There's my mother's luggage.

(Suzuki 1982: 40; partly altered)

(10a) Joey, you broke my chair!

(10b) \*Joey, Joey broke my chair! (A)

(11) Ryoko-chan..., Ryoko-chan, Sena-to umaku itten-no?

'Ryoko..., (Ryoko,) are you getting along with Sena?' (B)

Example (9a) is an utterance to the speaker's mother, but (9c) is to someone who is not the speaker's mother. (9a) and (9b) are not spoken to the same recipient with the same meaning, not to mention that (9b) is ungrammatical. (10a) is an utterance in which Joey is the addressee, but (10a) and (10b) do not have the same meaning, and when the addressee and the subject of the sentence is the same Joey, the sentence is ungrammatical. While in Japanese, example (11) uses the same address term twice, one in vocative use and the other in pronominal use. However, this seemingly redundant way of using address terms sometimes sounds more natural in Japanese, which is not the case in English (cf. Takubo 1997). In English, *you* indicates an addressed recipient, and nothing else. Therefore *you* is used to refer to the addressee regardless of the relationship between the speaker and the addressed recipient.

#### 4. The Functions of Vocatives or Addition of the Name

##### 4.1 The Functions of Addressing

What function does this act of addressing play in a conversation, then?

Biber et al. (1999) deals with this matter using a term "vocative," and reveals interesting findings about the functions of vocatives and positions in which they occur. The authors say that "vocatives occurring in final position are much more common than those in initial position" (1112) and the position will depend on the intent of the speaker. There are three functions, which would decide which position is appropriate for vocatives:

(12a) getting someone's attention

(12b) identifying someone as an addressee

(12c) maintaining and reinforcing social relationships

(Biber et al. 1999: 1112)

First, let's look at the example to get someone's attention:

(13a)(=1a) Paul: Hi, Cathy! I've never thought I'd see you here.

Cathy: Hi, Paul. I was thinking the same thing about you.

(13b)(=1b) Pooru: Yaa, Kyasii! Koko-de au-towa omowanakatta-yo.

Kyasii: Ara, Pooru. Watashi-mo sooyo.

(Yamagishi 1995: 159)

(14a) Michelle: Steph, what's a vowel?

Steph: Anything that's not a consonant.

Michelle: DJ, what's a consonant?

DJ: Anything that's not a vowel.

(14b) Misheru: Sutefu o-nee-chan, boin-tte naani?

Sutefu: Shiin-janai oto-no koto.

Misheru: DJ o-nee-chan, shiin-tte naani?

DJ: Boin-janai oto-no koto.

(Kobayashi 2001 partly altered; henceforth "C")

(15a) DJ: Oh, my gosh! Kimmy, Roborato's car's on the roof.

Kimmy: I know. I can't get over it either.

DJ: With the top down! Kimmy, the interior is gonna be destroyed!

Kimmy: This prank is turning out to be great!

DJ: Kimmy, the idea of this prank is not to ruin his car, just to

ruin his day! We've got to get back there and put the top off.  
Wait, we can't. It's an automatic top and we'd need the keys!  
We are dead.

- (15b) DJ: Aa dooshiyoo. Kimii, sensei-no kuruma, okujoo nano-yo.  
Kimii: Honto. Atashi-demo tachinaore-nai.  
DJ: Ruufu sageta mama nano-yo. Ame futtara naka-ga  
mechamecha-yo.  
Kimii: Masumasu saikoo!  
DJ: Dame-yo. Kono itazura-wa kuruma-o kowasu-no-ga mokuteki  
-ja-nai-n-dakara. Sugu modotte ruufu-o kabusenakya.  
Matte, dameda. Are ootoma dakara kii-ga nakya ugokanai  
-yo. Dooshiyoo. (C)

- (16) Momo-chan...neta?  
'Momo...are you asleep?' (B)

Vocatives used in examples (14) and (16) are to get someone's attention as shown in (12a). Example (14) shows vocatives which also function as (12b), identifying someone as an addressee. Such examples are frequently seen both in English and Japanese.

Vocatives in example (13) function as (12c), maintaining and reinforcing social relationships. However, vocatives in example (15) show more diverse feelings of the speaker than merely maintaining and reinforcing social relationships; the speaker wants to share her feelings with the addressee. In Japanese, one could see that adding the addressee's name to an utterance is not conducted as frequently as in English. This can be seen in the Japanese translation of (13a) (=13b)), which seems unnatural, and also in (15b), which does not use as many vocatives as (15a). Adding the addressee's name sometimes sounds too familiar or unnatural in Japanese.

- (17) Rhineheart: You have a problem with authority, Mr. Anderson. You believe that you are special, that somehow the rules do not apply to you. Obviously, you are mistaken. ...The time has come to make a choice, Mr. Anderson. Either you choose to be at your desk on time from this day forth, or you choose to find yourself another job. Do I make myself clear?  
Neo: Yes, Mr. Rhineheart. Perfectly clear.

- (18) Agent Smith: And tell me, Mr. Anderson, what good is a phone call if you are unable to speak? ...You are going to help us, Mr. Anderson, whether you want to or not.

(Both are from Wachowski and Wachowski 1998 ; henceforce "D.")

How about examples (17) and (18)? "Maintaining and reinforcing social relationships" do not explain fully what these examples imply. The address terms in these examples illustrate the social position of the speaker in this certain conversation by calling the addressed recipient's name. Although the addressee's name is called with his last name with title, it does not indicate the speaker's respect to the addressee but it rather demonstrates their distance and lack of sympathy. In example (17), Rhineheart, the speaker tries to make Neo, the addressee realize the inferiority of the addressee with sarcasm. In example (18), the speaker insinuates that he knows the addressee very well by calling the addressee's name over and over, despite the fact that this is the first time they met, which creates a threatening atmosphere. These instances function to offer a new relationship between the speaker and the addressed recipient, which the recipient does not realize. They also function to offer a possibly forgotten relationship which the speaker would like the addressee to recall.

Depending on how the addressee's name is called, one could suggest a new relationship, which would indicate a change to the previous relationship, or introduce a different perspective from which the relationship is grasped by the speaker. This is not explained by (12c) and I suggest changing (12c) to "presenting a status of the social relationship between the parties."

## 4.2 The Motivation to Utilize the Vocatives

### 4.2.1 Positive Politeness

According to Mizutani (1985), to put the addressee's name in the utterance is to show respect and love to the other person. The listed functions by Biber et al. (1999) refer to the speaker's sympathy and respect to the addressee to maintain and reinforce social relationships.

Politeness is "social linguistic expression to maintain human relationships" (Ikuta 1997: 66). In actual use of language, it is considered to be important not to threaten each other's face, and make all the parties comfortable with each other (cf. Brown and Levinson 1987).

As is pointed out in Yui (2002), (12c) functions as a way to express positive politeness, which is to make the other parties comfortable by showing respect to the addressee. This is widely seen in English, but it can be seen in Japanese as well:

(19)(=7) Nee, Ryoko-chan, kooiu-no-wa doo?

'Look, Ryoko, how about a thing like this?'

(B)

This utterance is made in a conversation between two people. To draw the addressee's attention, which is listed in (12a), is performed by saying "Nee," and in this case, the speaker does not have to identify to whom she is talking, as is listed in (12b). *Ryoko-chan* in this example is an expression to be friendly. In Japanese, though, vocative does not often sit at the end of the utterance, and it is not used as often as that in English, which makes a considerable difference from the use of vocative in English.

In addition, the use of positive politeness in Japanese is not as often used as in the case in



English because negative politeness is by far preferred in the Japanese society, and the system of honorifics, which is based upon negative politeness is grammaticalized. Positive politeness might not be necessarily considered to be "polite" in Japanese, although it could be considered to be friendly. Unlike in a culture of the US, being polite and being friendly are considered discrete concepts in Japanese culture (cf. Ide et al. 1992).

#### 4.2.2 Deixis of personal pronoun or personal noun, and politeness

Let me review the pronominal use of address terms once again.

Personal pronouns in English and personal nouns in Japanese are deictic and they refer to the linguistic role in a certain utterance. It means that a speaker gives a role as an addressee to the person to whom he or she is talking, regardless of what social situation the addressee might be in, or what social relationship that the parties mutually have. Role labeling, therefore, assumes that there is an equal and level relationship between the speaker and the addressee.

However, this is not the case in real life. The appropriateness of the utterances, taking into consideration the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, is an important factor that determines whether the conversation becomes a success or not. One needs to utilize politeness suitably to address his or her demands and take into consideration the surrounding circumstances.

There are a variety of strategies for that, one of which is to avoid directness in order to show respect to the addressee and also not to impose your intention to the addressee (cf. Brown and Levinson 1987).

On the other hand, as noted earlier, using a personal pronoun or a personal noun directly labels the addressee as a given role. This means that avoidance of directness, which is considered necessary to demonstrate respect to the addressed recipient, is not achieved (cf. Takubo 1997). In cases in Japanese, the fact that the personal noun *anata* in Japanese cannot be used especially to someone who is senior, suggests that *anata* refers to the addressee rather too directly.

Meanwhile, in case of definite description and proper nouns, directness is not an issue. In these cases, the referent is already set and it would not be changed according to the situation, so there is no role imposed by the speaker to the addressee<sup>1</sup>. As one could substitute proper nouns for personal nouns grammatically in Japanese, it is understandable that one would not use direct personal nouns to refer to the addressee, but rather use proper nouns to avoid directness as a negative politeness strategy. It could also be called a positive politeness strategy to show respect and acknowledgment to the addressee to use proper nouns; however, it is usually not intended so, and even if it is, there is a risk that it might not be considered to be polite but instead it could well be assessed as being too friendly depending on the relationship between the two.

How about, then, cases in English, in which personal pronouns are needed to make grammatical sentences?

(20) Trinity: They're watching you, Neo.

Neo: Who is?

Trinity: Please. Just listen. I know why you're here, Neo. (D)

Likewise in Japanese, it is important for the speaker to respect negative face of the addressee in English, and the speaker tries to avoid directness. However, as discussed earlier, English grammatical sentences require personal pronouns to refer to the addressed recipient. It could well be explained that the speaker calls the addressee's name as a means to mitigate the directness.

It is also possible to point out that the function of maintaining and reinforcing the social relationships that Biber et al. (1999) listed earlier is associated with softening directness. Kamiya (2002) calls it "weak appeal" to add the addressee's name when both parties are already aware of each other's existence, indicating its markedness in Japanese. This seems to play a role to mitigate directness of personal pronouns in English.

Vocatives in English, then, realize both positive politeness and negative politeness at the same time. In Japanese, in contrast, in order to diminish directness, one would use a proper noun instead of second personal noun *anata*, in pronominal use. One sometimes would even completely omit to refer to the addressee, which could be the ultimate way to avoid directness<sup>2</sup>. This is the reason why translation which uses vocatives in Japanese often sounds unnatural.

## **5. Using Scenarios as Teaching Materials for Foreign Languages**

I have studied the functions of addressing and the differences in the way address terms work in Japanese and English, especially regarding "politeness" using scenarios as data. Terms of address are a means to adjust the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, and they are deeply related to politeness. The functions and the motivation of using address terms could, however, be different from language to language. It is important to utilize them appropriately in accordance with the understanding of their functions.

Are the functions of addressing, however, properly treated and taught in an academic setting? The addition of a name in a conversation is not just an act of calling a name but a phenomenon that reveals the cultural difference, and it has been rather unnoticed.

As is mentioned earlier, it is not the linguistic convention to put the name of the addressee into a conversation in Japanese (Yamagishi 1995: 160). In Yui (2002), in a Japanese setting, more than 80% of the subjects answered that they would greet their teacher without his or her name, and about 15% of them would only nod and say nothing. The subjects show that they would try to change their linguistic behavior according to the language they speak, but it is revealed that although Japanese students are still not used to adding an addressee's name to their utterances in English. Only 40% of the students answered that they would add the teacher's name, and there were also people who would nod slightly and say nothing even in English, which is not a conventional behavior of the language. Yui (2002: 110) says that it is considered to be "offensive/indifferent/cold/rude," while in a Japanese movie, there are several scenes in which no one talks, when English subtitles add some conversations, such as "Hello!" (Taga 2002). This suggests that the Japanese language has different linguistic conventions from those in English, which, again, is not learned by the students.

In order to make learners of English realize it by themselves, it would be significantly useful to make good use of scenarios as teaching materials. With limited ability of speaking English, it is

rather difficult to have a free conversation among themselves. Moreover, it would sometimes be too much to ask students to make a conversation paying attention to politeness at the same time. However, in an actual conversational setting, the way you utilize address terms is occasionally crucial to the relationship you make during conversations. Following texts using scenarios, one could grasp the concept of how politeness works in English.

Kadoyama (2008) points out, however, that scenarios have actually been used for years in high schools and universities. He also mentions that they are mainly used for reading, and to teach vocabulary and phrases in the same way as other text materials, in contradiction to what is expected with the use of scenarios to learn a language. It is often the case that videos are merely used to further understanding of the content of the scenarios and they are not fully used to improve communication skills of the students (64).

Scenarios are originally made for movies and TV programs, and they are to be role-played and not only read. Hirata (1995: 80) says that almost all the situations, the relations, and the content are supposed to be written in the play, and Kawaguchi (2012) stresses the importance of teaching the contextualization of the expressions. In order to fully benefit from using scenarios in foreign language education, one should consider making good use of scenarios through dramatic activities.

Drama is defined as a "combination of kinesthetic, emotional, and intellectual involvements in improvisational activities to promote a range of experiences from artistic self-expression to active learning in particular curriculum areas" (Grady 2000: 4). Hewgill, Noro, and Poulton (2004: 229) present four benefits of introducing drama into the language teaching, demonstrated by FitzGibbon (1993): 1) the achievement of meaningful, fluent interaction in the target language; 2) the assimilation of phonetic and prosodic features in a contextualized and interactive manner; 3) the fully contextualized acquisition of new vocabulary and expression; and 4) a sense of confidence in the learner's ability to learn the target language.

Visual aids help students understand the situations better (Takai 1993), and dramatic activities help them become aware of paralinguistic information, including prosody (Hashimoto 2009). In order to utilize scenarios to achieve a better understanding of the role of address terms, one could first watch the scene and listen to what the people say in English. One could go on to listen to Japanese dubbing on the same scene. After that, the students are to vocalize the sentences in the scenario in English and its Japanese translation (or the transcript of the Japanese dubbing), and compare them to see how they are different from each other.<sup>3</sup> It is desirable that the instructor let the students say the lines with proper prosody until they notice the difference between the two languages. Before doing that, it might be helpful to shadow the lines the characters say so it would become easier to produce the lines with proper prosody (cf. Chamberlain 2006). By following all the dramatic activities, one could feel the rhythm of adding a name of the addressee, and grasp the notion of how it works in the dynamics of the communication. Saying what they usually don't say makes them become physically aware that there is something different. It might make them somewhat uneasy or uncomfortable, but that is the desired effect of introducing the activity of reading scenarios in a dramatic setting. It would be useful for the students to have some time to reflect upon their linguistic behavior in their own language and have a discussion on the functions of address terms in these two languages with the

help of the instructor. By the time they watch the video again after these activities, the students would be familiar with how the address terms are used. Using scenarios through dramatic activities has the possibility cultivating the students' awareness of social and cultural facets of the linguistic behavior. As Hewgill, Noro, and Poulton (2004: 243) put it, "using drama clearly has the advantage of showing socio-cultural traits in contextualized action."

## 6. Conclusion

In this paper, address terms in English and Japanese are analyzed. Address terms consist of vocatives and personal nouns or pronouns, and this paper discussed the functions of vocatives and the way address terms are utilized as personal nouns or pronouns.

By examining the functions of vocatives, it is found that there were other functions that could not be explained in the listed functions by Biber et al. (1999). After that, there is a focus on the use of address terms from a viewpoint of politeness, and it is shown how address terms play a role in achieving politeness in English and Japanese.

The discussion demonstrated the use of address terms works quite differently in terms of politeness in the two languages. Vocatives in English realize positive politeness by putting the addressee's name in the utterance. However, they can also show negative politeness at the same time. In order to make grammatical sentences in English, one needs personal pronouns to refer to the addressed recipient, which directly labels the addressee as a given role. The speaker calls the addressee's name so that he/she can mitigate its directness. In Japanese, one would use a proper noun in pronominal use, to diminish directness. As is shown above, address terms function in various ways in these two languages. It is, however, not treated in class in a satisfactory manner, and Japanese students are not accustomed to utilizing address terms in English.

What can one do to improve such a situation, especially when one cannot easily comprehend how the address terms work by being taught in a conventional way? Using scenarios through the dramatic approach can be one possibility that helps the students acquire the target language. Acquisition is physicalization of the language, with paralinguistic information and sociocultural facets of the linguistic behavior among other elements. In order to acquire these aspects and grasp the essence of using address terms, the dramatic approach can be utilized effectively with the aid of videos. The teaching method still has much room to improve, however, and the implications and suggestions should be verified with more practice and quantitative research, which remains to be conducted.

†Professor of Linguistics, Surugadai University. I gratefully acknowledge constructive comments and suggestions of Professor Shingo Hashimoto. I would also like to express my gratitude to Professor Hiroko Noro for valuable advice. Needless to say, the final work and errors remain my responsibility. This is an expanded and revised version of the paper read at the second conference of the International Association of Performing Language in 2009. This research is funded by a special research grant from Surugadai University.

## Notes

- <sup>1</sup> It is still possible that the speaker might impose the fact that the speaker identifies the addressee by a certain name, when the addressee might have some other identification.
- <sup>2</sup> There is a possibility, though, that the addressee might interpret the omission as not acknowledging the addressee properly and hence rude.
- <sup>3</sup> The Japanese subtitles can be substituted for the translation or the transcript, but there is a possibility of omitting information due to the limited space on the screen.

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