

**INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE IN THE LEARNING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

by

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**NOVEMBER 2013**

## DECLARATION

**Student number:** 47243058

I declare that **INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE IN THE LEARNING OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "R. Schmidt-Fajlik", is written on a light-colored rectangular background.

05/11/2013

SIGNATURE

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## DECLARATION

I, [mike.tlale@gmail.com](mailto:mike.tlale@gmail.com) declare that I have scrutinized the language used in this thesis and suggested the necessary corrections, which the student and the supervisor can accept or reject. However, the suggestions made are to enhance the readability of the thesis. I have provided my credentials which are attached at the end of the thesis for easy of reference.

## **DEDICATION**

This research is dedicated to the researcher's parents Valeria Schmidt-Fajlik and Ludo Schmidt-Fajlik. The journey they travelled and the struggle they underwent as immigrants from Slovakia to Canada opened up a world of opportunities for the researcher, which enriched his life; and he is very grateful for that.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Current practice in language teaching based on communicative approaches emphasizes the development of language skills. Opportunities are created for students to develop their language skills through social interaction based on pair and group work. Such interaction requires the use of interpersonal skills. If students do not feel confident about their interpersonal skills, they may be reluctant to take part in communicative activities, which require social interaction. Interpersonal skills are also important if students are to use their language skills in real life situations effectively and confidently. Gender and cultural differences related to interpersonal communication may have an impact on how successful students learn a foreign language.

The study explores student confidence in interpersonal skills, the role that gender may play in interpersonal relationships, and also in fostering cultural activities that are aimed at the development of interpersonal communication. Such relationships have potential implications on the teaching of a foreign language in the classroom situation. This research was conducted at a Japanese university where the researcher is a lecturer and had full access to all the resources he needed. The same research was also conducted at Chinese, Russian, and Ghanaian universities, as well as at an international school in Saudi Arabia. Data was collected using questionnaires. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the problem, and to probe the issues involved more extensively. Quantitative data was collected by means of a questionnaire that consisted of multiple-choice questions. Qualitative data was gathered by means of open-ended questions. Questionnaire results were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

The research findings indicate that some students may lack confidence in social situations where the use of interpersonal skills is neglected. This research also found that females may be more comfortable and adept in interpersonal exchanges owing to some biological and cultural reasons. Findings also indicate that cultural differences that impact on interpersonal communication situations did not entirely support the findings from the literature review, particularly concerning the use of nonverbal communication by Japanese students. Recommendations based on research findings, are given concerning the development of interpersonal skills.

**KEY WORDS:** interpersonal communication, interpersonal competence, social skills, gender differences, intercultural communication, nonverbal communication, body language, communicative language teaching, English language education, cultural differences, Japan, Russia, China, Ghana, Saudi Arabia

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Current foreign language methodology, which is based on communicative methods that stresses the importance of developing language skills with the aim to capacitate learners to communicate effectively, as may be found in this statement:

“The aim of language teaching worldwide is to enable learners to use the language they have learned in school or college to communicate confidently and effectively with other users of the language(English) in the world outside” (Willis & Willis,2009:3).

Although it is obvious that communicating effectively in a foreign language depends on developing one’s language skills, developing the ability to communicate effectively resides not only in one’s language ability, but also in one’s use of interpersonal competence. Foreign language teaching methodology should not only concentrate on developing language skills for effective communication, but should also include developing interpersonal competence, as communication generally takes place in a social context. If students lack interpersonal skills or lack confidence in communicating interpersonally, they will not be able to put to effective use the foreign language they are learning. To become a competent communicator requires both language and interpersonal skills.

Interpersonal competence is an important factor to consider in language education as the use of language entails not only linguistic aspects, but social aspects as well. Contemporary language methodology such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is based on student social interaction through pair and group work (Richards & Rodgers 2001:166). One's interpersonal skills may play a role in ensuring that one becomes successful when taking part in such activities.



## **1.2 DEFINITION OF TITLE, CONCEPTS, AND RELATED CONCEPTS**

### **1.2.1 Definition of title**

The title is about the importance of interpersonal skills in the study of English as a foreign language that is meant to empower students to successfully communicate in the education activity.

### **1.2.2 Definition of concepts**

#### **1.2.2.1 Interpersonal communication**

Interpersonal communication may be defined as the process by which people exchange ideas, thoughts and feelings with one another. Interpersonal communication involves not only what is communicated linguistically, but also through the use of nonverbal channels such as facial expressions, gestures and body language. Early models of interpersonal communication depicted interpersonal communication as involving linear interactions of one person acting on another through verbal responses.

Lasswell's (1948:37) states that, 'a convenient way to describe an act of communication is to answer the following questions: Who Says What in Which Channel to Whom with What Effect?' Recent models of interpersonal communication are represented in a transactional model where both people who participate equally and simultaneously in the communication process are defined as communicators (Wood 2012:17). For example, as one person is sending a message, as a way of feedback the receiver may simultaneously send a reciprocal message by nodding ones head to show that he or she is listening. A literature review was conducted from the viewpoint of a transactional model to determine which aspects of interpersonal communication contributed more to effective communication, particularly during the establishment of a rapport.

### **1.2.2.2 Learning**

Learning is defined on Dictionary.com (2012) ‘as the act or process of acquiring knowledge or skill.’ According to Illeris (2003:398) learning involves a combination of the learner interacting with his or her social, cultural, or material environment and the internal psychological process of integrating information for acquisition and elaboration. The social aspect of learning in language studies is particularly important as the language learning process is viewed essentially as social with the identity of the learner and his or her language knowledge being collaboratively constructed and reconstructed in the course of interaction (Duff and Talmy, 2011; Duff, 2012).

### **1.2.2.3 English**

English is a language of West Germanic origin (Gramley, 2012). It is used as a first language in countries such as the USA, Britain, New Zealand, Australia, and South Africa. There are over 400 million mother-tongue speakers of English and a further 400 million who use English as a second or foreign language (Crystal, 2004:29). There are also large numbers of English speakers in countries where English was introduced originally as part and parcel of colonialism. Some of these countries are Singapore, Malaysia and India. English has official or special status in over 70 countries (Crystal, 2004:29).

### **1.2.3 Definition of related concepts**

The concepts defined above, namely, interpersonal communication, learning, and English may be considered as broad in nature. The concepts defined below are related to these broad concepts. The explanations and definitions of the following concepts therefore, include their specific impact and importance on broader areas of interpersonal communication, learning and English.

### **1.2.3.1 Interpersonal competence**

Interpersonal competence involves the ability to communicate in ways that are interpersonally effective and appropriate (Wood 2012:33). Interpersonal competence may be viewed as ‘the process whereby people effectively deal with each other’ (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1989:6). Interpersonal competence may be demonstrated in interpersonal task domains such as developing rapport (Walker 2000:41), self-disclosure (Caputo, 1997:107), initiating conversations (Ratliffe & Hudson, 1988:17), and the use of nonverbal communication (Birdwhistell, 1970; Argyle and Cook, 1976; Hall, 1990). An important aspect of interpersonal competence in second language learning is also cultural sensitivity (Devito, 2008:33). These aspects are investigated in the literature review.

The development and use of rapport may be found in sub-section 2.5.3. Self-disclosure is discussed in sub-section 2.5.5. Initiating conversations is discussed in sub-section 2.5.6. Nonverbal communication is discussed in sub-section 2.7.2. Awareness of these aspects contributes to the development of interpersonal competence. The literature review explains these aspects in greater depth and explains how they may contribute to effective communication and increased confidence when dealing with others interpersonally, both inside as well as outside the English language learning classroom. Furthermore, the literature review related to these aspects lead to the development of two questionnaires regarding how students used and felt about their interpersonal skills. Based upon the review of literature and questionnaire results, practical recommendations concerning the development of the interpersonal competence of students are made.

### **1.2.3.2 Social skills**

According to Dictionary.com (2012), social skills may be defined as ‘the personal skills needed for successful social communication and interaction.’ McGuire and Prestly (1981:6) regard social skills as ‘those kind of behavior which is basic to

effective face-to-face communication between individuals'. This concurs with Rungapadiachy's (1999:193) definition of 'interpersonal communication' as 'those skills which one needs in order to communicate effectively with another person or a group of people.' This definition of social skills also supports West's (2010:10) definition of 'interpersonal communication' as 'the process of message transaction between people.' In this sense the definition of 'social skills' may be used interchangeably with terms such as 'interpersonal communication' and 'interpersonal skills' as used in the study.

### **1.2.3.3 Gender differences**

Gender differences refer to a dichotomy between males and females viewed from the perspective of social roles and behaviours. Researchers debate whether such differences are due more to biological influences (Gurian& Ballew, 2003:9) or social conditioning (Cameron, 2008:39). Examples of gender differences in terms of interpersonal communication include the greater use of listening responses by females (Coates, 2004:87) and nonverbal sensitivity (Andersen, 2006:86), which may serve in the establishment of greater rapport when communicating with someone. Gender differences related to interpersonal skills are explained in detail in the literature review under section 5.3.

The literature on the investigation of why female students may be attracted to English language studies than male students (as they tend to comprise a larger component of English language learning classes) and why they tend to outperform male students in English language studies was reviewed. The role of interpersonal skills as a contributory factor towards these discrepancies between males and females was investigated. The main motivation for this study was the researcher's personal experience in observing that male students were often less socially engaged than female students in undertaking language learning activities. Based on the findings from the literature review, the questionnaire to assess whether

female students felt more confident in their use of interpersonal skills than male students was designed.

#### **1.2.3.4 Intercultural communication**

Knapp (1987:190) defines intercultural communication as ‘the interpersonal interaction between members of different groups, which differ from each other in respect of the knowledge shared by their members and in respect of their linguistic forms of symbolic behavior.’ Intercultural communication involves an understanding of differing ways of thinking, communicating and acting among peoples of different cultures. This understanding involves not only knowledge and awareness of other cultures, but also of one's own culture, and it includes the improvement of communication with people of different cultural backgrounds. For example, knowledge and understanding of a nonverbal communication based on one's own culture as well as those based on other cultures, may improve one's intercultural communication skills.

#### **1.2.3.5 Nonverbal communication**

Nonverbal communication involves transmission of messages without use of spoken words. According to Birdwhistell ‘no more than 30 to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by the words’ (1970:158). That means 60 to 70 percent of all meaning may be derived from nonverbal behavior (Engleberg 2006:133). Nonverbal communication may involve the use of a body language consisting of the use of one's head, face, eyes (termed ‘oculesics’) mouth, arms, hands, fingers and legs, to communicate meaning. Other aspects of nonverbal communication may involve physical space (proxemics), paralanguage (sounds, reaction words), and touch (haptics). People in other parts of the globe may use nonverbal communication differently from what one is used to in one's own country such as the use of gestures, eye contact, how close one stands, and the use of touch.

Misunderstanding may take place, affecting interpersonal communication adversely when communicating with someone from a different cultural background. Becoming aware of the use of nonverbal communication when communicating with someone with a different cultural background can improve one's ability to communicate not only more effectively, but also with greater sensitivity.

#### **1.2.3.6 Communicative language teaching (CLT)**

Communicative language teaching (CLT) places the importance of the teaching of a language on teaching for communication where 'learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use' (Richards & Rodgers 2001:161). According to Littlewood, 'one of the characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view'(1981:1). Communicative language teaching emphasizes the role of interaction in developing language skills. Interactive activities may involve the use of role plays, interviews, information gap, pair work, and group work.

#### **1.2.3.7 Second language acquisition (SLA)**

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a scholarly field of inquiry which investigates the capacity of human beings to learn languages (Ortega 2008:1). SLA research focuses on how non-primary languages are learned, beyond one's native language (Gass, Behney, & Plonsky 2013:1). SLA research involves the study of what learners do when learning another language. The research may involve asking learners who have been successful in learning another language how they did it, or collecting samples of learner's language for analysis (Ellis 1997:4). SLA research does not directly refer to foreign language teaching methodology, although findings from SLA research may be used to inform practice.

### **1.2.3.8 English language education**

English language education is the teaching and learning of English. Collins dictionary.com defines English language teaching as ‘the practice and theory of learning and teaching English for the benefit of people whose first language is not English.’ English language education involves the development of English language skills in areas such as oral communication, reading and writing. Teachers of English may or may not be native speakers of English. The learners of English in this context are usually students whose primary language is another language other than English. The context of English language education is often viewed from the perspective of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL).

English studied as a second language (ESL) is generally provided within the context of an English speaking country. ESL learners may need to combine their learning of English with knowledge on how to do things in the target-language community such as going to a bank or accessing health services (Harmer 2007:12). English studied as a foreign language (EFL) is provided within the context of a non-English speaking country, such as Japanese students studying English in Japan. It has been suggested that EFL learners tend to study English so that they can ‘communicate with other people, from whatever country, who also speak English’ (Harmer 2007:12). EFL studies may also be undertaken in view of academic requirements, future job prospects, travel, business, research as well as studying English as a hobby.

### **1.2.3.9 Cultural differences**

Culture is defined by Lederach as ‘the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them’ (1995:9). Cultural differences are the variations in the way of life, beliefs, and laws between different countries, religions, societies and

people. Cultural differences may be defined in terms of differences among groups of people based on traditionally defined behavior. A study of cultural differences could be undertaken from the standpoint that ‘cultural analysis should be concerned initially with boundaries’ (Barth, 1969, in Byram, 1989:92-93). Boundaries in terms of cultural differences regarding interpersonal communication can be viewed from the perspective of differences in what may be considered appropriate or inappropriate use of gestures, eye contact, and proximal space in one's own culture and how such behavior differs from behaviors in other cultural context.

#### **1.2.3.10 English as a lingua Franca (ELF)**

English as a lingua franca is the use of English as a means of communication among people who are speakers of different languages. Jenkins (2009:200) describes English employed as a lingua franca as ‘the common language of choice, among speakers who come from different linguacultural back-grounds.’ Since there are now more non-native English speakers in the world some of these non-native English speakers (Kuiper 2010:22) plus native speakers, use English as their lingua franca in their interactions; that is, they use it as their means of communication.

In order to communicate effectively in using English as a lingua franca, it is important that people of differing cultural backgrounds should not only possess linguistic skills to be able to communicate, but also interpersonal skills necessary for effective communication. As nonverbal communication differs in terms of one's cultural background, it is important to be culturally sensitive when interpreting nonverbal communication within a context where English is used as lingua franca.



### **1.3 PERSONAL EXPERIENCE AND OBSERVATIONS**

Based on classroom experience, the researcher has had students who refused to sit next to others, stating openly that they lacked interrelationship skills and therefore found interacting with others uncomfortable. One student stated personally that he had underdeveloped social skills since childhood and therefore there would be no point in attempting to interact with others. Foreign language teaching methodology should therefore not only concentrate on developing language skills for effective communication, but should also include developing interpersonal competence, as communication generally takes place in a social context. If students lack interpersonal skills or lack confidence in communicating interpersonally, they may be reluctant to take part in pair and group work activities and will therefore not be able to learn foreign language competence effectively. To become a competent communicator requires both language and interpersonal skills.

Factors contributing to the use of interpersonal skills may include past experiences, personality characteristics, cultural expectations, gender, as well as knowledge about the skills necessary to communicate effectively in interpersonal situations. Past experiences may colour one's outlook of how one perceives interpersonal contact (Garner, 1997:165), as in the example of the previously mentioned student whose perceived past social failures affected his ability to interact positively with others. Personality characteristics such as extroversion and introversion may affect how one interacts socially since extroverts use social strategies easily and consistently, while introverts use such strategies with less comfort (Ehrman & Oxford 1990:318).

Wakamoto (2009:116) in her study of Japanese students confirmed this aspect of personality characteristic where an extroverted student employed socio-affective strategies such as requests to slow down and clarification requests, while the introverted Japanese student did not use any such strategies. Cultural expectations in the use of interpersonal

skills may include differences in turn taking (Sakamoto 1982:80-83) and in particular the use of nonverbal communication (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:192).

The possibility that gender orientation may play a role in interpersonal skills became evident to the researcher when some male students stated that they felt uncomfortable interacting with others in pair work activities and that they lacked the interpersonal skills necessary to interact successfully with others. These male students had even requested to be exempt from pair work activities. The researcher has never experienced such a negative view of interpersonal interaction on the part of his female students who are in the majority in his English language classes. That realization prompted him to explore the role that gender may play in language studies in terms of interpersonal competence. Knowledge about the skills necessary to communicate effectively in interpersonal situations is also important in order to communicate effectively. If students are unaware of how to use such skills, they may be unable to establish the appropriate level of rapport required to facilitate interpersonal communication.

For example, the use of appropriate nonverbal communication such as the use of gestures and eye contact, promotes interpersonal communication by demonstrating to the other person that one is paying careful attention to what he or she (the other) is saying (Bolton 1986:33). Factors that may play a role in the effective use of interpersonal skills such as past experiences, personality characteristics, cultural expectations, gender orientation, as well as knowledge about the necessary interpersonal skills, are explored and addressed in this study.

#### **1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The problem around which this study revolves is about the role played by interpersonal competence in the learning of English as a foreign language. The researcher is a lecturer of the English language in Ibaraki in Japan where English is taught as a foreign language to Japanese students. It was while teaching English to adult learners that the researcher came

to the conclusion that ineffective interpersonal skills may impede the development of language skills in the acquisition of a foreign language in a classroom situation. Furthermore, it can hinder the development of students' communicative abilities when using such a foreign language outside the language classroom environment.

Current language teaching methodological approaches such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) seek to develop the linguistic skills of students for communicative purposes. As CLT relies on methods such as pair and group work, students who lack interpersonal skills or lack confidence in communicating interpersonally will not be able to take part effectively in classroom activities involving pair and group work which is used to develop the linguistic skills of students based. They will also not be able to put to effective use the foreign language they have learnt. The problem is that students may not feel confident in their interpersonal skills nor know how to use such skills, which could affect their ability to interact affectively in the language classroom as well as use their language skills in intercultural situations.

## **1.5 ASSUMPTIONS/HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY**

The assumptions/hypothesis of the study is that developing interpersonal skills is important in developing the communicative skills of students studying English as a foreign language. There may be gender as well as cultural differences regarding the use of interpersonal skills as well as in using such skills with confidence.

The following are hypotheses considered in the study:

1. Ho: Gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation.  
Ha: Gender of students is associated with their enjoyment of conversation
2. Ho: Students' comfort during conversation is not related to gender  
Ha: Students' comfort during conversation is related to gender.
3. Ho: Students' comfort in social situations is not related to gender.

- Ha: Students' comfort in social situations is related to gender
4. Ho: Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender  
Ha: Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is related to gender.
5. Ho: Touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved.  
Ha: Touching during conversation is not dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

A chi-square test was conducted on questionnaire sample data using mini-tab in order to test each hypothesis in terms of statistical significance. Manual calculations were used to enable accuracy when there was a cell count of less than 5 as Minitab is generally not sufficiently accurate for dealing with lower level of responses during the analysis. Research findings in terms of the above hypotheses are described in section 4.2. Hypothesis conclusions described in section 4.2 differed between countries indicating the role of cultural influence in how students perceive their use of interpersonal skills as well as how confident they feel about such skills.

## **1.6 THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH**

### **1.6.1 The aim of the study**

The aim of the research is to determine the role that interpersonal competence plays in empowering learners who wish to study the use of a foreign language such as English successfully. Research focused on university students from Japan, China, Russia, and Ghana, as well as Arabic students at an international school in Saudi Arabia. Interpersonal skills in the language classroom are studied in chapter two in terms of the skills necessary to communicate successfully and confidently in foreign language such as English. During the teaching periods at Japanese universities where he taught, the researcher came across males who displayed reluctance in engaging in pair work activities stating that they lacked confidence in situations that involved interpersonal skills. The researcher also found that

the majority of students studying English were female; hence, the role of gender forms part of this study. As interpersonal skills are to a certain extent culture-bound, developing interpersonal skills in intercultural exchanges also formed part of this study.

### **1.6.2 Objectives of the study**

In view of the aim of the research, the objectives of the study are as follows:

- 1.6.2.1 To determine how students from Japan, China, Russia, Ghana, and Saudi Arabia feel about their interpersonal skills when communicating in English in the classroom.
- 1.6.2.2 To investigate if gender plays a role in interpersonal skills.
- 1.6.2.3 To investigate the intercultural aspects of interpersonal communication in communicating in English.
- 1.6.2.4 To suggest pedagogical approaches to address interpersonal competence in English language education.

## **1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND DEVELOPMENT OF QUESTIONNAIRES**

### **1.7.1 The main research question**

In view of the preceding discussion regarding the aim of the research and objectives of the study, the research question to be investigated is: What is the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching? In order to find answers to this main research question it was necessary to formulate the following sub-questions:

### **1.7.2 The sub-questions**

- 1. What skills are necessary for effective interpersonal communication?
- 2. Are there gender differences related to interpersonal skills?

3. What aspects of culture influence interpersonal skills when learning to communicate effectively in English, particularly in the area of nonverbal communication?
4. How do students from Japan, China, Russia, Ghana and Saudi Arabia feel about their use of interpersonal skills?

The above sub-questions serve to assist in answering the main question of the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching. They comprise factors that may contribute to the successful use of interpersonal skills. The sub-questions (1), (2), (3) serve as a guideline in conducting the literature review in view of answering the main question. Findings from the literature review based on sub questions (1), (2), (3) are used in the development of questionnaires (Appendix A,B), which are used to determine how students use, as well as how they feel about their interpersonal skills in order to answer sub-question (4). Findings from the literature review and questionnaire results are used to make final conclusions regarding the main question of the role of interpersonal competence in English Language teaching.

## **1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study could help language teachers become acutely aware of the role that interpersonal competence plays in language acquisition in terms of the skills required to communicate effectively, how students perceive their interpersonal skills, and the role that gender and culture may play in interpersonal communication. Again, the study could assist educators in determining whether students feel confident in their interpersonal skills.

Furthermore, the study could provide educators with possible pedagogical approaches in developing interpersonal skills of students in a language class. Hopefully, the study might lead to new methodological approaches and curriculum changes in language teaching based on the insights gained. Finally, this might lead to future research in the direction of

constructing curriculum or programs based on the role of interpersonal skills in education in general, and specifically in language education.

## **1.9 LITERATURE REVIEW**

A review of literature is conducted to provide current background information regarding the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching. The review is subdivided into the following section: theories and principles of language learning, English teaching methodology in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana, English as a lingua franca and interpersonal communication, communicative language teaching and interpersonal competence, gender and interpersonal skills, and culture and interpersonal competence.

In section 2.2, which deals with theories and principles of language learning, a historical overview of teaching methodology and its rationale is provided. The literature review in this section is undertaken from the perspective of an increasing emphasis on communicative competence in language teaching methodology, in which the development of interpersonal skills may play an important role in facilitating effective communication.

Section 2.3 investigates English teaching methodology in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia and Ghana, which serves to provide information as to the way English is taught in these particular countries, as well as the rationale behind the use of certain methodologies. The move towards an increasing emphasis on the importance of developing communication skills in language teaching in these countries is studied and described.

English as a lingua franca for interpersonal communication, as well as implications of its use as a global language, is discussed in section 2.4. As the use of English plays an increasing role as a lingua franca among people of differing cultural backgrounds, developing interpersonal skills based on what is appropriate to cross-cultural interactions, is an important factor in developing communicative competence.

In section 2.6, gender and interpersonal skills are discussed; the significance of gender differences in the development of interpersonal skills is investigated in terms of the implications they may have on language learning.

Section 2.7 deals with culture and interpersonal competence, cultural differences in the use of interpersonal skills, with an emphasis on nonverbal communication. These were reviewed in terms of the importance of understanding culture-bound differences in the way people communicate. An understanding of such differences may lead to more effective communication among people of differing cultural backgrounds.

In order to improve the communicative abilities of students studying English, it is important to consider the interpersonal factors involved in conversation and nonverbal cues which are used to initiate and maintain relationships. These are discussed in section 2.5 that deals with '*developing interpersonal competence in language teaching.*'

The view of interpersonal competence, which will serve as a model for research is a transactional one, where communication is viewed as being simultaneous and interdependent between speaker and listener (Devito 2008). In a transactional view of communication, interpersonal skills are required to effectively initiate, manage, and sustain the interdependent relationship between speaker and listener. In a simultaneous, interdependent communication, not only linguistic, but also nonverbal skills play a part in effective communication. In a transactional view of interpersonal communication, the interdependent relationship between speaker and listener contributes to whether communication may be viewed as being competent or not. It is important to consider the factors which may contribute to and which play a part in effective communication based on a transactional view of communication.

The review of literature serves to elucidate the factors which may contribute to effective communication based on transactional view of interpersonal competence, which will also



serve to inform research design. The factors which are covered in the literature review are the factors which contribute to effective interpersonal communication, the role of gender in interpersonal communication, and the intercultural aspects of interpersonal competence, particularly in the area of nonverbal communication.

## **1.10 THE DEMARCATIONS OR SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

### **1.10.1 Delimitations of the study**

The questionnaire administered to students focuses on responses related to how confident students feel about their interpersonal skills as well as how they use such skills. Questions related to the use of such skills were based on those cultural differences that may impact interpersonal communication, such as the use of oculosics (eye contact), proxemics (personal space), haptics (touch), kinesics (body language), and paralanguage. These were chosen in order to conduct an effective comparative study and to note any similarities or differences that exist in the responses provided by students of different cultural backgrounds.

The administration of questionnaires was limited to Japanese students at Ibaraki University, Chinese students at Lijiang College of Guangxi Normal University, Russian students at Northern Arctic University, Ghanaian and African students at Regional Maritime University, and students from the Middle East at the British International School in Riyadh. Participation in the study was limited to students who were engaged in English language studies.

### **1.10.2 Limitations of the study**

The focus of the study is how confident students feel about their interpersonal skills and how they use such skills. Both male and female students take part in the study in order to determine any differences in terms of responses related to interpersonal competence based on gender. The study is limited to students from Japan, China, Russia, Ghana, and Saudi Arabia. For more conclusive results, it

would have been advantageous for a greater number of education institutions to take part in the study as well a greater number of students. Conducting students of differing cultural backgrounds would also be more conclusive in terms of assessing the role that interpersonal skills play in language education. Initially attempts were made to include the Philippines, India, South Korea, Argentina, Italy, and France. Unfortunately, it was not possible to find appropriate institutions to carry out administration of the questionnaires in those countries. Factors that constrained the study included limited amount of relevant research literature, logistics involving accessibility, as well as financial and time constraints in countries, such as France, Germany, Italy, and Vietnam, which were initially considered for inclusion in the study.

### **1.10.3 Generalisability and transference**

Generalisability refers to the degree to which research claims can be extended to contexts and populations beyond those in the study itself (Ercikan& Roth 2009:10). Responses from the questionnaires are analyzed in terms of frequency and statistical significance. Based on statistical analysis and frequency response, questionnaire results may be generalized and transferable to the particular population, which completed the questionnaires. The population to which findings may be generalisable is primarily based on the country or cultural group, which responded to the questionnaires. A comparative study between countries would indicate any culture-bound differences in regard to interpersonal skills, particularly in relation to responses concerning oculesics (eye contact), proxemics (personal space), haptics (touch), kinesics (body language), and paralanguage. Results from one cultural group would therefore not be transferable to another cultural group. These differences however may be generalized as being indicative that such differences exist and therefore should be acted upon in improving interpersonal skills when communicating with someone of a different cultural background.

## **1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

### **1.11.1 Research methodology**

Both the quantitative and qualitative methods used were based on self-report questionnaires consisting of multiple-choice questions. Quantitative data was collected in the form of responses to multiple-choice questions of the questionnaire. Qualitative data was gathered in the form of open-ended answers to some of the questions where the researcher felt the need for further probing, or where the respondent deemed it necessary to provide additional explanation or information. In that way, respondents had the opportunity to give additional information that was not catered for within the precincts of the multiple-choice questions. Qualitative open-ended questions also allowed the possibility to add comments or clarify students' choice of responses, which further served to enhance the validity of the data.

### **1.11.2 Research design**

The research design was used to seek information on how comfortable students feel in social situations as well as how confident students feel about their interpersonal skills. The data was analyzed to determine whether the results differ in terms of gender; how students use their interpersonal skills; and whether the use of interpersonal skills has any impact on cross-cultural communication.

#### **1.11.2.1 Target population**

The target population of the research consisted of students from Japan, China, Russia, Ghana, and Saudi Arabia. The reason for the choice of this target population was to ensure that a sample group is well-balanced with students from different cultural backgrounds and therefore well suited for a comparative study. Seven hundred and sixty three students took part in the study conducted by administering questionnaires investigating how students feel about their

interpersonal skills as well as their use of nonverbal skills. Due to time constraints in accessing students and in collecting data, the questionnaires were administered separately.

#### **1.11.2.2 Sample and sampling procedure**

Japanese, Chinese, Russian, Ghanaian, and Arabic students took part in the study. All in all seven hundred and sixty three students took part in the study. As convenience sampling was applied, participating institutions and students were chosen on the basis of accessibility and willingness of the institutions to cooperate in administering the questionnaires and students willingness to complete the questionnaires. Students completed questionnaires related to how they feel about their interpersonal skills and their use of interpersonal skills related to cross-cultural communication, with a focus on nonverbal communication.

Questionnaires consisting of multiple-choice questions were distributed to the students and then collected once completed. Students completed the questionnaires willingly. Students were told that they might request for further clarification on any items on the questionnaire; this assisted by improving the validity of the questionnaire. Although the questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice questions, students were able to add comments or clarifications to their choice of responses, which served to enhance the validity of the data.

#### **1.11.2.3 Research instruments**

The study used two questionnaires related to the interpersonal competence of students. One questionnaire included multiple-choice questions related to how comfortable students feel in social situations and how confident they feel about their interpersonal skills. The other questionnaire consisted of multiple-choice questions related to how students use their interpersonal skills, which may impact communicating in cross-cultural situations, with a focus on nonverbal

communication. Although the questionnaires consisted of multiple-choice questions, students were given the opportunity to further qualify their responses or to add responses not given in the multiple-choice selection. The final format of the questionnaires was determined after reflecting on institutional and student feedback received during the pilot stage

## **1.12 PILOT STUDY**

A pilot study allowed the researcher to evaluate the clarity of questions on a questionnaire (McMillan & Schumacher2010:237). The initial pilot study was conducted with Japanese students at Ibaraki University. This was done in order to test the reliability and validity of the instruments. The responses were analyzed and where deficiencies were identified, items were adjusted. Items that were found to be redundant, repetitive or could easily be misinterpreted, were discarded, merged or revised.

Based on the number of students who sought clarification of the meaning of some items written in Japanese and their request to have the questionnaires translated into Japanese, it was deemed necessary to provide students with Japanese translated version of the questionnaires. Pre-testing of the questionnaires was also carried out with Chinese students at Lijiang College of Guangxi Normal University, Russian students at Northern Arctic University, Ghanaian students at Regional Maritime University, and students from the Middle East at the British International School in Riyadh.

### **1.12.1 The summary of the results of the pilot study**

The pilot study revealed the following results: As some Japanese students at Ibaraki University indicated during informal interviews that they would have preferred to have the questionnaire in Japanese as they were unsure of the English used in the questionnaire, a questionnaire in Japanese was finally administered in the data collection phase. The questionnaire used during the pilot study was also pared down to items deemed most relevant to the research at hand. The pilot study

also indicated that Russian students at Northern Arctic University would benefit if questionnaires could be administered bilingually.

The pilot study conducted with Chinese students at Lijiang College of Guangxi Normal University, Ghanaian students at Regional Maritime University, and students from the Middle East at the British International School in Riyadh found that their English competence was developed enough to be able to complete the questionnaires without translation. Initially the questionnaires during the pilot study were in English. However, after the pilot study it was decided that having the questionnaires in Russian for the Russian students would avoid any misunderstandings. Students in China, Ghana, and Saudi Arabia were found to be having sufficient competence in the command of English to complete the questionnaires in their original English version. The pilot study therefore was of great assistance in determining the final form of the questionnaires to be administered.

## **1.13 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS**

### **1.13.1 Data collection**

Data was collected by means of administering two questionnaires. One of the questionnaires (Appendix A) was primarily based on the students' self-concept regarding their interpersonal skills. The second questionnaire (Appendix B) relates to how students use their interpersonal skills primarily through the use of nonverbal communication. The administering of these questionnaires had to conform to strict ethical standards. Firstly, the consent of the student had to be sought, and then the purpose of the study had to be communicated to the student orally as well as by way of a letter (Appendix G). The questionnaires were answered on a voluntary basis. The privacy of students or the confidentiality of the research was guaranteed as the questionnaires were completed anonymously.

### **1.13.2 Data analysis**

Data collected from the questionnaire related to how comfortable students feel in social situations and how they felt about their interpersonal skills was analyzed using descriptive as well as inferential statistics. Questionnaire responses related to how comfortable students feel in social situations and how they feel about their interpersonal skills was analyzed through descriptive univariate analyses, which is used to summarize sets of numerical data (Dörnyei 2009:96). Data related to the use of interpersonal skills was analyzed and summarized in terms of frequency of responses. Results were presented in tables and charts.

## **1.14 CHAPTER DIVISIONS**

The study is organized in five chapters.

### **1.14.1 Chapter one: Introduction**

This is the basis of the study. It consists of the background, statement of the problem, aim of the research, objectives, research questions, significance of the study and its scope. These are discussed in greater detail in chapter three.

### **1.14.2 Chapter two: Literature review**

This is the overview of previous works on the field of study. This is where the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study is discussed. The literature review is subdivided into the following sub-headings:

#### **1.14.2.1 Theories and principles of language learning.**

An historical overview of teaching methodology is given to place the role of the development of interpersonal skills in English language teaching within the context of the move towards communicative language teaching. Communicative language teaching is described and assessed in view of the adequacy of the method in developing communicative competence.

#### **1.14.2.2 English language teaching in selected countries.**

English language teaching in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana is dealt with here. English language teaching is outlined in these countries in order to make assessments regarding the place of developing interpersonal skills as part of the language learning process.

#### **1.14.2.3 English as a lingua franca and interpersonal communication.**

The spread of English as a global language and its increasing use as a lingua franca is reviewed in terms of the importance of developing interpersonal competence in light of differing cultural backgrounds of its speakers.

#### **1.14.2.4 Developing interpersonal competence in language teaching.**

The purpose of developing interpersonal competence in language teaching is explained. Factors, which play a part in successfully communicating on an interpersonal level, are described

#### **1.14.2.5 The role of gender and interpersonal skills in mastering a foreign language.**

The impact gender may have on interpersonal skills for improving communication in English, is studied. It was investigated whether gender may play a role in developing communicative competence in English language teaching.

#### **1.14.2.6 Culture and interpersonal competence in the learning of English.**

The interpersonal skills cannot be separated from culture; they are therefore investigated in terms of cultural differences, with a focus on nonverbal communication.



### **1.14.3 Chapter three: Research design and methodology.**

The research design includes the identification of sample from the population, research instruments, data collection and analysis techniques.

### **1.14.4 Chapter four: Data analysis, findings and interpretation of results**

This includes tabulation, presentation and description of data using both descriptive and inferential statistics. The data is compared and correlated to arrive at generalizations.

### **1.14.5 Chapter five: Research findings and conclusions**

The theory regarding the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching is summarized. Recommendations and conclusions are presented in terms of the theoretical perspective. Findings from the research are used to draw up theoretical conclusions and to make recommendations in terms of possible pedagogical solutions. The pedagogical solutions were derived from the literature reviewed regarding effective interpersonal communication as well as from the interpreted results of questionnaires. In the literature review, sub-section 2.5.2, the role of self-concept in the promotion of interpersonal communication in the learning of a foreign language, is reviewed.

The questions in questionnaire 1 (Appendix A) relate to student's own personal self-concept regarding their interpersonal skills. Question 3 of questionnaire 1 reads as follows: 'Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?' Question 6 reads as follows: 'Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?' Recommendation in terms of pedagogy based on a review of literature and questionnaire results is given in section 5.4. In sub-section 5.4.2.1.2 pedagogical activities designed to improve students' self-concept regarding interpersonal skills include the use of diaries, visualization, and affirmations. In sub-section 5.4.2.1.2.4 pedagogical proposals are made regarding establishing

rapport, which is based on the literature review in section 2.5.3. These activities are all designed to improve student interpersonal skills.

These activities address research findings from questionnaire 1 regarding how students feel about their interpersonal skills. The pedagogical activities in chapter 5 are designed to improve student confidence in their interpersonal skills. Recommendations regarding pedagogical activities based on the literature review in section 2.7 and on the results from questionnaire 2 (Appendix B) related to nonverbal communication, are described in sub-section 5.4.2.3. In sub-section 5.4.2.3.2 a gesture lesson activity, which is based on research findings in the literature review, section 2.7.4, and questions 5 and 6 of questionnaire 2, is described. As research findings indicate cultural differences in the use of nonverbal communication and students show awareness of their own use of nonverbal communication, the pedagogical activities serve to increase awareness of differences in the use of nonverbal communication based on differing cultural backgrounds. These activities also serve to develop the interpersonal confidence of students, which also addresses the research findings of questionnaire 1 where some students indicated a lack of confidence in their interpersonal skills.

## **1.15 SUMMARY**

Chapter one presents an overview of the study. The aim of the research is to determine the role that interpersonal competence plays in English language learning by foreign learners. As the goal of language education is to develop communicative competence needed to communicate with others. The development of interpersonal communication may therefore, be an important pedagogical factor in developing communicative skills needed in learning the English language in class by foreign learners. The purpose and significance of the study is clarified in this chapter. In the end the chapter also includes an explanation of the research methodology and design, as well as data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW: AN EXPOSITION OF THE THEORIES, PRINCIPLES, ARGUMENTS, VIEWS AND OPINIONS ON THE ROLE OF INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE IN THE LEARNING OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE BY ADULT LEARNERS**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter a review of literature is conducted in order to see what have other researchers said or already uncovered about this matter or have done about this issue, or did not do or say. Based on their findings and recommendations this study investigated factors that would impact the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching. The literature review serves as the point of departure, backbone and benchmark for the study as it empowers, sharpens and broadens the researcher's mind to view issues in a fresh perspective and thereby makes it easy for him to engage and manage matters of controversy judiciously and academically. To make it easy for presentation and reading, the literature review has been subdivided into subsections. The first subsection deals with an overview of the historical background of English teaching methodology. It discusses how the English language teaching methodology developed towards communicative teaching approaches. It is considered how a shift towards the use of communicative language teaching can accommodate the role the interpersonal competence plays in supporting communicative competence in English language teaching.

The subsequent subsection examines how English is taught in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana. This provides an understanding of how English language teaching methodology is applied in the selected countries. The purpose is to gain a better understanding of how interpersonal skills can be applied in a natural setting. The next section describes the importance of English as a lingua franca in a global context. This serves to further highlight the importance of the research question that asks about the role

of interpersonal competence in English language teaching. As the use of English as a lingua franca grows, it is imperative to consider how an understanding of the use of interpersonal skills in situations involving people of differing cultures may lead to improved communication whilst using English as a lingua franca. In the section dealing with the communicative approach and interpersonal skills, the current emphasis of developing the communication competence of students (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:155) is assessed in terms of whether the methodology is effective. The subsequent subsection examines how interpersonal skills and gender influence each other and how this may affect the English language teaching. The final subsection of the literature review reflects upon the cultural aspects of interpersonal communication as they impact on language teaching. The focus of this subsection is primarily on cultural differences in the use of nonverbal communication and how this may impact communicative competence.

## **2.2 THE THEORY OF METHODS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING**

### **2.2.1 Introduction**

The purpose of a literature review involving theories and principles of language teaching is to provide a background to the current emphasis on communicative approaches to English language teaching. This will serve to contextualize the possible role that the introduction of interpersonal skills may play in English language teaching methodology. Research on language learning methodologies began in the 1970s, but remained sporadic until the 1980s and early 1990s, when descriptive studies were favored. Since the early twenty-first century, interest in foreign language acquisition methods has increased, with an emphasis on learner-directed acquisition (Chamot, 2005) and communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Numerous methodologies for increasing the effectiveness of language teaching tended to focus on either the linguistic or the psychological problems involved in learning a language instead of the interpersonal aspects required to effectively communicate using the language

in learning. These methodologies are outlined below. However, language educators have proposed that for foreign language teaching, the age of methods is less important (Alemi & Daftarifard, 2010: 765). Language teachers remain dissatisfied with the inadequacy of conventional educational methods. As a result, the pendulum has swung from the use of specific methods to post-method language teaching that attempts to integrate stakeholders such as educators, curriculum designers, and students, in addition to techniques and technologies (Alemi & Daftarifard, 2010: 765).

By 1995, the societal concepts of self-direction and individual autonomy had become accepted in academic educational discussion. Factors that arose after the Second World War that eventually influenced language teaching included air travel, increased internationalism, wider access to education, the minority rights movement and the commercialization of language learning through technology. These elements have combined with continuous experimentation by language educators to produce a learner-centered variety of approaches. This diversity is likely to persist in the near future (Gremmo & Riley, 1995).

## **2.2.2 The principles and theories involved in Grammar-Translation Method**

### **2.2.2.1 Definition**

The grammar translation is a method of language teaching focusing on developing an understanding of grammar of the language under study through the translation of texts. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the most popular method of foreign language teaching was the Grammar-Translation Method. This method was derived from the way classical languages had customarily been taught (Larsen-Freeman, 2013: 52). In classical language learning, the goal was for students to acquire enough competence in a target language such as Latin or Greek to read and appreciate classical texts. Although the goal was not to develop conversational ability, educators believed that learning a target language

would improve students' facility for their native language, as well as provide general intellectual enrichment (Larsen-Freeman, 2013: 52).

### **2.2.2.2 The general application of the theories and principles of Grammar-Translation Method**

The Grammar-Translation is a method generally used to learn a language in order to be able to read its literature. Grammar rules are studied with the application of this knowledge used to translate sentences and texts into and out of a target language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:5)

### **2.2.2.3 Their application in this study**

Communicative approaches grew out of a criticism leveled against the Grammar-Translation method for disregarding the view that language studies should be a means of social communication. Those who study a language using the Grammar-Translation method may develop an understanding of grammatical rules, yet may not develop the fluency necessary to communicate orally in the language they learn. This approach did not only fail to develop communicative language skills adequately, but it seems it also overlooked the social and interpersonal aspects of language learning entirely. This method disregarded development of interpersonal skills in language learning absolutely. Since the purpose of this research is to determine the importance of the role of interpersonal skills in developing communicative competence, the Grammar-Translation method serves as an example of a method that is inadequate to develop communicative skills of students.

## **2.2.3 The principles and theories involved in the Direct Method**

### **2.2.3.1 Definition**

The Grammar-Translation Method was followed by the Direct Method, which sought to have students learn a foreign language for communication, rather than reading and appreciation of antique texts. The Direct Method resulted in frustration, since teachers

needed to possess a high degree of fluency in order to ensure that their classes speak only the target language. Furthermore, since few printed texts were used for this method, success depended almost entirely on the skill of instructors (Larsen-Freeman, 2013: 53). One weakness of this method became evident when students with limited English competence were mainstreamed into classrooms where they were required to access specialized complex information, such as scientific or mathematical information, using English (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987:228). These students struggled to understand specialized information that was presented in an abstract text-based format. By the 1980s, language educators began to move away from the Direct Method when they began to realise that although language transfer had been considered as the most important factor in foreign language learning, errors in language transfer could instead be viewed as evidence of a creative construction process (Odlin, 1989: ix).

#### **2.2.3.2 The general application of the theories and principles of the Direct Method**

The Direct Method maintained a focus on rapid acquisition, and frequently prohibited the use of the native language in the classroom in favor of using only the target language as the shortest route to fluency (Larsen-Freeman, 2013: 52).

#### **2.2.3.3 Their application in this study**

Although the direct method encouraged the development of communication skills as opposed to translation, as it had been the case with the Grammar-Translation method, the method did little to encourage interaction between students as it is a teacher-centred method. Limited student interaction did little to improve the communicative skills of students. Since the method was teacher-centered, students had little opportunity to develop their confidence and interpersonal skills. This was its major limitation since the development of interpersonal skills is considered very important in this study.

## **2.2.4 The principles and theories involved in Audiolingualism teaching method**

### **2.2.4.1 Definition**

Audiolingualism is a methodology through which a foreign language is taught by means of repetition in class. It was based on the habit-formation theory of language, but the main weakness of this method was boredom for both teachers and students. The result was low transferability of language patterns that were practiced in class, and the method was not necessarily useful in equipping students with fluency for actual communication (Larsen-Freeman 2012:33). Audiolingualism was the dominant language teaching method until educators began to adopt learner-centred approaches. After the demise of Audiolingualism, no single method has replaced it (Larsen-Freeman 2013:55).

### **2.2.4.2 The general application of the theories and principles of Audiolingualism teaching method**

Audiolingualism teaching method was based on behaviorist theories in the belief that the repetition of language and sentence pattern structures would lead to the automatization of language learning. A large part of the Audiolingualism method consisted of language drills in which vocabulary was substituted in target grammatical sentence structures. Students were often asked to automatically substitute such vocabulary in the target sentence without full comprehension of the meaning of what they were saying and without reference to any real context. Such an approach often leads to mere parroting of words, without actual communication taking place.

### **2.2.4.3 Their Application in this study**

Although Audiolingualism promoted more interaction between students than the Grammar-Translation method, this was done mainly from the viewpoint of practicing target language. Since the learning was controlled and parrot-fashion-like, students had little opportunity to use the language in a spontaneous or creative way. The rationale for student interaction was the practice of target grammatical structures. This limited students' abilities to develop



fluency and to use language in a natural manner. The use of drills and repetition did little to develop the communicative competence of students, especially from an interpersonal perspective. The use and development of interpersonal skills in promoting communicative competence was not considered. As the purpose of this study is to determine the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching, the shortcomings of this method may become more apparent.

### **2.2.5 Definition**

Brown (2007:378) gives his definition of CLT as ‘an approach to language teaching methodology that emphasizes authenticity, interaction, student-centered learning, and task based activities, and communication for the real world, meaningful purposes.’ The primary goal of CLT is to develop the communicative competence of students (Littlewood, (1981: xxi).

Communicative language teaching methodology (CLT) proposes that students would feel greater motivation to acquire a target language if social benefits were associated with learning. Communicative language teaching grew out of Hymes’ (1972:269-271) critique of Chomsky’s (1969) theory of transformational grammar, where competence and performance are based on a somewhat idealized use of language (Chomsky, 1969:3). Hymes placed the emphasis on performance within a socio-cultural perspective (1972:288-290), where the use of language is dependent on social context. This paved the way for communicative competence to be based on the way language is used in a particular social context. Proponents of Communicative Language Learning (CLT) and the use of communicative tasks in language teaching such as Nunan, Littlewood, and Widdowson describe the importance of language use in terms of its communicative function (Nunan, 1991:279; Littlewood, 1981: xxi; Widdowson, 1978:13). This view is evident in Littlewood’s statement that, ‘we must therefore provide learners with ample opportunities to use the language themselves for communicative purposes.

We must also remember that we are ultimately concerned with developing the learners' ability to take part in the *process of communicating* through language' (1981: xxi). The methodological objectives of CLT stresses the use of language as a means of communication where, 'learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns)' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001:161). There are no overt opponents to the method, but researchers such as Burnaby and Sun (1989), Byrne (1991), and Swan (1985) found some inadequacies in the method. Burnaby and Sun (1989) reported that teachers in China found it difficult to deploy CLT due to constraints such as the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class size and schedules. Byrne (1991: 118) criticizes some role play activities in CLT, such as taking on the role of a nurse or lawyer which a student may never adopt in real life. Swan (1985:76) feels that the method fails to 'recognize the crucial role of the mother tongue in foreign language learning.'

#### **2.2.5.1 The general application of the theories and principles of the Communicative Language teaching method**

Rather than a focus on acquiring abstract information such as vocabulary and sentence structure, communicative language methodology depends on social interaction. Students and teachers produce knowledge by negotiating meaning, in a process involving the speaker communicating something that the listener does not yet know. These 'information gaps' were used as the main opportunities for teaching experiences, which are followed by feedback from the listener to the speaker.

The students learn how to communicate by communicating with one another in class (Larsen-Freeman, 2012:34). CLT is a more student-centred approach with teaching adapted to the learner's needs, interests and abilities. Teaching becomes 'a collaborative effort between teachers and learners, since learners are closely involved in the decision-making process regarding the content of the curriculum and how it is taught' (Nunan, 1988:3) The role of the teacher in CLT is that of a facilitator (Larson-Freeman, 2001; Lightbown and

Spada, 2003) where communication in the target language is improved by interpersonal communication situations more likely to improve language proficiency. Errors are seen as part of the language learning process rather than barriers.

#### **2.2.5.2 Their Application in this study**

As the topic of the research study is the use and development of interpersonal skills to develop the communicative skills of students, CLT is assessed in terms of whether the methodology used is sufficient in developing the communicative skills of students in terms of interpersonal communication. Where inadequacies are found, they will be addressed as part of the research study. CLT often requires that communicative competence be developed through communicative activities which take place in a social context with other class members. Such communicative activities include opportunities to use language meaningfully through interactive activities such as role plays, interviews, information gap, pair work, and group work. Although CLT often incorporates activities which involve real or meaningful communication as a way to develop language skills through social interaction, developing the language skills of students through such socially interactive activities may not be sufficient for developing communicative competence.

If communicative competence depends on the social context which determines the proper use of language within a particular social context, it is apparent that in order for communication to take place, engaging within a social context is important. Communicative competence presupposes that communication will take place in a social context, particularly in terms of oral communication. Certainly, language facility is an important factor in being able to communicate effectively. However, the appropriate use of a language in a particular social context as pointed out by Hymes does not only require linguistic competence, but also interpersonal competence.

### **2.2.6 Conclusion**

By 1987, Larsen-Freeman noted that diversity in English language teaching methodology had increased to the point that it would be impossible to identify a “typical” foreign language class (Larsen-Freeman, 2012:28). Yet by that time, agreement did exist on the basic elements that effective language teaching should include. These were: little or no meaningless repetition, and instead, language meaning that could be illustrated through a number of different techniques, more interaction between students, and overall, experience of the target language in a variety of ways (Larsen-Freeman, 2012:29).

The above description of teaching methods have therefore gradually given way to a post-method view of language teaching in that ‘clearly identifiable sets of theoretical principles and classroom procedures associated with language-, learner- and learning-centred categories of methods, the language-teaching profession appears to have exhausted the kind of psychological, linguistic, and pedagogic underpinnings is has depended on’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:161). The reason for this shift from a method based teaching ideology to one of a post-method view was that it became clear that no single method could effectively be used in all teaching contexts, which often varied in terms of cultural contexts and expectations, as well as the particular needs of students.. This opens the way to consider language teaching methodology no longer in terms of a top down prescriptive application of language learning theory, but more from a bottom up approach based on the needs of students in a particular teaching situation.

This view makes it necessary to determine the needs of students which may differ depending on a student's own perceived needs as well as the context of the learning environment which may be influenced by its cultural context. From this view, the current emphasis on developing the linguistic communicative competence of students and learner-directed acquisition is no longer based on prescriptive systematic approaches, but rather on the specific needs of students that serve to guide the content and approaches used, which are based on a learner-directed needs perspective. When considering the role of

interpersonal competence in language teaching, the post-method approach, which allows the development of such skills, come to the fore. The approach however, should be used in conjunction with other teaching methods such as CLT in order to promote communicative competence. The use of post-method approach may also be examined from the perspective of developing student interpersonal skills. Based on research results, which reflect on particular needs of students in terms of how confident they feel about their interpersonal skills as well as how they use such skills, students' interpersonal skills may be developed. The post-method approach takes the view that communicative competencies are no longer viewed only in terms of developing linguistic ability, but from a more holistic approach encompassing the entire process of interpersonal interaction of which linguistic ability is only one component.

A post-method approach to communicative language teaching thereby taps on the students own needs in developing communicative skills. These may be assessed by way of investigating the thoughts and opinions of students by administering questionnaires as well as reflecting on the context of the teaching environment, which may be influenced by cultural factors. The inferences regarding the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching are therefore based on personal observations by the researcher as well as on data collected by means of questionnaires. These may serve to indicate to what extent students feel the need to develop their interpersonal skills; and also to show differences based on gender and cultural backgrounds with regard to interpersonal communication, which assist in assessing the role of interpersonal skills in a particular teaching situation.

The growth of English as a global language and its use as a lingua franca, which are discussed in the following chapter, are important factors in examining teaching methodologies that can improve the communicative competence in communicative language teaching, and also assist in developing communicative skills in terms of interpersonal communication. Developing interpersonal competence should ideally take place in a situation where people of various cultural backgrounds are involved. In the

literature review of teaching methodologies such as Grammar-Translation, the Direct Method, Audiolingualism and Communicative Language Teaching it was found that in their present form, these methods give no consideration for the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching. As we have entered a post-method age in terms of teaching methodologies, communicative approaches to language teaching should incorporate the development of interpersonal skills in order to develop the communicative competence of students holistically. These skills should be based on the needs of students, and the cultural context of the teaching situation.

## **2.3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SELECTED COUNTRIES**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

In this section an overview of English language teaching in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana is given. The purpose is to learn by experience what may work or not in terms of the present study. This would promote a better understanding of how people in various countries learn English as a foreign language. Such information would assist in determining whether pedagogical approaches used in the teaching of English as a foreign language are effective in improving interpersonal communication as a way to develop the communicative skills of students as part of the language learning process.

### **2.3.2 How people in Japan learn English**

Following World War II Japan's education was restructured and English became the primary foreign language taught in schools. The curriculum was revised by the newly reformed Ministry of Education, now MEXT, through its Course of Study Guidelines. These guidelines stipulated the curriculum and goals for all subjects, including English and made English mandatory for all grade levels of junior and senior high school. The goals stated in this first set of guidelines were similar to those of the Audio-lingual method of English teaching (Tahira 2012: 4) focusing on speaking and listening, pronunciation, and sounds and rhythms. Although English was once again a significant part of the Japanese

education system, many American observers felt that English education relied too heavily on passive learning and rote memorization. This was a result of the Confucian style of education, which lent itself particularly well to the difficult Japanese script.

The initial Course of Study Guidelines was amended in the 1950's and would continue to be amended every decade to present day. The early amendments in the 1950's and 1960's steered English education in Japan away from the Audio-lingual approach and started placing more emphasis on grammar, language structure, and vocabulary rather than conversational ability. This led to the Grammar Translation approach known in Japan as *yakudoku*, which involves more instruction in Japanese and very little English conversational practice (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008: 133). MEXT soon realized that although this style of education was successful in producing many competent written translators, the number of graduating students who could actually communicate in English was low. With the 1989 revision of the Course of Study Guidelines, oral communication courses were added to the high school curriculum (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008: 133) and MEXT explicitly stated that the goal of English education was to develop a student's communicative ability (Tahira, 2012: 4). This marked the first real movement towards communicative approach to English education in Japan.

MEXT began a five-year action plan formulated in 2001; the Strategic Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities. This plan set goals for the level of English a student should have acquired upon graduating from their current tier of education. This ranged from basic daily-life communication for junior high graduates to professional level proficiency for college graduates (Honna&Takeshita, 2005: 364). MEXT set up a number of projects to investigate whether the current teaching methods and policy changes helped to attain these set goals. One such project was setting up some project schools called "Super English Language High Schools" to pioneer and experiment new ideas in English education (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008: 134). One such idea introduced in the project is the increased use of English in the classroom. In order to insure that teachers are able to do this, MEXT

raised the bar on the English skill required for teachers, and offered training to current teachers to improve their conversational skills (Honna & Takeshita, 2005: 365).

One of the ideas suggested in the Strategic Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities was implemented in 2011 with the latest update to the Course of Study Guidelines. This update was significant as it marked the beginning of compulsory English classes at the primary school level. Since April 2011 fifth and sixth grade students have participated in English classes around Japan (Tahira, 2012: 4). The focus of these classes, as MEXT defined it, is to give students a positive attitude towards communicating in English. To accomplish this, classes were taught by the homeroom teacher in order to make students more relaxed and willing to try to communicate in English. This can be seen as an indication of MEXT's intention to steer English education in Japan away from *Yakudoku* and towards the Communicative Language Teaching method. It is also important to note that although it was not a dedicated class before this, many elementary schools would take advantage of the period known as Integrated Study Hour to have classes focused on international understanding of English (Honna&Takeshita, 2005: 367). Elementary schools still take advantage of this period by continuing to give English lessons in the lower grade classes.

The implementation of a new Course of Study Guidelines for high school students will begin this year, 2013. As it was the case with junior high schools, senior high school students will have a larger amount of required vocabulary. Also similar to junior high schools, the focus is being moved away from Grammar Translation approach to the Communicative Language Teaching approach with equal emphases on all four key communication skills (Tahira, 2012: 5). MEXT also reorganized English classes that were previously categorized as English (I, II), Reading, Writing, and Oral Communication to English Communication (I, II, III) and English Expression (I, II). MEXT also declared that all these classes have to be taught strictly in English. Although ALTs are less common at



the senior high school level, many schools still use them to assist classes, especially those focusing on oral-aural skills.

MEXT's change in direction away from the Grammar Translation approach towards the Communicative Language Teaching approach has been going on for some time; but there have been opposing forces both within the Japanese education system and Japanese society as a whole, which cause a slow adaptation to this method of teaching. Poor retention of English by the Japanese also plays a contributory role. This poor retention of English by the Japanese was revealed in the late 1990's when Japan obtained the second lowest scores on the TOEFL examinations among the 26 Asian countries (McKenzie, 2008: 272). Besides the differences in the two languages, lack of motivation for spoken English is another inhibiting factor. Japan remains one of the most homogenous nations in the world today, with the population being over 99% ethnically Japanese (Hughes, 1999: 557). Due to this situation, the Japanese are largely consisting of a monolingual society. Although MEXT has defined the goal of English education as the development of a student's ability to communicate in English, there is a very small English speaking community in Japan. Nishino and Watanabe (2008: 134-135) speculate that this could cause students to see no practical use for learning communicative English, thus not putting as much effort as they put into other classes.

On the other hand, Hughes (1999: 565) points out that over the past century, English in Japan has been needed primarily for translation of written work. This promotes the use of Grammar Translation method, which focuses all teaching on what most students could perceive as the only viable skill to have when it comes to English. In addition to lack of speakers of English as first language in Japan, the homogeneity of the population has led to the area of study known as *nihonjinron*. *Nihonjinron* focuses, which focuses primarily on the study of the uniqueness of Japan and its people. This encompasses all aspects of Japanese culture, including the language. Not only does the theory of *nihonjinron* serve alienate foreign nationals as outsiders who will never truly be part of Japanese society. They also

define the Japanese language as being intelligible only to those who are ethnically Japanese (McKenzie 2008: 281). The ethnocentrism produced by such attitudes can be another factor that leads to the indifference towards English, which resulted in the lack of English proficiency among the Japanese. Hashimoto (2000: 40) goes so far as to argue that Japan uses English education as a way of promoting their Japanese identity by deconstructing English as opposed to allowing it to flourish. Although identity, perception, and language barriers can be seen as factors preventing the spread of functional English in Japan; the main impediment is the major part of the Japanese education system itself.

In order to gain admission to a university there are at least two tests that each prospective student must take. The first is The National Center Test for University Admission administered by MEXT in January. The second is a test administered by individual institutions in February (Underwood, 2010: 166). A section on competence in English forms a major part of both these entrance examinations, as well as of high school entrance examination. These English sections focus primarily on reading, writing, and grammar, with little to no focus on oral-aural skills. Hughes (1999: 562) notes that the difficulty of some of the questions 'require an almost mathematical knowledge of syntax' and when he administered the pronunciation section of one of American university freshmen they scored on average 62%. Kikuchi and Browne (2009: these entrance examination 176) point out that the articles in the MEXT approved reading textbooks used to prepare students for college entrance examination are often at a higher difficulty level than unsimplified English texts.

The level of knowledge required for these examinations and their lack of connection to practical English has led to the term *jukeneigo*, which is used to differentiate this obscure English structural knowledge from the actual language (McKenzie, 2008: 274). Considering these facts it comes as no surprise that Nishino and Watanabe (2008: 134) consider the existence of the entrance examinations in their current form as one of the major impediments for the Communicative Language Teaching method.

### **2.3.3 How people in Russia learn English**

During the Soviet era, Russian language pedagogy placed emphasis on grammar and reading with less emphasis placed on oral communication skills (Vogel, 1959: 394). Although traditionally examinations were conducted orally, they were not conducted from a communicative perspective as the questions examined the students' ability to read texts aloud and translate them. Students were expected to demonstrate considerable knowledge of grammar (Vogel, 1977: 394).

By the 1960s the general trend of Soviet foreign language teaching that can still be seen today began to develop (Monk, 1990). The method of teaching was called “soznatel’no-prakticheskiy” which may be translated into English as the Practical-Conscious Method. The term was coined by the notable Soviet psychologist V.B. Belyaev. As McLaughlin puts it, the core of this method was designed to help students develop their linguistic abilities with conscious understanding of the rule governing characteristics of the language even at the level of an ‘unconscious feeling for the language’ (Monk, 1990). The Russian government is discussing the introduction of a compulsory examination in a foreign language at the end of secondary school education (11<sup>th</sup> grade) and the marks would be part of the requirements to receiving the General Certificate of Secondary Education, which allows a student to enter institutions of higher education. Currently an examination in a foreign language is optional and it is conducted in the form of the Unified State Examination (edinyigosudarstvennyieksamen), while up until 3 years ago it could be conducted in the form of an oral examination at school.

Similar to that of elementary and middle school, university language programs are administered at the federal, regional and local level. The federal level is responsible for 75% of the program. Under the title, ‘The theory and methodology for teaching foreign languages and cultures’ (Chicherina, Strelkova, Vorob’yova, Kostenevich, Gradova, 2012), is a Russian university program for English language teachers, which includes introducing students to the theory of foreign language learning. The aim of the program is to lay the

basis for a diachronic approach to learning a foreign language. This includes imparting knowledge to students about language development, language teaching methodology, and the basic phonetic, lexical and grammatical analysis.

#### **2.3.4 How people in China learn English**

In Boyle's paper titled *A Brief History of English Language Teaching in China*, English teaching "first figured in the syllabus of schools in 1902 in 'His Majesty's Teaching Standards for Primary and Secondary Institutions'." The model for education in China followed the Japanese style. The method of English language teaching (ELT) emphasized reading and translation (Boyle, 2013). In 1922, Western models, which emphasized listening and speaking skills, were incorporated. Many schools were set up by Western Christian missionaries (Ibid.).

Dramatic changes in English language education began in 2001. The Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) published standards according to which education at different stages of language learning would be conducted. From 2001, the Basic Requirement for Primary School English was designed, and from 2001 to 2004 a new curriculum for nine-year compulsory system was piloted and subsequently implemented in 2005. This includes the following aspects:

##### **Policy**

Formulated by Educational Ministry of P. R. China, the Criteria of English Curriculum for Common Junior High School in Full-Time Compulsory Education (tentative draft) (Abbreviated as 'The Criteria of English Curriculum' in the following), stipulated that the general goal of English teaching in the phase of China's fundamental education is to cultivate students' comprehensive English-applying ability. In compulsory education, it is stipulated that it is to develop English language skills as well as to cultivate students' ability to continue life-long English studies (He, 2011:2). When English courses were first offered in the primary and middle schools in China, the choice of teaching methods

depended largely on the background of the teacher. Generally, according to Hu (1990:355) the following two cases existed at that time:

1. In schools funded by Christian missionaries; or where teachers were either foreign teachers or Chinese who had studied in English-speaking countries and as a result, had acquired a good command of English; and in addition were influenced by foreign teaching concepts. In these schools the Direct Method was usually used in class.
2. In ordinary schools the use of English was distinguished by Chinese accent, the teachers' command of English was inadequate; and the teaching method adopted was essentially The Grammar-Translation Method.

During the last few decades, more teaching approaches were introduced in China. However, the Grammar-Translation Method is still dominant. This is confirmed by Hu (1990:338) who states that:

"The Grammar Translation Method possesses a large market in China whether in the past or at present. So long as the teaching condition is not improved fundamentally, the situation will remain that on the one hand nobody advocates The Grammar-Translation Method, but on the other hand it is quite popular."

MOE (2006) has stated that:

"More than 300 million Chinese people are learning English, and that the total number of English learners in China will surpass the total number of native English speakers in the world in the next few years."

### **2.3.5 How People in Saudi Arabia learn English**

Historically the methodology of teaching English in the Saudi Arabia has been a combination of the grammar translation method, communicative language teaching and, more recently, blended learning techniques promoted by VLE (Virtual Learning Environments) (Khan, 2011:2).

Article 50 of the Kingdom's education policy states at least one foreign language should be taught to students so that interaction with other people in different parts of the world, become possible (Al-Seghayer, 2012). Due to its world-wide dominance, English is the preferred and the only foreign language taught in the Saudi Arabian primary, intermediate and secondary school systems (Al-Seghayer, 2012). At Saudi universities English is offered either as an elective or major subject. University students who do not study English as a major are required to take an introductory course in English. In fields such as medicine and engineering, English is used as the language of instruction and in institutions such as the King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals and King Abdul Aziz University of Science and Technology all courses are taught in English (Al Seghayer, 2012).

Like Saudi higher educational institutions, international schools in Saudi Arabia also provide provision for teaching English in the Kingdom. English Language teaching in Saudi Arabia has been characterised by formal instruction with very little interaction between student and teacher (Batawi, 2006:1). In 2004, in an attempt to move away from the Grammar Translation Method to a more communicative approach, the delivery of English was introduced at the earlier age (Grade 6 at elementary level). Group work and interactive exercises were adopted and a new textbook English for Saudi Arabia (Al-Mofarreh, 2004) included speaking and listening activities although contact time was reduced to 2 periods a week (Alamri, 2008). Continuous assessment, which measured fluency as opposed to accuracy (Batawi, 2006) was also introduced. This form of assessment was placed alongside summative tests, which were grammar based. However, the Grammar Translation Method still influences the teaching of English in Saudi classrooms heavily. Gunn (2003) has observed that this method rarely teaches fluency in speaking English while Cummins (1998) suggested that, when teaching via GMT, 'strict grammatical and technical accuracy measures successes in the acquisition of the target language.

Communicative Language teaching (CLT) was supported by authorities such as Berns (2013:79), who suggested that ‘knowledge of grammatical forms and structures alone does not adequately prepare learners for effective and appropriate use of the language they are learning.’ Despite this argument, the majority of Saudi Arabian English Language teachers still view grammar as an integral part of teaching the target language (Batawi, 2006:43) and even though they recognize the effectiveness of CLT methods their teaching approaches tend to be traditional and GTM orientated (Batawi, 2006: 49). Teacher led lessons predominate (Batawi, 2006:44) and teachers acknowledge that while group work is important it is used only as an occasional activity (Batawi, 2006: 45). Al Hazmi and Schofield (2007) also noted that teacher-led rather than student-centered methodologies are prevalent in Arabic classes.

Batawi believes that ‘Saudi teacher’s perceptions about CLT teaching remain unclear’ while teachers inadequate speaking (competence) is a prime obstacle in applying (the CLT) method (Batawi, 2006:39). A ‘one size fits all approach’ would therefore be unsuitable. Hiep (2005) believes that for CLT to be successful EFL teachers must adapt methods to suit the particular context in which they teach; he pointed out that western communicative styles may not be appropriate in all EFL classrooms and that differing barriers to learning the target language are inevitable.

### **2.3.6 How people in Ghana learn English**

In Ghana, English is thought from Kindergarten to University or tertiary level and it is one of the requirements for entry into any higher education institution. According to the language policy of Nigeria, as described in JNESA (2011:17), English is seen as the only medium of instruction in schools.

“In Nigeria, the National Education Policy (NPE), formulated in 1977 and revised in 1981, 1998 and 2004, assigns to English the role of serving as the language of instruction from the fourth year of a six-year primary course to the tertiary level. In

addition, English is to be taught as a school subject right from the first year of primary education.”

In Ghana English is viewed as the official language of the country since the country has no national language. In that regard, it is expected that every school pupil must be able to communicate in English. From primary school classes the medium of instruction is conducted in English and this continues up to the highest level of education. This has been specified in language policy document; National literacy acceleration program (NALAP) (2010: VI).

“In NALAP, pupils learn how to read and write in a Ghanaian language, with English introduced gradually, and initially only orally. By P2 pupils also start to learn to read and write in English, and by P3 pupils should be able to read with fluency and understanding in both a Ghanaian language and English”.

In Ghana students learn English language through the development of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills Pai (1982:11).According to the Primary English Syllabus of Ghana (2007:VI), a teacher helps the child to develop listening skills by creating opportunities for the child to listen to poems, rhymes, songs, stories and to follow directions from the teacher in English. These activities are believed to aid in the rapid development of the child’s listening skills. The child develop his or her speaking skills when he or she begins to converse with others about what he or she picked up from the listening lessons, to take part in drama and role play, and politely request for things from his teacher or colleagues. According to Pai (1982:16), the important thing about reading is to be able to understand the text. This is when the teacher teaches a pupil to read books from the library, newspapers and other articles that will enhance the child’s ability to read with understanding or comprehension.

The writing skills of the child are developed when the teacher introduces him or her to grammar and composition. At this level the child is taught how to put words together to



construct a sentence and to ensure that each sentence is grammatically correct. All these skills are developed and taught from primary school to tertiary level. At the Basic Level, the child is evaluated in respect of these skills through the Basic Education Certificate Examinations. At the secondary level, Ghana as well as all English speaking countries of West Africa writes English examination as part of the West African Senior Secondary School examination certificate. In this examination, the students are tested on both oral and writing skills. For this reason, English language is made a compulsory subject at all levels of education in Ghana and West African English speaking countries, and it is a pre-requisite for entrance into any level of education among the English speaking countries of West Africa.

An examination of the teaching methods used in Ghana allows us to determine whether development of interpersonal skills is introduced as part of English language teaching. The research question seeks to investigate the role and importance of introducing the development of interpersonal skills in English language teaching in order to improve communicative competence. In order to address what the research question seeks to examine the role of the development of interpersonal skills in English language teaching, has to be studied.

There are two major teaching methods used in teaching English in Ghana. These are:

Teacher-oriented methods

Learner- oriented methods.

The teacher-oriented methods involve the teacher giving information through talking while students listen. The commonest type of teacher-oriented method used in Ghana is the Lecture Method. It is a traditional method where the teacher teaches students mainly through verbal means. It is a one way communication and students hardly ask any questions during the lecture. This requires the teacher to apply the necessary skills to explain the information transmitted to the students to the extent that they could comprehend it. This method aims to present students with basic facts and concepts of the topic in question. This

method is helpful when dealing with complex areas like grammar, summary and composition. This type of method requires the teacher to use visual aids or demonstration activities to help students understand the concepts easily. The method is commonly used at secondary schools and tertiary institutions. It is also more affordable than other methods (Lawson, Alorvor, Anmar, Sadet, 2010:131). Although the lecture method is widely used in Ghana, some institutions do use interactive or 'participative' methods to teach English.

The participative method is used at all levels of education in Ghana. With this method, students get the opportunity to be involved and interact with the teacher and other students at every stage of the teaching. It makes the learner an active member in the teaching learning situation instead of being a passive recipient of knowledge like when the lecture method is used. The method is normally used to teach English literature at secondary and tertiary levels. An example is when students are asked to do role play/drama or recite a poem and it may also involve questioning-discussions, simulation exercises and problem solving by students. The major factors considered when using this method are: the learner, the learning materials and the learning environment or the classroom. All these factors contribute to the success or failure of the lesson (Lawson, Alorvor, Anmar, Sadet, 2010:131).

At the tertiary level, English communication skills are taught, although this is strictly in terms of linguistic ability, rather than in terms of interpersonal skills. Students are, for instance, taught how to write research reports and communicate at work places (McWilliam&Kwamena-Poh, (1975:140). The majority of students in Ghana do not use English in their immediate environment. As such it is sometimes difficult to practice speaking the language outside the classroom environment. Where the student lives in a rural area he or she finds himself or herself surrounded only by speakers of the local language; there will therefore be no opportunities for him or her to practice speak English. In the long run, the student may find himself or herself having good writing skills, but poor oral communication skills (Pai, 1982:24).

### **2.3.7 Conclusion**

Literature related to how people learn English in different countries shows that all countries value the importance of the role of English as a bridge between nations. Through the use of English one is able to grasp the existing economic opportunities in a global world and to communicate with the world at large. A review of methodological approaches used in teaching English indicates that in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana the teaching methodologies used are Grammar-Translation, the Direct Method, and to a lesser degree Communicative Language Teaching. The inadequacies of these methods have been discussed in section 2.2 titled '*The theory of methods of language teaching.*' In Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana, lecture and grammar translation methods have been widely used although there has been a shift recently towards the development of the oral communication skills of students using more interactive and participative approaches. Reasons given include the one that a lecture style method may be more economical like in the case of Ghana where a larger number of students may be taught at the same time. In Saudi Arabia a lack of familiarity with communicative language teaching as well as teachers' confidence in communicating orally seems to have limited the use of communicative language teaching methods.

In Japan the emphasis on test taking and the importance of university examination has delayed the introduction of communicative language teaching although efforts are being made to change this through government policy as well as by ensuring that the university examinations include sections related to oral communication. Although Russian people have become pragmatic in terms of their study of English, the learning of languages in schools is mostly dedicated to learning linguistic units such as phrases, words and grammar. It does not include extra-linguistic activities such as developing interpersonal skills involving nonverbal communication. In a Russian school 95% of the time is devoted to verbal means, 4 to 5% to prosodic means and 1% or nothing at all to nonverbal means. (Ter-Minasova, 2008a: 263). The result is that although students learn to know many English words, they are unable to put their language skills into use such as speaking or

communicating effectively with foreigners at an interpersonal level. None of the countries surveyed showed any indication that the development of interpersonal skills is included as part of their English language teaching program. Research undertaken regarding the role of interpersonal skills seeks to determine the degree of importance apportioned to introducing interpersonal skills in these countries. The results of this study are described and analyzed in section 4.2 Titled Research findings

## **2.4 ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILL**

### **2.4.1 English as a global language**

#### **2.4.1.1 Introduction**

The importance of answering the research question, which concerns the role of developing interpersonal skills in English language teaching, cannot be overemphasized, considering the spread of English as a global language. Effective communication in English between people of differing cultural backgrounds requires not only linguistic, but also interpersonal skills. The importance of developing these skills with a view to promoting communication in English among people with differing cultural backgrounds is discussed in greater detail in section 2.7 titled ‘Culture and Interpersonal Competence in the learning of English.’

The number of English speakers worldwide has quadrupled during the past 50 years. A short article in the periodical DNA: Daily News & Analysis (2010) states that English rules the international business and economic picture completely. English is the preferred foreign language in every European country in exception of Luxembourg, where German is the most favoured language (DNA: Daily News & Analysis, 2010). More than 50% of Europeans claim fluency in English. The article asserts that the rise of the popularity of English could be ascribed to the American influence, more than the British. The dominance of English is a consequence of American hegemony on a global scale. English is the key

international language enabling countries to discuss and negotiate political, social, education, and economic concerns (McKay, 2002:17).

There are a variety of reasons for the growth of English as a world language. As World War II came to an end, the victorious Allies made English the first language of the West (Ferguson, 2011: 14). The co-operation of the European countries following the end of the war, promoted the use of English as a *lingua franca*; and as a language to promote unity. Crystal (2012:120) summarizes the history of the spread of English as follows:

“In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries English was the language of the leading colonial nation— Britain. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries it was the language of the leader of the industrial revolution— also Britain. In the late-nineteenth century and the early twentieth it was the language of the leading economic power— the USA. As a result, when new technologies brought new linguistic opportunities, English emerged as a first-rank language in industries, which affected all aspects of society— the press, advertising, broadcasting, motion pictures, sound recording, transport and communications.”

Economic and trade activities, and publishing of the major proportion of intellectual activities have served to promote the importance of English. Travel and tourism have also accelerated the current spread of English. The motion picture industry and popular music have also contributed to the spread of English globally, particularly among young people (McKay, 2002:17-18).

Kachru (1985) describes the way English is undergoing changes with respect to its distribution and function as it continues to gain worldwide dominance. Kachru (1985) also describes the spread of English in terms of the following three concentric circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. These circles represent ‘the type of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages’ (Kachru, 1985:242). Within the Inner Circle of countries,

which include the USA, Britain, New Zealand and Australia, native speakers of English predominate. The Outer Circle consists of nations, which have adopted English as a component part of colonialism, where English is spoken in all government institutions and for all administrative purposes. Some of these countries are Singapore, Malaysia, and India. The Expanding Circle includes countries in which English has gained no recognized status at present, and where its use may even be restricted, such as Japan, South Korea, and China (Park & Wee, 2009:389). The spread of English as a global language highlights the importance of the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching if people of differing cultural backgrounds are to communicate effectively in English.

#### **2.4.2 English as a lingua franca**

The spread of English as a global language has promoted its use as a *lingua franca*. The term 'lingua franca' is defined by Samarin as 'any lingual medium of communication between people of different mother tongues, for whom it is a second language' (1987:371). In English as lingua franca (ELF) interactions are defined as interactions between members of two or more different languages of which none of them speaks English is a mother tongue (House, 1999:74). The rise of English as a lingua franca, therefore serves also to unite individuals from diverse origins. In that English is used for communicative purposes between individuals from diverse origins, the role of interpersonal competence in English language education, therefore, becomes important particularly as these origins may be based on different interpersonal cultural backgrounds. The importance of this role is made clear in Seidlhofer's statement that English 'can be studied like other foreign languages such as Italian or Japanese, but for most current learners and users of the language, the role of the language as a medium of intercultural communication, as function as a (global) lingua franca, will be the more relevant one.' The use of English as a lingua franca is therefore not only based on the command of the language linguistically, but also interpersonally through intercultural understanding, which is further underlined by McKay (2002:127) in that 'the goal in teaching pragmatics in EIL should not be to achieve native-like competence but rather to encourage the acquisition of interaction strategies that will

promote comity. The strategies could include such things as developing ways to seek clarification, establish rapport, and minimize cultural differences.’

Ku and Zussman (2010) presented an argument that favored universal use of English as *lingua franca* in order to facilitate global trade. They state that language barriers comprise a significant cost for international trade initiatives; standardization of a *lingua franca* would therefore contribute towards reducing trade costs. In this sense, the spread of English would result in greater savings in costs for the nations that adopt it. Pan and Block (2011) noted that business sectors including banking, technology, industry, and large scale trade are linguistically dominated by English, regardless of how cultures may otherwise be protected. Neeley, Hinds and Cramton (2012) addressed the issue of language in the context of global collaboration for business. The need for a common lingua franca in order to facilitate business relations is recognized by companies, and the language that is selected for this purpose is invariably English. Neeley, Hinds and Cramton (2012) noted that this is the case regardless of the origin or location of the company. Yet implementation of these language mandates is often left incomplete.

### **2.4.3 Pedagogy and English as a lingua franca**

As a cause and consequence of globalization, English has become the most wide spread means of international and intercultural communication (Seidlhofer, 2011: IX). According to Khan (2011:1) English is rapidly becoming a lingua franca in the Arabic world. It is due to this status that it is considered the only international language. However, the real international language according to the study of English is the primary foreign language or other language in school curricula that is found all over the world (Seidlhofer 2011: IX). The national curriculum in Japan specifies that English be taught as a required foreign language in middle schools because it is an international language (Monbusho, 1999). This status as an international language underlines the importance of the research question that aims at determining the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching where such

skills would promote effective communication between people of differing cultural backgrounds in conjunction with the use of English as a *lingua franca*.

People have frequently engaged in language learning for economic motives, and English associated with “boundless mobilities” (Mansfield & Poppi, 2011:12). Alatis (2005:27) stated that English was first taught as a foreign language by native speakers in the context of colonialism and imperialism. For the learners, English was the primary language of opportunity. The three factors have persisted to the current time, according to Alatis. Mansfield and Poppi (2011) stated that as a result of globalization, the teaching of English has increasingly involved learning it as a *lingua franca*, or as one of the languages spoken by individuals who speak different languages.

Kumar (2012:1) stated that the spread of English as a global language has been facilitated through the revolution occurring in information technology. The increased permeability of national borders as a result of communication via satellite and the Internet, allows English to spread quickly (DNA: Daily News & Analysis 2010). Firth (2009:147) questioned whether interactions that take place where English is used as *lingua franca* involve unique factors, which are more influential than those of other language encounters. If so, then teaching materials for ELF (English as *lingua franca*) would require adaptation to these factors (Firth, 2009:148). While not confirming the claim that English has transcended the status of a *lingua franca*, Jenkins (2000: 926-927) noted that within most universities, language policies are based on British and North American norms. This has occurred despite the diverse international composition of student populations, who might be assumed to study English as just another foreign language. In a study of the way English is perceived within the international scientific community, Tardy (2004) stated that the volume of scientific information is growing rapidly, while much of the scientific research is conducted by non-native speakers and writers of English.

A common language that can be used by researchers worldwide is necessary for the sharing and management of this information. English is the *lingua franca* that is most commonly



used for this purpose, and the trend is expected to accelerate. Tardy (2004) stated again that the ability to write and communicate in English can also confer greater professional recognition for researchers. They are more likely to attain publication in prestigious journals, and to be able to gain status of “gatekeepers” of scientific knowledge when they write well in English (Tardy, 2004:248).

In an examination of the language policies that had recently been formulated at Norwegian universities to promote integration with the international community, Ljosland (2011) concluded that English has steadily gained use as an academic *lingua franca* for instruction. This has been done as part of an effort by Norwegian universities to increase scholarly internationalization (Ljosland 2011:991). Mauranen, Hynninen and Ranta (2010) provided justification for the decision by Norwegian universities to increase use of English for instruction. English has become the *lingua franca*, the shared world language of academia. Yet the majority of academics are non-native speakers of English (Mauranen, Hynninen&Ranta, and 2010:183). As trend-setters, Asian-Pacific countries have progressively lowered the age at which English is made available to students. The national curriculum of Japan requires English to be taught in middle schools as an international language (Matsuda 2012:3). Yet the use of English in Japan is still limited to that of a foreign language. Although English is not used within Japan as a *lingua franca*, awareness of the topic is growing through its inclusion in textbooks and teaching where the concept is introduced to students, such as the use of “Singlish” in Singapore (Matsuda, 2012:25).

Pan and Block (2011:395) used data gathered through questionnaires and interviews to examine the beliefs of Chinese students and teachers regarding the instrumental value of English, both for China as a nation and for the students. The majority of study participants agreed that learning English as a *lingua Franca* was essential for integration of China into the global economy (Pan & Block, 2011:391). Zhang (2011) noted that competence in English is currently considered to be a highly desirable skill that is essential in the education of Chinese engineers. Global career mobility is enhanced by competence in

English, as it is a standardized recognition of their abilities. Possession of a skill in a *lingua franca* such as English is important for these opportunities (Zhang, 2011: 4292).

An empirical study was conducted at an Italian university awareness raising campaign promoting awareness of other forms of English, such as Chinese English news texts (Mansfield & Poppi, 2011:1). The study recommended sensitizing EFL teachers to the concept of the cultural other, to reduce the tendency to impose native speakers standards on non-native speakers as the only acceptable mode for use of English (Mansfield & Poppi, 2011:2). Natarajan (2011:165) noted that the linguistic portion of human communication is only partially useful for representing meaning. This provides support for sensitization to the concept of the cultural “other” as worthy of respect. Canagarajah (2007) asserted that language learning involves social negotiation, performance strategies, within a communicative context. Berns (2008:329) also noted that although native speakers of English have occupied the role of exclusivity in teaching, they may beneficially move away from their traditional role of norm-setters, toward a role of partnership with non-native speakers.

This shift from the traditional view of native speakers of English as ideal role models reflects the shift in the use of English from that of preparing students to speak with English speaking Inner Circle countries to that of Outer Circle countries where English is used as a *lingua franca*. The use of English as an international language is therefore no longer connected solely to the culture of Inner Circle countries (McKay 2002:87). In English teaching pedagogy the assumption that non-native English speakers learn English in order to communicate with native English speakers therefore does not always hold water (Matsuda 2012:4). This underlines the importance of addressing the research question of the role of interpersonal skills in English language pedagogy. Since the use of English as a *lingua franca* entails the use of English by peoples of differing cultures and countries, developing interpersonal skills as well as how such skills may differ depending on one’s cultural background becomes paramount. How these pedagogical issues are addressed is

dealt with in greater detail in section 2.7 titled ‘Culture and interpersonal competence in learning English’ as well as in Chapter Five titled ‘Research findings and conclusions’

#### **2.4.4 Conclusion**

Since students of English may now use English as a lingua franca to communicate with people of various cultural backgrounds, the use of interpersonal skills incorporating communicative competence of people of different cultural background is important for effective communication. Students also need to reflect upon and be aware of their own communicative preferences as ‘beliefs are more deeply ingrained than we care to acknowledge, and many times intangible even to the most aware among us’ (Matsuda, 2012:47). Being aware of such differences will assist students in communicating more effectively when their English language skills are developed. Students need to acquire knowledge about other cultures and how their own culture contrasts with it (McKay, 2002:83) in order to communicate effectively, interpersonally on a global scale using English as a lingua franca. These differences are discussed in more detail in 2.7 titled ‘Culture and interpersonal competence in learning English’ as well as in the research results found in Chapter Four titled ‘Data analysis, interpretation and the research findings’

### **2.5 DEVELOPING INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING**

#### **2.5.1 Introduction**

The purpose of developing interpersonal competence may be seen as ‘the process whereby people effectively deal with each other’ (Spitzberg, & Cupach 1989:6). The goal of this thesis is to determine whether students are confident in interpersonal situations, which may impact language learning as well as their use of interpersonal skills where these “refer to particular *overt behaviors* emitted during interaction with another person. These behaviors are seen as contributing to the smooth and ‘normal’ unfolding of a social episode.” (Spitzberg & Cupach 1989:7). In this section the use of the literature review on

Communicative Language Learning (CLT) is discussed. Brown (2007:378) gives his definition of CLT as “an approach to language teaching methodology that emphasizes authenticity, interaction, student-centered learning, and task based activities and communication for the real world, meaningful purposes.” The primary goal of CLT is to develop the communicative competence of students (Littlewood (1981: xxi).

The literature review in this section will be used to evaluate CLT in terms of whether the methodology is adequate in its stating goal of developing communicative competence. As the topic of the research study is the use and development of interpersonal skills to develop the communicative skills of students, CLT will be assessed in terms of whether the methodology used is sufficient in developing the communicative skills of students in terms of interpersonal communication. Where inadequacies are found, these will be addressed as part of the research study. The proponents of CLT are Nunan (1991), Littlewood (1981), and Widdowson (1978). There are no opponents to the method, but researchers such as Burnaby and Sun (1989), Byrne (1991), and Swan (1985) find certain inadequacies in the method. Burnaby and Sun (1989) reported that teachers in China found it difficult to deploy CLT due to constraints such as the context of the wider curriculum, traditional teaching methods, class size and schedules. Byrne (1991: 118) criticizes some role play activities in CLT, such as taking on the role of a nurse or lawyer which a student may never adopt in real life. Swan (1985:76) feels that the method fails to "recognize the crucial role of the mother tongue in foreign language learning." In this section of the literature review the researcher will investigate the method in terms of whether interpersonal skills are adequately addressed in the development of communication skills in English.

Proponents of Communicative Language Learning (CLT) and the use of communicative tasks in language teaching such as Nunan, Littlewood, and Widdowson describe the importance of language use in terms of its communicative function (Nunan 1991:279; Littlewood 1981: xxi; Widdowson 1978:13). This view is evident in Littlewood’s statement that “We must therefore provide learners with ample opportunities to use the language themselves for communicative purposes. We must also remember that we are ultimately

concerned with developing the learners' ability to take part in the *process of communicating* through language" (1981: xxi). The methodological objectives of CLT and Task Based Learning (TBL), which incorporates the communicative framework of CLT (Willis & Willis 2009:3), stresses the use of language as a means of communication where "Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns)" (Richards & Rodgers 2001:161).

Communicative language teaching grew out of Hymes' (1972:269-271) critique of Chomsky's (1969) theory of transformational grammar where competence and performance are based on a somewhat idealized use of language (Chomsky 1969:3). Hymes placed the emphasis on performance within a sociocultural perspective (1972:288-290), where the use of language is dependent on social context. This paved the way for communicative competence to be based on the way language is used in a particular social context. CLT and TBL often require that communicative competence be developed through communicative activities which take place in a social context with other class members. Such communicative activities include opportunities to use language meaningfully through interactive activities such as role plays, interviews, information gap, pair work, and group work. Although CLT and TBL often incorporate activities which involve real or meaningful communication as a way to develop language skills through social interaction, developing the language skills of students through such socially interactive activities may not be a sufficient basis for developing communicative competence. If communicative competence depends on the social context which determines the proper use of language within a particular social context, it is apparent that in order for communication to take place, engaging within a social context is important. Communicative competence presupposes that communication will take place in a social context, particularly so in terms of oral communication. Certainly, language facility is an important factor in being able to communicate effectively, with the appropriate use of language being based on a particular

social context as pointed out by Hymes, but engaging in a social context requires not only linguistic competence, but also interpersonal competence.

The purpose of developing interpersonal competence may be seen as “the process whereby people effectively deal with each other” (Spitzberg, & Cupach 1989:6). The goal of this thesis is to determine whether students are confident in interpersonal situations which may impact language learning as well as their use of interpersonal skills where these “refer to particular *overt behaviors* emitted during interaction with another person. These behaviors are seen as contributing to the smooth and ‘normal’ unfolding of a social episode” (Spitzberg & Cupach 1989:7). The following section gives examples of the use of interpersonal skills in areas of confidence, listening, and speaking. The influence of cultural expectations regarding interpersonal communication is also touched upon in that “cultural awareness helps us understand that interpersonal competence is specific to a given culture” (Devito 2008:33). As the cultural aspect of interpersonal communication, particularly in the area of nonverbal communication is a vast topic in itself, this will be dealt with more comprehensively in section 2.4 of the literature review. In this section of the literature review, interpersonal skills both in terms of observable behavior as well as one's subjective appraisal of interpersonal skills in terms of self-concept are described. Both factors may influence one another in developing effective communication skills. The explanation and application of such skills will allow students to feel more confident by making them more aware of the explicit skills required in a social exchange in that “People can usually recognize good communication when they observe it, but don't always know *why* it's different from ineffective communication” (Caputo 1997:31).

How you communicate with others and how they respond to you may affect your self-concept in terms of interpersonal relations. When you like yourself, your self-esteem is high. Usually, when you have high self-esteem, you communicate with others in more supportive, open ways. Learning skills for effectively communicating with others will lead to an increase in self-esteem (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:56).

### **2.5.2 The role of self-concept in the promotion of interpersonal communication in the Learning of a foreign language**

Taking part in a social exchange is not only an interpersonal process, but an intrapersonal one as well. Social exchanges can be satisfying, unsatisfying or neutral on many levels. For those who feel that they have inadequate social skills, taking part in an interpersonal exchange may be colored by one's intrapersonal sense of dissatisfaction. Viewing oneself as someone who does not enjoy social exchanges, and as lacking the skills to successfully take part in such exchanges, may perpetuate a sense of failure through avoidance of social contact. This results in a cycle of self-prophecy where since one believes that a social exchange will be an unpleasant experience, and that one lacks the interpersonal skills to engage in such an exchange, interpersonal contact is avoided, which further aggravates one's image as someone with poor interpersonal skills. Those who self-prophesize that they will fail to achieve a satisfactory interpersonal experience may feel that they intrinsically lack the ability to successfully engage in interpersonal contact. They may feel that 'they are the way they are' and that interpersonal skills are something one either has or has not. Such people are fatalistic about their interpersonal skills, feeling that such skills cannot be acquired or that one cannot improve such skills. They may feel that their inability to satisfactorily engage in social exchanges is just a 'given' in their lives (Bolton 1986:10). Labeling oneself as having poor social skills becomes an excuse for avoiding present and future social situations which further leads to faulty conclusions about one's present and future social interactions (Garner 1997:165).

One's self-perception as having good or poor interpersonal skills therefore has a major effect on one's interpersonal skills. This may be a result of perceived past failures, lack of confidence in one's interpersonal skills, not finding one's communicative partner interesting or engaging, or approaching a social exchange with a fixed idea on how such exchanges should take place without letting the exchange take its own route and letting the unexpected happen. Such feelings may express an 'all or nothing' attitude which may be based on unrealistic expectations of achieving a flawless or 'ideal' interaction, as if a social

exchange were based on a pre-ordained script, where one either succeeds or fails with no middle ground. Rather than viewing a social exchange in term of either ‘successes or ‘failure’, students should view a social exchange in terms of experiential degree. This view of a social exchange being seen in terms of degree rather than only either success or failure is explained by Spitzberg & Cupach (1989:6) in that

*Judgments of competence are most often viewed as being relative. That is, competence is a matter of degree rather than of either/or condition. This is consistent with the fact that social actors experience varying levels of success in social interaction, and that there are varying degrees of appropriateness and inappropriateness. The acquisition and development of social skill may be seen as ranging from unacceptable, to minimally functional, to adequate, to proficient, to masterful.*

A social exchange should be an opportunity for discovery, rather than from the viewpoint of achieving a fixed agenda which must go according to a plan, with the encounter deemed as a failure if it does not. Ultimately, such thinking will always lead to feelings of disappointment as there can never be a completely ‘perfect’ social exchange, which depends on a myriad of factors. Watching television and movies where everything is scripted may make us believe that our interactions should also be as smooth, polished, and well scripted. Such a view is unrealistic. Students should feel comfortable knowing that exchanges may take unexpected twists and turns, and should be a vehicle for mutual discovery. Focus should be placed on the positive aspects of the exchange. For example, the exchange could be viewed as a learning experience, both in terms of the information and knowledge gained during the exchange, as well as how such an exchange may contribute to further increasing one’s understanding of interpersonal skills. If for example, there was some confusion or misunderstanding during the exchange, self-reflection should not lead one to negatively dwell on some minor unsuccessful factor in the exchange, but should focus on what was gained during the exchange.



### **2.5.3 Developing rapport in the use of a foreign language**

Being able to create rapport with someone is important in having a successful interpersonal exchange. Building rapport involves listening, speaking, as well as nonverbal skills. Such skills may be used separately or in conjunction with each other. These skills may be used where rapport is considered as “paying another person or group of people the compliment of meeting them where they are, physically and mentally, at a given time” (Walker 2000:41). Using these skills in an effective manner will play a large part in determining whether a student is able to create rapport and communicate effectively. One’s attitude to the person or people one is having a social exchange with will also affect the development of rapport in that “Being inappropriately critical of the speaker may distract us from focusing on the message” (Beebe & Beebe 2007:114).

### **2.5.4 The development of listening skills in communicating in a foreign language**

When engaging in a conversation, listening skills will play a large part in developing rapport in that “Listening is an essential skill for making and keeping relationships. If you are a good listener, you’ll notice that others are drawn to you” (McKay, Davis, Fanning, 1995:5). Listening skills will determine whether the person you are speaking with sees you as having good interpersonal skills. Showing interest in what the other person is saying will give the impression that you have excellent communication skills.

There are a number of ways students can develop rapport through listening skills. This includes both verbal and nonverbal behavior. Verbal behavior may include paralanguage consisting of the use of vocalizations and reaction words while listening. Paralanguage may involve the use of sounds which take the place of words such as “uh”, “uh huh,” and “other clicks, snorts, and sniffs” (Caputo 1997:162). Such paralanguage is often not discussed in textbooks, and although students may be aware of their use in their own language, such as the Japanese reaction words “so desu ka,” “naruhodo,” and “he” to show surprise, they may not be aware of their English equivalents. The following are some reaction words and sounds which the student may need to know to show that they are actively listening:

-wow, that's great!

-is that so?

-I see...

-hmmm

Listening actively will also allow students to use strategic competence to better understand what the other person has said in that “most words are abstract and have multiple meanings. Therefore misunderstanding occurs easily unless you check to make sure that what you heard was what the other person really said” (Caputo 1997:32). Strategic competence involving listening skills may involve asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for a definition (“What does \_\_\_\_\_ mean?”) or rephrasing what the other person has said e.g. “So you mean \_\_\_\_\_.”

### **2.5.5 Asking questions and responding verbally in a foreign language**

Listening actively to what someone else is saying builds rapport by showing that you are interested in the other person and what they are saying. Listening actively and building rapport also involves asking questions about what the other person is saying. Questions may involve asking for further explication about the topic under discussion. Responding verbally may involve self-disclosure by contributing our own ideas, opinions, and experiences in support of the topic under discussion, or initiating a new topic in order to keep the conversation going.

Self-disclosure may take place on many levels, from simply describing one's experiences, talking about one's job, or what one enjoys doing during one's free time when initially speaking with someone, to more intimate personal information usually shared only with close acquaintances. When meeting someone for the first time, self-disclosure may involve describing simple experiences, sharing simple factual information about oneself, as well as giving non-controversial opinions. As you get to know someone, self-disclosure may involve disclosing more personal and intimate information.

If the person you are speaking with is discussing a film they had recently seen, initial self-disclosure may involve contributing your own opinion about the movie if you have seen it. If not, then you may mention a movie you had recently seen, or mention a favorite movie, actor, director or anything else related to the topic under discussion. Disclosure on this level serves to promote rapport with the person you are speaking with based on the topic under discussion. If you had suddenly changed the topic, it is possible that you may break the flow of rapport with whom you are speaking, although such a change may be welcome if the same topic has been discussed for some time or if there is obviously nothing more which could be said about the topic. Self-disclosure used in this way may therefore be used as a way to initiate a change in the topic of conversation.

Although simply describing experiences, or discussing what one enjoys doing in one's free time is a common way for people to achieve rapport based on self-disclosure when getting to know someone, one should avoid disclosing too many personal details too soon as this may hinder the gradual development of a close relationship (Caputo 1997:32). Another reason to avoid disclosing personal thoughts and feelings too soon is that such disclosure may be uncomfortable based on cultural norms as "The notion of self-disclosure as a necessary ingredient for developing strong, healthy interpersonal relationships is not accepted in many cultures. The Japanese believe it is better to put on a 'good face' rather than displease their listener or guest by being honest and open" (Caputo 1997:114). When dealing with self-disclosure, it is therefore best to avoid disclosing strong opinions and feelings as well as very personal matters until one has gotten to know someone well. In terms of self-disclosure, one should match the level of self-disclosure of one's speaking partner to establish rapport.

### **2.5.6 Initiating a conversation in a foreign language**

When at a social event where we do not know many of the people present, we often feel 'shy' in attempting to make the first move. It may be of some consolation in knowing that others probably feel the same way and will probably be relieved at your first making an

approach in that “it’s probably best to assume that the other person may have limited skills and is taking no responsibility for initiating contact or establishing rapport, so it’s up to you to do so” (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:17).

When initiating a conversation, use a means of entry such as smiling, making eye contact, giving a compliment, or saying “hello.” Being the first to initiate a conversation will improve one’s interpersonal skills in that you will no longer be a passive wallflower waiting for others to make the first move (who may have also been passively waiting for others to make the first move). It will take the guesswork out of who should initiate the conversation. Being the first to say “hello” is also an advantage in that “it gives you the opportunity to guide the direction of the conversation, and gives the other person the impression that you are confident, friendly, and open. You are also complimenting the other person by showing a desire to start a conversation with him” (Gabor 2001:37). Once having established initial contact, don’t forget to introduce yourself soon after if you do not know the person or people with whom you are speaking. This is usually accompanied by a handshake.

Using questions skillfully is important after initiating or taking part in a conversation. People generally enjoy speaking about themselves. Encouraging people to speak about themselves through the use of questions will give the impression that you are a skilled communicator. It is important though that you do not give the impression that you are interrogating the person with whom you are speaking. The use of questions should be natural and spontaneous, rather than asking questions as if they were on a check-off list.

When beginning a conversation, one may begin with closed questions which may require a simple “yes” or “no,” response. Such questions are “usually easy to answer and help to build trust and confidence, especially among those who are apprehensive or shy about talking” (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:29). Examples of closed questions are “Do you live near here?” “Do you like \_\_\_\_\_?”, “Are you \_\_\_\_\_?” Once initial contact has been made, open questions may be used which will increase the opportunity to carry a conversation further. Open questions are difficult to answer with a simple “yes” or “no,”

allowing for the opportunity to further get to know one's interlocutor and build rapport. Open questions may begin with question words such as "How," "What," or "Why," although it may be best to avoid too many "Why" questions to avoid a defensive response (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:29).

Self-disclosure, as previously described, is also a good way to initiate a conversation and build rapport as

"One thing we expect when we self-disclose is reciprocity, meaning that when we share information about ourselves with other persons, we expect them to share information that is similar in risk or depth about themselves. If you introduce yourself to someone and give your name, you expect that person to respond by telling you his or her name" (Beebe & Beebe 2007:180). This type of self-disclosure demonstrates that you are open to conversation, and are interested in the other person. Self-disclosure when initiating social contact may involve mentioning something you have done recently (but do not talk about yourself the whole time as you are trying to establish rapport, not tell your life story). If you talk about yourself, ask the other person questions in relation to what you are talking about in order to engage them. For example if you have recently moved, ask the other person whether they have had a similar experience, if they have ever lived in the type of place you have moved to, or if they know the area, etc. If the other person seems shy or doesn't seem to say much, then you may try to make them feel more comfortable by being the one who initiates the conversation by introducing the topic of conversation.

If trying to join in a conversation already taking place, it may be wise to 'hover' (Walker 2000:45) by walking by, or standing within the vicinity of the people who are engaging in a conversation. If the topic seems open to discussion, approach with a comment of your own, or disclose something about yourself related to the topic, such as a related experience, or even your reaction such as "That's interesting" and then think of a related question to ask about the topic. You may also offer an opinion, advice (if it truly is helpful), or ask for further details. If the conversation seems to be going nowhere, think of topics associated

with the current topic under discussion to take the conversation in a new direction. For example, a conversation about a new house purchase may be associated with gardening for the home, which could lead to a conversation about planting time for flowers, etc. Of course you could start a conversation on an entirely new topic.

### **2.5.7 Small talk in a foreign language**

In addition to the use of self-disclosure, small talk is a common way to initiate or engage someone in a conversation. Small talk is often disparaged as being without depth or meaningless, but in terms of using interpersonal skills, small talk serves an important function in that “Practicing small-talk is important and helpful for initiating and developing relationships. If small talk is unsuccessful, you will have difficulty developing relationships any further. If, however, the small talk is successful and you want the relationship to develop more interpersonally, you need to reduce uncertainty about each other” (Caputo 1997:107). Small talk may be related to things such as the weather, sports, entertainment, the news, or current events. In order to be able to conduct small talk effectively, it is a good idea to be well versed in topics of the day in terms of what is happening in current events, or the entertainment or sports world.

Reading newspapers, surfing the internet, reading magazines, or watching television will provide many topics for small talk. The use of small talk may lead to further discussion of the topic in greater detail, the topic could lead to a new related topic, or an entirely new topic may be discussed based upon mutual interest or knowledge. The use of small talk may also lead to the use of self-disclosure as a way to personalize the topic under discussion. Conversations usually use a combination of small talk and self-disclosure with the two areas often overlapping, with greater self-disclosure taking place once one develops more in depth interpersonal rapport.

The way one handles conversations may also be influenced by cultural norms. Sakamoto (1982:80-83) compares the differences between Western and Japanese conversation style to tennis and bowling. Western style conversation being like tennis where one serves the ball

in the form of the conversational topic and one's partner hits it back by adding their own 'spin' on the topic. If there are other people around, they join in by either being the nearest or quickest. The object of the tennis match is to keep the ball going with the ball being hit back and forth quickly. On the other hand, Japanese conversation style is more like bowling. The speaker is given time to roll their topic bowling ball while their conversation partner or partners listen carefully as it rolls down the lane. The other speaker or speakers do not quickly respond or interrupt as this is happening. They only respond after being certain that the bowling ball has made its run. Once this is ascertained, then it is the other person's turn to 'bowl'. Such an exchange does not require a quick succession of exchanges as in the Western tennis style conversation. If unaware of these cultural differences, unfair conclusions could be drawn about the interpersonal skills of one's partner. A Japanese person may think that the Westerner is impolite for not allowing their partner to complete what they are saying before having the conversation ball being quickly hit back. A Westerner may think that the conversation style of a Japanese person is unexciting in that the Japanese person does not quickly 'serve back' the ball.

### **2.5.8 Conclusion**

It must be a summary of the factors that will help deal with the research problem

Developing interpersonal competence as part of the language learning process is important if we are to actively engage students in communicative language learning activities as well as have the confidence to use their language skills outside the classroom. This requires a balance between developing such skills within the current cultural background as well as anticipating future social situations which may be intercultural in nature.

There are many aspects involved in developing interpersonal skills. The literature review has provided some suggestion as a starting point in merging the development of interpersonal skills with language teaching, which is important if we are to truly develop the communicative competency of students in learning and using a foreign language.

Research will be conducted in how students perceive their interpersonal skills taking into consideration findings in the literature review, such as the role of self-concept and the implementation of interpersonal skills.



## **2.6 THE ROLE GENDER PLAYS IN ENHANCING TEACHING METHODS MEANT TO IMPROVE INTERPERSONAL SKILLS FOR COMMUNICATING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (ENGLISH)**

### **2.6.1 Introduction**

The purpose of conducting a literature review regarding gender and interpersonal skills is to investigate the possibility that women may have an edge over men in terms of interpersonal competence and the significance this may have on pedagogy in foreign language studies. It is not my intention to categorize people of a particular gender as those who have interpersonal skills and those who do not. Clearly people have varying degrees of ability in their use of interpersonal skills as well as levels of confidence when interacting socially regardless of gender. Differences between individuals of a particular gender are as significant as the differences between genders in terms of ability and capacity (Cameron 1994:388). Personality differences of extraversion or introversion, which may have a brain based biological correlation (Canli 2006:60; Eysenck & Eysenck 2006:183) regardless of gender, may also play a role in how individuals interact socially. Describing a particular gender in terms of demarcations of ability would be simplistic and such conclusions may bring fears of unjust gender stereotyping, which often serve as a way of perpetuating and justifying inequality (Eitzen 2007:327). We tend to be subjected to prevailing gender ideology which subject positions men and woman in terms of difference rather than similarity (Cameron 2009:173). Although such ideology may be viewed as being the result of “Nurture” in terms of prevailing sociocultural expectations, it may be interesting to include questions raised by researchers who employ Nature vocabularies in the Nature/Nurture debate, (Pinker 2003:135).

I seek neither to take sides in the debate, nor to make deterministic conclusions regarding gender and interpersonal competence. I seek rather to provide a background of ideas based on a review of literature which may be considered in exploring the topic of interpersonal competence and gender in language learning. The factors which may be associated with

gender differences in language studies are also investigated. Findings of an association between gender and interpersonal skills from a questionnaire administered to students will be explored in the study as to shape a fuller understanding of pedagogical implications. Educators should be aware of the possibility of gender differences in interpersonal competence and the role that this may play in language learning. Whether such gender differences are based on Nature or Nurture, or a combination of both, the complexity of human beings compels educators to see students first and foremost as individuals to be treated equally and fairly, regardless of gender. Gender may one of many factors contributing to an individual's use of interpersonal skills.

## **2.6.2 Gender differences and discourses of nature and nurture with regard to the learning of a foreign language**

Gender differences in respect to interpersonal competence may be due to both nature and nurture in terms of biological and sociocultural influences (Sadker & Silber 2007:40), as well as the interaction of these two factors (Andersen 2006:117). This can be seen in research findings from a wide range of fields including neuroscience, psychosocial studies, and sociocultural studies.

### **2.6.2.1 Discourses of nature with respect to the learning of a foreign language**

Researchers advocating a nature perspective describe biological influences which may have an impact on the differences between males and females in the use of interpersonal competence. An example that they give is in terms of brain development. Most female brains mature earlier and more quickly than that of males, which may be one of the reasons why females acquire complex verbal skills earlier than boys (Gurian & Ballew 2003:9). Other brain based factors which may play a role in interpersonal skills include brain lateralization, with male brains showing greater lateralization and specialization, while female brains show more symmetry and integration (Andersen, Garrison, & Andersen 1979:74; Halpern 1986:207). This may lead to women having more efficient

communication between brain hemispheres "to produce greater intuition and social sensitivity" (Andersen 2006:121). This greater integration of women's brains may also be a source of increased intrapersonal sensitivity (Stacks & Andersen 1989:273), which is an important factor in interpersonal communication as it may lead to greater empathy when communicating with someone. This may allow women to be able to use rapport more effectively by being able to empathize with the person with whom they are communicating. This may also be one of the reasons why a greater number of females take part in language studies, as they are better able to use intrapersonal skills in engaging with someone not only within their own culture, but also with people of different cultural backgrounds as well. Further biological influences on women's superior interpersonal skills in terms of the ability to achieve rapport may be the result of the increased presence of oxytocin (Gurian & Ballew 2003:10).

According to Hall (1978:854), psychosocial differences between men and women may also have evolutionary roots. These evolutionary roots may explain women's greater confidence and ability in the area of interpersonal competence. The greater sensitivity of women to nonverbal clues might allow a woman to be better able to detect distress on part of her children as well as threatening behaviour from others. On the other hand, controlling emotions may have adaptive benefit for men when hunting, combating predators, or in competitive situations (Guerrero, Jones, & Reiter 2006:233). Furthermore LaFrance and Henley (1994:292) conclude that females evolved greater emotional and nonverbal decoding ability as a way to compensate for their relative lack of power in comparison to men. Cameron (2009:175) however argues that some scientific and anthropological data regarding human behavior lacks firm basis. In Cameron's view, questions regarding our ancestors' diet, tools, and visual art may be answered based on material evidence in the form of fossils and preserved artifacts. Questions regarding behaviour such as language use, sexual practices, parenting, as well as interpersonal communication are much more difficult to answer due to the lack of material traces. According to Cameron, conclusions regarding the evolutionary roots of behaviour are based on widely attested behaviour patterns in

modern human populations which are then retroactively explained in terms of adaptive evolutionary behaviour. Although literature related to a nature perspective may seem essentialist, there is no indication that researchers investigating biological influences regarding interpersonal competence dismiss or disregard the role of nurture.

### **2.6.2.2 Discourses of nurture with respect to the learning of a foreign language**

The way that children are raised may play a part in how males and females interact interpersonally and the types of interpersonal skills they exhibit. According to Block (1973:523), parents encourage boys to control emotions, while encouraging girls to be emotionally expressive. This may serve as an advantage for females in establishing rapport as they are better able to connect emotionally with others when communicating interpersonally. According to Chodorow (1999:167), daughters share a closer relationship with their mothers than boys due to identifying themselves as being of the same gender, which serves to develop a sense of empathy in interpersonal relationships:

*girls emerge from this period with a basis for 'empathy' built into their primary definition of self in a way that boys do not. Girls emerge with a stronger basis for experiencing another's needs or feelings as one's own (or of thinking that one is so experiencing another's needs and feelings*

Mothers may view their sons as being their gender opposite (Chodorow 1999:110), with boys further separating themselves from their mothers by defining themselves as masculine, which may hinder their sense of emphatic tie. The outcome of this early relationship with their mother therefore has implications in how males and females approach interpersonal relationships. In this view, female gender identity is based on intimate attachment which is threatened by separation, while male identity may be threatened by intimacy and is based on personal separation, which may be the reason that "males tend to have difficulty with relationships" (Gilligan 1993:8).

These differences demonstrate the closer personal relationships formed by girls which may help in dealing with and interacting with others on an interpersonal level, rather than on a hierarchical level as in the case of males. Such closer intimacy may help females when interacting with people of different levels and backgrounds as opposed to males who may be more focused on establishing dominance and hierarchy in their relationships, rather than reciprocity. This attempt to establish hierarchy may be the reason behind the limited verbal response of some males, who may seek dominance, rather than rapport. Males who seek to establish dominance may be less communicative with males or females who they view as being lower in hierarchy, or may seek to position themselves in a higher hierarchy. Males may also be non-communicative or unwilling to take part in a conversation due to a lack of confidence in their interpersonal skills as well as feeling that they are in a lower social hierarchy. This may affect their ability to establish a reciprocal relationship of rapport, making them more reluctant to take part in interpersonal communication.

Researchers who take a social-constructivist approach to gender differences while acknowledging that biological differences exist between males and females, assert that there are more similarities than differences between males and females (Cameron 2008:163). Those advocating a nurture model of gender differences take the position that gender differences are less the outcome of biology and more the result of social conditioning. Variations in sociocultural perceptions of interpersonal skills may be an example of how society may shape such skills in terms of nurture in that some cultures view men as having greater social skills than women. Cameron (2008:34) gives as an example the case of Gapun, a remote village on the Sepik River in Papua New Guinea where "men pride themselves on their ability to express themselves indirectly, controlling their emotions and concealing their real opinions to avoid provoking conflict. Women on the other hand are uncooperative and belligerent." Cameron (2008:39) uses this, as well as an example of the differing gender roles in Madagascar as an example of the limited role that biology plays in establishing those particular characteristics of males and females in terms of interpersonal relations stating that,

*If male-female linguistic differences are rooted in biology, as so many contemporary scientists assert, why do different societies claim to observe diametrically opposed patterns of difference? Why westerners are convinced that women are more cooperative and more attentive to other's feelings than men, while in New Guinea and Madagascar people were equally convinced that the reverse is true?*

In light of Cameron's cautionary view, both males and females should have equal opportunities to develop their interpersonal skills, regardless of sociocultural upbringing. Cultural differences in interpersonal communication should also be considered. Such a perspective also sheds light on the possibility that interpersonal skills may be developed irrespective of gender biology. Although such exceptions should be acknowledged and give a new perspective to the sociocultural influences on gender relations and how males and females may be defined, most societies view females in terms of being nurturing and empathic. Sociocultural influences on interpersonal competence are evident in Tannen's (2001:43) description of the differences in the way that boys and girls play games. Boys' games often involve hierarchical social structures and elaborate systems of rules. Boys also tend to boast about their skills and attempt to determine who is the most skilled. Girls' games on the other hand, often take place in smaller intimate groups, or pairs where everyone gets a turn and there are no winners or losers. When playing such games, girls are not expected to boast about their skills and usually do not give orders, but prefer to listen to suggestions.

When interacting with their peers, boys may see friendly conversation as a training ground for verbal aggression, while girls may view such interaction as a training ground for cooperation in seeking a more egalitarian approach (Stewart et al. 2003:60). In this way boys attempt to demonstrate mastery, while girls focus on maintaining relationships when taking part in games. Such interactive styles may be socially conditioned responses which Coates (2004:169) describes as being based on the expectations of parents and adults when

responding to and interact with children of a particular gender from their own preconceptions, such as expecting female infants to be more verbal than males. Adults may talk differently to children depending on the gender of the child (e.g. adults are more likely to interrupt girls, and lisp more when talking to little girls). Adults may also respond differently to girls and boys using the same linguistic strategy (e.g. boys arguing or talking assertively are more likely to get a positive response than girls). According to Coates, social conditioning in terms of gender appropriate behaviour begins at an early age when, "Girls and boys learn during childhood to identify with either women or men.

They demonstrate their membership of the group by their use of gender-appropriate behaviour (Coates 2004:148). Such gender appropriate behaviour may be defined in terms of women being depicted as having "communal personality traits" such as being compassionate and interpersonally sensitive (Fine 2011:3). On the other hand, men are often depicted through agentic descriptors such as being dominant, independent and individualistic which Fine describes as "the perfect traits for bending the world to your command, and earning a wage for it" (Fine 2011:4). Although Fine implies that such gendered definitions are advantageous to men, defining them in such a way may actually have negative consequences as a lack of interpersonal sensitivity may actually hamper males in terms of effectively interacting with others and in their emotional health (Clare 2001:221). The contemporary workplace also promotes feminine qualities such as interpersonal skills and teamwork (Connell 2005:264), which may place those who do not have such skills at a disadvantage.

### **2.6.2.3 Discourses of nature and nurture conclusion**

It is not always clear if researchers attribute gender differences to biological or to sociocultural factors. Certainly, discourses of Nature suggest that biological factors will play a key role in social dynamics and conversational interactions, while discourses of Nurture suggest that social conditioning is a primary factor. Strict divisions between

influences as being entirely due to nature or due to nurture however may not be appropriate (Rutter 2006:218). Whether biology or sociocultural conditioning has greater influence will continue to be hotly debated in academic contexts. In the end, the consensus between a biological and sociocultural interpretation of the relationship between interpersonal skills and gender may be that in which a "neuroplastically informed view of culture and the brain implies a two-way street: the brain and genetics produce culture, but culture also shapes the brain" (Doidge 2007:287).

Nature and nurture as well as a combination of both may have a role to play in gender development and have an influence on interpersonal skills, but ultimately it is a human being's ability to learn and adapt which allows for the possibility of further development of such skills in spite of the influences of nature or nurture. While there are biological differences between males and females which may contribute to differences in communication style, the ability of human beings to learn may override any biological or social influences contributing to these differences. The remarkable plasticity of the brain reveals a biology which is not fixed in terms of ability, but reveals a brain which is flexible and adaptive in new learning situations and life experiences (Doidge 2008:291).

### **2.6.3 Gender differences and language learning**

An aspect of gender differences in language learning is reflected in the general tendency of women to dominate the field of language studies. Women are more often drawn to language studies (Court 2001:8), with a greater proportion of females than males being involved in such studies both as students and eventually as teachers (Chavez 2001:3). Some private schools in Japan have exploited and reinforced the attraction of women to language studies through the opening of international courses of study emphasizing English education as a way to attract female applicants (Churchill 2009:144). Women also tend to outperform males in language studies in terms of better grades, higher placement results, and greater involvement in the language learning process (Chavez 2001:4). In China, Wang (2008:66) carried out surveys at a kindergarten and a primary school in Nanchang. Results



showed that in kindergarten the number of the girls who passed English tests was as twice as that of boys, and girls took the absolutely dominant position whether in the way of the number of 'grades of merit' or in that of excelling in their studies. In primary schools the investigation showed a similar situation: Ninety percent of the students whose English resulted in a 'grades of merit' were girls, whereas only 10% of these students were boys.

This situation remained unchanged at university level. Chen & Lu's study of gender differences in English studies focused on ten universities in Hubei Province. They administered 400 questionnaires to determine differences in learning strategies between men and women studying English. The findings reveal that men are more creative and inclined to use various words in writing and translation whilst women approach their studies from a more 'serious' perspective such as spending more time on their assignments after class (Chen & Lu 2010:192). A study conducted by Gonzales (2010:9) regarding motivation to learn foreign languages among Filipino university students revealed a significant gender difference in the "motivational orientation" of male and female foreign language learners with regards to "their desire for communication and affiliation with foreigners and self-efficacy." The female respondents were found to be more motivated to learn a foreign language in order to have a more efficient communication and affiliation with native speakers of that language. The study also revealed that the reason for the higher motivation among female foreign language learners than male learners was self-efficacy because they believed that "having the ability and skills to learn [foreign languages] will give them more drive to pursue [foreign language] learning." (Gonzales 2010:10).

One reason given for this gender imbalance in language studies is that women typically have better verbal and linguistic abilities than men. This is often given as the primary reason why a larger number of women study foreign languages than men, even though some research findings indicate that there may be no difference in verbal ability between males and females (Pavlenko, Blackledge, Piller, & Teutsch 2001:107). Women are also often depicted as talking more than men, but some research data indicates otherwise (Stewart et al. 2003:60). If women do not have superior verbal abilities to men, and are not

more talkative than men, then the question remains as to why women seem to excel in foreign language studies. One reason may be that women enjoy interacting with others and place greater value on interpersonal relations compared to men. Women may also feel more confident in using their interpersonal skills, which is an important factor when developing and putting to use foreign language skills, particularly in a communicative classroom based on communicative methodology.

In fact, the socially interactive aspect of the communicative approach involving pair and group work may lend itself better to the interpersonal tendencies of women. Women may be more adept at using their interpersonal skills when interacting with others to achieve the linguistic goals of a communicative based approach. A further indication of an association between gender and interpersonal skills is the prevalence of 'hikikomori' or social withdrawal amongst males in Japanese society. A study supported by the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare found that the gender ratio of hikikomori was 76.4% males and 22.9% females (Ito, Yoshida, & Kobayashi 2003). This topic has been addressed in various newspaper feature articles, some of which reported on study data which found that men comprise about 80 percent of the total for social withdrawal, though female hikikomori may be undercounted (Jones, 2006). Arita (2001) relates that one factor in such social withdrawal may be insufficient communication skills.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) places importance on the use of language as a means of communication where "learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use" (Richards & Rodgers 2001:161). Communicative language learning involves the use of activities that require interaction with others. These activities include the use of role plays, interviews, information gap, pair work, and group work. The approach often involves students taking part in pair and group work activities where the emphasis is "on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language" (Nunan 1991:279). Although CLL activities involve real or meaningful communication as a way to develop language skills

(Widdowson 1978:13; Littlewood 1981:xxi; Nunan 1991:279), such activities may not be sufficient for developing communicative competence if interpersonal skills are not addressed as well.

Learners who do not have appropriate social or interpersonal skills, or who do not feel confident in using such skills, may not feel successful in interacting with others. This suggests that foreign language teaching methodology should not only concentrate on developing language skills for effective communication, but should also include the development of interpersonal skills, as communication takes place in a social context. If students lack interpersonal skills or lack confidence in using such skills, they will not be able to effectively use the language skills they have been studying. In other words, to become a competent communicator requires both language and interpersonal skills. Students who are able to use interpersonal skills effectively may therefore have an advantage in developing language skills and may be greater motivated in activities based on a communicative approach. Although all students should be given opportunities to develop interpersonal skills to become effective overall communicators, it is important to consider whether interpersonal skills related to gender play a role in the higher rates of foreign language learning success among women. The differences in how males and females use interpersonal competence may play a part in the way in which students communicate with each other as well as how effectively they communicate with each other in language classrooms.

Since the communicative approach involves interaction with other people, interpersonal competence may play an important role in the successful undertaking of a communicative task. As the success of a communicative task depends not only on the use of language, but also interpersonal skills, developing such skills in the language classroom is important if students are to become confident and effective communicators in the language they are studying. The following sections of this paper explore reported gender differences between men and women in the use of interpersonal skills and how this may impact on foreign

language learning based on the communicative approach. The possibility that gender may be a factor in interpersonal competence were brought to my attention when, on two separate occasions, a male student came up to me at the beginning of the year, one stating that he did not wish to work with others in pair work activities as he did not enjoy interacting with others, and the other that he did not have confidence interacting socially with others. Neither mentioned a lack of confidence in their English language skills. Further reading and reflection made me aware of the importance of developing the interpersonal skills of students along with that of their linguistic skills in the language classroom if they were to interact effectively during classroom activities, as well as when putting to use their language skills outside the classroom.

The role of gender in the communicative approach may be an important aspect when determining the types of communicative tasks used in that "gender is an important influence in many settings in which social interaction or communication occurs" (Stewart et al. 2003:8). Gender Issues in Conversation Analysis Descriptions of native English speaker gender differences in terms of interpersonal conversation ability include factors such as the greater ability of women to initiate and maintain a conversation, the ability to better use and interpret nonverbal communication, and the ability to develop greater rapport. Many women also expend greater effort in beginning and maintaining conversations (Stewart et al. 2003:8). Other studies suggest that women typically rely on verbal communication more than men, such as in expressions of self-disclosure (Wood & Dindia 1998:20), which aids in developing rapport through willingness to share personal information with others (Caputo, Hazel, & McMahon 1997:107).

Research indicates that men may actually inhibit conversations with women by not further elaborating or expanding on a topic or participating in a conversation by giving curt responses to topics introduced by women (Stewart et al. 2003:49). Women may demonstrate more proficient interpersonal skills than men in their ability to engage in conversations on a deeper level by asking questions, introducing topics, and making

listening signals (Fishman 1983:402; Tannen 2001:142). Women may also be more proficient in using listening responses called 'minimal responses' or 'backchannels', which are important in developing rapport. Maltz and Borker (1982:202) found that women are more inclined to ask questions and that they use more listening responses. According to Furo (1999:453), Japanese use backchannels more often than Americans, with Japanese females using more backchannels than men. Research on the gendered use of backchannels is "unanimous in showing that women use them more than men" (Coates 2004:87). The use of self-disclosure is also an important aspect in establishing rapport.

Females on average use more self-disclosure than males (Dindia & Allen 1992:106). The greater use of self-disclosure by women assists in interpersonal communication by helping to create more intimacy leading to a "greater affective experience of connection" (Sadker & Silber 2007:43). Self-disclosure also builds relationships as it contributes to a reciprocal relationship of trust where people are more likely to share information in getting to know one another (Caputo, Hazel & McMahon 1997:109). The less frequent use of self-disclosure by males may be a result of the view that self-disclosure is "unmasculine" (Sadker & Silber 2007:43), thus contributing to a lack of intimacy in male interpersonal relationships. Women's more proficient use of interpersonal skills may also be demonstrated in ability and willingness to take part in small talk "which is the exchange of information about everyday occurrences- the weather, sporting events, health, taxes, other people, and so forth" (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:17). The use of small talk is an important interpersonal skill as it serves as a way to initiate a conversation. It also serves as a way to get to know someone and build rapport. Caputo et al. (1997:107) describes the importance of small talk as an interpersonal skill in that:

*Practicing small-talk is important and helpful for initiating and developing relationships. If small talk is unsuccessful, you will have difficulty developing relationships any further. If, however, the small talk is successful and you want the relationship to develop more interpersonally, you need to reduce uncertainty about each other.*

Tannen (2001:304) also explores different approaches to small talk:

*Many men think women are wasting time when they talk about their personal lives. Since men don't tend to do rapport-talk, they don't understand that such exchanges reinforce women's friendships or working relationships. At the same time, many women think men are wasting time exchanging impersonal information and displaying knowledge because they don't understand how report-talk exchanges negotiate men's friendships or working relationships.*

This type of gender difference in small talk may disadvantage men in their ability to create openings in initiating a conversation and in developing rapport. These differences may put males at a disadvantage, particularly when engaging with someone of a different cultural background, as empathetic understanding is required. Both women and men should be aware of possible gender differences in the use of small talk. Understanding different communication strategies based on gender should help make one more understanding, appreciative, and adaptable in aligning oneself for communicative purposes.

Differences in how males and females interact psychosocially may be found in the greater interconnectedness experienced by women when relating to others. According to Belenky (1997:45), when relating to others, men value distance and autonomy and tend to be more exclusionary, considering others as being either part of their group or outside it. Women on the other hand tend to be more inclusionary, and consider themselves more interdependent with others. Approaching others in such a way may give females an advantage in interpersonal relationships as they may see others as being less apart from themselves. They may therefore be more likely to engage others and establish rapport as interaction is viewed from an inclusionary perspective. This leads females to have a more cooperative style of communication, in contrast to that of males whose communicative style is more competitive, such as demonstrating dominance by interrupting their interlocutor (Weatherall 1998:2-3), or by not giving sufficient support signals to sustain rapport.

Davies' (2003:18) study of group gender composition involving 183 fourteen-year-olds tends to support this claim regarding gender differences in how students interact with each other. The study involved discussion activities centred around Tennyson's *Lady of Shalott*. Davies found that the girls "consistently produced friendly talk, comfortably fulfilling both social and educational work. The co-operative style required to achieve the tasks was easily accommodated by the girls and ran along congruent lines with their manner of forming friendships." On the other hand, she found that the boys were more involved in establishing social hierarchy in that "boys use talk to socially engineer, to police each other's behavior and to establish a pecking order of masculinity." Such behaviour may be an example of masculine hegemony in social relations terms of "alliance, dominance, and subordination" (Connell 2005:37). Women also appear to be more socially sensitive and intuitive particularly in the area of nonverbal communication (Andersen 2006:86) which is an important interpersonal skill, since a large part of communication consists of nonverbal messages (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:192).

#### **2.6.4 Conclusion**

A review of literature indicates that females demonstrate superiority in the use of interpersonal skills in the ability to develop rapport and work collaboratively. This ability may allow females to enjoy greater success in a foreign language learning classroom, particularly one based on communicative approaches which involve social interaction by way of pair and group work. The interpersonal skills of females may also give them a greater advantage when putting to use their linguistic skills in the real world as interacting with others involves not only the use of linguistic skills, but also interpersonal skills. The ability of females to develop rapport based on empathic understanding may also be an advantage in intercultural situations where understanding and empathizing with someone whose cultural viewpoint is different may be advantageous in being able to initiate and sustain communication beyond that of linguistic skills. In order to assess how students feel about their interpersonal skills, a questionnaire will be administered and the data analyzed

in order to further to investigate whether gender plays a role in interpersonal communication as described in this section of the literature review.

## **2.7 CULTURE AND INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCE IN THE LEARNING OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

### **2.7.1 Introduction**

Since communication depends on the ways that humans learn to talk and convey messages, all communication, even nonverbal gestures, has its origins in culture (Huang 2010). The development of interpersonal skills of students in language teaching should take therefore take into consideration the cultural aspects of interpersonal communication. This is important as communicative competence on the part of students studying a foreign language only requires not only a grasp of the linguistic elements of the language they are learning, but also need to understand the role culture plays in communicating with someone with a different cultural background from that of their own.

As foreign language teaching (FLT) methodology in recent years has focused on communicative competence such through use of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, cultural aspects of interpersonal communication should be included as part of such an approach in order to develop effective communication skills using a foreign language as the "communicative approach already contains potentials for culture-sensitivity" (Holliday 1994:165) . Increasing awareness of cultural differences in terms of communication would not only allow learners to become more competent communicators, but may also lead to greater awareness of aspects of their own culture and the role it may play when interacting with someone with a different cultural background from that of their own. Such a view of culture in terms of developing communicative competence differs from the notion of teaching culture in terms of the traditions and institutions of another country often defined as culture with a capital 'C' where "culture is viewed too often as an elitist collection of facts about art, literature, music, history and geography" (Seelye 1985:8). Culture in terms of developing the communicative competence of students is



therefore not of the "big C" variety, but rather of the more broadly interpreted 'little c' (Seelye 1985:19) variety. This broader view of culture with may be defined as "the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them" (Lederach 1995:9).

Such a definition of culture in more broad terms allows consideration of those cultural aspects which may play a role in communication when they are an integral aspect of shared knowledge in responding to a particular cultural group's social realities. The importance of communicative competence as a basis of CLT methodology makes awareness of cultural elements which play a part in effective communication a priority of such a definition of culture as "certainly, mere transmission of Culture with a capital 'C' has long been consigned to the dustbin of ELT history. CLT, after all, is concerned with real language use in the real world, and the tradition of simply transmitting information about heritage culture has had no place in the recent utilitarian climate" (Pulverness 2000:17).

The literature review in this section of the thesis will serve to help determine which cultural aspects of communication involving nonverbal communication are be important to introduce in order to improve the interpersonal skills of Japanese university students, as that is my current teaching situation. The literature review will also assist in determining which aspects of nonverbal communication to further research when creating a questionnaire to administer to students. In my experience of living in Japan over the years, I have found the area of nonverbal communication to be one which is probably least understood, misinterpreted, and different from that of my own cultural background as a Canadian. It is an area where the greatest possibilities of misunderstandings and misinterpretations may take place, more so considering that such communication is nonverbal, being conducted almost without thought due to its culture bound nature.

Research has shown nonverbal communication to be one of the most culturally-influenced parts of behavior (Tomalin & Stempleski 1993:6). In being one of the mostly culturally-influenced part of behaviour, the study of nonverbal communication should therefore be

included as part of language learning curricula as "intercultural differences play a significant role when members of the one culture learn the language of the other" (Osterloh 1986:77). The differences between the uses of nonverbal communication in various countries would therefore be an important aspect to teach students if they are to effectively communicate interpersonally in English.

Research conducted in this section of the literature review focuses on an evaluation of differences in the use of nonverbal communication between native English speakers (with a North American focus) and that of Japanese people considering that "FLT has a central aim of enabling learners to use that language to interact with people for whom it is their preferred and 'natural' medium of experience, those we call 'native speaker' (Byram 1997:3). An awareness of differences in the use of nonverbal communication may contribute to greater intercultural awareness in terms of communication with not only native English speakers, but also with non-native English speakers from other countries and with different cultural backgrounds as greater sensitivity may be developed regarding these differences.

The literature review in this section will be used to determine which aspects of nonverbal communication are of significance in a cross-cultural exchange between people using English as a lingua franca as well as when speaking with native English speakers (with a North American focus) with the view that "cultural analysis should be concerned initially with boundaries" (Barth, 1969, in Byram, 1989:92-93). The boundaries in this case being the distinct differences between nonverbal behaviour used by various people around the world as well as those of native English speakers. Where differences are apparent, these would be determined as being significant in terms of content to be dealt with as they may play a part in potential miscommunication and misunderstanding. A review of literature regarding nonverbal communication will be used to reveal descriptive aspects of the use of nonverbal behaviour (the way that nonverbal communication is used within a particular cultural community) as well as prescriptive (the aspects of nonverbal communication which English language learners would need to be aware of).

The review of literature will also serve as a guide in developing a questionnaire investigating my students' views regarding their use of nonverbal communication. The questionnaire will comprise of questions related to culturally determined verbal and nonverbal communicative behavior in areas such as oculosics (eye contact), proxemics (personal space), haptics (touch), kinesics (body language), and paralanguage to determine where the boundaries of these differences may lie as "The critical focus of investigation from this point of view becomes the ethnic boundary that defines the group, not the cultural stuff that it encloses" (Barth 1969:15). The results of the questionnaire will be used to further clarify findings based on the review of literature as well as a basis for further understanding which aspects of nonverbal communication should be introduced to English language learners. Not only relying on conclusions found in the review of literature by following up such findings with a questionnaire will allow for a clearer understanding of those aspects of nonverbal communication which students would require in that "a culture-sensitive approach to English language education is needed if the question of appropriate methodology is to be fully addressed. The type of learning about the classroom which this requires can be best carried out by ethnographic action research" (Holliday 1994:179). The administration of a questionnaire as part of ethnographic research would also allow a means of questioning the conclusions found in the review of literature as the methodology used upon which the conclusions are based is not made clear in any of the literature surveyed.

Authors such as Argyle and Cook (1976), Brosnahan (1990), and Honna (1989) do not fully explain how they came to their particular conclusions regarding the use of nonverbal communication by the Japanese; whether their conclusions are based on a sampling of the population or whether the conclusions they reached are based on personal experience. Cross-culture related research by Hall (1989) is generally based on personal interpretation and experience and is related anecdotally rather than based on a sampling of a culturally different population. Conclusions related to nonverbal communication within their own culture such as the United States or the United Kingdom are generally based on laboratory observation in the case of Argyle and Cook (1976), or through the use of film by researchers such as Birdwhistell (1970) and Hall (1990). Often this type of research records

the minutiae of such behavior without necessarily commenting on the communicative effectiveness of such behaviour, or the cultural significance of such behaviour.

### **2.7.2 Nonverbal behavior with respect to the learning of a foreign language**

Showing that you are listening and interested in what someone is saying not only involves verbal behavior, but nonverbal behavior as well. This may be in the form of nodding one's head to show agreement or empathy, maintaining the appropriate amount of eye contact, paying attention to how close one stands to someone, and the use of touch; all of which may be based on cultural norms. Nonverbal communication will play a significant part in determining whether one is able to build trust and rapport, especially since only up to 35 percent of the social meaning of a conversation is carried by words (Birdwhistell 1970:158). Although the use of nonverbal behavior is culture bound and the significance of its use varies from culture to culture (Ratliffe & Hudson 1988:193), when taking part in an interpersonal exchange involving someone with a different cultural background, rapport may be achieved by sensitively adjusting and positioning oneself if signs of anxiety or discomfort are noticed (Bolton 1986:35).

Such sensitivity will not only assist in developing interpersonal skills during intercultural social situations, but will also assist one's interpersonal skills in general in that "The reading of body language, therefore, is one of the most significant skills of good listening" (Bolton 1986:78). This may be achieved by being aware of how the other person is using nonverbal communication such as gestures, eye contact, touch (if any), proximity, and posture. Try to match or 'synchronize' yourself with how the other person is using nonverbal communication without 'parroting' them. By matching or synchronizing with the nonverbal behavior of the person with whom you are speaking, you will create an unconscious response in the other person which will make them feel understood, and may even make them feel that you are alike, which will further serve to build rapport (Walker 2000:41-42).

### **2.7.3 The use of oculusics (eye contact) in nonverbal communication**

Oculusics is the study of nonverbal communication through expressions of the eyes (Andersen & Wang 2006:253). Eye contact is a very important aspect of nonverbal communication (NVC) as "the eyes are overwhelmingly the most important part of the body of receiving NVC, and, within the range at which they can be observed, the eyes are probably the most important part of the body for sending NVC" (Brosnahan 1990:105). As an important aspect of nonverbal communication, culturally determined expectations regarding the use of eye contact may be an area leading to misunderstanding as well as be a source of cultural conflict as "each is likely to interpret the other's behavior as negative where it contrasts, Japanese eye-dropping being interpreted as intrusive or contradicting the deference shown by the bow" (Brosnahan 1990:110). Chinese businessmen doing business with Japanese partners in negotiations have noted that while their Japanese counterparts may say "yes" repeatedly, the expression of their eyes may indicate resistance to what is being said. The Japanese may say "yes, yes" to indicate only that they have heard what is being said, while their eyes indicate resistance (Huang 2010:196).

With regard to oculusics, a review of literature indicates that Japanese use little or no eye contact. This may be found in statements such as "when Japanese talk face to face, they do not exchange eye-to-eye contacts. They tend to glance at each other somewhere from under the eyes to around the mouth tenderly or vaguely" (Honna1989:24) and "there can be little question that English place higher value on and practice more eye contact than Japanese case for case" (Brosnahan 1990:112). Similar views in terms of Japanese lack of eye contact may also be found in Bochner's view that "Japanese must learn to have more eye-contact with westerners during conversation than is customary in their own culture"(1982:164), and in Argyle's statement that "In Japan people do not look each other in the eye much, but are taught to look at the neck" (Argyle & Cook 1976:29). This information will be incorporated in the questionnaire in the form of the question students where students look when having a conversation such as Honna's view that the location is "around the mouth" and Argyle's view that the location is "at the neck."

Similarly older generations of Chinese people do not directly look into others' eyes, especially "when the youth talk to the old or the subordinate talk to his superior" (Fang & Yao 2010:64). In this situation, direct eye contact may be interpreted as being impolite or may even give offence. According to Hu (1990:226) teachers should not gaze at a student when asking or addressing them, but rather should around the classroom at other students as well. Zeng echoes Hu's opinion by giving two tips : 1. More glancing and less gazing lest students get nervous ; 2. Regulate the way of your eye contact with the students to meet their different characters and demands (Zeng 2008:215). In Arab culture, Feghali (1997) describes it, direct eye contact for extended periods allows the communicators "to ascertain the truthfulness of the other's words." Watson (1970), and Watson and Graves (1966) posited that direct eye contact between same-sex communicators for long periods allows speakers and listeners to ascertain the truthfulness of the other's words, as well as to gauge feedback to utterances. Indirect eye contact or a lowering of the gaze may signal 'submission' (Safadi & Valentine 1990: 279).

In the Philippines prolonged eye contact may be seen as an invitation to aggression, although when a foreigner visits a place where they are rarely seen, it may just indicate a sense of curiosity (Bosrock & MacIntosh 1997).

#### **2.7.4 The use of kinesics (body language and gestures) in nonverbal communication**

In a study of whether nonverbal gestures might be universal among individuals from different cultures, Bente, Leuschner, Issa and Blascovich (2010:773) studied the nonverbal cues of Americans, Germans and Arabic individuals. The study concluded that while it was possible to see which individual held the most power during an interaction regardless of culture, other gestures were less easy to interpret. Yet studies indicate that nonverbal gestures are very important for supplementing spoken language. For example, students from six countries – Australia, Japan, Mexico, Sweden, Taiwan and the U.S. were surveyed regarding their most effective teachers' methods of communication. The teachers that were

rated as most effective were also reported to use a greater degree of nonverbal forms of expression, including relaxed body movement and gestures (Georgakopoulos & Guerrero 2010:10). Samovar and Porter (1991:193) observed how an Arabic researcher catalogued at least 247 separate gestures Arabs used to accompany speech. Safadi and Valentine (1990) point to variations in gestural usage across Arab societies as “subtle physical differences that amount to great semantic variations.”

Gestures of the hands are often used to communicate or emphasize emotions and ideas. The three most important hand gestures used by humans are the “Angry Hand” in the form of a clenched fist, the gesture of praying that is done by holding two hands together, and the “Okay sign” in which the index finger and thumb are held together to form a circle signifying that all is well (White 2002). The fist pump that is done by punching a closed hand toward the sky represents victory, or the struggle for future conquest. It has been used by U.S. President Obama to signify political success. Yet when the hand is directed straight forward, from the shoulder, the fist pump can be perceived as an unpleasant sign of aggression (Preston 2004).

Simple gestures that are considered casually friendly in the U.S. may be considered obscene to individuals from other cultures (Culver 1993). In certain parts of Asia, the Middle East and South America, beckoning to someone to come forward using a gesture of the index finger is an insult. That gesture is used to call animals, or to command people of low status. Instead, a gesture of holding the palm facing the ground and fingers pointing down is socially correct in those areas of the world (Culver 1993). The American gestures for thumbs-up and OK are considered obscene in some countries. While the “V for victory” gesture is offensive, when the palm is turned toward the body, it is acceptable (Culver 1993). Yet in a country such as Australia, as noted earlier, that form of “V for victory” is offensive. Even the gesture of putting the index finger against the lips to indicate “Shhh” is offensive in some areas of the world (Culver, 1993). The American gesture of a wave, which customarily used to indicate “hello” has a different meaning in South America, where it indicates “come here” (Culver 1993).

Even gestures that are intended to indicate good will can be offensive. During a presidential visit to Australia in 1991, H.W. Bush made the gesture of a “V for victory sign” backwards, but turned the palm of his hand to face his body. The president was unaware that in Australia, this sign means “up yours” (Preston 2004). During an official visit to Brazil during the 1950s, Richard Nixon used the “OK” gesture, not realizing that in Brazil, the gesture is sexually suggestive (Preston 2004).

Filipinos shake hands when introduced to each other in formal or business situations, but women do not normally initiate the hand shake (Roces & Roces 2006:128). Filipinos may greet each other without saying a word by raising their eyebrows and smiling (Colin-Jones & Colin-Jones 2004) and they have a habit of pointing at something not with the fingers but by pursing their lips and pointing with them (Bosrock & MacIntosh 1997:384). It is not uncommon to see members of the same sex (male and female) holding hands without any homosexual overtones (Roces & Roces 2006, Bosrock & MacIntosh 1997, Colin-Jones & Colin-Jones 2004).

Differences between Japanese speakers and native English speakers in the use of gestures for the may contribute to source communication breakdown. A student once reported an embarrassing experience where her use of the Japanese gesture to indicate ‘no’ (waving one’s hand in front of one’s face) was misinterpreted by her home stay family as there being a bad smell present.

### **2.7.5 The use of proxemics (personal space) in nonverbal communication**

A cultural difference in terms of proxemics influences what is considered “polite” in various cultures. For example, an interaction between a Japanese and American family that was described in Andersen and Wang (2006:250) showed the difference between cultural gestures that are assumed to be “polite.” While the Americans moved forward to hug their new acquaintances, the Japanese stepped back, and bowed in a formal gesture of greeting that did not encourage close bodily contact.



One's preferences in terms of personal space are learned informally and unconsciously. As these preferences are based on culturally determined patterns of behaviour, they are "rich sources of cross-cultural misunderstandings" (Brosnahan 1990:37). In the area of proxemics, a review of literature indicates that Americans prefer a fair degree of 'personal space' in that "for Americans, the usual distance in social conversation ranges from about an arm's length to four feet" (Levine & Adelman 1993:109) with Japanese distances being slightly shorter (Brosnahan 1990:37). Brosnahan also cautions that "Probably the commonest English perception of proximity differences between English and Japanese is that Japanese seem too close (1990:37).

In China, people tend to raise themselves slightly or lean forwards in the purpose of showing respect to the communicator' (Fang & Yao 2010:57). This is echoed by Zeng's suggestion to teachers when they are talking to their students: leaning towards the students signifies listening attentively to them (Zeng 2008:214).

In *The Hidden Dimension* (1966) Hall observes that Arabic speakers, in terms of proximity, establish less distance between themselves than Anglo American speakers. Watson and Graves (1966) and Watson (1970) provide support for Hall's assertions when they found that Arabs "confronted each other more directly than Americans...sat closer to each other" and "looked each other more squarely in the eye" (Watson and Graves 1966:977).

Gender in Arabic culture may further impact interpersonal communication in terms of proxemics as Love and Powers (2002) reported that Western male instructors in the Middle East sometimes caused offense to females for standing too close while female Western instructors found it stressful when Arabic female students came into close proximity.

However, we must be wary of generalizations. Lomranz, investigating personal space use by Iraqi, Argentinian, Russian immigrants in Israel, found that Iraqis demonstrated the least amount of interpersonal distance in any relationship, intimate or otherwise. He concluded that "the significant differences found within the group of cultures usually designated as

'contact cultures' (i.e. Arabs and South Americans) indicate the importance of differentiation and redefinition on a more accurate basis "(Lomranz 1976:25-26).

### **2.7.6 Paralanguage and its influence in the learning of foreign language**

Paralanguage "includes the nonverbal voice qualities, modifiers, and independent sound constructs we use consciously or unconsciously supporting, contradicting, or accompanying the linguistic, kinesic, or proxemic messages mainly, either simultaneously or alternating with them" (Poyatos 1988:38). Differences in the use of "vocal nonverbal gestures" (Brosnahan 1990:122) such as "response cries, vocal segregates, non-words, and semi words" (ibid.) may lead to miscommunication at a fundamental level as one's communicative partner may not know whether what they are attempting to communicate is being conveyed if the paralinguistic response they receive is not what they are accustomed to in their own culture, which may lead to a breakdown in rapport. Paralanguage may also be used for the purposes of strategic competence which Dörnyei and Thurrell define as "the ability to get one's meaning across successfully to communicative partners, especially when problems arise in the communication process" (1991:17). Paralanguage as part of strategic competence may be used when one does not understand what one's communicative partner has said, wishes further clarification, or to gain time when considering one's thoughts before speaking.

### **2.7.7 Haptics (touch) and its influence in the learning of a foreign language**

Literature indicates a lack of physical contact between Japanese in that "a considerable number of Japanese teenagers reported no physical contact at all with either a parent or with a friend. The adult Japanese extends the pattern by restricting not only tactile communication but facial and gestural as well" (Morain 1986:73). The lack of such contact as proposed in this statement would seem to imply that the use of touch would be considered inappropriate.

Hall's (1966) observed that Arab communities have been frequently labelled 'contact' cultures, in which people tend to stand close together and touch frequently. Bowing and handshaking rituals in certain societies, La Barre (1976) suggests, is replaced by touching in Arabic societies. However, this tendency is more frequent between the same genders rather than across gender divides. Men can frequently be seen in public walking hand in hand or arm in arm in Arab countries. Touching between members of the opposite sex occurs less often and is seen as inappropriate, especially in Saudi Arabia and the Arabian Peninsula countries. As Nydell (1987:53) states, displays of intimacy between members of the opposite sex "is strictly forbidden by the Arab social code, including holding hands or linking arms or any gesture of affection such as kissing or prolonged touching."

### **2.7.8 Conclusion**

A review of literature indicates the view that Japanese people tend to stand at closer proximity than do Anglo Americans, as may be found in Brosnahan's statement that "it seems that Japanese typically tend to shorten all the various English distances involved in intercultural contacts with English, with the predictable result that greater Japanese togetherness will appear to English as over familiar while greater English apartness will appear to Japanese over distant, cool, offish, even arrogant" (1990:37). The shorter proxemic distances favoured by people in the Middle East and Latin American countries may have similar results. In order to avoid such misinterpretation of what is considered an appropriate distance to stand when communicating with someone in a cross-cultural exchange, it may be beneficial for students to have further opportunities to reflect on this aspect of nonverbal behaviour by comparing instances of the use of proxemic space between themselves with those between native English speakers, or with someone from a different culture than their own.

A review of literature concerning paralanguage in terms of the use of body language and phatic words and phrases to indicate that one is paying attention to what is being said (and

understands what is being said) indicate that this is an important aspect of Japanese communicative behavior. Students would benefit from awareness of their equivalents as used by native English speakers. For example Japanese students may be made aware that the Japanese equivalent of the use of the vocal segregate *uh* used by native English speakers "to signal that the speaker has not yielded the floor though he is searching for the proper expression" (Brosnahan 1990:122) is '*eto*' or '*ano*'.

In the area of kinesics, students may have good awareness of the use of gestures and body language within their own cultural context due to the importance of its use particular in Japan and the Middle East. An awareness of the differences in how of gestures and body language are used by English speakers as well as in other cultural contexts would thus be an important aspect which to teach students.

Awareness of the use of nonverbal communication is an important factor in improving the English communication skills of students as there may be differences in how such communication is used in one's own country and with how it is used in English speaking as well as in other countries, particularly when using English as a lingua franca. Awareness of the use of nonverbal communication may lead to greater rapport and fewer instances of miscommunication. Greater sensitivity to the use of nonverbal behaviour when dealing with other cultures may also be developed.

A review of literature was conducted in order to determine which aspects of nonverbal communication which students should be aware of to improve their interpersonal skills when communicating with someone of a different culture. The literature review was used as a basis for the questionnaire to be administered to students regarding their use of nonverbal communication in order to see whether findings in the literature review parallel those of questionnaire results. Although research involving nonverbal communication generally involves field or laboratory observation (Scherer & Ekman 1985:16), a questionnaire was used to gather information about the use of nonverbal communication by students as it provides a quick and convenient way of gathering data in that "one would like to be able to

look at as many people as possible in as many settings as possible, and to look at as many of these behaviors as occur within the setting. However, practical constraints usually require that we compromise on many aspects of the sampling issue" (Scherer & Ekman 1985:23). The use of a questionnaire is also directly related to the current teaching situation.

In addition, a questionnaire provides information regarding the rationale for particular nonverbal behaviour, information which gathering information only through observation could not provide. By answering a self-report questionnaire, students are able to reflect upon and give reasons for their particular use of nonverbal behaviour. There may be limits though in generalizing the results of the questionnaire as it focuses on a relatively small and focused sample in each country. There may also be inconsistencies between how a particular student believes nonverbal communication should be used and how it is actually used by the person in a given situation. Another limitation to the use of a self-report questionnaire as opposed to observing the use of nonverbal population amongst the general population and in a variety of situations is that the questionnaire deals with communicating nonverbally in a 'universal' sense. Actual behaviour may vary depending on how a person reacts to another person based upon one's own personal characteristics as well as with whom one is communicating with, given that "the study of nonverbal behavior is characterized by two major focuses of interest: the study of the individual and the study of the interaction" (Scherer & Ekman 1985:7).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter two a review of literature was conducted. The review of literature is used to guide and provide a background to the study in terms of communicative language learning and interpersonal skills, the interpersonal skills necessary to communicate effectively, the role of gender in interpersonal skills, and the intercultural aspects of interpersonal communication with a focus on nonverbal communication. Chapter three describes the research methodology and research design, data collection, and analysis procedures that are used in the study.

### **3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This refers to a strategy used by the researcher in collecting and analyzing data in order to answer the research questions or test the research hypothesis. Both the quantitative and qualitative methods were used separately on two kinds of self-report multiple-choice questionnaires. The use of self-reports in determining feelings about interpersonal skills is supported by Spitzberg & Cupachin in these words:

“Clearly the most common approach to assessing interpersonal competence (or its components) is the use of self-reports. The most significant advantage of self-evaluation is that an individual knows more about him– or herself than does anyone else.” (1989:57).

Quantitative data is collected in the form of multiple-choice responses on the questionnaires. Multiple-choice responses are considered from a range of possible answers pertinent to the question. Multiple-choice answers allow straightforward responses and are reader-friendly (Dörnyei, 2003:43). Multiple-choice also allows the researcher the ability to easily quantify the data without the need for attempting to infer or decipher what a student has written. Qualitative data is gathered in the form of open-ended answers to some of the questions. This allows students the ability to give responses, which are not available within the

multiple-choice format. Qualitative open-ended answers also allow the possibility to add comments or clarify students' choice of responses, which further serve to improve the validity of the data.

### **3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A mixed method research design, which is the combination of both quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell 2014: xxiv) is used. Two kinds of self-report questionnaires were used separately to collect data through the qualitative and quantitative methods. The use of self-reports in determining feelings about interpersonal skills is supported by Spitzberg and Cupach (1989:57) in these words:

“Clearly the most common approach to assessing interpersonal competence (or its components) is the use of self-reports. The most significant advantage of self-evaluation is that an individual knows more about him or herself than does anyone else”.

The quantitative data was collected by means of a questionnaire consisting of multiple-choice questions. To collect qualitative data open-ended questions were used in order to qualify responses to questions, to supplement responses, or to give responses, which are not included in the multiple-choice questions.

#### **3.3.1 Data collection methods**

In this section the process of data collection is described. This includes an explanation of the target population, ethical considerations, ways according to which reliability and validity were assured, the research instruments used, sampling procedures, which were undertaken, and how the data was analyzed.

#### **3.3.2 Target population**

The target population of the research consisted of Japanese students at Ibaraki University, Chinese students at Lijiang College of Guangxi Normal University, Russian students at Northern Arctic University, Ghanaian and African students at Regional Maritime

University, and students from the Middle East at the British International school in Riyadh. Seven hundred and sixty-three students took part in the study. Participating university students were primarily in their first or second year of their studies. Students at the British International School in Riyadh were third year high school students. The target population choice was based on convenience sampling (McMillan & Schumacher 2010:137) for that reason the choice was based on the fact that the researcher had ready access to Japanese university students as an instructor there; and institutions in China, Russian, and Ghana were willing to grant permission and cooperate in the administration and collection of questionnaires. It was deemed unnecessary to receive permission from Ibaraki University in Japan as the researcher is affiliated with the university as an Associate Professor and is expected to undertake such research at the institution in addition to teaching duties. The letters of permission from institutions in China, Saudi Arabia, Ghana, and Russia may be found in Appendixes H to K.

### **3.3.3 Ethical considerations**

Ethical considerations were catered for through clear explanation of the research to be conducted to the institutions and students involved. Participants were given assurances of confidentiality and anonymity orally as well as in the form of a letter (Appendix G). Consent in administering the questionnaires was sought from the institutions involved by sending a letter to management outlining the research involved and requesting permission to undertake such research (Appendix H). Ethical considerations to be followed were included in the letter. Informed consent was sought from all participants. The reporting and collection of data was done in a manner which did not reveal the identity of participants or the location of where data collection took place, thus respecting privacy.



### **3.3.4 Ensuring reliability and validity/trustworthiness of the research project**

Reliability and validity/trustworthiness were ensured in the following way:

- a) The validity of the questions on the questionnaires was based on findings from the literature reviewed, which was used to inform the research design in terms of the appropriateness and significance of questions.
- b) A pilot study was conducted in order to assess initial questions on the questionnaire. Informal feedback from students was used to improve the questionnaire by addressing any possible misunderstandings and improving the clarity of the questionnaire.
- c) Although the questionnaire was primarily in the form of multiple-choice questions, in order to facilitate statistical analysis, students were also able to respond by way of open-ended answers to qualify their choices or to give responses not included as part of the multiple-choices provided. This ensured the trustworthiness of responses.
- d) In order to determine validity in terms of statistical significance cross tabulations were used on the questionnaire data in order to determine the significance of association between responses, particularly regarding association between questionnaire responses and gender.

### **3.3.5 Pilot study**

A pilot study allowed the researcher to evaluate the clarity of questions on the questionnaire (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:204). A pilot study of the questionnaires was carried out at the institutions taking part in the study. This was done to test the reliability and validity of the instruments. The responses were analyzed and items adjusted. Items were adjusted in terms of administering the questionnaire in Japanese to Japanese students (Appendix C

and D) and in English and Russian to the Russian (Appendixes E and F) in order to avoid problems of misinterpreting the items due to language barriers. The questionnaires were also adjusted in terms of length. Items deemed to be similar to other question items, vague, or lacking in relevance in comparison to other question items were removed.

### **3.3.6 Research instruments**

The study involved the use of questionnaires related to the interpersonal competence of students. One questionnaire (Appendix A) included multiple-choice questions related to how comfortable students feel in social situations and how confident they feel about their interpersonal skills. The other questionnaire (Appendix B) consisted of multiple-choice questions related to how students use their interpersonal skills where this may impact on communication in cross-cultural situations, focusing on their use of nonverbal communication. Although the questionnaires contained multiple-choice questions, students had the opportunity to further qualify their answers or to add responses not given in the multiple-choice selection through open ended answers. Including open ended answers allowed students to respond to questions where no appropriate response was available in the multiple-choice answers. Open ended answers also gave students the opportunity to explain or qualify their answers. The questionnaires therefore used a mixed method approach in that each questionnaire consisted of quantitative based multiple-choice items as well as qualitative open ended items.

### **3.3.7 Sampling procedure**

Convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling involves the use of participants who are easily accessed based on their availability and willingness to participate (Gravetter 2012:151). The questionnaires (Appendixes A, B) were administered to Japanese students to whom the researcher had direct access as well as in cooperation with institutions in Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana where permission (Appendixes I to L) was granted to administer the questionnaires. A total of 763 students participated in the questionnaires. Two hundred and ninety-seven Japanese, 109 Russian, 137 Chinese, 120

African, and 100 students from the Middle East completed the questionnaire related to how students use their interpersonal skills where this may have an impact on communication in cross-cultural situations, focusing on their use of nonverbal communication. The questionnaires were administered separately due to time constraints. The multiple-choice questionnaires were distributed to the students and then collected once completed. Students completed the questionnaires anonymously

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND THE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Responses to the questionnaires were coded manually by grouping similar answers to provide a categorized coding frame. Coding involved assigning an identification number to each question and corresponding response. Quantitative data from the multiple-choice items was analyzed using descriptive as well as inferential statistics. Qualitative data in terms of open-ended responses was grouped and coded thematically in order to discover patterns in the data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:378). Findings from the qualitative data were used as part of the overall data analysis.

Questionnaire responses related to how comfortable students feel in social situations and how they feel about their interpersonal skills is presented through descriptive univariate analyses, which is used to summarize sets of numerical data (Dörnyei, 2009:96). Data related to the use of interpersonal skills is analyzed and summarized in terms of frequency of responses. Results are presented in tables and charts. Data in terms of an association between gender and interpersonal skills is analyzed using inferential statistics. For the analysis, Minitab and Microsoft Excel software was used throughout. Minitab was used due to its simplicity in analyzing data descriptively, and Microsoft Excel for its ease of use in drawing graphs. Graphs, frequency tables and non-parametric test (chi-square) were used to reduce complex information into pictorial forms and tables for ease of understanding. Association between gender and various variables (enjoyment of conversation, comfortable speaking to others, confidence in social situations, satisfaction with interpersonal skills, and touching during conversation) were tested with chi-square test.

Analysis was conducted on both a regional and all region bases. Minitab statistical software was used to analyse data descriptively while Microsoft Excel was used to draw graphs and

pie charts. Chi-square was calculated through Minitab. Manual calculations were used to enable accuracy when there was a cell count of less than 5 as Minitab is generally not sufficiently accurate for dealing with lower level of responses during the analysis.

Assumptions about the chi-square test and the designed model

Chi-square test

Sample under study is selected randomly from the population and categorical data are being compared

Different subjects generate the observed frequencies

Frequency in not more than 20% of cases is less than 5 and these columns and rows involved are merged for easy calculation

Responses are classified using than one category for clarity (Rumsey 2007:230).

Test statistics is given by:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \left( \frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}} \right)$$

Where  $o_{ij}$  is the observed cell frequency for the cell in row  $i$ , column  $j$ , and  $e_{ij}$  is the expected cell frequency for the cell in row  $i$ , column  $j$ .

$\chi^2$  Is the calculated chi-square

Decision Rule

Confidence level chosen is 95% with a significance level of 0.05(5%) throughout

Degrees of freedom (DF) =  $(r-1) * (c-1)$  where  $r$  is number of rows and  $c$  is the number of columns.

$$df = (r - 1)(c - 1)$$

## 4.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

Ghana

### 4.2.1 Questionnaire 1: Regarding how students feel about communicating with others and their interpersonal skills

Table 4.2.2.1 Segregation of respondents by gender

| Sex    | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------|------------|
| Female | 30        | 25%        |
| Male   | 90        | 75%        |
| Total  | 120       | 100%       |

Source: Field data March 2013

Total respondents interviewed were 120 of which 30(25%) were female.

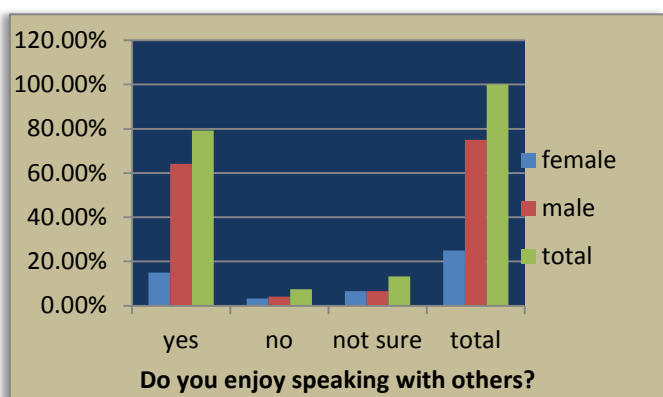
#### 4.2.1.1 Question 1: Do you enjoy speaking with other people?

Table 4.2.2.2 Respondents who enjoyed speaking with others by answer categories

| Responses | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes       | 95        | 79.17%         |
| No        | 9         | 7.50%          |
| not sure  | 16        | 13.33%         |
| Total     | 120       | 100%           |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.1 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

Table 4.2.2.2 showed respondents' answers about enjoying conversation with other people. Three categories of answers were given: enjoy speaking with others-79.17%, do not enjoy speaking with others-7.50% and not sure of their decision-13.33%. In Figure 4.2.1, 79.17%<sup>1</sup> male and 15% female respondents enjoyed speaking with others and this was higher than those did not enjoy speaking with others.

There was a percentage difference of 71.67% between those who enjoyed speaking with others and those who did not. This could mean that a majority of students have very good self-esteem.

<sup>1</sup> Desegregation by gender was based on total sample and that account for high male percentage since male respondents were more than female respondents

Table 4.2.2.3 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes    | no     | not sure | Total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|-------|
| female | 60%    | 13.33% | 26.67%   | 100%  |
| male   | 85.56% | 5.56%  | 8.89%    | 100%  |
|        | 79.17% | 7.50%  | 13.33%   | 100%  |

More males enjoy speaking to others than female and this was reflected in the percentage difference of 25.6% between the two groups. This may be a result from the culture training of females in Ghana where it may be believed that females must not interfere in matters that are solely for men. The parity of both sexes is 0.70 or 70 female to 100 male who enjoy speaking to others.

#### 4.2.1.1 Question 1b: Respondents' explanations for not enjoying conversation with others

Respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others were asked to provide explanations for non-enjoyment of conversation with others. In so doing different qualitative answers were provided. For easy analysis of these data, the explanations were grouped into 4 categories and these are:

Dependency level: that is the respondent's enjoyment of conversation with others depended on anyone.

Comfort level: that is, the respondent's enjoyment of conversation is related with his or her comfort.

Language barrier: that is, the respondent finds it difficult to express him in the English language that is why he or she does not enjoy speaking with others.

Privacy level: that is, the respondents just do not want to talk to others, is an introvert or does not like it when people talk too much.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.3 the categories covered were for all the regions but not all regions have all the 4 categories.



Table 4.2.2.4 Respondents' explanations for not enjoying conversation with others

| Categories    | Verbatim Response  |
|---------------|--|
| Comfort level | Some of them do not respect<br>Some people are rude<br>Some people are annoying<br>Because sometimes I feel I might offend them  |
| Privacy       | People are not to be trusted<br>I'm an introvert and I do not want to engage myself in conversation<br>I am an introvert and I enjoy speaking to myself<br>I am shy of some people |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** gender of students is associated with their enjoyment of conversation

Table 4.2.2.5 Observed and expected frequencies of Students' enjoyment of conversation by gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 18                                      | 23.75                                   | 1.392                                |
| No       | 12                                      | 6.25                                    | 5.290                                |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
|          | 77                                      | 71.25                                   | 0.464                                |
|          | 13                                      | 18.75                                   | 1.763                                |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 8.9093                               |

Chi-Square = 8.9093, DF = 1, P-Value >0.05

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 8.9093 is greater than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation in Ghana. Students' enjoyment of conversation is greatly associated with gender in Ghana.

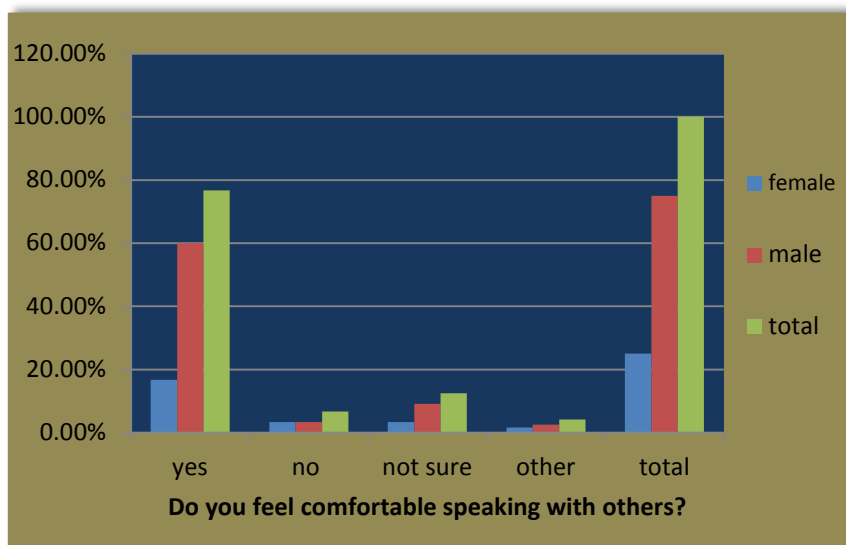
**4.2.2 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?**

Table 4.2.2.6 Respondents who feel comfortable speaking with others by answer category

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 92        | 76.67%         |
| No                | 8         | 6.67%          |
| not sure          | 15        | 12.50%         |
| Other             | 5         | 4.17%          |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.2 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

About 76.67% of respondents felt comfortable speaking with others and 4.17% gave other answers. Desegregation by gender showed 60%<sup>2</sup> of male interviewed and 16.67% female respondents feel comfortable when speaking with others. Comparing enjoying speaking with others and comfortable speaking with others, most students enjoy and at the same time feel comfortable when speaking with others in Ghana.

Table 4.2.2.7 Students comfort during conversation by gender

|        | Yes    | no     | not<br>sure | other | total |
|--------|--------|--------|-------------|-------|-------|
| female | 66.67% | 13.33% | 13.33%      | 6.67% | 100%  |
| male   | 80%    | 4.44%  | 12.22%      | 3.33% | 100%  |
| All    | 76.67% | 6.67%  | 12.50%      | 4.17% | 100%  |

Gender comparison revealed most male students feel comfortable during conversation than female but less than 20% of both sexes feel uncomfortable when chatting with others. The parity of male and female students who feel comfortable during conversation is 0.83 or 83 female to 100 male who are comfortable during conversation.

#### 4.2.1.2 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

##### Open ended responses

With this question, respondents were given the option to provide their own answers if the options given did not meet their needs. Different categorical answers were provided for the open ended option and these answers were then classified into 4 categories. The high male percentage was due to more male respondents in the sample than female

They are:

- Comfort level: what makes the respondent comfortable when speaking with others?
- Dependency level: that is the respondent's comfort in conversing with others depended on anyone.
- Not always: The respondent feel comfortable sometimes but not always
- Language barrier: the respondent is not comfortable because he or she cannot communicate well in the English language as expected.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.8 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.8 Open ended responses of students' comfort in conversing with people

| Categories       | Verbatim Response                                    |
|------------------|--|
| Dependency level | It depends on the person I'm chatting with           |
| Language barrier | Language barrier and different temperaments at times |
| Not always       | 1. Sometimes<br>Only with my close friends           |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**Ho:** Students comfort during conversation is not related to gender

**Ha:** Students comfort during conversation is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.9 Observed and expected frequencies of students comfort and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 24                         | 25                         | 0.040                                |
| No       | 6                          | 5                          | 0.200                                |
|          |                            |                            |                                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 76                         | 75                         | 0.0133                               |
| No       | 14                         | 15                         | 0.0667                               |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 0.3200                               |

Chi-Square = 0.3200, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.3200 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort during conversation is not related to gender. Opinion about being comfortable during conversation does not have any dependency on gender in Ghana.

4.2.1.3 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Table 4.2.2.10 how respondents feel after speaking with someone

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| yes               | 29        | 24.17%         |
| no                | 64        | 53%            |
| Not sure          | 16        | 13%            |
| others            | 11        | 9%             |

Table 4.2.2.11 Respondents who enjoyed speaking with others against how they feel after speaking with others.

| Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone? | Do you enjoy speaking with others |                  |                      |         |
|---|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|---------|
|   | yes, enjoy speaking with others   | no, do not enjoy | not sure of enjoying | Total   |
| Yes   | 15.00%                            | 6.67%            | 2.50%                | 24.17%  |
| No  | 47.50%                            | 0.00%            | 5.83%                | 53.33%  |
| not sure  | 8.33%                             | 0.83%            | 4.17%                | 13.33%  |
| Other   | 8.33%                             | 0.00%            | 0.83%                | 9.17%   |
| Total   | 79.17%                            | 7.50%            | 13.33%               | 100.00% |

Majority of respondents (53%) did not feel disappointed after speaking with others and 9% of them were not sure of their feelings. Comparing enjoying and feeling disappointed after speaking with others, 47.50% of respondents enjoyed speaking with others but never feel disappointed after doing so. None of the respondents neither felt disappointed after speaking nor enjoy speaking with others.

4.2.2.10 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone? Open ended responses.

This question on respondents' sentiments after conversing with others has an open ended option in which respondents are expected to give other answers if the alternative answers given did not suit them. For clearer analysis, these answers were grouped into 3 categories.

These categories are:

Dependency level: that is, respondent's disappointment depended on the second party's behavior or topic of conversation.

Comfort level: the disappointment of the respondent is closely related to how comfortable the respondent is when conversing with the other party.

Not always: that is, the respondent feel disappointed sometimes but not always

The summary of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are in Table 4.2.2.12 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.12 Respondents' sentiments after conversing with others- open ended responses

| Categories       | Verbatim Response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | It depends on the person I spoke with<br>It depends<br>It depends on what we talk about |
| Comfort level    | Sometimes I do not know what the person thinks of me                                    |
| Not always       | Not always. It depends on the topic of discussion                                       |

4.2.1.4 Question 4: Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time?

Table 4.2.2.13 Respondents' nervousness after speaking with someone the first time

| Responses                           | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                                 | 26        | 21.67%     |
| No                                  | 30        | 25%        |
| Not sure                            | 2         | 1.67%      |
| It depends on who I'm speaking with | 62        | 51.67%     |

Table 4.2.2.14 Respondents comfort in social situations and nervousness when speaking with others

| Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations? | Do you feel nervous speaking with others? |        |          |                                     |         |
|---|---|--------|----------|-------------------------------------|---------|
|   | yes                                       | no     | Not sure | It depends on who I'm speaking with | total   |
| yes   | 4.17%                                     | 14.17% | 0%       | 20.83%                              | 39.17%  |
| no  | 6.67%                                     | 0.00%  | 0.00%    | 0.00%                               | 6.67%   |
| Not sure  | 0.83%                                     | 0.00%  | 0.00%    | 0.00%                               | 0.83%   |
| Depends on the situation                                | 10.00%                                    | 10.83% | 1.67%    | 30.83%                              | 53.33%  |
| Total   | 21.67%                                    | 25.00% | 1.67%    | 51.67%                              | 100.00% |

From table 4.2.2.14, more than 50% of respondents claimed their feelings after speaking with others for the first time depend on whom they spoke with and 25% never felt nervous after speaking with others. Less than 2% was not sure of their feelings. Comparing nervous

about speaking to others and comfort in social situations, 30.83% of respondents claimed their feelings depend on whom they spoke to and the situation in question. This could mean those students who feel comfortable in social situation never felt nervous after speaking with someone for the first time. The least percentages (0.83%) of the respondents were not sure of their nervousness but enjoyed speaking with others

4.2.1.5 Question 5: Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

Table 4.2.2.15 Students’ comfort in social situations

| Responses                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                      | 47        | 39.17%     |
| No                       | 8         | 6.67%      |
| Not sure                 | 1         | 0.83%      |
| Depends on the situation | 64        | 53.33%     |

Figure 4.2.3 Respondents’ interpersonal skills satisfaction and comfort in social situations.

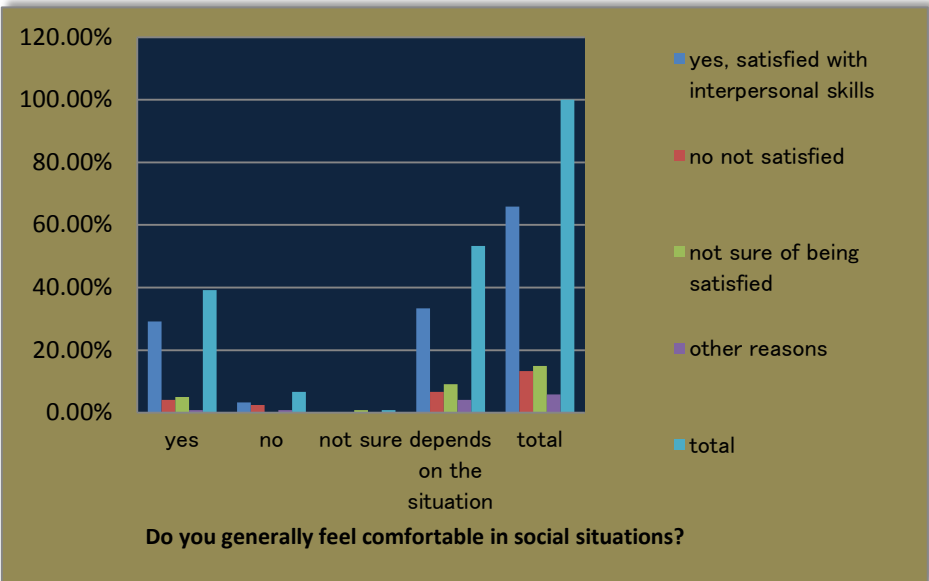


Table 4.2.2.15 showed 53.33% of respondents’ comfort in conversation depends on the situation and 39.2% feel comfortable in any social situations. The least percentage (0.83%) was people who were not sure of how they felt.



Table 4.2.2.16 Students comfort in social situations by gender

|        | Yes    | no    | not sure | depends on situation | total |
|--------|--------|-------|----------|----------------------|-------|
| female | 36.67% | 6.67% | 0%       | 56.67%               | 100%  |
| male   | 40%    | 6.67% | 1.11%    | 52.22%               | 100%  |
| All    | 39.17% | 6.67% | 0.83%    | 53.33%               | 100%  |

With this question, majority of both sexes comfort in social situations depended on the situation concern. Comparing this with those who feel comfortable in social situations, about 40% of male respondents feel comfortable in social situations while more than 50% female respondents' comfort in social situations depended on the situation in question. The parity for both sexes is 0.92 which is 92 female to 100 male who are comfortable in social situations.

Chi-square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is not related to gender.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is related to gender

Table 4.2.2.17 Observed and expected frequencies of students' comfort against gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 13                                      | 13.75                                   | 0.0409                               |
| No       | 17                                      | 16.25                                   | 0.0346                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      |   |   |                                      |
| No       | 48                                      | 48.75                                   | 0.0115                               |
| $\chi^2$ | 0.1006                                  |   |                                      |

42

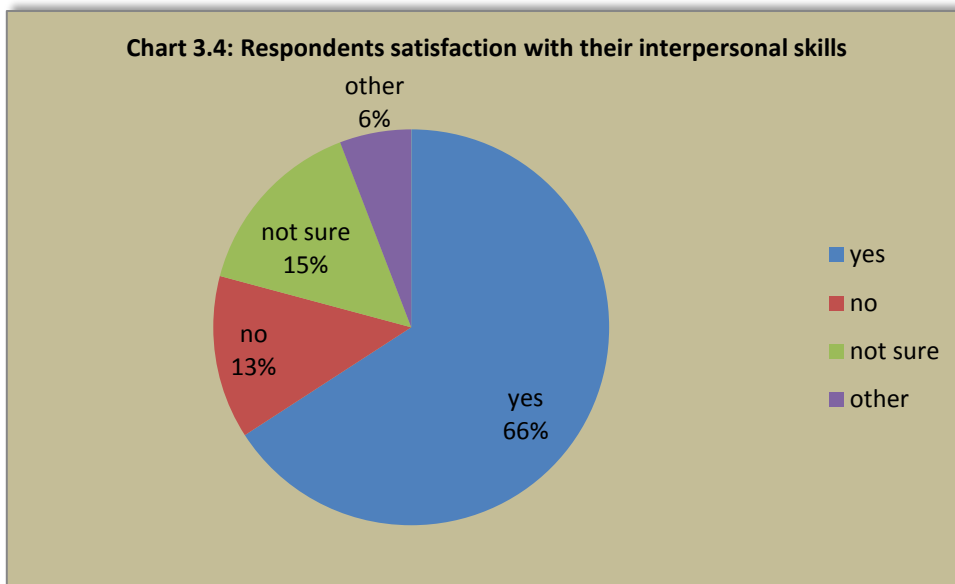
Chi-Square = 0.1006, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.153

#### Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.1006 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort in social situation is not related to gender in Ghana. Students comfort or level of confidence in social situations has no relations with gender in Ghana.

#### 4.2.1.6 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Figure 4.2.4 Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills



From Figure 4.2.4, 66% of respondents were satisfied with their interpersonal skills, 13. % not satisfied and 15 % were not sure of their satisfaction.

Table 4.2.2.18 Students who enjoyed speaking with others and interpersonal skills

| Do you enjoy speaking with others | Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills |        |          |       |        |
|-----------------------------------|--|--------|----------|-------|--------|
|                                   | yes  | no     | not sure | other | Total  |
| Yes                               | 57.50%   | 8.33%  | 8.33%    | 5%    | 79.17% |
| No                                | 1.67%  | 3.33%  | 2.50%    | 0%    | 7.50%  |
| not sure                          | 6.67%  | 1.67%  | 4.17%    | 0.83% | 13.33% |
| Total                             | 65.83%   | 13.33% | 15%      | 5.83% | 100%   |

Respondents' satisfaction with their inter-personal skills compared with their enjoyment in speaking with others, 57.5% were satisfied at the same time enjoy speaking with others while 8.33% enjoy speaking but not sure of their satisfaction with their interpersonal skills. 1.67% was neither sure of their enjoyment nor satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Conclusively, one can see that respondents who enjoy speaking with others will be satisfied with their interpersonal skills in Ghana.

Table 4.2.2.19 Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills by gender

|        | Yes    | no     | not sure | other | total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|-------|-------|
| female | 60%    | 16.67% | 16.67%   | 6.67% | 100%  |
| male   | 67.78% | 12.22% | 14.44%   | 5.56% | 100%  |
| All    | 65.83% | 13.33% | 15%      | 5.83% | 100%  |

More than 50% of both male and female students are satisfied with their interpersonal skills and the parity between the two groups is 0.89 which means though majority of both sexes are satisfied with their interpersonal skills it is not 1 parity or 50/50 as at the time this research was conducted.

Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Open ended responses

Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills provided an open ended response option for students. Students are asked to give other answers if the alternative answers provided do not meet their criteria. The provided responses were then classified into 3 categories. These categories are:

**Knowledge seeking:** In this answer category, respondents did not answer yes or no but rather they would like to improve their knowledge in this area

**Privacy:** respondents in this category seek to have their privacy instead of being satisfied with their interpersonal skills

**Level of self-confidence:** respondents in this category did have some issue with their level of confidence when it comes to satisfaction with their interpersonal skills.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.1.6.3 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.20 Open ended answers on respondent's satisfaction with their interpersonal skills

| Categories        | Verbatim Response   |
|-------------------|---|
| Knowledge seeking | Would love to improve further<br>So far it is been fair<br>Building on it each time |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**Ho:** Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender

**Ha:** students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.21 Observed and expected frequencies of students' interpersonal skills and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 23                         | 23.75                      | 0.0237                      |
| No       | 7                          | 6.25                       | 0.0900                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 72                         | 71.25                      | 0.0079                      |
| No       | 18                         | 18.75                      | 0.0300                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 0.1516                      |

#### Decision Rule

Confidence level chosen is 95% with a significance level of 0.05(5%)

Degrees of freedom (DF) = (r-1) \* (c-1) where r is number of rows and c is the number of columns.

$$df = (2 - 1)(2 - 1) = 1$$

Reject Ho or the null hypothesis if  $\chi^2$  calculated is greater than  $\chi^2_{0.05, 1} = 3.841$  otherwise accept. That is reject Ho if  $\chi^2_{0.05, 1} \leq \chi^2_{calculated}$

Chi-Square = 0.1516, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

#### Decision

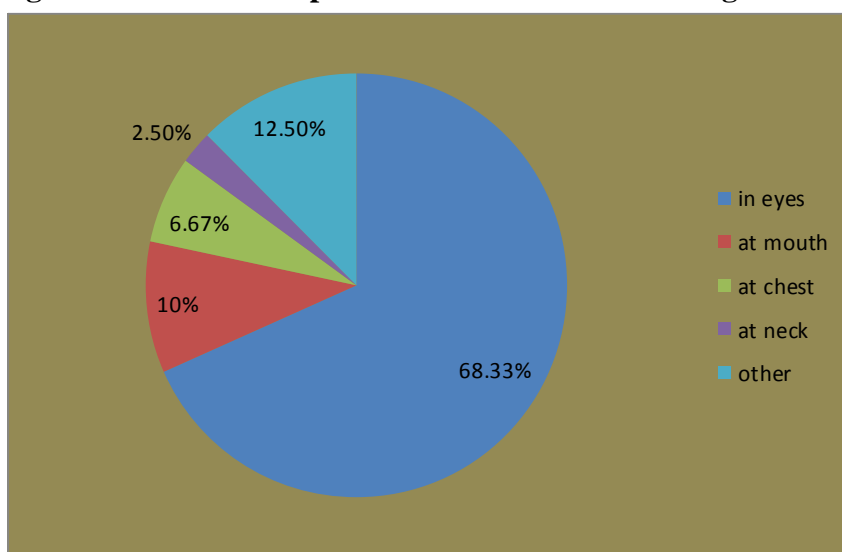
Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.1516 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not

related to gender in Ghana. How students feel about their interpersonal skills in Ghana is not associated with gender.

#### 4.2.2 Questionnaire 2: Regarding the use of nonverbal communication, which may have an impact on interpersonal communication in intercultural situations

##### 4.2.2.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

**Figure 4.2.5 Where respondents look when conversing with a teacher**



From Figure 4.2.5, 68.33% of respondents looked into their teacher’s eyes when in conversation with them and about 12.5% looked at none of the places given but rather look elsewhere when speaking with the teacher. The least percentage (2.5%) were respondents who look at their teachers’ neck when talking with them.

**Table 4.2.2.22 Where students look according to gender**

| Gender | Where do you look when conversing with a teacher |          |          |         |        | Total |
|--------|--|----------|----------|---------|--------|-------|
|        | In eyes  | At mouth | At chest | At neck | Other  |       |
| Female | 11.67%   | 5.83%    | 2.50%    | 1.67%   | 3.33%  | 25%   |
| Male   | 56.67%   | 4.17%    | 4.17%    | 0.83%   | 9.17%  | 75%   |
| Total  | 68.33%   | 10%      | 6.67%    | 2.50%   | 12.50% | 100%  |

From table 4.2.2.21, most female respondents (11.67%<sup>3</sup>) look in the eyes of the teacher when in conversation and this is the same for male respondents (56.67%). The least percentages for male (0.83%) and female (1.67%) were respondents who looked at the neck of the teacher. This could mean the respondents understand the conversation more if they look into the teacher's eyes.

#### 4.2.2.1.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

##### Open ended responses

When students were asked about where they look when conversing with the teacher, some provided answers, which were not included in the closed ended answers provided. These open ended answers were grouped into 3 categories and they are as follows:

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents looked at during conversation depended upon how he or she felt about the second party. Looked at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or laces mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents looked at other things or may not look at anything at all respect for the elderly: respondents' respect for the elderly or traditions made them not to look at the things or parts mentioned in the closed answers provided during conversation with the teacher. Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses

This percentage is based on total sample and account for low percentage since only 25% of respondents were female

are summarized in Table 4.2.2.22 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.23 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with the teacher

| Categories                        | Verbatim Response  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Looked at other things or nothing | Face<br>On the forehead<br>Around<br>Head and different areas so that it is not awkward<br>Look away<br>Somewhere else<br>On the floor<br>The face and mouth<br>On the nose<br>Skirt<br>Wherever I find attractive |
| Respect for superiors             | Not all the time because some older people think looking into the eyes is impolite   |

#### 4.2.2.2 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.24 There respondents look when conversing with a friend

|          | Count | Percentage |
|----------|-------|------------|
| In eyes  | 88    | 73.33%     |
| At mouth | 12    | 10%        |
| At chest | 4     | 3.33%      |
| At neck  | 3     | 2.50%      |
| Other    | 13    | 10.83%     |

On this question, majority of respondents (73.33%) looked into the eyes of their friend when conversing with them. 2.50% of them looked at their friends' neck and 10.83% gave



other explanations of where they looked when in conversation with their friends. Comparing questions 2 and 1, it was noted that most respondents prefer to look into the eyes of whoever they are speaking with than any other part of the body.

#### 4.2.2.3 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

##### Open ended answers

Provisions for open ended answers made it possible for respondents to provide where exactly they look when in conversation with a friend. These answer categories were grouped into 2.

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents looked at during conversation depended upon how he or she felt about the friend

Looked at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents looked at other things or may not look at anything at all

Summaries of the 2 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.23 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.25 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a friend

| Categories                        | Verbatim Response  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Dependency level                  | It depends on which kind of friend. It depends on my words   |
| Looked at other things or nothing | On the forehead. Facial expression<br>On the nose<br>Somewhere else<br>Entire body composure<br>Around<br>Somewhere else<br>Face |

#### 4.2.2.4 Question 2b: if you answered differently in (1) and (2), please explain why

##### Open ended explanations

Respondents were asked to give explanation for answering differently in questions 1 and 2 if there was any. In so doing, various categorical answers were given and for easy analysis, the responses were categorized into 5 categories. They are:

- Knowledge seeking: respondents want to learn from the teacher that is why they use eye contact when in conversation with him or her.
- Dependency level: where they look depended on who is in conversation with them
- Respect or fear of the teacher: where they look is based on respect or fear of the teacher
- Comfortable with friends: where a respondent look is influenced by the fact that he or she is more comfortable with friends
- Friendship level: where a particular respondent look is influenced by the level of friendship between the respondent and the second party.

Not sure: The respondent does not know why he or she answered questions 1 and 2 differently

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.2.4 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.26 Explanations for giving differences in where a respondent look when in conversation with a teacher or a friend

| Categories                 | Verbatim Response   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Respect or fear of teacher | Different people have different influence on me and looking into the eyes of a teacher is impolite<br>I feel it is disrespectful to look someone older and of a higher status in the eyes   |
| Comfortable with friends   | I feel more comfortable chatting with a friend  |
| Knowledge seeking          | To really get what the person in trying to say  |
| Dependency level           | It depends on my mood   |
| Friendship level           | His eyes will tell if he or she agrees to your suggestion<br>Shyness<br>Looking at the eyes tells you if the person is sincere or not<br>I do not know what to say or if I should change the topic of the discussion<br>Because with the friend, we have a close relationship with the person |

Figure 4.2.6 Where respondents look when speaking with a friend by gender

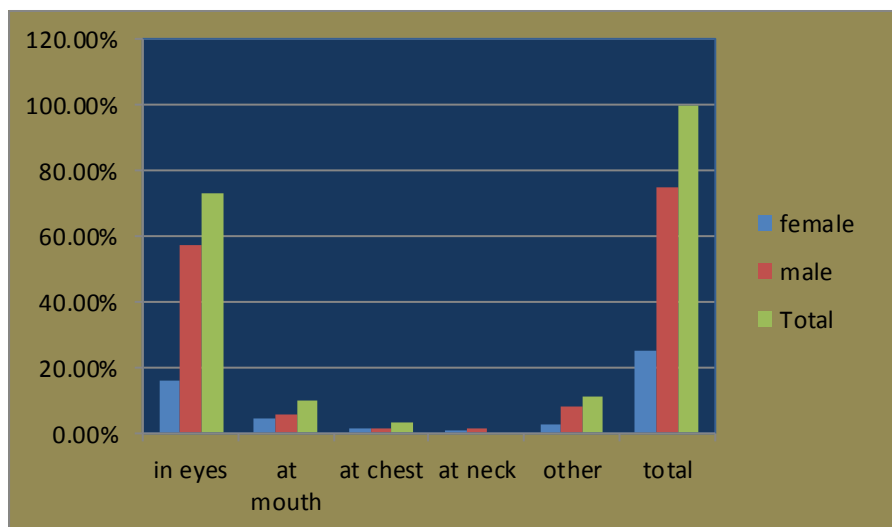


Figure 4.2.6, depicted majority female respondents prefer to look into the eyes (15.83%) of their friends when in conversation than at the mouth (4.17%), chest (1.67%), neck (0.83%) and other places (2.50%). Most male respondents also looked into the eyes (57.50%) of their friends than mouth (5.83%), chest (1.67%), neck (1.67%) and other places (8.33%). Reason for this action could be respondents need to understand what the second party is saying.

4.2.2.5 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

**Table 4.2.2.27 How close respondents stand when speaking with a friend**

|              | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| about 30 cm  | 45        | 37.50%     |
| about 60 cm  | 33        | 27.50%     |
| about 90 cm  | 11        | 9.17%      |
| about 120 cm | 7         | 5.83%      |
| Other        | 24        | 20%        |

The highest score was respondents who stand about 30 cm (37.50%) distance when speaking with a friend and the least was respondents who stand about 120cm (5.83%) distance. This could be that respondents hear their counterparts properly when close to them or it could also be respondents feel comfortable when standing close to their friends before talking with them.

**Table 4.2.2.28 How close respondents stand when conversing with a friend by gender**

| Gender | How close respondents stand when conversing with a friend in percentages |             |             |              |        |       |
|--------|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------|-------|
|        | about 30 cm  | about 60 cm | about 90 cm | about 120 cm | other  | total |
| female | 11.67%   | 7.50%       | 1.67%       | 2.50%        | 1.67%  | 25%   |
| male   | 25.83%   | 20%         | 7.50%       | 3.33%        | 18.33% | 75%   |
| Total  | 37.50%   | 27.50%      | 9.17%       | 5.83%        | 20%    | 100%  |

Desegregation by gender showed that most male (25.85%) and female (11.67%) respondents prefer to stand about 30cm when in conversation with them. 20% of male respondents stand about 60cm and 18.33% gave other distance which they stand when speaking with their friends. But all in all, both sexes prefer to stand about 30cm when in conversation with their friends.

#### 4.2.2.7 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

Open ended responses

Open ended answers for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a friend are classified into 3 categories. These are:

- Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a friend
- Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depended on the second party or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents were not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a friend.

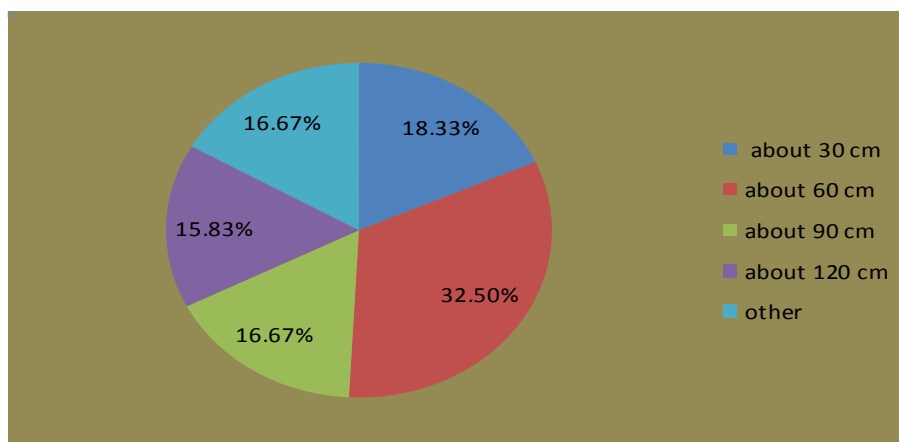
Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.27 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.29 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when in conversation with a friend.

| Categories       | Verbatim Response  |
|------------------|--|
| Any distance     | Very close<br>It is relative<br>No specific interval<br>Sometimes very close<br>A greater distance<br>2 meters<br>Far away   |
| Dependency level | Depends on the person I'm speaking with<br>It depends on type of conversion<br>Depends on the type of friendship<br>Not sure it depends on what I'm telling the person<br>Distance depends on type of friend |
| Not sure         | Not sure<br>Not considered<br>Cannot tell  |

#### 4.2.2.8 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.7 How close respondents stand when speaking with a teacher



Unlike the previous question, respondents prefer to stand about 60cm (32.50%) when speaking with a teacher. With this question, responses were proportionately distributed and the rest of responses were: about 30cm- 18.33%, about 90cm- 16.67, about 120cm – 15.83% and other distances – 16.67%. Reasons for this trend of response could be: respondents feel more comfortable talking to their friends than a teacher or respondents may be afraid of offending the teacher when they stand too close since in Ghanaian culture it may be important to show respect to one's superiors and this begins from how close a person stands.

#### 4.2.2.9 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

Open ended answers:

Answers in open ended form for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a teacher are classified into 3 categories. These are:

- Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a teacher
- Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the teacher during conversation depended on the teacher or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents were not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a teacher

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.29 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.30 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when conversing with a teacher

| Categories       | Verbatim Response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | Depends on the situation<br>It depends on what I'm speaking with him  |
| Not sure         | Not sure<br>Cannot tell<br>Not considered<br>Wherever<br>Usually in my desk                                     |
| Any distance     | 1 meter<br>Not so close<br>Some considerable distance<br>No specific interval<br>360 cm<br>Appreciable distance |

#### 4.2.2.9 Question 4b: if you answer differently in (3) and (4) please answer why

Open ended explanations given by the respondents on why they gave different answers in questions 3 and 4 were grouped into 5 categories. These categories are:

Respect or fear of teacher: how close the respondent is to the teacher during conversation was due to the respect or fear of the teacher.

- Comfort level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is influenced by how comfortable they are.



- Level of friendship: The level of friendship between respondents and people also determine the distance that they stand when talking to the second party.
- Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is depended upon the person or other things.

Not sure: these categories of respondents were not sure of the distance between them and their friends or the teacher. Knowledge seeking: distance between the respondent and the teacher is influenced by the desire to learn more from the teacher. Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.31 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.31 Open ended explanations on why different answers were given on how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a teacher or a friend.

| Categories                 | Verbatim Response   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Respect or fear of teacher | Distance that show respect regarding the subject matter discussed. I stand relatively far when talking to a teacher because of respect. I try to keep it formal with teachers. Teacher is different from a friend. I speak with teachers usually in class (at lectures). The teacher is one's superior. With teachers it is formal, friend is informal. For the teacher, that respect for one's superior exists resulting in that distance. |
| Comfort level              | I'm more relaxed speaking with a friend then with a teacher as it is less formal. Not comfortable. The teacher can be disagreeable.   |
| Dependency level           | The closer you're to him or her he serious you are to learn from him.   |
| Friendship level           | A friend relation is different from a teacher. I do not have such close relationship with teachers. Shyness. Conversations with a friend are more informal in nature than with a teacher Familiarity. The friend is closer than your teacher. Teacher teaches several people in class. To be very close shows you discuss something personal. I speak to friends about more personal issues that mustn't be overhead by others.             |

4.2.2.10 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Table 4.2.2.32 How respondents show that they are listening when in conversation with someone

| Responses                                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Using body language such as nodding head | 51        | 42.50%     |
| Making sounds such as umm! Ahhh!         | 9         | 7.50%      |
| Using reaction words                     | 40        | 33.33%     |
| Other                                    | 20        | 16.67%     |

From table 4.2.2.32, most of the respondents (42.50%) use some form of gesture such as nodding head when in conversation with someone and about 33.33% respondents use words such as 'yeah', 'oh really', when speaking with others. Less than 8% make sounds such as umm, ahhh when speaking with someone.

4.2.2.11 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Open ended responses

Some respondents gave open ended answers on how they show that they are paying attention when someone is talking to them. 3 categories of responses were identified.

These are:

Keep silent or make remarks: respondents in this category either keep silent when someone talk to them or make some remarks during the conversation

Look at them or smile: to show that they are paying attention, respondents either smile or just look at the other person talking to them

Dependency level: how they show that they are paying attention is dependent on the second person or other things.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.33 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.33 Open ended answers on how respondents show that they are paying attention

| Categories            | Verbatim Response  |
|-----------------------|--|
| Look at them or smile | Looking at the person<br>Looking into the person's eyes<br>Smile |

4.2.2.12 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?

Table 4.2.2.34 How much of respondents conversation consists of body language and gestures

| Responses         | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| about 70% or more | 33        | 27.50%     |
| 60% - 70%         | 22        | 18.33%     |
| 50% - 60%         | 22        | 18.33%     |
| 40% - 50%         | 12        | 10%        |
| 30% - 40%         | 9         | 7.50%      |
| 20% -30%          | 9         | 7.50%      |
| 10% - 20%         | 6         | 5%         |
| 0% - 10%          | 4         | 3.33%      |
| 0%                | 2         | 1.67%      |
| other:            | 1         | 0.83%      |

On using gestures or body language during communication, 28% of respondents' conversations consist of about 70% or more gestures and body language and about 1% of respondents neither use gestures nor body language in their communication.

4.2.2.13 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?

Open ended responses

Open ended answers were provided for how much of a communication consist of gestures and body language. These answers were grouped into 2 and they are:

Dependency level: respondents in this category explained that level of gestures or body language use depended upon the second party or other things

Not sure: respondents in this category were not sure of how much of their communication consist of body languages and gestures.

Summaries of the 2 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.35 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.35 Open ended answers on how much a respondent's communication consists of gestures and body languages.

| Categories | Verbatim Response |
|------------|-------------------|
| Not sure   | Cannot tell       |

4.2.2.14 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during the conversation?

Table 4.2.2.36 Respondents' opinion about touching during conversation

| Responses             | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| yes as it is friendly | 25        | 20.83%     |
| no as it is impolite  | 82        | 68.33%     |
| Other                 | 13        | 10.83%     |

Most respondents (68.33%) believed that it is impolite to touch someone when in conversation with him or her and about 21% of respondents think the opposite. Less than 12% gave other answers to this question. This trend of answer may be due to traditions and customs of Ghana where it is believed to be rude to touch someone when talking to him or her.

4.2.2.15 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during the conversation?

Open ended answers

Open ended answers on opinions given by respondents on whether it is right to touch someone whom you are not conversant with during conversation were classified into 4 groups. These groups are:

Dependency level: in this category, respondents think to touch the second party during conversation depended on the person and how that person is feeling.

Specific parts to touch: respondents in this group believed that you can only touch specific parts of the second party during conversation.

Familiarity or necessity: this group of respondents thinks touching during conversation is influenced by familiarity or is a necessity.

Comfort level: to touch during conversation is dependent upon how comfortable both parties are during that time.

Summaries of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.37 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.37 Open ended answers of respondents on whether it is right to touch during conversation

| Categories       | Verbatim Response  |
|------------------|--|
| Dependency level | Depends on the person. Depends on nature of friendship<br>Depends on the agenda. Depending on the kind of person<br>Depends on the personality and the relationship. It depends on how formal or informal the conversation is. Depends on whom I'm speaking with |
| Comfort level    | I am not comfortable with it   |

#### Chi – Square

Ones opinions about touching during conversation are associated with gender of the persons concern.

#### Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** touching during conversation is not dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

Table 4.2.2.38 Observed and expected frequencies of students' feelings about touching

| Class                 | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|-----------------------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female                |   |   |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 9                                       | 6.25                                    | 1.210                                |
| No as it is impolite  | 21                                      | 18.75                                   | 0.270                                |
| Male                  |   |   |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 16                                      | 23.75                                   | 2.528                                |
| No as it is impolite  | 74                                      | 71.25                                   | 0.106                                |
| $\chi^2$              |   |   | 4.114                                |

Chi-Square = 4.114, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.153

#### Decision/conclusion

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 4.114 is greater than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of the persons involved in Ghana. Opinion about touching during conversation does not have any dependency on gender in Ghana.

#### Conclusions:

The following conclusions have been drawn from questionnaire 1 and 2 based on the findings.

Students' enjoyment of conversation is associated with gender in Ghana but the majority of students in this region enjoy speaking to others. Parity for both sexes in terms of enjoying conversation is less than 1.

Most students feel comfortable speaking to others and it does not have any association with gender of students.

Some students feel comfortable in social situations but this is not influenced by gender

Most students in this region are satisfied with their interpersonal skills irrespective of their gender.

Touching during conversation does not depend on gender

#### CHINA

#### 4.2.3 Questionnaire 1: Regarding how students feel about communicating with others and their interpersonal skills

Table 4.2.2.39 Segregation of respondents by gender

| Sex    | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------|------------|
| Female | 114       | 83.21%     |
| Male   | 23        | 16.79%     |
| Total  | 137       | 100.00%    |

Source: Field data March 2013

Total respondents interviewed was 137 of which 23 (16.79%) were male.

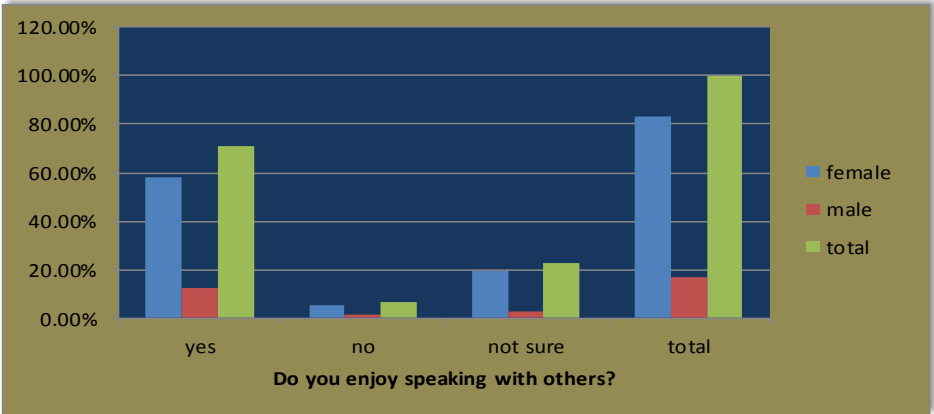
4.2.3.1 Question 1: Do you enjoy speaking with other people?

Table 4.2.2.40 Respondents who enjoyed speaking with others by answer categories

| Responses | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes       | 97        | 70.80%         |
| No        | 9         | 6.57%          |
| not sure  | 31        | 22.63%         |
| Total     | 137       | 100%           |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.8 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

Table 4.2.2.40, showed respondents’ answers about enjoying conversation with others. Three categories of answers identified: enjoy speaking with others-70.80%, do not enjoy speaking with others-6.57% and not sure of their decision-22.63%. From Figure 4.2.8, 58.39% female and 12.41% male respondents enjoyed speaking with others and this was higher than those who did not enjoy speaking with others.



Table 4.2.2.41 Gender comparison of students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender

| Gender | Yes    | no    | not sure | total |
|--------|--------|-------|----------|-------|
| female | 70.18% | 6.14% | 23.68%   | 100%  |
| male   | 73.91% | 8.70% | 17.39%   | 100%  |
| All    | 70.80% | 6.57% | 22.63%   | 100%  |

More male enjoy speaking with others than female and this was reflected in the percentage difference of 3.73% between the two groups. This may have resulted from some culture practices in China. The parity of both sexes is 0.95 or 95 female to 100 male who enjoy speaking with others.

#### 4.2.3.2 Question 1b: Respondents' explanations for not enjoying conversation with others

Respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others were asked to provide explanations for non-enjoyment of conversation with others. In so doing different qualitative answers were provided. For easy analysis of these data, the explanations were grouped into 4 categories and these are:

Dependency level: that is the respondent's enjoyment of conversation with others depended on anyone.

Comfort level: that is, the respondent's enjoyment of conversation is related with his or her comfort

Language barrier: that is the respondent find it difficult to express him or herself in the English language that is why he or she does not enjoy speaking with others

Privacy level: that is, the respondent just does not want to talk with others, is an introvert or does not like it when people talk too much

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in

Table 4.2.2.42 Open ended explanations of respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others

| Categories       | Verbatim Response   |
|------------------|---|
| Language barrier | If I speak in Chinese with other people I enjoy it, I would therefore like to but I am afraid to speak in English<br>Because my English is very poor; when I speaking with other people I feel frightened or nervous.<br>Because I cannot explain myself properly<br>My spoken English is very poor and I do not know how to express myself clearly; it is embarrassing |
| Privacy level    | I do not enjoy speaking with strangers and I feel stressed when I stay with a talkative person  |

Chi – Square

Enjoyment of conversation depends on the gender of students in question

Hypothesis

**Ho:** gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation.

**Ha:** gender of students is associated with their enjoyment of conversation

Table 4.2.2.43 Observed and expected frequencies of Students' enjoyment of conversation by gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 80                                      | 80.715                                  | 0.0063                               |
| No       | 34                                      | 33.284                                  | 0.0154                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 17                                      | 16.284                                  | 0.0315                               |
| No       | 6                                       | 6.715                                   | 0.0761                               |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 0.1293                               |

Chi-Square = 0.1293, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.1293 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation in China. Students' enjoyment of conversation is not associated with gender in China.

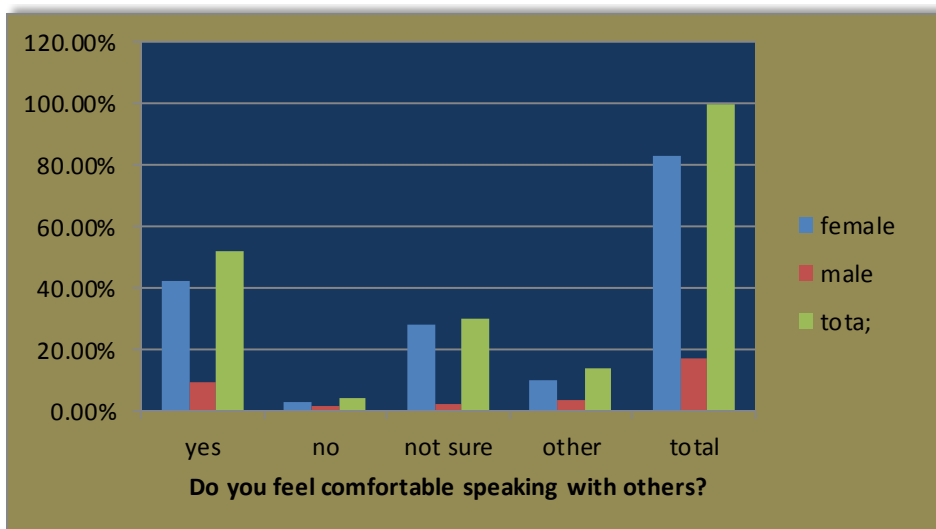
4.2.3.3 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

Table 4.2.2.44 Respondents who feel comfortable speaking with others by answer category

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 71        | 51.82%         |
| No                | 6         | 4.38%          |
| not sure          | 41        | 29.93%         |
| Other             | 19        | 13.87%         |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.9 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender.



Source: Field data March 2013

About 51.82% of respondents felt comfortable speaking with others and 4.38% gave negative answers. Segregation by gender showed 42.38% of female interviewed and 9.49% male respondents feel comfortable when speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.45 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes    | no    | not sure | other  | total |
|--------|--------|-------|----------|--------|-------|
| female | 50.88% | 3.51% | 33.33%   | 12.28% | 100%  |
| male   | 56.52% | 8.70% | 13.04%   | 21.74% | 100%  |
| All    | 51.82% | 4.38% | 29.93%   | 13.87% | 100%  |

Gender comparison revealed most male students feel comfortable during conversation than female but less than 10% of both sexes feel uncomfortable when chatting with others. The parity of male and female students who feel comfortable during conversation is 0.90 or 90 female to 100 male who are comfortable during conversation.

#### 4.2.3.4 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

##### Open ended answers

With this question, respondents were given the option to provide their own answers if the options given did not meet their needs. Different categorical answers were provided for the open ended option and these answers were then classified into 4 categories. They are:

Comfort level: what makes the respondent comfortable when speaking with others?

Dependency level: that is the respondent's comfort in conversing with others depended on anyone.

Not always: The respondent feel comfortable sometimes but not always

Language barrier: the respondent is not comfortable because he or she cannot communicate well in the English language as expected.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.46 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.46 Open ended answers on respondents comfort during conversation

| Categories       | Verbatim Response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | It depends on who are they. It depends on the situation. Some people may be rude when speaking with them. Sometimes yes, sometime no. It depends on who I'm speaking with<br>It depends on the people that I am talking with. |
| Comfort level    | Sometimes I am afraid of saying the wrong thing.<br>Only when I speak with friends that I feel comfortable with   |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is not related to gender

**H<sub>a</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.47 Observed and expected frequencies of students comfort and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 62                                      | 64.073                                  | 0.0671                               |
| No       | 52                                      | 49.927                                  | 0.0861                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 15                                      | 12.927                                  | 0.3324                               |
| No       | 8                                       | 10.073                                  | 0.4266                               |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 0.9122                               |

Chi-Square = 0.9122, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.153

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.9122 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort during conversation is not related to gender. Opinion about being comfortable during conversation does not have any dependency on gender in China.

4.2.3.4 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Table 4.2.2.48 How respondents feel after speaking with someone

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 62        | 45.26%         |
| No                | 34        | 24.82%         |
| Not sure          | 24        | 17.52%         |
| Others            | 17        | 12.41%         |

Table 4.2.2.49 Respondents, who enjoyed speaking with others and how they feel after speaking with them

| Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone? | Do you enjoy speaking with others |                  |                      |        |
|---|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------|
|   | yes, enjoy speaking with others   | no, do not enjoy | not sure of enjoying | Total  |
| Yes   | 30.66%                            | 2.19%            | 12.41%               | 45.26% |
| No  | 18.98%                            | 1.46%            | 4.38%                | 24.82% |
| not sure  | 12.41%                            | 2.92%            | 2.19%                | 17.52% |
| Other   | 8.76%                             | 0%               | 3.65%                | 12.41% |
| Total   | 71%                               | 7%               | 23%                  | 100%   |

Majority of respondents (45.26%) did not feel disappointed after speaking with others and 12.41% gave other answers. Comparing enjoying and feeling disappointed after speaking with others, 18.98% of respondents enjoyed speaking with others but never feel disappointed after doing so. 30.66% enjoy speaking with others but feel disappointed after doing so. About 1.5% of respondents neither enjoys nor feels disappointed after speaking with others. This trend of majority respondents feeling disappointed after speaking with others could be due to respondents' low self-esteem and how to appreciate and respect another person's opinion.

4.2.2.5 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Open ended responses

This question on respondents' sentiments after conversing with others has an open ended option in which respondents are expected to give other answers if the alternative answers given did not suit them. For clearer analysis, these answers were grouped into 3 categories.

These categories are:

Dependency level: that is, respondent's disappointment depended on the second party's behavior or topic of conversation

Comfort level: the disappointment of the respondent is closely related to how comfortable the respondent is when conversing with the other party. Not always: that is, the respondent feel disappointed sometimes but not always. The summary of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are in Table 4.2.2.50 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.50 Open ended answers on respondents' sentiments after conversing with others

| Categories       | Verbatim Response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | It depends on the topic and who I'm speaking with<br>it depends on what we talk about   |
| Comfort level    | Sometimes, if I said something wrong and impolite<br>I sometimes feel disappointed because of one's expression<br>If I talk to someone who I care for but he speak little to me<br>When I speak to someone I dislike. I may feel disappointed |

4.2.3.4 Question 4: Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time?

Table 4.2.2.51 Respondents' nervousness after speaking with someone the first time

| Responses                           | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                                 | 48        | 35.04%     |
| No                                  | 7         | 5.11%      |
| Not sure                            | 2         | 1.46%      |
| It depends on who I'm speaking with | 80        | 58.39%     |

Table 4.2.2.52 Respondents' comfort in social situations and nervousness when speaking with others

| Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time? | Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations? |        |          |                                     |        |
|---|---|--------|----------|-------------------------------------|--------|
|   | Yes   | no     | Not sure | It depends on who I'm speaking with | total  |
| Yes   | 3.65%   | 5.84%  | 7.30%    | 18.25%                              | 35.04% |
| no  | 2.19%   | 1.46%  | 0%       | 1.46%                               | 5.11%  |
| Not sure  | 0%  | 0%     | 0.73%    | 0.73%                               | 1.46%  |
| Depends on the situation                                      | 8.03%   | 5.11%  | 3.65%    | 41.61%                              | 58.39% |
| Total   | 13.87%  | 12.41% | 11.68%   | 62.04%                              | 100%   |



From table 4.2.2.52, more than 58% of respondents claimed their feelings after speaking with others for the first time depend on whom they spoke with. About 35.04% felt nervous after speaking with others and 1.46% was not sure of their feelings. Comparing nervous about speaking to others and comfort in social situations in table 4.7, it was detected that 41.61% of respondents' feelings depend on whom they spoke to and the situation in question. This could mean those students who feel comfortable in social situation never felt nervous after speaking with someone for the first time.

#### 4.2.3.5 Question 5: Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

Table 4.2.2.53 Students' comfort in social situations

| Responses                | frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                      | 19        | 13.87%     |
| No                       | 17        | 12.41%     |
| Not sure                 | 16        | 11.68%     |
| Depends on the situation | 85        | 62.04%     |

Figure 4.2.10 Respondents' interpersonal skills satisfaction and comfort in social situations.

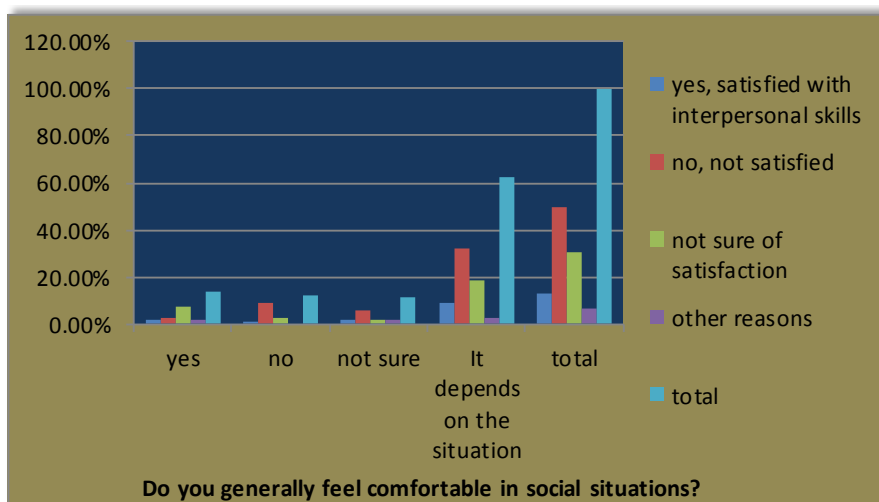


Table 4.2.3.53 revealed 62.04% of respondents' comfort in conversation depends on the situation and 13.87% feel comfortable in any social situations. The least percentage (11.68%) was people who were not sure of how they felt.

Table 4.2.2.54 Respondents comfort in social situations by gender

|        | Yes    | no     | not sure | Depends on the situation | total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|--------------------------|-------|
| female | 11.40% | 12.28% | 10.53%   | 65.79%                   | 100%  |
| male   | 26.09% | 13.04% | 17.39%   | 43.48%                   | 100%  |
| All    | 13.87% | 12.41% | 11.68%   | 62.04%                   | 100%  |

With this question, majority of both sexes' comfort in social situations depend on the situation concern. Comparing this with those who feel comfortable in social situations, about 26.09% of male feel comfortable in social situations while more than 60% female comfort in social situations depended on the situation in question. The parity for both sexes is 0.44 which is 44 female to 100 male who are comfortable in social situations.

Chi-square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is not related to gender.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is related to gender

Table 4.2.2.55 Observed and expected frequencies of students' comfort against gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 27                         | 29.9560                    | 0.2917                               |
| No       | 87                         | 84.0430                    | 0.1040                               |
| Male     |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 9                          | 6.0438                     | 1.4460                               |
| No       | 14                         | 16.9560                    | 0.5123                               |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 2.3570                               |

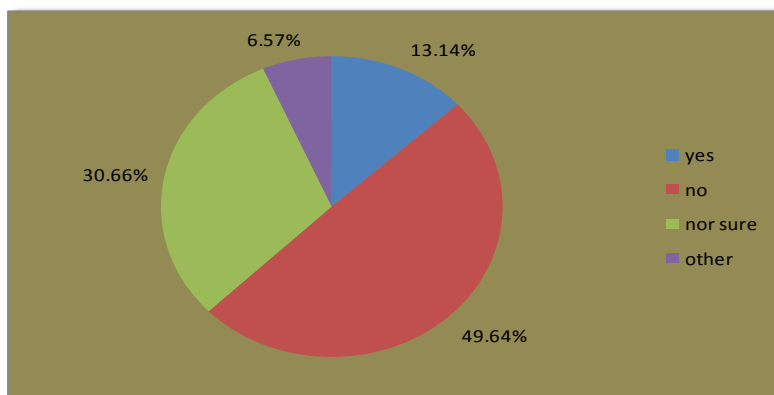
Chi-Square = 2.3570, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

#### Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 2.3570 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort in social situation is not related to gender in China. Students' comfort or level of confidence in social situations has no relations with gender in China

#### 4.2.3.6 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Figure 4.2.11 Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills



From Figure 4.2.11, 49.64% of respondents were not satisfied with their interpersonal skills, 30.66 % were not sure of their feelings and 13.14 % are satisfied with their social situations.

Table 4.2.2.56 Students who enjoyed speaking with others and interpersonal skills

| Do you enjoy speaking with others | Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills |        |          |       |        |
|-----------------------------------|--|--------|----------|-------|--------|
|                                   | Yes  | no     | not sure | other | total  |
| Yes                               | 11.68%   | 32.12% | 23.36%   | 3.65% | 70.80% |
| No                                | 0.73%  | 2.92%  | 2.19%    | 0.73% | 6.57%  |
| not sure                          | 0.73   | 14.60% | 5.11%    | 2.19% | 22.63% |
| Total                             | 13.14%   | 49.64% | 30.66%   | 6.57% | 100%   |

Respondents' satisfaction with their inter-personal skills compared their enjoyment in conversation, 11.68% were satisfied with their interpersonal skills and at the same time enjoy speaking with others while 32.12% enjoy speaking but not satisfied with their interpersonal skills. 5.11% were neither sure of their enjoyment nor satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Conclusively, one can see that respondents who enjoyed speaking with others will not necessarily be satisfied with their inter-personal skills in China.

Table 4.2.2.57 Students who are satisfied with their interpersonal skills by gender

|        | Yes    | no     | not sure | Other | total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|-------|-------|
| female | 14.04% | 48.25% | 31.58%   | 6.14% | 100%  |
| male   | 8.70%  | 56.52% | 26.09%   | 8.70% | 100%  |
| All    | 13.14% | 49.64% | 30.66%   | 6.57% | 100%  |

Less than 20% of both male and female students are satisfied with their interpersonal skills and the parity between the two groups is 1.61, which means though majority of both sexes

are dissatisfied with their interpersonal skills, female students are more satisfied with their interpersonal skills than male.

#### 4.2.3.7 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

##### Open ended responses

Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills provided an open ended response option for students. Students are asked to give other answers if the alternative answers provided do not meet their criteria. The provided responses were then classified into 3 categories. These categories are:

**Knowledge seeking:** In this answer category, respondents did not answer yes or no but rather they claim to learn more on their interpersonal skills

**Privacy:** respondents in this category seek to have their privacy instead of being satisfied

**Level of self-confidence:** respondents in this category did have some issue with their level of confidence when it comes to satisfaction with their interpersonal skills.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.58 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.58 Open ended answers on respondents' satisfaction with interpersonal skills

| Categories               | Verbatim Response  |
|--------------------------|--|
| Privacy                  | I seldom touch others.                                   |
| Level of self confidence | I can only communicate with whom I have the same hobbies |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**Ho:** Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender

**Ha:** students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.59 Observed and expected frequencies of students' interpersonal skills and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 71                         | 71.5620                    | 0.0044                      |
| No       | 43                         | 42.4380                    | 0.0074                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 15                         | 14.4380                    | 0.0219                      |
| No       | 8                          | 8.5620                     | 0.0369                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 0.0706                      |

Chi-Square = 0.0706, DF = 1, P-Value < 0.05

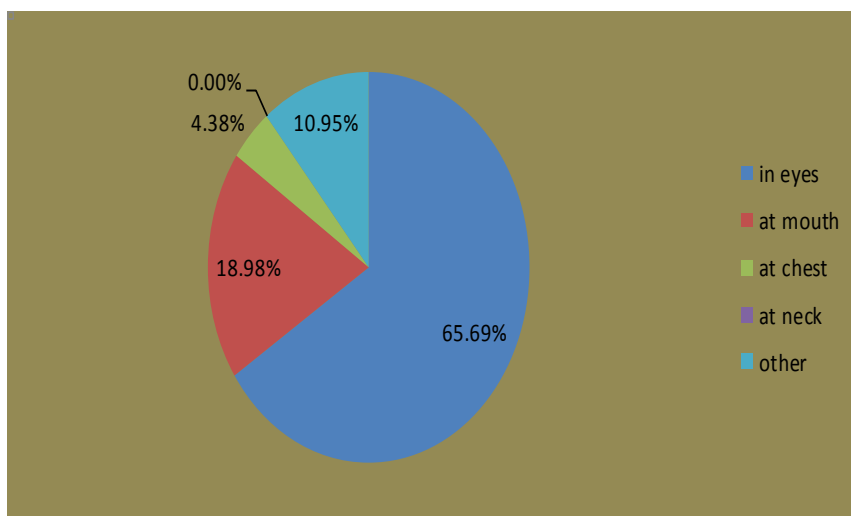
Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.0706 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender in china. How students feel about their interpersonal skills in china is not associated with gender.

#### 4.2.4 Questionnaire 2: Regarding the use of nonverbal communication which may have an impact on interpersonal communication in intercultural situations

4.2.4.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.12 Where respondents look when conversing with a teacher



From Figure 4.2.12, 65.69% of respondents looked into the teacher’s eyes when in conversation with them and 4.38% looked at their teacher’s chest when in conversation with them. The least percentage (0%) was respondents who look at their teachers’ neck when talking with them.

Table 4.2.2.60 Where students look according to gender

| Gender | Where do you look when conversing with a teacher |          |          |         |        | Total  |
|--------|--|----------|----------|---------|--------|--------|
|        | In eyes  | At mouth | At chest | At neck | Other  |        |
| Female | 57.66%   | 14.60%   | 3.65%    | 0%      | 8.76%  | 84.67% |
| Male   | 8.03%  | 4.38%    | 0.73%    | 0%      | 2.19%  | 15.33% |
| Total  | 65.69%   | 18.98%   | 4.38%    | 0%      | 10.95% | 100%   |

Table 4.2.2.60, showed most female respondents (57.66%) looked into the eyes of the teacher when in conversation with him or her and this was the same with only 8.03% of male respondents. The least percentage for both female and male was 0%, which were respondents who looked at the neck of the teacher when in conversation with him or her.

This could be that respondents understand the conversation more if they look into the teacher's eyes. It may also be due to cultural values.

#### 4.2.4.6 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

##### Open ended responses

When students were asked about where they look when conversing with the teacher, some provided answers which were not included in the closed ended answers provided. These open ended answers were grouped into 3 categories and they are as follows:

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents looked at during conversation depended upon how he or she felt about the second party

Looked at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents looked at other things or may not look at anything at all

Respect for one's superiors: respondents' respect for one's superiors and traditions made them not to look at the things or parts mentioned in the closed answers provided during conversation with the teacher.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.61 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.61 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a teacher

| Categories                           | Verbatim Response |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------|
| Looked at other things<br>or nothing | On the ground     |
|                                      | Face              |
|                                      | Ear               |



#### 4.2.4.2 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.62 Where respondents look when conversing with a friend

|          | Count | Percentage |
|----------|-------|------------|
| In eyes  | 102   | 74.45%     |
| At mouth | 15    | 10.95%     |
| At chest | 7     | 5.11%      |
| At neck  | 2     | 1.46%      |
| Other    | 11    | 8.03%      |

From table 4.2.2.62, majority of respondents (74.45%) looked into the eyes of their friend when conversing with them. 1.46% of them looked at their friends' neck and 10.95% looked at their friends' mouth when talking with them. Comparing questions 2 and 1, it was detected that most respondents prefer to look into the eyes of whoever they speak with than any other part of the body.

Figure 4.2.13 Where respondents look when speaking with a friend by gender

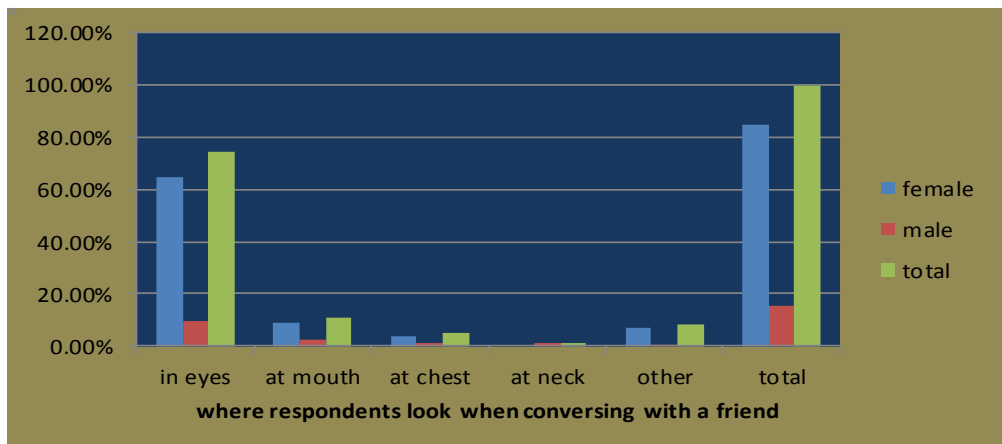


Figure 4.2.13 depicted majority female (64.96%) respondents prefer to look into the eyes of their friends when in conversation with them than at the mouth (8.75%), chest (3.65%),

neck (0%) and other places (7.30%). Likewise male respondents also looked into the eyes (9.49%) of their friends than other places. Reason for this action could be respondents need to understand what the second party is saying.

#### 4.2.4.19 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

##### Open ended answers

Provisions for open ended answers made it possible for respondents to indicate where exactly they look when in conversation with a friend. These answer categories were grouped into 2.

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents looked at during conversation depended upon how he or she felt about the friend

Looked at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents looked at other things or may not look at anything at all

Summaries of the 2 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.63 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.63 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a friend

| Categories                        | Verbatim Response                             |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Looked at other things or nothing | Because I feel embarrassed if I see my friend |

#### 4.2.4.20 Question 2b: if you answered differently in (1) and (2) please explain why

##### Open ended explanations

Respondents were asked to give explanation for answering differently in questions 1 and 2 if there is any. In so doing, various categorical answers were given and for easy analysis, the responses were categorized into 5 categories. They are:

Knowledge seeking: respondents want to learn from the teacher that is why they look at a particular when in conversation with him or her

Dependency level: where they look depended on who is in conversation with them

Respect or fear of the teacher: where they look is based on the respect or the fear of the teacher

Comfortable with friends: where a respondent look is influenced by the fact that he or she is more comfortable with friends

Friendship level: where a particular respondent look is influenced by the level of friendship between the respondent and the second party.

Not sure: The respondent does not know why he or she answered questions 1 and 2 differently

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.64 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.64 Open ended explanations of why they answered questions 1 and 2 differently

| Categories                 | Verbatim Response  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Dependency level           | It depends on who I'm speaking with. The teachers are more serious than my friends   |
| Knowledge seeking          | <p>Because in class I want to know more about information from the teacher</p> <p>I want the teacher to pay attention to me</p> <p>When I listen to a teacher I need to think about what she or he is talking about while when I listen to a friend, I need to know his emotion</p> <p>Because I do not understand all the words when conversing with a teacher</p> <p>Face, because I like looking at teacher's action and expression</p> <p>More communication with friends and more listening to teacher</p> <p>I learn more quickly and imitate him</p> <p>Because I want to know how the teacher pronounces words</p> <p>I want to know clearly what teacher said</p> <p>I'm learning English so I must look at the teachers mouth</p> <p>Because I want to know how the teacher pronounces English words</p> |
| Respect or fear of teacher | <p>I'm afraid of teachers. I think talking with friends is more free and relaxed</p> <p>Because I am nervous</p> <p>The reason is that when I speak to a teacher, looking at his eyes shows politeness but it is unnecessary to my friend</p> <p>I will feel so nervous when I talk to a teacher</p> <p>Because I feel very nervous when having a conversation with a teacher</p> <p>Because when I have a conversation with a teacher I feel</p>  |

|                          |  |
|--------------------------|--|
|                          | <p>nervous</p> <p>I think the teacher's eyes express a kind attitude but I look at my friends' mouth to follow his speed</p> <p>Teacher should be respected. Friends can find easy relationship</p> <p>Because I'm scared of teachers but a friend is so kind</p> <p>If I look at teacher's eyes I will become nervous</p> <p>I look at teacher's mouth when conversing with a teacher</p> <p>Sometimes I am afraid of looking at teacher's eyes</p> <p>When I talk with a teacher, I'll look at other places like ceiling. I know it is disrespect but I'll still do it</p> <p>Because when I look at teacher's eyes for a long time, I become afraid but talking with friend I am not</p> <p>Because I think a teacher is more serious than a friend and looking into his or her eyes I feel uncomfortable</p> |
| Comfortable with friends | <p>Because I'm close to my friends</p> <p>When I talk to friends I am more comfortable</p> <p>I and my friend are very close and we have common topics</p> <p>Because I am familiar with my friend</p> <p>Because when I speak with my friend I feel happy but when I speak with my teacher I feel nervous</p> <p>Because talking with a friend is relaxing so I do not need to be polite</p> <p>Because I have good relationship with my friends I must be closed with them</p> <p>Because when a friend communicates with me, I'll feel more comfortable and I can still into his or her eyes.</p>   |

4.2.4.21 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.65 How close respondents stand when speaking with a friend

|              | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| about 30 cm  | 75        | 54.74%     |
| about 60 cm  | 42        | 30.66%     |
| about 90 cm  | 11        | 8.03%      |
| about 120 cm | 1         | 0.73%      |
| Other        | 8         | 5.84%      |

The highest score was respondents who stand about 30 cm (54.74%) distance when speaking with a friend and the least was respondents who stand about 120cm (0.73%) distance. This could be that respondents hear their counterparts properly when they are close. It could also mean respondents feel more comfortable with their friends than their teachers.

Table 4.2.2.66 how close respondents stand when conversing with a friend by gender

| Gender | how close respondents stand when conversing with a friend in percentages |             |             |              |       |        |
|--------|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------|--------|
|        | about 30 cm  | about 60 cm | about 90 cm | about 120 cm | other | total  |
| female | 49.64%   | 24.09%      | 6.57%       | 0%           | 4.38% | 84.67% |
| male   | 5.11%  | 6.57%       | 1.46%       | 0.73%        | 1.46% | 15.33% |
| Total  | 54.75%   | 30.66%      | 8.03%       | 0.73%        | 5.84% | 100%   |

Segregation by gender showed that most female (49.64%) respondents prefer to stand about 30cm when in conversation with a teacher while 6.57% of male prefer to stand at 60 cm distance. 0% of female and 0.73% of male stand at about 120 cm when speaking with their friends. But all in all, female respondents prefer to stand about 30cm while male prefer to stand at 60 cm distance when conversing with their friends.

#### 4.2.4.21 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

### Open ended responses

Open ended answers for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a friend are classified into 3 categories. These are:

Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a friend

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depended on the second party or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents were not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a friend.

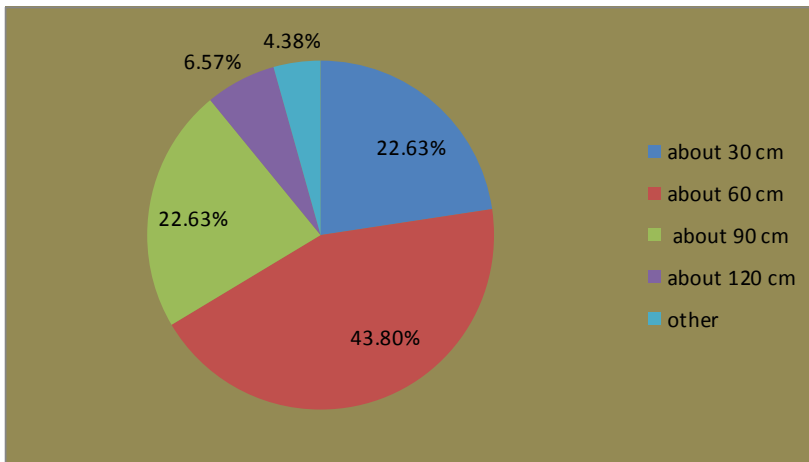
Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.4.3.3 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.67 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when conversing with a friend

| Categories       | Verbatim Response  |
|------------------|--|
| Dependency level | It depends on the situation<br>It depends on who<br>It depends on things |
| Any distance     | About w-20 or more than closer   |

### 4.2.4.22 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.14 how close respondents stand when speaking with a teacher



Unlike the previous question, respondents prefer to stand about 60cm (43.80%) when speaking with a teacher. Other responses were: about 30cm- 22.63%, about 90cm- 22.63, about 120cm – 6.57% and other distances – 4.38%. Reasons for this trend of responses could be: respondents feel more comfortable talking to their friends than a teacher or respondents might want to show respect to the teacher since China is known for its respect for the elderly

#### 4.2.4.23 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

##### Open ended responses

Answers in open ended form for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a teacher are classified into 3 categories. These are:

Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a teacher

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depended on the teacher or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents were not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a teacher



Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.4.4.1 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.68 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when conversing with a teacher

| Categories       | Verbatim Response                               |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | It depends on things<br>It depends on situation |
| Any distance     | About 40cm to 45cm                              |

4.2.4.24 Question 4b: if you answered differently in (3) and (4) please explain why?

Open ended explanations given by the respondents on why they gave different answers in questions 3 and 4 were grouped into 5 categories. These categories are:

Respect or fear of teacher: how close the respondent is to the teacher during conversation was due to the respect or fear of the teacher

Comfort level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is influenced by how comfortable they are.

Level of friendship: The level of friendship between respondents and people also determine the distance that they stand when talking to the second party.

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is depended upon the person or other things

Not sure: these categories of respondents were not of the distance between their friends or the teacher.

Knowledge seeking: distance between the respondent and the teacher is influenced by the desire to learn more from the teacher.

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.69 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.69 Open ended explanations for the differences in choice of answer for questions 3 and 4

| Categories                 | Verbatim Response  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Respect or fear of teacher | <p>Keep distance to show my respect to them. I'm shy when I speak with a teacher. I feel like the teacher and student must have some distance. Because when I talk with my friend I feel free. I was nervous communicating with my teacher as I am afraid of making mistakes. Teachers are friendly but still make me feel nervous. Because I will feel nervous and afraid if I stand too close with a teacher. I think it is showing respect to teacher after all teachers are not as close as friends. When speaking with a teacher I feel a little pressured. Because friends are closer than teachers. In addition I am afraid of making mistakes when I speak with my teacher. We should keep distance to show our respect to teachers. Because I'm not familiar with the teacher. I think friends are closer than teachers and keeping suitable distance when you talk to teachers is a kind of respect. Because when I am speaking with a teacher I feel a little bit reverent. I think sometimes friends are closer to me. The teacher may be a little far. I would feel nervous if I stand too close to a teacher. Because the teacher make me nervous. If stand too close to my teacher it will make me feel nervous. For us Chinese we need to show our respect to people who are older than us. And I think I need to keep some distance when I'm speaking with my teacher to display my respect. I'm shy to stand close to a teacher. Because I'm unfamiliar with the teacher and I'm afraid of them. Because the teacher is very serious and we must be respectful. I'm nervous when speaking with my teacher. Because friends are close with me and speaking with teacher always deserve the air of respect for them</p> <p>I feel not in close touch with teachers and I think teachers do not like to be close to us. Teacher make me serious</p> |

|                     |  |
|---------------------|--|
|                     | whenever he or she is so nice. Standing further when speaking with a teacher is politeness.  |
| Level of friendship | I can take her hands when I talk with her. Because a friend is closer than a teacher. Because friend is a friend and a teacher is a teacher, there are two different relationships between friends and teachers. Friends are closer. I stand about 30cm with my friend because I get along with them for a longtime. We can chat casually. I often walk closely with my friends. Because my friends are closer than teacher Because I am often close with friends but for teacher it is not. The relationship is closer between friends and me so I'm not nervous. I think teacher is serious but friend is more intimate. We are close to our friends but there is distance between teachers and us. I know some characteristics of my friends and we live together but I know little about teachers. I'm friendly with my teacher. |
| Level of comfort    | It makes me feel comfortable. I feel uncomfortable. Because we usually meet with our friends frequently we feel more comfortable. When speaking with a friend, I feel more comfortable. I think I feel more comfortable when I talk to my friends. Because when I talk to my friends I feel more comfortable and free than talk to a teacher.  |

4.2.4.25 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Table 4.2.2.70 How respondents show that they are listening when in conversation with someone

| Responses                                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| using body language such as nodding head | 60        | 43.80%     |
| making sounds such as umm! Ahhh!...      | 23        | 16.79%     |
| using reaction words                     | 49        | 35.77%     |
| Other                                    | 5         | 3.65%      |

From table 4.2.2.70, most respondents (43.80%) used some form of gesture such as nodding head when conversing with someone and about 35.77% respondents used words such as 'I see', 'oh, yeah', 'really' when speaking with others. Less than 4% show that they are listening through other means.

4.2.4.26 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Open ended responses

Some respondents gave open ended answers on how they show that they are paying attention when someone is talking to them. 3 categories were identified with the responses.

These are:

Keep silent or make remarks: respondents in this category either keep silent when being talked to or make some remark during the conversation

Look at them or smile: to show that they are paying attention, respondents either smile or just look at the other person talking to them

Dependency level: how they show that they are paying attention is dependent on the second person or other things.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.71 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.71 Open ended responses on how respondents show that they are paying attention during conversation

| Categories                  | Verbatim Response   |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Look at them or smile       | Look at his or her face directly<br>Smile                                       |
| Make remarks or keep silent | Look at his eyes or respond<br>Saying few words and thinking about what he says |

4.2.4.27 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language.

Table 4.2.2.72 How much of respondents' conversation consists of body language and gestures

| Responses         | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| about 70% or more | 3         | 2.19%      |
| 60% - 70%         | 7         | 5.11%      |
| 50% - 60%         | 21        | 15.33%     |
| 40% - 50%         | 24        | 17.52%     |
| 30% - 40%         | 26        | 18.98%     |
| 20% -30%          | 25        | 18.25%     |
| 10% - 20%         | 18        | 13.14%     |
| 0% - 10%          | 12        | 8.76%      |
| 0%                | 0         | 0%         |
| other:            | 1         | 0.73%      |

On using gestures or body language during communication, 18.98% of respondents' conversations consist of 30% - 40% gestures and body language and all respondents use a certain level of gesture or body language when conversing.

4.2.4.28 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during your conversation?

Table 4.2.2.73 Respondents' opinion about touching during conversation

| Responses             | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| yes as it is friendly | 48        | 35.04%     |
| no as it is impolite  | 78        | 56.93%     |
| Other                 | 11        | 8.03%      |

Most respondents (56.93%) believed that it is impolite to touch someone when in conversation with them and about 35.04% of respondents think the opposite. Less than 9% gave other answers to this question.

4.2.4.28 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during your conversation? Open ended responses

Open ended answers opinions given by respondents on whether it is right to touch someone whom you are not conversant with during conversation were classified into 4 groups. These groups are:

Dependency level: in this category, respondents think to touch the second party during conversation depended on the person and how that person is feeling.

Specific parts to touch: respondents in this group believed that you can only touch specific parts of the second party during conversation

Familiarities or necessities: this group of respondents thinks touching during conversation is influenced by familiarities or is a necessity

Comfort level: to touch during conversation is dependent upon how comfortable both parties are during that time.

Summaries of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.74 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.74 Open ended responses on whether it is right to touch during conversation

| Categories               | Verbatim Response   |
|--------------------------|---|
| Dependency level         | It depends on who I'm chatting with. It depends on who it is  |
| Familiarity or necessity | Only when it is necessary. The one I do not know very well so I'm not sure he or she will like a touch. May be to be friendlier and listen carefully. |

### Chi – Square

Ones opinions about touching during conversation are associated with gender of the persons concern.

### Hypothesis

**Ho:** touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved.

**Ha:** touching during conversation is not dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

Table 4.2.2.75 Observed and expected frequencies of students' feelings about touching

| Class                 | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female                |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 42                         | 40.642                     | 0.0454                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 74                         | 75.357                     | 0.0244                      |
| Male                  |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 6                          | 7.357                      | 0.2503                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 15                         | 13.642                     | 0.1352                      |
| $\chi^2$              |                            |                            | 0.4553                      |

Chi-Square = 0.4553, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.785

### Decision/conclusion

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.4553 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved in China. Opinion about touching during conversation is closely associated with gender in China.

### Conclusions:

The following conclusions have been drawn from questionnaire 1 and 2 based on the findings.

Students' enjoyment of conversation is not associated with gender in China and majority of students in this region enjoy speaking to others.

Most students feel comfortable speaking to others and it does have any association with gender of students.

Some students feel comfortable in social situations and it is not influenced by gender.

Greater part of students in this region is not satisfied with their interpersonal and interpersonal skills satisfaction does not have any association with gender.

Opinions about touching during conversation do not depend on gender.

JAPAN

#### 4.2.5 Questionnaire 1: Regarding how students feel about communicating with others and their interpersonal skills

Table 4.2.2.76 Segregation of respondents by gender

| Sex    | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------|------------|
| female | 107       | 54.31%     |
| male   | 90        | 45.69%     |
| total  | 197       | 100.00%    |

Source: Field data March 2013

Total respondents interviewed was 197 of which 90 (45.69%) were male.

##### 4.2.5.1 Question 1: Do you enjoy speaking with other people?

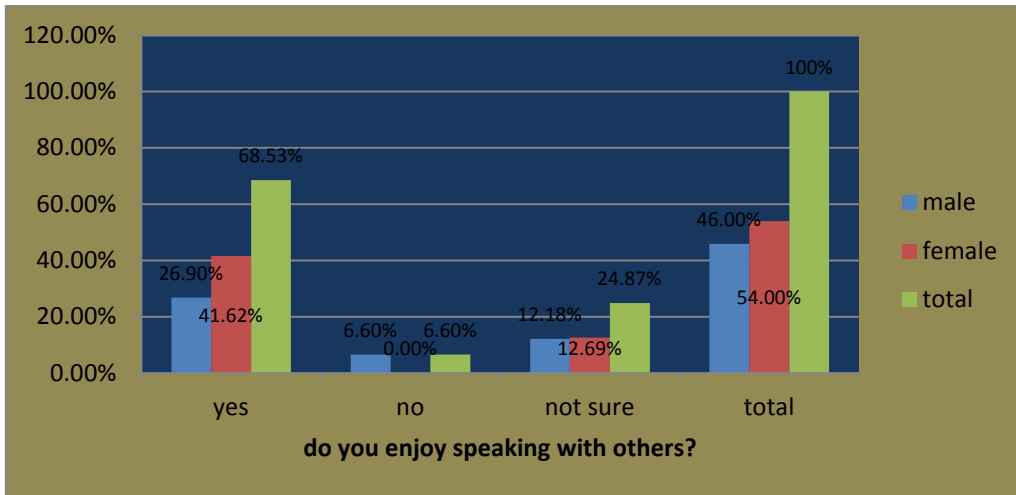
Table 4.2.2.77 Respondents who enjoyed speaking with others

| Responses | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes       | 135       | 68.53%         |
| No        | 13        | 6.60%          |
| not sure  | 49        | 24.87%         |
| Total     | 197       | 100.00%        |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.15 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender





Source: Field data March 2013

From table 4.2.2.77, 68.53% of respondents enjoy speaking with others, 6.60% do not and 24.87% were not sure of their feelings. On Figure 4.2.5.1.2, 41.62% female and 26.90% male respondents enjoyed speaking with others and this was higher than those who did not enjoy speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.78 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender desegregation

|        | yes | No  | not sure | total |
|--------|-----|-----|----------|-------|
| female | 59% | 14% | 27%      | 100%  |
| male   | 77% | 0%  | 23%      | 100%  |
| All    | 69% | 7%  | 25%      | 100%  |

More male enjoy speaking to others than female and this is reflected in the difference in percentages between the two groups, which is 18%. This may be the result of cultural practices and beliefs in Japan. The parity of both sexes is 0.77 or 77 female to 100 male who enjoy speaking with others.

#### 4.2.5.2 Question1b: Respondents' explanations for not enjoying conversation with others

Respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others were asked to provide explanations for non-enjoyment of conversation with others. In so doing different qualitative answers were provided. For easy analysis of these data, the explanations were grouped into 4 categories and these are:

Dependency level: that is the respondent’s enjoyment of conversation with others depended on anyone.

Comfort level: that is, the respondent’s enjoyment of conversation is related with his or her comfort

Language barrier: that is, the respondent finds it difficult to express himself in the English language that is why he or she does not enjoy speaking with others.

Privacy level: that is, the respondents just do not want to talk with others, is an introvert or does not like it when people talk too much.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.79 the categories covered were for all the regions and not all regions have all the 4 categories.

Table 4.2.2.79 Open ended explanations of respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others

| Categories    | Verbatim response   |
|---------------|---|
| Comfort level | because I am shy of strangers<br>because we hurt each other's feelings<br>I'm afraid of talking with unknown person |
| Privacy level | I do not like talking with other people.<br>I think it is very troublesome to talk with other people                |

Chi – Square

Enjoyment of conversation depends on the gender of students in question

Hypothesis

**Ho:** gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation.

**Ha:** gender of students is associated with their enjoyment of conversation

Table 4.2.2.80 Observed and expected frequencies of Students' enjoyment of conversation by gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 53                         | 61.675                     | 1.2202                      |
| No       | 37                         | 28.324                     | 2.6514                      |
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 82                         | 73.324                     | 1.0266                      |
| No       | 25                         | 33.675                     | 2.2348                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 7.1330                      |

Chi-Square = 7.1330, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

#### Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 7.1330 is higher than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation in Japan. Students' enjoyment of conversation is very much associated with gender in Japan.

#### 4.2.5.2 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

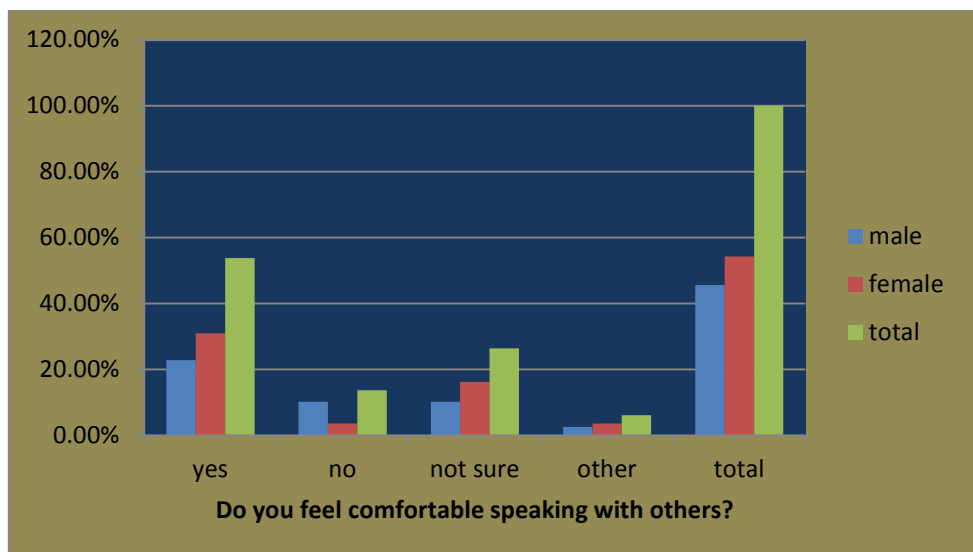
Table 4.2.2.81 Respondents who feel comfortable speaking with others

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 106       | 54%            |
| No                | 27        | 14%            |
| not sure          | 52        | 26%            |

|       |    |    |
|-------|----|----|
| Other | 12 | 6% |
|-------|----|----|

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.16 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

About 54% of respondents felt comfortable speaking with others and 14% gave negative answers and 26% were not sure. Segregation by gender showed 30.96% of female interviewed and 22.84% of male respondents feel comfortable when speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.82 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes | No   | not sure | other | total |
|--------|-----|------|----------|-------|-------|
| male   | 50% | 22%  | 22%      | 6%    | 100%  |
| female | 57% | 6.5% | 30%      | 6.5%  | 100%  |
| All    | 54% | 14%  | 26%      | 6%    | 100%  |

Gender comparison revealed more female students feel comfortable during conversation than male but more than 20% respondents of both sexes were not sure of their feelings when chatting with others. The parity of male and female students who feel comfortable

during conversation is 0.88 or 88 female to 100 male who are comfortable during conversation.

#### 4.2.5.3 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

Open ended responses

With this question, respondents were given the option to provide their own answers if the options given did not meet their needs. Different categorical answers were provided for the open ended option and these answers were then classified into 4 categories. They are:

Comfort level: what makes the respondent comfortable when speaking with others?

Dependency level: that is the respondent's comfort in conversing with others depended on anyone.

Not always: The respondent feel comfortable sometimes but not always

Language barrier: the respondent is not comfortable because he or she cannot communicate well in the English language as expected.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.83 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.83 Open ended answers on respondents comfort during conversation

| Categories       | Verbatim response   |
|------------------|---|
| Comfort level    | I'm shy of strangers<br>a little nervous when meeting someone for the first time                  |
| Dependency level | depends on person<br>depends on time and place<br>there are people I can with and people I cannot |
| Not always       | Sometimes I can and other times I cannot  |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is not related to gender

**Ha:** Students comfort during conversation is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.84 Observed and expected frequencies of students comfort and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 45                         | 48.426                     | 0.2424                               |
| No       | 20                         | 12.335                     | 4.7631                               |
| Not sure | 20                         | 23.756                     | 0.5939                               |
| Others   | 5                          | 5.482                      | 0.0424                               |
|          |                            |                            |                                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 61                         | 57.573                     | 0.2040                               |
| No       | 7                          | 14.527                     | 3.9000                               |
| Not sure | 32                         | 27.979                     | 0.5779                               |

|          |   |       |         |
|----------|---|-------|---------|
| Others   | 7 | 6.456 | 0.0458  |
| $\chi^2$ |   |       | 10.3695 |

Chi-Square = 10.3695, DF = 3, P-Value = 0.038

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 10.3695 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 7.82 with 3 degrees of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort during conversation is not related to gender. Opinion about being comfortable during conversation does have a dependency on gender in Japan.

4.2.5.3 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Table 4.2.2.85 How respondents feel after speaking with someone

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 144       | 73.10%         |
| No                | 35        | 17.77%         |
| Not sure          | 17        | 8.63%          |
| Others            | 1         | 0.51%          |

Table 4.2.2.86 Respondents' feelings after speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes   | No    | not sure | other | total |
|--------|-------|-------|----------|-------|-------|
| male   | 74.4% | 24.4% | 1.1%     | 0%    | 100%  |
| female | 72%   | 12.1% | 15%      | 0.9%  | 100%  |
| All    | 73%   | 17%   | 9%       | 1%    | 100%  |

Majority of respondents (73.10%) did feel disappointed after speaking with others and less than 20% were never disappointed after speaking with others. Comparing gender and feeling disappointed after speaking with others, 74.4% male and 72% female respondents felt disappointed after speaking with others. This trend of majority respondents feeling disappointed after speaking with others could be due to respondents' low self-esteem and how to appreciate and respect another person's opinion.

4.2.5.4 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Open ended responses

This question on respondents' sentiments after conversing with others has an open ended option in which respondents are expected to give other answers if the alternative answers given did not suit them. For clearer analysis, these answers were grouped into 3 categories.

These categories are:

Dependency level: that is, respondent's disappointment depended on the second party's behavior or topic of conversation

Comfort level: the disappointment of the respondent is closely related to how comfortable the respondent is when conversing with the other party

Not always: that is, the respondent feel disappointed sometimes but not always

The summary of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.87 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.87 Open ended answers on respondent's sentiments after conversing with others

| Categories | Verbatim response |
|------------|-------------------|
| Not always | Sometimes         |



#### 4.2.5.5 Question 4: Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time?

Table 4.2.2.88 Respondents' nervousness after speaking with someone the first time

| Responses                           | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                                 | 119       | 60.41%     |
| No                                  | 24        | 12.18%     |
| Not sure                            | 4         | 2.03%      |
| It depends on who I'm speaking with | 50        | 25.38%     |

Table 4.2.2.89 Respondents' nervousness when speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes   | No    | not sure | It depends on who I'm speaking with | total |
|--------|-------|-------|----------|-------------------------------------|-------|
| male   | 67%   | 17%   | 3%       | 13%                                 | 100%  |
| female | 55%   | 8%    | 1%       | 36%                                 | 100%  |
| All    | 60.4% | 12.2% | 2%       | 25.4%                               | 100%  |

From table 4.2.2.89, more than 60% of respondents feel nervous speaking to someone the first time and less than 13% never felt nervous. About 25% of respondents' feeling depend on who there are speaking to. Comparing gender responses, more than 60% male felt nervous during first conversation while female percentage was below 60%. This could mean female students in Japan feel more confident during conversation than male students.

#### 4.2.5.6 Question 5: Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

Table 4.2.2.90 Students' comfort in social situations

| Responses                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                      | 59        | 29.95%     |
| No                       | 56        | 28.43%     |
| Not sure                 | 18        | 9.14%      |
| Depends on the situation | 64        | 32.49%     |

Table 4.2.2.91 Respondents comfort in social situations by gender

|        | Yes    | No     | not sure | Depends on the situation | Total   |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|--------------------------|---------|
| male   | 38.00% | 34.40% | 6.60%    | 21.00%                   | 100.00% |
| female | 23.40% | 23.40% | 11.20%   | 42.00%                   | 100.00% |
| All    | 30.00% | 28.42% | 9.10%    | 32.48%                   | 100.00% |

With this question, majority (32.49%) of students comfort in social situations depends on the situation in question. Segregation by gender revealed about 38% male 23% female feel comfortable in social situations and 42% female comfort depends on situation in question. The parity for both sexes is 0.62 which is 62 female to 100 male who are comfortable in social situations.

Chi-square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is not related to gender.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is related to gender

Table 4.2.2.92 Observed and expected frequencies of students' comfort against gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 25                                      | 32.04                                   | 1.5469                               |
| No       | 25                                      | 30.42                                   | 0.9657                               |
| Not sure | 12                                      | 9.78                                    | 0.5039                               |
| Depends  | 45                                      | 34.76                                   | 3.0166                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 34                                      | 26.95                                   | 1.8442                               |
| No       | 31                                      | 25.58                                   | 1.1484                               |
| Not sure | 6                                       | 8.22                                    | 0.5996                               |
| Depends  | 19                                      | 29.24                                   | 3.5861                               |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 13.2114                              |

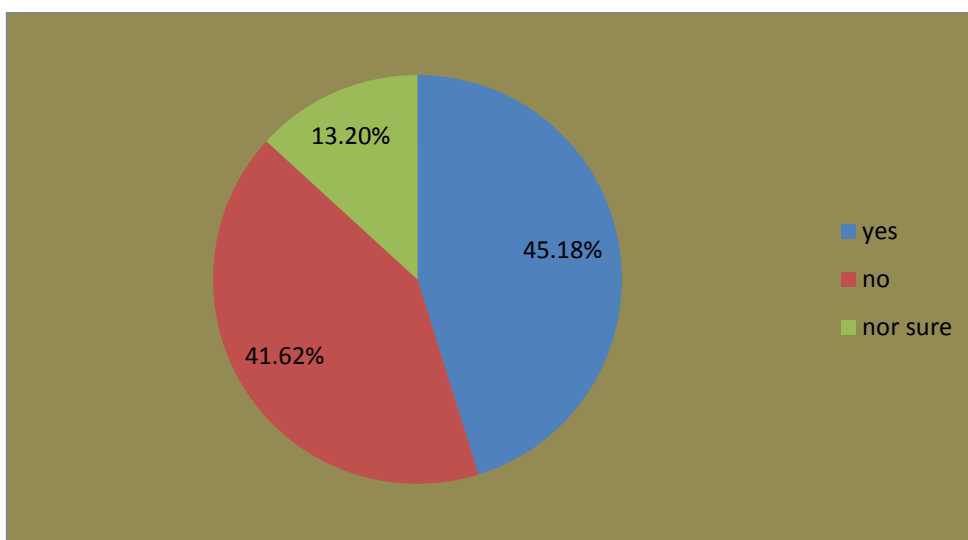
Chi-Square = 13.2114, DF = 3, P-Value <0.05

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 13.2114 is greater than the tabulated chi-square of 7.82 with 3 degrees of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>) that students' comfort in social situation is not related to gender in Japan. Students' comfort or level of confidence in social situations has a relation with gender in Japan

4.2.5.7 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Figure 4.2.17 Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills



From Figure 4.2.17, 45.18% of respondents were satisfied with their interpersonal skills while 41.62 % were not. Less than 14% are not of their feelings.

Table 4.2.2.93 Students who are satisfied with their interpersonal skills by gender

|        | yes    | No     | not sure | Total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|-------|
| Male   | 41.11% | 48.89% | 10%      | 100%  |
| Female | 48.60% | 35.51% | 15.89%   | 100%  |
| All    | 45.18% | 41.62% | 13.20%   | 100%  |

According to gender comparison 41.11% of male respondents and 48.60% of female are satisfied with their interpersonal skills. This could mean female students in Japan have good self-esteem than their male counterparts. The parity between the two groups is 1.18 and this means female students are more satisfied with their interpersonal skills than male.

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.94 Observed and expected frequencies of students' interpersonal skills and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Male     |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 37                         | 40.66                      | 0.3295                               |
| No       | 44                         | 37.46                      | 1.1418                               |
| Not sure | 9                          | 11.88                      | 0.6982                               |
| female   |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes      | 52                         | 48.34                      | 0.2771                               |
| No       | 38                         | 44.54                      | 0.9603                               |
| Not sure | 17                         | 14.12                      | 0.5874                               |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 3.9943                               |

Chi-Square = 3.9943, DF = 2, P-Value < 0.05

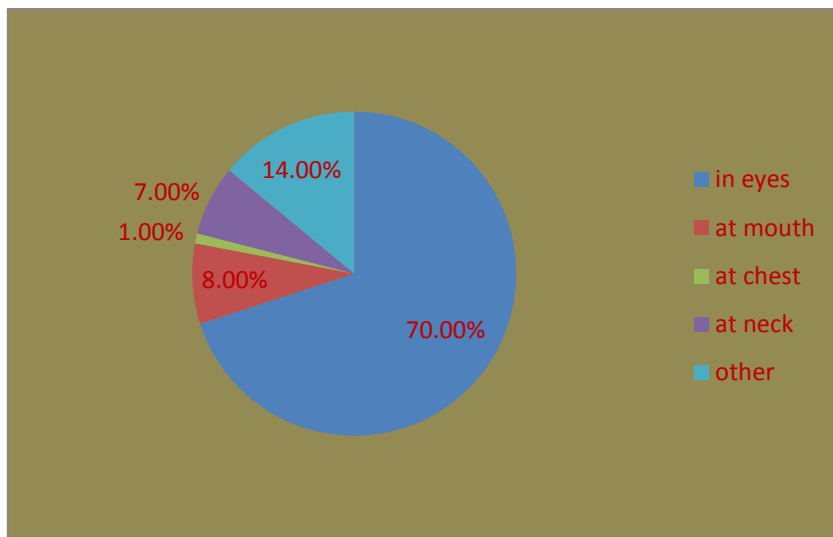
Decision:

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 3.9943 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 5.99 with 2 degrees of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender in Japan. How students feel about their interpersonal skills in Japan is not associated with gender.

**4.2.6 Questionnaire 2: Regarding the use of nonverbal communication, which may have an impact on interpersonal communication in intercultural situations**

#### 4.2.6.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.18 Where do respondents look when conversing with a teacher?



From Figure 4.2.18, 70% of respondents look into the teacher’s eyes when in conversation with him or she and 14% look at other places when speaking with their teacher. The least percentage (1%) was of respondents who look at their teachers’ chest when talking with him or her.

Table 4.2.2.95 Where do students look when conversing with a teacher, by gender?

| Gender | Where do you look when conversing with a teacher? |          |          |         |       | Total |
|--------|---|----------|----------|---------|-------|-------|
|        | In eyes   | At mouth | At chest | At neck | Other |       |
| Female | 38%   | 5%       | 0%       | 4%      | 6%    | 53%   |
| Male   | 32%   | 3%       | 1%       | 3%      | 8%    | 47%   |
| Total  | 70%   | 8%       | 1%       | 7%      | 14%   | 100%  |

Table 4.2.1 showed most female respondents (38%) looked into the eyes of the teacher when in conversation with him or her and this was the same for male respondents (32%). The least score for both sexes were respondents who looked at their teachers’ chest when conversing with him or her. This could be that respondents understand the conversation

more if they look into the teacher’s eyes. It may also be due to the cultural values of this region.

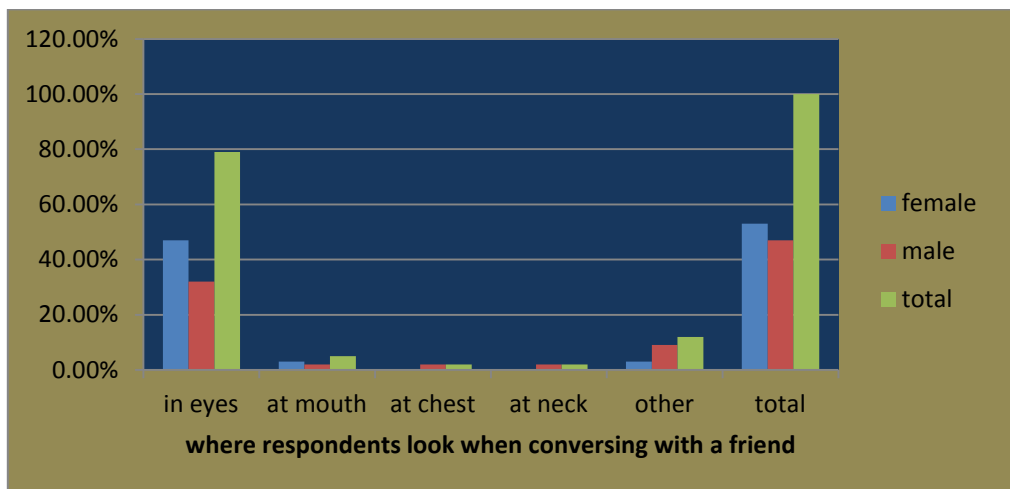
4.2.6.2 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.96 Where respondents look when conversing with a friend

|          | Count | Percentage |
|----------|-------|------------|
| In eyes  | 79    | 79.00%     |
| At mouth | 5     | 5.00%      |
| At chest | 2     | 2.00%      |
| At neck  | 2     | 2.00%      |
| Other    | 12    | 12.00%     |

From table 4.2.2.96, majority of respondents (79%) looked into their friends’ eyes when conversing with them. 2% of them looked at their friends’ neck and chest respectively. Comparing questions 2 and 1, it was detected that most respondents prefer to look into the eyes of whoever they are speaking with than any other part of the body.

Figure 4.2.19 where do respondents look when speaking with a friend, by gender?



According to Figure 4.2.6.2.1 majority female (47%) respondents prefer to look into the eyes of their friends when in conversation with them than at the mouth, chest, neck and other places. Likewise male respondents also look into the eyes 32%) of their friends than other places. Reason for this action could be respondents need to understand what the second party is saying.

4.2.6.3 Question 2b: If you answered differently in (1) and (2), please explain why

Open ended explanations

Respondents were asked to give explanation for answering differently in questions 1 and 2 if there was any. In so doing, various categorical answers were given and for easy analysis, the responses were categorized into 5 categories. They are:

Knowledge seeking: respondents want to learn from the teacher that is why they look at a particular area when in conversation with him or her

Dependency level: where they look depended on who is in conversation with them

Respect or fear of the teacher: where they look is based on the respect or the fear of the teacher

Comfortable with friends: where a respondent look is influenced by the fact that he or she is more comfortable with friends

Friendship level: where a particular respondent look is influenced by the level of friendship between the respondent and the second party.

Not sure: The respondent does not know why he or she answered questions 1 and 2 differently

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.97 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region



Table 4.2.2.97 Open ended explanations of why they answered questions 1 and 2 differently

| Categories                     | Verbatim response   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Knowledge seeking              | I do not understand English very well so I would pay closer attention to my English teacher's mouth and his or her use of gestures. I look at the teacher's mouth in order to understand clearly what the teacher is saying. I look at my friend's eyes in order to follow their expression. To listen to what the teacher is saying. As I do not need to listen as carefully to what my friend is saying as with my teacher. |
| Respect or fear of the teacher | As the teacher is my superior due to differences in age. As the contents of our conversations would be different. I look at my teacher's eyes as it would be rude to look elsewhere   |
| Not sure                       | For some reason or another. I'm not really sure why I answered differently. It is just natural that I look at these locations.  |
| Comfortable with friends       | I am shy when looking at my friend's face and therefore it is difficult to look at my friend's face directly. It is difficult for me to look directly into a teacher's eyes. As it is my friend. I feel more relaxed with my friends. I feel less relaxed with my teacher. because I am shy<br>As I am shy.   |

#### 4.2.6.3 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.98 How close do respondents stand when speaking with friends?

|              | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| about 30 cm  | 20        | 20.00%     |
| about 60 cm  | 50        | 50.00%     |
| about 90 cm  | 22        | 22.00%     |
| about 120 cm | 5         | 5.00%      |
| Other        | 3         | 3.00%      |

The highest score was of respondents who stand about 60 cm (50%) away when speaking with a friend and the least was of respondents who stand at other distances (3%). This could be that respondents hear their counterparts properly when they are at a reasonable

distance. It could also mean respondents feel more comfortable with their friends than their teachers.

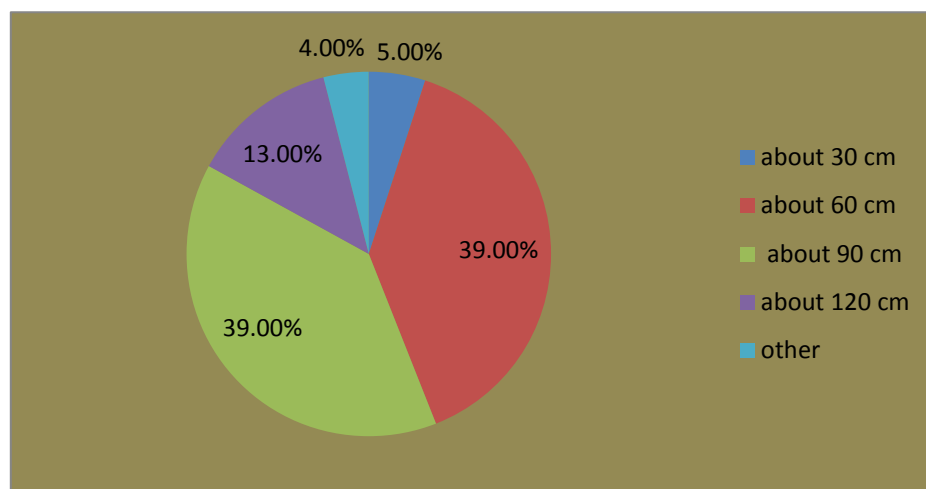
Table 4.2.2.99 How close do respondents stand when conversing with a friend, by gender?

| Gender | how close do respondents stand when conversing with a friend in percentages |             |             |              |       |        |
|--------|---|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------|--------|
|        | about 30 cm   | about 60 cm | about 90 cm | about 120 cm | Other | total  |
| female | 11.00%  | 28.00%      | 10.00%      | 3%           | 1.00% | 53.00% |
| male   | 9.00%   | 22.00%      | 12.00%      | 2.00%        | 2.00% | 47.00% |
| Total  | 20.00%  | 50.00%      | 22.00%      | 5.00%        | 3.00% | 100%   |

Segregation by gender showed that majority of both sexes; female -28% and male-22 prefer to stand about 60cm away when in conversation with a friend. All in all, both sexes prefer to stand about 60cm away from whoever they are conversing with.

#### 4.2.6.5 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.20 How close respondents stand when speaking with a teacher



Unlike the previous question, respondents prefer to stand both at 60cm (39%) and 90cm (39%) when speaking with a teacher. Other responses were: about 30cm- 5%, about 120cm- 13%, and other distances – 4%. Reasons for this trend of responses could be:

respondents feel more comfortable talking to their friends than a teacher or respondents might want to show respect to the teacher since most Japanese are conservative.

4.2.6.6 Question 4b: If you answered differently in (3) and (4) please explain why

Open ended explanations given by the respondents on why they gave different answers in questions 3 and 4 were grouped into 5 categories. These categories are:

Respect or fear of teacher: how close the respondent is to the teacher during conversation was due to respect or fear of the teacher

Comfort level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is influenced by how comfortable they are.

Level of friendship: The level of friendship between the respondent and the other person he or she is conversation with also determine the length of the distance between the two when talking.

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is depended upon the person or other things

Not sure: these categories of respondents were not based on the distance between them and their friends or the teacher.

Knowledge seeking: distance between the respondent and the teacher is influenced by the desire to learn more from the teacher

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.99 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.100 Open-ended explanations for differences in choices for questions 3 and 4

| Categories       | Verbatim response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | In terms of my friend It depends on the atmosphere at the time; and in terms of the teacher, the particular teacher I am speaking with. Ultimately it depends on each person as they may have a different sense of territorial space. |

|               |  |
|---------------|--|
| Not sure      | I'm not really sure how I would stand.   |
| Comfort level | <p>1. for some reason prefer not to stand so close to the teacher</p> <p>2.do not speak so often with the teacher. I feel less comfortable when speaking with a teacher. It is different with a friend. I feel less comfortable when speaking with a teacher. I stand nearer to my friends as our relationship is closer (or friendlier). As it is my friend.</p> <p>Do not have a close relationship with my teachers. On the other hand I usually sit close to my friends and therefore have a close relationship with them. I am closer to my friends (implying an informal relationship). I feel less relaxed standing near a teacher. As I do not have as close a relationship with my teacher as I do with my friends.</p> <p>It depends on the degree of our friendship. I stand closer to people I like and farther away from people I dislike. It is not a question of whether I am speaking with a friend or teacher, but on how friendly that particular person is. I would stand closer to my friends as it is friendlier. It would feel strange to stand at a distance from my friends. It feels more comfortable speaking with my friends.</p> |
|               | <p>The degree of friendship is different. If I was on the same degree of friendship with my teacher as with my friends, then I would stand at the same distance with both my teacher and friends (60cm). I'm not sure what to talk about with my teacher. I feel more nervous speaking with my teacher. It is not a matter of course that I'm on intimate terms with my teacher (meaning that the student is not on intimate terms with a teacher). The degree of intimacy is different as well as the conversation. I am on more intimate terms with my friends. It feels uncomfortable if I stand too close. I cannot speak as comfortably with my teacher.</p>  |

|                            |   |
|----------------------------|---|
| Respect or fear of teacher | As I feel respect (for the teacher). As the teacher is my superior. (2)<br>As our social positions are different (the teacher is my superior). Due to differences in age. As the teacher is my superior. It is different with a friend. It depends on the situation with a teacher as the distance we stand apart may be considered rude. I am on more intimate terms with my friends. It may be considered rude to stand close to my teacher. I am on more intimate terms with my friends. It may be considered rude to stand close to my teacher. Our social status is different. I feel less relaxed speaking with a teacher. Do not approach my teacher up close. |
| Level of friendship        | It is natural for me to stand this way.   |
| Knowledge seeking          | I would stand closer to the teacher in order to hear a teacher's answer to my question. I would stand closer to the teacher in order to better understand what he or she is saying. When speaking with a teacher it helps to stand at a slight distance more than with my friend (does not explain why).  |

4.2.6.5 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Table 4.2.2.101 How respondents show that they are listening when in conversation with someone

| Responses                                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| using body language such as nodding head | 39        | 39.00%     |
| making sounds such as umm..., ahhh...    | 29        | 29.00%     |
| using words reaction words               | 29        | 29.00%     |
| Other                                    | 3         | 3.00%      |

From table 4.2.2.101, most respondents (39%) used some form of gesture such as nodding head when conversing with someone and about 29% respondents used words such as 'I see', 'oh, yeah', 'really' when speaking with others. Less than 4% show that they are listening through other means.

4.2.6.6 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language

Table 4.2.2.102 How much of respondents conversation consists of body language and gestures

| Responses         | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| about 70% or more | 8         | 8.00%      |
| 60% - 70%         | 8         | 8.00%      |
| 50% - 60%         | 21        | 21.00%     |
| 40% - 50%         | 10        | 10.00%     |
| 30% - 40%         | 19        | 19.00%     |
| 20% -30%          | 21        | 21.00%     |
| 10% - 20%         | 12        | 12.00%     |
| 0% - 10%          | 1         | 1.00%      |
| 0%                | 0         | 0%         |
| other:            | 0         | 0.00%      |

On using gestures or body language during communication, 21% of respondents' conversations consist of 20% - 30% gestures and body language and all respondents use a certain level of gesture or body language when conversing.

4.2.6.7 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during a conversation?

Table 4.2.2.103 Respondents' opinion about touching during conversation

| Responses             | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| yes as it is friendly | 33        | 33.00%     |
| no as it is impolite  | 64        | 64.00%     |
| Other                 | 3         | 3.00%      |

Most respondents (64%) believed that it is impolite to touch someone when in conversation with him or her and about 33% of respondents think the opposite. Less than 4% gave other responses to this question.

Chi – Square

One’s opinions about touching during conversation are associated with gender of the persons concern.

Hypothesis

**Ho:** touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved.

**Ha:** touching during conversation is not dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

Table 4.2.2.104 Observed and expected frequencies of students’ feelings about touching

| Class                 | c  | Expected frequencies<br>(eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|-----------------------|----|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female                |    |                               |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 13 | 17.49                         | 1.1527                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 40 | 35.51                         | 0.5677                      |
| Male                  |    |                               |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 20 | 15.51                         | 1.2998                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 27 | 31.49                         | 0.6402                      |
| $\chi^2$              |    |                               | 3.6604                      |

Chi-Square = 3.6604, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.058

Decision/conclusion

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 3.6604 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved in Japan. Opinion about touching during conversation is closely associated with gender in Japan.

### Conclusions:

The following conclusions have been drawn from questionnaire 1 and 2 based on the findings.

Students' enjoyment of conversation is not associated with gender in Japan and majority of students in this region enjoy speaking to others.

Most students feel comfortable speaking with others and it does have any association with gender of students.

Majority of students' comfort in social situations depends on the situation in question and it is not influenced by gender

More female are satisfied with their interpersonal skills in Japan

Opinions about touching during conversation depends on gender

Saudi Arabia

#### 4.2.7 Questionnaire 1: Regarding how students feel about communicating with others and their interpersonal skills

Table 4.2.2.105 Segregation of respondents by gender

| Sex    | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------|------------|
| female | 47        | 47%        |
| male   | 53        | 53%        |
| total  | 100       | 100%       |

Source: Field data March 2013

Total respondents interviewed was 100 of which 47(47%) are female.



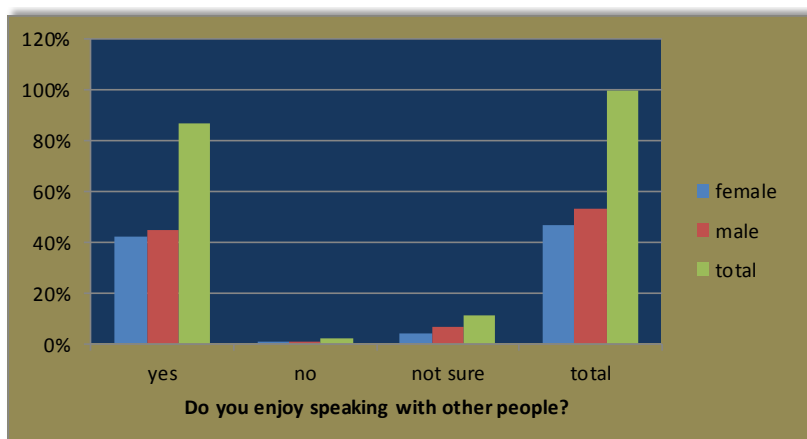
#### 4.2.7.1 Question 1: Do you enjoy speaking with other people?

Table 4.2.2.106 Respondents who enjoyed speaking with others

| Responses | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes       | 87        | 87%            |
| No        | 2         | 2%             |
| not sure  | 11        | 11%            |
| Total     | 100       | 100%           |

Source: Field data March 2013.

Figure 4.2.21 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

Table 4.2.2.107 showed respondents' answers about enjoying conversation with others. Three categories of answers identified: enjoy speaking with others-87%, do not enjoy speaking with others-2% and not sure of their decision-11%. From Figure 4.2.7.1.1, 45% male and 42% female respondents enjoyed speaking with others and this was higher than those who did not enjoy speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.107 Students who enjoy speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes    | no    | not<br>sure | total |
|--------|--------|-------|-------------|-------|
| female | 89.36% | 2.13% | 8.51%       | 100%  |
| male   | 84.91% | 1.89% | 13.21%      | 100%  |
| Total  | 87%    | 2%    | 11%         | 100%  |

More female enjoy speaking with others than male students and this was reflected in difference in percentages, that is 4.45%, between the two groups. This may be the result of culture training and practices in Saudi Arabia. The parity of both sexes is 1.05 or 105 female to 100 male who enjoy speaking to others.

#### 4.2.7.2 Question 1b: Respondents' explanations for not enjoying conversation with others

Respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others were asked to provide explanations for non-enjoyment of conversation with others. In so doing different qualitative answers were provided. For easy analysis of these data, the explanations were grouped into 4 categories and these are:

Dependency level: that is the respondent's enjoyment of conversation with others depended on anyone.

Comfort level: that is, the respondent's enjoyment of conversation is related with his or her comfort

Language barrier: that is, the respondent finds it difficult to express him in the English language that is why he or she does not enjoy speaking with others

Privacy level: that is, the respondent just does not want to talk to others, and he or she is an introvert or does not like it when people talk too much

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.108 below.

Table 4.2.2.108 Open ended explanations of respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others

| Categories    | Verbatim response  |
|---------------|--|
| Comfort level | I prefer to do work, read but I do not mind talking to someone I know well |

### Chi – Square

Enjoyment of conversation depends on the gender of students in question.

Hypothesis

**Ho:** gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation.

**Ha:** gender of students is associated with their enjoyment of conversation

Table 4.2.2.109 Observed and expected frequencies of Students' enjoyment of conversation by gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 42                         | 40.890                     | 0.0301                      |
| No       | 5                          | 6.110                      | 0.2017                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 45                         | 46.110                     | 0.0267                      |
| No       | 8                          | 6.890                      | 0.1788                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 0.4373                      |

Chi-Square = 0.4373, DF = 1, P-Value < 0.05

Decision

The computed Chi-Square of 0.4373 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05. Since the computed chi-square is less than the tabulated chi-square, we failed to reject H0 that gender is not associated with students' enjoyment of conversation. Students' enjoyment of conversation with others does not depend on gender in Saudi Arabia.

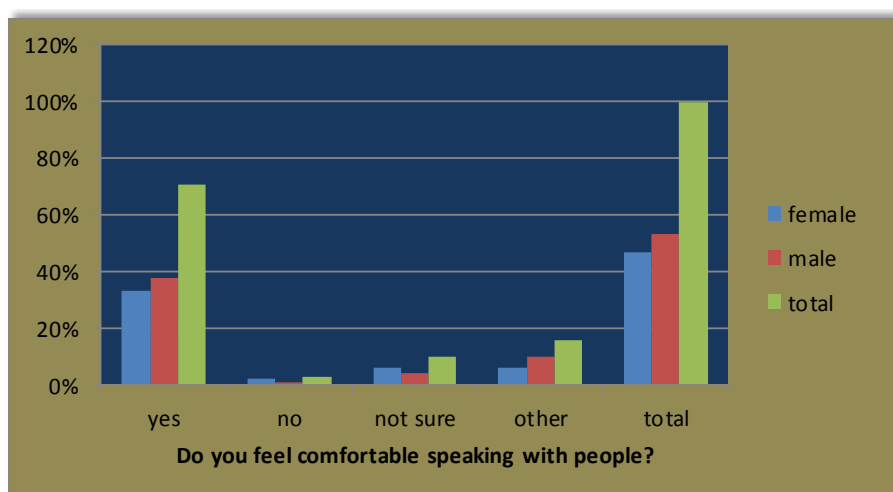
#### 4.2.7.2 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

Table 4.2.2.110 Respondents who feel comfortable speaking with others

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| yes               | 71        | 71%            |
| no                | 3         | 3%             |
| not sure          | 10        | 10%            |
| other             | 16        | 16%            |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.22 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

About 71% of respondents felt comfortable speaking with others and 10% gave other answers. Segregation by gender showed 38% of male interviewed and 33% female respondents feel comfortable when speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.111 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender

|        | yes    | no    | not<br>sure | other  | Total |
|--------|--------|-------|-------------|--------|-------|
| female | 70.21% | 4.26% | 12.77%      | 12.77% | 100%  |
| male   | 71.70% | 1.89% | 7.55%       | 18.87% | 100%  |
| All    | 71%    | 3%    | 10%         | 16%    | 100%  |

Gender comparison revealed little difference between both sexes and less than 5% of both sexes feel uncomfortable when chatting with others. The parity of male and female students who feel comfortable during conversation is 0.98 or 98 female to 100 male who are comfortable during conversation

#### 4.2.7.3 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

Open ended responses

With this question, respondents were given the option to provide their own answers if the options given did not meet their needs. Different categorical answers were provided for the open ended option and these answers were then classified into 4 categories. They are:

Comfort level: what makes the respondent comfortable when speaking with others?

Dependency level: that is the respondent's comfort in conversing with others depended on anyone.

Not always: The respondent feel comfortable sometimes but not always

Language barrier: the respondent is not comfortable because he or she cannot communicate well in the English language as expected.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.110 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.112 Open ended answers on respondents comfort during conversation

| Categories       | Verbatim response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | Depends on the person. Sometimes it depends on who it is<br>Depends on the person. It depend on who I am talking to<br>Depends on who it is. It depends on the person and the way they are speaking to me. It depends on who I am talking to and what we are talking about. Depends on the person<br>It depends on who I'm speaking with. |
| Comfort level    | If it is someone I know yes, if not no. If I know them well   |
| Privacy          | Sometimes I do sometimes I do not. Sometimes, not really when I'm not in the mood.  |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is not related to gender

**H<sub>a</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.113 Observed and expected frequencies of students comfort and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 35                                      | 34.78                                   | 0.0014                               |
| No       | 12                                      | 12.22                                   | 0.0040                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 39                                      | 39.22                                   | 0.0012                               |
| No       | 14                                      | 13.78                                   | 0.0035                               |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 0.0101                               |

Chi-Square = 0.0101, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

## Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.0101 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort during conversation is not related to gender. Opinion about being comfortable during conversation does not have any dependency on gender in Saudi Arabia.

### 4.2.7.3 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Table 4.2.2.114 How respondents feel after speaking with someone

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 19        | 19%            |
| No                | 32        | 32%            |
| Not sure          | 17        | 17%            |
| Others            | 32        | 32%            |

Table 4.2.2.115 Respondents, who enjoyed speaking with others on the basis of how they feel after speaking with others

| Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone? | Do you enjoy speaking with others |                  |                      |       |
|---|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|-------|
|   | yes, enjoy speaking with others   | no, do not enjoy | not sure of enjoying | Total |
| Yes   | 16%                               | 1%               | 2%                   | 19%   |
| No  | 30%                               | 0%               | 2%                   | 32%   |
| not sure  | 16%                               | 0%               | 1%                   | 17%   |
| Other   | 25%                               | 1%               | 6%                   | 32%   |
| Total   | 87%                               | 2%               | 11%                  | 100%  |

Majority of respondents (32%) did not feel disappointed after speaking with others and 19% of them felt disappointed while 17% were not sure of their feelings. Comparing enjoying and feeling disappointed after speaking with others, 30% enjoyed speaking with

others but never felt disappointed after doing so. None of the respondents feel disappointed at the same time not enjoy speaking with others.

4.2.7.4 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Open ended responses

This question on respondents' sentiments after conversing with others has an open ended option in which respondents are expected to give other answers if the alternative answers given did not suit them. For clearer analysis, these answers were grouped into 3 categories. These categories are:

These categories are:

Dependency level: that is, respondent's disappointment depended on the second party's behavior or topic of conversation.

Comfort level: the disappointment of the respondent is closely related to how comfortable the respondent is when conversing with the other party.

Not always: that is, the respondent feel disappointed sometimes but not always the summary of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.113 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.116 Open ended answers on respondent's sentiments after conversing with others

| Categories       | Verbatim response  |
|------------------|--|
| Dependency level | Depends what the conversation is about. Depends on the situation. It depends on the person really but normally not. Depends on the conversation or person. Depends on the conversation. It depends on what sort of mood I am in. It depends on whether it was useful conversation or not. It depends on what or who I am talking to. Matters on who I am talking to. Sometimes it depends on the person. It depends who I am talking to and what we are talking about. Depends how the conversation went. That would depend on the conversation. |



|               |   |
|---------------|---|
|               | That would have to depend on the conversation. Depends on the conversation.   |
| Not always    | If it was a positive conversation I would be okay if not then I won't. Sometimes if it is a negative subject. Sometimes, I do sometimes I do not. Only if someone shouts angrily at me. |
| Comfort level | If someone shouts at me yes.  |

#### 4.2.7.4 Question 4: Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time?

Table 4.2.2.117 Respondents' nervousness after speaking with someone the first time

| Responses                           | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                                 | 24        | 24%        |
| No                                  | 18        | 18%        |
| Not sure                            | 3         | 3%         |
| It depends on who I'm speaking with | 55        | 55%        |

Table 4.2.2.118 Respondents comfort in social situations and nervousness when speaking with others

| Do you feel nervous after speaking with others? | Do you feel comfortable in social situations? |    |          |                                     |       |
|---|---|----|----------|-------------------------------------|-------|
|   | yes   | no | Not sure | It depends on who I'm speaking with | total |
| Yes   | 6%  | 3% | 0%       | 15%                                 | 24%   |
| no  | 16%   | 1% | 0%       | 1%                                  | 18%   |
| Not sure  | 2%  | 0% | 0%       | 1%                                  | 3%    |
| Depends on the situation                        | 23%   | 4% | 1%       | 27%                                 | 55%   |
| Total   | 47%   | 8% | 1%       | 44%                                 | 100%  |

From table 4.2.2.118, about 24% of respondents claimed their feelings after speaking with others for the first time depend on whom they spoke with. 18% never felt nervous after

speaking with others and 3% was not sure of their feelings. Comparing nervous about speaking to others and comfort in social situations, 27% of respondents said it depends on who they are speaking to and on the situation in questions. This could mean those students who feel comfortable in social situation never felt nervous after speaking with someone for the first time.

#### 4.2.7.5 Question 5: Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

Table 4.2.2.119 Students' comfort in social situations

| Responses                | frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                      | 47        | 47%        |
| No                       | 8         | 8%         |
| Not sure                 | 1         | 1%         |
| Depends on the situation | 44        | 44%        |

Figure 4.2.23 Respondents' interpersonal skills satisfaction and comfort in social situations.

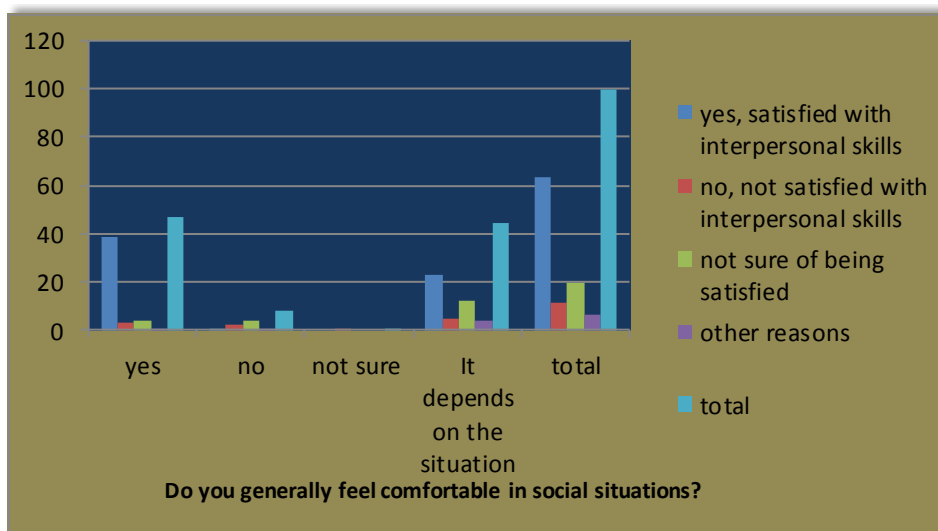


Table 4.2.2.119 showed 47% of respondents feel comfortable in social situations and 44% of respondents comfort depends on the situation in question. The least percentage (1%) was of respondents who are not sure of how they feel.

**Table 4.2.2.120 Students who feel comfortable in social situations by gender**

|        | yes    | no     | not sure | depends on situation | Total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|----------------------|-------|
| female | 44.68% | 12.77% | 0%       | 42.55%               | 100%  |
| male   | 49.06% | 3.77%  | 1.89%    | 45.28%               | 100%  |
| All    | 47%    | 8%     | 1%       | 44%                  | 100%  |

With this question, less than 50% of both sexes feel comfortable in social situations. Comparing this with those whose comfort in social situations depends on the situation, about 49% of male feel comfortable in social situations while more than 40% female comfort in social situations depended on the situation in question. The parity for both sexes in terms of feeling comfortable in social situations is 0.91 which is 91 female to 100 male who are comfortable in social situations.

Chi-square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is not related to gender.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is related to gender

Table 4.2.2.121 Observed and expected frequencies of students' comfort in terms of gender.

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 27                         | 25.850                     | 0.0512                      |
| No       | 20                         | 21.150                     | 0.0625                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 28                         | 29.150                     | 0.0454                      |
| No       | 25                         | 23.850                     | 0.0555                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 0.2146                      |

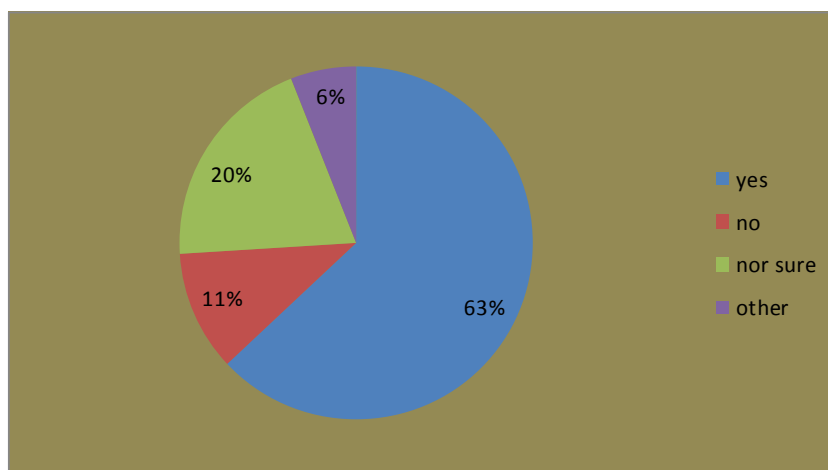
Chi-Square = 0.2146, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

#### Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.2146 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort in social situation is not related to gender in Saudi Arabia. Students comfort or level of confidence in social situations has no relations with gender in Saudi Arabia.

#### 4.2.7.6 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Figure 4.2.24 Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills



From Figure 4.2.24, 63% of respondents were satisfied with their interpersonal skills, 11% not satisfied and 20% were not sure of their satisfaction.

Table 4.2.2.122 Students who enjoyed speaking with others and their interpersonal skills

| Do you enjoy speaking with others | Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills? |     |          |       | Total |
|-----------------------------------|---|-----|----------|-------|-------|
|                                   | yes   | no  | not sure | other |       |
| Yes                               | 59%   | 8%  | 15%      | 5%    | 87%   |
| No                                | 1%  | 0%  | 1%       | 0%    | 2%    |
| not sure                          | 3%  | 3%  | 4%       | 1%    | 11%   |
| Total                             | 63%   | 11% | 20%      | 6%    | 100%  |

Respondents' satisfaction with their inter-personal skills compared with their enjoyment in speaking with others. 59% were satisfied at the same time enjoyed speaking with others while 8% were not satisfied but enjoyed speaking with others. 4% were neither sure of their enjoyment nor satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Conclusively, one can see that respondents who enjoyed speaking with others may be satisfied with their interpersonal skills in Saudi Arabia.

Table 4.2.2.123 Students who are satisfied with their interpersonal skills by gender

|        | yes    | no     | not sure | other | Total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|-------|-------|
| female | 53.19% | 12.77% | 29.79%   | 4.26% | 100%  |
| male   | 71.70% | 9.43%  | 11.32%   | 7.55% | 100%  |
| All    | 63%    | 11%    | 20%      | 6%    | 100%  |

More than 50% of both male and female students are satisfied with their interpersonal skills and the parity between the two groups is 0.74 which means though majority of both sexes are satisfied with their interpersonal skills, more male than female are satisfied with their interpersonal skills. That 74 female to 100 male are satisfied with their interpersonal skills.

Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

### Open ended responses

Respondents were provided with an open ended response option concerning their satisfaction with their interpersonal skills. Students were asked to give other answers if the alternative answers provided do not meet their criteria. The provided responses were then classified into 3 categories. These categories are:

**Knowledge seeking:** In this answer category, respondents did not answer yes or no but rather they claim to learn more on their interpersonal skills

**Privacy:** respondents in this category seek to have their privacy instead of being satisfied with their interpersonal skills

**Level of self-confidence:** respondents in this category did have some issue with their level of confidence when it comes to satisfaction with their interpersonal skills.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.124 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.124 Open ended answers on respondents' satisfaction with interpersonal skills

| Categories               | Verbatim response  |
|--------------------------|--|
| More knowledge seeking   | Not really but I am improving. I think I should learn how to express my feelings by talking.                     |
| Privacy                  | I have periods when I go out a lot and I have periods when I cut myself out of the social world for a long time. |
| Level of self confidence | Sometimes I think about it and think that I might have not done the right thing.                                 |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.125 Observed and expected frequencies of students' interpersonal skills and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 31                         | 34.78                      | 0.4108                      |
| No       | 16                         | 12.22                      | 1.1693                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 43                         | 39.22                      | 0.3643                      |
| No       | 10                         | 13.78                      | 1.0369                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 2.9813                      |

Chi-Square = 2.9813 DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

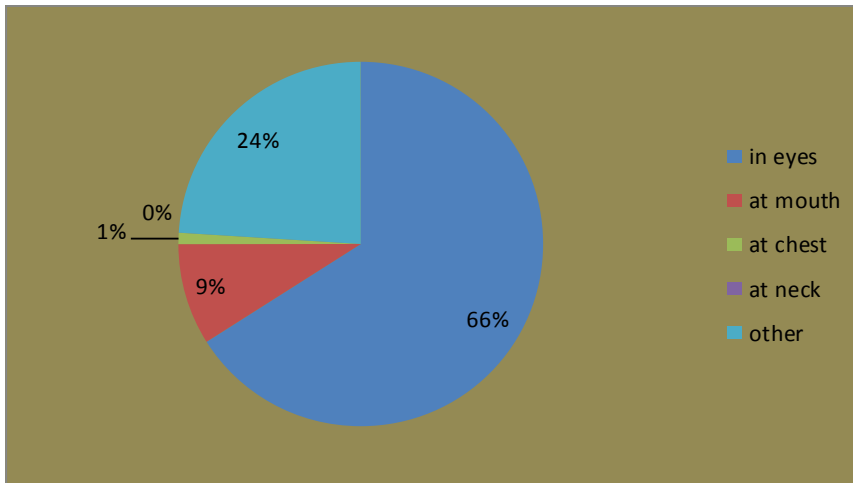
Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 2.9813 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender in Saudi Arabia. How students feel about their interpersonal skills in Saudi Arabia is not associated with gender.

#### 4.2.8 Questionnaire 2: Regarding the use of nonverbal communication, which may have an impact on interpersonal communication in intercultural situations

4.2.8.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.25 Where respondents look when conversing with a teacher



From figure 4.2.25, 66% of respondents look into the teacher’s eyes when in conversation with him or her and 24% look at none of the places given but rather look elsewhere when speaking with the teacher. The least percentage (0%) were respondents who look at their teacher’s neck when talking with him or her.

Table 4.2.2.126 Where students look according to gender

| Gender | Where do you look when conversing with a teacher |          |          |         |       | Total |
|--------|--|----------|----------|---------|-------|-------|
|        | In eyes  | At mouth | At chest | At neck | Other |       |
| Female | 32%  | 4%       | 0%       | 0%      | 11%   | 47%   |
| Male   | 34%  | 5%       | 1%       | 0%      | 13%   | 53%   |
| Total  | 66%  | 9%       | 1%       | 0%      | 24%   | 100%  |

From table 4.2.2.126, most female (32%) respondents look into the eyes of the teacher when in conversation with him or her and this the same for male respondents (34%). The least percentages for male (0 %) and female (0%) were respondents who look at the neck of the teacher. This could be respondents understand the conversation better when they look into the teacher’s eyes or it might also be due to cultural values according to which it is not right to look at anyone’s neck when in conversation with him or her.

#### 4.2.8.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?



### Open ended responses

When students were asked about where they look when conversing with the teacher, some provided answers, which were not included in the closed ended answers provided. These open ended answers were grouped into 3 categories and they are as follows:

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents look during conversation depends upon how does he or she feel about the second party.

Look at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents look at other things or may not look at anything at all.

Respect for one's superiors: respondents' respect for one's superiors or traditions made them not to look at the things or parts mentioned in the closed answers provided, during conversation with the teacher.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.127 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.127 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a teacher

| Categories             | Verbatim response  |
|------------------------|--|
| Dependency level       | It depends on teacher. Depends on which teacher and what situation I am in.  |
| Looked at other things | At the surrounding and sometimes eyes. Nose. At the wall or in space. On the floor. Eyes and surrounding or floor. The floor. At their shoes. Either in the eyes or directly to the side if I'm behind them. Changes. At the floor. At my desk. It makes me nervous if I look at the person's eyes. Face |

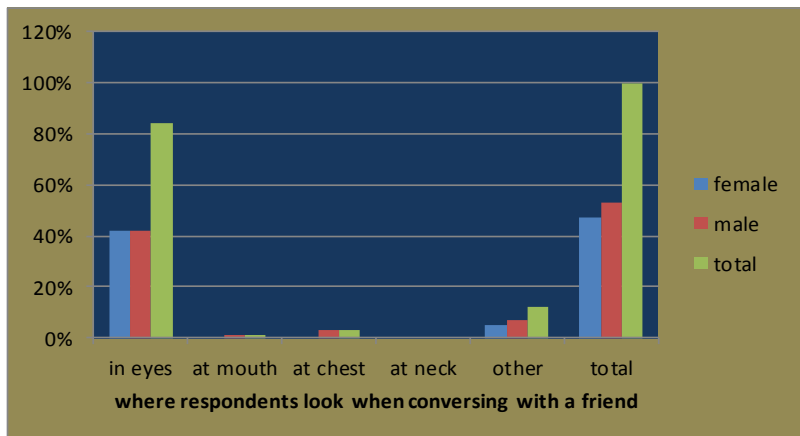
#### 4.2.8.2 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.128 Where respondents look when conversing with a friend

|          | Count | Percentage |
|----------|-------|------------|
| In eyes  | 84    | 84%        |
| At mouth | 1     | 1%         |
| At chest | 3     | 3%         |
| At neck  | 0     | 0%         |
| Other    | 12    | 12%        |

On this question, majority of respondents (84%) look into the eyes of their friend when conversing with them. 3% of them look at their friends' chest and 12% gave other places they look at when in conversation with their friends. Comparing questions 2 and 1, it was detected that most respondents prefer to look into the eyes of whoever they are speaking with than any other part of the body. It is also clear that most of the students feel at ease with their friends than their teacher.

Figure 4.2.26 Where respondents look when speaking with a friend by gender



From figure 4.2.26, 42% of both male and female respondents look into the eyes of their friends when in conversation with them. About 5% female and 7% male gave other places where they look when in conversation with their friends. Reason for this trend could be respondents need to understand what the second party is saying.

#### 4.2.8.3 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

##### Open ended responses

Provisions for open ended answers made it possible for respondents to provide where exactly they look when in conversation with a friend. These answer categories were grouped into 2.

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents looked at during conversation depended upon how he or she felt about the friend

Look at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents look at other things or may not look at anything at all.

Summaries of the 2 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.129 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.129 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a friend

| Categories                      | Verbatim response  |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Look at other things or nothing | Face<br>Either in the eyes or somewhere completely different if I'm not interested<br>Surrounding and eyes or the floor<br>Everywhere<br>In space or at the wall<br>At their faces |

#### 4.2.8.3 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.130 How close respondents stand when speaking with a friend

|              | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| about 30 cm  | 24        | 24%        |
| about 60 cm  | 64        | 64%        |
| about 90 cm  | 4         | 4%         |
| about 120 cm | 1         | 1%         |
| Other        | 7         | 7%         |

The highest percentage of respondents is for those who stand about 60 cm (64%) away from the friend they are speaking with and the least are respondents who stand about 120cm (1%) away from friends they are in conversation with. This could be that respondents do not feel comfortable when standing very close to their friends or it may also be due to shyness.

Table 4.2.2.131 How close respondents stand when conversing with a friend, by gender

| Gender | how close respondents stand when conversing with a friend in percentages |             |             |              |       |       |
|--------|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------|-------|
|        | about 30 cm  | about 60 cm | about 90 cm | about 120 cm | other | Total |
| female | 10%  | 32%         | 2%          | 0%           | 3%    | 47%   |
| male   | 14%  | 32%         | 2%          | 1%           | 4%    | 53%   |
| Total  | 24%  | 64%         | 4%          | 1%           | 7%    | 100%  |

Segregation by gender show that 32%, which form the majority answers for both sexes maintain a 60cm distance when in conversation with a friend. About 10% female and 14% male respondents prefer to maintain a 30cm distance when conversing with their friends. 3% female and 4% male gave other distances, which they maintain when speaking with their friends. But both sexes prefer to stand about 60cm away from their friends when in conversation with their friends.

#### 4.2.8.4 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

##### Open ended responses

Open ended answers for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a friend are classified into 3 categories. These are:

Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a friend

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depends on the second party or type of conversation or topic.

Not sure: in this category, respondents are not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a friend.

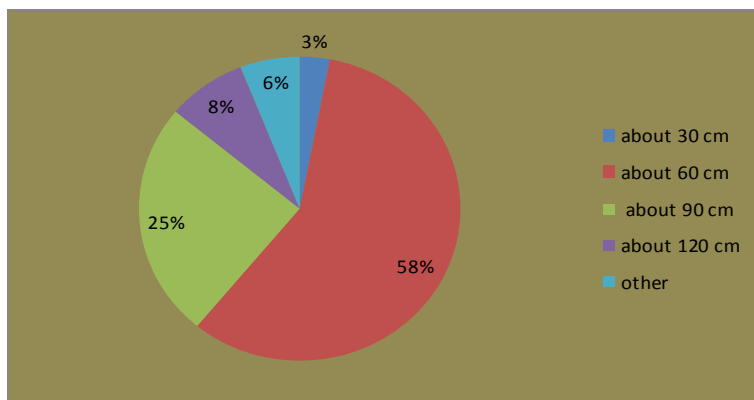
Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.8.3.3 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.132 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when conversing with a friend

| Categories   | Verbatim response                |
|--------------|----------------------------------|
| Any distance | 50 to 70 cm<br>It comes randomly |

#### 4.2.8.4 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.27 How close respondents stand when speaking with a teacher



Like the previous question, respondents prefer to stand about 60cm (58%) away when speaking with a teacher. Other responses were: about 30cm-3%, about 90cm- 25%, about 120cm – 8% and other distances – 6%. Reasons for this trend of responses could be: respondents feel comfortable talking to both their teachers and friends when not standing very close to them. This trend of responses could also be due to cultural practices and values of Saudi Arabia whose religious beliefs are a bit conservative.

#### 4.2.8.5 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

##### Open ended responses

Answers in open ended form for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a teacher are classified into 3 categories. These are:

Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a teacher

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depends on the teacher or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents are not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a teacher

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.133 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.133 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when conversing with a teacher

| Categories   | Verbatim response                            |
|--------------|--|
| Any distance | 60 to 80 cm<br>It comes up randomly<br>200cm |

#### 4.2.8.5 Question 4b: if you answer differently in (3) and (4) please explain why

Open ended explanations given by the respondents on why they gave different answers in questions 3 and 4 were grouped into 5 categories. These categories are:

Respect or fear of teacher: how close does the respondent stand to the teacher during conversation was due to the respect or fear of the teacher

Comfort level: the distance between the respondent and his or her talking partner is influenced by how comfortable they are.

Level of friendship: The level of friendship between respondents and people also determines the distance that they maintain when talking to the second party.

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is depended upon the person or other things

Not sure: these categories of respondents were not of the distance between their friends or the teacher.

Knowledge seeking: distance between the respondent and the teacher is influenced by the desire to learn more from the teacher.

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.134 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.134 Open ended explanations for the differences in choice of answer for questions 3 and 4

| Categories                          | Verbatim response   |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Level of respect or fear of teacher | I stand further from teachers as it is more polite and our relationship is not all that intimate. I am too scared to get close<br>Out of respect. This gives the teacher more respect. If it is a friend I see them more and know them better but with a teacher I give him or her personal space and show my respect. Teachers are tall so I try not to let them stand over me. I stand about 60 to 70cm because I am standing in front of an adult. Because teachers are more formal. With teachers it is more polite to give distance as it makes the situation less awkward. It can be seen as aggression if you stand too close. With a teacher I find it disrespectful to stand too close. Because when speaking with a teacher, I do not like being up close. Because I am generally less interactive with teachers. Because teachers are more intimidating. |
| Level of friendship                 | In my culture it is normal to stand close to each other and most of my friends are from the same culture. Because you know your friends better. I stay closer to my friends but give space to my teacher. Can stand closer to friends as friendships are personal<br>With friends the distinction of personal space is less. Since I am closer to friends, I stand nearer to him or her. The further you stand away the more uncomfortable you feel with the person. Because the teacher and your friends are both completely different people. Because I am less friendly with teachers. Because I am not that close with teachers. I am used to speaking close with a friend than a teacher.  |
| Comfort level                       | More affection towards friends and feel more comfortable. I feel more comfortable with a friend.  |



|  |  |
|--|--|
|  | Not as comfortable around my teachers as I am with my friends. I am more comfortable standing closer to friends. Because I feel comfortable with my friends. It is a friend so you feel more comfortable when talking to them. I feel more comfortable with a friend when speaking to them closer than when with a teacher. You feel more comfortable with friends and it is more appropriate. Because it is uncomfortable to stand really close to a teacher. More comfortable with friends, more relaxed and less intimidated. |
|--|--|

4.2.8.5 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Table 4.2.2.135 How respondents show that they are listening when in conversation with someone

| Responses                                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Using body language such as nodding head | 40        | 40%        |
| Making sounds such as umm! Ahhh!         | 11        | 11%        |
| Using reaction words                     | 30        | 30%        |
| Other                                    | 19        | 19%        |

From table 4.2.2.135, most of the respondents (40%) use some form of gesture such as nodding head when in conversation with someone and about 30% of respondents use words such as 'I see', 'oh, yeah', 'really' when speaking with others. Less than 11% make sounds such as umm! ahhh! when speaking with someone.

4.2.8.6 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

#### Open ended responses

Some respondents gave open ended answers on how they show that they are paying attention when someone is talking with them. 3 categories were identified with the responses. These are:

Keep silent or make remarks: respondents in this category either keep silent when being talked to or make some remarks during the conversation

Look at them or smile: to show that they are paying attention, respondents either smile or just look at the other person talking to him or her

Dependency level: how they show that they are paying attention is dependent on the second person or other things.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.135 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.136 Open ended responses on how respondents show that they are paying attention during conversation.

| Categories            | Verbatim response        |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| Look at them or smile | Looking directly at them |

#### 4.2.8.7 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?

Table 4.2.2.137 How much of respondents' conversation consists of body language and gestures

| Responses         | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| about 70% or more | 7         | 7%         |
| 60% - 70%         | 8         | 8%         |
| 50% - 60%         | 15        | 15%        |
| 40% - 50%         | 22        | 22%        |
| 30% - 40%         | 18        | 18%        |
| 20% -30%          | 16        | 16%        |
| 10% - 20%         | 8         | 8%         |
| 0% - 10%          | 5         | 5%         |
| 0%                | 0         | 0%         |
| other:            | 1         | 1%         |

From table 4.2.2.137, it was detected the amount of conversation consisting of body language and gestures is less than 30% in all categories. About 22% of respondents use 40% - 50% body language and gestures in communicating and less than 8% of respondents use about 70% or more body language and gestures during conversation.

4.2.8.7 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch them during a conversation?

Table 4.2.2.138 Respondents' opinion about touching during conversation

| Responses             | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes as it is friendly | 6         | 6%         |
| No as it is impolite  | 77        | 77%        |
| Other                 | 17        | 17%        |

Most respondents (77%) believed that it is impolite to touch someone when in conversation with him or her and about 6% of respondents think the opposite. Less than 18% gave other answers to this question.

4.2.8.8 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during a conversation?

Open ended answers

Open ended answers opinions given by respondents on whether it is right to touch someone whom you are not conversant with during conversation were classified into 4 groups. These groups are:

Dependency level: in this category, respondents think to touch the second party during conversation depends on the person and how that person is feeling.

Specific parts to touch: respondents in this group believed that you can only touch specific parts of the second party during conversation

Familiarity or necessity: this group of respondents thinks touching during conversation is influenced by familiarity or is a necessity

Comfort level: to touch during conversation is dependent upon how comfortable both parties are during that time.

Summaries of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.139 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.139 Open ended responses on whether it is right to touch during conversation

| Categories              | Verbatim response   |
|-------------------------|---|
| Dependency level        | It depends on their emotion. If it is appropriate time and place. Depends on who it is. Depends on their age and status. Depends on content of the conversation. Depends on situation and person. |
| Specific parts to touch | Maybe sometimes a tap on the shoulder or a high- five, otherwise it is impolite. Nothing more than a friendly hug.  |
| Familiarity             | It will be awkward. It is a bit unusual and awkward.  |

#### Chi – Square

One's opinions about touching during conversation are associated with gender of the persons concern.

#### Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** touching during conversation is not dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

Table 4.2.2.140 Observed and expected frequencies of students' feelings about touching

| Class                 | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female                |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 7                          | 10.810                     | 1.3428                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 40                         | 36.190                     | 0.4011                      |
| Male                  |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 16                         | 12.190                     | 1.1908                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 37                         | 40.810                     | 0.3557                      |
| $\chi^2$              |                            |                            | 3.2904                      |

Chi-Square = 3.2904, DF = 1, P-Value =0.092

Decision/conclusion

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 3.2904 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved. Opinion about touching during conversation is closely associated with gender in the Saudi Arabia.

Conclusions:

The following conclusions have been drawn from questionnaire 1 and 2 based on the findings:

Students' enjoyment of conversation is not associated with gender in Saudi Arabia and a majority of students enjoy speaking with others. Most students feel comfortable speaking to others and it does not have any association with gender of students. Some students feel comfortable in social situations and it is not influenced by gender Most students in this region are satisfied with their interpersonal interactions and this satisfaction is not

influenced by gender. Opinions about touching during conversation do not depend on gender.

RUSSIA

#### 4.2.9 Questionnaire 1: Regarding how students feel about communicating with others and their interpersonal skills

Table 4.2.2.141 Segregation of respondents by gender

| Sex    | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------|------------|
| female | 85        | 77.98      |
| male   | 24        | 22.02%     |
| total  | 109       | 100%       |

Source: Field data March 2013

Total number of respondents interviewed was 109 of which 24(22.02%) were female.

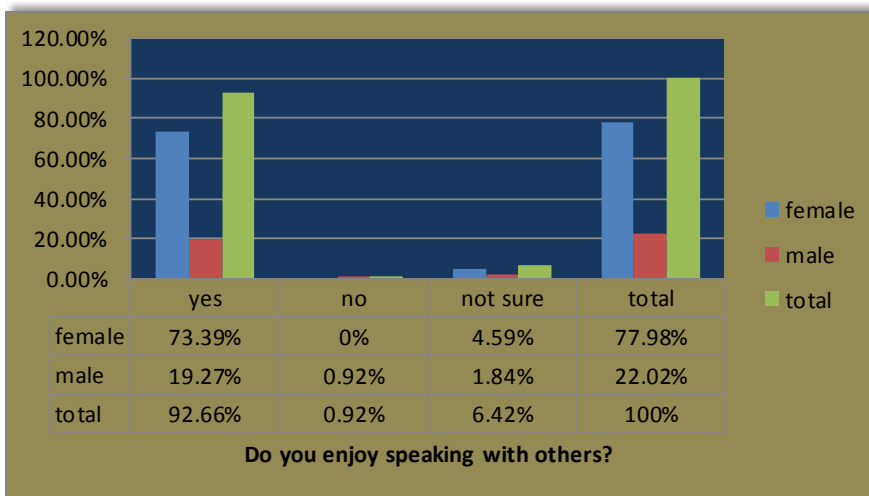
##### 4.2.9.1 Question 1: Do you enjoy speaking with other people?

Table 4.2.2.142 Respondents who enjoyed speaking with others

| Responses | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes       | 101       | 92.7%          |
| No        | 1         | 0.9%           |
| not sure  | 7         | 6.4%           |
| Total     | 109       | 100.00%        |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.28 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

Table 4.2.2.142 shows respondents' answers concerning enjoyment of conversations with others. Three categories of answers were identified: enjoy speaking with others-92.7%, do not enjoy speaking with others-0.90% and not sure of their decision-6.4%. From Figure 4.2.28, 73.39% female and 19.27% male respondents enjoyed speaking with others and this was higher than those who did not enjoy speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.143 Students who enjoyed speaking with others by gender

|        | yes    | no    | not sure | total |
|--------|--------|-------|----------|-------|
| female | 94.12% | 0%    | 5.88%    | 100%  |
| male   | 87.50% | 4.17% | 8.33%    | 100%  |
| All    | 92.66% | 0.92% | 6.42%    | 100%  |

More female respondents enjoy speaking with others than males and this was reflected in the difference in percentages of the two groups, which is 6.62%. This may be the result of culture training of women and the fact that women are provided equal opportunities as their male counterparts. The parity of both sexes is 1.08 or 108 female to 100 male who enjoy speaking to others.

4.2.9.2 Question 1b: Respondents' explanations for not enjoying conversation with others  
 Respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others were asked to provide explanations for non-enjoyment of conversation with others. In so doing different qualitative answers were provided. For easy analysis of these data, the explanations were grouped into 4 categories and these are:

Dependency level: that is the respondent's enjoyment of conversation with others depends on others.

Comfort level: that is, the respondent's enjoyment of conversation is related with his or her comfort

Language barrier: that is, the respondent finds it difficult to express himself in the English language as a result he or she does not enjoy speaking with others

Privacy level: that is, the respondent just does not want to talk to others, and he or she is an introvert or does not like it when people talk too much

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.144. The categories covered were for all the regions although not all regions have all 4 categories.

Table 4.2.2.144 Open ended explanations of respondents who did not enjoy speaking with others

| Categories       | Verbatim response  |
|------------------|--|
| Dependency level | It depends on who I am speaking with                         |
| Comfort level    | I am seldom really comfortable when speaking to other people |
| Privacy level    | I do not like to spend a lot of time with people             |

Chi – Square

Enjoyment of conversation depends on the gender of students in question

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** gender of students is associated with their enjoyment of conversation



Table 4.2.2.145 Observed and expected frequencies of Students' enjoyment of conversation by gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 80                         | 78.761                     | 0.0195                      |
| No       | 5                          | 6.238                      | 0.2457                      |
|          |                            |                            |                             |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 21                         | 22.238                     | 0.0689                      |
| No       | 3                          | 1.761                      | 0.8717                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 1.2058                      |

Chi-Square = 1.2058, DF = 1, P-Value < 0.05

Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 1.2058 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>) that gender of students is not associated with their enjoyment of conversation in Russia. Students' enjoyment of conversation has no association with gender in Russia.

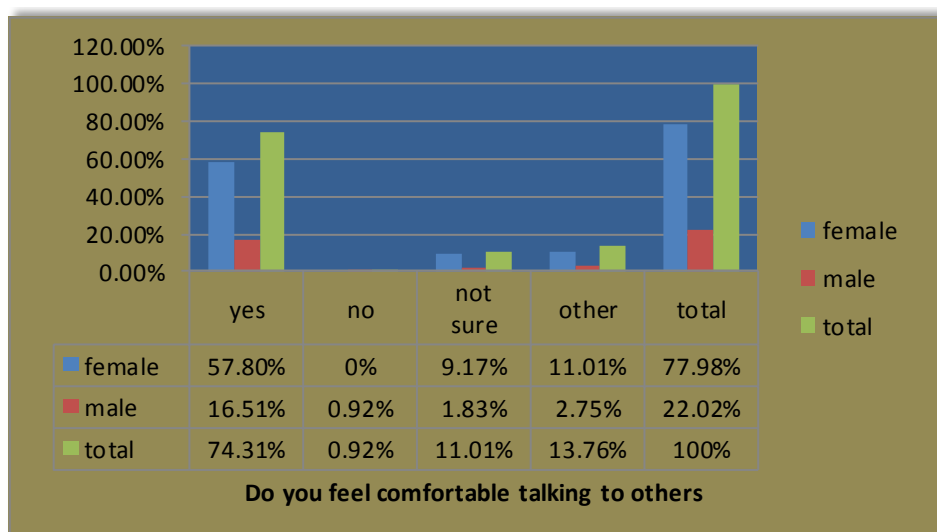
4.2.9.2 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

Table 4.2.2.146 Respondents who feel comfortable speaking with others

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 81        | 74.31%         |
| No                | 1         | 0.92%          |
| not sure          | 12        | 11.01%         |
| Other             | 15        | 13.76%         |

Source: Field data March 2013

Figure 4.2.29 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender



Source: Field data March 2013

About 74.31% of respondents felt comfortable speaking with others and 13.76% gave other answers. Segregation by gender showed 57.80% of female interviewed and 16.51% male respondents feel comfortable when speaking with others.

Table 4.2.2.147 Students who feel comfortable speaking with others by gender

|        | Yes    | no    | not sure | other  | Total |
|--------|--------|-------|----------|--------|-------|
| female | 74.12% | 0%    | 11.76%   | 14.12% | 100%  |
| male   | 75%    | 4.17% | 8.33%    | 12.50% | 100%  |
| All    | 74.31% | 0.92% | 11.01%   | 13.76% | 100%  |

Gender comparison reveals that most male students feel comfortable during conversation than female ones; but less than 5% of both sexes feel uncomfortable when chatting with others. The parity of male and female students who feel comfortable during conversation is 0.99 or 99 female to 100 male who are comfortable during conversation.

#### 4.2.9.3 Question 2: Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

##### Open ended responses

With this question, respondents were given the option to provide their own answers if the options given did not meet their needs. Different categorical answers were provided for the open ended option and these answers were then classified into 4 categories. They are:

Comfort level: what makes the respondent comfortable when speaking with others?

Dependency level: The respondent's comfort in conversing with others depends on anyone.

Not always: The respondent feel comfortable sometimes but not always

Language barrier: the respondent is not comfortable because he or she cannot communicate well in the English language as expected.

The summary of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.148 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.148 Open ended answers on respondents comfort during conversation

| Categories       | Verbatim response   |
|------------------|---|
| Comfort level    | Feel uncomfortable when I speak with strangers or people I do not know properly. I feel comfortable if I am in the mood to talk to those people and I feel pleasant with and I feel that I am attractive to them.                       |
| Dependency level | Sometimes, it depends on people themselves. It depends on who I am speaking with. It depends on a company and on a person; I do not feel comfortable with some girls because I cannot find a common ground with certain kind of person. |
| Not always       | Not always. Not with everybody.   |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is not related to gender

**H<sub>a</sub>:** Students comfort during conversation is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.149 Observed and expected frequencies of students comfort and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 63                                      | 63.945                                  | 0.0140                               |
| No       | 22                                      | 21.055                                  | 0.0424                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 19                                      | 18.055                                  | 0.0495                               |
| No       | 5                                       | 5.945                                   | 0.1502                               |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 0.2561                               |

Chi-Square = 0.2561, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

## Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 0.2561 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students comfort during conversation is not related to gender. Opinion about being comfortable during conversation does not have any dependency on gender in Russia.

4.2.9.3 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Table 4.2.2.150 How respondents feel after speaking with someone

| Answer categories | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Yes               | 30        | 27.5%          |
| No                | 38        | 34.9%          |
| Not sure          | 15        | 13.8%          |
| Others            | 26        | 23.9%          |

Table 4.2.2.151 Respondent who enjoys speaking with others against how they feel after speaking with others.

| Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone? | Do you enjoy speaking with others |                  |                      |        |
|---|-----------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|--------|
|   | yes, enjoy speaking with others   | no, do not enjoy | not sure of enjoying | Total  |
| Yes   | 24.77%                            | 0.92%            | 1.83%                | 27.52% |
| No  | 34.9%                             | 0%               | 0%                   | 34.86% |
| not sure  | 11.93%                            | 0%               | 1.83%                | 13.76% |
| Other   | 21.10%                            | 0%               | 2.75%                | 23.85% |
| Total   | 93%                               | 0.92%            | 6.42%                | 100%   |

Majority of respondents (34.9%) do not feel disappointed after speaking with others and 13.8% of them were not sure of their feelings. Comparing enjoying and feeling disappointed after speaking with others, 24.77% of respondents enjoyed speaking with others but never feel disappointed after doing so. Neither respondents feels disappointed after speaking nor enjoy speaking with others.

4.2.9.5 Question 3: Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

Open ended responses

This question on respondents' sentiments after conversing with others has an open ended option in which respondents are expected to give other answers if the alternative answers given did not suit them. For clearer analysis, these answers were grouped into 3 categories.

These categories are:

Dependency level: that is, respondent's disappointment depends on the second party's behavior or topic of conversation

Comfort level: the disappointment of the respondent is closely related to how comfortable the respondent is when conversing with the other party.

Not always: that is, the respondent feel disappointed sometimes but not always

The summary of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.152 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.152 Open ended answers on respondent's sentiments after conversing with others

| Categories       | Verbatim response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | It depends on the person. I do not think about it. When I feel my clumsy jokes could hurt someone. It depends on topic of conversation<br>It depends on partner and mood. |
| Not always       | Sometimes. Sometimes because some people are not nice person<br>Sometimes it happens.   |
| Comfort level    | If I speak with someone who I do not like. I do not feel comfortable about a person I talk to.  |

4.2.9.4 Question 4: Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time?

Table 4.2.2.153 Respondents' nervousness after speaking with someone for the first time

| Responses                            | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                                  | 13        | 11.93%     |
| No                                   | 22        | 20.18%     |
| Not sure                             | 5         | 4.59%      |
| It depends on who I am speaking with | 69        | 63.30%     |

Table 4.2.2.154 Respondents comfort in social situations and nervousness when speaking with others

| Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations? | Do you feel nervous speaking with others? |        |          |                                     |        |
|---|---|--------|----------|-------------------------------------|--------|
|   | yes                                       | no     | Not sure | It depends on who I'm speaking with | total  |
| Yes   | 1.84%                                     | 13.76% | 3.67%    | 24.77%                              | 44.04% |
| no  | 2.75%                                     | 0.92%  | 0%       | 0.92%                               | 4.59%  |
| Not sure  | 1.84%                                     | 0%     | 0%       | 1.84%                               | 3.67%  |
| Depends on the situation                                | 5.51%                                     | 5.51%  | 0.92%    | 35.78%                              | 47.71% |
| Total   | 11.93%                                    | 20.18% | 4.59%    | 63.30%                              | 100%   |

From tables 4.2.2.153 and 4.2.2.154, more than 63% of respondents' feelings after speaking with others for the first time depend on whom they spoke with; .20.18% never felt nervous after speaking with others and 4.59% was not sure of their feelings. Comparing nervous about speaking to others and comfort in social situations, 35.78% of respondents feelings depend on who they are speaking to and on the situation in questions. This could mean those students who feel comfortable in social situation never felt nervous after speaking with someone for the first time. The least percentage (0%) of the respondents was not sure of their nervousness but enjoyed speaking with others.

#### 4.2.9.5 Question 5: Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

Table 4.2.2.155 Students' comfort in social situations

| Responses                | frequency | Percentage |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Yes                      | 48        | 44.04%     |
| No                       | 5         | 4.59%      |
| Not sure                 | 4         | 3.67%      |
| Depends on the situation | 52        | 47.71%     |

Figure 4.2.30 Respondents' interpersonal skills satisfaction and comfort in social situations.

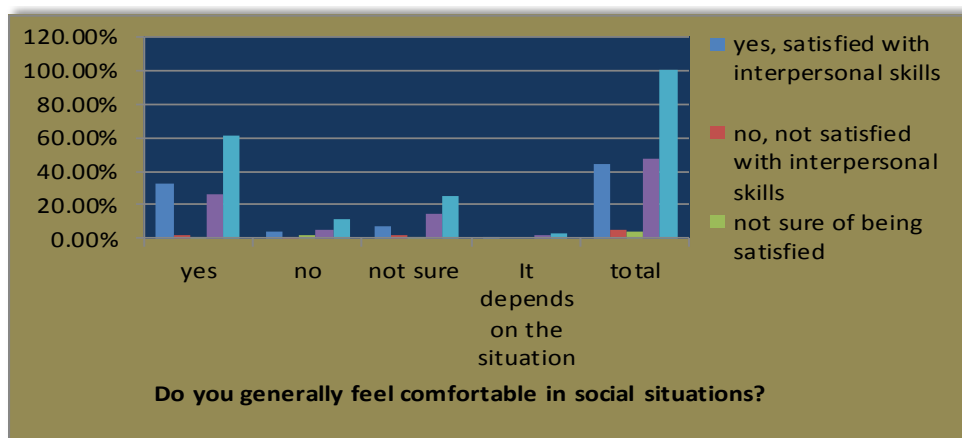




Table 4.2.2.154 shows 47.71% of respondents' comfort in conversation depends on the situation and 44.04% feel comfortable in any social situations. The least percentage (3.67%) was of people who were not sure of how they felt.

Table 4.2.2.156 Respondents comfort in social situations by gender

|        | yes    | no     | not sure | depends on the situation | Total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|--------------------------|-------|
| female | 37.65% | 2.35%  | 4.71%    | 55.29%                   | 100%  |
| male   | 66.67% | 12.50% | 0%       | 20.83%                   | 100%  |
| All    | 44.04% | 4.59%  | 3.67%    | 47.71%                   | 100%  |

This question reveals the large amount of female students' comfort in social situations depends on the situation concern. Comparing this with those who feel comfortable in social situations, about 66.67% of male students feel comfortable in social situations while more than 50% of female students report their comfort in social situations depends on the situation in question. The parity for both sexes is 0.56 which is 56 female to 100 male who are comfortable in social situations.

Chi-square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is not related to gender.

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students comfort in social situations is related to gender

Table 4.2.2.157 Observed and expected frequencies of students' comfort against gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female   |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 34                         | 41.330                     | 1.3000                      |
| No       | 51                         | 43.669                     | 1.2307                      |
| Male     |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes      | 19                         | 11.669                     | 4.6057                      |
| No       | 5                          | 12.330                     | 4.3576                      |
| $\chi^2$ |                            |                            | 11.4940                     |

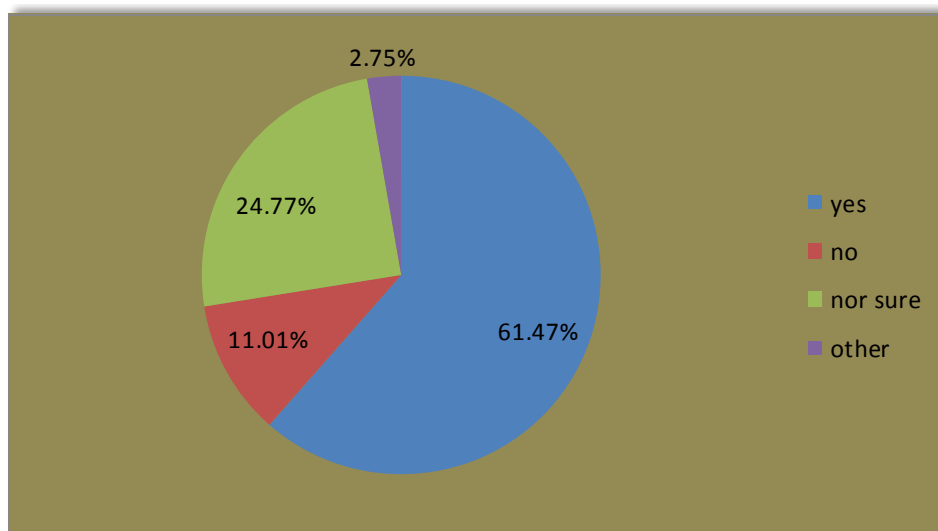
Chi-Square = 11.4940 DF = 1, P-Value >0.05

#### Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 11.4940 is greater than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that students' comfort in social situation is not related to gender in Russia. Students comfort or level of confidence in social situations is greatly influenced by gender in Russia.

#### 4.2.9.6 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Figure 4.2.31 Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills



From Figure 4.2.31, 61.47% of respondents were satisfied with their interpersonal skills, 11.01 % not satisfied and 24.77% were not sure of their satisfaction.

Table 4.2.2.158 Students who enjoyed speaking with others and interpersonal skills

| Do you enjoy speaking with others | Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills |        |          |       | Total  |
|-----------------------------------|--|--------|----------|-------|--------|
|                                   | Yes  | no     | not sure | other |        |
| Yes                               | 57.80%   | 9.17%  | 23.85%   | 1.84% | 92.66% |
| No                                | 0%   | 0.92%  | 0%       | 0%    | 0.92%  |
| not sure                          | 3.67%  | 0.92%  | 0.92%    | 0.92% | 6.42%  |
| Total                             | 61.47%   | 11.01% | 24.77%   | 2.75% | 100%   |

Respondents' satisfaction with their inter-personal skills compared with their enjoying speaking with others, 57.8% were satisfied at the same time enjoy speaking with others while 3.67% enjoy speaking but not sure of their satisfaction with their interpersonal skills. 0.92% was neither sure of their enjoyment nor satisfaction with their interpersonal skills. Conclusively, one can see that respondents who enjoyed speaking with others will be satisfied with their interpersonal skills in Russia.

Table 4.2.2.159 Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills by gender

|        | yes    | No     | not sure | other | Total |
|--------|--------|--------|----------|-------|-------|
| female | 60%    | 9.41%  | 28.24%   | 2.35% | 100%  |
| male   | 66.67% | 16.67% | 12.50%   | 4.17% | 100%  |
| All    | 61.47% | 11.01% | 24.77%   | 2.75% | 100%  |

More than 50% of both male and female students are satisfied with their interpersonal skills and the parity between the two groups is 0.90 which means though majority of both sexes are satisfied with their interpersonal skills less female are satisfied than male.

Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Open ended responses

Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills provided an open ended response option for students. Students are asked to give other answers if the alternative answers provided do not meet their criteria. The provided responses were then classified into 3 categories. These categories are:

Knowledge seeking: In this answer category, respondents did not answer yes or no but rather they claim to learn more on their interpersonal skills

Privacy: respondents in this category seek to have their privacy instead of being satisfied with their interpersonal skills

Level of self-confidence: respondents in this category did have some issue with their level of confidence when it comes to satisfaction with their interpersonal skills.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table

4.2.2.160 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.160 Open ended answers on respondents' satisfaction with interpersonal skills

| Categories             | Verbatim response   |
|------------------------|---|
| More Knowledge seeking | You should develop the skills through integration in a new company again and again otherwise life would be boring and you would get tired of your company<br>I would like to learn how to make it easier for my friends and enlarge my circles of friends |

Chi – Square

Hypothesis

**H<sub>0</sub>:** Students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender

**H<sub>a</sub>:** students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is related to gender.

Table 4.2.2.161 Observed and expected frequencies of students' interpersonal skills and gender

| Class    | Observed frequencies (O <sub>ij</sub> ) | Expected frequencies (e <sub>ij</sub> ) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|----------|---|---|--------------------------------------|
| Female   |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      |   |   |                                      |
| No       | 59                                      | 61.6055                                 | 0.1102                               |
|          | 26                                      | 23.3945                                 | 0.2902                               |
| Male     |   |   |                                      |
| Yes      | 20                                      | 17.3945                                 | 0.3903                               |
| No       | 4                                       | 6.6055                                  | 1.0277                               |
| $\chi^2$ |   |   | 1.8184                               |

Chi-Square = 1.8184, DF = 1, P-Value <0.05

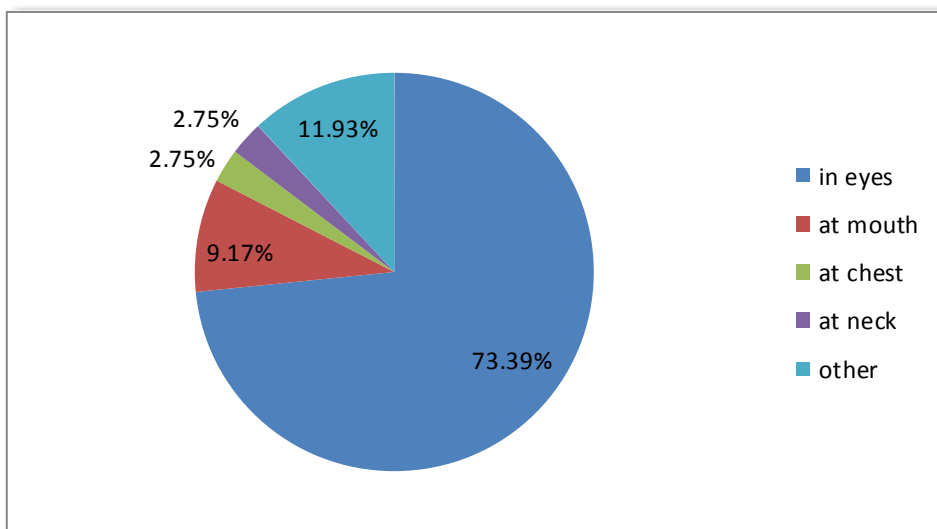
Decision/conclusion

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 1.8184 is less than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that students' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills is not related to gender in Russia. How students feel about their interpersonal skills in Russia has no relation with gender.

#### 4.2.10 Questionnaire 2: Regarding the use of nonverbal communication, which may have an impact on interpersonal communication in intercultural situations

4.2.10.1 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.32 Where respondents look when conversing with a teacher



From Figure 4.2.32, 73.39% of respondents look into the teacher's eyes when in conversation with him or her and 11.93% look at none of the places given but rather look elsewhere when speaking with the teacher. The least percentage (2.75% each) is of respondents who look at their teachers' neck and chest when talking with them

Table 4.2.2.162 Where students look according to gender

| Gender | Where do you look when conversing with a teacher |          |          |         |        |        |
|--------|--|----------|----------|---------|--------|--------|
|        | In eyes  | At mouth | At chest | At neck | Other  | Total  |
| Female | 60.55%   | 7.34%    | 0%       | 2.75%   | 8.26%  | 78.90% |
| Male   | 12.84%   | 1.84%    | 2.75%    | 0%      | 3.67%  | 21.10% |
| Total  | 73.39%   | 9.17%    | 2.75%    | 2.75%   | 11.93% | 100%   |

From table 4.2.2.162, most female respondents (60.55%) look into the eyes of the teacher when in conversation with him or her and it is the same for male respondents (12.84%). The least percentage for male (0%) and female (0%) is for respondents who look at the neck and chest of the teacher respectively. This could be respondents understand the conversation more if they look into the teacher's eyes. It could also mean students feel comfortable talking with a teacher in Russia

#### 4.2.10.2 Question 1: Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

##### Open ended answers

When students were asked about where they look when conversing with the teacher, some provided answers which were not included in the closed ended answers provided. These open ended answers were grouped into 3 categories and they are as follows:

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents look at during conversation depends upon how he or she feels about the second party.

Look at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents look at other things or may not look at anything at all.

Respect for one's superiors: respondents' respect for superiors or tradition, make them not to look at the things or parts mentioned in the closed answers provided during conversation with the teacher.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.157 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.163 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a teacher

| Categories           | Verbatim response  |
|----------------------|--|
| Dependency level     | It depends on how they look like. I did not pay attention. It depends on the act if the teacher was able to make me interested or not. |
| Look at other things | Face or the window. Do not look at the person at all. On the eye brows. The environment. I often try to look away.                     |

#### 4.2.10.3 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

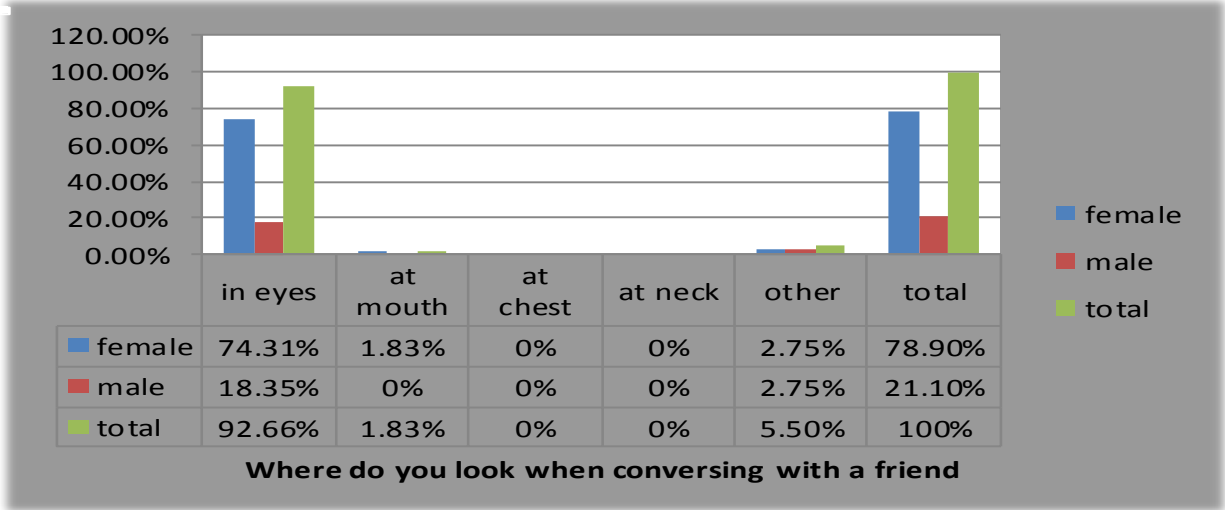
Table 4.2.2.164 Where do respondents look when conversing with a friend

|          | Count | Percentage |
|----------|-------|------------|
| In eyes  | 101   | 92.66%     |
| At mouth | 2     | 1.83%      |
| At chest | 0     | 0.00%      |
| At neck  | 0     | 0.00%      |
| Other    | 6     | 5.50%      |



Majority of respondents (92.66%) look into the eyes of their friends when conversing with them. 5.50% of them look at other places when in conversation with their friends. In comparing questions 2 and 1, it was detected that most respondents prefer to look into the eyes of whoever they are speaking with than any other part of the body.

Figure 4.2.33 Where respondents look when speaking with a friend by gender



According to Figure 4.2.33 majority of female respondents prefer to look into the eyes (74.31%) of their friends when in conversation with them than at the mouth (1.83%), chest (0%), neck (0%) or other places (2.75%). Most male respondents also look into the eyes (18.35%) of their friends than mouth (0%), chest (1.67%), neck (0%) or other places (2.75%). Reason for this preference could be respondents need to understand what the second party is saying and also feel comfortable in doing so.

4.2.10.3 Question 2: Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

Open ended answers

Provisions for open ended answers made it possible for respondents to indicate where exactly do they look when in conversation with a friend. These answer categories were grouped into 2. Namely,

Dependency level: in this category, where or what the respondents look at during conversation depends upon how he or she feels about the friend

Look at other things or nothing: instead of looking at parts or places mentioned in the closed answer alternatives, the respondents look at other things or may not look at anything at all

Summaries of the 2 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.164 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.165 Open ended answers on where respondents look when conversing with a friend

| Categories                        | Verbatim response  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Dependency level                  | It depends. It depends on a topic of a conversation and what sex a friend is.  |
| Looked at other things or nothing | Face. Everywhere. In the environment. I cannot look at any part of my friends if I suddenly become interested in it. |

4.2.10.4 Question 2b: if you answered differently in (1) and (2), please explain why

Open ended explanations

Respondents were asked to give explanation for answering differently in questions 1 and 2 if there is any. In so doing, various categorical answers were given and for easy analysis, the responses were categorized into 5 categories. They are:

Knowledge seeking: respondents want to learn from the teacher that is why they look at a particular spot when in conversation with him

Dependency level: where they look depends on who is in conversation with them

Respect or fear of the teacher: where they look is based on the respect or the fear of the teacher.

Comfortable with friends: where a respondent look is influenced by the fact that he or she is more comfortable with friends.

Friendship level: where a particular respondent look is influenced by the level of friendship between the respondent and the second party.

Not sure: The respondent does not know why he or she answered questions 1 and 2 differently

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.160 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.166 Open ended explanations of why they answered questions 1 and 2 differently

| Categories                     | Verbatim response   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Knowledge seeking              | I am trying to catch every single word of the teacher while with a friend I want to gain a close understanding. The thing is that a teacher is an official person. I try to keep subordination while talking to him or her                                  |
| Respect or fear of the teacher | During the lesson I talk but not look whole time at the teacher<br>I think it is so difficult to look in teacher's eyes<br>Usually I do not want to speak with teachers or professors so I prefer not to look into their eyes. I do not want to look at him |
| Comfortable with friends       | I feel more self-confident with a friend<br>If it is a friendly conversation I look into the eyes for sure<br>You establish an additional social contact by looking in the eyes of a person, I do not need a social contact with any teacher                |

#### 4.2.10.3 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

Table 4.2.2.167 How close do respondents stand when speaking with a friend?

|              | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| about 30 cm  | 34        | 31.19%     |
| about 60 cm  | 53        | 48.62%     |
| about 90 cm  | 4         | 3.67%      |
| about 120 cm | 2         | 1.83%      |
| Other        | 16        | 14.68%     |

The highest percentage of respondents is 48.62%, which is of respondents who stand about 60 cm away from friends they are speaking with; the least is of respondents who stand about 120cm (1.83%) away from their talking partners.

Table 4.2.2.168 How close respondents stand when conversing with a friend by gender

| Gender | how close respondents stand when conversing with a friend in percentages |             |             |              |        |        |
|--------|--|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------|--------|
|        | about 30 cm  | about 60 cm | about 90 cm | about 120 cm | other  | total  |
| female | 26.61%   | 39.45%      | 3.67%       | 0%           | 9.17%  | 78.90% |
| male   | 4.59%  | 9.17%       | 0%          | 1.83%        | 5.50%  | 21.10% |
| Total  | 31.19%   | 48.62%      | 3.67%       | 1.83%        | 14.68% | 100%   |

Segregation by gender show that most female (39.45%) and male (9.17%) respondents prefer to stand about 60cm away from their talking partners when in conversation with them. 20% of male respondents stand about 60cm, and 18.33% gave other distances, which they maintain between themselves and their friends when speaking. But all in all, both sexes prefer a distance of about 30cm when in conversation with their friends.

#### 4.2.10.5 Question 3: How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

Open ended responses

Open ended answers for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a friend are classified into 3 categories. These are:

Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a friend

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depends on the second party or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents were not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a friend.

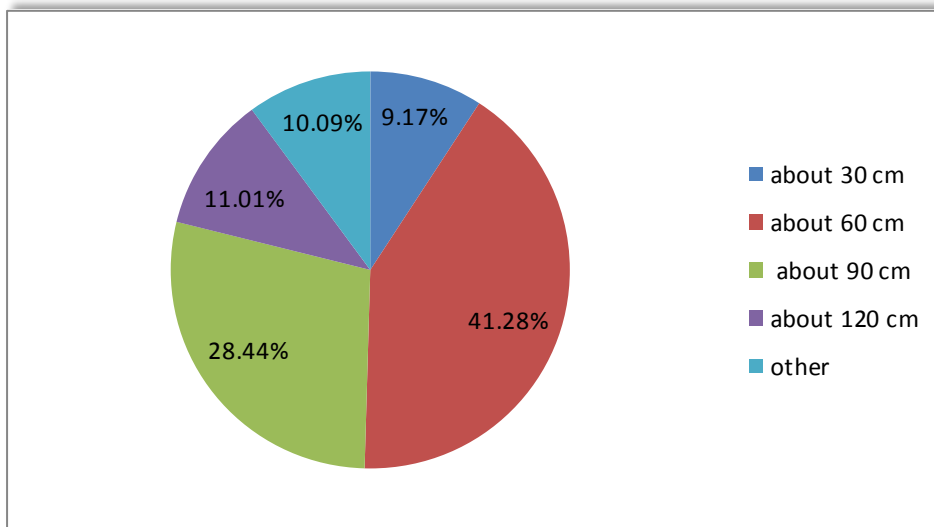
Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.168 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.169 Open ended explanations of why they answered questions 1 and 2 differently

| Categories       | Verbatim response  |
|------------------|--|
| Any distance     | Less than 30cm; Any distance; 40 to 50 cm.<br>I stand the way I can but not closer than within a hand reach<br>I can talk from the other end of the room. Because I haven't had a talk with a teacher for a long time, but usually it is limited by the distance between his table and my desk |
| Dependency level | It depends on the situation. It depends but I do not pay attention to how far I stand from a friend. It depends because it is not very comfortable to talk to a teacher face to face.  |
| Not sure         | Closely I did not measure it. Have never actually thought of that. I do not know.  |

#### 4.2.10.6 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

Figure 4.2.34 How close do respondents stand when speaking with a teacher?



Unlike the previous question, respondents prefer to stand about 60cm (32.50%) when speaking with a teacher. With this question, responses were evenly distributed and the rest of responses were: about 30cm- 18.33%, about 90cm- 16.67, about 120cm – 15.83% and other distances – 16.67%. Reasons for this trend of response could be: respondents feel more comfortable talking to their friends than a teacher or respondents may be afraid of offending the teacher when they stand too close since in Ghanaian culture may be important to show respect to one's superiors and this begins from how close a person stands when in conversation with one's superior.

#### 4.2.10.6 Question 4: How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

##### Open ended answers

Answers in open ended form for how close a respondent stand when in conversation with a teacher are classified into 3 categories. These are:

Any distance: that is the respondent may stand at any distance from very close to very far when in conversation with a teacher

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the friend during conversation depends on the teacher or type of conversation or topic

Not sure: in this category, respondents were not sure of how close they stand when conversing with a teacher

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.170 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.170 Open ended answers on how close respondents stand when conversing with a teacher

| Categories       | Verbatim response   |
|------------------|---|
| Dependency level | It depends on the situation. It depends on who I am speaking with.  |
| Not sure         | 1. I have never measured<br>2. Anything can happen<br>3. I do not pay attention to how far I stand from a teacher |

#### 4.2.10.7 Question 4b: if you answer differently in (3) and (4) please explain why

Open ended explanations given by the respondents on why they gave different answers in questions 3 and 4 were grouped into 5 categories. These categories are:

Respect or fear of teacher: how close the respondent is to the teacher during conversation was due to respect or fear of the teacher

Comfort level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is influenced by how comfortable they are.

Level of friendship: The level of friendship between respondents and people also determine the distance that they maintain when talking with the second party.

Dependency level: the distance between the respondent and the second party is depended upon the person or other things

Not sure: these categories of respondents were not sure of the distance maintained between them and their friends or the teacher.

Knowledge seeking: distance between the respondent and the teacher is influenced by the desire to learn more from the teacher

Summaries of the 6 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.171 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.171 Open ended explanations for the differences in choice of answer for questions 3 and 4

| Categories                 | Verbatim response  |
|----------------------------|--|
| Respect or fear of teacher | When I speak with a teacher, it is official communication, when I speak with a friend it is intimate situation. Speaking with a teacher is more formal communicative situation. Because it is not advisable to be too close to teacher. Because the social position of teacher is different from a friend and it depends on relationship with both. I have friendly terms with a friend but I keep the distance with a teacher. The reason of it is respect. Because, my relationship with a teacher is not so close. The relationship between me and teacher is more official, I do not want to interfere in his official care. The sense of fear. I try to keep social distance; it is not only about teachers but all strangers in general. Communication with the teacher is something more formal than just talking to a friend especially if I do not know the teacher so well. Sometimes with friends we like to do unusual but I do not think it would be appropriate with the teacher. My friends are close to me I can talk to them any distance, but I should be polite and considerate with a teacher. The further the better. |
| Level of comfort           | It is uncomfortable. The comfort zone changes with the relationship I have with the person to whom I'm speaking  |



|                  |  |
|------------------|--|
|                  | with.<br>I feel comfortable around people who I know very well and whom I can trust. A friend is closer than a teacher |
| Dependency level | It depends on level of trust.  |
| Not sure         | I do not know why.   |

4.2.10.5 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

Table 4.2.2.172 How respondents show that they are listening when in conversation with someone

| Responses                                | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Using body language such as nodding head | 56        | 51.38%     |
| Making sounds such as umm! Aha!          | 9         | 8.26%      |
| Using reaction words                     | 25        | 22.94%     |
| Other                                    | 19        | 17.43%     |

From table 4.2.2.172, most of the respondents (51.38%) used some form of gesture such as nodding head when in conversation with someone and about 22.94% respondents used reaction words such as 'I see', 'oh, yeah', 'really' when speaking with others. Less than 9% make sounds such as umm! Aha! when speaking with someone.

4.2.10.8 Question 5: When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

#### Open ended responses

Some respondents gave open ended answers on how they show that they are paying attention when someone is talking with them. 3 categories were identified with the responses. These are:

Keep silent or make remarks: respondents in this category either keep silent when being talked to or make some remark during the conversation

Look at them or smile: to show that they are paying attention, respondents either smile or just look at the other person talking with them

Dependency level: how they show that they are paying attention is dependent on the second person or other things.

Summaries of the 3 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.173 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region

Table 4.2.2.173 Open ended responses on how respondents show that they are paying attention during conversation

| Categories                  | Verbatim response   |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Keep silent or make remarks | I do everything. Sometimes I make my own remarks and questions. I keep silent |
| Dependency level            | It depends on whom I am talking with and how much this individual interest me |

4.2.10.9 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language

Table 4.2.2.174 How much of respondents conversation consists of body language and gestures

| Responses         | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|
| about 70% or more | 3         | 2.75%      |
| 60% - 70%         | 15        | 13.76%     |
| 50% - 60%         | 18        | 16.51%     |
| 40% - 50%         | 22        | 20.18%     |
| 30% - 40%         | 29        | 26.61%     |
| 20% -30%          | 17        | 15.60%     |
| 10% - 20%         | 2         | 1.83%      |
| 0% - 10%          | 2         | 1.83%      |
| 0%                | 1         | 0.92%      |
| other:            | 3         | 2.75%      |

On using gestures or body language during communication, 2.75% of respondents' conversations consist of about 70% or more gestures and body language and about 26.61% of conversations consist of 30% - 40% gestures and body language in their communication.

4.2.10.10 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language.

Open ended responses

Open ended answers were provided for how much of a communication consists of gestures and body language. These answers were grouped into two categories and they are:

Dependency level: respondents in this category explained that level of gestures or body language use depends upon the second party or other things

Not sure: respondents in this category were not sure of how much of their communication consist of body languages and gestures.

Summaries of the two categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.175 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.175 Open ended answers on how much respondents use gestures and body language in conversation

| Categories       | Verbatim response  |
|------------------|--|
| Dependency level | Depends on the topic, the person, audience listening, situation (formal/informal) and it can be very different with me |
| Not sure         | I do not know  |

4.2.10.11 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during your conversation?

Table 4.2.2.176 Respondents' opinion about touching during conversation

| Responses             | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| yes as it is friendly | 20        | 18.35%     |
| no as it is impolite  | 80        | 73.39%     |
| Other                 | 9         | 8.26%      |

Most respondents (68.33%) believe that it is impolite to touch someone when in conversation with him or her, and about 21% of respondents think the opposite. Less than 12% gave other answers to this question.

4.2.10.12 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during the conversation?

Open ended responses

Open ended answers given by respondents on whether it is right to touch someone whom you are not conversant with during conversation were classified into 4 groups. These groups are:

Dependency level: in this category, respondents think to touch the second party during conversation depends on the person and how that person feels.

Specific parts to touch: respondents in this group believe that you can only touch specific parts of the second party during conversation

Familiarities or necessities: These groups of respondents think touching during conversation is influenced by familiarities or is a necessity

Comfort level: to touch during conversation is dependent upon how comfortable both parties are at that time.

Summaries of the 4 categories and their corresponding verbatim responses are summarized in Table 4.2.2.177 below. The categories applied to all the regions but not every one of them may be found in each region.

Table 4.2.2.177 Open ended responses on whether it is right to touch during conversation

| Categories             | Verbatim response   |
|------------------------|---|
| Dependency level       | It depends on the situation. Sometimes it is possible for instance when it is necessary to calm the person down. It depends on whether I like this person or not. It depends on how and what we talk about. Well I do not know, it depends on how I feel about the person.<br>It depends on the situation. It depends on a person in front of me. It depends on situation |
| Specific part to touch | Gentle touch on the shoulder at the end of the conversation is appropriate  |
| Familiarity            | I think it could cause dissatisfaction with a person I do not know very well. It could be seen as inappropriate for him or her. At first you need to make friends with the person and learn about his or her peculiarities  |

One's opinions about touching during conversation are associated with gender of the persons concern.

Hypothesis

**Ho:** touching during conversation is dependent on the gender of persons involved.

**Ha:** touching during conversation is not dependent on the gender of the persons involved.

Table 4.2.2.178 Observed and expected frequencies of students' feelings about touching

| Class                 | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(oij - eij)^2}{eij}$ |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Female                |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 19                         | 22.8807                    | 0.6582                      |
| No as it is impolite  | 67                         | 63.1193                    | 0.2386                      |
| Male                  |                            |                            |                             |
| Yes as it is friendly | 10                         | 6.1193                     | 2.410                       |
| No as it is impolite  | 13                         | 16.8807                    | 0.8921                      |
| $\chi^2$              |                            |                            | 4.2499                      |

Chi-Square = 4.2499, DF = 1, P-Value = 0.066

Decision/conclusion

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 4.2499 is greater than the tabulated chi-square of 3.841 with 1 degree of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05, we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that there is association between gender and opinion about touching during conversation in Russia. Opinion about touching during conversation does not have any dependency on gender in Russia.

Conclusions:

The following conclusions have been drawn from questionnaire 1 and 2 based on the findings.

Students' enjoyment of conversation is not associated with gender in Russia and majority of students in this region enjoy speaking with others.

Most students feel comfortable speaking with others but this does not depend on the gender of students.

Some Russian students feel comfortable in social situations but this is greatly influenced by gender.

Most students in this region are satisfied with their interpersonal skills irrespective of their gender.

Touching during conversation depend on the gender of students in question.

### 4.3 ALL REGIONS

#### 4.3.1 Questionnaire 1: Regarding how students feel about communicating with others and their interpersonal skills.

##### 4.3.1.1 Question 5: Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

Table 4.2.2.179 Respondents' feelings in social situations by country of origin

| Country/<br>Percentage | Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations |        |          |                         |         |
|------------------------|--|--------|----------|-------------------------|---------|
|                        | yes  | no     | not sure | depends on<br>situation | Total   |
| China                  | 19   | 17     | 16       | 85                      | 137     |
| %                      | 13.87%   | 12.41% | 11.68%   | 62.04%                  | 100.00% |
| Ghana                  | 47   | 8      | 1        | 64                      | 120     |
| %                      | 39.17%   | 6.67%  | 0.83%    | 53.33%                  | 100.00% |
| Saudi Arabia           | 47   | 8      | 1        | 44                      | 100     |
| %                      | 47.00%   | 8.00%  | 1.00%    | 44.00%                  | 100.00% |
| Russia                 | 48   | 5      | 4        | 52                      | 109     |
| %                      | 44.04%   | 4.59%  | 3.67%    | 47.71%                  | 100.00% |
| Japan                  | 59   | 56     | 18       | 64                      | 197     |
| %                      | 29.95%   | 28.42% | 9.14%    | 32.49%                  | 100%    |
| total                  | 220  | 94     | 40       | 309                     | 663     |
| %                      | 33.18%   | 14.18% | 6.03%    | 46.61%                  | 100%    |

From table 4.2.2.179, country analysis revealed that comfort of most respondents from China (62.04%), Ghana (53.33%), Japan (32.49%) and Russia (47.71%) in social situations

depends on the situation in question while more students (47%) from Saudi Arabia feel comfortable in any social situation. Though the feelings of most respondents from the 5 regions depend on the situation, about 40% of respondents from Saudi Arabia, Ghana and Russia respectively feel comfortable in any situation.

Responses for all answer categories in all regions follow the same trend except for China whose percentage for those who feel comfortable in all situations is below 20%. Between 29% and 48% of respondents from Saudi Arabia, Russia, Japan and Ghana feel comfortable in any social situations, and less than 14% respondents from China feel comfortable in any social situation. Comparing all answer categories, it was noted that irrespective of country of origin, students' comfort in any social situation is dependent upon the situation concern. This trend of response may also be influenced by culture differences and educational structure of each region.

Table 4.2.2.180 Respondents' feelings in social situations by country of origin and gender

| Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations? |        |        |          |                          |       |
|---|--------|--------|----------|--------------------------|-------|
|   | yes    | no     | not sure | depends on the situation | Total |
| <b>Female</b>   |        |        |          |                          |       |
| China   | 11.40% | 12%    | 11%      | 66%                      | 100%  |
| Ghana   | 36.67% | 7%     | 0%       | 57%                      | 100%  |
| Saudi Arabia  | 44.68% | 13%    | 0%       | 43%                      | 100%  |
| Russia  | 38.37% | 2%     | 5%       | 55%                      | 100%  |
| Japan   | 23.36% | 23.36% | 11.22%   | 42.06%                   | 100%  |
| <b>Male</b>   |        |        |          |                          |       |
| China   | 26.09% | 13%    | 17%      | 43%                      | 100%  |
| Ghana   | 40.00% | 7%     | 1%       | 52%                      | 100%  |
| Saudi Arabia  | 49.06% | 4%     | 2%       | 45%                      | 100%  |
| Russia  | 65.22% | 13%    | 0%       | 22%                      | 100%  |
| Japan   | 37.78% | 34.44% | 6.67%    | 21.11%                   | 100%  |
| Total   | 13%    | 5%     | 45%      | 13%                      | 100%  |



Segregation by gender showed that about 66% Chinese female students and 52% of Ghanaian male students' comfort in social situations depend on the situation in question. Comparing this answer pattern with those who feel comfortable in any social situation, it was noted that less than 20% of Chinese female students feel comfortable in any social situation while with regard to their male counterparts it is less than 30%. In all the regions, Russian male students (65%) were the ones that feel more comfortable in any social situation. This could mean that communicating with a student from Russia may not be difficult and students from this region will easily adjust to any social situation. It also means that a person's region of origin may affect his or her comfort in any social situation.

#### 4.3.1.6 Question 6: Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

Table 4.2.2.181 Respondents' satisfaction with their interpersonal skills by country of origin

| Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills? |        |        |          |       |         |
|---|--------|--------|----------|-------|---------|
|   | yes    | no     | not sure | other | Total   |
| China   | 18     | 68     | 42       | 9     | 137     |
|   | 13.14% | 49.64% | 30.66%   | 6.57% | 100.00% |
| Ghana   | 79     | 16     | 18       | 7     | 120     |
|   | 65.83% | 13.33% | 15.00%   | 5.83% | 100.00% |
| Saudi Arabia                                      | 63     | 11     | 20       | 6     | 100     |
|   | 63.00% | 11.00% | 20.00%   | 6.00% | 100.00% |
| Russia  | 67     | 12     | 27       | 3     | 109     |
|   | 61.47% | 11.01% | 24.77%   | 2.75% | 100.00% |
| Japan   | 89     | 82     | 26       | 0     | 197     |
| %   | 45.18% | 41.62% | 13.20%   | 0%    | 100%    |
| Total   | 316    | 189    | 133      | 25    | 663     |
|   | 47.66% | 28.51% | 20.06%   | 3.77% | 100%    |

As shown in table 4.2.2.181, students from Ghana (65.83%) are more satisfied with their interpersonal skills than students from Saudi Arabia – 63%, Russia – 61.47%, China – 13.14% and Japan-45.18%. About 50% of Chinese and 41.62% Japanese students are not satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Though more than 50% of students from 3 out of

the 5 regions are satisfied with their interpersonal skills, response pattern of Chinese students show that most of them are either not satisfied or not sure of how they feel. This may be due to culture practices and traditions in their country. It could also be lack of positive self-esteem among these students.

Table 4.2.2.182 Students who enjoyed speaking with others and interpersonal skills

| Students satisfaction with interpersonal skills |        |        |          |       |       |
|---|--------|--------|----------|-------|-------|
|   | Yes    | no     | not sure | other | Total |
| Female  |        |        |          |       |       |
| China   | 14.04% | 48%    | 32%      | 6%    | 100%  |
| Ghana   | 60.00% | 17%    | 17%      | 7%    | 100%  |
| Saudi Arabia                                    | 53.19% | 13%    | 30%      | 4%    | 100%  |
| Russia  | 60.47% | 9%     | 28%      | 2%    | 100%  |
| Japan   | 48.60% | 35.51% | 15.89%   | 0%    | 100%  |
| Male  |        |        |          |       |       |
| China   | 8.70%  | 57%    | 26%      | 9%    | 100%  |
| Ghana   | 67.78% | 12%    | 14%      | 6%    | 100%  |
| Saudi Arabia                                    | 71.70% | 9%     | 11%      | 8%    | 100%  |
| Russia  | 65.22% | 17%    | 13%      | 4%    | 100%  |
| Japan   | 41.11% | 48.89% | 10%      | 0%    | 100%  |
| Total   | 49%    | 27%    | 20%      | 5%    | 100%  |

Segregation by country and gender showed the same trend as the previous analysis. More than 40% of female respondents from Russia, Ghana, Japan and Saudi Arabia are satisfied with their interpersonal skills and less than 15% of Chinese female feel satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Regarding male students from the 5 regions, Saudi Arabian male students (71.7%) were the most satisfied ones, and less than 10% of Chinese male students feel satisfied with their skills. Outcomes from these results show that in exception of China, more than 40% of both male and female students from other regions are confident and satisfied with their interpersonal skills.

**4.3.2 Questionnaire 2: Regarding the use of nonverbal communication which may have an impact on interpersonal communication in intercultural situations**

4.3.2.1 Question 6: How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?

Table 4.2.2.183 Level of body language and gesture usage in communication by country

| Categories        | China | Ghana | Saudi Arabia | Russia | Japan | total |
|-------------------|-------|-------|--------------|--------|-------|-------|
| about 70% or more | 2%    | 28%   | 7%           | 3%     | 2%    | 8%    |
| 60% - 70%         | 5%    | 18%   | 8%           | 14%    | 5%    | 10%   |
| 50% - 60%         | 15%   | 18%   | 15%          | 17%    | 15%   | 16%   |
| 40% - 50%         | 18%   | 10%   | 22%          | 20%    | 18%   | 17%   |
| 30% - 40%         | 19%   | 8%    | 18%          | 27%    | 19%   | 18%   |
| 20% -30%          | 18%   | 8%    | 16%          | 16%    | 18%   | 15%   |
| 10% - 20%         | 13%   | 5%    | 8%           | 2%     | 13%   | 8%    |
| 0% - 10%          | 9%    | 3%    | 5%           | 2%     | 9%    | 6%    |
| 0%                | 0%    | 2%    | 0%           | 0%     | 0%    | 0.33% |
| other:            | 1%    | 1%    | 1%           | 1%     | 1%    | 1%    |
| Total             | 100%  | 100%  | 100%         | 100%   | 100%  | 100%  |

Using gestures and body language; all students use some form of body language or gestures during conversation. About 28% of Ghanaian students use more than 70% gesture and body language in their communication, and this trend is seen in all 5 regions.

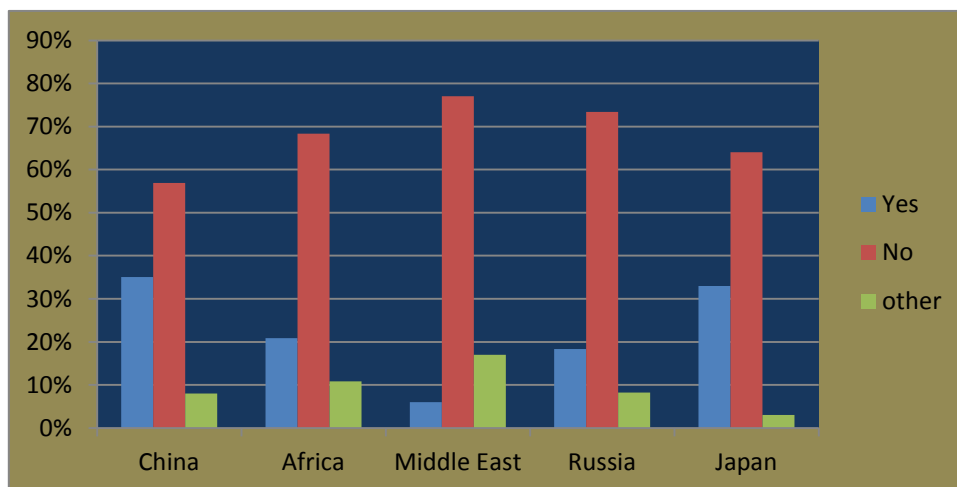
Table 4.2.2.184 Level of body language and gesture usage in communication by country and gender

| Categories        | Female |       |              |        |        | Male  |       |              |        |        | total |
|-------------------|--------|-------|--------------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------------|--------|--------|-------|
|                   | China  | Ghana | Saudi Arabia | Russia | Japan  | China | Ghana | Saudi Arabia | Russia | Japan  |       |
| about 70% or more | 3%     | 30%   | 9%           | 2%     | 11.32% | 0%    | 27%   | 6%           | 4%     | 4.26%  | 10%   |
| 60% - 70%         | 4%     | 13%   | 11%          | 15%    | 9.43%  | 10%   | 20%   | 6%           | 9%     | 6.38%  | 10%   |
| 50% - 60%         | 16%    | 27%   | 17%          | 20%    | 28.30% | 10%   | 16%   | 13%          | 4%     | 12.77% | 16%   |
| 40% - 50%         | 17%    | 10%   | 19%          | 19%    | 13.21% | 19%   | 10%   | 25%          | 26%    | 6.38%  | 16%   |
| 30% - 40%         | 22%    | 0%    | 15%          | 27%    | 13.21% | 5%    | 10%   | 21%          | 26%    | 25.53% | 16%   |
| 20% -30%          | 15%    | 7%    | 17%          | 13%    | 18.87% | 38%   | 8%    | 15%          | 26%    | 23.40% | 18%   |
| 10% - 20%         | 13%    | 10%   | 9%           | 1%     | 5.66%  | 14%   | 3%    | 8%           | 4%     | 19.15% | 9%    |
| 0% - 10%          | 10%    | 3%    | 2%           | 2%     | 0%     | 0%    | 3%    | 8%           | 0%     | 2.13%  | 3%    |
| 0%                | 0%     | 0%    | 0%           | 0%     | 0%     | 0%    | 2%    | 0%           | 0%     | 0%     | 0%    |
| other:            | 0%     | 0%    | 2%           | 1%     | 0%     | 5%    | 1%    | 0%           | 0%     | 0%     | 1%    |
| Total             | 100%   | 100%  | 100%         | 100%   | 100%   | 100%  | 100%  | 100%         | 100%   | 100%   | 100%  |

Concerning gender, 70% of the communication of the majority of Ghanaian female students (30%) consists of gestures and this trend is the same for their male (27%) counterparts. With regard to Chinese male students 20-30% of their communication consists of gestures but less than 20% of female Chinese use gestures. Response percentages from Saudi Arabia, Japan and Russia were evenly distributed for both sexes.

4.3.2.7 Question 7: When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch them during a conversation?

Figure 4.2.35 Respondent's opinion about touching during conversation



Students from all the regions do not agree on touching during conversation. Less than 40% of respondents accept touching as showing friendliness.

Table 4.2.2.185 Students' opinions on touching during conversation by gender and region

| Sex/Country   | Is it appropriate to touch someone during conversation? |            |           | Total       |
|---------------|---|------------|-----------|-------------|
|               | Yes   | No         | Not sure  |             |
| <b>Male</b>   |   |            |           |             |
| China         | 36%   | 56%        | 8%        | 100%        |
| Ghana         | 30%   | 60%        | 10%       | 100%        |
| Saudi Arabia  | 6%  | 85%        | 9%        | 100%        |
| Russia        | 14%   | 78%        | 8%        | 100%        |
| Japan         | 43%   | 57%        | 0%        | 100%        |
| <b>Female</b> |   |            |           |             |
| China         | 29%   | 62%        | 10%       | 100%        |
| Ghana         | 18%   | 71%        | 11%       | 100%        |
| Saudi Arabia  | 6%  | 70%        | 25%       | 100%        |
| Russia        | 35%   | 57%        | 9%        | 100%        |
| Japan         | 25%   | 70%        | 5%        | 100%        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>24%</b>  | <b>67%</b> | <b>9%</b> | <b>100%</b> |

Comparing sentiments about touching by country and gender, more than 55% of respondents from the 5 regions perceive touching during conversation as impolite and rude.

Chi – Square. Association between respondents’ country of origin, and their opinions about touching during conversations.

Hypothesis

**Ho:** there is association between respondents’ country of origin and sentiments about touching during conversation

**Ha:** there is no association between respondents’ country of origin and sentiments about touching during conversation

Table 4.2.2.186 Observed and expected frequencies of students’ opinions about touching

| Class                 | Observed frequencies (Oij) | Expected frequencies (eij) | $\frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| China                 |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 48                         | 31.95                      | 8.0627                               |
| No as it is impolite  | 78                         | 92.22                      | 2.1927                               |
| Other                 | 11                         | 12.83                      | 0.2610                               |
| Ghana                 |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 25                         | 27.99                      | 0.3194                               |
| No as it is impolite  | 82                         | 80.78                      | 0.0184                               |
| Other                 | 13                         | 11.24                      | 0.2756                               |
| Saudi Arabia          |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 6                          | 23.32                      | 12.8637                              |
| No as it is impolite  | 77                         | 67.31                      | 1.3950                               |
| Other                 | 17                         | 9.36                       | 6.2361                               |
| Russia                |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 20                         | 25.42                      | 1.1556                               |
| No as it is impolite  | 80                         | 73.37                      | 0.5991                               |
| Other                 | 9                          | 10.21                      | 0.1434                               |
| Japan                 |                            |                            |                                      |
| Yes as it is friendly | 33                         | 23.32                      | 4.0181                               |
| No as it is impolite  | 64                         | 67.31                      | 0.1628                               |
| Other                 | 3                          | 9.36                       | 4.3215                               |
| $\chi^2$              |                            |                            | 42.0248                              |

Chi-Square calculated = 42.0248, DF = 8, P-Value = <0.05

#### Decision

Since the computed Chi-Square test statistics of 42.0248 is greater than the tabulated chi-square of 15.51 with 8 degrees of freedom (DF) and significance level of 0.05; we failed to accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that there is association between respondents' country of origin and sentiments about touching during conversation. Opinion about touching during conversation does not have any dependency on a person's country of origin.

#### Conclusion

Based on the findings of the research, the following conclusions have been drawn:

Comfort in social situations of most respondents from the 5 regions depends on the situation in question. Apart from Saudi Arabian students, comfort in social situations of the majority of female respondents also depends on the situation concern.

Ghanaian students are more satisfied with their interpersonal skills than their counterparts from other regions. In exception of Chinese students, the interpersonal satisfaction of both female and male students from other regions is above average.

Majority of students from the 5 regions do not agree with touching during conversation.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The role of interpersonal competence in English language education was explored in the literature review under the broad themes of a lack of interpersonal skills being incorporated in language teaching methodology; and the interpersonal skills necessary to communicate effectively. The broad theme of interpersonal skills being incorporated in language teaching methodology was investigated through an overview of the theories and principles of language learning in sections 2.2 and 2.3 of chapter 2, which look into the teaching methodology in Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana. It was determined that interpersonal skills are not incorporated in English language teaching methodology. The broad theme of interpersonal skills necessary to communicate effectively were investigated in subsection 2.5.2, which explores the role of self-concept in the promotion of interpersonal communication, and the development of rapport in subsection 2.5.3.

The interpersonal skills necessary for effective communication with people from different cultural backgrounds, with a focus on nonverbal communication was explored in section 2.7. As part of the theme of the use of interpersonal skills, the role of gender was discussed in section 2.6. The significance of these themes was investigated through the administration of two questionnaires in order to determine the relevance of introducing interpersonal skills in language teaching based on how students perceive their interpersonal skills in questionnaire 1 (Appendix A), as well as how they use such skills in questionnaire 2 (Appendix B).

The significance based on an analysis of thematic findings as well as suggestions as to how to pedagogically address the incorporation of interpersonal skills in English language teaching is given in the following sections.



## **5.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND THEIR SIGNIFICANCE**

### **5.2.1 The first finding and its significance**

Questionnaire responses indicate that the majority of students in Ghana, Saudi Arabia, and Russia are satisfied with their interpersonal skills. However, even though the majority of students in these countries are satisfied with their interpersonal skills, this does not discount the fact that over 10 percent of students in these countries are not satisfied with their interpersonal skills. In Japan 41.62 percent, and China 49.64 percent of students indicated that they were not satisfied with their interpersonal skills.

### **5.2.2 The second finding and its significance**

Following the researcher's personal experience in noticing that male students in Japan seemed to participate less actively in pair and group work compared to females, gender differences were investigated. The literature review tended to support the view that females by way of nature or nurture are inclined to have better interpersonal skills than males. However, questionnaire results regarding how students feel about their interpersonal skills, indicate how one perceives and uses one's interpersonal skills may depend more upon 'nurture' or cultural upbringing than on 'nature' in terms gender. Male students from Saudi Arabia seem to be the most satisfied with their interpersonal skills (71.7%) while male students in China seemed to be the least satisfied (less than 10%).

### **5.2.3 The third finding and its significance**

A review of literature was used to provide background information into how English is taught in various countries and regions of the world, such as Japan, Russia, China, Saudi Arabia, and Ghana. This information was used to determine whether interpersonal skills were introduced as part of English language teaching. The literature review found that although in many countries such as Japan and Russia there has been a gradual shift to

communicative language teaching, however, the development of interpersonal skills necessary to communicate confidently and successfully is not considered.

#### **5.2.4 The fourth finding and its significance**

Responses to the use of nonverbal communication indicates that students are highly aware of their use of nonverbal communication, although the degree to which they feel they use such communication is generally less than 60 to 70 percent figure cited by researchers (Birdwhistell, 1970:158; Engleberg, 2006:133).

#### **5.2.5 The fifth finding and its significance**

Results of the questionnaires were surprising as they often went against views found in the review of research literature. With regard to oculosics, the literature review indicated that Japanese use little or no eye contact. This may be found in statements such as,

"When Japanese talk face to face, they do not exchange eye-to-eye contacts. They tend to glance at each other somewhere from under the eyes to around the mouth tenderly or vaguely" (Honna, 1989:24), and,

"there can be little question that English place higher value on and practice more eye contact than Japanese case for case" (Brosnahan,1990: 112).

Similar views in terms of Japanese lack of eye contact may also be found in Bochner's view that,

"Japanese must learn to have more eye-contact with westerners during conversation than is customary in their own culture"(1982:164), and, in Argyle's statement that,

"In Japan people do not look each other in the eye much, but are taught to look at the neck" (Argyle & Cook, 1976:29).

Questionnaire results indicate that a vast majority of students in Japan as well as in all the other regions investigated, students use eye contact when holding a conversation. Where students gave different responses in terms of eye contact between a teacher and friend, they

gave reasons such as "I know my friends better", "I am not used to speaking with teachers," or "because I am shy." There was absolutely no indication that less eye contact would be considered a more polite way to behave when interacting with a teacher as implied in this statement:

"Younger Japanese are not supposed to look higher than the breast bone of the elder." (Argyle & Cook, 1976:77).

### **5.2.6 The sixth finding and its significance**

Responses regarding the appropriateness of the use of touch were similar for all countries. Seventy seven percent of students in Saudi Arabia feel it is impolite. Majority responses in all countries consider it impolite to touch someone during conversation. This response seems to concur with one finding in the review of literature regarding Japan, which indicates a lack of physical contact in Japanese society in these words:

"A considerable number of Japanese teenagers reported no physical contact at all with either a parent or with a friend. The adult Japanese extends the pattern by restricting not only tactile communication but facial and gestural as well." (Morain, 1986:73).

### **5.2.7 The seventh finding and its significance**

Responses in terms of greater proxemic space between a teacher and a student as compared to that of between friends indicate comparable responses as in the area of oculosics. Students also attributed their difference in response to a lack of knowing teachers on a personal basis and in being shy. In that students are unable to get to know their teachers better on a personal basis may be due to the implied social distance between students and teachers. Students may regard teachers as authority figures and teachers may avoid personal contact due to a concept of 'professionalism', which discourages personal involvement with students. The differences in proxemic space based on students feelings of shyness, or not being able to get to know their teachers on a personal basis is therefore not one of regarding

teachers with greater respect or status, but may be considered in terms of Hudson's concept of power and solidarity (1980:123) where a high solidarity relationship is demonstrated by close proxemic space as found between friends. A low solidarity relationship would therefore be demonstrated by a wider proxemic space between a teacher and student.

### **5.2.8 Conclusion**

Results from the literature review indicate that although CLT is being promoted as a teaching methodology in the countries investigated, its incorporation into the classroom is hampered by a lack of confidence on the part of teachers who may have become accustomed to lecture style methods as in the case of China, as well as educational systems geared towards passing examinations as in the case of Japan. Furthermore, even though CLT is being promoted in various regions and educational institutions, the literature review found no evidence of interpersonal skills being incorporated into the method; with its aims strictly adhering to the development of linguistic ability. As English is increasingly being used as a lingua franca, an important aspect of developing communicative ability is the development of interpersonal skills particularly in intercultural and cross-cultural situations.

Although the literature review indicated that females are more capable in social situations whether by Nature or Nurture, responses to the questionnaires indicated that in some regions such as Russia and the Middle East males may feel more adept in social situations than females. In order that both males and females can feel they are afforded equal opportunities in respect of well-developed confidence in using their communicative skills, such gender issues should be addressed in class. The following sections give practical examples on developing interpersonal skills in the areas of confidence, listening and speaking, and nonverbal communication. The influence of cultural expectations regarding interpersonal communication is also touched upon in that 'cultural awareness helps us understand that interpersonal competence is specific to a given culture' (Devito, 2008:33). Suggestions in improving interpersonal skills both in terms of observable behavior as well as in improving one's self-concept are provided.

The explanation and application of such skills will allow students to feel more confident by making them more aware of the explicit skills required in a social exchange in that ‘people can usually recognize good communication when they observe it, but do not always know *why* it is different from ineffective communication’ (Caputo, 1997:31). The following sections will provide suggestions geared towards improving interpersonal skills both in terms of observable behavior as well as in improving one’s self-concept. Both factors may influence one another in developing effective communication skills in that,

“How you communicate with others and how they respond to you affects how much you like yourself. When you like yourself, your self-esteem is high. Usually, when you have high self-esteem, you communicate with others in more supportive, open ways. Learning skills for effectively communicating with others will probably increase your self-esteem.” (Ratliffe & Hudson, 1988:56).

### **5.3 INDENTIFICATION OF CATEGORIES AND THEIR GROUPING INTO THEMES**

The questions on Questionnaire 1 (Appendix A) and Questionnaire 2 (Appendix B) were used as categories in gathering data. The provided multiple-choice answers serve as response themes. Although qualitative data was collected by allowing respondents an option of explaining their choice of answers where they did not choose from the provided alternatives, qualitative data in comparison to the quantitative data was not significant owing to the low number of responses in comparison to the high number of answers chosen from the provided alternatives. Results of the qualitative data as well as their groupings according to themes were described in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research findings*. Due to the low frequency of such responses, the qualitative data had little impact on the overall findings, which were primarily based on multiple-choice responses.

For this reason, primary conclusions in this section are presented in terms of categories and themes based on multiple-choice responses. Findings based on these multiple-choice

question categories and response themes are given in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research findings*. In order to further assist in analyzing the data in the development of a theory of the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching, the findings described in chapter one and their significance as described in section 5.2 titled *Research Findings and their Significance* are used in further determining categories and themes, which serve in the development of a theory of the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching.

### **5.3.1 Identification of categories**

The categories used in developing a theory of the role of interpersonal competence in English language education were based on the questions included in Questionnaire 1 (Appendix A) and Questionnaire 2 (Appendix B), which were analyzed in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research findings* and the significance of the findings described in section 5.2., entitled *Research Findings and their Significance*.

#### 5.3.1.1 First group of categories

The first group of categories is based on the questions included in Questionnaire 1 (Appendix A), which were analyzed in Chapter Four, entitled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research findings* and in subsection 5.2.1 titled *The first finding and its significance*. Question 6: ‘*Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?*’ is an important part of this group of categories as it directly asks students about how they feel about their interpersonal skills.

#### 5.3.1.2 Second group of categories

The second group of categories is based on gender responses to the questions contained in Questionnaire 1 (Appendix A), which are analyzed in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research findings*, and subsection 5.2.2 titled *The second finding*

*and its significance.* Gender responses to Question 6: *Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?* Is an important part of this group of categories?

#### 5.3.1.3 Third group of categories

The third group of categories is based on the questions contained in Questionnaire 2 (Appendix B), which were analyzed in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research finding*, and the significance of findings described in subsections 5.2.4, 5.2.5, 5.2.6, and 5.2.7 related to how students use their interpersonal skills, with a focus on nonverbal communication. Questions related to how students use eye contact, proxemics, backchannels, touch, as well as how much of their communication consists of gestures or body language is important in determining this group of categories.

### **5.3.2 Emerging themes**

Emerging themes are based on responses to questions, which were described and analyzed in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation, and the research findings* and the significance of the responses described in section 5.2 titled *Research Findings and their Significance*. Emerging themes include student satisfaction with their interpersonal skills, gender differences in terms of responses, and how students use their interpersonal skills with a focus on nonverbal communication.

#### 5.3.2.1 First theme

The first theme relates to how satisfied students are with their interpersonal skills. Research findings described and analyzed in Chapter 4 indicate that majority of students in Ghana, Saudi Arabia, and Russia is satisfied with their interpersonal skills. In Ghana 66%, in Saudi Arabia 63% and in Russia 61% of students are satisfied with their interpersonal skills. On the other hand, only 13.4% of Chinese students and 45% of Japanese students were satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Even in countries where a large percentage of students indicated satisfaction with their interpersonal skills, a significant number indicated

dissatisfaction with their interpersonal skills. The first theme indicates that a large number of students are dissatisfied with their interpersonal skills.

#### 5.3.2.2 Second theme

The second theme relates to whether there are gender differences with regard to responses related to interpersonal skills. Gender responses are described and statistically analyzed in Chapter Four. The significance of findings is described in subsection 5.2.2. An analysis of gender responses and the significance of findings described in subsection 5.2.2 indicate that gender differences in terms of interpersonal skills may have a cultural component as 70% of male students in Saudi Arabia indicate strong satisfaction with their interpersonal skills while less than 10% of male students in China indicate satisfaction with their interpersonal skills. However, an analysis of gender responses within each country to the questions of Questionnaire 1 does not indicate statistical significance.

In Ghana however, regarding question 1, statistical significance was found regarding enjoyment of speaking with others, over 85% of males, and 60% of females enjoying doing so. However no statistical significance was found regarding Question 5 of Questionnaire 1 where it is asked: *Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?* As well as Question 6 regarding satisfaction with interpersonal skills. In Japan however, statistical significance was found regarding responses to Question 1 of Questionnaire 1 with more males enjoying speaking with others. Statistical significance however was not found in terms of differences in gender responses regarding satisfaction with interpersonal skills in responses to Question 6 of Questionnaire 1.

These findings indicate no statistical significance for a majority of responses in the countries surveyed in terms of gender. Results are surprising as the literature review in section 2.6 titled *the role of gender and interpersonal skills in mastering a foreign language* strongly suggests that females whether by 'nature' or 'nature' are more socially inclined than males and demonstrate greater interpersonal skills. Despite no statistical



significance being shown in terms of interpersonal skills and gender based on questionnaire responses, conclusions regarding this theme and the role it may play in developing interpersonal skills in the English language class should be made cautiously in face of findings from the literature review and the researcher's own personal experience. In that students responded to questions based on their own subjective experience of their interpersonal skills, it may be that females view their interpersonal skills from a different perspective than males.

### 5.3.2.3 Third theme

The third theme involves how students use nonverbal skills in interpersonal communication with a focus on nonverbal communication. The theme is based on responses to questions on Questionnaire 2 (Appendix B), which are described and analyzed in Chapter Four titled *Data analysis, interpretation and the research findings*, and the significance of research findings described in subsections 5.2.4, 5.2.5, 5.2.6, and 5.2.7. Based on responses to questions contained in Questionnaire 2 and the significance of research findings, the third theme should point to student awareness of the use of interpersonal skills involving backchannels, nonverbal communication, and proxemics. Students may be aware of the use of interpersonal skills in their own culture; however, due to cultural differences in how such interpersonal skills are used as indicated in the literature review as well as questionnaire results, an important aspect of the third theme is in developing awareness of the use of interpersonal skills in intercultural situations.

## 5.4 THE THEORY CONSTRUCTED FROM THE THEMES

A review of literature and research results from the administration of two questionnaires, points to three main themes in developing a theory of the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching. The first theme involves student confidence as related to their interpersonal skills, the second involves the role of gender in interpersonal communication, and the third involves the use of interpersonal skills in intercultural situations. Based on

research findings from a review of literature and questionnaire data results, which served to determine these three major themes as to the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching, the theory of the role of interpersonal competence in English language teaching may be summarized in the following manner:

Interpersonal skills form an integral part of effective communication. English language teaching methodology, which is solely focused on the development of linguistic skills, is insufficient in the development of communicative competence. The development of interpersonal skills may not only lead to more effective communication, but may also assist students in becoming more confident communicators. Factors that are important in the development of effective communication may assist students in becoming more confident communicators; include developing their self-concept regarding interpersonal interaction, developing rapport, and understanding cultural differences related to interpersonal skills, particularly in the area of nonverbal communication.

#### **5.4.1 Introduction**

The following sections describes the importance of the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching based on the literature and questionnaire findings, which served to elucidate the three major themes of student confidence regarding their interpersonal skills, gender and interpersonal skills, and the use of interpersonal skills with a focus on nonverbal communication. The theory may serve as a guide to including interpersonal skills in English language teaching to students not only in Ghana, China, Japan, Russia, and Saudi Arabia, but may also serve as a guide to developing interpersonal skills in English language teaching to students around the world.

## **5.4.2 The theory of teaching interpersonal skills in English language education**

### 5.4.2.1 First theme: Developing interpersonal skills and confidence

According to the first theme it is advisable to teach interpersonal skills to students studying English in order that they feel confident when interacting and communicating with other English speaking people. Research findings indicate that the degree of confidence that students feel regarding their interpersonal skills varies from one country to the other. Questionnaire responses indicate that the majority of students in Ghana, Saudi Arabia, and Russia are satisfied with their interpersonal skills. However, even though the majority of students in these countries are satisfied with their interpersonal skills, this does not discount the fact that over 10 percent of students in these countries are not satisfied with their interpersonal skills. The needs of these students should be addressed in order to develop confidence in communicating with others.

Those who do feel confident with their interpersonal skills will benefit further if such skills are developed. In Japan 41.62 percent, and China 49.64 percent of students indicated that they were not satisfied with their interpersonal skills. Such a large number of students indicating a lack of confidence in interpersonal skills may hamper the implementation of CLT methods requiring pair and group work. Students who lack confidence regarding their interpersonal skills may also be reluctant to engage socially and even avoid communicating with others, which undermines the rationale behind CLT. This underlines the importance of including the development of interpersonal skills in English language teaching, particularly so in that a survey of teaching methodology in section 2.2 as well as how English is taught around the world in section 2.3 indicates that the methodologies used do not contain an interpersonal skills component. The following section gives practical suggestions as to how students may develop a more confident self-concept regarding their interpersonal skills.

#### 5.4.2.2 Teaching methodology in addressing the first theme

In this section practical pedagogical activities are suggested regarding the development of interpersonal skills in the English language classroom. These activities reflect research findings in the literature review concerning factors which contribute to interpersonal competence such as subsection 2.5.2 where the role of self-concept in the promotion of interpersonal communication in the learning of a foreign language is discussed, subsection 2.5.3 where the role of rapport in interpersonal competence is evaluated, and section 2.7 where cultural aspects of the use of interpersonal competence is described.

#### 5.4.2.3 Self-concept and interpersonal communication

##### ➤ Diaries

The use of a diary may be an opportunity to change one's feelings of negative dissatisfaction by encouraging reflecting on social exchanges as a positive learning experience, concentrating on what was gained in the exchanges, to encourage students to focus on the positive aspects of social interaction. This may serve to address the needs of students who responded that they did not feel comfortable speaking with people in question 1 or who felt nervous speaking with someone for the first time in question 4 of questionnaire 1 (Appendix A). They may record the knowledge that they gained in terms of the content discussed, as well as by making notes about what they appreciated about the exchange (for example, if they were able to communicate some aspect of themselves, and the other person showed genuine interest, etc.). If some misunderstanding took place during the exchange, they could use that knowledge in a future exchange (such as asking more clarifying questions, showing more reaction to the other speaker to build rapport, using more eye contact, smiling more, asking more in-depth questions, which will be further discussed below).

This may serve to develop confidence by allowing students to become better aware of their increasing effective use of such skills. Although students may reflect on aspects, which

they feel may need improvement, which they may apply to further exchanges, they should understand that it is okay to just ‘go with the flow’ and not worry about having to control the exchange or always feel the need to have been ‘successful’ in a social exchange as this may lead to an ‘all or nothing’ attitude as previously discussed. In the end, even though students may have done their utmost in being open and positive during a social exchange, and have used appropriate social skills, how the other person interacts with them will equally contribute to the success of the exchange. It just may be that ‘you cannot please everyone all of the time.’

Diary assignment:

Think about a recent interpersonal experience you have had or keep a diary for a decided amount of time. You may use some of the following questions as a guide: What did you discuss? What was positive about the experience? What did you learn? How did you keep the conversation going? What nonverbal behavior did you use? What did you learn about your interpersonal skills? What would have made the exchange better? What interpersonal skills did the other person use? What could the other person have done better? These questions are used for self-reflection in the diary. They may be used to better understand one’s use of interpersonal skills as a way to improve those skills. This could be of assistance to students who indicated a lack of confidence with interpersonal skills based on responses to questionnaire 1 (Appendix A). This may also serve to address the needs of students who responded that they did not feel comfortable speaking with people in question 1 or who felt nervous speaking with someone for the first time in question 4 of questionnaire 1 (Appendix A).

➤ Visualization

People who feel that they lack social skills and therefore avoid taking part in social exchanges may tend to visualize future social events negatively. They may visualize a future social event and ‘catastrophize’ it, telling themselves that things may not go as they

“want them to (a rational belief), and adding that if they do not, it will be ‘terrible,’ ‘awful,’ or ‘horrible,’ and that you ‘won’t be able to stand it” (Garner, 1997:161). Often people who are afraid of socializing imagine a worst case scenario—saying or doing something embarrassing, being ignored, not know what to say, not knowing how to act. They visualize a social event ending in a disaster, that they would not enjoy the company of others, and see themselves as failures in any interpersonal exchanges which may take place. Since feelings of having inadequate social skills may be based on self-prophesying through such visualization, a more positive type of visualization in which one perceives oneself as achieving success in an interpersonal situation may serve to develop a more confident self-image regarding one’s interpersonal skills. The idea is to think of or visualize socializing in positive terms.

Visualization may serve as a way to rehearse future social encounters in much the same way as athletes mentally rehearse before an event, which has proven to increase the chances of success (Janssen & Sheikh, 1994:33). This type of rehearsal not only serves to anticipate possible behavior during a social encounter in terms of the use of interpersonal skills, but may also help prepare for such encounters emotionally by replacing any negative images of such encounters with positive ones. Such mental picturing may serve to create a new image of oneself as a successful communicator by “new ‘memories’ or stored data into your mid-brain and central nervous system” (Maltz, 1960:46).

This may serve to address the needs of students who responded that they did not feel comfortable speaking with people in question 1 or who felt nervous speaking with someone for the first time in question 4 in questionnaire 1 (Appendix A). Visualization may serve as a way to reduce anxiety in future social encounters through a process called ‘imagery desensitization’ where one visualizes a successful outcome in steps; which has shown to benefit those with social phobias (Bourne, 2005:151-152). Rehearsing future social encounters may not only serve as a way to develop confidence in interpersonal skills, but also serve as a way to practice language skills mentally.

### Visualization assignment:

Visualize yourself taking part in a successful social exchange. Visualize the place, setting, and time of day. See the person you are socializing with (the way they look, age, and gender). Try to be as detailed as possible in your visualization to make it seem as real as possible. What are you discussing? Visualize the types of conversation you may have. Include in your visualization the reactions, as well as gestures and other nonverbal behavior you and the person or people are using. What sort of things did you visualize which made you feel good about the exchange? As with questions in the diary assignment these questions are used for self-reflection. They may be used to better understand one's use of interpersonal skills as a way to improve those skills. This could be of assistance to students who indicated a lack of confidence with interpersonal skills based on responses to questionnaire 1 (Appendix A).

Write down your visualization from beginning to end. In your written visualization write down the dialogue you had. After having written your visualization down, play it back in your mind. Record your visualized successful social exchange and play it back if you prefer to learn by listening (for auditory learners). For kinesthetic learners, act out your visualization using gestures. You can also practice the dialogues you visualized with another student in class using what you have written. Not only may this type of visualization help develop confidence in social skills, but it is an excellent way to study English independently by anticipating conversational topics.

#### ➤ Affirmations

Internal dialogue (self-talk) in the form of thoughts and messages one sends oneself may have a profound effect on self-concept (Burns, 1999:62). If one's internal messages are in the form of constantly telling oneself that one lacks interpersonal skills, and that social encounters should be avoided as they are embarrassing and not enjoyable, this will serve to create a negative self-image regarding one's interpersonal skills, which may make one

reluctant to take part in interpersonal exchanges. Self-affirmations works by countering negative self-talk with positive self-talk, which may assist in changing the ‘core beliefs that underlie your self-talk’ (Bourne, 2005:205). For example, when a thought such as “I do not enjoy speaking with other people” pops into mind, counter it with “I do enjoy speaking with others,” or “I have all the skills I need to enjoy socializing,” or “I am becoming more and more comfortable in social situations.” Whatever negative thought comes up, change the negative thought into a positive one. Once this becomes a habit, the frequency of such thoughts may decrease (Bourne, 2005:399).

The following are more examples of affirmations which may be used, though it may be more effective for students to think of their own based on their own self-talk. As students’ self-talk would be in their native language, they may think of affirmations in their own language, unless their foreign language skills are sufficient enough to use affirmations in the language they are studying. The following affirmations may be of particular assistance to students who indicated a low level of self-confidence based on responses to questionnaire 1 (Appendix A).

1. I have all the skills I need to successfully socialize.
2. Others find me interesting to talk with.
3. I find speaking with others an enjoyable experience.
4. I learn many new things by speaking with others.
5. I feel relaxed and comfortable when talking with others.
6. Others are just as interested in speaking with me as I with them

#### 5.4.2.3.1 Developing Rapport

The importance of developing rapport is discussed in subsection 2.5.3 in the literature review.

Being able to use rapport is an important aspect of effective use of interpersonal skills. Students whose responses to questionnaire 1 (Appendix A) indicates a low level of self-



confidence regarding interpersonal skills may particularly benefit from the following suggested activity.

As developing rapport is an important aspect of interpersonal communication, all students would benefit from developing the ability to establish rapport.

#### Initiating a conversation assignment

Students may practice initiating conversations by having one student (or a pair of students) sit or stand somewhere in the classroom with another student coming up to them and trying to initiate a conversation. Before doing so, they may prepare to tell about an experience or comment about a recent event. Students may try to initiate topics by asking the other person questions using the words “How do you feel about..?”, “Where do you...?”, “What’s your...?”, “How do you...?”, “When did you...?”, “What kind of \_\_\_\_\_ do you like?”

If trying to take part in a conversation already taking place (which the other students may prepare beforehand), they may ‘hover’ and listen to initiate an opening comment. The comment may be in the form of adding extra information to the topic under discussion. The comment may create an opening for further conversation. Comments may also begin with the words “That’s interesting,” “I know how you feel,” “I think....” Students should be encouraged to also use a means of an entry such as smiling, making eye contact, giving a compliment, or saying “hello.”

#### ➤ **Developing the use of small talk**

The use of small-talk is discussed in subsection 2.5.7 of the literature review.

Using small-talk effectively may contribute to the effective use of interpersonal skills. Students whose responses to questionnaire 1 (Appendix A) indicate a low level of self-confidence regarding interpersonal skills may benefit from the following suggested activity.

➤ **Role plays**

Role plays are often used in language teaching to develop student fluency. Role plays may also be an effective way to develop the interpersonal skills of students along with that of their language skills. Examples of situations in which a role play may take place pertinent to developing interpersonal skills are at a party, international exchange, at a restaurant, waiting in a queue, at a café, while shopping. Topics, language, and situations in a currently used textbook may also be supplemented by carefully considering how they may be adapted in developing interpersonal skills.

In taking part in a role play, students may practice visualizations or affirmations before taking part in the role play. Students should practice initiating a conversation with their partners possibly initially playing a passive role. Students may practice one or all of the suggestions outlined in this thesis such as listening skills, nonverbal communication, self-disclosure, and small-talk. Students may practice adapting to the conversation style of the person they are speaking with.

During the conversation, students may take mental note of how they feel about how the social exchange developed. They may then write down and reflect on their feelings. One or two students may also be designated to observe a pair or group of students' role playing a social exchange. They may record feedback related to the use of interpersonal skills and the amount of rapport they felt was developed. Such observations may then be shared and reflected upon. If video equipment is available, a recording may be made of the exchange for later analysis.

➤ **Conversation styles**

In developing interpersonal skills regarding differing conversation styles, students may observe English language films or television dramas to observe how the characters interact during a conversation. Students may take notes regarding how topics develop during the

conversation as well as the frequency of the exchange in terms of how quickly topics change.

#### 5.4.2.2 Second theme: Gender and interpersonal skills

A review of research literature regarding gender differences in interpersonal communication as well as possible reasons behind these differences spanning both a Nature and Nurture focus suggests that women demonstrate superiority in the use of interpersonal skills, in their ability to develop rapport and work collaboratively. Although research results from the questionnaire indicated no statistically significant differences in terms of gender responses, more females than males in Japan indicated as being more confident with their interpersonal skills. In China Both Wang (2008) and Liu (2011) found that males are more likely to stand in an inferior position in English class. Therefore, special attention should be paid to them. In order to raise interest from the male students, games to teach English incorporating an element of competition may be used in class.

More importantly, equal opportunities between males and females must be created by teachers. For the boys who are poor in English, teachers could keep individual track records in order to observe their studies well (Wang, 2008:66). Although a review of literature suggest that women may have an advantage in the use of interpersonal skills, it would be unfair for an educator to categorize or label a particular student as having greater interpersonal skills only based on gender. There may also be differences in terms of cultural background, as Russian and Middle Eastern male students indicated greater confidence with their use of interpersonal skills than females. All students regardless of gender have the potential and ability to develop and improve their social skills. General findings from the review of literature and research results from the questionnaire may, however, serve as a guide to help understand differences, not as a basis for pigeonholing a person of a particular gender, but serving as a means of building awareness, allowing educators to address particular needs.

➤ **Teaching methodology in addressing the second theme**

Some researchers indicate that females use backchannels with greater frequency than males (Coates, 2004:87) With Japanese females using such listening responses with greater frequency than either Japanese males or American females (Furo, 1999:453), male Japanese students should be given opportunities to use backchannels such as *oh! Really! That is interesting, uh-huh!* to show their partner that they are actively following what their partner is saying and that they are actively engaged in the topic in order to achieve better rapport. Males should also be encouraged to use more follow-up questions, particularly open-ended questions to engage their speaking partners as a way to increase rapport as well as to encourage the other person to speak more. This will also indicate to the other person that you are interested in what he or she is saying, which is an important factor in building interpersonal relationships.

In terms of classroom tasks, collaborative activities may assist in addressing the particular interpersonal approaches of each gender. Such collaborative activities should involve ways to incorporate the hierarchical, agentic, and mastery approaches favoured by many men as well as the cooperative tendencies of females. A combination of both agentic and collaborative approaches may therefore serve to develop not only gender specific interpersonal skills, but may also address the learning styles of males and females. Collaborative activities may include working on a project where each student has a role to play in achieving a common goal, such as a group presentation based on a chosen country, social problem or global theme such as the environment. Agentic activities could entail an activity in which a particular goal is reached, such as finding the location of a place based on informative clues. These clues could involve further problem solving 'mastery' tasks such as having to match a definition based on previously learned vocabulary. The solving of the problems could be made interpersonally interactive by adding the requirement that the definitions required to solve the problem be requested from one or more other students in order to determine the sought location.

#### 5.4.2.4 Third theme: Interpersonal skills and intercultural communication

The third theme guiding the theory of the role of interpersonal skills in English language teaching relates to cultural factors regarding communication. Nonverbal communication was the topic of focus due to the possibility that such communication may create misunderstanding and discomfort as the use of nonverbal communication is greatly influenced by cultural upbringing and varies from country to country. Questionnaire results indicate that students in all the countries surveyed are aware of the use of nonverbal communication in their own cultures. Japanese students are awareness of the use of kinesics in communication may be due to the importance the Japanese place on the ability to understand and communicate with each other nonverbally in that 'many Japanese would like to believe that if they are Japanese, they should be able to understand each other without words' (Honna, 1989:164).

The Japanese use of a bow, which contains many subtleties regarding one's own status and position when addressing someone else is an example of an important use of body language in Japanese society. The wide range gestures used by Arabic speakers to accompany speech (Samovar and Porter, 1991:193) may also make them more aware of and sensitive to the use of gestures. This awareness of the use of gestures and or body language in nonverbal communication may serve as a starting point in discussing differences in the use of gestures and body language between speakers in one's own country and those in other countries 'as in many other areas of NVC, Japanese and English share much of their head gesture, but a number of gestures are specific to one or the other culture' (Brosnahan, 1990:90).

In teaching English to Japanese students the focus is often limited to developing English language skills. The current emphasis on communicative approaches in language teaching focuses on speaking and listening using various kinds of conversation strategies based on a variety of situations. Often nonverbal communication is an important aspect of cross-cultural communication that is overlooked, which may lead to misunderstanding. Understanding differences in use of nonverbal communication in intercultural situations may contribute to improved interpersonal competence when using foreign language skills.

The questionnaire served to clarify those aspects of culturally determined nonverbal communicative behavior, which may need to be dealt with. A comparison of opinions expressed in the review of literature with questionnaire results served as a way to re-evaluate previously held beliefs regarding Japanese use of nonverbal communication.

Although a review of literature indicated that in the area of oculosics Japanese students may be required to sustain greater eye contact, research results indicated that majority of the Japanese university students surveyed do feel that eye contact is an important part of communication. This aspect of nonverbal communication may thus be less cross-culturally significant than originally implied in the review of literature, although students should be made aware of the particular importance played by eye contact in American society as 'little or no eye-contact is commonly interpreted by English as insincerity or dishonesty or evasion' (Brosnahan, 1990:108). Student awareness of the importance of eye contact could thus be a useful stepping stone towards discussing the role of eye contact in Japan and whether it is of the same duration and plays the same importance as in the American society, considering the opinion of Honna that Japanese,

"feel uneasy about the way Americans stare. To them, it is too offensive and intimidating. Japanese feel defeated because they cannot endure it or deal with an 'eye for an eye.'" (1989:24).

Perhaps developing awareness of the use of eye contact in terms of positive and negative impressions, which may be caused by too much or too little eye contact may be sufficient in improving students use of this aspect of nonverbal communication in that,

"an aversion to eye contact may give the impression of being bored, disrespectful or unfriendly; too much may appear dominating, intimidating, contemptuous or rude, whereas a shifting gaze may create an impression of being nervous, furtive, insincere or untrustworthy" (Capper, 2000:21).

In the area of proxemics, Hall (1990:119-120) describes middle class American use of 'personal distance' as being between one and a half to four feet for informal contact between friends and a 'social distance' of four to twelve feet between acquaintances and strangers as used in business meetings, classrooms, and impersonal social affairs (1990:121-122). Questionnaire results indicate that Japanese university students hold a similar concept of interpersonal space as do middle class Americans. A review of literature indicates the view that Japanese people tend to stand at closer proximity, as may be found in Brosnahan's statement that,

"it seems that Japanese typically tend to shorten all the various English distances involved in intercultural contacts with English, with the predictable result that greater Japanese togetherness will appear to English as over familiar while greater English apartness will appear to Japanese over distant, cool, offish, even arrogant" (1990:37).

The review of literature also indicates that people in the Middle East prefer less proxemic distance; however responses parallel those of Japanese speakers. The majority of students in all countries prefer a distance of approximately 60 cm, whether speaking with a friend or teacher. It is only in Ghana and China where the proxemic space is less at a distance of 30 cm between friends. In order to avoid such misinterpretation of what is considered an appropriate distance to maintain when communicating with someone in a cross-cultural exchange, it may be beneficial for students to have further opportunities to reflect on this aspect of nonverbal behaviour by comparing instances of the use of proxemic space between themselves with those between native English speakers, as well as those involving people from other cultures as well.

Results concerning paralanguage in terms of the use of body language and phatic words and phrases to indicate that one is paying attention to what is being said (and understands what is being said) indicate that Japanese students are aware of the use of this competence in terms of Japanese communicative behavior and would benefit from awareness of their

equivalents as used by native English speakers. For example Japanese students may be made aware that the Japanese equivalent of the use of the vocal segregate *uh* used by native English speakers 'to signal that the speaker has not yielded the floor though he is searching for the proper expression' (Brosnahan, 1990:122) is '*eto*' or '*ano*'.

In the area of kinesics, students have good awareness of the use of gestures and body language, although this is based upon a Japanese context. An awareness of the differences in how gestures and body language are used by English speakers would thus be an important aspect to teach students. One student described to me her experience of using the Japanese gesture for 'no' by waving her hand in front of her face in response to a question by a member of her host family in Utah. Her host family did not understand the meaning of this gesture. This demonstrates the short comings of merely teaching communication in terms of functional language without a consideration of the use of nonverbal communication when communicating with someone from a different culture. An awareness of the use of gestures may also serve to promote better communication as students may become better aware of how the verbal components of what one is trying to say are integrated with the nonverbal components, particularly when using the English language skills they have learned.

In order to develop greater awareness of the use of nonverbal communication, students may be asked to demonstrate the types of gestures used in their country, which may serve as an introduction to comparison of gestures used in other cultures and countries; for example in the case of Japanese gestures such as pointing to the chest to indicate oneself, raising hands at the side of one's body if one does not understand, and crossing one's fingers for good luck.

➤ **Teaching methodology in addressing the third theme**

The pedagogical implications of the literature review and research findings may serve as a



basis for a number of approaches, which may be taken to develop student awareness of the use of nonverbal communication when communicating with a native English speaker (which may also lead to greater sensitivity when communicating in other cross-cultural situations). These may be based on the use of the self-reflective questionnaire, which was part of this research, observation of videos involving foreign dramas as well as ‘reality’ shows, and student fieldwork.

Although the purpose of the questionnaire administered to students was to further clarify findings during a literature review, the questionnaire may serve as a pedagogical tool in having students reflect on their use of nonverbal communication. Reflecting on their use of nonverbal communication may allow students not only to become better aware of how they themselves use nonverbal communication, but also how others use such communication, in particular when observing the use of nonverbal communication by someone from a different cultural background. The questionnaire used during research may be administered as a tool for student self-reflection. Upon completion students may discuss their responses with a partner or in small groups, which may allow further reflection regarding their use of nonverbal communication in comparison with that of others.

The observation of videos from various countries would allow students to observe the use of nonverbal communication in the context of a particular communicative situation, whether it occurs between friends, co-workers, or with people in high positions, such as bosses. The use of videos allows students to not only to observe isolated instances of nonverbal communication, but also the types of nonverbal communication, which may accompany speech acts. Students may be shown short selected clips of the use of nonverbal communication for instances, which the teacher feels are pertinently based on findings based on the literature review as well as on the results of the administered questionnaire. Students may be asked to take notes of their observations regarding a particular aspect of nonverbal communication, which the video clip contains, such as oculesics, proxemics, paralanguage, kinesics, or haptics. The instructor may ask students to focus on one aspect

of nonverbal communication or a number of aspects at a time. They may be asked to observe and take notes regarding any idiosyncrasies in the use of nonverbal communication by the people in the video, or differences in the use of such communication in their own culture based on the situation depicted in the video. Students may then share their observations with partners or in small groups. A larger class discussion may then follow.

Students may be advised to take part in fieldwork involving observation of the use of nonverbal communication within their own culture as well as among people from differing cultural backgrounds. Although the purpose of pedagogy outlined in this section of the thesis is to improve students' ability to communicate more effectively in English using nonverbal communication, it may be noted that the observation of foreigners who are not native English speakers may also be a source of developing student's awareness of nonverbal communication and the role it may play in making communication even more effective cross-culturally. Students may find sources for such observations through observing foreign students on campus as well as in interaction with their foreign teachers. Such opportunities may be necessary due to the highly homogenous character of some societies, such as a Japanese society.

In conducting field work, students may base their observations on reflecting on their own as well as their partners' use of nonverbal communication during a conversation. This may also lead to students re-evaluating their responses to the administered self-reflective questionnaire in terms of praxis. Students may be asked to observe other students during conversations and may also video tape such exchanges for further analysis. This approach may also be used in making observations regarding conversations with native English speakers or other foreigners.

Fieldwork may also involve the 'confederates', who may use nonverbal communication 'inappropriately' or 'unexpectedly', and also to observe how one's ignorant communication partner reacts to such behavior. In addition to observation, the ignorant communication

partner may be interviewed after observing the involvement and the ‘inappropriate’ or ‘unexpected’ use of nonverbal behaviour. Confederates use of ‘inappropriate’ or ‘unexpected’ nonverbal behaviour may include one or more aspects such as a lack or excessive use of eye contact, standing either too close to or too far from one’s partner, not using paralanguage during interaction, using exaggerated body language or no use of body language at all, and using touch in a ‘friendly’ manner but more often than what would be considered ‘normal’ in one’s own culture.

Observations of the video and fieldwork may be incorporated into English lessons involving the study of dialogues found in student textbooks used in a particular course (especially if nonverbal communication is not addressed). The observed video clips may also be used as a basis for role plays and dramas. Findings from observing videos and field work may also be used by teachers in creating a lesson where students identify the meaning of certain gestures. The following gesture lesson may serve to improve students’ knowledge and awareness of the use of nonverbal communication when communicating with someone from a different culture. The gestures introduced are generally those used in English speaking countries.

➤ **Gesture lesson**

This section is based on the literature review in section 2.7 titled ‘Culture and interpersonal competence in the learning of a foreign language’, and the results from questionnaire 2 (Appendix B) related to nonverbal communication. As findings of this study indicate cultural differences in the use of nonverbal communication students show awareness of their own use of nonverbal communication. The pedagogical activities should serve to increase awareness of differences in the use of nonverbal communication based on differing cultural backgrounds. These activities also serve to develop the interpersonal confidence of students, which is also related to the research findings of questionnaire 1 where some students indicated a lack of confidence in their interpersonal skills.

### **5.4.3 Part A: Pre-lesson activities**

The following activities are intended to increase student awareness of nonverbal communication in terms of gestures. The activities are intended to give students better insight into different ways in which gestures can be used to convey information. An understanding of students own use of gestures in the pre-lesson activities serves to prepare students for differences in culturally determined nonverbal behaviour in terms of gestures, which will be dealt with in the lesson material.

#### 5.4.3.1 Gesture charades

A game of charades is an effective 'warm up' for introducing the topic of gestures. The variety of ways gestures can be used to communicate various meanings may serve build student awareness of the use of gestures to communicate meaning in a different culture. The game may be played using English words that are already known to the students. Students may use gestures to guess objects in the classroom (such as pencil, desk, book), animals (dog, cat, bird), various types of food (spaghetti, hot dog, apple, carrot), or occupations (doctor, teacher, pilot)

#### *Procedure*

- 1) The class is divided into groups of 3 or 4 students.
- 2) All groups begin in a standing position. A member from each group comes up to the teacher who writes down the item to be gestured. Alternatively the students may contribute the items to be chosen by writing down an item on a slip of paper. The slips would then be collected and placed in a draw bag. The item would then be drawn and presented to the members of each group who have come up to the teacher.
- 3) Once the item has been seen, members from each of the groups quickly go back to their groups and gesture the item. Once a member of the group has guessed the item, the group sits down. The game continues until all groups are seated.

- 4) The teacher asks each group to demonstrate the gesture(s), which helped the group guess the item. The teacher notes any differences (or similarities) between the gestures used by various groups to make students aware of the various possibilities.
- 5) The game continues as above with each member of the group taking a turn at gesturing.
- 6) Gestures used in various countries

This activity is designed to make students better aware of different types of gestures used in their own culture. As these gestures are generally used spontaneously during interactions, this activity makes students aware of the types of gestures that they use in communication. The activity may be prefaced with the teacher's brief observations of gestures used in the host or home country, although ultimately it should be up to the students to discuss the types of gestures used in their home country as well as those observed in their host country.

*Procedure*

1. The students are given a list of gestures to communicate, which may be different from those gestures typically used by Native English speakers. The students are to read the following gestures (written on the board) and perform each particular gesture based on how it is done in their own country. The list may be adapted based on the teacher's particular teaching situation.
  - 1) crazy      4) me
  - 2) come here      5) over there (indicating something)
  - 3) money      6) hello
2. Students demonstrate, discuss, and compare the use of each gesture in their home country.

Original Gestures (optional)
3. In order to determine if other types of gestures could be used to communicate the above messages students are asked to think of an original gesture for each of the

above items. Each student then finds a partner with whom he or she would try to communicate the item using their original gesture.

The partner then tries to guess which item is being gestured.

4. Students demonstrate some of their original gestures to the rest of the class.

#### **5.4.4 Part B: Cross-cultural gestures**

The following activity describes the main lesson material concerning the types of gestures generally used by native English speakers.

##### **A. Introduction**

The teacher may introduce the topic of gestures used in cross-cultural communication by referring to the currently used textbook. Although the textbook may not directly teach nonverbal communication, it may contain photos and illustrations where gestures are used. These may be used to discuss the meaning of the various gestures.

##### *Procedure*

1. Various types of gestures found in the course textbook are chosen for purpose of developing student awareness of the use of kinesics (body language and gestures) in nonverbal communication. The importance of introducing this aspect of interpersonal communication is based on the literature review conducted in subsection 2.7.4 regarding kinesics (body language and gestures). As student responses to question 6 on questionnaire 2 (Appendix B), which asks: "How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?" indicate that students are generally aware of the use of kinesics in their own culture, the following activity serves to develop understanding of the use of kinesics (body language and gestures) from different cultural perspectives. This addresses an important aspect to be aware of in the development of confidence in interpersonal skills when communicating with someone of a different cultural background, particularly when using English as a lingua Franca as described in section 2.5 of the literature review.

2. Students 'brainstorm' in groups of three or four the meanings of the gestures used in the pictures. A group secretary records responses.
3. The responses from each group are taken up and discussed.

#### B. Native Speaker Gestures

#### *Procedure*

1. Students are handed out the work sheets (AppendixM) incorporating pictures of gestures used in North America. Alternatively the teacher may gesture live or prepare a video of gestures, which would be preferable to static pictures as gestures generally take place through time and space involving an integration of movement of the entire body along with gestures involving hands.
  2. Students match the gesture to the correct written interpretation in question 1 and continue with questions 2, 3, and 4. This serves to develop student awareness of the way the kinesics (body language and gestures) are used in culturally different situations from that of their own, the importance of which is discussed in subsection 2.7.4 of the literature review. Awareness of the use of gestures in other countries serves as a way to develop student confidence in their interpersonal skills, and increases communicative competence. In subsection 2.7.4 the researcher relates a story where a student of his reported an embarrassing experience where her use of the Japanese gesture to indicate 'no' (waving one's hand in front of one's face) was misinterpreted by her home stay family as meaning she was smelling a bad odour. Knowledge of cultural differences in the use of gestures would have enabled the student to communicate more effectively.
  3. Answers to Part A (Appendix M, page 2) are taken up and discussed.  
 answer key:
- A(1),B(12),C(13),D(4),E(3),F(2),G(5),H(6),I(10),J(11),K(7),L(14),M(8),N(9)
4. Students act out the gestures as indicated in Part B (Appendix M, page 2).
  5. Role plays using gestures are practiced and performed.

## 5.5 CONCLUSION

Developing interpersonal skills as part of English language teaching is important as such skills are required to take part in pair and group work activities, which form part of communicative methodologies. If students lack confidence in their interpersonal skills, it is likely that they may be reluctant to take part in activities, which require social interaction, which is the basis of many activities used in a communicative approach. If a student does not possess appropriate social skills, or does not feel confident, or experiences anxiety in terms of his or her interpersonal skills when interacting with others, that student will not have a successful learning experience. Lack of these skills will impede any progress geared towards attaining whatever linguistic objectives based on a communicative language teaching approach. The objectives of the communicative approach, which is the ability to communicate with someone in a meaningful manner, may not be adequately achieved solely based on the development of linguistic skills unless those skills incorporate the social skills necessary to communicate effectively with others.

The role of gender in interpersonal competence may be only one of many factors contributing to individual differences in the use of interpersonal skills. Certainly individuals have varying ability in demonstrating such skills. Culture may influence development of interpersonal skills and the way children are raised. These factors and personal life experiences may all contribute to how individuals feel about their interpersonal skills as well as how they put such skills to use. Interpersonal skills should not be simply categorized in terms of either femininity or masculinity, with women being viewed as being conciliatory or collaborative and men as autonomous and competitive as 'this takes no account of the many sources of diversity and variation (such as age, class, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and so on) which are relevant when comparing styles of interaction' (Holmes, 2006:6). There is also no gender difference yet discovered which applies to every single man and every single woman as such, generalizations are untrue about many individuals (Pinker, 2002:34). Both men and women, not only as being of a particular gender, but as individuals, should be given the opportunity to develop their



interpersonal skills alongside their language skills in the communicative classroom. This will assist them in developing and using their linguistic skills positively and effectively during communicative activities. This will also allow students to use their foreign language skills confidently and effectively when communicating outside the foreign language classroom situation.

Awareness of the use of nonverbal communication is an important factor in improving the English communication skills of Japanese students as there may be differences in how such communication is used in Japan with how it is used in English speaking countries. Awareness of the use of nonverbal communication may lead to harmonious rapport and fewer instances of miscommunication. Keen sensitivity to the use of nonverbal behaviour when dealing with other cultures may also be developed.

Factors, which may account for differences found in the review of literature and questionnaire findings, such as no statistical significance in terms of gender may be inadequate (or non-existent), including research conclusions based on personal experience or second hand knowledge rather than on the interpretation of the collected data. Another factor may be the use of certain types of previously accepted nonverbal behavior, which might have changed over time and across generations due to changing cultural circumstances; an example of which was found in Argyle and Cook's statement that lack of use of eye contact by Japanese may be partially due to the fact that Japanese 'infants are carried a lot on the back, so have less visual contact with the mother's face' (1976:26). In interviews and informal surveys conducted at Ibaraki University in Japan, a far greater majority of respondents stated that the preferred way of carrying babies now in Japan was in front with one Japanese Professor stating,

“I feel carrying babies in the front is much more common. In my case, it is because I feel safe when my baby is in my front, for I can have eye-contact or I can hug her. Anyway, it is more natural to use my arms in the front than in my back.”

Changes in the use of nonverbal communication may also be affected by outside influences such as through the introduction of western culture through movies and other types of media.

Differences found in the review of literature and questionnaire results demonstrate that teachers should consider determining the content of cultural material, which is to be integrated into their teaching content. By doing so, teachers may gain a better understanding of beliefs that are currently held regarding culturally determined behavior, which are to be included in what is taught to their classes. This is especially important when dealing with cultural material such as nonverbal communication, as previously held assumptions may have changed or have been incorrectly interpreted in the past. In dealing with culturally held assumptions, pedagogy should be aware of current cultural practice, which will further add to our ability to develop rapport with other cultures, decrease chances of miscommunication, and avoid stereotyping based on past or incomplete interpretations.

Developing interpersonal competence as part of the language learning process is important if we are to actively engage students in communicative language learning activities, as well as have their confidence in using their language skills outside the classroom enhanced. This requires a balance between developing such skills within the current cultural background and anticipating future social situations which may be intercultural in nature.

There are many aspects involved in developing interpersonal skills. Some suggestions, which have been given, may serve as a starting point in merging the development of interpersonal skills with English language teaching. Merging the development of interpersonal skills with English language teaching is important if we are to truly develop the communicative competency of students in learning and using a foreign language. It is simply not adequate to develop only the language skills of students. Developing language skills of students without also developing their interpersonal skills, might ultimately result in people who are not adequately competent, confident, effective in communicating, and who are not willing or capable of interacting with others positively, both inside and outside

the language learning classroom. Developing both language skills as well as interpersonal skills should be the basis of any English language teaching approach.

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## **APPENDIXES**

### **APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE 1 INTERPERSONAL SKILLS**

**SEX: MALE FEMALE**

1. Do you enjoy speaking with other people?

a. yes b. no c. not sure

If you chose b. please briefly explain your answer:

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2. Do you feel comfortable speaking with people?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. other:

---

3. Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. other:

---

4. Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. It depends on who I'm speaking with.

5. Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. It depends on the situation.

6. Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. other:

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Appendix B Questionnaire 2 Non-verbal Communication

1. Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher?

a) in eyes

b) at mouth

c) at chest

d) at neck

e) other: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend?

a) in eyes

b) at mouth

c) at chest

d) at neck

e) other: \_\_\_\_\_

\*note: If you answered differently in 1) and 2) please explain why.

---

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3. How close do you stand when speaking with a friend?

a) about 30 cm



b) about 60 cm

c) about 90 cm

d) about 120 cm

e) other: \_\_\_\_\_

4. How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher?

a) about 30 cm

b) about 60 cm

c) about 90 cm

d) about 120 cm

e) other: \_\_\_\_\_

\*note: If you answered differently in 3) and 4) please explain why.

---

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5. When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?

a) using body language such as nodding head

b) making sounds such as umm! Ahhh!

c) using reaction words such as 'I see', 'oh, yeah', 'really', 'great' or the same types of words in your own language.

d) other: \_\_\_\_\_

6. How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?

a) about 70% or more.

f) 20% -30%

b) 60% - 70%

g) 10% - 20%

c) 50% - 60%

h) 0% - 10%

d) 40% - 50%

i) 0%

e) 30% - 40%

j) other: \_\_\_\_\_

7. When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to touch him or her during your conversation?

a) Yes, as it is friendly

b) No, as it is impolite

c) other: \_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX C : QUESTIONNAIRE 1 IN JAPANESE**

「対人関係についてのアンケート」

年齢： \_\_\_\_\_

性別： 男 女

1. あなたは、他人と話すことが好きですか？

a. 好き b. 嫌い c. どちらでもない

b. の 嫌 い を 選 ん だ 方 は 、 な ぜ で す か ？

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2. あなたは、他人と快適に話しをすることができますか？

a. できる b. できない c. どちらでもない d. その他

---

---

3. あなたは、誰かと話した後、不満を感じたり、失望させられたと感じたことがありますか？

a. ある b. ない c. わからない d. その他

---

---

---

4. あなたは、誰かとはじめて話しをする時、緊張しますか？

a. する b. しない c. どちらでもない d. 相手による

5. あなたは、社交的な場で、快適に感じることができますか？

a. できる b. できない c. どちらでもない d. 場所による

6. あなたは、自分の対人関係において、満足していますか？

a. 満足している b. 満足していない c. どちらでもない d. その他

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

—

Appendix D Questionnaire 2 in Japanese

言葉以外のコミュニケーション調査

年齢： \_\_\_\_\_

性別： 男 女

\*1) あなたは先生と会話をしながらどこを見ますか？

a) 目

b) 口

c) 胸

d) 首



d) 約 1 2 0 c m

e) その他 \_\_\_\_\_

\*4) あなたは先生と話す際、どのくらいの距離で話しますか？

a) 約 3 0 c m

b) 約 6 0 c m

c) 約 9 0 c m

d) 約 1 2 0 c m

e) その他 \_\_\_\_\_

\*3) と \*4) の回答が違うのはなぜですか？（同じ場合は書かなくてよい。）

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5) あなたは相手の話しを聞いている際、どのような反応を示しますか？

a) 頭を振るようなボディランゲージを使う

b) 「アー、ウーン」などのような声を出す

c) 「そうですか、なるほど」などの言葉を使う

d) その他 \_\_\_\_\_



## APPENDIX E QUESTIONNAIRE 1 IN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN

Questionnaire 1 // Опросник 1

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ // Возраст \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: Male Female // Пол Муж Жен

1. Do you enjoy speaking with other people? // Вам нравится разговаривать с другими людьми?

a. yes b. no c. not sure // а. Да б. нет с. Не уверен(а)

If you chose b. please briefly explain your answer: // если вы выбрали В. коротко объясните ваш ответ

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2. Do you feel comfortable speaking with people? // вы чувствуете себя комфортно, когда разговариваете с людьми?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. other: // а. Да б. нет с. Не уверен(а) d. другой ответ:

---

3. Do you ever feel disappointed, or dissatisfied after speaking with someone? //

Вы чувствуете разочарование или недовольство после разговора с кем-нибудь?

a. yes b. No c. Not sure d. other: // а. Да б. нет с. Не уверен (а) d. другой ответ:

---

4. Do you feel nervous speaking with someone for the first time? // Вы нервничаете, разговаривая с кем-либо впервые?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. It depends on who I'm speaking with.



// а. Да б. нет с. Не уверен(а) d. Это зависит от того, с кем я разговариваю

5. Do you generally feel comfortable in social situations? // Вобщем, вы чувствуете себя комфортно в социальных ситуациях?

a. yes b. no c. not sure d. It depends on the situation.

// а. Да б. нет с. Не уверен(а) d. Это зависит от ситуации

6. Are you satisfied with your interpersonal skills? //

Вы довольны своими навыками межличностного общения?

a. yes b. No c. Not sure d. other: // а. Да б. нет с. Не уверен (а) d. другой ответ:

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## APPENDIX F QUESTIONNAIRE 2 IN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN

### Questionnaire 2 // Опросник 2

Age: \_\_\_\_\_// Возраст \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: Male Female// Пол Муж Жен

1) Where do you look when having a conversation with a teacher? //

Куда вы смотрите, когда разговариваете с учителем?

a) in eyes (в глаза)

b) at mouth (в рот)

c) at chest (на грудь)

d) at neck (в шею)

e)

other:

(другой ответ)

2) Where do you look when having a conversation with a friend? //

Куда вы смотрите, когда разговариваете с другом?

a) in eyes (в глаза)

b) at mouth (в рот)

c) at chest (на грудь)

d) at neck (в шею)

e)

other:

(другой ответ) \_\_\_\_\_

\*note: If you answered differently in 1) and 2) please answer why.

\*Примечание. Если вы ответили на вопрос 1) и 2) по разному, пожалуйста, ответьте почему

3) How closed you stand when speaking with friend? // Как близко вы стоите, когда разговариваете с другом?

a) about 30 cm (около 30 см)

b) about 60 cm (около 60 см)

c) about 90 cm (около 90 см)

d) about 120 cm (около 120 см)

e) other: (другой ответ) \_\_\_\_\_

4) How close do you stand when speaking with a teacher? //  
Какблизковыстоите, когдаразговариваетесучителем?

- a) about 30 cm (около 30 см)
- b) about 60 cm (около 60 см)
- c) about 90 cm (около 90 см)
- d) about 120 cm (около 120 см)
- e) other: (другойответ) \_\_\_\_\_

\*note: If you answered differently in 3) and 4) please answer why.

\*Примечание. Если вы ответили на вопрос 1) и 2) по разному, пожалуйста, ответьте почему

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

5) When listening to someone, how do you show that you are paying attention?//  
Когда вы слушаете кого-то, как вы показываете, что вы слушаете внимательно?

- a) usingbodylanguagesuchasnoddinghead(используяязыкжестов, например, киваяголовой)
- b) making sounds such as umm., ahhh... (произношузвукиммм..., аааа...)
- c) using reaction words such as 'I see', 'oh, yeah', 'really', 'great' or the same types of words in your own language. (использую такие слова как «я понимаю», «о, да», правда?, «здорово» или те же самые слова в вашем родном языке)
- d) other : (другойответ)

\_\_\_\_\_

6) How much of your communication consists of gestures or body language?//  
Какаячастьвашегообщениясостоитизжестикуляциииимики?

- a) about 70% or more.
- b) 60% - 70%
- c) 50% - 60%
- d) 40% - 50%
- e) 30% - 40%
- f) 20% -30%
- g) 10% - 20%
- h) 0% - 10%
- i) 0%
- j) other: (другойответ) \_\_\_\_\_

7) When speaking with someone whom you do not know very well, is it appropriate to

touch

them during a conversation? // Когда вы разговариваете с кем-то, с кем вы не так хорошо знакомы, уместно ли трогать его во время разговора?

a) Yes, as it is friendly (да, это знак дружеского внимания)

b) No, as it is impolite (нет, это невежливо)

c)

other:

(другой ответ)

---

## APPENDIX G: LETTER TO STUDENTS



Faculty of Humanities  
2-1-1 Bunkyo, Mito  
Ibaraki, 310 JAPAN

Letter to students

Dear students,

I am an Associate Professor at Ibaraki University in Japan. I am currently undertaking my Doctoral thesis in Didactics at UNISA. My research focuses on how interpersonal skills may be improved in English language education.

As part of my research, I have created two questionnaires. One questionnaire is related to how you use nonverbal communication to communicate. The other is related to how you feel about your interpersonal skills.

It is completely voluntary for you to answer the questionnaires. The questionnaires are completed and submitted anonymously. You do not need to write your name. Absolutely no personal information will be kept. There are no physical, mental, or social risks involved in answering the questions, which will take only approximately 15 minutes to complete. You are free to withdraw from completing the questionnaires at any time.

Thank you for your kind assistance and understanding.

Sincerely,



Ronald Schmidt-Fajlik

**APPENDIX H: LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO ADMINISTER  
QUESTIONNAIRES**



Faculty of Humanities  
2-1-1 Bunkyo, Mito  
Ibaraki, 310 JAPAN

Request for conducting research and approval to conduct research form

May 29<sup>th</sup>, 2013

Ronald Schmidt-Fajlik

2645-19 Watari-cho

Mito, Ibaraki 310-0902

Japan

email: rschmidtfajlik@yahoo.com

phone: 81-029-297-2212

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am an Associate Professor at Ibaraki University in Japan. I am currently undertaking my Doctoral thesis in Didactics at UNISA. My research focuses on how interpersonal skills may be improved in English language education.

As part of my research, I would like to request your kind permission to administer two questionnaires to students at your institution. One questionnaire is related to how students use nonverbal communication to communicate. The other is related to how students feel about their interpersonal skills.


Informed consent will be obtained by explaining to students the purpose of the study. The questionnaires will be answered on a voluntary basis. The privacy of students will be assured as the questionnaires will be completed and submitted anonymously. Absolutely no personal information will be kept. There are no physical, mental, or social risks involved in answering the questions, which will take only approximately 15 minutes to complete. Anyone who participates is free to withdraw.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "R. Schmidt-Fajlik", is displayed on a light green rectangular background.

Ronald Schmidt-Fajlik

**APPENDIX I: LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO ADMINISTER  
QUESTIONNAIRES TO STUDENTS IN CHINA**

  
Lijiang College of Guangxi Normal University

向学 向善 自律 自强

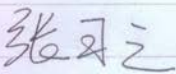
办公电话：0773-3696366  
传真：0773-3696266  
邮编：541006  
地址：桂林市雁山区雁山镇雁中路3号  
网址：www.gxljcollege.cn

4 March, 2013  
Associate Professor Ronald Schmidt-Fajlik  
2645-19 Watari-cho  
Mito, Ibaraki 310-0902  
Japan  
Email: rschmidtfajlik@yahoo.com  
Phone: 81-029-297-2212

Dear Associate Professor Schmidt-Fajlik,

This is to consent to give out the two questionnaires for your doctorate thesis to the students at my institution.

Sincerely,

  
Xizhi Zhang

Department of Foreign Languages Studies  
Lijiang College of Guangxi Normal University  
3 Yanzhong Rd., Yanshan Dist.,  
Guilin, Guangxi  
P. R. China 541006  
Email: [xizhiz@hotmail.com](mailto:xizhiz@hotmail.com)  
Phone: 86-(0)13737722027



**APPENDIX J: LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO ADMINISTER  
QUESTIONNAIRES TO STUDENTS IN SAUDI  
ARABIA**



Date: 13<sup>th</sup> April 2013

To whom it may concern:

This is to acknowledge that permission has been granted to Ronald Schmidt-Fajlik to administer questionnaires related to interpersonal communication and nonverbal communication for research purposes. We have been assured that ethical procedures will be followed.

*M. Eyre*

Mark Eyre

Head of English

British International School Riyadh

Saudi Arabia

**APPENDIX K: LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO ADMINISTER QUESTIONNAIRES TO STUDENTS IN GHANA**

*Branch of the  
World Maritime University  
Malmö, Sweden*



*I.S.O. 9001:2008  
Certified*

**Regional Maritime University  
ACCRA, GHANA**

Post Office Box GP 1115, Accra, Ghana Tel: (+ 233 302) 712775 / 712343 / 718225. Fax: (+233 302) 712047. Registrar Tel/Fax: (+233 302) 714070

MY REF:

YOUR REF: RMU/30/05 (467)

14<sup>TH</sup> MARCH, 2013

Ronald Schmidt-Fajlik  
2645-19 Watari-cho  
Mito, Ibaraki 3310-0902  
Japan

Dear Sir,

**RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AND APPROVAL  
TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

The Regional Maritime University presents its compliments to you.

With reference to your letter, I am directed to inform you that Management has granted approval for you to come and conduct the research and administer your questionnaires at the University.

Please accept the assurance of our high esteem.

Yours faithfully,

Mualick A. Bangura

**DIRECTOR OF ADMINISTRATION**

Cc: Rector  
DAA  
Awuku Esinam

Email: registrar@rmu.edu.gh Website: www.rmu.edu.gh  
Member States: Cameroon, The Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Sierra Leone  
In case of reply the number and date of this letter should be quoted.

**APPENDIX L: LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO ADMINISTER  
QUESTIONNAIRES TO STUDENTS IN  
RUSSIA**



Humanitarian Institute  
Severodvinsk Branch  
Severodvinsk, Karl Marx Street 36,  
RUSSIA

**Cooperation agreement and approval for conducting research**

March 27, 2013

Viktoriiia Kaziaba  
Karl Marx Street 36  
Severodvinsk 164500  
Russia  
email: v.kazyaba@narfu.ru  
phone: 8-8184-537274

Institution name and location:

Ibaraki University  
Faculty of Humanities  
2-1-1 Bunkyo, Mito  
Ibaraki, 310 JAPAN

Dear Mr. Schmidt-Fajlik,

We would like to thank you for your letter and request for conducting research. We are pleased to inform, that your research can be conducted in Northern (Arctic) federal University for sure. Also we confirm your request for permission to administer two questionnaires to students at Humanitarian institution (Severodvinsk Branch) of our university. All students are informed about the conditions of the research and gave their consent to answer the questionnaires.

If any questions or needs arise, please contact us immediately.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Kaziaba', written over a horizontal line.

Viktoriiia Kaziaba

*Specialist in international collaboration*

**APPENDIX M : GESTURE LESSON (PAGE 1)**

**GESTURES**

Name:

Do you know what the following gestures mean?



1



2



3



4



5



6



7

8



9





10



11



12



13



14

**APPENDIX N :      GESTURE LESSON (PAGE 2)**

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

**Part A**

1. Fill ( ) with the correct picture number.

A ( ) come here

H ( ) quiet

B ( ) victory/peace

I ( ) I do not know.

C ( ) cut/stop

J ( ) I give up

D ( ) good luck (wish for).

K ( ) bad

E ( ) I promise (Scout's honour).    L ( ) OK

F ( ) me.

M ( ) angry/not pleased

G ( ) good.

N ( ) one moment please (wait)

2. Which of the above gestures are used in your country?

3. Which of the above gestures are not used in your country?

4. Are there any other gestures used in your country that is not illustrated above?

Discuss this with a partner or in a small group. Take notes of your discussion.

**Part B**

1. Act out the gestures shown on the sheet. Say the item as you gesture to add emphasis to the gesture.

2. Find a partner. Act out the following. Use gestures.

A: Come here

B: Yes?

A: Do you know when my birthday is?

B: No. I do not know when your birthday is.

A: My birthday is ...

3. Find a partner. Make up a short play using gestures. You may write and prepares it on a separate piece of paper before performing it.