

THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION ON THE ACQUISITION OF  
JAPANESE DISCOURSE MARKER NDESU

BY

JUNG SUN KIM

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in East Asian Languages and Cultures  
in the Graduate College of the  
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2016

Urbana, Illinois

Doctoral Committee:

Associate Professor Misumi Sadler, Chair and Co-director  
Associate Professor Peter Golato, Texas State University, Co-director  
Associate Professor Chilin Shih  
Associate Professor Randall Sadler

## ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the effects of explicit pragmatic instruction on the acquisition of the Japanese discourse marker *ndesu* by second language (L2) learners enrolled in third- and fourth-year Japanese courses at the university level. The research was based on a quasi-experimental, pretest-posttest, and delayed posttest design using an experimental group (pragmatically-oriented) and a control group (textbook-based). The present study was specifically designed to examine the effect of a pragmatically-oriented intervention introducing a unified concept of *ndesu* in which the pragmatic aspect was emphasized (e.g., specific context, speaker's intention) by comparing it to a textbook-based approach offering several representative functions of *ndesu* with no mention of how each function is related to each other. The study aimed not only to determine how much the pedagogical intervention facilitated learners' ability to apply the unified concept of *ndesu* to the functions they had learned, but also to assess their ability to understand the functions not yet introduced. Furthermore, this study explored whether certain critical demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers) affected students' knowledge of *ndesu*.

To investigate the effect and applicability of a pedagogical intervention of *ndesu*, and the relationship between various factors and knowledge relating to *ndesu*, two groups were compared to examine the effect of the pedagogical intervention providing a unified concept of *ndesu*. The pragmatically-oriented group received instruction providing a unified concept of *ndesu*, whereas the textbook-based group was instructed by following the textbook *Nakama* (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2009) that provided an explanation of each *ndesu* function.

The results showed that both groups had a positive, immediate effect for learning *ndesu*, that is, explicit *ndesu* instruction was effective regardless of the type of instruction. Moreover, the pragmatically-oriented instruction group performed better than the textbook-based group in the posttest. Although a short-term effect was shown, a long-term effect was not retained as indicated on the delayed posttest for both groups. For each item type, both groups performed similarly on test items they were familiar with. However, the pragmatically-oriented groups performed significantly better on the items where *ndesu* should not be used. The result also showed that among the demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers), only general proficiency (i.e., course level, pretest score) affected the participants' previous knowledge and learning of *ndesu*.

## Acknowledgements

I would like to express my profound gratitude to everyone who contributed to this journey. First and foremost, I must thank my co-director, advisor, chair of my dissertation, Dr. Misumi Sadler who has guided me, helped me, and pushed me forward with determination and appreciation all these years. Without her constant support, this study would not have been completed. Thank you for patiently reading through draft after draft of this dissertation, especially for your prompt, detailed, and insightful feedback on every chapter. Thanks to her, her brilliant pedagogical insights and enthusiasm about teaching language motivated me to begin (and finish) my Ph.D. I would also like to express my deepest gratitude to the co-director of my dissertation, Dr. Peter Golato, who contributed many hours of his time to oversee the individual chapters and helped me finish this dissertation. He is knowledgeable, interested, helpful, supportive, and encouraging. I also extend my sincere thanks to the other members of my dissertation committee: Dr. Chilin Shih and Dr. Randall Sadler who provided valuable feedback and warm support.

Words are inadequate to express the gratitude I feel toward my loved ones. I am deeply grateful to my friends and family who have encouraged me throughout this project and have been at my side through the various ups and downs of my life. I would like to express my gratitude to my friends: Kyonghee Chon, Jooyeon Suh, Soojin Kim, Jinhong Kim, Yesun Chon, Sujin Sohn, and Yoori Jung made my time at the University of Illinois memorable. You all have been and always will be my life sponsors. I specially thank Barbara Diller-Young, who is like my American mom, has encouraged me to finish this dissertation and always supported me with bright, positive thoughts and energy. I never would have made it through the long journey without you by my side. My parents, Bokhee Ko and Kye Tae Kim, have always believed in me,

encouraged me and supported me with prayers over years. I am grateful to my whole family for their support and understanding. I've always known I could depend on their love.

I owe my deepest gratitude to my husband Ji Heon Han. This work simply would not have been possible without him. He has supported me in ways small and large, encouraged me throughout the writing process, and assisted me during ups and downs. Thank you for taking such excellent care of our kids, Da-in and In-ki and doing all the chores when I was writing. And most of all, thank you for believing in me and not letting me give up. Thank you, my precious little ones, Da-in and In-ki, for letting me know a different side of the life and giving me joyful new experience as a mom that I never expected.

*To my grandparents*

## Table of Contents

Abbreviations .....	viii
Chapter 1 Introduction .....	1
Chapter 2 Literature Review .....	12
Chapter 3 Method .....	46
Chapter 4 Results .....	98
Chapter 5 Discussion .....	126
References .....	148
Appendix A Online Survey .....	159
Appendix B Online Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest .....	165
Appendix C Handout for the Pragmatically-oriented Group .....	185
Appendix D Handout for the Textbook-based Group .....	193

## Abbreviations

(Used in the Interlinear Japanese Gloss Symbols)

ATN	nominal attribute particle
COP	copular
CON	conditional
DAT	dative particle
FP	final particle
GEN	genitive particle
GER	gerundive
HUM	humble expression
INS	instrumental
LOC	locative particle
N	normalizer
NEG	negative
NOM	nominative particle
OBJ	direct object
PAST	past tense
PROG	progressive
PRON	pronoun
Q/QP	question particle
QUOT	quotation particle
SUB	subject particle (nominative particle)
TOP	topic particle



## Chapter 1

### Introduction

The present study examines the effect of explicit pragmatically-oriented instruction that includes a metapragmatic approach to the Japanese discourse marker *ndesu*.

(1) *Paatii-ni ikimasen.*

party-LOC go:NEG

‘(I)’m not going to the party.’

(2) *Paatii-ni ikanai-ndesu.*

party-LOC go:NEG-NDESU

‘It’s that (I)’m not going to the party.’

Example (1) is a sentence without *ndesu*, and example (2) with *ndesu*. While (1) merely conveys a fact (i.e., not going to the party) as it is observed, and can be “more neutral or impersonal in tone” (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2015, p. 370), example (2) with *ndesu* “helps to establish or maintain rapport with the listener” (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2015, p. 370).

This dissertation has two main goals: (a) to offer instructional content of *ndesu* based on the unified concept of *ndesu* in which the pragmatic aspect is emphasized (e.g., specific context, speaker’s intention); and (b) to investigate the effects of explicit instruction that include a metapragmatic discussion in teaching *ndesu* by comparing two different explicit instruction approaches — the proposed pragmatically-oriented approach and a textbook-based approach. In addition to an overview of the study, this chapter presents a brief review of the target instructional feature *ndesu*, a statement of the problem focusing on the pedagogical challenges in learning *ndesu*, the rationale and purpose of the study, and three research questions.

## **Target Instructional Feature: *Ndesu***

*Ndesu* (polite form) and *Noda* (plain form) is one of most extensively used sentence endings in colloquial Japanese and therefore has been extensively studied (e.g., Alfonso, 1966; Kuno 1973; Kondo, 2006; Lee & Yoshida, 2002; Maynard, 1996; McGloin, 1980; Noda, 1997; Takatsu, 1991; Tanomura, 2002; Iwai, 2010; Yoshimi, 2009; Yoshida, 1988). *Ndesu* (*noda*) consists of the normalizer *no* and the copular *desu/da* and has variants depending on the polite (*nodesu/ndesu*) or plain (*noda*) form, and it is attached to the plain form of verbs as in example (2), Japanese *i*-adjectives (e.g., *oishii*, delicious), *na*-adjectives (e.g., *rippana*, splendid), and nouns (e.g. *gakusee*, student). In spoken Japanese, it is often phonetically contracted from *nodesu* to *ndesu* and from *noda* to *nda*. The variants of *noda* forms are as follows: (a) *noda*, (b) *nodesu*, (c) *nda*, (d) *ndesu*, and are interchangeable because the basic meaning is the same except for its formality and level of speech style (polite or casual style). In order to avoid any confusion, all those variants are hereafter collectively referred to as *ndesu* in this dissertation.

As previously stated, much research has been conducted on *ndesu* and the terms describing its function(s) range from a sentence-final expression (McGloin, 1989); an extended predicate (Jordan, 1963; Noda, 1992); a nominal predicate (Maynard, 1992, 1996); ‘*ndesu*’ (Kuno, 1973), and as an interactional discourse marker (Iwai, 2010; Yoshimi, 2009). Similar to Iwai (2010) and Yoshimi (2009), in the present study, *ndesu* is defined as a discourse marker. In the instruction based on the proposed metapragmatic discussion, I will emphasize the pragmatic function of *ndesu* and that it conveys the speaker’s thoughts, emotions, intentions, opinions, feelings, and attitudes toward a certain event/situation, and by doing so, the speaker involves other conversation participants and thus creates sharedness. Note that emphasis is placed on the situation which the speaker and interlocutor are talking about and also on what lies behind both

speaker's and interlocutor's thoughts, emotions, opinions, and intentions as well as how these are conveyed using *ndesu*. This pragmatically-oriented instruction will be addressed in more detail in Chapter 2.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Although *ndesu* is one of the most extensively used sentence endings in colloquial Japanese, learning *ndesu* is difficult. There are several reasons for this. First of all, as many studies pointed out, for Japanese language learners *ndesu* is hard to acquire because of its numerous and varied functions (Maynard, 1992; Noda, 1997; Sakai, 2008). The following five studies have investigated the various functions of *ndesu* and the problems learners encountered: (a) McGloin (1980) presented five functions (i.e., explanation, conjecture, rapport, reproach, and backgrounding); (b) Yoshida (1988) (as cited in Noda, 1997, p. 14) provided a comprehensive review of *ndesu* functions (i.e., putting it another way (換言), confession (告白), instructing (教示), emphasis (強調), determination (決意), command(命令), discover (発見), recognizing anew/new understanding (再認識), confirmation(確認), (toning up the sentence, 文章の調子を整える(整調), objectification (客体化); (c) Tanomura (1991) investigated seven functions (i.e., putting it another way (換言), explanation (説明), command (命令), emphasis (強調), (toning up the sentence, 文章の調子を整える(整調), cause (原因), reason (理由) and the condition in which *noda* (*ndesu*) is used and not used; (d) Kondo (2006) reviewed five functions (i.e., explanation (説明), introduce a new topic/open a conversation (前置き), notice (気づき), determination (決意), and command(命令); and (e) Sakai (2008), presented eleven functions of *noda* (*ndesu*) in her study (i.e., explanation (説明), emphasis (強調), introduce a new topic/open

a conversation (前置き), confirmation (確認), presumption (推定), insertion (挿入), interpretation (解釈), determination (決意), command (命令), remark (発言), reproach (非難).

As clearly indicated in these studies, *ndesu* contains diverse meanings and functions depending on the context and situations, thus making it difficult for classroom instructors to introduce it in its entirety and explain all of its functions and situations for use within limited class time and an already overcrowded curriculum; this limitation in turn leads to learners' inability to understand *ndesu* fully and use it correctly. Therefore, learning each function one by one is not effective to define *ndesu* precisely and use it appropriately. A more fruitful way to introduce the fundamental concept of *ndesu* would enable learners to apply that basic concept to different situations.

Another reason for the difficulty in learning *ndesu* is that this particular structure is introduced relatively later in a first-year Japanese language class despite its frequent use in spoken Japanese. Yamamoto (2002) and Himeno (1999), for example, argued that by the time the dictionary (plain) form of verbs is introduced, learners (and teachers) are quite used to “unnatural” sentences without *ndesu* even in the cases in which *ndesu* is required. Many textbooks, in fact, introduce the polite forms before the plain forms. Many language programs in the United States do not introduce plain forms until the second semester of first-year Japanese classes. Consequently, many students do not feel it is necessary to learn this new structure that involves more complex forms (= plain forms) than the easier and familiar polite forms.

Mizutani (1989) offered another account for why learners of Japanese, particularly native speakers of English, have a hard time acquiring the concept of *ndesu*. She investigated the types of errors made by native English-speaking Japanese learners and the reasons they occurred. She discovered that native English speakers tend to use *ndesu* incorrectly and argued that *ndesu* is

difficult for them to learn because there is no correspondent grammar in English, and furthermore even without using it, the sentence is grammatically correct and can convey the basic meaning (though it sounds unnatural and awkward in a given context).

Another reason *ndesu* is difficult to learn could be how it is presented in textbooks. I examined the following five textbooks commonly used in Japanese language programs at the university level in the United States:

- (a) *Genki* (Banno, Ohno, Sakane, & Shinagawa, 1999)
- (b) *Nakama* (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2009)
- (c) *Situational Functional Japanese* (Tsukuba Language Group, 1995)
- (d) *Japanese: The Spoken Language* (Noda & Jorden, 1987)
- (e) *Minnano Nihongo* (3 A network, 2001).

The function(s) of *ndesu* and the way(s) of explanation were analyzed by focusing on how examples are presented and how to practice (drills). *Japanese: The Spoken Language* (JSL) introduces *ndesu* a little differently from other textbooks as it provides the specific background situation/ context where *ndesu* is used and gives detailed situations and an explanation when it should not be used. A detailed explanation of JSL will be presented in Chapter 2. The third version of *Nakama* is now available (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2015), but the participants of the current study learned *ndesu* using the 2009 version, thus I analyzed the older version.

There are four common problems in the four selected textbooks. First, as mentioned previously, *ndesu* is introduced relatively late at the elementary level in the each of textbooks. After this initial introduction, its structure frequently appears in dialogues; however, after that, none of the textbooks address more diverse uses and functions of *ndesu* at the intermediate level. Second, the textbooks do not comprehensively present the functions of *ndesu* and most of

textbooks only introduce the explanatory function of *ndesu* or limit the examples to only a few functions (e.g., confirmation, introducing topic). Third, each function is simply listed with a brief explanation and short example dialogues without providing background situations to help the learner fully understand the context. Lastly, the four textbooks provide mechanical drills that focus on the *ndesu* forms as a grammar point, not its meaning and when to use it. For examples in *Genki*, after explaining the function of *ndesu*, learners are only given practice drills with illustrations and directions such as “you are in the following situations. Explain them using *ndesu*,” or “respond to the comments using *ndesu*.” These practices do not allow learners to think what *ndesu* is and when exactly they should use it. In these practice examples, learners are provided situations and asked to explain them “using *ndesu*” which is a mechanical drill focusing on only practicing the use of the *ndesu* form and learners do not need to think deeply about when to use it.

As *ndesu* has various usages depending on various situations, it is necessary to provide the fundamental concept or a unified concept of *ndesu* so that before encountering each instance of *ndesu*, learners know what the most prototypical function of *ndesu* is in that particular situation. Students would learn the most frequently used functions first. In brief, *ndesu* should be treated as a pragmatic feature. However, the specific background situation including a speaker and an interlocutor’s thoughts, intentions, and relationship, etc., is lacking in the selected textbooks. In my opinion, explanations that instructors give such as, “the meaning depends on the situations or you can use *ndesu* in this situation and that situation, or *ndesu* implies something” leave learners more confused. It should be clear what that “something” is and how to interpret *ndesu* in each specific case/ situation and especially why *ndesu* should be or should not be used in the situation in order to avoid a pragmatically-failed situation. If given an enhanced

pragmatics explanation that provides the fundamental meaning that covers most situations, students would have better understanding of how each function is used.

Understandably *ndesu* is difficult to acquire because its uses are highly context dependent. The meaning of *ndesu* goes beyond the word- and sentence-level. Even if it is not used, the sentence is still grammatically correct, and one can still convey the basic meaning. Yet the actual pragmatic meaning of the sentence depends on a specific situation. Noda et al. (2001) argued that the reason *ndesu* is difficult to learn is because the use of *ndesu* depends on the context and external factor (outer situation), not only by the factors in the sentence. The outer factor (i.e., the speaker's intention) is in the speaker's mind and the listener needs to figure out what this is. Determining the intention of the speaker and various prompt situations — dialogue context — is very difficult. In Sakai (2008)'s review of the 11 functions of *ndesu*, she argued that having to choose from its many specific functions, depending on a particular situation, could be overwhelming for learners, even at the advanced level. Noda et al. (2001) and Takatsu (1991) made a similar point.

An explanation of *ndesu* usually covers its representative functions or addresses the most frequently used functions among others, but these still are not enough to fully understand *ndesu*. From the textbook analysis, it is clear that the explanations regarding *ndesu* focus more on each function; furthermore, the few important functions are oversimplified and the instruction is limited. The difficulty in learning *ndesu* arises from this oversimplified explanation in textbooks that only presents an explanatory function of *ndesu* and those explanatory functions are divided into many functions depending on various situations and contexts.

Even using *ndesu* in a sentence, and not using it the same exact sentence, can be interpreted differently depending on various intonation patterns. Even the same sentences with

*ndesu* can have various meaning/function and can be interpreted differently, depending on different intonations. For example, a sentence can be interpreted in the approach, confirmation, etc. depending on a different *intonation*. McGloin (1989) gives an example of *ndesu* in the sentence *ame ga hutteru ndesu ka?* ‘is it that it is raining?’ She argued that “*ndesu* is used to express one’s conjecture on the basis of what one heard or observed.” This sentence may have a different meaning depending on the following three different intonation patterns: (a) conjecture: it might be raining based on the observation that somebody has a wet umbrella as in McGloin’s explanation ; (b) surprise: oh, is it raining outside (I didn’t expect/know)?; or (c) backchannel with falling intonation, “It is raining? Oh is it?” Or “Oh, is that so? Really. I see.” These variations make *ndesu* even more difficult to use correctly. Yet from this one example, it shows the importance of the situation or specific context. Without fully understanding the situation both speakers are in and what both speakers are thinking and intend to express, *ndesu* cannot be fully understood.

In sum, the problems of learning *ndesu* are: (a) confusion arises because the basic meaning of a sentence can be conveyed without using *ndesu*; (b) learners neither understand the fundamental meaning of *ndesu*, nor the many cases in which *ndesu* should be used depending on various situations; moreover, the many functions must be memorized as a grammar point; (c) learners are able to understand only a few cases presented in their textbook; however, textbooks fail to indicate the entire scope of *ndesu* usage; (d) the meaning of *ndesu* changes with intonation and its context (situations), without understanding the pragmatic function of *ndesu*, learners are not able to understand the nuance difference and they will encounter pragmatics failure; (e) and the greatest barrier in learning *ndesu* is the lack of emphasis on pragmatic knowledge in its instruction, which is the focal point of this current study.



## Rationale of the Study

A new, more effective method of teaching *ndesu* is crucial for the following three reasons: (a) it is frequently used in real conversations, but (b) it is difficult for non-Japanese speaking learners to acquire, and (c) the current textbook approach is problematic/ inadequate.

The difficulties in learning are evident, but there are also difficulties in teaching the function(s) of *ndesu*. Because of these various functions and the meaning changes depending on the context, it is a challenge for instructors to introduce it in its entirety and explain all of the functions and situations for use because of limited class time. *Ndesu* also has a variety of *ndesu* phrases such as *ndesuga*, *njyanaidesuka*, making its introduction more complicated. Furthermore, though much research has been conducted and has identified what *ndesu* is and its various functions and how Japanese native speakers/ learners use *ndesu*, how to teach *ndesu* for learners of Japanese language remains unanswered. Only few studies have investigated the pedagogical implications and are limited in their coverage of only a few functions of *ndesu*. Although Narita (2008) and Yoshimi (2001) investigated the effect of the pedagogical intervention of the pragmatic feature of *ndesu*, the pedagogical aspect has not been extensively examined in the literature. Therefore, the need to investigate a different pedagogical approach for *ndesu* instruction (i.e., what and how to teach it) and the effect of such *ndesu* intervention remains.

From the perspective of pragmatics, the present study first locates the essential concepts and findings for the fundamental meanings and functions in *ndesu* studies. Furthermore, by presenting the concepts of pragmatics in SLA (i.e., interlanguage pragmatics), the study provides a pragmatically-emphasized description of *noda*. The pragmatically-oriented explicit instruction, with its proposed instruction based on the unified concept, the current study implements interventional studies in the field of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) for the instructional

approach. Explicit instruction containing a metapragmatic discussion was given to the research participants. Based on the findings of numerous interventional studies that support the beneficial effect of instruction in interlanguage pragmatics (Kasper & Rose, 2002; House, 1996; Ishida, 2009; Ishihara, 2007; Iwai, 2010; Narita, 2012; Rose, 2005; Tateyama, 2001; Tateyama et al., 1997; Yoshimi, 2009), the present study investigates the effects of interventional instruction in teaching *ndesu* by comparing two different explicit instruction approaches (i.e., the traditional textbook approach, and a proposed interventional approach). As Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh, and Fatahi (2004) suggested, both research groups were given metapragmatic instruction including an explicit explanation of the pragmatic features, teacher-fronted discussion, small-group discussions, and pragmatically-focused tasks.

### **Purpose of the Study and Research Questions**

The two main goals of the study are (a) to propose an instruction content of *ndesu* (*ndesu* explanation) based on the unified concept of *ndesu* that emphasizes its pragmatic features (e.g., specific context, speaker's intention); and (b) to investigate the effects of explicit instruction containing metapragmatic discussion in teaching *ndesu* by comparing the two different explicit instruction approaches mentioned previously. The first goal was to identify the content (suggestion) of the target pragmatic feature *ndesu*, and the second goal was to implement the proposed explanation of *ndesu* through use of the instructional approach (i.e., the explicit instruction of pragmatics).

The present study first investigated prior *ndesu* studies to identify the unified concept of *ndesu* within the framework of pragmatics. Then, the study investigated the effect of explicit pragmatic instruction when implementing the unified concept through the experiment. Specific research questions were derived from the second main goal which was to investigate the effect of

explicit instruction when implementing the unified concept of *ndesu*. More specifically, the two groups were compared in order to examine the effect of the pedagogical intervention providing the unified concept. The experimental group received instruction that included the unified concept of *ndesu*. The control group was instructed by using *Nakama*, the textbook that provided an explanation of each *ndesu* function.

The research design intended to investigate the effects of explicit instruction of *ndesu* was based on the following three research questions: (a) How effective is the pragmatically-oriented approach employing the unified concept of *ndesu* in facilitating participants' learning compared to the textbook-based approach?; (b) In terms of the applicability of the function of *ndesu*, do participants in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based groups perform differently on the test items targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they were and were not yet introduced to?; and (c) What is the relationship between the participants' proficiency in *ndesu* and a set of demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers)? A more in-depth explanation of the research questions will be given in Chapter 2.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review

This chapter provides the theoretical background for both the content of the instruction and the proposed pedagogical approach regarding *ndesu* in the present study. It first presents a review of *ndesu* studies from a pragmatic perspective to support my argument that introducing *ndesu* as a grammar point without context and accompanied by only mechanical drills is insufficient in teaching *ndesu* effectively. Overcoming the challenge in teaching *ndesu* involves an understanding of the detailed context and the speaker's intention as well as a focus on the process of the interaction. I argue that the proposed unified concept of *ndesu* is more beneficial and comprehensive for such a metapragmatic discussion. Therefore, in order to provide the rationale for this pragmatically-oriented approach and instruction, a review of *ndesu* studies points out what has been discussed and what is missing in prior literature in terms of the pragmatic features of *ndesu*. This comprehensive review of *ndesu* studies looks particularly at its various functions, as well as a few prior studies in which unified concepts were proposed. This chapter then provides several key theoretical concepts addressed in the present study, that is, the concept of pragmatics and the noticing hypothesis, both of which inform the present study's theoretical approach.

#### Previous *Ndesu* Studies

Much research has investigated *ndesu* and offered a thorough overview of its functions and uses (Noda, 1997; McGloin, 1980, 1989; Mizutani, 1989; Kikuchi, 2000; Kondo, 2006; Shibuya, 1996; Tanomura, 1991, Yoshida, 2000). To explain its various functions, the following provides a discussion of the comprehensive functions of *ndesu* followed by a review of some representative studies.

Yoshida (2000) presented a variety of the functions of *ndesu* (*noda* in Yoshida). He first divided the effect of the *ndesu* expression into two parts: (a) when *ndesu* is used within a sentence, and when its function is determined within a sentence — what he called the “within a sentence effect” (文内表現効果), and (b) when it is used between sentences. Moreover, he shows how *ndesu* functions are determined by the sentence before and after the *ndesu* sentence — what he refers to as the “between a sentence effect” (文間表現効果). He further categorized the “within a sentence effect” into four categories; (a) paraphrasing; (b) understanding and realization; (c) confession, instruction, and emphasis; and (d) determination and demand. He further divides the “between a sentence effect” into two categories: (a) perceive afresh (捕らえ直し), and (b) add/attach basis/ grounds (根拠づけ). For the between-a-sentence effect, Yoshida pointed out two specific functions — reevaluation/reanalysis (捉え直し) and reasoning (根拠づけ). I have summarized Yoshida’s categorization as follows:

#### Use of NDESU (Yoshida, 2000)

- Within-a-sentence effect
  - 1) Paraphrasing
  - 2) Understanding and realization
  - 3) Confession, instruction, and emphasis
  - 4) Determination and demand
- Between-a-sentence effect
  - 1) Reevaluating
  - 2) Reasoning

The first category for the within a sentence effect is “paraphrasing (換言)” and this is used when *ndesu* nominalizes the clause (sentence) and places the two clauses into a subject and predicate as shown in example (1).

(1) *Memai-ga suru-no-wa, eiyoo-ga katayotteiru-noda*  
 dizziness-SUB do-NOM-TOP nutrition-SUB lack:PROG-NDESU

‘The reason why I am dizzy is because my nutrition/diet is unbalanced.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 18)

In this example, according to Yoshida, “being dizzy” implies that “my nutrition is unbalanced,” and thus the predicate preceding *ndesu* (its plain form, *noda* in this example), *eiyoo-ga katayotteiru* ‘my nutrition is unbalanced’ paraphrases the topic of the sentence ‘*memai-ga suru* ‘being dizzy’.

In the second category, the speaker understands something (得心) as in (2a) or realizes something new (再認識) as in (2b).

(2a) *Nandaa, dareka-ga nokku-shitteru-ka-to omotta-ra,*  
 what, somebody-SUB knock do:PROG-Q-QUOT think:PAST-if  
*ame-ga hutteru nda,*  
 rain-SUB fall:PROG NDESU

‘Oh, I thought somebody was knocking, but it was only the rain.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 19)

(2b) *Simatta. Kyoo-wa niiji-kara kaigi-ga aru-nda*  
 oh darn today-TOP two o'clock-from meeting-SUB exist-NDESU

‘Oh, no! I have a meeting at 2:00 p.m. today.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 19)

In the third category, the speaker recognizes something and informs the listener. There are three functions in this category: (a) to confess (告白) as in (3a), (b) to instruct/inform (教示) as in (3b), and (c) to emphasize (強調) as in (3c).

- (3a) *Sumanai. Boku-wa kimi-ni uso-o tsuiteita-nda.*  
 sorry, I-TOP you-DAT lie-OBJ tell:PAST,PROG-NDESU  
 ‘I am sorry. I was telling you a lie.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 20)
- (3b) *Kono mura-ni-wa kusuriyubi-no nagai kodomo-wa*  
 this town-LOC-TOP the ring finger-GEN long child-TOP  
*rokuna-ninngen-ni-naranai-toiu iitutae-ga aru-ndesu.*  
 decent-person-DAT becomes:NEG-QUOT story-SUB exist-NDESU  
 ‘In this town, there is story that children who have a long third finger will not become a good (decent) person.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 20)
- (3c) *Sonna bakana. Watashi-ga mita-toki-ni-wa tashikani*  
 such foolish. I-SUB look:PAST-time-DAT-TOP certainly  
*tsubo-wa koko-ni atta-ndesu.*  
 pot-TOP this place-LOC exist:PAST-NDESU  
 ‘It doesn’t make sense. When I looked before, a pot (jar) was certainly here.’  
 (Yoshida, 2000, p. 20)

In the fourth category, the speaker uses *ndesu* to express his/her determination (決意) as in (4a), or his/her demand to his/her interlocutor to do something (命令) as in (4b).

- (4a) *Konna koto-de makeru-mono-ka. Ore-wa nihon-ichi-ni naru-nda.*  
 such matter-INS lose-NOM-QP. I-SUB Japan top-DAT become NDESU  
 ‘I won’t dare lose! I will be number one in Japan!’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 21)

(4b) *Iikai ochituite papa-no iu-koto-o kiku-noda-yo.*  
 ok-Q calm down:GER father-GEN say-NOM-OBJ listen-NDESU-FP

‘Ok, calm down and listen to what I say.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 21)

Recall that Yoshida claimed there are two main effects of *ndesu* usage: (a) the within-a-sentence effect, and (b) the between-a-sentence effect. For the between-a-sentence effect, which is obviously beyond a sentence level and thus at a discourse level, Yoshida recognized two specific categories: (1) reevaluation/reanalysis(捉え直し) as in (5a), and (2) reasoning (根拠づけ) as in (5b).

(5a) *Syatai-ga ookiku yure-ta.*  
 body of the car-SUB largely shake:PAST.

*Kare-wa kyuubureki-o kaketa-noda.*  
 he-TOP sudden brake-OBJ put on:PAST-NDESU

‘The body of the car shook badly. It’s that he put a break on suddenly.’

(Yoshida, 2000, p. 22)

(5b) *Isoide-kure. Jikan-ga nai-nda.*  
 hurry up. Time-SUB exist:NEG-NDESU

‘Hurry up. There is no time.’ (Yoshida, 2000, p. 23)

According to Yoshida, in the case of (5a), the use of *ndesu* indicates that the writer’s reevaluation of what caused the body of the car to shake was the consequence of his putting on the break suddenly. In contrast, if *ndesu* were not used, there is no such cause and effect relationship between the two sentences; in the second sentence, the writer simply states two situations. Similarly in (5b), the *ndesu* sentence is used for reasoning in that the speaker is providing a basis (‘there is no time’) for his/her first utterance (‘hurry up’).



Noda (1997) also discussed the various functions of *ndesu* (referred to as *noda* in her study) by dividing *ndesu* into two categories (i.e., scope and mood) and presented its various functions for each category. According to her, ‘*noda* of scope’ is used to nominalize a sentence before *ndesu* and places a focus on a part of the sentence. For example,

(6) *atashi, kanashii-kara naita-n-jyanai-no-yo.*

I sad-because cry:PAST-NOM-NEG-NDESU-FP

*Ureshikute naita-no-yo.*

glad cry:PAST-NDESU-FP

‘It is not that I cried because I am sad. It’s that (I cried) because I was glad.’

(Noda, 1997, p. 32)

In (6), each sentence is marked with *ndesu*. In the first sentence, the negative form of the nominalized predicate *naita-n-janai* (‘it’s not that (I) cried’) appears with *ndesu*, giving a literal translation of ‘it’s that it’s not that (I) cried.’ After that utterance, the second sentence with *ndesu* appears *ureshikatta-no-yo* ‘it’s that (I) was happy.’ According to Noda, *ndesu* puts a focus on the preceding phrases — negation in the case of the first sentence. She argued that the function of ‘*noda* of scope’ is to normalize the preceding part of the sentence before *ndesu* and place a focus on it (p. 33). Thus *ndesu* is used to insure structural integrity.

In contrast, the ‘*noda* of mood’ is divided into two categories — *taiziteki* ‘event-oriented’ *noda* and *taizinteki* ‘addressee-oriented’ *noda* (English translation by Kim & Horie, 2009). The event-oriented mood (function) is used when the speaker expresses what was just learned, a proposition that he/she has not recognized before and does not necessarily require a listener as shown in (7).

(7) *Yamadasan-ga konai-naa. Kitto yooji-ga aru-nda.*

SUB    come:NEG-FP    undoubtedly errand-SUB    have-NDESU

‘Mr. Yamada has not come. He must have something to do.’ (Noda, 1997, p. 67)

The addressee-oriented mood, on the other hand, involves the listener and is intended for him/her to receive the information as in (8).

(8)    *Boku ashita-wa            konai-yo.            Yooji-ga            aru-nda.*

I tomorrow-TOP    come-NEG-FP. Errand-SUB    have-NDESU

‘I am not coming tomorrow. I have something to do.’ (Noda, 1997, p. 67)

The general function of ‘*noda* of mood’ is to express the speaker’s mental attitude (心の態度) (p. 66) related to the situation at the moment of speech. By using *ndesu* as shown in (8), the speaker’s intention is to explain he’s not coming tomorrow and why, and he wants the listener to be informed (p. 23). Noda (1997) further presented the various functions of the ‘*noda* of mood’ when indicating an explanation, determination, emphasis, command, realization, confession, and paraphrasing, some of which were also mentioned in Yoshida (2000).

McGloin (1989) presented the functions of the sentence-final expression *ndesu* by analyzing examples for each usage. She stated that the basic function of *ndesu* is “to mark certain information as known in the context of a discourse” (p. 89). She also found it is also used when the speaker presents information considered shared information. Her findings were based on a comparison of the uses for *ndesu* with its nonuse that implies a neutral statement. McGloin further proposed five specific uses of *ndesu*.

(a) explanation: when the speaker explains what he/she has done and the situation he/she is in as shown in (9).

(9)    *Kinoo-wa            yasumimashita.            Atama-ga itakatta-ndesu.*

yesterday-TOP    take a break:PAST Head-SUB heart:PAST-NDESU

‘I was absent yesterday because I had a headache.’ (McGloin, 1989, p. 89)

(b) conjecture: when the speaker infers and makes a conjecture based on what he/she has heard or observed.

(10) *Ame-ga futteiru ndesu-ka?*

rain-SUB fall;PROG NDESU-QP

‘Is it because it is raining?’ (McGloin, 1989, p. 90)

(c) rapport: when the speaker attempts to involve the hearer in a conversation and also to explain his/her position (viewpoint).

(11) *Soona ndesu.*

that NDESU

‘That’s right.’ (McGloin, 1989, p. 92)

(d) reproach: when used with the *kara* clause, it expresses a tone of reproach: for example, by using *ndesu*, the speaker expresses what the hearer should have done or known better.

(12) *Okane-ga nai n-dakara mudazukai-o shinaide kudasai.*

money-SUB exist:NEG-NOM-because waste-OBJ do:GER:NEG please.

‘We don’t have money. So, please don’t waste it.’ (McGloin, 1989, p. 92)

(e) backgrounding: when the speaker prefaces the real topic (opens a new conversation/ introduces a new topic) by providing background knowledge to make his/her speech sound soft and polite.

(13) *Ashita paatii-ga aru ndesu kedo, kimasen ka?*

tomorrow party-SUB exist NDESU but come:NEG QP

‘We are having a party tomorrow. Won’t you come?’ (McGloin, 1989, p. 93)

Mizutani (1989) also provided three functions and meanings of *ndesu*. First, in line with McGloin's 'explanation' (example 9), it is used for emphatically giving a reason or for offering an explanation; however, she emphasized this use is not based on merely presenting a fact but also includes giving a reason. For example, if someone asks a student why he/she was absent the previous day, and if the student answers the question without using *ndesu*, it gives the impression that the answer is not directly related to the question the student was asked. Second, *ndesu* is used when asking for an explanation with concerns using *ndesu-ka*. *Ndesu* is used for both answering that question and including a meaning of the explanation about the situation. For example, if one person said, 'something terrible happened to me yesterday' and the other person may ask, 'what happened?' with *ndesuka* to ask for an explanation with concern. Then the person can answer, "a thief broke into my room" with *ndesu* to explain the situation. Third, similar to Noda's "mood of *noda*," *ndesu* is used for showing emotional emphasis. That is, a speaker displays a subjective emphasis to express his/her feeling, voice, and/or attitude toward a particular situation. For example, a teacher says, *arubaito-wo shi-nagara benkyou suru-no-wa taihen-desyou-ne*. Part-time job-TOP do-while study do-NOM-TOP tough-COP-FP 'Studying while working part-time must be tough.' And the student answers, *ee, hontouni taihena ndesu*. Yes, really tough NDESU 'Yes, it really is.' Here the student's utterance using *ndesu* delivers his/her emotion and seeks empathy from the teacher (p. 102). Mizutani (1989) stressed using this function of *ndesu* with caution because its primary use is for making one's assertion strong, so it might be not appropriate in a formal situation.

These reviewed *ndesu* studies focusing on the comprehensive explanation of *ndesu* by presenting its various functions also include lists of the functions as well as presenting each function individually without providing the fundamental concept. I argue this may cause

confusion about what *ndesu* exactly means as these studies merely give different usages and functions, without providing a bigger picture for learners. Some of the reviewed studies also attempt to suggest the main function of *ndesu*, but most often the main functions discussed are only the explanatory functions of *ndesu* and its derived functions such as reason, emphasis, and paraphrasing (Alfonso, 1966; Kuno, 1973; Mizutani, 1989; and Okuda, 1990). Moreover, most major Japanese language textbooks only introduce the explanatory functions of *ndesu*. However, some studies have attempted to provide the main concept of *ndesu* and explain its various functions within the framework of its explanatory function. Other studies are limited to an explanation of several functions of *ndesu* and fail to address its other functions in various situations. This incomplete explanation may cause students to fail to understand *ndesu* as a whole concept. As presented previously in detail, Yoshida (2000) categorized *ndesu*, and according to him, among his categories, category 1 (paraphrasing) and category 3 (confession, inform, emphasis) in the ‘within a sentence effect’ and both category A (recapture) and category B in the ‘between sentence effect’ of *ndesu* (p. 25) can be said to address its explanatory function. However, he pointed out that the explanatory functions of *ndesu* do not explain category 2 (i.e., understanding (得心) and realization anew (再認識) and category 4 (i.e., determination (決意), demand (命令) in the within a sentence effect. Therefore, it is not sufficient to give only the explanatory function of *ndesu* that many studies and textbooks have suggested is the main function of *ndesu*. If we try to explain *ndesu* within the concept of explanatory tone/form, only a few functions are covered. This may cause failure to understand *ndesu* as a pragmatic feature that changes in accordance with various situations. This suggests there is a need for a unified concept that can thoroughly explain *ndesu*. The following section presents some studies that have tried to

provide a unified (broad) concept that gives a fundamental explanation for *ndesu* to explain its various functions.

### **Unified Concept (Primary Function) of *Ndesu***

Although *ndesu* has multiple functions, several scholars have addressed some of its underlying meanings. Tanomura (2002) argued that “it is generally agreed that *n(o)da* functions ... to provide some type of background information relevant to the statement” (cited in Maynard, 1996, p. 938). Horie (2012) also stated that the “primary functions of *noda* construction are to signal the relevance of some existing context (linguistic or nonlinguistic) to the current situation and thereby to provide explanation as to why/ how the situation is as it is” (p. 666).

Shibuya (1996) created the concept of “another reality” to explain all the functions of *ndesu*. She analyzed examples from previous research and explained that regardless of the type of sentence (e.g., declarative, interrogative, imperative statement), the basic concept of *no*, “presenting another reality,” involves the following 18 examples: (a) reason, cause, explanation; (b) custom; (c) plan; (d) prediction; (e) decision; (f) general truth; (g) truth, discovery of correct interpretation; (h) consent, giving up; (i) confirmation; (j) emphasis, repeated explanation of a decision; (k) polite refusal; (l) reprimand; (m) advice; (n) command; (o) completion; (p) retrospect; (q) action plan, pointing out listener’s lack of information; and (r) a fact for a long time. She contended that this unified and inclusive concept explains the usage of *no* in a simple and clear way.

By assuming a unified meaning to explain *no* usage, Shibuya (1996)’s study departs from other studies (e.g., Mizutani, 1989; McGloin, 1989) based on analyses of each differing usage and function of *ndesu*. While it is worth mentioning as one of the earliest attempts to give a more comprehensible account for the use of *ndesu*, her inclusive concept is still too broad/abstract, and

therefore does not help us understand how the underlying concept, “presenting another reality” is related to each of the usages (e.g., “reason,” “custom”).

In line with Shibuya (1996), Kondo (2006) investigated how the functions of *ndesu* in Japanese discourse can be explained by analyzing the subjectivity of the speaker through using examples of correct and incorrect usage of *ndesu* sentences. According to her study, the speaker introduces the topics that are non-existent in the context of the conversation by subjectively creating its relevancy, leaving the interpretation of the relevancy to the listener who shares the same collaborative attitude regarding the context of the conversation. The listener infers the relevancy of the topic based on the speaker’s subjectivity and then understands the speaker’s intention of the utterance. Because the speaker talks about the personal experience that he/she subjectively makes relevant and brings into the conversation what is unknown to the listener, the listener in his/her attitude of collaboration in the conversation infers the intention of the speaker. This is indexed by *ndesu*. Proper use of *ndesu* depends on the relationship between the speaker and the listener; therefore, this suggests that when the speaker intends to consider the listener, the function of *ndesu* becomes limited.

Kondo (2006) went on to posit that the speaker’s subjectivity can explain the uses of *ndesu* when it is used for “explanation,” “proposition,” “notice,” “determination,” and “command.” To support her argument she offered three factors that comprise communication: (a) the context of a conversation, (b) the speaker, and (c) the listener. Communication occurs when the speaker leaves the interpretation of his/her own intention to the listener, and then the listener predicts and infers what the speaker has just said. Therefore, it is a mutual (reciprocal) act as well as reciprocally dependent. Furthermore, she concluded that *ndesu* is a context-specific sentence-final expression that deeply depends on both the speaker’s intention to create a

collaborative attitude with the listener, which denotes the speaker's intention to involve the listener and his/her consideration for the listener. The concept of subjectivity that Kondo argued is similar to the pragmatically-oriented explanation the present study proposes, but it remains a somewhat abstract concept. Subjectivity is a term that can broadly explain *ndesu*, but it does not give a clear explanation to non-native Japanese speakers of the exact situations for when to use it.

Yoshimi (2001) looked at the broader use of *ndesu* and explained it occurs most frequently in storytelling but also presented its function in discourse. She offered its three functions: “the maintenance of discourse coherence, the segmentation of the story into “parts” (e.g., scenes, events), and the signaling that one’s telling is ongoing” (p. 231).

*Ndesu* – provides the “glue” that holds a story together and draws the listener into the story. (Without *n desu* a story may sound like a list of facts and events.) Following this definition, which highlights the critical role of *n desu* in creating discourse coherence, the interactional function of the marker was explained: [I]n Japanese, the simplest way to let the listener know you’re not yet finished talking is to use *n desu*. Using *n desu* is especially important at points where you are finishing up one part of your story (a particular scene/ event, describing an important person in the story) and moving on to the next development. (p. 230)

Kikuchi (2000) also looked at *ndesu* from a unified perspective. He explained its two basic functions: first, when the speaker and listener share certain knowledge or information, and second, when only one participant in the dialogue has additional information related to the originally shared information that both know; then *ndesu* is used for presenting (or asking for the lack of) additional information. For example, when speaker A asks, “Why did you come late (using *ndesu*)?” and B answers, “The bus didn’t come (using *ndesu*).” The fact that B was late is shared information; speaker A wants to know the reason why B is late and uses *ndesu* to ask for additional information. *Ndesu* is used by speaker A because he/she seeks additional information that only speaker B knows. In response to this, speaker B answers using *ndesu* and presents the additional information. Compared to Kondo’s inclusive concept (the speaker’s subjectivity),



Kikuchi provided a much clearer condition for the use of *ndesu*. Although, this condition, the sharedness of information, is amendable to teach in class, his explanation is somewhat limited, as Kikuchi himself admitted that his proposed unified function of *ndesu* cannot apply to all its functions (e.g., discovery).

Takatsu (1991) also approached analyzing all the uses of *ndesu* using a unified concept. She pointed out that though many studies have been conducted on this issue, none fully explain all the uses of the 'NO DA' construction (*ndesu*). She suggested "a single set of invariant semantic components" that are common to all the uses of the NO DA construction and that accounts for all the various uses of the *ndesu*. She specifically analyzed *ndesu* from the viewpoint of "cohesion."

NO DA provides cohesion in that it draws attention to the link between the proposition embraced by it and the context in which this proposition appears. It indicates that the whole proposition is referring either to the preceding utterance(s) in the conversation or to the situation in which the conversation takes place. In other words, it provides cohesion with either the linguistic or the extra-linguistic context. NO DA provides cohesion not only to the previous statement or to the situation of the utterance but also, in a sense, between the speaker and the addressee. The speaker requests the addressee's cooperation in the interpretation of the utterance. (p. 168)

Takatsu admitted that the explanation of *ndesu* using the concept of cohesion (i.e., cohesion between the utterance and its context, and between the speaker and the addressee) might be vague, as *ndesu* itself is rather vague and that could lead to various interpretations in various contexts. She proposed two semantic components of the meaning of *ndesu*: "For the clause X NO DA, where X is the proposition, the following two components of meaning are proposed: (1) In saying X, I am talking about something you know about; (2) I assume you will understand why I say X now" (p. 170). In her example, "Imagine two men are walking together and one of them suddenly stops. The other then turns with a puzzled look, and the one who has stopped says" (p. 170):

(14) *Kutsu-no himo-ga kireta-ndesu.*

shoe-GEN lace-TOP broken:PAST-NDESU

‘It’s just that my shoelace has broken.’

She interpreted the example as: “Although the speaker seems to be making a simple statement that his shoelace has broken, he is, in fact, addressing himself, or responding, to the addressee’s puzzled look. The proposition itself does not fully explain what he is talking about” (p. 170).

In order to decipher the true pragmatic import of the proposition the addressee must reply on his understanding of the context in which the conversation takes place. NODA signals this need to look beyond the proposition for its correct interpretation. NODA serves to alert the addressee to the fact that the speaker assumes that s/he will understand just why this particular sentence is uttered in this particular context. In this example, even if there is no other exchange of words, the speaker assumed the addressee will understand why s/he says “My shoelace has broken.” This is because the speaker has interpreted the addressee’s puzzled look to mean “why have you suddenly stopped?” If this interpretation is correct, the addressee will understand the utterances a respond to his unuttered question. (pp. 170-171)

She goes on to paraphrase the situation by using two suggested components: “(a) In saying “my shoelace has broken” I am talking about something you know about (i.e., I’m talking about the fact that I have stopped); (2) I assume you know why I say “my shoelace has broken” now (i.e., because I think you want to know why I have stopped)” (p. 171).

Based on her study, Takatsu provided a much clearer vision of *ndesu* for both understanding and using it in a teaching context; she argued that *ndesu* is used as a cohesive device between the utterance and the linguistic context or extra-linguistic context, and between the speaker and the hearer. As a cohesive device, *ndesu* signals there is more than what is being said and also that the speaker assumes that he/she (the hearer) will understand what is said in the particular context. In her study Takatsu addressed the importance of the interaction between the speaker and the hearer, as well as the intended meaning and the hearer’s interpretation. Moreover, it is important if the context, and how a particular context, influences their utterances and the

interpretation of the intended meaning by the hearer. Furthermore, the *ndesu* construction both signals and works as a cohesive device. If it fails to signal and fails to be interpreted, the result is pragmatic failure. Thomas (1983) stated that pragmatic failure occurs when the speaker's utterance perceived by the hearer is different from what the speaker intended. This is the case when the hearer is not able to perceive appropriately what *ndesu* signals. Therefore, her study indicated that a unified concept from the view of cohesion, comprised of two semantic meanings /components, falls into the pragmatic area. While explaining *ndesu* from the perspective of a unified concept, she also provided explanations of various uses for *ndesu*. Lastly, the study suggested that in using a unified concept of *ndesu* the possibility of having a pragmatic enhanced explanation emphasizes the context, and what is said or not said.

Another possibility for implementing a unified concept of *ndesu* that focuses on pragmatically-oriented instruction appears in the textbook, *Japanese: The Spoken Language* (JSL). As mentioned in Chapter 1, most textbooks present only a few representative functions of *ndesu* and some of its explanatory functions, or provide several functions of *ndesu* by giving short example sentences as a grammar point. However, unlike other textbooks, JSL provides the specific background context where *ndesu* is used and illustrates detailed situations and explains that pragmatic failure occurs when it should not be used. JSL also provides a fundamental concept that can apply to various functions of *ndesu*. "The pattern relates to what precedes *ndesu* to something in the real world which is known or assumed to be known by the person addressed as well as being known by the speaker" (p. 178), and according to JSL, "This notion of shared information — together with its implications — is very important" (p. 242).

In other words, JSL gives an explanation that a sentence using *ndesu* relates to what the speaker is saying about a real situation that is either shared by or assumed to be shared by the

hearer. The use of *ndesu* implies that the information/situation is shared or assumed to be shared. By implying that the information/situation is known by both the speaker and the hearer, the use of *ndesu* involves the hearer in the conversation. This explanation is similar to Yoshimi (2001) and Takatsu (1991)'s concept of cohesion. First, as previously mentioned, Yoshimi's study addressed the discourse function of *ndesu* in which *ndesu* creates discourse coherence and the interactional functions of *ndesu*. Her explanation of *ndesu* is similar in that it functions to join the story together and involves the listener in the story — particularly when the hearer becomes involved in the conversation when the speaker implies that the information/situation is shared as the story is being told. As a result, the listener is drawn into the story and is given a signal that the story is ongoing. Second, in Takatsu (1991)'s study, she proposed two semantic components of the meaning of *ndesu*, "in saying X (proposition) *ndesu*, I am talking about something you know about; and I assume you will understand why I say X *ndesu* now." (p. 170). Here, these two components indicate the notion of shared information and its implication; however, in JSL, the proposition X *ndesu* implies the information/situation is shared or is assumed to be shared. What is implied in various situations/contexts determines the various functions of *ndesu*. That is, both explanations focus on the pragmatic import that becomes a variable function depending on the context and what is shared and implied.

JSL also includes an explanation of how a particular situation/context influences a speaker's decision to use *ndesu* in order not to commit a pragmatic failure. JSL presents the following example:

You are at the airport meeting a Japanese dignitary who is arriving after a fourteen-hour flight. To make some comment about the fact that he must be tired would of course be appropriate. But what would the implication be if you used an extended predicate and asked a question meaning 'Is it that you are tired?' - i.e., that you look the way you do – droopy, worn out. This would be an occasion to stay away from the extended predicate. (p. 243)

A further explanation instructs the student that there are some cases in which *ndesu* should not be used, but when the context itself is open to share, it should be used. Whether *ndesu* can or cannot be used depends on the speaker/listener's desire for information sharing, and this is determined by the relationship between speaker and listener or the particular situation where this conversation takes place — a situation we usually refer to as “depending on the context” and that tends to further confuse students. Moreover, JSL shows the possibility of providing a unified concept that can apply to other functions as well, and it also indicates the possibility of explaining a pragmatically-oriented explanation that provides a specific context where pragmatic failure can occur. Lastly, the textbook shows how a particular situation/context influences a speaker's use of *ndesu*.

We see therefore that an explanation of *ndesu* should contain the following three points: (a) a simple but specific context and situation including speaker and addressee, (b) details of the speaker's thought or intention/intended meaning and listener's interpretation in a particular context, and (c), how the fundamental concept of *ndesu* is used for each specific situation and causes each function of *ndesu* while showing how what's shared/implied determines the various functions/interpretations of *ndesu*.

In Chapter 3 a suggested explanation of *ndesu*, based on a unified concept and also a pragmatically-oriented explanation will be presented. Using the JSL explanation (unified concept), each function of *ndesu* will be analyzed to show how each function can be derived from the unified concept. Furthermore, how to present the material to students will be also be addressed.

### **Theoretical Framework for the Proposed Instructional Approach**

Previous studies of the content (metapragmatic information) used for explicit pragmatic instruction, especially the metapragmatic discussion using the unified concept of *ndesu*, were

examined in the preceding sections. The next section presents the five key notions that inform the theoretical perspective for the instructional approach I took for the present study: (a) pragmatics; (b) noticing hypothesis; (c) pragmatic instruction; (d) interventional studies of L2 pragmatics; and (e) explicit metapragmatic instruction.

**Pragmatics.** Pragmatics is a field of linguistics that studies how language is used in communication (Leech, 1983, p.1). Although it is very difficult to define pragmatics precisely, pragmatics is generally considered “the study of meaning in relation to speech situations” (Leech, 1983, p. 6). In other words, pragmatics is the study of how utterances have meanings in situations; and because utterance meaning is closely related to speech situations, pragmatics thus examines the meaning of utterances. In pragmatics, context plays an important role, whereas in semantics the meaning is free from the influence of the situation (Leech, 1983). Levinson (1983) provided a set of definitions of pragmatics. He argued that pragmatics is the study of language use (p. 5), that is,

The study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding” and “understanding utterance involves the making of *inferences* that will connect what is said to what is mutually assumed or what has been said before. (p. 21)

Yule (1996) defined pragmatics more precisely: “Pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader)” (p. 3). According to Yule, pragmatics concerns four areas. First, “Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning” (p. 3). In other words, pragmatics does not examine the word itself, but what a speaker means by his/her utterance and how a listener interprets the utterance. Second, “Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning” (p. 3). Pragmatics also studies how context (e.g., listener/addressee, location, situation, etc.) influences a speaker’s utterance and how the utterance in a specific context is interpreted. Third, “Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is

said” (p. 3). That is, pragmatics studies how a listener makes inferences and interprets the intended meaning of the speaker. Fourth, “Pragmatics is the study of the expression of relative distance” (p. 3). The speaker determines what is said or not said depending on how close or distant the speaker and listener are. The main interests in pragmatists lie in the functions, intentions, goals, and effects of utterances, and ultimately in the kind of linguistic competence required to use language in specific social situations (Wales, 1989, p. 369). Similar to Yule, Thomas (1995) also took into account the definition of pragmatics in which both the speaker’s meaning and utterance interpretation are important. She defined pragmatics as the study of “meaning in interaction” emphasizing that making meaning is a dynamic process involving both the speaker and hearer to make meaning throughout the communicative situation while negotiating the meaning and the physical, social, and linguistic context influence of those meanings (p. 22).

From these definitions of pragmatics, in the study of *ndesu* through the interaction between the speaker and the hearer, what the speaker’s intended meaning in a particular context and how the listener interprets the intended meaning is important. Therefore, in the present study, pragmatics is defined as the study of meanings of utterances closely linked to the context and how the context influences the speakers’ utterance with his/her intention and how the hearer interprets it. As Mey (1993) stated, “Pragmatics is interested in the process of producing language and in its producers, not just in the end-product, language (p. 35); most importantly, the process of producing language involving the speaker and hearer’s intended meaning and interpretation of the meaning in the specific context should be the focus.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, one of the difficulties in learning *ndesu* is that its use is decided by both the context and the outer situation, not only by factors in the sentence (Noda et

al., 2001; Takatsu, 1991). The outer factor, such as the speaker's intention, is signaled by the use of *ndesu* and the listener needs to interpret what this is in a particular context. To understand fully the use of *ndesu* in various situations, determining the intention of the speaker and various prompt situations — the dialogue context — is important. Therefore, the following four key concepts of pragmatics can help students to understand the use of *ndesu*: (a) the speaker and hearer, (b) the specific context, (c) the intended meaning, and (d) the interpretation in the process of the interaction. The functions of *ndesu* will be reviewed in detail in the following section.

**Input and second language acquisition.** Much research has emphasized the critical importance of input in language processing (Ellis, 1990; Krashen, 1982, 1985; Long 1996; VanPatten, 1996). It is accepted that input is crucial for language acquisition regardless of the instructional approach. This theory is attributed to Krashen (1982, 1985) who argued that second language learners acquire language competence when the language they are exposed to is understandable and meaningful to them. Furthermore, he claimed the most valuable source for acquisition comprehensible input is language that goes slightly above the students' current level of competence. Therefore, second language acquisition naturally occurs only by exposure to comprehensible input and reduces the need for explicit instruction. Although comprehensible input is significant, mere exposure to it is not sufficient for second language acquisition to occur (Ellis, 1994; Schmidt, 1990). Input must become intake, that is "that the portion of the L2 which is assimilated and fed into the interlanguage system" (Ellis, 1985, p.159). Schmidt (1990) went on to propose the noticing hypothesis and claimed that input becomes intake through conscious noticing.

**Noticing hypothesis.** The theoretical framework for the instructional approach in the present study is based on the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1995). This hypothesis



purports that “input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is consciously registered” (Schmidt, 1990, 2001), and input has to be ‘noticed’ or ‘detected’ through ‘awareness’ (Schmidt, 1995). In other words, the noticing hypothesis claims that for input to become intake for learning, mere input exposure is insufficient and conscious noticing is crucial. According to Schmidt, intake is the part of the input that is noticed by learners and, as an initial phase of learning, noticing linguistic features of the input is required for learning. Without awareness at the level of noticing, no learning occurs. Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis accounts for the initial stage of input processing and the attention required for input to become intake (Schmidt, 1995). In other words, conscious/awareness noticing is an integral part of language learning and essential in the early stages.

Schmidt (1995) further distinguished noticing and understanding as two different levels of awareness (i.e., awareness at the level of noticing, awareness at the level of understanding). He defined noticing as the “conscious registration of the occurrence of some event,” while he defined understanding as “the recognition of some general principle, rule, or pattern” (p. 29). Moreover, he argued noticing is “a technical term limited to the conscious registration of attended specific instances of language, and understanding is “a higher level of awareness that includes generalizations. Schmidt (1995) further explained this distinction of pragmatics.

In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, “I’m terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you look at this problem?” is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used in their strategic development in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition and so on, are all matters of understating. (p. 30)

In his later work, Schmidt (2010) argued that “in order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both the linguistic form of utterance and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated” (p. 5). In other words, exposure only to L2 pragmatic features is not likely to

convert input to intake, “what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning” (Schmidt 1995, p. 20).

The implication of Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis for pragmatics is when learners are consciously aware of the target features in pragmatics, in other words, when they notice input; input then becomes intake which means learning occurs. Therefore, the role of instruction is important because instruction raises one’s awareness and makes input salient. Schmidt (1993) went on to say that,

Simple exposure to sociolinguistically appropriate input is unlikely to be sufficient for second language acquisition of pragmatic and discoursal knowledge because the linguistic realizations of pragmatic functions are sometimes opaque to language learners and because the relevant contextual factors are sometimes opaque to language learners and because the relevant contextual factors to be noticed are likely to be defined differently or may be nonsalient for the learner. Second language learners may fail to experience the crucial noticing for years. The fact that this does not seem to happen in first language learning is attributable not to any sort of pragmatics acquisition device, but to the efforts that parents and other caregivers make in order to teach communicative competence to children, using a variety of strategies. (p. 36)

Schmidt (1993) also claimed that explicit teacher-provided information about L2 pragmatics can also play a role in learning if it is accurate and not based only on a native speaker’s inaccurate intuitions. He also argued that “explicit teaching is often more sufficient than attention to input for identifying the pragmalinguistic forms of the target language.” Lastly, a consciousness-raising approach for the teaching of pragmatics is justifiable (p. 36).

**Pragmatic instruction.** In order to make the input salient to lead learners to notice it, instruction is important. Instruction on how to notice particular features (e.g., linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features) (Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1995, 2001) is critical for saliency. Therefore, the role of pedagogical intervention is necessary because it encourages learners’ to notice the target language features in the input by making it salient. Bardovi-Harlig (2001), for example, asserted the necessity of instruction, evaluating empirical

evidence, and showed that L2 learners who do not receive instruction in pragmatics are significantly different from native speakers of the L2 in terms of choice of speech acts, choice of semantic formulas, content (which is specific information given by a speaker), and form of a speech act in both production and comprehension. She argued that “making contextualized, pragmatically-appropriate input available to learners from early stages of acquisition onward is the very least that pedagogy should aim to do” (p. 31) and further claimed the importance of teaching pragmatics.

Kasper and Schmidt (1996) also maintained the importance of pragmatics instruction. They strongly supported its necessity stating that even in L1 acquisition, pragmatic competence is treated as a special entity. They also argued that “pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be noticed despite prolonged exposure” (p. 237). Moreover, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) argued that even for L1 learners, pragmatics features should be taught, and based on the results of her study, pragmatic knowledge needs to be also taught to L2 learners; therefore, instruction of pragmatics makes the target pragmatic feature “salient” and helps to raise learners’ awareness and promotes further processing which is understanding/learning (Ishida, 2009).

**Interventional studies of L2 pragmatics.** Using Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis as a theoretical framework, many studies have investigated the effect of instruction in second language pragmatics and produced a rich body of research (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Ishida, 2009; Ishihara, 2007; Iwai, 2010; Narita, 2012; Rose, 2005; Tateyama, 2001; Tateyama et al., 1997; Yoshimi, 2001). Kasper and Rose (2002) divided their interventional studies of second language pragmatics into three types: (a) teachability studies that examined whether the target pragmatic features can benefit from explicit instruction, (b) instruction versus

exposure studies that examined whether instruction is more beneficial compared to no instruction (i.e., simple exposure), and (c) different teaching approaches studies that investigated the effect of more than one instruction compared to different types of intervention, especially explicit versus implicit studies (p. 259).

Most of the early studies during the 1990s investigated the teachability of pragmatics, and such studies discovered that most targeted pragmatic features can benefit from instruction. Whereas the benefits of instruction were established in this type of research (i.e., teachability studies), later research focused on the efficacy of the instructional methods that asked the question, “what instructional methods could best enhance the learning of pragmatics?” (Taguchi, 2011, p. 291). She further stated that intervention studies have examined the differential effects of instructional methods including explicit and implicit instruction and more. Each type of study is briefly first reviewed, and then, especially for the purpose of pedagogy and the instructional approach for the present study, intervention studies that examine the differential effects of instructional methods are reviewed in detail.

Studies in the first group (i.e., teachability studies) aimed to examine whether the target pragmatic features would benefit from explicit instruction. This type of study typically adopted a one-group pretest and posttest design (Kasper & Rose, 2002) to compare the instruction effect before and after the treatment. The target pragmatic features that have been studied are apologies (e.g., Olshtain & Cohen, 1990); politeness strategies (LoCastro, 1997); pragmatic routines and strategies (Wildner-Bassett, 1994); structure of small talk (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001); complaints and refusals (Morrow, 1996); and request (Safont, 2003). The first group of studies established that pragmatics is teachable (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

Studies in the second group compared instruction versus no-instruction (simple exposure). This type of study adopted a two-group pre/posttest design that included both an experimental group receiving instruction and a control group receiving no instruction. Then the effectiveness of instruction and no treatment for each group was compared to see whether instruction was more effective than simple exposure. Moreover, these studies directly tested Schmidt's noticing hypothesis. As previously noted, the noticing hypothesis claims that raising learners' consciousness (e.g., through instruction) leads them to target features in the input salient, and input becomes intake (further processed). According to Kasper and Rose (2002), "the extent to which instruction that serves to draw learners' attention to the targeted features proves to be more beneficial than simple exposure to the target language is the degree to which the noticing hypothesis is supported" (p. 255). Various learning targets were investigated in this group: compliments (Billmyer, 1990); implicature (Bouton, 1994; address form (Lyster, 1994); hedging (Wishnoff, 2000); interactional discourse marker (Yoshimi, 2001). In these studies, the results showed that learners who received instruction fared significantly better than those who did not, and studies providing instruction in contrast to no instruction have supported the benefit of pragmatic instruction (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

According to Kasper and Rose (2002), having established the advantage of explicit instruction with the first group of studies where pragmatics is amenable to teaching, and with the second group where in receiving instruction the learners outperformed in contrast to mere exposure, the question moved to whether different teaching approaches were differentially effective, which was the main consideration of the third group.

Studies in the third group compared a different teaching approach: most studies compared explicit instruction versus implicit instruction, that is, with/without metapragmatics information

(Ishida, 2009; Kasper, 2000; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005; Taguchi, 2011). As Kasper and Rose (2002) stated, the difference between implicit instruction and no instruction is the provision of the metapragmatic information (p. 264). Kasper and Rose (2002) also mentioned DeKeyser's (1995) useful criteria of the distinction between the explicit and implicit approaches to instruction. According to DeKeyser,

An L2 instructional treatment [is] considered to be explicit if rule explanation [comprise] part of the instruction... or if learners [are] directly asked to attend to particular forms and to try to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations of their own... Conversely, when neither rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms [are] part of a treatment, that treatment [is] considered implicit. (p. 437)

Interventional studies investigate the effect of explicit teaching to determine the effective teaching approaches that facilitate learners' pragmatic development. This type of study usually is comprised of two or more experimental groups and a control group. In particular, a number of interventional studies compared different teaching approaches and most of the time compared explicit versus implicit instruction (Alcon-Soler; Ishida, 2009; Kasper, 2001). Furthermore, this type of study was the most relevant for pedagogical purposes (Kasper & Rose, 2002; p. 250). Similar to the second group of studies (i.e., instruction versus exposure studies), interventional research on different teaching approaches also provided support for noticing and, in most cases, learners who receive explicit instruction with metapragmatic information performed better than those who did not (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Many studies compared whether one type of instruction is more effective than another (Kubota, 1995; Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama et al., 1997; Fukuya et al., 1998; House, 1996; Kondo, 2004; Ishida, 2009; Iwai, 2010). According to Kasper and Rose (2002), though there were some inconsistent results, if there was no apparent flaw such as a methodological flaw in the studies, the overall results comparing

different instructional approaches supported the value of explicit instruction provided with explicit metapragmatic information (p. 268).

In sum, these various pragmatic interventional studies show that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction. Furthermore, this general consensus, the benefit of explicit metapragmatic instruction, is consistent with Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis study on the effectiveness of second language instruction that reported that direct instruction is notably different from no instruction and explicit instruction proved to be more effective over implicit instruction. It is also consistent with Jeon and Kaya (2006)'s meta-analysis conducted on the effect of instruction in L2 pragmatic development (whether instruction on pragmatic features is effective; which type of instruction (i.e., explicit versus implicit) is more effective; whether there is a measurement method effect (e.g., natural language data, elicited language data); and the relationship between the length of treatment and the effects of instruction, the results of which indicated that explicit instruction is more advantageous. Although both meta-analysis studies came to that conclusion, the result should be taken with caution and yield to future research in detail. Although there are limitations such as small sample size, both studies found a clear advantage for the effects of explicit instruction over implicit instruction.

**Explicit metapragmatic instruction.** Instructional intervention studies in L2 pragmatics have flourished in the past decades (Taguchi, 2015). As briefly reviewed in the previous section, various interventional studies investigating the effect of instruction have shown that explicit instruction on pragmatics has a facilitative role in L2 pragmatics (Alcon-Soler, 2005; House, 1996; Ishida, 2009; Tateyama et al., 1997; Yoshimi, 2001) and these results were also reported in Jeon and Kaya (2006)'s meta-analysis. Based on the general consensus of the benefit of explicit instruction on pragmatics, the design of the present study was implemented with the explicit

instructional approach of pragmatics, especially the metapragmatic instruction and metapragmatics discussion. As the purpose of the present study was to examine the effect of explicit instruction for learning *ndesu*, several interventional studies are reviewed here in detail focusing on the research design, explicit instructional approach (e.g., instruction treatment), especially the ways of providing metapragmatic information and metapragmatic discussion and its result (the effect of instruction).

Mey (1993) defined metapragmatics as “a pragmatic discussion on pragmatics” (p. 270) and it is a pragmatic explanation from a “meta-level” that analyzes the pragmatic observed facts and factors in an overall explanatory framework (p. 271). In explaining the case of *ndesu*, it could be said that a pragmatic explanation reveals why *ndesu* is used in a particular context. More specifically, through the unified concept, the form (*ndesu*) can have various functions depending on the context. In other words, *ndesu* can have more than one function because it is closely related to the pragmatic factors such as speaker’s personal situation, thought, and intention, etc. Vershueren (2000) considered metapragmatics as reflective interpretations of language use.

The metapragmatic information in this study includes reflective interpretations of the use of *ndesu* in a particular context, and through the discussion of metapragmatics using the unified concept, it gives a wider view of *ndesu* instead of merely memorizing a list of functions (when to use *ndesu* for each case) like a vocabulary/grammar point. Metapragmatic information often includes metapragmatic discussions, requiring active student participation in a teacher-fronted format or small groups (Kasper, 2001). The explicit metapragmatic instructional activities in Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh, and Fatahi’s (2004) study, for example, included description, explanation, teacher-fronted discussion, small-group discussions, role play, pragmatically-



focused tasks, and introspective feedback. For the present study, an explicit explanation of pragmatic features, teacher-fronted discussion, small-group (pair) discussions, and pragmatically-enhanced tasks were used. The handouts given to both groups included explicit metapragmatic information and the activity. (A more detailed description of the implemented and instruction approach used in the present study is described in Chapter 3).

Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh, and Fatahi (2004) investigated the effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the comprehension of advanced EFL students' speech acts including requesting, apologizing, and complaining. Participants were Iranian undergraduate students (n=66) in the field of teaching English as a foreign language and a group of American students (n=20) who provided the native English baseline data. This study adopted a pre/posttest control group design (the experimental group [n=34] and the control group [n=32]), and a multiple choice pragmatic comprehension test was developed and used for the pretest and posttest to measure the effect of metapragmatic instruction on the students' pragmatic comprehension. There were the 12 sessions of explicit metapragmatic instruction for the experimental group over a 12-week period, and the pragmatic instruction took about 30 minutes of each 2-hour class period.

The explicit metapragmatic instruction included a teacher-fronted discussion, cooperative grouping, role play, and other pragmatically-oriented tasks to promote the learning of the intended speech acts. A dialogue was read out loud to the control group. They neither received any explicit metapragmatic instruction, nor had they been given the university's usual instruction. The posttest and the multiple choice pragmatic comprehension test were administered after the 12-weeks of instruction. The results indicated that the students' speech act

comprehension improved significantly, supporting that explicit metapragmatic instruction facilitates L2 pragmatic development.

Among the interventional studies that combine explicit instruction with metapragmatic information, Takimoto (2012) pointed out that some interventional studies in teaching L2 pragmatics combined metapragmatic discussion with other teaching techniques, and that this combination makes the actual effects of metapragmatic discussion unclear. Therefore, he attempted to focus exclusively on the real nature of metapragmatic discussion without influences from other teaching techniques to test how metapragmatic discussion contributed to the superiority of explicit instruction when explicit instruction is effective. He investigated the effect of metapragmatic discussion on learners' ability to recognize and produce English request downgraders (e.g., *Would it be possible for you to VP?/ I wonder if you could VP/ I would appreciate it if you could VP*). There were two experimental groups ( $n=15$ ,  $n=15$ ) and one control group ( $n=15$ ) in this study. The two experimental groups received the following instructional treatments: problem-solving tasks with metapragmatic discussion (PTW) and problem-solving tasks without metapragmatic discussion (PTO).

The result showed that both the PTW and PTO groups performed significantly better than the control group on the discourse completion test (DCT) and the acceptability judgment test (AJT). There were no statistically significant differences between the two experimental groups on the AJT; however the PTW (with discussion) group performed significantly better than the PTO (without discussion) group on the DCT. This indicated there was an advantage for the PTW and also implied that metapragmatic discussion is effective in learning sociopragmatic distinctions. Analysis of the result showed that through metapragmatic discussion, the participants in the PTW group had additional metapragmatic information and were more

motivated and focused on the target linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contexts. Therefore, they developed knowledge of the target feature more firmly and easily, and the knowledge was rapidly accessed.

Tateyama (2009) investigated the effect of instruction on making a request in Japanese by comparing two explicit conditions: (a) regular instruction, and (b) expanded instruction for nine lessons, 50-minutes each. The regular instruction group ( $n=22$ ) received an explicit explanation on Japanese requests and closely followed the textbook lesson for making a request followed by communicative practice not related to the request. The expanded group received the same instruction and additional consciousness-raising activities including watching a video clip, oral communicative practice with Japanese native speakers, and a video feedback session. The effect of the instruction was measured by four instruments: (a) discourse completion tasks (DCTs), (b) a telephone message (TM) a task, (c) role play (RP), and (c) a video-clip appropriateness rating task.

The result showed that there was a significant effect on the instruction for both groups indicating the significance of the explicit instruction, and that the learners performed significantly better in the RP than in the TM tasks. There was no significant difference found between the two groups; however, the expanded instruction group performed better, especially with a higher status interlocutor than the regular instruction group. This suggested that “the more pragmatics-focused instruction was effective in raising learner awareness about pragmalinguistic forms that index politeness” (p. 160).

Among the interventional studies in pragmatics, Yoshimi’s (2001) study relates the closest to the present study, examining the effect of instruction on *ndesu* and its variants, *ndesukedo*, and *ndesune*. She explained that “these markers play important roles in organizing

the presentation of an extended telling, and in expressing the speaker's interpersonal orientation in such a telling" (p. 224). By referring to the three words as "interactional markers," it explains that one of their functions is to make storytelling more coherent and engaging for the listener. She investigated the effects of explicit instruction as to whether it increases the use of, and accurate use of, interactional markers as well as whether some the functions are better affected by or are resistant to instruction.

To evaluate these effects, Yoshimi's (2001) study adopted a pre/posttest, experimental group design, and conducted an experiment with an experimental group ( $n=4$ ) and a control group ( $n=12$ ). She instructed learners in the experimental group by giving them an explanatory handout that provided information about the interactional markers. They were given eight handouts and one instructional handout every 2 weeks. When she presented the target item among the interactional markers (*ndesu*), she videotaped the native speaker's interaction and then discussed the target item asking what the participants noticed. After each instruction and presentation of the videotaped interaction for each targeted item, the participants were divided into small groups and prepared their stories. During this planning session, students asked the instructor questions about what they wanted to say in Japanese and received feedback. Then, in the three succeeding classes, the participants presented their stories to their conversation partners and received feedback from them and the instructor. The control group had a regular class taught by native Japanese instructor.

The result showed that the experiment group displayed a significant increase, both in the overall frequency and accuracy of using interactional markers. In contrast, the control group showed no progress in either overall frequency or use accuracy. Yoshimi (2001) also found that explicit instruction that included explicit metapragmatic explanations with a handout, exposure

to native speaker modeling, and planning sessions with extended discourse, communicative practice, and corrective feedback aided in an overall beneficial effect on the learners' use of *ndesu* in production of nonformal, extended narratives.

It should be noted, however, that Yoshimi's experiment would not be manageable in an actual teaching situation because class time is limited. Instructors cannot take time to concentrate on only teaching *ndesu*. Therefore, the instruction should be short and simple enough to be realistically implemented in an average class. Making a video clip also takes too much time and effort in a teaching situation for only instructing *ndesu*. There is no doubt that showing actual examples of its use is very helpful for students; however, we need to consider real teaching situations, environments, and time and syllabus/schedule parameters.

Time constraints and efficiency dictate how we cannot allocate class time to just one grammar/expression point. In the case of *ndesu*, two factors should be considered: (a) the various, specific contexts of communication focusing on the speaker's use of language in each case, and (b) an abstract concept such as how the speakers and listeners form their thoughts and how these thoughts are expressed is clearly not easy to absorb. Therefore, simplifying a complicated and abstract concept is necessary for learners to grasp it easily and actually begin using it. Although the actual usage of language is much more complicated, I argue that once learners grasp a simplified explanation, that is, the limited situation in which they can use what they've learned, they can add more complicated and various uses of *ndesu* while they experience various situations and contexts in which *ndesu* must be used. I suggest we can start from what we are currently doing, and based on that, we should think about how we can improve. In designing instructions and experiments and also in their implementation, suggestions mentioned previously should be considered.

## Chapter 3

### Method

The present study is designed to examine the effect and applicability of a pragmatically-oriented approach that provides the unified concept of *ndesu*. This study also closely looks at the participants' demographic factors and how these affect the acquisition of *ndesu*. To examine the effect of the proposed pedagogical approach, an intervention including instruction for the unified concept of *ndesu* is compared with the textbook-based approach providing explanations of each function of *ndesu*. That is, the two groups are compared — how participants taught by a pragmatically-oriented approach perform on tests and how the test scores for that group are different from the group taught using the textbook-based approach. Moreover, how participants are able to apply this knowledge to test items they haven't been introduced to is closely examined. The rest of this chapter lays out the detailed methodology of the present study including a description of the proposed metapragmatic content (i.e., the content of the pragmatically-oriented instruction), participants, research design, procedure, data collection instruments, and data analysis.

### Overview

Extant interventional studies have established that instructional intervention facilitates the development of L2 learners' pragmatic competence, and that an explicit provision of metapragmatic information is more effective than an implicit approach (Rose, 2005; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Ishihara, 2007). The general consensus is that explicit instruction in pragmatics is by and large helpful to learners, and the present study has benefitted from the empirical evidence from the previous research for the instructional approach. Following those interventional studies (Kasper & Rose, 2002; House, 1996; Ishida, 2009; Ishihara, 2007; Iwai, 2010; Narita, 2012;

Rose, 2005; Tateyama, 2001; Tateyama et al., 1997; Yoshimi, 2001), the present study applies explicit teaching as an instructional approach to investigate the effects of instructional approach (i.e., pragmatically-oriented approach) in teaching the Japanese discourse marker *ndesu*.

Similar to Tateyama (2009)'s study, the present study used two explicit teaching groups to investigate the efficacy of the pedagogical intervention of *ndesu*. The first group was taught using the unified concept with a specific focus on the situation/context where *ndesu* is used and the relationship between speakers. The other group was taught using textbook explanations. It should be emphasized that a pragmatically-oriented explanation — metapragmatic instruction — was implemented for the first group by using the unified concept of *ndesu* and analyzing the momentary context of model dialogues provided to the group. The important difference between the two groups was the content of the metapragmatic information and the activity (i.e., metapragmatic discussion).

The pragmatically-oriented group (the interventional group) received instruction based on the unified concept of *ndesu*. Activities in a handout enabled the participants to focus on how each situation could be explained by this concept. In contrast, the textbook-based approach group followed the textbook explanation that focused on each function of *ndesu*. This group was also given a handout using the same examples as the pragmatically-oriented group; however, the textbook-based approach group focused on each function and how *ndesu* is used in each situation described in the textbook. Then they were given the same activities in a handout where participants were asked to label each corresponding function to each situation relying on a list of descriptions and functions presented in the textbook. Such descriptions and functions were usually listed in textbooks as a typical grammar point.

Many interventional pragmatics studies have focused on investigating what kind of instructional approach is more effective in facilitating learners' pragmatic development, especially comparing the effectiveness between explicit and implicit instruction. However, in the current study, the starting motivation stemmed from the lack of available pragmatic information, that is, *what* to teach about *ndesu* rather than *how* to teach it. The present study has benefitted from the studies that show the superiority of explicit instruction (e.g., Alcon-Soler, 2007; House, 1996; Takahashi, 2001) in implementing the instructional approach (i.e., explicit instruction). Therefore, this study aimed to investigate a teaching approach in terms of *content*, but not so much in terms of the ways in which pragmatic information is presented, and also to test the feasibility of such a teaching approach. Furthermore, the current study intended to determine the specific metapragmatic information of *ndesu* and usable activities applicable to an actual classroom environment. In other words, the goal of the study was not to compare different instructional approaches — explicit versus implicit like most interventional studies — but to argue that the role of input is important and teaching pragmatics explicitly is beneficial to learners for *ndesu* in particular, which is traditionally viewed as a grammatical item and often introduced without its pragmatic functions.

### **Content of the Pragmatically-oriented Instruction: Unified Concept of *Ndesu***

**Functions used in the current study.** Before discussing the unified concept that includes the pragmatically-oriented explanation used for instruction in the present study, I will give a brief review of the most widely used functions of *ndesu*. Among the many functions provided in prior literature and language textbooks, I will focus on the following: (a) asking for additional information or explanations beyond the simple answer, (b) making an excuse or to explain the reasons for a situation without indicating it explicitly, (c) confirming the speaker's



assumption, or giving and requesting an explanation or reason, and (d) implying surprise or irritation, (e) paraphrasing (言い換え); (f) backgrounding (先触れ), (g) expressing one's determination (決意), (h) expressing one's interpretation (解釈, 事情判断), (i) discovering (発見), and (j) commanding (命令). The first four, (a) through (d), are the functions described in the textbook *Nakama*, which the study participants used and are familiar with, and these were used as the instructional content for both the pragmatically-oriented group and the textbook-based group. All ten functions were used in the test items for the pre/posttest, but six of them, (e) through (j), had not been introduced by the time the participants took the tests. Although more functions exist, these 10 functions are the most commonly used and discussed in prior literature and textbooks. Furthermore, they represent functions that are clearly distinct from each other.

The most widely discussed function of *ndesu* is its explanatory function (Alfonso, 1966; Kuno, 1973; Masuoka, 1991; Noda, 1997; Okuda, 1990; Teramura, 1984). *Ndesu* is often used when the speaker gives an explanation of what he/she has done in a given situation. In Function 1, the speaker explains why he/she will take a day off today — *taichoo ga warui ndesu* 'it's that he/she is not feeling well.' The speaker's use of *ndesu* here is to make an excuse and explain the reason for taking a day off today.

#### Function 1: Giving an explanation

*Kyoo-wa yasumimasu. taichoo-ga warui -ndesu.*

today-TOP take time off condition-SUB bad -NDESU

'I will be off today. Because I don't feel well.' (Tanomura, 2002, p. 15)

The second function of *ndesu* is used when the speaker asks for additional information or explanations beyond a simple answer. *Nakama* presents this example to compare it with a sentence without *ndesu*. According to the explanation, the sentence without *ndesu* merely asks

whether the interlocutor likes or dislikes music, but when using *ndesu*, the speaker invites additional information or explanations beyond the simple answer; however, the textbook does not explain what kind of information it would be (what kind of information the speaker wants to know). What lacks in the textbook information will be presented in my unified approach, which will be discussed later on.

Function 2: Asking for additional information or explanations beyond a simple answer

*Ongaku-ga sukina -ndesu ka?*

music-SUB like-ATN -NDESU QP

‘Is it that you like music?’ (*Nakama*, p. 310)

(2) *Ongaku-ga suki desu ka?*

music-SUB like COP QP

‘Do you like music?’

The third function of *ndesu* is to confirm the speaker’s assumption of what the speaker has assumed based on what he/she has observed or heard. This function is similar to “conjecture” proposed by McGloin (1989). In the Function 3, when the speaker observes the interlocutor is packing his/her belongings in the office and assumes he/she is going home, the speaker confirms whether her assumption is correct by asking *kaeru ndesu ka?* (‘Is it that you are going home?’).

Function 3: Confirming the speaker’s assumption

*Kaeru -ndesu ka?*

return -NDESU QP

‘Is it that you are going home?’ (*Nakama*, p. 311)

The fourth function of *ndesu* is used for implying the speaker's surprise or irritation. In Function 4, when the speaker meets the interlocutor and is surprised by him/her going to the hospital, the speaker can express her surprise by using *ndesu*.

Function 4: Implying the speaker's surprise or irritation

*E, byooin-e iku -ndesu ka?*

oh, hospital-LOC go -NDESU Qp

'What? (Is it that) you are going to the hospital?' (*Nakama*, p. 311)

These four functions of *ndesu* presented in *Nakama* were used for instruction and in tests for both the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group.

The next six functions come from other textbooks and previous studies: (e) paraphrasing (言い換え); (f) backgrounding (先触れ); (g) expressing one's determination (決意); (h) expressing one's interpretation (解釈, 事情判断); (i) discovering (発見); and (j) commanding (命令).

The fifth function of *ndesu* is used for when the speaker says something in different words (putting something another way/paraphrasing). This function of *ndesu* rephrases or summarizes what was said in the previous sentence. In Function 5, after the speaker mentions that "he" (not the speaker) lived in Canada from the age of 16 to 18, the speaker rephrased the sentence — that he went to high school there. This function of *ndesu* is said to co-occur with such adverbs as *tsumari* (in other words) or *yoosuruni* (that is). (Tomomatsu et al., 2007, p. 328)

Function 5: Paraphrasing

*Kare-wa 16sai-kara 18sai-made kanada-ni-ita.*

he-TOP 16yrs old-from 18yrs old-to Canada-LOC-be:PAST

'He used to live in Canada when he was 16 to 18.'

*Kanada-no kookoo-de bennkyoosita -noda.*

Canada-GEN high school-LOC study:PAST -NDESU

‘That is, he went to high school in Canada.’ (Iori et al., p. 284)

The sixth function of *ndesu* is backgrounding and used when the speaker opens a conversation or new topic. It is often used when a speaker requests someone to do a favor as in Function 6. Before the speaker requests that he wants speaker B to be his go-between man, he opens a conversation using *ndesu*, ‘it’s that I’m getting married to Tanaka-san’:

Function 6: Backgrounding

A: *Jitsu-wa watashi tanakasan-to kekkonnsuru -ndesu.*

fact-TOP I Tanaka-with get married -NDESU

‘Actually, I am going to get married to Tanaka-san.’

B: *Sore wa omedetoo*

that-TOP congratulations

‘Congratulations!’

A: *Sorede, sensei-ni nakoodo-o shiteitadaki-tai -ndesu ga.*

and teacher-DAT go-between man-OBJ do:HUM-want -NDESU but

‘And, I would like you to be my nakoodo (go-between man/  
matchmaker)’ (Iori et al., p. 288)

The seventh function of *ndesu* is used to express the speaker determination. In Function 7, the speaker expresses his/her strong will (determination) that he/she will definitely win.

Function 7: Expressing one’s determination

*Ore-wa zettai katu -nda.*

I-TOP definitely win -NDESU

‘I will definitely win.’ (Noda, 1997, p. 99)

The eighth function of *ndesu* is used for expressing one's interpretation. In the case of Function 8, when the speaker sees a child crying in a department store, the speaker interprets that the child is lost.

Function 8: Expressing one's interpretation

(When seeing a child is crying in a department store)

*kitto maigo-ninatta -nda.*

definitely lost child-become:PAST -NDESU

'the child must be lost.' (Iori et al., p. 282)

The ninth function of *ndesu* is used for when one discovers fact/information that the speaker didn't know about. In Function 9, the speaker finds out from a notice on the bulletin board there is a meeting tomorrow.

Example 9: Discovering

(While looking at the bulletin board)

*ashita kaigi-ga aru -nda.*

tomorrow meeting-SUB exist -NDESU

'there is a meeting tomorrow.' (Iori et al., p. 285)

The tenth function of *ndesu* is to express an order or command. When the speaker says something that the addressee should do, *ndesu* can be used to indicate this. In Function 10, the speaker says the interlocutor should come and that is what the interlocutor is supposed to do.

Function10: Commanding

*Hayaku kochi-ni kru -nda.*

quickly here -LOC come -NDESU

'Come here quickly!' (Tanomura, 2002, p. 24)

As we can see, *ndesu* has a wide variety of functions, and each function can be used in various situations which might be interpreted differently depending on who is using, how it's used, and in what context it is used. In fact, *ndesu* is related not only to various contexts but also to how those contexts influence the speaker's intended meaning and how the hearer interprets it. Determining the intention of the speaker and various prompt situations (dialogue context) is very difficult and may be one of the reasons why *ndesu* is problematic for students to learn. In Sakai (2008)'s thorough review of the functions of *ndesu*, she observed that having to choose from the many specific functions, depending on particular situations, could also be why learners have problems in acquiring *ndesu*, even at the advanced level. I argue that what we need here is the fundamental and unified concept of *ndesu*, which is more effective and helpful for the acquisition of *ndesu*, as it can be easily applied to any situation where *ndesu* is used.

As addressed in Chapter 1, the meaning of *ndesu* changes depending on the context, and it is challenging for instructors to introduce it in its entirety, explain all of its functions and situations, and practice all of them within a limited class time; this limitation in turn leads to learners inability to understand *ndesu* fully and be able to use it in a pragmatically-appropriate way. When many functions of *ndesu* are provided to learners in various situations at once, each function of *ndesu* is a grammar point that learners must learn, which can be problematic because it is likely that each *ndesu* function as a grammar point is stored in isolation without any connections to each other. Many textbooks take this problematic approach through a mechanical practice of each function. As I have emphasized throughout this dissertation, this practice is inefficient because the use and nonuse of *ndesu* is more pragmatic than grammatical; whether with or without *ndesu*, one's utterance may be *grammatically* correct but *pragmatically*-awkward.

**Pragmatically-oriented instruction: Explanation and analysis.** The proposed instruction first describes the unified concept of *ndesu* and then analyzes examples of each function to illustrate how the unified concept can account for each of multiple functions. I will also offer some procedural portions of the proposed metapragmatic instruction.

*Explaining ndesu as a unified concept.* The unified concept of *ndesu* used for this study is from *Japanese: The Spoken Language (JSL)* (Noda & Jordan, 1987). It is slightly modified from the original explanation and examples to make it more concise and easily accessible to students. The following examples are from the textbook, *Nakama* (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2009), and each example is analyzed employing the proposed unified concept:

The sentence using 「～んです」 relates to what the speaker is saying about a real situation that is either shared by or assumed to be shared by the hearer. The use of 「～んです」 implies the information/situation is shared or assumed to be shared. By implying that the information/situation is known by both the speaker and the hearer, the use of 「～んです」 involves the hearer in the conversation and can create a feeling of closeness, empathy, understanding, and warmth. (The slightly modified handout can be found in *JSL*, 1987, p. 242)

Following this basic description, the unified concept was explained with some specific examples: the speaker sees that his acquaintance (Ms. Kim) is packing her belongings in the library and he thinks she is leaving and going home. In this case, the shared information/situation is Kim-san is packing her things in the library, and related to the shared information/situation, the speaker asks the question, *kaeru ndesu ka?* ‘Is it that you are going home?’ In other words, the speaker’s *kaeru ndesu ka?* using *ndesu* implies the shared situation (that Ms. Kim is packing) and prompts him to think ‘she is packing up. She might be going home.’ Then he asks her a question to confirm what he assumed based on what he observed. The function of *ndesu* here is to confirm the speaker’s assumption. The sentence contains the momentary explanation of this

process of utterance (based on what the speaker sees and thinks, thus the question using *ndesu* implies what the speaker is experiencing).

Note that each example is accompanied by some background/contextual information. This clearly contrasts the grammatical notes in many textbooks that lack such situational cues. Unlike the proposed instruction, many textbooks typically first provide the function of *ndesu* and the following dialogue notes when to use *ndesu* as a grammar or structure point (e.g., *ndesu* is used for this case, the example is presented here). However, no situational/contextual background information is provided. Unlike the instruction in the reviewed textbooks, a pragmatically-oriented explanation starts from the specific context of both the speaker and the hearer; then we find out what the speaker has in his/her mind followed by what the speaker says; then an analysis of how the unified concept can explain this dialogue. More specifically, the unified concept allows us to find out what the situation and shared/ implied information is. Based on the situation, the possible thought/ intention is explained. Depending on what is shared/ implied, the function of *ndesu* is determined.

***Analysis of each function of ndesu using the unified concept.*** As previously mentioned, there are four functions of *ndesu* presented in *Nakama*: (a) asking for additional information or explanations beyond the simple answer; (b) making an excuse or to explain the reasons for a situation without indicating it explicitly; (c) confirming the speaker's assumption, or giving and requesting an explanation or reason; and (d) implying surprise or irritation. Each function of *ndesu* was analyzed using the unified concept as follows:

Example 1: Asking for additional information or explanations beyond the simple answer

Situation: Smith-san and Tanaka-san are having lunch and Smith-san notices Tanaka-san does not eat much.



Smith: *Amari tabenai -ndesu ne.*

not much eat:NEG -NDESU FP

‘It is that you don’t eat much?’

Tanaka: *Niku-wa amari sukijyanai -ndesu yo.*

meat-TOP not much like:NEG -NDESU FP

‘It is that I don’t like meat that much.’ (*Nakama*, p. 310)

In this example, the shared information/situation is that Tanaka-san does not eat much, and based on that, Smith-san makes a comment, *Amari tabenai ndesu ne* (‘It is that you don’t eat much’). In this context, the *ndesu* sentence implies the speaker seeks an explanation for Tanaka’s not eating much. In response to Smith-san’s comment, Tanaka-san says, *Niku wa amari sukijyanai ndesu yo* (‘It is that I don’t like meat that much’). In Tanaka-san’s utterance, she provides an explanation for not eating much using *ndesu*, *niku wa amari sukijyanai ndesu yo*.

Example 2: Making an excuse or to explain the reasons for a situation without indicating it explicitly.

Situation: When Smith-san is working in his office, Lee-san approaches him.

Lee: *Anoo, sumimasen ga.*

well sorry but

‘Excuse me.’

Smith: *Sumimasen. Ima chotto isogasii -ndesu.*

sorry, now a little busy -NDESU

‘It is that I am busy a little bit now.’ (*Nakama*, p. 310)

In this example, the shared information/situation is that Lee-san approaches him when he is working at his office and, related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san responds, *Ima*

*chotto isogashii -ndesu* ('It is that I am busy a little bit now'). In this context, the speaker's use of *ndesu* implies his personal situation that he is busy, because there is something that he needs to do; it explains 'I have no time, or I can't talk right now.' By doing so, the speaker gives an excuse or an indirect/polite refusal of an invitation to talk with Lee at this moment.

Example 3: Confirming the speaker's assumption

Situation: Smith-san sees Yamada-san listening to music all the time.

Smith: *Ongaku-ga sukina -ndesu ka?*

music-SUB like -NDESU QP

'Is it that you like music?'

Yamada: *Ee.*

yes

'Yes.' (*Nakama*, p. 310)

Similar to the previous example, here the shared information/situation is that Yamada-san listens to music all the time and, related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san asks the question, *Ongaku ga sukina ndesu ka?* ('Is it that you like music?') In this context, the *ndesu* sentence implies the speaker wants confirmation (i.e., I assume this. Am I right?) based on what he observed.

Example 4: Confirming the speaker's assumption, or giving and requesting an explanation or reason and implying surprise or irritation.

Situation: Lopez-san meets Yamada-san and notices she is going somewhere.

Lopez: *Doko-ni iku -ndesu ka?*

where-LOC go -NDESU QP

'Is it where you are going?'

Yamada: *Byooin desu.*

hospital COP

‘To the hospital.’

Lopez: *Et, byooin-e iku -ndesu ka?*

what hospital-LOC go -NDESU QP

‘What? Are you going to the hospital?’ (*Nakama*, p. 311)

In this example, the shared information/situation is that Yamada-san is going somewhere and, related to the shared information/situation, Lopez asks, *Doko-ni iku ndesu ka?* (‘Is it where you are going?’) This question is based on the shared information (i.e., that Yamada-san is going somewhere) and the sentence implies the speaker wants confirmation (i.e., I assume this. Am I right?) based on what he has observed. When Yamada-san answers, *Byooin desu* (‘to the hospital’) and then, related to that statement as shared information, Lopez-san responds, *Et, byooin-e iku ndesu ka?* (‘What? Are you going to the hospital?’) The *ndesu* sentence here implies the speaker’s surprise (i.e., ‘What? It is that you are going to the hospital? Are you all right?’).

The examples of each function with an explanation using the unified concept were part of the explicit instruction in a handout that contained metapragmatic information used for the metapragmatic discussion. This metapragmatic information was given to the participants along with the teacher-fronted instructions, accompanied by small group/pair discussion and practice through analyzing situations using the concept in class. Further discussion about the metapragmatic instruction will be addressed in detail in the next section, including instruction for using the metapragmatic information, the instructional, procedure, and how the material was presented.

The following section gives examples of the remaining six functions of *ndesu* with an explanation using the unified concept. It should be noted that these functions were neither part of the explicit instruction in the handout, nor were they in the textbook used in this study or in my instruction; however, the items of *ndesu* functions not introduced (i.e., the novel items) were presented to test the participants' ability to apply the unified concept.

***Analysis of each function of ndesu not introduced using the unified concept.*** Although the following six functions were not presented to the research participants as part of their instruction, I will demonstrate how the unified concept can be easily applied to those six functions as well:

Example 5: Paraphrasing when rephrasing or summarizing what was said in the previous sentence.

Situation: You are talking about your boyfriend who once lived in Canada.

You: *Kare-wa 16sai-kara 18sai-made kanada-ni-ita.*

he-TOP 16yrs old-from 18yrs old-to Canada-LOC-be:PAST

'He used to live in Canada when he was 16 to 18.'

*Kanada-no kookoode bennkyoosita -noda.*

Canada-GEN high school-LOC study:PAST -NDESU

'That is, he went to high school in Canada.' (Iori et al., p. 284)

In this example, the shared (assumed to be shared/is going to be shared) information/situation is that the speaker's boyfriend used to live in Canada and, related to the shared information, the speaker puts the information another way, *Kanada-no kookoo-de bennkyoo sita noda.* ('That is, he went to high school in Canada.'). In this context, "used to live in Canada when he was 16 to 18" implies that "went to high school in Canada" and thus the *ndesu* sentence, 'he went to high

school in Canada’ paraphrases the previous information, ‘He used to live in Canada when he was 16 to 18.’

Example 6: Backgrounding used when the speaker opens a conversation or new topic.

Situation: A is getting married and is asking for B to be a go-between man.

A: *Jitsu-wa watashi tanakasan-to kekkonnsuru -ndesu.*

fact-TOP I Tanaka-with get married -NDESU

‘Actually, I am going to get married to Tanaka-san.’

B: *Sore wa omedetoo*

that-TOP congratulations

‘Congratulations!’

A: *Sorede, sensei-ni nakoodo-o shiteitadaki-tai -ndesu ga.*

and teacher-DAT go-between man-OBJ do:HUM-want -NDESU but

‘And, I would like you to be my *nakoodo* (go-between man/  
matchmaker)’. (Iori et al., p. 288)

In this example, the shared (is going to be shared/assumed to be shared) information/situation is that A is going to get married and wants the listener to be a go-between man for them and, related to the shared information/situation, A asks a favor, *Sorede, sensei-ni nakoodo-wo shiteitadaki-tai ndesu ga.* (‘And, I would like you to be my *nakoodo* (go-between man/matchmaker)’. In this context, the speaker’s first use of *ndesu*, before the speaker asks a favor (to be his go-between man), implies ‘I am going to tell you about my getting married and there is something to ask (a favor).’ By doing so, the speaker opens a conversation, giving the background.

Example 7: Express the speaker determination.

Situation: The speaker has a competition soon and has been practicing very hard for a while.

*Ore-wa zettai katu -nda.*

I-TOP definitely win -NDESU

‘I will definitely win.’ (Noda, 1997, p. 99)

In this example, the shared (is going to be shared/assumed to be shared) information/situation is that the speaker is going to be in a competition and has been practicing very hard for a while. Furthermore, related to the shared information/situation, the speaker states, *Ore-wa zettai katu nda*. (‘I will definitely win.’) In this context, the speaker’s use of *ndesu* implies that because he/she has been practicing very hard, he/she will win showing/expressing his/her strong will (determination) while saying ‘it is that I will definitely win’ using *ndesu*.

Example 8: Expressing one’s interpretation

(When seeing a child is crying in a department store)

*kitto maigo-ni natta -nda.*

definitely lost child-become:PAST -NDESU

‘the child must be lost.’ (Iori et al., p. 282)

The shared (is going to be shared/assumed to be shared) information/situation is that the speaker sees a child crying in a department store and, related to the shared information/situation, the speaker states, *kitto maigo-ni natta nda*. (‘the child must be lost.’). In this context, the speaker’s use of *ndesu* based on his observation implies that based on his/her observation, he/she interprets that the child is lost.

Example 9: Discovery

(While looking at the bulletin board)

*ashita kaigi-ga aru -nda.*

tomorrow meeting-SUB exist -NDESU

‘there is a meeting tomorrow.’ (Iori et al., p. 285)

In this example, the shared (is going to be shared/assumed to be shared) information/situation is that the speaker discovers there is meeting tomorrow from the information on the bulletin board. And related to the shared information/situation, the speaker says to him/herself, *ashita kaigi-ga aru nda.* (‘there is a meeting tomorrow’.) In this context, the speaker’s use of *ndesu* implies that he/she has discovered information that he/she didn’t know about, but he/she now shares it with himself/herself that there is a meeting tomorrow he/she needs to attend.

Example 10: Express an order or command

*Hayaku kochi-ni kru -nda.*

quickly here -LOC come -NDESU

‘Come here quickly!’ (Tanomura, 2002, p. 24)

In this example, the shared (is going to be shared/assumed to be shared) information/situation is that the listener needs to hurry. Moreover, related to the shared information/situation, the speaker states, *Hayaku kochi-ni kru nda.* (‘Come here quickly!’). In this context, the speaker’s use of *ndesu* implies that the interlocutor should come and that this is what the interlocutor is supposed to do.

## **Participants**

The Japanese language program at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC) offers four proficiency levels of Japanese courses from elementary to fourth-year (i.e., elementary Japanese courses (first-year Japanese courses), an intermediate Japanese course (a second-year Japanese courses), advanced Japanese courses (the third-year Japanese courses), and

a fourth-year Japanese course. Each course meets 5 days a week for 50 minutes for each session for approximately 16 weeks except for the fourth-year Japanese course (i.e., 80 minutes, twice a week). The *Nakama* textbook is used for the first year and second year Japanese courses.

Participants for the present study included 66 students enrolled in the second-year, third-year, and fourth-year Japanese courses in the spring of 2012. The recruited participants voluntarily agreed to be part of this study; most of participants had completed at least one semester of a Japanese course at UIUC and some of them who had not taken any Japanese courses at UIUC were placed in their level based on the result of a placement test. All of the participants were enrolled either in the second semester of the intermediate Japanese course (JAPN204, second year), the advanced Japanese course (JAPN306, third-year Japanese), or the advanced Japanese course (JAPN441, the fourth-year Japanese). One participant was not taking a Japanese course at the time of the study but was considered as a second-year Japanese student because he had completed the first semester of the second-year Japanese course. The three sessions for the study included: a pretest, instruction and posttest, and a delayed posttest with 66 participants in the pretest, 65 participants in the posttest, and 57 participants in the delayed posttest.

At the time of the pretest, the ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 34. Most were undergraduate students (57) and some were graduate students (9); 40 of the participants were male and 26 were female. The first languages were: English (41), Korean (13), Chinese (8), Spanish (2), Thai (1), and Japanese (1). All of the participants were considered near native English speakers because even the non-native speakers of English had lived in and been formally educated in the U.S. for close to or more than 10 years. Some of the participants had grown up speaking other languages besides English; these include Chinese, French, German, Japanese,



Korean, Thai, Turkish, and Spanish. One participant was a Japanese American who had been born, raised, and formally educated in the United States, but he answered that his mother tongue was Japanese. This participant was included in the data because he was placed in the third-year Japanese class as a result of his placement test, and statistically there was no significant difference in the result by both including and excluding him. However, he withdrew from the experiment after the pretest, thus he was excluded from the posttest data.

From the presurvey questionnaires, four possible factors that could explain the relationship between the demographic information and the acquisition of *ndesu* were selected: (a) course level, (b) duration of stay in Japan, (c) hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and (d) contact hours with Japanese native speakers. Most of the participants had visited Japan for at least few days, and approximately 24% of the participants had lived in Japan, ranging from a period of a few weeks to a few years. Slightly more than half of the participants (57.6%) also had contact with Japanese native speakers including relatives, friends, dorm mates, and conversation partners, though contact hours varied. The participants had additional Japanese cultural exposure through anime, manga, TV shows, drama, and so on. The hours of exposure ranged from 0 to 157 hours. The participants' answers were coded into scales (e.g., in the case of contact hours with Japanese native speakers, 1 = 0 hour, 2 = less than 3 hours, 3 = less than 5 hours, and 4 = more than 5 hours). The detailed data coding for each variable will be presented in the data analysis section.

## **Research Design**

The present research was a quasi-experimental, pretest-posttest, and delayed posttest design with a two-group, experimental and control group design. The experimental group was taught by an intervention, the proposed pragmatically-oriented approach, and the control group

was taught by the textbook-based approach without implementing the intervention. The participants were divided into two groups of the same size based on the result of the pretest determining the acquisition of *ndesu*. From the result of the pretest, there was a highest scoring participant (36 out of 36) and lowest score participant (0 out of 36). I did not consider them as outliers because the results of the ANOVA did not change whether they were included or not. Moreover, the participant who received the highest score withdrew, so his score was included only in the pretest. The lowest scoring participant was included because there was also no statistically significant difference with or without his score, and he was placed in the experimental group. After the participants took the pretest, I matched the students' scores from the highest to lowest to each group. For example, a participant who had the highest score was placed in the control group, while the participant with the next highest score was placed in the experimental group. Then, the participant with the third highest score went into the experimental group, while the participant with the fourth highest score went into the control group, and so forth. The purpose of this matching process was to eliminate any pre-existing difference of prior knowledge of *ndesu* between the two groups. The average score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 21.8 and the textbook-based group was 22.5. This eliminated the pre-existing difference, and a *t*-test confirmed that the difference in the average of each group was not statistically significant ( $p = 0.33$ ; a *t*-test was performed with the significance level  $\alpha = .05$ ). The two groups were compared to examine the effect of the pedagogical intervention providing a unified concept of *ndesu*. The pragmatically-oriented group received instruction providing a unified concept of *ndesu*. On the other hand, the textbook-based group was instructed by following the textbook, *Nakama* (Hatasa, Hatasa, & Makino, 2009), that provided an explanation of each *ndesu* function. The data was collected through open-ended questions in the presurvey

and multiple choice questions on the pretest, posttest, and delayed test, the detailed procedure of which will be discussed in the subsequent subsection.

**Research questions.** Three main research questions were formulated to examine the effect of explicit teaching on the participants' acquisition of the Japanese discourse marker *ndesu* by following the pragmatically-oriented approach employing the unified concept and comparing these results to the participants' acquisition of the usage of *ndesu* taught by the textbook-based approach that introduces a few representative functions of *ndesu* but not its fundamental/unified concept.

1. How effective is the pragmatically-oriented approach employing the unified concept of *ndesu* in facilitating participants' learning compared to the textbook-based approach?
  - a. Are there meaningful differences between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group in each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests?
  - b. How do the participants' scores change over time?
  - c. To what extent do the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the students' learning of *ndesu* over time?
2. In terms of the applicability of the function of *ndesu*, do participants in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based groups perform differently on the test items targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they were and were not yet introduced to?
  - a. How does the participants' performance differ between the two groups on each of the four item types (i.e., Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included *ndesu*; Item Type 2: novel items that require *ndesu*; Item Type 3: novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require *ndesu* and for which *ndesu* is inappropriate)?

- b. To what extent does the participants' performance on each item type change over time?
    - c. Do the participants' score changes differ between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group for each of the four types of test items?
3. What is the relationship between the participants' acquisition of *ndesu* and the set of demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers)?
  - a. Is there a relationship between the set of the demographic factors and the participants' initial knowledge prior to *ndesu* instructions as reflected in their pretest scores?
  - b. Is there a relationship between the set of the demographic factors and participants' learning after *ndesu* instructions as reflected in the posttest scores?
  - c. What is the effect of the *ndesu* intervention on participants' learning after controlling for the demographic factors?

The first research question concerned the effect of a pragmatically-oriented approach to *ndesu* on the participants' learning. The three subordinate questions were thus investigated by examining and comparing the pragmatically-oriented group and the textbook-based groups' performance on each of the pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests.

The second research question was intended to investigate the applicability of the pedagogical approach. While comparing the two groups' performance on the three aforementioned tests, the three subordinate questions were particularly posed to explore the extent to which the participants were able to apply the knowledge of *ndesu* to the test items

targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they had not been introduced to through explicit instruction.

The third research question explored whether demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers.) affected the participants' acquisition of *ndesu*. The participants' responses to the presurvey questionnaire were used to address this research question.

More detailed explanations about the research questions and each relevant analysis will be presented later in this chapter.

Table 1

*Summary of Each Phase and the Present Study's Timeframe*

Procedures	Timeframe	Session
First Phase	3/1 – 3/2	Recruitment and consent form signing
Second Phase	3/14 – 3/16	Survey and pretest
Third Phase	4/16 – 4/20	Instruction for each group and immediate posttest
Fourth Phase	5/23 – 7/9	Delayed posttest

**Procedure**

The current study lasted for approximately 16 weeks during the 2012 spring semester and the beginning of the summer semester the same year. Four sessions were held: (a) the recruiting session, (b) the survey and pretest session, (c) the instruction and posttest session, and (d) the delayed posttest session. The first phase, the recruiting session, began at the beginning of March.

The last phase, the delayed posttest session, was held from May to July. The detailed study procedure is as follows.

**First phase: Session for recruitment and consent form.** During the first phase, I contacted the course directors and instructors of the second-, third-, and fourth-year Japanese courses via e-mail asking for cooperation and permission (and time) to recruit participants with a brief explanation of the purpose and the procedure of the experiment. After obtaining permission from the instructors, I visited each class and recruited participants. Each recruiting session took about 15 minutes and included a brief explanation of the research, reading a consent form together, ending with time for questions. Once they agreed to participate, they signed the consent form on site, and I sent a follow-up e-mail to them confirming their participation. Detailed information including dates, times, and locations were later announced through e-mails.

**Second phase: Session for survey and pretest.** Approximately 1 week after the recruiting sessions, the participants were asked to come to a computer lab and complete an online survey (Appendix A). The purpose of the survey was to collect the participants' demographic information: age, first language, length of other language learning experience, course level, experience of learning other languages, extent of contact with native Japanese speakers, amount of time they had been exposed to Japanese culture, and experience in learning Japanese, and so on. The data from the survey was analyzed to locate whether the demographic factors affected their acquisition of *ndesu*. After the participants completed the online survey, they took the online pretest (Appendix B) to evaluate their prior knowledge of *ndesu* in order to facilitate dividing the participants into either the pragmatically-oriented group or the textbook-based group. After the second phase, the online survey and pretest, there was approximately a 1-month

interval until the next phase, the intervention, and the immediate posttest (Appendix B). The posttest items were exactly the same as the pretests; only the order of the items was changed.

During this 1-month period, as mentioned previously, I divided the participants into two groups (i.e., a pragmatically-oriented group and a textbook-based group) based on the result of the pretest in order to construct two equivalent groups by the matching process previously mentioned. As reported earlier in this chapter, the result of a *t*-test confirmed there was no difference in the participants' prior knowledge of *ndesu* between the two groups before the intervention. Twenty-two of the participants in the control group were male while 10 were female. The first languages were: English (19), Korean (8), Chinese (2), Thai (1), and Spanish (2). All the participants were considered near-native English speakers. Their grade levels were second-year Japanese level (13), third-year Japanese level (14), and fourth-year Japanese level (5). Seventeen of the participants in the experiment group were male while 16 were female. The first languages were: English (22), Korean (5), and Chinese (6). All of the participants were considered near-native English speakers. Their grade levels were second-year Japanese level (17), third-year Japanese level (12), and fourth-year Japanese level (4). However, a matching variable was used to avoid randomly dividing the group and to construct two equivalent groups regardless of what year they were in, their proficiency level, exposure to Japanese culture, etc. The participants were divided into two groups based only on their prior knowledge of *ndesu* (i.e., the results of their pretest) regardless of what year they were in or their overall proficiency. Furthermore, there was no effort made to distribute the participants according to their L1, gender, etc. in each test group.

**Third phase: Instruction sessions for each group and immediate posttest.** About 1 month after the second phase, the survey and pretest, the participants, and asked to come to the

session for their designated group. Most participants came the day when they were assigned, but some participants came to the session that didn't conflict with their schedules. Those who had conflicting schedules were grouped again and extra sessions were held.

An instruction session for each group followed an identical three-step procedure. First, there was a warm-up activity (lasting 10 minutes). The participants worked in pairs and were asked to talk briefly for a few minutes about when they thought *ndesu* should be used. Then they were asked to write about when to use *ndesu*. This warm-up activity not only initiated the session, but also allowed the participants to think about their own working hypothesis about *ndesu* use before receiving instruction. Second, the handout was given to the participants. They were asked to read it carefully and study it as much as they could for 15 minutes to fully understand the content in order to summarize it afterward. After this self-study period, they were given 5 minutes to summarize the functions of *ndesu*.

Although the procedure for each group was identical, the handouts and way of practice (i.e., type/approach of both metapragmatic information and metapragmatic discussion) for each group were different. The handout for the pragmatically-oriented group (Appendix C) provided the unified concept that explained the basic function of *ndesu* and gave examples from the textbook. The one for the textbook-based group (Appendix D) provided an explanation that gave each function of *ndesu* and examples from the textbook. The reason for having participants read a handout instead of giving them a lesson was to provide the participants in both groups with an equal amount of instruction, though the content of instruction was different. Because it was a one-time-only session, the purpose of the self-study was to maximize the effect of each instruction. Third, there was the handout practice for 10 minutes. When they finished reading the handout, the participants in the both groups practiced together using a second handout with



examples. The examples used for both groups were the same, but the way of practicing (metapragmatic discussion) for each group was different. In the present study, the handout explanation and analyzing exercises were replaced by the metapragmatic discussion. For example, participants looked at an illustration indicating the specific context where a conversation takes place in a particular situation. A think bubble and utterance of the speaker were also provided. Then, the handout described the context while analyzing the dialogue where *ndesu* is used and which function of *ndesu* is derived from this particular situation using the unified concept of *ndesu*. Through this explanation in the handout, the participants' attention was drawn to the *ndesu* form in the dialogue and an analysis of the influence of the context and the speaker's thought and intention in that moment. The explanation in the handout was as follows:

In the picture above, the shared information/situation is that Kim-san is packing up her belongings in the library and, related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san asks the question, "Is it that you are going home?" (*Kaeru ndesu ka?*) In other words, Smith-san's (*Kaeru ndesu ka?*) implies the shared situation (that Kim is packing up) and prompts him to think 'she is packing up. She might be going home.' Then he asks her a question to confirm what he assumed based on what he observed. Therefore, the function of *ndesu* in this example is to confirm the speaker's assumption.

The pragmatically-oriented group practiced with examples to figure out how the basic concept of *ndesu* can explain each example in the handout (Appendix C) (For more a detailed explanation see the section containing the analysis of each function of *ndesu* using the unified concept presented earlier in this chapter).

Table 2

*Summary of Lesson Procedure for Both Groups*

	Pragmatically-oriented group (unified concept)	Textbook-based group (textbook explanation)
(1) Activity (10min)	(1) Pair work: briefly talk about when to use <i>ndesu</i> .  (2) Writing (handout): Individual hypothesis.	(1) Pair work: briefly talk about when to use <i>ndesu</i> .  (2) Writing (handout): Individual hypothesis
(2) Handout (15min)	(1) Asked participants to read the handout very carefully (5min)  (2) Give some time for summarizing the functions of <i>ndesu</i> .  (3) Pair work: talk about when to use <i>ndesu</i> based on their summary.	(1) Asked participants to read the handout very carefully (5min)  (2) Gave some time for summarizing the functions of <i>ndesu</i> .  (3) Pair work: talk about when to use <i>ndesu</i> based on their summary
(3) Practice (15min)	(1) Practice time: to figure out how the basic concept of <i>ndesu</i> can explain each example.  (2) The class read the situations and went over the answers together.  Once they were done, participants turned in the handout and immediately started the posttest.	(1) Practice time: to figure out each function of <i>ndesu</i>  (2) The class read the situations and went over the answers together.  Once they were done, participants turned in the handout and immediately started the posttest.

The textbook-based group, however, practiced with the same examples as the pragmatically-oriented group to figure out each function of *ndesu* that they had just read/learned about and labeled in the handout (Appendix D). Once they were finished, the participants in the both groups turned in the handout and immediately started the on-line posttest (Appendix B).

*Instructions for both groups including activities.* As shown in Table 3, the outline for each lesson is identical except for content of the handout (metapragmatic information) and the way of practice (types of metapragmatic discussion): both analyses draws the participants' attention to the *ndesu* form in the dialogue and the influence of the context and the speaker's thought/intention or the label of each function after reading a short dialogue. Intervention sessions for each group lasted approximately 40 minutes. Participants were not allowed to ask questions unless they did not understand the handout itself during the instruction. This restriction was to confirm there was no difference between the two sessions in terms of the amount of information they received. The same examples in the handout were used for both groups but involved a different approach (emphasizing each function versus emphasizing the unified concept). Except for those two factors, everything was controlled as much as possible. Both instruction periods for the groups were held for approximately same length of time, included the same number of activities, the same amount of time for activities, and the same number of examples provided.

Although one time period of instruction might be considered an insufficient and ineffective length of treatment, treatment times in interventional studies vary widely, ranging from 20 minutes (Kubota, 1995) to a whole semester (House & Kasper, 1981; House, 1996) (Kasper & Rose, 2001). Tateyama et al. (1997) found that short periods of instruction (even a one-time-only, 25-minute class) proved effective. In the present study, the length of instruction was decided to be less than 40 minutes because the usual class time lasts 50 minutes and included one (or two) grammar point(s) including reviews of what the class had learned. I decided that a one-time instruction of 40 minutes was sufficient to apply an intervention to the instruction.

Two activities were implemented before and after the instruction for both groups. The first activity asked participants to think about when they think *ndesu* should be used before they were instructed. The second activity was designed for participants to identify each function of *ndesu*. This activity was done after the instruction and it helped participants to practice what they had just read. These two activities were intended to raise their awareness by thinking about *ndesu* and to discuss and share with their partner, or in class before and after the instruction.

As previously mentioned, procedures (2) and (3) in Table 3 are the same in both groups in that the participants were asked to read the handout and given time for self-study. Moreover, both groups completed the activities using identical examples. However, the approach for explaining *ndesu* was different. The detailed difference is as follows: As instruction was substituted for self-study by means of the handout, the instructional materials (handout) for the pragmatically-oriented group and the textbook-based group were described in detail.

***Instructional material (handout) for the pragmatically-oriented group.*** The handout for the pragmatically-oriented group contained an explanation of the unified concept of when to use *ndesu* and was developed from the main concept of *ndesu* presented in *Japanese: The Spoken Language* with the researcher's added interpretation based on the literature (see details in Chapter 2). The basic, unified concept of *ndesu* implies that the information/situation is shared or is assumed to be shared. By implying that the information/situation is known by both the speaker and the hearer, the use of *ndesu* directly involves the hearer in the conversation. All examples in the handout, which included a corresponding explanation, were analyzed and explained by using the unified concept. These examples were taken from *Nakama*, but a specific situation and explanation were added. The following shows one of examples in the handout.

[Example 1]

Situation: Smith-san sees Yamada-san listening to music all the time.

Smith: 音楽が好きなんですか。

Yamada: ええ。

Similar to the previous example, here the shared information/situation is that Yamada-san listens to music all the time and, related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san asks the question, “Is it that you like music?” 「音楽が好きなんですか。」 Thus, in this context, the 「～んです」 sentence implies the speaker wants confirmation (i.e., I assume this. Am I right?) based on what he observed, and the function of 「～んです」 in this context is to confirm an assumption.

When the participants finished reading the handout, they were asked to summarize the basic concept of *ndesu* based on what they just read. Then, they were also asked to talk with in pairs based on their own summary. Then the participants read more examples for practice where they were asked to figure out on their own when to use *ndesu* through more exercises using examples of similar situations (*ndesu* functions). Next they were asked to analyze each example based on what they just learned. For example,

1. You are hosting a party in your home. You notice that your friend stayed for only 15 minutes or so, and she now is about to leave. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) もう帰る？

2) もう帰るの？

(1) What is the shared information/situation?

(2) Related to the shared information, are you asking a question, or making a statement?

(3) What does 「～んです」 imply?

(4) Function?

While looking at the examples, the participants practiced how to interpret/understand each situation where *ndesu* is used based on the explanations given of how to analyze the situation. After they practiced by themselves, the class read the situations and went over the answers together. Then they were asked to take an immediate posttest. Once they completed the test, they were allowed to leave.

All the explanations and examples were reviewed and verified by a group of Japanese experts (i.e., professors, instructors, and native speakers of Japanese). The examples used for this practice segment of the study appear in the *ndesu* literature (Iori et al., 2000; Ishikuro, 2003; Kikuchi, 2000; McGloin, 1989; Mizutani, 1989; Noda, 1997; Tanomura, 2002; and Tomomatsu et al, 2007) that describes brief situations and one- or two- sentence examples. I used the brief descriptions and examples and then developed more so that the participants would be able to understand clearly each situation calling for *ndesu* use. These practice examples were in a similar format given to the situation, and the participants chose the appropriate answer to what should be said in each specific situation in the pre/post/delayed posttest. The test items are provided in the data collection instrument section.

**Instructional material (handout) for the textbook-based group.** The handout for the textbook-based group contained the textbook explanation that provided each function of *ndesu* followed by an example. The content of the handout was exactly the same as in the textbook; however, all the text was typed in the handout in order to assure the handout had approximately the same amount of information, provided the same type of material, and also included the same activities and practice as in the handout for the pragmatically-oriented group. The explanation in the textbook showed each situation where *ndesu* is used, accompanied by an example of each case. The way the explanations and examples of short dialogues were presented differed from the pragmatically-oriented group that was given the unified concept. For the pragmatically-oriented group, each example was provided first followed by how to analyze those situations and why *ndesu* is used for each case as mentioned in the previous section. In contrast, the textbook-based group was provided each function of *ndesu* and its explanations first with a corresponding example for each case. For example,

- 「～んです」 can imply surprise or irritation. In the following example, Ms. Lopez expresses her surprise by using 「～んですか」 in her second utterance.

ロペス : どこに行くんですか。

(Where are you going?)

山田 : びょういんです。

(To the hospital.)

ロペス : えっ、びょういんへ行くんですか。

(What? Are you going to the hospital?)

Then, like the pragmatically-oriented group, the participants in the textbook-based group were asked to practice by themselves using the same examples to figure out which function is used in each situation and to give an answer from one of the functions. After they practiced by

themselves, the class read the situation and answered the questions together. When the practice session was finished, the participants were asked to take an immediate posttest. Those who completed the test were allowed to leave.

**The fourth phase: The delayed posttest.** The purpose of the delayed posttest was to assess how participants' scores (knowledge of *ndesu*) changed over time; that is, to see how much they retained and how much they had learned after the pedagogical approach by comparing the two groups. I did not require the participants to be on site to take the delayed posttest. They had a choice of taking it on-line at their convenience. The test period was scheduled from mid-May to the beginning of July. In the third week of May, approximately 1 month after the intervention session and the immediate posttest, the researcher sent e-mails to the participants asking them to take the delayed posttest. The test session occurred during the participants' summer vacation, which explained why the response rate was not as high as the pretest and the posttest. Fifty-seven participants (89.2%) completed the test.

### **Data Collection Instruments**

The two types of instruments — a survey and multiple choice questions in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest — were used for data collection for the present study. The purpose of the survey was to gain deeper insight of the participants' demographic factors that might affect their acquisition of *ndesu*. Furthermore, the questions on the survey were designed to (a) get a general idea of the participants' background, and (b) to uncover potential individual differences depending on the participants' background (e.g. course level, hours of exposure to Japanese culture). The elicited data from the survey were used for an in-depth analysis of the results from the study to ascertain any demographic factors that might be related to the participants' test scores — more importantly, to see how these factors might relate to their initial



status of *ndesu* knowledge before the intervention. The survey was used to answer Research Question 3.

In the present study the multiple-choice format was used in the pretest, posttest, and the delayed posttest to evaluate the effect of the *ndesu* intervention, specifically to assess (a) the change in the participants' *ndesu* knowledge, and (b) their ability to apply what they had not been taught. The data taken from the multiple choice tests were used to analyze the changing patterns (improvement or no improvement) of participants' *ndesu* knowledge from their prior status reflected on the pretest to their posttest and delayed posttest. The scores of the two groups were compared and also individual scores across three test occasions were compared. These scores were the primary data source to answer Research Questions 1 and 2.

**Multiple-choice questions.** According to Kasper and Rose (2002), the three types of data collecting methods (i.e., Discourse completion tasks (DCTs), multiple-choice questions, and scaled-response questionnaires) are the most frequently used in pragmatics studies (p. 90). There are several types of DCT (e.g., oral discourse completion tasks, written discourse completion tasks, etc.), but a typical DCT provides a brief situational description and a dialogue with an open slot left for participants to complete. In multiple-choice questions, though a brief situational description is provided similar to DCT, participants are asked to choose an answer from given responses that they would say and they think most appropriate in a specific situation. In the case of scaled-response questionnaires, questionnaires vary depending on what the researcher intends to ask (e.g., a pragmatic issue and a sociopragmatic problem), but in a sociopragmatic assessment for example, participants are given a specific situation and also the appropriate responses in the situation. Then, they are asked to choose from a 1-5 rating scale ranging from 'appropriate' to 'not appropriate' after assessing the appropriateness of each given response.

From these assessment methods, the multiple-choice questions method was chosen and designed to elicit data for the present study. According to Kasper and Rose (2002), multiple-choice is a useful format in pragmatics study because it can elicit information on pragmatic production, pragmatic comprehension, and metapragmatic judgments at various stages of development. It is also a much less demanding task than the open-ended DCT that requires the participants to generate their own answers. The rationale for using multiple-choice questions for the present study is as follows. First, a 1-hour instruction was designed and implemented to simulate an actual classroom instruction, followed by an immediate posttest. The purpose of the instruction was to have participants comprehend *ndesu* information and to raise their awareness of the pragmatic feature of *ndesu*. I took into account how it might be difficult for them to produce immediately what they learned after a short instruction. Moreover, even when they were able to understand how *ndesu* works after receiving instruction, they might not be able to fully produce it. Therefore, the method of eliciting data for the current study was decided on to provide possible responses rather than ask for participants' free responses.

Participants ranged from second-year to the fourth-year level, and the intention of this study was to collect data based purely on knowledge of *ndesu*. That is, some of the participants were more fluent than others and the lower-level participants' vocabulary and grammar were limited. I realized this difference (i.e., overall proficiency) might be reflected on the test result when the test asked for oral production. I wanted to avoid the overall proficiency difference influencing the test result, and to investigate the effect of the intervention the data collection instrument was chosen to provide their possible production that required their understanding of *ndesu*. Furthermore, it was chosen to provide cues for responses, not to ask for free responses because of the same reasons given above.

The difference between a comprehension test and a production test in the multiple-choice question format is that multiple-choice for testing pragmatic comprehension asks what the speaker's utterance means in a specific situation. On the other hand, a multiple-choice format for testing pragmatic production asks what the speaker would say in a specific situation and also asks the participants to choose one of several responses. Although this multiple-choice response simply asks whether *ndesu* is used or not, it is not a comprehension test but a production test. The result of the multiple choice questions could answer the research questions that show the students' proficiency change while it is minimally asking for their production. However, this is a multiple-choice discourse completion task (MDCT) that requires participants to read a written description of situations and choose what should be said in that situation (Bouton, 1994; Brown, 2001; and Yamashita, 1996). In this study there are only two choices: either *ndesu* is used in the response or *ndesu* is not used in the response. For these reasons (i.e., the goal of intervention, a variety level of participants, and necessity of cued responses), I decided to use a multiple-choice questions format to test the participants' production.

***Type of multiple-choice items in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest.*** Three tests were administrated (i.e., pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest) and the test items in the all three tests were identical except for the order of the test items for each test. A total of 36 items were developed. The order of the test items for each test were randomized and provided by the web site <http://www.randomize.org>. More than a 120-item pool was originally developed, and from this pool the test items were piloted to native speakers of Japanese. The final 36 items were those the Japanese native speakers agreed to by their answers; that is, either the use or nonuse of *ndesu*. Eventually all three tests consisted of the finalized 36 multiple-choice tasks.

The total of these 36 test items consisted of three types. The test items were categorized as follows: (a) Test Item Type 1: four functions of *ndesu* introduced in the textbook and both groups were introduced (previously-learned items that included *ndesu*). Three items for each function were created, thus a total of 12 items were tested; (b) Test Item Type 2: Six functions of *ndesu*, neither covered in the textbook, nor introduced to the pragmatically-oriented group or the textbook-based group (novel items that require *ndesu*). Two items for each function were created, thus a total of 12 items were tested; and (c) Test Item Type 3: Six cases of nonuse of *ndesu*, neither covered in the textbook, nor introduced to the pragmatically-oriented group or the textbook-based group (novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate). Two items for each case were created, thus a total of 12 items were tested.

Item Type 1 required the use of *ndesu* in the response to a specific situation. This test item included the use of *ndesu*, and the function of *ndesu* the participants were introduced to. It included the items asking for learned usages introduced in the textbook. This item type was the same function in the examples for both groups. The rationale for including this type was to compare which group performed better. There were four different functions given: (a) asking for additional information or explanations beyond the simple answer, (b) making an excuse, or to explain the reasons for a situation without indicating it explicitly, (c) confirming the speaker's assumption, or giving and requesting an explanation or reason, and (d) implying surprise or irritation (see detailed example for each function in previous section). Three items for each function were made, thus there were 12 items in total.

2. You see your classmate B-san holding an umbrella in the classroom. However, when you came to school, it wasn't raining. You ask, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 今日、雨ふりますか? Is it going to rain today (without *ndesu*)?
- 2) 今日、雨ふるんですか? Is it going to rain today (with *ndesu*)?
- 3) I don't know.

2-1. Please explain why you chose your answer.

---

---

Figure 1. Item Type 1 = previously-learned items that included *ndesu* (4 functions x 3 each) = 12 items

Item Type 2 required the use of *ndesu* in the response to a specific situation; however, the items had not been taught to either the pragmatically-oriented group or the textbook-based group. There were six functions that had not been taught to either group. The rationale for including Item Type 2 was to investigate whether the proposed pedagogical approach facilitates *ndesu* learning, especially an ability to apply what they learned to what they had not learned. There were six functions of *ndesu* given: (a) expressing something using a different word (言い換え), (b) giving background information before initiating a new topic (先触れ), (c) expressing one's determination (決意), (d) expressing one's interpretation (解釈, 事情判断), (e) expressing one's discovery (発見), and (f) expressing a command (命令) (see detailed example for each function in previous section). Two items for each function were made, thus there were 12 items in total.

19. You and your friend are at a party. You are expecting Yamada-san because he said he was excited about the party, and he told you he would join you two, but he does not show up. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) きっと用事<sup>ようじ</sup>があるね。He must be busy (without *ndesu*).

2) きっと用事<sup>ようじ</sup>があるんだね。He must be busy (with *ndesu*).

3) I don't know.

19-1. Please explain why you chose your answer.

---

---

Figure 2. Item Type 2 = novel items that require *ndesu* (6 functions x 2 each) = 12 items

Item Type 3 presented nonuse of *ndesu* in response to a specific situation and these items had not been included in the instruction, either to the pragmatically-oriented group or the textbook-based group. Item Type 3 was included because in order to learn how to use *ndesu* in a linguistically and culturally competent manner, one needs to understand when not to use *ndesu* as well. Also, for the same reason that Item Type 2 was included, Item type 3 was included to investigate whether the proposed pedagogical approach facilitated participants' awareness of the use and nonuse of *ndesu*. From Item Type 3, I hoped to see how the participants apply their knowledge to novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate. There were six cases in which *ndesu* should not be used: (a) when expressing something happened abruptly; (b) when something arises and is realized immediately; (c) when making a decision at the spur of the moment; (d) when directly making a conjecture (a guess) about something without enough evidence that has not been already determined (guessing directly without much thought, or not enough evidence);

(e) expressing a one direction utterance such as report, news, or announcement; and (f) expressing (saying) a simple fact. Two items for each case were made, thus there were 12 items in total.

26. You are playing dominoes. You accidentally touch some pieces and they start to fall over. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) あっ、たおれる。 Oh, it is falling down (without *ndesu*).

2) あっ、たおれるんだ。 Oh, it is falling down (with *ndesu*).

3) I don't know.

26-1. Please explain why you chose your answer.

---

---

Figure 3. Item Type 3 = novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (6 cases x 2 each) = 12 items

The test items were comprised of all three types; however, there was an additional type (i.e., Item Type 4 = novel items that require *ndesu* and for which *ndesu* is inappropriate) created to use in analyzing the result. Test Item 4 consisted of test items 2 and 3, and Item Type 4 was considered in order to analyze the novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate. This item included both Item Types 2 and 3 and the rationale for including this item was to ascertain the total items not introduced.

In order to develop reliable test items, most of the test items and situations were first adapted from various literatures (e.g., Ishikuro, 2003; Kikuchi, 2000; McGloin, 1989; Mizutani, 1989; Noda, 1997; and Tanomura, 2002) and I developed some of the situations from the

literature. Second, once items were created, the items were piloted to the group experts mentioned previously as well as to the learners who were not participating in this study. I checked whether everyone agreed upon the answers for the items, if the level of vocabulary and grammar was appropriate, if each situation where *ndesu* should be used or shouldn't be used was as clear as I intended, and whether there were more than two answers.

***Test answer choices/options.*** As shown in Tables 4, 5, and 6, there are three types of multiple-answer options and one short answer for each question. First, the answer option “1) does not contain *ndesu*” and the second answer option, “2) contains *ndesu*.” Either of these answers was the correct answer. The third answer choice “I don't know” could lower the guessing rate. Then the students were asked to answer why they chose the answer they did among the three choices. The participants' approximate guessing counted as a correct answer. For example, if one participant chose the correct answer on the multiple-choice questions but gave a vague answer such as “it seems like it” or “the other doesn't sound all right” on the short answer, it was counted as a correct answer. The rationale for including the question that required the participants to provide the reason for each of their answers was to obtain an in-depth result that might provide supporting evidence for reporting and analyzing data. For example, if participants performed better on Item Type 2 than Item Type 3, though they did not receive instruction for either item types, the reasons provided by participants might be helpful for analyzing if there were any patterns that could be measured. This question also helped to avoid participants' careless answers because they needed to provide why they chose the answer.



14. You and your colleague are talking about Karaoke. You say, “高校の時は少なくとも (at least) 一週間に三回ぐらい行ってたよ。\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) ほとんど毎日行ってた。                   \*\*ほとんど: almost

2) ほとんど毎日行ってたんだ。

3) I don't know.

14-1. Please explain why you chose your answer.

---

---

Figure 4. Example of a multiple-choice question

**Survey.** A survey was also employed to elicit data for the present study. The survey instrument was designed and distributed through the on-line survey platform, Survey Monkey. The survey consisted of 30 open-ended tasks. There were three subsections in the survey: (a) biographical information (e.g., name, place of birth, and major, etc.); (b) language learning experience (e.g., current class, duration for study, and experience of learning other foreign languages etc.); and (c) cultural exposure (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers). Participants were asked to take the survey before the pretest. Once the participants finished their survey, they could begin their pretest on-line.

The rationale for developing this survey was to understand how the participants' demographic factors affected their *ndesu* proficiency and learning. Data from the survey were analyzed to identify the critical factors that impacted the level of the participants' outcome in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. Specifically, the data from the survey were used to examine the relationship of the participants' test scores (a dependent variable) with selected

demographic factors such as course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers, and proficiency in *ndesu*.

### **Data Analysis**

**Data coding.** Following the online survey and the three tests, the data collection instruments were deactivated and the data was downloaded from Survey Monkey and imported into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), a statistical data analysis program. As mentioned, the data collected from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were in the form of multiple-choice answers and the data from the survey were open-ended answers. Multiple-choice answers were coded 0 and 1 (0 = incorrect answers, 1= correct answers), and the choice, “I don’t know” was considered an incorrect answer. In the data from the survey, raw data was used for course level and duration of stay in Japan. Since ‘group’ was a category variable, it had to be converted into a dichotomous variable (dummy variable) for regression analysis, thus groups were coded into a dummy variable. The group was coded as 0 = textbook-based group and 1= pragmatically-oriented group).

Two open-ended answers (i.e., hours of exposure to Japanese culture and contact hours with native speaker) were coded by the scales that I set based on the range of participants’ answers. Contact hours with native Japanese speakers (hours per week) varied depending on the participants’ responses and ranged from 0 to 24 hours per week. Hours of exposure to Japanese culture varied depending on the participants’ responses and ranged from 0 to 156 hours per week. Table 8 shows the range of both answers grouped into four scales, and the coding scheme for the survey. Moreover, the theorized coding scale was set so that answers could be distributed as evenly as possible.

Table 3

*Scale for Each Variables for Data Coding*

Groups for dummy coding	Hours of exposure to Japanese culture	Contact hours with native speaker
0 = Textbook-based group	1 = 0 – 3 hours	1 = 0 hour
1 = Pragmatically-oriented group	2 = 3 – 6 hours	2 = Less than 3 hours
	3 = 6 – 9 hours	3 = 3 – 5 hours
	4 = More than 9 hours	4 = More than 5 hours

**Analysis for research question 1.** The first research question investigated the effect of the pragmatically-oriented approach by employing the unified concept of *ndesu*, compared to the textbook approach that introduces a few representative functions of *ndesu*. Specifically, three questions were asked: (a) Are there meaningful differences between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group in each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests?, (b) How do the participants’ scores change over time?, and (c) To what extent do the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the participants’ learning of *ndesu*? These three research questions were intended to investigate three different aspects of the effect of the pedagogical approach. More specifically, for Research Question 1, a series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to examine the effect of pedagogical approach, which reflected the difference between the two groups (i.e., the pragmatically-oriented versus the textbook-based groups). The total score of each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests served as the dependent variable in each hypothesis testing. For both Research Question 1-b and 1-c, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted jointly. With respect to Research Question 1-b, in particular, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted in order to investigate whether there was

a change in an individual participant's performance in using *ndesu* (i.e., the within-subject effect) across the three time points/data collection points (i.e., pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest). The same analytic method was used to answer Research Question 1-c, with the intention to see whether the effect of *ndesu* instruction differs between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group, and to see whether the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the participants' learning of *ndesu*.

**Analysis for research question 2.** The second research question addresses how the pedagogical approach concerns the applicability of *ndesu* usage in relation to four different types of test items (i.e., Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included *ndesu*; Item Type 2: novel items that require *ndesu*; Item Type 3: novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate). More specifically, this second question investigated whether participants in the pragmatically-oriented group and the textbook-based group perform differently on the test items targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they have been introduced to and have not yet been introduced to. First, a series of one-way ANOVA were performed in order to investigate whether the two groups perform differently on each of the four test items types (Research Question 2-a). For testing hypotheses related to RQ 2, a composite score of participants' performance on each item type were calculated and then served as a dependent variable in a corresponding ANOVA test. To investigate whether there is a difference between two groups on each test, each hypothesis was tested with a single dataset (i.e., the score for Item type 1, score for Item type 2, score for Item type 3, and score for Item type 4, respectively) and a series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed. For both Research Questions 2-b and 2-c, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted jointly. By posing Research Question 2-b, it was intended to examine

within-subject effects — namely, whether the participants' scores on each of the four item types changed across the three test occasions (i.e., pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest). Research question 2-c was raised to see whether the participants' score changes on each item type differ between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based groups.

**Analysis for research question 3.** To analyze the effect of the selected demographic factors on the pretest scores as outlined in Research Question 3-a (Is there a relationship between a set of the demographic factors and the students' initial knowledge of *ndesu* prior to instructions as reflected in their pretest scores?), a simultaneous multiple regression approach was implemented. Demographic variables as predictors were entered simultaneously into the regression model with pretest scores serving as a dependent variable. Also, Research Questions 3-b and 3-c (Is there a relationship between a set of the demographic factors and students' learning after *ndesu* instructions as reflected in the posttest scores? and what is the effect of the *ndesu* intervention on the participants' learning after controlling for the demographic factors?) was answered based on the results from a hierarchical regression model. To investigate the relationship among the test scores and predictor variables, intercorrelations were examined. A set of demographic variables (i.e., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to the Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers) was entered in the first block into the model and then the group indicator (i.e., pragmatically-oriented group, textbook-based group) was included in the second block of the variable entry to control the effects of demographic factors. The combined model was intended to answer the two sequential research questions. Table 9 presents a summary of the data analysis for each research question.

Table 4

*Summary of the Data Analysis*

Research Question	Analysis	IV	DV
1. How effective is the pragmatically-oriented approach employing the unified concept of <i>ndesu</i> in facilitating participants' learning compared to the textbook-based approach?	ANOVA		
1-a. Are there meaningful differences between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group in each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests?	3 series of One-way ANOVA	Teaching Approach (Group)	Pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores
1-b. How do the participants' scores change over time?	Repeated measures ANOVA	Test Occasions	Pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores
1-c. To what extent do the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the participants' learning of <i>ndesu</i> over time?	Repeated measures ANOVA	Group and Test occasions	Pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores

(table continues)

Table 4 (continued)

2. In terms of the applicability of the function of *ndesu*, do participants in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based groups perform differently on the test items targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they were and were not yet introduced to?

ANOVA

2-a. How does the participants' performance differ between the two groups on each of the four item types (i.e., Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included *ndesu*; Item Type 2: novel items that require *ndesu*; Item Type 3: novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require *ndesu* and for which *ndesu* is inappropriate)?

4 series of  
One-way  
ANOVA

Teaching  
Approach  
(Group)

Test  
scores of  
each Item  
type

2-b. To what extent does the participants' performance on each item type change over time?

Repeated  
measures  
ANOVA

Test Occasions

Test  
scores of  
each Item  
type

2-c. Do the participants' score changes differ between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group for each of the four types of test items?

Repeated  
measures  
ANOVA

Group and Test  
occasions

Test  
scores of  
each Item  
type

(table continues)

Table 4 (continued)

3. What is the relationship between participants' proficiency in *ndesu* and a set of demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers)?

Multiple regression

3-a. Is there a relationship between a set of the demographic factors and the participants' initial status prior to *ndesu* instructions as reflected in their pretest scores?

Simultaneous regression

Demographic factors

Pretest

3-b. Is there a relationship between a set of the demographic factors and participants' learning after *ndesu* instructions as reflected in the posttest scores?

Hierarchical regression

First Block:  
course level,  
duration of stay  
in Japan, hours  
of exposure to  
Japanese  
culture, and  
contact hours  
with native  
speaker

Posttest

Second block:  
Teaching  
Approach

(table continues)



Table 4 (continued)

3-c. What is the effect of the <i>ndesu</i> intervention on participants' learning after controlling for the demographic factors?	Hierarchical regression	First Block: course level, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, duration of stay in Japan, contact hours with native speaker, and pretest Second block: Teaching Approach	Posttest
---	-------------------------	--	----------

---

## Chapter 4

### Results

The present study investigated the effect of a pragmatically-oriented approach by introducing a unified concept of *ndesu* and comparing it to a textbook-based approach that provides several representative functions of *ndesu* with no mention of how each function is related to each other. The research questions for the study are:

1. How effective is the pragmatically-oriented approach employing the unified concept of *ndesu* in facilitating participants' learning compared to the textbook-based approach?
  - a. Are there meaningful differences between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group in each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests?
  - b. How do the participants' scores change over time?
  - c. To what extent do the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the participants' learning of *ndesu* over time?
2. In terms of the applicability of the function of *ndesu*, do participants in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based groups perform differently on the test items targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they were and were not yet introduced to?
  - a. How does the participants' performance differ between the two groups on each of the four item types (i.e., Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included *ndesu*; Item Type 2: novel items that require *ndesu*; Item Type 3: novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate)?
  - b. To what extent does the participants' performance on each item type change over time?

- c. Do the participants' score changes differ between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group for each of the four types of test items?
3. What is the relationship between the participants' acquisition of *ndesu* and the set of demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers)?
  - a. Is there a relationship between the set of the demographic factors and the participants' initial knowledge prior to *ndesu* instructions as reflected in their pretest scores?
  - b. Is there a relationship between the set of the demographic factors and participants' learning after *ndesu* instructions as reflected in the posttest scores?
  - c. What is the effect of the *ndesu* intervention on participants' learning after controlling for the demographic factors?

The rest of the chapter presents the descriptive statistics and the results as they relate to each of the research questions.

**Research Question 1: How effective is the pragmatically-oriented approach employing the unified concept of *ndesu* in facilitating participants' learning compared to the textbook-based approach?**

The first research question concerns the effect of the pragmatically-oriented pedagogical intervention compared to the textbook-based approach. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics related to the three test scores for the two groups. The mean scores of the pretest were 21.76 for the pragmatically-oriented and 22.55 for the textbook-based groups. Comparison of the posttest scores indicated that participants in the pragmatically-oriented group ( $M = 28.09$ ) performed better than the textbook-based group ( $M = 26.38$ ). A similar pattern was observed in the delayed

posttest as indicated in their means (27.48 for the pragmatically-oriented group and 26.70 for the textbook-based groups, respectively). In Table 1, larger variations in the pretest scores for the pragmatically-oriented group (i.e., scores ranging from 0 to 33 for the pragmatically-oriented group and scores ranging from 14 to 36 for the textbook-based) are reflected in the larger standard deviations ( $SD = 6.09$  and  $SD = 5.18$ , respectively). Score variations tended to decrease in both the posttest and the delayed posttest results.

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores*

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Pretest					
Textbook-based	33	22.55	5.18	14	36
Pragmatically-Oriented	33	21.76	6.09	0	33
Total	66	22.15	5.62	0	36
Posttest					
Textbook-based	32	26.38	2.78	22	33
Pragmatically-Oriented	33	28.09	3.13	22	34
Total	65	27.25	3.06	22	34
Delayed Posttest					
Textbook-based	30	26.70	3.00	21	32
Pragmatically-Oriented	27	27.48	3.98	16	33
Total	57	27.07	3.49	16	33

*Research Question 1-a. Are there meaningful differences between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group in each of the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests?*

To determine whether there is difference in test scores between the two groups, three separate runs of a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed for the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. Table 2 summarizes the results of the ANOVA for the three test scores. A statistically significant difference between the two groups was found in the posttest,  $F(1, 63) = 5.46, p = .02$ . It demonstrated that the pragmatically-oriented group taught by a holistic approach providing a unified concept of *ndesu* performed better than the textbook-based group. However, there were no statistically significant differences found in the pretest,  $F(1, 64) = 0.32, p = .57$ , and delayed posttest scores,  $F(1, 55) = 0.71, p = .40$ . The nonsignificant result,  $F(1, 64) = 0.32, p = .57$ , for the pretest indicated that pre-existing differences in test scores between the two groups were controlled as intended prior to introducing the intervention. The nonsignificant result of the delayed posttest,  $F(1, 55) = 0.71, p = .40$ , indicated that participants eventually lose what they have learned regardless of two different approaches.

Table 6

*Results of One-way ANOVA for Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores*

		<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> value
Pretest	Between Groups	10.24	1	10.24	.32	.57
	Within Groups	2046.24	64	31.97		
	Total	2056.49	65			
Posttest	Between Groups	47.83	1	47.83	5.46*	.02
	Within Groups	552.23	63	8.77		
	Total	600.06	64			
Delayed Posttest	Between Groups	8.68	1	8.68	.71	.40
	Within Groups	673.04	55	12.24		
	Total	681.72	56			

\* $p < .05$

*Research Question 1-b. How do the participants' scores change over time?*

To explore how the participants' scores changed across the three test occasions (i.e., pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest), a repeated measures ANOVA was performed. Table 3 presents descriptive statistics of the three test scores for the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based groups.

Table 7

*Descriptive Statistics for Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores*

Group	Pretest		Posttest		Delayed Posttest		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Textbook-based	30	21.80	4.56	26.10	2.56	26.70	3.00
Pragmatically-oriented	27	21.93	6.44	28.41	3.12	27.48	3.98
Total	57	21.86	5.48	27.19	3.04	27.07	3.49

The descriptive statistics in Table 3 show that the overall test scores for both groups increased (from 21.93 to 28.41 for the pragmatically-oriented group and from 21.80 to 26.10 for the textbook-based group) after each of the separate instructional sessions. The results of the posttest and the delayed posttest demonstrated that the means of the pragmatically-oriented group (28.41 and 27.48, respectively) were somewhat higher than those of the textbook-based group (26.10 and 26.70, respectively). The means of the pragmatically-oriented group were 21.93 in the pretest and 28.41 in the posttest, and those of the textbook-based group were 21.80 in the pretest and 26.10 in the posttest. The mean of the pragmatically-oriented group for the delayed posttest, which was conducted 1 to 2 months after the instructions, was 27.48 and the mean of the textbook-based group was 26.70.

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to examine how scores for each group changed across the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. Specifically, the within-subject effect

in a repeated measures ANOVA was intended to capture the changes across the three test occasions. In Table 4, the within-subject effect for the tests (Test) indicates that there was a significant change ( $F = 42.63, p < 0.05$ ), namely, scores for the two groups exhibited significant changes across the three tests. The changes, from 21.93 to 28.41 to 27.48 in the pragmatically-oriented group and 21.80 to 26.10 to 26.70 in the textbook-based group, were found to be statistically significant.

Table 8

*Results for the Repeated Measures ANOVA Across the Three Tests*

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p value	$\eta^2$
Test	1068.94	1.62	658.97	42.63*	0.00	0.437
Test × Group	35.61	1.62	21.95	1.42	0.25	0.025
Error	1379.15	89.22	15.46			

\* $p < .05$

*Research Question 1-c. To what extent do the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the participants' learning of ndesu over time?*

To find out how the test score changes differed in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based groups, the significance of interaction between the two factors (Test × Group) was tested. In other words, the significance of interaction between two factors (the test for the interaction) examined whether changes across the three tests differed by methods of instruction (i.e., pragmatically-oriented versus textbook approach) as reflected in the two groups. As shown in Table 4, the Test × Group interaction was not found to be significant ( $F = 1.42, p = 0.25$ ), indicating that test scores of both groups changed across the three tests in a similar manner. The parallel score change patterns across the three test occasions are illustrated in Figure 1.

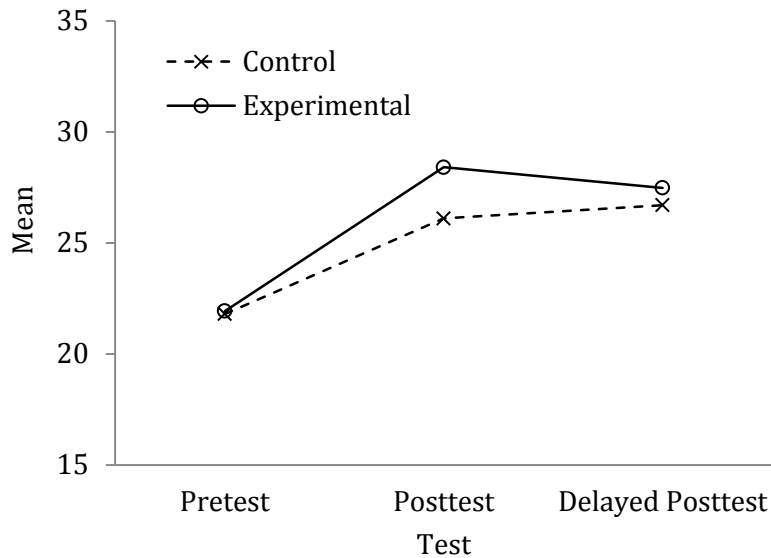


Figure 5. Change of the scores across the three test occasions

As shown in Figure 1, the equivalence of the initial status of the groups is apparent as a result of controlling for the pre-existing difference based on their pretest results. The overall pattern of the score changes revealed that the two group means showed an increasing trend from the pretest to the posttest, whereas the changes of the group means tended to be level from the posttest to the delayed posttest. Detailed inspection of the scores found that the mean for the pragmatically-oriented group slightly decreased as opposed to the textbook-based group. However, the means for the pragmatically-oriented group were consistently higher than those for the textbook-based group in both the posttest and the delayed posttest. Therefore, the results for the interaction between the two factors (Test  $\times$  Group) indicated that the *ndesu* instructions were effective regardless of type of the instruction (i.e., pragmatically-oriented versus textbook approach). In other words, the participants' learning outcomes improved no matter which instructional approach they received.



**Research Question 2: In terms of the applicability of the function of *ndesu*, do participants in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based groups perform differently on the test items targeting various functions of *ndesu* that they were and were not yet introduced to?**

The second research question addresses how the pedagogical approach relates to applicability of *ndesu* usage in four different types of test items (i.e., Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included *ndesu*; Item Type 2: novel items that require *ndesu*; Item Type 3: novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate). Table 5 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores for the four item types. Looking closely at each item type, beginning with Item Type 1, (the total score was 12 in the pretest), the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 7.48; that of the textbook-based group was 7.82. In the posttest, the performance of both groups improved, moving close to achieving the maximum possible score of 12 points. The mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 11.61; for textbook-based group, it was 11.84. In the delayed posttest again with a total score of 12, the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 10.85, and for the textbook-based group, 11.33. The mean scores indicated that the textbook-based group performed better on the items they had been introduced to (Item Type 1) than the pragmatically-oriented group across the three test occasions.

For the results of Item Type 2, novel items that require *ndesu*, the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 6.88 and for the textbook-based group was 7.21 in the pretest. In the posttest, the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 8.85, and for the textbook-based group, 9.25. In the delayed posttest, the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented

group was 8.56 and for the textbook-based group, 8.77. For Item Type 2, the textbook-based group also performed better than the pragmatically-oriented group across the three test occasions.

For Item Type 3, novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate, in the pretest the textbook-based group performed better with the mean score of 7.52, whereas the pragmatically-oriented group's mean score was 7.39. However, in the posttest, the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group (7.64) was higher than that of textbook-based group (5.28). This was also true in the delayed posttest: the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group (8.07) was higher than that of the textbook-based group (6.60).

For Item Type 4, a combination of Item Type 2 and Item Type 3 (a total of 24 items), novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate, the mean score of the pragmatically-oriented group was 14.27, and that of the textbook-based group was 14.73 in the pretest. Thus, the textbook-based group performed better than the pragmatically-oriented group in the pretest. However, the mean scores of the pragmatically-oriented group (16.48, 16.63 in the posttest and the delayed posttest, respectively) were higher than those of the textbook-based group (14.53, 15.37 in the posttest and the delayed posttest, respectively).

In sum, the results produced important patterns for the four item types: (a) the score differences between the two groups were more apparent in Item Type 3, indicating that participants in the pragmatically-oriented group showed superior performance in the item set of novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate compared to the textbook-based group; (b) for Item Types 1 and 2, the scores of the textbook-based group on the posttest and delayed posttest were higher than those of the pragmatically-oriented group, indicating that participants in the textbook-based group performed better than the pragmatically-oriented group on the items with *ndesu* they had been introduced to and the items they had not been introduced to; (c) on the other

hand, for Item Types 3 and 4, the scores of the pragmatically-oriented group on the posttest and delayed posttest were higher than the textbook-based group, demonstrating that the students in the pragmatically-oriented group performed better on the items they had not been introduced to, particularly on the items in which the use of *ndesu* is not appropriate.

Table 9

*Descriptive Statistics of Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores for the Four Item Types*

Item Type	Group	Pretest			Posttest			Delayed Posttest		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Item Type 1	Textbook-based	33	7.82	2.63	32	11.84	0.37	30	11.33	0.96
	Pragmatically-oriented	33	7.48	2.82	33	11.61	0.86	27	10.85	2.05
	Total	66	7.65	2.71	65	11.72	0.67	57	11.11	1.58
Item Type 2	Textbook-based	33	7.21	2.62	32	9.25	2.09	30	8.77	2.10
	Pragmatically-oriented	33	6.88	2.62	33	8.85	2.49	27	8.56	2.87
	Total	66	7.05	2.60	65	9.05	2.29	57	8.67	2.47
Item Type 3	Textbook-based	33	7.52	2.14	32	5.28	3.13	30	6.60	2.93
	Pragmatically-oriented	33	7.39	2.37	33	7.64	2.57	27	8.07	3.47
	Total	66	7.45	2.24	65	6.48	3.08	57	7.30	3.26
Item Type 4	Textbook-based	33	14.73	3.40	32	14.53	2.75	30	15.37	2.74
	Pragmatically-oriented	33	14.27	3.86	33	16.48	2.85	27	16.63	2.96
	Total	66	14.50	3.62	65	15.52	2.95	57	15.96	2.89

*Note.* Item Type 1 = previously-learned items that included *ndesu*;  
 Item Type 2 = novel items that require *ndesu*;  
 Item Type 3 = novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and  
 Item Type 4 = novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate.

*Research Question 2-a. How does the participants' performance differ between the two groups on each of the four item types (i.e., Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included ndesu; Item Type 2: novel items that require ndesu; Item Type 3: novel items for which ndesu is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require ndesu and novel items for which ndesu is inappropriate)?*

To determine whether the two groups' performance differed from each regarding the four types of test items, a series of one-way ANOVA were performed. Table 6 presents the results of the ANOVA for previously-learned items that included *ndesu* (Item Type 1). There were no significant differences in the pretest scores between the two groups ( $F = .25$  and  $p = .62$ ). Similarly, no group differences were found in the posttest and the delayed posttest ( $F = 2.06$  and  $p = .16$ ; and  $F = 1.33$  and  $p = .25$ , respectively). The results indicated that the participants in the two groups performed similarly for Item Type 1 learned irrespective of instructional approaches.

Table 10

*Results of ANOVA for Item Type 1 (Previously-Learned Items that Included Ndesu)*

	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p value
Pretest	Between Groups	1.83	1	1.83	.25	.62
	Within Groups	475.15	64	7.42		
	Total	476.98	65			
Posttest	Between Groups	.92	1	.92	2.06	.16
	Within Groups	28.10	63	.45		
	Total	29.02	64			
Delayed Posttest	Between Groups	3.29	1	3.29	1.33	.25
	Within Groups	136.07	55	2.47		
	Total	139.37	56			

Table 7 presents the results of the ANOVA for Item Type 2, novel items that require *ndesu*. As shown in this table, similar to the previous result (Item Type 1), there were no significant differences in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores between the two groups ( $F = .27$  and  $p = .61$ ;  $F = 0.49$  and  $p = .48$ ; and  $F = 0.10$  and  $p = 0.75$ , respectively). Parallel to the results for Item Type 1, the results indicated that participants in both groups performed similarly for Item Type 2 regardless of instructional approach.

Table 11

*Results of ANOVA for Item Type 2 (Novel Items that Require Ndesu)*

	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p value
Pretest	Between Groups	1.83	1	1.83	.27	.61
	Within Groups	439.03	64	6.86		
	Total	440.86	65			
Posttest	Between Groups	2.62	1	2.62	.49	.48
	Within Groups	334.24	63	5.31		
	Total	336.86	64			
Delayed Posttest	Between Groups	.63	1	.63	.10	.75
	Within Groups	342.03	55	6.22		
	Total	342.67	56			

Table 8 summarizes the results of the ANOVA for Item Type 3, novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate. Consistent with the other item types, there were no significant differences in the pretest scores between the two groups ( $F = 0.05$  and  $p = .83$ ). However, group differences were found in the posttest ( $F = 11.00$  and  $p < 0.05$ ), revealing there is a significant mean difference between the two groups (7.64 and 5.28 for pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based group, respectively), and the participants in the pragmatically-oriented group performed

significantly better than the participants in the textbook-based group. In other words, the pragmatically-oriented group participants exposed to the unified concept of *ndesu* performed substantially better on the novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate than the participants who were taught using the textbook approach. However, no group differences were found in the delayed posttest ( $F = 3.02$  and  $p = .09$ ), though the  $p$ -value of .09 was close to the nominal alpha level.

Table 12

*Results of ANOVA for Item Type 3 (Novel Items for which Ndesu is Inappropriate)*

	Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p value
Pretest	Between Groups	.24	1	.24	.05	.83
	Within Groups	326.12	64	5.10		
	Total	326.36	65			
Posttest	Between Groups	90.11	1	90.11	11.00*	.00
	Within Groups	516.11	63	8.19		
	Total	606.22	64			
Delayed Posttest	Between Groups	30.88	1	30.88	3.02	.09
	Within Groups	563.05	55	10.24		
	Total	593.93	56			

\*  $p < .05$

In order to examine the participants' abilities to apply their knowledge of *ndesu* to the test items related the various functions they had not been introduced to, Item Type 4 (i.e., the combination of Item Type 2 and 3) was analyzed. Table 9 presents the results of the ANOVA Item Type 4. There was no significant difference in the pretest scores between the two groups,  $F = .26$  and  $p = .61$ . However, significant group differences were found in the posttest,  $F = 7.90$  and  $p = .01$ . This result indicated there was a statistically significant difference between the two

group means ( $M_{\text{pragmatically-oriented}} = 16.48$  and  $M_{\text{textbook-based}} = 14.53$ ), and the participants in the pragmatically-oriented group performed better than the participants in the textbook-based group. This showed that the pragmatically-oriented group participants using the unified concept of *ndesu* performed better on the test items not introduced in the instruction than the participants who were taught using the textbook method. However, group differences were not found to be significant in the delayed posttest,  $F = 2.80$  and  $p = .10$ .

Table 13

*Results of ANOVA for Item Type 4 (Novel Items that Require Ndesu and Novel Items for which Ndesu is Inappropriate)*

	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p value
Pretest	Between Groups	3.41	1	3.41	.26	.61
	Within Groups	847.09	64	13.24		
	Total	850.50	65			
Posttest	Between Groups	62.00	1	62.00	7.90*	.01
	Within Groups	494.21	63	7.84		
	Total	556.22	64			
Delayed Posttest	Between Groups	22.67	1	22.67	2.80	.10
	Within Groups	445.26	55	8.10		
	Total	467.93	56			

\*  $p < .05$

*Research Question 2-b. To what extent does the participants' performance on each item type change over time?*

A series of repeated measures ANOVA were conducted to explore Research Questions 2-b and 2-c jointly. With regard to Research Question 2-b, the significance of within-subject effects (i.e., test occasions: pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest) was tested to determine how

the participants' scores changed across the three test occasions for each of the four test item types. Specifically, four subsequent analyses were performed to examine: (a) how did the participants' scores change across the three test occasions for the test items that consisted of previously-learned items that included *ndesu* (Item Type 1)?, (b) how did the students' scores change across three test occasions for the test items that include novel items that require *ndesu* (Item Type 2)?, (c) how did the students' scores change across the three test occasions for test items that included novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 3)?, and (d) how did the students' scores change across the three test occasions for test items that included novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 4)?

Table 10 summarizes the results of these repeated measures ANOVA for Item Type 1. The within-subject effect for the Item Type 1 score in the tests indicated there is a significant score change over time for Item Type 1,  $F = 89.59$ ,  $p < 0.05$ . The  $\eta^2$  value of .62 also supported that the score change over time is substantial by explaining about 62% of the total score variance.

Table 14

*Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVA for Item Type 1 Across the Three Tests*

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> value	$\eta^2$
Item Type 1	579.12	1.40	413.81	89.59*	0.00	0.62
Item Type 1 $\times$ Group	1.13	1.40	0.81	0.17	0.76	.00
Error	355.54	76.97	4.62			

\*  $p < .05$

Table 11 shows the repeated measures ANOVA results for Item Type 2. The within-subject effect for the score of Item Type 2 score in the tests indicated there is a significant test effect ( $F = 16.77$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), similar to the result of Item Type 1 shown previously;



the scores of Item Type 2 for each group showed significant changes over time. The  $\eta^2$  value of 23 also supported that the score change over time is substantial by explaining about 23% of the total score variance.

Table 15

*Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVA for Item Type 2 Across the Three Tests*

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> value	$\eta^2$
Item Type 2	153.68	1.59	96.46	16.77*	0.00	0.23
Item Type 2 $\times$ Group	0.41	1.59	0.26	0.04	0.93	0.00
Error	503.86	87.63	5.75			

\*  $p < .05$

Table 12 shows the repeated measures ANOVA results for Item Type 3. The significant results for the within-subject effect,  $F = 4.26$ ,  $p = 0.02$  indicate that the scores of Item Type 3 for each group show significant changes across the three tests. About 7% of the total variance of the test score was explained by the within subject effect (score change over time in Item Type 3). The significance of the interaction between item type and group ( $F = 4.83$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ) indicates that patterns of score changes exhibit differently in the two groups.

Table 16

*Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVA for Item Type 3 Across the Three Tests*

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> value	$\eta^2$
Item Type 3	36.20	1.97	18.42	4.26*	0.02	0.07
Item Type 3 $\times$ Group	41.02	1.97	20.87	4.83*	0.01	0.08
Error	467.40	108.11	4.32			

\*  $p < .05$

The next step was to see how the scores of each group for Item Type 4 changed across the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were investigated. Item Type 4 includes both novel items that require *ndesu* (Item Type 2) and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 3). The two types of items were combined to determine how participants performed on the items (on the test items or on various functions) they were not introduced to across the three tests occasions. The within-subject effect for Item Type 4 indicates there was a significant score change across the three test occasions,  $F = 7.16, p < 0.05$ .

Table 17

*Results for Item Type 4 of the Repeated Measures ANOVA Across the Three Tests*

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i> value	$\eta^2$
Item Type 4	87.24	1.91	45.77	7.16	0.00*	0.12
Item Type 4 $\times$ Group	35.40	1.91	18.58	2.91	0.06	0.05
Error	670.09	104.82	6.39			

\*  $p < .05$

*Research Question 2-c. Do the participants' score changes differ between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group for each of the four types of test items?*

Research Question 2-c focuses on whether participants' score changes differed in the pragmatically-oriented and textbook-based group for each of the four test item types. For this research question, the significance of the interaction between the two factors (Item Type  $\times$  Group) was tested for each of the four subsequent analyses: (a) how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for the test items that consisted of previously-learned items that included *ndesu* (Item Type 1  $\times$  Group)?, (b) how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for the test items that include novel items that require *ndesu* (Item Type 2  $\times$  Group)?, (c)

how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for test items that included novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 3  $\times$  Group)?, and (d) how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for test items that included novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 4  $\times$  Group)? Note that the results presented in the second portion of Tables 10-13 correspond to these research questions as a single run of the analysis was performed simultaneously under the repeated measure ANOVA design for the two research questions.

The significance of interaction between the two factors (Item type1  $\times$  Group) was tested to examine whether changes across the three test occasions differed by the instructional approach (i.e., providing a pragmatically-oriented explanation by implementing the unified concept of *ndesu* versus providing a textbook explanation with few representative *ndesu* functions individually) as reflected in the two groups. As shown in Table 10, the interaction of the test by group was not found to be significant,  $F = 0.17$ ,  $p = 0.76$ , indicating that the test scores of Item Type 1 for both groups changed across the three tests in a similar manner. The changes in scores across the tests are illustrated in Figure 2.

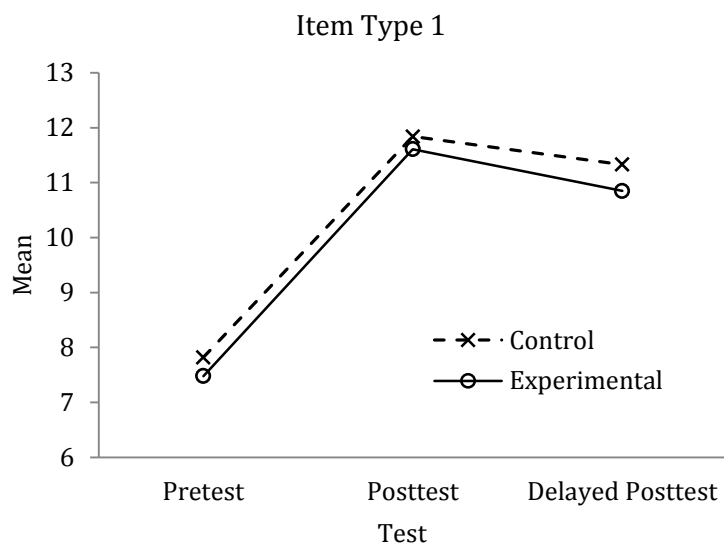


Figure 6. Change in scores for item type 1 across three test occasions

As seen in Figure 2, both group means for Item Type I showed an increasing trend from the pretest to the posttest, whereas the changes of the group means tended to decrease when comparing the posttest to the delayed posttest. Therefore, the results for the nonsignificant interaction between the two factors (Item Type 1  $\times$  Group) indicate that the *ndesu* instructions were effective for Item Type 1 regardless of the type of the instruction. The scores for Item Type 1 did not differ in the pragmatically-oriented group and the textbook-based group regardless of the type of instruction.

The significance of interaction between the two factors (Item Type 2  $\times$  Group) was tested to determine whether changes across the three tests differed in the pragmatically-oriented and the textbook-based groups. As shown in Table 11, the interaction of the test by group was not found to be significant,  $F = 0.04$ ,  $p = 0.93$ . This result indicates that the two groups show a consistent increasing pattern of the test scores across the three data collection points as displayed in Figure 3.

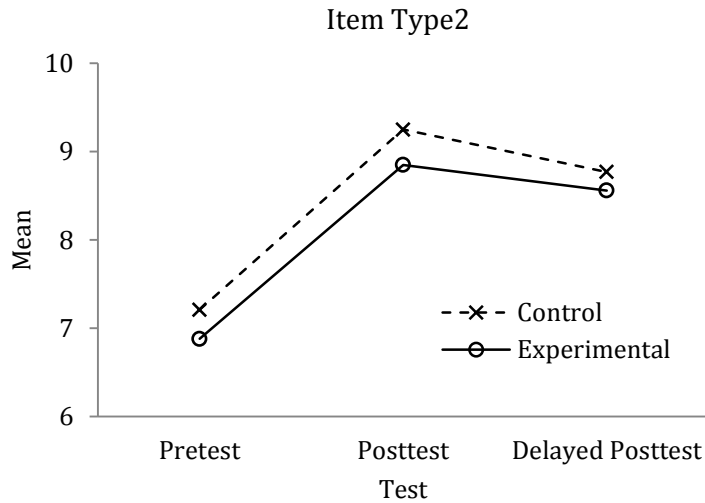


Figure 7. Change in the scores for item type 2 across three test occasions

In Figure 3, both group means showed an increasing trend from the pretest to the posttest, whereas changes of the group means tended to decrease from the posttest to the delayed posttest. These parallel patterns were reflected in the insignificant interaction ( $F = 0.04, p = 0.93$ ) between two factors (Item Type 2  $\times$  Group).

The significance of the interaction between the two factors (Item Type3  $\times$  Group) was tested to examine whether changes across the three tests differed by method of instructions as reflected in the two groups. As shown in Table 12, the interaction of the test by group was found to be significant,  $F = 4.83, p = 0.01$ , indicating that the test scores of Item Type 3 for both groups changed differently across the three tests. The changes in the scores across the tests are illustrated in Figure 4.

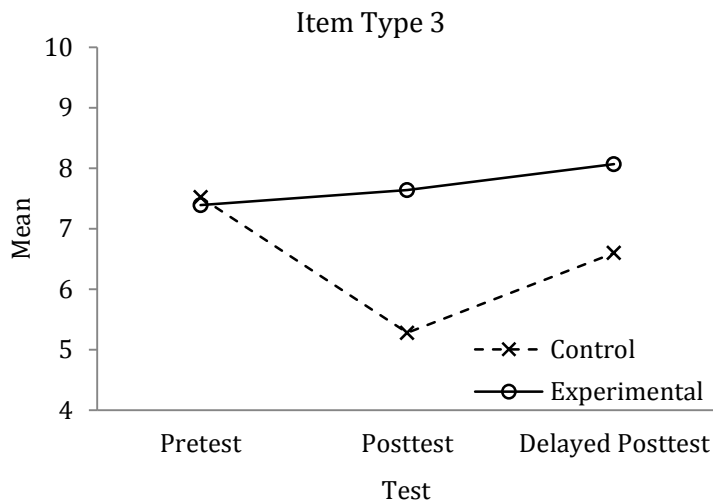


Figure 8. Change in the scores for item type 3 across the three test occasions

As shown in Figure 4, the overall pattern of the score for Item Type 3 showed a difference. In the pragmatically-oriented group, the score for Item Type 3 gradually increased across the three test occasions (i.e., pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest). In contrast, the score of the textbook-based group decreased from the pretest to the posttest and the mean score increased on the delayed posttest. The results of the interaction between the two factors (Item Type 3  $\times$  Group) indicate that the *ndesu* instruction for the pragmatically-oriented group was more effective for Item Type 3 than for the textbook-based group. It also implies that the instruction of the pragmatically-oriented group positively affects the test Item Type 3 (nonuse of *ndesu* not learned).

The significance of the interaction between the two factors (Item Type 4  $\times$  Group) was tested to examine whether scores of Item Type 4 changed across the three tests differently by the instructional approach. As summarized in Table 13, the interaction of Item Type 4  $\times$  Group was not significant,  $F = 2.91$ ,  $p = 0.06$ . This nonsignificant result shows that score changes occurred across the three tests consistently for both groups with respect to the items included in Item Type 4. However, it should be noted that the  $p$ -value for the nonsignificant  $F$ -ratio about the

interaction slightly exceeds the nominal alpha level .05, which suggests that this result is likely to be turned into significant outcome with larger samples.

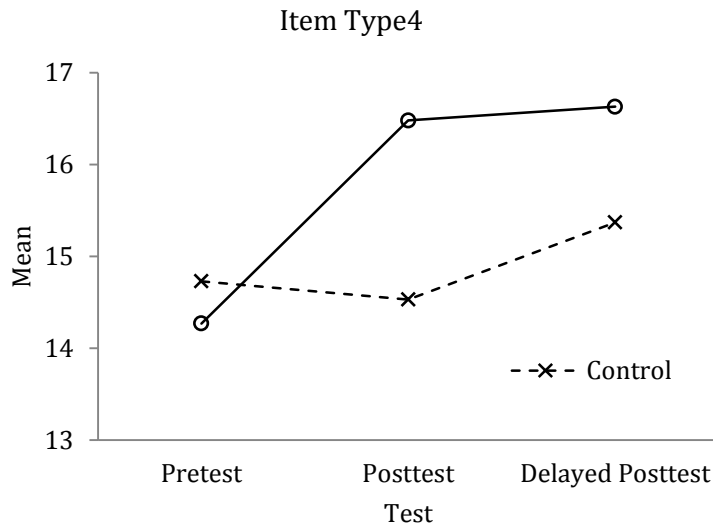


Figure 9. Change in scores for item type 4 across three test occasions

Although the significant test for the interaction resulted in no significant difference in the score changes between the two groups, noticeably distinct patterns of the score changes for Item Type 4 (nonuse of *ndesu* not learned) are displayed in Figure 5. For Item Type 4, the score of the pragmatically-oriented group increased substantially from the pretest to posttest and moderately changed from the posttest to delayed posttest. On the other hand, the score of the textbook-based group decreased slightly from the pretest to the posttest and this group increased moderately from the posttest towards the delayed posttest. Based on the significance test results for the interaction between the two factors (Item Type 4  $\times$  Group), however, the score trajectories across the three tests were not substantively different in both groups.

**Research Question 3: What is the relationship between the participants' acquisition of *ndesu* and the set of demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers)?**

Research Question 3 explored the relationship between the test scores and the demographic factors. The descriptive statistics and correlations for the variables included in these analyses are summarized in Table 14. The mean of the posttest score ( $M = 27.25$ ) is higher than that of the pretest ( $M = 22.15$ ) in the dependent variables. The correlation,  $r = 0.39$ , between the posttest and pretest was significant, indicating that the participants who had relatively high pretest scores were likely to have high posttest scores. The relationship between course level and each of the test scores were significantly correlated ( $r = 0.33$  for the pretest,  $r = 0.30$  for the posttest). Significant correlations suggested that participants whose course level was higher tended to show higher scores on both the pretest and the posttest. However, the intercorrelations for the three demographic variables (i.e., duration of stay, hours of contact with native Japanese speakers, and hours of exposure to culture) were not significant.

For Research Question 3, multiple regression analyses were performed to investigate the relationship between the test scores and the demographic factors. Prior to applying the regression models to the data, several diagnostic statistics were examined to ensure that the data did not violate the regression assumptions such as normality, independent observations, homogeneous residuals, etc. Also, the multicollinearity between the predictors was analyzed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) statistics among the predictor variables. All VIFs were close to 1 (ranging from 1.00 to 1.09); therefore, the multicollinearity problem was not detected in the data, demonstrating that the predictors in the regression model were not highly correlated; in other words, the predictors did not contain much of the same information.



Table 18

*Descriptive Statistics for Pretest, Posttest, and Demographic Factors Included in the Regression*

*Analyses*

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Correlations				
				Posttest	Course level	Stay duration	Contact hours	Cultural exposure
Dependent Variables								
Pretest	66	22.15	5.63	0.39**	0.33**	0.18	0.08	0.05
Posttest	65	27.25	3.06		0.30*	0.05	0.15	0.06
Predictors								
Course level	66	2.67	0.71		-	0.23	0.02	0.19
Stay duration	66	4.14	10.35			-	0.02	0.06
Contact hours	66	1.71	0.72				-	0.02
Cultural exposure	66	2.55	1.26					-

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

*Research Question 3-a: Is there a relationship between the set of the demographic factors and the participants' initial knowledge prior to ndesu instructions as reflected in their pretest scores?*

To answer Research Question 3-a concerning the relationship between the set of the demographic factors and the participants' initial knowledge of *ndesu* prior to *ndesu* instruction, a simultaneous multiple regression analysis was conducted. The regression model was analyzed using the pretest scores as the dependent variable and the set of demographic variables (i.e., course level, duration of stay in Japan, exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native Japanese speakers) as predictors. Specifically, the regression model tested in this analysis is:

Pretest =  $b_0 + b_1$  (Course level) +  $b_2$  (Duration of stay in Japan) +  $b_3$  (Contact hours with native Japanese speakers) +  $b_4$  (Hours of exposure to Japanese culture)

Table 15 presents the results of the regression analysis for Research Question 3-a. The demographic factors did not significantly predict pretest scores,  $F(4, 61) = 2.20, p = 0.079$ , with three predictors not significantly contributing to the prediction except for course level ( $t = 2.44$  and  $p = 0.018$ ). The  $R$  squared value was 0.126, indicating that 12% of the variance in the pretest score was explained by the four predictors included in the regression model. The standardized  $\beta$  coefficients in Table 15, suggest that course level contributed mostly in predicting pretest score ( $\beta = .31$ ); in contrast, the other three variables, which show nonsignificant  $t$  values, did not contribute to this prediction. It should be noted that hours of exposure to Japanese culture showed the negative impact ( $\beta = -0.02$ ) on the pretest scores ( $t = -0.14$  and  $p = 0.886$ ), though the effect was not significant.

Table 19

*Results of the Simultaneous Regression Analysis for the Pretest Scores*

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Course level	2.42	0.99	0.31	2.44*	0.018
Stay duration	0.06	0.07	0.11	0.90	0.369
Contact hours	0.59	0.94	0.08	0.63	0.530
Cultural exposure	-0.08	0.55	-0.02	-0.14	0.886

\* $p < .05$

*Research Question 3-b: Is there a relationship between the set of the demographic factors and participants' learning after ndesu instructions as reflected in the posttest scores?*

Research Questions 3-b and 3-c sought to identify the effects of *ndesu* intervention on the posttest scores in relation to the pretest scores and demographic factors. For these research

questions, a hierarchical regression using the enter method was conducted to investigate how the *ndesu* intervention affected participants' posttest scores, after controlling for the pretest scores as well as demographic factors. In these analyses, the independent variables were entered into the regression model in two blocks. The first data entry, which was intended to control the effects of the demographic factors, which included pretest, course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers. In the second block, the *ndesu* instructional approach (pragmatically-oriented or textbook-based group) as a target variable was entered in the regression model to examine the effect of instructional approach after controlling for the variables.

When the set of five predictors were entered together, the model significantly predicted the posttest scores in Model 1 of the regression analysis,  $F(5, 59) = 3.09, p = 0.015$ . The  $R^2$  value of 0.21 indicates that approximately 21% of the variance in the posttest scores was predicted by the five predictors. When the target variable (group) was added to Model 2, the prediction was significantly improved,  $F(6, 58) = 4.25, p = 0.001$ , and the  $R^2$  value was changed from .21 to 0.31. These values indicated that approximately 21% of the variance in posttest scores was explained by the first data entry initially, and then the inclusion of the target variable in the second model accounted for an additional 10% of the total variance.

Table 16 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analysis for the posttest scores. In Model 1 in Table 16, only the pretest scores were found to have significant effects ( $t = 2.66$  and  $p = 0.010$ ) on the posttest scores, whereas the other four variables (i.e., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers ) did not significantly contribute to the posttest scores.

*Research Question 3-c: What is the effect of the ndesu intervention on participants' learning after controlling for the demographic factors?*

To answer Research Question 3-c, in Model 2, the group variable (pragmatically-oriented versus textbook-based group) was entered alone in the second data block to determine the instructional effects of *ndesu* intervention by eliminating the influence of the demographic factors. As Table 16 demonstrates, the *ndesu* intervention was shown to have significant effect on participants' learning between the two groups ( $t = 2.86$  and  $p = 0.006$ ), after controlling for the demographic factors and the pretest. Among the control variables, the pretest score contributed mostly to predicting the posttest score ( $t = 2.77$  and  $p = 0.008$ ), and the participants' course level also contributed to predicting the posttest score ( $t = 2.06$  and  $p = 0.044$ ). However, the other three variables (i.e., duration of stay in Japan, contact hours with native Japanese speakers, hours of exposure to Japanese culture) were not found to be significant.

Table 20

*Results of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Posttest Scores*

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Model 1					
Pretest	0.19	0.07	0.33	2.66*	0.010
Course level	0.90	0.54	0.21	1.65	0.103
Stay duration	-0.02	0.04	-0.07	-0.57	0.569
Contact hours	0.51	0.49	0.12	1.03	0.306
Cultural exposure	0.00	0.29	0.00	-0.01	0.991
Model 2					
Pretest	0.18	0.07	0.33	2.77*	0.008
Course level	1.06	0.52	0.25	2.06*	0.044
Stay duration	-0.01	0.03	-0.04	-0.32	0.748
Contact hours	0.47	0.47	0.11	1.01	0.316
Cultural exposure	-0.06	0.27	-0.02	-0.21	0.835
Group_d	1.93	0.68	0.32	2.86*	0.006

\* $p < .05$

## Chapter 5

### Discussion

This chapter returned to the purpose of the study, summarizes its overall findings, and discusses the findings in more detail while answering the three research questions. Following this presentation will be a discussion of the limitations of the study, together with suggestions for future research and conclusions regarding the study's pedagogical implications.

The present study investigated the effect of a pragmatically-oriented instruction that introduced a unified concept of *ndesu*, and compared it to the textbook-based approach that only provides several representative functions of *ndesu* with no mention of how each function is related to each other. The study also aimed to determine the extent to which the pedagogical approach facilitated participants' ability to apply the unified concept of *ndesu* to the functions they had learned, as well as their ability to understand the functions not yet introduced. Furthermore, this study explored whether certain critical demographic factors (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers) might affect their knowledge of *ndesu*. To investigate the effect of a pedagogical approach of *ndesu*, and the participants' ability to apply what they learned, as well as the relationship between various factors and knowledge of *ndesu*, participants were divided into two groups: a pragmatically-oriented group and a textbook-based group. The pragmatically-oriented group, who were introduced to a unified concept of *ndesu*, was compared to the textbook-based group, who were introduced to the concept of *ndesu* using the textbook's explanation, across three test occasions (i.e., a pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest). The present research was a quasi-experimental, pretest-posttest, and delayed posttest design with a two-group, experimental and control group design.

## Effect of Pedagogical Approaches

Research Question 1 concerns the effect of the pragmatically-oriented pedagogical approach of employing a unified concept of *ndesu* compared to the textbook-based approach. To find out the effect of the pragmatically-oriented approach in detail, the first Research Question was divided into three specific questions as follows.

Research Question (1-a): *Are there meaningful differences between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group in each of the tests (i.e., pre-, post-, and delayed posttest)?* As presented in Chapter 4, the result showed that the pragmatically-oriented group performed significantly better than the textbook-based group in the posttest. This finding demonstrates that the pragmatically-oriented approach inherent in the unified concept as implemented was more effective in helping the participants' acquisition of *ndesu* than those who were given the textbook approach. This result is similar to Yoshimi's findings that indicated the beneficial effects of explicit instruction of an interactional marker (i.e., *ndesu*, *ndesuka*, and *ndesune*). Yoshimi (2001)'s study, which examined the effect of instruction on the interactional marker *ndesu* and its variants *ndesu-kedo* (*ndesu*-‘but’) and *ndesu-ne* (*ndesu*-final particle), revealed that the instructed participants in the experiment group (who had been given explicit pragmatics instruction) displayed a significant increase in both the overall frequency and accuracy of using interactional markers, but that there was no increase found in the control group (whose instruction had not included an explicit focus on the same items).

It is noteworthy that, unlike the control group in Yoshimi's study that had been given explicit instruction, the control group in the current study was given explicit instruction of *ndesu* followed by the textbook approach. This was done in order to ensure that both groups received equal amounts of information. That both groups were taught *ndesu* explicitly, and that the

pragmatically-oriented group still performed better, makes a strong argument for the effectiveness of pragmatically-oriented instruction on *ndesu* versus the textbook-based approach that only explains *ndesu* as a grammar point followed by mechanical drills. It is also important to note that Yoshimi's instruction was comprised of approximately 24 hours of instruction over a semester, compared to the one-hour instruction in the current study. This difference makes the argument of the current study (the positive instructional effect of the pragmatically-oriented approach) even stronger. Moreover, the study's instruction period, shorter than Yoshimi's, is more realistic and feasible. Instruction of *ndesu* needs to be presented concisely and simply enough such that it is implemented within the timeframe of an average class meeting.

Tateyama (2009)'s study (closely reviewed in Chapter 2) compared two explicit instructions that were an expanded instruction of pragmatics beyond the textbook lesson on requests. In her study, both groups showed significant improvement and with no significant difference between the two groups. Although there was no significant difference, Tateyama claimed there was a tendency for the experiment group (the expanded instruction group) to perform better when the interlocutor was a higher-status person (e.g., teacher) than a friend. For Tateyama, this indicated that the more pragmatics-focused instruction was effective in raising learners' awareness about indexing politeness when talking to a high-status person (p. 160). Tateyama argued that though the differences in the instructional packages were not sufficiently different, the regular group might have had more opportunities to interact with native speakers of Japanese outside of the classroom, or alternatively that the students' motivation to study Japanese might have been different. She suggested further research on these two variables (p. 159).



The present study found that pragmatically-oriented instruction on the discourse marker *ndesu* had a positive impact. This result suggests that the pragmatically-oriented instruction, which provided a specific background context for both the speaker and the hearer and their intention at the moment, helped participants to understand how each function of *ndesu* is determined in a specific context/situation. Furthermore, because the proposed unified concept provides one fundamental concept underlying the various functions of *ndesu*, participants know how each function is different (and there are many functions). In contrast, the textbook-based instruction only provided each function of *ndesu* as a grammar point for learners to memorize and mechanically practice. The results of the present study suggest that if the *ndesu* structure is introduced as a simple grammar point without also presenting example situations in which it could be used, students are then unable to fully understand *ndesu* and/or to know exactly when to use it. Therefore, while providing a specific background situation in which *ndesu* is used, students are not only able to consider the various functions and how they are different, but also how they relate to each other based on a fundamental concept. Thus the students are not just learning the presented functions of *ndesu* as a grammar point. Learning when and how to use *ndesu* becomes easier, and we see that the pragmatically-oriented approach is more effective.

Although the pragmatically-oriented instruction showed a positive impact compared to the textbook based instruction on the immediate posttest, the test result of the delayed posttest showed that the immediate effect of instruction disappeared by the time of delayed posttest and there was no difference between the two groups. This indicates that when time passes, participants lose what they learned with both types of instruction. This can be explained by the length of instruction and by the frequency of treatment. The current study is based on a single 40-minute instruction for both the pragmatically-oriented group and the textbook-based group.

Similarly, in another study comparing different approaches of instruction, Kubota (1995)'s study on implicature comprehension indicated the same result at the delayed posttest. Kubota found that while the implicit group performed better than the explicit group, this effect of instruction was not retained by the time of a delayed posttest one month later. Kubota's study was one 20-minute treatment in a two-hour class. Although there was no difference as time passed, there was a significant effect, and the result might have been different if there had been continuous input after the instruction. The positive impact from a single 40-minute instruction means that if short reviews follow the instruction and *ndesu* is frequently used in the class hour afterwards, the effect of the instruction is stronger. Furthermore, students' retention rate is expected to be longer.

Research Question (1-b): *How do the participants' scores change over time?* In order to find out the learning effect of the instruction, score changes from the pretest to the posttest and delayed posttest were analyzed. The result showed that scores improved. As reported in Chapter 2, the result showed that scores from the pretest to posttest significantly increased/improved regardless of the instructional approach. This indicates there is a positive effect of instruction regardless of the instructional approach used. The results from Chapter 4 likewise showed that participants exposed to both instructional interventions significantly performed better than before regardless of the method of instruction. This result is similar to what has been found in previous studies (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Lyster, 1994; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001; and Yoshimi, 2001). These researches showed that explicit instruction is effective, similar to the instruction for both groups in the present study, and participants in both groups were shown to acquire the functions of *ndesu*.

The main theoretical framework for the instructional approach in the current study was Schmidt's research regarding the role of conscious learning in the acquisition of L2 pragmatic

competence (the *noticing hypothesis*; Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1995, 2001). Schmidt's claim is that for input to become intake for learning, mere exposure to input is insufficient and conscious noticing is crucial. Given that the present study's findings showed that score improvement occurred after explicit instructions regardless of the instructional approach, the results of the present study support Schmidt's noticing hypothesis and suggest that learners became consciously aware of the target features of pragmatics through explicit instruction.

To address the issue at hand more in depth, the next research question (1-c) asks: *To what extent do the effects of the two pedagogical approaches differ in promoting the students' learning of ndesu over time?* The score changes of both groups showed a similar pattern, indicating that both instructions were helpful in learning *ndesu*. Regardless of the instructional approach, explicit instruction had a positive instructional effect on the target pragmatic feature, which suggests that explicit teaching is important. The importance of instruction, regardless of the type of instruction, supports the effect of explicit instruction on pragmatics and the noticing hypothesis as mentioned earlier section. In the case of *ndesu* instruction, the textbook analysis in Chapter 2 showed that most textbooks introduce *ndesu* along with other grammar points at the beginner level, and that further instruction of *ndesu* does not appear at the higher levels. With the result that showed explicit instruction is effective and the result of the pretest that showed participants at the intermediate level or higher were not very good at identifying the functions of *ndesu* and also in noting their answers to the open-ended questions, they were not sure when to use *ndesu*. These results support my thesis that the explicit *ndesu* instruction should be included in the curriculum not only one time at the beginning level, but should also be included at the intermediate or higher levels. The result showed that on the posttest, the instruction proved effective, but after 1 or 2 months there was no difference. Although a short-term effect was

shown and a long-term effect was not, I argue that if the suggested instruction included consistent review and implementation, a long-term effect of instruction would appear. Therefore, this should be considered in follow-up research.

Additional analysis was conducted for the overuse of *ndesu* (overgeneralization) if there was a pattern related to the effect of instruction. Overuse in the present study is defined as when the participants answered using *ndesu* when they were not supposed to use it. To investigate the pattern of overuse, an odds ratio was calculated ( $\text{Odds Ratio}_{(\text{Control group}/\text{Experiment group})} = ([186/166]/(134/243)) = 2.03$ ). The calculated odds ratio of 2.03 indicates that the odds of participants overusing *ndesu* given the textbook-based approach are about two times greater than the odds of participants overusing *ndesu* given the pragmatically-oriented approach. Thus, the participants in the textbook-based group tended to use *ndesu* when they should not have used it more than the participants in the pragmatically-oriented group. This result is related to applicability. When the participants were given pragmatically-oriented instruction, although they did not learn when *ndesu* is inappropriate, they were better able apply what they had been introduced to compared to the textbook-based group participants. A discussion of applicability will be presented in the next section.

### **Applicability of the Pedagogical Approaches**

The second research question investigated whether the two different instructions facilitated the participants' ability to apply *ndesu* functions. This question also addresses how the pedagogical approach relates to the applicability of *ndesu* usage in four different types of test items: Item Type 1: previously-learned items that included *ndesu*; Item Type 2: novel items that require *ndesu*; Item Type 3: novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate; and Item Type 4: novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (combination of

Item Types 2 and 3). In order to compare the pragmatically-oriented approach with the textbook-based approach in detail, the second research question was divided into three specific questions.

Research Question (2-a): *How does the participants' performance differ between the two groups on each of the four item types?* The results indicated that the participants in the two groups performed similarly on the previously-learned items that included *ndesu* (Item Type 1); there was no significant difference of instruction between two approaches in the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest. Similar to the results for Item Type 1, the results indicated that students in both groups performed similarly for the novel items that require *ndesu* (Item Type 2) regardless of the instructional approach. The finding showed there were no significant differences in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores between the two groups. However, for the novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 3), group differences were found in the posttest, revealing there was a significant mean difference between the two groups, and the participants in the pragmatically-oriented group performed significantly better than the students in the textbook-based group. In other words, the pragmatically-oriented group participants exposed to the unified concept of *ndesu* performed substantially better on the test items related to nonuse of *ndesu* that had not been introduced than the participants who were taught using the textbook approach. However, no group differences were found in the delayed posttest. However, because the *p*-value of .09 was close to the nominal alpha level, this result might be different when the sample size is larger. For Item Type 4, the novel items, the combination of Item Type 2 (require *ndesu*) and Item Type 3 (*ndesu* is inappropriate), showed the same result as Item Type 3.

For the items where *ndesu* is inappropriate, the scores of the textbook-based groups taught in the traditional way decreased on the posttest and increased on the delayed posttest. On the other hand, with these same items the scores for the pragmatically-oriented group constantly

increased through the delayed posttest. This indicates that the pragmatically-oriented group was stronger on the items in which *ndesu* is inappropriate and, as explained in Research Question 1-c, that the unified concept might be easier for students to apply in such cases. The participants who were in the pragmatically-oriented group performed better on the novel items that had not been introduced because they were able to fully understand the specific situations/contexts in which the conversation occurred and were able to differentiate when *ndesu* should be used and when it shouldn't be. Furthermore, the participants could understand how each function is related to each other through the fundamental concept of *ndesu*. Although they had not learned all its functions, when they understood the fundamental concept underlying the various functions, they could guess correctly. This also suggests that teaching/ instruction needs to explain not only the use of *ndesu* but also its nonuse. From their answers, we saw that the participants were able to apply what they had not been previously-introduced to. The participants' answers to why they chose their answers in the posttest included the following "no implication"; "no time to share"; "mere fact"; "not shared assumption about what the weather will be"; "straightforward fact"; "simple answer does not require *ndesu*"; "You have just met this person and do not share any knowledge or already-established intimacy"; "a one-way statement to convey information"; "You don't need to imply anything when giving a solid fact like your name; "This is a fact, there is no implied meaning behind it"; "Instant happening does not suit the *ndesu* form in the spur of the moment realization"; "Its a sudden thing so I haven't had time to think about it"; and so on. There were some test items in the Item Type 3 that participants could easily guess and to which they could apply the unified concept effectively. The result indicated that the participants fully understood the fundamental idea of *ndesu* (i.e., sharedness and implication), and that this idea helped them to apply it to cases where they are not supposed to use *ndesu*. Although there were 10 functions

of *ndesu* presented in the present study, classroom teaching of *ndesu* should include more situations. Knowing the underlying fundamental concept would help learners to guess correctly when they encounter situations they had not learned.

Research Question (2-b): *To what extent does the participants' performance on each item type change over time?* This question examined how the participants' scores changed across the three test occasions (i.e., pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest) for each of the four test item types (i.e., Item Types 1, 2, 3, and 4). As for Item Type 1, there was a significant difference across time, which means there is a positive learning effect on the instruction on the test items with *ndesu* the participants have learned. Similarly, for the other three item types, there was a significant difference across time and positive learning effect on the instruction regardless of the type of test items whether *ndesu* was used or not, and whether the participants were familiar with *ndesu* functions or not. It is noteworthy that there was an effect of explicit instruction not only for the learned items, but also a learning effect was indicated on the not learned (novel) items.

To determine whether there were score changes between the two groups, the next question (2-c) was: *Do the participants' score changes differ between the pragmatically-oriented group and textbook-based group for each of the four types of test items?* For this research question, the significance of the interaction between the two factors (Item Type  $\times$  Group) was tested for each of the four subsequent analyses: (a) how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for the test items that consisted of previously-learned items that included *ndesu* (Item Type 1  $\times$  Group)?, (b) how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for the test items that include novel items that require *ndesu* (Item Type 2  $\times$  Group)?, (c) how did the students' score changes differ in the two groups for test items that included novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 3  $\times$  Group)?, and (d) how did the students' score

changes differ in the two groups for test items that included novel items that require *ndesu* and novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate (Item Type 4 × Group)?

As for Item Type 1, the item type that was covered during the instruction, there was no statistical difference between two groups on the posttest and delayed posttest. Also, no difference was shown between the two groups for Item Type 2 that was not covered in the instruction. However, for items in Item Type 3 that were not covered in the instruction and in the cases where *ndesu* is inappropriate (nonuse of *ndesu*), the pragmatically-oriented group performed better on the posttest. At the delayed posttest, there was no difference between two groups; however, the *p* value of 0.09 represents a trend for the experimental group to perform better with the items where they should not use *ndesu* in certain situations. In order to explain the reasons why their applicability was better than the control group, the participants' answers of the posttest were analyzed in detail. This analysis showed that whether or not the item had been introduced, there was no difference between groups. However, when the items not introduced involved cases in which use of *ndesu* is inappropriate, the pragmatically-oriented group performed better. This indicated that the pragmatically-oriented group showed a strong ability to apply what they had learned through the instruction, which explains why the pragmatically-oriented group performed better on items calling for the cases where use of *ndesu* is inappropriate (nonuse of *ndesu*).

The pattern of the score changes (the learning effect) for the two groups were significantly different in Item Type 3, which involved novel items for which *ndesu* is inappropriate. As mentioned previously, this might be because the pragmatically-oriented group participants might have gained enough proficiency to apply *ndesu* knowledge to the cases of when not to use *ndesu*, a greater proficiency than participants who were taught using the textbook based approach. On the other hand, the textbook-based group showed a huge score drop



in this *ndesu* usage when *ndesu* is inappropriate on the posttest. This may possibly indicate that *ndesu* taught as a grammar point with mechanical drills (instructional approach) only covers functions where they should use/ they have been taught *ndesu*, but not its appropriate use in various situations and/or its pragmatically-wrong usages.

### **Influence of Demographic Factors**

Research Question 3 asked, “*What is the relationship between the demographic factors and participants’ knowledge of ndesu?*” In order to obtain a clearer perspective on the participants’ acquisition of *ndesu* fully, the present study investigated the demographic factors that might have affected both their pragmatic knowledge and learning of *ndesu*. This questions was subdivided into three specific parts: (a) *how are demographic factors related to ndesu proficiency before instruction?*; (b) *how are those demographic factors related to ndesu proficiency after instruction, and (c) what is the pure effect of the instruction if the demographic factors did not affect (when controlling for all the other demographic factors)?* Not only does the third research question address the relationship between demographic factors and the participants’ initial *ndesu* knowledge status, it also addresses how their personal differences/experiences affected their acquisition of *ndesu*. For example, the usual assumption is that contact hours or duration of stay in Japan, etc. might help a learner to notice and grasp *ndesu* usage.

Regarding the first question (3-a), how are these demographic factors related to previous knowledge of *ndesu* before instruction, the result showed that except for the course level there was no relationship between demographic factors and learning of *ndesu*. The longer the participants had studied Japanese, their knowledge of *ndesu* increased. This indicates that general proficiency is related to the knowledge of *ndesu* (pragmatic feature). Although a participant’s course level was not necessarily related to their proficiency level, it can be seen as a

general/overall proficiency level for the present study because all the participants had been enrolled in UI Japanese classes. Even those who didn't start to study Japanese at UIUC were placed into a certain level of class based on a placement test. Except for the course level, there was no relationship found with prior *ndesu* knowledge. This is noteworthy in that it is widely believed that learners exposed to more Japanese culture or otherwise have more opportunities for contact with native speakers of Japanese are more likely to learn pragmatics than those who do not. For example, Tateyama (2009) found that her study's regular group's performance improvement was equivalent to that of the pragmatically-expanded instruction group. She claimed that it might have been because the regular group learners had more opportunities to interact with native speakers of Japanese outside of the classroom (p. 159). However, the finding in the present study showed that these factors didn't affect the participants' prior knowledge of *ndesu* (before the instruction). Although the result cannot be concluded because the effect was not significant, cultural exposure showed a negative impact ( $\beta = -0.02$ ) on the pretest scores ( $t = -0.14$  and  $p = 0.886$ ).

It is usually believed that cultural exposure affects learners' proficiency. However, the findings in the present study showed that cultural exposure was unrelated to prior knowledge of *ndesu*. Learners usually believe that when they are exposed to more Japanese culture, their language or pragmatics use will improve, however, the finding of the present study indicated that this might not be true all the time. Although the finding in the present study was that there is no relation between prior knowledge of *ndesu* and exposure to Japanese culture, this result may be due not to the fact that *ndesu* is something that cannot be learned through exposure, but rather to the fact that the participants in the present study had not been sufficiently exposed to it through their (no doubt short) cultural experiences. More specifically, this finding may indicate the

presence of a U-shaped learning function with respect to *ndesu* acquisition. If this is the case, then with more explicit instruction and more exposure/practice, eventually all learners would end up acquiring *ndesu*. In order to investigate this possibility, a long-term study future study would be necessary. As it is, the present findings suggest that without explicit instruction, more exposure to Japanese culture and duration of study abroad alone would not lead to students using *ndesu* correctly.

Research Question (3-b), *how are the demographic factors including pretest related to their learning?* This question specifically explores the effect of instruction and how these demographic factors including prior knowledge of *ndesu* (pretest) affects *ndesu* learning (reflected on the posttest). The finding indicated that participants (i.e., those who had more prior knowledge of *ndesu*) did better on the pretest and performed better on the posttest after instruction. In other words, just like the participants' course level, prior proficiency influenced the learning effect more than the other factors.

The last research question (3-c) was *what is the effect of ndesu instruction without the effects of demographic factors?* This question was designed to see the pure effect of *ndesu* instruction when eliminating the influence of demographic factors. The result showed that based on the significant regression coefficient for the *ndesu* intervention, pretest score, and course level, these variables positively affect students' learning of *ndesu*. Specifically, the pragmatically-oriented group performed better on the posttest; participants who performed better on the pretest did better on the posttest; and similarly, as the participants' levels rose, their learning outcomes increased. The other three variables (i.e., duration of stay in Japan, hours of exposure to Japanese culture and contact hours with native speakers) were not found to be significant.

This finding showed that prior knowledge and participants' course level (overall proficiency) influenced the effects of instruction. However, it should be noted, though the course level influenced the effectiveness of instruction, the lower-level participants also benefitted from the instruction. Interestingly, cultural exposure and duration of stay showed a negative impact. As for duration of stay, Klein, Dietrich, and Noyau (1995) emphasized "intensity of interaction," arguing that the "duration of stay is an uninteresting variable. What matters is intensity, not length of interaction" (p. 277). Although it is believed that longer duration and contact hours with native speakers promotes more pragmatics learning, this result showed that that might not be the case. Even though *ndesu* is used ubiquitously, noticing, learners are not able to acquire the use and non-use of *ndesu* unless they first notice it; thus, raising learners' awareness is important, and this also suggests the necessity of teaching pragmatics. However, whether instruction of *ndesu* is effective for lower-proficiency learners should be studied further.

### **Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

The primary limitation of the present study was the length of the treatment and that there was only one treatment held for less than 40 minutes. Moreover, it was a relatively short treatment time compared to the length of Yoshimi's (2001), which totaled 24 hours over one semester with ample exercises and examples. From the findings in the present study, there was a positive instructional effect in the 40-minute treatment. However, the short length of treatment led to a lack of actual practice for the productive-skills tasks such as role-playing activities, structured conversations, discourse completion tests, and cloze tests which would have made the instructional effect even greater. Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh, and Fatahi's (2004) study included a variety of instructional activities such as description, explanation, teacher-fronted discussion, small-group discussions, role play, pragmatically-focused tasks, and introspective

feedback. The present study only included instruction and activities for receptive-skills tasks (i.e., an explicit explanation of pragmatic features, teacher-fronted discussion, small-group (pair) discussions, and pragmatically-enhanced tasks) that the participants were given and which exposed them to pragmatic input through either evaluating the appropriateness of the target pragmatic forms on a rating scale, or by selecting appropriate forms from a list of expressions (Taguchi, 2011, p. 296). Following the teacher-fronted instruction on metapragmatic information and receptive-skills tasks such as small group discussion and analysis practice, the pragmatics-focused activity for output, such as communicative practice and individual feedback as in Ishida (2009), could lead to an even stronger instructional effect. Therefore, a proposed future study will not only provide pragmatic instruction for the precommunication stage, but would also include further activities to practice producing, and a test could be designed for measuring *ndesu* knowledge in actual use.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 2, Schmidt's noticing hypothesis was the theoretical framework for the instructional approach for the current study. The implication of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis for pragmatics is that when learners are consciously aware of the target features in pragmatics, in other words, when they notice the input, it then becomes intake after which learning occurs. Therefore, the role of instruction is important because it raises a learner's awareness and makes input salient. The finding of the present study supports the benefit of explicit *ndesu* instruction: after participants were given explicit instruction, the performance of both groups significantly improved on the posttest, supporting that instruction makes *ndesu* more "noticed" and more available for acquisition. However, Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1998) argued that "higher pragmatic awareness does not necessarily translate into appropriate pragmatic production; that is awareness is not likely to be a sufficient condition for the

development of pragmatic competence” (p. 254-255). Although one of the findings of the present study supports the benefit of explicit instruction and thus supports the notion of ‘noticing as a prerequisite for learning’, it does not prove conclusively that the finding relates to actual production as the present study did not measure how students’ understanding is related to actual language production.

In addition to the limitation pertaining to length of treatment, there were two additional limitations regarding the participant pool. First, the study had a relatively small sample size. For example, the finding in Research Question 2-a, determining which of the groups performed better on each of the four types of items, with the current sample size, no significance was found for Item Type 3. Although there was no significant group difference found in the delayed posttest ( $F = 3.02$  and  $p = .09$ ), the  $p$ -value of .09 was close to the nominal alpha level. With increased samples, a null hypothesis can be more easily rejected (the  $p$ -value can be lowered); thus the insignificant result could turn out to be significant. Based on the minimum sample size requirement factor (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003), further research with a larger sample size is suggested. Second, a convenience sampling was used. Participants were selected based on who happened to be available for the study. I recruited participants who showed up after announcing the selected time and place to a pool of potential participants. As Mackey and Gass (2005) argued, “The obvious disadvantage to convenience sampling is that it is likely to be biased and should not be taken to be representative of the population. However, samples of convenience are quiet common in second language research” (p. 122).

Two additional limitations involved Research Question 3. Four demographic factors were selected (e.g., course level, duration of stay in Japan, exposure to Japanese culture, and contact hours with native speakers) as predictors. From the presurvey questionnaires, it was hoped that

the four possible factors would explain the relationship between the demographic information and the acquisition of *ndesu*. These demographic factors were selected based on the researcher's personal teaching experience and her belief that these factors impacted *ndesu* proficiency. The four factors were also selected based on the ease of collecting proxy information on them from the simple survey. However, there might be additional important factors, for example the learners' first language, motivation, gender, etc. that also affect *ndesu* proficiency and the effect of *ndesu* instruction. For example, in the case of the learners' first language, especially if their language background has a similar discourse marker in L1, this would affect their performance. Participants' L1 would be an important factor that influences *ndesu* acquisition and a further proposed study will be designed to see whether participants' L1 helps or inhibits the acquisition of the discourse marker *ndesu*. Therefore, the result cannot be generalized and further study is needed. Second, the finding of Research Question 3 as shown in the pretest indicated that course level contributes mostly in predicting prior knowledge of *ndesu*. In the present study, the participants' proficiency level was decided by their course level, not their actual proficiency level; therefore, course level might not reflect learners' actual proficiency level. Using the ACTFL OPI rating would reflect the participants' proficiency more accurately than their course level and would be more generalizable.

### **Implications for Language Instruction**

Although communicative language teaching approaches have been widely accepted, course materials are often still based on traditional grammar instruction. As reviewed in Chapter 2, there have been a number of studies that argue for the importance of explicit instruction in pragmatics for learners' development of target language pragmatic competence. Many instructional studies on interlanguage pragmatics have provided a variety of materials and

activities for teaching pragmatics in the classroom. Taguchi (2011) noted that a “by-product” of instructional studies in interlanguage pragmatics is that a variety of materials and activities have been generated for teaching pragmatics in the classroom (p. 296). In the present study, one of the main purposes was to offer the instructional content of *ndesu* based on the unified concept of *ndesu*, one that emphasized a pragmatically-oriented approach that took into account speech situation-specific factors such as the specific context and the speaker’s intention.

The first of three significant findings in the present study was the positive effect of explicit instruction in learning the discourse marker *ndesu* using both the pragmatically-oriented and the textbook-based approach. This finding indicates that giving learners explicit *ndesu* instruction could lead to noticing *ndesu* and integrating it into their development of pragmatics. When comparing the two groups, the pragmatically-oriented approach group given the unified concept of *ndesu* performed significantly better than the textbook-based approach group. This result suggests that the unified concept provided more contexts/situations as well as the speakers’ thoughts/intentions when the dialogue happened. These additions might be more beneficial to learners in acquiring *ndesu* than when *ndesu*’s functions are only listed and introduced as a grammar point. Furthermore, through the metapragmatic discussion, participants had opportunities to think about the cognitive process of when *ndesu* is used. As such, this metacognition (‘thinking about thinking’, Livingston, 1997) could have been stimulated by the pragmatically-oriented instruction. Through the textbook analysis, I found that once *ndesu* is introduced at an early level, it doesn’t appear again. Also, *ndesu* is not considered a pragmatic feature in most textbooks. Therefore, the present study’s pedagogical implication is that learners would benefit by being given a pragmatically-oriented explanation of *ndesu*, and that integrating this explanation into the classroom/curriculum would be beneficial. Moreover, the result of the



delayed posttest indicating that the acquired *ndesu* knowledge was not retained also showed that in order to attain a long-term effect after *ndesu* instruction, *ndesu* should be continually included in the syllabus. *Ndesu* can be used in various dialogues and naturally occurring data/ context and these can be used together for further instruction. Fortunately, *ndesu* is a pragmatic feature that can be used in any dialogue, expression, or instruction. Because it is used frequently, students who have difficulty in using *ndesu* will be motivated to find out what it is and a positive impact can be expected. As discussed previously, due to the relatively short treatment, the instruction in the present study did not include various activities; however, if learners have more chances to use *ndesu*, greater proficiency in knowing when and when not to use it would be possible.

The second finding showed that the participants in the pragmatically-oriented group performed particularly well in *ndesu* situations/cases when *ndesu* is inappropriate although this had not been introduced. As mentioned in the previous section, participants who received pragmatically-oriented instruction were able to make a connection between the unified concept and pragmatically-inappropriate situations. This also might indicate that the unified concept, which provided a specific situation/background and the speakers' intention, helped participants to more fully understand the concept and correctly choose when *ndesu* is inappropriate. Therefore, the finding suggests that the pragmatically-oriented approach implementing the unified concept could serve a useful instructional approach in facilitating learners' understanding/acquisition of *ndesu* in more pragmatically-appropriate situations than grammar based instruction. In other words, with the unified concept, if the explanation of the situations where *ndesu* is inappropriate is included in the instruction, it would be beneficial. For example, while giving a pragmatically-oriented instruction, providing examples of situations such as when answering what date is it today, or when suddenly dropping a wallet, instructors can explain that

*ndesu* is inappropriate when nothing is implied such as a fact, or when something happens abruptly and is realized but there is no time to either share or imply the information. The participants' answers in the posttest showed they understood why *ndesu* is not appropriate in the certain situations. Therefore, it might be expected that when students encounter various situations, they would be able to apply the fundamental meaning of *ndesu* and build various situations in which they should and should not use *ndesu*. Within limited class time, it is difficult for classroom instructors to introduce *ndesu* entirely and explain all of its functions and situations for its use. If students are able to learn the fundamental concept and how to apply it, use of simple instruction is more practical and effective. The pragmatically-oriented approach suggests the fundamental concept of *ndesu* would enable students to apply it to different situations. Ideally, students would be able to understand how each function is related to each other under the basic concept. Furthermore, they could also apply this knowledge to other functions not learned which would eventually lead to the pragmatically-appropriate use of *ndesu* (or reduce pragmatically-inappropriate use of *ndesu*) for the cases in which pragmatic failures occur.

Different from what is usually believed, the third finding showed that demographic factors might somewhat affect students' acquisition of *ndesu*. As mentioned in the limitation section, this result of the influence of demographic factors was not definite. However, it still provided insights that indicated that mere length of residency, contact with Japanese native speakers, and cultural exposure might not be sufficient to obtain knowledge of *ndesu*. Therefore, it would be helpful to provide instruction of *ndesu* before students study abroad in Japan so that the instruction would raise their awareness level of when *ndesu* is used. Later whenever they encounter situations where use of *ndesu* occurs, they might be more aware of the use of *ndesu*.

This awareness is very helpful (and perhaps necessary) to acquiring proficiency. Or when providing instruction, instructors could suggest that when students are watching Japanese soap operas, for example, they should try to identify in what kind of situations when *ndesu* is required. This way, students would focus on the pragmatic features that lead to more natural and appropriate utterances.

## References

- Alcón-Soler, E. (2005). Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in the EFL context? *System*, 33, 417–435.
- Alcón-Soler, E. (2007). Fostering EFL learners' awareness of requesting through explicit and implicit consciousness-raising tasks. In García Mayo (Ed.), *Investigating tasks in formal language learning*. Cleveon: Multilingual Matters, 221–241.
- Alfonso, A. (1966). *Japanese language patterns: A structural approach*. Tokyo, Japan: Sophia University L.L. Center of Applied Linguistics.
- Banno, E., Ohno, Y., Sakane, Y., & Shinagawa, C. (1999). *Genki: An integrated course in elementary Japanese*. Tokyo, Japan: The Japan Times.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1999). Exploring the interlanguage of interlanguage pragmatics: A research agenda for acquisitional pragmatics. *Language Learning*, 49(4), 677–713.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds for instruction in pragmatics? In G. Kasper & K. R. Rose (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 13–32). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dornyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 233–262.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Griffin, R. (2005). L2 pragmatic awareness: Evidence from the ESL classroom. *System*, 33, 401–415.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (Eds.). (2003). Introduction. In *Teaching Pragmatics* (pp.1-12). Washington, DC: U. S. Department of State. Retrieved from <http://exchanges.state.gov/media/oelp/teaching-pragmatics/introms.pdf>
- Bialystok, E. (1993). Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 43–57). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Billmyer, K. (1990). “I really like your life style”: ESL learners learning how to compliment. *Penn Working Papers in Educational Linguistics*, 6, 31–48.
- Bouton, L. F. (1994). Conversational implicature in the second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 22, 157–167.
- Crystal, D. (1985). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. (2nd. ed.). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

- DeKeyser, R. (1995). Learning second language grammar rules: An experiment with a miniature linguistic system. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 17, 379–410.
- Ellis, R. (1990). *Instructed Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (1992). *Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Eslami-Rasekh, Z. (2005). Raising the pragmatic awareness of language learners. *ELT Journal*, 59(2), 199–208.
- Eslami-Rasekh, Z., Eslami-Rasekh, A., & Fatahi, A. (2004). The effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the speech act awareness of advanced EFL students. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 8(2), 1–12.
- Eslami, Z. & Liu, C. (2013). Learning Pragmatics through Computer-Mediated Communication in Taiwan. *Iranian Journal of Society, Culture & Language*, 1(1), 52–73. Retrieved from [http://www.ijscel.net/pdf\\_2002\\_dbe5aec3b536c88d64d64baf8fb0ea61.html](http://www.ijscel.net/pdf_2002_dbe5aec3b536c88d64d64baf8fb0ea61.html)
- Fordyce, K. (2014). The differential effects of explicit and Implicit Instruction on EFL Learners' Use of Epistemic Stance. *Applied Linguistics*, 35, 6–28.
- Fraenkel, J. & Wallen, N. (2003). *How design and evaluate research in education* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Fukuya, Y.J., Reeve, M., Gisi, J., Christianson, M., (1998). Does focus on form work for teaching sociopragmatics? Paper Presented at the 12th International Conference on Pragmatics and Language Learning, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 452736).
- Fukuya, Y. & Martínez-Flor, A. (2008). The interactive effects of pragmatic-eliciting tasks and pragmatics instruction. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 41, 478–500.
- Fukuya, Y. & Y. Zhang (2002). Effects of recasts on EFL learners' acquisition of pragmalinguistic conventions of request. *Second Language Studies*, 21, 1–47.
- Geyer, N. (2007). Self-qualification in L2 Japanese: An interface of pragmatic, grammatical, and discourse competences. *Language Learning*, 57, 337–367.
- Hatasa, Y.A., Hatasa, K. & Makino, S. (2009). *Nakama 1: Japanese communication, culture, context*. Boston; New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin.
- Hatasa, Y.A., Hatasa, K. & Makino, S. (2015). *Nakama 1: Japanese communication, culture, context*. Boston; New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin.

- Himeno, T. (1999). “Ndesu (premise and explanation).” In Shinya, T., Himeno, T., and Moriya, M. (Eds.), *Nihongo kyookasho no otoshiana* [Pitfalls of Japanese language textbooks]. Tokyo, Japan: ALC.
- Horie, K. (2012) The interactional origin of nominal predicate structure in Japanese: A comparative and historical pragmatic perspective, *Journal of Pragmatics*, 44, 663–679.
- Kim, J. & Horie, K. (2009). Intersubjectification and textual functions of Japanese noda and Korean kes-ita. In: Takubo, Yukinori, et al. (Eds.), *Japanese/Korean Linguistics*, Vol. 16. CSLI, Stanford, pp. 279–288.
- House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language. *Studies in Second Language and Acquisition*, 18, 225–252.
- House, J. & Kasper, G., (1981). Politeness markers in English and German. In: Coulmas, F. (Ed.), *Conversational Routine*. Mouton de Gruyter, The Hague, The Netherlands, pp. 157–185.
- House, J. & Kasper, G. (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language. In W. Lörcher & R. Schulze (Eds.), *Perspectives on language in performance* (pp. 1250–1288). Tübingen, GR: Narr.
- Iori, I. (2000). *Kyooikubunpoonikansuru oboegaki: Skoopuno nodawo reitoshite* [A note from a pedagogical grammar: an example of scope ‘noda’]. *Hitotsubashidaigaku ryuugakusei sentakiyoo* [Bulletin of the center for exchange students, Hitotsubashi University], 3, 33–41.
- Iori, I., Nakanishi, K., Matsuoka, H., Takahashi, S., & Yamada, T. (Eds.). (2001). *Chukyuwo oshieru hitotameno nihongo bunpo* handbook, [Grammar Handbook for Teachers of Japanese Language for Intermediate learners] Tokyo, Japan: 3A Network.
- Ishida, K. (2009). *Indexing stance in interaction: A pedagogical approach to teaching the pragmatic use of the Japanese plain and desu/masu forms*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Hawaii at Manoa.
- Ishihara, N. (2007). Web-based curriculum for pragmatics instruction in Japanese as a foreign language: An explicit awareness-raising approach. *Language Awareness*, 16(1), 20–40.
- Ishikuro (2003). *Nodano chukakuteki kinotohaseiteki kinoo* [The core and derivative functions of noda]. *Hitotsubasidaigaku ryuugakusei senta kiyoo* [Bulletin of the center for exchange students, Hitotsubashi University], 3, 3–26.
- Iwai, T. (2010). *Becoming a good conversationalist: conversational competence as a target of JFL instruction*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Hawaii at Manoa.
- Izumi, S. (2002). Output, input enhancement, and the noticing hypothesis: an experimental study on ESL relativization. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24(4), 541–577.

- Jeon, E. H. & Kaya, T. (2006). Effects of L2 instruction on interlanguage pragmatic development. In J. M. Norris (Ed.), *Synthesizing Research on Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 165–211). Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Jorden, E. (1963). *Beginning Japanese, Part 2*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Kasper, G. (1997). Can pragmatic competence be taught? *National Foreign Language Resource Center NetWorks #6*. Retrieved from <http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/networks/NW06/default/html>
- Kasper, G. (2000). Data collection in pragmatics research. In Spencer-Oatey, H. (Ed.), *Culturally Speaking: Managing rapport through talk across cultures* (pp. 316–341). London, UK: Continuum.
- Kasper, G. (2001). Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. In G. Kasper & K. R. Rose (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 33-60). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kasper, G. & Rose K. R. (2001). Pragmatics in language teaching. In G. Kasper & K. R. Rose (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 1-10). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kasper, G. & Rose, K. R. (2002). Selected chapters. In Richard Young (Ed.), *Pragmatic Development in a Second Language*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Kasper, G. & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 149–169.
- Kikuchi (2000). *noda (ndesu) no honjitsu* [A nature of noda (ndesu)]. *Tokyodaigaku ryuugakusei senta kiyoo* [Bulletin of the international center, University of Tokyo], 10, 25-51.
- Klein, W., Dietrich, R., and Noyau, C. (1995). *The Acquisition of Temporality in a Second Language*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjammins Publishing.
- Kondo, A. (2006). *Noda ga sihyousuru hanasiteno syukannsei* [Speaker’s subjectivity indexing by *noda*]. *Gengo*, 35, 68–73.
- Kondo, S. (2004). Raising pragmatic awareness in the EFL context. *Sophia Junior College Faculty Bulletin*, 24, 49–72.
- Koresawa, N. (2003). *Nihongo kyouiku niokeru “noda” nituite* [“Noda” in Japanese language education]. *Nihongengo bungei kenkyu* [Study for Japanese language and literature], 4, 19–32.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.

- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Kubota, M. (1995). Teachability of conversational implicature to Japanese EFL learners. *IRLT Bulletin*, 9. Tokyo: The Institute for Research in Language Teaching, 35–67.
- Kuno, S. (1973) *The structure of the Japanese language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Lee, D. & Yoshida, A. (2002). A study of *nda-kedo* in spoken Japanese. *Sekai no Nihong Kyoiku (Journal of the Language Institute of the Japan Foundation) (In Japanese)*. Vol. 12, 223–237.
- Leech, G. (1983). *The principle of pragmatics*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Leech, N. L., Barrett, K. C., & Morgan, G. A. (2005). *SPSS for intermediate statistics: Use and interpretation*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.
- Liddicoat, A. J., & Crozet, C. (2001). Acquiring French interactional norms through instruction. In K. Rose, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 125–144). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- LoCastro, V. (1997). Pedagogical intervention and pragmatic competence development. *Applied Language Learning*, 8, 75–109.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413–468). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Lyster, R. (1994). The effect of functional-analytic teaching on French immersion students sociolinguistic competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 15, 263–287.
- Mackey, A. & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Martínez-Flor, A. & Fukuya, Y. (2005). The effects of instruction on learners' production of appropriate and accurate suggestions. *System*, 33, 436–480.
- Masuoka, T. (1991) *Modality no Bunpo* [Grammar of Modality]. Tokyo, Japan: Kuroshio.
- Matsumoto, M. (2004). *OPI detain mita "noda" no siyooni tuite*. [Usages of "noda" based on OPI data]. *Ilbono kyoyuk yeongu* [Study of Japanese language education], 6, 25–40.



- Maynard, S. (1992). Cognitive and pragmatic messages of a syntactic choice: A case of the Japanese commentary predicate *n(o)da*. *TEXT: An Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 12, 563–613.
- Maynard, S. (1996). Contrastive rhetoric: A case of nominalization in Japanese and English discourse. *Language Sciences*, 18(3-4), 933–946.
- McGloin, N. (1980). Some observations concerning *no desu* expressions. *The Journal of the Association of Teachers of Japanese*, 15, 117–149.
- McGloin, N. (1989). Sentence-final expressions. In K. Suzuki (Ed.), *A students' guide to Japanese grammar* (pp. 89-94). Tokyo, Japan: Taishukan.
- Mey, J. L. (1993). *Pragmatics: An introduction* (Vol. 10). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Mey, J. L. (2001). *Pragmatics: An introduction*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Mizutani, N. (1989). *Hanashigotobano sidoyono mondaitento nichieihikaku* [Problems of teaching spoken language and comparison of English and Japanese]. In T. Hiramoto (Ed.), *Nihongo kyoikuno naiyoto hoho* [Content and method of Japanese language education] (pp. 95–111). Tokyo, Japan: Aruku.
- Morrow, C. K. (1995). The pragmatic effects of instruction on ESL learners' production of complaint and refusal strategies. State University of New York at Buffalo, New York.
- Narita, R. (2008). Pedagogical practice on Japanese narratives for learners of Japanese. *The Language Teacher*, 32(3), 3–8.
- Narita, R. (2012). The effects of pragmatic consciousness-raising activity on the development of pragmatic awareness and use of hearsay evidential markers for learners of Japanese as a foreign language. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 44, 1–29.
- Nguyen, T. T. M. (2013). Instructional effects on the acquisition of modifiers in constructive criticisms by EFL learners. *Language Awareness*, 22, 76–94.
- Nguyen, T., T. H. Pham & M. H. Pham (2012). The relative effects of explicit and implicit form-focused instruction on the development of L2 pragmatic competence. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 44, 416–434.
- Noda, H. (1997). *No da no kinoo* (Functions of *no da*). Tokyo, Japan: Kuroshio Publishers.
- Noda, M. & Jordan, E. (1987) *Japanese: The Spoken Language*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press
- Noda, H., Sakoda, K., Shibuya, K., & Kobayashi, N. (2001). *Nihongo gasyusyano bunpo syutoku* [Grammar acquisition of learners of Japanese]. Tokyo, Japan: Taishukan.

- Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instructions: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 50, 417–528.
- Okuda, Y. (1990). *Setsumei (sono 1): noda, nodearu, nodesu* [Explanation (1): noda, nodearu, nodesu]. In Gengo Kenkyukai (Ed.), *Kotoba-no kagaku 4* [Science of Language 4] (pp. 173–186), Tokyo, Japan: Mugi Publishers
- Olshtain, E., & Cohen, A. D. (1990). The learning of complex speech act behavior. *TESL Canada Journal*, 7, 45–65.
- Rose, K. R. (2005). On the effects of instruction in second language pragmatics. *System*, 33, 385–399.
- Rose, K., & Kasper, G. (Eds.) (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Rose, K. R., & Ng, C. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In G. Kasper, & K. Rose (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 145–170). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Safont, M. P. (2003). Instructional effects on the use of request acts modifications devices by EFL learners. In A. Martínez-Flor, E. Usó-Juan, & A. Fernández-Guerra (Eds.), *Pragmatic competence and foreign language teaching* (pp. 211–232). Castello, Spain: Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I.
- Sakai, M. (2008). *Eigobogowasyano “noda” no syudokukenkylu – OPI detano bunseki* [Study of "noda" acquisition of native speakers of English]. *Kenkyuronbunshy – kyouikukei/bunkeino kyusyuchiku kokuritudaigakukan ronbunshy*, [Collected research papers – education and social science among national universities in Kyushu area], 1, 1–14. Retrieved from <http://ir.lib.oita-u.ac.jp/dspace/bitstream/123456789/13167/1/2008.3.19sakai.pdf>
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11, 129–158.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1993). Awareness in second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 13, 206–226.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1994). Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. In J.H. Hulstijn & Richard W. Schmidt (Eds.), *AILA Review: Consciousness in second language learning: Conceptual methodological and practical issues in language learning and teaching*, 11, 11–26.

- Schmidt, R.W. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In Richard W. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* ( Technical Report #9) (pp. 1–63). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognitive and second language instruction* (pp. 3–32). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmidt, R. (2010). Attention, awareness, and individual differences in language learning. In W. M. Chan, S. Chi, K. N. Cin, J. Istanto, M. Nagami, J. W. Sew, T. Suthiwan, & I. Walker (Eds.), *Proceedings of CLaSIC 2010*, Singapore, December 2-4 (pp. 721–737). Singapore: National University of Singapore, Centre for Language Studies.
- Shibuya, R. (1996). *Mou hitutsuno genjitsuwo arawasu “no.”* [“No” presenting another reality]. *Nihongo kyouiku* [Japanese (language) education], *91*, 25–36.
- Taguchi, N. (2009). Pragmatic competence in Japanese as a second language: An introduction. In N. Taguchi. (Ed.). *Pragmatic competence* (pp. 1–18). New York, NY: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Taguchi, N. (2011). Teaching Pragmatics: trends and issues. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *31*, 289–310. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, *48*(1), 1–50.
- Takahashi, S. (2001). The role of input enhancement in developing interlanguage pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & K. Rose (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 171–199). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Takahashi, S. (2005). Noticing in task performance and learning outcomes: A qualitative analysis of instructional effects in interlanguage pragmatics. *System*, *33*, 437–461.
- Takatsu, T. (1991) A unified semantic analysis of the NO DA construction in Japanese. *The Journal of the Association of the Teachers of Japanese*, *25*(2), 167–176.
- Takimoto, M. (2008). The effects of deductive and inductive on the development of language learners’ pragmatic competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*, 369–386.
- Takimoto, M. (2009). Exploring the effects of input-based treatment and test on the development of learners’ pragmatic proficiency. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *41*, 1029–1046.
- Takimoto, M. (2012). Metapragmatic discussion in interlanguage pragmatics. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *44*, 1240–1253.

- Tanomura, T. (2002) *Gendai nihongo no bunpoo I: 'noda' no imi to yoohoo* [Modern Japanese grammar 1: The meaning and use of no da]. Osaka, Japan: Izumi Shoin.
- Tateyama, Y. (2009). Requesting in Japanese: The effect of instruction on JFL learners' pragmatic competence. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Pragmatic competence* (pp. 129-166). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Teramura, T. (1984) *Nihongo no shintakusu to imi II* [Japanese Syntax and Meaning 2] Tokyo, Japan: Kuroshio Shuppan.
- Tateyama, Y. (2001). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines. In K. R. Rose, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*, (pp. 200–222). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tateyama, Y., Kasper, G., Mui, L., Tay, H., & Thananart, O., (1997). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatics routines. In L. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning, monograph series*, vol. 8, pp. 163–178. Urbana-Champaign, IL: Division of English as an international language, University of Illinois, Urbana-Campaign.
- Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied linguistics*, 4(2), 91–112.
- Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. London, UK: Longman.
- 3A Network (2001). *Minna no Nihongo* [Japanese for everyone]. Tokyo, Japan: 3A Corporation.
- Tomomatsu et al. (2007). *Donnatoki doutsukau nihongo hyougen bunkei jiten*. [Japanese expression and sentence pattern dictionary] Tokyo, Japan: ALC.
- Tsujimura, N. (2007). *An introduction to Japanese linguistics*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
- Tsukahara, M. (1998). *Nohongo gakusyusyano kaiwaniokeru "noda/ndesu" no siyoojittaini kannsutu ichi koosatsu*. [Consideration about uses situation of "noda/ndesu" in conversation of learners of Japanese.] *Tsukuba Ooyoogengogaku Kenkyu* [Tsukuba journal of applied linguistics], 5, 71–84.
- Tsukuba Language Group. (1991). *Situational functional Japanese*. Tokyo, Japan: Bonjinsha Co., Ltd.
- VanPatten, B. (1996). *Input processing and grammar instruction in second language acquisition*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- VanPatten, B. (2007). Input processing in adult second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 115–135). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- VanPatten, B., & Cadierno, T. (1993). Input Processing and Second Language Acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(1), 45–57.
- VanPatten, B., & Oikkenon, S. (1996). Explanation versus structured input in processing instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 495–510.
- Verschueren, J. (1999). *Understanding pragmatics* (Vol. 31). London, UK: Arnold.
- Verschueren, J. (2000). Notes on the role of metapragmatic awareness in language use. *Pragmatics*, 10, 439–456.
- Wales, K. (1989). *A Dictionary of Stylistics*. London, UK: Longman.
- Wang, Y. (2007). A functional study of the final particle *mono* in Japanese conversational discourse. *The Linguistics Journal*, 12, 162–183. Retrieved from [http://www.linguistics-journal.com/April\\_2007\\_Vol2\\_Issue1.pdf](http://www.linguistics-journal.com/April_2007_Vol2_Issue1.pdf)
- Wildner-Bassett, M. (1994). Intercultural pragmatics and proficiency: 'Polite' noises for cultural appropriateness. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 32, 3–17.
- Wishnoff, J. (2000). Hedging your bets: L2 learners' acquisition of pragmatic devices in academic writing and computer-mediated discourse. *Second Language Studies: Working Papers of the Department of Second Language Studies, University of Hawai'i*, 19, 119–157.
- Yamamoto, Y. (2002). *Nihongo shidooni okeru kyoozai teijino mondai*—“*ndesu*”*wo megutte*. [One problem of presenting materials in Japanese language teaching—concerning “*ndesu*”]. *Gifu jyoosidaigaku kiyoo* [Bulletin of Gifu Women's University], 32, 59–66.
- Yoshida (1988). *Noda keishikino kouzou to hyougen kouka*. [Structure of the noda form and the effect of expression]. *Kokubun ronsou* [Collection of Japanese literature], Kobedaigaku bungakubu kokugo kokubun gakkai [Department of Literature [Japanese Language and Literature], Kobe University.
- Yoshida, S. (2000). Japanese literature departmental bulletin paper. Tenri University. *Nodano hyoogennaiyooto goseini tsuite: nodawa setsumeino jyodooshika*. [Expression and characteristics of noda: Is noda auxiliary verb for explanation?] Retrieved from <http://opac.tenri-u.ac.jp/opac/repository/metadata/3107>
- Yoshimi, D. (2001). Explicit instruction and JFL learners' use of interactional discourse markers. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 223–244). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Yoshimi, D. R. (2009). From a! to zo: Japanese pragmatics and its contribution to JSL/JFL pedagogy. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Pragmatic competence* (pp. 19–39). New York, NY: Mouton de Gruyter.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Zhao, H. (2008). *Chyugokujin nihongogakusyusyani okeru “noda,” “noka” nosyutoku – Siyoojyokento hishiyoojyookennwo megutte* [The acquisition of “noda” and “noka” in case of Chinese learners of Japanese – Focusing on the condition for use and nonuse]. *Nihongo kyoiku* [Japanese language education], 137, 11–20.

## Appendix A

### Online Survey

#### Biographical Information

\* 1. What is your last name?

\* 2. What is your first name?

\* 3. Are you male or female?

- Male  
 Female

\* 4. In what year were you born? (enter 4-digit birth year; for example, 1976)

\* 5. Where is your passport country (nationality)?

\* 6. Where were you born?

\* 7. Where did you grow up (since when)? Please specify.

\* 8. What is your major?

\* 9. What year are you in?

- 1) Freshman
- 2) Sophomore
- 3) Junior
- 4) Senior
- 5) Graduate student
- 6) N/A

\* 10. Please type in your email address.

### Language Learning Experience

\* 11. Which Japanese class are you currently in? (i.e., JAPN 204, "Section A" or "9am class")

\* 12. Please provide your current grade/percentage (If you don't know, please provide approximate one).

\* 13. Title of the textbook(s).



\* 14. Which Japanese class/classes have you taken (and where) including self-study? (i.e., JAPN 201 & 202 at U of I)

Japanese class 1	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 2	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 3	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 4	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 5	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 6	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 7	<input type="text"/>

\* 15. What grade (letter grade) did you receive? (If you don't remember, please provide approximate one).

Japanese class1	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class2	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class3	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class4	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class5	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class6	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class7	<input type="text"/>

\* 16. Title of the textbook(s) used.

Japanese class 1	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 2	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 3	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 4	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 5	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 6	<input type="text"/>
Japanese class 7	<input type="text"/>

\* 17. How long have you been studying Japanese (since when) in total?

\* 18. How proficient are you? (self evaluation)

	poor	fair	good	very good	excellent
Listening	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reading	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

\* 19. What is your first language?

\* 20. Experience in learning other foreign languages: please specify the languages.

Language 1	<input type="text"/>
Language 2	<input type="text"/>
Language 3	<input type="text"/>

\* 21. Experience in learning other foreign languages: How long (when)?

Language 1	<input type="text"/>
Language 2	<input type="text"/>
Language 3	<input type="text"/>

\* 22. Experience in learning other foreign languages: how proficient are you (overall evaluation)?

	poor	fair	good	very good	excellent
Language 1	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Language 2	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Language 3	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Cultural exposure

\* 23. Extent of contact with Japanese native speakers: do you have any contact with Japanese native speaker outside of class?

Yes

No

\* 24. Who are they (relationship/s)?

If you answered "No", please type in "N/A" here.

\* 25. If yes, how much? (hours/per week)

If no, please type in "0 hour/week"

\* 26. What kind of cultural contexts are you exposed to (i.e., drama, anime, movies, songs, books, newspapers, blogs, websites, etc.)? Please specify all the media you are exposed to.

#1

#2

#3

#4

#5

#6

#7

#8

#9

#10

\* 27. How much time are you exposed to each of them? (hours/ per week)

#1	<input type="text"/>
#2	<input type="text"/>
#3	<input type="text"/>
#4	<input type="text"/>
#5	<input type="text"/>
#6	<input type="text"/>
#7	<input type="text"/>
#8	<input type="text"/>
#9	<input type="text"/>
#10	<input type="text"/>

\* 28. Experience of visiting in Japan: Have you ever been to Japan (including traveling, visiting, living)?

Yes  
 No

\* 29. If yes, please specify your experience (i.e., location, purpose, etc.). If no, please type in "N/A" here.

\* 30. How long? (If this is not relevant to you, please type in "N/A").



**Thank you very much!!!! :-)**

## Appendix B

### Online Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest

---

\* 1. Today's date (i.e., 09/30/12)

\* 2. Your group number:

Group C

Group E

N/A

\* 3. Name (Last name, First name)

\* 4. Japanese class currently enrolled (i.e., JAPN202, 09:00 or N/A)

\* 5. Your e-mail address:

---

\* 6. You slipped on the ice and injured your arm. You went to the hospital and got a cast on your arm.  
Your doctor says, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 大丈夫、すぐに直(なお)ります。                      \*\* 直(なお)る : to be healed
- 2) 大丈夫、すぐに直(なお)るんです。
- 3) I don't know

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 7. You are watching a cooking program on TV, and the chef is making a pork cutlet. You say,  
"\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) これ見てたら、お腹(なか)すいてきた。
- 2) これ見てたら、お腹(なか)すいてきたんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 8. You see your classmate B-san holding an umbrella in the classroom. However, when you came to school, it wasn't raining. You ask, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 今日、雨ふりますか？
- 2) 今日、雨ふるんですか？
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 9. You are buying a present for your friend in a department store. When you are about to pay, you say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) あれ、クレジットカードがない。
- 2) あれ、クレジットカードがないんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 10. You have been studying in the library for five hours straight. You stretch your arms and neck, and say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) ああ、疲(つか)れたなあ。
- 2) ああ、疲(つか)れたんだなあ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 11. Your classmate is showing you her iPod, and you learn she has many Japanese movies in her iPod. You ask, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 日本の映画をよく見ますか？
- 2) 日本の映画をよく見るんですか？
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.



\* 12. You have not seen A-san for a while. You learn he is working four part-time jobs now and looking for another. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) Aさん、お金が必要(ひつよう)ですね。 \*\*必要(ひつよう): need
- 2) Aさん、お金が必要(ひつよう)なんですね。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 13. You want to invite your colleagues to your wedding ceremony. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

- 1) 実(じつ)は私、五月に結婚(けっこん)する。結婚式(けっこんしき)に来てくれたらうれしいなあ。
- 2) 実(じつ)は私、五月に結婚(けっこん)するんだ。結婚式(けっこんしき)に来てくれたらうれしいなあ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 14. You often meet your colleague A-san in the elevator. One day when you are waiting for an elevator, you see him walking toward the stairs. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) エレベーターには乗りませんか。
- 2) エレベーターには乗らないんですか。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 15. Your friend asks you to go shopping to buy Ishida-san's birthday present. Your friend finds a sweater and asks what you think. You reply, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) うん、石田さんに似合(にあ)うよ。      \*\*似合(にあ)う: to suit/ look good
- 2) うん、石田さんに似合(にあ)うんだよ。
- 3) I don't know

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 16. During a class, one of your classmates is recruiting volunteers to prepare for a party. Other classmates start to raise their hands. You also want to join in the preparation, so you raise your hand and say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 私もやるよ。
- 2) 私もやるんだよ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 17. Your friend gives you a souvenir from Okinawa. You ask, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 沖縄(おきなわ)に行った？
- 2) 沖縄(おきなわ)に行ったの？
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 18. You are talking about your girlfriend who once lived in Canada. You say, "16才から18才までカナダにいました。\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 高校はカナダでしたよ。
- 2) 高校はカナダだったんですよ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 19. You are playing dominoes. You accidentally touch some pieces and they start to fall over. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) あっ、たおれる。 \*\*たおれる: to fall/collapse
- 2) あっ、たおれるんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 20. You and your colleague are talking about Karaoke. You say, “高校の時は少なくとも(at least)一週間に三回ぐらい行ってたよ。\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) ほとんど毎日行ってた。      \*\*ほとんど: almost
- 2) ほとんど毎日行ってたんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 21. Because you have a doctor's appointment today, you are leaving your office earlier than usual. Your coworker says, “You are leaving early.” You respond, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) お先に失礼します。これから病院です。
- 2) お先に失礼します。これから病院なんです。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 22. You learn that A-san has three girlfriends." You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 3人もいますか。
- 2) 3人もいるんですか。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 23. You and your friend are shopping. You notice your friend putting a sweater in her shopping cart. However, when you two are waiting in the check-out line, you don't see the sweater in her cart. You ask her, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) セーター、買わない。
- 2) セーター、買わないの。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 24. You are watching the evening news and the newscaster is about to give the weather forecast. The newscaster says, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 明日の各地(かくち)の天気です。 \*\*各地(かくち): various places
- 2) 明日の各地(かくち)の天気なんです。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 25. Your class has just finished and you are outside waiting for your friend Yamada-san. Your classmate A-san asks why you are not leaving and you answer, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 友達を待っている。
- 2) 友達を待っているんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 26. Although your baseball team is not a really strong team, your team has been practicing very hard. You tell your parents, "\_\_\_\_\_."

\*\*優勝(ゆうしょう)する: to win the championship

- 1) 誰がなんと言っても(no matter what others say)、今年は私たちが優勝(ゆうしょう)する。
- 2) 誰がなんと言っても(no matter what others say)、今年は私たちが優勝(ゆうしょう)するんだ。
- 3) I don't know

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 27. You and your friend are having lunch together at a café. Because you have a class, you left early. After the class, you return to the cafe to get some coffee. You find your friend is still there with his lunch on the table. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) まだ食べている？
- 2) まだ食べているの？
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.



\* 28. You received a box of chocolates on Valentine's Day. Your colleague catches you finishing the box of chocolates in your office. You tell your colleague, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) チョコレート、好きですよ。
- 2) チョコレート、好きなんですよ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 29. Your colleague Kim-san invites you to his party and when you arrive, you see there are many kinds of food. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) これぜんぶキムさんが作りましたか。
- 2) これぜんぶキムさんが作ったんですか。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 30. You are taking a very difficult course, and you are falling behind in class. You decide to talk about this and get advice from your academic advisor. When you go to the advisor's office, you say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 先生、お話があります。今、ちょっとよろしいでしょうか。
- 2) 先生、お話があるんです。今、ちょっとよろしいでしょうか。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 31. You are in a department store, and you hear the following announcement: "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) ご案内(あんない)申(もう)上げます。 \*\*案内(あんない): information/guidance
- 2) ご案内(あんない)申(もう)上げるんです。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 32. You love to watch TV. However, you have an important exam soon. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 試験が終わるまで絶対(ぜったい)にテレビは見ないです。 \*\*絶対(ぜったい)に: absolutely, never
- 2) 試験が終わるまで絶対(ぜったい)にテレビは見ないんです。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 33. On the first day of Japanese class, you are introducing yourself to a classmate whom you have just met. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) (your name: Kim, for example) キムです。
- 2) (your name: Kim, for example) キムなんです。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 34. You are very worried about your little brother because he is always playing video games even though he has a final exam. You say to your brother, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 勉強もするよ。
- 2) 勉強もするんだよ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 35. When you leave to go grocery shopping, you see that your neighbor is taking stuff out of her apartment. You ask, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 引(ひ)っ越(こ)しますか。                      \*\*引(ひ)っ越(こ)す: to move (house)
- 2) 引(ひ)っ越(こ)すんですか。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 36. Your friend asks, "What day is it today?" and you answer, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 水曜日だよ。
- 2) 水曜日なんだよ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 37. You and your friend are at a party. You are expecting Yamada-san because he said he was excited about the party and he told you he would join you two, but he does not show up. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) きっと用事(ようじ)があるね。 \*\*きっと: I am sure, I bet
- 2) きっと用事(ようじ)があるんだね。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 38. You are giving a piano lesson to an elementary school boy, but he rarely practices at home. You say to the boy, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) これから毎日練習(れんしゅう)をしますよ。
- 2) これから毎日練習(れんしゅう)をするんですよ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 39. During a class, your teacher asks, "Who will write the answer on the blackboard?" but nobody raises their hand. After some silence, you volunteer by saying, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) 私が書きます。
- 2) 私が書くんです。
- 3) I don't know

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 40. It has been very cold in your room lately, and you think it is because the outside temperature has dropped. But today you notice a window in the living room is slightly open. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) だから寒かった。
- 2) だから寒かったんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 41. You just learned how to make a two-sided copy on the copy machine you have been using for several years. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_."

- 1) そうか。このボタンを押(お)せばいい。
- 2) そうか。このボタンを押(お)せばいいんだ。
- 3) I don't know.

Please explain why you chose your answer.

\* 42. Overall, when do you think Japanese "んです" is used?

Thank you very much!!!! :-)



## Appendix C

### Handout for the Pragmatically-oriented Group

#### 「～んです」

1. (Pair work) Recall a time when you learned/ have used the expression ～んです. What do you remember about ～んです? When do you think ～んです is used? Work with your partner and talk about ～んです.

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

2. (Writing) Please write your own hypothesis when you think ～んです is used.

---

---

---

---

---

---

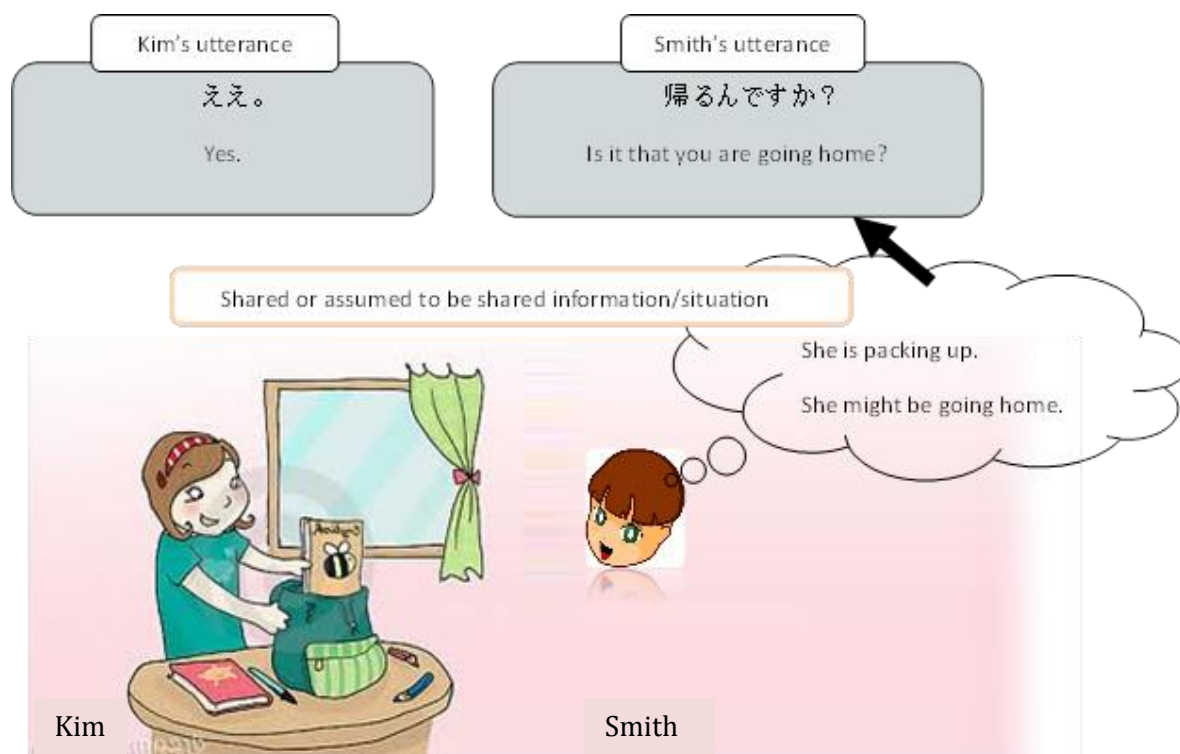
---

---

## Basic concept of 「～んです」

As we already know, both the use and non-use of 「～んです」 are grammatically correct (e.g., 帰るんですか vs. 帰りますか). However, when we use 「～んです」, it adds another layer of meaning or implication. By using 「～んです」, an implied meaning is added to the sentence, and depending on the situation or context, these implications could include an additional explanation, confirmation of something, excusing oneself, etc. Furthermore, depending on what is implied, the various functions (e.g., explanation, confirmation, etc.) of 「～んです」 are determined. So how can using 「～んです」 add meaning and implication to the speech? What does 「～んです」 imply?

The sentence using 「～んです」 relates to what the speaker is saying about a real situation that is either shared by or assumed to be shared by the hearer. The use of 「～んです」 implies the information/situation is shared or assumed to be shared. By implying that the information/situation is known by both the speaker and the hearer, the use of 「～んです」 involves the hearer in the conversation and can create a feeling of closeness, empathy, understanding, and warmth.<sup>1</sup> Accordingly, when you ask a question, the 「～んです」 sentence often implies ‘it seems...(shared information/situation)’ and then asks, “Is it that ...?” Also, when you make a statement, it often implies ‘I will tell you about this... (shared information/situation)’ and “It is that ....”



<sup>1</sup> The explanation is modified from Jorden and Noda (1987).

In the picture above, the shared information/situation is Kim-san packing her stuff in the library, and related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san asks the question, “Is it that you are going home?” 「帰るんですか。」 In other words, Smith-san’s 「帰るんですか。」 implies the shared situation (that Kim is packing) and prompts him to think ‘she is packing up. She might be going home.’ Then he asks her a question to confirm what he assumed based on what he observed. Therefore, the function of 「～んです」 in this example is to confirm the speaker’s assumption.

Now, let’s take a look at the following examples.

### Examples of 「～んです」

#### [Example 1]

Situation: Smith-san sees Yamada-san listening to music all the time.

Smith: 音楽が好きなんですか。

Yamada: ええ。

Similar to the previous example, in this example, the shared information/situation is that Yamada-san listens to music all the time, and related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san asks the question, “Is it that you like music?” 「音楽が好きなんですか。」 Thus, in this context, the 「～んです」 sentence implies the speaker wants confirmation (i.e., I assume this. Am I right?) based on what he observed, and the function of 「～んです」 in this context is to confirm an assumption.

#### [Example 2]

Situation: When Smith-san is working in his office, Lee-san approaches him.

Lee: あのう、すみませんが。

Smith: すみません。今ちよつといそがしいんです。

In this example, the shared information/situation is that Lee-san approaches him when he is working at his office, and related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san makes a statement, “It is that I am busy a little bit now.” 「今ちよつといそがしいんです。」 Thus, in this context, the speaker articulates the 「～んです」 sentence to imply, “It is that I am busy a little bit right now and it explains I have no time, or I can’t talk right now.” Thus, 「～んです」 can sometimes imply an excuse or an indirect/ soft refusal of an invitation. This another function of 「～んです」 .

### [Example 3]

Situation: Lopez-san met Yamada-san and notices she is going somewhere.

Lopez: どこに行くんですか。

Yamada: びょういんです。

Lopez: えっ、びょういんへ行くんですか。

In this example, the shared information/situation is that Yamada-san is going somewhere, and related to the shared information/situation, Lopez asks the question, “Is it where you are going?” 「どこに行くんですか。」 As we previously saw, what Lopez-san asks 「どこに行くんですか。」 is related to the shared information (i.e., that Yamada-san is going somewhere) and the sentence implies the speaker wants confirmation (i.e., I assume this. Am I right?) based on what he observed, and the function of 「～んです」 in this context is to confirm an assumption.

Then, Yamada-san answers, “to the hospital” 「びょういんです。」 and related to that statement as the shared information, Lopez-san makes the statement, “What? Are you going to the hospital?” 「えっ、びょういんへ行くんですか。」 Thus, in this context, the 「～んです」 sentence implies the speaker’s surprise (i.e., What? It is that you are going to the hospital? Are you all right?, for instance). The function of 「～んです」 in this context is to express emotion such as surprise and irritation.

### [Example 4]

Situation: Smith-san and Tanaka-san are having lunch and you notice she does not eat much.

Smith: あまり食べないんですね。

Tanaka: にくはあまり好きじゃないんですよ。

In this example, the shared information/situation is that Tanaka-san does not eat much, and related to the shared information/situation, Smith-san makes a comment, “It is that you are not eating much.” 「あまり食べないんですね。」 Thus, in this context, the 「～んです」 sentence implies the speaker wants to know why she is not eating much (i.e., You are not eating. Why?), and the function of 「～んです」 in this context is to invite an explanation(s).

In response to Smith-san’s comment, Tanaka-san says, “It is that I don’t like meat that much.” 「にくはあまり好きじゃないんですよ。」 In Tanaka-san’s utterance, related to the shared information/ situation (i.e., not eating), she makes a statement using 「～んです」, and by using this 「～んです」 sentence 「にくはあまり好きじゃないんですよ。」 the speaker implies “It is that I don’t like meat and it explains I don’t eat much.” The function of 「～んです」 in this context is to explain the reason(s).



Now, let's think about the following examples based on what we just learned (summarized below (1) through (4)). Please choose the correct form of the question in the box and provide the following information for each example.

(1) What is the shared information/situation?:

(2) Related to the shared information, are you asking a question, or making a statement?:

(3) What does 「～んです」 imply? :

(4) Function?:

1. You are hosting a party in your home. You notice that your friend stayed for only 15 minutes or so, and she now is about to leave. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) もう帰る?

2) もう帰るの?

2. Your friend invites you to a movie tonight. However, because you have a lot of homework to do, you can't join him. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) すみません。宿題があります。

2) すみません。宿題があるんです。

3. You meet Yamada-san at the mall and notice she is all dressed up. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

1) パーティーに行きますか?

2) パーティーに行くんですか?

4. When you are waiting for your friend in a café, your friend shows up soaking wet from head to toe. She says, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) かさ、忘れて来た。
- 2) かさ、忘れて来たんだ。

5. You left your cell phone at work. So later that night, you go back to the office. It was around 9:00 p.m. and you don't expect to see anyone there. However, you find your colleague is still in the office. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) まだいらっしゃいましたか？
- 2) まだいらっしゃったんですか？

6. You just learned that Tanaka-san never cooks a meal. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) えっ、ぜんぜんしませんか？
- 2) えっ、ぜんぜんしないんですか？

7. At a party, you see your friend B-san is not eating the cake. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) ケーキ、食べない？
- 2) ケーキ、食べないの？

8. You see your friend is taking out his backpack from a car. The car is brand new with a temporary plate. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

1) え、新しい車を買った？

2) え、新しい車を買ったの？



## Appendix D

### Handout for the Textbook-based Group

#### 「～んです」

1. (Pair work) Recall a time when you learned/ have used the expression ～んです. What do you remember about ～んです? When do you think ～んです is used? Work with your partner and talk about ～んです.

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

2. (Writing) Please write your own hypothesis when you think ～んです is used.

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

**Requesting and giving explanations or additional information,  
and creating harmony and shared atmosphere using ～んです**

The structure ～んです is frequently used in conversation instead of ～ます. The use of ～んです helps to establish or maintain rapport with the listener. By using ～んです, the speaker treats the addressee as a member of his/her own social group rather than as an outsider. On the other hand, ～ます merely conveys a fact as it is observed, so statement with ～ます sound more neutral or impersonal in tone. Japanese people often use ～んです to sound friendly and show concern for each other, as a way to be polite. The following example show how ～んです can be used.

Comment: あまり食べないんですね。 (*You don't eat much.*)

Response: にくはあまり好きじゃないんですよ。 (*I don't like meat very much.*)

Although ～んです is used in many different situations, there are a few situations where ～んです is most commonly used. First, ～んです is used to invite additional information or explanations beyond the simple answer. For example, 音楽が好きなんですか indicates that the speaker not only wants to know whether the addressee likes music but also wants to learn more about it. On the other hand, 音楽が好きですか merely asks the listener's likes and dislikes about music. This use of ～んです can express the speaker's interest to the addressee and friendliness. If overused, however, it sounds noseiy or imposing.

水本: あのシャツいいですね。

(*That shirt's nice.*)

田中: ええ、とても好きなんですが、ちょっと高いんですよ。

(*I really like it, but it's a bit expensive.*)

水本: そうですか。いくらぐらいですか。

(*Really? How much is it?*)

田中: セールで二万円です。

(*It's 20,000 yen on sale.*)

水本: 二万円！それは高いですね。

(*20,000 yen! That's really expensive.*)

- 「～んです」 can be also used to make an excuse or to explain the reasons for a situation without indicating it explicitly. In the following example, Mr. Kim gives a vague excuse when Ms. Smith approaches him.

スミス：あのう、すみませんが。

*(Excuse me.)*

キム：すみません。今ちょっといそがしいんです。

*(Sorry, I'm tied up now.)*

- The 「～んです」 structure is also used for confirming the speaker's assumption, or giving and requesting an explanation or reason. For example, if the speaker assumes that the listener is going home, he/she would likely use 「かえるんですか。」 instead of 「かえますか。」
- In addition, 「～んです」 can imply surprise or irritation. In the following example, Ms. Lopez expresses her surprise by using 「～んですか」 in her second utterance.

ロペス：どこに行くんですか。

*(Where are you going?)*

山田：びょういんです。

*(To the hospital.)*

ロペス：えっ、びょういんへ行くんですか。

*(What? Are you going to the hospital?)*

- The structure 「～のです・のだ」 is used in writing instead of 「～んです」. In casual speech, 「～んです」 becomes の in a question or statement. A male speaker may use 「～んだ・のだ」 in a statement as well.

ロペス：どこに行くの？

*(Where are you going?)*

山田：びょういんにいくの。

びょういんにいくんだ。

*(To the hospital.)*

- The question word どうして(why) is frequently used with ～んです, implying that an explanation is being asked for. The answer to such a question will also be given with ～ん



Now, let's think about the following examples. Which functions of ～んです are these? Please choose the correct form of the question in the box and provide the functions of ～んです for each example.

1. You are hosting a party in your home. You notice that your friend stayed for only 15 minutes or so, and she now is about to leave. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) もう帰る?
- 2) もう帰るの?

1. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Your friend invites you to a movie tonight. However, because you have a lot of homework to do, you can't join him. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) すみません。宿題があります。
- 2) すみません。宿題があるんです。

2. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

3. You meet Yamada-san at the mall and notice she is all dressed up. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) パーティーに行きますか?
- 2) パーティーに行くんですか?

3. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

4. When you are waiting for your friend in a café, your friend shows up soaking wet from head to toe. She says, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) かさ、忘れて来た。
- 2) かさ、忘れて来たんだ。

4. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

5. You left your cell phone at work. So later that night, you go back to the office. It was around 9:00 p.m. and you don't expect to see anyone there. However, you find your colleague is still in the office. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) まだいらっしゃいましたか？
- 2) まだいらっしゃったんですか？

5. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

6. You just learned that Tanaka-san never cooks a meal. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) えっ、ぜんぜんしませんか？
- 2) えっ、ぜんぜんしないんですか？

6. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

7. At a party, you see your friend B-san is not eating the cake. You ask,

“\_\_\_\_\_.”

- 1) ケーキ、食べない？
- 2) ケーキ、食べないの？

7. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_

8. You see your friend is taking out his backpack from a car. The car is brand new with a temporary plate. You ask, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

- 1) え、新しい車を買った？
- 2) え、新しい車を買ったの？

8. The function of ～んです: \_\_\_\_\_