University of Alberta

Effects of Instruction on Japanese Discourse Marker *N Desu*

by

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts
in
Japanese Language and Linguistics

Department of East Asian Studies

Spring 2012
Edmonton, Alberta

Abstract

The present study investigated the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and its variant *n desu ka*. The study employed a quasi-experimental design with pre-, post-, and delayed posttests. The explicit group received instruction including explanations about when the discourse markers are used or not used. The implicit group received instruction that lacked this explanation and requested participants to discover the pragmatic rules of the discourse markers. The results of a discourse completion posttest showed that both explicit and implicit instruction had an immediate positive effect on learning of the target pragmatic features. However, this positive effect did not last until the time of a delayed posttest. The study also found no significant differential effects between explicit and implicit instruction. In addition, the effects of instruction varied depending on the functions of the discourse markers.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my gratitude to all those who made it possible for me to complete this project. First of all, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to all the participants of my study and their instructors, Dr. Hiromi Aoki and Yukiko Isaka, who helped this project materialize.

My foremost gratitude and appreciation goes to my supervisor, Dr. Kaori Kabata, for her guidance and support throughout this project and my entire graduate career. Many thanks are due also to the other members of my committee, Dr. Mikael Adolphson, Dr. Jennifer Dailey-O'Cain, Dr. Geneviève Maheux-Pelletier, and Dr. Xiaoting Li, whose expertise and insightful comments were instrumental to the success of this thesis.

For editing assistance, I would like to express my sincere thanks to Joshua Gilliland for his excellent help in proofreading my draft with very short notice. I would also like to acknowledge Dr. Michael J. Mahometa for his assistance in statistical analysis of the study's data.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank to the Department of Asian Studies at the University of Texas at Austin for their constant, generous support. My warm thanks also go to my colleagues and friends for their stimulating encouragement, support, and friendships.

Finally, I am grateful to my family for their support throughout my years of graduate study, not to mention my dearest cat, who always makes me smile even at the hardest times of my life.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The present study investigated the effects of instruction on the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse marker *n desu* and its variants. The study has been motivated by the researcher's own previous observations over years of teaching Japanese. University-level students in the US and Canada often misuse or omit the Japanese discourse marker *n desu* and its variants in both spoken and written discourse. For example, a student visiting his or her professor's office should not use *n desu ka* in an utterance, such as '*isogashii n desu ka,*' when simply asking whether or not the professor is busy. Such a misuse may cause a miscommunication. *N desu ka* is used when the speaker makes an assumption based on information shared with the hearer, and wants to confirm the assumption. Thus, if the professor responded to the student's greeting without making eye contact—for instance while working at a computer—the student implies whether s/he is correct in assuming the professor is busy based on the fact that the professor did not make eye contact with the student. Accordingly, the professor might be offended, as the student sounds as if s/he is criticizing the professor's attitude.

This study is concerned with how second language learners develop such pragmatic knowledge. It does this by examining instructional effects on the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge of specific Japanese discourse markers, namely, *n desu* and *n desu ka*. The importance of developing pragmatic competence, defined by Thomas (1983, p. 92) as "the ability to used language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in

context," has been acknowledged in the field of second and foreign language (henceforth L2 and FL, respectively) education. Kasper and Schmidt (1996) strongly espoused the need for pragmatics instruction, arguing, "learners who are not instructed at all will have difficulty in acquiring appropriate language use patterns, especially in foreign language or classroom settings where opportunities for the full range of human interactions are limited" (p. 160).

An increased consensus on the need for instruction to develop interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) competence since the 1990s has led to an increasing amount of interventional classroom research on pragmatics teaching. However, there is still relatively little interventional research on pragmatic competence compared to the ample studies that have investigated the effects of instruction on grammatical competence. Some of the previous interventional pragmatic studies dealt with various speech acts, such as compliments (e.g., Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), requests (e.g., Takahashi, 2001), and refusals (e.g., Kondo, 2008). Other studies investigated the instructional effects on pragmatic features, such as Japanese discourse markers (Narita, 2008; Yoshimi, 2001), conversational implicatures (e.g., Kubota, 1995), and pragmatic routines (e.g., Tateyama, 2001). Some studies, such as Cohen & Ishihara (2005), examined the effects of explicit instruction while others, such as Fukuya & Zhang (2002), investigated implicit instruction. Yet others compared the effects of explicit and implicit instruction (e.g., Takimoto, 2009).

Jeon and Kaya's (2006) meta-analysis of studies on L2 pragmatic instruction suggests that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit

instruction. However, Jeon and Kaya noted that this should not be taken as definitive because the small sample size of the studies in their analysis is prone to error. Jeon and Kaya demonstrated that of the 34 relevant interventional L2 pragmatics studies published between 1984 and 2003, only 13 met their criteria for further meta-analysis, which included standards such as employing systematic quantitative data suitable for a meta-analysis. More recently, Takahashi (2010) reviewed 49 interventional L2 pragmatic studies published since the 1980s. Twenty-six of these studies exclusively focused on the effects of explicit intervention, two studies explored the effects of implicit intervention, and 21 compared explicit and implicit intervention. Ten of these studies employed a delayed posttest. Fourteen out of the 26 studies examining the effects of explicit intervention reported explicit instruction as effective. Out of 21 studies comparing explicit and implicit instruction, six studies demonstrated superior effects of explicit intervention, and four studies found that explicit and implicit instruction were equally effective. Caution is needed in arguing in favor of explicit intervention, as about half of these studies provided inconclusive or mixed results with respect to effects of pragmatic intervention. Takahashi pointed out that a vast majority of the studies that investigated the effects of explicit intervention provided learners with not only metapragmatic information but also various types of treatment tasks such as discussions and role-plays; therefore, it is almost impossible to detect which aspect of the treatment contributed to the positive effect of explicit instruction. Takahashi maintained that there was a fair possibility that the treatment involving multiple activities was more likely to promote the

learning of the target pragmatic feature than the treatment employing metapragmatic information alone. This suggests that studies that exclusively examine the role of metapragmatic information are needed.

Moreover, most of the previous interventional pragmatics studies dealt with English, and few studies (e.g., Yoshimi, 2001) have examined the effects of instruction on pragmatics competence in Japanese. Kasper and Roever (2005) claimed an urgent necessity for research on target languages other than English in order to better assess if and to what extent research findings on a particular target language can be generalized to other target languages. The present study attempts to fill this gap by examining the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on Japanese discourse markers.

Japanese discourse markers play a crucial role in allowing interlocutors to create harmonious interaction in the Japanese communication style, yet they are very challenging to acquire in a classroom setting. This study presumes that students' difficulty in learning the discourse marker *n desu* and its variants could be at least partially due to current approaches to teaching the pragmatics of these discourse markers. Introductory Japanese textbooks usually pay little attention to the discourse marker *n desu*. For example, *Nakama I* (Makino, Hatasa, & Hatasa, 1998), the textbook used for first-year Japanese courses at many post-secondary institutions in North America, introduces only some of the usages of *n desu* by presenting a brief description of *n desu*, example dialogues showing how to use it, and a brief mechanical drill. *N desu* and its variants do not have exact equivalents in the learners' L1 (at least English), making the pragmatics of these discourse

markers difficult to understand. And yet, as discussed above, these markers are important for learners to acquire, as a misuse may lead to a miscommunication.

Despite the difficulty in leaning pragmatic knowledge of the discourse marker *n desu* in the regular classroom setting, surprisingly few interventional studies dealt with this discourse marker. To the best of my knowledge, Narita's (2008) and Yoshimi's (2001) studies are the only published ones to have previously examined the effects of instruction on the discourse marker *n desu* and its variants. Using narrative tasks, both Narita and Yoshimi examined the effectiveness of explicit instruction and found positive effects of the instruction. Largely different from these studies with regards to research methods, the present study examined whether and how brief instruction could influence the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge of discourse markers used more frequently than those used in narratives. Particular interest was placed in a possible difference in effects between explicit instruction and implicit instruction, as opposed to the effects of explicit instruction examined in the studies of Narita (2008) and Yoshimi (2001).

The present study is expected to have significant implications for teaching and learning the pragmatics of the Japanese discourse markers. This study is especially important in that it investigated the effects of brief instruction on pragmatics, with the ultimate goal of finding an effective method of instruction that can be adopted in other Japanese classrooms. Even if the study cannot identify an effective method of instruction, its findings will certainly add valuable information to the field of research on the effects of instruction in foreign/second language pragmatics.

The structure of this thesis is as follows: Chapter 1 offers the background of the study, describes the problem, purpose, and rationale of the study. Chapter 2 presents a literature review on interventional studies of L2 pragmatic development, research on Japanese discourse marker *n desu,* and interventional studies of *n desu*. Chapter 3 states the research questions and outlines the methodology of the present study by describing the participants, treatment materials, data collection instruments, and method of data analysis. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 discusses the findings both quantitatively and qualitatively. Chapter 6 concludes the present study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The first part of this chapter is concerned with related theories in second language acquisition (SLA). It begins with a discussion of Gass's integrated model of SLA, followed by instructional types. It then discusses theoretical frameworks for communicative competence and pragmatic competence. The second half of the chapter is devoted to a review of previous interventional studies. I focus on those relevant and valuable to the formation of the research design employed in the present study.

Second Language Acquisition

The study of second language acquisition (SLA), which investigates the human ability to learn languages other than one's first language, began in the late 1960s as an emerging interdisciplinary field (Ortega, 2009). A great deal of research has been conducted on how languages are learned; yet all the details of this process are still far from being understood (De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005).

Gass (1988) proposed a model that accounts for the overall process of L2 acquisition. Gass's integrated model of SLA process identifies five stages that learners must go through to convert input to output: apperceived input, comprehended input, intake, integrated, and output. Apperceived input refers to a "bit of language which is noticed in some way by the learner because of some particular features" (Gass, 1988, p. 202). The input that is apperceived, or noticed, is further processed for possible subsequent analysis.

The next stage is termed as comprehended input—input that the learner has not only noticed but also has understood. Gass (1988) claimed, "comprehension represents a continuum of possibilities ranging from semantics to detailed structural analyses" (p. 204). Gass argued that the level of analysis that the learner achieves is an important factor that determines whether a specific instance of comprehended input converts into intake. For example, analysis made at the level of syntax is more useful for intake than analysis at the level of meaning. Once the language input has been noticed and understood, it can be moved to the next stage, called intake.

Intake refers to "the mental activity which mediates between input and grammars and is different from apperception or comprehension, as the latter two do not necessarily lead to grammar formation" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 486). Factors that are important to mediate comprehended input and intake are: knowledge of the L1 and L2; features that are part of universal knowledge and/or part of the learner's native language; and the quality of analysis as mentioned above. This stage involves hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing, hypothesis rejection, hypothesis modification, and hypothesis confirmation.

Gass (1988) claimed that there are four possible ways in which learners actually use language input: hypothesis confirmation/rejection, apparent nonuse, storage, and nonuse. If the learner has confirmed or rejected a hypothesis, it results in integration into the learner's interlanguage system. Apparent nonuse also results in integration. Apparent nonuse takes place when the information contained in the input is already a part of the learner's interlanguage system. In

that case, the additional input might be utilized for hypothesis reconfirmation or rule strengthening. Storage takes place in the integration component. In the case of storage, the learner cannot fully analyze the input and thus stores it so that it can later be available for integration. Nonuse takes place when the learner does not apperceive or comprehend the input, and consequently makes no use of it at all.

The final stage in Gass's (1988) model is output. The output component represents not only the product of the learner's language knowledge, but also an active part of the entire learning process. Gass emphasizes the important role of comprehensible output in testing hypotheses. This generates a feedback loop back into the intake component, where hypothesis formation and hypothesis testing take place. Output also plays a role in forcing an analysis of language at the level of syntax rather than at the level of meaning. This requires a feedback loop from output into comprehended input. Gass suggests that output does not represent one's grammar due to a number of factors. For example, confidence in one's ability to produce correct sentences in the target language may affect whether or not a learner produces them. Another factor that determines what output and how it will take place is "different degrees of strength of knowledge representation" (Gass, 1988, p. 211). For example, even if a learner knows how s/he should sound in speaking, it never comes out as expected.

Instructional Types

Second language acquisition (SLA) concerns all aspects of second language (L2) learning. SLA is subcategorized into naturalistic SLA and

instructed SLA. Naturalistic SLA occurs during learners' contact and interaction with the L2 in real-world settings, whereas instructed SLA takes place in the L2 classroom. Instructed SLA can be divided into meaning-focused instruction (MFI) and form-focused instruction (FFI) according to the direction of the learner's focal attention (Loewen, 2011).

MFI—also known as communication-focused instruction—predominantly emphasizes the communication of meaning in the L2 classroom. Examples of MFI include communicative language teaching, content-based instruction, immersion programs, and task-based language teaching. Empirical studies of the efficacy of strong forms of MFI show somewhat mixed results, and most researchers agree with Long (1988) that a focus on form is perhaps a key feature of second language instruction (De Graaff & Housen, 2009).

FFI, on the other hand, has been defined differently by different researchers. For example, Long (1988, 1991) has categorized form-focused instruction into Focus on Form (FonF) and Focus on FormS (FonFS). Long (1991) described FonFS as instruction "whose content and focus is a series of isolated linguistic forms (sound contrasts, lexical items, structures, speech acts, notions, etc.)" (p. 43). A traditional grammar instruction that teaches explicit rules about language is an example of FonFS. Long (1991) defined FonF as instruction that "overtly draw[s] students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication" (pp. 45-46) and has proposed brief teacher interruptions for providing corrective

feedback in response to student errors that are systematic, pervasive, and remediable.

Spada (1997) defined FFI as any pedagogical events that occur within meaning-focused approaches to second language instruction. In this sense, her definition of FFI is similar to Long's (1991) FonF. It, however, differs from FonF in that it includes instructional events focusing on language in either predetermined or spontaneous ways, while Long's definition of FonF is limited to spontaneous attention to form. Spada's definition of FFI excludes FonFS by requiring that the predetermined focus on language must occur within meaning-focused contexts.

A subsequent definition of FFI comes from Ellis (2001). Ellis's definition of FFI refers to "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form" (pp. 1-2). Ellis divided FFI into three categories: FonFS, incidental FonF, and planned FonF. FonFS involves a primary focus on form and intensive treatment of previously selected forms. Incidental FonF agrees with Long's (1991) definition of FonF, which consists of briefly directing learners' attention to form during communicative activities whose primary focus is on meaning. Ellis (2001) stated that planned FonF, like FonFS, "involves intensive attention to preselected forms," but differs from FonFS "with respect to where the primary focus of attention lies (on meaning rather than form)" (p. 16). Ellis's (2001) definition of FFI has been used in much research on FFI (Loewen, 2011).

FonF vs. FonFS Instruction

Some researchers (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998; Norris and Ortega, 2000) have proposed that explicitness of FonF approaches should be viewed as a continuum rather than a dichotomy. Various options in FonF instruction are available in a continuum between implicit and explicit. Some of the more explicit types of FonF, such as the consciousness-raising tasks employed in both explicit and implicit instruction in the present study, have been classified as both FonF and FonFS. Examples of more implicit types of FonF include input flood, input enhancement, and corrective recast. Input flood and input enhancement are proactive, whereas corrective recast is reactive. Input flood is a highly implicit option (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Input flood comprises input that has been enhanced by inclusion of ample examples of the target feature without any device to draw learners' attention to the feature (Ellis, 2001). A number of researchers (e.g., Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1988; Schmidt, 1990) have pointed out that learners must notice the target linguistic feature in the input for learning to take place. Input flood, however, may not effectively draw learners' attention to the target feature (White, 1998). Input enhancement (Sharwood Smith, 1993) is a less implicit instructional option than input flood. Examples of textual input enhancement that intends to attract learners' attention to the target feature are highlighting, color-coding, and font manipulation (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

One other implicit FonF option is recast feedback. Recasts refer to corrective feedback that reformulates all or part of a learner's erroneous utterance into a target-like one (Lyster, 1998a). Some studies have found that recasts have a

positive effect on acquisition (e.g., Morris 2002; Lyster and Izquierdo, 2009). On the other hand, some studies suggest that recasts might be ambiguous to learners because they may be perceived as conversational moves such as agreeing and confirmation of meaning rather than corrective feedback (Chaudron 1988; Lyster, 1998b; Truscott 1999).

An example of a more explicit type of FonF is metalinguistic feedback, defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance" (p. 47). Metalinguistic feedback may make an error more salient to the learner and thus may better elicit learner self-correction (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009).

Other examples of more explicit FonF activities include dictogloss, consciousness-raising tasks, structured input, and the combination of several types of FonF (Loewen, 2011). Dictogloss is a new method of dictation originally introduced by Wajnryb (1990). It consists of four procedures: preparation, dictation, reconstruction, and analysis and correction. At the preparation stage, learners discuss the topic, and then their teacher explains the task. In the next stage, the learners listen to a short text read by the teacher, taking notes of familiar words and phrases. The learners are then required to reconstruct the text in groups, "aiming at grammatical accuracy and textual cohesion but not at replicating the original text (Wajnryb, 1990, p. 5). At the final stage, the learners analyze various versions of the reconstructed texts and refine their own texts based on their shared analysis and discussion. Although dictogloss has been

classified as a FonF activity, its primary purpose is reconstructing a linguistic text, and it does not maintain an overall emphasis on meaning (Loewen, 2011). Williams (2005) stated that dictogloss stands "at the outer edge of the FonF continuum" (p. 678).

Consciousness-raising (a term first introduced by Sharwood Smith, 1981) tasks aim to draw learners' attention to the target linguistic feature through either an inductive or deductive approach (Ellis, 1997; Nunan, 2004). The inductive approach provides learners with L2 data and requires them to give an explicit description of a particular linguistic feature. The deductive approach gives learners an account of a particular linguistic feature and requires them to use that account to apply it to L2 data (Lee & Benati, 2009). While consciousness-raising tasks have been labeled as FonF, Williams (2005) noted that although the learners communicate with each other, they simply talk about the target linguistic feature. The content of consciousness-raising tasks is focused on the rules about the target linguistic feature themselves, therefore they do not appear to follow a strict definition of FonF (Loewen, 2011).

Structured input is another instructional activity that has been classified as both FonF and FonFS (Loewen, 2011). Structured input, termed by VanPatten (1993), "is input contained in activities in which learner attention is on meaning yet at the same time is manipulated in such a way as to force processing" (VanPatten, 2008, p. 54). Ellis (2001) views structured input as a type of FonFS because its goal is "to enable learners to give primary attention to form rather than meaning" (p. 19).

Pragmatic Competence and Communicative Competence

Because the present study concerns the development of pragmatics in language learning classrooms, it is important to discuss the notion of pragmatic competence and related theoretical frameworks.

Pragmatic competence has been receiving attention ever since the communicative approach to language teaching emerged in the 1970s and 1980s. Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is currently the most accepted instructional framework in foreign and second language programs. CLT's goal is to develop learners' communicative competence. The concept of 'communicative competence' was introduced by Hymes (1972) as a counter-concept to Chomsky's (1965) notion of 'competence,' which consists of grammatical competence alone and ignores contextual appropriateness. In contrast to Chomsky's narrow concept, communicative competence includes both tacit knowledge and the ability to use this underlying knowledge (Barron, 2003). Hymes (1972) defined communicative competence as the knowledge of rules of grammar as well as rules of language use appropriate to a particular social context. In other words, it is "the competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where and in what manner" (p. 277).

Canale and Swain (1980) expanded Hyme's notion of communicative competence into a widely-cited framework that includes grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Canale (1983) later refined the model by adding discourse competence. Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge of morphology, syntax, semantics, and

phonology. Strategic competence involves the knowledge of the verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be used to cope with communication breakdown. Discourse competence addresses the knowledge of attaining cohesion and coherence in spoken or written discourse. Pragmatic competence is represented as sociolinguistic competence: the knowledge of appropriate language use in different contexts.

Another influential model of communicative competence was proposed by Bachman (1990) and revised by Bachman and Palmer (1996). This model, called communicative language ability (CLA), comprises language competence, strategic competence, and psycho-physiological mechanisms. Language competence consists of organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Organizational knowledge is the knowledge of "how utterances or sentences and texts are organized," and includes grammatical knowledge (i.e., "how individual utterances or sentences are organized") and textual knowledge (i.e., "how utterances or sentences are organized to form texts"). Pragmatic knowledge comprises illocutionary knowledge (i.e., "how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of language users") and sociolinguistic knowledge (i.e., "how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the features of the language use setting") (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 68).

Another component of CLA is strategic competence, which consists of "a set of metacognitive processes, or strategies"—goal setting, assessment, and planning (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 70). Bachman (1990) distinguishes strategic competence from language competence and views it "more as general

ability" (p. 106), explaining that a higher-scoring test taker might use a different test-taking strategy than a lower-scoring one even though both might have the same level of language competence. One other component of CLA is psycho-physiological mechanisms, which is "the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon" (p. 67).

Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) initially proposed to divide pragmatics into pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic components. (Brown, 2011; Marmaridou, 2011). This distinction has been widely adopted in subsequent work in pragmatics (Marmaridou, 2011), and parallels the distinction between illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence in Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model (Rose, 1997). Pragmaliguistic competence refers to "the linguistic elements used in the different languages to perform speech acts" (Cenoz, p. 125). "Pragmalinguistic knowledge requires mappings of form, meaning, force, and context, which are sometimes obligatory (as in the case of prepackaged routines) and sometimes not (as in the case of indirectness)" (Kasper, 2001, p. 51). Sociopragmatic competence refers to knowledge of sociocultural factors such as social distance and social power between the interlocutors, their rights and obligations, degree of imposition, as well as the ability to assess situational context and speech intention (Leech, 1983).

Pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics are important notions in the area of cross-cultural pragmatics. In cross-cultural communication, when a non-native speaker fails to convey or understand a pragmatic intention in the target language

and culture, what Thomas (1983) termed 'cross-cultural pragmatic failure' occurs. Thomas (1983) divided pragmatic failure into 'pragmalinguistic failure' and 'sociopragmatic failure.' Whereas "pragmalinguistic failure results from a failure to identify or express meanings correctly, sociopragmatic failure results from a failure to identity some aspect of the situation correctly" (Riley, 2007). Thomas (1983) argued that pragmalinguistic failure is relatively easy to overcome because pragmalinguistic features can be taught as part of the grammar. Conversely, sociopragmatic failure is difficult to overcome, since it involves "cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior" (Thomas, 1983, p. 99).

Acquisition of sociopragmatic knowledge is irrelevant for the present study, as instructional targets did not include the variants of the target discourse markers used in casual conversation, which require knowledge of sociocultural factors such as social distance and social power between the interlocutors. With a focus on pragmalinguistic knowledge, the present study is concerned with the development of L2 pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka* in learners of Japanese.

Interventional Studies on Interlanguage Pragmatic Development

In the past two decades, the development of L2 or FL learners' pragmatic competence has been one of the major concerns of language educators in the field of SLA (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010). With a growing interest in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), defined by Kasper (1996) as the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge, a substantial

body of research has investigated the effects of instruction on L2 pragmatic development. Early studies conducted in the 1990s explored the teachability of pragmatics and showed that most aspects of L2 pragmatics are amenable to instruction. Having confirmed the advantages of instruction, later studies attempted to compare the effects of explicit and implicit intervention (Taguchi, 2011). These studies were largely motivated by SLA theories such as consciousness raising (Sharwood Smith, 1981), the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990 and elsewhere), and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995). Most interventional L2 pragmatics research to date has been generated by the Noticing Hypothesis (Taguchi, 2011).

The Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 2010) claims, "input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered. […] In the simplest terms, people learn about the things that they pay attention to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to" (p. 1). He proposed that there are different levels of awareness that need to be considered and refers to a low level of awareness as 'noticing' and a higher level of awareness as 'understanding.' Schmidt (1993) stated "noticing is related to rehearsal within working memory and the transfer of information to long-term memory, to intake, and to item learning. Understanding is related to the organization of material in long term memory, to restructuring, and to system learning" (p. 213).

Within the framework of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, a group of interventional studies have investigated the differential effects of the explicit and implicit teaching of L2 pragmatic rules, examining whether learning of the target

features can be facilitated by various instructional methods such as explicit metapragmatic information, consciousness raising tasks, and input enhancement.

The distinction between explicit and implicit instruction varies among researchers. In their meta-analysis of studies on the effects of grammar instruction, Norris and Ortega (2000) follow DeKeyser (1995) in defining explicit instruction as instructional treatments that involve rule explanation of the target features or directions asking learners to attend to particular forms and make their own metalinguistic generalizations. According to their definition, implicit instruction includes neither rule explanation nor instructions asking learners to discover metalinguistic rules by attending to specific forms. Norris and Ortega (2000) recommend that explicitness should be understood as a continuum, with instruction ranging from the more deductive to the more inductive. Within this continuum, Norris and Ortega's (2000) definition of explicit instruction would designate metalinguistic rule explanation at the highly explicit end, whereas instruction attempting to induce learners' own metalinguistic generalizations would fall toward the least explicit end. Contrary to Norris and Ortega's definition, the definition of explicit instruction given by some researchers (Kasper, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002; Rose 2005; Taguchi, 2011; Takahashi, 2010) does not include directions requesting learners to attend to particular forms. According to these definitions, explicit instruction provides metapragmatic information, while implicit instruction is characterized by the lack of such information. The definition of implicit instruction given by these researchers would place instruction asking learners to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations

toward the least implicit end of the explicit-implicit continuum. The present study adopted this definition.

The aforementioned Takahashi's (2010) review of interventional studies on L2 pragmatics has reported that 21 studies compared explicit and implicit intervention, and six studies found explicit intervention had superior effects over implicit. For example, Tateyama et al. (1997) investigated the relative effect of implicit and explicit instruction in pragmatic development of 15 beginning-level learners of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL), with the teaching targets being three different functions of the routine expression *sumimasen*—apologizing, expressing gratitude, and getting attention. The students in the explicit group, after discussing the different functions of *sumimasen*, were provided with an explicit metapragmatic explanation of *sumimasen* as well as handouts with examples and explanations of the differences in the use of *sumimasen* according to social context. They then watched short video clips that contained examples of the target features. The students in the implicit group simply watched short video clips twice without receiving any metapragmatic information on the target pragmatic routines. Each group received a single 25-minute instruction session. Results indicated that the explicit group outperformed the implicit group both in the role-plays and on the multiple-choice test.

In Tateyama et al. (1997), four of 15 students were non-native speakers of English. No information was provided regarding the distribution of these students in each group. In addition, results of the demographic questionnaire—such as the students' motivation and goals for studying Japanese—were not reported. It

would have been valuable to include individual differences such as ethnolinguistic background and motivation in analyzing the data. Furthermore, a statistical data analysis was not provided to help readers interpret the results of the study.

Unlike Tateyama et al. (1997), Kubota (1995), who investigated the effect of instruction on 'conversational implicature' (coined by Grice, 1975), found that implicit instruction was more effective than explicit instruction for 126 English as a foreign language students at a Japanese university. The study had a control group and two experimental groups, one group receiving explicit rule explanation regarding conversational implicatures and the others engaging in consciousness-raising tasks in which the participants had to find and reconfirm the rules of conversational implicatures in small groups. Each experimental group received a 20-minute treatment, while the control group received no treatment.

The 30-minute pretest and the posttest were given during the same two-hour class period, 20 minutes before and after the treatment, respectively. The delayed posttest was given one month after the treatment. In each test, the participants were asked to write the conversational implicature of ten sentence-composing test items and choose the most appropriate answer to six multiple-choice test items.

Results showed that the treatment groups significantly outperformed the control group. The results also found that the implicit (consciousness-raising tasks) group performed significantly better than the explicit group on the immediate posttest. Kubota noted that practice effects might have influenced the results, as both the pretest and posttest, which contained the same test items, were

given during the same class period. This is a serious threat to internal validity, as effective study design requires that the pretest and posttest be administered on separate days. The results also indicated that the instruction did not facilitate better long-term retention of the learned pragmatic knowledge. Kubota did not discuss possible causes of this result, as he explained, because it was not within the scope of his study to examine what types of instruction produce long-term effects. However, when investigating the effects of pragmatic intervention, durability of instructional effects should be a primary objective of the study.

Tateyama's (2001) study did not show the superiority of explicit instruction over implicit instruction found in Tateyama et al. (1997). Based on the findings from Tateyama et al. (1997), Tateyama (2001) conducted a follow-up study with 27 undergraduate beginning-level students of Japanese. Tateyama increased the instructional period to four treatments lasting about 20 minutes each over a period of eight weeks. Teaching targets were the same as those in Tateyama et al. (1997). Instruction for the explicit group included explicit metapragmatic explanations of the functions of *sumimasen* and other similar routine formulas, and the provision of handouts describing usage of the routine formulas. In the initial treatment, the students discussed various functions of *sumimasen.* The second and third treatments focused on the functions of *sumimasen* as an expression of apology and as that of gratitude, respectively, along with other similar routine formulas. During the fourth treatment, the teacher gave a brief summary of the correct use of *sumimasen* and other similar routine formulas and showed the video clips once to the students. The implicit group

simply watched the same video clips twice during each treatment.

Data were collected through multiple measures. They included: short role-plays; a multiple-choice test on the routine formulas; a background questionnaire; a narrative on what participants learned from the instruction; a questionnaire about the test that focused on self-assessment, difficulty of the items, and reasons for selecting particular responses; and an interview about their role-play performances, assessment of the instruction, and possible alternative approaches to teaching pragmatics.

The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Results indicated no significant differences between the explicit and implicit groups on the multiple-choice tests and role-plays, a result, which is inconsistent with the results of the study by Tateyama et al. (1997). In Tateyama et al.'s study, the explicit group outperformed the implicit group after receiving a single 25-minute treatment. Tateyama (2001) discussed factors that needed to be considered to interpret this inconsistency. One of the factors is motivation: the students who scored high in the role-plays and/or the multiple-choice tests expressed a strong interest in learning Japanese in the background questionnaire. Another possible factor that might have affected the results is opportunity for contact with speakers of Japanese outside of class. Half of the students in the implicit group indicated that they regularly spoke Japanese outside of class, while the students in the explicit group had hardly any such opportunity. One other factor that might have influenced the results is, as Tateyama claimed, the academic superiority of the implicit group over the explicit group. None of these reported differences,

however, were statistically analyzed. A statistical analysis of these differences might have been able to determine whether or not the differences affected the results. That the two groups were seemingly not comparable is a clear threat to internal validity. Her study reminds researchers of the value of collecting qualitative data to examine the homogeneity of the comparing groups.

Interventional studies have examined various speech acts such as apologies (Eslami et al., 2004; Olshtain &Cohen, 1990), compliments (Billmyer, 1990; Dastjerdi & Farshid, 2011; Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), and refusals (Félix-Brasdefer, 2008; Lingli & Wannaruk, 2010; Bacelar Da Silva, 2003). In addition, numerous studies have investigated the effect of instruction on learners' production of appropriate requests (Alcon, 2005; Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Fukuya & Zang, 2002; Martínez-Flor, 2008; Safont, 2003; Salazar, 2003; Takahashi, 2001; Takimoto, 2009; Tateyama, 2008). Other pragmatic features examined in the previous studies include conversational implicature (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995), discourse markers (Pellet, 2005; Yoshimi, 2001), pragmatic routines (Tateyama, 2001; Tateyama, et. al., 1997; Trosborg, 2003; Wildner-Bassett, 1994), and speech style (Ishida, 2009).

Takahashi (2001) investigated instructional effects in teaching indirect request strategies to 138 Japanese EFL learners, comparing four input conditions. In the explicit teaching group, participants received teacher-fronted explicit metapragmatic explanations of the target request forms, using handouts, along with Japanese-English translation exercises. Form-comparison group participants compared their own request expressions with those of native speakers of English

presented in role-play transcripts. Form-search group participants searched the target request forms in role-play transcripts. The participants in the meaning-focused group read role-play transcripts of native speakers and then answered written comprehension questions. Treatment sessions were provided over four weeks, with each session lasting about 90 minutes per week.

Discourse completion tests were chosen for a pretest and posttest. The results revealed that the learners in the explicit group performed better than those in the implicit groups in their use of the target request forms. The learners' use of the target request forms in the form-comparison group was limited, while that of the learners in the form search and meaning focused groups was none and virtually none, respectively. Takahashi stated that a relatively high degree of input enhancement, along with explicit metapramgatic information, was the most effective means of helping learners learn the target pragmatic features. Takahashi speculated that the learners in the explicit group might have benefited most from the instruction, as the teacher-fronted explicit explanation was the most common teaching style in Japan. It is interesting to note that the degree of input enhancement for the form-search group was designed to be higher than that for the meaning-search group. While this was intended to produce superior instructional effects of the form-search over meaning-search instruction, the results were just the opposite. Takahashi, however, did not discuss this. It is also interesting to note that a retrospective questionnaire indicated that the learners in the explicit group considerably increased their confidence in using the target

forms in the posttest; the meaning-focused group increased their confidence to some extent, while the other two groups' confidence did not increase.

Previous Research on Japanese Discourse Markers *N Desu*

Japanese linguists and grammarians have demonstrated that *n desu* has different forms depending on the context in which it is used. *N desu* and *no desu* are used in formal conversations while *no* and *n da* are used in casual conversations. *No da* is used both in casual conversations and informal writing, and *no de aru* is used in formal writing. Kuno (1973) stated, "in Japanese, the peculiar patterns *no da* (informal), *no desu* (polite), and *no de aru* (formal writing)… are extensively used in connected discourse" (p. 223). Similarly, Maynard (1997) reported that in her previous study 25.48 percent sentence-final expressions in Japanese casual conversations were marked by *n(o) da* nominal predicates. Despite the importance the *no da* nominal predicates, they are challenging for learners of Japanese, who tend to omit or overuse them. Accordingly, it is valuable to look at the origin, functions, and usages of the *no da* nominal predicates. For this purpose, I mainly refer to studies by Horie (1998, 2008), McGloin (1980), and Noda (1997). First, I review Horie's (1998, 2008) studies on grammaticalization of the nominalizer *no*. I then summarize McGloin's (1980) and Noda's (1997) studies, as well as several previous studies focusing on the functions and usages of *no da*.

According to Horie (1998), the *no da* construction is grammaticalized from the sentential nominalizer *no*. *No* has three syntactic functions: genitive

marker, pronoun, and sentential nominalizer, as shown below. Interlinear glosses are mine (See Appendix A for abbreviations).

(1) *Haruko-**no*** *tebukuro* (genitive marker)

Haruko-GEN gloves

'Haruko's gloves'

(2) *Haruko-**no*** (pronoun)

Haruko-PRON

'Haruko's'

(3) *Haruko-ga* *sono* *tebukuro-o* *kat-ta* ***no*** (sentential nominalizer)

Haruko-SUB the gloves-OBJ buy-PAST N

'that Haruko bought the gloves'

(Horie, 1998, p. 170)

Horie (2008) discussed grammaticalization of overt sentential nominalizers and stated that, unlike *koto* or *wake*, the nominalizer *no* does not originate from lexical nouns. He listed various grammatical usages that the *no* nominalizer has developed: complimentizer; cleft construction marker; marker of internally headed relative clauses; conjunction; modal and aspectual constructions marker; and sentence final particle. Below are examples for each grammatical use provided by Horie (2008, p. 174-176). The Hepburn system has been adopted for the examples originally romanized in the Yale system. Interlinear glosses are mine.

(i) Complimentizer.

[*Kodomo-ga* *nai-te* *i-ru* ***no***]-*o* *mi-ta.*

child-SUB cry-GER exist-PRES N-OBJ see-PAST

'I saw a child crying.'

(ii) Cleft construction marker. *No* is the only nominalizer that has developed into a cleft construction marker. Horie (1998) noted that *no* in cleft constructions can encode thing, place, abstract matter, person, time, and so on.

[*Souru-ni toochakushi-ta*] ***no***-*wa sanji deshi-ta*.

Seoul-LOC arrive-PAST N-TOP three o'clock COP-PAST

'It was at three o'clock that I arrived in Seoul.'

(iii) Marker of internally headed relative clauses. As can be seen below, in this type of relative clause the clause head occurs internally. Horie pointed out that another nominalizer, *tokoro*, can also serve as a marker of internally headed relative clauses with a limited number of verbs.

[*Doroboo-ga heya-kara dete ki-ta tokoro/****no***]-*o tsukamae-ta.*

thief-SUB room-from leave-GER come-PAST N-OBJ catch-PAST

'I caught a thief who/as he was coming out of the room.'

(iv) Conjunction. The nominalizer *no* has developed into a conjunction by combining with various particles such as *de*, *ni*, *ga*, and *o*, as in *no de*, *no ni*, *no ga*, and *no o*. Horie (1998) noted that *no de* and *no ni* are already grammaticalized and have been listed as single words in dictionaries. In contrast, *no ga* and *no o* have not yet been fully grammaticalized, and thus do not appear in dictionaries as single words.

(v) Marker of modal and aspectual constructions. Like other nominalizers, the nominalizer *no* has developed into this type of marker by combining with the

copula *da.* The following example illustrates the shortened form of the *no da* construction.

A, *ame-ga* *hut-ta* ***n*** ***da***.

oh, rain-SUB fall-PAST N COP

'[I infer from some evidence that] it rained.' (lit. 'It is that it rained.')

(vi) Sentence final particle. Like other nominalizers (*mono, koto, wake*), *no* has developed use as a sentence final particle. Discourse determines its pragmatic meaning, as seen in the following example.

Hayaku *iku* ***no***.

early/quickly leave N

'Will you leave early?' (lit. Is it that you leave early?) or 'Please leave soon.' (lit. It is that you leave quickly.)

With ample use of examples, Noda (1997) discussed functions of *no da*. Noda's (1997) study was selected for the review for its comprehensiveness. The following summarizes highlights from her book.

Noda classified the functions of *no da* into *Taiji-teki no da* ('situation-oriented' *no da*) and *Taijin-teki no da* ('listener-oriented' *no da*). She noted that *Taiji-teki no da* is used when the speaker communicates information, which comes into the speaker's consciousness at the time of speech, as in (4) below. The speaker has never had a thought that Yamada must have some errands to do before s/he utters it. Noda pointed out that *Taiji-teki no da* does not necessarily require a listener. In contrast, *Taijin-teki no da* does require a listener. It is used when the speaker expresses information that has been in his/her thoughts, as in (5)

below. In (5), the speaker knows at the time of speech that he will have some errands to do on the following day. *N da* in (4) and (5) is a variant of *no da* used in casual conversations. The following excerpts originally written in Japanese in Noda (1997) have been romanized. Translations and interlinear glosses are mine, unless otherwise noted.

(4) *Yamada-san ga konai naa.*
Yamada-Mr. SUB hasn't come FP
Kitto yooji ga aru ***n da***.
surely errands SUB have N COP
'Yamada hasn't come. It is that he must have some errands to do.'

(Noda, 1997, p. 67)

(5) *Boku, ashita wa konai yo. Yooji ga aru* ***n da***.
I tomorrow TOP not coming FP errands SUB have N COP
'I'm not coming tomorrow. It is that I'll have some errands to do.'

(Noda, 1997, p. 67)

Noda examined how *no da* is used in questions. She exemplifies how *no da* is used in different types of questions as in examples (6), (7), and (8) below. Example (6) is a yes-no question that can be answered with either an affirmative response or negative response. (7) is an example of alternative questions, which ask the addressee to choose an answer. Example (8) is a so-called wh-question. Wh-questions contain words such as *what*, *when*, *where*, *who*, and so on. *No* in (6) is used for questions in casual conversations, and *n desu ka* and *n desu* are used for questions in formal conversations.

(6) *Asagohan tabeta* ***no****?*

breakfast have eaten N

'You have eaten your breakfast?'

(7) *Sore hometeru* ***n desu ka****, kenashiteiru* ***n desu ka****?*

that praise-DUR N COP QP put-DUR N COP QP

'Does that mean you are praising me or putting me down?'

(8) *Dare da?! Anta dare na* ***n desu****?!*

who COP you who ATN N COP

'Who?! You, who are you?!'

(Noda, 1997, p. 119)

Noda noted that *no da* is not used when the speaker simply asks the hearer for information, as in (9-a). In contrast, *no da* is used in (9-b) when the speaker sees the addressee's stern facial expression and wants to confirm if s/he is nervous.

(9) a. *Kinchooshiteru?*

nervous

'Are you nervous?'

b. *Kinchooshiteru* ***no****?*

nervous N

'You are nervous?'

(Noda, 1997, p. 121)

Noda stated that (10-a) is awkward because questions asking for reasons require *no da*, as in (10-b), except when a question has an accusing tone.

(10) a. ***Jaa dooshite uruguai made tsuiteiku?***

so why Uruguay to follow

b. *Jaa dooshite uruguai made tsuiteiku* ***no****?*

so why Uruguay to follow N

'So, why are you going to follow him to Uruguay?'

(Noda, 1997, p. 124)

Noda pointed out that *no da* cannot be used when the addressee has to make a decision in order to reply to the question, as in example (11).

(11) *Nonde mimasu ka? Boku wa sekaijuu no sake*

drink:GER try QP I TOP world GEN alcohol

no nakade maotaishu ga ichiban suki desu ne.

GEN among mao-tai SUB best like COP FP

'Do you want to try it? I like mao-tai best among the all alcohol in the world.'

Jaa, sore o itadakimasu.

well then it OBJ have

'Well then, I'll have it.'

Noda also examined how *no da* is used in responses. In example (12), Midori looks slumped, and the questioner asks if it is because she is exhausted. Midori denies his assumption, using *no* (used in casual conversations). Noda noted that a response without *no* simply negates his assumption and sounds awkward.

(12) *Kaji ga owatteshimau to, Midori wa nantonaku guttaritoshita*

fire SUB put out after Midori TOP sort of slumped

mitai datta. Karada no chikara o nuite, bonyarito

looked COP body GEN strength OBJ loosen up idly

tooku no sora o nagameteita.

distant GEN sky OBJ was gazing

'After the fire was put out, Midori looked sort of slumped. With her body loosened up, she was gazing idly the distant sky.'

Soshite, hotondo kuchi o kikanakatta.

and hardly mouth OBJ did not use

'And, she hardly spoke.'

*"Tuskareta **no**?" to boku wa kiita.*

tired N QUOT I TOP asked

'Is it that you are tired? I asked.'

*"Soojanai **no** yo" to Midori wa itta.*

that is not N FP QUOT Midori TOP said

'That's not the case, Midori said.'

*"Hisashiburini chikara o nuiteita dake na **no**."*

after a long interval strength OBJ letting down just ATN N

For the first time in a long while, I was just relaxing.'

(Noda, 1997, p. 136)

Example (13) illustrates when *no da* can be used in responses when it is not required. Noda explained that *no da* can be used when the speaker not only replies to a question but also wants to keep the floor.

(13) Agawa: *Tai tte ie ba, nandemo karai kedo,*

Thailand QUOT speak CON everything spicy hot CONJ

Mukooda-san, karai mono osuki desu ka?

Mukooda-Ms. spicy hot food like COP QP

'Speaking of Thailand, everything is spicy hot. Do you like spicy food, Ms. Mukooda?'

Mukooda: *Suki na* ***n*** ***desu***. *Demo, Tai-ryoori no karasa ttara,*

like ATN N COP but Thai food GEN heat QUOT

nihon no shakudo de wa hakaremasen ne.

Japan GEN standards with TOP cannot be measured FP

'I do love spicy food. But, when it comes to heat, Thai food cannot be measured with Japanese standards.'

(Noda, 1997, p. 142)

As can be seen in example (14), *no da* is not required when the speaker simply replies to a question by giving information that the addressee wants to obtain.

(14) Murakami: *Furiikusu tte eega mita?*

Freaks QUOT movie have you seen

'Have you seen a movie named Freaks?'

Yoshimoto: *Iya, mitenai.*

no haven't seen

'No, I haven't.'

(Noda, 1997, p. 134)

McGloin (1980) pointed out that previous studies do not fully account for usages of *no da* and attempted to re-examine various functions of *no da* through the use of discourse analysis approach.

First, McGloin examined the usages of *no da* in simple question-and-answer situations. She demonstrated both situations in which the use of *n desu* (a variant of *no da*) is appropriate and those in which it is not. In example (15), the speaker wants to know whether or not the addressee bought a ring without making any assumption. Thus, the use of *n desu* is inappropriate in (15). Conversely, the speaker in (16) assumes that the addressee bought a ring and wants to find out if it was in Paris that she bought it. McGloin noted that the question without *n desu* in (16Q-b) is awkward. She pointed out that the use of *n desu* in the affirmative answer to (16Q), found in (16A-a), is odd, whereas the negative answer in (16A-b) requires *n desu*. McGloin explained that the use of *n desu* in the affirmative answer is inappropriate because it confirms the speaker's assumption, but not in the negative answer because it denies the speaker's assumption. It is noteworthy that McGloin pointed out that the use of *n desu* in the affirmative answer to (16Q) sounds fine if the sentence final particle *yo* is added as in *ee Pari de katta n desu yo* 'yes, I bought it in Paris.' She explained that this type of *n desu yo* "seems to add emphasis of speaker's emotional involvement" (p. 123). The Hepburn system has been adopted for those examples (15 through 22) originally romanized in the Yale system. Interlinear glosses are mine.

(15) Q: *Pari de yubiwa o kaimashita ka?*

Paris in ring OBJ bought QP

'Did you buy a ring in Paris?'

A: (a) *Hai, kaimashita*.

yes bought

'Yes, I did.'

(b) *Iie, (Pari de wa) kaimasen deshita.*

no Paris in TOP buy-NEG-PAST

'No, I didn't (buy one in Paris).'

(McGloin, 1980, p. 121-122)

(16) Q: *Kono yubiwa, Pari de*

this ring Paris in

- (a) *katta* ***n desu ka****?*
  bought N COP QP
- (b) ?*kaimashita ka?*
  bought QP

'Did you buy this ring in Paris?'

A: (a) *Hai, Pari de*

yes Paris in

- *kaimashita.*
  bought
- **katta* ***n desu****.*
  bought N COP

'Yes, I bought it in Paris.'

(b) *Iie, Pari de*

no Paris in

- *katta* ***n ja arimasen****.*
  bought N COP-NEG
- **kaimasen deshita.*
  buy-NEG-PAST

'No, I didn't buy it in Paris.'

(McGloin, 1980, p. 121)

As noted by McGloin above, *n desu* cannot be used in situations in which information is simply sought or given. In contrast, *n desu* is used when the speaker assumes a certain event or situation is true and wants to know if his or her assumption is correct. McGloin noted that the speaker makes assumption based on information available to him or her. Information can be through what s/he observes. For example, *ame ga hutte iru n desu ka?* 'am I correct in assuming that it's raining?' (p. 124) is uttered when the speaker assumes that it is raining because s/he has seen someone carrying a wet umbrella. *N desu* is also used when both the speaker and the addressee recognize that a certain event or situation is true. For example, when talking to someone who is reading, the speaker has to use *n desu*, as in *nani o yonde iru n desu ka?* 'what are you reading?' (p. 126). The speaker can also make an assumption based on general knowledge or what s/he deduces from previous discourse.

In addition to the usages of *n desu* in simple question-and-answer situations, McGloin examined the usages of 'informative' *n desu.* This type of *n desu* is used in declarative sentences when the speaker wants to emphasize certain information and present it as if it is known to the addressee. McGloin stated that *n desu* can be used in *kara* (because) clauses when the main clauses express subjective statements such as request, strong intention, and suggestion, as in example (17). However, *n desu* cannot be used in *kara* clauses when the main clauses illustrate past events, as in (18).

(17) *Kinoo Ginza e itta* { ***n desu*** *kara,* / N COP because / *kara,* / because } *kyoo wa uchi ni inasai.*

yesterday Ginza to went { N COP because / because } today TOP home at stay

'Because you/we went to Ginza yesterday, stay home today.'

(18) *Kinoo Ginza e itta* { ****n desu*** *kara*, / N COP because / *kara* / because } *totemo tsukaremashita.*

yesterday Ginza to went { N COP because / very got tired

'Because I went to Ginza yesterday, I got very tired.'

(McGloin, 1980, p. 132-133)

McGloin discussed reasons why the speaker would want to emphasize his or her statement by using *n desu*. Most common is to explain or to give further information to make the speaker's meaning clear, as in (19), in which the *n desu* sentence explains why the speaker gave the preceding utterance.

(19) *Komatta na. Nijuppun ijoo kakaru to tokkyuu*

trouble FP twenty minutes more than takes if super express train

ni norenaku nacchau ***n da*** *yo.*

LOC ride-NEG PERF N COP FP

I am in trouble. (It is that) if it takes more than twenty minutes, I will miss the super express train.

(McGloin, 1980, p. 134)

As pointed out by McGloin, *n desu* is also used when the speaker wants to convince or persuade the hearer of his/her view or statement, or merely to emphasize the statement. In example (20), the speaker is trying to convince the addressee of the truth of his statement: that there is an inn called Yoshinoya in Ueno.

(20) *Ueno ni "Yosinoya" tte yuu ryokan ga aru daroo?*
Ueno in Yoshinoya QUOT called inn SUB exist COP
Iya, aru ***n da*** *yo*.
well exist N COP FP
'You know there is an inn called Yoshinoya in Ueno, don't you. Well, there is.'

(McGloin, 1980, p. 136)

One other reason for use of *n desu* is that the speaker wants to use *n desu* to emphasize his/her statement when s/he expresses contrasting propositions, expectations, opinions, and so on. Example (21) illustrates contrary propositions.

(21) *(Watasi) Gooriteki ja nai desu yo. Siri-metsuretsu na* ***n desu***.
I rational am-NEG COP FP inconsistent ATN N COP
'I am not rational. I am inconsistent.'

(McGloin, 1980, p. 135)

One last reason why the speaker would want to emphasize his or her statement by using *n desu* is that 'informative' *n desu* gives background information. This type of *n desu* sentence functions as an introductory statement for more important information that follows the *n desu* sentence. This *n desu* is

often used in *keredo/kedo/ga* 'but' subordinate clauses as in example (22). The information that the speaker's tooth has started hurting again is more important than the information that h/she just came back from her dentist. For this reason, *kedo* without *n desu* is awkward.

(22) *Ima haisha ni itte kita* { ***n da*** *kedo* / N COP but / *****kedo / but } *mata itamidashita wa.*

now dentist to went came again started hurting FP

I just came from the dentist, but it has started to hurt again.

(McGloin, 1980, p. 138)

Based on several studies, including Makino and Hatasa (1998), Makino and Tsutsui (1989), McGloin (1980, 1989), and Noda (1997), the usages and functions of *n desu* and *n desu ka* (both of which are used in formal conversations) can be summarized as below. The present study focused on the first three functions of these discourse markers because they are used in the simple question-and-answer exchanges between interlocutors that usually constitute conversation. The following examples, translations, and interlinear gloss are mine, unless otherwise noted.

(i) Asking for explanation;

N desu ka is used to ask for an explanation regarding information shared by both the speaker and hearer. In example (23), the speaker observes that the hearer, who loves alcohol, is not drinking at a party, and asks him why he is not drinking.

(23) A: *Dooshite nomanai* ***n*** ***desu*** ***ka***?

why do not drink N COP QP

'Why are you not drinking?'

(ii) Confirming assumption;

N desu ka is used when the speaker makes an assumption based on information shared with the hearer, and seeks to confirm the assumption. Example (24) is a conversation at a restaurant. Speaker A observes Speaker B frowning after taking a bite of her food. A thinks it is because the food tastes bad, and seeks to confirm her assumption with B. B confirms the assumption.

(24) A: *Oishikunai* ***n*** ***desu*** ***ka****?*

is not tasty N COP QP

'It doesn't taste good?'

B: *Ee.*

yes (you're right)

'You're right.'

(iii) Explaining information;

N desu is used to give an explanation regarding information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer. In example (25), Speaker A observes Speaker B studying and asks him what he is studying. Speaker B explains that he is studying Japanese.

(25) A: *Nani o benkyooshiteiru* ***n*** ***desu*** ***ka****?*

what OBJ be studying N COP QP

'What are you studying?'

B: *Nihongo o benkyooshiteiru* ***n desu***.

Japanese OBJ be studying N COP

'I'm studying Japanese.'

(iv) Giving background information;

N desu is used to give background information necessary for more important information that will be introduced in the following sentences. In example (26), a student of Japanese tells her teacher that she has a terrible stomachache. This *n desu* sentence presents background information for the student's request to go home.

(26) S: *Sensei, onaka ga totemo itai* ***n desu***.

professor stomach SUB very painful N COP

Uchi e kaettemo ii desu ka.

home LOC go home all right COP QP

'Professor, I have a terrible stomachache. May I go home?'

T: *Ii desu yo. Ki o tsukete ne.*

all right COP FP care OBJ take FP

'Sure. Take care.'

(v) Emphasizing statement;

N desu is used when the speaker wants to emphasize his or her statement. In example (27), former Japanese Prime Minister Fukuda, who was offended by a criticism from a newspaper reporter at a press conference, responds that he is able to view himself objectively, and in that, he is different from the reporter. The translation and interlinear gloss are mine.

(27) *Watakushi wa jibunjishin no koto wa kyakkantekini*

I TOP myself GEN matter TOP objectively

miru koto ga dekiru ***n desu****. Anata to wa chigau* ***n desu****.*

see N SUB can N COP you from TOP different N COP

'I can see myself objectively. I am different from you.'

(Retrieved from

http://www.kantei.go.jp/jp/hukudaspeech/2008/09/01kaiken.html)

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the present study addresses instructional effects on the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *desu ka.* In the existing literature, Narita's (2008) and Yoshimi's (2001) studies are the only ones that have examined the effects of instruction on the discourse marker *n desu* and its variants.

Using storytelling tasks, Yoshimi (2001) examined the effectiveness of explicit instruction on JFL learners' pragmatic development in the use of Japanese discourse markers *n desu, n desu kedo,* and *n desu ne.* The instruction included handouts providing metapragmatic information on the functions and sample uses of the target items; native speaker models to show examples of the target items; sessions for students to plan their storytelling; in-class practice of their planned storytelling; and corrective feedback on the storytelling. The participants were undergraduate students of third-year Japanese who had spent between five and eight years studying Japanese. One intact class (n = 5) was assigned as the experimental group, and volunteers (n = 12) from two classes as the control group. The explicit instruction component was about one-third of the 80 instructional

hours for the course, much longer than treatment lengths in many other interventional studies on L2 pragmatic development. In the posttest storytelling task, the students in the experimental group considerably increased their frequency of use of the discourse markers—with reasonably good accuracy—while those in the control group who received no explicit instruction produced no discourse markers. The results demonstrated an overall positive effect of explicit instruction on the students' use of the target discourse markers. However, the students demonstrated little progress in their ability to manage interactional and organizational demands pertinent to the internal structuring of the telling, specifically, using discourse markers to effectively mark shifts in scene or perspective, or to build up or highlight the point of the story. Yoshimi pointed out that this result was attributed to possible inadequacies in instruction. She also pointed out that the student's storytelling ability in his/her native language and the student's fluency in Japanese might also be relevant to the results. If the students' fluency and general ability to tell good stories regardless of language had been measured and included in data analysis, the results would have been more informative. It should be pointed out that Yoshimi's (2001) study was conducted under a special condition. First, the participants had studied Japanese for an average of five to eight years, including study in high school and extracurricular Japanese school. Apparently, the proficiency of the four students in the experimental group was higher than that of the average third-year Japanese student at a university. Second, about one-third of the 80 instructional hours for the course was spent teaching the target Japanese discourse markers to the

students in the experimental group. In general, institutional constraints do not permit research to take up so much instructional time. For these reasons, it would be difficult to examine the effects of the instruction used in Yoshimi's (2001) study by replicating this study in other universities.

Targeting similar pragmatic features as those in Yoshimi's (2001) study, Narita (2008) examined Japanese learners' pragmatic development in the use of Japanese discourse markers *n desu, n desu kedo, n desu ne,* and *n desu yo.* The participants were nine intermediate-level learners of Japanese studying at a Japanese university. The learners received explicit instruction on the target discourse markers consisting of five 50-minute class periods over three weeks. The first instructional session started with watching two video clips of narratives: one performed by native speakers of Japanese and the other by non-native speakers of Japanese. This was followed by a discussion of the differences in use of the discourse markers in these narratives. Following this, using a transcribed narrative of native speakers of Japanese, an explicit metapragmatic explanation of the target discourse markers was provided. Subsequent sessions included such activities as performing narratives on various topics, teacher feedback, and inviting native Japanese speakers to a session so the students could observe their use of the discourse markers in their narratives. The instruction was enhanced by, among other factors, the learners' interaction with native speakers of Japanese and with their homestay family members outside of the classroom.

The results of the pretest/posttest narrative tasks show that the frequency of the learners' use of the target discourse markers increased considerably in the

posttest, although, as Narita pointed out, some uses of the markers were inappropriate, such as overuse and inappropriate intonation of the markers. The increase of the appropriate use of the markers from the pretest to the posttest was statistically significant in all the target discourse markers except *n desu*. Narita noted that a positive outcome of the instruction was that most learners found an increase in their awareness of the usage of discourse markers. It should be pointed out that there is a fair possibility that the learners' interaction with native speakers of Japanese outside of the classroom, including their homestay family members, may have influenced the results of the study. This suggests that the reported positive effects of the explicit instruction may need to be interpreted with caution. It is an interesting finding that instruction had positive effects on all the target discourse markers except *n desu*, as these other discourse markers contain sentence-final particles—challenging features—whereas *n desu* does not. However, Narita did not discuss any possible reasons for the observed difference between *n desu* and the other target discourse markers.

It should be pointed out that although Narita's (2008) and Yoshimi's (2001) studies addressed Japanese discourse markers similar to those investigated in the present study, differences in research design between these studies and the present study, such as sample size and duration of instruction, do exist. The details are described in the following chapter.

Chapter 3: Research Methods

This chapter discusses the research methods utilized in the present study. The chapter begins with a discussion of a pilot study, on which the present study was based, and its relevance to the present study. It then describes the methods and procedures used for collecting and analyzing the data for the present study, presenting the research questions for the study, an overview of the study design, descriptions of the study participants and procedures, and treatment materials and data collection instruments used. A description of the data analysis method used ends the chapter.

Pilot Study

Prior to the present study, a pilot study was conducted with 37 participants of two third-year Japanese classes at the University of Alberta. The purpose of the pilot study was to examine the methods and research design to be used in the present study—in particular to check the appropriateness of the instructional materials and procedures utilized in the pretests and posttests. The study employed a quasi-experimental pre-post test design with two treatment groups and no control group. The types of instruction employed were inspired by the findings from Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of 49 interventional studies. Their meta-analysis indicated that explicit instruction providing explicit information on grammatical forms has a greater benefit than implicit instruction. It also showed that instruction presenting explicit information on grammatical forms in meaningful communication contexts benefits learners slightly more than instruction introducing information on the forms alone. The pilot study

investigated if the latter finding is replicable for pragmatic instruction on the Japanese discourse marker *n desu.* Therefore, it examined the effects of two types of explicit instruction: One type presented explicit information on pragmatics in meaningful communication contexts; and the other type introduced information on pragmatics alone.

The discourse markers included in the study were *n desu ka, n desu yo,* and *n desu kedo.* The functions of these discourse markers represent four of the five functions summarized in Chapter 2. Two of the four functions ('asking for explanation' and 'confirming assumption') concern *n desu ka* while the other two ('explaining information' and 'giving background information') relate to *n desu yo* and *n desu kedo*, respectively. The latter two do not always require the sentence final particles *yo* and *kedo.* The teaching objectives were the pragmalinguistic rules of the discourse markers *n desu ka, n desu yo,* and *n desu kedo,* including the rules for deciding when to use and not to use these discourse markers.

The study investigated the following research questions: 1) Do students have more difficulty with certain variants of *n desu* than others?; and 2) Are there differential effects between the two types of explicit instruction? Written discourse completion tests (WDCTs) were used in the pretest and posttest. The results showed that participants in both groups made a large improvement in their scores on an immediate posttest after receiving ten minutes of instruction. Students' long-term retention of the knowledge was unclear, however, because a delayed posttest was not given. There were no differential effects between the two

types of explicit instruction. With regard to differential learnability of the pragmatic rules of different discourse markers, the rules to determine when *to* use the target discourse markers were more difficult for students to learn than the rules to decide when *not* to use them. The results also found that one of the functions of *n desu ka* ('confirming assumption') was more difficult for the students to learn when to use than the other function of *n desu ka* ('asking for explanation'), as well as those of *n desu yo* ('explaining information') and *n desu kedo* ('giving background information').

Based on these findings, some adjustments and changes were made to the design of the present study. First, instead of examining two types of explicit instruction as in the pilot study, the present study examined the instructional effects of both explicit and implicit instruction. The pilot study found positive effects of the two types of explicit instruction. Yet this was only a part of the results of Norris and Ortega (2000). In order to investigate if the findings of Norris and Ortega (2000) are replicable for pragmatic instruction, it was also necessary to examine whether effectiveness of type of L2 pragmatic instruction is consistent with the results of Norris and Ortega (2000). The results showed an advantage for explicit over implicit instruction: however, Norris and Ortega acknowledged a possible bias due to the types of measurement instruments employed in 49 studies in related research. Approximately 90% of these studies used testing instruments (e.g., meta-linguistic judgments) that "seem to favor more explicit types of treatments by calling on explicit memory-based performance" (p. 483).

Second, the present study employed a delayed posttest, as no claim about clear effectiveness of instruction can be made without one. This is backed up by Jeon and Kaya (2006), who pointed to infrequent use of delayed posttest in interventional L2 pragmatic research as a methodological weakness.

Third, the present study chose second-year students of Japanese for its participants based on its originally planned research design. Although the study had to exclude a control group due to having much fewer participants in the pretest than expected, the original research design called for three classes at the same level: one control group and two treatment groups. There are only two classes of third-year Japanese and one class of fourth-year Japanese. First-year students of Japanese were not chosen because they have not yet reached a sufficient level of proficiency for this study. It was believed that second-year students of Japanese are competent to understand information written in Japanese both in instruction and pre-, post-, and delayed posttests, as well as to effectively demonstrate their learning outcomes in these assessment tests.

Forth, the instructional targets of the present study excluded pragmatic information of when to use and not use the variants, *n desu yo* and *n desu kedo*, which were used in the pilot study. Participants in the present study were second-year students of Japanese, whereas the pilot study's participants were in third-year Japanese. Compared with the third-year students, who had ample exposure to sentence final particles such as *yo* and *kedo* through a textbook with abundant conversational texts, the second-year students did not have much prior exposure to sentence final particles. Therefore the discourse markers *n desu yo* and *n desu*

kedo were determined to be too challenging, and were excluded from the present study. The discourse marker *n desu ka* was kept because the sentence final particle *ka*, which is used as a question marker, was introduced at the beginning of the first-year Japanese textbook, and thus was non-challenging for the students. Along with *n desu ka*, the present study also included *n desu*. The rationale for the inclusion of these discourse markers is discussed below in this chapter. The functions of the discourse markers targeted in the present study represent three of the five functions summarized in Chapter 2.

Another adjustment was the use of handouts in place of overhead sheets. In designing the present study, both advantages and disadvantages of handouts and overhead sheets were considered. For example, on the one hand, students are familiar with teacher-fronted instruction using instructional aids such as overhead sheets, but not with teaching themselves through reading handouts. On the other hand, handouts would allow the participants to process information at their own pace, and thus learn the teaching targets more effectively within the given time period, but the use of overhead sheets cannot cater to individual differences in the speed of processing information. The use of handouts was required because there were much fewer participants in the pretest than expected. Consequently, this study could not include a control group, and one of the three classes was divided into two groups. Handouts gave the ability to provide these two groups with two different types of instruction.

A final change was a modification to a written discourse completion test (WDCT). This modified WDCT was used in the pre-, post-, and delayed posttests.

It asked the participants to fill in the blank instead of writing what they would say in each given situation. Therefore, words and particles relevant to each question were provided. In addition, both polite and plain forms of the target words were listed in parentheses and provided as hints—e.g., *kimasu* (polite form), *kuru* (plain form): 'to come.' The participants' task was to fill the blanks with the polite forms in the hints when they thought given situations do not require discourse markers. When they thought the situations did require discourse markers, they had to add *n desu* immediately after the plain forms of the given hints.

The Present Study

Research questions and hypotheses. The previous studies in the literature and the findings of the pilot study suggest that more interventional pragmatic research is needed in order to determine the differential effects between explicit and implicit instruction. Accordingly, the present study investigated effects of explicit instruction and implicit instruction rather than replicate the pilot study, which examined two types of explicit instruction. Specifically, the study addressed the following research questions:

1. Does instruction benefit the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*?
2. Is explicit instruction more effective than implicit instruction?
3. Does instruction have differential effects on different functions of the discourse markers?

Concerning these research questions, the following hypotheses were postulated:

H1. Instruction would facilitate the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge of the target Japanese discourse markers.

H2. Explicit instruction would be more effective than implicit instruction.

H3. Instruction would have differential effects on different functions of the target discourse markers.

H1 is postulated based on the results of the pilot study and aforementioned previous interventional studies both in grammar and pragmatics (e.g., Norris & Ortega, 2000; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2010), showing advantages of instruction on target features. H2 is formed on the basis of the results of Norris and Ortega's (2000) and Jeon and Kaya's (2006) synthesis research on the effects of instruction on grammar and pragmatics, respectively. Norris and Ortega (2000) pointed out a bias in these studies towards the types of outcome measures that favor explicit knowledge, which warrants caution in reaching a firm conclusion about the superiority of explicit instruction. Moreover, Jeon and Kaya (2006) noted that because of the small sample size of studies included in their meta-analysis, the superior effects of explicit pragmatic instruction should not be interpreted as definitive. Furthermore, Takahashi's (2010) synthesis research on L2 pragmatic intervention reported that only six out of 21 studies comparing explicit and implicit instruction showed a clear superiority of explicit instruction over implicit. The results reported in these studies led to the formation of H2.

Regarding H3, based on the results of the pilot study, it is hypothesized that the pragmatic rules determining when not to use the target discourse markers

would be easily learned, with the exception of one rule that is not introduced in the learners' first-year Japanese textbook. Conversely, it is hypothesized that the rules deciding when to use the discourse markers would be somewhat difficult even though they are introduced in the students' textbook.

Design. In order to investigate the positive effects of instruction on the Japanese discourse marker *n desu* and its variant, this study employed a quasi-experimental pre-, post-, delayed posttest design with two treatment groups: the explicit and the implicit. The explicit group received instruction including explicit explanations about when the target discourse markers are used or not used. The implicit group received instruction that lacked this explicit explanation and requested participants to discover the pragmatic rules regarding the discourse markers on their own. Although according to DeKeyser (1995), the latter group is characterized as explicit, it was referred to as implicit based on the definition used in several synthesis studies on interventional pragmatics reseach carried out by reserachers such as Rose (2005) and Takahashi (2010), which states that the main feature differentiating explicit instruction from implicit instruction is "the provision of metapragmatic information designed to make the target features more salient" (Rose, 2005, p. 393). Similar to the present study, Kubota's (1995) and Rose and Ng Kwai-fun's (2001) studies employed two types of instruction: instruction providing metapragmatic explanation and instruction lacking such explanation and directing learners to discover the pragmatic rules on their own. In the above synthesis studies, the former was defined as explicit instruction and the latter as implicit instruction.

The present study adopted FonFS instruction and theories of Schmidt's (1990 and elsewhere) Noticing Hypothesis and consciousness raising proposed by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) as its theoretical framework. Schmidt (2001) suggests that intentionally focused attention is necessary for successful language learning, as many features of L2 input are likely to be infrequent or non-salient, and proposed that "attention must be directed to whatever evidence is relevant for a particular learning domain […]. In order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both the linguistic form of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated" (p. 30).

One approach to drawing learners' attention to the target feature is consciousness raising. Sharwood Smith (1981) introduced the term 'consciousness raising' in reaction to the hypothesis that comprehensible input is all that is needed for L2 acquisition. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) define consciousness raising as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" (p. 274), and have argued that consciousness raising facilitates L2 learning. Based on these premises, the following approaches were implemented. Explicit group instruction in this study followed a deductive consciousness-raising approach, while implicit group instruction used an inductive consciousness-raising approach.

To evaluate students' prior knowledge of the target discourse markers, the pretest was administered one week prior to the instructional treatment. The posttest was given immediately after the treatment. The delayed posttest was conducted 12 days after the treatment. The timing of the tests was determined based on the results of Norris and Ortega's (2000) meta-analysis of interventional

studies, as well as the limited availability of the participants. According to Norris and Ortega's report, immediate posttests were usually administered immediately or soon after the completion of the instructional treatments. The timing of delayed posttests ranged from 0.71 to 24 weeks after instruction, with the most frequently adopted interval being one week.

Participants. The participants for this study were students of Japanese enrolled in three sections of JAPAN 202 (second-year Japanese II) at the University of Alberta in the winter term of 2010. Students enrolled in JAPAN 202 were chosen because they have reached a level sufficient for learning the teaching targets. The teaching targets involve the plain form of adjectives and verbs, which are introduced in JAPAN 102 (first-year Japanese II). Although these plain forms are very challenging to learn, students enrolled in JAPAN 202 were expected to be familiar with them.

There were 66 initial participants. However, 26 participants did not complete all phases of the experiment (the pretest, treatment, posttest, and delayed posttest), and therefore were excluded from the study. Data from the remaining 40 students (21 in the explicit group and 19 in the implicit group) were subjected to further analyses.

The participants' identities remained confidential. They were asked to indicate their birth dates and the last four digits of their phone numbers in each of the three tests in order to group together the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest for each participant for assessment of immediate and delayed effects of instruction while keeping the participants anonymous.

The pretest included a brief demographic questionnaire for participants, with questions on topics such as motivation for learning Japanese and opportunity for contact with Japanese speakers outside of class. Table 1 presents a summary of the questionnaire.

Table 1

Summary of Participants' Backgrounds

First language				
Ex	English: 9	Non-English: 12		
Im	English: 11	Non-English: 8		
Time spent in Japan				
Ex	none: 16	2~4 weeks: 4	1 year: 1	
Im	none: 12	2~4 weeks: 7		
Opportunities for speaking Japanese with native Japanese speakers outside of class				
Ex	almost never: 6	not very often: 12	somewhat often: 3	very often: 0
Im	almost never: 11	not very often: 7	somewhat often: 1	very often: 0
Opportunities for watching *anime*, dramas, or movies in Japanese				
Ex	almost never: 2	not very often: 5	somewhat often: 4	very often: 10
Im	almost never: 2	not very often: 6	somewhat often: 9	very often: 2
Desire to learn as much Japanese as possible				
Ex	yes: 19	neither yes nor no: 2	no: 0	
Im	yes: 16	neither yes nor no: 3	no: 0	

Note. Ex: explicit group; Im: implicit group

Procedures. On the day of the pretest administration, a research assistant visited the classes, informed the students about the study, and recruited participants by having them read and sign consent forms (Appendix B). Participation was entirely voluntary, and all of the procedures, including administration of the pretest, took place at the end of the class period.

One week after the pretest, the researcher visited the classes and provided

instruction on the target discourse markers. The first two classes were randomly assigned to the explicit group and the implicit group, respectively. In an attempt to assign a roughly equal number of participants to both groups, the third class was divided into two groups.

The explicit group received instruction through handouts, including explicit metapragmatic explanations of the target discourse markers and example situations in which the target discourse marker is used or not used along with expected utterances. The implicit group was given the same instruction that the explicit group received, except that handouts for this group replaced explanations for when each of the target discourse markers is used or not used with directions encouraging the students to discover these pragmatic rules on their own. The instruction took approximately ten minutes per group. This instructional length was shorter than 15 minutes, the most frequently adopted treatment period among the 75 relevant interventional studies initially examined by Norris and Ortega (2000). However, based on the findings of the above-discussed pilot study, ten minutes was determined to be sufficient for the participants to read and process the information in the handouts. The posttest was conducted immediately following the instruction.

As part of the instructional procedure, in order to examine exclusively the effects of the instruction, the handouts used for the instruction were collected right after the treatment to prevent further learning of the target features. In addition, the instructors were asked to refrain from providing the learners with explanations of the target features or opportunities to practice the target features

until the delayed posttest had been administered.

Twelve days later, the research assistants visited the classes and administered the delayed posttest. Each of the three tests were given at the end of the class period, which allowed the participants to spend more than the ten minutes of the allocated completion time if necessary. In fact, however, ten minutes seemed to be enough for the participants to complete the test.

Instructional targets. The present study targeted the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*. *N desu ka* and *n desu* are used in questions and answers to questions, respectively. They were selected because a conversation usually consists of question-and-answer exchanges between interlocutors. Accordingly, they are essential for learners of Japanese. It is worth noting that in specific contexts, *n desu ka* and *n desu* are expected, while in other contexts use of these discourse markers sounds very unnatural. For this reason, instructional targets also included the pragmatic rules to determine when these discourse markers are not used. There were six rules in all: three regarding when to use *n desu ka* and *n desu* and three regarding when not to use them.

Below are the instructional targets for the discourse markers used in this study. Descriptions of when these discourse markers are used or not used are based on the literature review discussed in Chapter 2.

N desu ka is used when: 1) the speaker asks for an explanation about information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer; and 2) the speaker makes an assumption based on information shared with the listener, and wants to confirm the assumption.

N desu ka is not used when the speaker is simply asking the hearer for information. The speaker makes no assumption.

N desu is used when the speaker is explaining information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer.

N desu is not used when: 1) the speaker confirms the assumption made by the hearer; and 2) speaker is simply giving information to the hearer.

Instructional treatment. Handouts were used to provide instruction on the target discourse markers to the participants. They were double-sided single sheets, color-coded to distinguish between the two types of instruction.

For the group receiving explicit instruction, the handout explained when each of the target discourse markers is used or not used. For example, it explained that *n desu ka* is used when the speaker asks for an explanation about information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer. The actual instruction is given in Appendix C. The handout also contained three example situations in which the target discourse marker is used or not used. Each situation was accompanied by an expected utterance.

The handout for the implicit instruction group also included example situations in which the target discourse marker is used or not used, plus expected utterances for each of these situations. However, it did not contain explanations such as the one mentioned above. Instead, the handout directed students to discover pragmatic rules for when to use or not use the target discourse markers on their own by examining the example situations and expected utterances for each of these situations (See Appendix D).

Assessment instruments. Written discourse completion tests (WDCTs) were employed to assess the effects of the instruction. WDCTs have been widely used in L2 pragmatic research to assess learners' speech acts, such as refusal and requesting (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1982; House & Kasper, 1987; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). In WDCTs participants are asked to read a written description of various situations and write what they would say in each of the situations. An alternate assessment is a multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT), which requires participants to read a written situation description and choose what they think would be best to say from a list of options. In order to study participants' prior knowledge of when to use and not use the target discourse markers, one of the options in each list needs to be a target discourse marker. However, it was crucial that the pretest did not give them a clue as to what it is examining before the treatment. Furthermore, it was difficult to include distractors (incorrect answer options), which, as Haladyna (1999) suggests, must be plausible to participants. For these reasons, it was decided that a WDCT was more suitable to assess the teaching targets in this study.

The pretest (Appendix E), posttest, and delayed posttest (Appendix F) contained the same 18 questions: three questions for each of the six situations when the target discourse marker is used or not used. The functions or Categories, of the discourse marker in these six situations were categorized as given in Table 2. In order to prevent a practice effect, the order of the questions was altered between the pretest and the post- and delayed posttests, and different situations were used in the instruction and the tests. In addition, it was ensured that

situations and the expected utterance accompanying each situation were not those introduced in the textbooks the students had used. Also, in an effort to obtain the same difficulty level for the each utterance, it was ensured that the handouts and tests did not include grammar or vocabulary unfamiliar to the students.

Table 2

Functions of the Discourse Markers

Category	Function of the Discourse Marker for each Category
Category 1	*N desu ka* is USED when the speaker asks for an explanation about information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer.
Category 2	*N desu ka* is USED when the speaker makes an assumption based on information shared with the listener, and wants to confirm the assumption.
Category 3	*N desu ka* is NOT used when the speaker is simply asking the hearer for information. The speaker makes no assumption.
Category 4	*N desu* is USED when the speaker is explaining information that is usually heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer.
Category 5	*N desu* is NOT used when the speaker confirms the assumption made by the hearer.
Category 6	*N desu* is NOT used when the speaker is simply giving information to the hearer.

Data analysis. In order to examine the beneficial effects of instruction provided in this study, the data collected from the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were quantitatively analyzed. Responses were considered correct if a discourse marker was used—that is, attached to the plain form of a provided target word—when expected, or not used—that is, the utterance used the polite

form of the target word—when not expected. Some of these responses contained additional information. Inaccuracy of this information was ignored. The maximum possible score on the tests was 18, with 1 point for each correct response and 0 points for each incorrect response.

First, test scores were computed, and descriptive statistics were calculated for the mean scores on the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. The pretest mean scores for both groups were analyzed using an independent-samples *t*-test in order to examine initial differences between the groups of students' knowledge of the target of instruction prior to the instructional treatment.

In order to answer research questions, a three-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to examine if there were any statistically significant differences between the explicit group and implicit group (Instruction); between the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores (Time); among the six functions of the discourse markers (Category); as well as whether there were any interactions among these three factors. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0 was used to perform both descriptive and inferential statistics. The significance level was set at 0.05.

Chapter 4: Results

The data obtained from the present study's pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest were subjected to further statistical analyses. Below, I present the results in order of the research questions.

Preliminary Analysis of Between-Group Difference Prior to Treatment

The pretest (possible maximum score = 18 points) performance of both groups were analyzed using an independent-samples *t*-test to see whether the groups were significantly different from one another in their knowledge of the target of instruction prior to the treatment. Levene's test for equality of variances was used to verify the assumption of homogeneity of variance between the two groups. As shown in Table 3, results of the *t*-test revealed no significant difference between the groups ($t(38) = 1.49$, $p = .143$) confirming that the two groups were similar in the level of knowledge of the teaching target before the treatment.

Table 3

Results of T-Test on Pretest Scores of the Two Groups

	M	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Explicit group ($n = 21$)	9.19	.68	1.49	38	.143
Implicit group ($n = 19$)	8.74	1.19			

Results of Pre-, Post-, and Delayed Posttest

In order to examine beneficial effects of the two types of instruction, descriptive statistics were calculated for the mean scores on the pretest, posttest,

and delayed posttest. The results are presented in Table 4 and displayed graphically in Figure 1.

Table 4

The Results of Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest (scores out of 18)

		M	*SD*	Max.	Min.
Explicit group (*n* = 21)	Pretest	9.19	.68	11	8
	Posttest	11.76	2.61	16	6
	Delayed posttest	9.76	2.64	15	6
Implicit group (*n* = 19)	Pretest	8.74	1.20	10	5
	Posttest	12.05	2.53	18	9
	Delayed posttest	10.84	2.39	18	8

Figure 1

Mean Scores on Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest for Each Instruction Group

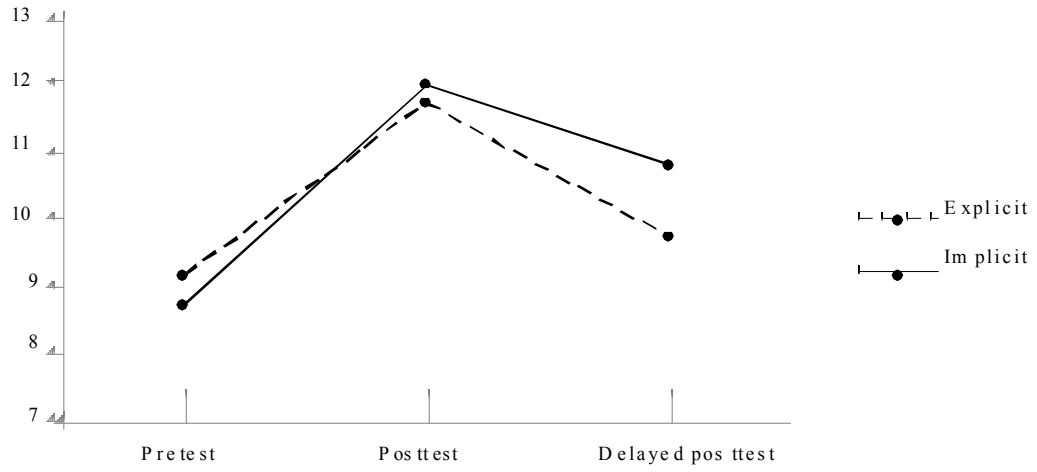


Figure 1 indicates an increase in scores from the pretest to the posttest and a decrease from the posttest to the delayed posttest for both groups. As shown in

Table 3, in the pretest, Explicit group (M = 9.19, SD = 0.68) scored slightly higher than Implicit group (M = 8.74, SD = 1.20), while in the posttest, Implicit group (M = 12.05, SD = 2.53) performed slightly better than Explicit group (M =11.76, SD = 2.61). Implicit group (M = 10.84, SD = 2.39) also did better than Explicit group (M = 9.76, SD = 2.64) in the delayed posttest.

For more detailed analyses of the data, the groups' scores for each Category in each test were examined. Table 5 (Explicit group) and Table 6 (Implicit group) present the mean scores of each group for each Category at the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. Descriptions of the Categories are presented in Table 2 in Chapter 3.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of the Mean for Explicit Group by Category

			Mean	*SD*	Max.	Min.
Explicit group (n = 21)	Category 1	pretest	.06	.13	.33	.00
		posttest	.57	.34	1.00	.00
		delayed	.33	.37	1.00	.00
	Category 2	pretest	.03	.10	.33	.00
		posttest	.71	.35	1.00	.00
		delayed	.49	.42	1.00	.00
	Category 3	pretest	.98	.07	1.00	.67
		posttest	.62	.30	1.00	.00
		delayed	.65	.34	1.00	.00
	Category 4	pretest	.03	.10	.33	.00
		posttest	.44	.30	1.00	.00
		delayed	.33	.33	1.00	.00
	Category 5	pretest	.97	.15	1.00	.33
		posttest	.65	.40	1.00	.00
		delayed	.57	.42	1.00	.00
	Category 6	pretest	.98	.07	1.00	.67
		posttest	.92	.18	1.00	.33
		delayed	.87	.17	1.00	.67

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the Mean for Implicit Group by Category

			Mean	*SD*	Max.	Min.
Implicit group (n = 19)	Category 1	pretest	.035	.11	.33	.00
		posttest	.60	.39	1.00	.00
		delayed	.35	.36	1.00	.00
	Category 2	pretest	.00	.00	.00	.00
		posttest	.63	.44	1.00	.00
		delayed	.49	.45	1.00	.00
	Category 3	pretest	.95	.17	.33	.00
		posttest	.72	.37	1.00	.00
		delayed	.79	.25	.33	.00
	Category 4	pretest	.00	.00	.00	.00
		posttest	.49	.41	1.00	.00
		delayed	.23	.33	1.00	.00
	Category 5	pretest	.96	.11	1.00	.67
		posttest	.68	.38	1.00	.00
		delayed	.82	.28	.33	.00
	Category 6	pretest	.96	.11	1.00	.67
		posttest	.89	.22	.33	.00
		delayed	.93	.14	1.00	.67

Table 7

Results of the Three-way Repeated-Measures ANOVA for Effects of Instruction, Time, and Category

Source	SS	*df*	MS	*F*	*p*	Partial eta^2
Between-Subjects Effects						
Instruction	.05	1	.05	.37	.549	.010
Within-Subjects Effects						
Category	48.77	3.19	15.32	88.60	.000	.700
Category x Instruction	.42	3.19	.13	.77	.521	.020
Time	4.39	1.80	.06	27.78	.000	.422
Time x Instruction	.22	1.80	.12	1.88	.164	.047
Category x Time	20.12	6.92	2.91	30.46	.000	.445
Category x Time x Instruction	.54	6.92	.08	.82	.567	.021

A three-way repeated measures ANOVA was carried out in order to examine if there were any statistically significant differences between the Explicit and Implicit groups; between the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores; and between the functions of the discourse markers. Examination was also made to determine if there was any interaction among factors.

The results yielded a significant effect for Time (i.e., tests), as indicated in Table 7, $F(2, 76) = 27.78$, $p < .001$. The pairwise comparisons for the Time effect using a Bonferroni adjustment revealed statistically significant differences between all three tests, such that regardless of the type of instruction the

participants received, they performed significantly better in the post-test (M = 11.90, SD = 2.54) and the delayed posttest (M = 10.28, SD = 2.54) than in the pre-test (M = 8.97, SD = 0.97), indicating positive effects of the instruction. Although the pairwise comparisons showed that the positive effects of the instruction were not maintained from the posttest to the delayed posttest, the participants scored better on the delayed posttest than on the pretest.

No significant effect was found for Instruction (i.e., Explicit vs. Implicit groups), $F(1, 38) = 0.37$, $p = .549$, indicating that the two groups were not significantly different from each other. In other words, both explicit and implicit instruction proved equally effective. Nor was there observed an interaction between Instruction and Time, $F(2, 76) = 1.88$, $p = .164$. That is, the differences in the three tests did not consistently change depending on the type of instruction the participants received.

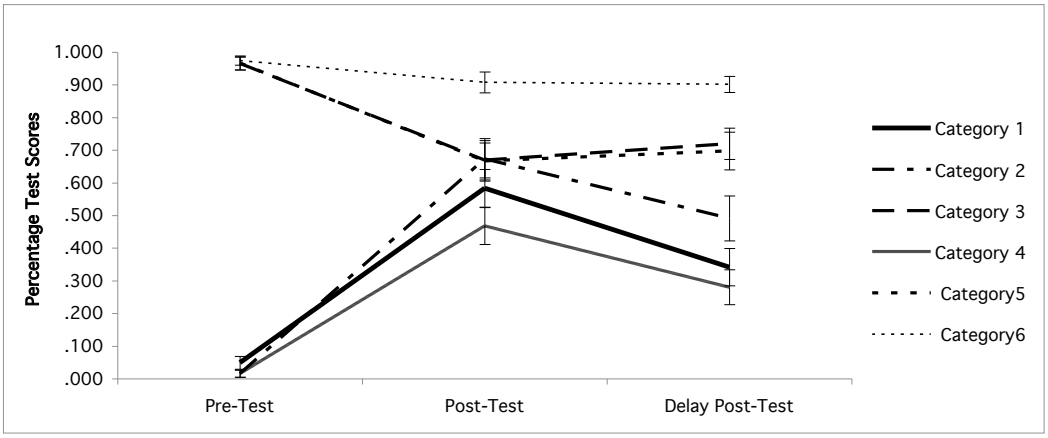
A significant effect was found for Category (i.e., the six functions of the discourse markers), $F(3.19, 121.02) = 88.60$, $p < .05$. The Bonferroni adjusted pairwise comparisons for Category effect showed that all comparisons were significant with the exception of Categories 1 and 2, and Categories 3 and 5. However, there was no interaction effect between Category and Instruction, $F(3.19, 121.01) = 0.77$, $p = .521$. This indicates that the differences in Category did not consistently change depending on the type of instruction the participants received.

The ANOVA results showed a significant interaction effect between Category and Time, $F(6.92, 262.89) = 30.46$, $p < .05$. As illustrated in Figure 2,

the score differences among the tests varied depending on the Categories. However, no three-way interaction was observed between Category, Time, and Instruction, $F(6.92, 262.89) = 0.82$, $p = .567$: The differences among the categories in the three tests did not consistently change depending on the type of instruction the participants received.

Figure 2

Time by Category Interaction



In order to further examine the interaction effect between Category and Time illustrated in Figure 2, two sets of pairwise comparisons were conducted, the first set examining the interaction effect within each Time, and the second set within each Category. The results from the first set of pairwise comparisons of the interaction effect within each Time indicated that, in the pretest, Categories 3, 5, and 6, which do not require the discourse markers, scored significantly higher than Categories 1, 2, and 4, which do require the discourse markers. This may be because the participants were not informed of the test objective (i.e., the functions of *n desu* and *n desu ka*), and consequently, the use of the discourse markers was scarce, resulting in significantly higher scores on Categories 3, 5, and 6 than the

other categories. Categories 3, 5, and 6 were not significantly different from each other, nor were Categories 1, 2, and 4.

In the posttest, Category 6 scored significantly higher than all the other categories except for Category 2 (p = .073). Categories 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were not significantly different from each other. It is indicated that the instructional effects on Category 6 were significantly different from those on Categories 1, 3, 4, and 5 and marginally significantly different from those on Category 2. However, the instructional effects did not yield significant differences on Categories 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Furthermore, the instructional effects were not significantly different on Categories 1, 2, and 4, which require the discourse markers, as well as Categories 3 and 5, which do not require the discourse markers.

In the delayed posttest, again Category 6 scored significantly higher than all the other categories. Categories 3 and 5 scored significantly higher than Categories 1 and 4. Categories 1, 2, and 4, Categories 2 and 3, Categories 2 and 5, and Categories 3 and 5 were not significantly different from each other. The findings indicate that the delayed effects of the instruction were significantly different between Category 6 and the other categories as well as between Categories 3 and 5 and Categories 1 and 4.

The second set of pairwise comparisons was conducted to examine the interaction effect between Category and Time within each Category. As shown in Figure 2, for Categories 1, 2, and 4, which require the discourse markers, the gain from the pretest to the posttest, the loss from the posttest to the delayed posttest, and the difference (the gain) between the pretest and the delayed posttest were all

significant. This suggests that the participants performed significantly better in the posttest and the delayed posttest than in the pretest in their use of the discourse markers in these categories, although the positive effects of the instruction were not maintained from the posttest to the delayed posttest. The similarity among these three categories found in the second set of pairwise comparisons is consistent with the results from the first set of the pairwise comparisons, which indicated these three categories were not significantly different from each other.

For Categories 3 and 5, which require no discourse markers, the change (the loss) from the pretest to the posttest and the difference (the loss) between the pretest and the delayed posttest were significant, but the change (the gain) from the posttest to the delayed posttest was not significant. This indicates that the instruction had a significantly negative effect on these categories, causing overgeneralization errors. That is to say, after receiving the instruction, the participants overgeneralized the discourse markers and used them when not expected in the posttest, and they maintained the negative effects of the instruction between the posttest and the delayed posttest. The similarity found here between these two categories was consonant with the results from the first set of the pairwise comparisons, which indicated the differences between these two categories were not statistically significant.

The results demonstrated that Category 6 behaved differently from Categories 3 and 5—which, like Category 6, do not require the discourse markers. For Category 6, the change (the loss) from the pretest to the posttest and the change (the loss) from the posttest to the delayed posttest as well as the difference

(the loss) between the pretest and the delayed posttest were not significant, indicating that the instruction did not significantly affect this category. The results show that the instruction had different effects on Category 6 than on Categories 3 and 5, with Category 6 scoring significantly higher than Categories 3 and 5 in the posttest and the delayed posttest.

To sum up, the analysis revealed positive effects of the instruction. However, these positive effects were not maintained from the posttest to the delayed posttest. No differential effects between the two types of instruction were observed. Both the immediate and delayed effects of the instruction varied depending on the function of the discourse marker. The following chapter discusses the possible reasons for the results presented in this chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The results of the present study indicate that both explicit and implicit instruction aid learners in learning the target Japanese discourse markers. This chapter discusses the findings in more detail, through the lens of the three research questions: 1) Does instruction benefit the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*?; 2) Is explicit instruction more effective than implicit instruction?; and 3) Does instruction have differential effects on different functions of the discourse markers?

Effects of Instruction

Research Question 1 asked whether instruction is facilitative to acquiring L2 pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*. Similar to what was found in previous studies (e.g., Alcón, 2005; Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1994; Dastjerdi & Farshid, 2011; Takahashi, 2001; among many others), the present study found positive effects of instruction on the development of L2 pragmatic knowledge of learners. With regard to the use of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka,* the learners in both explicit and implicit instruction groups performed significantly better in the post-test, indicating that the instruction had immediate positive effects on the teaching targets. The results supported Schmidt's (1995) Noticing Hypothesis, which claims "learning requires awareness at the time of learning" (p. 26) and "what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning" (p. 20). Both explicit and implicit instruction in this study helped the learners notice the functions of the target pragmatic features

by drawing their attention to them, which resulted in intake—a required condition for the initial stage of L2 acquisition.

Despite the observed immediate positive effects of the instruction, however, the results indicated that the pragmatic knowledge the learners acquired through instruction and demonstrated on the posttest had diminished by the time of the delayed posttest. This is in line with Kubota (1995), who, in a relatively short instructional time (one 20-minute treatment), found a similar decrease in initial gains of both the explicit and implicit groups by the time of a delayed posttest. The short-term durability of instructional effects found in the present study might be explained by the brevity of a single ten-minute treatment.

However, the lack of durability of instructional effects was also found in some L2 pragmatic studies with longer treatment periods (Koike & Pearson, 2005; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Pearson, 2001). In Takahashi's (2010) review of 49 interventional studies in L2 pragmatics teaching, ten studies included delayed posttests, and four of these studies demonstrated a low durability of instructional effects. Considering that not many studies included delayed posttests, and taking into account variants among studies, including variants in study design and teaching targets, it cannot be concluded that treatment period solely accounts for the durability issue.

The low durability of treatment effects found in the present study might be due to the nature of treatment tasks. Based on the generalizations drawn from her review, Takahashi (2010) contended that the six studies that did show instructional treatments demonstrating strong durability of effects often involved

cognitively demanding tasks. The instruction in the present study lacked such tasks. Gass (1988) argued that output presents an active part of the whole learning process as well as the learner's interlanguage knowledge. If the instruction in the present study had included tasks that allowed the students to test their hypotheses through comprehensible output, the instructional effects might have had strong durability. However, possible activities to produce comprehensible output were limited because one of the classes had to be divided into two groups. One possible activity could be having the students complete a post-instruction worksheet requiring them to verbalize the pragmatic rules of the target features. The worksheet for the explicit group could include metapragmatic information about the rules as an explicit corrective feedback on their output. The feedback component could be included on the back the worksheet. The worksheet for the implicit would not include the feedback component.

Explicit vs. Implicit Instruction

Research Question 2 asked if explicit instruction may be more effective than implicit instruction. The answer to this question was negative. There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups concerning the learners' performance on the discourse completion tests after the treatment. This is not in accord with the findings of Norris and Ortega (2000) and Jeon & Kaya (2006): the former reviewed 49 intervention studies mostly targeted on L2 grammar, and the latter reviewed 13 studies focused on L2 pragmatics. The results of these studies showed an advantage for explicit approaches over implicit approaches, which is not consistent with the findings of Takahashi's (2010) review of 49 interventional

studies in L2 pragmatics. Takahashi (2010) found that out of 21 studies comparing explicit and implicit instruction, 11 studies had inconclusive or mixed results, six studies showed a superior effect of explicit over implicit intervention, and four studies demonstrated that explicit and implicit instruction were evenly effective.

The implicit group's gain comparable to the explicit group in the present study supports the Schmidt's (1994) theory that "noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for the conversion of input to intake for learning" (p. 17, as cited in Schmidt, 1995).

Some previous studies, such as Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001) and Tateyama (2001) associated their participants' individual factors, such as proficiency level and motivation, with their findings. However, an examination of demographic data obtained from the participants in the present study indicated no differences between the groups. Although a difference in academic performance between the groups could be an influencing factor on the results of this study, including the learners' academic performance in analyzing data was beyond the scope of the present study because the researcher had no access to the learners' academic records. However, it should be recalled that the pretest showed no group differences, indicating that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their knowledge of the target Japanese discourse markers.

A possible explanation for the observed similarity in effectiveness between explicit and implicit instruction might be found in the components of the instructional approaches as discussed in Norris and Ortega (2000). This study's

meta-analysis of interventional studies that primarily targeted grammatical forms found that a typical explicit treatment often included combinations of multiple instructional components, such as rule presentation, focused practice, and negative feedback, whereas implicit treatment simply involved one type of implicit exposure to target features. They maintained that these combined instructional components could have affected the observed result that explicit instruction was more effective than implicit instruction. The present study employed a single component for explicit instruction, namely a metapragmatic explanation of target features. If the study had included a combination of multiple instructional components in the explicit intervention, the results might have been consistent with Norris and Ortega's (2000) finding of differential effects between explicit and implicit instruction.

Yet another possible explanation for the similar effects of explicit and implicit instruction may lay in ease of the task required of learners by the present study. Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001) examined the effects of instruction in English compliments and compliment responses, employing two treatment groups (deductive and inductive) and a control group. The results of the discourse completion posttest revealed that both types of instruction had an equally positive effect, with a noticeable increase in the use of compliments. Rose and Ng Kwai-fun noted that this result could be due to the highly formulaic nature of compliments in American English, which thus make them an easy target for any type of instruction. With regard to the present study, it could be the case that the task required of the implicit group was simply not very demanding. Although the

implicit group was not provided with explicit metapragmatic information—e.g., that *n desu ka* is used when the speaker makes an assumption based on information shared with the listener, and wants to confirm the assumption—the descriptions of the situations in which *n desu ka* is used contained the word, 'confirm,' as in "Your teacher of Japanese looks like she is suffering from a headache. You want to confirm if she has a headache." Therefore, it may simply have been relatively easy for the implicit group to analyze and generalize the underlying pragmatic rules about the usage of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka* by examining the example situations in which the target discourse markers are used or not used along with expected utterances. In other words, the learners in this study might have benefited from either type of instruction.

Although some of the pragmatic rules of the target Japanese discourse markers had been previously introduced in their first-year Japanese course, the results of the pretest showed that the students had not retained the effects of this previous instruction, indicating that these rules were difficult for them to learn. Yet, it is undeniable that the effects of the previous instruction are likely to have influenced the students' information processing. According to Gass (1988), when the information contained in the input is already a part of the learner's interlanguage system, the additional input might be used for hypothesis reconfirmation or rule strengthening. Although the use of the target discourse markers was scarce in the pretest, as the students were not informed of the test objective, it would be safe to postulate that the students' prior knowledge of the

discourse markers was activated through the interventions. If the instruction had excluded the pragmatic rules of those discourse markers that had been previously introduced, the results would have exclusively reflected the effects of the interventions.

One last possible account for the comparable effects of explicit and implicit interventions may be found in the treatment task employed for the implicit group. Following many other intervention studies in L2 pragmatics, the present study included a consciousness-raising task in the implicit group, drawing the students' attention to the target features and thus allowing them to focus on input containing the target features. If the implicit group had engaged with a treatment task falling on the highest implicit end of the explicit-implicit continuum, the explicit and implicit interventions might have produced dissimilar effects.

It is worth noting that the implicit group retained the effects of the instruction slightly better than the explicit group, although the difference was insignificant. The cause for this may involve the task demand for the implicit group. Schmidt (1990) suggested various factors that influence noticeability of input: expectations, frequency of occurrence, perceptual salience, skill level, and task demands. Task demands "concern what is expected of the language user at any given moment as a result of the activity he or she is engaged in" (Skehan, 1998, p. 51). Robinson (2001) argued that increasing the cognitive demands of a task results in more attention to input, which will promote longer-term retention of the input. The implicit group in the present study, whose task was to discover

the pragmatic rules of the target discourse markers on their own, may have processed the target features at a deeper level, resulting in somewhat greater durability of the instructional effects than that of the explicit group, which was provided with explicit metapragmatic information about the rules.

Differential Effects on Different Functions of the Discourse Markers

Research Question 3 addressed whether instructional effects differ on different functions of the discourse markers. The results indicated that both the immediate and delayed effects of the instruction varied depending on the function of the discourse marker.

One of the notable findings is the significantly different effect of instruction on Category 6 than the other categories. The finding suggests that the instruction did not have a significant impact on this category. However, in light of the function of Category 6, the insignificant effect of the instruction on this category does not seem to mean that it was difficult for the learners to learn. Taking into consideration that inclusion of metapragmatic explanation did not influence the effects of the explicit instruction, the function of this category, which is illustrated on both the explicit and implicit handout with three example situations in which the target discourse marker is not used and accompanied by an expected utterance in each of the situations, might have been easy for the learners. For example, one of the example situations was: Your colleague asks you if your apartment is close to your office. You tell her it's a little far. This function serves as a response to a question. As Ohta's (1999) study suggests, teacher-fronted L2 classes limit student participation to a response turn, that is, to answering

questions. Thus, even if they had plenty of opportunities to ask questions through pair practice with their peer students, it is fair to say that answering questions may have been easier for the learners in the present study.

Another interesting finding regarding different effects on different functions of the discourse markers related to immediate effects. The results found that instructional effects on Categories 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were not significantly different. Therefore, the following hypotheses have been rejected: Categories 3 and 6 are easy; Category 5 is very difficult; Categories 1, 2, and 4 are somewhat difficult. It is speculated that some of the categories are easier for the learners, whereas others are more resistant to benefiting from the instruction. For example, Category 3, which serves as a question and which does not require the target discourse marker, may have been easier than the other categories, except for Category 6. As shown in the pretest results, the learners had a tendency to underuse the Japanese discourse markers. This, of course, was not surprising given the general phenomenon among learners of Japanese of omitting these discourse markers.

In sum, the results with regard to the immediate effects indicate that both the functions that do require the discourse markers and those that do not (except for Category 6) were equally learnable, yet challenging for the learners of Japanese in the present study. Further study needs to address more effective instruction that leads to a better learning outcome.

Regarding delayed effects, the instruction exhibited different effects on different categories. The instruction somewhat sustained a negative effect on

Categories 3 and 5, still causing overgeneralization errors; the difference between the posttest and the delayed posttest, however, was not significant. In contrast, the instruction did not retain a positive effect on Categories 1 and 4, resulting in significantly decreased correct use of the discourse markers in these categories on the delayed posttest. In other words, in terms of delayed effects, instruction had a stronger influence on Categories 3 and 5 than on Categories 1 and 4. A possible explanation for the different delayed effects of instruction on Categories 3 and 5 compared to Categories 1 and 4 might be offered by the differences between these categories. That is, Categories 1 and 4 require the target discourse marker, whereas Categories 3 and 5 do not. Although a definitive explanation for the result cannot be offered, it seems reasonable to speculate that, by the time of the delayed posttest, the effects of the instruction had declined to the point that the learners may have resumed their initial inclination, as demonstrated in the pretest, to underuse the Japanese discourse markers. This hypothesis would explain why Categories 1 and 4 were less susceptible to the delayed effect of the instruction than Categories 3 and 5 were.

In sum, the results found immediate positive effects of instruction on the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge of learners in the use of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka.* However, the positive effects did not last until the time of the delayed posttest. A possible explanation for the observed short-lived positive effects may lay in the fact that the instruction did not involve cognitively demanding tasks. The results showed that explicit and implicit instruction were equally effective. The results also indicated that both the

immediate and delayed effects of the instruction varied depending on the function of the discourse marker. Immediate effects of the instruction varied between Category 6 and Categories 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, whereas delayed effects differed between Category 6 and the other categories as well as between Categories 3 and 5 and Categories 1 and 4.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This chapter begins with a brief summary of the results, followed by discussion of both the theoretical implications of these results as well as their implications for teaching. Also discussed are various limitations of the study. Finally, based on this critical examination of the study, some methodological modifications for a subsequent study are discussed.

This study examined the effects of instruction on learners' acquisition of the pragmatic knowledge concerning the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*. Although the initial effects of the instruction were not preserved by the time of the delayed posttest, the learners' correct use of the target discourse markers significantly differed between the pretest and the delayed posttest. This result supports the claim of beneficial impact of instruction in the acquisition of the pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*. At the same time, this short-lived instructional effect, as well as the gap among the different functions of the discourse markers in terms of the long-term effects of the instruction, reflects the need for further investigations aimed toward finding more effective instruction for these target Japanese discourse markers.

Theoretical and Pedagogical Implications

Previous research exploring instructional effects on the development of learners' pragmatic competence in foreign language contexts suggests that instruction is both necessary and effective (Martínez-Flor & Alcón Soler, 2007). The present study has shown the benefits of instruction on the development of learners' pragmatic knowledge of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n*

desu ka. The study, therefore, contributes to this body of research by furthering the case that instruction does make a positive difference for classroom L2 acquisition (Norris and Ortega, 2000).

Schmidt's (1993) Noticing Hypothesis claims that attention is essential for the learning of L2 pragmatics. Schmidt (2001) suggests that intentionally focused attention is essential for successful language learning, since many features of L2 input are likely to be infrequent or non-salient. From this perspective, Schmidt (1993) proposed a consciousness-raising approach, which deliberately draws learners' attention to relevant features. In line with Schmidt's (1993) proposal, Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) have argued that consciousness raising facilitates L2 learning. Following the perspectives of the Noticing Hypothesis and consciousness raising, the current study examined the effects of two types of consciousness-raising tasks. The results add to evidence for both the Noticing Hypothesis and the notion of consciousness raising.

Many studies have examined the effect of explicit and implicit interventions for pragmatic learning, using various consciousness-raising tasks. To the best of my knowledge, however, only a few studies (e.g., Kubota, 1995; Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001; Takimoto, 2008) have investigated an inductive consciousness-raising task, which requires learners to discover the rules of the target pragmatic features by themselves. In this respect, the current study adds to this limited available data regarding the effects of this type of consciousness-raising task.

The present study dealt with the Japanese discourse marker *n desu* and its variant, which have been underresearched in the current available literature. In these respects, the results of the study contribute valuable information to the field of interlanguage pragmatics.

The study employed a delayed posttest. When discussing the effects of pragmatic intervention, durability of the instructional effects should be examined through a delayed posttest. However, of the 49 studies Takahashi (2010) reviewed, only ten studies included delayed posttests. The present study adds to this limited data on the durability of the effects of instruction on pragmatic development.

The findings of the present study suggest some practical pedagogical implications for teaching pragmatic knowledge, particularly of the Japanese discourse marker *n desu* and its variants. First, the results suggest the importance of re-teaching target language features that have been previously taught to learners. Despite the fact that the target discourse markers had been previously taught, it is clear from the pretest results that the students had not acquired them. Second, the positive effects of instruction found in the posttest results indicate that reinstruction is warranted for previously taught pragmatic knowledge of the target discourse markers. This is particularly relevant in foreign language classroom contexts, in which great emphasis is placed on teaching linguistic competence rather than pragmatic components. Schmidt and Frota (1986) argued that noticing the gap between one's interlanguage and the target language is the pre-requisite for the development of L2 pragmatic competence. However, learners in foreign language contexts have limited access to native speakers of the target

language; consequently they have little opportunity to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language. Moreover, these learners have limited opportunity to notice this gap in the classroom because, as Ohta (1999) suggests, their participation in teacher-student exchanges is limited to responding to the teachers' questions. In other words, they may have opportunity to use the discourse marker *n desu*, but have little chance to use *n desu ka*. This is where instruction comes in. Third, it appears that the inductive approach, in which learners are required to discover pragmatic rules on their own, is as effective as the deductive approach. This gives insight into the possible benefits of the inductive approach, since deductive approaches are common in teacher-fronted L2 classes. Lastly, the low durability of the effects of the instruction found in the delayed posttest shows the importance of the content of the instruction. I hope that teachers will realize the importance of teaching pragmatics and try to design the best possible task to help their students develop their L2 pragmatics.

Limitations

Several limitations of the present study are acknowledged. First, although the investigation includes a relatively homogeneous group of learners as shown in the demographic data, giving statistical validity to the findings, the results must be viewed with caution when making any generalizations about the pragmatic development in learners of L2 Japanese in various learner populations and environments.

Second, the present study lacked a control group that receives no instruction, which is, admittedly, a threat to internal validity. In order to enhance

internal validity, pretest results were compared between the two treatment groups. The results indicated no significant differences between the groups, which allowed for reliable comparisons to be made on any posttest and delayed posttest differences.

Third, the study had a relatively small sample size. Although it is desirable to have a larger sample to allow for a greater generalizability, the study was not able to obtain a desired sample size due to both institutional constraints and having much fewer participants than expected.

Critical Reflection of the Present Study and Future Study

As acknowledged above, the present study has several limitations, some of which concern the choice of instructional treatments and method of data collection.

Even though ten minutes was the maximum time allowed for the treatment due to constraints, a potential criticism of this study may be this short treatment duration, as it can be argued that a longer treatment period might better produce long-term effects. However, as discussed in Chapter 5, strong durability of effects might have been achieved if the treatment tasks had required the students to test their hypotheses about the pragmatic rules of the target discourse markers through comprehensible output—for example, by completing a post-instruction worksheet.

Another criticism is that instructional treatments focused only on the development of pragmalinguistic knowledge—a limited aspect of pragmatic knowledge. Instead, instruction should aim at developing both pragmalinguistic

and sociopragmatic knowledge. Roever (2006) stated that a pragmatically successful language user must have both types of knowledge, "as sociopragmatic knowledge provides language users with the rules of what is socially acceptable and appropriate, and pragmalinguistic knowledge equips them with the tools for expressing themselves" (p. 231).

Other criticisms concern the type of instruction and method of assessment used in the present study. The instructional treatments were comprehension-based, which did not provide learners with opportunities for communicative oral practice. Given that the ultimate goal of instruction in pragmatics is developing the learners' pragmatic competence, it needs to include tasks that involve L2 oral production. If the instructional treatments had been production-based, an appropriate assessment method would have included role-plays. The study, however, used written discourse completion tests, as this was determined to be appropriate to measure the students' pragmatic knowledge of the target features, which was the learning objective of the study.

If I were allowed to conduct a future study without any constraints, I would design it very differently from the present study. First, I would choose my own students as participants even though it would take several years to collect enough data. Using one's own students would easily allow a researcher modify the schedule for data collection procedures. For example, if many students are absent on the day scheduled for a pretest, the researcher can postpone it. Furthermore, the researcher's own students may be more cooperative, and accordingly the participation rate may be better than that with someone else's

students. This can prevent a major change to the research design, for example, giving up on including a control group in a study.

Concerning instructional instruments, use of video images created for teaching target pragmatic features would be an ideal option for replacing written information that contains pragmatic rules about the target features. The situational contexts would be more apparent from video images than written information. In addition, students can process information through video images faster than written information, which would allow me to show them a number of video images containing discourse-level dialogues within a given period of time.

With regard to target pragmatic features, I would include all of the five functions of the Japanese discourse markers *n desu* and *n desu ka*: 1) asking for explanation; 2) confirming assumption; 3) explaining information; 4) giving background information; and 5) emphasizing statement. I would separate instruction on 1, 2, and 3 that were previously taught, and instruction on the other two that were not into different treatment sessions. This would produce two different sets of results: one that exclusively reflects the effects of the instruction on target features unfamiliar to the students, and the other set that may provide us with valuable information about previously taught pragmatic features.

The future study would examine the effects of different types of instruction on developing both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. To this end, I would include four groups: two groups receiving explicit instruction and the other two receiving implicit instruction. One of the explicit groups would first watch video images that include the target discourse markers. The group

would then have teacher-fronted discussion about the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic rules of the target discourse markers as a consciousness-raising task. Metapragmatic information about the rules would be provided as teacher feedback. Finally, the group would engage in oral output practice through role-plays in pairs. The other explicit group would watch the video images after being provided with the metapragmatic information about the target discourse markers. The group would then engage in paired role-play. Prior to watching the video images, one of the implicit groups would be directed to pay attention to the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic rules of the target discourse markers. After viewing the video, the students would complete a post-instruction worksheet asking them to state the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic rules of the target features. No teacher feedback would be provided regarding their generalizations about these rules. After completing the worksheet, the students would perform paired role-play. The other implicit group would simply watch the video images and then engage in paired role-play.

For assessment of students' pragmatic competence, I would employ written discourse completion tests (WDCTs) and closed role-plays. Whereas WDCTs do not accurately reflect students' oral proficiency, role-plays may not reveal their pragmatic knowledge about the target features due to psychological constraints such as nervousness. Therefore, WDCTs together with closed role-plays would provide a more comprehensive view of the students' pragmatic competence.

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APPENDIX A

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS
USED IN THE INTERLINEAR JAPANESE GLOSS SYMBOLS

ATN	nominal attribute particle
CON	conditional
CONJ	conjunctive particle
COP	copula (various forms of copula verb *be)*
DUR	durative (*v-te iru*)
FP	final particle
GEN	genitive particle
GER	gerundive
LOC	locative particle
N	nominalizer
NEG	negative
OBJ	direct object (accusative particle)
PAST	past
PRES	present
PERF	present perfect
PRON	pronoun
QP	question particl
QUOT	quotative particle
SUB	subject particle (Nominative particle)
TOP	topic particle

Appendix B

(This consent form was completed prior to a pre-test; the form on the following page was completed prior to a posttest and a delayed posttest.)

Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by Akemi Katayama, a graduate student in East Asian Studies at the University of Alberta. I am conducting a study focusing on classroom instruction and its outcome. As part of the study, I am requesting your permission to include in my study your knowledge and understanding of the Japanese language. It will take you about 10 minutes to complete a written test and a short questionnaire. Later in the winter term, I will give you instruction on a very important feature of spoken Japanese. Please read the following carefully and sign below if you agree to the terms.

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or stop your participation at any time without any negative consequences. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer. The results of the study will have no influence upon your grade. Please be assured that your identity will remain anonymous at all times to protect the confidentiality of the research data and your privacy. No one will see completed tests and questionnaires except me. In any scholarly or educational publications resulting from this study, participants will only be known collectively as "second year Japanese students at a Canadian university."

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact me at katayama@ualberta.ca; my assistant, Yukiko Isaka at isaka@ualberta.ca; or the ASL Research Ethics Office at Jennifer.thorn@ualberta.ca. If you wish to withdraw from the study, please contact me.

♪♪♪

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I consent to participate in the study.

______________________	______________________	______________
Signature	Name (printed)	Date
______________________		______________
Researcher		Date

Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research study conducted by Akemi Katayama, a graduate student in East Asian Studies at the University of Alberta. I am conducting a study focusing on classroom instruction and its outcome. As part of the study, I am requesting your permission to include in my study your knowledge and understanding of the Japanese language. It will take you less than 10 minutes to complete a written test. Please read the following carefully and sign below if you agree to the terms.

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or stop your participation at any time without any negative consequences. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer. The results of the study will have no influence upon your grade. Please be assured that your identity will remain anonymous at all times to protect the confidentiality of the research data and your privacy. No one will see completed tests and questionnaires except me. In any scholarly or educational publications resulting from this study, participants will only be known collectively as "second year Japanese students at a Canadian university."

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact me at katayama@ualberta.ca; my assistant, Yukiko Isaka at isaka@ualberta.ca; or the ASL Research Ethics Office at Jennifer.thorn@ualberta.ca. If you wish to withdraw from the study, please contact me.

♪♪♪

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I consent to participate in the study.

________________ Signature	________________ Name (printed)	____________ Date
________________ Researcher		____________ Date

Appendix C

Handout for Explicit Group

n desu ka is USED when:

I. The speaker asks for an explanation about information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer.

Situation 1. You are living with your host family in Japan. You walk into the kitchen and see your host mother is cooking something that smells good. You ask her what she is cooking.

何を 作っているんですか。

Situation 2. You heard that your teacher of Japanese is getting married. You ask him when.

いつ けっこんするんですか。

Situation 3. Your Japanese colleague, who loves alcohol, is not drinking at a party. You ask him why he is not drinking.

どうして／なぜ のまないんですか。

n desu ka is USED when:

II. The speaker makes an assumption based on information shared with the listener, and wants to confirm the assumption.

Situation 1. Your teacher of Japanese looks like she is suffering from a headache. You want to confirm if she has a headache.

あたまが いたいんですか。

Situation 2. You heard that your Japanese colleague just came back from her trip to Paris. You notice her new handbag and think she bought it in Paris. You want to confirm your assumption.

パリで かったんですか。

Situation 3. It's 5 pm and you are just about to go home, but your colleague is still working at a computer. You want to confirm if he is not going home yet.

まだ かえらないんですか。

n desu ka is NOT used when:

The speaker is simply asking the hearer for information. The speaker makes no assumption.

Situation 1. Your host family has returned from a movie theater. You ask them if the movie was good.

えいがは おもしろかったですか。

Situation 2. Your colleague just came back from her trip to Alaska. You ask her if she saw the Aurora Borealis.

オーロラを 見ましたか。

Situation 3. You visit your professor's office to ask her questions about Japanese. You ask her if she is busy now.

今、いそがしいですか。

n desu is USED when:

The speaker is explaining information that is heard or seen by both the speaker and hearer.

Situation 1. When you are studying, your host mother brings you some coffee. She asks what you are studying. You tell her you are studying Japanese.

日本語を べんきょうしているんです。

Situation 2. Your host mother cooked you your favorite spicy hot dish. At dinner she asks you why you are not eating it. You tell her it is because you have a sore throat.

のどが いたいんです。

Situation 3. Your colleague heard that you are getting married and asks where you will go on your honeymoon. You tell her that you are going to Las Vegas.

ラスベガスへ 行くんです。

n desu is NOT used when:

I. The speaker confirms the assumption made by the hearer.

Situation1. You came back from a trip to the US and give your colleague a T-shirt you bought for her. She asks you if you bought it in New York, and you confirm her assumption.

はい、ニューヨークで かいました。

Situation 2. Your host mother sees your heavy winter coat. She asks if it's very cold in Edmonton, and you confirm her assumption.

はい、とてもさむいです。

Situation 3. You always do a good job on a test. Your teacher asks you if you study a lot, and you confirm her assumption.

はい、よくべんきょうします。

n desu is NOT used when:

II. The speaker is simply giving information to the hearer.

Situation 1. Your colleague asks you if your apartment is close to your office. You tell her it's a little far.

ちょっととおいです。

Situation 2. Your host father asks you if you are enjoying your stay in Japan. You tell him it's very enjoyable.

とてもたのしいです。

Situation 3. Your teacher asks you if you often study Japanese. You tell her you do every day.

毎日、べんきょうします。

Appendix D

Handout for Implicit Group

This handout gives **IMPLICIT** instruction on *n desu*. The handout contains example situations in which n desu is used or not used. It does not contain explanations for when *n desu* is used or not used. Please examine examples carefully and try to make generalizations out of them.

n desu ka is USED in the following situations:

Situation 1. You are living with your host family in Japan. You walk into the kitchen and see your host mother is cooking something that smells good. You ask her what she is cooking.

何を 作っているんですか。

Situation 2. You heard that your teacher of Japanese is getting married. You ask him when.

いつ けっこんするんですか。

Situation 3. Your Japanese colleague, who loves alcohol, is not drinking at a party. You ask him why he is not drinking.

どうして／なぜ のまないんですか。

n desu ka is USED in the following situations:

Situation 1. Your teacher of Japanese looks like she is suffering from a headache. You want to confirm if she has a headache.

あたまが いたいんですか。

Situation 2. You heard that your Japanese colleague just came back from her trip to Paris. You notice her new handbag and think she bought it in Paris. You want to confirm your assumption.

パリで かったんですか。

Situation 3. It's 5 pm and you are just about to go home, but your colleague is still working at a computer. You want to confirm if he is not going home yet.

まだ かえらないんですか。

n desu ka is NOT used in the following situations:

Situation 1. Your host family has returned from a movie theater. You ask them if the movie was good.

えいがは おもしろかったですか。

Situation 2. Your colleague just came back from her trip to Alaska. You ask her if she saw the Aurora Borealis.

オーロラを 見ましたか。

Situation 3. You visit your professor's office to ask her questions about Japanese. You ask her if she is busy now.

今、いそがしいですか。

n desu is USED in the following situations:

Situation 1. When you are studying, your host mother brings you some coffee. She asks what you are studying. You tell her you are studying Japanese.

日本語を べんきょうしているんです。

Situation 2. Your host mother cooked you your favorite spicy hot dish. At dinner she asks you why you are not eating it. You tell her it is because you have a sore throat.

のどが いたいんです。

Situation 3. Your colleague heard that you are getting married and asks where you will go on your honeymoon. You tell her that you are going to Las Vegas.

ラスベガスへ 行くんです。

n desu is NOT used in the following situations:

Situation1. You came back from a trip to the US and give your colleague a T-shirt you bought for her. She asks you if you bought it in New York, and you confirm her assumption.

はい、ニューヨークで かいました。

Situation 2. Your host mother sees your heavy winter coat. She asks if it's very cold in Edmonton, and you confirm her assumption.

はい、とてもさむいです。

Situation 3. You always do a good job on a test. Your teacher asks you if you study a lot, and you confirm her assumption.

はい、よくべんきょうします。

n desu is NOT used in the following situations:

Situation 1. Your colleague asks you if your apartment is close to your office. You tell her it's a little far.

ちょっととおいです。

Situation 2. Your host father asks you if you are enjoying your stay in Japan. You tell him it's very enjoyable.

とてもたのしいです。

Situation 3. Your teacher asks you if you often study Japanese. You tell her you do every day.

毎日、べんきょうします。

Appendix E

Pretest

PLEASE RETURN THIS EVEN IF YOU DID NOT COMPLETE IT.

Your date of birth: ____/____/ Last 4 digits of your telephone number: __ __ __ __
dd/mm

1) Is English your first language? ( ) yes ( ) no

2) How much time have you spent in Japan? ( ) none ___weeks ___months ___years

3) How often do you speak Japanese with native Japanese speakers outside of class?

1. ( ) almost never 2. ( ) not very often 3. ( ) somewhat often 4. ( ) very often

4) How often do you watch *anime*, dramas, or movies in Japanese?

1. ( ) almost never 2. ( ) not very often 3. ( ) somewhat often 4. ( ) very often

5) Do you want to learn as much Japanese as possible?

1. ( ) yes 2. ( ) neither yes nor no 3. ( ) no

Directions: Please read the following situations and express what you would say in each situation by completing each statement or question. Please use ***POLITE FORM endings.***

Situation 1. Your host mother loves sweets. But, she is not eating the cake her daughter baked. You ask her why she is not eating it. (食べません／食べない)

どうして_____か。
(1)

Situation 2. Your colleague is wearing a sweater in the well air-conditioned office. You want to confirm if she feels cold. （さむいです／さむい）

_____か。
(2)

Situation 3. Your colleague has started taking dance lessons. You ask her if dancing is difficult. （むずかしいです／むずかしい）

ダンスは_____か。
(3)

Situation 4. At dinner your host mother asks you why you are not eating much. You tell her it is because you ate a snack before dinner. (食べました／食べた)

ばんごはんの前にスナックを_____。
(4)

Situation 5. Your classmate finds that you know nothing about TV programs. He asks you if you don't watch TV, and you confirm his assumption.
（見ません／見ない）

はい、ぜんぜん_____。
(5)

Situation 6. Your classmate asks you if your car is new. You tell him it's very old.
（ふるいです／ふるい）

いいえ、とても_____。
(6)

Situation 7. You walk into the living room and see your host father is watching TV. You ask him what program he is watching. （みています／みている）

何を_____か。
(7)

Situation 8. You know your colleague loves drinking and looks like he has a hangover. You think he drank a lot of alcohol yesterday. You want to confirm your assumption. （のみました／のんだ）

きのう、たくさんおさけを_____か。
(8)

Situation 9. There will be a party on Friday night. You ask your colleague if he is going to the party. （行きます／行く）

パーティーに_____か。
(9)

Situation 10. Your colleague heard that you are having a party and asks you when. You tell her that you are having a party on Saturday. （します／する）

土曜日にパーティーを_____。
(10)

Situation 11. You are reading a comic book and laugh a lot. Your classmate asks if the book is funny, and you confirm her assumption.
(おもしろいです／ おもしろい)

ええ、とても_____。
(11)

Situation 12. Your host father asks you if Edmonton is a big city. You tell him it is big. (大きいです／大きい)

はい、_____。
(12)

Situation 13. You heard that your colleague is going to Hawaii for vacation. You ask her when. (行きます／行く)

いつ_____か。
(13)

Situation 14. It's 8 a.m., and your host brother is still in bed. You want to confirm if he is not going to school today. (行きません／行かない)

学校へ_____か。
(14)

Situation 15. You see something unfamiliar at dinner. You ask your host mother if it tastes good. （おいしいです／おいしい）

これは、_____か。
(15)

Situation 16. You are listening to music with earphones. Your classmate asks you what you are listening to. You tell him it's Japanese music. (きいています／きいている)

日本のおんがくを_____。
(16)

Situation 17. Your host mother sees you going out with your gym bag. She asks you if you are going to the gym, and you confirm her assumption. (行きます／行く)

はい、ジムへ_____。
(17)

Situation 18. Your teacher asks you if you read the textbook every day. You tell her you read it sometimes. (よみます／よむ)

ときどき_____。
(18)

Thank you for your participation.

Appendix F

Posttest and Delayed Posttest

PLEASE RETURN THIS EVEN IF YOU DID NOT COMPLETE IT.

Your date of birth: ____/____/ Last 4 digits of your telephone number: __ __ __ __
dd/mm

*Directions: Please read the following situations and express what you would say in each situation by completing each statement or question. Please use **POLITE FORM endings.***

Situation 1. Your classmate asks you if your car is new. You tell him it's very old.
（ふるいです／ふるい）

いいえ、とても_____。
(か)

Situation 2. Your colleague is wearing a sweater in the well air-conditioned office. You want to confirm if she feels cold. （さむいです／さむい）

_____か。
(い)

Situation 3. Your classmate finds that you know nothing about TV programs. He asks you if you don't watch TV, and you confirm his assumption.
（みません／みない）

はい、ぜんぜん_____。
(お)

Situation 4. At dinner your host mother asks you why you are not eating much. You tell her it is because you ate a snack before dinner. (たべました／たべた)

ばんごはんの前にスナックを_____。
(え)

Situation 5. Your colleague has started taking dance lessons. You ask her if dancing is difficult. （むずかしいです／むずかしい）

ダンスは_____か。
(う)

Situation 6. Your host mother loves sweets. But, she is not eating the cake her daughter baked. You ask her why she is not eating it. (たべません／たべない)

どうして_____か。
(あ)

Situation 7. You know your colleague loves drinking and looks like he has a hangover. You think he drank a lot of alcohol yesterday. You want to confirm your assumption. （のみました／のんだ）

きのう、たくさんおさけを_____か。
(く)

Situation 8. You walk into the living room and see your host father is watching TV. You ask him what program he is watching. （みています／みている）

何を_____か。
(き)

Situation 9. Your colleague heard that you are having a party and asks you when. You tell her that you are having a party on Saturday. （します／する）

土曜日にパーティーを_____。
(こ)

Situation 10. Your host father asks you if Edmonton is a big city. You tell him it is big.
(大きいです／ 大きい)

はい、_____。
(し)

Situation 11. There will be a party on Friday night. You ask your colleague if he is going to the party. （いきます／いく）

パーティーに_____か。
(け)

Situation 12. You are reading a comic book and laugh a lot. Your classmate asks if the book is funny, and you confirm her assumption.
(おもしろいです／ おもしろい)

ええ、とても_____。
(さ)

Situation 13. Your host mother sees you going out with your gym bag. She asks you if you are going to the gym, and you confirm her assumption.
(いきます／いく)

はい、ジムへ_____。
(ち)

Situation 14. You heard that your colleague is going to Hawaii for vacation. You ask her when. (いきます／いく)

いつ_____か。
(す)

Situation 15. You see something unfamiliar at dinner. You ask your host mother if it tastes good. (おいしいです／おいしい)

これは、_____か。
(そ)

Situation 16. It's 8 a.m., and your host brother is still in bed. You want to confirm if he is not going to school today. (いきません／いかない)

学校へ_____か。
(せ)

Situation 17. You are listening to music with earphones. Your classmate asks you what you are listening to. You tell him it's Japanese music.
(きいています／きいている)

日本のおんがくを_____。
(た)

Situation 18. Your teacher asks you if you read the textbook every day. You tell her you read it sometimes. (よみます／よむ)

ときどき_____。
(つ)

Thank you for your participation.