Acquisition of the Japanese Errand Construction in Japanese as a Foreign Language

Thesis

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Master of Arts
in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

Saori Nozaki, B.A., M.A.
Graduate Program in East Asian Languages and Literatures

The Ohio State University
2009

Thesis Committee:
Dr. Etsuyo Yuasa, Advisor
Dr. Mineharu Nakayama
Abstract

This study examined the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction by English-speaking Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) learners. The errand construction is an expression that describes a motion event in which a subject of motion goes elsewhere, does a certain activity, and comes back. The English errand constructions employ two verbs, ‘go’ and ‘do (an activity),’ or only one verb, ‘do (an activity).’ Japanese also takes two verbs to describe an errand motion event; however, the verbs that Japanese uses are different – ‘do (an activity) and come (back).’

From my teaching experience in the Japanese program at The Ohio State University and the results of Inagaki’s study (2001) that investigates the acquisition of motion verbs with goal prepositional/postpositional phrases by English-speaking Japanese as a foreign languages (JFL) learners, I supposed that difficulties are likely to be observed in the case of English-speaking JFL learner’s acquisition of the Japanese errand construction. Although JFL learners are aware of the correct Japanese errand construction, such as Pen-o katte kimasu ‘I will buy a pen and come (back),’ they may wrongly accept Japanese sentences, such as Pen-o itte kaimasu ‘I will go and buy a pen’ and Pen-o kaimasu ‘I will buy a pen,’ as expressions of errand motion events due to an influence from English errand construction.
In order to examine English-speaking JFL learners’ acquisition of the Japanese errand construction, a written acceptability/naturalness judgment task was specifically developed for the experiment. Data were collected from 35 English-speaking JFL learners at The Japanese program at The Ohio State University and from 9 native speakers of Japanese from both on and off campus.

The results suggest that English-speaking JFL learners judge the Japanese errand construction as grammatical even at beginning levels of learning and that the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction develops generally and steadily as their proficiency increases. As a reason for this phenomenon, the effect of positive evidence is assumed to play a significant role. Nevertheless, the learners also accept the English transferred errand constructions at the same time. Despite the fact that the learners received explicit formal instructions on the difference between the English and Japanese errand constructions, they have difficulties overcoming the negative transfer problems from their first language, especially the beginning level learners. In addition to these phenomena, the learners appear to be constructing an interlanguage during the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction. Their interlanguage shows an improvement as their proficiency level increases; yet, they cannot always escape from the problems of fossilization or backsliding. As a result, they may never reach the level where they can properly use the construction consistently.
Dedication

Dedicated to my parents
Acknowledgments

In completion of this thesis, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my academic and thesis advisor, Dr. Etsuyo Yuasa, who has spent countless hours guiding me from selecting the topic of this thesis until its completion. Without her intellectual support and encouragement, I would not have been able to complete this thesis. Her passion for research and enthusiasm for teaching has always been a source of inspiration and has influenced my academic life at The Ohio State University. Under her guidance, I have learned a tremendous amount of essential knowledge of academia.

I also wish to thank Dr. Mineharu Nakayama, who has also given me extensive intellectual support, especially on the experimental part of this thesis, since he kindly accepted to be on my thesis committee. His profound knowledge on experimental research helped me design the experiment and obtain the results of this thesis enormously. Moreover, in-depth discussions with him and his insights on the analysis of the data greatly impacted the outcome of the study. His patience and prompt feedback was also indispensable for the completion of this thesis.

I would like to thank all the participants in this study – 36 Japanese as a foreign language learners from the Japanese program at The Ohio State University and 9 Japanese native speaker participants. Despite their busy schedules in the middle of the
spring quarter, all the participants willingly participated in this study. Without their cooperation, this thesis would not have been completed, either.

My gratitude also goes to the instructors at the Japanese program at The Ohio State University. I would like to thank Ms. Yuko Kuwai, Ms. Haruko Iwami, Ms. Ai Terada, Ms. Junliang Huang, and Mr. Seth Goss for allowing me to recruit the participants from their classrooms.

I must thank Ms. Lili Zhuang from the Department of Statistics for her help on the statistical analysis of the collected data.

My appreciation also goes to Mr. Benjamin Boroughfield for taking time out of his busy schedule to proofread my entire thesis and make stylistic suggestions.

My gratitude extends to the staff at the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures, who helped me since I became a graduate student at The Ohio State University. Especially, I wish to thank Ms. Debbie Knicely, who has always cheered me up and taken care of me like my mother.

I am grateful to the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures at The Ohio State University for giving me the opportunity to teach Japanese at the Japanese program. This thesis study could not have been conducted without the financial support of the Institute for Japanese Studies at The Ohio State University as well as the Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures.

Last but not least, I would like to thank all the people who have supported me in various ways – my family and friends in Japan, and everyone who helped me be who I
am today. I am truly grateful to my family for understanding my wish to come back to the States again and supporting me patiently in Japan although I could not come to see them often. I greatly appreciate my friends’ friendship and help. Without them, my life at The Ohio State University would not have been fruitful and enjoyable.
Vita

March, 1995 ......................................... B.A. English Language,
Daito Bunka University, Tokyo

April, 1996 – March, 2007 ..................... English language teacher at the
public high schools, Kagawa, Japan

August, 2004 - May, 2006 ..................... M.A. in TESOL (Teaching English to the
Speaker of Other Languages)
The University of Mississippi

September, 2007 – Present ...................... Graduate Teaching Associate
The Department of East Asian
Languages and Literatures
The Ohio State University

Field of Study

Major Field: East Asian Languages and Literatures

Japanese Linguistics

Japanese Second Language Acquisition

Japanese Pedagogy
Table of Contents

Abstract...........................................................................................................................................ii
Dedication..........................................................................................................................................iv
Acknowledgments.............................................................................................................................v
Vita......................................................................................................................................................viii
List of Tables .....................................................................................................................................xi
List of Figures ....................................................................................................................................xii
List of Abbreviations ........................................................................................................................xiii

Chapters:
1. Introduction...................................................................................................................................1
   1.1. Different constructions for expressing motion events .........................................................2
   1.2. Purpose of this thesis..............................................................................................................7

2. Japanese errand construction .....................................................................................................9
   2.1. The Japanese errand construction / verbal gerund –te + kuru/ ..........................................9
       2.1.1. Japanese verbal gerund .................................................................................................9
       2.1.2. The difference between Japanese kuru and English come ...................................10
       2.1.3. What the whole Japanese errand construction means ...........................................14
2.2. Acquisition of the Japanese errand construction.............................................16

3. The experiment ............................................................................................................18
   3.1. Experimental design ............................................................................................18
   3.2. Test material .......................................................................................................18
   3.3. Subjects ..............................................................................................................23
   3.4. Procedure ..........................................................................................................27
   3.5. Results ...............................................................................................................28

4. Discussion and conclusion ........................................................................................33
   4.1. Positive evidence and negative transfer ..........................................................33
   4.2. Interlanguage theory and the Japanese errand construction .........................39
   4.3. Concluding remarks .........................................................................................41

Bibliography .................................................................................................................44
Appendix: Questionnaires ...............................................................................................46
List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>The verbs that were used in the test sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>The combinations of the three types of errand constructions with the nine verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>The number of the subjects from each level and their class contact hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Demographic information of the JFL learners and the Japanese native participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Living experience in Japan (JFL learners) and English-speaking countries (Japanese native participants)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>The results of one-way ANOVA in each errand construction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated mean values of JFL learners and Japanese groups in three errand constructions</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Abbreviations

ACC  Accusative Case
COP  Copula
GER  Gerund Form
LOC  Locative Case
NOM  Nominative Case
Q    Interrogative Marker
TOP  Topic Marker
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

The way to describe a motion event varies from language to language (Talmy, 1985). In order to express a single motion event, some languages need more than two verbs whereas others can use only one verb. Even though two languages might use the same number of words to describe the same motion event, those words may differ. In this thesis, I will investigate how English-speaking Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) learners acquire the Japanese errand construction that differs from the errand constructions of English. Examples of the Japanese errand construction are given in (1).

(1) a. Pen-o katte kimasu.
   pen-ACC buy-GER come (back)
   ‘I will go and buy a pen.’ or ‘I will buy a pen.’

b. Chotto tabete kimasu.
   Just eat-GER come (back)
   ‘I will go and eat.’ or ‘I will eat.’
c. Omawari-san-ni kiite kimasu.
   police officer-to ask-GER come (back)
   ‘I will go and ask the police officer.’ or ‘I will ask the police officer.’

The characteristics of these examples will be discussed in Chapter 2 in detail.

In order to contextualize the present study and show how a motion event may be expressed differently from language to language, I will first discuss Talmy’s (1985) study on the typology of lexicalization and some examples in Section 1.1. There, I will also briefly introduce the English and Japanese errand constructions that describe motion events. The purpose of this study and the organization of this thesis are presented in Section 1.2.

1.1. Different Constructions for Expressing Motion Events

While it is clear that syntactic and morphological differences exist among different languages (e.g., SVO vs. SOV; case marking vs. word order; agglutinative vs. non-agglutinative), it is not often obvious that the same event may be expressed in quite different constructions in different languages. Nonetheless, Talmy (1985) examines a range of lexicalization patterns and concludes that different languages employ different constructions to express a variety of motion events. His approach begins by isolating elements within the domain of meaning and the domain of surface string, respectively. He identifies semantic notions, such as ‘Figure,’ ‘Ground,’ ‘Path,’ ‘Motion,’ ‘Manner,’ and ‘Cause.’ The surface strings are like ‘verb,’ ‘adposition,’ ‘subordinate clause,’ and what he characterizes as ‘satellite.’ Next, he examines which semantic notions are
expressed by which surface strings and shows that the way a semantic notion (or notions) is associated with a surface string (or strings) in one language is not necessarily the same as the way they are associated in another language. For example, English expresses two semantic notions, ‘Motion’ (directed motion) and ‘Manner’ (manner of motion), with one surface string walk, as shown in (2a). On the other hand, Japanese employs two verbs, aruite iku ‘walk-go,’ to represent two semantic notions ‘Motion’ and ‘Manner,’ as shown in (2b). This is because the Japanese verb *aruku ‘walk’ in (2b) indicates only ‘Manner’ and does not include ‘Motion.’ To express ‘Motion’ as well, a manner of motion verb aruku ‘walk’ needs to be combined with a directed motion verb iku ‘go’ to make a complex form aruite iku ‘walk-go.’

(2) a. Taro walks to school every day.
   b. Tarō-wa mainichi gakkō-ni *aruku / aruite iku.
      Taro-TOP everyday school-LOC walk / walk-go
      ‘Taro walks to school every day.’

Talmy (1985) and Tanaka and Matsumoto (1997) provide another case where the English verbal lexicalization pattern differs from that of Japanese. English verbs, as shown in (3a), can express both an agent’s act other than motion and a motion in one surface form. Therefore, the English verb wore in (3a) expresses both agent’s state (wearing a green dress) and motion (going to the party).
(3)  
  a.  She wore a green dress to the party.
  b.  Kanojo-wa  pāti-ni  midori-no-doresu-o  kite  itta.
      she-TOP  party-LOC  green dress-ACC  wear-GER  went
      ‘She wore a green dress to the party.’

(Talmy, 1985: 66)

In (3a), the English verb *wore* originally expressed only an agent’s act of ‘wearing.’ Nevertheless, *wore* in (3a) also includes the agent’s motion to the *party*.\(^1\) In order to express this motion event in Japanese, the gerund form of *kiru, kite* ‘wear’ must be used with the motion verb *itta* ‘went’ in (3b). Therefore, again, the motion event that is expressed by one English verb requires two verbs in Japanese showing both state and motion. This case presents another example of a clear difference in the lexicalization patterns of motion verbs between English and Japanese.

Still, there are cases in which Japanese and English use the same number of verbs to express a motion event. For example, in order to express an errand motion event in which a subject goes elsewhere, does a certain activity, and comes back, two verbs are required in both languages. Examples of the Japanese and English errand constructions are given in (4a) and (4b), respectively.\(^2\)

\[\text{In English verbs such as } \textit{wear}, \textit{Talmy (1985) suggests that the conflation of motion and state takes place. Therefore, in (3a), it is the verb } \textit{wear}, \textit{not the preposition } \textit{to}, \textit{that encodes the agent’s directed motion.}
\]

\[\text{English also allows (4c), which requires only one verb, to express an errand motion event.}\]
Although the English and Japanese errand constructions use two verbs, they employ different verbs (Jorden with Noda, 1987). In order to express an errand motion event, three possible expressions can be considered – ‘do (an activity) and come,’ ‘go and do (an activity),’ and ‘do (an activity).’ As shown above in (4a), the Japanese errand construction follows the first pattern and takes ‘do (an activity)’ and ‘come (back).’ On the other hand, one of the English errand constructions, as shown in (4b), adopts the second pattern and uses ‘go’ and ‘do (an activity).’ If the second pattern is applied to Japanese, the form will be itte kaimasu ‘go and buy;’ however, it does not express an errand motion event. Rather, itte kaimasu ‘go and buy’ emphasizes what a person does before ‘buying,’ and itte ‘go’ contrasts with other activities s/he might do before ‘buying,’ such as matte kaimasu ‘wait and buy’ or modotte kaimasu ‘return and buy.’ Interestingly, ‘go’ is chosen in English instead of ‘come,’ and ‘come’ is used in Japanese instead of ‘go,’ although an errand motion event is expressed by one motion verb and another verb in both English and Japanese.

This difference in errand constructions between English and Japanese appears to be related to the difference of focus between Japanese and English (Yoshikawa, 1995). Yoshikawa (1995) claims that Japanese places more focus on the result of an event, while
English tends to focus on the cause of an event. For example, in order to describe a situation that is caused by a force beyond human power, English often designates a cause as the subject of the sentence and expresses the situation with the transitive sentence pattern. On the contrary, in Japanese, it is natural to express such situations focusing on the ‘results,’ and the causes are included in adverbial clauses. Compare the English expression in (5a) below with the Japanese counterpart in (5b).

(5) a. Our limited budget did not allow us to start a project. (Possibility)

b. Yosan-ga kagirarete-ite atarashii kikaku-ga
   budget-NOM limit-Pass-because new project-NOM

   hajimerarenaku natta.
   start-Poten-Neg become-Past

   ‘(lit.) Because the budget was limited, we could not start a new project.’
   (Yoshikawa, 1995: 200)

In (5a) above, the cause ‘our limited budget’ appears as the subject of the sentence, and it is emphasized more than the results (‘not allowing us to start a project’). On the other hand, the Japanese counterpart in (5b) contains the cause of the event in adverbial clauses (yosan-ga kagirarete ite ‘because of the limited budget’), and the result, atarashii kikaku-ga hajimerarenaku natta ‘(we) could not start a new project,’ is stated as the main description of the sentence. If we apply this theory to the errand constructions in both English and Japanese, it can be said that English errand construction employs ‘go and do something’ because it focuses on a ‘cause,’ and the Japanese errand construction uses the
opposite pattern, ‘do something and come (back),’ because it emphasizes the result of ‘going and doing something,’ which is kuru ‘come (back).’

1.2. Purpose of this Thesis

In the previous section, I have discussed that the same motion event can be expressed in fairly different forms between English and Japanese. Inagaki (2001) investigates such cases and examines the acquisition of construction that express a directed motion and a manner of motion, discussed in (2) above. He concludes that while Japanese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) successfully identify the English manner of motion verbs (e.g., ‘Taro walks to school every day’) as grammatical, English-speaking JFL learners tend to apply the characteristic of English manner of motion verbs to Japanese and wrongly judge ungrammatical sentences, such as *Taro-wa mainichi gakkō-ni aruku in (2b), as grammatical. Following Inagaki’s study, I investigate the Japanese errand construction, discussed in (4), and examine how English-speaking JFL learners acquire the construction.

This study is important because there are not many studies on the English-speaking JFL learner’s acquisition of motion verbs except for Inagaki’s (2001) study; although studies about Japanese motion verbs have been extensively done by many scholars (Kageyama and Yumoto, 1996; Tanaka and Matsumoto, 1997, among others). The different errand constructions may not necessarily be obvious to learners but the difference does exist between English and Japanese. Therefore, it is vital for both English-speaking JFL learners and their instructors to become familiar with the process of acquisition of the construction.
The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 examines the detailed structural characteristics and the usage of the Japanese errand construction. There, I will also introduce the research question of the experiment that I designed. Chapter 3 shows the experimental design and reports how the English-speaking JFL leaner acquires the Japanese errand construction. Chapter 4 discusses the results of the experiment and provides a conclusion.
2.0. Introduction

As shown in Chapter 1, there is a significant difference between the English and Japanese errand expressions: English utilizes ‘go’ and ‘do (an activity)’ whereas Japanese employs the ‘do (an activity)’ and ‘come (back)’ pattern. In this chapter, I will examine the Japanese errand construction / verbal gerund –te + kuru / in detail. In Section 2.1, the structure / verbal gerund –te + kuru / is closely investigated by looking into its two components – Japanese verbal gerund form and kuru (to come). I will also discuss how the whole / verbal gerund –te + kuru / construction is used. Section 2.2 provides a brief discussion of the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction, and the research question of this study is presented.

2.1. The Japanese Errand Construction / verbal gerund –te + kuru /

2.1.1. Japanese Verbal Gerund
The first part of the verbal portion of the Japanese errand construction is the gerund form. The gerund form is one of the word forms in Japanese that ends in –te or –de, and the word types that can be changed into the gerund form are verbs and adjectives. Jorden with Noda (1987: 163) explain that the gerund (of Japanese verbs) is a form which i) links up with a predicate, and ii) implies a realized state or activity. The word ‘realized,’ however, means ‘at least begun,’ and it does not matter whether the activity may or may not be completed. When the gerund form is introduced in Japanese classrooms, it is often introduced in combination with kudasai ‘please (give)’ to form a polite request expression. In this polite request –te kudasai, the requested state or activity is expressed in the gerund form as a ‘realized’ state or activity of the speaker’s favor. Therefore, in the polite request form tabete kudasai (tabete is the gerund form of a verb taberu ‘eat’ + kudasai ‘please’), the realized activity, ‘eat,’ is first requested by the speaker followed by kudasai ‘please.’ When the gerund form is used in the Japanese errand construction, as in tabete kuru (the gerund form of a verb taberu ‘eat’ + kuru ‘come back’), the construction means “someone is going to come back having done something,” and the realized activity of eating in tabete kuru comes from the gerund form part of the construction.

2.1.2. The Difference between Japanese kuru and English come

The second part of the Japanese errand construction, kuru ‘come’ appears to be similar to the English verb come. Ōe (1975) however suggests that there are differences

---

3 Many Japanese textbooks popularly used in the U.S. refer to the gerund form as ‘te-form.’
between the conditions for the use of the English verb *come* and those for the Japanese verb *kuru*. According to Ōe’s conditions, the English verb ‘to come’ can be used at least when one of the following conditions in (1) is satisfied.

(1)  

a. A speaker is at the goal of motion when a conversation takes place.  
b. A speaker is at the goal of motion when a subject of motion reaches the goal of motion.  
c. A listener is at the goal of motion when a conversation takes place.  
d. A listener is at the goal of motion when a subject of motion reaches the goal of motion.

(Ōe, 1975: 13-14)

As indicated by the conditions in (1), the English verb *come* can be used when a speaker or a listener is at the goal of motion when either conversation takes place or a subject of motion reaches the goal of motion. For example, if the speaker or the listener is in Tokyo when the sentences in (2) are uttered, the use of the verb *come* in (2) is allowed because the conditions in (1a) and (1c) are satisfied. Also, if the speaker or the listener is in Tokyo tomorrow (when *John* reaches Tokyo), the use of *come* in (2) is acceptable due to the conditions in (1b) and (1d).

(2) John is in Osaka now. He will *come* to Tokyo tomorrow.

(Ōe, 1975: 13-14)
Compared to the conditions of English *come*, Ōe claims that the conditions for the use of Japanese *kuru* are more limited: Only (1a) and (1b) are applicable to the use of the Japanese *kuru* ‘come.’ Therefore, only if a speaker is at the goal of motion when a conversation takes place or when a subject of motion reaches the goal of motion, is the use of *kuru* acceptable in Japanese. Accordingly, the following uses of *kuru* ‘come’ are not acceptable.

\[(3)\] (The speaker is calling the listener at the listener’s place)

\[a.\] *Watasi-ga ashita otaku-ni kimasu.\]^4

I-NOM tomorrow your house-LOC come

‘I will come to your house tomorrow.’

\[b.\] *Watasi-ga ashita otaku-ni katte kimasu.\]^5

I-NOM tomorrow your house-LOC buy-GER come

‘I will buy and come to your house tomorrow.’

In (3a), the listener is at the goal of motion (the listener’s place) when the conversation takes place but the speaker is not. Therefore, (3a) is ungrammatical in Japanese. This restriction on Japanese *kuru* ‘come’ also applies to the errand construction. Hence, (3b) is also impossible, since the speaker is not at the goal of motion when the conversation takes place.

\[^4\text{Kimasu is the distal form of the direct form } kuru \text{ ‘come.’}\]

\[^5\text{These sentences become acceptable, if } ikimasu \text{ ‘go’ is used instead of } kimasu \text{ ‘come.’ However, I will discuss only the / verbal gerund –te + kuru / pattern in this thesis.}\]
In addition to Ōe’s conditions for the use of Japanese *kuru*, Makino and Tsutsui (1989) claim that *kuru* can also be used when the speaker takes the viewpoint of the listener or when s/he feels strong empathy toward a certain location. Examples in (4) illustrate such cases.

(4) a. Nanshī-wa kinō pātī-ni kimashita ka.
   ‘Did Nancy come to the party yesterday?’

b. Boku-no kenkyūshitsu-ni ashita kite kudasai.
   ‘Please come to my office tomorrow.’

(Makino and Tsutsui, 1989: 219-220)

In (4a), the speaker, who did not attend yesterday’s party, asks the listener, who was at the party, whether Nancy attended the party. The speaker uses the verb *kimashita* ‘came’ in his interrogative sentence by placing his viewpoint on the listener. Moreover, (4b) is an example where the speaker considers *kenkyūshitsu* ‘office’ to be within the speaker’s territory. It seems that the use of *kuru*, as shown in (4), extends to the errand construction, too. Therefore, even if the speaker was not at the party, the errand construction (*katte kimasita* ‘buy and come (back)’) in (5) below is acceptable, if the speaker takes the viewpoint of the listener.
(5) Nanshī-wa kinō pātī-ni nani-o katte kimashita ka.
Nancy-TOP yesterday party-LOC what-ACC buy-GER came (back) Q
‘What did Nancy buy and come (back) to the party yesterday?’

From Ōe (1975) and Makino and Tsutsui’s (1989) descriptions of the verb kuru, we see that kuru indicates a movement toward i) the speaker or ii) the area in which the speaker has located his/her viewpoint on or his/her feelings of empathy with. Combining the meaning of the verbal gerund and the characteristics of Japanese kuru, I conclude that the Japanese errand construction indicates that the agent of the activity returns to where the conversation takes place or where the speaker places his/her viewpoint or empathy after an activity is realized.

2.1.3. What the Whole Japanese Errand Construction Means

In the previous section, I have examined the basic meaning of the errand construction. Still, the errand construction means more than just coming back to the area of conversation or empathy after an activity is realized. Yamamoto (2001) suggests that the whole Japanese errand construction functions to show that a speaker and a listener form a common “base” and share the “base” together. This implies that even if a speaker or a listener leaves the place where s/he is having a conversation and performs an activity in another location, both speaker and listener acknowledge the fact that they are sharing a common “base” to return to. Let us look at the examples in (6) to (8).
(6) (The speaker found that s/he came for a concert on the wrong date and is going to check another show)

Soko-de Pia katte kuru kara mattete.

there-LOC Pia buy-GER come (back) since please wait

‘I will go and buy Pia there, so please wait.’

(7) Atashi ocha yatte ageru kara,

I tea do (make)-GER give therefore

hige sotte kitara.

beard shave-GER why don’t you come (back)

‘I am going to make tea, so why don’t you go and shave?’

(8) (After the speaker tells the listener what he/she has been up to)

Ashita-kara Okinawa-ni itte kimasu.

tomorrow-from Okinawa-LOC go-GER come (back)

Tanaka-san-ni mo atte kuru tsumori desu.

Mr./Ms. Tanaka-ACC also meet-GER come (back) plan to COP

‘I will go to Okinawa tomorrow. I will also see Mr. Tanaka (in Okinawa).’

(Yamamoto, 2001: 56)

In (6), the speaker is leaving the “base” to buy a Pia and expects the listener to wait for him/her until s/he comes back to the “base” to decide what to do next. In (7), the listener

---

6 Pia is the name of a magazine that contains information about entertainments.
is the agent of motion. The speaker advises the listener to shave and come back. The speaker’s utterance *sotte kitara* ‘why don’t you shave and come back?’ also implies that the speaker will be waiting for the listener until he comes back after having shaved. The example in (8) features a case in which the speaker is the agent of motion. By telling the listener what he/she has been up to, the speaker forms the “base” with the listener. After having formed the “base” with the listener, the speaker says to the listener *itte kimasu* ‘go and come back’ and *atte kimasu* ‘meet and come back’ to the listener. This implies that s/he will come back to the “base” where the listener is located after having left to meet Mr. Tanaka. By acknowledging the place where the conversation takes place as a “base,” both the speaker and the listener expect that although the speaker or the listener leaves the “base” temporarily, s/he will come back to their “base” eventually. In order to acquire the Japanese errand construction, the English-speaking JFL learners therefore need to pay attention to the meaning of each component of the Japanese errand construction as well as this subtle nuance of shared “base.”

2.2. Acquisition of the Japanese Errand Construction

In my personal experience of teaching Japanese at The Ohio State University, many learners appear to have difficulty using the Japanese errand construction correctly. Even though their textbook, *Japanese: The Spoken Language* (Jorden with Noda, 1987), contains explicit explanation about the construction, the use of *kuru* ‘come’ in the construction especially seems to puzzle many of the students.

As Inagaki’s study (2001), which was introduced briefly in Chapter 1, suggests, although English-speaking JFL learners accepted as grammatical the correct Japanese
construction that expresses a directed motion and a manner of motion, such as *Tarō-wa mainichi gakkō-ni aruite iku shown in (2b) in Chapter 1, they were still influenced by the characteristics of the English manner of motion verbs. As a result, they wrongly judged ungrammatical sentences like *Tarō-wa mainichi gakkō-ni aruku as grammatical, which was also shown in (2b) in Chapter 1. From these results, I suspect that the same phenomenon is likely to occur in the case of the English-speaking JFL learner’s acquisition of the Japanese errand construction. In other words, although JFL learners are aware of the correct Japanese errand construction, such as Pen-o katte kimasu shown in (4a) in Chapter 1, English errand constructions may still affect their production of Japanese errand constructions, leading them to produce sentences such as Pen-o itte kaimasu ‘I will go and buy a pen’ and Pen-o kaimasu ‘I will buy a pen’ discussed in (4) in Chapter 1. Hence, I examine how the English-speaking JFL learners acquire the Japanese errand construction in detail in this thesis. In the next chapter, I will first introduce the experimental design to investigate the English-speaking JFL learner’s acquisition of the Japanese errand construction. Then the results of the experiment will be presented.
CHAPTER 3

THE EXPERIMENT

3.1. Experimental Design

This study examines the following research question: How do English-speaking JFL learners acquire the Japanese errand construction? In order to answer this research question, an experiment was designed employing a written questionnaire with an acceptability/naturalness judgment task. English-speaking JFL learners (an experimental group) were recruited from the Japanese program at The Ohio State University while native speakers of Japanese (a control group) were recruited from both on and off The Ohio State University campus. All the participants were asked to complete the same written questionnaire.

3.2. Test Material

The questionnaire was composed of a test session and a demographic survey section. The copy of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix. The test portion included thirty questions; three practice questions, nine test questions, and eighteen filler questions. Each test sentence followed a short English story. In order for JFL learners to understand the Japanese test sentences correctly, all the Japanese test sentences were written both in
Japanese standard orthography (consisting of hiragana, katakana, and kanji) and in Romanization that the learners were all familiar with. Examples of each practice question, test question, and filler question are shown in (1) below.

(1)  

a. Sample practice question

You and your co-worker are in the kitchen and making coffee. The co-worker has found that the coffee cups in the kitchen are not very clean, and exclaimed, “these cups are not very clean.” You saw the cups and agree with her comment. You say:

そうですねえ。
Soo desu nee.

b. Sample test question

You are in the meeting room and preparing for this afternoon’s meeting with a co-worker. You find that you need to make 50 copies of the handout at the copy room. Your co-worker is setting up the video projector. You tell her:

ハンドアウトをコピーしてきます。
Handoauto (handout) o copii (copy) site kimasu.

c. Sample filler question

Your co-worker is driving you home. You are approaching to your apartment and want your co-worker to pull the car over just over there. You tell the co-worker:

あ、そこでとめてください。
A, soko de tomete kudasai.

---

7 The Romanization that was used in the written acceptability/naturalness judgment task was the style used in Japanese: The Spoken Language (Jordan with Noda, 1987).
All the vocabulary and the grammatical items that were used in the test were strictly limited to the ones presented in Lesson 1A to Lesson 7B of *Japanese: The Spoken Language* (Jordan with Noda, 1987) so that the participants of all levels would understand the Japanese test sentences, and that their judgments would not be affected by the vocabulary and grammatical items that they did not know. The nine verbs that were used in the test sentences are listed in Table 3.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Japanese verbal</th>
<th>English meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Kopī) simasu</td>
<td>To make a copy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tsukurimasu</td>
<td>To make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nomimasu</td>
<td>To drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mimasu</td>
<td>To see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kaimasu</td>
<td>To buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Tsukaimasu</td>
<td>To use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Tabemasu</td>
<td>To eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Kakimasu</td>
<td>To write/draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Kikimasu</td>
<td>To listen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: The Verbs Used in the Test Sentences

The three types of errand constructions that were used in the test sentences are shown in (2).
The three types of errand constructions

a. / Verbal Gerund (-te) + kimasu / (hereafter –te kimasu)
   ‘do (an activity) and come (back)’

b. / Activity (V-masu) / (hereafter -masu)
   ‘do (an activity)’

c. / itte + Activity (V-masu) / (hereafter itte -masu)
   ‘go and do (an activity)’

The construction shown in (2a) is the only correct Japanese errand construction. The ones in (2b) and (2c) are well-formed Japanese sentences but they do not express errand motion events in Japanese (cf. Section 1.1). The construction shown in (2b) is the translation of one of the English errand constructions, ‘do (an activity),’ and the construction in (2c) is the translation of another form of English errand constructions, ‘go and do (an activity).’

In order to avoid the influence of particular verbs, three different versions of the questionnaire (see Appendix) were created with different combinations of the three types of errand constructions (3 x 3 Latin square design). These versions, TEST A, TEST B, and TEST C included the same filler questions. The combinations of the three types of errand constructions with the nine verbs are shown in Table 3.2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbs</th>
<th>TEST A</th>
<th>TEST B</th>
<th>TEST C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. (Kopī) shimasu (do (make) a photocopy)</td>
<td>(Kopī) <strong>shite kimasu</strong> (do (make) a photocopy and come (back))</td>
<td>(Kopī) shimasu (do (make) a photocopy)</td>
<td>Itte (kopī) shimasu (go and do (make) a photocopy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Tsukurimasu (to make)</td>
<td>Itte tsukurimasu (go and make)</td>
<td><strong>Tsukutte kimasu</strong> (make and come (back))</td>
<td>Tsukurimasu (make)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Nomimasu (to drink)</td>
<td>Nomimasu (drink)</td>
<td>Itte nomimasu (go and drink)</td>
<td><strong>Nonde kimasu</strong> (drink and come (back))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mimasu (to see)</td>
<td><strong>Mite kimasu</strong> (see and come (back))</td>
<td>Mimasu (see)</td>
<td>Itte mimasu (go and see)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Kaimasu (to buy)</td>
<td>Itte kaimasu (go and buy)</td>
<td><strong>Katte kimasu</strong> (buy and come (back))</td>
<td>Kaimasu (buy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Tsukaimasu (to use)</td>
<td>Tsukaimasu (to use)</td>
<td>Itte tsukaimasu (go and use)</td>
<td><strong>Tsukatte kimasu</strong> (use and come (back))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Tabemasu (to eat)</td>
<td><strong>Tabete kimasu</strong> (eat and come (back))</td>
<td>Tabemasu (eat)</td>
<td>Itte tabemasu (go and eat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Kakimasu (to write/draw)</td>
<td>Itte kakimasu (go and write/draw)</td>
<td><strong>Kaite kimasu</strong> (write/draw and come (back))</td>
<td>Kakimasu (write/draw)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Kikimasu (to listen)</td>
<td>Kikimasu (listen)</td>
<td>Itte kikimasu (go and listen)</td>
<td><strong>Kiite kimasu</strong> (listen and come (back))</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2: The Combinations of the Three Types of Errand Constructions with the Nine Verbs

As shown in Table 3.2, each test included three instances of the –te kimasu pattern, the –masu pattern, and the itte –masu pattern each. The –te kimasu pattern appeared with shite kimasu ‘do (make) a photocopy and come (back)’, mite kimasu ‘see and come (back),’
and *tabete kimasu* ‘eat and come (back)’ in TEST A, *tukutte kimasu* ‘make and come (back),’ *katte kimasu* ‘buy and come (back),’ and *kaite kimasu* ‘write and come (back)’ in TEST B and so on. Each subject saw only one of the three versions. Since each proficiency level had nine subjects, three subjects each took the same version.

The nine test questions were mixed with the eighteen filler questions after the three practice questions. The order of the presentation of the test and filler questions was pseudo-random. Following the three practice questions, the questionnaire started with two filler questions, so a test question first appeared as the sixth question in the test session. After that, each test question was presented after two to three filler questions, and the last test question was given as the twenty-eighth question of the thirty questions. See Appendix for the actual material.

### 3.3. Subjects

The total number of subjects in this study was 44, including 35 English-speaking JFL learners and 9 native speakers of Japanese. All JFL learners were enrolled in the Japanese program at The Ohio State University when the data were collected (between May 8th and 22nd, 2009). As shown in Table 3.3 below, the JFL learners were from four different proficiency levels/classes: Level 1 (Japanese 103), Level 2 (Japanese 206), Level 3 (Japanese 509), and Level 4 (Japanese 612). From each level, nine subjects voluntarily participated in this study; however, since one participant from the Level 3
group rated the last eight sentences as ‘2’ in her task, her data were excluded from the analysis. Therefore, Level 3 contains only 8 subjects.\(^8\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of the subjects</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
<th>Level 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class contact hours</td>
<td>0 - 150</td>
<td>150 - 300</td>
<td>300 - 450</td>
<td>450 - 600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class contact hours of the JFL learners when the data were collected</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3: The Number of the Subjects from Each Level and their Class Contact Hours

The class contact hours of Level 1 are 0 to 150 hours. When the experiment was conducted, the participants had finished about 130 hours of classroom instruction. The class contact hours of Level 2 are 150 to 300 hours, and the participants from Level 2 had finished about 280 hours of classroom instruction. Level 3 participants had finished about 430 hours of classroom instruction, and Level 4 participants about 580 hours.

As shown in Table 3.4 below, the age range of JFL learners was from 18 to 29. There were 33 undergraduates and 2 graduate students (19 male and 16 female).

\(^8\) She took TEST B. Therefore, among the eight subjects in Level 3, three took TEST A, two took TEST B, and three took TEST C.
Table 3.4: Demographic Information of the JFL Learners and the Japanese Native Participants

Table 3.5 shows that ten JFL learners had lived in Japan (one learner in Level 1, and three each in Level, 2, 3, and 4). Their lengths of stay were mostly shorter than 12 months. Only one JFL learner in Level 2 had lived in Japan longer than three years. His reasons for the stay were studying at a K-12 institution (2-3 years), homestay (while studying at a K-12 institution and not attending school, 3-6 months each), and travel (1-2 years).
Table 3.5: Living Experience in Japan (JFL learners) and English-speaking Countries (Japanese native participants)

The native speakers of Japanese varied in their age, gender, and educational levels. Eight out of the nine native speakers of Japanese were studying at The Ohio State University when their data were collected. One Japanese subject was a spouse of a student who was studying at the University at the time. Their ages can be separated into two groups: four subjects were in the 18-25 age group, and five subjects were in the 30-39 age group. The subjects in the 18-25 age group were all undergraduate students (including two exchange students from Japanese universities in Tokyo), and those in the 30-39 age group were all graduate students or had a graduate degree. The numbers of male and female subjects were almost even (5 and 4, respectively). They all had
experience living in English-speaking countries (the U.S. and England) for longer than one year, and four of them have lived in English-speaking countries for longer than three years. Their reasons for staying in English-speaking countries also varied: most of them had studied or were studying at K-12 or higher education institutions; three of them were staying in English-speaking countries due to family circumstances, such as his/her father’s work/study, or marriage.

3.4. Procedure

All JFL learners were directly recruited from their Japanese classes by the experimenter. The native speakers of Japanese were also recruited directly by the experimenter through personal connection. All subjects were over eighteen-years-old and voluntarily participated in the study.

In order to collect the English-speaking JFL learners’ data, the experimenter visited all four classes at the end of their classes. After the experimenter explained the purpose and the volunteer nature of the study and said that she would collect the questionnaire one week later so that the participants had one week to complete it, she asked the potential subjects to write their names and e-mail addresses on a sign-up sheet. Then, the experimenter handed the questionnaire to each subject. About one week later, the experimenter collected the questionnaire by visiting the classes again. Upon receiving the completed questionnaires, each participant was given eight dollars for their participation.

As for collecting the data of the native Japanese subjects, the experimenter handed a questionnaire to each participant in person or electrically sent one to the
participants after they agreed to participate in the study. The completed questionnaires were also either handed in person or electrically sent back to the experimenter. The participation fee (eight dollars) was also paid to all the Japanese participants.

The questionnaire included nine test questions to measure their ability to judge the correct Japanese errand construction. Each test question included a short English narrative and a Japanese test sentence. After reading a story, the subjects were asked to rate the Japanese sentence as to whether or not it would be appropriate to say in that specific context. The rating scale was from -2 (completely unacceptable/unnatural) to 2 (completely acceptable/natural).

3.5 Results

The estimated mean value of each errand construction (-te kimasu, -masu, and itte -masu) in the written acceptability/naturalness task for each subject group was calculated from the results of the Tukey multiple comparisons of means test, shown in Figure 3.1.
Figure 3.1: Estimated Mean Values of JFL Learners and Japanese Groups in Three Errand Constructions

In order to determine the presence of a significant difference between the estimated mean values of the subject groups and the effect of group factor, one-way ANOVA was conducted for each errand construction. The results are shown in Table 3.6 below.
Table 3.6: The Results of One-way ANOVA in Each Errand Construction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Effect of subject group factor</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
<th>Significantly different cases</th>
<th>$p$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-te kimasu</td>
<td>$F(4, 13.81) = 2.54$</td>
<td>.04*</td>
<td>Level 3 vs. Level 4</td>
<td>.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-masu</td>
<td>$F(4, 30.95) = 5.06$</td>
<td>.00***</td>
<td>Japanese vs. Level 1</td>
<td>.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Japanese vs. Level 2</td>
<td>.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Japanese vs. Level 4</td>
<td>.02*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>itte -masu</td>
<td>$F(4, 58.92) = 10.11$</td>
<td>.00***</td>
<td>Japanese vs. Level 1</td>
<td>.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Japanese vs. Level 2</td>
<td>.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Level 1 vs. Level 3</td>
<td>.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Level 1 vs. Level 4</td>
<td>.01**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Level 2 vs. Level 3</td>
<td>.03*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Level 2 vs. Level 4</td>
<td>.02*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Figure 1, JFL learners’ estimated mean values of the Japanese errand construction –te kimasu generally increase as the learners’ proficiency levels increase. There is an exception in Level 3 learners group’s low estimated mean value (0.17); however, I cannot explain this unexpected pattern at this point. If we examine the individual learners, we notice that there was one learner in Level 1 who correctly rated all three sentences of the Japanese errand construction in the written acceptability/naturalness judgment task completely acceptable/natural. As for Level 2, three learners answered perfectly, and one from Level 4 also correctly answered the questions. Nevertheless, none from Level 3 scored perfectly, and one learner from Level 3 rated all three sentences of the Japanese errand construction as -1 (unacceptable/unnatural). A group factor effect was observed in the variance of all groups’ estimated mean values ($F(4, 13.81) = 2.54, p = .04*$). This seems to be mainly from the significant difference between the estimated mean values of Level 3 and Level 4.
No other significant differences were observed between the estimated mean values of Japanese group and any of the JFL learner groups. For the control group, the Japanese group’s estimated mean value was 0.93, which is actually slightly lower than those of Level 2 (0.96) and Level 4 (1.11).

The –masu form is a wrong form to express an errand motion event in Japanese; yet it was included in the questionnaire because it follows the pattern of one of the English errand constructions. The estimated mean values of the JFL learner groups for this type generally decrease as the JFL learners’ proficiency level increases. There is an exception in Level 4 (0.19) though, which I cannot explain at this point. Compared to the value of the control group (-0.89), none of JFL learner groups’ values are as low as that of the control group. The group factor’s effect for this type is highly significant ($F(4, 30.95) = 5.06, p = .00***$), and a significant difference was observed between the control group and the three JFL learner groups: Japanese vs. Level 1 ($p = .00***$); Japanese vs. Level 2 ($p = .01**$); Japanese vs. Level 4 ($p = .02*$); (but not Level 3).

The itte –masu pattern was also a wrong form for expressing an errand motion event in Japanese, though it follows the pattern of another English errand construction ‘go and do (an activity).’ The estimated mean values of the JFL learners for itte –masu also decrease as their proficiency level increases, although Level 3 and Level 4’s mean values were the same (-1.00). In this case, too, the control group’s value was the lowest (-1.63) of all the subject groups. There was also a significant effect on a group factor ($F(4, 58.92) = 10.11, p = .00***$), and significant differences were observed between the
Japanese group and two learner groups (Level 1 ($p = .00***$) and Level 2 ($p = .00***$)),
and among the learner groups (Level 1 vs. Level 3 (.01**), Level 1 vs. Level 4 (.01**),
Level 2 vs. Level 3 (.03*), and Level 2 and Level 4 (.02*)). In the next chapter, I will
discuss these results in detail.
4.1. Positive Evidence and Negative Transfer

As seen in the results of the experiment in the previous chapter, the JFL learners generally accepted the Japanese errand construction / -te kimasu / - though Level 3 was an exception. These results lead me to conclude that positive evidence plays a significant role in the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction by the JFL learners. Positive evidence is the type of information that helps an L2 learner construct his/her hypotheses whether certain linguistic items are correct or incorrect (Gass and Selinker, 1994). For instance, positive evidence is information indicating that the errand construction takes the form of / -te kimasu / in Japanese. JFL learners had first learned the Japanese errand construction in the second quarter of Level 1, and thus it is assumed that they have kept the information in their learning environment. Also, the accumulation of learning experience appears to be reflected in the results of the written acceptability/naturalness judgment task.

If we examine the JFL learners’ estimated mean values of the wrong errand constructions, -masu and itte –masu, however, the learners also accept these constructions as grammatical especially at the lower levels. In Levels 1 and 2, only one learner in each
level judged itte –masu as completely unacceptable/unnatural in the written
acceptability/naturalness judgment task. At the advanced levels, however, two learners
from Level 3 and five learners from Level 4 answered that itte –masu is completely
unacceptable/unnatural. As discussed in Chapter 1, the –masu and itte –masu forms are
patterns of the English errand constructions ‘go and do (an activity)’ and ‘do (an
activity).’ As Lado (1957) claims, L2 learners tend to rely on their L1 knowledge, and
this claim of Lado can explain why the beginning level learners accepted –masu and itte
–masu. Lado, in his influential book Linguistics Across Cultures, explains that learners
extensively rely on their L1:

…individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of
forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language
and culture – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act
in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the
language and the culture as practiced by natives.

(Lado, 1957: 2)

This phenomenon is generally called L1 transfer. L1 transfer is the influence that a
learner’s L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2 (Ellis, 1997), and it appears in a number
of ways. One of the most popular examples of L1 transfer is positive/negative transfer.
Positive transfer (also known as facilitation) is the phenomenon where the learner’s L1
facilitates his/her L2 acquisition. On the contrary, in negative transfer (also known as
interference), the rules and the knowledge of the learner’s L1 interrupts the learner’s
acquisition of L2. In the case of the beginning level learners’ acceptance of –masu and itte -masu, it is assumed that negative transfer influenced the learners’ acceptance of these wrong forms. Note, however, that our learners received clear instructions on the difference between the English and Japanese errand constructions in Japanese: The Spoken Language, and yet the effect of negative transfer still lingers. As mentioned earlier, as proficiency level increases, the number of learners who reject the English-transferred errand construction itte -masu increases. It seems that the relationship between negative transfer and explicit instruction needs to be examined in detail.

In Japanese: The Spoken Language, the Japanese errand construction is introduced in Lesson 7A. The explanations explicitly demonstrate that the Japanese errand construction employs the “do and come” pattern while English uses the “do” and “go and do” patterns (163). Lesson 7A is covered in the winter quarter in the Japanese program. Thus, all of the JFL learners examined in this study have already learned the construction and its difference from the English counterparts, as the experiment was conducted in the spring quarter. Even though the beginning learners have learned the difference between English and Japanese errand constructions only a few months before they participated in the survey, their performance was poor and even inferior to that of advanced learners who studied the construction one to several years earlier. This may be because a few months are not enough for the beginning learners to internalize the construction completely. Indeed, Izumi and Lakshmanan (1998) claim that the effect of explicit formal instruction is less effective for beginning learners than for advanced learners when they have negative transfer problems. It seems that the beginning learners
experience a similar type of difficulty overcoming negative transfer in the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction.

Izumi and Lakshmanan (1998) examine Japanese speaking EFL learners’ acquisition of English passive and conclude that the explicit formal instruction is less effective for beginning learners. English has only one type of passive (direct passive), whereas Japanese has two – direct and indirect (or adversative) passives. Japanese direct passives share the similar meaning with that of English, however, English does not have indirect passive as Japanese does. The example in (1b) is an example of the Japanese indirect passive, and the active counterpart is presented in (1a).

(1)

a. Ame-ga hutta.
   rain-NOM fell
   ‘It rained.’

b. Jiro-ga ame-ni hurareta.
   Jiro-NOM rain-by fall-Pass-Past
   ‘Jiro was rained on.’

(Tsujimura, 2007: 279)

The major characteristics of Japanese indirect passive are the existence of a new ‘subject’ and the adversity of the resulting meaning (Tsujimura, 2007). In (1b), the subject is Jiro who was caught in rain, and this event is usually thought to be adversative to Jiro’s benefit.
Izumi and Lakshmanan (1998) focused on the fact that Japanese EFL learners tend to apply the concept of the Japanese indirect passive to the English passive, and investigated whether the formal instruction (the presentation of explicit negative evidence) was effective to the acquisition of the English passive by Japanese EFL learners. The data were collected from two Japanese EFL learners - one from a beginning level and the other from an advanced level - who were enrolled in an English as a Second Language (ESL) institution at a mid-western American university. One week before the formal instruction was provided to the experimental group, all the subjects including control group took a pre-test. About five days after the formal instruction was conducted, the subjects were given the first post-test. Eight weeks after the instruction, the second post-test was completed by only two subjects from the experimental group to see their further progress in their English passive knowledge. Between the tests, it was assumed that those two learners had English classes just like the other Japanese EFL learners at the ESL institutions. The results of the first post-test showed a clear and drastic improvement in mean error scores of the subjects who received the formal instruction. The results of the second post-test, which were provided to one beginning level learner and one advanced level learner, however, showed an interesting difference between these two learners in their results of the grammaticality judgments. The beginning level learner’s error score of the second post-test backslid from 0% to 37.5% between the two post-tests, while the advanced level learner kept 0% in both of two post-tests. Izumi and Lakshmanan (1998) examined this beginning level learner’s data and found that the effect did not last, and she started to accept the indirect passives as grammatical again although she showed the effect of formal instruction first.
Izumi and Lakshmanan’s (1998) observation can partly explain why the beginning level learners still accepted –masu and itte –masu (negative transfer forms) even though they had received formal instruction on the difference between the Japanese errand construction and its English counterparts in the classroom: When learners experience negative transfer problems with masu and itte –masu, they cannot overcome them by the explicit formal instruction especially at the lower levels of instruction.

Besides negative transfer, overgeneralization of a rule of the Japanese gerund form may be another reason for the learners incorrectly accepting masu and itte –masu as grammatical forms. After the JFL learners learn the Japanese errand construction in Lesson 7 of Japanese: The Spoken Language, they learn another use of the verbal gerund, ‘with comma intonation,’ in the following section. An example of this usage of the verbal gerund is given in (2).

(2) Gohan-o tabete, toshokan-e itte, (sore kara)
Meal/Rice-ACC eat-GER library-LOC go-GER (then)
ie-e kaerimasu.
home-LOC return
‘I will eat a meal/rice, go to the library, and (then) go home.’

This structure allows a speaker to talk about successive activities and thus, is different from the errand construction. After the JFL learners learn this new rule of the verbal gerund, though, they may overgeneralize the new rule and think that they can express errand motion events with the itte –masu form.

38
Finally, if we examine the JFL learners’ estimated mean values of -masu and itte –masu among the different levels, these values generally decrease as the learners’ proficiency levels increase. This shows that advanced learners’ accumulated L2 knowledge is helping the learners understand the Japanese errand construction; yet it is not clear to what extent the advanced learners received additional instruction on the errand construction after they studied the construction in Level 1 Japanese.

4.2. Interlanguage Theory and the Japanese Errand Construction

Before I conclude this thesis, I would like to speculate on the development of the learners’ perception toward both correct and incorrect errand constructions within the framework of Selinker’s (1972) interlanguage theory. In the cognitive view of second language acquisition, an L2 learner constructs his/her own grammar in their mind, and in constructing his/her own unique grammar, they add new information and remove inappropriate information from this grammar. This theory is called an interlanguage theory. Interlanguage is an L2 learner’s unique linguistic system that draws on the learner’s L1 knowledge partly; yet it differs from their L1 and L2/target language (TL) (Ellis, 1997).

If we apply this notion of interlanguage into the learners’ data in this study, we can observe that the learners have their own interlanguage that includes the errand construction. For example, if the learners use the Japanese errand construction like native speakers of English, they should rate –masu and itte –masu high and –te kimasu low. Contrarily, if they learn the constructions like native speakers of Japanese, they would rate –te kimasu high and –masu and itte -masu low. As Figure 1 in the previous chapter
indicates, however, the learners’ patterns of the acceptability/naturalness judgment, both at the beginning and the advanced levels, show some clear differences from those of the control group. This is assumed as resulting from the interlanguage that the learners constructed.

I should point out that their interlanguage appears to be constantly changing; yet the interlanguage theory can account for this phenomenon. In fact Ellis (1997: 33) claims, “Learners change their grammar from one time to another by adding rules, deleting rules, and restructuring the whole system. This results in an interlanguage continuum. That is, learners construct a series of mental grammars or interlanguages as they gradually increase the complexity of their L2 knowledge.” Applying the interlanguage theory to the current study, we can see that the learners add and delete rules of the errand construction in their mental grammar, and as their learning period becomes longer, their interlanguage matures and their sensitivity towards the errand construction gets closer to that of Japanese.

Of course, there is no guarantee that this gradual development of interlanguage will develop an L2 grammar that is close to that of native speakers all the time, because the learner’s grammar tends to fossilize. According to Selinker (1972), only five percent of L2 learners can reach a native speaker’s level. Most of the time, the development of a learners’ mental grammar is likely to fall short, and even backsliding may happen. If we look at Figure 1 again, Level 3 learners’ estimated mean value of the –te kimasu form is 0.17 which presents an example of a backslide from Level 2 (0.96) and even from Level 1 level (0.67). As mentioned earlier, there was even one learner from Level 3 who rated all the Japanese errand construction -1 (unacceptable/unnatural). Level 4’s value of the –
masu form (0.19) also shows an example of a slight backslide from Level 3’s value (-0.37). The value of Level 4’s itte–masu form (-1.00) stays the same as that of Level 3, and this may suggest fossilization of the learners’ development of the acquisition. Nevertheless according to the individual data, four learners from level 4 judged all three sentences of the English transferred construction itte–masu completely unacceptable/unnatural, while only one learner from Level 3 did. This means that there were significant individual proficiency variations in Level 4, and the estimated mean values of some other Level 4 subjects who performed poorly kept the average Level 4 score for itte–masu as low as those of Level 3.

4.3. Concluding Remarks

In this study, I have shown that JFL learners’ acquisition of the Japanese errand construction develops generally and steadily as their proficiency increases. To account for this phenomenon, I suggested that the effect of positive evidence (explicit instruction about the correct Japanese errand construction) plays a significant role. Nevertheless, we also see that the learners wrongly accepted the –masu and itte–masu forms (the effect of negative transfer). The beginning learners especially had trouble overcoming the negative transfer problems despite the explicit formal instruction they received on the difference between English and Japanese errand constructions. The learners’ interlanguage appears to be improving as their proficiency level increases but they cannot always escape the problems of fossilization or backsliding. Hence, they may never reach the level where

---

9 The reason for fossilization and backsliding in this case is beyond the scope of this thesis.
they can properly and consistently use the construction. In this study, only one subject from Level 4 could judge all sentences with the –te kimasu form completely acceptable/natural and all sentences with the itte –masu form completely unacceptable/unnatural.

There are several limitations in the current study. The first one is the small number of subjects. Since each subject group consisted of only nine subjects (but eight in Level 3), individual learner answers largely affected the whole subject group’s data. Also, only nine subjects may not represent each level’s performance accurately. Secondly, in order to analyze and explain the performance of learners closely, an investigation of the grammatical items that each learner group has leaned would be essential, since there may be possible interactions (or confusions) between the Japanese errand construction and other grammatical items. Thirdly, the ability to identify an appropriate context in which the target expression is used is vital for the language learners. Even if JFL learners know the difference between English and Japanese errand constructions, if they cannot use the Japanese errand construction in an appropriate context, one cannot conclude that the learner has successfully acquired the Japanese errand construction. All the subjects in this study have studied at the Japanese program at The Ohio State University that provides situation-based instruction. Presumably, it was likely that they were aware of the situation/context in which they had to use the Japanese errand construction. In order to examine to what extent the ability to identify an appropriate context for the errand construction is important for English-speaking JFL learners, it will be necessary to collect data from learners who have not received a situation-based instruction. Finally, although the –te kimasu was assumed to be the correct form, the control group’s mean value was
0.93, which was lower than that of Level 4 learners (1.11). Since there is not much research on the Japanese errand construction, it is necessary to understand how native speakers of Japanese use the construction first. In order to obtain reliable data from the native speakers of Japanese, I plan to translate the English narratives into Japanese in the future so that the English proficiency levels will not negatively affect the Japanese subjects’ judgments.

The Japanese errand construction is a construction that is frequently used by native speakers, and the *itte-*masu and *-masu* forms exist independently in Japanese; though these forms do not express errand motion events. Thus, a failure to use the *te-*kimasu form properly and to recognize the *-masu* and *itte-*masu forms as wrong forms may easily cause a communication breakdown. In order for learners to become proficient in using the Japanese errand construction appropriately, both learners and instructors need to acknowledge the difficulty of the acquisition of the Japanese errand construction and must find a way to teach and learn the construction successfully.


APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRES
Please complete this questionnaire by ________________ and bring this to the class. The experimenter will receive the completed questionnaire at the end of the class and give a token of appreciation.

QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS

There are 30 total questions in this questionnaire: 3 practice questions and 27 main questions. Each question has one short story/context written in English and one Japanese sentence written both in Japanese and romanization. First, please read the English story/context carefully. Then read the Japanese sentence and judge to what degree the given Japanese sentence in the story/context sounds natural/acceptable for you by circling the numeral below the Japanese sentence. The degree of the naturalness/acceptability is from -2 (completely unacceptable/unnatural) to 2 (completely natural/acceptable). For instance:

Ex. 1 You are a student in Japanese class and sitting in the classroom. Your instructor wants you to listen to what she says. She says:

聞いてください。
Kiite kudasai.
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ] >> (completely acceptable/natural)

Ex. 2 You are a company employee and working at the office. Your co-worker has just explained how to operate a new computer programming software. But you did not understand it. You tell your co-worker:

分かりませんねえ。
Wakarimasen nee.
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ] >> (completely unacceptable/unnatural)

In reading Japanese sentences, you may choose either Japanese or romanization. But please disregard the orthographic unnaturalness/acceptability. (e.g., use of kanji, romanization)

Please keep in mind that this is NOT a test that measures your ability of Japanese language. This questionnaire will NOT affect your grade in any way. So please do NOT consult with other people and relax in answering questions.

Also please answer in order, and do not skip any questions. There is no time limitation. Please take your time in reading and understanding the stories/contexts and Japanese sentences fully.

Now, let’s try 3 practice questions.
PRACTICE QUESTIONS

BACKGROUND
Please imagine that you are a student at OSU and have just started working as an intern at a company in Tokyo since last week. In your section, there is a section chief (boss), several co-workers who are almost the same age as you but have been working at the section for more than 2 years. There is also a part-time student worker (arubaito) at the section. Your speech style to your co-workers and the part-time student worker is distal-style (-masu / -desu).

PRACTICE QUESTIONS
1. You and your co-worker are in the kitchen and making coffee. The co-worker has found that the coffee cups in the kitchen are not very clean, and exclaimed, “these cups are not very clean.” You saw the cups and agree with her comment. You say:

そうですねえ。
Soo desu nee.

2. You are at the office. You and your boss are discussing how to get to the Meziro office from your office. There is no public transportation between your office and the Meziro office. You say:

タクシーがいいです。
Takusii ga ii desu.

3. You are at the office. Your boss told you to go to the Meziro office this afternoon for the meeting. You are familiar with the Meziro area, but not sure exactly where the office is located. You say:

目白はどこでしょうか？
Mejiro wa doko desyoo ka?

Do you have any questions or comments on the procedure? If so, please write down the space below.

Thank you for your participation again. Now let’s start the main questions!
MAIN QUESTIONS

BACKGROUND (same as the practice questions)
Please imagine that you are a student at OSU and have just started working as an intern at a company in Tokyo since last week. In your section, there is a section chief (boss), several co-workers who are almost the same age as you but have been working at the section for more than 2 years. There is also a part-time student worker (arubaito) at the section. **Your speech style to your co-workers and the part-time student worker is distal-style (-masu / -desu).**

MAIN QUESTIONS

1. Your co-worker is driving you home. You are approaching to your apartment and want your co-worker to pull the car over just over there. You tell the co-worker:

   あ、そこでとめてください。
   A, soko de tomete kudasai.

2. You are at the office. Your boss asks you to check his English in his letter. You find one spelling mistake. You point at the misspelling part and tell your boss:

   これ、ちがいますよ。
   Kore, tigaimasu yo.

3. You are in the meeting room and preparing for this afternoon’s meeting with a co-worker. You find that you need to make 50 copies of the handout at the copy room. Your co-worker is setting up the video projector. You tell her:

   ハンドアウトをコピーしてきます。
   Handoauto (handout) o copii (copy) site kimasu.

4. You are at the bar with your boss and co-workers after work. It is already past midnight. You have an early appointment with a client tomorrow morning and want to go home soon. But boss seems to want to stay longer. You tell your co-workers:

   あの、帰りたいんですが・・・。
   Anoo, kaeritai n desu ga....

5. You are at the office. Your boss says that he is very excited about his presentation to the clients tomorrow. But you are sure that the presentation is the day after tomorrow. You tell your boss:

   あきってじゃありませんか？
   Asatte zya arimasen ka?
6. You are at the office and it is lunch time. You and your co-workers brought boxed lunch today and are about to start eating. You brought a packet of powdered soup mix also, and have to get some hot water at the kitchen downstairs to serve it. You tell the co-workers:

スープを行って作ります。
Suupu (soup) o itte tukurimasu.

7. You and your co-worker are at a restaurant. You both finished meals and came to the cashier. The meal you had was 800 yen, but you found only 300 yen in your wallet. You want your co-worker to lend 500 yen. You tell your co-worker:

500円ありますね？
Gohyaku-en arimasu ne?

8. You are at the office. It is a break time. One of your co-workers, who is known as a good baker, baked a pie and brought it to the office for everyone. You have had her pie before and think that it should be delicious for sure. You tell your co-workers:

このパイはおいしいでしょう。
Kono pai wa oisii desyoo.

9. You are at the office with co-workers. You have been working very hard this afternoon and feel a little tired. It is a 30 minute afternoon break time. You think that you want to have a good cup of coffee at the cozy coffee shop next to the office building. You tell your boss:

コーヒーを飲みます。
Koohii (coffee) o nomimasu.

10. You are working on a proposal for a new event at the office. You have gotten an e-mail about the next meeting and want to ask your boss about it. Your boss has just entered the office, and you ask him for advice. You point the e-mail and tell him:

ここ、教えてください。
Koko, osiete kudasai.

11. You have just gotten out of the coffee shop next to the office building. A woman approaches you and asks for direction for the nearest post office. The post office is located just a couple of blocks away from your office building. After explaining the directions, you tell the woman that she will find it easily. You tell the woman:

すぐ分かりますよ。
Sugu wakarimasu yo.
12. You are working at the office with co-workers. You just heard that the visitor, Mr. Tanaka drove to the office with his expensive German sports car, and parked it at the company’s parking lot located just behind the office building. You like sports cars, and are very curious about Mr. Tanaka’s car. You decide to see his car. You tell your co-workers:

田中さんの車、ちょっと見てきます。
Tanaka-san no kuruma, tyotto mite kimasu.

[ -2  -1   0   1  2 ]

13. You and your boss have just finished a presentation at the client’s office and are leaving the building. The client’s office is located just a few miles away from your office. This morning you and your boss took a taxi from your office to the client’s office because it was raining heavily. But now it has cleared up and become nice weather. You suggest that your boss walk back to the office. You tell him:

歩きたいですか？
Arikaitai desu ka?

[ -2  -1   0   1  2 ]

14. You and your co-worker are at a clothing store for shopping after work. Your co-worker finds a sweater that looks very similar to the one that a part-time student worker (arubaito) wore at the office today. She says that the sweater is the same type as that the part-time student worker wore today, but you do not think they are the same type. You tell your co-worker:

同じじゃないでしょう。
Onazi zya nai desyoo.

[ -2  -1   0   1  2 ]

15. You are working at the office with a co-worker. Your work is to put letters to the clients into envelopes. You just find that you are running out of envelopes and need 100 more envelopes. You offer to go shopping at the stationary store nearby. You tell her:

封筒100枚、行って買います。
Huutoo hyaku-mai, itte kaimasu.

[ -2  -1   0   1  2 ]

16. You and your co-worker are out for lunch. Your co-worker is trying to cross the street where there is no traffic light or pedestrian crossing. The traffic seems very busy. You tell your colleague:

あぶなくないですか？
Abunakunai desu ka?

[ -2  -1   0   1  2 ]
17. You are working at the office trying to finish making a document due today. Suddenly your computer has frozen and does not work. You remember that there is a new computer in the next room and think that you will use it to complete the document. Before you leave for the next room, you tell your co-worker at the next desk:

新しいコンピューター、います。
Atarasii konpyuutaa (computer), tukaimasu.

18. You and your co-worker are talking and going down the stairs. You step off the last couple of stairs and fall down to the floor. Your co-worker is very surprised and asks you if you are okay. You did not get hurt and feel no pain any more. You tell your co-worker:

大丈夫ですよ。
Daizyoobu desu yo.

19. You are at the office. You are asking a part-time student worker (arubaito) to type a document. You tell him:

できますね。
Dekimasu ne.

20. You are at the office. It is a very busy day. Although it is already 1:30 p.m., you have not had your lunch yet. You still have a lot of work to be done by today, but you finally decide to have lunch at the restaurant in front of the office building. You tell your co-workers:

ちょっとランチ、食べてきます。
Tyotto ranti (lunch), tabete kimasu.

21. You are in a taxi headed to the client’s office. You want the driver to make a left turn at the next traffic light. You tell the taxi driver:

次のしんごうで 左に まがりたいんですけど・・・。
Tugi no singoo de hidari ni magaritai n desu kedo...

22. You and your co-workers are going to have a dinner at a popular restaurant this evening. When you arrive in front of the restaurant, there are already many people waiting outside. You noticed that there is a sign on the restaurant’s door that says “please write your name on the list inside.” You offer to write your name on the list inside the restaurant. You tell your co-workers:

私が名前、行って書きます。
Watasi ga namae, itte kakimasu.
23. You are at the office with your co-workers. One of your co-workers tells you that she bought a new bag for sale at the department store last weekend. After she told you the price, you find it a bargain. You tell her:

高くなかったですか。
Takaku nakatta desu ka.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

24. You are at the office and tell your co-workers about a party at your home this Saturday. Your boss has just entered the office. You tell the boss about the party, and want to invite him. You tell your boss:

どうぞいらっしゃってください。
Doozo irassyatte kudasai.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

25. You and your co-worker are in Shinzyuku to visit a client’s office. Neither of you are familiar with the area and get lost. You find a police officer across the street and decide to ask him direction. You tell your co-worker:

おまわりさんにお聞きます。
Omawarisan ni kikimasu.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

26. You are at the office. You see your boss is checking his lottery ticket number on a newspaper. The boss looks unhappy. You tell your co-worker:

だめでしょう。
Dame desyoo.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

27. You are at the office and working with a co-worker. You want the co-worker to pass a pen near her. You tell her:

そのペン、お願いします。
Sono pen, onegaiimasu.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

This is the end of the main questions. Now please go on to the Background Questionnaire.
Please complete this questionnaire by ____________________________ and bring this to the class. The experimenter will receive the completed questionnaire at the end of the class and give a token of appreciation.

QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS

There are 30 total questions in this questionnaire: 3 practice questions and 27 main questions. Each question has one short story/context written in English and one Japanese sentence written both in Japanese and romanization. First, please read the English story/context carefully. Then read the Japanese sentence and judge to what degree the given Japanese sentence in the story/context sounds natural/acceptable for you by circling the numeral below the Japanese sentence. The degree of the naturalness/acceptability is from -2 (completely unacceptable/unnatural) to 2 (completely natural/acceptable). For instance:

Ex. 1 You are a student in Japanese class and sitting in the classroom. Your instructor wants you to listen to what she says. She says:

聞いてください。
Kiite kudasai.
[ -2 -1 0 1 ② ] >> (completely acceptable/natural)

Ex. 2 You are a company employee and working at the office. Your co-worker has just explained how to operate a new computer programming software. But you did not understand it. You tell your co-worker:

分かりませんねえ。
Wakarimasen nee.
[ -② -1 0 1 2 ] >> (completely unacceptable/unnatural)

In reading Japanese sentences, you may choose either Japanese or romanization. But please disregard the orthographic unnaturalness/acceptability. (e.g., use of kanji, romanization)

Please keep in mind that this is NOT a test that measures your ability of Japanese language. This questionnaire will NOT affect your grade in any way. So please do NOT consult with other people and relax in answering questions.

Also please answer in order, and do not skip any questions. There is no time limitation. Please take your time in reading and understanding the stories/contexts and Japanese sentences fully.

Now, let’s try 3 practice questions.
PRACTICE QUESTIONS

BACKGROUND
Please imagine that you are a student at OSU and have just started working as an intern at a company in Tokyo since last week. In your section, there is a section chief (boss), several co-workers who are almost the same age as you but have been working at the section for more than 2 years. There is also a part-time student worker (arubaito) at the section. Your speech style to your co-workers and the part-time student worker is distal-style (-masu / -desu).

PRACTICE QUESTIONS
1. You and your co-worker are in the kitchen and making coffee. The co-worker has found that the coffee cups in the kitchen are not very clean, and exclaimed, “these cups are not very clean.” You saw the cups and agree with her comment. You say:

そうですね。
Soo desu nee.
[  -2     -1     0     1     2    ]

2. You are at the office. You and your boss are discussing how to get to the Meziro office from your office. There is no public transportation between your office and the Meziro office. You say:

タクシーがいいです。
Takusii ga ii desu.
[  -2     -1     0     1     2    ]

3. You are at the office. Your boss told you to go to the Meziro office this afternoon for the meeting. You are familiar with the Meziro area, but not sure exactly where the office is located. You say:

目白はどこでしょうか？
Mejiro wa doko desyou ka?
[  -2     -1     0     1     2    ]

Do you have any questions or comments on the procedure? If so, please write down the space below.

Thank you for your participation again. Now let’s start the main questions!
MAIN QUESTIONS

BACKGROUND (same as the practice questions)
Please imagine that you are a student at OSU and have just started working as an intern at a company in Tokyo since last week. In your section, there is a section chief (boss), several co-workers who are almost the same age as you but have been working at the section for more than 2 years. There is also a part-time student worker (arubaito) at the section. Your speech style to your co-workers and the part-time student worker is distal-style (-masu / -desu).

MAIN QUESTIONS
1. Your co-worker is driving you home. You are approaching to your apartment and want your co-worker to pull the car over just over there. You tell the co-worker:
   
   あ、そこでとめてください。
   A, soko de tomete kudasai.
   [ -2  -1  0  1  2 ]

2. You are at the office. Your boss asks you to check his English in his letter. You find one spelling mistake. You point at the misspelling part and tell your boss:
   
   これ、ちがいますよ。
   Kore, tigaimasu yo.
   [ -2  -1  0  1  2 ]

3. You are in the meeting room and preparing for this afternoon’s meeting with a co-worker. You find that you need to make 50 copies of the handout at the copy room. Your co-worker is setting up the video projector. You tell her:
   
   ハンドアウトをコピーします。
   Handout auto (handout) o copy (copy) simasu.
   [ -2  -1  0  1  2 ]

4. You are at the bar with your boss and co-workers after work. It is already past midnight. You have an early appointment with a client tomorrow morning and want to go home soon. But boss seems to want to stay longer. You tell your co-workers:
   
   あのう、帰りたいんですが・・・。
   Anoo, kaeritai n desu ga....
   [ -2  -1  0  1  2 ]

5. You are at the office. Your boss says that he is very excited about his presentation to the clients tomorrow. But you are sure that the presentation is the day after tomorrow. You tell your boss:
   
   あさってじゃありませんか?
   Asatte zya arimasen ka?
   [ -2  -1  0  1  2 ]
6. You are at the office and it is lunch time. You and your co-workers brought boxed lunch today and are about to start eating. You brought a packet of powdered soup mix also, and have to get some hot water at the kitchen downstairs to serve it. You tell the co-workers:

スープを作ってきます。
Suupu (soup) o tukatte kimasu.

7. You and your co-worker are at a restaurant. You both finished meals and came to the cashier. The meal you had was 800 yen, but you found only 300 yen in your wallet. You want your co-worker to lend 500 yen. You tell your co-worker:

500円ありますね？
Gohyaku-en arimasu ne?

8. You are at the office. It is a break time. One of your co-workers, who is known as a good baker, baked a pie and brought it to the office for everyone. You have had her pie before and think that it should be delicious for sure. You tell your co-workers:

このパイはおいしいでしょう。
Kono pai wa oisii desyoo.

9. You are at the office with co-workers. You have been working very hard this afternoon and feel a little tired. It is a 30 minutes afternoon break time. You think that you want to have a good cup of coffee at the cozy coffee shop next to the office building. You tell your boss:

コーヒーを行って飲みます。
Koohii (coffee) o itte nomimasu.

10. You are working on a proposal for a new event at the office. You have gotten an e-mail about the next meeting and want to ask your boss about it. Your boss has just entered the office, and you ask him for advice. You point the e-mail and tell him:

ここ、教えてください。
Koko, osiete kudasai.

11. You have just gotten out of the coffee shop next to the office building. A woman approaches you and asks for direction for the nearest post office. The post office is located just a couple of blocks away from your office building. After explaining the directions, you tell the woman that she will find it easily. You tell the woman:

すぐ分かりますよ。
Sugu wakarimasu yo.
12. You are working at the office with co-workers. You just heard that the visitor, Mr. Tanaka drove to the office with his expensive German sports car, and parked it at the company’s parking lot located just behind the office building. You like sports cars, and are very curious about Mr. Tanaka’s car. You decide to see his car. You tell your co-workers:

田中さんの車、ちょっと見ます。
Tanaka-san no kuruma, tyotto mimasu.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

13. You and your boss have just finished a presentation at the client’s office and are leaving the building. The client’s office is located just a few miles away from your office. This morning you and your boss took a taxi from your office to the client’s office because it was raining heavily. But now it has cleared up and become nice weather. You suggest that your boss walk back to the office. You tell him:

歩きたいですか？
Arukitai desu ka?

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

14. You and your co-worker are at a clothing store for shopping after work. Your co-worker finds a sweater that looks very similar to the one that a part-time student worker (arubaito) wore at the office today. She says that the sweater is the same type as that the part-time student worker wore today, but you do not think they are the same type. You tell your co-worker:

同じじゃないでしょう。
Onazi zya nai desyoo.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

15. You are working at the office with a co-worker. Your work is to put letters to the clients into envelopes. You just find that you are running out of envelopes and need 100 more envelopes. You offer to go shopping at the stationary store nearby. You tell her:

封筒100枚、買ってきます。
Huutoo hyaku-mai, katte kimasu.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

16. You and your co-worker are out for lunch. Your co-worker is trying to cross the street where there is no traffic light or pedestrian crossing. The traffic seems very busy. You tell your colleague:

あぶないですか？
Abunakunai desu ka?

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]
17. You are working at the office trying to finish making a document due today. Suddenly your computer has frozen and does not work. You remember that there is a new computer in the next room and think that you will use it to complete the document. Before you leave for the next room, you tell your co-worker at the next desk:

新しいコンピューター。行っています。
Atarasi konpyuutaa (computer), itte tukaimasu.

18. You and your co-worker are talking and going down the stairs. You step off the last couple of stairs and fall down to the floor. Your co-worker is very surprised and asks you if you are okay. You did not get hurt and feel no pain any more. You tell your co-worker:

丈夫ですよ。
Daizyoobu desu yo.

19. You are at the office. You are asking a part-time student worker (arubaito) to type a document. You tell him:

できますね。
Dekimasu ne.

20. You are at the office. It is a very busy day. Although it is already 1:30 p.m., you have not had your lunch yet. You still have a lot of work to be done by today, but you finally decide to have lunch at the restaurant in front of the office building. You tell your co-workers:

ちょっとランチ、食べます。
Tytto ranti (lunch), tabemasu.

21. You are in a taxi headed to the client’s office. You want the driver to make a left turn at the next traffic light. You tell the taxi driver:

次の信号で左にまがりたいんですけれど・・・。
Tugi no singoo de hidari ni magaritai ni desu kedo...

22. You and your co-workers are going to have a dinner at a popular restaurant this evening. When you arrive in front of the restaurant, there are already many people waiting outside. You noticed that there is a sign on the restaurant’s door that says “please write your name on the list inside.” You offer to write your name on the list inside the restaurant. You tell your co-workers:

私が名前、書いてきます。
Watasi ga namae, kaite kimasu.
23. You are at the office with your co-workers. One of your co-workers tells you that she bought a new bag for sale at the department store last weekend. After she told you the price, you find it a bargain. You tell her:

高くなかったですか。
Takaku nakatta desu ka.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

24. You are at the office and tell your co-workers about a party at your home this Saturday. Your boss has just entered the office. You tell the boss about the party, and want to invite him. You tell your boss:

どうぞいらっしゃってください。
Doozo irassyatte kudasai.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

25. You and your co-worker are in Shinzyuku to visit a client’s office. Neither of you are familiar with the area and get lost. You find a police officer across the street and decide to ask him direction. You tell your co-worker:

おまわりさんに行って聞きます。
Omawari-san ni itte kikimasu.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

26. You are at the office. You see your boss is checking his lottery ticket number on a newspaper. The boss looks unhappy. You tell your co-worker:

だめでしょう。
Dame desyoo.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

27. You are at the office and working with a co-worker. You want the co-worker to pass a pen near her. You tell her:

そのペン、お願いします。
Sono pen, onegai simasu.

[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

This is the end of the main questions. Now please go on to the Background Questionnaire.
Please complete this questionnaire by ___________________________ and bring this to the class. The experimenter will receive the completed questionnaire at the end of the class and give a token of appreciation.

QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS

There are 30 total questions in this questionnaire: 3 practice questions and 27 main questions. Each question has one short story/context written in English and one Japanese sentence written both in Japanese and romanization. First, please read the English story/context carefully. Then read the Japanese sentence and judge to what degree the given Japanese sentence in the story/context sounds natural/acceptable for you by circling the numeral below the Japanese sentence. The degree of the naturalness/acceptability is from -2 (completely unacceptable/unnatural) to 2 (completely natural/acceptable). For instance:

Ex. 1 You are a student in Japanese class and sitting in the classroom. Your instructor wants you to listen to what she says. She says:

聞いてください。
Kiite kudasai.
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ] >> (completely acceptable/natural)

Ex. 2 You are a company employee and working at the office. Your co-worker has just explained how to operate a new computer programming software. But you did not understand it. You tell your co-worker:

分かりませんねえ。
Wakarimasen nee.
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ] >> (completely unacceptable/unnatural)

In reading Japanese sentences, you may choose either Japanese or romanization. But please disregard the orthographic unnaturalness/acceptability. (e.g., use of kanji, romanization)

Please keep in mind that this is NOT a test that measures your ability of Japanese language. This questionnaire will NOT affect your grade in any way. So please do NOT consult with other people and relax in answering questions.

Also please answer in order, and do not skip any questions. There is no time limitation. Please take your time in reading and understanding the stories/contexts and Japanese sentences fully.

Now, let’s try 3 practice questions.
PRACTICE QUESTIONS

BACKGROUND
Please imagine that you are a student at OSU and have just started working as an intern at a company in Tokyo since last week. In your section, there is a section chief (boss), several co-workers who are almost the same age as you but have been working at the section for more than 2 years. There is also a part-time student worker (arubaito) at the section. Your speech style to your co-workers and the part-time student worker is distal-style (-masu / -desu).

PRACTICE QUESTIONS
1. You and your co-worker are in the kitchen and making coffee. The co-worker has found that the coffee cups in the kitchen are not very clean, and exclaimed, “these cups are not very clean.” You saw the cups and agree with her comment. You say:

そうですねえ。
Soo desu nee.
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

2. You are at the office. You and your boss are discussing how to get to the Meziro office from your office. There is no public transportation between your office and the Meziro office. You say:

タクシーがいいです。
Takusii ga ii desu.
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

3. You are at the office. Your boss told you to go to the Meziro office this afternoon for the meeting. You are familiar with the Meziro area, but not sure exactly where the office is located. You say:

目白はどこでしょうか？
Mejiro wa doko desyoo ka?
[ -2 -1 0 1 2 ]

Do you have any questions or comments on the procedure? If so, please write down the space below.

Thank you for your participation again. Now let’s start the main questions!
BACKGROUND (same as the practice questions)
Please imagine that you are a student at OSU and have just started working as an intern at a company in Tokyo since last week. In your section, there is a section chief (boss), several co-workers who are almost the same age as you but have been working at the section for more than 2 years. There is also a part-time student worker (arubaito) at the section. **Your speech style to your co-workers and the part-time student worker is distal-style (-masu / -desu).**

**MAIN QUESTIONS**

1. Your co-worker is driving you home. You are approaching to your apartment and want your co-worker to pull the car over just over there. You tell the co-worker:

   あ、そこでとめてください。
   A, soko de tomete kudasai.
   
2. You are at the office. Your boss asks you to check his English in his letter. You find one spelling mistake. You point at the misspelling part and tell your boss:

   これ、ちがいますよ。
   Kore, tigimasu yo.
   
3. You are in the meeting room and preparing for this afternoon’s meeting with a co-worker. You find that you need to make 50 copies of the handout at the copy room. Your co-worker is setting up the video projector. You tell her:

   ハンドアウトを行ってコピーします。
   Handoauto (handout) o itte copii (copy) simasu.
   
4. You are at the bar with your boss and co-workers after work. It is already past midnight. You have an early appointment with a client tomorrow morning and want to go home soon. But boss seems to want to stay longer. You tell your co-workers:

   あのー、帰りたいんですか・・・。
   Anoo, kaeritai n desu ga....
   
5. You are at the office. Your boss says that he is very excited about his presentation to the clients tomorrow. But you are sure that the presentation is the day after tomorrow. You tell your boss:

   あさってじゃありませんか？
   Asatte zya arimasen ka?
6. You are at the office and it is lunch time. You and your co-workers brought boxed lunch today and are about to start eating. You brought a packet of powdered soup mix also, and have to get some hot water at the kitchen downstairs to serve it. You tell the co-workers:

スープを作ります。
Suupu (soup) o tukurimasu.

7. You and your co-worker are at a restaurant. You both finished meals and came to the cashier. The meal you had was 800 yen, but you found only 300 yen in your wallet. You want your co-worker to lend 500 yen. You tell your co-worker:

500円ありますね？
Gohyaku-en arimasu ne?

8. You are at the office. It is a break time. One of your co-workers, who is known as a good baker, baked a pie and brought it to the office for everyone. You have had her pie before and think that it should be delicious for sure. You tell your co-workers:

このパイはおいしいでしょう。
Kono pai wa oisii desyoo.

9. You are at the office with co-workers. You have been working very hard this afternoon and feel a little tired. It is a 30 minutes afternoon break time. You think that you want to have a good cup of coffee at the cozy coffee shop next to the office building. You tell your boss:

コーヒーを飲んできます。
Koohii (coffee) o nonde kimasu.

10. You are working on a proposal for a new event at the office. You have gotten an e-mail about the next meeting and want to ask your boss about it. Your boss has just entered the office, and you ask him for advice. You point the e-mail and tell him:

ここ、教えてください。
Koko, osiete kudasai.

11. You have just gotten out of the coffee shop next to the office building. A woman approaches you and asks for direction for the nearest post office. The post office is located just a couple of blocks away from your office building. After explaining the directions, you tell the woman that she will find it easily. You tell the woman:

すぐ分かりますよ。
Sugu wakarimasu yo.
12. You are working at the office with co-workers. You just heard that the visitor, Mr. Tanaka drove to the office with his expensive German sports car, and parked it at the company’s parking lot located just behind the office building. You like sports cars, and are very curious about Mr. Tanaka’s car. You decide to see his car. You tell your co-workers:

田中さんの車、ちょっと行って見ます。
Tanaka-san no kuruma, tyotto itte mimasu.

13. You and your boss have just finished a presentation at the client’s office and are leaving the building. The client’s office is located just a few miles away from your office. This morning you and your boss took a taxi from your office to the client’s office because it was raining heavily. But now it has cleared up and become nice weather. You suggest that your boss walk back to the office. You tell him:

歩きたいですか？
Arukitai desu ka?

14. You and your co-worker are at a clothing store for shopping after work. Your co-worker finds a sweater that looks very similar to the one that a part-time student worker (arubaito) wore at the office today. She says that the sweater is the same type as that the part-time student worker wore today, but you do not think they are the same type. You tell your co-worker:

同じじゃないでしょう。
Onazi zya nai desyoo.

15. You are working at the office with a co-worker. Your work is to put letters to the clients into envelopes. You just find that you are running out of envelopes and need 100 more envelopes. You offer to go shopping at the stationary store nearby. You tell her:

封筒100枚、買います。
Huutoo hyaku-mai, kaimasu.

16. You and your co-worker are out for lunch. Your co-worker is trying to cross the street where there is no traffic light or pedestrian crossing. The traffic seems very busy. You tell your colleague:

あぶなくないですか？
Abunakunai desu ka?
17. You are working at the office trying to finish making a document due today. Suddenly your computer has frozen and does not work. You remember that there is a new computer in the next room and think that you will use it to complete the document. Before you leave for the next room, you tell your co-worker at the next desk:

新しいコンピューター、使ってきます。
Atarasii konpyuuta (computer), tukatte kimasu.

18. You and your co-worker are talking and going down the stairs. You step off the last couple of stairs and fall down to the floor. Your co-worker is very surprised and asks you if you are okay. You did not get hurt and feel no pain any more. You tell your co-worker:

大丈夫ですよ。
Daizyoobu desu yo.

19. You are at the office. You are asking a part-time student worker (arubaito) to type a document. You tell him:

できますね。
Dekimasu ne.

20. You are at the office. It is a very busy day. Although it is already 1:30 p.m., you have not had your lunch yet. You still have a lot of work to be done by today, but you finally decide to have lunch at the restaurant in front of the office building. You tell your co-workers:

ちょっとランチ、行って食べます。
Tyotto ranti (lunch), itte tabemasu.

21. You are in a taxi headed to the client’s office. You want the driver to make a left turn at the next traffic light. You tell the taxi driver:

次の信号で左にまがりたいんですけど・・・。
Tugi no singoo de hidari ni magaritsu ni desu kedo...

22. You and your co-workers are going to have a dinner at a popular restaurant this evening. When you arrive in front of the restaurant, there are already many people waiting outside. You noticed that there is a sign on the restaurant’s door that says “please write your name on the list inside.” You offer to write your name on the list inside the restaurant. You tell your co-workers:

私が名前、書きます。
Watasi ga namae, kakimasu.
23. You are at the office with your co-workers. One of your co-workers tells you that she bought a new bag for sale at the department store last weekend. After she told you the price, you find it a bargain. You tell her:

高くなかったですか。
Takaku nakatta desu ka.

[ -2  -1  0  1  2  ]

24. You are at the office and tell your co-workers about a party at your home this Saturday. Your boss has just entered the office. You tell the boss about the party, and want to invite him. You tell your boss:

どうぞいらっしゃってください。
Doozo irassyatte kudasai.

[ -2  -1  0  1  2  ]

25. You and your co-worker are in Shinzyuku to visit a client’s office. Neither of you are familiar with the area and get lost. You find a police officer across the street and decide to ask him direction. You tell your co-worker:

おまわりさんにお聞いてきます。
Oawari-san ni kiite kimasu.

[ -2  -1  0  1  2  ]

26. You are at the office. You see your boss is checking his lottery ticket number on a newspaper. The boss looks unhappy. You tell your co-worker:

だめでしょう。
Dame desyoo.

[ -2  -1  0  1  2  ]

27. You are at the office and working with a co-worker. You want the co-worker to pass a pen near her. You tell her:

そのペン、お願いします。
Sono pen, onegai simasu.

[ -2  -1  0  1  2  ]

This is the end of the main questions. Now please go on to the Background Questionnaire.
Background Questionnaire

1. Please indicate your age: 18-21 22-25 26-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60-69 over 70

2. Please indicate your gender: Male Female

3. Is English your native language? Yes No (Specify)

4. What is your status at The Ohio State University? Of the following options, please circle the one that applies to you.
   Undergraduate student Graduate student Staff Faculty Other (Specify)

5. In which level of Japanese class are you currently enrolled? Please indicate by circling one of the following options.
   Japanese 103 206 509 612

6. Have you ever visited or lived in Japan? No (Proceed to Question 7) Yes
   If you circled “Yes,” please choose reasons you visited or lived in Japan from the following and circle the alphabet on the left. Also, for each purpose, please indicate the length of your stay in the parentheses on the right. Choose from (1) – (6) in the following Length Category to indicate the length of your each stay in Japan.
   a. Study at K-12 institution ..... ( )
   b. Undergraduate or graduate study ..... ( )
   c. Homestay with Japanese family without attending school ..... ( )
   d. Homestay with family while studying at K-12 institution ..... ( )
   e. Homestay with family while undergraduate or graduate study ..... ( )
   f. Military service ..... ( )
   g. Travel ..... ( )
   h. Job (specify) ..... ( )
   i. other (specify) ..... ( )

   Total length spent in Japan ..... ( )

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length Category:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Less than 3 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) 1-2 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Have you ever visited or lived in foreign country/countries other than Japan for at least 3 months?
   No (Proceed to Question 8) Yes
   If you circled “Yes,” please list the country/countries you have visited or lived, and choose the reasons you have visited or lived in that country/countries and the length from the following categories.
The country/countries you have visited or lived:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Length of stay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reason Category:
- a. Study at K-12 institution
- b. Undergraduate or graduate study
- c. Homestay with Japanese family without attending school
- d. Homestay with family while studying at K-12 institution
- e. Homestay with family while undergraduate or graduate study
- f. Military service
- g. Travel
- h. Job (specify)
- i. other (specify)

Length Category:
- (1) Less than 3 months
- (2) 3-6 months
- (3) 6-12 months
- (4) 1-2 years
- (5) 2-3 years
- (6) More than 3 years

8. Have you received foreign/second language instruction in a language other than Japanese for at least 1 hour a week for more than 6 months?

- No
- Yes (Proceed the following questions)

If you circle “Yes,” please list the names of the languages, and choose settings, frequency, and the length of study from the following categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the language</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Length of study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Setting:
- a. Study at K-12 institution
- b. Undergraduate or graduate study
- c. Homestay with Japanese family without attending school
- d. Homestay with family while studying at K-12 institution
- e. Homestay with family while undergraduate or graduate study
- f. Military service
- g. Travel
- h. Job (specify)
- i. other (specify)

Frequency:
- (1) 1-2 hours a week
- (2) 2-4 hours a week
- (3) 4-6 hours a week
- (4) 6-9 hours a week
- (5) more than 9 hours a week

Length of study:
- (1) 6 months – 1 year
- (2) 1-2 years
- (3) 2-4 years
- (4) more than 4 years

Thank you very much for your participation!