Making Sense of Japanese Locative Particles:
The Acquisition of 'ni', 'de' and 'e' by
French- and English-speaking Learners

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A thesis

in the

Department of Education

(TESL Centre)

Presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for

The Degree of Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics at

Concordia University

Montreal, Quebec, Canada

April 2006

Your file Votre référence
ISBN: 0-494-14167-0
Our file Notre référence
ISBN: 0-494-14167-0

Abstract

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This thesis reports findings from a cross-sectional study of the second language (L2) acquisition of the Japanese locative particles 'ni', 'de', and 'e', features that are polysemous, not salient, and can be omitted in informal speech (Aida, 1993). Although each particle is associated with separate spatial relationships – 'ni'/existence, 'de'/location of action and 'e'/direction – there is semantic overlap: 'ni' also indicates direction, and is required to link actions with directions, or if 'actions' are state-like (habitual). Its 'existence' function does not however extend to special events, which are marked by 'de'.

The polysemous nature of Japanese particles allows for the investigation of two factors thought to play roles in L2 acquisition. One is the use of prototypes to establish core meanings (Taylor, 2003). Also, because spatial relationships are expressed differently across languages, first language (L1) influence (Inagaki, 2002) may be an important factor.

Forty-three Francophones and Anglophones at three levels of Japanese proficiency completed three tasks targeting six locative functions. Analyses revealed no L1 influence and an order of accuracy consistent across all proficiency levels – 'ni/e'/direction, followed by 'ni'/existence, 'ni'/habit, and 'de'/action. In addition to evidence for prototypical meanings for 'ni' and 'e', the influence of two additional factors

emerged. An overall preference for 'ni', a multi-purpose particle, suggested frequency effects, and a difficulty in sorting out verb-particle associations demonstrated the importance of verbs in determining spatial relationships. The accuracy patterns found also differed from the order in which locatives are presented in Japanese textbooks. Pedagogical implications of the findings are discussed.

Acknowledgements

I owe many thanks to a lot of wonderful people for their contribution in this study. First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude and admiration for my thesis supervisor, Laura Collins, for always challenging and encouraging me to push the limits. Her insightful feedback and attention to detail have inspired me and guided me each step of the way.

I am also grateful to my committee members, Joanna White, for helping me put into words my "burning question", and Pavel Trofimovich, for his inextinguishable enthusiasm in my work.

Thank you also to Randall Halter for his patience and insight when came the time to figure out what to do with all those numbers. I am grateful to Hinenoya Kimiko for all her help with my Japanese translations and evaluation criteria, and to all the Japanese teachers working in Montreal who have welcomed me into their classrooms and shown an interest in my study.

I am thankful to Murakami Keiko, my first friend overseas, for welcoming me into her life six years ago, for organizing a crucial part of the testing process, and for always rooting for me.

Last but not least, I would like to express my appreciation to my family and friends for their support: my mom, Mimi, for encouraging me to start the M.A., my dad, Gilles, for his quiet confidence in my abilities, and my brother, Jean-Christophe, for all the "thesis moments" we have shared, and will continue sharing as he finishes his own study. Gambatte! Finally, warm thanks to all my friends at Cat's Corner for making me smile and keeping me swingin'.

Dedication

I wish to dedicate this thesis to some of the most wonderful women I know.

First, to Albina, my Grandmère, one of the strongest and most courageous women I have had the chance to meet, both in person and on paper.

To Jeanne d'Arc, my Mamie, whose sharp mind and keen interest in all our accomplishments never cease to amaze me.

To Mimi, my mother, my best friend: I could never have done this without you.

Finally, to Keiko and Chiho: without you, Japan would simply not have been the same.

God bless you all, and thank you for everything!

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Chapter 1: Introduction

After I obtained my Bachelor's Degree in TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language), I went to work for three years as an assistant English teacher in Japan. I was hired to teach at a local junior high school, an elementary school and a kindergarten. At the beginning of every school year, the members of the school board would visit all three schools, the teachers would line up in front of them and, in turn, they would introduce themselves and explain their role in the school. Every year, when my turn came, I froze. I could state my name and origins well enough but, every time I tried describing the fact that I taught English at three different schools, I couldn't string the words together. I had a vague idea that a specific particle should be used to indicate this type of locative relationship, but I didn't know which one. I knew that even if I made a mistake, everyone would probably still figure out what I meant and understand that, as a "foreigner", I could not speak Japanese with native-like fluency, but it was extremely frustrating – especially after three years of intensive studies – not to be able to select the correct one with any degree of certainty. Even more frustrating was the time my best friend's six-year-old daughter pointed out to me during a conversation that I had used one particle where I should have used another. These examples illustrate that locative particles can be a problematic feature for learners to acquire.

The acquisition of Japanese particles is of interest for several reasons. First of all, because particles are polysemous features, their acquisition may be facilitated or constrained by the learners' construction of prototypical/peripheral meanings (Hu, 2002; Taylor, 2003). Furthermore, Japanese particles are of interest because of the way in which they are polysemous. On one level, according to the context in which they are

used, they can be either case markers (e.g. subject, object, etc.) or postpositions. They are thus *syntactically* polysemous. In addition, as postpositions, some particles can carry more than one meaning (e.g. temporal, possessive, locative, etc.), thus making them polysemous on a *semantic* level. Locative particles are also interesting because they allow for investigations of the relative influences on second language (L2) learning of first language (L1) knowledge (i.e. L2 acquisition of locative relationships may be influenced by L1 similarities/differences, Harley, 1989; Inagaki, 2001, 2002). Furthermore, because locative information can be transmitted through strings of various locative elements such as spatial nouns and verbs (Sinha, Thorseng, Hayashi & Plunkett, 1994), locative particles are not necessarily salient and can even be omitted in informal speech (Aida, 1993).

Japanese L2 research reports particle errors (e.g., Igarashi, Wudthayagorn, Donato & Tucker, 2002; Watanabe Traphagan, 1997) but the acquisition of this semantically complex aspect of morphosyntax has received little research attention. The goal of this thesis is to examine in a cross-sectional study how two groups of Japanese L2 learners, French and English speakers, acquire the three most common locative particles in Japanese, 'ni', 'de' and 'e'. The relative influences of semantic prototypes and L1 knowledge on the acquisition of these three particles will be investigated.

The literature review begins with a definition of what a particle is, followed by a description of each of the functions covered by the three particles investigated in this thesis. A discussion of the ways in which the acquisition of particles has been studied in L1 and L2 contexts is then presented, along with a review of studies reporting on the possible influence of L1 knowledge and prototypicality effects. The methodology section

describes the participants and control group and discusses each of the seven tests used to investigate the research questions stated at the end of the literature review. The results section elaborates upon the various methods of analysis used and reports the findings. In the discussion section, the research questions are answered and the findings interpreted. The final chapter provides a summary of the main findings, along with pedagogical implications, limitations and suggestions for future directions.

These results will provide us with a better understanding of how L2 learners of Japanese acquire and cognitively represent locative particles. Furthermore, these results will contribute to the acquisition literature by investigating a linguistic feature that is challenging from an acquisition point of view because it is polysemous, not salient, and can be optional in informal speech. The relative influences other factors such as L1 knowledge and prototypicality might have on such an acquisition will also be examined. Finally, the acquisition patterns found will be compared with Japanese L2 textbook presentations of locatives to assess how well the attested challenges of particles are addressed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter is divided into four sections. In the first section, particles are defined, and an overview of Japanese locative particles is presented. A description of the various functions and meanings of the three locative particles examined in this thesis, 'ni', 'de' and 'e', is also given. Next, the small number of previous studies which have investigated the acquisition of Japanese locative particles are reviewed. In addition, there is a review of literature focused on the potential impact L1 and L2 differences may have on the acquisition of particles and on the potential role prototypicality may play. Finally, two popular textbooks used in Japanese L2 classrooms are analysed for the presentation of locative particles. The chapter ends with the three questions researched in this thesis.

Particles

Generally speaking, a particle can be defined as "a minor part of speech, especially a short indeclinable one; a common prefix or suffix such as [the English] *in-, -ness*" (Pearsall & Trumble, 2002, p.1060). In other words, a particle is a grammatical morpheme that needs to be associated with another lexical morpheme to form a unit or a word, examples of which include the Latin *–que,* the French *ne* and *de*, and the Greek *mê* (Dubois, Giacomo, Guespin, Marcellisi, Marcellisi, & Mével, 2001). Some languages, such as Japanese, Korean and Turkish, make extensive use of particles to clarify the meaning and function carried by words in sentences.

In Japanese, although the verb is always placed at the end of the sentence, word order for other sentence components (i.e. subjects, objects, adverbials) can vary. Particles are used to clarify the meaning and function of each word in a sentence.

Without particles, it could be very difficult to understand the message the speaker intends to convey. A simple example of such a situation would be the following sentence.

(1) Watashi neko suki desu.
I cats like is[1].
* "I cats like."

Since there are no particles to indicate which word is the subject and which is the object, it is difficult to determine whether I like cats, or the cats like me. On the other hand, if I add particles to (1), the message becomes much clearer.

(2) Watashi **wa** neko **ga** suki desu.
I **TOP**[2] cats **SUB** like is.
"I like cats."

Simply moving the same particles can also create a whole new perspective, as in (3).

(3) Watashi **ga** neko **wa** suki desu.
I **SUB** cats **TOP** like is.
"Cats like me."

There is a lot of confusion as to how Japanese particles should be defined. As we can see from the previous examples, particles are similar to prepositions. Like prepositions, particles are free morphemes whose function is to show role relationships. Examples of such prepositions include the English words 'of' and 'by' which can be used to respectively mark possession and the agent of a passive sentence, the German 'zu' used to indicate location, and the French 'pour' which can be used to designate an indirect object (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p.401). The only difference then lies in their position in a sentence: prepositions are placed before the noun they designate, particles, after. Thus many researchers call particles 'postpositions' (Dubois et al., 2001; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Sadakane & Koizumi, 1995; Tsujimura, 1996;

[1] In Japanese, the expressions 'suki' (to like) and 'kirai' (to hate) are not verbs. They are adjectives, which is why they are always followed by the verb 'desu' (to be).
[2] See the Glossary in Appendix A for definitions of terms used in the examples.

Ueno, 2001) or 'adpositions', an umbrella term used by some linguists to designate both pre- and postpositions (Cuyckens, 2001) (e.g. the 2002 International Conference on Adpositions of Movement organized by the Catholic University of Leuven and sponsored by the Linguistic Society of Belgium). But assuming that Japanese particles are prepositions that are placed after the nouns whose function in a sentence they designate would be, I believe, an overly simplistic way of defining them.

One fundamental difference that must not be overlooked is that, while prepositions are actual words, particles are not. If I were to say or write the word 'in', an English speaker would automatically associate it with a mental image of the concept it represents: something like an object inside a container. If, however, I were to say or write the particle 'ni', a Japanese speaker would probably meet me with a very puzzled look because particles on their own do not have any meaning. In other words, "if a [particle] is stranded by itself in a phrase or in a sentence, there is no way we can interpret it" (Tsujimura, 1996, p.133). They do not fulfill the criteria one normally uses when defining a word, i.e. "a sound or combination of sounds forming a meaningful element of speech" (Pearsall & Trumble, 2002, p.1664). They are represented in the written form by one or more hiragana characters[3], thus placing them at the level of syllables. They are free morphemes that need to be *associated* with a word in order to carry meaning. In this way, they are a lot closer to clitics than to prepositions. By definition, a clitic is "a form which resembles a word, but which cannot stand on its own

[3] There are three different writing systems in the Japanese language: kanji, hiragana and katakana. Kanji consists of a series of complex characters that were borrowed and adapted from the Chinese writing system. Each character represents an idea or concept and thus symbolizes an actual word. Hiragana is used to transcribe Japanese words phonetically. It is the first writing system that children are taught to read. It is used to clarify certain kanji, to write words that are too "new" to be represented by kanji characters, and to represent grammatical markers. The third writing system, katakana, is used to phonetically transcribe words that have been borrowed from foreign languages (e.g. the Japanese word for "green peppers", "piman", was borrowed from the French word "piment").

as a normal utterance, being structurally dependant upon the neighbouring word in construction" (Crystal, 1991, p.57). Also, like a particle, "a clitic has the phonological form of a separate word, but cannot be stressed and is obliged to occupy a particular position in the sentence in which it is phonologically bound to an adjoining word" (Trask, 1993, p.46). Aside from Japanese particles, examples of clitics would include the French 'je', the English negative '-n't' and the Turkish 'de' (a conjunction meaning 'and'; 'as well') (Trask, 1993). Then, why are Japanese particles usually called 'particles' and not 'clitics'? Vance (1993) attempted to answer the same question by applying to Japanese particles the tests described in Zwicky and Pullum (1983) and Zwicky (1985). These tests were designed to determine whether a word should be classified as a clitic or as an independent word, and include criteria which can be used to identify clitics (e.g. phonology, accent, syntax, etc.), and provide guidelines to determine whether a word fulfils these criteria or not. After analysing particles in light of these tests, Vance came to the conclusion that,

> it is quite clear that many focus particles are independent words, and other particles seem no less word-like than English prepositions. (...) Zwicky (1985:287) considers [prepositions] independent words. If we accept Zwicky's notion of what it means to be a clitic, it seems quite clear that Japanese particles are not clitics after all. (1993, p.29)

According to Morii (1993), there are two types of Japanese particles: case markers and postpositions. As Backhouse (1993) explains, "case markers follow nouns (or noun phrases, i.e., broadly, modified nouns) and indicate the relation of these nouns to the following verb or other predicate" (p.125). Case markers, such as the topic and subject particles 'wa' and 'ga' used in sentences (2) and (3), are "phonological realizations of the abstract cases" (Morii, 1993, p.2) and are thus used to designate the

role of words in relation to the verb. Postpositions, on the other hand, can create postpositional phrases (Morii). Like English and French prepositions, postpositions are used to link one element of a sentence to another, in order to mark, for example, spatio-temporal, possessive, or locative relationships (Dubois et al., 2001). To these, Aida (1993) adds a third type of particles: those "used to express the emotional attitude of the speaker" (p.314). Such particles include the markers of emphasis 'wa' and 'yo'.[4]

Some particles are straightforward, like the case markers 'no' and 'wa', which respectively indicate a genitive relationship and the topic of a sentence, as in (4).

(4) Onēsan **no** hon **wa** furui desu.
Older sister **GEN** book **TOP** old is
"My sister's book is old."

However, most particles are polysemous and are used to mark various types of relationships such as the ones mentioned earlier. This thesis will focus on one such type of particles: locatives.

Locative particles in Japanese

Japanese locative particles identify a noun phrase (NP) as a location as well as the type of situation that is described in relation to that location. Kabata and Rice (1997) further identify two possible types of spatial relationships marked by locative particles, using the word 'locative' to refer to a state/action or the existence of a person/thing in a

[4] Spoken Japanese aso uses particles at the end of sentences to convey emotional nuances without altering the actual meaning of the sentence. Some of these particles are used only by women while others are used only by men. The particle 'wa' cited earlier is used "in weak assertive or volitional sentences by a female speaker" (Makino & Tsutsui, 2001, p.520). 'Yo', on the other hand , is usally used by a male speaker to mark a "(fairly) strong conviction or assertion about something that is assumed to be known only to him" (p.543).

given environment and the term 'allative' to mark "either the direction and/or the final destination (landmark) that a figured entity (trajectory) moves towards" (p.111).

(5) Watashi no ie **ni** neko ga iru.
I GEN house **LOC** cat SUB there is
"There is a cat in my house."

(6) Akita-san wa Kyōto **e** ikimasu.
Ms. Akita TOP Kyōto **ALL** goes
"Ms. Akita goes to Kyōto."

While I recognize the significance of the difference between the two terms, this difference is beyond the scope of the present study. For simplicity, since both contexts refer to a specific location/goal, the term 'locative' will be used to refer to both locative and allative situations in this thesis, which is also used as a label by many researchers in this field (e.g. Inagaki, 2002; Kabata & Rice, 1997; Sinha & Kuteva, 1995) There are six different locative particles in the Japanese language: 'ni', 'de', 'e', 'kara', 'made' and 'o' (Sinha et al., 1994). The particles 'kara' and 'made' are both straightforward in that they only carry one locative meaning each ('kara' means 'from' and 'made', 'to'), and 'o' is only used as a locative in very specific contexts (i.e. 'passing through'). In this thesis I will focus on the three Japanese locative particles that are most frequently referred to in the literature on locative: 'ni', 'de' and 'e'. They also present a challenge to language learners for reasons explained below.

The particle へ ('e').

The particle 'e' is the least polysemous of the three locative particles under investigation. It is designated by the hiragana symbol へ and is pronounced /ɛ/, like the first vowel in the word 'echo'. Makino & Tsutsui (2001) define it as "a particle that indicates the direction toward which some directional movement or action proceeds"

(p.116). The place chosen as the goal of this movement is indicated by the particle 'e'. Because of the very precise function of this particle in these situations, 'e' is usually followed by one of the following verbs: 'iku (to go)', 'kuru (to come)', or 'kaeru (to return)'.

(7) Kyonen America **e** ikimashita.
Last year America **ALL** went
"I went **to** America last year."

Another way in which this particle can be used is as a dative case marker to indicate "the recipient of an action (in English, equivalent to the indirect object: 'to')" (Chino, 2001, p.60).

(8) Gaikoku ni iru tomodachi **e** tegami o kakimashita.
Foreign country LOC is friend **DAT** letter OBJ wrote
"I wrote a letter **to** my friend abroad."

Again, such a sentence indicates movement from one place to another or, as is the case here, from one person's hand to another's. The friend is the goal of the movement, and can thus be indicated by 'e'. In both (7) and (8), the particle 'ni' can replace 'e'. Since it only carries two different functions (i.e. locative postposition and dative case marker), the particle 'e' is thus relatively transparent. The fact that it collocates with three commons verbs makes it a good candidate for an early-learned particle.

The particle で ('de').

This particle is designated by the hiragana character て ('te') to which one adds diacritics in order to change its pronunciation to 'de', /de/, like in the word 'desert'. This particle indicates the place where an action or special event occurs (Backhouse, 1993; Chino, 2000; Makino & Tsutsui, 2001; Ueno, 2001). Unlike 'e', 'de' does not indicate

the place toward which movement takes place but rather the location of an action/event. In this way, the particle 'de' is similar to the English prepositions 'in' and 'at'.

(9) Takeshi wa kyōshitsu **de** benkyō shite imasu.
Takeshi TOP classroom **LOC** studying
"Takeshi is studying **in** the classroom."

(10) Ashita gakkō **de** tesuto ga arimasu.
Tomorrow school **LOC** test SUB there is
"There is a test **at** school tomorrow."

Another important function of the particle 'de' is that of indicating "the use of something for doing something" (Makino & Tsutsui, 2001, p.106). In this case, 'de' reflects the same meaning as the English prepositions 'by' and 'with'. This may include a means, implement, or materials used, as in (11).

(11) Watashi wa keito **de** kutsushita o anda.
I TOP wool **INST** socks OBJ knit
"I knit socks **with** wool."

(Makino & Tsutsui, 2001, p.111)

Also, according to Chino (2001), the particle 'de' can be used to indicate the superlative (i.e. "the greatest") as in (12), or the time when something terminates or the amount of time a period of activity has taken (13).

(12) Sekai **de** ichiban takai yama wa nan desu ka.
World **CRP** first tall mountain TOP what is Q
"What is the tall**est** mountain **in** the world?"

(Chino, 2001, p.50)

(13) Amerika ni kite kara kyō **de** sannen ni naru.
America ALL come from today **TEMP** three years RES become
"It's been three years since I came to America."

(Makino & Tsutsui, 2001, p.109)

As well, 'de' can be used to indicate the mode or condition of the agent of the action.

(14) Watashi wa apāto ni hitori **de** sunde imasu.
I TOP apartment LOC one person **MAN** am living
"I am living in an apartment **by** myself."

(Chino, 2001, p.51)

Finally, the particle 'de' can indicate the reason for something. For example, in (15), 'de' carries the same meaning as the English word 'because'.

(15) Byōki **de** ryokō ni ikenakatta.
Sickness **REAS** trip ALL couldn't go
"I couldn't go on the trip **because** I was sick."

(Chino, 2001, p.51)

The particle 'de' is thus very polysemous in its multiple functions. Within locative functions, it is used to indicate relationships that are often covered by separate prepositions, such as in English (see (9) and (10)) and French (compare (9) and (10) with (16) and (17), below).

(16) Takeshi wa kyōshitsu **de** benkyō shite imasu.
Takeshi TOP classe **LOC** étudie.
"Takeshi étudie **dans** la classe."

(17) Ashita gakkō **de** tesuto ga arimasu.
Demain école **LOC** test SUB il y a
"Il y aura un test **à** l'école demain."

To summarize, the locative particle 'de' presents a bigger challenge to acquire, mainly due to its polysemous nature. In addition, there is also subtle semantic overlap between the particles 'de' and 'ni', which is discussed in the next section.

The particle に ('ni').

'Ni' is the most complex of the three particles. It is designated by the hiragana character に and is pronounced /ni/. This particle is used to indicate where a person or thing is (e.g. Kabata & Rice, 1997; Makino & Tsutsui, 2001; Morii, 1993; Sadakane &

Koizumi, 1995). In this case, the particle 'ni' can carry the same meaning as the English prepositions 'on', 'in' and 'at', as illustrated in (18), (19) and (20).

(18) Tsukue no ue **ni** ringo ga arimasu.
Desk GEN top **LOC** apple SUB there is
"There is an apple **on** the desk."

(19) Tsukue no naka **ni** ringo ga arimasu.
Desk GEN inside **LOC** apple NOM there is
"There is an apple **in** the desk."

(20) Watashi no ie **ni** ringo ga arimasu.
I GEN house **LOC** apples NOM there are
"There are apples **at** my house."

Another use of 'ni' is to indicate the location of an action representing a habit.

(21) Terada-san wa Shinjuku no ginkō **ni** tsutomete imasu.
Mr.Terada TOP Shinjuku GEN bank **LOC** is working
"Mr. Terada works **at** a bank in Shinjuku."

(Chino, 2001, p.53)

In this example, 'ni' is used with a verb expressing a habitual action, which implies "that the subject is permanently located in the place of action" (Chino, 2001, p.53). Of course, the verb 'to work' is usually interpreted as a dynamic verb. However, in a context such as the one depicted in (21), the action described is that of a habit so deeply ingrained that it defines who Mr. Terada is. This function of the particle 'ni' can be confusing to novice learners of Japanese since it is very similar to the locative function of the particle 'de'. The difference, however, lies in the fact that, as Ueno (2001) pointed out, "'ni' indicates location of an 'individual' (or 'thing' in Jackendoff's 1983 terms) whereas 'de' indicates location of a 'situation' (which subsumes states, events, actions, and so on)" (p.109). To summarize, the existence of someone or something at a given location is expressed by the particle 'ni', as in (22).

(22) Tēburu no ue **ni** bōru ga aru.
Table GEN top **LOC** ball SUB there is
"There is a ball **on** the table."

(Ueno, 2001, p.109)

However, the location where an actual action occurs will be indicated by the particle 'de'.

(23) Tēburu no ue **de** bōru ga hazunda.
Table GEN top **LOC** ball SUB bounced
"A ball bounced **on** the table."

(Ueno, 2001, p.109)

Also, like the particle 'e', 'ni' can be used to indicate movement toward a place. The two particles are thus interchangeable.

(24) Kyonen America **ni/e** ikimashita.
Last year America **ALL** went
"I went **to** America last year."

However, in a situation where an action is combined with a direction (i.e. "going somewhere to do something") like the one described in (25) and (26), the object of the action is not an actual place, so only the particle 'ni' can be used.

(25) Kaimono **ni** ikimasu.
Shopping **ALL** will go
"I will go shopping."

(Chino, 2001, p.56)

(26) Tomodachi wa asobi **ni** kimashita.
Friend TOP play **ALL** came
"My friend came to play."

'Ni' can also be used as a dative case marker to designate the recipient of an action. However, unlike the particle 'e', 'ni' can be used to mean either the same thing as the English preposition 'to' or the preposition 'from'. When it is used to carry the meaning 'to', the particle 'ni' can be replaced by 'e'. When it is used to mean 'from', another particle, 'kara', may replace 'ni' (Chino, 2001, p.56-57).

(27) Kinō Kimiko **ni/e** tegami o dashite agemashita.
Yesterday Kimiko **DAT** letter OBJ send gave
"Yesterday I sent a letter **to** Kimiko."

(28) Gaikoku ni iru tomodachi **ni/kara** tegami o moraimashita.
Foreign country LOC is friend **DAT** letter OBJ received
"I received a letter **from** my friend who is abroad."

The particle 'ni' can also be used to indicate time, whether it is the specific time at which something takes place, as in (29), or an interval of time during which something takes place (30).

(29) Watashi wa sangatsu yokka **ni** umaremashita.
I TOP March 4th **TEMP** was born
"I was born **on** March 4th."

(30) Kodomo ga gakkō ni itte iru aida **ni** tegami o kaita.
Children SUB school LOC were while **TEMP** letter OBJ wrote
"I wrote a letter **while** my children were at school."
(Makino & Tsutsui, 2001, p.289)

Finally, the particle 'ni' can be used in several other non-locative contexts, such as to indicate the result of change (31), the agent of a passive verb (32), or the person(s) made to do something in a causative sentence (33).

(31) Kimiko-san wa daigaku o sotsugyō shite, isha **ni** natta.
Kimiko TOP university OBJ graduated doctor **RES** became
"Kimiko graduated from university and became a doctor."
(Chino, 2001, p.57)

(32) Ie ni kaeru tochū de ame **ni** furareta
House ALL return way ALL rain **CAU.exp** fall on
"On my way home I got rained on."
(Chino, 2001, p.58)

(33) Akiko wa Hiroshi **ni** gohan o tsukuraseta.
Akiko TOP Hiroshi **CAU** meal OBJ made do
"Akiko made Hiroshi fix a meal."
(Makino & Tsutsui, 2001, p.293)

Summary.

To summarize, each of the three Japanese locative particles described earlier can be used to express several different functions. Within the locative contexts there are also different functions for the same particle. The particle 'ni' can be used to mark the existence of something or someone in a given place, movement toward a place, the location of a habitual action, or to combine an action with a direction. 'De' designates the location of an action at one point in time or the location of a special event. Finally, the particle 'e' can be used, like the particle 'ni', to indicate movement toward a place. For ease of reference, a comprehensive summary of each function mentioned above, along with examples, is presented in Table B1 of Appendix B. The other functions covered by the particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' are summarized in Table B2.

Acquisition of Particles

Japanese as a first language (L1).

Several researchers such as Aida (1993), Clancy (1985), Kabata & Rice (1997), Morii (1993), Sadakane & Koizumi (1995), and Ueno (2001) agree that, due to their polysemous nature, Japanese locative particles may be a difficult feature to acquire. However, because little research to date has focused on the acquisition of particles, findings usually consist of broad observations that are suggestive of acquisition patterns. This lack of focus does not provide us with much guidance as to which directions future research should take.

Clancy (1985) reported on the data collected by Okubo (1967) and Miyahara (1974). Along with the results gathered from her own research, these studies allowed her

to provide us with some information on the order in which Japanese children acquire locative particles.

> Usually the first locative to be acquired is 'ni', which covers the semantic range of English 'in' and 'on', as well as 'at' and 'to'. Shortly afterwards in my data, but at the same time in some children (Okubo, 1967), the directional 'e' 'to/toward' begins to be used. In my data, the next locative to emerge was 'de', which marks the place at which an action is being performed. The next two locatives which appear are 'made' 'until/up to' and 'kara' 'from'. (Clancy, 1985, p.471)

This suggests that locative particles seem to be acquired according to a certain sequence, with 'ni' being the first locative particle to emerge. However, because Clancy (1985) did not elaborate on which specific feature of the particle 'ni' was first to be acquired, the results reported in this review chapter synthesizing findings from various studies on the L1 acquisition of Japanese essentially provide us with an unspecified overview of what the order of acquisition of locative particles could be.

Sinha, Thorseng, Hayashi, and Plunkett (1994) provide more specific information on the particle 'ni'. They compared the acquisition of spatial semantics in three different languages: English, Danish, and Japanese. Their analysis of language samples from a Japanese boy in the age range 11-35 months confirmed Clancy's (1985) finding that the first locative particle to emerge is 'ni'. They further demonstrated that the first use of the particle 'ni' this child acquired was that of a marker of existence in collocation with the word 'koko' ('koko ni'), which translates roughly as 'here'. Because it accounted for most uses of 'ni', one could argue that it is either a formulaic or restricted use of the particle 'ni', rather than mastery of the existence function of 'ni'.

They also found that the Japanese child began to acquire locative verbs such as 'hairu' ('to go in') and 'tatsu' ('to stand up') much earlier than locative nouns (e.g.

'naka', 'inside'; 'ue', 'top') or locative particles (Sinha et al., 1994). One possible explanation for this finding is that the child's cognitive maturity, i.e. his metalinguistic awareness and his knowledge of the world surrounding him (Lightbown & Spada, 1999), may still be at a level where locative nouns and particles represent more complex spatial relationships that such a young child may not yet be able to grasp. Another explanation could be that, as demonstrated in (34), Japanese transmits locative information through strings of locative particles, spatial nouns and spatial verbs.

(34) Sensei wa hon o hako (no naka)† ni# ireru.
Teacher TOP book OBJ box GEN inside LOC inserts
"The teacher puts the book in the box."

† Optional
# Optional in colloquial speech

(Sinha & Kuteva, 1995, p.186)

This suggests that Japanese locative particles may not be salient, which further enhances the difficulty language learners may have in acquiring them.

Furthermore, locative particles can be omitted in colloquial speech including, as Aida (1993) reported, in caretaker speech (i.e. the language used to address young children). While she had hypothesised that the language Japanese mothers would use with their one-year-old children would contain very few omissions, her analysis of the speech of six mothers revealed that, on the contrary, language directed to young children contained more omissions than the language used to address adults. Because Japanese is a language which is highly dependent on context (i.e. "almost anything is allowed so long as the intended meaning can be conveyed with the help of context, common knowledge, common sense, etc.", Aida, 1993, p.315), the mothers were found to omit on a regular basis the particles that could be retrieved from context in order to simplify their speech.

The locatives 'ni' and 'e' were among the particles omitted (others included the nominative 'ga' and topic-marker 'wa') (Aida, 1993). To summarize, not only are Japanese locative particles not salient, but they are also often omitted in informal speech, making them even more of a challenge for learners to notice.

After analyzing data gathered by Okubo (1967) and Iwabuchi et al. (1968), Morii (1993) studied the acquisition of the various uses of the particle 'ni' by 48 children in Tokyo whose ages varied between 2:0 and 5:5 years old. Her results suggested that Japanese children acquire the case marker 'ni' earlier than the postposition 'ni' (which includes locative functions). Sadakane & Koizumi (1995) later conducted a linguistic analysis of the various classifications of the particle 'ni' contrasting the dative and locative uses and meanings of the locative particle 'ni' and confirmed Morii's findings that Japanese children acquire case marker functions of the particle 'ni' earlier than its postposition functions in locative contexts (1993). These findings suggest that the various locative functions of particles are more challenging for L1 learners of Japanese than the syntactic functions found in case markers.

Japanese as a second language (L2).

While there is a substantial amount of literature written on the acquisition of Japanese by L2 learners (e.g. Kanno, 1999; Ohta, 2001), there is very little research that has been conducted on the acquisition of locative particles in second/foreign language (L2) contexts. There is, however, evidence that the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' present different degrees of difficulty. In his doctoral thesis, Suzuki (1996) examined the effects of animated hypermedia instruction on American university learners' ability to

acquire and contrast the uses of the particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e'. Half the participants were taught using an animated computer program designed by the researcher to get learners to notice the types of verbs and contexts which are typically associated with each locative particle. The learners were first asked to choose between two characters. Once their selection was done, the chosen person (a man or a woman) would appear on the screen, along with the character's name and the topic-marker 'wa'. The students were then asked to choose the location where they wished the person to appear (e.g. the park) and, when a drawing depicting this situation would appear on the screen, select one of the three locative particles (i.e. 'ni', 'de' or 'e'). Verbs appropriate to the selected particle would then appear and, by clicking on one, the students were able to see their chosen character act the sentence that they had just created. The other half of the participants received "regular" in-class instruction: they were taught about particles by their teacher and were then given a series of written exercises to practice the new target features. Immediate and delayed post-tests revealed no difference between the two groups of students regarding the acquisition of the particle 'e', thus confirming the notion that this particle is the most "straightforward" of all three locatives studied. The experimental group was, on the other hand, significantly better than the control group at selecting 'ni' and 'de' in obligatory contexts. The findings should be interpreted with caution because the design did not mention the possibility of using two particles interchangeably nor would it allow the students to see the result of associating an incorrect particle with a certain context, and many items on the tests were biased towards eliciting the desired particles. The study, however, shows that the use of the locative particles 'ni' to indicate existence and 'de' to mark the location of an action are challenging for L2 learners of Japanese.

Evidence of the challenge multifunctional particles present was also found in the latest in a series of six evaluations conducted by Igarashi, Wudthayagorn, Donato and Tucker (2002) on a group of students who had been enrolled for six years in the Japanese FLES (Foreign Language in Elementary Schools) program in the United States. The authors reported that novice-level FLES students used repetition and formulaic syntactic structures when producing utterances longer than single words and continued to use a canonical SOV word order in Japanese. They were also still struggling with passive sentences and multifunctional particles such as 'de'. It is not clear from the report whether the students did not use particles much during their first years of studying Japanese, or if the mistakes they made when using them were not salient enough to attract the researchers' attention. Perhaps, like the L1 learner of Japanese described by Sinha et al. (1994), L2 learners also go through a period in which they use particles in a limited number of repeated phrases, possibly as formulaic chunks, and then, as they integrate new information about particles, start making up their own sentences, thus making mistakes that reflect their understanding of the grammar. This hypothesis would be consistent with Andersen's (1984) One to One (1:1) Principle of Interlanguage (IL) construction which specifies that "an IL system should be constructed in such a way that an intended underlying meaning is expressed with one clear invariant surface form (or construction)" (p.79). This implies that the mistakes learners make might teach us a lot about the way they understand the L2 and the connections they establish between Japanese particles and similar features in their L1.

Such an interpretation is also consistent with the results of a study by Watanabe Traphagan (1997) in which she conducted three different analyses on the data collected

from tests given to six FLES children (two for each proficiency level). She examined how the students learned and used formulaic expressions and particles. Her analyses showed that young learners' particle use was characterized by very little misuse, omission or pauses, suggesting the children's tendency to learn multiwords as formulaic chunks. This might be one of the reasons why there has been so little research conducted on the acquisition of locative particles in L2 contexts: not only are these particles not salient when used in everyday communication, but they also seem to be learned as formulaic chunks in the first stages of acquisition. Mistakes seem to appear when learners have reached a level where they begin to use particles more systematically. Because studies to date have focused mostly on describing how learners begin to acquire Japanese as an L2 in general, such mistakes might not be present in the learners' early output. This hypothesis would be consistent with language acquisition literature which states that

> movement from one point in a sequence of development to another can actually lead from apparently correct performance (sometimes based on rote learning or very limited knowledge) to incorrect performance (based on an emerging understanding of the underlying rules or grammatical relationships in the language being learned). Thus, an increase in error may be an indication of progress. (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p.71)

One might then expect to see few mistakes in the beginning learners' output in contexts where the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' could have been learned as formulaic chunks (e.g. 'ni imasu' (there is), 'e ikimasu' (to go), etc.) and see the number of mistakes increase with proficiency as the learners figure out the rules and try to apply them to other contexts.

Factors Influencing L2 Acquisition of Particles

This section will review the different factors that may influence the way in which the learners might acquire and use locative particles. Such factors include the differences between the learners' L1 and the target language, the formation of prototypes, and the exposure to locative particles in a pedagogical context.

L1/L2 differences.

For L2 learners, the way in which they express spatial relationships in their L1 may affect how they acquire Japanese locative particles. Harley (1989) looked at how spatial relationships are expressed in English and French and found that, generally speaking, locative/directional relationships are conveyed in English by prepositions such as 'in', 'at' and 'to'. In French, however, prepositions such as 'à', 'en' and 'de' are considered to be "neutral with respect to the locative/direction contrast, as are almost all other spatial prepositions" (Harley, 1989, p.6). Instead, French and other Romance languages mark locative/directional relationships through the use of verbs of motion like 'descendre' ('go down') or 'entrer' ('go in'). In a study where she examined the use of locative prepositions by English-speaking immersion students learning French, she found that they "would show a systematic tendency to rely more heavily on prepositions than would the [French] native speakers" (p.15). The learners' L1 might thus influence the way they perceive and use each locative particle. Consider (35) and (36).

(35) French: Jean est **à** l'école.
English: John is **at** school.
Japanese: John wa gakko **ni** imasu.

(36) French: Jean va **à** l'école.
English: John goes **to** school.
Japanese: John wa gakko **ni/e** ikimasu.

As can be seen from these examples, French-speakers use the same preposition, 'à', to express both location of existence and direction, while English-speakers use a different preposition in each situation: 'at' for existence, and 'to' for direction. Because the Japanese particle 'ni' can be used in both contexts just like the French preposition 'à', French-speaking learners might demonstrate a greater flexibility in using the particle 'ni' than English-speaking learners. On the other hand, since English-speaking learners have been found in Harley (1989) to rely on different prepositions to carry different locative meanings, they might follow Andersen's (1984) 1:1 Principle of IL Construction and try to establish a one to one (1:1) correlation between English prepositions and Japanese locative particles, thus expressing existence with the particle 'ni' but, since an alternative is offered, choose the particle 'e' to express direction.

Sinha et al. (1994) compared the spatial semantics and acquisition of three different languages: English, Danish and Japanese. English was found to have covertly distributed spatial semantics (i.e. spatial information is usually conveyed only through prepositions) while Danish and Japanese both have overtly distributed spatial semantics. Danish transmits locative information through strings of locative particles, and Japanese uses locative particles, spatial nouns and spatial verbs.

(37) Danish: Saet koppen **derind I** skabet.
Put the cup **there+into in** the cupboard
"Put the cup into the cupboard there."

(Sinha et al, 1994, p.264)

(38) Japanese: Sono kodomo wa okashi o poketto (no **naka) ni ireta**.
That child TOP candy OBJ pocket GEN **inside LOC inserted**
"That child put a candy in his pocket."

(Sinha et al, 1994, p.275)

Their results showed that learners seem to acquire locative relationships in two distinct phases: first, they learn to express spatial relationships by using features within one form class (e.g. locatives), and in the second phase, they expand the range of their repertoire to include other forms. How their repertoire expands, however, depends on the way in which the L1 represents and expresses spatial relationships. English-speaking children acquired new forms within the same class (i.e. prepositions) and then expanded their repertoire to include other meanings carried by these already acquired forms. Danish-speaking children, on the other hand, not only expanded their repertoire with new forms from within the same class (i.e. locative particles), but also explored the various possible combinations between forms. Finally, since spatial relationships are overtly distributed over different form classes in Japanese, the Japanese-speaking child extended his repertoire to include a wider variety of forms from within the same class (in this case, spatial verbs), along with other forms that could be used to convey spatial relationships (i.e. locative particles and nouns). This means that, in an L1 acquisition context, Japanese speakers learn to use spatial verbs to convey locative relationships before they acquire locative particles and nouns. The implication of this finding is that spatial verbs might carry even more locative meaning than locative particles or nouns. For L2 learners of Japanese, this would indicate that they need to understand the meaning carried by each locative particle as well as figure out which verbs each one can be used with.

A further layer of complication was investigated by Inagaki (2001, 2002): in English, both directed motion verbs like 'to go' and manner-of-motion verbs like 'to run' or 'to walk' can be used with prepositions expressing a goal.

(39) Sam went into the house.

(40) Sam ran into the house.

In contrast, Japanese does not allow manner-of-motion verbs to occur with goal particles, only directed motion verbs. In other words, if we were to translate the two previous examples into Japanese, only (39) would be grammatically correct. English allows a wider range of motion verbs to occur with a goal preposition, and Inagaki (2001) found that Japanese-speaking students of English learned manner-of-motion verbs through positive evidence. The comparison group of English-speaking students of Japanese, on the other hand, required negative evidence to notice that Japanese manner-of-motion verbs could not be used with goal prepositions since no positive evidence could demonstrate their ungrammaticality. These findings further confirm that, not only do learners of Japanese need to understand the meaning carried by each particle, but also to sort out which verbs they can be used with. For example, the goal of verbs of direction such as 'iku' (to go) and 'kuru' (to come) can only be indicated by the particles 'ni' or 'e'. On the other hand, since such a verb cannot be used to indicate manner-of-motion, the location of an action like 'hashiru' (to run) can only be marked by the locative 'de'.

Prototypicality.

The learners' use of the particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' may reveal the main L2 connections they have established between Japanese locative particles and the functions they understand to be the most representative of each one. Their mistakes in using locatives would thus reflect functions and meanings that present a bigger challenge to acquire and, according to Rosch's (1973) Prototype Theory, may represent functions that are more peripheral. The Prototype Theory states that,

> In contrast to the classical theory of categorization, which assumes an all-or-nothing membership in a category based on criterial definitional features, prototype theory assumes a graded category membership. A category has its best exemplar(s) – the prototypes – and peripheral members, which do not necessarily share much with the best exemplars. Applied to language acquisition, the claim is that [learners] acquire a linguistic category starting with the prototype of the category, and later expand its application to less prototypical cases. (Shirai & Andersen, 1995, p.758)

Prototypes are then the members of a category that share the most features with other members of that same category while sharing the least features with members of contrasting categories (Hu, 2002; Taylor, 2003). The closer a concept is to the best exemplar, i.e. the prototype, the more representative of the selected category it will be. Examples of research conducted on the effects of the Prototype Theory include Shirai & Andersen's (1995, 1996) and Collins' (2002, 2004) studies of ESL learners' use of tense and aspect markers. All have found evidence confirming the Prototype Theory in the acquisition of tense and aspect in that participants all showed a tendency to acquire prototypical (central) members first and then gradually extended their understanding to less prototypical members. In a study of the various psychological effects affecting access to metalinguistic knowledge, Hu (2002) further demonstrated that, in an oral production task, the use of forms that are considered to be more prototypical – and can be processed more automatically – resulted in greater accuracy.

Furthermore, L2 learners, like L1 learners, have been found to pass through sequences of L2 development that are similar, regardless of the learners' L1 (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Evidence of this was found in the L2 English acquisition of grammatical morphemes (e.g. plural, past tense, -ing, etc.), expressions of negation, the formation of questions, the use of relative clauses, and the learners' ability to refer to the

past. At the same time, as Collins (2002) pointed out, "[L2 learners] may also exhibit interlanguage behaviour within stages resulting from L1 influence" (p.44). Examples of various morpheme acquisition studies are summarized in Lightbown & Spada, 1999. While researchers were able to establish an accuracy order for the acquisition of morphemes that was similar for all language learners, regardless of their L1 background, some L1 influence could still be detected. For example, learners whose L1 expressed possession through the use of a morpheme similar to the English possessive –s (e.g. German) were able to acquire this form earlier than learners whose language marked possession in a different way (e.g. French or Spanish) (Felix, 1981; Lightbown, 1983; also discussion in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

If applied to the locative particles 'ni' 'de' and 'e', the Prototype Theory would thus suggest that learners of Japanese first associate each particle to the one function they find most representative and, as their level of language proficiency develops, expand their understanding of the scope covered by each particle to include other – more peripheral – functions. Because the particle 'e' has been shown to carry only two different functions that both suggest movement (i.e. the locative postposition indicates movement from one place to another and the case marker, from one person's hand to another's), the core meaning of this locative might be to designate a direction. The particle 'ni' might be understood as an alternative but, because the first function of 'ni' the learners are exposed to is usually that of indicating the existence of a person/object in a given location, existence might be perceived by L2 learners as the core meaning of this locative. Finally, since the location of a special event is indicated by the particle 'de' used with the existence verb 'arimasu' (existence of an object), it might be perceived as being more of

an exception to the existence rule (i.e. existence is usually marked by 'ni') than a prototype. The core meaning of the particle 'de' might then be to represent the location of an action occurring at one point in time. However, as we have seen earlier, these hypotheses could vary according to the influence the learners' L1 might have on the acquisition of the various meanings carried by each particle. This series of core meanings – 'e'-direction, 'ni'-existence and 'de'-action – could be more representative of English-speaking learners' understanding of particles since they might show a preference for using 'e' to indicate a direction and 'ni' to mark existence. French speakers, on the other hand, might accept more readily the various functions covered by the particle 'ni' and reveal a prototype that is different from these speculations. This thesis will thus investigate patterns of acquisition that are common to all learners, as well as the influence the learners' L1 might have on those patterns.

Research on developmental features has also shown that the order in which they are acquired relies on the learners' developing ability to detect and process their presence in the input they hear, and follow a specific order that feels natural to the learners (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Pienemann (1988) attempted to demonstrate this concept by teaching a stage-4 structure to learners who were still at stage 2 in their acquisition of German. The learners either continued using stage-2 features, or moved on to the third stage of acquisition, but none of them was able to "skip ahead" to the fourth stage. Learners thus acquire a particular linguistic feature only when they are ready to do so. This demonstrates that the mistakes the learners make when acquiring a certain feature may mirror a specific developmental pattern. Another purpose of this thesis will be to attempt to understand better the developmental sequence underlying the acquisition of

Japanese locative particles by English- and French-speaking learners. This sequence will then be compared to the order in which the various functions of locative particles are generally presented to the learners to find out how well the attested challenges are addressed in Japanese L2 textbooks. Discrepancies between the developmental sequence followed by the learners and the order in which locative functions are presented to them (e.g. a locative function that is acquired in later stages but that is taught early) might help clarify some of the reasons why certain functions present a greater challenge to acquire than others.

Pedagogical input.

Assuming that Japanese L2 textbooks might provide a "window" on input in lieu of classroom observations, I analysed two popular textbooks designed for such classes, *Japanese for Young People* and *Minna no Nihongo,* in order to find out how the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' may be presented in Japanese as a second language courses. The first series is published by the Association for Japanese-Language Teaching (AJALT). This association has published two very popular series of English-Japanese textbooks, *Japanese for Busy People* and *Japanese for Young People.* The first series mainly addresses adults, the second is more tailored to meet the needs of junior high and high school students. The second textbook, *Minna no Nihongo*, is used at several institutions where Japanese is taught in Montreal. This series is written entirely in Japanese.

Minna no Nihongo presents locative particles in the following order (a detailed summary of the locative functions presented in this textbook is provided in Table C1 of Appendix C):

1. 'e' to designate a direction;
2. 'de' to indicate the location of an action;
3. 'ni' as a marker of existence;
4. 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction (i.e. "going somewhere to do something");
5. 'ni' as a marker of a habitual action; and
6. 'ni' to designate a direction.

The other locative context investigated in this thesis, 'de' used to indicate the location of a special event, is not mentioned in this series. *Japanese for Young People*, on the other hand, only teaches four of the same functions (a summary is provided in Table C2):

1. 'de' to indicate the location of an action;
2. 'e' to designate a direction;
3. 'ni' as a marker of existence; and
4. 'de' to indicate the location of an event.

The locative 'ni' used to designate a direction and 'ni' as a marker of a habitual action are not taught explicitly but are both used in examples towards the end of the book. The particle 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction is not treated.

The order in which each function is presented in both series is similar in that both series begin with the same functions of the three particles: 'e' to mark a direction, 'de' to indicate the location of an action and 'ni' as a marker of existence. This suggests a perception that these might either be the functions encountered most frequently, or that they are prototypical functions. Teaching them first would thus facilitate acquisition by providing novice learners of Japanese with a core upon which they can build their

understanding of particles. I am interested in finding out what learners make of such information. Do they acquire locative particles in the order in which they are presented in these textbooks (i.e. first 'de' to indicate the location of an action and 'e' for a direction, then 'ni' as a marker of existence, 'ni' to combine an action and a direction, 'ni' for a habitual action, 'ni' for a direction, and 'de' to indicate the location of an event)? Or is there a developmental pattern that reflects the learners' own understanding of the way in which each particle should be used? Because it is the first particle taught to carry such meaning, 'e' could be the first particle L2 learners acquire to designate a direction but, as soon as 'ni' is introduced as a viable alternative, the learners might demonstrate a tendency to use it instead since 'ni' could then be perceived as an "all-purpose" particle due to frequency effects (i.e. the particle 'ni' has more functions than the other two and is consequently encountered more frequently than either 'de' or 'e'). Similarly, because the particle 'de' is the first one shown to carry such meaning, the learners could use it to designate the location of an action. However, because 'ni' is carries a very similar meaning (i.e. location of a state or a habit) and because the particles 'ni' and 'e' can be used interchangeably to mark a direction, the learners might try to apply the same principle to the particles 'ni' and 'de', given the semantic overlap. The way in which the learners perceive locative functions and the order in which they acquire them may be further influenced by the differences and similarities that exist between their L1 and the target language. The learners' understanding of certain functions as being prototypical to each particle may also have an influence. Whether this order of acquisition matches the order in which locative particles are presented in textbooks will be investigated in this research.

Research Questions

The investigation of L1 influence, sensitivity to prototypical meanings, and input factors will focus on these three questions:

1. Will the participants' L1 influence the way they perceive locative particles and, if so, will it vary as a function of proficiency?
2. How are the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' acquired by L2 learners of Japanese? Do learners establish a prototypical meaning for each particle and, if so, how does the semantic scope of each particle change with proficiency?
3. To what extent does the order of control over particle meanings reflect the order in which the particles are presented in textbooks?
    1) 'e' to designate a direction;
    2) 'de' to indicate the location of an action;
    3) 'ni' as a marker of existence;
    4) 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction;
    5) 'ni' to indicate a habitual action;
    6) 'ni' to designate a direction; and
    7) 'de' to indicate the location of an event.

Because of the lack of previous research in this area, no specific hypotheses were entertained.

Chapter 3: Methodology

In this chapter, the participants selected are described, along with the instruments that were created for the study. The purpose underlying the design of each task as well as an account of the modifications that were made as a result of the pilot testing is also explained.

Participants

Non-native Speakers (NNS)

The question of how the order in which locative particles are acquired and the way their scope varies for the learners over time would be best investigated in a longitudinal study. However, I decided to use a cross-sectional design since it would allow me to test a large number of participants at various levels of proficiency at one point in time and thus draw observations that could apply to the development of individual learners.

In total, 53 participants whose biodata are summarized in Table 1 completed all of the three tests administered in this study. They were all enrolled in Japanese classes at various teaching institutions in Montreal (for the consent form, see Appendix D). I contacted teachers of Japanese as a Second/Foreign Language at three local universities, one college and one community centre where Japanese classes were offered and asked for their permission to make personal contact with their students. I usually went to meet the students towards the end of class and gave them a broad description of my research project. I stressed the fact that I needed participants whose mother tongue was either French or English. The students interested in participating would then give me their

contact information which I later used to set up appointments. Participants were offered eight dollars for their participation.

Table 1

Biodata Summary of Participants

	French (n = 30)	English (n = 19)	Bilingual (n = 4)
Age			
Average	22.64	27.26	21.81
Range	19-51	19-62	19-25
Level of education			
High school	1	0	0
CEGEP	2	3	1
Undergraduate	23	12	3
Graduate	1	3	0
Other	3	1	0
Years of Japanese studies			
Average	1.7	1.9	2.1
Range	4mo-4.5yrs	4mo-8yrs	1-3.5yrs
Exposure to Japanese in Japan			
Yes	6	10	1
No	24	9	3

Native Speakers (NS)

Ten native speakers of Japanese who teach Japanese as a Second/Foreign Language in Montreal were also tested as a comparison group. The teachers' average age is 47.8 (ranging from 23 to 60 years old) and they have been teaching Japanese for an average of 15.4 years. This group was selected as a control group because they were representative of the source of the input that the participants were exposed to.

In addition, twenty-four Japanese high school students (aged 14-15 years old) who study in Japan were tested as a second comparison group. This group of students was selected as a possible control group because they had all been exposed to the target language from birth and had very little knowledge of any other language; they had studied English in Junior High School, but only had a very basic ability in using it.

Instruments

The NNS participants were asked to complete a biodata questionnaire followed by a short writing activity to assess their proficiency in Japanese, three written tests designed to assess their knowledge of the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' (a cloze test (CT), a sentence construction task (SCT) and a grammaticality judgment task (GJT)) and a short translation task of key vocabulary items found in the three written tasks.

Questionnaire

All participants completed a three-page biodata questionnaire. This questionnaire examined their language background (including their L1, language of schooling, degree of proficiency in French and English, and use of both languages in a variety of contexts), their interest in the Japanese language and culture and the opportunities they had to practice the target language outside of the classroom (copies of the French and English versions of the questionnaire are provided in Appendix E). It was piloted by nine people who knew and used more than one language in order to determine whether the questions accurately assessed a participant's knowledge of languages. As a result of the pilot

testers' feedback, the format of the questionnaire changed in order to reduce the number of pages and make it more user-friendly, but the content remained the same.

Writing Activity

After filling in the biodata questionnaire, the participants were given a short writing activity that was designed to assess their level of proficiency. The participants were given a set topic ("Please tell me about your plans for the summer") and asked to write a paragraph in Japanese, either using Japanese characters or rōmaji. Because five minutes were judged to be too short by the pilot testers and ten minutes seemed too long, the participants were given seven minutes to complete this task. Copies of the French and English versions of the writing activity are provided in Appendix F.

Particle Tests

Because there were no ready-made tests that evaluated the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e', the CT, SCT and GJT were created for this study. Three versions of the tasks were created: one with Japanese instructions, one with French instructions, and one with English instructions. The tasks were written in simple Japanese characters as well as in rōmaji in order to ensure that learners of all levels would be able to read all the words. These tasks were piloted by six native speakers of Japanese and four non-native speakers whose mother tongue was neither French nor English. The purpose of the pilot testing was to evaluate how long each test took to complete, to verify if the instructions were clear, and to determine whether all the items elicited the expected target answers.

The number of items assessed by each task is shown in Table 2. A description and the rationale for each task follows.

Table 2

Number of Items Assessed on the CT, SCT and GJT Tasks

Context	Cloze Test (CT)	Sentence Construction Task (SCT)	Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT)
'ni/e' direction	6	4	---
'ni' direction	---	---	8
'e' direction	---	---	8
'ni' action + direction	---	4	---
'ni' existence/habit	6	---	---
'ni' existence	---	---	8
'ni' habit	---	---	7
'de' action	6	---	7
'de' event	6	---	8
Distractors	15	3	12

Cloze Test (CT).

The Cloze Test (CT) was designed to examine the participants' degree of accuracy and implicit knowledge of Japanese grammatical rules in a production context using the three locative particles in five of the six contexts mentioned earlier: 'ni/e'-direction, 'de'-location of an action, 'ni'-location of existence, 'ni'-location of a habitual action, and 'de'-location of an event. Initially, the instrument was also designed to test the sixth context, 'ni' used to combine an action with a location, but it resulted in long series of blanks that were too close together and that were judged to be too difficult to

test accurately with this type of written activity. Two short texts were adapted from the textbook *Introduction to Japanese Reading Skills* (1991), a collection of texts and reading comprehension questions for L2 learners of Japanese. All the locative particles were removed from the texts, along with several other grammatical words which served as distractors (e.g. topic-marker 'wa', object-marker 'o', verbs endings) and were replaced by blanks. As a result of the pilot testing, one distractor that was judged confusing by a majority of pilot testers was eliminated from the CT and one sentence was re-formulated to elicit the correct particle. The final version of the task consisted of 39 blanks (24 target items and 19 distractors). Figure 1 shows a sample from the test (for the full version, including instruction pages in English, French and Japanese, see Appendix G).

来週、学校＿＿＿　日本語　の　テスト＿＿＿　あります。
Raishū, gakkō　nihongo　no　tesuto　arimasu.
Next week, school　Japanese GEN　test　is[5]
"Next week there is a Japanese test at school."

Figure 1: Sample Cloze Test (CT) item

Sentence Construction Task (SCT).

In order to evaluate the participants' use of the locative functions that could not be tested in the CT – namely 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction – a second production task, the Sentence Construction Task (SCT), was created. Like the CT, the SCT was designed to test the participants' implicit knowledge of the grammatical rules underlying the use of locative particles. The SCT originally tested the three following contexts: 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction, 'de' marking the location of an action, and 'ni' indicating manner-of-motion. The variety of answers yielded by the

[5] This English gloss was added to facilitate the reader's comprehension. There was no such gloss in the original test.

items testing 'de'-location-of-action and 'ni'-manner-of-motion suggested that these items did not provide obligatory contexts for the use of these two locative functions and were deemed too confusing by most pilot testers. They were thus eliminated from the SCT and replaced by four items testing the participants' use of 'ni/e' to mark a direction and three distractors. The items assessing 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction remained the same. The SCT consisted of a series of 11 pictures next to which were a series of unconnected words. Eight of the pictures presented target items (four 'ni'-action+direction and four 'ni/e'-direction) and three were distractors (sentences requiring the object-marker 'o'). The participants were asked to write sentences in Japanese using all the words written and adding whatever words they felt were necessary to make the sentences complete. Figure 2 shows a sample test item (for the full version, including instruction pages in English, French and Japanese, see Appendix H).

はなさん	/ ふく	/ かう	/ 行く
Hana-san	fuku	kau	iku
Miss Hana	clothes	buy	go

_____

_____

Figure 2: Sample Sentence Construction Task (SCT) item

Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT).

Finally, the Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) was created in order to test the participants' level of accuracy in judging the grammaticality of a given sentence, as well as their level of confidence in their judgment, thus evaluating the semantic scope each

particle might carry for the participants and testing their knowledge of Japanese grammar in an explicit way. Six locative contexts were assessed: existence ('ni'), movement towards a place ('ni/e'), an action coupled with a direction ('ni), the location of an action at one point in time ('de'), of a habitual action ('ni'), and of a special event ('de'). The test consisted of a series of pictures for each of which five sentences were written in simple Japanese characters and in rōmaji (adapted from Inagaki, 2001). This GJT is a systematic measurement of the participants' grammatical knowledge of the three locative particles used with specific verbs. Each test item combined two locatives that were selected to contrast particles whose functions were somewhat overlapping in meaning. For example, to see if the participants would understand that the particles 'ni'-direction and 'e'-direction could be used interchangeably with verbs of movement such as 'iku' (to go) and 'kuru' (to come), sentences contrasting the two particles were presented. The particle 'ni'-existence was contrasted with 'de'-special event since both used the same verb – 'arimasu' (there is) – in very different contexts, and contrasting 'ni'-habit with 'de'-action was used to verify whether the participants could distinguish between action (e.g. 'hataraku' (to work)) and "habitual" (i.e. state-like) verbs (e.g. 'tsutomeru' (to be employed)[6]). I created two versions that consisted of a series of randomized grammatical and ungrammatical sentences written according to the following matrix:

1. a grammatical sentence using the first particle investigated (e.g. 'ni');
2. a grammatical sentence using the second particle investigated (e.g. 'e');
3. an ungrammatical sentence using the first particle; and
4. an ungrammatical sentence using the second particle.

[6] The verb 'tsutomeru' is an action verb representing a habit, not a passive verb. The correct English translation would be 'to work'. However, in order to facilitate comparison with the verb 'hataraku' (to work) the translation 'to be employed' will be used from now on.

Each series of sentences also included a simple sentence used as a distractor. This distractor was used to test the learners' accuracy in determining whether or not a sentence was grammatically correct, and to verify whether the participants would avail themselves of all the options that were provided. The twelve distractor sentences were selected according to the following matrix and were randomly distributed across the task:

1. three grammatical sentences using the third particle investigated (e.g. 'de');
2. three ungrammatical sentences using the third particle;
3. three grammatical sentences that were unrelated to the three particles investigated; and
4. three unrelated ungrammatical sentences.

A total of six items were modified in the GJT as a result of the pilot testing. In four instances, the verb tense or location chosen did not provide an obligatory context for the particle tested and, because the location selected in two sentences was an event rather than an actual place, these sentences had to be re-formulated to yield the desired judgments. As well, the format of the GJT was modified to reduce the number of pages.

The final version of the task consisted of 12 pictures and 60 sentences, 48 of which were target items. Next to each sentence was a 5-point Likert scale ranging from -2 ("I'm sure it's wrong") to +2 ("I'm sure it's right"). The participants were asked to rate each sentence on whether or not they thought the sentence was grammatically correct (not whether it truthfully described the picture to which it was attached). The task tested the learners' accuracy in determining the grammaticality of a sentence (correct/incorrect). Furthermore, it evaluated the learners' knowledge of semantic scope and the degree to which their L1 might influence the way in which they perceive particles by evaluating

their level of confidence in their judgment (I don't know/I think it might/I'm sure). For example, a specific function of the particle 'ni' judged more "certainly correct" than another may indicate a prototypical meaning. The same way, a higher degree of certainty when judging sentences using 'e'-direction as opposed to 'ni'-direction may demonstrate L1 influence. A sample item of the GJT is included in Figure 3 (for the full version, including instruction pages in English, French and Japanese, see Appendix I).

かぞくは　この公園に　たべます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa kono kōen ni tabemasu.
Family TOP this park LOC eat
* "My family eats in this park."
かぞくは　時々　この公園に　来ます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa tokidoki kono kōen ni kimasu.
Family TOP sometimes this park ALL come
"My family sometimes comes to this park."
かぞくは　この公園へ　たべます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa kono kōen e tabemasu.
Family TOP this park ALL eat
* "My family eats in this park."
かぞくは　時々　この公園へ　来ます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa tokidoki kono kōen e kimasu.
Family TOP sometimes this park ALL come
"My family sometimes comes to this park."
かぞくは　です。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa desu.
Family TOP is
* "This is my family."

Figure 3: Sample Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) item

Translation Task

The translation task verified whether the participants understood certain key verbs/concepts presented in the three tasks. It consisted of 12 items (five nouns and seven verbs). Each word was written in simple Japanese characters and in rōmaji, followed by a line and a Likert scale ranking from 1 (not confident at all) to 5 (very

confident). Participants translated the words into French or English, and circled the number indicating the degree to which they believed each translation to be accurate. The words were selected because they were present in more than one task (e.g. the verb 'kaeru' (to return) is in the CT, the SCT and the GJT) and/or because they were important for understanding the scope/meaning of locative particles (e.g. the verbs 'tsutomeru' (to be employed) is a habitual verb and its location is designated with 'ni', and 'hataraku' (to work), an action verb associated with 'de'). Four words, also present in the three written tasks and judged by Japanese teachers to be simple words encountered on a regular basis, were also selected to act as distractors. For copies of the English and French versions of the translation task, see Appendix J.

Procedure

I contacted the participants and met them outside of class either on an individual basis or in small groups (between two and four at a time). I met each participant once. Every testing session began with the biodata questionnaire, followed by the writing activity. The three tasks were then administered in the following order: CT, SCT and GJT. The translation task was administered last because, while it tested the participants' understanding of certain key concepts, I did not want to bias the participants' answers by drawing their attention to them before they answered the three written tasks.

Each testing session, including an explanation of the study and the biodata questionnaire, lasted between one hour and one hour and 15 minutes. On average, the CT and the SCT each took between 10 and 15 minutes to complete, and the GJT, between 15 and 20 minutes.

I was present throughout the testing sessions to answer any questions the learners had regarding the instructions. Participants were told to leave an entry blank on the CT or SCT if they didn't know the answer. After a testing session ended, I allowed the participants to ask questions regarding items they might have found especially challenging to answer. Most participants understood from the nature of the three written tasks that the focus of my thesis was particles and often asked for confirmation. In such situations, I would usually confirm that, indeed, this was one of the main focuses of my thesis, but would not elaborate on which particles I was most interested in. I also requested that the participants did not share any type of information regarding the testing session with other participants they knew from their Japanese class.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter begins with an analysis of the biodata questionnaire, followed by a report of the results obtained from the control groups and their implications for the present thesis. Then, the grouping of the participants is described, followed by an analysis of the influence the participants' L1 (French or English) might have had on the way in which they answered the tests that were presented to them. The results of further analyses conducted on both locative functions and proficiency are also reported. Finally, an analysis of the participants' non-target uses of Japanese particles is discussed.

Questionnaire

Because Montreal is a city where two languages, French and English, are spoken on a daily basis, it was not possible for me to find French-speaking learners of Japanese who had never been exposed to the English language, and vice versa. The biodata questionnaire was designed to provide information regarding language(s) the participants used in various contexts (e.g. at home, at school, at work, with friends) to determine each participant's dominant language. Participants were classified as being Francophone or Anglophone based on whether one of the two languages fulfilled the following criteria:

1. declared as L1;
2. exposed to it from birth;
3. used as the primary language in the home;
4. used at least 75% of the time as the language of education;
5. used at least 70% of the time outside the home; and
6. declared as most proficient among languages known.

A summary of the criteria met by the participants is provided in Table 3. The analyses revealed that four potential participants were bilingual. Consequently, their data were excluded from the study.

Table 3

L1 Criteria Met by the Participants (n =53)

Criteria	Language		
	French	English	Both
Declared as L1	29	20	4
Exposure from birth	29	20	4
Primary language in the home	29	20	4
Primary language of education	31	20	2
Used outside the home	29	21	3
Most proficient language known	29	20	4

Control Groups

As a result of the Japanese teachers (JT) completing the three tasks, two items from the GJT had to be eliminated from the data collection because they did not meet the degree of acceptance set at 80% or more: one sentence that used the particle 'ni' to designate the location of a habitual action, and one sentence where the particle 'de' was used to mark the location of an action. When asked about the reasons why their answers did not match the ones that were expected, the JT's explained that, while the sentence in which the particle 'ni' was used was grammatically correct, no Japanese speaker would actually use it. As for the sentence using the particle 'de', most JT's explained that the

verb with which it was used could be considered, under certain circumstances, a habit as well as an action, enabling speakers to use both 'ni' and 'de' to mark such a location. The two sentences not being obligatory contexts for the particles 'ni' and 'de', the participants' answers to both items thus had to be removed from the analyses.

The results from one of the 24 Japanese high school students (NS) were eliminated because the tasks were not completed in the allotted time. The answers provided by the other 23 NS's on the three tasks were then also analysed in order to verify whether each test item provided an obligatory context for each of the locative particles tested. In contrast with the JT's, a total of seven items on the CT, one on the SCT and ten on the GJT were accepted by less than 80% of the NS's. Seven of these rejected items (three on the CT and four on the GJT) could, however, be explained by cultural and geographical references which the NS's probably did not know about. For example, one sentence in the CT made a reference to the Quebec City Winter Carnival, and Montreal's Ste-Catherine street was mentioned in both the SCT and the GJT. Since all the students who participated in this study lived in Montreal, they knew about these places and events, but the NS's did not. These seven items aside, the NS's still rejected four items in the CT (one 'de'-event, one 'de'-action and two 'ni'-existence) and nine items in the GJT (one 'de'-event, two 'ni'-habit, three 'de'-action, and one 'ni'-direction). JT's reported that, because Japanese students usually do not receive grammar lessons similar to those given to French- and English-speaking students in Montreal, the NS's had to focus on how they would usually use the required particles in daily conversations, an exercise that might have been challenging since they had to make judgments on aspects of language they had not been explicitly taught. In addition, because the Japanese

classes they do receive focus more on reading and organizing texts, the tasks used in this research might have been too unusual for the NS's. Finally, since, as Aida (1993) pointed out, these particles are often omitted from informal speech. The three tasks, however, required the NS's to fill-in all the blanks with a particle they thought would be appropriate, probably making it difficult for them to stop and think about features they would normally omit. These are the reasons why the answers provided by this group of 23 NS's were not used as control, and the tests completed by the ten JT's were used instead. This does not mean, however, that the NS results have been completely ignored; they are, after all, answers provided by monolingual NS's in an environment where the target language is spoken on an everyday basis and their answers might provide some insight as to how locative particles are acquired and used outside of the classroom. These results and their implications will be further discussed in the final chapter of this thesis.

Grouping Participants

Forty-nine participants (29 French speakers and 20 English speakers) completed all the tests. They had been asked at the beginning of the testing session to write a short composition in Japanese in order to assess their level of proficiency. In collaboration with a Japanese teacher, criteria, including length of text, clarity of message, grammar, legibility of characters, use of kanji, and organization of text, were then established to evaluate each composition and classify the participants into three proficiency groups. In comparing the results with the use of particles in the tasks, it became apparent that an ability to provide a piece of writing in Japanese did not necessarily indicate knowledge of particles. For example, six participants whose compositions had been classified as

belonging to the beginners' group were in fact quite proficient in their use of locative particles on the three tasks. Five completed the CT with at least 41% accuracy, classifying them as belonging to the intermediate group, and one obtained a score of 70%. The participants' knowledge of Japanese as a language in general and their knowledge of particles were not necessarily related. The focus of this thesis was to analyse what the participants knew about locative particles. Based on other research using target items as grouping variables (e.g. Collins, 2004), I used the participants' test score on the CT. The reason this task was selected over the others was that, as opposed to the GJT, it evaluated the participants' knowledge of locative particles in a production context. Furthermore, out of the two production tasks available, the CT tested the largest number of locative functions (four locative contexts, as opposed to two in the SCT). There were 24 locative items and participants were first given a score out of 24 to determine the proportion of locative particles they were able to use accurately. A participant whose score was 8/24 or lower was classified as a beginner-level learner, a score between 9/24 and 16/24 indicated an intermediate-level learner, and a score of 17/24 or higher indicated an advanced-level learner (these results are summarized in Table 4). Data from six participants had to be eliminated because their results on the CT yielded 50% or more blanks, suggesting that they were not able to complete the tasks as was required. This resulted in a final sample of 43 participants, 24 French speakers and 19 English speakers; 13 beginners, 17 intermediate- and 13 advanced-level students.

Table 4

Grouping Participants

Level	L1	Number	Score Range on CT
Beginner	French	7	1-8
	English	6	2-7
	Total	13	
Intermediate	French	10	10-16
	English	7	9-15
	Total	17	
Advanced	French	7	17-22
	English	6	17-18
	Total	13	

L1 Influence

The first analysis examined whether the participants' L1 influenced their knowledge and use of the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e'. The reason for beginning with this analysis is the size of the population in the three proficiency groups: after the participants were divided according to their proficiency level, each group had to be further divided according to L1. The six groups were small and uneven-numbered. With such numbers, it would only be possible to conduct non-parametric analyses, resulting in analyses that are not based on a normal distribution of the variables. If, on the other hand, the analysis showed that the participants' L1 did not influence their choice of

locative particles on the key items designed to address this issue, all the participants could then be treated as one population, allowing for parametric analyses (i.e. determined by the mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) of a normal distribution) on the rest of the data.

In order to conduct this first analysis, a total of 26 comparisons of the participants' use of the locative particles 'ni' and 'e' to mark a direction across the three tasks was examined. As was noted earlier, both particles can be used interchangeably in such a context, and the way a participant would select one over the other might reflect Andersen's (1984) 1:1 Principle of IL Construction. For example, since English speakers usually use the preposition 'to' to mark a direction and the preposition 'at' to designate existence, English speakers might try to associate one particle with each preposition, thus using 'e' for direction and 'ni' for location. French speakers, on the other hand, use the same preposition, 'à', to mark both contexts. They may thus accept more readily to mark both contexts in Japanese with the particle 'ni'.

For both the CT and the SCT, each one of the participants' answers in a 'ni/e direction' context was assigned a value of either 0 (incorrect answer) or 1 (correct answer). The distribution of 'ni/e' responses was then analysed. For example, there were six obligatory contexts for 'ni/e direction' in the CT. If a participant answered five of them using one of the two possible locative particles, three of them using the particle 'ni', and two using 'e', it was determined that that participant used 'ni' 60% and 'e' 40% of the time. The same procedure was applied to the four obligatory contexts present in the SCT. These percentages were then ranked and analysed using the Mann-Whitney U Test. The results for the CT, shown in Table 5, revealed that there was no significant difference

in the way French- and English-speaking learners of Japanese answered the CT. The results for the SCT, also shown in Table 5, were similar, except for one significant difference found in French-speaking beginners' preference for using the particle 'e' over the particle 'ni'.

Because each item on the GJT was designed to show both accuracy and participants' degree of confidence in their responses, the conversion of their answers was done according to the pattern described in Table 6. Each participant received a total "certainty score" that was added for the 16 items that tested the particles 'ni' and 'e' in a directional context. These scores were then ranked and analysed using the Mann-Whitney U Test. The results are summarized in Table 5. The only significant difference was in the advanced English-speaking learners' judgement of sentences where the particle 'e' was used correctly. Thus, of the 16 comparisons done on the GJT, the significant difference was among advanced English speakers who were more accurate at judging the correct instances where 'e' was used in directional contexts.

Table 5

Mann-Whitney U Analysis of 'ni/e' Comparisons

Level	L1		Cloze Test (CT)		Sentence Construction Task (SCT)		Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT)			
			'ni'	'e'	'ni'	'e'	'ni'-c	'ni'-x	'e'-c	'e'-x
1	French	*n*	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
		Mean rank	5.50	8.00	5.31	7.94	6.50	7.25	7.75	5.44
	English	*n*	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
		Mean rank	9.40	5.40	9.70	5.50	7.80	6.60	5.80	9.50
		U	.074	.232	.036	.210	.547	.768	.376	.064
2	French	*n*	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
		Mean rank	9.25	8.88	8.00	10.00	8.63	7.13	9.88	8.75
	English	*n*	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
		Mean rank	8.78	9.11	9.89	8.11	9.33	10.67	8.22	9.22
		U	.834	.917	.300	.300	.754	.148	.493	.846
3	French	*n*	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
		Mean rank	6.56	7.44	6.75	7.25	6.56	6.69	5.00	7.50
	English	*n*	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
		Mean rank	7.70	6.30	7.40	6.60	7.70	7.50	10.20	6.20
		U	.531	.531	.692	.692	.531	.711	.015	.523

* $p < .05$

To summarize, a total of 26 'ni/e'-direction comparisons were analysed across the three tasks and all but two yielded no significant differences. However, because these two significant differences were found in two different groups of participants, at two different levels of proficiency, on two different tasks, and represented less than 10% of the comparisons analysed, they provide insufficient evidence to argue for a true L1 effect. This therefore leads me to conclude that the participants' L1 had little influence on the way in which they perceived and used locative particles and that all the participants, regardless of their L1, can be considered as belonging to one population, divided into three proficiency groups: beginners (n = 13), intermediate (n = 17) and advanced (n = 13).

Table 6

Conversion Criteria Used to Assess Confidence on the Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT)

	The particle was used	
Value selected	Correctly	Incorrectly
-2	0	4
-1	1	3
0	2	2
+1	3	1
+2	4	0

Accuracy Findings

Cloze Test (CT).

There were 39 blanks on the CT: 24 target items and 15 distractors. The 24 target items belonged to one of the following contexts: 'ni/e'-direction, 'ni'-existence/habit, 'de'-action and 'de'-event. Each context was thus tested by six items. A score out of six was given for each locative context, along with a "total particle score" out of 24.

A repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there was a significant main effect for locative functions [F (3,120) = 50.43, $p < .001$] and for proficiency [F (2,40) = 147.063, $p < .001$], with strong effect sizes for both proficiency ($\eta^2 = 0.527$) and function ($\eta^2 = 0.880$). There was no interaction between locative functions and proficiency. A complete summary of the results is provided in Table 7. Post-hoc analyses of locative functions on the CT (as reported in Tables 8 and 9), found that, while proportions of correct answers increased with proficiency[7], the accuracy pattern remained the same: 'ni/e'-direction > 'ni'-existence and 'de'-action > 'de'-event. In other words, 'ni/e'-direction was found to be significantly different from all three other contexts, and while there was no significant difference between 'ni'-existence and 'de'-action, both were found to be significantly different from 'de'-event. These results are represented in Figure 4.

[7] This result was to be expected since the participants were classified into proficiency groups based on the score they obtained on the CT.

Table 7

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the CT

Source	*df*	MS	*F*	η	*p*
Between subjects					
Group	2	1512.022	1433.303	0.880	.001
Error	40	1.055			
Within subjects					
CT	3	63.206	50.43	0.527	.001
CT x Group	6	3.279	2.616		.020
Error	120	1.253			

Table 8

Proficiency on the Cloze Test (CT)

Mean		Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
1.154	Beginner			
3.235	Intermediate	*		
4.577	Advanced	*	*	

Table 9

Cloze Test (CT) Pair-wise Comparisons

Mean		'de'-event	'de'-action	'ni'-existence	'ni/e'-direction
1.863	'de'-event				
2.555	'de'-action	*			
2.817	'ni'-existence	*			
4.719	'ni/e'-direction	*	*	*	

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
Bonferroni adjustments were made for multiple comparisons.

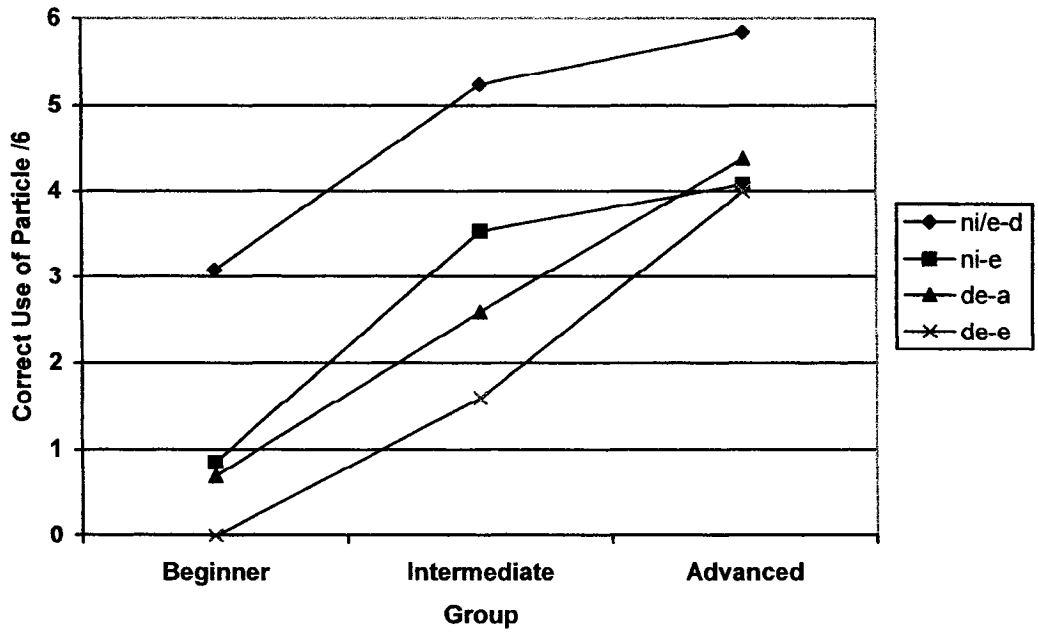

Figure 4: Locative Functions in the Cloze Test (CT)

Sentence Construction Task (SCT).

The SCT tested two locative contexts: 'ni/e'-direction and 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction. Each context was tested four times. A score out of four was thus given for each context.

A repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there was a significant effect for locative functions [F (1,40) = 23.301, p < .001] and for proficiency [F (2,40) = 6.427, p = .004], with strong effect sizes for both proficiency (η^2 = 0.361) and function (η^2 = 0.243). A complete summary of the results is provided in Table 10. Again, there was no interaction between locative functions and proficiency. Post-hoc analyses of locative functions on the SCT (as reported in Tables 11 and 12), revealed that, while proportions of correct answers increased with proficiency, the accuracy pattern remained the same: 'ni/e'-direction > 'ni'-action + direction. These results are represented in Figure 5.

Table 10

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the SCT

Source	*df*	MS	*F*	η	*p*
Between subjects					
Group	2	13.597	6.427	0.243	.004
Error	40	2.115			
Within subjects					
SCT	1	28.912	23.301	0.361	.001
SCT x Group	2	.811	.654		.526
Error	40	1.241			

Table 11

Proficiency on the Sentence Construction Task (SCT)

Mean		Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
1.69	Beginner			
2.91	Intermediate			
2.92	Advanced	*	*	

Table 12

Sentence Construction Task (SCT) Pair-wise Comparisons

Mean		'ni'-action+direction	'ni/e'-direction
1.92	'ni'-action+direction		
3.09	'ni/e'-direction	*	

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
Bonferroni adjustments were made for multiple comparisons.

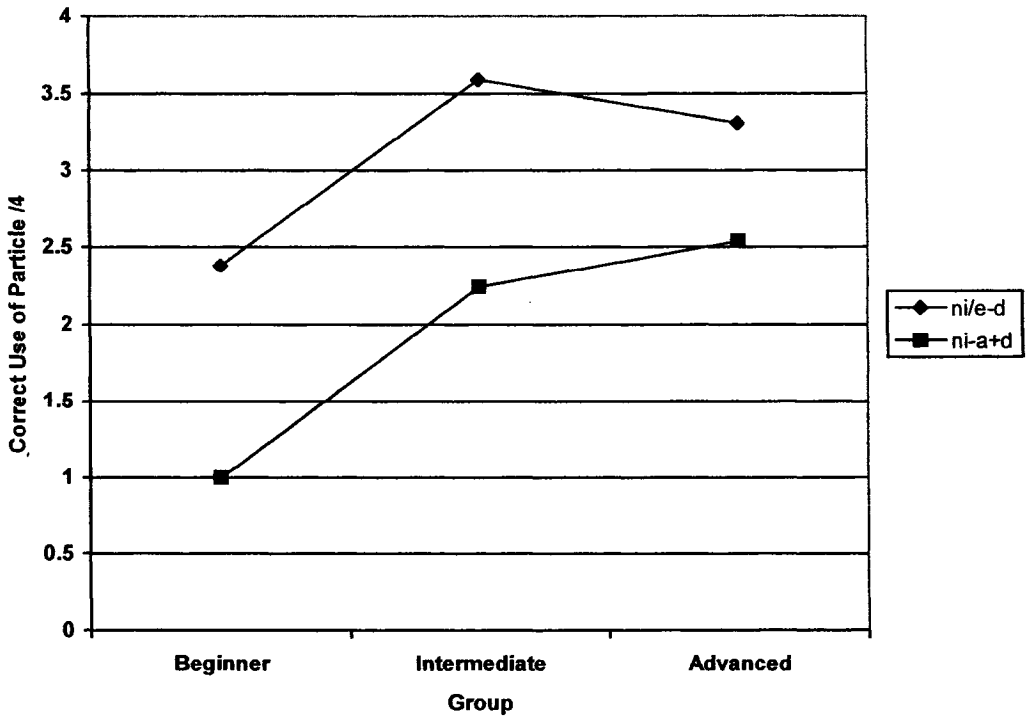

Figure 5: Locative Functions in the Sentence Construction Task (SCT)

Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT).

The participants' answers on the GJT were scored both in terms of accuracy and confidence. Accuracy was determined by the number of sentences that were correctly judged grammatical or ungrammatical. The items where participants circled the number associated with "I don't know" were scored as incorrect, such an answer suggesting that the participants were unable to judge the grammaticality of the items accurately. Each answer was thus given a value of either 0 (incorrect answer) or 1 (correct answer). These values were then added for each locative context tested in the GJT: 'ni'-direction (8), 'e'-direction (8), 'ni'-existence (8), 'ni'-habit (7), 'de'-action (7) and 'de'-event (8). Also, 12 distractors were used to test the participants' accuracy in determining whether a sentence

was grammatically correct, and to verify whether they would avail themselves of all the options provided. A summary of distractor responses is provided in Table 13 and shows that all the participants availed themselves of both "I'm sure" options, except for one beginner who never answered "I'm sure it's wrong". Six beginners out of 13, four intermediate- and six advanced-level learners never selected the "I think it might be wrong" option. Five beginners out of 13, six intermediate- and six advanced-level learners never selected "I think it might be right" option. Finally, as evidenced by the fact that the number of participants who never answered "I don't know" grows higher as proficiency increases (5/13 beginners, 7/17 intermediate, and 12/13 advanced), participants at a higher level of proficiency seemed more confident about their answers than beginners.

Confidence was determined by converting the participants' answers according to the pattern shown earlier in Table 6. For example, if participants circled -2 ("I'm sure it's wrong") to indicate their understanding of a sentence where the particle was used incorrectly, their answer would be assigned a value of 4. On the other hand, if they circled -2 ("I'm sure it's right") when a particle was used correctly, then their answer would receive a value of 0. For each participant a total "certainty score" was added for all the target items and used in the following analyses.

Table 13

Distractor Responses

Group (n)	No use of				
	"I'm sure it's wrong"	"I think it might be wrong"	"I don't know"	"I think it might be right"	"I'm sure it's right"
Beginner (13)	1	6	5	5	0
Intermediate (17)	0	4	7	6	0
Advanced (13)	0	6	12	6	0

A repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there was a significant effect for locative functions [F (5,200) = 16.168, $p < .001$] and for proficiency [F (2,40) = 19.785, $p < .001$], with strong effect sizes for both proficiency ($\eta^2 = 0.276$) and function ($\eta^2 = 0.497$). A complete summary of the results is provided in Table 14. Once again, there was no interaction between locative functions and proficiency. Post-hoc analyses of locative functions on the GJT (as reported in Tables 15 and 16), found that, while proportions of correct answers increased with proficiency, the accuracy pattern remained the same: 'ni/e'-direction and 'de'-event > 'ni'-existence > 'ni'-habit > 'de'-action. As was the case for the CT, both 'ni'- and 'e'-direction were not found to be significantly different from each other but were found to be significantly different from all the other locative particles, with the exception of 'de'-event. These results are represented in Figure 6.

Table 14

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the GJT

Source	*df*	MS	*F*	η	*p*
Between subjects					
Group	2	25080.394	19.785	0.497	.001
Error	40	1267.624			
Within subjects					
GJT	5	3984.301	16.168	0.276	.001
GJT x Group	10	308.775	1.253		.260
Error	200	246.431			

Table 15

Proficiency on the Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT)

Mean		Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced
43.48	Beginner			
59.19	Intermediate	*		
79.24	Advanced	*	*	

Table 16

Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) Pair-wise Comparisons

Mean		'ni'-hab.	'de'-act.	'ni'-ex.	'de'-ev.	'ni'-dir.	'e'-dir.
49.60	'ni'-hab.						
49.67	'de'-act.						
59.88	'ni'-ex.		*				
62.90	'de'-ev.	*	*				
68.33	'ni'-dir.	*	*				
73.44	'e'-dir.	*	*	*			

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
Bonferroni adjustments were made for multiple comparisons.

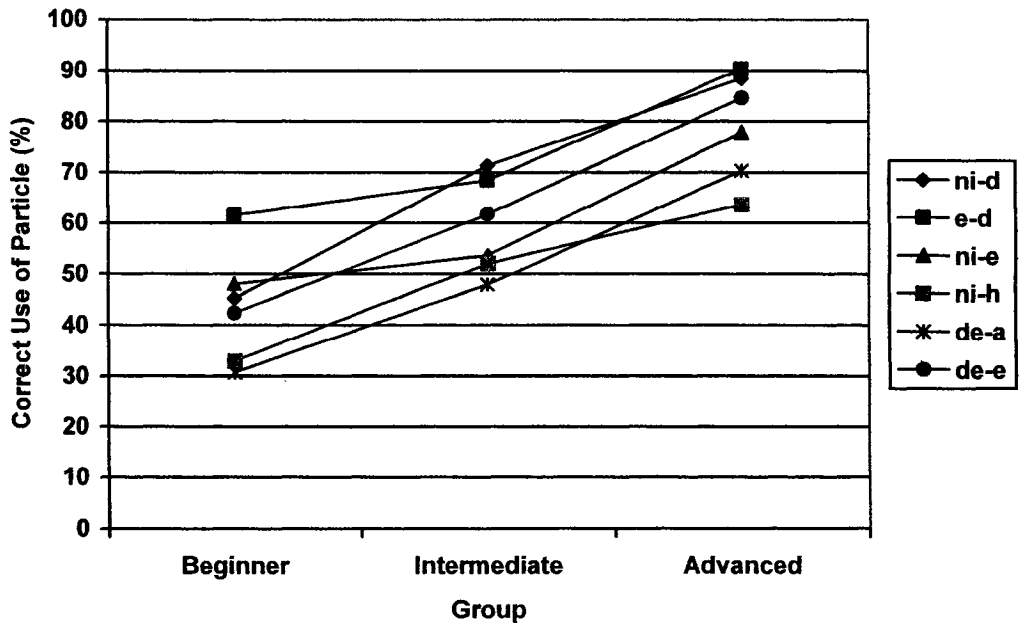

Figure 6: Locative Functions in the Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT)

To summarize, a significant effect was found for locative functions and for proficiency on all three tasks, but there was no interaction between the two variables. Moreover, while the proportion of correct answers increased with proficiency, the acquisition pattern for each task remained the same: 'ni/e' direction was found to be significantly different from the other locative particles on both the CT and the SCT and, while they were not found to be significantly different from each other nor from 'de'-event on the GJT, they were significantly different from 'ni'-existence, 'ni'-habit and 'de'-action.

Confidence Rating Findings

Four out of the six locative contexts tested were not found to be clearly significantly different from each other: 'ni'-direction and 'e'-direction are significantly different, and 'e'-direction is significantly different from 'ni'-existence, but there is no such difference between 'ni'-existence and 'ni'-direction. Also, 'de'-event was found to be significantly different from 'ni'- and 'e'-direction in the CT, but not in the GJT. In order to try and tease apart these four locative contexts, the next analysis looked at the degree of confidence with which the participants judged sentences using them to be correct or incorrect in the GJT. If the participants circled -2 or +2, it indicated that they were certain that their judgment was accurate. A value of -1 or +1 indicated that they thought their judgment was accurate, and 0 indicated that they did not know how to judge the grammaticality of a sentence. These values were converted according to the following pattern: a +2/-2 was assigned a value of 3, a +1/-1 received a value of 2, and 0 became 1. Since no interaction was found between locative functions and level of

proficiency, the data collected from all 43 participants was treated as belonging to one population. Because the values represented frequencies as opposed to quantifiable variables, the Friedman Test, a non-parametric test akin to repeated measures ANOVA, was used to analyse the data. The Chi-square value thus obtained was χ^2 (3) = 8.55, p < .05. Because the χ^2 was found to be significant, this indicated that there was a meaningful difference in the use of the different levels of confidence between the four locative contexts.

In order to determine exactly where that meaningful difference lay, each context was then evaluated against the others on an individual basis using the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. Because six post-hoc comparisons were thus done, the α value had to be adjusted: .05/6 = .008. Only one comparison was found to be significant: the participants' level of confidence for the particle 'ni'-existence was significantly different from their level of confidence for 'de'-event (z = -3.38, p < .008). In other words, the participants' level of confidence in judging sentences using the particle 'ni' in existence contexts (mean rank = 2.85) was found to be significantly higher than their level of confidence when judging sentences using 'de' to indicate a special event (2.12). Furthermore, the mean ranks calculated for the particles 'ni'-direction (2.51) and 'e'-direction (2.52) indicated that the participants judged sentences using them with very similar levels of confidence.

Non-target Uses of Particles

The purpose of this analysis was to gain a better understanding of the reasoning behind the participants' answers on each of the three tasks. Mistakes can easily be

dismissed as being "wrong" but, as Lightbown & Spada (1999) pointed out, the kind of mistakes made, i.e. the other types of particles used, the number of blanks, etc., can teach us about the participants' "knowledge of the language and their ability to use that knowledge" (p.71).

Cloze Test (CT).

For a comprehensive summary of all target and non-target uses of particles in the CT, please refer to Table 17. An analysis of the answers the participants provided on the CT revealed a strong preference for the particle 'ni' across all locative contexts. In sentences with verbs which would allow the participants to use 'ni' and 'e' interchangeably (e.g. 'iku' (to go), 'kuru' (to come) and 'kaeru' (to return)), beginners used the two particles interchangeably ('ni' 26.9% of the time and 'e' 25.6%). Another common answer on their part was to leave the space blank (19.2%), suggesting that they did not know the answer or could not understand the item. Participants at the other two levels of proficiency, on the other hand, showed a strong preference for 'ni' over 'e': intermediate-level learners selected 'ni' 68.6% of the time (19.6% 'e', 5.9% blanks), and advanced-level learners, 82.1% (15.4% 'e', no blank).

An analysis of sentences that provided obligatory contexts for the particle 'ni' (i.e. 'ni' as a marker of existence) showed that beginners chose 'ni' (15.4% of the time) more often than other locative particles, but the most common answers supplied in this context were the case-marker 'wa' (24.4%) and blanks (24.4%). Participants at the other two proficiency levels showed a stronger preference for 'ni': intermediate-level learners selected it 58.8% of the time and advanced-level learners, 67.9%. Furthermore, for the

same two groups, 'de' seems to have been perceived as an alternative: it was selected 15.7% of the time by intermediate-level learners and 26.9% by advanced-level learners.

Some participants also demonstrated a preference for the particle 'ni' in sentences where 'de' was required to indicate the location of an action: beginners chose 'ni' 17.9% of the time. In comparison, 'de' was selected 11.5% of the time, and 19.2% of these answers were left blank. Intermediate-level learners also showed a strong tendency to perceive 'ni' (42.2%) as an alternative to the particle 'de' (43.1%). Advanced-level learners, on the other hand, accurately selected the particle 'de' in this context 73.1% of the time, although 'ni' was perceived as an alternative 17.9% of the time.

In contexts in which the particle 'de' was required to designate a special event beginners did not use 'de' at all, but selected the case marker 'wa' 32.1% of the time, 'ni' 21.8% , the genitive 'no' 17.9% and the object-marker 'o', 9.0%. Intermediate-level learners preferred 'ni' (40.2%) to 'de' (24.5%), with the particles 'no' (17.6%) and 'wa' (9.8%) being perceived as alternatives, and advanced-level learners accurately selected the particle 'de' 65.4% of the time, although 'ni' (17.9%) and 'no' (14.1%) were also seen as possible alternatives.

The overall trend across locative contexts was thus as follows: in obligatory contexts for 'ni/e'-direction, beginners selected both particles, but intermediate- and advanced-level learners preferred using 'ni'. In contexts where 'ni'-existence was required, the particle 'wa' and blanks were common errors made by the beginners, and the particle 'de' was seen as an alternative by intermediate and advanced learners. In sentences requiring 'de'-action, the particle 'ni' and blanks were common errors made by the beginners and both intermediate and advanced learners perceived the particle 'ni' as

an alternative. Finally, in obligatory contexts for the particle 'de'-event, beginners did not use it at all, preferring instead the particles 'wa', 'ni', 'no' and 'o'. Intermediate-level learners preferred using 'ni', and advanced-level learners accurately selected the particle 'de' the majority of the time.

Table 17

Analysis of the Cloze Test (CT)

Group (n)	Response	Number	%	Participants
'ni/e'-direction				
Beginner (13)	Ni	21/78	26.9	11
	E	20	25.6	9
	De	8	10.3	3
	Ga	3	3.8	3
	To	3	3.8	3
	O	2	2.6	2
	Wa	2	2.6	2
	No	2	2.6	2
	Te	1	1.3	1
	Mo	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	15	19.2	9
Intermediate (17)	Ni	70/102	68.6	16
	E	20	19.6	8
	O	3	2.9	3
	Te	1	1.0	1
	Wa	1	1.0	1
	De	1	1.0	1
	Blanks	6	5.9	5
Advanced (13)	Ni	64/78	82.1	13
	E	12	15.4	4
	O	1	1.3	1
	Kara	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	0	0	0

Group (n)	Response	Number	%	Participants
'ni' existence				
Beginner (13)	Ni	12/78	15.4	7
	Wa	19	24.4	13
	De	6	7.7	5
	O	5	6.4	4
	Meto	3	3.8	3
	E	3	3.8	3
	Ga	3	3.8	2
	To	2	2.6	2
	Ka	1	1.3	1
	No	1	1.3	1
	Desu	1	1.3	1
	Yuki	1	1.3	1
	Gakko	1	1.3	1
	Tokei	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	19	24.4	10
Intermediate (17)	Ni	60/102	58.8	17
	De	16	15.7	6
	O	3	2.9	3
	Wa	2	2.0	2
	Ga	2	2.0	2
	No	2	2.0	2
	Te	1	1.0	1
	Meto	1	1.0	1
	Iku	1	1.0	1
	Masu	1	1.0	1
	Blanks	13	12.7	7
Advanced (13)	Ni	53/78	67.9	13
	De	21	26.9	11
	Te	1	1.3	1
	Meto	1	1.3	1
	No nakade	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	1	1.3	1
'de' action				
Beginner (13)	De	9/78	11.5	6
	O	23	29.5	12
	Ni	14	17.9	8
	Ga	5	6.4	3
	Toki	3	3.8	3

Group (n)	Response	Number	%	Participants
	To	2	2.6	2
	No	2	2.6	2
	Mise	1	1.3	1
	Depato	1	1.3	1
	Kireina	1	1.3	1
	Wa	1	1.3	1
	E	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	15	19.2	7
Intermediate (17)	De	44/102	43.1	15
	Ni	43	42.2	15
	No	3	2.9	3
	Kara	2	2.0	2
	O	2	2.0	2
	Seru	1	1.0	1
	Deru	1	1.0	1
	Depato	1	1.0	1
	Uinta	1	1.0	1
	Blanks	4	3.9	4
Advanced (13)	De	57/78	73.1	13
	Ni	14	17.9	9
	O	5	6.4	3
	Kara	2	2.6	2
	Blanks	0	0	0
'de' event				
Beginner (13)	De	0/78	0	0
	Wa	25	32.1	10
	Ni	17	21.8	7
	No	14	17.9	7
	O	7	9.0	7
	E	2	2.6	2
	Te	1	1.3	1
	Ga	1	1.3	1
	Machi	1	1.3	1
	Shi	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	9	11.5	6
Intermediate (17)	De	25/102	24.5	12
	Ni	41	40.2	17
	No	18	17.6	11
	Wa	10	9.8	6

Group (n)	Response	Number	%	Participants
	O	1	1.0	1
	Ka	1	1.0	1
	Ru	1	1.0	1
	Blanks	5	4.9	5
Advanced (13)	De/Dewa	51/78	65.4	13
	Ni/Niwa	14	17.9	7
	No	11	14.1	7
	Wa	1	1.3	1
	Kara	1	1.3	1
	Blanks	0	0	0

Sentence Construction Task (SCT).

For a comprehensive summary of all target and non-target uses of particles in the SCT, please refer to Table 18. An analysis of the answers provided by the participants on the SCT also revealed a strong preference for the particle 'ni' across all locative contexts. In sentences requiring the participants to use either the particle 'ni' or 'e' with the direction verbs 'iku' (to go), 'kuru' (to come) and 'kaeru' (to return), the beginning-level learners chose to use 'ni' 42.3% of the time over 'e' (17.3%), intermediate-level learners chose 'ni' 85.7% of the time ('e': 11.1%) and the advanced-level learners used 'ni' 75.5% of the time ('e': 12.2%).

The other locative context tested by the SCT was 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction. Beginners accurately selected the particle 'ni' 25.0% of the time, but their most common mistakes were to either leave the item blank (40.4%) or incomplete (17.3%). Intermediate-level learners, on the other hand, accurately selected 'ni', 56.7% of the time and, advanced-level learners, 64.7%. The most common error made by participants in these two proficiency groups was to link the two verbs provided by using

the –te form, a structure that can be used to link two actions, but that is incorrect when linking an action with a direction. Intermediate-level learners selected the –te form structure 22.4% of the time and advanced-level learners, 23.5%.

To summarize, the overall trend was, for sentences requiring 'ni/e'-direction, 'ni' was selected over 'e' by all three proficiency groups. In obligatory contexts for 'ni'-action + direction, beginners chose to leave most items blank and both intermediate and advanced learners perceived the combination of the two verbs using the –te form as an alternative.

Table 18

Analysis of the Sentence-Construction Task

Group (n)	Response	Number	%	Participants
'ni/e' direction				
Beginner (13)	Ni	22/52[8]	42.3	10
	E	9	17.3	5
	O	5	9.6	2
	De	4	7.7	3
	Wa	2	3.8	1
	No	2	3.8	2
	X[9]	4	7.7	4
	XP	3	5.8	2
	Incomplete	1	1.9	1
Intermediate (17)	Ni	54/63	85.7	17

[8] When participants constructed a correct sentence without using the target particles 'ni' or 'e', these items were taken out of the total number of items entered for their proficiency group. In the 'ni/e' direction context, 8 cases were removed. In the 'ni'-action + direction context, 2 cases were removed.

[9] X = the item was left completely blank
XP = the target particle was omitted
Incomplete = the sentence written was incomplete

Group (n)	Response	Number	%	Participants
	E	7	11.1	4
	Kara	1	1.6	1
	XP	1	1.6	1
Advanced (13)	Ni	37/49	75.5	13
	E	6	12.2	3
	De	4	8.2	3
	Gara/Kara	1	2.0	1
	X	1	2.0	1
'ni' action + direction				
Beginner (13)	Ni	13/52	25.0	4
	O	2	3.8	2
	De	1	1.9	1
	Soshite	1	1.9	1
	-te form	1	1.9	1
	Ga	1	1.9	1
	X	21	40.4	9
	XP	3	5.8	3
	Incomplete	9	17.3	6
Intermediate (17)	Ni	38/67	56.7	13
	-te form	15	22.4	7
	O	2	3.0	2
	Isshoni	1	1.5	1
	De	1	1.5	1
	Ga	1	1.5	1
	Kotoga	1	1.5	1
	X	4	6.0	3
	XP	1	1.5	1
	Incomplete	3	4.5	2
Advanced (13)	Ni	33/51	64.7	10
	-te form	12	23.5	4
	Atode	1	2.0	1
	Tokoroni	1	2.0	1
	X	2	3.9	1
	XP	1	2.0	1
	Incomplete	1	2.0	1

Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT).

For a comprehensive summary of all target and non-target uses of the particles 'de'-action and 'ni'-habit in the GJT, please refer to Table 19. These two locative contexts were selected for further analysis because of the preference a number of participants showed in the CT for the particle 'ni' in sentences where 'de'-action was required. In order to verify whether the participants make that mistake only in production contexts, or if they truly do not differentiate between the two particles, their answers on the GJT were analysed. In the GJT, the particle 'de' used to indicate the location of an action was contrasted four times with 'ni' used to designate a habit. In those items, two verbs, one action (e.g. 'hataraku' (to work)) and one habit (e.g. 'tsutomeru' (to be employed)), were used in turn with both the particles 'de' and 'ni'. The participants were asked to evaluate how grammatically correct each sentence was. Each of the four items thus contained one sentence that used the particle 'de' correctly, one that used it incorrectly, one that used the particle 'ni' correctly, and one that used it incorrectly. An analysis of the answers revealed that participants, at the beginner and intermediate levels, often evaluated sentences where 'de' was used correctly as incorrect, sentences where 'ni' was used incorrectly (i.e. with action verbs) as correct, and vice versa. These findings show that participants did not differentiate between Japanese verbs that represent an action and those that represent a habit.

Table 19

Analysis of 'de'-action and 'ni'-habit Contexts in the GJT

Group (n)	'de'-action		'ni'-habit	
	correct	incorrect	correct	incorrect
'Tsutomeru' (to be employed) vs. 'hataraku' (to work)				
Beginner (13)				
Judged accurately	4	3	6	4
Judged inaccurately	9	10	7	9
Intermediate (17)				
Judged accurately	9	4	9	6
Judged inaccurately	8	13	8	11
Advanced (13)				
Judged accurately	12	5	8	7
Judged inaccurately	1	8	5	6
'Neru' (to sleep) vs. 'tomaru' (to stay)				
Beginner (13)				
Judged accurately	2	6	8	2
Judged inaccurately	11	7	5	11
Intermediate (17)				
Judged accurately	11	10	14	8
Judged inaccurately	6	7	3	9
Advanced (13)				
Judged accurately	11	8	9	5

Group (n)	'de'-action		'ni'-habit	
	correct	incorrect	correct	incorrect
Judged inaccurately	2	5	4	8
'Yomu' (to read) vs. 'noru' (to ride)				
Beginner (13)				
Judged accurately	5	6	6	1
Judged inaccurately	8	7	7	12
Intermediate (17)				
Judged accurately	13	12	9	9
Judged inaccurately	4	5	8	8
Advanced (13)				
Judged accurately	12	9	10	9
Judged inaccurately	1	4	3	4
Wearing glasses in the classroom vs. wearing them on one's nose				
Beginner (13)				
Judged accurately	3	4	6	3
Judged inaccurately	10	9	7	10
Intermediate (17)				
Judged accurately	8	7	6	7
Judged inaccurately	9	10	11	10
Advanced (13)				
Judged accurately	8	8	5	9
Judged inaccurately	5	5	8	4

Translation Task.

For a detailed analysis of the answers given on the translation task, please refer to Table 20. In order to evaluate how well the participants understood certain key verbs/concepts present in the three tasks, they were presented with a 12-item translation task. The items (five nouns and seven verbs) were selected because they were present in more than one task and/or that they were important in determining which particle would be appropriate (e.g. the contrast between 'tomaru' (to stay), used with 'ni', and 'neru' (to sleep), used with 'de'). Four words present in the three tasks and judged by Japanese teachers to be words encountered and used by L2 learners of Japanese on a regular basis (e.g. 'tomodachi' (friend), 'megane' (glasses)) were also selected as distractors.

An analysis of the answers written by the participants revealed that, generally speaking, beginners had more difficulty with this task than intermediate and advanced learners since they generally left more answers blank than the other two groups. For example, ten participants out of 13 left the answer for 'tsutomeru' (to be employed) blank, nine did the same for 'hataraku' (to work) and 'matsuri' (festival), and seven left 'noru' (to ride) and 'mise' (store) blank. Intermediate learners also struggled with two of the same words: seven participants out of 17 left the answer for 'hataraku' (to work) blank and six did the same for 'tsutomeru' (to be employed). The verbs 'tsutomeru', 'hataraku' and 'noru' were used in two items contrasting the particles 'de'-action and 'ni'-habit in the GJT, and both 'tsutomeru' and 'matsuri' were used in the CT.

Other verbs such as 'kaeru' (to return), 'yomu' (to read), and 'noru' (to ride) also proved to be challenging. This may be because, taken out of context, these words sound very similar to other Japanese words. For example, five beginners translated the verbs

'noru' (to ride) and 'yomu' (to read) as 'to drink' ('nomu'). Both 'noru' and 'yomu' were used in an item contrasting the particles 'de'-action and 'ni'-habit in the GJT.

These results thus suggest that, for the intermediate and advanced learners, vocabulary did not present a challenge. The beginners, on the other hand, did not know how to translate the majority of the action and habitual verbs that are crucial to understand and accurately use the particles 'ni'-habit and 'de'-action. This could, in turn, suggest that the beginner participants' answers to several items on the three tasks are not valid because they did not know the verbs used and thus could not accurately select or judge the correct particle. However, the context provided (i.e. particles were used in complete sentences in the CT and the GJT, and pictures related to each item were provided in the SCT and GJT) might have helped the beginners to understand what the function of these problematic verbs was (e.g. verbs) and to figure out what they meant since none of the participants' answers on the items on the three tasks that used these words have been left blank. These results will be further interpreted in the next section.

Table 20

Analysis of Translation Task

Word	Group (n)	Correct	Incorrect	Blank
Matsuri (Festival)	Beginner (13)	3	1	9
	Intermediate (17)	10	2	5
	Advanced (13)	12	0	1
Tomodachi (Friend)	Beginner	10	0	3
	Intermediate	17	0	0
	Advanced	13	0	0

Word	Group (n)	Correct	Incorrect	Blank
Hataraku (To work)	Beginner	4	1	9
	Intermediate	10	0	7
	Advanced	10	0	3
Tsutomeru (To be employed)	Beginner	1	2	0
	Intermediate	10	1	6
	Advanced	12	0	1
Tomaru (To stop/stay)	Beginner	5	2	6
	Intermediate	13	0	4
	Advanced	11	0	2
Neru (To sleep)	Beginner	8	0	5
	Intermediate	16	1	0
	Advanced	13	0	0
Kaeru (To return)	Beginner	8	5	0
	Intermediate	16	1	0
	Advanced	13	0	0
Yomu (To read)	Beginner	8	4	1
	Intermediate	17	0	0
	Advanced	12	1	0
Noru (To ride)	Beginner	1	5	7
	Intermediate	11	5	1
	Advanced	12	1	0
Megane (Glasses)	Beginner	10	0	3

Word	Group (n)	Correct	Incorrect	Blank
	Intermediate	17	0	0
	Advanced	13	0	0
Mise (Store)	Beginner	3	3	7
	Intermediate	12	3	2
	Advanced	13	0	0
Mae (In front of)	Beginner	10	2	1
	Intermediate	17	0	0
	Advanced	13	0	0

Chapter 5: Discussion and Interpretation of Findings

The purpose of this chapter is to interpret the findings in light of the three research questions. The roles of frequency and knowledge of verbs on the acquisition of the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' are also discussed.

Research Question #1: L1 Influence

The first question was, 'Will the participants' L1 influence the way they perceive locative particles and, if so, will it vary as a function of proficiency?' Only one locative function allowed the participants to select either one of two particles interchangeably: the items where 'ni' and 'e' could be used to indicate a direction. These items were judged to be the most relevant to reveal the influence the participants' L1 might have on their use of locative particles based on Andersen's (1984) One-form One-meaning (1:1) Principle of IL Construction. Furthermore, Harley's (1989) observations of the differences between how spatial relationships are expressed in French and English revealed that English-speakers might prefer using 'e' to mark a direction and 'ni' to indicate existence, while French-speakers might prefer the particle 'ni' in both contexts. This hypothesis was based on the fact that English uses separate prepositions to mark direction ('to') and location ('at'), while French 'à', like Japanese 'ni', can express both concepts. A Mann-Whitney U analysis of 26 'ni/e'-direction comparisons across the three tasks revealed only two significant differences: French-speaking beginners prefered using the particle 'e' over the particle 'ni' in the SCT, and the advanced English speakers were more accurate at judging the correct instances where 'e' was used in directional contexts in the GJT. Since these two significant differences were found in two different groups of

participants on two different tasks and represent less than 10% of the comparisons analysed, they were found to provide insufficient evidence to argue for a true L1 effect. The numbers revealed by the Mann-Whitney U analysis of 26 'ni/e' comparisons across the three tasks thus revealed almost no significant differences between French- and English-speaking learners of Japanese, suggesting that the participants' L1 does not influence the way in which they acquire and use locative particles, at least as revealed on these tasks.

Rather, an analysis of the participants' target and non-target uses of particles in the three tasks revealed an overall preference for the particle 'ni' – even though it is introduced later in textbooks. For example, the analysis of the CT showed that beginners selected the particle 'ni' not only in obligatory contexts, but also in sentences where the particle 'de' was required to designate the location of an action or a special event. Intermediate and advanced learners were more accurate in using the particle 'de' in sentences that were obligatory contexts, but a number of them still considered 'ni' to be a possible alternative. The SCT revealed similar results: the particle 'ni' was selected by all three proficiency groups more often than other particles in contexts where 'ni' and 'e' could have been used interchangeably, and in obligatory contexts for 'ni'-action + direction. Finally, an analysis of the GJT revealed that participants, especially at the beginner and intermediate levels, often evaluated sentences where 'de' was used correctly as incorrect, sentences where 'ni' was used incorrectly (i.e. with action verbs) as correct, and vice versa. In other words, participants not only preferred the particle 'ni' over the particle 'e' in contexts where both could be used interchangeably, but also supplied the particle 'ni' more often than any other particle in contexts where it wasn't required.

These findings suggest that frequency (i.e. 'ni' is used in other locative contexts; 'e' is used for direction only) might play a greater role than L1 influence, which would be consistent with Ellis's (2002) review of how frequency effects can be found in the acquisition of a wide variety of linguistic features, including the processing of morphosyntax, formulaic language, and grammaticality. Furthermore, he identified two types of frequency: token (i.e. how often a certain word or phrase appears in the input) and type frequency (i.e. how many different lexical items can be associated with a certain concept). Because the particle 'ni' has more functions than the particles 'de' or 'e', it is possible that both token frequency and type frequency come into play. The learners might thus encounter the particle 'ni' more often in the input provided, allowing it to make a stronger impression as a possible "all-purpose" particle.

This hypothesis is further supported by some of the answers provided by the Japanese high school students (NS) on the three tasks. On the CT, they rejected four items, one of which was a blank requiring the particle 'de'-action and another where 'de'-event was needed. Nine out of the 12 NS's who rejected the item requiring 'de'-action, and five out of the eight who rejected 'de'-event supplied the particle 'ni' instead. On the GJT, the NS's rejected a total of seven items, one of which was a sentence using 'de'-event, and three where 'de'-action was used. All six NS's who rejected the item that was an obligatory context for 'de'-event accepted the equivalent item using the particle 'ni'. The situation was the same with the three rejected obligatory contexts for 'de'-action: Furthermore, all 13 NS's who rejected the first obligatory context for 'de'-action accepted the equivalent sentence using 'ni', six out of the seven NS's who rejected the second 'de' accepted 'ni', and seven out of nine NS's did the same with the third item.

When asked about these discrepancies, Japanese teachers teaching in Montreal revealed that these were answers that would not be considered acceptable. It is possible that, because Japanese locative particles are often omitted in informal speech (Aida, 1993), the nature of the three written tasks might have been too unusual, thus influencing the way the NS's answered them. However, because they were yielded by monolingual NS's living in a country where they are constantly exposed to the target language, these answers cannot be judged as invalid. On the contrary, these results suggest that the answers provided by the NS's might reflect the way in which the particle 'ni' is actually used in an informal Japanese L1 context. Further research would be necessary to determine whether these answers truly reflect the use of locative particles in Japanese, and if it should influence the way in which they are taught in L2 textbooks and classrooms. The implications of these findings will be further discussed in the last chapter.

Research Question #2: Developmental Pattern and Prototypicality

The second research question investigated was, 'How are the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' acquired by L2 learners of Japanese? Do learners establish a prototypical meaning for each particle and, if so, how does the semantic scope of each particle change with proficiency?'

Order of accuracy.

The results obtained from repeated measures ANOVA on the CT revealed that there was a significant main effect for locative functions and for proficiency but there was no interaction between the two. Post-hoc analyses of locative functions on the CT

found that, while proportions of correct answers increased with proficiency, the acquisition pattern remained the same: 'ni/e'-direction was significantly different from all three other contexts, and while there was no significant difference between 'ni'-existence and 'de'-action, both were found to be significantly different from 'de'-event. This similar order of accuracy across all three proficiency levels suggests that the particles are acquired in this order. Similarly, the results obtained on the SCT were consistent across all three levels of proficiency: 'ni/e'-direction comes first, followed by 'ni'-action + direction. The GJT revealed a consistent acquisition pattern as well: 'ni'- and 'e'-direction and 'de'-event are acquired first, followed by 'ni'-existence, 'ni'-habit and 'de'-action. An order of acquisition might thus be inferred from the following order of accuracy:

1. 'ni/e'- direction
2. 'ni'-existence
3. 'ni'-habit
4. 'de'-action.

These results are consistent with the observations made by Clancy (1985) and Sinha et al. (1994) which suggested that there might be a developmental order underlying the acquisition of particles. Clancy's (1985) observations and report of other L1 acquisition studies allowed her to observe that, generally speaking, various meanings of the particle 'ni' seem to emerge first. This observation was later confirmed by Sinha et al.'s (1994) demonstration that the first use of the particle 'ni' acquired by a Japanese-speaking child was the marker of existence 'ni'. Also, Suzuki's (1996) experimental

study of an animated computer program used to teach particles in an L2 context revealed that the particle 'e' was easier to acquire than 'ni' or 'de'.

Out of the seven locative contexts tested, two could not be included in this order of acquisition: 'ni'-action + direction and 'de'-event. Unlike the other locative contexts which were tested on at least two different tasks (three in the case of 'ni/e'-direction) in order to cross-reference the results, the particle 'ni'-action + direction was only tested on the SCT. The results revealed that 'ni'-action + direction seems to be acquired later than 'ni/e'-direction, but it is not possible to classify it further in relation to the other particles tested. The locative 'de'-event, on the other hand, was tested in two different tasks, the CT and the GJT. In the CT, 'de'-event was found to be the most difficult particle to use accurately. In the GJT, however, this particle was found to be as easy to judge as 'ni/e'-direction, thus placing it in first position. These results show that the participants at all three levels of proficiency recognized the particle 'de' when it was used to designate a special event, but had difficulty retrieving it in production contexts. The analysis of the degree of confidence with which the participants judged sentences using 'de'-event in the GJT revealed that there was no significant difference between their level of confidence when judging sentences using 'de'-event and those using 'ni/e'-direction. The degree of confidence with which they judged sentences using 'de'-event was, however, significantly lower than the level they displayed when judging sentences using 'ni'-existence. This might be due to the semantic overlap that exists between the two contexts: both mark existence in a given location using verbs of existence such as 'imasu' (there is a sentient being; used only with 'ni') and 'arimasu' (there is an object/event; used with both particles). The significant difference found in their level of confidence when

judging sentences with 'de'-event and 'ni'-existence reveals that the connection the participants establish between these verbs of existence is stronger for the particle 'ni' than it is for 'de'. The particle 'de'-event might thus be perceived as an exception to the rule and, because of this semantic overlap, participants might have difficulty in retrieving the particle 'de'-event in a production context like the CT since one of the main items guiding their choice of particle is the verb. A test like the GJT, on the other hand, provided them with complete sentences contrasting the uses of the two particles. This might have reminded the participants of this possible exception to the existence rule and would explain why they were able to judge them with such accuracy. To summarize, because the results obtained on the two tasks and on this last analysis were so different, it was impossible for me to assign 'de'-event one specific rank.

Prototypicality.

The particle 'e' only has two functions: locative preposition and dative case marker. Consequently, only 'e'-direction could be tested in the three tasks. The results yielded revealed that this function of 'e' was well established in the minds of the learners across all three proficiency levels. Since the only other function carried by 'e' is that of a dative case marker, one could argue that these two functions are similar in that they both imply movement: from one place to another in the case of the locative postposition, and from one person's hand to another when the dative case marker is used. This "directional" function of the particle 'e' might thus suggest prototypicality for 'e'.

A significant difference was found in the GJT between 'e'-direction and 'ni'-existence, but not between 'ni'-direction and 'ni'-existence, nor 'e'-direction and 'ni'-direction. This result was also confirmed by an analysis of the degree of confidence with

which the participants judged sentences using the three particles mentioned: no significant difference was found between the way in which sentences using 'ni'-existence and 'ni/e'-direction were judged. This suggests that the particle 'ni' might have two different prototypical functions, i.e. 'ni'-direction and 'ni'-existence, instead of one core meaning. This finding is consistent with Matsumura's (1971) argument that "no study has made clear which usage of a lexical item like 'ni' is the most basic" (Kabata & Rice, 1997, p.109). Furthermore, such a finding is also consistent with Sadakane & Koizumi's (1995) L1 analysis suggesting that there might in fact be "several homophonous particles 'ni', including the postposition 'ni' and the dative case marker 'ni', as well as a couple of other types of 'ni'" (p.6), as opposed to different functions of the same particle. Findings from the ANOVA conducted on the GJT thus suggest that, for L2 learners, 'ni'-direction and 'ni'-existence may also be perceived as two separate particles rather than two different functions of the same locative.

A probable core meaning for the particle 'de' is a little more difficult to establish. The particle 'de' used to indicate the location of an action is classified in second-to-last position in the CT and in last position in the GJT. The particle 'de' used to mark a special event, on the other hand, is somewhat less consistent: the results yielded by the CT revealed that the participants' proficiency in using it in a production context was significantly lower than when using 'de'-action. On the other hand, as the GJT showed, the participants' level of accuracy when evaluating the grammaticality of sentences using 'de'-event was significantly higher than when evaluating 'de' action. The fact that 'de'-event was found to be significantly different from 'de'-action in the GJT suggests that, while it is more difficult to retrieve in production contexts like the CT, the participants

are more aware of the fact that the particle 'de' can be used to designate a special event than that it can indicate the location of an action. This might also be due to the fact that, as was mentioned earlier, sentences using the particle 'de'-event were contrasted with other sentences expressing existence with the particle 'ni'. This contrast might have made this function of the particle 'de' more obvious to the learners, reminding them of this possible exception to the rule, and making it easier for them to judge than other contrasts. Further tests would, however, be needed to confirm this hypothesis.

Translation task.

Finally, the participants' answers on the 12-item Translation Task suggested that the participants at the beginner level had trouble giving an exact translation of several of the action and habitual verbs encountered in the three tasks. This does not, however, indicate that the participants' answers to the CT, SCT and GJT items using these verbs are invalid; the context provided might have helped the beginners to understand what the function of these problematic words was (e.g. verbs) and what they meant since none of the participants' answers on the items that used these words were left blank. These results do suggest, on the other hand, that the participants, especially at the beginners' level, might find the difference between the different types of Japanese verbs difficult to understand. As a result, they may cognitively represent all "action" verbs as belonging to one category and favour using one locative particle (e.g. 'ni') whenever these verbs are used. This finding is consistent with Sinha et al.'s (1994) observation of the fact that the Japanese language transmits spatial relationships through strings of spatial words which include not only particles and nouns, but also verbs. In a comparative study of the L1 acquisition of English, Danish and Japanese, he demonstrated that, for Japanese speakers,

verbs carry as much, if not more locative meaning than nouns and particles, suggesting that L2 learners of Japanese need not only to understand the various meanings carried by each locative particle, but also to sort out which verbs they can be used with. This finding is also consistent with Inagaki's (2001) suggestion that English-speaking learners required negative evidence to notice that action verbs could not be used with goal prepositions to indicate manner-of-motion since no positive evidence could demonstrate their ungrammaticality. For example, in English, the verb 'to run' can be used as an action verb as well as a manner –of-motion verb. The Japanese equivalent, 'hashiru' (to run), can be used as an action verb, but not as a manner-of-motion verb. To turn it into a manner-of-motion verb – thus enabling it to be used with goal particles – one needs to combine it with a direction verb like 'iku' (to go), 'hashitte iku' (to go running). The fact that L2 learners of Japanese required negative evidence to notice this verb-particle connection further suggests that learners of Japanese need to understand the meaning carried by each locative particle as well as figure out which verbs each one can be used with.

Target and non-target uses of particles.

An analysis of the participants' answers on the CT revealed that, overall, beginners selected both 'ni' and 'e' in contexts where it was required to indicate a direction, but intermediate and advanced learners preferred using 'ni'. In contexts where 'ni'-existence was required, the particle 'wa' and blanks were common errors made by the beginners, and intermediate and advanced learners perceived the particle 'de' as a possible alternative to 'ni'. In sentences requiring 'de'-action, the particle 'ni' and blanks were common errors made by the beginners and both intermediate and advanced learners

perceived the particle 'ni' as a possible alternative. Finally, beginners did not use the particle 'de' to indicate a special event at all, preferring instead the particles 'wa', 'ni', 'no' and 'o'. Intermediate-level learners showed a preference for 'ni', and advanced-level learners accurately selected the particle 'de' the majority of the time. On the SCT, the particle 'ni' was selected over 'e' by all three proficiency groups to mark a direction. In obligatory contexts for 'ni'-action + direction, beginners chose to leave most items blank and both intermediate and advanced learners perceived the combination of the two verbs using the –te form (used to combine two actions, i.e. "doing something, and then something else") as an alternative to the particle 'ni' (used to link an action with a direction, i.e. "going somewhere to do something"), suggesting an overgeneralization of verb morphology and thus providing further proof that other factors should to be taken into consideration when understanding particles.

An analysis of these non-target responses further revealed that the participants' use of case markers (e.g. topic-marker 'wa' and object-marker 'o') where locative postpositions were required is consistent with Morii's (1993) L1 finding of case markers being acquired earlier than postposition functions of locative particles. Moreover, the contexts in which they were used suggest a consistency with Watanabe Traphagan's (1997) L2 findings of multiword units being acquired as formulaic chunks. For example, an early lesson involving the verb 'benkyōsuru' (to study) often requires students to form various sentences using a pattern along the lines of 'Watashi wa _____ o benkyōshimasu' (I study _____). The multiword unit 'o benkyōsuru' might thus be perceived by the learners as an indivisible unit, which would explain why the participants showed an overall preference for the object-marker 'o' to be used with the verb

'benkyōsuru', regardless of what was actually "being studied" in the CT, i.e. one item was the city of Manila and the other, a Japanese language school, both of them obligatory contexts for 'de'-action. Further tests involving the other particles mentioned as well as the other functions of the particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' would, however, be required to determine exactly where these case marker functions should be classified in relation to the stages of acquisition of locative particles determined by this thesis.

Research Question #3: Pedagogical Input

The third and final question investigated in the present thesis was, 'To what extent does the order of control over particle meanings reflect the order in which the particles are presented in textbooks?' The two textbooks analysed, *Japanese for Young People* and *Minna no Nihongo* were selected because they were used by several Japanese teachers in Montreal. The order in which the textbooks presented the different functions of the selected particles was similar in that both series began with the same three functions: 'e'-direction, 'ni'-existence and 'de'-action. *Minna no Nihongo* also introduced the particles 'ni'-action + direction, 'ni'-habit and 'ni'-direction. The locative 'de'-event was not mentioned in this series. *Japanese for Young People*, on the other hand, did present 'de'-event, but only presented the particles 'ni'-habit and 'ni'-direction in an implicit manner in examples towards the end of the textbook. Combining the information gathered from both textbooks yielded the following order of exposure:

1. 'e' to designate a direction;
2. 'de' to indicate the location of an action;
3. 'ni' as a marker of existence;

4. 'ni' used to combine an action with a direction;
5. 'ni' to indicate a habitual action;
6. 'ni' to designate a direction; and
7. 'de' to indicate the location of an event.

The results from repeated measures ANOVAs on the three tasks revealed the following order of accuracy:

1. 'ni/e' to designate a direction;
2. 'ni' as a marker of existence;
3. 'ni' to indicate a habitual action; and
4. 'de' to indicate the location of an action.

The only consistency between the two orders of acquisition is that the particle 'e'-direction is the first locative particle taught in textbooks and the particle used most accurately by L2 learners of Japanese. This could be explained by the fact that, since the particle 'e' collocates with three common verbs (i.e. 'iku', to go, 'kuru', to come, and 'kaeru', to return), it is a good candidate for an early-learned particle.

One major difference lies in the fact that, for L2 learners of Japanese at all three levels of proficiency, the particle 'ni'-direction does not seem to be more difficult than 'e'-direction. In fact, it does not seem to be perceived as being different from 'e'-direction at all: analyses conducted on all three tasks revealed no significant differences between the participants' use of the two particles, and an analysis of the degree of confidence with which the participants judged sentences using 'e'-direction and 'ni'-direction revealed that the participants judged them both with very similar levels of confidence.

Another main difference lies in the fact that the particle 'de'-action is not used accurately by L2 learners as early as it is taught in textbooks. It was classified as being second-to-last in the CT and last in the GJT, suggesting that not only do participants find it difficult to understand that it can be used to designate the location of an action, but they also find it difficult to retrieve it in production contexts. This might be due to the fact that, as was explained earlier, participants, as they are beginning to use particles, experience difficulty in seeing a difference between the different types of Japanese verbs. Translated into English, several habitual verbs in Japanese can be perceived as action verbs (e.g. 'tsutomeru' (to be employed), 'tomaru' (to stay), etc.). As a result, the learners may cognitively represent all verbs as belonging to one category and favour using one locative particle (e.g. the "all-purpose" 'ni') whenever these verbs are used, until they are developmentally ready to understand the difference.

Finally, the results of the analyses conducted on all three tasks revealed a discrepancy between the presentation of the particle 'de'-event in textbooks and the level of accuracy with which the participants used it. Repeated measures ANOVA did reveal that it was the particle that learners found the most difficult to retrieve in production contexts, but the same analyses conducted on the GJT revealed that the participants found it to be easier to judge than sentences using 'de'-action and to be as easy to judge as the particles 'ni/e'-direction. A further analysis of the level of confidence with which the participants judged each item revealed, as was mentioned earlier, that their level of confidence when judging sentences using 'de'-event was significantly lower than the level they displayed when judging sentences using 'ni'-existence. Since both particles use the same verb, 'arimasu' (there is an object/event), to mark existence, this finding

suggests that a stronger bond might have been established between verbs of existence and the particle 'ni', leading the participants to perceive 'de'-event as an exception to the rule. While it is not possible from the results obtained in this thesis to assign the particle 'de'-event one specific rank, the analyses conducted do suggest, however, that the participants are aware that the particle 'de' can be used to indicate the location of a special event before they understand that it can also be used to designate the location of an action.

Summary

This thesis reports findings from a cross-sectional study of the L2 acquisition of the Japanese locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e'. A total of 43 French- and English-speaking learners of Japanese at three levels of proficiency completed a series of written tasks assessing six different locative contexts. A Mann-Whitney U analysis of 26 'ni/e' comparisons across the three tasks showed no significant differences between French and English speakers, suggesting that the participants' L1 does not influence the way in which they acquire and use locative particles. An overall preference for the particle 'ni' was also revealed, suggesting that frequency may play a greater role in such an acquisition than L1 knowledge. Repeated measures ANOVAs revealed a significant main effect for locative functions and for proficiency but no interaction between the two. Post-hoc analyses of locative functions on the three tasks found that, while proportions of correct answers increased with proficiency, the accuracy pattern revealed the same significant effects for locative functions on all tasks, at all levels of proficiency. This suggests an order of control over particles that is consistent across all three proficiency levels: 'ni/e'-direction, followed by 'ni'-existence, 'ni'-habit and 'de'-action. The results

leading to this order of accuracy also revealed that the prototypical meaning for the particle 'e' is to indicate a direction – from one place to another or from one person's hand to another's – and that the particle 'ni' may have two different prototypical functions: direction and existence. Possible prototypical particles could also be assigned to each function from the same results: action + direction and the location of a habitual action are identified by 'ni'. Direction is usually represented by the particle 'e' in textbooks, but learners have shown a strong preference for 'ni'. Existence is marked by 'ni', the particle 'de' being perceived as the exception in the case of a special event, and the location of an action is indicated by the particle 'de' in textbooks and by the learners, although some participants perceive the particle 'ni' as an alternative, probably because of a difficulty in seeing a difference between the different types of Japanese verbs. Finally, the order of accuracy suggested by these results was found to be different from the order in which the various locative functions of particles were presented in L2 Japanese textbooks. The pedagogical implications of these findings will be outlined in the next chapter.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

This final chapter summarizes the main findings of this thesis and outlines some pedagogical implications suggested by the results of the analyses. Limitations of the study and suggestions for possible future directions are also identified.

Contribution to Second Language Acquisition

The acquisition of Japanese locative particles is a topic that is currently under-researched. This thesis contributed to the literature on acquisition by investigating how L2 learners of Japanese from two different language backgrounds acquired and used the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e', features that are polysemous, not salient, redundant, and optional in informal speech. It also inferred an acquisition sequence from the accuracy pattern revealed by the three written tasks, assessed the relative influences L1 knowledge and prototypicality could have on this acquisition, and identified some of the challenges L2 learners of Japanese might encounter when learning locative particles.

Pedagogical Implications

Because L2 learners of Japanese did not seem to have difficulty accepting that both particles 'ni' and 'e' can be used to designate a direction, it might not be necessary to wait as long as it is suggested in textbooks before introducing the particle 'ni' as being a viable alternative to the particle 'e' in such contexts.

Also, the participants seemed to be aware that the particle 'de' could be used to indicate the location of a special event but found it difficult to retrieve it in production contexts. This suggests that the teaching of particles might necessitate more practice than

what is currently offered in textbooks. In both textbooks analysed, locative particles were presented in a "piece-meal" manner – one at a time and usually with very little explanation but a lot of exercises where the students are given an example sentence and are asked to reproduce it using other provided locations and verbs. A greater number of opportunities for the learners to produce their own sentences in communicative situations might bring them to feel more confident in using particles and might reduce the gap between their level of awareness and their production skills. Furthermore, exercises should explicitly bring the learners' attention to the context in which a particle is used, the similarities and differences that exist between this context and the one surrounding another – previously seen – particle, the meaning(s) carried by each particle, and the verbs they can be used with. For example, when contrasting 'ni'-habit with 'de'-action, teachers could review the verbs each particle can be used with (e.g. 'tsutomeru' (to be employed) vs. 'hataraku' (to work)), and remind the learners of the other meaning(s) carried by each one (e.g. 'ni' can also be used to mark existence, indicate a direction and combine an action with a direction). Doing so might increase the learners' awareness of the semantic scope of each particle, as well as their level of accuracy in using them in production contexts.

Finally, the fact that the particle 'de' can be used to designate the location of an action is taught early in both textbooks analysed. The analyses conducted on the three tasks showed, however, that this function of the particle 'de' is one with which the learners seem to struggle the most. This finding is confirmed by the analysis of the participants' non-target use of particles, where they showed a strong tendency to supply the particle 'ni' in contexts that were obligatory contexts for the particle 'de', and in the

translation task, where a large number of beginners were unable to translate the verbs usually associated with this particle. This would suggest that not only do the learners need to understand the various functions covered by each particle, but also do they need to pay attention to the verbs with which each particle can be used. In order to achieve this, textbook exercises should be expanded to include activities and lessons designed to raise the learners' awareness of key factors like verb-particle collocations. For example, it might be useful to point out the similarities and differences (e.g. what defines a "habitual" verb) that exist between Japanese and the learners' L1, thus allowing the learners to make links between new concepts in Japanese and structures that are equivalent in their L1.

(41) Japanese: Jon wa honya **ni tsutomete imasu.**
English: John works at the bookstore.
French: Jean travaille à la librairie.

(42) Japanese: Kyō Jon wa hachi-ji kara yo-ji made honya **de hatarakimasu.**
English: John works today at the bookstore from 8:00 to 4:00.
French: Jean travaille aujourd'hui à la librairie de 8h00 à 16h00.

The context presented in (41) and (42) is the same: John works at the bookstore. However, the particle used to designate the location of the action (i.e. 'ni' vs. 'de') and the verb used to mark the type of action (i.e. 'tsutomeru' vs. 'hataraku') varies in order to indicate whether the action is habitual (John works at the bookstore everyday) or occurs at one point in time (John works at the bookstore *today*).

An animated computer program similar to the one designed by Suzuki (1996) might provide an interesting way of bringing the learners to notice and contrast the locative uses of the particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e'. The original program could be used as a first step to get the learners to notice the types of verbs and contexts typically associated

with the particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' but then, because of the limits of this program (i.e. it did not mention the possibility of using two particles interchangeably, nor did it allow the learners to see the result of associating a particle with an incorrect verb) it would need to be elaborated upon to include these options. For example, the choice of one particle (e.g. 'ni') should not bring a selection of verbs limited only to that particle to appear on the screen (e.g. the existence verbs 'imasu' and 'arimasu'). Instead, a wide selection of verbs, including incorrect as well as correct ones, should be made available (e.g. existence verbs, but also direction verbs such as 'iku' (to go) and 'kuru' (to come) and action verbs like 'hashiru (to run) and 'yomu' (to read)) . A correct choice would, like in Suzuki's original program, result in the learners seeing their chosen cartoon characters act out the selected action. On the other hand, because the learners would also be given the opportunity to make mistakes, an incorrect choice could display a character being confused as to what he should do, thus enabling the learners to witness the consequences of their mistake. Such a concept would be consistent with Tomasello & Herron's (1998) Garden Path technique – inducing learners to make a mistake and then immediately correcting it – which was found to be "an effective technique for teaching grammatical exceptions in the foreign language classroom" (p.244). Moreover, because this technique was used to induce errors that the learners were likely to commit in any case, such an idea seems particularly relevant to the teaching of locative particles since it might help the learners better establish the boundaries surrounding each particle.

Limitations and Future Directions

Due to time constraints, it was not possible for me to observe the way particles are taught in L2 Japanese classes. Instead, I had to assume that textbooks would provide insights into the type of exposure to particles that L2 learners may receive in classrooms. Future research could elaborate on the present findings by observing L2 Japanese classrooms and contrasting these observations with the order in which learners acquire particles and the way they are presented in textbooks.

Furthermore, I decided to use a cross-sectional design since it allowed me to test a large number of participants at different levels of proficiency at one point in time and to infer an order of acquisition from the order of accuracy found. Emergence and acquisition of locative functions could, however, be more thoroughly investigated using a longitudinal design.

Also, this thesis has provided insight into the patterns underlying the acquisition of the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' by L2 learners of Japanese by using a series of three tests. These tests, however, only allowed for an establishment of an order of accuracy for five of the seven locative contexts tested. There was, however, insufficient evidence to establish a conclusive order which would include the particles 'ni'-action + direction and 'de'-event. A new test (e.g. a fill-in-the-gap activity, or an interview) evaluating the learners' use of the particle 'ni'-action + direction in contrast with all the other locative contexts, as well as providing more insight as to which rank the particle 'de'-event should occupy in the established order of acquisition would be needed.

The three tasks used in this thesis all controlled for locative particles and learners might have been able to monitor their answers. Furthermore, formulaic chunks and

collocatives usually used in spontaneous speech could not be observed. A more spontaneous task, such as an oral interview, might thus elaborate on the present findings by providing data from which a more detailed developmental sequence might be established.

Another goal of this thesis was to examine the influence the learners' L1 might have on the order in which they acquired the different functions of the selected locative particles. To that effect, both French- and English-speaking participants were recruited. Once the participants were divided according to their proficiency level, they had to be further divided according to their L1, thus yielding small and uneven-numbered groups that only allowed for non-parametric analyses to be conducted. The numbers revealed by a Mann-Whitney U analysis of 'ni/e' comparisons suggested that the participants' L1 did not influence the way in which they used locative particles, but a parametric analysis conducted on data gathered from a larger number of participants would have had more power to detect differences between groups.

The reason the participants' L1 did not influence the order in which they acquired and used locative particles might also be due to the fact that neither of the two languages investigated uses particles to express locative relationships. Links between Japanese particles and French or English prepositions may be made, but the difference between these features might be enough to bring the learners to perceive particles as being a "new" feature to acquire and thus prevent them from letting their L1 influence acquisition. Languages such as Turkish and Korean, on the other hand, do use particles in a way that is similar to Japanese (i.e. a variety of particles can be used to mark different locative functions) and, as a result, might have a stronger influence on the way

in which the learners perceive Japanese particles. Future research could investigate whether the acquisition pattern found in the present thesis is common to all learners of Japanese, regardless of their L1, or if it varies as a result of the presence or absence of particles in the learners' L1. This would thus reveal whether Japanese locative particles are acquired according to a universal developmental pattern, and might consequently affect the way in which they should be presented in textbooks.

Another improvement could be the expansion of the present thesis to include other functions covered by the three selected particles (e.g. the case marker 'e', 'de' used to indicate an instrument, etc.), thus establishing with a little more precision which function(s) of each particle should be considered prototypical, and which are more peripheral. Similarly, this thesis could also be expanded to include other particles such as the subject-marker 'ga', the topic-marker 'wa' and the object-marker 'o', providing us with an even more complete picture of the order in which L2 learners of Japanese acquire particles.

Finally, the findings from the 23 Japanese high school students (NS) revealed that the way in which locative particles are actually used by these NS might be different from the way in which they are taught to L2 learners. Furthermore, because certain similarities were found between the NS's answers and those collected from the participants (e.g. an overall preference for the particle 'ni' in direction contexts and a perception of 'ni' as an alternative to the particle 'de' in contexts where it is required to mark the location of an action), the order of accuracy found in this thesis might also reflect the way in which NS's of Japanese acquire locative particles. The issue raised by this hypothesis is thus a need to compare "teacher" or "prescriptive" grammar with the actual use of particles. In

order to do this, one possibility would be to use corpora of L1 Japanese speech and compare it with L1 acquisition studies looking at the acquisition of particles by Japanese infants and children. Such an investigation of the patterns underlying the acquisition of particles in an L1 context could further clarify the way in which these grammatical features are actually used in informal speech.

Conclusion

The purpose of this thesis was to explore the acquisition of the locative particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e' by L2 learners of Japanese, a topic that is currently under-researched. An analysis of the answers from French- and English-speaking participants revealed that the learners' L1 did not influence the way in which they perceived locative particles. Furthermore, both groups were shown to prefer the particle 'ni', revealing the possibility of a frequency effect that is stronger than L1 knowledge. An order of acquisition that is consistent across all three proficiency levels also was inferred from the accuracy scores: 'ni/e'-direction, followed by 'ni'-existence, 'ni'-habit and 'de'-action. The results leading to this order of acquisition further revealed that the particle 'ni' may have two different prototypical functions (i.e. direction and existence) and that, 'e' being a relatively transparent particle carrying only two different functions (i.e. locative postposition and case marker), its prototypical meaning might be to indicate a direction – from one place to another or from one person's hand to another's. Finally, the order of accuracy of locative particles revealed by the three tests used in this thesis was found to be different from the order in which they are presented in textbooks, suggesting that learners do not acquire particles in the order in which they are presented to them, but

rather that there might be a developmental pattern that reflects their own understanding of the way in which each particle should be used. For example, while the participants accepted that both particles 'ni' and 'e' could be used to designate a direction, these two particles were taught separately in both textbooks examined. Furthermore, the particle 'de'-action was taught early in both textbooks analysed, but this function of 'de' was one with which the learners seem to struggle the most. Also, the participants seemed aware that 'de' could be used to indicate the location of an event, but found it difficult to retrieve in production contexts. These results suggest that the main challenges in acquiring Japanese locative particles are not only to understand the various meanings and functions carried by each particle, but also to figure out which spatial verbs can be used in combination with each one. Future pedagogical studies could investigate whether exercises designed to raise the L2 learners' awareness of the similarities and differences between Japanese and their L1, as well as their ability to notice the various particle-verb combinations, might help them overcome these challenges. More research is also needed to be able to determine the complete pattern that underlies the acquisition of all seven locative contexts investigated. Such information could in turn provide a theoretical basis for exploring effective ways of teaching and assessing Japanese locative particles in L2 contexts.

As was mentioned earlier, the acquisition of this semantically complex aspect of morphosyntax has received little research attention. This thesis contributed to the L2 acquisition literature by examining some of the developmental patterns underlying the acquisition and use of the locatives 'ni', 'de' and 'e', grammatical features that are polysemous, not salient, and can even be omitted in informal speech. It investigated the

possible influence the participants' L1 might have had on such patterns, identified the prototypical meanings carried by the locative particles 'ni' and 'e', and outlined of some of the challenges L2 learners of Japanese encounter in acquiring them.

みんなさん、こんにちは。わたしの名前は　キャサリンです。１９９９年に　英語を教えることために　日本に行きました。三年間　岡山県に　住んでいました。旭小学校、旭中学校、とかよう保育園で　英語を　教えました。そのあとで、カナダに　帰て、大学生に　なりました。今日、論文を　発表します。どうぞ　よろしく　お願いします！[10]

[10] Good day everyone. My name is Catherine. In 1999 I went **to** Japan to teach English. I lived **in** Okayama-ken for three years. I taught English **at** Asahi elementary school, Asahi Junior High School and Kayō Kindergarten. After, I came back **to** Canada and became a graduate student. Today I present you with my thesis. Thank you (lit. please treat me favourably)!

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Appendix A

Glossary

AGT	agent
ALL	allative
CAU.exp	experiential causee
CL	classifier
CRP	conceptual reference point
DAT	dative
EMP	emphasis
GEN	genitive
LOC	locative
MAN	manner
OBJ	object
Q	question
REAS	reason
RES	result
SUB	subject
TEMP	temporal
TOP	topic

(adapted from: Kabata & Rice, 1997)

Appendix B

Table B1

Japanese Locative Particles

Locative Particle	Sample Sentence	Semantic Overlap Cases
Ni		
Existence	Tēburu no ue **ni** bōru ga aru. Table GEN top **LOC** ball SUB is "There is a ball **on** the table." (Ueno, 2001)	De
Habit	Terada-san wa Shinjuku no ginkō **ni** tsutomete imasu. Mr. Terada TOP Shinjuku GEN bank **LOC** is working "Mr. Terada works **at** a bank in Shinjuku." (Chino, 2001)	De
Movement towards a place	Kyonen America **ni** ikimashita. Last year America **ALL** went "I went **to** America last year."	E
Combining action + direction	Tomodachi wa asobi **ni** kimashita. Friend TOP play **ALL** came "My friend came to play."	N/a
De		
Location of an action	Takeshi wa kyōshitsu **de** benkyo shiteimasu. Takeshi TOP classroom **LOC** studying "Takeshi is studying **in** the classroom."	Ni

Locative Particle		Sample Sentence	Semantic Overlap Cases
	Location of an event	Ashita gakkō **de** tesuto ga arimasu. Tomorrow school **LOC** test SUB is "There is a test **at** school tomorrow."	Ni
E			
	Movement towards a place	Kyonen America **e** ikimashita. Last year America **ALL** went "I went **to** America last year."	Ni

Table B2

Other Functions of Particles 'ni', 'de' and 'e'

Particle		Sample Sentence	Semantic Overlap Cases
Ni			
	Case marker (indirect object)	Tomodachi **ni** tegami o moraimashita. Friend **DAT** letter OBJ received "I received a letter **from** my friend." (Chino, 2001)	Kara
	Temporal (specific/ interval)	Watashi wa sangatsu yokka **ni** umaremashita. I TOP March 4th **TEMP** was born "I was born **on** March 4th."	N/a
	Result	Kimiko-san wa daigaku o sotsugyōshite, isha **ni** natta. Kimiko TOP university OBJ graduated doctor **RES** became "Kimiko graduated from university and became a doctor." (Chino, 2001)	N/a
	Agent of a passive verb	Ie ni kearu tochu de ame **ni** furareta House ALL return way ALL rain **CAU.exp** fall on "On my way home I got rained on." (Chino, 2001)	N/a
	Causative	Akiko wa Hiroshi **ni** gohan o tsukuraseta. Akiko TOP Hiroshi **CAU** meal OBJ made do "Akiko made Hiroshi fix a meal." (Makino & Tsutsui, 2001)	N/a
De			
	Instrument/means	Watashi wa keito **de** kutsushita o anda. I TOP wool **INST** socks OBJ knit "I knit socks **with** wool." (Makino & Tsutsui, 2001)	N/a

Particle		Sample Sentence	Semantic Overlap Cases
	Superlative	Sekai **de** ichiban takai yama wan an desu ka. World **CRP** first tall mountain TOP what is Q "What is the tall**est** mountain **in** the world?"	N/a
	Temporal (time/age)	Amerika ni kite kara kyō **de** sannen ni naru. America ALL came from today **TEMP** three years RES become "It's been three years since I came to America." (Makino & Tsutsui, 2001)	Ni
	Manner	Watashi wa apāto ni hitori **de** sundeimasu. I TOP apartment LOC one person **MAN** am living "I live in an apartment **by** myself." (Chino, 2001)	N/a
	Reason	Byōki **de** ryōko ni ikenakatta. Sickness **REAS** trip ALL couldn't go "I couldn't go on the trip **because** I was sick." (Chino, 2001)	N/a
E			
	Case marker (indirect object)	Tomodachi **e** tegami o kakimashita. Friend **DAT** letter OBJ wrote "I wrote a letter **to** my friend." (Chino, 2001)	Ni

Appendix C

Table C1

Locative Particles in Minna no Nihongo

Chapter	Particle	Locative Context
5	e	Direction
6	de	Location of an action
10	ni	Location of existence
13	ni	Combining and action with a direction
15	ni	Location of a state/habitual action
20	ni	Direction

Table C2

Locative particles in Japanese for Young People

Book	Chapter	Particle	Locative Context
1	11	de	Location of an action
	12	e	Direction
2	17	ni	Location of existence
	24	de	Location of an event

Appendix D

Consent Form to Participate in Research

This is to state that I agree to participate in a program of research being conducted by Catherine Durand of the Department of Education (TESL Centre) of Concordia University.

Contact information:
Email: lc_duran@education.concordia.ca
Phone: 514-762-2941

A. PURPOSE

I have been informed that the purpose of this research is to study the acquisition of Japanese by English- and French-speaking learners of Japanese.

B. PROCEDURES

I have been informed that (1) this study will take place at the TESL Centre of Concordia University or at my home university/college; (2) that the tasks I will be asked to complete consist of filling out a questionnaire, and a series of three written tests; and (3) that the total session will last approximately one hour.

C. CONDITIONS OF PARTICIPATION

- I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and discontinue my participation at any time without negative consequences.
- I understand that my participation in this study is confidential (i.e. the researcher will know but will not disclose my identity).
- I understand that the data from this study may be published or presented at a scientific conference.
- I understand that I will receive a monetary compensation of $8.00 for participating in this study.
- I understand that if I request a copy of the final research report, one will be sent to me. I can make this request to Catherine Durand during this session or later in writing.

I HAVE CAREFULLY STUDIED THE ABOVE AND UNDERSTAND THIS AGREEMENT. I FREELY CONSENT AND VOLUNTARILY AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY.

NAME (Please print): _____

SIGNATURE: _____

WITNESS SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

Would you like to be sent a copy of this consent form? _____ Yes _____ No

If at any time you have questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Adela Reid, Research Ethics and Compliance Officer, Concordia University, at 514-848-2424 x7481 or by email at areid@alcor.concordia.ca.

Formulaire de Consentement à la Participation à une Recherche

Par la présente, je déclare consentir à participer à un programme de recherche mené par Catherine Durand du Département d'Éducation (TESL Centre) de l'Université Concordia.

Coordonnées:
Courriel: lc_duran@education.concordia.ca
Téléphone: 514-762-2941

A. BUT DE LA RECHERCHE

On m'a informé(e) du but de la recherche, soit l'étude de l'acquisition du japonais tel qu'étudié par des étudiants dont la langue maternelle est le français ou l'anglais.

B. PROCÉDURES

On m'a informé(e) (1) que l'étude aura lieu au Centre TESL de l'université Concordia ou à l'université/au collège où j'étudie; (2) que les tâches qui me seront assignées incluent un questionnaire et une série de trois tests auxquels je répondrai de façon écrite; et (3) que la séance au complet durera environ une heure.

C. CONDITIONS DE PARTICIPATION

- Je comprends qu'il m'est possible de retirer mon consentement et interrompre ma participation à cette étude à tout moment sans conséquences négatives.
- Je comprends que ma participation à cette étude est confidentielle (c'est-à-dire que le chercheur connaîtra mon identité mais ne la révélera pas).
- Je comprends que les données de cette étude pourraient être publiées ou présentées à un colloque scientifique.
- Je comprends que je recevrai une compensation monétaire de 8.00$ pour avoir participé à cette étude.
- Je comprends que, si je le désire, un exemplaire du rapport final me sera envoyé. Je peux en faire la demande à Catherine Durand au cours de cette séance ou plus tard par écrit.

J'AI LU ATTENTIVEMENT CE QUI PRÉCÈDE ET JE COMPRENDS LA NATURE DE L'ENTENTE. JE CONSENS LIBREMENT ET VOLONTAIREMENT À PARTICIPER À CETTE ÉTUDE.

NOM (caractères d'imprimerie) : _____

SIGNATURE : _____

SIGNATURE DU CHERCHEUR : _____

DATE : _____

Aimeriez-vous recevoir une copie de ce formulaire? _____ Oui _____ Non

Si vous avez des questions en ce qui a trait à vos droits en tant que participant à la présente étude,veuillez communiquer avec Adela Reid, Agente d'Éthique en Recherche/Conformité, Université Concordia, au 514-848-2424 x7481, ou par courriel : areid@alcor.concordia.ca.

Appendix E

Questionnaire

Name: _____ Gender: Male _____ Female _____

Phone number: _____ Email: _____

Date of birth: _____ Birthplace: _____

What do you consider to be your mother tongue? (Please circle one)

French English Both Other(s) _____

Were you exposed to your mother tongue since birth? _____ Yes _____ No

What do you consider to be your second language(s)?

French English Other(s) _____

At what age did you start learning your second language(s)?

French _____ English _____ Other(s) _____

What language(s) do you speak at home now? _____

What is the native language of your mother? _____ Your father? _____

In what language did you attend school? Elementary school: _____

High school: _____

CEGEP: _____

In which level of schooling have you been enrolled most recently, and where?

CEGEP Undergraduate Graduate Other: _____

Where? _____

Please rate your ability to speak, listen to, read and write **French** by using the scales below. Note that 1 = extremely poor and 8 = extremely fluent.

French	**1 = extremely poor**		**8 = extremely fluent**
Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Please rate your ability to speak, listen to, read and write **English** by using the same scales.

English	**1 = extremely poor**		**8 = extremely fluent**
Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Please indicate the approximate percentage of time that you use French and English each week. Circle the appropriate percentage for each context.

At home	French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
At school	French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
At work	French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
With friends	French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Reading	French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Listening to the media	French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%

What is the most recent Japanese class that you have taken? _____

Your instructor's name: _____ Textbook used: _____

How often did the class meet? 1/week for _____ minutes
2/week _____ minutes
Other: _____

Please indicate the approximate percentage of time that the following languages are/were used in your Japanese classroom. Circle the appropriate percentage.

Language(s) used by your instructor

French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Japanese	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%

Language(s) that you use(d)

French	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
English	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Japanese	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%

Is this the first Japanese class that you have taken? _____ Yes _____ No

If no, what other classes have you taken? _____

How long have you been studying Japanese? _____

Have you ever been to Japan? _____ Yes How long were you there? _____
_____ No

Please indicate your use of Japanese outside of the classroom. Put an X in the appropriate box.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Friends					
Pen pals					
Books/magazines					
Movies/television					
Music					
Japanese community centre					
Private lessons					
Others (please specify)					

Please rate your ability to speak, listen to, read and write **Japanese** by using the scales below.

Japanese **1 = extremely poor** **8 = extremely fluent**

Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Thank you

Questionnaire

Nom: _____ Sexe: Homme _____ Femme _____

Numéro de téléphone: _____ Courriel: _____

Date de naissance: _____ Lieu de naissance: _____

Quelle est votre langue maternelle?

Français Anglais Les deux Autre(s) _____

Y avez-vous été exposé dès votre naissance? _____ Oui _____ Non

Quelle(s) est (sont) votre (vos) langue(s) seconde(s)?

Français Anglais Autre(s) _____

À quel âge avez-vous commencé à apprendre votre (vos) langue(s) seconde(s)?

Français _____ Anglais _____ Autre(s) _____

Quelle(s) langue(s) parlez-vous à la maison? _____

Quelle est la langue maternelle de votre mère? _____ De votre père? _____

En quelle langue avez-vous étudié?

École primaire: _____

École secondaire: _____

CÉGEP: _____

À quel niveau de scolarité avez-vous été inscrit le plus récemment, et à quel endroit?

CÉGEP Baccalauréat Maîtrise Autre : _____

Où? _____

Veuillez indiquer votre habileté à parler, écouter, lire et écrire le **français** en utilisant l'échelle ci-dessous. Notez que 1 = très mal et 8 = très couramment.

Français **1 = très mal** **8 = très couramment**

Parler	Écouter	Lire	Écrire
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Veuillez indiquer votre habileté à parler, écouter, lire et écrire l'**anglais** en utilisant la même échelle.

Anglais **1 = très mal** **8 = très couramment**

Parler	Écouter	Lire	Écrire
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Pendant combien de temps utilisez-vous le français et l'anglais chaque semaine? Encerclez le pourcentage approprié pour chaque contexte.

À la maison	Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
À l'école	Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Au travail	Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Avec vos amis	Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Lecture	Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Écouter les médias	Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
	Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%

À quelle classe de japonais avez-vous été inscrit le plus récemment? _____

Le nom de votre enseignant: _____ Livre utilisé: _____

Combien de fois la classe avait-elle lieu? 1/semaine pendant _____ minutes
2/semaine _____ minutes
Autre: _____

Pendant combien de temps le français, l'anglais et le japonais ont-ils été utilisés dans votre classe de japonais? Encerclez le pourcentage approprié.

Langue(s) utilisée(s) par votre enseignant

Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Japonais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%

Langue(s) que vous avez utilisée(s)

Français	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Anglais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%
Japonais	0%	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100%

Est-ce le premier cours de japonais que vous avez suivi? _____ Oui _____ Non

Si non, quel(s) autre(s) cours avez-vous suivi(s)? _____

Depuis combien de temps étudiez-vous le japonais? _____

Êtes-vous déjà allé au Japon? _____ Oui Combien de temps? _____
_____ Non

Veuillez indiquer votre utilisation du japonais à l'extérieur des cours. Cochez la case appropriée.

	Jamais	Rarement	Quelquefois	Souvent	Toujours
Avec vos amis					
Correspondants					
Livres/magazines					
Films/télévision					
Musique					
Centre communautaire japonais					
Cours privés					
Autres (veuillez spécifier)					

Veuillez indiquer votre habileté à parler, écouter, lire et écrire le **japonais** en utilisant l'échelle ci-dessous.

Japonais **1 = très mal** **8 = très couramment**

Parler	Écouter	Lire	Écrire
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Merci

Appendix F

Writing Activity

Please write in Japanese about your plans for the summer. Give as many details as you can (i.e. travel: where? Work/study: what?) You have 7 minutes.

Veuillez écrire en japonais ce que vous comptez faire cet été. Donnez le plus de détails possible (par exemple, voyage : où? Travail/études : quoi?) Vous avez 7 minutes.

Appendix G

Cloze Test

Read the following passages and fill in the blanks with the words you find most appropriate. Please select only ONE word for each blank.

てがみ
Tegami

けいこさん、
Keiko-san,

お元気です_____。わたしは　元気です。日本は　どうですか。カナダは
Ogenki desu　Watashi wa genki desu. Nihon wa dō desu ka. Kanada wa

いま、とても　さむい_____。だから　わたしは　オーバーを　買いたいと
ima, totemo samui　Dakara watashi wa　ōbā o　kaitai to

思いました。それで、先週の　日曜日に、友だち_____　いっしょに　デパート
omoimashita. Sorede, senshū no nichiyōbi ni, tomodachi　isshoni　depāto

_____行きました。そのデパート_____は　きれいな　オーバーが　たくさん
ikimashita.　Sono depāto　wa kireina　ōbā ga takusan

ありました。しかし、みんな　たかかったです。友だちは　「ほかの　みせ
arimashita.　Shikashi, minna　takakatta desu. Tomodachi wa "hokano mise

_____行こう」と　いいました。デパートの　ちかく_____　小さな　みせ
ikō"　to iimashita.　Depāto no chikaku　chiisana mise

_____ありました。その　時　みせ_____　セールが　ありました。そこ_____は、
arimashita.　Sono toki mise　sēru ga　arimashita.　Soko　wa,

オーバーも　セーターも　とても　やすかったです。わたしは　そこ_____
ōbā mo　sētā mo totemo yasukatta desu. Watashi wa soko

オーバーと、セーターと、マフラーを　買いました。その　オーバーを　きて
ōbā to,　sētā to,　mafurā o kaimashita.　Sono ōbā o kite

いえ_____　帰りました。とても　あたたかったです。
ie　kaerimashita. Totemo atatakakatta desu.

来週、学校_____　日本語　の　テスト_____　あります。日本語_____　本当に
Raishū, gakkō　nihongo no tesuto　arimasu.　Nihongo　hontō ni

むずかしいです。わからない　時は　日本人の　友だちに　きいたりします。
muzukashii desu.　Wakaranai　toki wa nihonjin no tomodachi ni　kiitari shimasu.

Date du test: _____ Nom: _____

Veuillez lire les textes suivants et inscrire dans les espaces les mots que vous considérez comme étant les plus appropriés. Veuillez limiter votre choix à UN mot par espace.

てがみ
Tegami

けいこさん、
Keiko-san,

お元気です_____。わたしは 元気です。日本は どうですか。カナダは
Ogenki desu Watashi wa genki desu. Nihon wa dō desu ka. Kanada wa

いま、とても さむい_____。だから わたしは オーバーを 買いたいと
ima, totemo samui Dakara watashi wa ōbā o kaitai to

思いました。それで、先週の 日曜日に、友だち_____ いっしょに デパート
omoimashita. Sorede, senshū no nichiyōbi ni, tomodachi isshoni depāto

_____行きました。そのデパート_____は きれいな オーバーが たくさん
ikimashita. Sono depāto wa kireina ōbā ga takusan

ありました。しかし、みんな たかかったです。友だちは 「ほかの みせ
arimashita. Shikashi, minna takakatta desu. Tomodachi wa "hokano mise

_____行こう」と いいました。デパートの ちかく_____ 小さな みせ
ikō" to iimashita. Depāto no chikaku chiisana mise

_____ありました。その 時 みせ_____ セールが ありました。そこ_____は、
arimashita. Sono toki mise sēru ga arimashita. Soko wa,

オーバーも セーターも とても やすかったです。わたしは そこ_____
ōbā mo sētā mo totemo yasukatta desu. Watashi wa soko

オーバーと、セーターと、マフラーを 買いました。その オーバーを きて
ōbā to, sētā to, mafurā o kaimashita. Sono ōbā o kite

いえ_____ 帰りました。とても あたたかったです。
ie kaerimashita. Totemo atatakakatta desu.

来週、学校_____ 日本語 の テスト_____ あります。日本語_____ 本当に
Raishū, gakkō nihongo no tesuto arimasu. Nihongo hontō ni

むずかしいです。わからない 時は 日本人の 友だちに きいたりします。
muzukashii desu. Wakaranai toki wa nihonjin no tomodachi ni kiitari shimasu.

Name: _____

次の文章を読んでアンダーラインのかしょにもっともてきとうと思われる言葉をひとつだけ書いてください。

てがみ
Tegami

けいこさん、
Keiko-san,

お元気です_____。わたしは　元気です。日本は　どうですか。カナダは
Ogenki desu　Watashi wa genki desu. Nihon wa dō desu ka. Kanada wa

いま、とても　さむい_____。だから　わたしは　オーバーを　買いたいと
ima, totemo samui　Dakara watashi wa　ōbā o kaitai to

思いました。それで、先週の　日曜日に、友だち_____　いっしょに　デパート
omoimashita. Sorede, senshū no nichiyōbi ni, tomodachi　isshoni　depāto

_____行きました。そのデパート_____は　きれいな　オーバーが　たくさん
ikimashita. Sono depāto　wa kireina ōbā ga takusan

ありました。しかし、みんな　たかかったです。友だちは　「ほかの　みせ
arimashita. Shikashi, minna takakatta desu. Tomodachi wa "hokano mise

_____行こう」と　いいました。デパートの　ちかく_____　小さな　みせ
ikō" to iimashita. Depāto no chikaku　chiisana mise

_____ありました。その　時　みせ_____　セールが　ありました。そこ_____は、
arimashita. Sono toki mise　sēru ga arimashita. Soko　wa,

オーバーも　セーターも　とても　やすかったです。わたしは　そこ_____
ōbā mo sētā mo totemo yasukatta desu. Watashi wa soko

オーバーと、セーターと、マフラーを　買いました。その　オーバーを　きて
ōbā to, sētā to, mafurā o kaimashita. Sono ōbā o kite

いえ_____　帰りました。とても　あたたかったです。
ie　kaerimashita. Totemo atatakakatta desu.

来週、学校_____　日本語　の　テスト_____　あります。日本語_____　本当に
Raishū, gakkō　nihongo no tesuto　arimasu. Nihongo　hontō ni

むずかしいです。わからない　時は　日本人の　友だちに　きいたりします。
muzukashii desu. Wakaranai toki wa nihonjin no tomodachi ni kiitari shimasu.

友だちは　いつも　しんせつです。わたしは　ときどき、その　友だちに　英語_____
Tomodachi wa itsumo shinsetsu desu. Watashi wa tokidoki, sono tomodachi ni eigo

おしえます。テストが　おわってから、やすみが　あります。それで、「Quebec
oshiemasu. Tesuto ga owatte kara, yasumi ga arimasu. Sorede, Quebec

City」_____　行きます。来週　「Quebec」_____ウインターカーニバルが
City ikimasu. Raishū Quebec uintā kānibaru ga

あります。みんなは　そこ_____　いろいろな　あそびを　します。とても　楽しい
arimasu. Minna wa soko iroirona asobi o shimasu. Totemo tanoshii

です！「Montreal」_____も　冬祭りが　あります。でも、わたしは　「Montreal」の
desu! Montreal mo fuyumatsuri ga arimasu. Demo, watashi wa Montreal no

祭りより　「Quebec」の　カーニバルのほうが　好きです。
matsuri yori Quebec no kānibaru no hō ga suki desu.

また、てがみを　かきますね。では、お元気で。
Mata, tegami o kakimasu ne. Dewa, ogenkide.

キャサリンより。
Kyasarin yori.

(Adapted from *Introduction to Japanese Reading Skills*, 1991)

わたしの　クラスメート
Watashi no kurasumēto

わたし_____　去年の　４月から　日本語学校_____　勉強しています。
Watashi　kyonen no shigatsu kara nihongogakkō　benkyōshiteimasu.

わたしの　クラス_____は　アメリカ人、ちゅうごく人、タイ人、かんこく人、
Watashi no　kurasu　wa　amerika　jin,　chūgoku　jin,　tai　jin,　kankoku jin,

シンガポール人、フィリピン人など、いろいろな　国の　人が　１５_____
shingapōru　jin,　firipin　jin nado,　iroiro　na　kuni no hito ga　15

います。みんな　あかるくて、しんせつな　いいクラスメートです。クラスの
imasu.　Minna　akarukute,　shinsetsuna　ii　kurasumēto　desu.　Kurasu no

中で、一ばん　仲が良いのは、エリザベスさんです。
naka de, ichiban nakagayoi no wa,　Erizabesu-san　desu.

エリザベスさん_____、フィリピンの　マニラ_____　生まれました。
Erizabesu-san　firipin　no　manira　umaremashita.

小学校から　大学_____　マニラ_____　勉強しました。大学を　卒業してから、
Shōgakkō kara daigaku　manira　benkyōshimashita. Daigaku o sotsugyōshite kara,

銀行_____　１年ぐらい　つとめて、それから　小学校_____　先生を
ginkō　1 nen gurai　tsutomete,　sorekara　shōgakkō　sensei o

しました。お父さんの　すすめで　日本語の　勉強を　はじめ_____。１_____
shimashita.　Otōsan　no　susume de　nihongo no benkyō o　hajime　1

間の　勉強が　おわった時、かのじょは　日本語や　日本の　ことを　もっと
kan no benkyō ga owatta　toki,　kanojo　wa　nihongo ya　nihon no　koto o　motto

勉強したくなりました。それで、日本_____　来ました。そして、わたしたちは
benkyōshitakunarimashita.　Sorede, nihon　kimashita.　Soshite, watashitachi wa

クラスメートに　なりました。
kurasumēto　ni　narimashita.

さいしょに、エリザベスさんは、お父さんの　友だちの　家_____
Saishoni,　Erizabesu-san　wa　otōsan　no tomodachi no ie

とまりました。２週間後に　すてきな　アパートを　見つけました。いまも、
tomarimashita.　2 shūkango ni　sutekina　apāto　o　mitsukemashita.　Ima mo,

そのアパート_____　住んでいます。
sono　apāto　sundeimasu.

エリザベスさんの　しゅみは、エアロビクスです。学校が　おわってから、
Erizabesu-san　no　shumi wa,　earobikusu　desu. Gakkō ga　owatte　kara,

週に　３回ぐらい　スポーツクラブ_____　行って、あせを　かきます。ですから
shū ni　3 kai gurai,　supōtsu　kurabu　　itte　　ase o　kakimasu.　Desukara

エリザベスさんは　スタイルが　とても　いい　です。
Erizabesu-san　wa　sutairu ga　totemo　ii　desu.

エリザベスさんは、漢字は　にがてですが、話すことは　とくいです。
Erizabesu-san　wa, kanji wa nigate desu ga, hanasu koto wa　tokui　desu.

去年の　１０月に　学校_____　スピーチコンテスト_____　ありました。
Kyonen no 10 gatsu ni gakkō　　supiichi kontesuto　　arimashita.

クラスの　代表の　スピーチは　みんな　上手でしたが、エリザベスさんが　優勝
Kurasu no daihyō no　supiichi　wa　minna　jōzu deshita ga,　Erizabesu-san　ga yūshō

して、一ばん　大きな　トロフィーを　もらいました。その　あとで、エリザベス
shite,　ichiban　ōkina　torofii　o　moraimashita.　Sono　ato de,　Erizabesu-

さんの　アパート_____　パーティーが　ありました。とても　すばらしい　日
san　no　apāto　　pātii　ga　arimashita.　Totemo　subarashii　hi

でした。
deshita.

(Adapted from *Introduction to Japanese Reading Skills,* 1991)

Appendix H

Sentence Construction Task

Below are a series of pictures followed by several words. For each picture, please write a complete sentence <u>in Japanese</u> using all the words given and any other words or grammatical features you judge necessary. Note that you may change the <u>form</u> of a word (see "wear" below).

Example:
John / wear / glasses

John is wearing glasses.

田中さん / でんわ / する
Tanaka-san denwa suru

かぞく / 公園 / あそぶ / 来る
Kazoku kōen asobu kuru

Date du test: _____ Nom: _____

Vous trouverez ci-dessous une série de dessins suivis de plusieurs mots. Pour chaque dessin, veuillez écrire une phrase complète en japonais en utilisant tous les mots fournis et en ajoutant les mots ou caractères que vous jugez nécessaires. Notez que vous pouvez changer la forme d'un mot (voir « portait » ci-dessous).

Exemple:
Jean / porte / lunettes

Jean portait des lunettes.

田中さん / でんわ / する
Tanaka-san denwa suru

かぞく / 公園 / あそぶ / 来る
Kazoku kōen asobu kuru

Name: _____

左側に絵があります。絵のよこにそれぞれ数個のことばがかいてあります。日本語の文章を書いてください。（動詞などの形がかわってもかまいません。ことばは全部つかってください。）

Example:
ジョン / めがね / かける
John megane kakeru
ジョンは めがねを かけている。

田中さん / でんわ / する
Tanaka-san denwa suru

かぞく / 公園 / あそぶ / 来る
Kazoku kōen asobu kuru

はなさん / 「Ste-Catherine」道り/ 行く
Hana-san Ste-Catherine dōri iku

福井さん / 「Ottawa」/ 来る
Fukui-san Ottawa kuru

みんな / ちかてつ / はたらく / 行く
Minna chikatetsu hataraku iku

おねえさん / ジュース / のむ
Onēsan jūsu nomu

はなさん / ふく / かう / 行く
Hana-san fuku kau iku

かぞく / 公園 / 来る。
Kazoku kōen kuru

福井さん / 友だち / あう / 来る
Fukui-san tomodachi au kuru

みんな / 「Montreal」/ 帰る
Minna Montreal kaeru

はなさん / ふく / 買う
Hana-san fuku kau

Appendix I

Grammaticality Judgment Task

Below are a series of pictures followed by five Japanese sentences. Please indicate on the scale next to each sentence how grammatically correct each sentence is.

I'm sure it's wrong	I think it might be wrong	I don't know	I think it might be right	I'm sure it's right
-2	-1	0	+1	+2

Note: Please choose your answer based on whether or not the sentences related to the pictures sound like something a Japanese speaker would say, NOT whether or not one sentence describes the picture better than the others.

Example:

John is wearing glasses. -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)
(This is definitely an English sentence)

John is glasses wearing. (-2) -1 0 +1 +2
(This is definitely not an English sentence)

John is sitting in a classroom. -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)

John is sitting in an office. -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)

(Both sentences are possible in English, and they both describe the picture above: it could be either an office or a classroom)

Date du test: _____ Nom: _____

Vous trouverez ci-dessous une série de dessins suivis de cinq phrases. Veuillez indiquer sur l'échelle à quel point chaque phrase est grammaticalement correcte.

Je suis sûr que la phrase n'est pas bonne	Je pense que la phrase n'est pas bonne	Je ne sais pas	Je pense que la phrase est bonne	Je suis sûr que la phrase est bonne
-2	-1	0	+1	+2

Note: Veuillez choisir votre réponse en fonction du fait que chaque phrase pourrait être considérée ou non comme étant quelque chose qu'une personne parlant japonais pourrait dire, et NON en fonction du fait qu'une phrase pourrait être plus représentative du dessin qu'une autre.

Exemple:

Jean porte des lunettes. -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)
(Ceci est définitivement une phrase correcte en français)

Jean lunettes des porte. (-2) -1 0 +1 +2
(Ceci est définitivement incorrect en français)

Jean est assis dans la classe. -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)

Jean est assis dans le bureau. -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)

(Les deux phrases sont correctes en français, et elles décrivent toutes les deux l'image ci-dessus : ce pourrait être un bureau ou une salle de classe)

Name: _____

次のページに絵とそれを描写した文章が５つあります。それぞれの絵を見ながら絵と文章があっているかどうか下の表を使って評価してください。

たしかにまちがっている	まちがっていると思う	わからない	あっていると思う	たしかにあっている
-2	-1	0	+1	+2

Note: 評価するときは絵を見たとき日本人ならこういうであろうと思って評価してください。ひとつの絵がいくつかの文章をカバーしている場合もあります。

Example:

1) ジョンはめがねをかけています。 -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)
（この表現はたしかに日本語のセンテンスです。）

2) めがねはジョンをかけています。 (-2) -1 0 +1 +2
（この表現は絶対に日本語のセンテンスではありません。）

3) ジョンは教室にいます。 -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)

4) ジョンは図書館言にいます。 -2 -1 0 +1 (+2)

（上記のセンテンス３と４はExampleの描写です。教室の中とも図書館の中とも言えます。）

山田さんの　いえへ　パーティーが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamada-san no ie e pātii ga arimasu.

山田さんの　いえで　えみさんが　います。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamada-san no ie de Emi-san ga imasu.

山田さんの　いえで　パーティーが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamada-san no ie de pātii ga arimasu.

山田さんの　いえに　えみさんが　います。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamada-san no ie ni Emi-san ga imasu.

山田さんの　いえに　パーティーが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamada-san no ie ni pātii ga arimasu.

ジョンは　めがねを　かけます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Jon wa megane o kakemasu.

ジョンは　はなに　めがねを　かけます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Jon wa hana ni megane o kakemasu.

ジョンは　きょうしつで　めがねを　かけます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Jon wa kyōshitsu de megane o kakemasu.

ジョンは　きょうしつに　めがねを　かけます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Jon wa kyōshitsu ni megane o kakemasu.

ジョンは　はなで　めがねを　かけます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Jon wa hana de megane o kakemasu.

今週　みせに　セールが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Konshū mise ni sēru ga arimasu.

今週　みせへ　セールが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Konshū mise e sēru ga arimasu.

今週　みせで　セールが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Konshū mise de sēru ga arimasu.

みせに　やすい　ふくが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Mise ni yasui fuku ga arimasu.

みせで　やすい　ふくが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Mise de yasui fuku ga arimasu.

かぞくは　この公園に　たべます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa kono kōen ni tabemasu.

かぞくは　時々　この公園に　来ます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa tokidoki kono kōen ni kimasu.

かぞくは　この公園へ　たべます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa kono kōen e tabemasu.

かぞくは　時々　この公園へ　来ます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa tokidoki kono kōen e kimasu.

かぞくは　です。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kazoku wa desu.

みんなは　ちかてつに　本を　よんでいる。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa　chikatetsu ni　hon o　yondeiru.

みんなは　ちかてつで　のります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa　chikatetsu de　norimasu.

みんなは　家へ　帰ります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa　ie e　kaerimasu.

みんなは　ちかてつに　のります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa　chikatetsu ni　norimasu.

みんなは　ちかてつで　本を　よんでいる。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa　chikatetsu de　hon o　yondeiru.

はなは　「Ste-Catherine」道りへ　行きます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Hana wa　Ste-Catherine　dōri e　ikimasu.

はなは　ふくに　買います。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Hana wa　fuku ni　kaimasu.

はなは　ふくへ　買います。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Hana wa　fuku e　kaimasu.

はなは　買いものします。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Hana wa　kaimono shimasu.

はなは　「Ste-Catherine」道りに　行きます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Hana wa　Ste-Catherine　dōri ni　ikimasu.

めぐみは　ホテルで　ねています。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Megumi wa　hoteru de　neteimasu.

めぐみは　ホテルで　とまります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Megumi wa　hoteru de　tomarimasu.

めぐみは　ホテルへ　行きます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Megumi wa　hoteru e　ikimasu.

めぐみは　ホテルに　とまります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Megumi wa　hoteru ni　tomarimasu.

めぐみは　ホテルに　ねています。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Megumi wa　hoteru ni　neteimasu.

つくえの　うえで　漢字の　テストが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Tsukue no　ue　de　kanji no　tesuto ga　arimasu.

つくえの　うえに　漢字の　テストが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Tsukue no　ue　ni　kanji no　tesuto ga　arimasu.

きょう　学校に　漢字の　テストが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kyō　gakkō ni　kanji no　tesuto ga　arimasu.

きょう　テストの　漢字が　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kyō　tesuto no　kanji ga　arimasu.

きょう　学校で　漢字の　テストが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Kyō　gakkō de　kanji no　tesuto ga　arimasu.

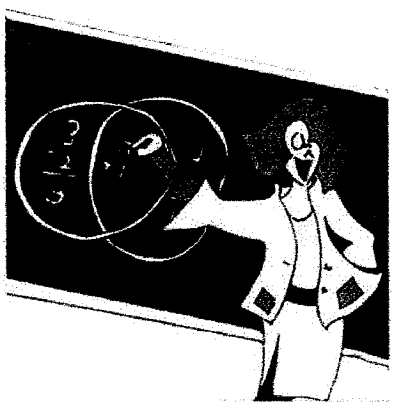
みんなは　ちかてつで　「Montreal」へ　帰ります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa chikatetsu de Montreal e kaerimasu.

みんなは　ちかてつで　帰ります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa chikatetsu de kaerimasu.

みんなは　ちかてつに　はたらきます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa chikatetsu ni hatarakimasu.

みんなは　ちかてつで　「Montreal」に　帰ります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa chikatetsu de Montreal ni kaerimasu.

みんなは　ちかてつへ　はたらきます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Minna wa chikatetsu e hatarakimasu.



山本さんは　中学校に　つとめています。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamamoto-san wa chūgakkō ni tsutometeimasu.

山本さんは　中学校に　はたらきます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamamoto-san wa chūgakkō ni hatarakimasu.

山本さんは　中学校へ　つとめています。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamamoto-san wa chūgakkō e tsutometeimasu.

山本さんは　中学校で　つとめています。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamamoto-san wa chūgakkō de tsutometeimasu.

山本さんは　中学校で　はたらきます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Yamamoto-san wa chūgakkō de hatarakimasu.

レストランの　前に　サクソフォンが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Resutoran no mae ni sakusofon ga arimasu.

「Montreal」で　祭りが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Montreal de matsuri ga arimasu.

レストランの　前で　サクソフォンが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Resutoran no mae de sakusofon ga arimasu.

祭りが　います。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Matsuri ga imasu.

「Montreal」に　祭りが　あります。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Montreal ni matsuri ga arimasu.

福井さんは　「Ottawa」で　あそびます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Fukui-san wa Ottawa de asobimasu.

福井さんは　「Ottawa」へ　あそびます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Fukui-san wa Ottawa e asobimasu.

福井さんは　「Ottawa」に　来ます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Fukui-san wa Ottawa ni kimasu.

福井さんは　「Ottawa」に　あそびます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Fukui-san wa Ottawa ni asobimasu.

福井さんは　「Ottawa」へ　来ます。　-2 -1 0 +1 +2
Fukui-san wa Ottawa e kimasu.

Appendix J

Translation Task

Please translate the following words and indicate next to each one how confident you are that your translation is correct by circling one of the numbers (1 meaning that you are not confident at all, and 5 meaning that you are very confident).

祭り matsuri	_____	1	2	3	4	5
友だち tomodachi	_____	1	2	3	4	5
はたらく hataraku	_____	1	2	3	4	5
つとめる tsutomeru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
とまる tomaru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
ねる neru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
帰る kaeru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
よむ yomu	_____	1	2	3	4	5
のる noru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
めがね megane	_____	1	2	3	4	5
みせ mise	_____	1	2	3	4	5
前 mae	_____	1	2	3	4	5

Veuillez traduire les mots suivants et indiquer à côté de chacun votre degré de certitude que votre traduction est juste en encerclant le chiffre approprié (1 indiquant que vous n'êtes pas du tout certain que votre traduction est juste, et 5 indiquant que vous êtes absolument certain que votre traduction est juste).

祭り matsuri	_____	1	2	3	4	5
友だち tomodachi	_____	1	2	3	4	5
はたらく hataraku	_____	1	2	3	4	5
つとめる tsutomeru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
とまる tomaru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
ねる neru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
帰る kaeru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
よむ yomu	_____	1	2	3	4	5
のる noru	_____	1	2	3	4	5
めがね megane	_____	1	2	3	4	5
みせ mise	_____	1	2	3	4	5
前 mae	_____	1	2	3	4	5