The pragmatics of nominalization in Japanese: the n(o) da construction and participant roles in talk

Nishizumi, Kanako

How to cite:

Use policy

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a link is made to the metadata record in Durham E-Theses
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the full Durham E-Theses policy for further details.
The Pragmatics of Nominalization in Japanese:
The \textit{n(o) da} Construction and Participant Roles in Talk

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author or the university to which it was submitted. No quotation from it, or information derived from it may be published without the prior written consent of the author or university, and any information derived from it should be acknowledged.

by

Kanako Nishizumi

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Department of English Language and Linguistics
University of Durham

2008

0 1 SEP 2008
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis could not have been completed without the help, encouragement and support of many people both in the UK and Japan to whom I wish to express my great appreciation.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Mr. Peter Grundy, my PhD supervisor. I appreciate the warm atmosphere of our meetings. He always listened to me and gave me insightful and invaluable comments and advice on my work. I could not have completed my thesis without his kindness, patience and encouragement. I learnt a lot from his attitude not only about academic things, such as linguistics, pragmatics and teaching language methodology, but also about life and how to be a teacher.

Next, I want to thank all staff members and PhD students of the Linguistics Department. They helped me a lot and always provided me with a good study environment.

I also wish to express my gratitude to all the people who allowed me to record and use their talk and discussion for this thesis and who helped me with the English translation of data. In addition, my sincere thanks to friends in UK, especially at Parsons Field, and to old friends in Japan who supported me throughout.
Finally, special thanks go to my parents, who always provided a relaxing and warm home to come back to and encouraged me to do whatever I want to do.
ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

The Pragmatics of Nominalization in Japanese: The \textit{n(o) da} Construction and Participant Roles in Talk

by

Kanako Nishizumi

This thesis analyses the \textit{n(o) da} construction and its use in Japanese talk. An empirical (rather than a rationalistic) approach to pragmatics is employed alongside a qualitative methodology in order to demonstrate how a speaker's uses of the \textit{n(o) da} construction are related to intention and how they influence the trajectory of talk.

This study proposes that the nominalizer \textit{no} in the \textit{n(o) da} construction is a propositionality-indicating particle used to convey the force 'here is a proposition', effectively reifying propositional content. When a copula (\textit{da, darou}, etc.) follows the nominalizer, it expresses the speaker's attitude or belief-state with regard to the reified status of the proposition.

Two contrasting talk-types were collected for investigation: everyday talk-in-interaction in Japanese and group discussion involving both Japanese and English speaking participants. Based on the everyday talk data, the researcher first demonstrates how the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of the \textit{n(o) da}
construction contribute to talk-in-interaction. In the analysis of the Japanese group
discussion data that follows, she examines the relationship between participant role and
uses of the construction. In order to clarify the characteristic methods of Japanese talk
organization, she discusses the different ways in which Japanese and English
participants accomplish decision-making tasks and the extent to which the different
structural affordances of the two languages enable them to assume comparable
participant roles.

Finally, the researcher considers the implication of this study for cross-cultural
communication and for the teaching of Japanese as a foreign language.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ii
Abstract of the thesis iv
Table of contents vi
List of tables x
List of diagram xi
List of figures xi
Transcription notations xii
Abbreviations xii

Chapter 1 Introduction
1. Forward 1
1.1 What is the n(o) da construction 2
   1.1.1 Structure of the construction 2
   1.1.2 Interpretations of the construction 3
1.2 Why the n(o) da construction is chosen for investigation in this study 4
1.3 Aim of this study 6
1.4 Organization of the study 6

Chapter 2 Previous Studies
2. Introduction 8
2.1 Studies of no 9
   2.1.1 Various uses of no 9
   2.1.2 Ontological entities indicated by no 15
2.2 Nominalizing complementizer no: comparative studies of to, no and koto 17
   2.2.1 Differences between to, no and koto 18
   2.2.2 Differences between no and koto 23
2.3 Studies of the n(o) da construction 30
   2.3.1 Previous studies of the interpretations of the n(o) da expression 31
   2.3.2 Sentences with no + φ and n(o) + da 34
   2.3.3 The n(o) da expression in interrogatives 40
      2.3.3.1 Yes-no questions and the n(o) da expression 41
      2.3.3.2 WH-questions and the n(o) da expression 44
   2.3.4 The functions of no and da in the n(o) da construction 49
2.4 Summary 56
### Chapter 3 N(o)da construction in Everyday Talk-in-Interaction

3. Introduction 59
   Troubles talk: Term assignment 60
   Pragmatic analysis 60
   Sequential analysis 62

3.1 Pragmatic analyses 64
   3.1.1 Extract 1: Lunchtime talk 64
      *No* + zero 65
      *No* + SFP 67
      *N(o)* + copula + SFP 68
      Summary 70
   3.1.2 Extract 2: A problem of translation 71
      Summary 83
   3.1.3 Extract 3: Plumbing problems 84
      Summary 94

3.2 Sequential analyses 95
   3.2.1 Extract 1: Lunchtime talk 95
      Summary 101
   3.2.2 Extract 2: A problem of translation 102
      Summary 110
   3.2.3 Extract 3: Plumbing problems 111
      Summary 120

3.3 Summary 120

### Chapter 4 Methodology

4. Introduction 126
4.1 Rationalistic and empirical pragmatics 127
4.2 Doing qualitative research 128
4.3 Data collection 131
   4.3.1 Talk type selection 131
   4.3.2 Participants 134
   4.3.3 Recording techniques 136
   4.3.4 Transcription conventions 137
      4.3.4.1 Representation of Japanese data in English 138
      4.3.4.2 Transcription notation 140
4.4 Data analysis 144
   4.4.1 Data analysis procedure 144
### 4.4.2 Extracts for analysis
4.4.3 Tabulating varieties of the $n(o)\ da$ construction
4.4.4 Distinctive features
4.4.5 Raters

## 4.5 Summary

### Chapter 5 Tabulation
5. Introduction
5.1 Tables
5.2 Conclusion

### Chapter 6 Japanese group discussion data analysis:
Participant roles and the $n(o)\ da$ construction
6. Introduction
6.1 Participant role and footing
   6.1.1 ‘Team roles at work’
   6.1.2 ‘Footing’
6.2 Japanese group discussion data analysis
   6.2.1 Participant roles and the $n(o)\ da$ construction
   6.2.2 Participant roles and construction preferences
      6.2.2.1 Active utterances
      6.2.2.2 Reactive utterances
      6.2.2.3 Examples
   6.2.3 Psychological motivation and the emergent properties of meaning in interaction
6.3 Conclusion

### Chapter 7 English group discussion data analysis
7. Introduction
7.1 Data analysis
7.2 Talk content and management categories
7.3 English group discussion data
7.4 Utterance allocation to talk content and management categories
   7.4.1 Problematic interpretation of categories
      7.4.1.1 Determining talk content category
      7.4.1.2 Determining talk content and management categories
      7.4.1.3 Determining the allocation of the same item used in different ways
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.4.1.4 The development of a theme over several turns</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4.2 Cases submitted to raters</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Task clarification</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) The Queen's power</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Prompted proposals</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Freedonian government</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) The necessity of a Parliament</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5 The characteristics of discussion in English</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6 Participant roles</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.7 Conclusion</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 8 Cross-cultural communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Introduction</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1 Framework: Power distance, collectivism and individualism</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2 Japanese and English talk organization</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3 Conclusion</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 9 Conclusions and implications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Introduction</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.1 Summary of the present study</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2 Distinctiveness of the present study from earlier studies</td>
<td>327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.3 Implications in relation to the broader issues and further directions</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 1 Japanese naturally-occurring conversational data</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 2 Decision-making task</td>
<td>345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 3 Group discussion data</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 4 Classification of the team roles</td>
<td>359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix 5 Handouts for raters</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tables</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Variations of the <em>n(o) da</em> expression</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Structures with the <em>n(o) da</em> construction</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Related structures without a nominalizer</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 A system of basic and derived categories</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Production roles</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Reception roles</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 Numbers of active utterances with/without the <em>n(o) da</em> construction</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5 Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of [+R],+[C]]</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6 Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of [+R],-[C]]</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7 Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of [-R],+[C]]</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.8 Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of [-R],-[C]]</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9 Active utterances</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.10 Numbers of reactive utterances each speaker provides</td>
<td>226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.11 Numbers of reactions each speaker receives</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.12 Breakdown lists of Tables 6.10 and 6.11</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.12.1 Lexical reactive utterances produced by and directed at each speaker</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.12.2 Non-lexical reactive utterances produced by and directed at each speaker</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1 Raters’ judgement and the researcher’s final decision</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2 Trajectory of English discussion</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF DIAGRAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagram</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1 Active and reactive utterances</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1 Proportion of speakers’ utterances with/without the (n(o)) da construction</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Pie charts showing the proportion of categories for each speaker</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Pie charts showing the proportion of speakers for each category</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 Pie charts showing the proportion of reactions provided by each speaker</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5 Pie charts showing the proportion of reactions directed at each speaker</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1 English discussion data No.3 and phases</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TRANSCRIPTION NOTATIONS

speech overlap
// scope of the nominalizer n(o)
.. quieter than the surrounding talk
(0.0) pauses or gaps in what is very approximately tenths of seconds
(.) micro pause
.. interruption
. falling intonation contour and end of turn
? rising intonation contour (question)
, maintained ('continuing') intonation contour
! animated tone
:: lengthened syllables
- sharp cut-off of the prior word or sound
== latching utterances with no gap
.hh in-breath
.hh out-breath
CAPS emphatic stress
underline utterance with laughter
< > non-linguistic feature: repair and laughter

ABBREVIATIONS

Com complementizer
Cop copula
Dim diminutive form
FP final particle
Gen genitive case-marker
IP interjectional particle
LK linking word
Neg negative
Nom nominalizer
O object marker
Ono onomatopoeia
Per Perfect
Pre present
PT presupposition trigger
Q question marker
QT quotation
S subject marker
T topic marker
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1. Forward

A number of issues in Japanese linguistics have been extensively investigated over several decades. One notable focus of investigation in this field is nominalization, and in particular the occurrence of the nominalizer no followed immediately by the copula da, the so-called 'n(o) da construction'. The present study examines the meaning and function of this construction as used in talk-in-interaction. This introductory chapter is divided into four principal sub-sections:

(1) What is the n(o) da construction?

(2) Why the n(o) da construction is chosen for investigation in this study?

(3) What does the present study aim to achieve?

(4) Organization of the study
1.1 What is the $n(o)$ da construction?

1.1.1 Structure of the construction

The Japanese language commonly uses nominalization, the process of changing a clause into a noun (or nominal clause) by using nominalizers such as koto (thing, affair, event), mono (thing, object, person) and no. A similar grammatical process is available in English: that-clauses, infinitives and gerunds are all examples of nominalization strategies used in English. However, Japanese affords a possibility not found in English: the use of the nominalizer no followed by a copula, as in the following example:

(1) Kino computer o katta.  
    yesterday computer O buy-Past  
    ‘I bought a computer yesterday.’

(2) Kino computer o katta $n(o)$ da.  
    yesterday computer O buy-Past Nom Cop  
    ‘I bought a computer yesterday.’

A more literal translation of (2) into English makes use of explanation: ‘it is that I bought a computer yesterday’, which has become the most generally accepted word-for-word translation in Japanese linguistics. However, in Japanese language textbooks and novels (2) is normally translated into English as ‘I bought a computer yesterday’, which shares the same form as (1) and therefore fails to convey the subtle difference in meaning found in Japanese.
1.1.2 Interpretations of the construction

As we have seen when an utterance with *no* or *n(o) da* is translated into English, the meaning of the nominalizer is not usually recognised. On the other hand, when the utterance 'I bought a computer yesterday' is translated into Japanese, the *n(o) da* construction is added to the translation in some cases, and not in other cases, depending on the context in which the utterance occurs. Many linguists have attempted interpretations of the contexts in which the *n(o) da* construction occurs. A representative explanation is offered by Makino and Tsutsui:

*N(o) da* is a sentence ending which indicates that the speaker is explaining or asking for an explanation about some information shared with the hearer, or is talking about something emotively, as if it were of common interest to the speaker and the hearer (1986: 325).

The following examples taken from Japanese language textbooks provide typical examples:

(3) Explanation

A: Lee-san wa kyo yasumi desu ka.
    Lee Mr T today absent Cop-polite Q
B: Ee, kaze na n desu.
    yes cold Cop Nom Cop-polite

A: 'Is Lee absent today?'
B: 'Yes, he has a cold. (lit) It's just that he's got a cold.'

*Japanese for College Students Vol. 1* (p.178)
(4) Asking for information

A: Omoshiroi design no kutsu desu ne. Doko de katta \textit{n desu} ka.
   interesting design of shoes Cop FP where at buy-Past Nom Cop Q

A: 'The design of the shoes is nice. Where did you get them?'

\textit{Minna no Nihon-go Vol. 2} (p.2)

(5) Expressing surprise:

A reacts to the news that an old lady and a much younger man are getting married

A: Kekkon-suru \textit{n desu} ka!?
   get-married Nom Cop Q

A: 'Are they going to marry!?'

\textit{Situational Functional Japanese Vol. 1} (p.159)

Although Makino and Tsutsui's explanation provides useful background perspective and example dialogues such as (3)-(5) help JFL (Japanese as a Foreign Language) learners to familiarize themselves with the various situations in which Japanese speakers use this construction, it is clear that the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of this construction require detailed study for readers discussed in the following section.

1.2 Why the \textit{n(o) da} construction is chosen for investigation in this study

It is well known that JFL learners find it difficult to understand when and how the \textit{n(o) da} construction is used. For example, some years ago, a JFL learner came to the researcher's office to ask some questions. On entering, he said:

(6) Sensei, ima isogashii \textit{n desu} ka.
   teacher now busy Nom Cop-polite Q

'Teacher, are you busy now?'

4
It seems that he was trying to express his recognition of the pressure his teacher was under, and thus used *n desu*. However Japanese speakers never use the construction in this situation, but instead say:

(7) Sensei, ima isogashii desu ka.
    teacher now busy  Cop  Q
    'Teacher, are you busy now?'

The researcher was surprised that her student was not able to use the *n(o) da* construction expectably, as his Japanese was at a very advanced level. At the same time, she wondered how best to explain the difference between (6) and (7) and why (7) is more suitable for the context. So, as we see, it is also difficult for JFL teachers to explain how to use the *n(o) da* construction effectively in both writing and speaking. The researcher, herself an instructor of JFL, thinks that the reason is that textbooks mainly introduce the construction in association with situations, as shown in the previous section. This and similar experiences led her to develop an interest in the construction and ultimately to investigate it in this thesis.

In addition to such experiences, there are a number of other reasons why the *n(o) da* construction is examined in the present study. Firstly, the occurrence of the construction in conversation is very frequent, so much so that it is impossible to hold a conversation without it. Secondly, although a number of researchers have focused on and
investigated the construction, many unclear points about its use remain, as both learners and teachers of JFL know only too well. Thirdly, as far as the researcher knows, there is no study which has investigated the construction from a cross-cultural perspective. This study therefore also explains the extent to which English attends the possibility of expressing the same meaning.

1.3 Aim of this study

The present study has three principal objectives. The first is to investigate how the \textit{n(o) da} construction is used and its affect on the trajectory of conversation. The second is to clarify the relationship between participant roles and the \textit{n(o) da} construction. And the third is to consider the cross-cultural issue discussed above.

1.4 Organization of the study

In this chapter, I have introduced the phenomenon under investigation and stated the aim of the study. Chapter 2 presents an overview of the existing studies of the \textit{n(o) da} construction. Chapter 3 analyses several examples of naturally occurring Japanese talk-in-interaction and investigates how the \textit{n(o) da} construction functions in such talk.
Chapter 4 discusses the methodological issues and Chapter 5, then, tabulates all the combinations of nominalizers, copulas and sentence final particles\(^1\) (henceforth SFPs) revealed in the data discussed in Chapter 3. Using the framework established in Chapter 5, Chapters 6 and 7 analyse Japanese and English group discussion data arising from a decision-making task. In Chapter 8, we consider the possible cross-cultural implications of this study and in Chapter 9 directions for further research are suggested.

---

\(^1\) Particles used sentence/turn-finally are called ‘Shujoshi’ in Japanese. The literal translation is ‘Final Particles’ although most linguists writing in English refer to them as ‘Sentence Final Particles’. In the text of the thesis I follow the English convention and use ‘SFP’; in categorizing data, I use FP not only because ‘final particles’ do not always occur sentence-finally, but also out of respect for my Japanese speaking participants.
CHAPTER 2

Previous Studies

2. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to consider previous studies of the n(o) da construction, to clarify the function of no in the n(o) da construction and to evaluate various interpretations of the n(o) da expression in conversation. Although in the field of Japanese linguistics there are many studies which discuss n(o) da, much still remains to be done. Japanese people use the n(o) da construction very often in both speaking and writing. Most linguists have focused on its use in written Japanese. However in this paper, I will focus on its use in the spoken language and consider what n(o) da utterances convey to the addressee and how the use of n(o) da affects the trajectory of conversation.

First I will discuss the historical evolution of the various functions of no (2.1) and then discuss no alongside other complementizers (2.2) before moving on to a discussion of n(o) da (2.3). The reason for treating no and da separately, at least to begin with, is that they each seem to have a syntactic function at the sentence level although at the discourse
level they function together with an identifiable pragmatic function. Many linguists would accept that *no* in modern Japanese has several functions and that it is possible to trace the diachronic development of these various functions. Therefore it is worth while examining not only the *n(o) da* construction but also the various uses of *no* in order to understand how the *n(o) da* construction evolved. Firstly, therefore, I will look at the various uses of *no* so as to clarify the meaning and function of the particle from a historical perspective. Secondly, I will discuss *no* from the perspective of ontology, presupposition and factivity in order to elaborate its function as a nominalizer. And finally, I will focus on previous studies of the *n(o) da* construction as a whole.

2.1 Studies of *no*

2.1.1 Various uses of *no*

In modern Japanese, there are various functions of the particle *no*, including its use as a case marker, a pronoun, a complementizer and a nominalizer. In Japanese linguistics, there is fairly general agreement that there is a historical development of these four functions of *no*, chronologically arranged from genitive case-marker, post-nominal pronoun, post-predicate pronoun, and sentential nominalizer, although some linguists,

---

1 I use the word 'post-nominal pronoun' in the sense that a noun precedes a pronoun *no*, and the term 'post-predicate pronoun' in the sense that a predicate precedes a pronoun *no*. 

---
for example Tonoike (1990), support the theory that all *no* functions are as a complementizer. I concur with the former theory that there is a chronological development. Kinsui (1994, 1995), for example, argues the question from the historical view and states that each use of *no* developed separately but that the resulting distinct functions have some relationship with each other, an argument which will be discussed in detail later. In addition, Horie (1998) states that it appears that genitive *no* and sentential nominalizer *no* represent distinct functions, but if the two pronominal functions are taken into account, post-nominal and post-predicate pronoun chronologically serve as links between these apparently distinct functions. He represents the relation between each *no* as one of "family resemblance". These arguments are very persuasive.

Now let us examine each use of *no* in detail. Most of the following examples in this section are cited from Kinsui’s (1994, 1995) papers and illustrate the chronological development of *no* from genitive case-marker to nominalizer.

*No* in (1) and (2) is a genitive case marker. *No* in (1) marks a possessive case and in (2) *Tanaka no* (Tanaka’s) seems to be regarded as an argument of a head noun *tenkin* (transfer).

(1) *Tanaka no hon*
   *Tanaka of book*
   'Tanaka’s book'
(2) Tanaka no tenkin
Tanaka of transfer
‘Tanaka’s transfer’

No in (3) also shows the relation between a head noun hakai (destruction) and its argument toshi (city).

(3) Toshi no hakai
city of destruction
‘the destruction of the city / the city’s destruction’

This noun phrase toshi no hakai can be translated as ‘the destruction of the city’ or ‘the city’s destruction’ with the passive meaning ‘the city was destroyed’.

No in (4) is interchangeable with ga. This phenomenon is widely referred to as Ga/No Conversion.

(4) Tanaka no/ga motteiru hon
Tanaka S holding book
‘the book which Tanaka is holding’

When a relative clause contains a NP followed by the genitive case marker no, the case marker can be replaced by the nominative case marker ga without apparent difference in meaning. There seems to be an evident relationship between no in (1) and in (4) in that both are case markers used as adnominal elements. However, I am not going to deal with the Japanese relative clause structure in this paper, although it is interesting to note that there are no words in Japanese equivalent to the English relative pronouns WHO and WHICH (Tsujimura 1996).
No in (5a) functions as a nominal predicate and dearu in (5b) functions as a predicate in the relative clause. Both (5a) and (5b) have the same kind of meaning as a relative clause.

(5a) Oya ga isha no gakusei
    parent S doctor of student

(5b) Oya ga isha dearu gakusei
    parent S doctor Cop student
    'a student whose parent is a doctor'

Again, the use of no in (1) and (5a) are both adnominal.

There are also two pronominal uses of no as shown in (6), (7)\(^2\) and (8) below. No in (6) and (7) can be translated as pronominal ‘one’ in English. (6) and (7) are examples of a post-predicate pronoun and (8) is of a post-nominal pronoun. On the other hand, no in (8a) is not equivalent to ‘one’ and is rendered as ‘s’ in English.

(6) Ookii no (= Ookii pan) o kudasai.
    large one bread O give
    'Please give me large one.'

(7) Kinoo katta no wa musume no tebukuro da.
    Yesterday buy-Past one T daughter of glove Cop
    'The one I bought yesterday is a my daughter’s glove.'

(8a) Kono hon wa John no da.
    this book T of Cop
    'This book is John’s.'

As for (7), post-predicate use of no is associated with the gap (\(\varphi\)) or trace present in the immediately preceding clause (i.e. \([\text{Kinoo } \varphi \text{ katta}]\)), and is considered with tebukuro

\(^2\) Example (7) is original and not cited in Kinsui.
(glove). As for (8a), Okutsu (1974) states that the sequence of case marker *no* and pronominal *no* was shortened to a single *no*, in other words, one was dropped:

\[ (*8b) \text{Kono hon wa John no no da.} \rightarrow \text{Kono hon wa John no da.} \]

Horie also points out that the pronominal use of *no* in (8a) is clearly elliptical in a similar way to that of English pronominal genitive enclitic ‘s’ i.e. the pronominal element is elliptical. Many commentators agree with Okutsu and Horie here. However, this argument is counter-intuitive for two reasons. First of all, the case marker pre-exists the pronoun and therefore one might expect the case marker to be elliptical, a view confirmed intuitively by native speakers for whom *no* seems to represent a pronoun.

In (9), the clause *pan no ookii no* is regarded as a left-headed relative clause.

\[ (9) \text{Pan no ookii no o katte-kita.} \]

bread of big one buy-come-Past

‘I bought the big type of bread.’

There seems continuity between (6), (7), (8) and (9) in terms of the developing pronominal function of *no*.

In (10), the clause *ringo ga sara no ue ni-aru* is an internally-headed relative clause. *No* after the clause (i.e. the second *no*) can be translated as ‘one’ with *ringo* (apple) as its antecedent. That is to say, this is a post-predicate pronominal use of *no*. 
(10) Ringo ga sara no ue ni-aru no o totta.
    apple S plate ARG on there-is one O take-Past
    'I took the apple which was on the plate.'

The use of *no* in (11) is as a complementizer. At the same time, it is regarded as a
nominalizer because the sentence *Tanaka ga kaetta* is regarded as a nominal complement
(cf. ‘Tanaka’s having gone back’ in English).

(11) Tanaka ga kaetta no wa akiraka da.
    S go back-Past Nom T obvious Cop
    'That Tanaka went back is obvious.'

I will use the term “nominalizing complementizer” to refer to the complementizer which
renders the complement nominal.

(12) is a cleft sentence. This *no* is called the *juntai* particle. *Kaettekita* (returned)
is nominalized and focused, that is, a topic has been created. What is presupposed is that
someone returned and what is asserted is that it is Tanaka.

(12) Kaettekita no wa Tanaka da.
    return-Past Nom T Tanaka Cop
    'The person who returned was Tanaka.'

There seems another continuity here between (6), (9), (10), (11) and (12) in terms of a
complemental structure.

(13) is the so-called *no da* structure.

---

3 Hashimoto (1934) defines the *juntai* particle as a particle which has the same function as a noun or a
pronoun. We might say it functions like a complementizer.
Some Japanese linguists regard this *no* as a nominalizer, but others as a complementizer. I agree with the former in thinking that this *no* is a nominalizer for reasons that will be made clear later. Kinsui supposes that the origin of the *n(o) da* construction follows its use as a *juntai* particle as in (12).

Thus, the particle *no* has a wide range of functions in modern Japanese; as a genitive and possessive case marker, a nominal predicate, a pronoun, a complementizer and a sentential nominalizer. These functions have a close relation historically. What has to be noticed is that they constitute a continuum of syntactic functions whereby the function of *no* shifts from the marking of a phrase-internal dependent noun or noun phrase (genitive) via the marking of a phrase-external head or a clause-external head (pronoun) to the clause-external marking of a complement clause (sentential nominalizer). We might say that *no* functions to link two arguments and to 'nominalize' a sentence. Because of these syntactic functions, *no* has little salient or specific meaning in its own right.

2.1.2 Ontological entities indicated by *no*

In this section, the function of *no* will be examined from the perspective of
ontology. Horie (1998) cites Lyons’s ontological perspective and applies it to the case of
no. As we have seen in the previous section, the particle no has a range of functions.
However Horie tries to divide them into two major functions, case-marking and sentential
nominalizing. Whilst his discussion focuses on no as a genitive marker, a pronoun and a
sentential nominalizer, he intends the first function to include the occurrence of no as a
case marker, a nominal predicate, and a pronoun and the second function to be that of a
complementing nominalizer.

According to Lyons, there are three levels of progressively complex and abstract
ontological entity from the most concrete level to the most abstract one, as shown below:

First-order entities: persons, animals and things
Second-order entities: events, processes, states-of-affairs
Third-order entities: propositions (based on Lyons 1977: 443)

According to Lyons, first-order entities are linguistically encoded by simple nouns and
noun phrases, whereas second and third-order entities are linguistically encoded “by
means of phrases formed by the process of nominalization” (ibid: 445). Horie points out
that a genitive marker no characterizes a relationship between two first-order entities,
typically between a person and a thing, pronominal no represents first-order entities
locatable elsewhere in the discourse, and the sentential nominalizer no can indicate
reference to both second-order and third-order entities. In the previous section, we
charted a continuum of developing syntactic functions in the use of the particle no. We are now in a position to say that the continuum corresponds to the continuum of ontological complexity from first-order entities to second-order entities to third-order entities. Horie discusses no rather than the n(o) da construction. But if the preceding structure nominalized by n(o) indicates either a second or a third-order entity, i.e. an event or a proposition, the addition of the copula da seems to assert not eventhood, which is asserted by regular sentences without any nominalizer, but propositionality, a topic to which we return later.

2.2 Nominalizing complementizer no: comparative studies of to, no and koto

In this section, we will concentrate on no as a sentential nominalizer, i.e. a nominalizing complementizer, and examine its functions from the perspective of factivity. The reason why the nominalizing complementizer no is especially focused on is that no in the n(o) da construction seems to have the same function as when it occurs without the copula, as mentioned in the previous section. That is, the nominalizing complementizer no confers ontology on events and propositions and in the process changes an event to the state described in the nominalized clause. To clarify the nature of the no, in Japanese linguistics, the other major complementizers, to and koto, are also discussed. Although
the functions of to and koto are often compared to that of no, there are in fact a number of significant differences between them. Firstly, we will discuss the differences in meaning and function between to, no and koto, and then consider the differences between no and koto.

2.2.1 Differences between to, no and koto

In order to clarify the function of no, a useful comparison can be made between to, no and koto. In the following examples (13), (14), and (15), it is clear that to, no and koto act as complementizers to the clause Mariko ga paathi e iku (Mariko goes to a party).

However there is a difference in function between them. According to Kojien, the definitive Japanese language dictionary, to functions as a quotation marker whilst no and koto function as nominalizers with the complement clause treated as a noun phrase within each sentence. That is why the object marker o is not needed after to but is obligatory after no and koto.

(13) Taro wa Mariko ga paathi e iku to itta.
Taro T S party to go-Present Com say-Past
'Taro said that Mariko would go to the party.'

(14) Taro wa Mariko ga paathi e iku no o mita.
Taro T S party to go-Present Nom O see-Past
'Taro saw that Mariko was going to the party.'

(15) Taro wa Mariko ga paathi e iku koto o tsutaeta.
Taro T S party to go-Present Nom O report-Past
'Taro reported that Mariko would go to the party.'
We should notice that the English glosses represent the tense of *iku* (go) differently although the same form is used in each sentence.

The environments in which the uses of *no* and of *koto* occur are very similar. However, *koto* has no other as a case marker or a pronoun and is not regarded as a particle but rather as a noun which can be used as a nominalizing complementizer. Many studies discuss the differences between *no* and *koto*. These review cases where *koto* is used as a nominalizing complementizer and is interchangeable with *no* without apparent difference in meaning, cases where either *no* or *koto* may be used with perceptible differences in meaning and cases where one may not be substituted for the other. Some of these studies will be considered in section 2.2.2.

We shall now look more carefully into the differences between *to* on one hand and *no* and *koto* on the other. According to Kuno, there is a clear-cut distinction between *koto* and *no* clauses which represent an action, state, or event that the speaker presupposes to be true, and *to* clauses which represent an action, state, or event that does not have such a presupposition (1973: 213). In the following examples, the content of the clause is the same *Mary ga kaetta* (Mary had left). In (17) and (18) the proposition 'Mary had left' is presupposed, whereas in (16) there is no such presupposition.

(16) John wa Mary ga kaetta to omotta.
    T   S leave-Past Com think-Past
    'John thought that Mary had left.'
We might say that *to* has a non-presuppositional nature and *no* and *koto* have a presuppositional nature. However, Kuno admits that there are some cases where *no* and *koto* are used and where there does not seem to be any presupposition involved. We will consider these cases in the next section.

In another study of the differences between *to*, *no* and *koto*, Suzuki (2000) draws on the theory of Frajzyngier and Jasperson (1991), and shows in detail the differences between *to*, *no* and *koto* as complementizers. Frajzyngier and Jasperson propose a tripartite distinction of complementizers in English and state that the complementizer *that* marks the complement clause as belonging to the domain of speech (*de dicto*) whereas gerundive and infinitive clauses belong to the domain of reality (*de re*) (Suzuki 2000: 1588). The *de dicto* domain is defined as referring to “a semantic domain in which reference is made to the elements of speech” (Frajzyngier and Jasperson 1991: 135). On the other hand, the *de re* domain refers to elements of reality (Suzuki 2000). At first, Suzuki discusses the similarity of *no* and *koto* in relation to *to* and then focuses on the difference between *no* and *koto*, and finally argues that *to* is used for complement clauses that belong to the domain of speech, and *no* and *koto* for complement clauses that belong
to the domain of reality. She draws this conclusion because *to* is the most common complementizer used with verbs of saying and thinking, whereas *no* and *koto* are often used with predicates which express reaction to an event or situation which is considered to be real. As for *to*, recall our earlier example (13), where *to* is used with the verb *itta* (said). This predicate can be replaced with *omotta* (thought) as shown below in (13').

(13') Taro wa Mariko ga paathi e iku to itta/omotta.
Taro T Mariko S party to go-Present Com say-Past/think-Past
'Taro said/thought that Mariko would go to the party.'

Examples (19) and (20) are typical *de re* uses:

(19) Kare ga shiken ni-gookaku-shita no ni wa honto-ni odoroita.
he S exam pass-Past Com by T really be-surprised-Past
'I was really surprised that he passed the exam.'

(20) Shiken ni-gookaku-shita koto ga sugoku ureshii.
exam pass-Past Com S very happy
'I am very happy to pass the exam.'

Even though the information expressed in the complement is same and the same predicate *mita* (saw) is used in both the following examples, (21), where *to* is the complementizer, is used when the speaker intends the proposition contained in the complement clause to be understood as a speaker inference, whereas in (22) the *no*-marked complement clause is used when the speaker intends to represent an actual incident.
Suzuki cites Givon (1980), who compares different complement types of English predicates which denote cognition, such as those below.

(23) a. He knew of her coming.  
    b. He knew that she came.

(24) a. He thought of her coming.  
    b. He thought that she came.

He notes that the (a) sentences tend to express stronger certainty on the speaker’s part than the (b) sentences. The more nominal-like the complement type, the more certain the speaker is about the factivity of the proposition expressed in the complement. This generalization applies to Japanese complement types as well. The complementizers, *koto* and *no*, are used when the speaker is more confident that the proposition represented in the complement clause refers to a real or potentially real\(^4\) situation and are regarded as nominalizers, while *to*, which does not transform the complement into a nominal structure, is used when the proposition in the complement is based on speaker inference or is treated as doubtful.

2.2.2 Differences between *no* and *koto*

Having observed the differences between *to* on the one hand and *no* and *koto* on the other, we can now go on to consider the differences between *no* and *koto*. Kuno (1973: 221) suggests that an embedded clause with *no* represents ‘a concrete action, event, or state directly perceived by any of the five (or six) senses’; on the other hand, an embedded clause with *koto* represents ‘a more abstract concept’. He focuses on the verbs in the matrix sentence and analyses what kinds of verbs favour *no* and what kinds of verbs favour *koto* in the embedded clause. They may be classified in four main groups.

i) Verbs of PERCEPTION:

They can take only *no* clauses. In (25) the person ‘actually saw’ John hitting Mary, rather than hearing about it from someone else. Therefore *no* is favoured and *koto* is impossible. In (25’), *no* is preferred for the same reason. Indeed *koto* is also acceptable here, but if *koto* is used, the sentence has the meaning ‘I have heard (from someone) that John plays the piano’.

(25) Watashi wa John ga Mary o butsu {no/*koto} o mita.
I T S O hit O see-Past
'I saw John hitting Mary.'

(25’) Watashi wa John ga piano o hiku {no/koto} o kiita.
I T S piano O play O hear-Past
(no) ‘I heard John playing the piano.’
(koto) ‘I have heard that John plays the piano.’
ii) Verbs of ORDERING:

They can take only *koto* clauses. Kuno (1973) asserts that *no* cannot be used for ordering verbs because actions which are ordered cannot yet be perceived by any of the five senses. The following serves as an example:

(26) Watashi wa John ni hataraku {koto/*no} o meizita.
    I T to work O order-Past
    ‘I ordered John to work.’

iii) Verbs of EXPECTING:

It is preferable to use *koto* with the verbs of expecting, but *no* is also acceptable. There seems to be some subtle difference in meaning. For example, it seems to be the case that (27’) represents a stronger conviction on the part of the subject that John would come.

(27) Mary wa John ga kuru koto o kitai-shiteita.
    T S come O was expecting
    ‘Mary was expecting that John would come.’
    (= expecting John to come)

(27’) Mary wa John ga kuru no o kitai-shiteita.
    T S come O was expecting
    ‘Mary was expecting that John would come.’
    (= expecting John’s arrival)

iv) Verbs of WAITING:

They ordinarily co-occur with *no*, but they can co-occur with *koto* when the clause represents a general or abstract concept.
Kudo (1985) also focuses on the verbs in the matrix sentence. She classifies verbs into seven groups.

**Verbs used with no**

1. verbs of perception:
   - miru (see), mieru (can see), kiku (listen), kikoeru (hear) etc.
2. verbs of movement:
   - matsu (wait), tetsudau/tasukeru (help), au (meet), naosu (repair), okureru (delay), tomaru (stop) etc.

**Verbs used with koto**

3. verbs of thought:
   - omoulkangaeru (think), rikai-suru/satoru (understand), shinjiru (believe), utagau (doubt) etc.
4. verbs of communication:
   - iu (say), hanasu (talk), kiku (listen), kaku (write), yomu (read), shiraseru (let one know), tsutaeru (communicate) etc.
5. verbs of volition:
   - meijiru (order), kinjiru (forbid), yurusu (allow), nozomu (hope), kimeru (decide), yakusoku-suru (promise) etc.

**Verbs used with no and koto**

6. verbs of cognition:
   - hakken-suru (invent), kanjiru (feel), shiru (get to know), wakaru (know), oboeru (memorize), omoidasu (remember) etc.
7. verbs of attitude:
   - yorokobu (be delighted), kanashimu (feel sad), odoroku (be surprised), kitai-suru (expect), sansei-sum (agree), akirameru (give up) etc.

In addition, she lists some exceptions where verbs which normally co-occur with no
sometimes co-occur with *koto* and vice versa\(^5\). As well as verbs used in the matrix sentence we also need to consider those used in embedded clauses.

We have observed that *no* is used as the complementizer for sentences conveying propositions which are concrete actions, states, or events directly perceived by any of five (or six) senses, while *koto* is used as the complementizer for sentences conveying propositions which are more abstract concepts. If we look at matrix sentence predicates from the perspective of factivity, it appears that *koto* clauses are less factive than *no* clauses. Kiparsky and Kiparsky (1971) classify predicates into two groups; factive and non-factive. They state that only factive predicates allow the full range of gerundive constructions to stand in place of the *that*-clause (ibid. 346). For example, the expressions

- His being found guilty
- John's having died of cancer last week
- Their suddenly insisting on very detailed reports

can be subjects of factive predicates such as *is tragic*, *makes sense*, *suffices*, but not of non-factive predicates such as *is likely*, *seems*, *turns out*. They also show that gerunds can be objects of factive predicates but not of non-factive predicates (347):

---

Factive: Everyone ignored Joan’s being completely drunk.
I regret having agreed to the proposal.
I don’t mind your saying so.

Non-factive: *Everyone supposed Joan’s being completely drunk.
*I believe having agreed to the proposal.
*I maintain your saying so.

(Kiparsky and Kiparsky 1971)

Kiparsky and Kiparsky’s (1971) work is useful for understanding the Japanese nominalizers *no* and *koto*. Thus the nominalizer *no* is used where the meaning of the clause is gerundive and is associated with more factive predicates and *koto* with less factive predicates.

At this point, it is appropriate to return to the two domains, *de dicto* and *de re* as invoked by Frajzyngier and Jasperson (1991) and discussed in 2.2.1. Frajzyngier and Jasperson divide *de re* utterances into two further domains: those that refer to potentiality and those that refer to actuality. This division is based on the semantic contrast between *for-to* and *-ing* complements observed in Bolinger (1968). He says that the sentence with the infinitive ‘I like him to be nice to you’ is used where one’s wish that someone *will* be nice is expressed while the sentence with the gerund ‘I like his being nice to you’ is used where someone’s *actual* behaviour is referred to (1968: 123). In his 1974 paper, Bolinger discusses another type of semantic contrast: conceptual vs. perceptual. Concept is defined as referring to “our hold on facts, and includes knowing, believing, proving, judging, […] and similar meanings” while percept is defined as referring to “our laying hold of sense
data, and includes seeing, hearing, observing, perceiving, and the like" (Bolinger 1974: 65). Potentiality is therefore associated with concepts and actuality with percepts.

Suzuki (2000) uses Frajzyngier and Jasperson's theory to argue that koto-marked complements encode potentiality and concept, so that koto complements are characterized as [-actual], whereas no-marked complements encode actuality and percept, so that no is characterized as [+actual]. To support this, she refers to the work of Josephs (1976), Kudo (1985) and Hashimoto (1990). Josephs and Kudo point out that koto occurs with predicates which refer to future events or situations. To take an example:

(30) Rainen igirisu ni ryugaku-suru koto/*no ni-shimashita.
next-year England to studying-abroad Com decide-Past
'I decided to go to England to study next year.'

Hashimoto notes that koto occurs with predicates whose complements refer to matters that are still to be realized, including thoughts, notions, or plans. For example, he lists predicates such as omoitsuku (hit upon (a plan)), keikakusuru (plan), sengensuru (declare), hajimeru (begin), as well as predicates which express future events or situations. The following serves as an example:

(31) Kono fuyu, suki e iku koto o keikaku-shiteiru.
this winter ski to go Com O plan-PRESENT
'(I am) planning to go skiing this winter.'

On the other hand, no occurs with verbs of sense perception (e.g., miru (see), kiku (hear)),
of discovery (e.g., *mitsukeru* (find), *tsukamaeru* (catch)), of helping (e.g., *tasukeru* (help), *tetsudau* (assist/help)), and of stopping (e.g., *tomeru* (stop), *seishisuru* (stop)) (Josephs 1976 etc). The following serves as an example:

(32) Haha ga heya o sooji-suru no o tetsudatta.

mother S room o clean Com o assist/help-Past
‘I helped my mother to clean the room.’

Moreover, Suzuki cites Horie’s arguments (1991a, 1991b) to support the claim that *koto* represents [−actual] and *no* [+actual]. As Horie argues, the choice between *koto* and *no* seems to be motivated by the original lexical meanings of the complementizers (Suzuki 2000: 1595). *Koto* when used as an individual noun refers to abstract entities as we have seen before. As for *no*, Horie (1991b) notes that in Classical Japanese the morpheme was a pronoun replacing concrete entities as shown in the following usage.

(33) Sendo sochira e wataita no wa nanto shita zo.

a-while-ago that-place to gave one-Pronoun T how did FP
‘As for the one (which) I gave you a while ago, what has become of it?’
[no replacing a previous occurring *shiromono* ‘an article’]
(Yanagida, 1985: 147)

Thus, the complementizers *no* and *koto* are quite similar in use and both seem to belong to the same domain; the domain of reality (the domain *de re*). However, they differ in that *koto* is characterized as [−actual] whereas *no* is characterized as [+actual].
2.3 Studies of the *n(o) da* construction

The purpose of this section is to review the principal existing studies of the *n(o) da* construction. The section will explore four areas: 1) interpretations of the *n(o) da* construction, 2) differences between sentences with *no* only and with *no + da* and finally 3) the function of the *n(o) da* expression in interrogatives and 4) the functions of *no* and *da* in the *n(o) da* construction, and of the *n(o) da* construction itself, including the notions of Discourse Modality and commentary predicate suggested by Maynard (1992, 1996). We will follow the wide agreement that there is no difference in function, meaning and interpretation between *no da* and *n da*, the only difference being that *no* may appear without the copula while *n* may not.

Up until now we have treated *n(o) da* as a generic cover-all term for a range of different constructions/realizations which appear to be classifiable into five main groups, as follows;
Table 2.1: Variations of the \(n(o) \text{ da}\) expression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFORMAL</th>
<th>FORMAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>① N(O) DA (+SFP, +P)</td>
<td>N(O) DESU (+SFP, +P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>② NO KA (+SFP)</td>
<td>N(O) DESU KA (+SFP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>③ N(O) DAROU (+SFP, +P)</td>
<td>N(O) DESHOU (+SFP, +P)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>④ level intonation NO (+SFP, +P)</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⑤ rising intonation NO (+SFP, +P)</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.1 Previous studies of the interpretations of the \(n(o) \text{ da}\) expression

Let us now review some of the representative works which explain the interpretations of the \(n(o) \text{ da}\) expression. Whereas most studies choose to discuss the ‘function’ or ‘meaning’ of \(n(o) \text{ da}\), I have chosen the term ‘interpretation’ deliberately so as to locate this study firmly within the field of pragmatics. In previous studies, most linguists point out that \(n(o) \text{ da}\) is used functionally to give or seek an explanation, reason or information, to show surprise, to open a conversation, etc. However, I do not think that these are only functions or meanings of \(n(o) \text{ da}\), but also context-bound interpretations. Thus the \(n(o) \text{ da}\) construction can be interpreted in various ways in conversations, that is,

---

6 SFP represents a sentence final particle such as \(yo, ne, yone\) and P represents a particle such as \(keredo, kara, kana\).
its pragmatic effect may differ in each situation. The main interpretation which many linguists suggest is EXPLANATION (Kindaichi 1955, Hayashi 1964, Alfonso 1966, Kuno 1973, Tanaka 1980, Teramura 1984, Makino and Tsutsui 1986, Maynard 1990, Masuoka 1991, Noda 1997 etc.). The n(o) da expression is often used when the speaker gives an explanation which accounts for a proposition stated immediately previously as in (34), or when the speaker seeks an explanation from the listener as in (35).

(34) Kaze o hikimashita. Ame ni nureta no desu. 
catch-cold rain by get-wet Nom Cop
'I catch cold. Because I got wet by the rain.' (Kuno 1973)

(35) Dooshite osake o nomanai n desu ka. 
why alcohol O drink-Neg Nom Cop Q
'Why don't you drink?' (Makino and Tsutsui 1986)

Another interpretation is CONFESSION. When speakers confess a secret or share a confidence, and express their true feelings toward the stated proposition, they use the n(o) da expression very often. Jitsu-wa, meaning ‘to tell the truth’, tends to co-occur with the n(o) da expression:

(36) Jitsu-wa watashi nimo onaji yoona keiken ga aru n desu. 
to-tell-the-truth I also same like experience S there-is Nom Cop
'To tell the truth, I have a same kind of experience.' (Tanomura 1990)

Iwasaki (2002) and Noda (1993) provide another interpretation of n(o) da, as signalling an ORDER:
When the speaker opens the conversation, the n(o) da expression is often used. That is, an utterance with n(o) da serves as the INTRODUCTION TO AN ANECDOTE.

(39) Kinoo Yoshiko ni guuzen atta no yo. yesterday (name) Dat by-chance meet-Past Nom FP
'(I) met Yoshiko by accident yesterday, you see.' (Iwasaki 2002)

(40) K: Kinoo Shinjuku e itta n desu. yesterday (place) to go-Past Nom Cop
'I went to Shinjuku yesterday.'
N: Sou. (Sorede doo shita no.) I-see then how do-Past Nom
'I see. (And then?)'
K: Soshitara, battari Douglas-san ni atta no. then by-chance (name) to meet-Past Nom
'Then, I ran into Mr. Douglas.'
(『Gaikoku-jin ga nihon-go kyoshi ni yoku suru 100 no shitsumon』)

Another interpretation of n(o) da is to show the speaker’s SURPRISE or IRRITATION.

(41) Kekkon-suru n desu ka?! marry Nom Cop Q
'Will you marry?!' (『SFJ, Vol.1』)

This interpretation is also cued by intonation, since with unmarked intonation this utterance could also be taken as explaining or as CONFIRMING the information the speaker has heard.
2.3.2 Sentences with \( \text{no} + \varphi \) and \( n(o) + da \)

In this section, I move on to a discussion of the comparative studies of ‘bare no’ and \( n(o) + da \). In conversational discourse, \( \text{no} \) often appears without \( da \). Although the differences between \( n(o) da \) and \( \text{no} \) have been studied extensively, linguists are still divided on this subject. Some regard the sentence-final \( n(o) da \) and even in some cases \( \text{no} \) as auxiliary verbs and others regard them as sentence-final particles. Moreover, some linguists differentiate \( n(o) da \) from \( \text{no} \), that is to say, \( n(o) da \) functions as an auxiliary verb and \( \text{no} \) as a SFP. To start with, we will look briefly at Maynard’s (1992) view and then focus on Noda’s (1993) detailed account of the differences between \( \text{no} \) and \( n(o) da \) in declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences.

To echo Maynard (1992: 596), “Traditionally the relation between \( \text{no} \) and \( n(o) da \) has been treated in at least three ways: 1) \( \text{no} \) results from deleting \( da \) from \( n(o) da \); 2) \( \text{no} \) is a particle, separate from the \( n(o) da \) structure, and 3) \( \text{no} \) and \( n(o) da \) are both sentence-final phrases”. Concerning the first view, there is no reason to think that \( \text{no} \) is interpretable only when viewed as a deleted version of \( n(o) da \). Regarding the second view, if \( \text{no} \) and \( n(o) da \) are two distinct structures, it is difficult to explain why \( \text{no} \) has similar functions in each structure. Such differences as may exist need to be appropriately clarified. The third view also poses a problem because \( da \) in the \( n(o) da \) construction can
take tense and undergo negative incorporation as in *datta* (past), *darou* (future), and *dewanai* (negative), whereas *no* has no such features. The evidence therefore suggests that *no* and *n(o) da* do not belong to a single category. In Maynard’s conclusion, *no* is a variant of *n(o) da* and both *no* and *n(o) da* function as ‘commentary predicates’. She also points out that there seems to be a slight difference in the two constructions in that an utterance with *no* is less blatant and/or less emphatic than one with *n(o) da*. That is why *no* rather than *n(o) da* appears primarily in conversational discourse where a scene is being set and there is no reason for the addressee to question the details and perhaps also accounts for the more frequent use of bare *no* by female speakers, which Maynard alleges.

Generally I accept Maynard’s arguments, which are very persuasive, although there must be some doubt about the discussion of the differential use of *no* between female and male speakers. Intuitively there seems no significant difference between male and female speech in this respect, at least in contemporary Japanese interaction. The analysis of conversational data in subsequent chapters will help to clarify the extent to which *no* and *n(o) da* are used to orient to speaker gender.

Another scholar, Noda (1993), explores the differences between *no* and *n(o) da* in declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences. As for declaratives, I will cite four
examples from her work in order to illustrate cases when both no and n(o) da are acceptable, cases when neither is acceptable, and cases when either no or n(o) da is acceptable. According to Noda, there is no difference in meaning between (42) and (42’) below. In addition, no and n(o) da have the same function in each sentence, to render the presupposition yooji ga aru (I have something to do) an explanation for the assertion ashita yasumu (I’ll be absent tomorrow). (42) is an utterance typically used by a woman and (42’) by a man. Noda’s gender-bias claim is essentially based on her intuition. A different explanation is that the SFP ‘wa yo’ in (42) is optionally added in order to show the utterance is not spoken by a man. Actually the SFP ‘wa’ can be used by men, but when it is followed by one of the SFPs yo, ne, and yone, I judge that the utterance is likely to be spoken by a woman.

(42) Ashita yasumu wa yo. Yooji ga aru no.
    tomorrow be-absent FP FP something-to-do S there-is Nom
    ‘I will be absent tomorrow. I have something to do.’

(42’) Ashita yasumu yo. Yooji ga aru n da.

On the other hand, in (43) neither no nor n(o) da is unacceptable. Noda claims that this is because the utterance conveys the speaker’s decision. However if B wants to convey that she has already decided to eat hiyashi-chuuka before entering the restaurant, she may respond to A’s question with (b) and (c) but without the preliminary m:::, kimeta (well, I’ve just decided). In the assumed context of (43) where A invites B to make a decision,
there is no factivity and (b) and (c) are unacceptable.

(43) A: Nani taberu? 
what eat
'What will you eat?'
(a) B: M:::, kimeta, hiyashi-chuuka ni suru. 
M::: decide-Pre-Per (name of dish) decide
'Well, OK I will order hiyashi-chuuka.'
(b) B: *M:::, kimeta, hiyashi-chuuka ni suru n da.
(c) B: *M:::, kimeta, hiyashi-chuuka ni suru no.

In the next example (44), n da (or its past form n datta) is acceptable but no is not. Noda states that no is unacceptable because the speaker spoke from the heart and he, rather than the addressee, is the illocutionary target of his own utterance. In other words, no alone is unacceptable because the utterance is not uncontroversial for the addressee, although the speaker can assert (da) its uncontroversial / factive status for himself.

(44) Sao da, ashita wa kaigi ga aru n datta. 
my-god tomorrow T meeting S there-is Nom Cop-Past
'My god, (I forgot) there would be a meeting tomorrow.'

(44') Sao da, ashita wa kaigi ga atta n da. 
there-was Nom Cop

(44'')*Soo, ashita wa kaigi ga atta no. 
Nom

We may note, in passing, that in (44'') only soo is used rather than soo da. Probably Noda did on purpose to make (44'') less able to be taken for granted as uncontroversial.

The following examples (45) and (46) might support our discussion about (44). On the one hand, in (45) there is an assertion that the person referred to has not come and the speaker infers from this that he is certainly busy. In this case, n da is permissible but
no is not. In addition, we should not overlook the effect of kitto (certainly). This can be called a ‘pragmatic adverb’, which, following Bellert (1977), Maynard (1992) focuses on.

Maynard explains that ‘a pragmatic adverb foregrounds the speaker’s act of speaking itself, and a corresponding predicate which foregrounds the speakerhood (i.e., the n(o) da predicate) is therefore preferred’ (582-3). This notion applies to n(o) da, not no.

(45) Ano hito, konai ne. Kitto isogashii n da.
that person come-Neg FP certainly busy Nom Cop
‘He has not come yet. He is certainly busy.’

(45’) Ano hito konai ne. Kitto isogashii no.

On the other hand, in (46) the speaker just said the matter ore7/watashi ikanai (I do not go), which had been decided by him/herself before, and then isogashii (I am busy) is given as the reason or the explanation for this. In this case, both n da and no are permissible because being busy is treated as less questionable than in (45).

(46) Ore, ikanai. Isogashii n  da.
I go-Neg busy Nom Cop
‘I do not go. I am busy.’

(46’) Watashi, ikanai. Isogashii no.
I

Although we will discuss interrogatives in detail in the next section, we note in passing that Noda follows the opinion of most linguists that the use of no in declaratives is restricted to female speakers, whilst in interrogatives no is used by both female and male

7 Ore means ‘I’, which is only used by men. That is to say, the utterance (46) is by a man.
speakers. These are her examples;

(Isogashii = busy)

(47) Isogashii n da. (mainly used by male speakers)  'I am busy.'

(47') Isogashii no. (only used by female speakers)  'I am busy.'

(47'') Isogashii no ka? (only used by male speakers)  'Are you busy?'

(47'''') Isogashii no? (used by both male and female speakers)  'Are you busy?'

Again, it is doubtful if n da is mainly used by male speakers and no is only used by female speakers. Intuitively female speakers use n da and male speakers use no in a range of situations. We can say, at this stage, that it depends on the relation between the proposition and the modality, so that what is at state is the speaker’s attitude toward the proposition, irrespective of whether the speaker is male or female.

As for imperatives, according to Noda, there is no significant gender difference between the uses of n(o) da and no. However, it seems to the researcher that a difference of use does exist between men and women in imperatives with n(o) da favoured by men and bare no by women.

(48) Shizuka-ni suru n  da.
quiet   be   Nom Cop
 'Be quiet.'

(48') Shizuka-ni suru no.
 'Be quiet.'
However, there is an apparent pragmatic difference in the use of negatives. For example,

(49) Sawaganai n da. (= <not make noise> n da)
    make-noise-Neg Nom Cop

(49′) Sawaganai no.
     'Don’t make noise.'

(49′) is often used by women but (49) is not acceptable pragmatically. Instead, ‘janai’, the negative suppletive form of the copula ‘da’, is used as shown in (49’') - a structure of the negative used by male speakers.

(49’’) Sawagu n janai. (= <make noise> n janai)
    make-noise Nom Cop-Neg
     'Don’t make noise.'

The reason why (49’’) is acceptable and (49) is not seems to be linked to something previously mentioned. There is a presupposition that the addressee is actually making noise now (=sawagu), not that the addressee does not make noise (=sawaganai). That is why (49’’) appears preferable.

2.3.3 The n(o) da expression in interrogatives

Makihara (1995) calls interrogative sentences with the n(o) da construction ‘noka interrogatives’ and interrogatives without the nominalizer ‘ka interrogatives’, although the so-called question marker ka is very often omitted in speaking, so that a sentence with a rising intonation marks a question.
First of all, let us look briefly at the difference in form between interrogatives with/without the \textit{n(o) da} construction. In the following utterances, (50) are interrogatives with the construction and (51) are interrogatives without the construction. All can be translated into English as ‘Do you have a pen?’

(50a) Pen motteru \textit{no}?
pen have Nom
(50b) Pen motteru \textit{n desu ka}?
pen have Nom Cop Q

(51a) Pen motteru?
(51b) Pen motteimasu \textit{ka}?
have

(Makihara 1995)

The (a) sentences are the so-called casual or informal form, used mainly among friends in casual situations, and the (b) sentences are formal and used especially when the addressee is of higher status than the speaker.

\textit{2.3.3.1 Yes-no questions and the n(o) da expression}

Makihara points out that \textit{noka} interrogatives are presuppositional. In the following example (52), there is a presupposition that someone took a photo. It is important to find out who took the photo. In contrast, (52’) can be a simple yes-no question. \textit{Obasan} (aunt) is focused and is marked with a pitch prominence in (52). Noda (1995) argues that it is the intonation contour rather than the nominalizer \textit{no} that makes
the sentence an interrogative\textsuperscript{8}.

\textbf{(52)} \textit{Kore obasan ga totta no?}  
\textit{this aunt S take-Past Nom}  
\textit{‘Was it my aunt who took this (photo)?’ or}  
\textit{‘Auntie, was it you who took this (photo)?’}  

\textbf{(52')} \textit{??Kore obasan ga totta?}  
\textit{this aunt S take-Past}  
\textit{‘Did my aunt take this (photo)?’ or}  
\textit{‘Auntie, did you take this (photo)?’}  
(Makihara 1995)

In (53), \textit{no} is obligatory. The case is that a speaker realizes from the addressee’s utterance that his\textsuperscript{9} previous understanding was wrong and seeks confirmation that what he now infers is right.

\textbf{(53)} \textit{K: Shitteru? Ano hito, tap no Okita-sensei no mae}  
\textit{do-you-know that person tap Gen Mr. Okita-teacher Gen ex}  
\textit{no okusan yo.}  
\textit{Gen wife FP}  
\textit{‘Do you know that? That person is Mr. Okita’s ex wife.’}  
\textit{N: (a) E!? Okita-sensei tte kekkon-sareteta no?}  
\textit{oh QT be married-Past Nom}  
\textit{(b) ?? E!? Okita-sensei tte kekkon-sareteta?}  
\textit{‘Oh, was Mr. Okita married?’}  
(Makihara 1995)

Actually N seems to think that her teacher, Mr. Okita, has been single, but she infers from K’s utterance that he was married. The question invites K to confirm that N’s inference is correct. On the other hand, in (54), \textit{no} is preferred but not obligatory. The case is that a speaker infers something from what the addressee said and seeks confirmation that the

\textsuperscript{8} The relation between intonation and presupposition is discussed at length by Chomsky (1971).

\textsuperscript{9} We will follow Blakemore’s (1992) convention in which male designating pronouns and possessives such as ‘he’, ‘his’, ‘him’ and ‘himself’ are used to refer to speakers and attributes of speakers, and female designating pronouns and possessives such as ‘she’, ‘her’ and ‘herself’ are used to refer to addressees and attributes of addressees.
inference is right.

(54) K: Nama-hoso no dorama de tochicchatta.
      live-broadcast of drama in make-mistake-Fast
   'I made some mistakes in a live broadcast drama.'
T: (a) Serifu ookatta no?
    line many-Fast Nom
(b) Serifu ookatta?
   'Did you have many lines?' (Makihara 1995)

T inferred from what K said that K spoke a lot in the programme and the question seeks confirmation that this inference is right. *No* connects T's inference *serifu ga ookatta* (you had many lines) with K's utterance (Makihara 1995). In this case, *no* does not seem to be obligatory, that is, it is not necessary to show the inference with *no*. We might say that if T uses *no*, the expected answer is 'yes', but if T does not use *no*, the answer might be either 'yes' or 'no'.

To sum up so far: 1) when there is no presupposition and the speaker expects the answer yes or no, *no* is not necessary, 2) when there is a presupposition and the speaker focuses on some aspect of the question that is to be confirmed, *no* is obligatory, 3) when the speaker realizes his previous understanding was wrong and seeks confirmation that his inference from the addressee's utterance is correct, *no* is obligatory, 4) when a speaker draws an inference from what was said to him, *no* is preferred. At this point it should be noted that Makihara analyses discourse from novels. Analysing conversational discourse data may be expected to reveal more about the use of the *n(o) da* expression and
inference.

### 2.3.3.2 WH-questions and the n(o) da expression

According to Makihara (1995), *no* is not obligatory with *itsu* (when), *dare* (who)' *doko* (where), and *nani* (what). In fact, there is a difference in meaning between these WH-interrogatives when they occur with and without *no*. On the other hand, *no* is obligatory with the interrogatives *naze, doshite,* and *nande* (all meaning 'why'). We will consider the WHO, WHEN, WHERE, and WHAT types first, and then move on to the WHY type of interrogative.

Let us focus on the following types of interrogatives: *itsu* (when), *dare* (who), *doko* (where), and *nani* (what). Makihara (1995) cites the discussion of these types from Saji (1972 [1991]). He gives examples of the WHO case.

\[(55a) \text{Dare ga iku no \ ka.} \quad (\text{Dare ga iku no desu ka.})^{10} \]
\[\quad \text{who S go Nom Q}\]

\[(55b) \text{Dare ga iku ka.} \quad (\text{Dare ga ikimasu ka.})\]
\[\quad \text{who S go Q} \quad \text{‘Who is going?’} \quad (\text{Saji 1972 [1991]})\]

When it has been already decided that someone is to go, (55a) is preferred. The question then is asked in order for the hearer to suggest the appropriate or predetermined person who should go. In other words, what is presupposed is that someone is going and what is

---

10 Formal forms are provided in brackets.
asked is who is going. (55b) is a simple question with nothing is presupposed, so that the
answer might be to suggest someone not previously considered. There is a possibility that
(55b) implies ‘who should go?’. Saji also mentions that (55b) can be interpreted
ironically to mean or imply that nobody will go or wants to go in a certain situation. In
that case, the sentence will be spoken without a rising intonation. If you respond ‘no one
is going’ to these two questions, in (55a) it is a meta-linguistic reply and functions as a
correction of rather than an answer to the question. Whereas in (55b), usually we would
not say it unless we agree with a speaker whom we took to be ironical. As Saji supposes,
in (55a’), that _iku no wa_ (The person who goes) is a presupposition or topic.

(55a’) (Iku no wa) dare ga iku no ka.
getting one T who S get Nom Q
‘(The person who goes) who is going?’ (Saji 1972 [1991])

Makihara cites McGloin (1980) who discusses WHERE type interrogatives. It
would be appropriate also to discuss WHEN and WHAT types here as well because they
have a similar function. The notion of presupposition is important again. In addition, the
subject of the sentence seems to be important. _No_ is obligatory when the subject is ‘you’;
however when it is ‘we’, a sentence without _no_ seems acceptable. In (56), the speaker
asks the addressee where they are going because he thinks the addressee knows or has
already decided where to go. Or there is a possibility that the speaker asks the addressee
where he/she is going.

(56) Doko ni iku no?
    where to go Nom
    ‘Where are we/you going?’

On the other hand, in (56’), the speaker wants to discuss with the addressee where they should go. Neither knows and therefore the question is an invitation to make a suggestion.

(56’) Doko ni iku?
    where to go
    ‘Where shall we go?’

(56’) cannot be used to ask an addressee where he is going. The same observation seems to apply to the case of WHEN type interrogatives in (57) and WHAT type in (58):

(57a) Itsu iku no?
    when go Nom
    ‘When are we/you going?’
(57b) Itsu iku?
    when go
    ‘When are we going?’

(58a) Nan(i) de iku no?
    what by go Nom
    ‘How are we/you going? (Lit.) What are we/you going by?’
(58b) Nan(i) de iku?
    what by go
    ‘How are we going? (Lit.) What are we going by?’

One may notice that in (57) the time has already fixed in (a) but not yet in (b), and in (58), the way of going has already settled in (a) but is open for discussion in (b).

I have discussed the use of some WH-questions with future reference. Let us now attempt to extend the observations made so far to question referring to past events.
Generally a sentence with *no* is preferred because when you ask about the past there is a presupposition that the event has occurred. However, a sentence without *no* seems acceptable and is typically used when the speaker thinks the addressee may not know what he hopes to find out or when the speaker forgot something which he and the addressee did together and when he hopes the addressee remembers it. The following serve as an example:

(59) Doko ni itta no?
    where to go-Past Nom
    'Where did you go?'

(59') Doko ni itta?
    where to go-Past
    'Where did it/we go?'

In (59), there is the presupposition that the addressee went somewhere and the speaker wants to know where she went. The main stress falls on *doko* (where) which is focused. (59'), on the other hand, is a simple question. Thus (59') might be used when a pet cat has disappeared and the speaker asks his wife or children where it has gone in the hope that they know the answer, rather as one might say in English 'Where did it go – does anyone know?'.

Turning now to the WHY type, the interrogatives *naze, doshite* and *nande* all mean 'why'. Interrogatives of the WHY type occur with *no* obligatorily because there is a presupposed (and sometimes unexpected) event. In example (60), there is the
presupposition that the addressee quit her job and the speaker asks the question because he wants to know why she quit. *No* is required because of the presupposition.

(60) Doshite yamechatta no?
why quit-Past Nom
‘Why did you quit? / For what reason did you quit?’

(60’) ‘Doshite yamechatta?’

The same may be said of *nande*. In (61), there is a presupposition that the addressee knows something and the speaker wants to know how she knows it. The use of *doyatte* (how) also requires *no*, as in (62).

(61) Nande shitteru no?
why know Nom
‘How do you know?’

(61’) ‘Nande shitteru?’

(62) Doyatte shitta no?
how know-Past Nom
‘How did you know?’

(62’) ‘Doyatte shitta?’

In (60), (61) and (62), the speakers are perhaps responding to unexpected utterances from the addressees. For example, in (60), we can imagine that the speaker had just heard from the addressee that she had left her job and, because he was surprised to hear that, asked the reason why she quit. In (61) and (62), it seems that the addressee knew a fact which the speaker assumed she did not know, and because he was surprised, asked ‘how do you know that?’ In such cases, *no* is obligatory. It has the function of associating the speaker’s expectation with what was previously said by the addressee; and especially functions as a
marker to show that the speaker’s expectation and the addressee’s utterance differ. We can say that Japanese encodes with a morphological marker, in a way that English does not, whether or not there is a presupposition in the WHO and WHERE types of WH-questions.

2.3.4 The functions of no and da in the n(o) da construction

In this last section of the chapter, we look more deeply into the function of no in the n(o) da construction and also into the function of the copula da in the construction. We examine the nominalizer no and the predicate da separately in order to show why the n(o) da expression can be interpreted in various ways. We noted in 2.1.2 that a structure nominalized by no indicates a second and third-order entity, i.e. an event or a proposition. We can say that the function of no is to show propositionality. Maynard too explores the ontological status of no constructions. She studies the issue of no as a nominalizing complementizer and refers in particular to Ikegami’s (1981) thesis that Japanese is a BECOME rather than a DO-language. Recall our earlier example (11) in section 2.1.1.

(11) Tanaka ga kaetta no wa akiraka da.
    S  go back-Past Nom T obvious Cop
    'That Tanaka went back is obvious.'

We can convey the same proposition without a nominalizer as follows:
While in (11) the predicate *akiraka da* (is obvious) concerns itself with the fact that *Tanaka ga kaetta* (*Tanaka went back*), in (11’) the verb *kaetta* (*went back*) is the predicate associated with ‘Tanaka’. It will be clear from these examples that in the nominal expression, the agent of the action is not in focus, rather the event as a whole is captured by the nominal clause. Maynard (1996: 936) explains further as follows:

> When a clause is changed into a nominal, the event described is treated as a “thing” or a “fact”, rather than an event. ... In a nominal clause, the event is no longer described as an active event; rather it becomes a “state”.

It seems therefore that Japanese speakers try to stativize the events with the use of *no* in the *n(o) da* construction. Thus what Horie calls the ‘ontological’ status of events is altered, a phenomenon I will refer to as ‘reification’. That is, *no* in the *n(o) da* construction is a kind of a ‘shell’ within which a proposition is encased, and what matters from an interactive perspective is not so much the nature of the particular proposition as being able to assert that there is indeed a proposition. Rather as with a gerund, when a speaker ‘reifies’ a proposition by means of *no*, from a conversational perspective it is treated as being on a different ontological plane from an assertion so that nothing need to be done except signal acknowledgement by means of *aizuchi* as in the following
examples:

(63) A: Taro wa toshokan ni itta.
    Taro T library to go-past
B: E, honto? Nande?
    oh really why
A: Taro went to the library.
B: Oh really? Why?

(63)' A: Taro wa toshokan ni itta no.
    Taro T library to go-past Nom
B: un.
    uh-huh
A: Taro went to the library no.
B: Uh-huh.

For the next speaker to engage with the content of a nominalized proposition is
strongly dispreferred. In the thirty odd cases where no occurs as a stand-alone
nominalizer in the data analysed in this thesis, there are almost no cases where the next
speaker engages with the content of the nominalized proposition. One case where the
expected aizuchi doesn’t materialize is the following:

3Y: tte abite, atama ga:
    QT take head Ono (washing noise) body
4: aratte sorede (.) nagashichau dake ka.
    wash then rinse only FP
5T: un, [dakara
    yes so
6Y: [su:::- soo sure-ba
    so do-if
7: (0.2)  
8T: karada ga:: sugoi atatamaru made shawaa wa zutto abi-tsuuzken no.
    body S very get-warm till shower T through take-continue Nom
9Y: sore datta-ra watashi: ga (. ) oyu o tamete-=
    that Cop-Past-if I S hot-water O fill
10T: -=ru gurai to onaji [ryoo NA NO KAMoshirenai.
    about with same amount Cop Nom might
11Y: [onaji da yone.
    same Cop FP
3Y: while you are taking a shower, you wash your hair and body
4: and then rinse, that’s it, isn’t it (ka).'
5T: ‘Yes, [so,’
6Y: [‘i-:::-f you do so’
Even in this case, Y could hardly be said to ‘engage’ with the content of a nominalized proposition, although she fails to respond with the expected aizuchi. In fact, Y’s ‘If you do that and I fill a bathtub’ appears to anticipate T’s intended continuation and clearly signals her implicit acceptance of T’s nominalized proposition. That aizuchi (rather than an anticipatory completion) was expected is indicated by T’s interruption (it might be the same amount no).

When the ontological status of a reified proposition is asserted (da) or put in epistemic doubt (darou), the addressee is expected to react accordingly, i.e. to the ontological status asserted / put in doubt by the speaker. Because the ontological status rather than the content is at issue, the content won't usually be challenged (although metalinguistic corrections are of course possible). When we say that a speaker ‘treats’ or regards a nominalized proposition as being ‘reified’, we mean, of course, that from an interactive perspective this is how it is made to look rather than the way it actually is. When propositions which are marked as ‘reified’ by the use of no are then followed by copulas such as da and darou, they invite reactions to their [R] (for reified / reifiable) status, e.g., in the case of darou, whether the proposition in question should be treated as reified. The use of ‘n da kedo’ illustrates this in a particularly clear way. In English ‘yeah
it is but’ would usually be followed by words to the effect that what had just been asserted was to some degree untenable. In Japanese what follows ‘n da kedo’ does not follow this pattern at all, as the following example shows:

hanashi kawaru n da kedo, kino jimu ni itta?
story change Nom Cop although yesterday gym to go-past
‘I change a topic though (kedo) n da, did you go to the gym yesterday?’

More noteworthy is Maynard’s work on nominalization (1992). She mostly cites Sugimura’s (1982) and Iwasaki’s (1985, 1990) points of view. She makes clear that when n(o) da is used, the nominalized clause undergoes an objectification process, so that what seems to be conveyed is distance between the event and the speaker with the event becoming objectified, depersonalised and abstract. She concludes that ‘the cognitive processes that are coded by the syntactic nature of n(o) da are twofold: 1) objectification and stativization of the event/state described (accomplished by no) and 2) personalization of utterances through speaker-foregrounding (accomplished by da)’ (591). Thus, no has the effect of reifying second-order entities (events, processes, states-of-affairs) which are ‘mentioned’ (the term used by Maynard) because of the third-order or propositional status conferred on them by no. Once a second-order entity is reduced to a third-order entity it naturally assumes background status, as we shall see in Chapter 3 when we note how the use of no in talk-in-interaction triggers aizuchi. More immediately, for Maynard’s
analysis and the concerns of this chapter, when events recede into the background, what is then foregrounded is the speaker’s attitude to the reified proposition, and in particular whether the speaker asserts its third-order status by means of *da*, or questions by means of *ka*, or expresses its epistemic status by means of *darou*. Such a view is consistent with Saji’s view:

In the noun phrase preceded by the *n(o) da* expression, a speaker’s judgement is included but it is apart from his responsibility or insistence. In other words, the speaker’s subjective judgement is objectified by *no* and then asserted subjectively by *da* (1972 [1991]: 254).

Tokieda (1941), Saji (1972 [1991]), Maynard (1992) and Noda (1997) all agree on the point that the copula *da* asserts the proposition, and as a consequence *da* is felt to express the speaker’s attitude towards it. Maynard follows Tokieda’s characterization of *da* based on the theory of language as process (*gengokateisetsu*). Tokieda (1941, 1950) identifies two categories of Japanese words; *shi* and *ji* and categorizes *da* as *ji*, explaining that it expresses the speaker’s attitude toward the nominal clause. Maynard suggests that *da* expresses the speaker’s *kokoro no koe* (voices from the heart). Viewed in

---

11 According to Maynard (1992), Tokieda (1950) defines *shi* as an expression which has gone through the objectifying process – representing an objective and conceptualized notion of referents, which includes grammatical categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. *Ji* is an expression which has not gone through the objectifying process – representing the speaker’s subjective perspective toward the referent, and it includes conjunctions, exclamatory expressions, auxiliary verbs, and particles. A more contemporary and broadly comparable distinction is that proposed between conceptual and procedural encoding (Blakemore 1987), which is more a fundamental concept in relevance theoretic pragmatics.
this light we may briefly conclude that the fundamental function of da is to foreground speakerhood and to express propositional attitude, thus making the statement personal and therefore emotionally more involved. This is supported by the fact that there are several attitudinal variations of the copula da, such as desu, darou, datta, and desu ka, as noted at the beginning of the section 2.3, enabling speakers to assert, question and express degrees of doubt about the propositional status of the nominalized construction.

With these perspectives on the nominalizer no and the copula da in mind, we can look at the n(o) da expression as a whole. Maynard (1992, 1993) gives us the concept of Discourse Modality (henceforth DM) and characterizes n(o) da as a DM strategy. She defines DM as follows:

Discourse Modality refers to information that does not or only minimally conveys objective propositional message content. DM conveys the subjective emotional, mental or psychological attitude of the speaker to the message content, to the speech act itself or toward his or her interlocutor in discourse. DM operates to define and to foreground certain ways of interpreting the propositional content in discourse; it directly expresses the speaking self’s personal voice on the basis of which the utterance is meaningfully interpreted (1992: 604).

According to Maynard, there are four different kinds of DM indicators which ‘contextualize’ propositional information. She calls the process Modal Contextualization. In conclusion, she states that n(o) da makes it possible for the speaker to express his or her position toward the event and toward the speech action itself and that the messages
associated with *n*(o) *da* contribute to the Modal Contextualization of propositions. The precise effect of this construction is to provide what Maynard (1992) terms a Commentary Predicate. To put the concept simply, the *n*(o) *da* expression conveys the speaker’s personal commitment to the statement and changes the non-topicalized sentence structure into the topicalized one, thereby changing an ordinary predicate into what she calls a ‘commentary predicate’. Japanese is well known to be both a topic-comment and subject-predicate language depending on the perspective of the speaker and as evidenced in the availability of both subject (*ga*) and topic (*wa*) markers. Maynard claims that the primary motivation for the use of *n*(o) *da* is that of commentization.

Broadly speaking, this study accepts Maynard’s (1992, 1993, 1996) position concerning the functions of *no*, *da*, and the *n*(o) *da* construction. In the following chapter, I will show how the *n*(o) *da* expression is used naturally occurring in talk.

### 2.4 Summary

In this chapter, firstly we focused on *no* and explored various functions of the particle *no* from a historical or developmental perspective: as a genitive and possessive case marker, as a nominal predicate, as a pronoun, as a complementizer and as a sentential
nominalizer. In particular, the ontological function of *no* and its role in signalling third-order entities, i.e. propositions, were highlighted.

Secondly we examined functions of *no* as a nominalizing complementizer from the perspective of factivity. In order to clarify the nature of *no*, the complementizers *to* and *koto* were also discussed, enabling us to establish the use of *no* in *de re* [+actual] complement clauses.

Thirdly we reviewed the principal existing studies of the *n(o) da* construction, including interpretations of the prototypical contents of use such as explanations, confessions, order-giving, conversational opening, expressions of surprise, irritation and in seeking confirmation for information. We also reviewed the role of the construction in declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences. Finally, and most importantly for the analysis which is to follow, we traced out the use of *no* in the *n(o) da* construction is a kind of a ‘shell’ within which a proposition is encased so that what matters is not so much the nature of the particular proposition as being able to assert that there is indeed a proposition or to express propositional attitudes to it, thus foregrounding speakerhood. That is to say, the function of the *n(o) da* construction is first to reify a proposition by means of the nominalizer *no*, and then to assert or raise a question about the reified/reifiable status of that proposition by means of the following copula, so that a
speaker uses the n(o) da construction when he cares more about the propositional status of the utterance than about the propositional content itself. We concluded that the n(o) da construction enables a speaker to express a position towards a reified event within a theory of the Modal Contextualization of propositions. As can be imagined, this opens up possibilities for the assumption of roles and positions in talk-in-interaction, which we are now in a position to explore.
CHAPTER 3

N(o) da construction in

Japanese Everyday Talk-in-interaction

3. Introduction

Based on the context-free understandings of the n(o) da construction established
in the previous chapter, this chapter will first explain how the pragmatic and sequential
properties of the n(o) da construction contribute to contextualized talk-in-interaction.
This first sub-section contains an analysis of a single short interaction involving two
native Japanese speakers who were two months into a MA in Linguistics programme in
UK at the time the data were collected. Toshi (hereafter T), who is a male, and Yuki
(hereafter Y), who is a female, were asked to record a casual conversation. At the time of
the recording, which amounts to 40 minutes in total, neither of the speakers was aware of
the researcher’s area of investigation. Although the 5.5 minute extract might appear to be
relatively short, no + zero (+ SFPs ka-na and ka-ne), n(o) + copula da (+ SFPs yo and
yone) and n(o) + copula darou (+ SFP ne and question marker ka) all occur very
frequently. The explanation that emerges from this preliminary analysis will serve as a framework for the detailed analyses of three further extracts from T&Y’s exchange, which will be analysed from both pragmatic (3.1) and sequential perspectives (3.2). In this wider context of the thesis as a whole, this chapter details a wide range of the pragmatic properties and sequential effects associated with the \( n(o) \) da construction. In this chapter, these phenomena will be presented in a way that is essentially descriptive. The reader is deliberately invited to make the same journey of discovery as the researcher. If the results appears slightly piecemeal, in Chapter 5 the results are presented in a systematic comparative framework which serves as the basis for the comparative analyses of conversational data presented in Chapters 6 and 7.

**Troubles talk: Term assignment**

The data analysed here is a 30 second-extract from the 40-minute exchange between Y and T. They are talking about their term assignment. The \( n(o) \) da construction focused on is the casual assertive form \( n \ da \).

**Pragmatic analysis**

From lines 1 to 10, Y explains why she went to the University library. T provides
aizuchi to show that he listens to her.

1Y: watashi wa sono: Toshi-san kara goyouron no hon o misete-moratte, I T well Toshi from pragmatics of book O show
2T: un.
   uh-huh
3Y: daitaib no gainen (0.2) wa rough LK idea T
4T: un.
   uh-huh
5Y: wakatte-mo, ano:
   understand-but well
6 (2.0)
7Y: dooiu, sono: kekkyoku eigo no bunsho o mottekoni te,
   how well finally English LK book O get otherwise
8: .h 1500 UMANNAI janai.
   write-cannot tag
9 (0.3)
10T: un.
   uh-huh
11Y: dakara ne sore ga nanka toshokan ni aru kana: to omotta n da.
   so IF that S something library at there-is FP QT thought Nom Cop
12T: mou kari-rarechatta-ra owari da yone=
   yet borrow-be-if end Cop FP
13Y: =kari-rarechatta-ra owari.
   borrow-be-if end

<English gloss>
1Y: 'You showed me a Pragmatics book and,'
2T: 'Uh-huh.'
3Y: 'I got a rough idea'
4T: 'Uh-huh.'
5Y: 'but, well'
6 (2.0)
7Y: 'I need an English book, otherwise
8: .h I can't write 1500 words, can I (janai).'
9 (0.3)
10T: 'Un-huh.'
11Y: 'So, /I was thinking there could be something in the library/ n da.'
12T: 'If everything's on loan, you've had it (=You've got a problem) da yone.'
13Y: '=If everything's on loan, I've got a problem.'

In lines 7-8, Y’s tag question (janai) without no invites T to confirm that it is impossible
to write a 1500 word essay without an English book and then formulates the consequence
in line 11, concluding with n da. This use of n da appears to be required because Y does
not want only to give her opinion (I was thinking there could be something in the library),
but also to mark it as taken-for-granted in the actual world, and therefore she reifies the
proposition that there is something in the library with the use of n and asserts this reified

61
proposition with *da*.

**Sequential analysis**

Y’s utterances in lines 1 and 3 constitute a presequential account, leading up to an instance of troubles talk in lines 5-8. This sequence is marked with a tag, which invites T to confirm the troubles status of the contribution with *mo* (but) in line 5 signalling the change of method from presequential account to troubles talk. T’s *aizuchi* in line 10 indicates his acceptance of Y’s troubles talk. As a result, in line 11 Y provides a formulation, signalled as upcoming by *dakara ne* (so + IP) and reified by *n da*, which suggests a possible solution for her problem.

10T: *un.*  
    uh-huh  
11Y: *dakara ne sore ga nanka toshokan ni aru kana to omotta n da.*  
    so IP that S something library at there-is FP QT thought Nom Cop  
10T: *'Un-huh.'*  
11Y: *'So, /I was thinking there could be something in the library/ n da.'*

We should not overlook the expression *dakara* (so, therefore), which often co-occurs with *n(o) + da* and functions as a meta-sequential marker which guides the speaker and addressee as to the kind of members’ method, a formulation, which is about to appear. As for *n da*, as mentioned earlier, *da* asserts a reified proposition, thereby expressing the speaker’s attitude toward the proposition whose ontological status is no longer the subject.

---

1 On this subject, see Garfinkel and Sacks (1986: 163).
of the assertion. For this reason a response other than *aizuchi* is expected after a turn to which *n da* is attached. Thus Y’s turn at line 11 invites T’s response which duly occurs in line 12:

11Y: dakara ne sore ga nanka toshokan ni aru kana: to omotta *n da*. so IP that S something library at there-is FP QT thought Nom Cop
12T: mou kari-rarechatta-ra owari *da yone.*= yet borrow-be-if end Cop FP
13Y: *kari-rarechatta-ra owari.* borrow-be-if end

11Y: ‘So, /I was thinking there could be something in the library/ *n da.*’
12T: ‘If everything’s on loan, you’ve had it (=You’ve got a problem) *da yone.*’=
13Y: ‘=‘If everything’s on loan, I’ve got a problem.’

T’s utterance in line 12 points out a potential problem with Y’s suggested solution, concluding his turn with *yone* which invites her agreement (*ne*) that a response to this comment is required (*yo*)\(^2\). Thus Y agrees with T in line 13 and repeats the proposition that she could face a problem.

We are now able to say that the pragmatic function of the *n da* realization of the *n(o) + da* construction is appropriate precisely in the sequential context of a formulation or other significant change of method. More generally, in terms of pragmatic properties, the *n(o) da* construction provides the speaker with the means of indicating (a) the ontological status of a proposition and (b) the extent to which he subscribes to this status.

The analysis which follows in 3.1 will focus on three further extracts from the conversation between Y and T and will extend the range of pragmatic meanings that the

\(^2\) The researcher will follow Saigo’s (2002, 2006) analysis of *yone.*
construction conveys, for example by showing how a speaker adopts a range of attitudes to the ontological status of a proposition. At the sequential level, the researcher has shown how a particular realization of the construction is associated with formulations, and in 3.2 will go on to show how different realizations of the construction are associated with different methods, including inviting *aizuchi*, agreement, comment and confirmation.

### 3.1 Pragmatic analyses

This section will show how the *n(o) da* construction functions pragmatically in talk-in-interaction. We will analyse three extracts, *Lunchtime talk*, *A problem of translation*, and *Plumbing problem* from Y&T's conversation (See Appendix 1 for a full transcription of three extracts), and examine different variants of the *n(o) da* construction in each extract.

#### 3.1.1 Extract 1: *Lunchtime talk*

In this section we discuss three structures, *no + zero, no + SFP* and *n(o) + copula + SFP*. The extract analysed is a 1.5-minute sequence taken from the 40-minute exchange between Y and T. Y is recounting her lunchtime conversation with Ms Tanaka, a female PhD student, and Akiko, a female MA student at University of Durham. Y describes how
Tanaka pointed out that Alan speaks strange Japanese and this causes her to become afraid that her native speaker English friends might think her English strange. T listens to her and mainly provides encouragement to continue by means of *aizuchi*.

**No + zero**

In lines 8 and 9, Y informs T that Tanaka had said that Alan speaks strange Japanese. This utterance is marked with *no + zero*. In line 10, T provides *aizuchi* ‘*un* (uh-huh)’, to acknowledge this.

8Y: ＝ano toki ni ne, ano: Tanaka-san ga ne,
that time at IP un Ms Tanaka S IP
9: Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no.＝
Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
10T: ＝un.
uh-huh

8-9Y: ＂At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.’=
10T: ＂Uh-huh.’

The reason why she uses *no + zero* here is that she does not intend just to inform T of the fact that Tanaka had said that Alan’s Japanese was strange but also to reify the proposition with the nominalizer *no* so that it is no longer asserted as a speaker action but offered by the speaker as a ground for what is to follow. In other words, *no* has a ‘grounding function’, by means of which a reified proposition provides a context for what comes next. Since, strictly, a speaker cannot ground their own utterance, the addressee’s *aizuchi* is

---

3 In Y & T’s talk, there are three forms of *aizuchi*. *Un* (uh-huh) can be interpreted as ‘I hear’ ‘continue’, *a* (ah) as ‘I understand’ ‘I accept it’ and *ha* (yeah) as ‘I got it.’
required to confirm that the proposition to which no is attached is indeed grounded.

In lines 23 and 25, Y gives her opinion on Tanaka’s view of Alan’s Japanese and uses no + zero. Then T provides aizuchi ‘a: (ah)’ in line 26 to show that he accepts and understands her opinion.

23Y: a kono hito yappa gengogaku suki-na dake-atte ah this person I-thought linguistics favorite because
24T: <laughs>
25Y: chotto miteru kant en ga chigau na to omotta no a-little see point S different FP QT thought Nom
26T: a:.

23Y: '/I thought because she likes linguistics,
24T: <laughs>
25Y: she sees his Japanese from a different perspective/ no.'
26T: 'Ah.'

This use of no does not seem typical because it functions to ground a turn which is a self-formulation\(^4\) rather than part of an ongoing account. Based on this instance, we might say that one of the pragmatic functions of no is to mark a formulation without any expectation of a response from the addressee. We will discuss this in more detail in Extract 3.

In line 19, Y uses nan-chu no\(^5\) (literally “what I should say”, equivalent to English “I mean”). Indeed interjectional phrases such as ‘I mean’ often co-occur with the n(o) da construction.

---

\(^4\) The researcher uses ‘self-formulation’ to distinguish a formulation whose logic way be more apparent to the speaker than to the addressee, whereas ‘formulation’ is used where the speaker expects the logic of the conclusion to be equally apparent to the addressee.

\(^5\) Nan-chu no is an informal equivalent version of: nan te iu no (gloss: what QT say NOM).
In Y and T's 40-minute exchange, variations of *nan-chu no* are used 10 times in total. These metapragmatic phrases occur together with the *n(o) da* construction, probably because there is something to say but the speaker is not sure yet what it is or how to say it.

**No + SFP**

Y uses *no* + SFP twice, in lines 21 and 30. In line 21, *no ka ne* is used.

According to the previous studies, the *n(o) da* construction is used here with *nande* because there is a presupposition that he (Alan) has made mistakes.

And in line 30, Y uses *no ka-na* (nominalizer + question marker + exclamatory marker). From lines 27 to 30, Y explains that she is afraid that her native speaker English friends, Emily and Alan, might think her spoken English strange just as Tanaka thought Alan's spoken Japanese strange.
29: .h aru-tokoro made wa attēru, totsuzen gaku to that-point to T right suddenly Ono QT make-mistake then
30: a: yappa aa-yatte omou no ka-na to omotte ne.- ah I-think so think Nom FP QT thought FP
31T: =sorya omou n darou ne. (they)think Nom Cop FP

Y uses no ka-na here probably because she wants to reify the proposition aa-yatte omou (they think as Tanaka thought) with no and to show her uncertainty about it with ka-na. That is, she is not sure that her native speaker English friends think as Tanaka thought, but she is afraid that they may do.

N(o) + copula + SFP

Y uses n da kedo and n da kedo + ne in each of lines 1 and 13. In lines 1 to 7, Y opens up a new topic with n da kedo in line 1 and reminds T that she had lunch with Tanaka and Akiko recently. In lines 3, 5 and 7, T provides aizuchi and encourages Y to continue her account.

1Y: a, soshitara sa, zenzen hanashi chigau n da kedo, .h konaida hora oh then IP at-all story different Nom Cop although recently IP
2: Tanaka-san to Akiko-san to de o-hiru [tabe ni itta janai? Tanaka-Ms and Akiko and with lunch eat went tag
3T: [un. yeah
4Y: Toshi-san ga do-= Toshi S

6 Gaku is an onomatopoeia used when things drop suddenly or metaphorically to suggest that the speaker feels low.
7 Sorya is a colloquial form of sore wa (that is) and functions to emphasize the following words or phrases.
8 This slash indicates the scope of ne, not the scope of no.
The reason why *n da* is used in line 1 seems to be that *Y* wants to reify the proposition *zenzen hanashi chigau* (completely different story) and assert it in the actual world. The function of *kedo* seems to mitigate the speaker’s attitude toward the proposition shown by *da*. As a result, the speaker signals that this proposition is to be the topic of the conversation.

*N da kedo* (it is but) in line 13 is used in the direct speech of Tanaka quoted by *Y un, na n da kedo ne* (yeah, it is but).

The reason why Tanaka used *n da* here is probably that she accepted *Y*’s comment about his Japanese, treating it as a reified proposition by means of *n* and then asserting this status with *da*. Then, she signals with *kedo ne* (but) that more negative comments about his Japanese will follow.

In line 30, *Y* does not use *no + zero* but finishes her utterance with a final particle
ne, inviting T to accept and repeat her utterance, which he does in line 31, concluding with *n darou ne*.

30Y: a: yappa aa-yatte omou no ka-na to omotte ne.= ah I-think so think Nom FP QT thought FP
31T: =sorya omou n darou ne. (they) think Nom Cop FP
30Y: 'ah /I thought /they think as Tanaka thought/ no ka-na/ ne.'=
31T: ='Yeah, /maybe they do/ n darou ne.'=

We may say that an elaborated English translation of line 31 would be something like

‘Maybe, it might be assertable that they think your speaking English strange, but I am not sure of it.’ That is to say, T accepts her opinion that they (native English speakers) think of her spoken English as strange, reifies it as a proposition and then locates the nominalized proposition in a possible world with *darou*.

**Summary**

- *No + zero* is used when the speaker offers a reified proposition as a ground to continue his talk, which we called a ‘grounding function’, or when he formulates a story without any expectation of a response from the addressee.

- Interjctional phrases such as *nan-chu no* (I mean) often co-occur with the *n(o) da* construction, probably because there is something to say but the speaker is not sure yet what it is or how to say it.

- *No + SFP (ka ne and ka-na)* is used to reify a proposition (*no*) and show the
speaker’s attitude to it (ka, ka-na).

- $N(o) + \text{copula} + \text{SFP}$ is used to reify a proposition ($no$), assert it ($da$), show the uncertainty ($darou$) or invite the addressee to respond (SFP).

- In $n + da + \text{kedo}$, the function of $\text{kedo}$ seems to mitigate the speaker’s attitude toward the reified proposition shown by $da$.

Although neither Y nor T used $no + \text{ne}$ or $n(o) + da + \text{ne}$ in this extract, there are frequent structures:

- A speaker uses $no + \text{ne}$ to reify an account ($no$) and invite the addressee’s agreement ($\text{ne}$) to the reification rather than to the account itself, thus making the account less aggressive to the addressee.

- $N(o) + da + \text{ne}$ draws attention to the ontological status of the speaker’s utterance, i.e. the assertion of a reified account, with $\text{ne}$ obliging the addressee to agree to this status, typically by means of $\text{aizuchi}$.

3.1.2 Extract 2: A problem of translation

In this exchange, there are no uses of $no + \text{zero}$. However we will look more carefully at $n(o) + \text{copula}$, at $n(o) + \text{copula} + \text{SFP/Q}$ and finally at the use of $\text{wake ne}$.

Extract 2 consists of a 1.5 minute exchange between T and Y in which they discuss the
difficulties they encounter translating certain Japanese words into English. From lines 1 to 19, T mainly gives his opinion about the representation of Japanese *shimesu* (= show) in English as either ‘suggest’ or ‘show’. At this stage, Y’s *aizuchi* show that she listens to him. From line 20 to the end, Y takes a more forceful role and tries to persuade T that the choice of word in any particular context depends on the native English speaker’s intuition and that it is difficult for Japanese speakers to translate accurately into English.

It may be helpful to describe the academic paper in which ‘suggest’ is used and which triggers this discussion. Its title is ‘Tone of the article’ and it discusses translation techniques. The text is as follows: “As the title *suggests* this is not a serious news article. Rather, it is an amusing piece, and the writer makes use of puns, plays on words, and idioms to create a humorous, light hearted tone…” T wondered whether he would use *shows* here instead of *suggests* if he were the writer and what the difference between *shows* and *suggests* is.

In line 1, T opens up the topic with the statement *suggest tte iu toki no tsukai kata wa* (the way ‘suggest’ is used is). This is marked as topic (with the topic marker *wa*) and then T suddenly affects a self-repair and the subject is directly broached with *douiuoki-ni suggest tte tsukau* (when people use the word ‘suggest’), which is nominalized with *n* and to which *darou* is attached.
From the perspective of ontology, we may say that T wonders about the entity contained in the nominal structure. He knows that native English speakers use the word ‘suggest’ in a certain situation, so he wants to focus on ‘when’ they use it, rather than on the fact that they do use it. Ontologically, what he implies in the utterance is that there is a reified proposition (signalled by n) and this proposition might have a potential to exist in some world (signalled by darou). That is why the n(o) da construction is necessary here.

According to Horie’s (1998) argument, we may say that a close English translation would be something like ‘It might be assertable that there is a right time to use the word ‘suggest’.’ That is to say, what he is wondering about is not when people use the word ‘suggest’ but whether it is worth saying that there is a right time to use it in some world. Because of T’s use of n darou, to express uncertainty toward the proposition, after a slight pause Y provides aizuchi in line 4, as she cannot understand yet what the main point of T’s talk is.

On the other hand, in line 6, Y’s response shows her agreement to the general idea of the Japanese translation of ‘suggest’ which T provides in line 5.
In line 5, T uses a tag, probably because he expects her response in the form of confirmation or dissent, with confirmation indicated as the preferred response by means of the tag desho.

In his utterance in lines 7 and 8, T gives an explanation of his utterance in line 5 with a nominalizer wake⁹ and a final particle ne. As in line 2, the nominalizer is obligatory here because T does not want to discuss whether the assertion do kangaetemo – imi dewanai is true or not, but wants to represent the assertion as a reified proposition (wake) and ask for Y’s agreement (ne). Y then provides aizuchi in line 9, and T continues his exposition in line 10.

---

9 Wake can be a noun and a nominalizer. The literal meaning of wake is ‘reason’. Where wake occurs, it usually conveys the notion of explanation, presumably derived from the original meaning of the word.
Although *wake* can be replaced here with *no*, *wake* is preferred, probably because it enables the turn to be interpreted as a gloss on a previous turn. There is also a pitch prominence on *ne*. Viewed in this light, one may say that this use of *wake* suggests that T has not yet finished what he wants to explain and *ne* indicates that he expects the addressee's acceptance of the proposition reified by the use of *wake*. T's use of *wake ne* in line 8 seems to affect the trajectory of the interaction here, prompting Y to contribute a minimal *aizuchi* in line 8, thus allowing T to develop his argument. Rather than comment on his utterance, Y provides *aizuchi* as an acknowledgement of his proposition. This *aizuchi* is latched to T's turn. Similarly, T's next turn (line 10) is latched to Y's *aizuchi*. We can say that Y's *aizuchi* confirms the ground established so far and indicates that she is following T's drift.

In line 12, T gives his opinion that 'show' should be used instead of 'suggest' and again reifies the assertion (*n*) but expresses a degree of uncertainty (*darou*) about this status. Again Y provides *aizuchi*.

12T:  nande show janakute suggest na  
       n  darou.  
       why  show Cop-Neg suggest Cop Nom Cop
13   (0.4)
14Y:  ha:\=  
       yeah
12T:  'I wonder (*n darou*) /why it's 'suggest' rather than 'show'/.'
13   (0.4)
14Y:  'Yeah.'=

T wants to focus on 'why' native English speakers use 'suggest' rather than 'show', not on
the fact that they use 'suggest', so the *n(o) da* construction is obligatory. In fact the use of *nande* (why) together with the *n(o) da* construction occurs very often in discourse, as discussed earlier (pp.47-8). Y understands better what T wants to say because, after the preliminaries in lines 5, 7, 8, and 10, he has now explained what he thinks, so her *aizuchi* in line 14 is not the unmarked *un* (= continue) but *ha:* (= I get it), which implies understanding. In addition, we should not overlook the slight pause before *ha:* . It seems that she has started to think about his embedded question\(^\text{10}\) already. Despite the long pause at line 13 and perhaps because of the lengthened vowel of *ha:*, latching occurs between Y and T's turns at lines 14 and 15.

In lines 15 and 16, in order to make his position clearer, T gives an actual instance and repeats his uncertainty once more with the *darou* variant of the *n(o) da* construction.

13 (0.4)
14Y:  *ha:* = 
15T: *=tatoeba ano so kono-koto-ga-shimesu-yooni tte iu toki-ni,
     for-example um yes this-thing-S-show-as QT say when
16 :  nande hhh ano show janakute suggest o tsukatta *n darou ka.*=
     for-some-reason um show Cop-Neg suggest O use-Past Nom Cop Q

13 (0.4)
14Y:  "Yeah."
15T: *=‘For example, when you say ‘As this suggests’,
16 :  I don’t understand (*n darou ka*) /why ‘show’ isn’t used but ‘suggest’ is/.’=

The *n(o) da* construction in line 16 is obligatory because of *nande* (why).

In line 17, Y's response consists of *un* delivered in an undertone and latched to T's

\(^{10} I will use the term 'embedded question' to refer to a question rendered indirect by the *n(o) darou* construction.
previous turn. This is followed by her response.

17Y: =*un*= (1.5) show wa karada de yeah show T body with
18 (1.2)

17Y: =*Yeah*= (1.5) ‘show’ is something to do with demonstrating with your body
18 (1.2)

In line 19, T makes an objection to her opinion after 1.2-second pause and suggests that ‘show’ implies illustrate\textsuperscript{11}.

19T: iya, boku wa zu na no ka-na tte iu: kanji-mo-shita wake ne.
    no I T figure Cop Nom Q-FP QT say feel-Past Nom FP

19T: ‘No, /I had the feeling /it might be a way of introducing an illustration of some kind/, might it not (no ka-na) / wake ne.’

According to Horie’s (1998) argument, T shows with no ka-na (nominalizer + question marker + exclamatory marker) that one might ask whether the proposition ‘zu na (it is an illustration)’ might be assertable in some world. T uses wake ne, to convey that his turn can be interpreted as an explanation. The difference from the last use of wake ne in line 8 and this use is that there is no pitch prominence on ne on this occasion. This triggers the response a::: (yeah), which shows Y’s understanding of T’s previous utterance, followed by dakara sa (so + IP), in line 20.

From lines 20 to 25, Y gives her opinion that the choice of word in English depends on intuition.

\textsuperscript{11} Literally, zu means map or pictorial figure of this kind people draw when they explain how to get to, for example, a shop.
20-26Y: 'Yeah, so, because we just depend on the (English-Japanese) dictionary, we don’t know the real native English intuition. So Lisa said that /I couldn’t use ‘explain’ in this case/ n da. I asked why, and she [said /although she cannot explain, it is impossible/ n da’=

23T: [laughs]

The n(o) da construction (n + da) is used twice here, in lines 23 and 25, each time in reported speech. When it appears in indirect speech as here, the n(o) da construction does not seem obligatory. Thus, it would be acceptable for the propositions explain wa tsukaenai tte (line 23) and kono toki wa dame da tte (lines 23-24) to occur without n(o) + da. However Y uses n + da, probably because she tries not just to inform T of Lisa’s (hereafter, L) comment but also to inform him that it was she, i.e. L, who suggested explain wa tsukaenai (one couldn’t use ‘explain’) and kono toki wa dame da (it is impossible in this case) and that Y confirmed this. As a result, Y’s perspective is calculated to be more persuasive to the addressee. Under the circumstances, T cannot say anything, and therefore just laughs in line 26, allowing Y to continue.

In line 27, n + da + yone is the strongest possible way of conveying that you are really excited by what you say: the assertion is nominalized by n and the resulting
propansion asserted by da; by attaching yone, the speaker asks the addressee to agree (ne) that the comment should be responded to in some inferential way (yo).

27Y: =.hhh ano KANKAKU GA (.) yappari (.) watashi: mo hoshii n da yone. the intuition S (I)-think I also want Nom Cop FP

27Y: ='.hhh /I think I want that native speaker's intuition/ n da yone.'

We can see her excitement from the long in-breath at the beginning of her utterance and the pitch prominence on KANKAKU GA. She uses n da here in order to assert the assertivity of the proposition ano kankaku ga watashi mo hoshii (I want that native speaker's intuition). According to Saigo's explanation of the function of yone (2006), yo is used when the speaker intends the information to be taken for granted as common ground provoking an inferentially related response, and ne invites the addressee's agreement that the proposition should indeed be responded to in this way.

In line 28, T responds with n darou ne.

28T: m;:, demo sore tte doo na n darou ne. tatoeba (2.0) dokoma-, demo s-sono well but that T how Cop Nom Cop FP for-example how-much but the

28T: 'Well, but I wonder (n darou ne) /how important that is/. For example,'

T is not sure of the assertivity of this proposition (doo na), and uses darou to express his uncertainty. Then he directs the addressee's acceptance of this position as a ground with ne. The use of ne prepares Y for an example in support of the speaker's opinion.

In an overlapping utterance (line 31), Y uses the expression no ka.
Y probably uses the variant of the *n(o) da* construction because she infers what T wants to say next from his utterance *sono hito ga dokomade kotoba ni* (how much you pay attention to words), therefore she reifies the assertion *binkan na* (it’s a matter of how sensitive you are) and uses the question marker *ka* to check whether her anticipatory completion is acceptable. Interestingly, Y uses the *n(o) da* construction whereas T does not, although the propositions, *kodawatteru* (pay attention) and *binkan* ([be] sensitive) are almost identical. This is probably because T is not sure ‘whether you pay attention to words or not’.

In lines 32-34, T tries to discuss another case, but Y interrupts him.

In line 34, Y again informs T of what she heard probably from L, but this time she does
this without the no da construction, eigo no joshiki to shite tte itteta yo (she said it
depends on English intuition), since on this occasion she is informing T of what L said. In
line 36, there seems to be nothing that he can do but laugh because he had tried to
continue discussing his interpretation with Y at line 32 but this attempt was rebutted.

In lines 38 and 39, Y uses n + da + yo twice, that is, each proposition is reified by
n and asserted by da before T is invited to react by Y’s second use of yo.

37Y: mo: dakara _ ne*, sonna-ni fukai mon _ janai mitai. .h Dakara ne, watashi
   umm therefore IP such deep thing Cop-Neg seem so IP I
38: mo ne (. ) dame na _ n _ da _ yo, daka-DAKara koko-ni kita
   also IP impossible Cop Nom Cop FP that-is-why here (I)-came
39: _ n _ da _ yo.
   Nom Cop FP
40 (2.0)
41T: [ma: ne.
   m: yeah FP

37-39Y:
   'Umm therefore, it does not seem to be such a difficult thing. .h //So, it’s
   because (n da yo) I lack such intuitions/ that I came here/ _ n _ da _ yo.'
40 (2.0)
41T: 'M: [yeah ne.'

Y does not want to give the reason why she came to UK (it’s because I lack such intuitions
that I came here) without indicating its status as a proposition (n) which is assertably
taken-for-granted in the actual world (da) and which she wishes to discuss (yo).

In lines 42-47, Y uses the expressions no ka-na and n da yone.

42Y: [mo, sooiu NE, chigai tte iu _ no _ ka-na, kono toki WA
   so like-that IP difference QT say Nom Q-FP this case T
43T: [m::
44Y: [explain da kedo kon toki WA (1.2) a nan da exam-exama
   explain Cop although this case T well what Cop exam(ine)
45T: examine?
   examine
46Y: examine (. ) toka ne, sooiu (. ) kuriaa-na ano: (1.2) chigai
   examine and-so-on IP like-that clear umm difference
In lines 42 and 47, Y uses no + ka-na following the proposition chigai tte iu (it is the difference). She nominalizes and reifies the proposition (no) and expresses uncertainty (ka-na). We may say that she seems sure that there is a difference between words such as 'explain' and 'examine' but is not sure about how different they are, so that she uses the expression no ka-na. As for n + da + yone in line 47, its function is the same as in line 27, that is, Y concludes her opinion with n + da and tries to get agreement from T that an inferentially related response is called for with yone.

In lines 48-51, T reacts to this use of yone, that is, he says m::: to show his agreement that the proposition in line 47 merits a response and then, after a pause for thought, responds to the proposition itself with native janai to wakaranai yone.

In line 51, T does not use the n(o) da construction although he uses yappari in his
utterance (line 50). It seems that he does not have to reify his assertion, *native janai to wakan-nai* (we cannot understand because we are not native), and then assert it, rather he just gives his opinion straightforwardly after the lengthened *mːːːː*, which shows his unwilling acceptance of her opinion followed by a long pause. This unwilling acceptance is prefaced by *maː*, which indicates that his response will not be fully expected in terms of its content.

**Summary**

- Pragmatically *n(o) + da* is used to claim the assertivity of propositions rather than to assert their content. The content is treated as a ground and its assertivity is what is to be discussed in the conversation.

- *N(o) + darou* is used when the assertivity of the reified proposition might be questioned, that is, the speaker expresses uncertainty toward the status of the proposition.

- A speaker who uses *n(o) + darou + ka* not only expresses uncertainty toward the assertivity of the proposition but also personally affiliates to that perspective, and a speaker who uses *n(o) + darou + ne* invites the addressee’s acceptance of this position.

- A proposition reified by *wake* is interpreted as an explanation.
• $N + da + yo / yone$ enables the speaker to draw attention to the assertion of a reified proposition that deserves some response from the addressee. In other words, the speaker frequently concludes an argument or formulates a position with $n + da + yo / yone$, trying to get the addressee to provide an inferentially related response ($yo$) or agree that such a response is appropriate ($yone$).

3.1.3 Extract 3: Plumbing problems

In this section, although all of the structures used by the speakers have been discussed before, there are non-typical uses of $no + zero, n(o) + copula$, the use of $no$ in interrogatives and zero. The data to be analysed consist of a 2-minute extract from the exchange between Y & T. Y talks mainly about the previous day, about trouble with her bathroom and then about her Pragmatics term assignment. To begin with, from lines 1 to 36, Y talks about the problem of not having hot water in her bathroom, and T talks about having the same experience when he stayed at a B&B. Then, from line 37 to the end, she describes how she got low because she had to write two essays and how much she was upset when she received an email from T. To make matters worse, she could not relax when she took a bath as she had no hot water.

In line 1, Y opens up the topic (she has something to ask about) with the $n(o) da$
expression, to which *kedo* is attached. When Japanese speakers open up a topic, they often say *X n(o) da / desu kedo* before they start telling a story, as discussed earlier.

1Y: *ano-sa hen-na hanashi kiku n: desu kedo* Toshi-san tte ofuro hairu

well-IP strange story ask Nom Cop though Toshi T bath take

1Y: 'By the way, /I will ask you about something a bit odd/ though

2 : *(kedo)* n desu Toshi, when you take a bath, well,'

The reason for using the *n(o) da* construction here is that *Y* wants to reify the proposition *hen-na hanashi kiku* (*I will ask you a strange thing*) by means of *n* and to assert its assertivity by means of *desu*. The phrase functions as a preliminary statement to draw an addressee’s attention to and sometimes to show the speaker’s hesitation in broaching a topic. Because *Y* hesitates to ask *T* a strange question here, she chooses the more formal *desu* rather than *da*. In addition, the lengthened *n:* shows her hesitation about broaching the topic.

From lines 1 to 4, *Y* asks *T* how he takes a shower. Although *Y* uses the question marker *ka* in line 4, the sentence is not marked by rising intonation so that the use of *ka* here functions like a tag.

1Y: *ano-sa hen-na hanashi kiku n: desu kedo* Toshi-san tte ofuro hairu

well-IP strange story ask Nom Cop though Toshi T bath take

2 : toki tte sa: ja shawa: kooyatte .h biya:n

when T IP well shower like-this Onomatopoeia (taking a shower)

3 : tte abite, atama ga: karada ga::: tte

QT take head Onomatopoeia (washing noise) body Onomat QT

4 : aratte sorede (.) magashichau dake ka.

wash then rinse only FP

1Y: 'By the way, /I will ask you about something a bit odd/ though

2 : *(kedo)* n desu Toshi, when you take a bath, well,

3 : while you are taking a shower, you wash your hair and body

4 : and then rinse, that’s it, isn’t it *ka*.'
Then, from lines 5 to 8, T answers her question and explains his way of taking a shower, concluding with *no + zero*.

T uses *no + zero* to show that there is a proposition with *no*, that is to say, he does not assert the proposition but just states it nominally as a fact or a ground for his continuing talk.

In line 10, T uses *no kamoshirenai* (nominalizer + modality ‘might’).

In this way, he reifies the proposition and adds that it ‘might’ be assertable. There is a pitch prominence on ‘might’ which seems to make the assertivity of the proposition stronger\(^\text{12}\).

In line 11, Y uses *da yone*.

---
\(^{12}\) Some English speakers may feel intuitively that a pitch prominence makes the assertivity of the proposition weaker rather than stronger, but in Japanese it is widely agreed that such prominence strengthens assertivity.
In line 13, she uses *no ka-na* (nominalizer + question marker + exclamatory marker).

According to Horie’s (1995) discussion, she shows with *no ka-na* that one might ask whether the proposition *haikan tte iu*\(^{13}\) (that it’s to do with plumbing) might be assertable in some world.

In line 14, Y uses *n da* to reify the assertion that it is a problem with the system and asserts its propositional status.

\(^{13}\) For a discussion of *to iu* (*tte* is a casual form of *to*), see Maynard (1997 [1999]: 167-172).
taken-for-granted, as confirmed by T's aizuchi in line 15. In line 16, she gives her opinion again with n da, and in addition, uses the expression datte – mon\(^{14}\), in order to support her previous utterance.

In line 18, Y uses nan-chu:. As mentioned before, variations on this metapragmatic phrase occur together with the n(o) da construction when there is something to say but the speaker is not sure yet what it is or how to say it.

From lines 19 to 26, neither Y nor T uses the n(o) da construction as they inform each other of their own experiences.

---

\(^{14}\) Datte is a conjunction used when the speaker accounts informally. Mon is a SFP used when a speaker insists that he is right.
A speaker chooses zero, i.e. a turn is not marked by either a variant of the \(n(o)\) da construction or a SFP, to contribute evidence or express a reaction without giving any instruction as to what should happen in the next turn.

In line 27, T uses \(no + zero\) in his indirect speech.

26T: =B:, honto-ni konna kono kuni tte .h honto-ni bunmei-koku
w ow really like-this this country QT really civilized-country
27 : na no kore tte omo---
Cop Nom this QT thought
26T: ='Wow, can this really be true,
27 : /this country is a civilized country/ no, I thoug-'

Although the intonation does not rise at \(no\), the assertivity of the proposition \(kono kuni tte honto-ni bunmei-koku na\) (this country is a civilized country) is questioned. This sounds sarcastic in the data and is embedded in the utterance so that the intonation does not rise.

According to Makihara’s argument (1995), \(noka\) interrogatives are presuppositional. T’s experience was such as to disappoint him, as he had believed that UK was a civilized country so that he would have no trouble with water. We can say that \(no + zero\) here is preferred for this reason.

In lines 28 to 30, Y makes a comment on T’s utterance in lines 26-7 and then, in lines 30 and 31 and lines 33 and 34, Y tells of her experience when she stayed with a family in UK in her school days.

28Y: =datte sa, igirisu-jin tte anmari ofuro ni hain-nai ( )
because IP English-people QT very bath in take-not
29T: \(\cdot mm\) =
uh-huh
30Y: =mukashi wa ne. de watashi ga daigakusei no toki-ni in-the-past T FP and I S university-student Gen when homestay shiteita ouchi mo soo datta.= homestay did house also so was
32T: =a:.= ah
33Y: =yappari dare-ka ga hairu to tsugi wa mizu na node, you-know someone S take then next T water Cop because 30-pun gurai mata-nai to ofuro hai-re-nakatta.= 30-minutes about wait-not then bath take-can-not-Past
35T: =a:.= ah

Although Japanese speakers often use bare no when recounting a story, it is not used here, probably because Y does not try to pile up fragments of the account of what occurred but just informs T of the facts. Rather than grounding a preliminary series of account fragments, her zero marked turns seem to invite topic closure. T's uses of aizuchi, a:, signal that he accepts Y's account.

Following T's second aizuchi, in line 35 a:, Y contributes the vocalization m: to indicate that she has finished talking about her past experience, and a 1.0-second pause follows.

36Y: m:. (1.0) .h tada kore de ne, mafuyu ni-natte kaze hiichatta: na-, m: just this with IP winter become cold catch anyway 37 : demo ne honto ne kinoo ne .h but IP really IP yesterday IP
36Y: 'mi, (1.0) just because of this I might catch cold in winter, anyway 37 : but, yesterday,'

She then recommences with tada kore de ne, - kaze hiichatta (just because of this I might catch cold in winter) delivered in a high tone and an intentionally ‘funny’ voice, and then
suddenly changes topic in line 37 with *demo ne* (but + IP) and starts to describe the panic which gripped her on the previous day.

From lines 36 to 39, she uses the particle *ne* on six occasions to invite acceptance of each fragment of her developing account and thus establish a common understanding between them.

From lines 41 to 46, she continues to talk. T provides *aizuchi* at lines 44 and 46 to signal that he understands which book she mentions.

In line 47, T uses the *n(o) da* construction; *n su ka*. Male speakers in particular
sometimes use *su ka* instead of *desu ka* in an informal situation.

47T: *are nande katta **n su ka**.*
that why bought Nom Cop Q

47T: '/Why did you buy that/ **n su ka**?'

The *n(o) da* construction is obligatory here because of *nande* (why). According to our discussion in the previous chapter, there is a presupposition that *Y* bought a small black book, and *T* wants to know why she bought it.

In line 48, *Y* hesitates and *T* remembers from something which they had talked about before marked by the obligatory use of *no*.

48Y: *are wa ne: (1.5) ano: [sui-* that T IP um
49T: *[a, susumetekureta *no?=* oh (she) recommended Nom

48Y: 'That one, well, um, [(she) reco-' 49T: ['Oh, /did she recommend it/ *no*=*

Y's response in line 50 is latched to T's turn as she repeats the proposition a particular book was recommended.

49T: *[a, susumetekureta *no?=-* oh (she) recommended Nom

50Y: *-un, [susumetekureta nde,* yeah (she) recommended because
51T: *[a:: I-see

52 (1.8)

49T: *[Oh /did she recommend it/ *no?=*
50Y: *'Yeah, she [reco]mmended it,'*
51T: *[I see.'*

52 (1.8)

In line 53, *Y* uses the *n(o) da* construction. Thus the proposition *ki o magirawa*
soo to shita (I tried to distract my mind from the worry) is reified by $n$ and its assertivity confirmed by means of $da$ with $kedo$ used here to introduce a concessive.

T then interrupts Y’s utterance (line 55) and asks (line 56) whether she had already received his email at the time she was upset about her essays. Since it is a fact that he sent an email to her and he wants to confirm that she had already received it at that time, $no$ is needed in his utterance here.

From lines 59 to 63, Y retains the floor and uses $no$ + zero twice. In a latched next turn following T’s turn in line 58 Y says that she panicked when she got an email from T.
Y uses no in line 59 in order to indicate that she wants this part of her account to be taken as a ground and continues her talk with hoide (then) after T's laughter in line 60. No in line 63 does not seem a typical use as this turn constitutes a formulation or closing comment on the day. As mentioned before (p.66), no has a pragmatic function and dramatically formulates the conclusion of a story without the expectation of a response from the addressee.

Summary

- $N + da / desu + kedo$ is often used when the speaker opens up a topic. The phrase functions as a preliminary statement to draw an addressee's attention to.

- $No + kamoshirenai$ is used to reify the proposition (no) and add that it 'might' be assertable.

- The non-typical use of $no + zero$ in a formulation is striking because it encodes a lack of expectation that the other speaker will respond.

- In terms of a topic control, $no + zero$ (+ SFP) is used to continue an account or similar method.

- The interjectional particle $ne$ is used when the speaker invites acceptance of each fragment of his developing account in order to establish a common understanding
between the speaker and the addressee.

- *N(o)* + copula *da* is used to formulate a conclusion following an account.

- *Nande* (why) and the *n(o) da* construction co-occur, because there is a presupposition triggered by *nande*.

- *N(o)* + copula *da / darou* + SFP is used to invite agreement or response.

- Turn + *zero* frequently indicates the speaker’s intention to bring a topic to a conclusion.

3.2 Sequential analyses

In this section, we will discuss the interactive features provoked by the use of the *n(o) da* construction in the extract under study and show how the pragmatics of the construction is relevant in explaining the trajectory of talk.

3.2.1 Extract 1: *Lunchtime talk*

In section 3.1.1, we concluded that *no + zero* typically invites the addressee to consider the proposition to which it is attached as grounded so that the speaker may continue an account sometimes after the addressee’s *aizuchi* or other non-linguistic acceptance, *no* + SFP reifies a proposition (*no*) and signals an expected response whose
nature is indicated by the SFP, and no + copula + SFP asserts (da) or shows the speaker’s uncertainty (darou) toward the proposition reified by no and invites the addressee to respond by means of the SFP. In this section, we will discuss the data from a sequential perspective. This analysis will show that Y mainly controls the talk and T provides aizuchi to encourage her to continue.

Line 1 functions as a preliminary statement to attract the addressee’s attention, that is, it works metadiscoursally.

1Y: a, soshitara sa, zenzen hanashi chigau n da kedo,
oh then at-all story different Nom Cop although
1Y: ‘By the way, /I have a completely different story/ though (kedo) n da,’

A, soshitara sa (Oh, then) here seems to function as a meta-sequential marker because it alerts the addressee to what is coming next, a new topic. We can say that the reification with n and assertion with da indicate that a new method, i.e. telling a new story, is being employed and the utterance thus constitutes a presequential account.

In the series of turns, from lines 1 to 7, Y reminds T that she had had lunch with Tanaka and Akiko. At this stage, Y is giving an account of the event that happened to her in order to lead up to the point she wishes to make.

1Y: a, soshitara sa, zenzen hanashi chigau n da kedo, .h konaida hora
oh then at-all story different Nom Cop although recently
2: Tanaka-san to Akiko-san to de o-hiru [tabe ni itta janai?
Tanaka-Ms and Akiko and with lunch eat went tag
3T: yeah
4Y: Toshi-san ga do-=
   Toshi S
5T: =un.=
    uh-huh
6Y: =Jera to itta toki-ni=
    Jera with went when
7T: =un.=
    uh-huh
1Y: 'By the way, /I have a completely different story/ though (kedo) n da,
2 : .h recently I [had lunch with Ms Tanaka and Akiko, didn’t I (janai)?'
3T: ['yeah.]
4Y: 'When you'=
5T: ='Uh-huh.'
6Y: 'went with Jera'=
7T: ='Uh-huh.'=

The interjection hora in line 1 often signals a reminder and in line 2, Y uses a tag to check that T remembers that Y had had lunch with Tanaka and Akiko. T provides aizuchi three times with an overlap in line 3 and latching in lines 5 and 7, as he encourages Y to press on with her account.

From line 8 to the end of this extract, Y describes the lunchtime meeting and T provides aizuchi and confirms his understanding. Y uses no + zero at the end turns twice, in lines 9 and 25, and each time aizuchi follows.

<18-10>
8Y: =ano toki ni ne, ano: Tanaka-san ga ne,
    that time at IP um Ms Tanaka S IP
9 : Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no.=
    Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
10T: =un.
    uh-huh
8-9Y: ='At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.’=
10T: ='Uh-huh.’

<123-26>
23Y: a kono hito yappa gengogaku suki-na dake-atte
    ah this person I-thought linguistics favorite because
24T: <laughs>
25Y: chotto miteru kanten ga chigau na to omotta no.
    a-little see point S different FP QT thought Nom
26T: a.
    oh
23Y: '/I thought because she likes linguistics,’
On these two occasions, T reacts not to the content of the proposition but to the fact that Y reifies it with T’s *aizuchi* indicating that he accepts the reified propositions as grounds. Thus T uses *aizuchi* to license Y’s continuing talk. As I remarked, the function of *no* is to reify a proposition as a part of a continuing account, so that the pragmatic function of *no + zero* is to allow the speaker to offer a proposition as a ground. In other words, a speaker builds up the background in an account by piling up fragments of the account in the form of reified or non-asserted propositions, non-asserted because of the nominalizing effect of *no*. Thus the speaker uses *no + zero* to mark a point at which the addressee’s confirmation of understanding is required so as to enable the speaker to continue with the account.

After T’s *aizuchi* (line 10), in line 11, Y uses *de* (then) logically to mark her continuation and *un* (well) to indicate that the upcoming proposition is probably not what Tanaka expects.

From lines 14 to 22, Y gives an account of conversation she had with Tanaka.
This section of the talk (lines 15-19) functions as an insertion sequence in which Y appeals to T for the evidence which supports her account of what Tanaka had said because T had heard Alan using a gender-marked expression the previous week.

Y uses no ka-ne in line 22. This use of no does not affect the sequentiality of Y’s talk, because it is relevant not to the interaction between Y and T, but to the interaction between Y and Tanaka in the reported speech and occurs expectably with nande (why).

T’s use of a: (line 26) signals that Y should continue, and at the same time, shows acceptance and understanding of her opinion. T’s a: seems to be triggered by Y’s use of word yappa (I mean, I think) in line 23 and no in line 25 which are calculated to prevent

---

15 *Ba:* is used when people describe people who speak fast and frequently.
16 *Yappa* is a colloquial expression of *yappari*.
T from making his view known since she wishes to make a further point before giving
him the floor.

23Y: a kono hito **yappa** gengogaku suki-na dake-atte
ah this person I-thought linguistics favorite because
24T: <laughs>
25Y: chotto miteru kanten ga chigau na to omotta no.
 a-little see point S different FP QT thought Nom
26T: a:
 ah
27Y: un. .h tada ne watashi, sore o kyakku-ni omotta no wa (1.0)
yeah but IP I that O hear contrary thought Nom T
23Y: '/I thought because she likes linguistics,'
24T: <laughs>
25Y: 'she sees his Japanese from a different perspective/ no.'
26T: 'Ah.'
27Y: 'Yeah. .h But, when I heard that, the thing I thought was (1.0)'

**Yappari** and the **n(o) da** construction are often found in conjunction, probably because
**yappari** triggers a change of method and signals an in-turn summary so that it co-occurs
with methods such as formulations or self-formulations that invite the next speaker to
take the floor. Although the construction in line 25 is **no** rather than **n(o) da**, T takes Y’s
utterance to be a self-formulation because of **yappa**, so that he acknowledges this with **a:**
(= I understand, I accept it) rather than **un** (= I hear). However, on this occasion, Y
switches method again and resumes her account in line 27. This is signalled with **tada**
(but), further confirming that her previous turn was a self-formulation.

The **n(o) da** construction and **yappari** also co-occur in line 30. From lines 27 to 30,
Y explains that she is afraid that her native speaker English friends, Emily and Alan,
might think her spoken English strange just as Tanaka thought Alan’s spoken Japanese...
strange.

27Y: un. .h tada ne watashi, sore o kiite gyaku-ni omotta no wa (1.0)
    yeah but IP I that O hear contrary thought Nom T
28 : tatoeba ne, Emily to Alan ga watashi ga hanashiteiru eigo o
    for-example IP and S I S speak English O
29 : kiite .h aru-tokoro made wa atteru, totsuzen gaku tto .h machigaeru to
    listen that-point to T right suddenly QT make-mistake then
30 : a: yappa aa-yatte omou no ka-na to omotte ne.=
      ah I-think so think Nom FP QT thought FP

27Y: 'Yeah. .h But, when I heard that, the thing I thought was (1.0)
28 : for example, when Emily and Alan hear me speaking English,
29 : it has been right up to a certain point, but suddenly I make a mistake,
30 : then ah /I guess /they think as Tanaka thought/ no ka-na/ ne.'=

The long turn from 27-30 enables Y to explain what she felt as she listened to Tanaka, so
that it would be reasonable to say that it is a kind of self-formulation and therefore Y uses
yappa and no ka-na together and concludes with to omotte ne (I guess). This turn-final ne
asks T for his agreement, which he expresses with the n(o) da construction.

31T: =sorya omou n darou ne.
    (they)think Nom Cop FP
31T: ='Yeah, /maybe they do/ n darou ne.'

T reifies the proposition ‘they think so’ with n and shows uncertainty toward this
propositional certainty with darou. We might say that T cares about her and avoids
disagreement although he is also careful to disaffiliate from the proposition that others
find her English strange. The use of n darou here thus marks a revised formulation.

Summary

- In n + da + kedo, the reification with n and assertion with da indicate that a new
method, i.e. telling a new story, is being employed and the utterance with the phrase thus constitutes a presequential account.

- The pragmatic function of no + zero is to ground a proposition (or more strictly, to invite the addressee’s acceptance of the proposition as a ground) and its sequential effect is to provoke aizuchi.

- The pragmatic marker yappari co-occurs with the n(o) da construction because both indicate a new method, either a formulation or a self-formulation.

3.2.2 Extract 2: A problem of translation

In section 3.1.2, we discussed the pragmatics of n(o) + copula, n(o) + copula + SFP/Q and wake ne. There are no uses of no + zero in this extract, probably because rather than one speaker providing an account, Y and T are talking about ‘a problem of translation’, which they explore together. As discussed in the previous section, no + zero is often used when a speaker contributes fragments to a continuing account.

In lines 1 and 2, Y opens up the topic and uses n darou, that is, he has stated only the topic and the proposition about which he expresses uncertainty.
In the paper (0.8), the way 'suggest' is used is,
2. I wonder (/n darou) /when people use the word 'suggest'/.
3. (0.2)
4Y: 'Uh-huh.'

It seems unlikely that a speaker would expect the addressee’s aizuchi at this point in an English conversation. In Japanese, however, aizuchi is needed here because of the n(o) da construction. T does not expect Y’s response to the proposition about which he is uncertain but rather that he expects Y’s acceptance of the fact that there is a degree of uncertainty about the proposition, i.e. a problem worth discussing. The short pause before the aizuchi also signals that Y wishes T to continue rather than intends to respond herself at this point.

From lines 5 to 11, T explains his problem in more detail. Y provides aizuchi and thus encourages T to continue.
In line 5, T first presents the general case and then explains his problem with *wake*, which nominalizes a proposition which is viewed as a kind of reason, and asks Y for agreement with *ne*. *Ma* (well) in line 10 has an orientation to consequentiality and signals an upcoming departure in a different direction, that new direction being another possibility for the translation of the word ‘suggest’. Similarly, *ma aru ni-shite-mo* suggests that this sub-topic is not worth pursuing.

In line 12, T states the problem; why should ‘suggest’ rather than ‘show’ be the preferred translation:

12T: *nande show janakute suggest na n darou*.  
why show Cop-Neg suggest Cop Nom Cop
13 (0.4)
14Y: *ha:*=  
yeah
12T: ‘I wonder *(n darou)* /why it’s ‘suggest’ rather than ‘show’/*.’
13 (0.4)
14Y: ‘Yeah.’−

We can say that the uses of *n darou* in lines 2 and 12 indicate a problem to which T does not know the answer and therefore invite Y to think about it together with him. Once again Y acknowledges the existence of a problem with *aizuchi*, and once again there is a pause while Y digests T’s point that what is required from Y at this stage is acknowledgement of the existence of a problem before acknowledging this with the OK-I-got-it *aizuchi* form *ha:*

In lines 15 and 16, T cites an actual instance and repeats his uncertainty once more
with n(o) darou ka.

15T: =tatoeba ano so kono-koto-ga-shimesu-yooni tte iu toki-ni, for-example um yes this-thing-S-show-as QT say when
16 : nande hhh ano show janakute suggest o tsukatta n darou ka.= for-some-reason um show Cop-Neg suggest O use-Past Nom Cop Q
17Y: =un' (1.5) show wa karada de yeah show T body with

15T: =‘For example, when you say ‘As this suggests’,
16 : I don’t understand (n darou ka) /why ‘show’ isn’t used but ‘suggest’ is/.’=
17Y: =‘Yeah’ (1.5) ‘show’ is something to do with demonstrating with your body.’

Unlike lines 2 and 12, on this occasion, the n(o) da construction is followed by the question marker ka, indicating that T is now asking for Y’s view about the problem. In line 17, Y’s response consists of un delivered in an undertone and latched to T’s previous turn and then her response. More noteworthy is that there is a pause after the latched un. This can be interpreted to mean that she is thinking about his question since un is delivered in an undertone and she is obliged to respond in any case because of ka.

In line 19, T contradicts Y’s suggestion and suggests that ‘show’ implies illustrate.

17Y: =un' (1.5) show wa karada de yeah show T body with
18 (1.2)
19T: iya, boku wa zu na no ka-na tte iu: kanji-mo-shita wake ne. no I T figure Cop Nom Q-FP QT say feel-also-Past Nom FP
17Y: =‘Yeah’ (1.5) ‘show’ is something to do with demonstrating with your body.’
18 (1.2)
19T: ‘No, /I had the feeling /it might be a way of introducing an illustration of some kind/, might it not (no ka-na) / wake ne.’

There is a long pause before iya (no) comes, which may well show T’s reluctance to disagree with Y too quickly. In addition, ka-na, wake ne and mo (also) all mitigate the force of iya: ka-na expresses T’s uncertainty toward the reified proposition zu na, wake
nominalizes the whole proposition zu na – kanji mo shita treating it as a potential reason, ne invites Y’s agreement and mo indicates that T accepts Y’s opinion (i.e. show wa karada de) whilst at the same time, putting forward his own opinion.

We can now say that, from lines 1 to 19, T uses n darou (ka) and wake ne and tries to establish the problem as a topic requiring a solution. In other words, he expects Y to accept his attitude toward the proposition, that is uncertainty. N darou and particularly n darou ka are used to ask Y to accept his uncertainty and hopefully respond in order to help solve the problem. Wake ne is used to ask Y to react to his attitude toward the proposition with aizuchi and to allow him to continue to explain.

From lines 20 to 27, although Y provides aizuchi expectedly, she continues to talk and reports her native English speaker friend Lisa’s saying that the choice of word in English depends on intuition, and then in line 27 says she wishes that she had that native speaker’s intuition.

20Y: A:::, .h dakara sa, watashi-tachi tte sa:, sooyatte sa jisho: no yeah so IP we T IP like-that IP dictionary Gen
21: nihon-go yaku bakkari dakara sa, .h ano:, honto-no Japanese-language translation just because IP umm real
22: kankaku tte iu no ga wakan-nai yone. .h dakara, hora, watashi ga sa intuition QT say Nom S know-not FP so IP I S IP
23: Lisa ga kono toki wa explain wa tsuka-e-nai n da, tte, .h nande Lisa S this case T explain T use-can-not Nom Cop QT why
24: da tte kii-ta-ra sore wa setsumei dekina kedo kono toki wa Cop QT (I)-asked-then that T (she)-explain cannot although this case T
dame na n da tte [itta=- impossible Cop Nom Cop QT (she)-say-Past
26T: [laughs]
27Y: =.hh ano KANKAKU GA (.) yappari (.) watashi: mo hoshii n da yone. the intuition S (I)-think I also want Nom Cop FP

20-25Y: ‘Yeah, so, because we just depend on the (English-Japanese) dictionary, we
don’t know the real native English intuition yone. So Lisa said that /I couldn’t use ‘explain’ in this case/ n da. I asked why, and she [said /although she cannot explain, it is impossible/ n da‘

26T: [laughs]
27Y: =‘.hhh /I think I want that native speaker’s intuition/ n da yone.’

In her reported speech, Y uses n da twice. She uses n da rather than zero probably because Y understands Lisa not just as offering a comment but as intending it to end her turn and perhaps to curtail further discussion. That is to say, Y interprets the sequentiality of Lisa’s contribution as being an aggressive end of turn method. That is why T laughs in line 26 rather than contributing to the talk.

In line 27, Y uses yappari and n + da + yone. Utterances with the n(o) + da often indicate that the speaker is formulating or concluding a phase in the talk and inviting other speaker continuation, as discussed at the beginning of this chapter. A further function is added when other SFPs like ne, yo, or yone follow n(o) + da. This utterance in line 27 comes after Y’s long turn about native English speaker intuition and functions as a self-formulation. However, this does not seem a sufficient explanation to resolve the issue T had raised, so that yone is added to invite T to respond.

Then T returns to the topic in lines 28 and 30, he makes a slight objection to her opinion.

28T: m:: demo sore tte doo na n darou ne. tatoeba (2.0) dokoma-, demo well but that T how Cop Nom Cop FP for-example how-much but
29 : s-sono hito ga DOKamade kotoba ni:.)[kodawatteru ka tte iu: ka the person S how-much word to pay-attention Q QT say FP
30 : da ne.= Cop FP
28-30T: 'Well, but I wonder (n darou ne) /how important that is/. For example it is how much [you pay attention to words ne.]

In line 28, T's m:: (vocalization) shows his hesitation as to whether the proposition in line 27 merits a response and also marks his intention to disagree with Y. He duly responds with demo sore tte doo na n darou ne (but I wonder how important that is n darou ne).

After showing his disagreement, T tries to introduce a related case. However Y interrupts him in line 33.

37Y: mo: dakara ne, sonnani fukai mon janai mitai .h dakara ne watashi umm therefore IP such deep thing Cop-Neg seem so 'IP

A pause and his laughter in lines 35 and 36 show that he gives up trying to get a helpful explanation or resolution of the problem from Y, who seems content with the native speaker intuition position. Despite T's laughter, Y continues, twice using n + da + yo.
'Umm therefore, it does not seem to be such a difficult thing. So, /it's because (n da yo) /I lack such intuitions n da yo/ that I came here/.'

Y’s repetition of dakara and n + da signal her attempt to formulate. In her formulation, we can see her excitement from the self-repair of the word dakara; i.e. daka-dakara (line 38) and the pitch prominence on it. Moreover, she adds yo to her assertions because she intends that her assertion should be taken for granted as common ground and also anticipates what Saigo calls an ‘assumptive response’ by either herself or the addressee in the next turn. The assumptive response to the first use of yo (dame na n da yo) is the utterance dakara koko ni kita n da yo, and to the second use of yo (koko ni kita n da yo) is given by Y in lines 42-7 mo, sooiu ne, --- sooiu no o shiritai n da yone, since in line 41 T reluctantly agrees and does not attempt to provide a response despite the long pause that precedes his turn.

Saigo argues that yo invites the addressee to respond in a way that is assumptive, i.e. the response should consist of an assumption that is (inferentially) related to the speaker’s utterance. It is also possible, according to Saigo, for an existing speaker to provide the assumptive response themselves, as happens here.
In lines 42 and 47, Y uses no ka-na, orienting to her attempt to resolve the problem. Then finally she uses n + da + yone, again formulating her position with n + da. This time the SFP yone follows the n(o) da construction inviting T’s agreement (ne) and seeking his inferentially related response (yo). T then reacts with m:::: to show his acceptance before responding to the proposition itself which Y’s use of n + da + yone obliges him to accept.

Summary

- N(o) + da and n(o) + darou are pragmatic devices needed at a transition relevance place when the addressee is required to respond, n(o) da marking a formulating or concluding turn, and n darou indicates a problem in need of resolution.

- N(o) + darou + ka indicates a problem (darou) and asks for the addressees view about it by means of ka.
• *Wake* + *ne* indicates that a reified proposition is viewed as a kind of reason and invites the addressee to accept it.

• *N(o) + da* followed by a SFP directs the nature of the addressee’s response, with *n + da + yo* anticipating an assumptive response and *n + da + yone* marking a formulation that the addressee is expected to accept.

### 3.2.3 Extract 3: Plumbing problems

In section 3.1.3, we discussed *n + da / desu + kedo, no + kamoshirenai*, non-typical uses of *no + zero, n(o) + copula*, the use of *no* in interrogatives and *zero*. We concluded that 1) *n + da / desu + kedo* is often used when the speaker opens up a topic and the phrase functions as a preliminary statement to draw an addressee’s attention to, 2) *no + kamoshirenai* is used to reify the proposition (*no*) and add that it ‘might’ be assertable, 3) the non-typical use of *no + zero* in a formulation is striking because it encodes a lack of expectation that the other speaker will respond, 4) *nande* (why) and the *n(o) da* construction co-occur, because there is a presupposition triggered by *nande*, and 5) in terms of a topic control, a speaker typically uses *no + zero (+ SFP)* when he intends to continue an account or similar method, *n(o) + copula da* when he intends to formulate, *n(o) + copula da / darou + SFP* to invite agreement or response, and *zero* to indicate the
conclusion or potential conclusion of a topic. In this sub-section, we will discuss the third
and final of the extracts from a sequential perspective. This analysis will show that Y
engages in a protracted presequence from lines 1-11, that both T and Y build up evidence
in support of the problem introduced in the presequence (lines 13-36) and from line 37 to
the end Y gives an account of a new and seemingly unrelated topic, a panic attack
experienced earlier in the day.

In line 1, *ano-sa* (by the way) functions as a meta-sequential marker indicating a
degree of unrelatedness between the upcoming topic and the previous talk.

1Y: *ano-sa* hen-na hanashi kiku n: *desu kedo* Toshi-san tte ofuro hairu
well-IP strange story ask Nom Cop though Toshi T bath take

1Y: ‘By the way, /I will ask you about something a bit odd/ though
2: *(kedo) n desu* Toshi, when you take a bath, well’

From lines 1 to 4, Y asks T how he takes a shower.

1Y: *ano-sa* hen-na hanashi kiku n: *desu kedo* Toshi-san tte ofuro hairu
well-IP strange story ask Nom Cop though Toshi T bath take

2: toki tte sa: ja shawa: kooyatte .h biya:n
when T IP well shower like-this Onomatopoeia (taking a shower)

3: tte abite, atama ga: karada ga::: tte
QT take head Onomatopoeia (washing noise) body Onomat QT

4: aratte sorede (. ) nagashichau dake *ka.*
wash then rinse only FP

1Y: ‘By the way, /I will ask you about something a bit odd/ though
2: *(kedo) n desu* Toshi, when you take a bath, well,
3: while you are taking a shower, you wash your hair and body
4: and then rinse, that’s it, isn’t it *(ka).*’

Y uses a tag in line 4 probably because her utterance is not a real question but seeks
confirmation of the usual way to take a shower. However, from lines 5-8, T first tries to
answer her question with *dakara* (so) (line 5), and then explains his way of showering,
concluding with no + zero (lines 8).

5T: un, [dakara
   yes so
6Y: [su:::- soo sure-ba
   so do-if
7  (0.2)
8T: karada ga:: sugoi atatamaru made shawaa wa zutto abi-tsuzuken no.
    body S very get-warm till shower T through take-continue Nom
9Y: sore datta-ra watashi: ga (.) oyu o tamete=
    that Cop-Past-if I S hot-water O fill
10T: =-ru gurai to onaji [ryoo NA NO KAMOshirenai.
    about with same amount Cop Nom might
   about with same amount Cop Nom might
5T: ‘Yes, [so,’
6Y: [‘i-:::-f you do so’
7  (0.2)
8T: ‘/until I get very warm, I keep taking a shower/ no.’
9Y: ‘If you do that and I fill a bathtub’=
10T: ‘/it might be the same [amount/ NO KAMOshirenai.’

Y’s interruption in line 6 indicates that she does not want him to say much, presumably because she wishes to build on her presequence in lines 1 to 4, but the short pause in line 7 functions as a response to his bid to formulate indicated by dakara (so) and thus invites him to continue. His turn at line 8 concludes with no, probably because, rather than formulating, he gives a piece of extra information about the showering. However, Y responds in line 9 as though to a formulation and T interrupts her in line 10 in order to continue his explanation and provide an anticipatory completion, marked as a concluding formulation by the use of the n(o) da construction, which Y confirms:

11Y: [onaji da yone.
     same Cop FP
12  (1.5)
11Y: [‘it is the same (da) yone.’
12  (1.5)

Following Saigo (2002), at this point T is expected to agree (ne) that the comment should
be responded to in some inferential way (yo). However, a 1.5 second pause follows, probably because T is not sure yet of Y’s broader purpose in discussing this topic. Y then restarts with demo ne (but + IP) in line 13.

13Y: demo ne, are wa ne (1.5) tabun hai-haikan (. ) tte iu no ka-na, but IP that T IP maybe plumbing QT say Nom Q-FP

13Y: ‘But, can we say (no ka-na) /that’s to do with the plumbing/,’

The slightly unusual use of a contrastive conjunction here signals an upcoming departure in a different direction, and leads their talk to the main point. Y’s use of no ka-na marks a potential transition-relevance place, but once again T passes up an opportunity to take the floor and Y continues, with a series of formulation marked by her use of n da.

14Y: shisutemu: jo no mondai mo ARU to oMOu n da. = system concerning Gen problem also there-is QT think Nom Cop

15T: =un.

16Y: datte [deru ni wa deru n da mon. because come-out dat T come-out Nom Cop FP

14Y: ‘and also I think that’s because (n da) /it is a problem of the system/,’=

15T: ='Uh-huh.‘=

16Y: '/Because I [have water anyway/ n da mon.‘

In line 14, it might be said that Y expects T to respond to her utterance; however T merely provides aizuchi in line 15, probably because he still does not understand the point of the discussion. So Y continues her exposition with the meta-sequential marker datte (because) indicating a reason that supports her formulation.

From lines 18-20, Y adds further comments.
18Y: tada sore ga (0.5) ko: (1.0) nan-chu: no, aida o oite=
just that S like what-I-say Nom interval O take
19T: = 'un' .=
uh-huh
20Y: =attsui tsumetai attsui tsumetai ni-nacchau kara.
hot cold hot cold become because
18Y: 'Just, I mean, intermittently'=
19T: = 'uh-huh' .='=
20Y: = 'the water becomes hot, cold, hot, cold, so.'

There is no use of the n(o) da construction here, apart from the idiomatic phrase nan-chu:

no, as Y clarifies her previous accounts.

T finally takes the floor at line 21, providing evidence to support Y’s contention.

21T: sooi:: tokoro atta mon.
like-that place there-was FP
ah told PP um B&B S so was QT PP
23T: [un, yes
24 : shInji-rare-nakatta kedo.
believe-can-not-Past though
25Y: ' mm' =
uh-huh
26T: =E:, honto-ni konna kono kuni tte .h honto-ni bunmei-koku
wow really like-this this country QT really civilized-country
27 : na no kore tte omo-=
Cop Nom this QT thought
21T: '/I came across a place like that/ mon.'
22Y: 'Ah, you mentioned it yone, um, a B&B, [yes (ne)?'
23T: ['Yes.'
24 : I could not beLIEve it though.'
25Y: ' 'Uh-huh', .='
26T: = 'Wow, can this really be true,
27 : /this country is a civilized country/ no, I thoug-'=

T uses no in line 27, which does not seem important sequentially. However, as discussed
in 3.1.3, this no is important pragmatically because it reifies the assertion that UK is a
civilized country in which one would not expect plumbing problems.

From lines 28-34, Y suggests a reason why UK has a plumbing problem and tells
of her experience when she stayed with a family in UK in her school days.
Although Japanese speakers often use *no + zero* after each stage in an account, it is not used here, probably because Y does not try to pile up fragments of an account in order to lead up to a formulation but just informs T of a series of facts adduced as further supporting evidence for her contention. As a result, rather than use the default *un*, T twice uses *a*: as a signal that he accepts what she has said.

Following T’s *a*: (line 35), in line 36 Y provides the vocalization *m*: to indicate that she has finished talking about her past experience, and a 1.0-second pause follows.

This is followed by a concluding comment.

In line 37 *demo ne* (but + IP) marks a contrast and signals an upcoming departure
in a different direction:

37Y: demo ne honto ne kinoo ne .h
    but IP really IP yesterday IP
37Y: 'but, yesterday, .h'

From line 37 to the end, Y tells her ‘panic’ story, and T provides aizuchi, responds with exclamations and interrupts to ask clarificatory questions.

Y gives an account of her story from lines 37-45, at which point T intervenes with a question about the book she has mentioned.

37Y: demo ne honto ne kinoo ne .h Pragma-Pragmatics hora ni-hon (1.0)
    but IP really IP yesterday IP Pragmatics ah two
38 : 750 ni-hon kaka-nakya tte omotta toki-ni ne .h
    750(words) two write-should QT thought when IP
39 : totsuzen te ga ne ga:: tte tsumetaku nacchat-te ne
    suddenly hand S IP Onomatopoeia(quickly) QT cold got-and IP
40T: usso::
    lie
41Y: e, watashi konna no deki-nai yo: to omotte(.) E YA konna
    oh-no I this one can-not FP QT thought eh no this
42 : koto o kangaetcha ikenai chotto Pragmatics no hon o
    thing O think should-not just Pragmatics Gen book O
43 : yoma-neba tte ano
    read-should QT that
44T: un.
    uh-huh
45Y: kuroi chikkoi [yatsu
    black small one

36-9Y:
'M:, (1.0) just because of this I might catch cold in winter, anyway
    but, yesterday, .h I had to write 2 750-word-Pragma-Pragmatics essays,
when I thought of this, suddenly my hands became very cold'
40T: 'You’re joking.'
41Y: 'I thought oh no, I can’t do that yo: .),
42 : then, I thought no, I shouldn’t think like this,
43 : I just need to read a Pragmatics book, that'
44T: 'Uh-huh.'
45Y: 'small black [one'

Although she gives an account, there is no use of no here because she keeps talking, apparently in order to convey the complete account, indicating that she wishes to retain the floor with frequent uses of the agreement-inviting particle ne and because there is no
point to this account and no formulation will be offered.

In lines 47-51 T tries to establish why Y got the small black book.

47T: are nande katta n su ka.
that why bought Nom Cop Q
48Y: are wa ne: (1.5) ano: [sui-
that T IP um
49T: [a, susumetekureta no?= oh (she) recommended Nom
50Y: =un, [susumetekureta nde,
yeah (she) recommended because
51T: [a::.
I-see
52 (1.8)

47T: '/Why did you buy that one/ n su ka?'
48Y: 'That one, well, um, [(she) reco-
49T: 'Oh /did she recommend it/ no?= [doo-shiyoo doo-shiyoo to omo|tte
50Y: ='Yeah, she [recommended it,'[I see.'
51T: [a::.
I-see
52 (1.8)

T uses no in line 49 probably because he wants to make sure that his anticipatory completion is correct. That is to say, his utterance functions meta-sequentially.

Then, Y returns to the topic indicating with hoide (then) in line 53 that she will proceed to the next stage.

53Y: hoide, ki-o-magirawa soo to shita n da kedo dame de (1.5)
then mind-O-distract try QT did Nom Cop despite impossible Cop
54 : [doo-shiyoo doo-shiyoo to omo|tte
what-do what-do QT thought
53Y: 'then, although (kedo) /I tried to take my mind off it/ n da, I couldn’t,
54 : I thought [what I should do, what I should [do,

She uses the n(o) da expression here, but it does not seem important sequentially. The reason is that this use of n da is a part of an account of the past event, not intended as a sequential contribution in this talk.

In lines 55 and 56, T interrupts Y’s account, in order to check whether she had
already received his email when the panic attack occurred.

55T: [<laughs>] [matte, wait]
56: sono sono koro ni wa boku no mail wa moo todoita no?
that that time in T I Gen email T already came Nom
57Y: iya, sono mae.
no that before
55T: [<laughs>] ['Wait,' 56: /at that time, had you already got my email/ no?']
57Y: 'No, before that.'

In her continuing account of the panic attack and what happened next, Y uses no + zero twice. In line 59, Y’s turn is latched with T’s as he confirms that she also panicked when she got an email from T. His laughter in line 60 encourages her to continue her talk which then runs on through 61-3.

58T: .h ja oiuchi-o-kakeru yoona.-
then hit (you) like
59Y: =soo panikutta no, watashi.
yes panicked Nom I
60T: <laughs>
61Y: hoide ne ofuro ni haitte attamaroo to omotta-ra=
then IP bath in take get-warm QT thought-then
62T: =un.-
=uh-huh
63Y: =kinoo wa saiaku datta no.
yesterday T worst Cop-Past Nom
58T: Then, my email hit you more when you were down.=
59Y: =Yes, /I panicked/ no.
60T: <laughs>
61Y: Then, I went to bathroom to take a bath and get warm,=
62T: =Uh-huh=
63Y: =/it wasn’t my day yesterday/ no.

Her utterance in line 59 is a last contribution to the ‘panic’ story and the no in line 63 seems to turn a whole account of her ‘panic’ story into a phase in a larger conversation because Y combines the panic story with the previous problem of cold water in Britain.

We can infer from her utterance in line 63 that she probably did not have hot water
‘yesterday’. She concludes this and the preceding topic, whose interconnectedness we now see, with no. This use of no has the function of formulating a story without any expectation of the addressee’s response (unlike conventional no da formulations). T provides aizuchi because of no and then gives a response after a 1.0 second pause to show his understanding of the whole sequence by means of naruhodo (I see).

64T: a:, (1.0) naruhodo.
oh I-see
65Y: un, (2.0) ‘da yo’.
no Cop FP
64T: ‘Oh, (1.0) I see.’
65Y: ‘No, (2.0) ‘it wasn’t’ (da) yo.’

**Summary**

- No + zero invites aizuchi and is used when a speaker intends to continue an account.

- N(o) + da / darou is used when a speaker asks an addressee for a response, typically in formulations (n(o) da) or uncertain formulations (n(o) darou).

- Zero marked utterance constitutes supporting evidence for a preceding claim account.

**3.3 Summary**

In this chapter, we examined Japanese naturally occurring conversational data and
clarified how the pragmatic and sequential properties of the *n(o) da* construction contribute to everyday talk-in-interaction.

In pragmatic analyses, we mainly discussed structures; *no + zero, no + SFP, n(o) + copula + SFP/Q, n(o) + copula*, non-typical uses of *no + zero*, the use of *no* in interrogatives and *zero* (i.e. utterances without either *no, n(o) da* or SFP) and concluded as follows:

- *No + zero* is used when the speaker offers a reified proposition as a ground to continue his talk, which we called a ‘grounding function’, or when heformulates a story without any expectation of a response from the addressee.

- A speaker uses *no + ne* to reify an account (*no*) and invite the addressee’s agreement (*ne*) to the reification rather than to the account itself, thus making the account less aggressive to the addressee.

- *N(o) + da + ne* draws attention to the ontological status of the speaker’s utterance, i.e. the assertion of a reified account, with *ne* obliging the addressee to agree to this status, typically by means of *aizuchi*.

- *No + SFP* (*ka ne* and *ka-na*) is used to reify a proposition (*no*) and show the speaker’s attitude to it (*ka, ka-na*).

- *N(o) + copula + SFP* is used to reify a proposition (*no*), assert it (*da*), show the
uncertainty (darou) or invite the addressee to respond (SFP).

- In $n + da + kedo$, kedo functions to mitigate the speaker’s attitude toward the reified proposition shown by da.

- $N(o) + da$ is used to claim the assertivity of propositions rather than to assert their content. The content is treated as a ground and its assertivity is what is to be discussable in the actual world.

- $N(o) + darou$ is used when the assertivity of the reified proposition might be questioned, that is, the speaker expresses uncertainty toward the proposition.

- A speaker who uses $n(o) + darou + ka$ not only expresses uncertainty toward the assertivity of the proposition but also personally affiliates to that perspective, and a speaker who uses $n(o) + darou + ne$ invites the addressee’s acceptance of this position.

- A proposition reified by wake is interpreted as an explanation.

- $N + da + yo / yone$ enables the speaker to draw attention to the assertion of a reified proposition that deserves some response from the addressee. In other words, the speaker frequently concludes an argument or formulates a position with $n + da + yo / yone$, trying to get the addressee to provide an inferentially related response (yo) or agree that such a response is appropriate (yone).
• *N + da / desu + kedo* is often used when the speaker opens up a topic. The phrase functions as a preliminary statement to draw an addressee's attention to.

• *No + kamoshirenai* is used to reify the proposition *(no)* and add that it 'might' be assertable.

• *Nande* (why) and the *(no)* *da* construction co-occur, because there is a presupposition triggered by *nande*.

• In terms of a topic control, *(no) + zero* (+ SFP) is used to continue an account or similar method, *(no) + copula da* is used to formulate a conclusion following an account, *(no) + copula da / darou + SFP* is used to invite agreement or response, and turn + *zero* frequently indicates the speaker's intention to bring a topic to a conclusion.

In sequential analyses, we discussed the interactive features provoked by the *(no) da* construction and how the pragmatic properties of the construction are related to the structure of the talk. We concluded that:

• In *n + da + kedo*, the reification with *n* and assertion with *da* indicate that a new method, i.e. telling a new story, is being employed and the utterance with the phrase thus constitutes a presequential account.
- The pragmatic function of \( no + zero \) is to ground a proposition (or more strictly, to invite the addressee’s acceptance of the proposition as a ground) and its sequential effect is to provoke aizuchi.

- The pragmatic marker \( yappari \) co-occurs with the \( n(o) da \) construction because both indicate a new method, either a formulation or a self-formulation.

- \( N(o) + da \) and \( n(o) + darou \) are pragmatic devices needed at a transition relevance place when the addressee is required to respond, \( n(o) da \) marking a formulating or concluding turn, and \( n \ darou \) indicates a problem in need of resolution.

- \( N(o) + da / darou \) is used when a speaker asks an addressee for a response, typically in formulations \( (n(o) da) \) or uncertain formulations \( (n(o) darou) \).

- The non-typical use of \( no + zero \) in a formulation is striking because it encodes a lack of expectation that the other speaker will respond.

- \( N(o) + darou + ka \) indicates a problem \( (darou) \) and asks for the addressees view about it by means of \( ka \).

- \( Wake + ne \) indicates that a reified proposition is viewed as a kind of reason and invites the addressee to accept it.

- \( N(o) + da \) followed by a SFP directs the nature of the addressee’s response, with \( n + da + yo \) anticipating an assumptive response and \( n + da + yone \) marking a
formulation that the addressee is expected to accept.

- \textit{No} + \textit{zero} invites \textit{aizuchi} and is used when a speaker intends to continue an account.

- \textit{Zero} marked utterance constitutes supporting evidence for a preceding claim account.

The pragmatic properties and sequential functions of the \textit{n(o) da} construction will be taken up again in Chapter 5, where a more systematic, comparative account of the meanings and affects of the various forms of the construction will be presented in order to enable the analysis of the experimental data considered in Chapters 6 and 7.
4. Introduction

In Chapter 2, we reviewed previous studies of the $n(o)$ $da$ construction and clarified the function of $no$ and the copula element in the construction. Specifically, the characteristics of $no$ were explored from both historical and comparative perspectives together with other nominalizers, including $koto$ and $to$. As mentioned in Chapter 2, most linguists who have focused on the construction have explained its use in written Japanese and have offered various interpretations of the $n(o)$ $da$ expression as a syntactic structure. However, this study focuses on the occurrence of the construction in spoken language and investigates how the $n(o)$ $da$ construction helps to determine the nature of talk-in-interaction. The purpose of this chapter is then to explain and justify the methods of data collection and analysis employed in this study.
4.1 Rationalistic and empirical pragmatics

Kopytko (1995, 2000, 2001) argues against rationalistic pragmatics on the grounds that it assumes rational essentialism in which human beings’ behaviours are determined entirely by reason and are thus predictable, so that ‘paradoxically’ pragmatics verges on becoming decontextualised. He argues instead for an empirical pragmatics, whose theoretical foundations are based on the following features: it is 1) non-modular, 2) non-essentialist, 3) non-categorical, 4) non-deterministic, 5) context respecting, and 6) non-reductionist in its approach (1995: 489). Working within such a paradigm, a researcher should first make sure of the observational adequacy of the data and then try to understand pragmatic phenomena as revealed through naturally occurring language. The present researcher supports this position and agrees that observational adequacy should be achieved in pragmatic research and that explanatory attempts based on reductionist approaches which assume rationality as a sole motivation are not sufficient to account for naturally occurring data. As this study aims to interpret characteristic talk phenomena in Japanese, including understanding the speaker’s intention in utterances, an empirical approach seems crucial.
4.2 Doing qualitative research

Having decided that this study will be carried out within the empirical pragmatics paradigm, a researcher should next find out the best research approach for investigating the phenomenon under study, in this case the n(o) da construction as it occurs in Japanese talk-in-interaction. In research methodology, there are two paradigms: positivism, which assumes that knowledge is a 'real' phenomenon and which typically employs quantitative methodology, and interpretivism, which is based on the belief that knowledge is constructed by the observer and typically employs qualitative methodology. Each of the two paradigms, the positivist paradigm with a typically quantitative methodology and the interpretive paradigm with a typically qualitative methodology, tends to employ a wide variety of research methods, including interviews, document analysis, questionnaires and surveys, experiments, analysis of official statistics, observation, case studies and context analysis (Bryman 1988, 2001, Flick 1998, Wray et al. 1998, Silverman 2000, Mason 2002, etc.). Some methods are very typically associated with one methodology, whilst some are used with either, although differently in each case. The important issues here are whether a quantitative or qualitative approach is more generally appropriate to this study and which particular method or methods are best suited to collecting and analysing the data.
A research methodology is selected with respect to the aims of a study and what is to be demonstrated. The area of investigation of this study is the nominalizing function in Japanese talk as realized in the \( n(o) \ da \) construction and whether its marked effect on members' methods (sequentiality) and outcomes of talk (consequentiality) are particular to Japanese, or whether talk in another language such as English achieves the same or similar effects by other means. In consequence, we need to collect conversational talk data. When working with transcriptions of talk data, quantitative methods enable the researcher to investigate statistically the frequency or regularity of phenomena by counting or quantifying (features of) linguistic variables. Qualitative research methods enable the researcher both to examine how participants organize their talk and to reach conclusions as to why particular speakers use particular strategies in specific contexts with particular people (Wray et al. 1998). Therefore, a qualitative approach seems more appropriate to this form of empirical pragmatic study.

Following Silverman's (2000) precept that the best research makes a lot out of a little, qualitative researchers tend to concentrate their analysis on a few selected cases. Following this approach, Mori (1999), for example, studies how turns and sequences are constructed in the course of interaction in Japanese by analysing samples of casual conversations among peers from the same age group. Glover (1996) tries to determine
how talk in English is consequential and, in particular, how a combination of pragmatic effects and members' methods are the prime means of invoking and orienting to a context in which the result is a negotiated social structural outcome. LoCastro (1990) uses a qualitative approach in her analysis of Japanese and Anglo-American interactions as she seeks to demonstrate how the values and beliefs of the members of a culture have linguistic and non-linguistic correlates at the discourse and utterance level.

In the present study, the researcher collected and analysed two sets of data. The first consisted of everyday talk-in-interaction in Japanese. These data, which were discussed in the previous chapter, enabled her to examine how the n(o) da construction functions pragmatically and sequentially in naturally occurring talk. The second data set was obtained from a group discussion involving a decision-making task. In this second case, data were obtained from both Japanese and English native speaking groups in order to investigate cross-cultural differences and similarities in talk. One may say that the findings of this study cannot fully describe the characteristics of Japanese talk organization. However, the researcher believes that the more studies we conduct that analyse naturally occurring talk data with qualitative approaches, the more the resulting empirical findings will assist our attempt to understand the nature of Japanese talk. In addition, we are able to show general sequential properties and functions of the n(o) da
construction through the study of a range of real-world examples. Therefore, we may be able to say that generalizability, which is often regarded as problematic in qualitative research, may be to some degree achieved in studies such as this one.

4.3 Data collection

As mentioned in the previous section, two kinds of talk data were collected in this study. Denscombe (1998: 33) states that ‘the case study approach generally calls for the researcher to make choices from among a number of possible events, people, organizations etc.’ and that ‘a good case study requires the researcher to defend the decision by arguing that the particular case selected is suitable for the purposes of the research’. We therefore need to discuss how the researcher selected the cases studied, and in particular the talk types and the participants, and how their conversations were recorded and subsequently transcribed.

4.3.1 Talk type selection

In considering the talk type to be analysed, the notion of ‘activity type’ is likely to be important. Levinson argues that ‘activity type’ is a better term than ‘speech event’ and defines activity types as:
goal-defined, socially constituted, bounded, events with constraints on the participants, setting and so on, but above all on the kinds of allowable contributions. Paradigm examples would be teaching, a job interview, a jural interrogation, a football game, a task in a workshop, a dinner party and so on.

(1979: 368)

In this study, data from two contrasting talk types were collected: the first talk type comprised an everyday talk-in-interaction in Japanese, whilst the second talk type was a group discussion involving a decision-making task. Whilst the first talk type might be characterized as an activity type in which there were relatively few constraints on participants, setting and topic of conversation, i.e. the activity was not notably 'goal-directed', in the second case, data were elicited, i.e. the goal was set before the talk began, and the participants were involved in solving problems and completing a task. In the second activity type studied, data were obtained from both Japanese and English speaking groups in order to examine the different ways in which a given task was accomplished. Whereas the first talk type involved only a single culture, the second was set up so as to reveal cross-cultural differences and similarities.

Thus the researcher first collected everyday talk-in-interaction data in Japanese to enable her to examine how the *n(o) da* construction functions pragmatically and (con)sequentially in Japanese talk which is neither goal-defined nor constrained by
external factors. On the other hand, in the group discussions involving a decision-making task, the communicative goal set for the participants pre-existed the talk. As a result, the uses and functions of the construction might be expected to be more strategic than those found in naturally occurring everyday talk-in-interaction since the activity type was expected to contain examples of insistent talk, invitations to offer opinions, reasons to support the speaker's own opinion, etc. as the speakers worked their way through a series of decidable tasks.

Especially noteworthy is whether the nominalizing function in Japanese talk and its marked effect on sequentiality and consequentiality are particular to Japanese, or whether talk in languages such as English achieves the same or similar effects by other means. For this reason, the researcher collected an English data set involving group discussion provoked by the same problem-solving task.

As to how the task was designed, the researcher looked at a number of sources in advanced language teaching course books to find problem-solving tasks. In the end, she selected a task, or more accurately a series of interrelated decision-making tasks, made available by her supervisor for the reason that it was likely to provoke members' methods such as self-formulations, formulations, etc. as well as placing the participants in a position where it was likely that they would seek to persuade one another to agree and
disagree positions as well as exchange opinions (See Appendix 2). This may be contrasted with account giving, which commonly occurs in everyday life, and which was a characteristic method in the first data set involving everyday talk. The roles participants adopt in a decision-making task may also be compared to the notion of team management structure (e.g., Belbin: 1981, 1993, 2001). Belbin discusses the kinds of roles and responsibilities each member of a group adopts and how an appropriate array of roles is necessary for a team to function effectively. In the same way, identifying participant roles in a decision-making discussion enabled the researcher both to describe participants’ roles in talk simply and to investigate the participants’ strategic ways of contributing to discussion as realized through the *n(o) da* construction.

### 4.3.2 Participants

All the participants who provided data were students at University of Durham. The researcher chose the university environment so as to enable her to collect data from participants of the same age, educational background, area of academic study and, for the native speakers of Japanese involved in providing natural talk data, length of residence in an English speaking environment. This setting also enabled the researcher to study data obtained from comparable groups of Japanese and English native speakers.
To collect the everyday talk-in-interaction data, the researcher asked Yuki (hereafter Y), a female Japanese MA student studying at University of Durham, to record a conversation with a friend when the chance presented itself. Two weeks later Y passed the researcher a mini-disk containing a recording of a conversation with a close male friend Toshi (hereafter T). Both participants were taking the same English-Japanese translation course and had been in UK for three months at the time the data were collected.

To collect the group discussion data, the researcher conducted exactly the same experiment with 4 Japanese (2 females and 2 males) and with 4 British participants (2 females and 2 males) in order to investigate the different ways in which the same tasks were accomplished. These decision-making tasks involved constructing the constitution of ‘Freedonia’, an imaginary newly independent former colony (See Appendix 2). The Japanese participants were exchange students from Japan and who had been in UK for about three months at the time the data were collected. The British participants were following degree programmes in Linguistics. The participants, both Japanese and British, were all undergraduates aged between 19 and 21, and were at the same stage in their university education. It should be noted that although equal numbers of female and male speakers were intentionally selected for both data collection exercises, gender differences
are not examined in this study.

4.3.3 Recording techniques

The data investigated in this study were collected by the researcher and recorded on mini-disks with the participants’ prior consent. There are two ways of recording naturally occurring talk data, on videotape and on audiotape. Wray et al. (1998) states that audio data is sufficient in most circumstances and that it is important to have good quality sound. Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998) point out that video recording is necessary when salient features involved in the management of interaction, such as gaze and hand gestures, are to be taken into account. The researcher made use of mini-disk recording in order to have clearer sound quality than can be obtained with tape recording and to facilitate transcription. Because of the association of the \textit{n(o) da} construction with macro level sequentiality and its characteristic placement at the end of turn constructional units, it was not felt necessary to make a video recording of the interaction. In addition, it was deemed that audio recording was less intrusive, so that the resulting data were thought to be more natural. All the participants knew that the data would be analysed after they had been collected, but they did not know the researcher’s particular area of investigation at the time of recording. However, the researcher did make clear the nature of the task the
participants were going to be involved in, and they all expressed willingness orally to take part in the experiment under the conditions outlined to them.

As for the everyday talk-in-interaction data, in November 2002 the researcher lent Y a mini-disk player and asked her to record a conversation with a friend when the chance presented itself. Y subsequently recorded a conversation with T which took place in a break between classes at the Department of Linguistics at University of Durham. The length of their conversation was about forty minutes and covered a range of topics, including academic and social matters.

The group discussion data, both Japanese and English, were collected at the Department of Linguistics in December 2003. Meetings were set up in the same room on different days. Prior to each meeting, a microphone was placed in the centre of the table around which the participants were seated. The researcher was not present so as not to intrude on the discussion. The total length of time of the recording of the Japanese group discussion was 75 minutes. The total length of time of the recording of the English group discussion was 45 minutes.

4.3.4 Transcription conventions

The transcription was conducted by the researcher, after repeatedly listening to
the recordings. As for the Japanese talk and discussion group data, other native Japanese
speakers sometimes helped to clarify unclear sections and to identify the speaker. In the
English group discussion data, several native English speakers helped the researcher with
the transcription.

4.3.4.1 Representation of Japanese data in English

Since this study focuses largely on Japanese talk and the results are written up for
an English-speaking readership, the researcher needed to translate the Japanese data into
English. In transcriptions of this kind, non-English talk data have conventionally been
represented in one of two ways; either the original talk, Japanese in this case, is
represented by a free English gloss as in (1a) below (e.g., Cook 1993), or is represented
by both an item-by-item and a free English gloss as in (1b) below (e.g., Mori 1999,

(1a)

1Y: daitai no gainen (0.2) wa
    'a rough idea'
2T: un.
    'Uh-huh.'
3Y: wakatte-mo, ano:
    'I got it but, well'

(1b)

1Y: daitai no gainen (0.2) wa
    rough LK idea T
    'a rough idea'
2T: un.
    uh-huh
    'Uh-huh.'
Because of the difference of word orders and idiom between Japanese and English, it is hard for a non-Japanese speaker fully to understand the meanings of the words and sentences and to infer speaker intentions without a close item-by-item gloss, and for that reason the original Japanese talk data in this study are accompanied by an item-by-item gloss (including where appropriate a grammatical description). The accompanying a free English gloss aims to privilege natural equivalence over literal translation, as in (1c) (e.g. Noda 1990, Suzuki 2000):

\[(1c)\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{1Y:} & \quad \text{daitai no gainen (0.2) wa rough LR idea T} \\
\text{2T:} & \quad \text{un. uh-huh} \\
\text{3Y:} & \quad \text{wakatte-mo, ano: understand-but well} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{<English gloss>}

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{1Y:} & \quad \text{'I got a rough idea'} \\
\text{2T:} & \quad \text{'Uh-huh.'} \\
\text{3Y:} & \quad \text{'but, well'}
\end{align*}
\]

Thus in (1c) Y does not use the first person pronoun ‘\textit{watashi (I)}’ in her Japanese utterance, however the English free gloss equivalent does contain a first person pronoun. It should also be noted that the free gloss is allowed to run continuously over these three turns rather than being attached to the close gloss on a line-by-line basis. This convention is adopted to enable the verb, which occurs in sentence final position in Japanese, to be placed more naturally in the English free gloss. Thus in this example, \textit{wakatte}, which
occurs after T's aizuchi in the Japanese original, is represented more naturally before it in
the free English gloss. Although in principle line-by-line free glossing could feature such
word order shifts, the researcher judged the method adopted easier for the reader to
follow.

4.3.4.2 Transcription notation

The transcription notation mainly follows the conventions used in Hutchby and
Wooffitt (1998), which were originally developed by Gail Jefferson, with a few
modifications. The n(o) da constructions are marked in bold italics in both transcription
and gloss, and copulas, tags and sentence final particles used without the n(o) da
construction are marked in bold in transcription and italics in the English gloss. In order
to make the data as accessible as possible in its transcribed form, the researcher decided
that overlap, quieter voice, pause, lengthened syllables, latching, audible breathing, stress
and laughter should be indicated (See Transcription Notations p. xii). Some these features
are revealed in the examples below.

The turn ending symbols are used in the following way. A period '.' indicates the
end of a turn, a comma ',' indicates a continuing tone, a question mark '?' indicates a
question and an exclamation mark '!' indicates an animated tone. Aligned brackets are
used to mark overlap, as in (2) below:

(2)

Y: shabetteoki-nagara, ikinari ano hora [senshu mo

speak-but suddenly um remember last-week also

T: [gobi ga

ending S

Y: 'he suddenly says, do you recall, [last week,' T: ['Yes, the way he ended his sentence,'"

The researcher decided to mark contributions delivered in a quieter voice than surrounding talk with degree signs "°°°"; the length of pauses is indicated in parentheses, with (2.5), for example, representing a pause of two-and-a-half seconds; double colons ‘::’ indicate lengthened syllables, and equal signs ‘=’ ‘=’ at the end of one turn and at the beginning of the next indicate latching, no discernable gap between the utterances of two different speakers at a TRP, as in (3) below:

(3)

Y: tada sore ga (0.5) ko: (1.0) nan-chu: no, aida o oite= just that S like what-I-say Nom interval O take

T: ="un".=

uh-huh

Y: =attsui tsumetai attsui tsumetai ni-nacchau kara. hot cold hot cold become because

Y: ="Just, I mean, intermittently"=

T: ="uh-huh".=

Y: ="the water becomes hot, cold, hot, cold, so.'"

‘(.)’ indicates a micro pause roughly equivalent to the time it takes to provide a single syllable in continuous talk, capitals mark passages or words delivered in a louder voice than surrounding talk, ‘.hh’ indicates an in-breath and ‘hh’ an out-breath.
(4) 

T: dakedo, DO:-DO kangaetemo sono bunsho da to teian-suru (.) tte iu 
but how (I)-think that context Cop QT suggest 
: yoona .h imi dawaNAi wake NE=. 
like meaning Cop-Neg Nom FP 
T: 'But /even if I think about it deeply, the word 'suggest' in that context does 
: not mean teian-suru/ wake NE.'=

(5) 

N: I reckon the Parliament though 
E: hhh a diplomat hhh

In (6), ellipsis marks ‘.’ are used to signal that a speaker yields the floor to another 
speaker before completing a full turn.

(6) 

T: =tatoeba conceal to [hide toka mo ne.. 
for-example conceal and hide and-so-on also FP
Y: [a, demo ne, are da tte yo, akumade ne 
oh but IP that Cop QT FP doubtless IP
T: ='For example, 'conceal' and ['hide' are also ne..'
Y: ['Yeah, but the way it works according to’

In (7), a wavy line is used to highlight talk overlaid by the speaker’s laughter, and in (8) 
para-linguistic features such as laughter, when they appear separately from surrounding 
talk, are indicated in angled brackets ‘< >’.

(7) 

Y: mo: dakara ne, sonnani fukai mon janai mitai. 
umm therefore IP such deep thing Cop-Neg seem
Y: 'Umm therefore, it does not seem to be such a difficult thing.’

(8) 

Y: =soo panikutta no, watashi. 
yes panicked Nom I
T: <laughs>
Y: hoide ne ofuro ni haitte attamaroo to omotta-ra= 
then IP bath in take get-warm QT thought-then
Y: ‘Yes, /I panicked/ no.’
T: <laughs>
Y: ‘Then, I went to bathroom to take a bath and get warm,’=

In (9), underlining is used to mark an utterance in which a speaker reads from the task sheet, as for example in the opening phase of the discussion.

(9)

T: a, sore wa tsugi no (. ) shitsumon [ka.
   ah that T next of question FP
Y: [un.
   yes
M: gaisho no ninki ni shitagatte, jiki daitoryo o erabu baai WA.
   first of presidency to follow next president 0 elect case T

T: ‘Ah, we are on the next question, [aren’t we ka.’
Y: [ ’Yes.’
M: ‘Following the first Presidency, all subsequent presidents will elected.’

One important point to note is that, in the English free gloss, those parts of the utterance that fall within the scope of nominalizers, such as wake, as in (4), and n(o), as in (10), are indicated by /slashes/.

(4)

T: dakedo, DO:-DO kangaetemo sono bunsho da to teian-suru (. ) tte iu
   but how (I)-think that context Cop QT suggest QT say
   : yoona . h imi dewaNAi wake NE. =
      like meaning Cop-Neg Nom FP

T: ‘But /even if I think about it deeply, the word ‘suggest’ in that context does
   : not mean teian-suru/ wake NE.’=

(10)

11T: nande show janakute suggest na n darou.
   why show Cop-Neg suggest Cop Nom Cop

11T: ‘I wonder (n darou) /why it’s ‘suggest’ rather than ‘show’/.’

In addition, when the Japanese n(o) da construction does not appear in brackets in the free gloss, it is because no English equivalent is provided, as in (4). When the construction
appears in brackets, what appears to its left is an English equivalent, as in (10). That is to say, in (4), *do-do kangaetemo – imi dewanai* (even if I think about it deeply, the word ‘suggest’ in that context does not mean *teian-suru*) is in the scope of *wake* and no English equivalent to the nominalizer *wake* is provided in the free gloss. In (10), *nande show janakute suggest na* (why it’s ‘suggest’ rather than ‘show’) is in the scope of *n*, and ‘I wonder’ is provided as an English equivalent to ‘*n darou*’.

4.4 Data analysis

4.4.1 Data analysis procedure

Before collecting the data, the researcher carefully considered how the collected data were to be appropriately analysed within a qualitative methodology. Since the purpose of this study is to investigate characteristic properties of Japanese talk, the sequential features of talk should be taken into account. In addition, there is ample evidence that the pragmatic and sequential properties of talk are closely related (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998). This is because both the speaker’s pragmatic intention and the addressee’s sequential inference are important in conversational discourse. Although this study is not an exercise in conversation analysis, the research adopts one of its hallmark analytic techniques, the ‘next-turn proof procedure’ (Hutchby and Wooffitt 1998: 33), so
as to determine the function of the construction by examining how utterances in which the
zero, no and n(o) da constructions occur are responded to in the next turn. In this sense,
one can say that the method of analysis is designed to demonstrate that the participants
orient to a particular context as consequential. The following is a concrete example of the
analytic procedure:

**BY:** =ano toki ni ne, ano: Tanaka-san ga ne,
that time at IP um Ms Tanaka S IP
9 : Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no.=
Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
10T: =un.
uh-huh

8-9Y: 'At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.'=
10T: 'Uh-huh.'

This piece of data is taken from naturally occurring talk-in-interaction between Y and T,
which was analysed in detail in Chapter 3. It shows that aizuchi often follows an utterance
in which the speaker gives an account. Thus the aizuchi constitutes a next-turn proof
procedure for the sequential function of no, which is to indicate that a nominalized
proposition is to be taken as an additional contribution to a continuing account. The
analytic method involves recognizing a context, and how the talk constructs this context
by focusing on the uses of the zero and the n(o) da constructions as they reflect the
speaker’s pragmatic intention and prompt the addressee’s sequential inference. In this
sense, this study therefore employs a micro level of analysis.
4.4.2 Extracts for analysis

The researcher selected three extracts from the first data set for analysis (See Appendix 1): Extract (1) which she titled *Lunchtime talk*, Extract (2) which she titled *A problem of translation*, and Extract (3) which she titled *Plumbing problems*. She avoided using the first several minutes of the exchange because of the possibility that the participants were more sensitive to the existence of the mini-disc recorder at this stage. The extracts were chosen because of the range of *n(o) da* construction variants found in them and their combination with sentence-final particles (SFPs), which occurred more densely than in other potential extracts of a similar length.

In the analysis of the second data set, the researcher selected different items from the interrelated series of decision-making tasks in the Japanese and English data. This enabled her to study a complete decision-making item of the same length from each of the Japanese and English data sets. Accordingly, she chose the second task undertaken by the Japanese participants and the third task undertaken by the British participants, so as to have approximately five minutes’ of talk from each participant group (See Appendix 3).

4.4.3 Tabulating varieties of the *n(o) da* construction

Once the researcher became aware of the rich variety of *n(o) da* constructions
revealed in the Japanese decision-making data, she decided to prepare a chart tabulating the constructions prior to commencing the close data analysis. At the same time, she considered that a further chart tabulating the structures without the construction, such as copulas, SFPs / particles (Ps) and their combinations, was also necessary to clarify the characteristics of Japanese talk. Those tabulations are presented in the next chapter and provide a pragmatic and sequential description of the function of zero and the various forms of the *n(o) da* construction, including combinations with SFPs and Ps found in the data. A second table lists the function of copulas, SFPs/Ps and combinations of copulas and SFPs/Ps. Examples of each use are also provided from the data including the everyday talk-in-interaction which the researcher analysed in the previous chapter and the group discussion data to be analysed in Chapter 6. When the researcher worked out what pragmatic properties and sequential functions of combinations of nominalizers, copulas and SFPs/Ps, she focused on the particular difference between each combination. Therefore, the definitions in the chart are made on a purely linguistic basis by comparing minimal pair examples exhibiting simple default functions. Whilst the chapter in which the tabulations are presented does not contain analysis, the researcher believes it to be a more detailed taxonomic account of the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of this construction than occurs elsewhere in the literature, and that it thus constitutes a
contribution to knowledge in its own right as well as facilitating the analysis that follows in the two subsequent chapters (Chapters 6 and 7), which mainly focus on participant roles.

4.4.4 Distinctive features

After the researcher has assembled the tabulations described in the previous section, she next identified the characteristic language structures each speaker favoured so as to determine each speaker’s participant roles as revealed by their construction preferences. In order to do this, the researcher adopted the notion of distinctive features to capture the relationship between uses of the n(o) da construction and participant roles in considering the Japanese group discussion data (Chapter 6), and construction preferences and participant task-management roles in English group discussion data (Chapter 7).

The notion of distinctive features is owed to the Prague School. Perhaps its most celebrated use is in Chomsky & Halle’s The Sound Pattern of English (1968), where each member in the phoneme inventory of English is represented by a set of (principally) articulatory features. This enabled Chomsky & Halle to distinguish each phoneme in a way which was both economical and at the same time showed the fundamental similarities and differences between sounds.
In Chapter 6, Levinson's (1988) latter-day set of distinctive features for participant production and reception roles is briefly reviewed and accepted as a means of capturing contributions to talk events. Levinson's distinctive feature matrices attempted to capture the extent to which speakers acknowledged the ownership or provenance of their utterances. In Chapter 6 of the present study, the focus was on the types of contribution each speaker makes to the decision-making task in which they are engaged. As a first step, the researcher identified four sets of *no da* structures which occurred very frequently in the data and whose relationship could in principle be captured by combinations of positive and negative values for two binary features, [R] and [C]. (The choice of 'R' and 'C' to denote values is explained in detail in Chapter 6.) The decision was taken to group sets of structures rather than treat each structure individually for reasons of practicality, since (a) more than twenty different combinations of nominalizer + copula + SFP were found in the data, and (b) it was clear that several structures shared broadly comparable pragmatic properties and sequential functions despite the small differences in the way these were encoded and the resulting effects. This is explained in detail in Chapters 5 and 6. It should be noted that the structures captured in this way were all used in production rather than reception – henceforth these are termed ‘active’ utterances.
In practice, it turned out that the former possible distinctive feature matrices did not entirely distinguish the participant role of each speaker – i.e. it wasn’t the case that the active utterances of each speaker revealed a single distinctive feature matrix. This is to be expected given the wide range of utterance types that any speaker is likely to contribute to a discussion and the need for speakers to accommodate to each other’s construction preferences. However, the active utterances of the four speakers were describable in terms of combinations three of the four available feature matrices. Put another way, this meant that the active utterances of 2 of the 4 speakers were described by the same set of feature matrices. At this point, the researcher developed a further set of distinctive feature matrices to represent the ‘reactive’, or response, utterances of each of the speakers. Those ‘reactive’ contributions took the form of ‘vocalizations’, ‘aizuchi’ and ‘agreement markers’. By taking into account the ways in which the participants reacted to the use of the no da construction, the researcher was then able to distinguish the participant roles of the 2 speakers whose active utterance matrices were not distinct. Thus the researcher was able to discriminate participant roles in terms of the different distinctive feature matrices that represented each speaker’s combination to the talk event.

Once each speaker was represented by a set of distinctive feature matrices, the researcher then turned her attention to the issue of how to represent these roles as simple
Japanese language descriptions, eventually setting on *shudoken* (taker of the initiative), *hattén-yaku* (developer), *kaisetsu-sha* (explainer/rationalizing commentator) and *shitsumon-yaku* (questioner).

In discussing characteristics of English talk organization in Chapter 7, the researcher developed another set of distinctive features for participant task-management roles, devised specifically for the English discussion. These are explained in detail in Chapter 7, and enabled the researcher to compare the construction preferences and participant roles favoured by each set of discussants.

### 4.4.5 Raters

In her analysis of the English group discussion data, the researcher developed two categories 'talk content' and 'talk management' and allocated all the utterances revealed in English data for one or other of these categories. It turned out that the 'talk-content' participant roles adopted by the English speaking participants closely matched those devised for the Japanese discussants, whereas the 'talk-management' participant roles were applicable only to the English speaking discussants. In cases where the researcher found it difficult to allocate utterances to talk content categories, she made use of raters whose judgements were then compared. The raters selected were all native English
speaking doctoral students at University of Durham, comprising two female and two male raters, three of them studying Linguistics and one studying Law. Each rater first worked individually, and their provisional decisions were made, the three Linguistics raters were asked to work collectively to try to come to a common view. This two-stage approach was followed on the grounds that it would enable a wide variety of perspectives to be discussed whilst at the same time maintaining a workable group size.

4.5 Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to explain and justify the methods of data collection, transcription and analysis employed in this study.

The first section of the chapter explained Kopytko’s argument that an empirical pragmatics is to be preferred to the dominant rationalistic pragmatics. The researcher supports this position and justifies an empirical pragmatics approach as more suited to a study whose aim is to interpret characteristic talk phenomena in Japanese.

The second section discussed the positivist and interpretivist research paradigms and the kinds of research methods associated with each. The area of investigation of this study is the nominalizing function in Japanese talk as realized in the n(o) da construction and whether its marked effect on members’ methods (sequentiality) and outcomes of talk
(consequentiality) are particular to Japanese, or whether talk in another language such as English achieves the same or similar effects by other means. Therefore, the researcher considered that a qualitative approach was more appropriate and determined to collect and analyse two sets of conversational data: the first consisted of everyday talk-in-interaction and the second set was obtained from a group discussion involving a decision-making task.

In the third section, data collection was discussed. Firstly, we explained the principles determining the selection of the two cases studied: the first talk-type consisted of an instance of everyday talk-in-interaction, in which the activity-type was not notably goal-oriented, the second talk type was provided by elicited data so that the activity-type was goal-oriented. In the second case, data were obtained from both Japanese and English speaking groups in order to examine the different ways in which a given task is accomplished in each of the languages. Secondly, we provided information about the participants involved in each data set. Thirdly, the recording techniques were explained. The researcher made use of mini-disk recording in order to have clearer sound than tape recording and to facilitate transcription. Finally, transcription conventions were discussed, including appropriate representation of Japanese data in English.

The last section explained how the collected data were to be analysed within a
qualitative methodology. The researcher decided to use the next-turn proof procedure so as to determine the function of the construction by examining how utterances in which the *zero, no* and *n(o) da* constructions occur are responded to in the next turn. This section also showed how the extracts to be analysed were selected from both data sets and explained why a tabulation of the use of the *n(o) da* construction was needed and how the notion of distinctive feature matrices were applied to discussion of both Japanese and English data.
CHAPTER 5

Tabulation

5. Introduction

The principal content of this chapter is a tabulation of all the variants of the \( n(o) \) \textit{da} construction that were found in the data collected in this research. This tabulation contains twenty-six different combinations of nominalizers, copulas and sentence final particles/particles (SFPs/Ps) as well as thirteen combinations of copulas and SFPs without nominalizers. A description of the pragmatic and sequential functions of each of these 39 combinations is provided together with examples of each structure as used by the participants who provided both Japanese everyday talk-in-interaction data and group discussion data in this research. The method used in determining the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of the various combinations of the \( n(o) \) \textit{da} construction is partly structuralist, i.e. the property / function of each construction is defined relatively, but relies principally on the interactive context and the next turn proof procedure which is used to confirm the accuracy of the analysis. The following example, in which Y talks
about her term assignment and explains why she went to the University library, demonstrates how the next turn proof procedure was used by the researcher to determine the pragmatic property and sequential function of *nda*:

In lines 7-8, Y's tag question (*janai*) invites T to confirm that it is impossible to write a 1500 word essay without an English book, after which Y formulates the consequence in line 11. This formulation concludes with *nda*. This use of *nda* is required pragmatically because Y does not want only to give her opinion (I was thinking there could be something in the library), but also to mark it as taken-for-granted in the actual world. She therefore reifies the proposition that there is something in the library with the use of *n* and asserts the R status of the proposition with *da*. From a sequential perspective, T's *aizuchi* in line 10 indicates his acceptance of Y’s tag question and, as a result, Y provides a formulation in line 11, signalled as upcoming by *dakara ne* (*so + IP*) and reified by *nda*,

---

156
thereby suggesting a possible solution for her problem. *Da* asserts a reified proposition, which expresses the speaker’s attitude towards the proposition whose ontological status is no longer the subject of the assertion. For this reason, a response other than *aizuchi* is expected after a turn to which *n da* is attached. T’s response, *mou kari-rarechatta-ra owari da yone* (If everything’s on loan, you’ve got a problem), confirms the sequential function of *n da* as an interaction cue and illustrates how the next turn proof procedure plays an important part in determining the pragmatic properties and, especially, the sequential functions of the various realizations of the *no da* construction.

This taxonomic chapter is provided so that the precise pragmatic functions and sequential effects of each combination in the rich array of Nominalizer + Copula + SFP/P structures that are to be examined in the following chapters (Chapters 6 and 7) may be distinguished by readers, and especially by non-Japanese speaking readers.

Before proceeding to the tabulation, an explanation of the method of tabulation may be helpful. The following entry illustrates the method adopted:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>± Nominalizer</th>
<th>± Copula</th>
<th>± SFP/P</th>
<th>Pragmatic (P) / Sequential (S) Functions</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. no</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ka-ne,</td>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground (no), then expresses uncertainty, or speculates as to the epistemic status of the proposition (ka) and invites A's agreement to this uncertain status (ne). (S) &lt;End of turn&gt; Invites A to comment.</td>
<td>EXTRE 1: Lunchtime talk Y: nande ne kare gurai hana-seru hito ga why IP he about speak-can person S : aa-iu machigai o okasu no ka ne, that-like mistake O make Nom Q IP Y: 'she said she wondered (no ka) ne /why : Alan made such mistakes although he : could speak Japanese frequently/,' (See earlier discussion pp. 67, 99)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, nominalizers are listed in the first column, copulas (where present) in the second column, and SFPs/Ps (where present) in the third column. The pragmatic and sequential functions together with one or more examples from the data are listed in the fourth column. In this sample, there is a gap in the second column, which means that no copula occurs in the combination as it appears in the original data. A comma, put after ka-ne in the third column, indicates that the construction occurs utterance internally, rather than at the TRP (Transition Relevance Place) or turn finally. Where the item in the third column is followed by a stop this indicates that it occurs utterance finally.

In the table, minimal pairs are tabulated next to each other, so that the combination no ka-na follows no ka-ne:

---

1 In the chart, ‘A’ stands for addressee and ‘S’ stands for speaker.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>±Nominalizer</th>
<th>±Copula</th>
<th>±SFP/P</th>
<th><strong>Pragmatic (P) / Sequential (S) Functions</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ka-na.</td>
<td><strong>Examples</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground (<em>no</em>), then expresses uncertainty or speculates as to the epistemic status of the proposition (<em>ka</em>), often signalling think aloud mode (<em>na</em>), especially when turn-internal.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) <em>&lt;End of turn&gt;</em> Invites A to comment on / acknowledge the uncertain status of the proposition as seen from S’s perspective.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The minimal pair, *no ka-ne* and *no ka-na*, indicates the way in which the taxonomic table enables readers to discriminate pragmatic and sequential distinctions between structures; i.e. we can see that the SFPs *ne* and *na* encode the minimal difference in the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of the two structures.

The definitions of pragmatic and sequential functions given in the table are defaults, in that they capture the essential pragmatic properties and likeliest sequential functions of the various manifestations of the construction; the examples have also been chosen to support these default definitions. However, as with any pragmatic phenomenon, particular contexts can lead to particular interpretations of this default, especially in terms...
of its sequential function or effect. For example, in case of \( n(o) \) \textit{da yone}, three examples are cited in the chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \pm \text{Nominalizer} )</th>
<th>( \pm \text{Copula} )</th>
<th>( \pm \text{SFP/P} )</th>
<th>\textbf{Pragmatic (P) / Sequential (S) Functions}</th>
<th>\textbf{Examples}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( n(o) )</td>
<td>\text{da}</td>
<td>\text{yone}</td>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted in the expectation that a common ground of some interest which is proposed by S will be accepted as such by A. (S) Often used in formulations which are intended to be decisive, and invites A to accept them as such and provide an assumption response. (However, in use, quite frequently they are felt to be too strong by A, who resists providing the assumption response that S hopes for.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation

\( Y: =\.hhh \text{ ano KANKAKU GA (.) yappari (0.2)} \)

\( \text{the intuition S (I)-think} \)

\( \because \text{watashi: mo hoshii} \ n \ \text{da yone}. \)

\( \text{I also want} \ \text{Nom Cop FP} \)

\( T: \text{m::, demo sore tte doo na} \ n \ \text{darou ne.} \)

\( \text{well but that T how Cop Nom Cop FP} \)

\( \because \text{tatoeba (2.0) dokoma-, demo s-sono} \)

\( \text{for-example how much but the} \)

\( \because \text{hito ga DOKOMade kotoba ni: (.)} \)

\( \text{person S how much word to} \)

\( \because \text{[kodawatteru ka tte iu: ka da ne.]} \)

\( \text{pay attention Q QT say Q Cop FP} \)

\( Y: =\.hhh / \text{I think I want that native speaker's} \)

\( \text{intuition/} \ n \ \text{da yone.'} \)

\( T: \text{'Well, but I wonder (n darou ne)/ how} \)

\( \text{important that is/. For example, it is} \)

\( \text{how much [you pay attention to words ne.'] \)}

(See earlier discussion pp. 78, 107)
EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation

Y: tte iu no ka-na; (2.0) sōōiu no o QT say Nom Q-FP like-that Nom O
: shiri-tai n da yone. know-want Nom Cop FP

T: [m:&&& mines] yeah

(3.0)

T: ma:, sokorahen wa honto-ni yappari well that T really (I)-think
: native jānai to wakan-nai yone.= native not QT understand-neg FP

Y: 'there is this [kind of clear difference
: n da yone.'

T: (Yeah.

(3.0)

T: 'Well, I don’t think we can understand
: that because we are not natives yone.'=

(See earlier discussion pp. 82, 110)

FREEDONIA

M: n? (1.0) watashi ga watashi ga kokumin mm I S I S people
: ni-shi-yo toka itta-ra kore de tsu-decide-let’s etc say-if this with
: kono mondai mo kaiketsusuru this question also solve
: n da yone .h= Nom Cop FP

T: =e demo yappa Mari-chan wa doo omou?
: eh but anyway Mari T how think

M: 'M:?? (1.0) If I say let’s go for 'by the
: people', then /this problem is solved/
: n da yone .h=

T: ='Eh but, what do you think, Mari?'

The first and second examples occur in extract 2 of the everyday talk-in-interaction data, and support the default definitions shown in the top cell of the right-hand column. However, the third occurrence of the structure, which occurs in the Freedonia group discussion data, is an example of a non-default use: in this case, n da yone functions not to signal a formulation but to mark a candidate outcome suggested by the speaker. The relationship between a speaker proposed formulation and a speaker suggested outcome is clearly a close one, and therefore, it is not surprising to find the same construction used
for each.
### 5.1 Tables

#### Table 5.1 Structures with the *n(o) da* construction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>± Nominalizer</th>
<th>± Copula</th>
<th>± SFP/P</th>
<th>Pragmatic properties (P) / Sequential functions (S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(zero)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(P) Giving no overt indication as to how the figure emerging in the talk is to be grounded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(S) After a topic has been developed, <em>S</em> invites <em>A</em> to regard the topic (or sub-topic) as concluded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The zero marked turn is thus a candidate for the last turn in that topic or sub-topic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EXTRACT 3: Plumbing problems

31Y: homestay shiteita ouchi mo soo datta.=
     homestay did house also so was
32T: =a:=
     ah
33Y: =yappari dare-ka ga hairu to tsugi wa mizu na node,
     you-know someone *S* take then next *T* water Cop because
34Y: 30-pun gurai mata-nai to ofuro hai-re-nakatta.=
     30-minutes about wait-not then bath take-can-not-Past
35T: =a:.
     ah
36Y: m:. (1.0) .h tada kore de ne, mafuyu ni-natte kaze hiichatta: na-
     just this with IP winter become cold catch anyway
37 : demo ne honto ne kinoo ne .h Pragma-Pragmatics hora ni-hon (1.0)
     but IP really IP yesterday IP Pragmatics ah two
31Y: 'the house where I stayed had the same problem.'=
32T: ='Ah.'=
33Y: ='you know, you have only cold water after someone takes a shower, so
34 : you have to wait for about 30 mins till you can have a bath.'=
35T: ='Ah.'
36-9Y: 'M:. (1.0) just because of this I might catch cold in winter, anyway
     but, yesterday, .h I had to write 2 750-word-Pragma-Pragmatics essays,
     when I thought of this, suddenly my hands became very cold'

(See earlier discussion pp. 90, 116)
(P) Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground.
(S) Used when giving accounts; invites *aizuchi*.

EXTRACT 1: Lunchtime talk

9Y: Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no. =
Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
10T: =un.
Uh-huh

8-9Y: = 'At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.' =
10T: = 'Uh-huh.'

(See earlier discussion pp. 65, 93)

(F) Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground, subject to confirmation of its
reifiable status.
(S) Invites A to comment on and preferably confirm the reifiable status of the proposition.

FREEDONIA

116T: ja ichiou kokumin ga eranderu tte [koto ni wa naru no ka.] =
then anyway people S elect QT thing in T become Nom FP
117Y: [iu koto ni wa naru. =
say thing in T become
118: = un. =
yes
119T: = ma demo sono dare ga daitoryo ni naru ka wa era-be-nai n da yone.
Well but well who S president in become Q T elect-can-not Nom Cop FP
116T: 'Then, /the people get to choose [anyway/ no ka.].' =
117Y: ['Anyway, that’s the way it works.']=
118: = 'Yes.'=
119T: = 'Well, but /they can’t choose who’s going to be a president/ n da yone.'
4. no  -  ka-ne.

(P) Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground (*no*), then expresses uncertainty or speculates as to the epistemic status of the proposition (*ka*) and invites A’s agreement to this uncertain status (*ne*).

(S) <End of turn> Invites A to comment.

**EXTRACT 1: Lunchtime talk**
21Y: nande ne kare gurai hana-seru hito ga aa-iu machigai o
why IP he about speak-can person S that-like mistake O
22: okasu no ka ne, fushigi da tte itteta,
make Nom Q IP wonder Cop QT said

21-2Y: ‘she said she wondered (*no ka) ne /why Alan made such mistakes although he could speak Japanese frequently/’,

(See earlier discussion pp. 67, 99)

5. no  -  ka-na.

(P) Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground (*no*), then expresses uncertainty or speculates as to the epistemic status of the proposition (*ka*), often signalling think aloud mode (*na*), especially when turn-internal.

(S) <End of turn> Invites A to comment on / acknowledge the uncertain status of the proposition as seen from S’s perspective.

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**
46Y: examine (.) toka ne, sooiu (.) kuriaa-na ano: (1.2) chigai
examine and-so-on IP like-that clear umm difference
47: tte iu no ka-na:, (2.0) sooiu no o shiri-tai n da yone.
QT say Nom Q-FP like-that Nom O know-want Nom Cop FP
48T: [m:::.
yeah

46Y: ‘examine’ etc etc, /I want to know, like, umm, can I say (*no ka-na*),
47: /there is this [kind of clear difference/ /n da yone.’
48T: [‘Yeah.’

(See earlier discussion pp. 82, 110)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>73T: un, demo kokkai ga atte-mo kokumin ni-yotte (.). jiki dsitoryo o yes but parliament S there-is-but people by next president O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74: erabu tte iu no wa (.). dame na no ka-na.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elect QT say Nom T impossible Cop Nom FP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75Y: kokkai ga atte-mo kokumin ga, parliament S there-is-but people S</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXTRACT 3: Plumbing problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8T: karada ga: sugoi atatamaru made shawaa wa zutto abi-tsuken no. body S very get-warm till shower T through take-continue Nom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9Y: sore datta-ra watashi: ga (.). oyu o tamete= that Cop-Past-if I S hot-water O fill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10T: =-ru gurai to onaji [ryoo NA NO KAMOshirenai. about with same amount Cop Nom might</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11Y: [onaji da yone. same Cop FP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 (1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13Y: demo ne, are wa ne (1.5) tabun hai-haikan (.). tte iu no ka-na, but IP that T IP maybe plumbing QT say Nom Q-FP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 8T: /'until I get very warm, I keep taking a shower/ no.' |
| 9Y: /'If you do that and I fill a bathtub'= |
| 10T: =/'it might be the same [amount/ NO KAMOShirenai.' |
| 11Y: ['it is the same (da) yone.' |
| 12 (1.5) |
| 13Y: /'But, can we say (no ka-na) /that's to do with the plumbing/,' |

(See earlier discussion pp. 86, 113)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. no?</th>
<th>desu</th>
<th>ka?²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n(o)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(P) Casts doubt on whether a proposition should be regarded as reified.
(S) Invites A to indicate whether or not the proposition should have reified status or, in the case of anticipatory completion, whether or not the proposition offered is appropriate.

EXTRACT 3: Plumbing problems
55T: [<laughs>] matte, \*wait
56: sono sono koro ni wa boku no mail wa moo todoita no?
that that time in T I Gen email T already came Nom

55T: [<laughs>] *Wait,
56: /at that time, had you already got my email/ no?*

(See earlier discussion pp. 93, 118)

EXTRACT 3: Plumbing problems
47T: are nande katta **n su ka**.
That why bought Nom Cop FP
48Y: are wa ne: (1.5) ano: [sui-
that T IP um recom-(mend)
49T: [a, susumetekureta no?= oh (she) recommended Nom

47T: '/Why did you buy that one/ **n su ka**?'
48Y: 'That one, well, um, [(she) recom-'
49T: ['/did she recommend it/ no?= (See earlier discussion pp. 92, 118)

² These two constructions share the same pragmatic properties and sequential functions. The difference between them is that no? is informal and n(o) desu ka? is formal. (N(o) da ka? does not occur.)
(P) Reifies a proposition and asserts its reified status.  
(S) Typically used in formulations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8. n(o)</th>
<th>da.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Troubles talk: Term assignment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5Y: wakatte-mo, ano: understand-but well</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (2.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7Y: dooiu, sono: kekkyoku eigo no bunsho o mottekonesu to, how well finally English LK book O get otherwise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 : .h 1500 UMAN-NAI janai. write-cannot tag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (0.3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10: un. uh-huh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11Y: dakara ne sore ga nanka toshokan ni aru kana: to omotta n da. so IP that S something library at there-is FP QT thought Nom Cop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12T: mou kari-rarechatta-ra owari da yone.= yet borrow-be-if end Cop FP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5Y: 'but, well'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (2.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7Y: 'I need an English book, otherwise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 : .h I can't write 1500 words, can I (janai).'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (0.3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10: 'Un-huh.'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11Y: 'So, I was thinking there could be something in the library/ n da.'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12T: 'If everything's on loan, you've had it (=You've got a problem) da yone.'=</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(See earlier discussion pp. 60-63)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9. n(o)</th>
<th>da</th>
<th>kedo,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted but treated concessively.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) Introduces a concessive presequence to which the S will add an account reflecting his/her own perspective. This strategy is frequently used by a new S who wishes to provide an account which contrasts with a situation described by the previous S.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXTRACT 1: Lunchtime talk**

1Y: a, soshitara sa, zenzen hanashi chigau n da-kedo, .h konoida hora oh then IP at-all story different Nom Cop-although recently IP
2: Tanaka-san to Akiko-san to de o-hiru [tabe ni itta Janai?
   Tanaka-Ms and Akiko and with lunch eat went tag
3T: [un.
   yeah

1Y: 'By the way, /I have a completely different story/ although (kedo) n da,
2: .h recently I [had lunch with Ms Tanaka and Akiko, didn't I (Janai)?'
3T: ['Yeah.']

(See earlier discussion pp. 68, 95)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>10. n(o)</th>
<th>da(t)³</th>
<th>tara,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted but treated as putative.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) Introduces a conditional presequence on the basis of which the S will develop an argument.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FREDONIA**

62M: =demo honto-ni kокkai toka ga nakutte,
   but surely parliament etc S there-is-not
63 : daitoryo toka ga kimatteru kuni ga aru no ka-na to omotte.
   president etc S decide country S there-is Nom FP QT think
64 : atte zettai umaku itteru n dat-tara kokumin ga ii jan?=
   there-is definitely well go Nom Cop-if people S good Cop-Neg

62-4M: ='but am I right in thinking (no ka-na) /there are some countries
   where a president etc etc is elected without a parliament, /if there are some and it’s definitely going well/ n dat-(tara),
   it should be by the people, shouldn’t it (jan)?‘=

³ Da is the copula and ‘t’ is added in parentheses, which indicates that there is always double articulation of consonants when da and tara occur together. This is also the form used in Romanized Japanese script.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>11. n(o)</th>
<th>da</th>
<th>yo.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted and marked as a potential common ground of some interest. (S) Used in formulations; invites a response by either S or A, which is inferentially related.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

37Y: mori[dakara] ne, sonnani fukai mon janai mitai .h dakara ne watashi umm therefore IP such deep thing Cop-Neg seem so IP I
38: mo ne () dame na n da yo, daka-DAKara koko-ni kita also IP impossible Cop Nom Cop FP that-is-why here (I)-came
39: n da yo. Nom Cop FP
40 (2.0)
41T: m: [ma: ne.
m: yeah FP

37-39Y:
'Umm therefore, it does not seem to be such a difficult thing. h So, /it’s because (n da yo) /I lack such intuitions n da yo/ that I came here/.'
40: (2.0)
41T: 'M: [yeah.'

(See earlier discussion pp. 81, 108)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12. n(o)</th>
<th>da</th>
<th>yone.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted in the expectation that a common ground of some interest which is proposed by S will be accepted as such by A. (S) Often used in formulations which are intended to be decisive; invites A to accept them as such and provide an assumptive response. (However, in use, quite frequently they are felt to be too strong by A, who resists providing the assumptive response that S hopes for.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

27Y: =.hh ano KANKAKU GA () yappari () watashi: mo hoshii n da yone. the intuition S (I)-think I also want Nom Cop FP
28T: m:: demo sore tte doo na n darou ne. tatoeba (2.0) dokoma-, demo well but that T how Cop Nom Cop FP for-example how-much but
29-30 : s-sono hito ga DOKOMade kotoba ni:(.)[kodawatteru ka tte iu: ka da ne.= the person S how-much word to pay-attention QT say FP Cop FP

27Y: ='.hhh /I think I want that native speaker’s intuition/ n da yone.'
28T: 'Well, but I wonder (n darou ne) /how important that is/. For example
29-30 : it is how much [you pay attention to words da ne.'

(See earlier discussion pp. 78, 107)
EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation

47: tte lu no ka-na; (2.0) so[oiu no o shiri-tai n da yone.
QT say Nom FP-NP like-that Nom O know-want Nom Cop FP

48T: "m:::
[yeah]

49: (3.0)

50T: ma; sokorahen wa honto-ni yappari native janai to
well that T really (I)-think native not QT

51: wakan-nai yone.=
understand-neg FP

47Y: '/there is this [kind of clear difference] / n da yone.'
48T: ['Yeah."
49: (3.0)

50T: 'Well, I don't think we can understand that
51: because we are not natives yone.'=

(See earlier discussion pp. 82, 110)

FREEDONIA

19M: n? (1.0) watashi ga watashi ga kokumin ni-shi-yo toka it-tara
mm I S I S people decide-let's etc say-if

20: kore de tsu- kono mondai mo kaiketsusuru n da yone .h=
this with this question also solve Nom Cop FP

21T: =e demo yappa Mari-chan wa doo omou?
eh but anyway Mari Dim T how think

19-20M: 'Mm? (1.0) If I say let's go for 'by the people',
then /this problem is solved/ n da yone .h=

21T: ='Eh but, what do you think, Mari?'
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13. n(o)</th>
<th>da</th>
<th>mon(o).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(P)</strong> Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted and provided as a logical support for the preceding utterance. <strong>(S)</strong> Marks a potential TRP with no next S selected.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXTRACT 3: Plumbing problems**

13Y: demo ne, are wa ne (1.5) tabun hai-haikan (.) tte iu no ka-na, but IP that T IP maybe plumbing QT say Nom Q-FP
14 : shisutemu: jo no mondai mo ARU to oMOu n da.= system concerning Gen problem also there-is QT think Nom Cop
15T: =un.
   uh-huh
16Y: datte [deru ni wa deru n da mon. because come-out dat T come-out Nom Cop FP
13Y: ‘But, can we say (no ka-na) /that’s to do with the plumbing/,’
14 : and also I think that’s because (n da) /it is a problem of the system/.’=
15T: =‘Uh-huh.’
16Y: ‘/Because I [have water anyway/ n da mon.’ (See earlier discussion pp. 87, 114)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14. n(o)</th>
<th>darou.</th>
<th>-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>(P)</strong> Reifies a proposition about whose status S expresses uncertainty. <strong>(S)</strong> Invites A to indicate whether she shares a degree of uncertainty; used for initiating a problematic topic where it is important to make sure that A accords the topic the same problem status as S.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

2T: douiu-toki-ni suggest tte tsukau n darou. what kind of-time-in suggest QT use Nom Cop
3 (0.2)
4Y: un. uh-huh

2T: ‘I wonder (n darou) /when people use the word ‘suggest’/.’
3 (0.2)
4Y: ‘Uh-huh.’

(See earlier discussion pp. 72, 102)
EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation
12T: mande show janakute suggest na n darou. why show Cop-Neg suggest Cop Nom Cop
13 (0.4)
14Y: ha.:=
yeah
12T: 'I wonder (n darou) /why it's 'suggest' rather than 'show'./'
13 (0.4)
14Y: 'Yeah.'=

(See earlier discussion pp. 75, 104)

15. n(o) darou ne. (P) Reifies a proposition, expresses uncertainty about it and invites A's agreement with this uncertain status. (S) Frequently used by a S who wishes to introduce a contradiction of what a previous speaker has said. S may elaborate the contradiction (in which case S responds to the invitation to agree by implicitly agreeing himself) or the turn may pass back to the original speaker.

EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation
27Y: =.hh ano KANKAKU GA (.) yappari (.) watashi: mo hoshii n da yone. the intuition S (I)-think I also want Nom Cop FP
28T: m:: demo sore tte doo na n darou ne. tatoeba (2.0) dokoma-, demo well but that T how Cop Nom Cop FP for-example how-much but
29: s-sono hito ga DOKOmade kotoba ni:(.)[kodawatteru ka tte iu: ka the person S how-much word to pay-attention Q QT say FP
30: da ne.= Cop FP

27Y: ='.hhh /I think I want that native speaker's intuition/ n da yone.'
28T: 'Well, but I wonder (n darou ne) /how important that is/. For example
29-30: it is how much (you pay attention to words da ne.).'

(See earlier discussion pp. 78, 107)
16. n(o) | darou | ka.
---|---|---
(P) Reifies a proposition about which S expresses a strong doubt of real significance.
(S) Used when a real doubt is expressed and a problem is regarded as significant.

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

16T: nande hhh ano show janakute suggest o tsukatta n darou ka.=
17Y: ="un" (1.5) show wa karada de
     yeah show T body with
16T: 'I don't understand (n darou ka) /why 'show' isn't used but 'suggest' is/.'=
17Y: ="'Yeah' (1.5) 'show' is something to do with demonstrating with your body."
     (See earlier discussion p. 104)

17. no | dewa?
---|---
(P) No reifies a proposition and dewa adds a tag (but not the default negative tag dewanai). It can be dismissive.
(S) Used to confirm a situation and to close down further discussion on the topic.

**FREEDONIA**

166M: deru to omou kara, .h chokusetsu tte iu no ga yoroshii no dewa?
     attract QT think because direct QT say Nom S good Nom Conj
167Y: so suru to, tsugi ga karandekuru yone.
     so do then next S involve FP
165-6M: 'Then I think that we will cooperate with and become interested in
     (the election), so .h /'directly by the people' is good, isn't it/ no dewa?'
167Y: 'Then, we move on to the next question yone.'
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18. n(o)</td>
<td>janai?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition and then suggests that this proposition ought not to be reified if it turns out not to be a true reflection of a state of affairs in the world. (S) Invites A to confirm the truth of the reified proposition. (But leaves open the possibility that A might want to confirm that the state of affairs is in fact false.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREEDONIA</td>
<td>65T: =demo doko-no kuni mo kokkai tte aru n janai?= but every country also parliament T there-is Nom Cop-Neg 66Y: =un.= yes 65T: =‘But /there is a parliament in every country/, isn’t there n ja(nai)?’= 66Y: =‘Yeah.’=</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. n(o)</td>
<td>janai</td>
<td>ka⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition to which the S adds his uncertainty as to whether or not the proposition should be reified in this way on the ground that it might not be consistent with a state of affairs in the world. (S) Invites A to look for a different angle on the topic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(no data)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. n(o)</td>
<td>janai</td>
<td>ka-na.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition to which the S adds his/her uncertainty as to whether or not the proposition should be reified in this way on the ground that it might not be consistent with a state of affairs in the world, with the S expressing his uncertainty in think-aloud mode. (S) Invites A to look for a different angle on the topic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREEDONIA</td>
<td>23M: mm (3.0) ya, ii n janai ka-na.= well well good Nom Cop-Neg FP 24Y: =demo kore tte kokkai ga setsuritsu-sareru baai tte natteru kara,= but this QT parliament S elect-ed case QT say because 23M: ’Well (3.0) well, I’m not sure (n janai ka-na) /it’s a good idea./’= 24Y: =‘But it says if a Parliament is ever elected, so’=</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⁴ There is no example of the structure listed in 19 in the data. However since 19 presupposes the existence of 18, pragmatic properties and sequential functions are hypothesized for the putative example.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>柱</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>n(o)</td>
<td>janai</td>
<td>no?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P) Reifies a proposition about which S expresses uncertainty but which S wants to reify for the sake of argument. (S) Invites A to accept this proposition for the sake of argument, with S expecting to continue in a new or topic-extending direction.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREEDONIA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60M:</td>
<td>dakara watashi wa yameta ho ii n janai no tte kokode ii-tai kedo so I T stop than S good Nom Cop-Neg Nom QT here say-want but</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61Y:</td>
<td>=un=</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uh-huh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62M:</td>
<td>=demo honto-ni kokkai toka ga nakutte, but surely parliament etc S there-is-not</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63:</td>
<td>daitoryo toka ga kimatteru kuni ga aru no ka-na to omotte. president etc S decide country S there-is Nom FP QT think</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60M:</td>
<td>'So, although I want to say here that //it's better not to have a parliament/n janai/ no,'=</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61Y:</td>
<td>=Uuh-huh,=</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62-3M:</td>
<td>=but am I right in thinking (no ka-na) /there are some countries where a president etc etc is elected without a parliament.'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>n(o)</td>
<td>janai desu</td>
<td>ka?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P) Seeks to reify while raising a question as to whether one should reify a proposition that may turn out not to be true in relation to some state of affairs. (S) Invites A to consider whether on the balance of probability the existence of the reified entity is or is not a good thing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FREEDONIA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151M: =</td>
<td>chotto tameshitemiru no mo ii n janai desu ka? &lt;laughs&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>small experiment Nom also good Nom Cop Cop Q</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>152U:</td>
<td>[&lt;laughs&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153T:</td>
<td>doo na n darou. how Cop Nom Cop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151M: ='</td>
<td>/Small experiment would be good/, would it not n (janai desu) ka?' &lt;laughs&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>152U:</td>
<td>[&lt;laughs&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>153T:</td>
<td>'I wonder (n darou) /how it turns out/.'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(P) Reifies a proposition which is obviously or logically related to the ongoing discourse.
(S) Invites A's *aizuchi* or confirmation of the logical relation of a proposition to the ongoing discourse.

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

| 55T: chigai o jisho de hi-hiita wake ne. (1.5) soshitara nanka | difference O dictionary in look-up Nom FP then something |
| 56 : ano: disclose no ho ga nanika ko::: kako: ni ano: himitsu ni | um disclose of to S something like past in um secret in |
| 57 : sa-rete-ita yona (.) mono tte iu nanika motto genteitekina kanji no kept-been like thing QT say something more limited like of |
| 58 : tsukai-kata tte atta [wake. use-way QT there-was Nom |
| 59Y: [un un un un. yes yes yes yes |

53-8T: ['For example, this time also, um, in the news it said 'the following was revealed'. /I checked the difference between reveal and disclose in a dictionary/ wake ne. (1.5) Then /the dictionary said disclose is dealing with something like a secret in the past and is more limited in use/ [wake. ']

59Y: ['Yes yes yes yes.']
(P) Reifies a proposition which is obviously or logically related to the ongoing discourse, but whose existential status may be problematical in terms of the epistemic doubt S holds in relation to it.
(S) Either invites *aizuchi* or confirmation that its existential status is unproblematic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25Y:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26U:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27T:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28U:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29Y:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26U:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25Y:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26U:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27T:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28U:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29Y:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>55Y:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56M:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 57T: | | ga eraba-reru *wake desho*?=
| 58M: | =soshitara dakara anna mechamecha | ni-natteru *wake jan* |
| 55Y: | '/a prime minister [is elected and' |
| 56M: | |'[I think elected so far as I know/ *wake (desho)*?]’=
| 57T: | '*Uh-huh.*', |
| 58M: | =‘Then so that’s why /it’s such a disorganized government/, is it not |
| 58M: | : | *wake (jan).*' |
(P) Reifies a proposition as obviously related to the ongoing discourse and to which the negative tag jan is added. Because of the logical nature of the non-controversial position reified, it functions as a reminder. (S) Invites A to agree with what is clearly a reasonable proposition.

FREEDONIA
58M: =soshitara dakara anna mechamecha ni-natteru **wake jan.**
      then so that disorganised is **Nom Cop-Neg**
59Y: *un. yes*
60M: dakara watashi wa yameta ho ga ii n janai no tte kokode ii-tai kedo-
     so I T stop than S good Nom Cop-Neg Nom QT here say-want but
58M: =‘Then so that’s why //it’s such a disorganized government//, is it not
     : **wake (jan).’**
59Y: ‘Yes.’
60M: ‘So, although I want to say here that //it’s better not to have
     : a parliament/n janai/ no,’=

FREEDONIA
102U: nantoka tou no ho ni iku **wake jan.**
      something party of side to go **Nom Cop**
103T: *un un un un [un. yes yes yes yes*
104U: [de Washington de ano: hoka no betsu no tou ni
     then in um other of other of party in
102U: ‘will go to the whichever party/ isn’t that so **wake jan.’**
103T: ‘Yes, yes, yes, yes, [yes.’
104U: ... [‘Then in Washington, um, in the other party’
(P) Reifies a logical proposition (*wake*) and suggests its reified status should be acceptable (*ne*).

(S) A is invited to signal acceptance of the proposition as logically related to the ongoing discourse, typically by means of *aizuchi.*

EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation
7T: dakedo, DO:-DO kangaetemo sono bunsho da to teian-suru (.). tte iu but how (I)-think that context Cop QT suggest QT say
8 : yoona .h imi dewNAI *wake NE.*=
   like meaning Cop-Neg Nom FP
9Y: =un.=
   uh-huh
10T: =ma, HONOMEKAsu tte iu imi mo (.). ma aru ni-shite-mo,=
    well imply QT say meaning also well there-is anyway-but

7T: ‘But /even if I think about it deeply, the word ‘suggest’ in that context
does not mean teian-suru/ *wake NE.*’=
9Y: ='Uh-huh.‘=
10T: =‘Well, there is another meaning ‘imply’ (.). but anyway.‘=

(See earlier discussion pp. 74, 104)
Table 5.2 Related structures without a nominalizer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>±Copula</th>
<th>±SFP/P</th>
<th>Pragmatic properties (P) / Sequential functions (S)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| da.     | -      | (P) Asserts the propositional content that falls within the scope of *da*.  
(S) Invites a follow-up in the form of either a continuation by S or a comment by A. |  

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

23T: Lisa ga kono toki wa explain wa tsuka-e-nai n da, tte, .h nande da  
Lisa S this case T explain T use-can-not Nom Cop QT why Cop  
24: tte kii-ta-ra sore wa setsumei dekinai kedo kono toki wa  
QT (I)-asked-then that T (she)-explain cannot although this case T  
25: dame na n da tte {itta=  
impossible Cop Nom Cop QT (she)-say-Past  
26T:  
27Y: =.hh ano KANKAKU GA (. ) yappari (. ) watashi: mo hoshii n da yone.  
the intuition S (I)-think I also want Nom Cop FP  

23-25Y:  
'So Lisa said that /I couldn’t use ‘explain’ in this case/ n da.  
I asked why da, and she [said/ although she cannot explain, it is impossible/ n da’ =  
26T:  
27Y: ='.hhh /I think I want that native speaker’s intuition/ n da yone.'
2. da  ne.

(P) Asserts the propositional content that falls within the scope of *da* and suggests that this should be agreed (*ne*).
(S) Invites A's agreement with the asserted status of the propositional content that falls within the scope of *da*.

FREEDONIA

5T: watashi kokumin (.) ni-yotte da na.
   I       people       by      Cop FP
6U:      [kokumin da ne.
       people       Cop FP
7Y: ne. GRC ni-yotte da to ( )-seiji mitai ni nacchau mon ne.=
       FP       by      Cop if government like in become FP FP

5T: 'I vote for 'by the [people' da na.'
6U:    ['Yeah, 'by the people' da ne.'
7Y: 'Yes (ne). That's because (mon ne) /if it's 'by the GRC' it will become a ( ) government./'
(P) Asserts the propositional content that falls within the scope of *da* in the expectation that this assertion is of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response (*yone*) and suggests that this should be agreed (*yone*).
(S) Either invites agreement that the assertion of the proposition is of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response or invites an inferentially related response.

### Trouble talk: Term assignment

| 12T: | mou kari-rarechatta-ra owari *da yone.*= |
|      | yet borrow-be-if end Cop FP |
| 13Y: | =kari-rarechatta-ra owari. |
|      | borrow-be-if end |

12T: 'If everything’s on loan, you’ve had it (=You’ve got a problem) *da yone.*'=
13Y: ‘If everything’s on loan, I’ve got a problem.’

(See earlier discussion p. 63)

### FREEDONIA

| 129T: | dakara yappa soo imi de wa kansetsuteki *da yone*. |
|      | so I-think so say meaning in T indirect Cop FP |
| 130U: | [un un. yes yes |
| 131Y: | demo nihon ni kurabe-reba choku[setsuteki *da yone*. |
|      | but Japan to compare-if direct Cop FP |
| 132T: | [un un [un un un. yes yes yes yes yes |
| 133M: | [u:n. yes |

129T: ‘So, in that sense, I think that’s ‘indirectly elected’ *da yone*.’
130U: ['Yes, yes.]
131Y: ‘But it’s [direct if it’s compared to the Japanese system *da yone*.’
132T: ['Yes, yes, yes, yes, yes.]
133M: ['Yeah.’
4. da  
n.a.

(P) Asserts the propositional content that falls within the scope of da and suggests that this assertion is one which could be accepted.

(S) Often used as a quasi think-aloud formula, and therefore not necessarily inviting A's agreement, although frequently provoking it.

```
FREEDONIA
5T: watashi kokumin (.) ni-yotte da na.
   I people by Cop FP
6U: | kokumin da ne.
    people Cop FP
7Y: ne.

5T: 'I vote for 'by the people' da na.'
6U: ['Yeah, 'by the people' da ne.]
7Y: 'Yes (ne).'  
```

5. darou  
n.e.

(P) Expresses uncertainty about the propositional content that falls within the scope of darou and suggests that this uncertain status should be agreed (ne).

(S) Invites A to agree with the uncertain status of the propositional content that falls within the scope of darou.

```
FREEDONIA
45Y: kokumin (.) no chokusetsu [senkyo de?
    people of direct election with
46M: [un un.
    yes yes
47 (2.0)
48U: doo darou ne. shira-nai.=
    how Cop FP know-not
49T: =wakan-[nai.
    know-not
50U: [wakan-nai.
    know-not

45Y: 'Directly [elected by the people?'
46T: ['Yes, yes.'
47 (2.0)
48U: 'I wonder (darou) how it is ne. I don't know.'=
49T: '='I don't [know.'
50U: ['I don't know.'
```
6. jan. janai.

(P) A negative tag used to suggest that S would like to assert the preceding proposition (whose quasi presuppositional status may sometimes be enhanced by a preceding *nanka*).
(S) Invites A's agreement with the preceding proposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>159T: nanka chokusetsu erabi-tai <em>jan.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT direct elect-want Cop-Neg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160Y: un un [un un.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes yes yes yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>159T: 'we) want to elect directly anyway, don't we <em>jan.</em>'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160Y: 'Yes, yes, [yes, yes.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Troubles talk: Term assignment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7Y: dooiu, sono: kekkyoku eigo no bunsho o mottekonai to,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how well finally English LK book 0 get otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8: h 1500 UNAN-NAI <em>janai.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write-cannot tag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9: (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10T: un.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uh-huh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7Y: 'I need an English book, otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8: h I can’t write 1500 words, can I (<em>janai</em>).'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9: (0.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10T: 'Un-huh.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(See earlier discussion p. 61)
| 7. desho. | (P) A tag used to suggest that the preceding proposition can be accepted.  
(S) Invites A to accept or comment on a preceding proposition (often as a preliminary to S continuing to develop a dependent argument). |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FREEDONIA 105U: tatoeba hitori da to shite de katsu to suru jan. demo (.) 9:1 desho.= for-example alone Cop QT do then win QT do Cop Neg but Cop 106T: [un. yes 107U: =ttte koto wa 9-nin katsu kara socchi no tou no daihyo no QT thing T 9-people win because that of party of representative of 105U: 'supposing one person is in the other party and wins. But it’s 9:1, isn’t it (desho).'= 106T: ['Uh-huh. ' 107-8U: =['That means because 9 people will win, the representative of the party, for example, [Mr. Bush will be a president and']</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 8. ka. | (P) Suggests that the preceding proposition should be confirmed.  
(S) Invites A to confirm whether the propositional content of S's utterance is accurate or not. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FREEDONIA 1T: a, sore wa tsugi no (. ) shitsumon ka. ah that T next of question FP 2Y: [un. Yes 1T: 'Ah, we are on the next question, [aren't we ka.' 2Y: ['Yes.']</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(P) Suggests that the preceding proposition is appropriate in terms of content or the way in which the content is expressed.
(S) Invites A's confirmation either of the appropriateness of the preceding proposition or of the appropriateness of the way it's put.

---

**EXTRACT 2: A problem of translation**

29T: s-sono hito ga DOKOmade kotoba ni:()|kodawatteru ka tte iu: ka the person S how-much word to pay-attention Q QT say FP
30: da ne.= Cop FP
31: [un binkan na no ka, ka ne. mm sensitive Cop Nom FP FP FP
32T: =tatoeba conceal to [hide toka mo ne.. m mm sensitive Cop Nom FP FP FP for-example conceal and hide and-so-on also IP
33Y: [a, demo ne, are da tte yo, akumade ne oh but IP that Cop QT FP doubtless IP
34: sore wa ne:: .h ano: eigo no joshiki to-shite tte itteta yo. it T IP urn English Gen common-sense as QT (she)-say-Past FP

29-30T: 'it is how much [you pay attention to words da ne.' 31Y: ['Or /how sensitive you are about (words)/ no ka ka ne.' 32T: = 'For example, 'conceal' and ['hide' are also..' 33Y: ['Yeah, but the way it works according to 34: what she said is the doubtless it depends on English intuition yo.'
(P) Suggests that the preceding proposition is likely to be acceptable.
(S) Either invites A's agreement with the propositional content or used to confirm that S agrees with a proposition which A has already voiced.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>134M:</strong> hoka no kuni wa shira-nai watashi. other of country T know-not I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135 (2.0) <em>un</em>. no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>136T: &quot;un&quot;.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>137U: shira-nai <strong>ne</strong>. know-not FP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>138Y: <em>un</em> no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>134M:</strong> 'I don't know the systems in other countries.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135 (2.0) &quot;No.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>137U: 'Me neither <strong>ne</strong>.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>138Y: 'No.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>143U:</strong> so iu seido ga atta-ra (. ) sugoi taihen kamoshirenai kedo omoshiroi. = so say system S there-is-if very hard might but interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>144Y: =&quot;un&quot;. = yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145T: =&quot;ne&quot;. = FP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>146M: =ii n janai? hoka no kuni de yatte-nai kara koko de hajimete, good Nom Cop-Neg other of country in do-not because here in start</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>143U: 'it might be very hard if the country has that kind of system,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>: but it is interesting.' =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>144Y: =&quot;Yes.&quot; =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>145T: =&quot;I think so too (ne).' =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>146M: ='/That's good, isn't it/ n (janai)? We can start it as other countries don't'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(P) S intends the proposition to be seen as of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response (yone) and suggests that this should be agreed (yone).

(S) Either invites agreement that the proposition is of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response or invites an inferentially related response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>83-4U: un kokumin ga nanka aru yone [kenri mitaina ()] yes people S PT have FP right like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85T: [ko-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 86M: ["un."
| 87T: uh-huh |
| 83-4U: 'yes, the people have something yone [like a right [( )']
| 85T: ['The pe-
| 86M: ["Uh-huh."
| 87T: 'The people, in each state,' |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDONIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>159T: nanka chokusetsu erabi-tai jan. PT direct elect-want Cop-Neg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160Y: un un [un un. yes yes yes yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161M: [nanka sekinin-kan ga umareru yone,= PT responsibility-sense S appear FP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162T: [u::n. yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>163M: jibun jibun: ga eran-da toka. I I S elect-ed etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>159T: '(we) want to elect directly anyway, don't we jan.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160Y: 'Yes, yes, [yes, yes.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161M: ['We will have a sense of responsibility yone,'=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162T: ['Yeah.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>163M: 'We have elected this person, we think.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **(P)** Is usually an auxiliary assertion in relation to the main proposition that has been asserted.  
**(S)** Adduces evidence for what has just been stated either by A or by S in a continuing utterance. |

**EXTRACT 3: Plumbing problems**

20Y: =attsui tsumetai attsui tsumetai ni-nacchau kara.  
hot cold hot cold become because  
21T: sooiu:: tokoro atta mon.  
like-that place there-was  
22Y: a: yutteta yone. ano: B&B ga [soo datta, 'te ne'.  
ah told FP um B&B S so was QT FP  
23T: [un,  
yes  
20Y: ='the water becomes hot, cold, hot, cold, so.'  
21T: '/I came across a place like that/ mon.'  
22Y: 'Ah, you mentioned it yone, um, a B&B, [yes ne.]'  
23T: ['Yes.']

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>13. -</th>
<th>mon-ne.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **(P)** Is usually an auxiliary assertion in relation to the main proposition that has been asserted (mon), and invites A's agreement with this status.  
**(S)** Adduces additional evidence and invites A to agree with or accept the evidence as a ground. |

**FREEDONIA**

5T: watashi kokumin (.) ni-[yotte da na.  
I people by Cop FP  
6U: [kokumin da ne.  
people Cop FP  
7Y: ne. GRC ni-yotte da to ( )-sei ji mitai ni nacchau mon ne.=  
FP by Cop if government like in become FP FP  
8U: =ne. [.hhh  
FP  
5T: 'I vote for 'by the [people' da na.'  
6U: ['Yeah, 'by the people' da ne.  
7Y: 'Yes (ne). That's because (mon ne) /if it's by the GRC it will become a  
: ( ) government./'  
8U: ='Yes (ne). [.hhh'
5.2 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher has tabulated all the combinations of nominalizers, copulas and SFPs/Ps found in the data, has explained their pragmatic properties and sequential functions and has provided examples of their use taken from the data. We can see from the tables that the nominalizers *no* and *wake* are used to reify a proposition and that a speaker asserts the reified status of the proposition by means of the copula *da*, expresses uncertainty about its status by means of the copula *darou*, and suggests that the reified proposition ought not to be regarded as reified if it turns out not to be a true reflection of a state of affairs in the world by means of the negative copula *janai*. In addition, a speaker uses various SFPs with some expectations as to how his utterance should be responded to by the addressee. For example, a speaker uses *no* turn-finally to reify a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as part of the (back)ground in an ongoing account (its pragmatic property) and invites the addressee to respond with *aizuchi* (its sequential function). The addressee’s *aizuchi* confirms that the proposition to which *no* is attached is indeed grounded as far as the addressee is concerned so that the speaker may now continue with the next part of the account or with an end-of-account formulation.
No used in Extract 1: Lunchtime talk
9Y: Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no.=
   Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
10T: =un.
   Uh-huh
11Y: de,.h u: a: un, demo, kare wa sugoi sono, nan te iu, kaisha, sono
   then well but he T very um what QT say company um
12: 'sarari:man o yat-teita yona nihon-go da yone' tte itta-raba,
   salary-man O done-has like Japanese-language Cop FP QT said-then
8-9Y: ='At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.'=
10T: =‘Uh-huh.’
11-2Y: ‘Then,.h well, but his Japanese is, I mean, like that used in a company
   um, I said ‘we can tell from his Japanese that he used to be an office
   worker yone’,’

In the following example, the speaker uses n(o) da yo to reify a proposition (no), whose
[R] status is then asserted (da) and marked as a potential common ground of some interest
(yo). These are all pragmatic properties of the construction. In terms of sequential
function, n da yo is typically used in formulations which invite a response by either the
speaker him/herself or the addressee that is inferentially related.

37Y: mo: dakara ne, sonnani fukai mon janai mitai .h dakara ne watashi
   umm therefore IP such deep thing Cop-Neg seem so IP I
38 : mo ne (.) dame na n da yo, daka-DAKara koko-ni kita
   also IP . impossible Cop Nom Cop FP that-is-why here (I)-came
39 : n da yo.
   Nom Cop FP
40 (2.0)
41T: m: [ma: ne.
   m: yeah FP
42Y: [mo, sooiu NE, chigai tte iu no ka-na, kono toki WA
   so like-that IP difference QT say Nom FP-PP this case T
43T: [m::
   m::
44Y: [explain da kedo kon toki WA (1.2) a nan da exam-exama
   explain Cop although this case T well what Cop exam(in)e
45T: examine?
46Y: examine (. ) toka ne, sooiu (. ) kuriaa-na ano: (1.2) chigai
   examine and-so-on IP like-that clear umm difference
47 : tte iu no ka-na:, (2.0) sooiu no o shiri-tai n da yone.
   QT say Nom FP-PP like-that one O know-want Nom Cop FP
48T: [m:::
   yeah
37-39Y: ’Umm therefore, it does not seem to be such a difficult thing. .h So, /it’s
   because (n da yo) /I lack such intuitions n da yo/ that I came here/.’
40: (2.0)
41T: ‘M: [yeah.’
42Y: [‘So, can I say (no ka-na) /it is the difference/, in this case
The next turn proof procedure and the role of addressees and/or of the continuing speaker therefore play an important part in determining the categorization on which the analysis that follows in Chapters 6 and 7 is based.

The various combinations were listed and ordered from the simplest to the most complex construction. However this order is adopted merely to assist the reader and does not mean that users of the language necessarily favour only the simpler structures or that they are more frequent in any given interaction. This tabulation is intended to facilitate understanding of the detailed analysis of the everyday talk-in-interaction data discussed in Chapter 3 as well as the analysis of the group discussion data to be considered in Chapters 6 and 7, which precisely show that different speakers favour different combinations of the n(o) da construction to achieve their own conversational ends.
6. Introduction

In chapter 5, we tabulated the twenty-six combinations of nominalizers, copulas and SFPs and the thirteen combinations of copulas and SFPs found in the everyday talk-in-interaction and group discussion data, and described their pragmatic properties and sequential functions in separate tables. These properties and functions were illustrated with examples taken from the data. In this and the following chapter, we discuss the different ways in which Japanese and English participants accomplish a decision-making task based on the 'Freedonia' exercise (See Appendix 3). This chapter, then, will focus on the Japanese group discussion data and consider the relationship between participant role and the uses of structures with and without the *n(o) da* construction.

Intuitively, different speakers in some particular speech event have one or more
ascribed roles which seem to be matched to a characteristic preference for particular combinations of the $n(o)$ da construction. In order to clarify the notion of role, we will first examine the notion of **participant role** or **team member** as explored in Belbin's work on *team roles at work* (1993). Although Belbin does not study linguistic behaviour, his definition of types of team member are clearly abstractions derived partly from linguistic contributions in team work. This naturally takes us to the notion of **footing** suggested by Goffman and explored further by Levinson (1988), the study of which identified several **distinctive features** of participant role seen from a speaker/addressee perspective. Working with both notions, we will identify the different roles of the participants who take part in the group discussion and analyse each participant's contributions to the discussion in order to reveal the relationship between participant role and uses of the $n(o)$ da construction.

**6.1 Participant role and footing**

In this section, we will review Belbin's work on *team roles at work* and Levinson's notion of **footing**, arguing that each provides a principled basis for the analysis of the Japanese talk data that will follow in subsequent sections.
6.1.1 ‘Team roles at work’

In the field of management theory, Belbin identified a range of participant roles which he described in a series of important works (1981, 1993, 2001). His focus is on the importance of team member roles for establishing how people can best work together in order to achieve a common objective (2001). The most recent version of his thesis proposes nine distinct roles in which individuals can make useful contributions as members of a team. These roles are: Plant, an ‘ideas person’ who often takes on the role of solving problems; Resource investigator, a person who borrows and develops ideas in discussion rather than providing original ideas; Co-ordinator (originally named ‘chairman’), who has the role of the person in the Chair; Shaper, a person who is prone to intolerance, especially when things meet with failure, but with the flexibility to accept change; Monitor evaluator, with the role of balanced impartiality and considered judgement in discussion; Team worker and Completer finisher, who offer service and uncomplaining hard work, but need to be led to rather than establish directions for themselves; and, finally, Implementer (originally called ‘company worker’) and Specialist, who have the roles of using and developing their abilities based on practical experience (Implementer) and vocational education and/or training (Specialist).

Although Belbin discussed team member roles at work rather than in discussion, 

1 Belbin’s table can be found in Appendix 4.
the principles underlining his proposal, that successful outcomes are achieved by teams made up of individuals with diverse skills, are potentially extendable to cover participant roles in discussion. Accordingly, to the extent that it is possible, we will assign different roles to each participant in the Japanese group discussion. (see Section 6.2).

6.1.2 'Footing'

Having briefly considered the roles of *team member at work*, we now move on to a discussion of Levinson's notion of footing, which identifies several distinctive features of participant role viewed from a speaker/addressee perspective.

Levinson (1988) applied a linguistic perspective to Goffman's successive examinations of the primitive notions of *speaker, addressee (hearer)* and *audience*, and suggested a reformation of Goffman's terminology. He pointed out that the notion of footing, including Goffman's categories of participant roles, seemed empirically inadequate, and did not provide sufficient distinction between the contributions of the various participants nor sufficiently distinguish *utterance-event* and *speech-event*, arguing that more detailed categories were present in both production and reception roles. He took five participant roles as basic or primitive, and defined derived
participant roles in terms of these basic roles, as shown in the table below:

Table 6.1: A system of basic and derived categories
(Cited from Table 7.2 in Levinson 1988: 170)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Derived categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(formed from Boolean operations on basic categories)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recipient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He then provided more complex categories in order to represent the underlying categorical dimensions, and represented these in a feature analysis. He indicates in Tables 6.2 and 6.3 on the following pages the presence (+) or absence (−) of Participation, Transmission (the property that utterers or actual transmitters have), Motive (or desire to communicate some particular message) and Form (or format of the message) in production roles, and in reception roles, Address (whether the message picks out a recipient by means of a feature of address), Recipient (indicated by linguistic
form), Participant (Goffman’s ‘ratified role’) and Channel-link (or ability to receive the message) as well as non-participant producer and reception roles.

Table 6.2: Production roles
(simplified version of Levinson’s Table 7.4 (1988: 172-3))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Transmission</th>
<th>Motive</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Ordinary speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Ghostee’</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Ghosted speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spokesman</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Barrister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relayer</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Reader of statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviser</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Statement maker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsor</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Defendant in court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Ghostor’</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Copresent ghost writer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Transmission</th>
<th>Motive</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ultimate source</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Source of military command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Delegate’s constituents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formulator</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Absent ghost writer</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Levinson illustrates ‘indirect target’ and ‘audience’ provided in table 3 by means of data taken from Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1978: 29):

1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Recipient</th>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Channel-link</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interlocutor</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Ordinary addressee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect target</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>See Karen in (1) below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediary</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Committee chairman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>See Ruthie in (1) below</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Recipient</th>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Channel-link</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overhearer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Bystanders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Targeted overhearer</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>See footnote 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ultimate destination</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Karen is clearly the indirect target of Mark’s comment to Sharon that he and Karen are having a fight, and Ruthie is clearly a member of the audience of this conversation.

2 A good example of a ‘targeted overhearer’ is the Spanish waiter, Manuel, in the television comedy Fawlty Towers. Manuel is frequently described disparagingly by the hotel owner, Basil Fawlty, as being ‘from Barcelona’. These references to Manuel are always addressed by Basil to a ‘participant’ although Manuel is clearly the overhearing recipient, or butt of Basil’s humour.
rather than a recipient of Mark’s message.

Levinson’s study thus discriminates very detailed categories of participation role and clarifies the relationship between participant and information transmitted in an utterance-event, so that the relationship between a speaker and what he says and how he relates it to his addressees and audiences is captured in a principled way.

In this study, we will then discuss the contributions participants make in the speech event studied and make clear the relationship between a participant’s role and their formal or characteristic uses of the n(o) da construction, i.e. what kind of contribution, or even perhaps personality type, is revealed by the way a speaker uses combinations of nominalizers, copulas and SFPs; we will use the term ‘construction preferences’ to refer to these characteristic contributions. In particular, we will follow Levinson in proposing a system in which a participant role in discussion is defined in terms of distinctive features, although, as we shall see, these distinctive features will be predominantly linguistic and revealed in the use of nominalizers, moods and SFPs rather than in terms of interactive participation roles per se. Thus, it is not Levinson’s particular set of distinctive features that are employed in this analysis, but rather the notion that contributions to talk can be analysed by means of a system of distinctive features applied to the preferred linguistic structures chosen by participants.
6.2 Japanese group discussion data analysis

In this section, we analyse the Japanese data arising from the discussion of Question 2 of the nine questions addressed by the four participants who took part in the ‘Freedonia’ exercise (See Appendix 3).

The reasons why we focus on Question 2 rather than one of the other 8 questions are 1) the length of the discussion (4 minutes) is appropriate for an analysis of this kind, 2) the data contain a wide range of combinations of nominalizers, copulas and SFPs, and 3) the four participants (including the female speakers, M and T, and the male speakers, Y and U) each contribute a more or less equal number of turns.

Question 2 required the four participants to decide how to elect subsequent presidents of Freedonia, following the first presidency. The discussion of this question as represented in the data moves through four thematic phases. First, the participants open the question up so as to establish that they each understand what they have to decide on. This is followed by two intermediate phases, which involve discussing, first, the need for a parliament and then the American presidential system, before they reach a decision in the fourth and final phase.

We will examine ‘active’ and ‘reactive’ utterances separately. Active utterances include structures both with and without the n(o) da construction, and reactive ones
include agreement markers, *aizuchi* and non-interventive vocalizations, as shown below:

Diagram 6.1: Active and reactive utterances

Firstly, we will focus on active utterances and investigate the relationship between the participant roles assumed by each speaker as revealed in their uses of structures both with and without the *n(o) da* construction. Secondly, in order to clarify how the construction works in discussion, we will employ the notion of distinctive features and examine the relationship between apparent participant roles and construction preferences, i.e. each speaker’s characteristic preference for particular combinations of nominalizers, mood indicating copulas and the SFPs *ka, ka-na, ne* and *yone*. Finally, we will determine the role in discussion that each speaker assumes.
6.2.1 Participant roles and the \( n(o) \ da \) construction

As a first step in our examination of the relationship between participant roles and the participants' uses of the \( n(o) \ da \) construction, let us consider the number of utterances with and without the construction in the repertoire of each of the participants. As the following table and figure show, there is a striking difference in this respect between Y and U on the one hand and each of M and T on the other (See Appendix 3).

Table 6.4: Numbers of active utterances with/without the \( n(o) \ da \) construction\(^3\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With ( n(o) \ da )</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without ( n(o) \ da )</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL number of utterances</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These data are also represented in the figure in the next page.

\(^3\) This table excludes reactive utterances; i.e. non-interventive vocalizations, *aizuchi* and agreement markers.
Figure 6.1 Proportion of speakers' utterances with/without the $n(o)$ da construction

1. With the $n(o)$ da construction
2. Without the $n(o)$ da construction
In Chapter 2, we showed that the function of the n(o) da construction was first to reify a proposition by means of the nominalizer no, and then to assert or raise a question about the reified/reifiable status of that proposition by means of the following copula. In a sense, we may say that a speaker uses the n(o) da construction when he cares more about the propositional status of the utterance than about the propositional content itself. By way of contrast, a speaker does not use the construction when his utterances are more open to others, in other words, when he is not excluding the possibility that an interlocutor might take a different view about the propositional content itself, thus indicating, at least implicitly, a willingness to argue its status. As discussed in the preceding chapter, the n(o) da construction thus enables a speaker first to choose whether the proposition is to be reified or not, and, in cases where the speaker makes the decision to reify, he may also decide whether to assert, question or express uncertainty toward the reified status of that proposition by means of mood indicating copulas. Finally, he decides whether to indicate the expected next turn type by means of SFPs.

If we take consequentiality, or outcome, to be the principal reason for engaging in talk, and assume that 'first' turns are consequentiality-oriented and often state positions or provide (portions of) accounts, then it ought to be possible to determine defaults for 'first' turn and 'next' turn sequentiality. Following this assumption, the Japanese data show that
there are two defaults for contributions to Japanese talk:

**JAPANESE DEFAULT 1**

Turn 1: proposition (henceforth, P) + no

Turn 2: aizuchi

**EXAMPLE**

9Y: =ano toki ni ne, ano: Tanaka-san ga ne, that time at IP um Ms Tanaka S IP

10: Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no.= Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom

11T: =un.

uh-huh

9-10Y: =At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.’=

11T: =‘Uh-huh.’

(Here Y provides a portion of an account as a ‘first’ turn.)

or

**JAPANESE DEFAULT 2**

Turn 1: P (+ no) (+ copula) + SFP indicating expected relation of T2 response to T1

Turn 2: response as indicated by SFP

**EXAMPLE**

46Y: examine (. ) toka ne, sooiu (0.2) kuriaa-na ano: (1.2) chigai examine and-so-on IP like-that clear umm difference

47: tte iu no ka-na:, (2.0) sooiu no o shiri-tai n da yone. QT say Nom FP-FP like-that Nom O know-want Nom Cop FP

48T:


yeah

49 (3.0)

50-17: mai, sokorahen wa honto-ni yappari native janai to wakannai yone.- well that T really (I)-think native Cop-Neg QT understand-Neg FP

46Y: ‘examine’ etc etc, /I want to know, like, umm, can I say (no ka-na),

47 : /there is this [kind of clear difference/ / n da yone.’

48T: [ ‘Yeah.’

49 (3.0)

50-17: ‘Well, I don’t think we can understand that because we are not natives.’=

(Here Y advances a position which is embedded in such a way as to make it an open proposition.)
Thus, the next area to consider are the construction preferences of the speakers with respect to their use of the \( n(o) \text{ da} \) construction and SFPs.

### 6.2.2 Participant roles and construction preferences

In this sub-section, we will first focus on participants' 'active' utterances and categorize them in four different classes by employing the notion of distinctive features, which are indicated by means of [R] (reification) and [C] (degree of certainty). This provides us with the following four possibilities:

1. \([+[R],+[C]]\): a speaker uses the \( n(o) \text{ da} \) construction and asserts certainty in regard to the reified/reifiable status of the proposition.
2. \([+[R],-[C]]\): a speaker uses the \( n(o) \text{ da} \) construction and expresses uncertainty toward the reified/reifiable status of the proposition.
3. \([-[R],+[C]]\): a speaker does not use the \( n(o) \text{ da} \) construction and asserts certainty in regard to the content of the proposition.
4. \([-[R],-[C]]\): a speaker does not use the \( n(o) \text{ da} \) construction and expresses uncertainty toward the content of the proposition.

This range of possibilities can also be expressed in the following way:

1. (2) \([\text{Proposition}_{R}]+/-\text{C}\)
2. (3) (4) \([\text{Proposition}]+/-\text{C}\)

For reasons which will become clear in 6.2.2.1, in sub-section 6.2.2.2 below, we will examine the participants' 'reactive' utterances, including non-interventive vocalizations,
the role of aizuchi and the use of agreement markers.

6.2.2.1 Active utterances

As we noted, the active utterances may be divided into four types in terms of the presence or absence of propositional Reification [R] and degree of Certainty [C]. The question that naturally arises is how these meanings are realized in actual talk.

The first category of utterance, [+R, +C], includes the following constructions:

- the nominalizer no + the copula da + SFP/P,
- the lexically stronger nominalizer wake (lit. reason) + the copulas desho and jan,
- the nominalizer no + the copula janai + SFP,
- the nominalizer no + the copula janai + SFPs,
- the nominalizer no? with rising intonation and
- the nominalizer no + the SFP ka.

We can say that such combinations enable a speaker to indicate that other speakers are not to challenge the reified/reifiable status of the proposition. In the previous chapter, the pragmatic properties / sequential functions of these forms were described in the following way:
Table 6.5: Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of [+[R],+[C]]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[+[R],+[C]]</th>
<th>Pragmatic properties</th>
<th>Sequential functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>n da yone</strong></td>
<td>Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted in the expectation that a common ground of some interest which is proposed by S will be accepted as such by A.</td>
<td>Often used in formulations which are intended to be decisive; invites A to accept them as such and provide an assumptive response. (However, in use, quite frequently they are felt to be too strong by A, who resists providing the assumptive response that S hopes for.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>n dat-tara</strong></td>
<td>Reifies a proposition, which is then asserted but treated as putative.</td>
<td>Introduces a conditional presequence on the basis of which the S will develop an argument.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wake jan</strong></td>
<td>Reifies a proposition as obviously related to the ongoing discourse and to which the negative tag <em>jan</em> is added. Because of the logical nature of the non-controversial position reified, it functions as a reminder.</td>
<td>Invites A to agree with what is clearly a reasonable proposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wake desho</strong></td>
<td>Reifies a proposition which is obviously or logically related to the ongoing discourse, but whose existential status may be problematical in terms of the epistemic doubt S holds in relation to it.</td>
<td>Either invites <em>aizuchi</em> or confirmation that its existential status is unproblematic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>no dewa?</strong></td>
<td><em>No</em> reifies a proposition and <em>dewa</em> adds a tag (but not the default negative tag <em>dewanai</em>). It can be dismissive.</td>
<td>Used to confirm a situation and to close down further discussion on the topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>n janai no</strong></td>
<td>Reifies a proposition about which S expresses uncertainty but which S wants to reify for the sake of argument.</td>
<td>Invites A to accept this proposition for the sake of argument, with S expecting to continue in a new or topic-extending direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Invites A to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai desu ka?</td>
<td>Seeks to reify while raising a question as to whether one should reify a proposition that may turn out not to be true in relation to some state of affairs.</td>
<td>Invites A to consider whether on the balance of probability the existence of the reified entity is or is not a good thing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai? (turn-internal use)</td>
<td>Reifies a proposition and then suggests that this proposition ought not to be reified if it turns out not to be a true reflection of a state of affairs in the world.</td>
<td>Invites A to confirm the truth of the reified proposition. (But leaves open the possibility that A might want to confirm that the state of affairs is in fact false.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no ka</td>
<td>Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground, subject to confirmation of its reifiable status.</td>
<td>Invites A to comment on and preferably confirm the reifiable status of the proposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no?</td>
<td>Casts doubt on whether a proposition should be regarded as reified.</td>
<td>Invites A to indicate whether or not the proposition should have reified status or, in the case of anticipatory completion, whether or not the proposition offered is appropriate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Working through the pragmatic property and sequential function descriptions in the table above, clearly shows the family resemblance between the ten constructions listed.

The second category of utterances, [+R,−C], includes the following constructions: the nominalizer *n(o) + the copula janai (+ the SFP ka-na), the nominalizer *no + the SFP ka-na, and the nominalizer *n(o) + the copula darou. By using such combinations, a speaker expresses a degree of epistemic uncertainty about the reified/reifiable status of the proposition. The pragmatic properties / sequential functions
of this set of structures were defined in the previous chapter in the following way:

Table 6.6: Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of \([+[R],-[C]]\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>([+[R],-[C]])</th>
<th><strong>Pragmatic properties</strong></th>
<th><strong>Sequential functions</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(n\ janai?) (turn-final use)</td>
<td>Reifies a proposition and then suggests that this proposition ought not to be reified if it turns out not to be a true reflection of a state of affairs in the world.</td>
<td>Invites A to confirm the truth of the reified proposition. (But leaves open the possibility that A might want to confirm that the state of affairs is in fact false.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n\ janai ka-na)</td>
<td>Reifies a proposition to which the S adds his/her uncertainty as to whether or not the proposition should be reified in this way on the ground that it might not be consistent with a state of affairs in the world, with the S expressing his uncertainty in think-aloud mode.</td>
<td>Invites A to look for a different angle on the topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(no ka-na)</td>
<td>Reifies a proposition and suggests that it should be treated as a ground (no), then expresses uncertainty or speculates as to the epistemic status of the proposition (ka), often signalling think aloud mode (na), especially when turn-internal.</td>
<td>&lt;End of turn&gt; Invites A to comment on / acknowledge the uncertain status of the proposition as seen from S's perspective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n\ darou)</td>
<td>Reifies a proposition about whose status S expresses uncertainty.</td>
<td>Invites A to indicate whether she shares a degree of uncertainty; used for initiating a problematic topic where it is important to make sure that A accords the topic the same problem status as S.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to its pragmatic and sequential functions, \(n\ janai?\) should be categorised as \([+[R],-[C]]\). However when a speaker uses it turn-internally, he does not invite an addressee to confirm the truth of the reified proposition, and in most cases his own comments follow. That is why turn-internal and turn-final \(n\ janai?\) are classified in
different categories.

The third category of utterances, \([-[R],[+C]]\), in which a proposition is not reified but nevertheless asserted, are characterized by a range of forms whose function is to assert the propositional content (copula \(da\)), to invite addressees to accept it as asserted (the SFPs \(ne\), \(yo\)\(^1\) and \(yone\)), and to require addressees’ confirmation or agreement (the copulas \(jan\) and \(desho\), and the SFP \(ka\)). A speaker uses such combinations to express certainty toward the proposition, and invites addressees to confirm or agree with rather than challenge the propositional content of the utterance.

Table 6.7: Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of \([-[R],[+C]]\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>([-[R],[+C]])</th>
<th>Pragmatic properties</th>
<th>Sequential functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>da yone</td>
<td>Asserts the propositional content that falls within the scope of (da) in the expectation that this assertion is of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response ((yone)) and suggests that this should be agreed ((yone)).</td>
<td>Either invites agreement that the assertion of the proposition is of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response or invites an inferentially related response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da ne</td>
<td>Asserts the propositional content that falls within the scope of (da) and suggests that this should be agreed ((ne)).</td>
<td>Invites A’s agreement with the asserted status of the propositional content that falls within the scope of (da).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Yo is not included in the table, simply because it did not occur in the data. But if it did, it would be in the same category of \(ne\) and \(yone\). A function of \(yo\) is not to seek overt confirmation or agreement but to seek it implicitly. That is because the next speaker is supposed to take for granted what is asserted in the utterance and to produce some kind of related response.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yone</td>
<td>S intends the proposition to be seen as of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response (yone) and suggests that this should be agreed (yone).</td>
<td>Either invites agreement that the proposition is of sufficient interest to provoke an inferentially related response or invites an inferentially related response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>Suggests that the preceding proposition is likely to be acceptable.</td>
<td>Either invites A's agreement with the propositional content or used to confirm that S agrees with a proposition which A has already voiced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon ne</td>
<td>It is usually an auxiliary assertion in relation to the main proposition that has been asserted (mon), and invites A's agreement with this status (ne).</td>
<td>Adduces additional evidence and invites A to agree with or accept the evidence as a ground.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desho.</td>
<td>A tag used to suggest that the preceding proposition can be accepted.</td>
<td>Invites A to accept or comment on a preceding proposition (often as a preliminary to S continuing to develop a dependent argument).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jan</td>
<td>A negative tag used to suggest that S would like to assert the preceding proposition (whose quasi presuppositional status may sometimes be enhanced by a preceding nanka).</td>
<td>Invites A's agreement with the preceding proposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka</td>
<td>Suggests that the preceding proposition should be confirmed.</td>
<td>Invites A to confirm whether the propositional content of S's utterance is accurate or not.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neg. interrogative</td>
<td>The negative tag.</td>
<td>Invites A to agree with the propositional content included in the sentence itself. (part of the sentence?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The fourth category of utterances, \([-\[R\],-[C]\)], includes the copula \(darou\) + the SFP \(ne\) in non-reified environments and interrogatives without reification. By using such combinations, a speaker expresses uncertainty about the propositional content whose assertability depends on the view of the addressee.

Table 6.8: Pragmatic properties and sequential functions of \([-\[R\],-[C]\])

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>([-[R],-[C]])</th>
<th>Pragmatic properties</th>
<th>Sequential functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(darou\ ne)</td>
<td>Expresses uncertainty about the propositional content that falls within the scope of (darou) and suggests that this should be agreed ((ne)).</td>
<td>Invites A to agree with the uncertain status of the propositional content that falls within the scope of (darou).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aff. interrogative</td>
<td>Questions whether the propositional content is agreeable.</td>
<td>Invites A to respond.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At this point we turn to the participant roles associated with each of the four distinctive feature matrices and how these were determined. Firstly, a prototypical realization of each of the four distinctive feature matrices was identified and then the researcher looked for an everyday Japanese description of the role associated with each realization. This proved more difficult than one might suppose: although, to take one example, the prototypical realization of \([+\[R\],+[C]\])\, e.g. \(n\ da\ yone\), was clearly associated with taking the initiative in the ongoing discussion, it was more difficult to decide on the Japanese name for this role as the concept of agency associated with initiative isn’t encoded in Japanese. Thus \(Shudoken\) actually means \(initiative\) only.
Similar problems occurred with the other roles that were readily identified in the data.

Once candidate role descriptions had been determined, these were checked against several more realizations of each feature matrix before being confirmed.

**The role of Shudoken**

[+[R],+[C]] utterances reify propositions. Depending on the construction selected, they may assert this status with varying degrees of confidence. The prototypical [+[R],+[C]] structure is *n da yone*\(^2\), whose pragmatic property is to reify a proposition which is then asserted in the expectation that a common ground of some interest which is proposed by S will be accepted as such by A. Sequentially, [+[R],+[C]] utterances have a wide range of directive functions, whose specific nature depends on the construction selected. These functions include formulating, establishing presequential positions, inviting agreement and confirmation, and closing down topics. The prototypical [+[R],+[C]] structure, *n da yone*, is often used in formulations which are intended to be decisive, and invites A to accept them as such and provide an assumptive response. In [+[R],+[C]] utterances, the

---

\(^2\) Reification [R] is an absolute value (although it is possible to indicate whether the ontological status is principally asserted as a matter of reason, as with the use of *wake*, or simply asserted neutrally as with the use of *no*), whereas Certainty [C] is a relative value and to some extent a matter of degree, as indicated by *darou*, *ka-na*, etc. For this reason, the prototypical example of the [+[R],+[C]] matrix is *n da yone*, because it expresses the highest degree of assertiveness, and the prototypical example of the [+[R],-[C]] matrix is *n darou* (see Table 5.1 on p.167), because it expresses the lowest degree of assertiveness. Similar criteria for prototypicality apply to [-[R],+[C]] and [-[R],-[C]] constructions.
initiative always lies with the speaker who therefore drives the discussion. For this reason a participant who favours \([+[R],+[C]]\) utterances over other types is labelled *shudoken*, a term which translates into English as ‘(taker of) the initiative’.

**The role of Hatten-yaku**

\([+[R],-[C]]\) utterances also reify propositions but at the same time cast doubt on whether the proposition ought to have such a status. Depending on the construction selected, the speaker may also express his uncertainty as to the status of the proposition in think-aloud mode. The prototypical \([+[R],-[C]]\) structure is *n darou* and its pragmatic property is to reify a proposition about whose status S expresses uncertainty. Depending on the construction selected, from a sequential perspective, \([+[R],-[C]]\) utterances offer the addressee an opportunity to confirm the acceptability of reifying the proposition, to look for a new angle on the topic, or to confirm that the topic is to a degree problematic. The sequential function of the prototypical \([+[R],-[C]]\) structure, *n darou*, was defined as inviting the addressee to indicate whether she shares a degree of uncertainty. In \([+[R],-[C]]\) utterances, the speaker shares responsibility with the addressee for determining whether a proposition ought to be regarded as reified and therefore seeks to include the addressee in developing the topic and in taking a position. For this reason a
participant who favours \([+\{R\},-\{C\}]\) utterances over other types is labelled \(hatten-yaku\), a term which translates into English as ‘developer’.

**The role of Kaisetsu-sha**

\([-\{R\},+\{C\}]\) utterances assert the propositional content conveyed by the speaker. Depending on the construction selected, the speaker may also indicate that the information is to be accepted as a common ground. The prototypical \([-\{R\},+\{C\}]\) structure is \(da yone\), whose pragmatic property was defined as asserting the propositional content which \(S\) intends to be taken for granted as common ground provoking an inferentially related response \((yo)\), a perspective which \(A\) is expected to agree with \((ne)\). Sequentially, \([-\{R\},+\{C\}]\) utterances invite the addressee’s response to or agreement with their propositional content. The sequential function of the prototypical \([-\{R\},+\{C\}]\) structure, \(da yone\), was defined as inviting \(A\)’s agreement \((ne in yone)\) that the propositional content of his utterance merits a response \((yo in yone)\). In \([-\{R\},+\{C\}]\) utterances, the speaker typically seeks to justify what he says and is eager for its explanatory and hence response-worthy status to be acknowledged. For this reason a participant who favours \([-\{R\},+\{C\}]\) utterances over other types is labelled \(kaisetsu-sha\), a term which roughly translates into English as ‘rationalizing commentator’.
The role of Shitsumon-yaku

[[-[R],-[C]]] utterances express uncertainty about the propositional content being conveyed. The prototypical [-[R],-[C]] structure is *darou ne* and is used by S to express uncertainty about the propositional content (*darou*) and invite A’s agreement with this uncertain status. Sequentially, [-[R],-[C]] utterances invite the addressee to indicate the extent to which she shares the same view of the proposition conveyed as the speaker or takes a different view. The sequential function of the prototypical [-[R],-[C]] structure, *darou ne*, was defined as inviting A to agree to and comment on the uncertain status of the propositional content. In [-[R],-[C]] utterances, the speaker shares responsibility with the addressee for determining whether a proposition is sustainable and therefore seeks to include the addressee in deciding on the extent to which propositions correspond to states of affairs in the world. For this reason, a participant who favours [-[R],-[C]] utterances over other types is labelled *shitsumon-yaku*, a term which translates into English as ‘questioner’. Although questioner is a generic term in English, in Japanese *shitsumon-yaku* conveys the notion that the purpose of the question is to establish a perspective.

Having determined four participant roles, we are now ready to consider the participant role in discussion that each of the four speakers, M, T, Y and U, assumes based
on the extent to which their construction preferences match those associated with each of the four participant roles. The numbers of active utterances as they appear in the Freedonia data under consideration are shown on the following page:
Table 6.9: Active utterances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructions</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. +[R],+[C]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Dark-shading indicates utterances with reification; +[R]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n da yone</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n dat-tara</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wake desho</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wake jan</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no dewa?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai no</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai desu ka?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai? (turn-internal use)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no ka</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. +[R],-[C]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai? (turn-final use)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n janai ka-na</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no ka-na</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n darou</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -[R], +[C]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da yone</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da ne</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yone</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon ne</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jan/janai</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desho?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative interrogative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. -[R],-[C]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>darou ne</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affirmative interrogative</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Looking at the structures listed in Table 6.9, if we were to discriminate strictly, we would probably agree that the feature [C] is scalar rather than binary, with three levels, of certainty encoded. The copula \textit{da}, which is assertive, would be a prototypical instance of [C1] (i.e. the highest level of certainty), whilst the copulas \textit{desho, jan / janai}, the copula \textit{da + SFP ne} or \textit{yone} and the SFP \textit{ka} would be prototypical instances of [C2] (i.e. the second level of certainty), and the copula \textit{darou} and the SFP \textit{ka-na}, which clearly express uncertainty and seek comments, would be prototypical instances of [C3]. Although the three scalar values of [C] are determined by their semantic properties, [C1] and [C2] can be regarded as +[C] and [C3] regarded as −[C], because [C2] has an indirect function: although at the level of semantic meaning, it is an open request for confirmation (\textit{janai / jan, desho, ka}) or agreement (\textit{ne}), at the pragmatic level, it functions as a non-refusable request.

In the following pages, we represent the total percentage of uses of each category by each speaker (Figure 6.2) and the comparative structural preference of each of the four speakers (Figure 6.3) shown by means of pie charts. As can be seen, the figures reveal striking differences in the construction preferences of the four speakers:
Figure 6.2: Pie charts showing the proportion of categories for each speaker

- **Speaker M**
  - 4: 6%
  - 3: 19%
  - 2: 13%
  - 1: 62%

- **Speaker T**
  - 4: 18%
  - 3: 27%
  - 2: 27%
  - 1: 28%

- **Speaker Y**
  - 4: 10%
  - 3: 80%
  - 2: 0%

- **Speaker U**
  - 4: 8%
  - 3: 67%
  - 2: 8%

1. +[R], +[C]
2. +[R], −[C]
3. −[R], +[C]
4. −[R], −[C]
Figure 6.3: Pie charts showing the proportion of speakers for each category.
Returning to the detail of Table 6.9, we notice that M favours the \([+[R],+[C]]\) structure and uses it ten times, whereas the other speakers use it much less frequently. With respect to \([+[R],-[C]]\), T uses this structure more than the other speakers, i.e. three times, and Y does not use it at all. With regard to \([-[R],+[C]]\), Y and U use this structure most frequently, eight times each, although M and T use it only three times each. The \([-[R],-[C]]\) structure is rare for all speakers, with each participant using it once except T who uses it twice. We notice from Figure 6.2 that T uses \(-[C]\) structures (i.e. \([+[R],-[C]]\) and \([-[R],-[C]]\)) in 45% of her utterances, representing a higher proportion than the other speakers. One more thing to notice is that Y and U are broadly similar in their construction preferences.

With those points clarified, we will first determine discussant roles for speakers M and T. M clearly prefers to use \([+[R],+[C]]\) shudoken (initiative) taker structures. On the other hand, T uses combinations categorized as \(-[C]\) (i.e. \([+[R],-[C]]\) and \([-[R],-[C]]\), which express uncertainty and she is therefore categorized as hatten-yaku (developer) or shitsumon-yaku (perspective seeking questioner), frequently asking for others’ comments. Y and U’s structural preferences are quite similar, i.e. they use predominantly kaisetsu-sha (rationalizing commentator) combinations \([-[R],+[C]]\). In order to try to establish distinct discussant roles for each of them, it is therefore necessary to examine
their uses of ‘reactive’ utterances, the area considered in the following section.

6.2.2.2 Reactive utterances

We now move on to the discussion of reactive utterances, including agreement markers such as un and hai, aizuchi, non-interventive vocalizations such as m:, a (ah) and e (eh), turn initial ne, and the expression of understanding so ka (I see). The numbers of reactive utterances each speaker provides are shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreement markers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aizuchi</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocalizations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Numbers of reactive utterances provided</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We notice that T makes much more use of reactive forms than the other speakers. Equally striking is the fact revealed in Table 6.11 that reactive utterances are directed at Y much more frequently than at any of the other speakers.
Table 6.11: Numbers of reactions each speaker receives
(excluding vocalizations not directed at particular participants)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Receiver</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>Numbers of reactive utterances each S provides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Numbers of reactions each S receives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Receiver</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>Numbers of reactive utterances each S provides</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the tables reveal that T reacts the most and Y is the participant at whom the largest number of reactions is directed, the primary purpose of studying the reactive utterance data is to distinguish the discussant roles of Y and U. In order to determine their discussant roles, it seems necessary to examine how many of each category of reactive utterances (i.e. agreement markers, *aizuchi* and vocalizations) the participants provide and receive. Although there are some uses of *so ka* ('I see' in English), these are excluded because although they are clearly lexical, *so ka* is used to indicate understanding of rather than to mark agreement with the speaker’s utterance. In order to examine the numbers of reactive utterances the participants provide and receive, Tables 6.10 and 6.11 provide a breakdown of the data with agreement markers treated as ‘lexical contributions’, and *aizuchi* and vocalizations grouped together as ‘non-lexical contributions’.

Table 6.12.1 below indicates lexical contributions, i.e. the agreement markers
which each speaker directs at others and has directed at them in the discussion data and Table 6.12.2 indicates non-lexical contributions, i.e. the *aizuchi* and the vocalizations.

Tables 6.12: Breakdown lists of Tables 6.10 and 6.11

6.12.1 Lexical reactive utterances produced by and directed at each speaker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>participants</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>produced by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directed at</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.12.2 Non-lexical reactive utterances produced by and directed at each speaker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>participants</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Y</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>produced by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directed at</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: Numbers in left columns for each speaker are ‘vocalizations’ and in right columns ‘aizuchi’.

On the following page, we represent the percentages of reactions each speaker provides (Figure 6.4) and the percentages of reactions directed at each speaker by other speakers (Figure 6.5).
Figure 6.4: Pie charts showing the proportion of reactions provided by each speaker

1. Lexical
2. Non-lexical
Figure 6.5: Pie charts showing the proportion of reactions directed at each speaker.

- **Speaker M**: 2 (47%) Lexical, 1 (53%) Non-lexical
- **Speaker T**: 2 (22%) Lexical, 1 (78%) Non-lexical
- **Speaker Y**: 2 (58%) Lexical, 1 (42%) Non-lexical
- **Speaker U**: 2 (27%) Lexical, 1 (73%) Non-lexical

1. Lexical
2. Non-lexical
We can see from Table 6.12.1 that, as for the production of reactive utterances, Y provides lexical contributions of a reactive nature 12 times and U provides them 5 times. On the other hand, Table 6.12.2 reveals that Y provides non-lexical contributions (i.e. vocalizations and aizuchi) 4 times while U provides them 6 times. In representing this by means of proportion (Figure 6.4), 75% of Y’s reactive utterances and 45% of U’s are lexical contributions, whereas 25% of Y’s reactive utterances and 55% of U’s are non-lexical contributions. Although the numbers of items are very small, when we look at the data as a whole, including the discussion of other questions (i.e. Question 1 and Questions 3-9), this consistent pattern emerges: across the data set as a whole, Y provides lexical contributions 128 times, representing 67% of his reactive utterances, and U provides non-lexical contributions 67 times, representing 70% of his reactive utterances.

As for reception in the data, lexical contributions are directed at Y 11 times and directed at U 8 times. On the other hand, non-lexical contributions are directed at Y 15 times whereas they are directed at U 3 times. In representing this by means of proportion (Figure 6.5), 58% of the reactive utterances directed at Y and 27% of the reactive utterances directed at U are non-lexical. Although it seems lexical contributions are directed at Y more than at U, Figure 6.5 shows that 42% of the reactions directed at Y and 73% of the reactions directed at U are lexical. Thus, the data show that Y reacts lexically
more frequently and U tends to react to other participants by means of non-lexical contributions. Since lexical reactions contain an indication about the proposition advanced by the other speaker and non-lexical reactions encourage a speaker to continue, Y, therefore, is more interactive and tends to be allowed to continue his talk and explain a point related to the ongoing discussion, and also tends to seek to persuade other participants and thus receives more vocalized reactions, whereas U allows the other participants continue and raise an issue for discussion. We may note, in passing, that Y and U also have different discussion styles. The data show that although Y typically takes part in on-going discussions, U frequently remains silent, especially when other speakers are discussing an issue vigorously. In other words, Y constantly contributes to the discussion both actively and reactively and his utterances often overlap those of others. By way of contrast, U sometimes explains and provides non-lexical encouragement and equally often remains silent. Here are some examples from the data, which reveal Y and U’s contrastive ways of contributing to discussion.

In the following extract, the participants have just started to discuss whether Freedonia should have a parliament. Y confirms the point that they will have to discuss from line 24 and U listens and provides vocalizations (in lines 26 and 28) and aizuchi (in line 31) to encourage Y to continue.
24Y: =demo kore tte kokkai ga setsuritsu-sareru baai tte natteru kara, but this QT parliament S elect-ed case QT say because
25: [setsuritsu-[sare-nai baai mo ariuru wake desho. elect-ed-not case also possible Nom tag
26U: [e:. oh
27T: [m:. yeah
28U: [a a a a a. yeh yeh yeh yeh yeh
29Y: dakara, setsuritsu-sareru baai ni wa kokumin ga nihon mitai ni so. elect-ed-not case in T people S Japan like in
30: kokkaigiin o erande,= parliamentarian O elect
31U: un. uh-huh

24Y: = 'But it says if a Parliament is ever elected, so /I wonder it's possible to have [an unelected parliament/, isn't it wake (desho).'
25: [elect, not case also possible Nom tag
26U: [e:. 'Oh.'
27T: ['Yeah.'
28U: ['Yeh, yeh, yeh, yeh, yeh.'
29-30Y: 'so, in case the Parliament is elected, people elect parliamentarians like Japan,'
31U: 'Uh-huh.'

In the next extract, Y provides an agreement marker in line 89 and then continues to contribute to on-going discussion actively, whereas U remains silent.

87T: [kokumin ga sono shu goto ni people S the state each in
88 : Repa- Repabli- kyowa-to ka [minshu-to ka= Republican-party or Democratic-party or
89Y: [un un so so. yes yes so so
90T: =[erande, elect
91Y: [erande, elect
92T: sok-kara (.). that-from
93Y: sono the
94M: sore o zenbu atsumete, that O all gather
95Y: daihyo representative
96M: un. uh-huh

87T: ['The people, in each state, (elect)
88 : the Rep- Republi- Republican Party or [the Democratic Party,='
89Y: ['Yes, yes, that’s right.’
90T: =['elect,’
91Y: ['elect, and then’
92T: ‘from the party (.)’
93Y: ‘The’
94M: ‘gather all of them, and then’
95Y: ‘representatives’
Taking the reactive data into consideration alongside the active, we can now determine discussant roles for Y and U. Y is more interactive: he listens to others, he explains and he persuades other speakers; he therefore seems to adopt a role equating to the 'explain' component of kaisetsu-sha. U is quieter than Y, but provides reduplicated non-lexical contributions, such as hai hai (= aizuchi equivalent to yeh yeh) and un un (= uh-huh/yes yes), indicating a positive reaction to the speaker, and thereby encouraging other speakers to continue. Thus, we can say that he is represented by the 'rationalizing' component of kaisetsu-sha. We therefore see that Y and U can be distinguished by the way in which they react to the other speakers and extent to which other speakers direct reactive utterances at them.

6.2.2.3 Examples

In this subsection, we will explore the data in order to demonstrate the relationship between participant roles and the construction preferences discussed in 6.2.2.1 and 6.2.2.2. We will mainly examine M's uses of [+R],[+C] structures, T's uses of combinations categorized as –[C] and Y and U's different styles of reaction. In order to do this, we will focus on a number of extracts from the discussion of Question 2, focusing on the opening consideration of the question and the subsequent discussion as to whether
a parliament is necessary or not in Freedonia. Although this series of exchanges does not include large numbers of examples, those that occur are representative of the way the speakers assume their participant roles in the discussion as a whole.

In the first extract, we focus on M’s use of *n da yone*, the prototypical [+R,+[C]] structure, indicating that she adopts a the *shudoken* role.

19M: n? (1.0) watashi ga watashi ga kokumin ni-shi-yo toka it-tara
    mm I S I S people decide-let’s etc say-if
20: kore de tsu- kono mondai mo kaiketsusuru n da yone h=
this with this question also solve Nom Cop FP
21T: =e demo yappa Mari-chan wa doo omou?
    eh but anyway Mari-dim T how think
19-20M: ‘Mm? (1.0) If I say let’s go for ‘by the people’,
          then /this problem is solved/ n da yone h’=
21T: =‘Eh but, what do you think, Mari?’

From lines 1 to 18, M opens up Question 2 and the other participants choose ‘(b) presidents will be elected directly by the people’ from the 3 options offered (See Appendix 2 for full text). In line 19, shown above, M says that the question will be solved if she opts for (b), closing her turn with *n da yone*. This is because she is the only participant not to have made her position clear in the preceding discussion. As defined in section 6.2.2.1 (p.204), *n da yone* is often used in formulations especially when the formulation appears to clinch an argument, but M’s use of the construction here does not seem to be used as a formulation. Rather, she is in a hypothetical situation and exploring what would be happening if she would say she opts for (b). Following M’s use of *n da yone*, T begins her turn with *e* (eh) and *demo* (but) and then asks what M actually thinks.
about the question.

In the next extract, lines 42 to 110, we will discuss 1) M’s use of [+R,+C] structures such as no?, wake desho? and wake jan, and a further use of n da yone, 2) T’s use of n janai? and no ka-na and 3) Y’s and U’s reactive utterances. In this extract, the participants are discussing whether Freedonia should have a parliament. After Y has confirmed the point that they will have to discuss (lines 24-39), M raises a question (lines 42-3), completing her turn with no?:

42M: jissai-ni kokkai ga nakutte: daitoryo toka kimatteru
 actually parliament S there-is-not president etc decide
43 : kuni tte aru no?
 country T/QT there-are Nom
42-3M: ’/Are there any countries in which the president is elected without the parliament/ no?’

Then, after a 1.5 second pause, the other participants indicate that they do not know the answer.

44 (1.5)
45Y: kokumin (.). no chokusetsu [senkyo de?
 people of direct election with
46M: [un un.
 yes yes
47 (2.0)
48U: doo darou ne. shiranai.=
 how Cop FP know-not
49T: =wakan[nai.
 know-not
50Y: [wakannai.
 know-not
44 (1.5)
45Y: ’Directly [elected by the people?’
46T: [‘Yes, yes.’
47 (2.0)
48U: ’I wonder (darou) how it is ne. I don’t know.’=
49T: =’I don’t [know.’
50Y: [‘I don’t know.’
In Chapter 5, we defined the pragmatic function of no? as ‘cast[ing] doubt on whether a proposition should be regarded as reified’ and the sequential function as ‘invit[ing] addressees to indicate whether or not the proposition should have reified status’. M’s use of no? in line 43 is probably rhetorical rather than the signal of a real question, that is to say, she is asking for but does not expect either a decisive response or to be challenged. In line 51, she continues where she left off in lines 42-3 with datte (because) and uses wake desho in line 56, which stops Y from making a contribution although his use of te (and) in erabarete in line 55 implies that he wants to elaborate. M concludes with wake jan in line 58.

M reifies two propositions by means of wake here in order to stress the logic of the
nominalization: in line 56, that there is a parliament in Japan and a Prime Minister is elected from their number and in line 58 that the Japanese government is disorganized as a consequence. Thus, she starts to explain (or starts to provide reasons) leading to her conclusion (with *n da yone*) in lines 68 and 70 that Freedonia needs a parliament.

During this sequence, Y listens carefully and provides several encouraging markers (*un* 'yes') while U remains silent, as M continues in the *shudoken* role. She uses *wake desho* and invites *aizuchi*. After T obligingly provides the *aizuchi* that M has invited, she (M) continues, and states that the Japanese government is disorganized as a consequence, asserting this as though it was a non-controversial item of public knowledge by means of *wake jan*.

56M: (0.8) janai ka to watashi wa omou *n da yone.*
    Cop-Neg Q QT I T think Nom Cop FP

69T: ['un'.

yes]

70M: =*tte koto wa kokkai no hitsuyousei ga aru tte koto desho?*
    QT Nom T parliament of necessity S there-is QT thing tag

68M: '*(0.8) /I'm sure/ *n da yone.*'=

69T: ['Yeah.]

70M: =*['Then, I suppose (desho) a parliament is a necessity koto?']*

56M: =*['I think elected so far as I know/ *wake (desho)?*']=
    S elected Nom tag

57T: *'un'.
    uh-huh

58M: =*soshitara dakara anna mechamecha ni-natteru *wake jan.*
    then so that disorganised is Nom Cop-Neg

59Y: *un.
    yes

56M: =*['Then that's why /it's such a disorganized government/, is it not *wake (jan)?']=
    S elected Nom tag

57T: *'Uh-huh.'*

58M: =*['Then that's why /it's such a disorganized government/, is it not *wake (jan)?']*

59Y: *'Yes.'*
According to the earlier definition, *wake jan* functions as a reminder and invites the addressee to agree with what is clearly a reasonable proposition. Thus, we may say that M uses these three \([+[R],+[C]]\) structures, *wake desho?*, *wake jan* and *n da yone*, to ensure that she is permitted to continue on her way as the uninterrupted and uninterruptible initiator.

In her continuing sequence of utterances (60-64), she uses *n(o) da* structures at turn-internal points, and concludes with *jan* \([-[R],+[C]]\) in line 64.

60M: dakara watashi wa yameta ho ga ii *n janai no* tte kokode
so I T stop than S good Nom Cop-Neg Nom QT here
: ii-tai kedo,=
say-want but
61Y: =un.=
huh
62M: =demo honto-ni kokkai toka ga nakutte,
but surely parliament etc S there-is-not
63 : daitoryo toka ga kimatteru kuni ga aru *no ka-na* to omot-te.
president etc S decide country S there-is Nom FP QT think
64 : atte zettai umaku itteru *n dat-tara* kokumin ga ii *jan?=
there-is definitely well go Nom Cop-if people S good Cop-Neg

60M: 'So, although what I want to say here is that //it's better not to have a parliament/ *n janai/ no,'=
61Y: ='Uh-huh.'=
62-4M: ='but am I right in thinking (*no ka-na*) /there are some countries where a president etc etc is elected without a parliament. /If there are some and it's definitely going well/ *n dat-{tara},* it should be by the people, shouldn't it (jan)?'=

Although *n janai no* (line 60) occurs turn-internally rather than turn-finally, it has the same sort of function as when it occurs turn-finally. We can say that M uses this structure, according to its pragmatic property which is reifying a proposition about which S expresses uncertainty but which S wants to reify for the sake of argument. As *n janai no* is attached to the suggestion that it is better not to have a parliament, which is in turn
embedded with in the structure ‘I [yameta hoo ga ii] n janai no want to say here’, it provides the addressees with only a notional opportunity to consider whether what is claimed is in fact certain, again confirming M’s shudoken role. In addition, she closes her turn by means of kedo (but), implying that she wants to carry on. She then continues with no ka-na ([+[R],-[C]]) turn-internally to express uncertainty about the epistemic status of the proposition, used here as a signal of think-aloud mode, again denying other participants the opportunity to react. It should be noted that her use of te (and) in omotte at the end of this turn again implies that she wants to continue to hold the floor. She, then, uses n dat-tara turn-internally in line 64, which introduces a conditional presequence on the basis of which the speaker will develop the argument, that if there are some countries where a president is elected unproblematically without a parliament, then it should be by the people. She concludes with jan, inviting agreement. As mentioned in 6.2.1, speakers will avoid the n(o) da construction when their utterances are more open, in other words, when they do not exclude the possibility that an interlocutor might take a different view about the propositional content itself. We can say that M expects someone to provide comments at this point having precluded this possibility over an extended turn. In Chapter 5, we defined the pragmatic use of jan as ‘a negative tag used to suggest that S would like to assert the preceding proposition’ with the sequential function of ‘invit[ing] A’s
agreement with the preceding proposition'. In line 65, T provides the additional comment that there is a parliament in every country, asserting its uncertain status by means of *n janai?*. In addition, T’s uncertainty toward the propositional status of the nominalized claim is supported by her following utterance ‘I’m not sure though’ in line 67.

65T: =demo doko-no kuni mo kokkai tte aru n janai?=  
66Y: =un.=  
67T: =nanka wakannai kedo.  

65T: =‘But /there is a parliament in every country/, isn’t there *n ja*na(nai)?’=
66Y: =‘Yeah.’=
67T: =‘Well I’m not sure though.’

We can say that T’s use of this structure enables her to provide a reified proposition and at the same time to indicate her uncertainty as to its status, which invites the addressee to confirm the truth of it. By including the addressee in developing the topic, T confirms her *hattenn-yaku* role. After a slight pause, M expectedly replies that she is sure that there is a parliament in every country, asserting this as though a clinching point by means of *n da* *yone*, before resting her case with the argument that a parliament is a necessity.

68M: (0.8) janai ka to watashi wa omou *n da yone*.=  
69T: [un:.  
70M: =[tte koto wa kokkai no hitsuyousei ga aru tte koto desho?]  

68M: ‘(0.8) /I’m sure/ *n da yone*.’=
69T: [’Yeah.’
70M: [=]’Then, I suppose (desho) a parliament is a necessary evil koto?’

It seems that T’s use of *n janai?* at line 65 gives M the confidence to assert that there is a
parliament in every country, so that she uses *n da yone*, which functions as a kind of pre-formulation, signalling that it is nearly time to come to a conclusion. Moreover, in true *shudoken* style, she uses *wa* (a topic marker), when perhaps *mo* (‘too’) might be expected, indicating that she takes T’s opinion as her own, rather than expressing her solidarity with T, as a *kaisetsu-sha* participant might have done. M concludes her argument with the suggestion that a parliament is a necessary evil. After a slight pause, Y and T indicate their agreement by means of *un* (yes), and then T develops M’s opinion as to whether it is possible for a president to be elected by the people, despite the existence of a parliament.

M: (0.8) *I’m sure* n da yone.

T: ['Yeah.]

M: *Then, I suppose (desho) a parliament is a necessary evil koto?*

Y: *Yes.*

T: *Yes, but given a parliament, I wonder (no ka-na) /if a president can be elected by the people/.’

T uses the [+[R],-[C]] construction, *no ka-na*, in line 74, which enables her to provide a reified proposition with uncertainty in think-aloud-mode, probably in order to avoid a strong expression in this utterance, while at the same time taking the argument one step
further. As discussed previously, she used another [+R,−C] construction, n janai?, in line 65 to develop the on-going topic, and therefore we may say that T takes a hatten-yaku role in harmony with the course of the developing argument. Although Y has been listening to M and T carefully and providing aizuchi and agreement, he now comments on T's utterance and reminds her in lines 75-6 that America has a system of presidential election like the one T is suggesting. The other speakers, M and U, then agree with Y.

75Y: kokkai ga atte-mo kokumin ga, un parliament S there-is-but people S yes
76: [dakara America mitai-na koto desho?] so America like thing tag
77U: [ii n janai?] good Nom Cop-neg
78M: [a a a un un un un un. yah yah yah yah yes yes yes yes yes yes.
79U: [un. yes

75Y: 'Although there is a parliament, the people, yes
76: [therefore it's like America, isn't it koto (desho)?'
77U: ['That's good, isn't it n (janai)?'
78M: ['Yah, yah, [yah, yah, yes, yes, yes, yes, yes, yes.'
79U: ['Yes.]

T, however, seems to rather doubt whether the people elect the president in America:

80-1T: un demo America (.). tte (.). kokumin ga eranderu? yes but America T people S elect
80-1T: Yes, but in America, do the people elect a president?

Her [−R,−C] question indicates that she expects the others to answer naturally and to state their view, which confirms her shitsumon-yaku role. Expectedly, she receives answers from M and U in lines 82-6.

82M: sh[u goto? state each
83U: [kokumin, a un kokumin ga nanka aru yone people ah yes people S PT have FP

243
After that, in line 87, T starts to confirm how the president is elected.

The important point to note here is that T, M and Y provide their opinions turn by turn and try to reach agreement together, whilst U remains silent. That is to say, when T starts to confirm how the president is elected, Y overlaps and provides agreement (line 89), which allows him a share of the floor. He, then, keeps co-constructing T’s confirmation in lines
This collaborative discussion style can be seen not only here but also in many other places in the larger data set in marked contrast to the more confrontational, less collaborative style of the English speaking discussants, as we shall see in the next chapter. T then asks whether the representatives elect the president, concluding her turn with *no?* in line 97, thus inviting the addressee to indicate whether or not the proposition should have reified status. U then starts to explain the American presidential election system from line 98.

98: 'There are representatives, in case of California, 9 people for example,' =
99:  'Uh-huh.'
100: 'Then in California, if either party wins /those 9 people'
101:  'Uh-huh.'
102: 'Will go to the whichever party/ isn't that so *wake jan.*'
103:  'Yes, yes, yes, yes, [yes.]
104:  '[Then in Washington, um, for example supposing one
105:  person is in the other party and wins. But it's 9:1, isn't it (desho).]' =
106:  '[Uh-huh.]

91, 93 and 95. M also provides her opinion (line 94) and contributes *aizuchi* (line 96).
We may conclude from the data analysed above that 1) M prefers to use \([+R, +C]\) structures, which confirms her *shudoken* participant role, 2) T uses combinations categorized as \([-C]\) (i.e. \([+R, -C]\) and \([-R, -C]\)), which express uncertainty and invite the comments of other participants, confirming her *hattan-yaku* (developer) and *shitsumon-yaku* (perspective establishing questioner) participant roles, 3) Y is an interactive person who explains and persuades other speakers, confirming his *kaisetsu-sha* (explainer) participant role, while 4) U is a quiet person who contributes vocalization and *aizuchi*, such as *hai hai* (yeh yeh) and *un un* (uh-huh/yes), which can confirm his *kaisetsu-sha* (rationaliser) participant role.

### 6.2.3 Psychological motivation and the emergent properties of meaning in interaction

This subsection will discuss the issue of how talk is managed when unexpected things happen and focus on the psychological motivation of one of the participants at a particular stage in the discussion. A narrow CA approach will be deliberately avoided here, as it tends to look only for ‘methodic’ regularities and often overlooks psychological motivation.
As discussed so far, the \(n(\alpha)\) da construction combined with various kinds of SFPs enable a speaker to indicate the expected next turn type. However, the trajectory and content of talk is necessarily unpredictable so that unexpected things often happen. Given the speaker’s characteristic indication in talk-in-interaction in Japanese of his/her expectations for the next turn type, of particular interest is the way in which conversational stability is re-established in the turns following an unusual contribution.

Although we have shown that \(n\) da yone is often used in formulations and invites the addressee to accept them as such and provide an assumptive response, M’s use of \(n\) da yone in the following extract marks a self-suggested candidate outcome (‘If I say…’) rather than the more expectable formulation leading logically out of a preceding account.

19 M: n? \(1.0\) watashi ga watashi ga kokumin ni-shi-yo toka it-tara mm I S I S people decide-let’s etc say-if
20 kore de tsu- kono mondai mo kaiketsusuru \(n\) da yone \(h=\)
   this with this question also solve Nom Cop FP
21 T: =e demo yappa Mari-chan wa doo omou?
   eh but anyway Mari T how think
22 (3.0)
23 M: mm (3.0) ya, ii \(n\) janai ka-na.=
   well well good Nom Cop-Neg FP
24 Y: =demo kore tte kokkai ga setsuritsu-sareru baai tte natteru kara,
   but this QT parliament S elect-ed case QT say because
25 \([\text{setsuritsu-}]\)sare-nai baai mo ariuru \(\text{wake desho.}\)
   elect-ed-not case also possible Nom tag
19-20 M: ‘Mm? \(1.0\) If I say let’s go for ‘by the people’,
then /this problem is solved/ \(n\) da yone \(h=\)
21 T: =‘Eh but, what do you think, Mari?’
22 (3.0)
23 M: ‘Well (3.0) well, I’m not sure \(n\) janai ka-na /it’s a good idea./’=
24 Y: =‘But it says if a Parliament is ever elected, so /I wonder it’s
25 possible to have [an unelected parliament/, isn’t it \(\text{wake (desho).}\)’

M’s use of \(n\) da yone is unusual in that its sequential effect is inconsistent with the content of the turn to which it’s attached. For some reason best known to herself, M suggests that
significant procedural consequentially has been achieved by means of *nda yone* although the expected groundwork has not been done. This causes M’s contribution to appear insincere and provokes an atypical next turn in the form of a question *Mari-chan wa doo omou?* (what do you think, Mari?). This turn’s atypicality is signalled by *e demo* (eh but).

In addition, T’s use of *yappa* (anyway) indicates that she cannot accept M’s suggested resolution of the issue without first knowing what M really thinks. From the two three-second pauses and M’s *mm* (well), we can tell that she is thinking about the question that she had not properly considered until that moment. *Ya*, a shortened version of *iya* (= no), indicates that in fact, and contrary to her insincere contribution at 19-20, there does need to be a discussion. *Y*, then, reminds the other participants of their brief (‘but it says...’), thereby overtly signalling that the discussion is back on track. Of course, it’s not possible to speculate about M’s psychological motivation except to say that the data demonstrate her predominantly *shudoken* role, a role in which perhaps she sometimes oversteps the mark.

A further unexpected contribution occurs shortly afterwards when M once againprovokes a response whose atypical character is signalled by *demo*. This phase of the discussion begins when M raises the question of whether there are parliament-free countries. This provokes a discussion which concludes with the agreement that Freedonia
has to have a parliament.

The first part of the discussion is unexceptional:

42M: jissai-ni kokkai ga nakutte: daitoryo toka kimatteru
43: kuni tte aru no? country T/QT there-are Nom

48U: doo darou ne. shiranai.= how Cop FP know-not

49T: =wakan[nai. know-not

50U: =wakan[nai. know-not

51M: dete sa tatoeba nihon (.) ga (0.5)
because IP for-example Japan S

52: nihon wa kokkai ga atTE=
Japan T parliament S there-is

53Y: =un.= uh-huh

54M: =sok-kara daitoryo janai kedo,
there-from president Cop-Neg not

55Y: shusho ga [eraba-re-te minister S elect-ed-and

56M: [ga eraba-reru wake desho?= S elect-ed Nom tag

57T: "un". uh-huh

58M: =soshitara dakara anna mechamecha ni-natteru wake jan.
then so that disorganised is Nom Cop-Neg

59Y: un. yes

42-3M: '/Are there any countries in which the president is elected
without the parliament/ no?'

: 48U: 'I wonder (darou) how it is ne. I don’t know.’=

49T: '=I don’t [know.’=

50U: '=I don’t know.’

51M: ‘Because, for example, in Japan (0.5)
52: there is a parliament in Japan and’=

53Y: '=Uh-huh.’=

54M: '=among them, not a president but’

55Y: '/a prime minister [is elected and’

56M: '[I think elected so far as I know/ wake (desho)?’= 57T: '=Uh-huh.’,

58M: '=Then that’s why /it’s such a disorganized government/, is it not wake
: (jan).’

59Y: ‘Yes.’

During this sequence, M uses wake desho? (1.56) and wake jan (1.58), which are
responded to expectably with aizuchi. However, in her next turn, M uses jan? with rising
intonation to suggest an outcome:

62M: =demo honto-ni kokkai toka ga nakutte,
but surely parliament etc S there-is-not
63 : daitoryo toka ga kimatteru kuni ga aru no ka-na to omotte.
president etc S decide country S there-is Nom FP QT think
64 : atte zettai umaku itteru n dat-tara kokumin ga ii jan?= there-is-definitely well go Nom Cop-if people S good Cop-Neg
65T: =demo doko-no kuni mo kokkai tte aru n janai?= but every country also parliament T there-is Nom Cop-Neg
66Y: =un.=
yes
67T: =nanka wakan-nai kedo.
PT know-not though
68M: (0.8) janai ka to watashi wa omou n da yone.-
Cop-Neg Q QT I T think Nom Cop FP
69T: [un:.
yes
70M: =tte koto wa kokkai no hitsuyousei ga aru tte koto desho?
QT Nom T parliament of necessity S there-is QT thing tag
71 (0.3)
72Y: un.
yes
73T: un, demo kokkai ga atte-mo kokumin ni-yotte (.) jiki daitoryo o
yes but parliament S there-is-but people by next president 0
elect QT say Nom T impossible Cop Nom FP
62-4M: =but am I right in thinking (no ka-na) /there are some countries
/where a president etc etc is elected without a parliament.
/If there are some and it's definitely going well/ n dat-(tara),
it should be by the people, shouldn't it (jan)?=
65T: ='But /there is a parliament in every country/, isn't there n ja(nai)?'=
66Y: ='Yeah.'=
67T: ='Well I'm not sure though.'
68M: (0.8) '/I'm sure/ n da yone.'=
69T: ['Yeah.'
70M:=['Then, I suppose (desho) a parliament is a necessity koto?'
71 (0.3)
72Y: 'Yes.'
73T: 'Yes, but given a parliament, I wonder (no ka-na) /if a president can be
elected by the people/.'

In this sequence, M does not invite a response to her assertion that there are countries where a President is elected without a parliament (62-3), as perhaps she might have been expected to. Instead, she assumes that if this is the case, the people should elect the President (64), and invites agreement with the use of jan?. Being another instance where she might be judged to have overstepped the mark, this provokes T’s response, which is
marked by *demo* and draws attention to the prior need to establish whether in fact there is a parliament in every country (65). However, M rides roughshod over T's response, throwing her *janai (ka)* back at her and asserts that she is sure about it, concluding with *n da yone* (68). At this point T is obliged to respond to M's use of *n da yone* with *aizuchi*, which she ignores, continuing to the conclusion that a parliament is a necessity (70).

Throughout, M uses the *n(o) da* construction as well as expressions, which indicate that she wants to continue to hold the floor, such as *omotte* (1.63), *janai ka to... omou* (1.68) and *tte (= QT) koto wa* (1.70), in order to lead to her conclusion. We can say that her psychological motivation and particularly her desire to dominate and determine what is procedurally consequential for the group as a whole affect the trajectory of the talk and sometimes create emergent situations which her colleagues have to respond to.

### 6.3 Conclusion

In this chapter, we first examined the notions of *team member roles at work* as explored by Belbin (1981, 1993, 2001) and of *footing* as discussed by Levinson (1988) in order to establish a means of analyzing the contributions of participants to a discussion based on role and on construction preferences reflecting attitudes to propositionality. We then discussed the particular contributions participants made arising from the discussion
of Question 2, one of the nine questions addressed by the four participants who took part in the ‘Freedonia’ exercise. Firstly, we focused on their ‘active’ utterances, including contributions with and without the n(o) da construction, and then focused on their ‘reactive’ utterances, including agreement markers, aizuchi and non-interventive vocalizations. The active utterances were analysed in the four different categories, i.e. \([+[R],+[C]], [+[R],-[C]], [-[R],+[C]], [-[R],-[C]]\), and the relationship between these construction preferences and participant roles was demonstrated, so that a participant who favoured \([+[R],+[C]]\) utterances over other types was labelled shudoken (taker of the initiative), a participant who favoured \([+[R],-[C]]\) utterances over other types was labelled hatten-yaku (developer), a participant who favoured \([-[R],+[C]]\) utterances over other types was labelled kaisetsu-sha (rationalizing commentator), and a participant who favoured \([-[R],-[C]]\) over other types was labelled shitsumon-yaku (perspective seeking questioner). Based on the predominant construction preferences displayed by each of the four discussants, we then determined participant roles for the four speakers M, T, Y and U, showing that M favoured \([+[R],+[C]]\) structures, thus confirming her shudoken (initiative) role, T favoured \([-[C]]\) structures, confirming her hatten-yaku (developer) and shitsumon-yaku (perspective seeking questioner) roles, Y listened to others, explained and persuaded other speakers, confirming his kaisetsu-sha (explainer) role, and U
provided reduplicated non-lexical contributions, i.e. vocalizations and *aizuchi*, thus encouraging the speaker to continue, confirming his *kaisetsu-sha* (rationaliser) role.

In the field of management theory, Belbin (2001) proposed nine distinct roles in which individuals can make useful contributions as members of a team, i.e. *Plant*, *Resource investigator*, *Co-ordinator*, *Shaper*, *Monitor evaluator*, *Team worker*, *Completer finisher*, *Implementer* and *Specialist*. In Japanese discussion data studied, we identified four participant roles, *Shudoken*, *Hatten-yaku*, *Kaisetsu-sha* and *Shitsumon-yaku*. We also demonstrated that a single participant can take one or more roles and that two participants can adopt the same role, so that in this discussion we were able to show that T adopts *hatten-yaku* and *shitsumon-yaku* participant roles and Y and U adopt *kaisetsu-sha* roles, although with different emphases. Finally, we briefly discussed the relationship between psychological motivation and the emergent properties of meaning in interaction and showed how emergent meaning is handled in Freedonia data. The participant roles I identify in this chapter are in fact realizations of psychological motivation (although admittedly reductive). In the following chapter, we will focus on the English data and investigate the different ways in which Japanese and English participants accomplished the ‘Freedonia’ decision-making task.
CHAPTER 7

English Group Discussion Data Analysis

7. Introduction

In chapter 6, we focused on the Japanese group discussion data and considered the relationship between participant roles and the uses of structures with and without the n(o) da construction. In this chapter, we will focus on the English group discussion data in order to investigate characteristics of English talk organization and discuss the different ways in which Japanese and English participants discuss, solve and accomplish decision-making tasks. Firstly, we will explore the English data from two perspectives, one, the participant roles devised for the Japanese discussion, and the other, the management roles devised specifically for the English discussion. Then, we will focus on the default settings for contributions in English talk as they compare to the default settings for contributions in Japanese talk and on the trajectory of English discussion, in order to clarify talk differences between English and Japanese. Finally, we will consider the relationship between the participants and the talk-content and talk-management roles.
they assume, and determine participant roles for each speaker.

7.1 Data analysis

In this chapter, we analyse the English data arising from the discussion of the third of the nine questions addressed by the four participants, comprising two female speakers, A and E, and two male speakers, J and N. Although we focused on the Japanese data produced in response to Question 2, we chose the English data produced in response to Question 3. The reasons for selecting these data are 1) the length (6 minutes) which is more appropriate for an analysis of this kind than the one minute of data produced by the English speakers in response to Q2, and 2) the intrinsic interest of the data, and specifically the fact that one speaker, J, tends to remain silent and does not contribute a lot to the discussion in the whole data set, although the contributions he does make are of particular interest, and two of the four participants change their positions and one of the four reluctantly accepts the majority view in the end, thus demonstrating that this is a real discussion in which speakers genuinely interact and make compromises so as to reach a collective decision.

Question 3 required participants to decide whether the decisions of the President would take precedence over all other decisions, or the decisions of the Grand Council
and the President would take precedence over all other decisions, or the decisions of the Freedonia Parliament, if elected, would be supreme. The decision-making process as represented in the data moves through six thematic phases. Firstly, speakers A, E and N clarify what they are going to discuss in the question; then in the second phase all the participants provide spontaneous proposals. After discussing the significant issue of the governmental power raised by A in the third phase, N stops the discussion and invites the other participants to give their opinions. While their vigorous discussion continues, E starts to change her mind and support A, and then J seems to change his mind in favour of A and E's position in the fourth and fifth phases. Finally, N reluctantly accepts the majority decision and the collective decision is confirmed.

7.2 Talk content and management categories

In approaching these data, the researcher first tried to match the Japanese participant roles to the English contributions. However, this proved difficult for several reasons. First of all, English does not have an equivalent to the n(o) da construction. In addition, the data show that the English participants spend a lot of time managing their talk, whilst the Japanese participants tend to focus more on the problem they are confronted with and the relevant propositional content associated with it - that is to say,
Japanese talk is essentially talk-content oriented whilst English talk is notably talk-management oriented. This might be equated to Hall’s (1976) claim that a high-context culture requires less management of situations than a low-context culture. Hall, and others, have claimed that Japan is a high-context culture and the Anglo-cultures are relatively low-context, so that in a low-context culture members would expect to spend more time managing their talk, whereas in a high-context culture a given system exists so that participants already know how events such as discussions are to be managed. The researcher therefore decided to set up two superordinate categories for the English data, ‘Talk-content’ and ‘Talk-management’. With regard to the former, the researcher tried to adopt the Japanese participant roles, i.e. Shudoken (initiator), Hatten-yaku (developer), Kaisetsu-sha (rationaliser/explainer) and Shitsumon-yaku (perspective seeking questioner). It also seemed helpful to classify these participant roles in relation to the extent to which they accelerated or held up the process of reaching an outcome, as below:

Accelerator participant roles:

Shudoken (AS)
Kaisetsu-sha (AK)
Decelerator participant roles:

Hatten-yaku (DH)
Shitsumon-yaku and Mondai-teiki (DM)

Basically, a participant who makes a proposal or proposes an outcome is labelled
shudoken, a slightly different role from that of initiator in the Japanese data where the term refers to a participant who drives the discussion.

A participant who accepts an outcome justifies what he says, rationalises what other participants say and adds an explanation to an ongoing topic is labelled kaisetsu-sha, again a slightly different role from that of rationaliser in the Japanese data, which is more passive and less argumentative than in English. For example, Y’s utterances in lines 24-5 and 29-30 (Example 1) are a typical instance of Japanese kaisetsu-sha, in which he explains the point that participants will have to discuss, as are U’s vocalizations (lines 26 and 28) and aizuchi (line 31) are another instance, in which he rationalises and encourages Y to continue.

(1)

24 Y: =demo kore tte kokkai ga setsuritsu-sareru baai tte natteru kara, but this QT parliament S elect-ed case QT say because
25 : [setsuritsu-][sare-nai baai mo ariuru wake desho. elect-ed-not case also possible Nom tag
26 U: [e:. oh
27 T: [m:. yeah
28 U: [a a a a a. yeh yeh yeh yeh yeh
29 Y: dakara, setsuritsu-sareru baai ni wa kokumin ga nihon mitai ni so elect-ed case in T people S Japan like in
30 : kokkaigin o erande,= parliamentarian O elect
31 U: un. uh-huh

24 Y: =’But it says if a Parliament is ever elected, so /I wonder it’s
25 : [possible to have an [unelected parliament/], isn’t it wake (desho),’
26 U: [’Oh.’
27 T: [’Yeah.’
28 U: [’Yeh, yeh, yeh, yeh, yeh.’
29-30Y: 'so, in case the Parliament is elected, people elect parliamentarians like Japan'
31U: 'Uh-huh.'

On the other hand, N’s utterance in the English discussion in line 121 (Example 2), in which a *kaisetsu-sha* role is adopted, is more argumentative.

(2)

118E: oh no I would say Parliament but it says like (...) will take precedence over
119: so: ultimately I'd say yeah the Grand Council and the President should have
120: precedence over the (...) Parliament hhh "I don't know"
121N: what (...) so you do you think I don't understand you think the Parliament should-

A participant who develops the idea under discussion or provides a new idea is labelled *hattan-yaku*, and a participant who raises an issue or questions another participant in order to clarify what she says is labelled *shitsumon-yaku*. It should be noted that *shitsumon-yaku* is a more appropriate term to describe the Japanese way of decelerating consequentiality by asking a question, and *mondai-teiki*, raising an issue, is a better term for describing the English way of decelerating consequentiality by drawing attention to issues that need to be addressed. This is because utterances in Japanese explicitly express the speaker’s uncertainty and his willingness to entertain other perspectives, whereas speakers in English do not express their uncertainty so explicitly, preferring a more implicit strategy for raising an issue in relation to a previous proposal. For example, the following utterances in lines 41 and 53 are clearly better described by the term *mondai-teiki* than by the term *shitsumon-yaku*, since J does not question A...
about her proposal in line 40 (Example 3) or E about her proposal in lines 48 and 50 (Example 4), but rather raises issues in relation to these proposals:

(3)

40 A: I say the second option sounds (. ) pretty feasible
41 J: eh, you catch the wrong guy [making the wrong decision

(4)

48 E: OK um (. ) I'd actually probably go with Parliament
49    (2.2)
50 E: cos the more people making a decision the better (. ) I think
51    (2.0)
52 N: emm (. ) yep
53 J: [probably- uh the Grand Council could be an old pals act (. ) something

From these examples, we see that the Japanese categories, with minor adaptations, also account for the content-oriented features of the English talk.

As for the talk-management categories, we provide four distinctive features as follows:

On-record participant roles [+R]:

   Exogenous task-determining [+R],+[E]
   Endogenous task-management [+R],-[E],

Off-record participant roles [-R]:

   Exogenous meta-discourse [-R],+[E]
   Endogenous task-management [-R],-[E]

Utterances categorized as on-record (+[R]) manage talk explicitly, whereas utterances categorized as off-record (−[R]) manage it implicitly. Exogenous strategies (+[E]) occur

1 For the sake of convenience in discussing the data, the researcher decided to provide distinctive features for these categories, although, as will be seen, these lack naturalness to the extent that the particular interpretations of feature combinations may group functions not readily assigned to a single paradigm (e.g., task-determining and meta-discourse are both +[E]).
when turns or distinct parts of turns are given over to talk management, i.e. have no
direct relation to the topic under discussion, whilst endogenous strategies (−[E]) are
interspersed amongst other contributions. Therefore, utterances categorised as
+[R],[E]] explicitly manage talk and have no direct relation to the topic under
discussion so that they mainly contribute to the task determination, utterances
categorised as [+R],[E]) explicitly manage talk and have direct relation to the ongoing
topic and discussion, metadiscoursal utterances categorised as [−R],[E)] implicitly
manage talk and have no direct relation to the topic under discussion, and utterances
categorised in [−R],[E)], which are typically realised by procedurals, implicitly
manage talk and have direct relation to the ongoing topic.

The following shows an instance of [+R],[E]], where N and E clarify the task
in opening discussion:

(5)

8 N: what does that mean hh
9 E: who's gonna have power over other people in decision making (.I guess
10 A: [yeah
11 N: OK
12 : so basically, it's either the President or the Grand Council and the President
13 : or the [Parliament

N's what does that mean in line 8, E's who's gonna have power over other people in
decision making in line 9, N's OK in line 11 and the remainder of N's turn from it's either
onwards in lines 12-13 are categorised in [+R],[E]].
Typical instances of [+R,—E] occur later in the sequence when E concludes the discussion and N confirms with J that he (J) accepts the A and E’s decision:

(6)

206 E: right so: [basically you’re the problem (...) we’ve
207 N: indeed
208 E: we’ve decided hhh
209 N: now what have you? was James agree?
210 E: yeah you said what we said didn’t you
211 J: the Parliament one yeah
212 E: yeah

E’s you’re the problem we’ve decided in lines 206 and 208, N’s have you? onwards in line 209, E’s you said what we said didn’t you in line 210 and J’s response that the Parliament one manage the talk explicitly and endogenously, i.e. within the ongoing confirmation.

The following example illustrates several instances of [−R,+[E]]:

(7)

42 N: [I reckon the Parliament though
43 E: hhh a diplomat hhh
44 (0.5) <knocking>
45 A: <laughs>
46 E: I bet you’re a libdem aren’t you
47 N: <laughs>

E’s utterances a diplomat in line 43 and I bet you’re a libdem aren’t you in line 46 are categorised in [−R,+[E]], because they manage the talk implicitly and have no direct relation to the topic under discussion. A and N’s laughter is also considered as [−R,+[E]] for the reason that it provides a response to E’s [−R,+[E]] turns.
We can find instances of \([-\{R\},-\{E\}]\) in (5) below, where N and E clarify the task in the opening discussion:

(5)

8 N: what does that mean .hh
9 E: .hh who’s gonna have power over [other people in decision making (.) I guess
10 A: [yeah
11 N: OK
12 : so basically, it’s either the President or the Grand Council and the President
13 : or the [Parliament

N and E’s in-breaths, .hh, and N’s so and basically in line 12 are instances of \([-\{R\},-\{E\}]\) since their principal function is talk-management although they are not stand-alone contributions.

7.3 English group discussion data

The English group discussion data are presented in the following pages: the talk-content categories originally devised for Japanese data are given in the first column from the left, the transcribed data in the second column and the talk-management categories specifically devised for the English data are given in the third column.
Figure 7.1: English discussion data No.3 and phases

Key (Data)
Talk-content categories
- Accelerator participant roles: AS = Shudoken (proposers of outcomes); AK = Kaisetsu-sha (accepters of outcomes)
- Decelerator participant roles: DH = Hatten-yaku (developers); DM = Mondai-teiki (issue raisers)

Talk-management categories
- On-record participant roles: ①[+[R],+[E]] = exogenous, task determining ②[+[R],-[E]] = endogenous, task management
- Off-record participant roles: ③[-[R],+[E]] = exogenous, meta-discourse ④[-[R],-[E]] = endogenous, task management
* = -[C]

= echoes previous speaker or provides anticipatory completion
A,E: female speakers, N,J: male speakers

Phase 1: lines 1-38 The task clarification phase

Content-orientation: Virtually non-existent. The few instances of talk-content are kaisetsu-sha and hatten-yaku.
Management-orientation: Almost all the talk is management-oriented. Predominantly exogenous task determining (on-record lines 1-15 and off record lines 23-7) and off-record endogenous task management (throughout).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Talk-content</th>
<th>Talk-management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AS/AK/DH/DM</td>
<td>①/②/③/④</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 E:  OK the decisions of the President will take precedence over all other decisions</td>
<td>E E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  or the decisions of the Grand C-ouncil or the President will take precedence</td>
<td>E E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  over oh hang on hhh over all other decisions or the decisions of the Freedonian</td>
<td>E E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Parliament if elected will be supreme</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 N:  ha &lt;laughs&gt;</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 E:  hhh</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 N:  what does that mean .hh</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 E:  .hh who's gonna have power over [other people in decision</td>
<td>E* E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 A:  [yeah</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 E:  making () I guess*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 N:  OK</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12  (3.5)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 N:  so basically, it's either the President or the Grand Council and the President</td>
<td>N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14  or the [Parliament</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

264
Talk-content
AS/AK/DH/DM

Talk-management
①/②/③/④

15 A: [Parliament, yeah
16 (2.5)
17 N: hhhhh
18 (2.0)
19 E: E* so the President's pretty much like the queen isn't it?
20 A: A! yeah
21 E: and then
22 (1.7)
23 N: N much like an American president
24 E: E E yeah but you know [(0.5) we're in England <laughs>
25 A: A* [should it be the Grand Council and the President=
26 N: =no we're in Freedonia
27 E: <laughs> that's very true yeah where is Freedonia you need a map <laughs>
28 A: <laughs>
29 <knocking> <knocking> (1.0) <knocking>
30 N: um
31 E: E and then like the i- is the Grand Council then like the House of Lords
32 then Parliament's like House of (..)
33 A: A! Commons
34 E: E Commons yeah (.) so I'm just trying to work this out
35 A: <laughs>
36 N: N presumably
37 E: E OK thank you
38 (2.0)
Phase 2: lines 39-61 The spontaneous proposal phase

Content-orientation: Each participant spontaneously states their preferred outcome (shudoken), sometimes giving reasons (hatten-yaku) and sometimes provoking a degree of agreement (kaisetsu-sha).

Management-orientation: Apart from a short meta-discourse element (lines 43-7), off-record endogenous task management

Talk-content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lines</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Talk-content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39 N:</td>
<td>N*</td>
<td>well I reckon it should be::</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 A:</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>I say the second option sounds (.) pretty feasible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 J:</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>eh you catch the wrong guy [making the wrong decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42 N:</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>I reckon the Parliament though</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43 E:</td>
<td></td>
<td>hhh a diplomat hhh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.5) &lt;knocking&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 A:</td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;laughs&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 E:</td>
<td></td>
<td>I bet you're a libdem aren't you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47 N:</td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;laughs&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48 E:</td>
<td>E*</td>
<td>OK um (.) I'd actually probably go with Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 E:</td>
<td>E*</td>
<td>cos the more people making a decision the better (.) I think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td>(2.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52 N:</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>[emm (.) yep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 J:</td>
<td>J*</td>
<td>[probably (.) yep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 A:</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 J:</td>
<td>J*</td>
<td>with er (.) the Parliament might be more uh general or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 E:</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td>(3.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58 N:</td>
<td></td>
<td>so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59 J:</td>
<td>J*</td>
<td>cos th- all the Council choose the President don't they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 A:</td>
<td>A A</td>
<td>yeah and they draw up the constit[ut-ion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 J:</td>
<td></td>
<td>[so</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Talk-management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lines</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Talk-management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1/2/3/4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Phase 3: lines 62-105 Dealing with a significant issue

Content-orientation: One participant raises a significant issue (mondai-teiki) in lines 62 and 71 which is debated predominantly in kaisetsu-sha mode (lines 69-102) with some shudoken (69-82) and some hatten-yaku (88-100)

Management-orientation: Limited to occasional off-record endogenous task management contributions.

Talk-content

AS/AK/DH/DM

62 A: yeah but if you are the Grand Council we are the Grand Council here we're
63 we're like we're just giving away our power
64
65 E: E that's true shall we get it back
66 A: <laughs>
67 E: <laughs>
68 <cough>
69 N: N* N* right nn I guess that's true but I still think the right thing to do the
70 moral thing by the people would be (1.3) [Parliament
71 A: A [but but we've assigned here to
72 like discuss this an an giving away our power and our you know decision making=
73 N: N =you shouldn't care about power
74 <knocking>
75 A: shut up hhh
76 <knocking>
77 E: E* OK maybe the Parliament should make like (. ) the decision and then (..) the
78 Grand Council and the President should say whether that decision's OK or not
79 A: A yeah
80 (1.0)
81 E: E but=
82 A: A =so we amend this [through] the ( )
83 E: <laughs>
84 N: N what so you mean the Parliament should set well what's the point
85 [in having a Parliament if the Grand
86 E: E [yeah no no yeah
87 N: E Council are just going to [er er disagree with it
88 E: E [well
89 that's what the Queen does though she can always say no I don't agree
90 [with that but she never does
91 N: N [Queen doesn't do anything
Phase 4: lines 106-158 The prompted proposal and ensuing discussion

Content-orientation: One participant prompts the other three to state their preferred outcomes (106-120) (hatten-yaku), leading to a discussion (121-149) (kaisetsu-sha), followed by a significant observation by one participant (154-8) (hatten-yaku).

Management-orientation: Virtually non-existent

Talk-content

92 E:   E  no no she's got the power to though [so if she
93 N:   N  yes but she
94 E:   E  just k-
96 E:   E  hhh
97 N:   N  no but she [doesn't DO anything
99 E:   E  [hhh
100 J:  J  no but she CAN if you want her to
101 E:   E  if she wasn't really interested in the idea then they could step in
102 E:   E  yeah but it's unlikely considering with such a large number of people
103 E:   E  anyhow so
104 E:   E  "knocking"
105 A:  A  "yeah"

Talk-management

1/2/3/4

Phase 4: lines 106-158 The prompted proposal and ensuing discussion

Content-orientation: One participant prompts the other three to state their preferred outcomes (106-120) (hatten-yaku), leading to a discussion (121-149) (kaisetsu-sha), followed by a significant observation by one participant (154-8) (hatten-yaku).

Management-orientation: Virtually non-existent

Talk-content

106 N:  N  so how- let's just go around and say like (.) who thinks what
107 A:  A  I say the Grand Council and the President
108 N:  N  right
109 N:  N  (1.0)
110 J:  J  I say (.) the Parliament
111 N:  N  (1.5)
112 J:  J  hm
113 N:  N  (0.5)
114 N:  N  right
115 N:  N  (2.0)
116 E:  E  well
117 A:  A  Lizzie you know you want to be power hungry (.) you know you want to
oh no I would say Parliament but it says like (..) will take precedence over
so: ultimately I'd say yeah the Grand Council and the President should have
precedence over the (..) Parliament hhh "I don't know"
what so you [do you think I don't understand you think the Parliament should=
[well
=I I think the Parliament should make the decisions [but then
the Grand Council and the Presid- and the President should have precedence
[over that if they don't agree
[yeah but I ( ) the decision if it's good or not (1.0) cos what's
[the point of having giving the name the Grand Council when it's not that grand
[but
<laughs>
<knocking>
and it's not making the decisions
[now what's the point of having [Freedonia
[you want to change their names now
no [because
[you've [only got freedom or freedon
[exactly
(2.0)
but um what's [the the I I I don't understand the
point of like having a parliament that's making decisions if the Grand Council's
then just going to step in when they don't like it
[what
[what's the point of having a Grand Council and a President if (.) they're not
going to have any power over the decision making anyway you might as well just
have a Parliament
<knocking>
shush
<laughs>
(1.5)
but that's how bills and laws get passed they have to go through the House of
Lords anyway in this country
exactly
Talk-content

AS/AK/DH/DM

154 (0.8)
155A: A it does work
156 (3.0)
157N: N mmm
158 (1.0)

Talk-management

①/②/③/④

Phase 5: lines 159-198 The participant holding a minority view is argued out of his position

Content-orientation: Predominantly kaisetsu-sha.

Management-orientation: On-record task determining and task-management strategies at the beginning of the phase (63-67) and off-record meta-discourse and task-management strategies at the middle of the phase (186-189)

Talk-content

AS/AK/DH/DM

159E: E well we're right you're wrong
160A: A yeah there we go
161N: N hey
162E: E <laughs>
163N: N it has to be unanimous
164E: E er (. .) oh yeah (. .) sorry (. .) oh we'll be here for ever then
165 E <laughter>
166J: J would we want Freedonia to be run like our country is would they like it if
167 E they don't like our country
168N: N er actually you're right I think it should be more like America
169E: E NO
170NJ: J <laughter>
171E: E oh come on
172A: A <laughs>
173E: E [don't] be ridiculous
174 E <laughter> <cough>
175 (1.8)
176A: A yeah but if you'd like America then you won't pass a whole
177 E group of countries
178N: N [well uh I can see I can-
179A: E Freedonia will just become really polluted and horrid
I can actually see your point of like having a Grand Council it'll be like America that's not doing anything so (1.0) but [I I (...) but "thank you" = "yeah"

on the other hand I don't agree that the Parliament should make the decision if the Grand Council are just going to step in I think it should just be the Grand Council and the President and (...) s- forget the Parliament you don't even want a Parliament (0.5) oh it says if one is ever elected so you don't want one

no but then it'll get really (2.0) insular wouldn't it

what you need [more people being in control can I just [people should contribute sound bites n [I think people you've just gone from one (.+) from one major idea swung right the other major idea and we're sitting in the middle with the right idea and you're ignoring us
Phase 6: lines 199-227 The collective decision is confirmed

**Content-orientation:** From 220-226 the three participants still involved in reaching a decision step out of management and back into content mode to fine-tune the proposal (shudoken) so that it's acceptable to everyone before stepping back into management mode.

**Management-orientation:** One participant notices food and provokes a brief off-record exogenous meta-discussion (199-207) after which she takes no further part in the discussion, which is concluded by the other participants in predominantly on-record management mode (206-220), with closure consisting of a face-saving off-record meta-discussion about how the collective discussion was reached (227-232).

**Talk-content**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AS/AK/DH/DM</th>
<th>Talk-management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>199A: oh oh oh she's got some crisps (.) I'm sure it's for us there's four sandwiches</td>
<td>1/2/3/4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200 and- or five</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201E: are we allowed though</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>202</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>203A: sorry [(0.5) I'm REALLY sorry</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>204E: [just can we (.) can we concentrate Angie come on</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>205A: I'm just hungry</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>206E: right so: [basically you're the problem (..) we've</td>
<td>E E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>207N: [inDeed</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>208E: we've decided hhh</td>
<td>E E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>209N: now what have you? was James agree?</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>210E: yeah you said what we said didn't you</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>211J: the Parliament one yeah</td>
<td>J</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>212E: yeah</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213</td>
<td>(1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>214A: what</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>215J: and then (.) they can=</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>216E: E! =they can=</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>217J: E =step in [if it really really is necessary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>218E:</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>219</td>
<td>(1.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>220N: OK fine so we're amending it for (.) [Parliament and then the Grand=</td>
<td>N N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>221E:</td>
<td>but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222 :</td>
<td>=does unanimous mean that you've been bullied into it is that OK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>223EA:</td>
<td>&lt;laugh&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>224N:</td>
<td>well as long as I uh uh agree it's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Talk-content
AS/AK/DH/DM

225E: OK
226N: bullied me that's fine
227E: OK that's fine then
7.4 Utterance allocation to talk content and management categories

In this section, we will discuss the allocation of data to talk content categories (i.e. *shudoken, kaisetsu-sha, hatten-yaku* and *mondai-teiki* roles) and to talk management categories (i.e. how the features [R] and [E] were assigned), focussing especially on utterances where the researcher was faced with difficult decisions. But first a straightforward example.

The following example is taken from Phase 2, the stage at which the four participants make spontaneous proposals after they had clarified what they should discuss in attempting to decide Question 3:

39 N: well, I reckon it should be:
40 A: I say the second option sounds (. ) pretty feasible
41 J: eh, you catch the wrong guy [making the wrong decision
42 N: [I reckon the Parliament though
43 E: hhh a diplomat hhh
44 (0.5) <knocking>
45 N: <laughs>
46 E: I bet you're a libdem aren't you
47 N: <laughs>
48 E: OK um (. ) I'd actually probably go with Parliament
49 (2.2)
50 E: cos the more people making a decision the better (. ) I think
51 (2.0)
52 N: emm (. ) yep
53 J: [probably- uh the Grand Council could be an old pals act (. ) something
54 E: yeah
55 J: with er (. ) the Parliament might be more uh general or
56 E: yeah
57 (3.5)
58 N: so
59 J: cos th- all the Council choose the President don't they
60 A: yeah and they draw up the constitu[-tion
61 J: [so
First of all, typical cases of *shudoken* role are A’s utterance in line 40, N’s utterance in line 42, E’s *I’d actually probably go with Parliament* in line 48 and J’s utterance in line 55, in which each speaker makes a proposal. Secondly, typical cases of *kaisetsu-sha* role are N’s *yep* in line 52, E’s *yeah* in lines 54 and 56 and A’s *yeah* in line 60, in which the speakers rationalise what the previous speaker says. Typical cases of *hattenn-yaku* role are E’s utterance in line 50, J’s utterance in line 59 and A’s *they draw up the constitution* in line 60, in which the speakers develop the idea being discussed either by giving reasons (lines 50 and 59) or by providing a new idea (line 60). Finally, typical cases of *mondai-teiki* role are J’s utterances in lines 41 and 53, in which he raises an issue in relation to the ongoing discussion. As straightforward examples of the allocation of management roles to data were given in the previous section, no further examples are needed here.

### 7.4.1 Problematic interpretation of categories

The allocation of utterances to each category depends obviously enough on interpretation, an issue whose difficulty is illustrated by the following discussion of nine problematic cases: cases (1)–(4) relate to talk content categories and (5)–(7) to both talk content and talk management categories; (8) is a case in which the same item is allocated
to two different categories and (9) illustrates the difficulties that arise when a speaker develops a theme over several turns.

7.4.1.1 Determining talk content category

(1) E's utterance in line 19 – Hatten-yaku (DH)

In opening up the question, N confirms what the question means in lines 13-14 and, after a two second pause, E then suggests that the president is like the queen of England.

13 N: so basically, it's either the President or the Grand Council and the president
14 : or the [Parliament
15 A: [Parliament, yeah
16 (2.5)
17 N: hhhhh
18 (2.0)
19 E: so, the President's pretty much like the queen isn't it

If we assume that she raises an issue of understanding with the tag question inviting an indication of the extent to which her understanding seems correct, this utterance should be categorised as mondai-teiki (DM). However, the researcher considers that E provides a new idea here which opens up and develops the discussion, so her utterance is categorised as hatten-yaku (DH).

(2) N's utterance in line 23 – Kaisetsu-sha (AK): Ambiguous contribution

After E suggests that the President is much like the queen, N says that the president is like an American president.
This utterance could be either a contradiction or a reinforcement of E’s contribution. If we take the view that he contradicts her and provides an additional perspective, he plays the same role as E in line 19, i.e. that of hatten-yaku (DH). However, the researcher regards his utterance as a reinforcement because E seems to accept it in line 24 although she would prefer to illustrate the point with an English example rather than an American example. Therefore, it is categorized as kaisetsu-sha (AK).

(3) E’s utterance in line 81 – Kaisetsu-sha (AK): Implicit propositional content

The researcher regards E’s use of but as a kaisetsu-sha utterance.

Although E’s utterance at line 81 is propositionally empty, we can say that the propositional content is implicit. Her previous utterance in lines 77-78 is hedged with maybe and like, the modal should is used and there are two micro pauses. It is not therefore surprising that she continues in line 81 with but. What she is suggesting is
something of a retrenchment on her previous position (lines 48, 50), which sparks a discussion that begins before and continues after this use of but. That is why this use of but might indicate a momentary second-thought, that is, although she made a proposal in lines 77-78, she should go back to a position that others seem to be happy with. In addition, her utterance in line 120 also suggests that she is in two minds, as shown below:

118 E: oh no I would say Parliament but it says like (...) will take precedence over
119 so: ultimately I'd say yeah the Grand Council and the President should have
120 precedence over the (...) Parliament hhh "I don't know"

Thus, the researcher decided to treat this utterance as an instance of kaisetsu-sha (AK).

(4) N’s utterance in line 157 – Kaisetsu-sha (AK): Implicit propositional content

This is another instance where there is no explicit propositional content but an indication of the attitude of the speaker by means of the vocalization provided in line 157, where N’s mmm seems to convey his unwillingness to accept E and A’s proposals, or at least his need to think about them further:

144 E: [what]’s the point of having a Grand Council and a President if (...) they’re not
145 : going to have any power over the decision making anyway you might as well just
146 : have a Parliament
147 <knocking>
148 N: shush
149 E: <laughs>
150 (1.5)
151 A: but that’s how bills and laws get passed they have to go through the House of
152 : Lords anyway in this country
153 E: exactly
154 (0.8)
155 A: i- it does work
156 (3.0)
Despite the absence of overt propositional content, this vocalization expresses the speaker’s perspective on the previous utterances provided by E and A, and is therefore treated as an instance of *kaisetsu-sha* (AK).

### 7.4.1.2 Determining talk content and management categories

**5) N's utterance in line 121 – Kaisetsu-sha (AK), [+R],-[E]**

It seems that N tries to point out the illogicality of the position E takes in lines 118-120 and attempts to determine what she means by her utterance.

118 E: oh no I would say Parliament but it says like (...) will take precedence over
119 : so: ultimately I'd say yeah the Grand Council and the President should have
120 : precedence over the (...) Parliament hhh "I don't know"
121 N: what so you [do you think I don't understand you think the Parliament should~
122 E: [well

Viewed in this light, N’s utterance is seen as an instance of *kaisetsu-sha* (i.e. *what so you do you think I don’t understand you think the parliament should*) and on-record endogenous task-management [+R],-[E]] (i.e. *you think*).

**6) N's utterance in lines 220 and 222 – Shudoken (AS), [+R],-[E] and [-R],-[E]**: *One turn has several functions*
The researcher ascribed three categories to N’s utterance in lines 220 and 222, *shudoken* (AS), on-record endogenous task-management [+[R],-[E]] and off-record task management [-[R],-[E]].

220 N: OK fine so we're amending it for (.) |Parliament and then
221 E: |but
222 N: the Grand-

This utterance occurs after J changes his mind and agrees with E and A. Therefore the consensus favouring *Parliament* is presented as a proposal (AS) and *we're amending it for* is an instance of [+[R],-[E]] and *OK fine* and *then* are instances of [-[R],-[E]].

(7) N’s utterance in line 133 and J’s in line 136 – [-[R],[E]],
E’s utterance in line 134 – Mondai-teiki (DM) and
A’s utterance in line 123 and J’s in line 137 – Kaisetsu-sha (AK):
Allocation of utterances to content and management categories

The next extract illustrates the difficulty of deciding the point at which a speaker switches from propositional content to talk management and vice versa. After A points out that the name ‘Grand Council’ does not have any meaning if it is not ‘grand’ and does not make the decisions, the other participants comment as follows:

127 A: (yeah but I ( ) the decision if it's good or not (1.0) cos what's the
128 : (point of giving having the name the Grand Council when it’s not that grand
129 N: |but
130 E: <laughs>
131 <knocking>
132 A: and it’s not making the decisions
133 N: now what’s the point of having Freedonia
134 E: |you want to change their names now
135 A: no |because
136 J: |you've |only got freedom or freedon
Both N’s utterance in line 133 and J’s in line 136 are categorised as instances of off-record, exogenous meta-discourse [−[R],+[E]], because they are not directly related to the topic to be decided but rather seem to be instances of word play. They are not therefore categorised in any talk-content class, because they do not directly contribute to the decision-making task. However, E’s utterance in line 134 is categorized as an instance of mondai-teiki as it is directed at A’s comment on the inconsistency of the name and function of the Grand Council, and raises an issue in relation to A’s comment. A’s utterance in line 135 and N’s in line 137, then, should be kaisetsu-sha because N rationalises the issue raised by E. Although A’s utterance is interrupted by J’s word-game and is not completed, her use of because suggests that she is on the point of giving a reason why she objects to E’s comment, so that her turn is categorised as instance of (non-completed) kaisetsu-sha.

7.4.1.3 Determining the allocation of the same item used in different ways

(8) E’s uses of well in lines 116 and 122

In line 106 N invites the other participants to give their own opinions on the question being debated, and A and J respond in lines 107 and 110.
E's turn comes last, and after a two-second pause she says *well* (line 116) and then makes her heavily hedged proposal in lines 118-120:

E's use of *well* indicates her difficulty committing herself to one of the two options as she is not yet sure about the question. Thus, we assign this utterance to the category of off-record endogenous task-management [−[R],−[E]]. Whereas the next *well* provided by E in line 122 does not seem to be related to content or to have a management role. And since N ignores it, this use of *well* is not allocated to any category:
7.4.1.4 The development of a theme over several turns

(9) E’s utterance in lines 123 and 125-126: Single content function with contribution spanned in several lines

When it comes, E’s proposal consists of two utterances, spanning lines 123 and 125-126:

123 E: =I I think the Parliament should make the decisions [but then
124 N: [yep
125 E: the Grand Council and the Presid- and the President should have precedence
126 : [over that if they don’t agree
127 A: [yeah but I ( ) the decision if it’s good or not (1.0) cos what’s
128 : [the point of having giving the name the Grand Council when it’s not that grand
129 N: [but

E’s contribution is taken to be a continuing series of speech acts functioning as a single contribution to the speech event. In addition, we can say that this is an elaboration of her previous utterance in lines 118-120 and provokes aizuchi (N’s yep) and an interruption by A. Therefore, the researcher regards this as one proposal, which is categorised as an instance of shudoken.

7.4.2 Cases submitted to raters

There were, however, five cases where the researcher felt it appropriate to involve raters, whilst still reserving the right to make the final determination herself. For the sake of clarity, each case is given a title, viz. 1) Task clarification, 2) The Queen’s power, 3) Prompted proposals, 4) Freedonian government, and 5) The necessity of a Parliament.
can be seen in Table 7.1 below, each of these cases involves two or more utterances where the raters' evaluation was sought.

The four raters employed were all native English speaking doctoral students at University of Durham, comprising two female raters, A and B, and two male raters, C and D, three studying Linguistics and one (D) studying Law (See p.152). A handout (See Appendix 5) was distributed to each rater, who was asked to reach a provisional decision individually. When these provisional decisions had been taken, the three linguist raters were asked to work collectively to try to come to a common decision on the grounds that this would enable a wide variety of perspectives to be discussed whilst at the same time maintaining a workable group size.

Table 7.1 below shows the researcher's original idea, the decisions reached by the raters and the researcher's final decision.
Table 7.1: Raters' judgement and the researcher's final decision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Researcher's original decision</th>
<th>Rater A</th>
<th>Rater B</th>
<th>Rater C</th>
<th>Rater D</th>
<th>Raters' common decision</th>
<th>Researcher's final decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>34 E</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R/Q</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37 E</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R/D</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>92 E</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97 N</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
<td>R/D</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>99 E</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
<td>R/D</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>107 A</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>110 J</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>166 J</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>I/Q</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>R/D/Q</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>168 N</td>
<td>R -&gt; D</td>
<td>R -&gt; I</td>
<td>R -&gt; D</td>
<td>R -&gt; I/D</td>
<td>I/R/D</td>
<td>R -&gt; I/D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>191 E</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>D/Q</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>R/D/Q</td>
<td>Q</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>193 E</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>R/D</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key
I: Initiator (=shudoken), R: Rationaliser/Explainer (=kaisetsu-sha),
D: Developer (=hatten-yaku), Q: Questioner/Issue raiser (=shitsumon-yaku)

Reading from the left, the first column displays the five cases, with line numbers and speakers. The column labelled Researcher's original decision shows the researcher's original decision prior to involving the raters, the columns labelled Raters A, B, C and D display the individual decisions of each of the four raters, the column labelled Raters' common decision displays the agreed decision of the three linguist raters working together after having reached their provisional decisions individually. The final column displays the researcher's final decision. In discussing each case in the following pages, we explain how the researcher made a final decision on the utterance allocation in the cases where she asked for raters' judgement and subsequently exercised her right to set the raters' judgement aside.
(1) Task clarification

In line 34, although all the raters categorised E’s utterance as kaisetsu-sha, the researcher held to her original decision and allocated the utterance to the hatten-yaku role on the grounds that E’s utterance Commons yeah (line 34) constitutes an acceptance of A’s anticipatory completion (line 33) of her previous utterance (lines 31-32) and ought to be allocated to the same category as that utterance. If the raters had been asked to make a judgement about E’s utterance in lines 31-32, they might have been expected to reach the same judgement as the researcher reached about E’s utterance in line 34 too.

31 E: and then like the i- is the Grand Council then like the House of Lords
32 : then Parliament's like House of (..)
33 A: Commons
34 E: Commons yeah (.) so I'm just trying to work this out

In line 37, E says OK thank you after completing the task clarification. In this case, the researcher accepted the raters’ judgement and assigned this turn to kaisetsu-sha role, because E accepts A and N’s reaction (lines 35 and 36) and justifies herself (i.e. E), rather than develops the idea.

35 A: <laughs>
36 N: presumably
37 E: OK thank you
(2) The Queen's power

Here, N and E have an argument as to whether the Queen exercises real power in UK.

Although the raters’ individual judgements of E’s utterance in line 92 vary, the researcher confirmed the role as *hatten-yaku* in accordance with her original judgement and the raters’ common decision, because the turn functions as an objection to N’s previous utterance and develops the idea conveyed in lines 89-90, with E’s use of *though* functioning as a meta-pragmatic indicator of this development:

89 E: that’s what the Queen does though she can always say no I don’t agree
90 : [with that but she never does
91 N: [Queen doesn’t do anything
92 E: no no she’s got the power to though [so if she

N’s utterance in line 97 is categorised by both researcher and raters as *kaisetsu-sha*, being an emphatic repetition of his previous utterance in line 91, in which he proposes an outcome:

91 N: [Queen doesn’t do anything
: 
97 N: no but she [doesn’t DO anything

In line 99 E again raises her objection after her own out-breath:

97 N: no but she [doesn’t DO anything
98 E: [hhh
99 E: no but she CAN if you want her to
Line 99 is another instance where the raters’ individual judgements were diverse. Although E repeats N’s no but of line 97, the researcher held to her original judgement and categorised this turn (i.e. line 99) as hatten-yaku, rather accept the raters’ agreed kaisetsu-sha judgement on the grounds that E gradually develops her idea spanning lines 89-90, 92 and 99. Thus E develops an argument in hatten-yaku role over several turns. In addition, the researcher’s decision was one that had surfaced in individual rater judgements and therefore she felt justified in taking a decision based on an understanding derived from knowledge of a much more complete context than was available to raters working with decontextualized data.

(3) Prompted proposals

The researcher accepted the raters’ decision that both A’s utterance in line 107 and J’s utterance in line 110 should be assigned the shudoken role.

106 N: so: how- let’s just go around and say like (.) who thinks what  
107 A: I say the Grand Council and the President  
108 N: right  
109 (1.0)  
110 J: I say (.) the Parliament

However, in determining a participant role, we have to note that although they are technically initiations, A and J are prompted to vote by N, which does not make their utterances voluntary initiations.
(4) Freedonian government

The researcher held to her original decision that J’s utterance in line 166 should be assigned *mondai-teiki* and *hatten-yaku* roles, on the grounds that J raises an issue and at the same time develops the argument, and both researcher and raters agreed that N’s utterance *er actually you’re right* (line 168) should be assigned *kaisetsu-sha* role.

166 J: would we want Freedonia to be run like our country is would they like it if
167 : they don't like our country
168 N: er actually you're right I think it should be more like America
169 E: NO

Although all the raters agreed that the second part of N’s turn, *I think it should be more like America*, should be assigned both *shudoken* and *hatten-yaku* roles, the researcher made a final decision to categorise it only as *shudoken*, for the reason that it functions in an accelerator role (i.e. as *shudoken*) rather than a decelerator role (i.e. as *hatten-yaku*), as the use of *I think* and *should* indicate.

(5) The necessity of a Parliament

The raters’ judgement that E’s utterance in line 191 should be assigned *mondai-teiki* role coincides with the initial judgement of the researcher.

188 E: you don't even want a Parliament (0.5) oh it says if one is ever elected so
189 : you don't want one
190 N: no
191 E: but then it'll get really (2.0) insular wouldn't it

191 E: but then it'll get really (2.0) insular wouldn't it
However, the researcher accepted the raters’ judgement that utterance in line 193 should be assigned *hatten-yaku* function.

192 N: what
193 E: you need |more people being in control

That is because this utterance develops her previous idea spanning lines 188, 189 and 191, although it takes the form of an explanation / response to N’s *what* in line 192.

### 7.5 The characteristics of discussion in English

In this section, we will discuss the characteristics of English discussion organization as revealed in the data. Firstly we will focus on the default settings for contributions in English talk as they compare to the default settings for contributions in Japanese talk, and then explore the trajectory of the English discussion as a whole.

As discussed in Chapter 6 (see p. 207), if we take consequentiality, or outcome, to be the principal reason for engaging in talk, and assume that ‘first’ turns are consequentiality-oriented and often state positions or provide (portions of) accounts, then it ought to be possible to determine defaults for ‘first’ turn and ‘next’ turn sequentiality. Following this assumption, the Japanese data show that there are two defaults for contributions to Japanese talk:
JAPANESE DEFAULT 1
Turn 1: proposition (henceforth, P) + no
Turn 2: aizuchi

EXAMPLE
9Y: =ano toki ni ne, ano: Tanaka-san ga ne, 
that time at IP um Mn Tanaka S IP
10: Alan no nihon-go tte okashii ne tte itta no.=
Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
11T: =un.
uh-huh
9-10Y: ='At that time, um, /Ms Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.'=
11T: ='Uh-huh.'

(Here Y provides a portion of an account as a 'first' turn.)

or

JAPANESE DEFAULT 2
Turn 1: P (+ no) (+ copula) + SFP indicating expected relation of T2 response to T1
Turn 2: response as indicated by SFP

EXAMPLE
46Y: examine (.) toka ne, sooiu (0.2) kuriaa-na ano: (1.2) chigai
examine and-so-on IP like-that clear umm difference
47: tte iu no ka-na:, (2.0) sooiu no o shiri-tai n da yone.
QT say Nom FP-FP like-that one O know-want Nom Cop FP
48T: 
[mmm:.]
yeah
49 (3.0)
50-1T: ma:, sokorahen wa honto-ni yappari native janai to wakannai yone.=
well that T really (I)-think native Cop-Neg QT understand-Neg FP
46Y: '"examine' etc etc, /I want to know, like, umm, can I say (no ka-na),
47: /there is this (kind of clear difference/ / n da yone.'
48T: '"Yeah.'
49 (3.0)
50-1T: 'Well, I don’t think we can understand that because we are not natives yone.'=

(Here Y advances a position which is embedded in such a way as to make it an open proposition.)

Thus the Japanese speaker first chooses whether the proposition is to be reified by means
of the n(o) da construction, and then decides whether to assert, question or express
uncertainty toward the reified status of that proposition by means of mood indicating copulas. Finally, he decides whether to indicate the expected next turn type by means of SFPs. In other words, in Japanese talk, the previous speaker gives an indication of the preferred next turn type. If he chooses no only, as in the first default, then he invites the next speaker to provide aizuchi. If he provides SFPs at the end of his utterance, as in the second default, then the next speaker is invited to respond as indicated.

The English data show that the single default for contributions to English talk are:

Turn 1: proposition (+ optional confirmation request)
Turn 2: indication of relation of T2 response to T1 + response

EXAMPLE

101 J: if she wasn’t really interested in the idea then they could step in
102 (2.0)
103 E: yeah but it's unlikely considering with such a large number of people

(Here J advances a position.)

The English speaker produces a proposition (i.e. if she wasn’t really interested in the idea then they could step in) and then decides whether to provide a confirmation request by means of a tag question, although in practice the data reveal that he seldom makes this request explicitly. The next speaker then provides some indication of the relation of her contribution to the previous utterance by means of procedurals (i.e. yeah but) before providing her propositional response (i.e. it's unlikely considering with such a large number of people). In other words, in English talk, each speaker advances a proposition,
often indicating how it relates to what has been said in the previous utterance. Speakers sometimes indicate propositional attitudes, as *I reckon* and *though*, as in *I reckon the parliament though* (line 42), although this is not an option that needs to be exercised. In practice therefore most turns are both ‘first’ turns to the extent that they have outcome-oriented properties and ‘next’ turns to the extent that they also respond to the outcome-oriented content of the previous turn. Indeed, the illustrations of defaults given in this section are, so to speak, frozen exchanges which fail fully to acknowledge the ‘next’ turn properties of many ‘first’ turns. As a consequence, the default settings for contributions to Japanese and to English talk show that it is much more difficult to separate ‘active’ and ‘reactive’ utterances in interaction in English, for the reason that ‘next’ turn contributions to talk events in English frequently have the same properties as ‘first’ turn contributions, unlike the situation in Japanese talk where next turn speakers following Default 1 ‘react’ by signalling that they are listening and allow the first speaker to continue by means of *aizuchi* and vocalizations.

Another difference that the defaults reveal is that in Japanese talk the speaker first has to choose whether the proposition is to be reified and then to express a perspective on Certainty [C] by means of mood indicating copulas, such as *darou* and *janai*, or SFPs such as *ka-na*. In English talk, Reification [R] is not a relevant category, so that C-values
are relatively more important and usually encode the degree of candidacy, or likely acceptability, of propositions; in Japanese, this is the function of [R], whilst [C] encodes the degree of reifiability of propositions. The examples that follow illustrate these differences:

2T: douiu-toki-ni suggest tte tsukau n darou.
What kind of-time-in suggest QT use Nom Cop
3Y: (0.2) un.
uh-huh

2T: 'I wonder (n darou) /when people use the word 'suggest'/.'
3Y: '(0.2) Uh-huh.'

The speaker, T, reifies a proposition about whose status he expresses uncertainty by means of n darou and expects the next speaker, Y, to indicate whether she shares a degree of uncertainty. In the following examples taken from the English data, the candidate status of each proposition is indicated, so that each turn encodes the degree to which the proposition it contains advances the discussion:

19 E: so, the President's pretty much like the queen isn't it
20 A: yeah
21 E: and then
22 (1.7)
23 N: much like an American president :

31 E: and then like the i- is the Grand Council then like the House of Lords
32 : then Parliament's like House of (..)
33 A: Commons
34 E: Commons yeah (.) so I'm just trying to work this out

In opening up a discussion, E expresses her uncertainty by means of a tag question in line 19. Although she is interrupted by N in line 23, she continues to clarify the situation about
which the participants need to decide in line 31. Similarly, in 38-40 below, N indicates the candidate status of his spontaneous proposal by means of *I reckon* and *should*, thus opening up the next phase of the discussion:

38 (2.0)  
39 N: well, I reckon it should be::  
40 A: I say the second option sounds (. ) pretty feasible

In lines 69 and 70 below, N rationalises in relation to A and E’s previous utterances and re-iterates his own proposal, marking its candidate status with the past modal *would*.

62 A: yeah but if you are the Grand Council we are the Grand Council here we’re  
63 : we’re like we’re just giving away our power  
64 (2.0)  
65 E: that’s true shall we get it back  
66 A: <laughs>  
67 E: <laughs>  
68 <cough>  
69 N: right nn I guess that's true but I still think the right thing to do the  
70 : moral thing by the people would be (1.3) [Parliament  
71 A: [but but we’ve assigned here to

Although a new phase in the discussion is opened by A’s utterance in line 62, N brings their discussion back to the real world and starts the argument, which explains why acknowledging the candidate status of the proposition is important.

In relation to Certainty, another noteworthy point is that *[-C]* utterances are frequent in the early stages of the English discussion, but once the argument is under way, there are no *[-C]* utterances at all. For example, in the first phase, speakers E and A provide *[-C]* utterances when participants clarify the task:
19 E: so the President's pretty much like the queen isn't it

25 A: should it be the Grand Council and the President

And then, N contributes a [−C] utterance in line 39 when all participants start to make spontaneous proposals in the second phase:

39 N: well I reckon it should be:

E provides [−C] utterances in line 48 when she spontaneously makes a proposal and in line 50 in giving a reason for her own previous utterance in the second phase:

48 E: OK um (.) I'd actually probably go with Parliament

49 (2.2)

50 E: cos the more people making a decision the better (.) I think

In the same phase, J also provides [−C] utterances when he raises an issue in lines 53 and 55 and gives a reason for his reservations in line 59:

53 J: [probably uh the Grand Council could be an old pals act (..) something

54 A: yeah

55 J: with er (.) the Parliament might be more uh general or

56 E: yeah

57 (3.5)

58 N: so

59 J: cos th- all the Council choose the President don't they

In the third phase, N contributes a [−C] utterance when he rationalises the previous utterances provided by A and E and then makes his own proposal in lines 69 and 70 and E contributes a [−C] utterance when she tries to persuade N in line 77:

69 N: right nn I guess that's true but I still think the right thing to do the

70 : moral thing by the people would be (1.3) [Parliament
After this, the participants start to argue vigorously and contribute only [+C] utterances apart from E’s concern raised in line 191 about the absence of a parliament:

191 E: but then it’ll get really (2.0) insular wouldn’t it

With regard to the trajectory of discussion and the possibility that defaults also exist at this level, the English data do not progress only in a ‘vertical’ way (i.e. by direct steps from start to finish), but they also progress ‘horizontally’, in that one turn may spark an extended consequential discussion before the talk returns to the next ‘vertical’ phase. Especially in the first few stages of the discussion, when participants try to clarify the task and make their first proposals as we have seen, each turn encodes uncertainty, thus acknowledging the candidate status of the propositions, and frequently advancing the discussion horizontally. This is also true to some extent in the Japanese data, but not in such a consistent way, as the Japanese discussion progresses more obviously on a start-to-finish trajectory. For example, although both Japanese and English speakers discuss the American presidency and their own governmental systems, the Japanese speakers discuss how they are relevant to the ongoing discussion, whereas the English
speakers explore issues in a more lateral or horizontal way, for example when they argue about the constitutional role of the monarch in the UK and what Freedonia is going to be like if it is like America.

7.6 Participant roles

Having justified the assignment of utterances to both content and management roles and explored the characteristics of contributions to talk in English, the next step is to consider the relationship between the four participants and their talk content and management roles in order to determine participant roles for each speaker.

Table 7.2 below illustrates the trajectory of the English discussion in relation to the each participant’s talk content and management roles. Each row in the table represents one of the six phases in the discussion, with the first column containing the line numbers of the data constituting the phase (see p. 264 ff.), the second column displaying the talk content roles assumed by the various speakers in the phase, the third column describing the purpose of the phase and the fourth column displaying the talk management roles assumed by the various speakers in the phase.
Table 7.2: Trajectory of English discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Content roles</th>
<th>Description of phase</th>
<th>Management roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 1-38</td>
<td>φ -&gt; DH ean</td>
<td>task clarification</td>
<td>①/③ -&gt; ③/④ ena en -&gt; ena ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 39-61</td>
<td>AS -&gt; DM/ DH/ AK naej -&gt; j eja nae</td>
<td>spontaneous proposals</td>
<td>④/③ enj ean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 62-83</td>
<td>DM -&gt; AS/ AK ae ena na -&gt; AK/ DH ne ej</td>
<td>facing a significant issue</td>
<td>④/③ nae a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84-105</td>
<td>DH -&gt; AS/ AK -&gt; DH n aje nae ae</td>
<td>prompted proposals</td>
<td>②/④/③ -&gt; φ n j anj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 106-158</td>
<td>AS/ AK -&gt; DH jn en n ej</td>
<td>-&gt; ensuing discussion</td>
<td>②/① -&gt; φ ane ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 159-198</td>
<td>DH -&gt; AS -&gt; DM jn en n ej</td>
<td>minority view participant argued out of N's position</td>
<td>④ -&gt; ② -&gt; ②/④ aen enj n en</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 199-227</td>
<td>AS jen</td>
<td>collective decision confirmed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key
Bold indicates a predominant orientation
Italic script indicates that a speaker contributes relatively less
① [+[R],+[E]] = exogenous, task determining;
② [+R],[-E] = endogenous, task management;
③ [-R],[+E] = exogenous, meta discourse;
④ [-R],[-E] = endogenous, task management

Roughly, as for the talk content roles, we notice from the table that participants assume relatively few talk content roles at the beginning and end of the discussion, i.e. in Phases 1 and 6, but rather contribute to the management of the talk, and that each participant tends to assume a variety of talk content roles. This distinguishes the English data from the Japanese data, where a single speaker typically has the same role(s) throughout the discussion. As for the talk management roles, the table shows that in the first half of the discussion, i.e. Phases 1-3, the participants mainly assume off-record ([-R]) participant roles, whereas in the second half they assume on-record ([+R]) participant roles.
We now look more carefully into the relationship between each participant and their talk content and talk management roles in order to determine discussant roles for N, E, A and J.

**N’s contribution**

N assumes AS and AK roles in most phases, and assumes DH roles less than other speakers and DM roles not at all. He manages the talk at each stage. Thus, we can confirm that he plays a chairing or *shudoken* role. For example, in lines 39 and 42, he makes proposals, *I reckon it should be* in line 39 and *I reckon the parliament* in line 42, and he plays a \([-\{R\},-\{E\}\)] role by means of *well* in line 39 and *though* in line 42, all of which confirm his *shudoken* role:

**Phase 2**

39 N: well I reckon it should be::
42 N: I reckon the Parliament though

Especially, his utterance in line 39 opens the second phase and invites the other participants to make spontaneous proposals, confirming his chair role. In lines 69 and 70, he assumes an AK role by means of *right nn I guess that’s true* and then assumes an AS role from *I still think* to the end of the utterance in line 70:

**Phase 3**

69 N: right nn I guess that’s true but I still think the right thing to do the
70 : moral thing by the people would be \(1.3\) [Parliament
This also confirms his chair role. In the fourth phase, his utterance in line 106 again opens the new phase and invites others to give their opinions:

Phase 4
106 N: so how- let's just go around and say like (...) who thinks what
107 A: I say the Grand Council and the President
108 N: right
109 (1.0)
110 J: I say (...) the Parliament
111 (1.5)
112 J: hm
113 (0.5)
114 N: right

In lines 108 and 114, he plays an on-record management role, again confirming his chair role, and in the final phase, he assumes a chair role, as he attempts to conclude the discussion by summarizing what has been agreed:

Phase 6
220N: OK fine so we're amending it for (...) [Parliament and then the Grand--

E’s contribution

Although E takes the accelerator participant roles, AS and AK, almost as much as N, she also plays the decelerator participant roles, DH and DM, twice as frequently as N does. She contributes to the management of the talk at each stage, apart from in the fourth phase. In addition, she sets the task up so that the discussion starts smoothly, confirming her scene-setter role. As she assumes all eight content and management roles in the course
of the discussion as a whole, we have to look in more detail at the data to determine her predominant contribution. As mentioned earlier, she changes her position, first siding with N and choosing to give ultimate authority to Parliament in the second phase when all the participants provide spontaneous proposals:

Phase 2
48 E: OK um (..) I'd actually probably go with Parliament
49   (2.2)
50 E: cos the more people making a decision the better (..) I think

However, in the third phase, after A mentions the power of the Grand Council in line 62, E changes her mind and in the following phases supports A's position:

Phase 3
62 A: yeah but if you are the Grand Council we are the Grand Council here we're
63 : we're like we're just giving away our power
64   (2.0)
65 E: that's true shall we get it back

Having changed her mind, she attempts to persuade N to accept her position and has an argument with him, mainly producing AK, DH and DM utterances. Although she meets with opposition in lines 121 and 139-142, her utterance in lines 144-146 rationalises what N had said previously.

Phase 4
118 N: oh no I would say Parliament but it says like (..) will take precedence over
119 : so: ultimately I'd say yeah the Grand Council and the President should have
120 : precedence over the (..) Parliament hhh "I don't know"
121 N: what so you [do you think I don't understand you think the Parliament should-
139 N: but um what's [the the I I I don't understand the
140 E:               {}
141 N: point of like having a parliament that's making decisions if the Grand Council's
E, then, assumes a DH role and provides an utterance to indicate that she agrees with A in line 153. After a 3 second pause, N seems to react to A reluctantly in line 157:

In the next phase, in line 169 she rejects J and N’s ideas, which are intended to develop the argument, and in 171 and 173 and tries to get them back on topic:

And then, in the same phase, she raises issues in an attempt to rebut N’s proposal that a Parliament is unnecessary:
As we see, she often justifies the viewpoint of other participants or raises issues or questions in order to clarify it, thus assuming kaisetsu-sha and mondai-teiki participant roles.

_A’s contribution_

A also assumes each of the four talk content roles in the course of the discussion, although she barely contributes or comments on any content in the two final phases. She also contributes much less than N or E to talk management, preferring off-record strategies for the most part. The data also reveal her to be a kind of confirmer or completer, especially in supporting E, and thus assumes a discreet quasi shudoken role, as in the opening question, when she first provides an anticipatory completion as E struggles to find the right word (line 33) and then provides supportive laughter (line 35):

Phase 1
31 E: and then like the i- is the Grand Council then like the House of Lords
32 : then Parliament's like House of (..)
33 A: Commons
34 E: Commons yeah (.) so I'm just trying to work this out
35 A: <laughs>
In opening the third phase, A suggests that if the decisions of Parliament take precedence over all other decisions, then they would lose their constitutional power as members of the Grand Council, to which N objects, asserting that she should not care about power. E then makes a proposal, as shown in the following example:

Phase 3

71 A: (but but we've assigned here...
72 N: =you shouldn't care about power
73  <knocking>
74  E: shut up hhh
75  <knocking>
76  E: OK maybe the Parliament should make like (. ) the decision and then (...) the
77  A: Grand Council and the President should say whether that decision's OK or not
78  E: yeah
79  A:...
80  E: but=
81  A: =so we amend this through the

A agrees with E in line 79 and interrupts E with a proposed outcome in line 82, her louder voice at this point expressing her excitement, in accelerator roles, as she first confirms and then reveals discreet shudoken role as she seeks to bring the discussion to a completion.

**J’s contribution**

J speaks less frequently than the other participants and mostly assumes the DH and DM decelerator participant roles, rarely assuming the AS role and never assuming the AK role. He seldom contributes to the management of the talk, making only limited
interventions in Phases 2, 4 and 6. A typical contribution occurs when all the participants make spontaneous proposals in the second phase, and J raises an issue (line 53) and then provides a new idea (line 59), to which E and A respond in kaisetsu-sha roles, allowing the discussion to move on to the next phase:

53 J: [probably uh the Grand Council could be an old pals act (...) something
54 E: yeah
55 J: with er (...) the Parliament might be more uh general or
56 E: yeah
57 (3.5
58 N: so
59 J: cos th- all the Council choose the President don't they
60 A: yeah and they draw up the constitu[-tion

Similarly, in the third phase, J’s utterance in line 100 brings to an end N and E’s argument about the Queen’s constitutional power:

89 E: that's what the Queen does though she can always say no I don't agree
90 : [with that but she never does
91 N: [Queen doesn't do anything
92 E: no no she's got the power to though [so if she
93 N: [yes but she
94 E: just k-
95 (1.5
96 E: hhh
97 N: no but she [doesn't DO anything
98 E: [hhh
99 E: no but she CAN if you want her to
100 J: if she wasn't really interested in the idea then they could step in
101 (2.0

His utterance develops the idea being discussed, which confirms his hatten-yaku role. A further typical contribution occurs in the fifth phase when J’s utterance (lines 166-167)
again defuses E and N’s disagreement and enables the discussion to proceed, again confirming his hatten-yaku role.

159 E: well we're right you're wrong
160 A: yeah there we go
161 N: hey
162 E: <laughs>
163 N: it has to be unanimous
164 E: or .. oh yeah .. oh well be here for ever then
165 <laughter>
166 J: would we want Freedonia to be run like our country is would they like it if
167 : they don't like our country

We therefore conclude that

- N often plays AS and AK roles and contributes to talk management throughout the discussion, functioning as a quasi chair and assuming a shudoken role.

- E sets the task up, thereby ensuring that the discussion can proceed smoothly, and often justifies other contributions and raises issues or questions in order to clarify the viewpoints of other participants, thus confirming her scene-setter role and kaisetsu-sha and mondai-teiki roles.

- A assumes each of the four talk content roles and seldom takes on on-record management roles, preferring confirmer and completer roles and a discreet shudoken role.

- J assumes a hatten-yaku role at crucial points in the discussion. He often stops arguments going horizontally and restores the vertical trajectory of the discussion.
7.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, we focused on the English group discussion data and investigated the organizational characteristics of English discussion. We firstly set up two superordinate categories: ‘talk-content’ for participant roles as revealed in the Japanese discussion, i.e. **Shudoken** (initiator), **Hatten-yaku** (developer), **Kaisetsu-sha** (rationaliser/explainer) and **Shitumon-yaku** (perspective seeking questioner), and ‘talk-management’ for the management roles evident in the English discussion, i.e. [+R],+[E], [+R],-[E], [-R],+[E] and [-R],-[E]. That is because the data showed that Japanese talk was essentially content oriented whilst English talk was also notably management oriented. We then demonstrated how the appropriate contributions were allocated to talk content and management categories and discussed the difficulties of the contribution allocation, including some cases submitted to raters. We next examined some of the differences between Japanese and English talk organization from the perspective of the default settings for contributions in talk and for the overall trajectory of discussion, noting that in Japanese talk, the ‘next’ turn is determined by the previous speaker, and indicated by the ‘first’ speaker’s uses of the n(o) da construction, copulas and SFPs. On the other hand, in English talk, each speaker tells an addressee how it relates to what has been said in the previous utterance.
As for the trajectory of discussion, Japanese discussion exhibits a predominantly start-to-finish trajectory, whereas the English discussion progresses not only in a vertical way but also horizontally, that is, one turn may spark an extended consequential discussion of its own before the talk returns to the next ‘vertical’ phase. Another difference that the trajectory of discussion reveals is that a Japanese speaker tends to work consistently in role with roles assigned from the beginning to the end of a discussion, whilst an English speaker tends to assume various roles at different points.

Finally, we determined participant roles for four speakers, N, E, A and J; N functions a quasi chair and assumes a *shudoken* role as he often plays AS and AK roles and manages the talk throughout the discussion, E assumes a scene-setter role as she sets the task up and enables participants to make their contributions in an orderly way and also reveals *kaisetsu-sha* and *mondai-teiki* roles as she often justifies other contributions and raises issues or questions, A assumes confirmer and completer roles and also a discreet *shudoken* role, and J often stops arguments going horizontally and brings the discussion back to the vertical trajectory, which confirms his *hattan-yaku* role.

In the following chapter, we will consider the possible cross-cultural implications of this study.
CHAPTER 8

Cross-cultural Communication

8. Introduction

Although the principal purpose of this thesis is to understand how Japanese speakers use the *n(o) da* construction in talk, it is also worth briefly considering the possible cross-cultural implications of this study. In order to do this, the researcher will work with the highly reductionist categories postulated in the social psychology literature where notions such as *Collectivism / Individualism* and *Power Distance* are commonly used to describe cultural dimensions. Working with both notions, we will consider the different ways in which Japanese and English participants achieve a consensus in a decision-making task.

8.1 Framework: Power distance, collectivism and individualism

four dimensions of national culture: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Collectivism and Individualism, and Masculinity and Femininity. This chapter will explore the extent to which the notions of power distance, collectivism and individualism can be related to the different characteristics of Japanese and English talk organization identified in previous chapters.

For Hofstede the power distance dimension reflects ‘the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally’ (2001: 98). Collectivism describes the social phenomenon in which people are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which protect them in exchange for their unquestioning loyalty, and Individualism describes the social phenomenon in which the ties between individuals are loose, so that everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family only (2001: 225). He categories Japan as a ‘large power distance collectivistic’ culture and UK as a ‘small power distance individualistic’ culture.

According to Triandis (1995), in an individualist society, individuals are linked loosely, are primarily motivated by their own preferences, needs, rights, and the contracts they have established with others, and give priority to their personal goals over the goals of others. Individualists are trained to be frank and to ‘tell it as it is’. In a collectivist
society, on the other hand, individuals are linked closely in one or more collectives, such as family, co-workers, tribe and nation, and are willing to give priority to the goals of other members over their own personal goals. Harmony in social relations is often expected in collectivist cultures, with many researchers (e.g., Reischauer 1977, Barnlund 1989, Wierzbicka 1991 *inter alia*) identifying 和 ‘harmony, peace and unity’ as one of the most important social values of Japanese society.

### 8.2 Japanese and English talk organization

 According to previous cross-cultural studies (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars 2000, Hofstede 1980, 1994, 2001, Lewis 1996, Triandis 1993, Trompenaars 1993, etc.), one of the outstanding differences between Japanese and English cultures is that the Japanese participants work more collaboratively and in more collective ways, whereas the English work more independently and in more individualistic ways. The group discussion data analysed in Chapters 6 and 7 certainly show that a single speaker maintains the same participant role throughout the discussion in Japanese. This seems to make it easier to work collaboratively and to avoid a conflict of opinions. In the English data, each participant assumes different participant and management roles at different stages in the discussion. The data clearly reveal that the Japanese participants have a
tendency to co-construct understanding, which indicates a low individualism culture, whereas collaborative co-construction of understanding is rare in the English discussion data. The following examples from the Japanese group discussion data show how participants co-construct talk and how a speaker’s *n(o) da* construction preferences enable this collective collaboration.

In the phase of the discussion reproduced below, the three speakers, M, T and Y jointly construct an understanding:

87T: [kokumin ga sono shu goto ni
people S the state each in

88: Repa- Repabli- kyowa-to ka (minshu-to ka= Republican-party or Democratic-party or

89Y: [un un so so. yes yes so so

90T: =[erande, elect

91Y: [erande, elect

92T: sok-kara (0.3)
that-from

93Y: sono
the

94M: sore o zenbu atsumete,
that O all gather

95Y: daihyo
representative

96M: un.
uh-huh

97T: de sono daihyo ga senkyosuru so? (.) dsitoryo o. then that representative S elect Nom president O

87T: 'The people, in each state, (elect)
88: the Rep- Republi- Republican Party or [the Democratic Party,'=
89Y: "Yes, yes, that's right."
90T: "[elect,'"'
91Y: ['elect, and then'
92T: 'from the party (0.3)'
93Y: 'the'
94M: 'gather all of them, and then'
95Y: 'representatives'
Although T mainly provides the propositional framework, M and Y contribute key words, as a means of co-constructing their understanding.

After this, U breaks his silence and starts to explain the presidential system. While he is explaining, he invites T and M to provide aizuchi by using 'nominalizer wake + copula jan' and 'copula desho' constructions, confirming another collective way of discussion, that is, one speaker explains and involves others by inviting aizuchi:

96M: ‘uh-huh.’
97T: ‘then do the representatives elect no? a president.’

98U: daihyo no kazu ga ite, California shu datta-ra nanka 9-nin toka ite= representative of number S there-are state Cop-if PT 9-people etc say
99T: =un.
100U: de California de docchi ka ga katta-ra sono 9-nin wa then in which Q S win-if that 9-people T
101M: un.
102U: nantoka tou no hoo ni iku wake jan.
    something party of side to go Nom Cop-Neg
103T: un un un un un.
    yes yes yes yes yes
104U: de Washington de ano: hoka no betsu no tou ni then in um other of other of party in
105: tatoeba hitori da to shite de katsu to suru jan. demo (.). 9:1 desho.= for-example alone Cop QT do then win QT do Cop-Neg but Cop
106T: un.
    yes
107U: =[tte koto wa 9-nin katsu kara socchi no tou no daihyo no QT thing T 9-people win because that of party of representative of
108: hito ga tatoeba Bush-san tte hito datta-ra [Bush-san ga daitoryo ni-natte person S for-example Bush-Mr. QT person Cop-if Bush-Mr. S president become
109T: [un un un un a sokka sokka.= yes yes yes yes ah I-see
110U: tte kanji.
    QT like

98U: ‘There are representatives, in case of California, 9 people for example,’=
99T: ‘Uh-huh.’
100U: ‘then in California, if either party wins /those 9 people’
101M: ‘Uh-huh.’
102U: ‘will go to the whichever party/ isn’t that so wake jan.’
'Yes, yes, yes, yes, yes.'

Then in Washington, um, for example supposing one person is in the other party and wins. But it's 9:1, isn't it (desho).'

'Uh-huh.'

That means because 9 people will win, the representative of the party, for example, Mr. Bush will be a president and'

'Yes, yes, yes, yes, ah I see.'

'something like that.'

Although Y does not join in the co-construction of understanding shown above, he is invited by U to confirm whether U's explanation of the American presidency is right or not in line 113, as a means of confirming their collective style of discussion, which is designed to ensure that all participants are involved in the ongoing discussion:

'I'm right, am I not (=da yone).' 'Yes.'

After U's explanation and laughter, all four discussants again construct the talk together in their collective attempt to understand the American presidency correctly.
T: un un
  yes yes
M: [daihyo
representative
Y: [koohosha
candidate
M: un.
  uh-huh
Y: o erabu koto ni naru kara [ne.
  O elect Nom in become because FP
T: [un un.
  yes yes

6: <laughs>
T: ‘Then, /the people get to choose [anyway/ no ka.’=’
Y: ['Anyway, that’s the way it works.'=]
T: =’Yes.’=
Y: =’Well, but /they can’t choose who’s going to be a president/ n da yone.’
6: ['That’s right da ne.’
Y: ['Yes, because each party chooses’
T: ‘Yes, yes, yes, yes.’
Y: ‘Yes, yes.’
M: ['representatives’
Y: ['candidates’
M: ‘Uh-huh.’
Y: ‘are going to get elected [ne.’
T: ['Yes, yes.’

Here, T uses the n(o) da construction, i.e. no ka in line 116, in order to invite others to comment on and preferably confirm the reifiable status of the proposition, and n da yone in line 119, in order to invite others to accept her formulation as such and provide an assumptive response. Y mainly responds with propositional content, and U and M agree and provide aizuchi. Viewed in this light, Japanese discussants have a tendency to co-construct understanding with speakers making use of the n(o) da construction, copulas and SFPs and addressee’s providing aizuchi and contributions provoked by use of these constructions.

Following this, T again confirms their understanding and Y’s supportive
confirmation and T and M's agreement follow. This supports the claim that the Japanese
discussant groups go over each point many times in detail to make sure there are no
misunderstandings (Lewis 1996: 42):

129.T: dakara yappa soo iu imi de wa kansetsuteki da yo[ne.
       so I-think so say meaning in T indirect Cop FP
130.U: [un un. yes yes
131.Y: demo nihon ni kurabe-reba choku{setsuteki da yone.
       but Japan to compare-if direct Cop FP
132.T: [un un [un un un.
       yes yes yes yes yes yes yes yes
133.M: [u:n.
       yes

129.T: 'So, in that sense, I think that's 'indirectly elected' da yo[ne.'
130.U: ['Yes, yes.'
131.Y: 'But it's [direct if it's compared to the Japanese system da yone'
133.M: ['Yeah."

Here, both T and Y use copula da + yone in expectation that they simply receive aizuchi
or agreement that the assertion of the proposition is of sufficient interest to provoke an
inferentially related response, with U expressing his agreement with T's summary and T
and M expressing agreement with Y's, so that all the participants collectively contribute
to the final agreed understanding and express their acceptance of it.

In contrast, in the following extract taken from English data, N and E have an
argument as to whether the Queen exercises real power in UK, in which their individual
way of discussion is confirmed:

89 E: that's what the Queen does though she can always say no I don't agree
90 : [with that but she never does
91 N: [Queen doesn't do anything
Unlike the participants who talk about the American presidential system collaboratively in the Japanese group discussion, N and E each provide their own opinions about the Queen’s power and make direct objections to each other’s positions. The difference between the two approaches is very striking.

We also see striking differences in the concluding phases of the discussions. After the discussion leading up to the collective agreement at 133, U puts forward an idea with an uncertainty marker *no ka* (line 141).

```
140U: demo kokumin ni-yotLe tte omoshirokunai? hh
     but people by QT* interesting-not
141: doo na no ka wakannai kedo,
     how Cop Nom Q know-not although
142T:    {u:n.
     yeah
143U: so iu seido ga atta-ra () sugoi taihen kamoshirenai kedo omoshiroi.=
     so say system S there-is-if very hard might but interesting
140U: ’But isn’t it interesting if a president is elected by the people? hh
141: I don’t know /how it is/ no ka [though,’
142T:    ’Yeah.’
143U: ’It might be very hard if the country has that kind of system, but it is interesting.’-
```

Following U’s use of *no ka*, which invites addressees to comment on or preferably
confirm the reified proposition, the other discussants express their agreement.

144Y: ="un".=
yes
145T: ="ne".=
FP
146M: =ii n janai? hoka no kuni de yatte-nai kara koko de hajimete,
good Nom Cop-Neg other of country in do-not because here in start
144Y: ="Yes."=
145T: ="I think so too (ne)."=
146M: ="That’s good, isn’t it n (janai)? We can start it as other countries don’t"

Particularly, M comments on U’s utterance and uses n janai? in line 146, which invites an addressee to confirm the truth of the reified proposition. She, then, adds a further comment, followed by n janai desu ka?:

151M: =[chotto tameshitemiru no mo ii n janai desu ka? <laughs>small experiment Nom also good Nom Cop Cop Q
151M: =[\"Small experiment would be good/, would it not n (janai desu) ka?\" <laughs>

After this, the participants discuss why they think it is good if a president is selected by the people and finally reach a collective conclusion. The data show that speakers make elaborate use of the n(o) da construction together with copulas and SFPs in order to involve all the participants in a collectively achieved consensus, thus confirming their collaborative style of decision-making.

By way of contrast, when the English speaking participants bring their discussion to a conclusion, they confirm with each that no one objects, conceding indirectly and very revealingly, that one or the participants has been ‘bullied’ into agreeing the final decision and that a grudging agreement is ‘fine’.

319
Lewis (1996) also claims that Japan belongs to the group of what he terms reactive and listening cultures. Once again it is striking that in Chapter 6 it was necessary to examine the Japanese data from both active and reactive perspectives in order to characterize the participant roles of all four discussants, whereas it turned out to be difficult to separate utterances into active and reactive categories in the English data. Lewis argues that in reactive cultures the preferred mode of communication is ‘monologue – pause – reflection – monologue’ although in other cultures the communication mode is ‘dialogue’.

The Japanese data investigated in this study also reveal that a single speaker frequently retains the floor over several turns, in a style that might be regarded as monologic, whereas the English speakers tend to retain the floor for a single turn in an obviously dialogic style. The sequence from line 24 to 64 summarized below is a typical case which
might be taken to support the claim that Japan is a reactive culture and that listening is an important discussion strategy:

Lines 24-39  *Y's monologue*: Y explains the point which they will have to discuss and the other discussants provide *aizuchi*.

Line 41  4.0-second *pause*  

Lines 42-3  *Reflection by M*: After a long pause, M opens the discussion by raising an issue.

Lines 51-64  *M's monologue*: M makes proposals relating to the question raised in lines 42-43, using various combinations of nominalizer, copula and SFPs which invite the other discussants to contribute *aizuchi*.

(See Appendix 3)

The total length of discussion is of some interest. The length of the recording of the English group discussion amounts to 45 minutes, as against the 75-minutes it took the Japanese group to complete their discussion. Trompenaars (1993: 57) points out that collectivist decision-making typically takes much longer and that there are sustained efforts to win over everyone to achieve consensus. That is because voting down the dissenters, as often happens in English-speaking cultures, is not willingly accepted, so that members should have detailed consultations with all those concerned under the pressure to agree collective goals. He also indicates that an individualist society, with its respect for individual opinions, will frequently ask for a vote to get all noses pointing in
the same direction (1993: 58). In the English data, one speaker, N, does indeed invite the
other discussants to vote in line 106 as follows:

106N: so: how- let's just go around and say like (. ) who thinks what
107A: I say the Grand Council and the President
108N: right
109 (1.0)
110J: I say ( .) the Parliament
111 (1.5)
112J: hm
113 (0.5)
114N: right

There was no attempt to take a vote in the Japanese data, and intuitively, voting seldom
occurs in Japanese discussion in general, as this is considered disrespectful to individuals
who are against the majority decision.

Finally, arguments of this kind about the relationship of language and culture raise,
indirectly at least, the question of linguistic relativity. In 'Thinking for speaking', Slobin
(1996) argues that the available structures of a language provide a speaker with the
possibility of representing only some aspects of a conceptualization. Equally, the
structures available to the speaker of a particular language make it very difficult or
impossible for that speaker to represent the aspects of a conceptualization that may be
readily represented in some other language. Slobin calls this phenomenon thinking for
speaking because those aspects of a conceptualization, thinking, that we able to convey
are constrained by the structures available to us for speaking in own particular language.
Slobin illustrates this phenomenon with data from a range of languages, including a detailed discussion of the path / manner structural affordances of English, Hebrew and Spanish. An issue not explored by Slobin is whether what might be called *thinking for interacting* is also a reality. In as far as this thesis has shown that the *n(o) da* construction and the sequential functions that it enables allow interaction in Japanese of a kind not available in English, we might be tempted to hypothesize the same kind of link between *thinking* and *interacting* as Slobin demonstrates between *thinking* and *speaking*.

### 8.3 Conclusion

This brief chapter has considered the possible cross-cultural implications of this study from what the researcher admits has been a highly reductionist position. Nevertheless, as many linguists have claimed in cross-cultural studies, this study too supports that Japanese speakers work more collaboratively whereas English speakers work more independently in discussion. It seems clear that the *n(o) da* construction enables collective decision making and that a speaker’s choice of combinations of nominalizer, copulas and SFPs and addressee’s reactive utterances contribute significantly to Japanese talk organization, and particularly to the co-construction of understanding in talk characteristic of a *reactive and listening* culture.
CHAPTER 9

Conclusions and Implications

9. Introduction

This final chapter completes the present study and consists of a summary of the investigation, considerations of its distinctiveness and some of the implications that arise in relation to broader issues and an acknowledgement of its limitations which lead to suggestions for further research.

9.1 Summary of the present study

This study focused on the \textit{n(o) da} construction used in naturally occurring talk-in-interaction and examined how it affected the trajectory of conversation. Whereas most earlier studies have been syntax-oriented, sentence-level analyses of the construction, the present study investigated the construction in real world talk-in-interaction, examining its pragmatic properties and sequential functions in
naturally occurring conversation and in group discussion. As well revealing the importance of the \textit{n(0) da} construction in talk-in-interaction, this study had two further purposes: to investigate the relationship between participant roles in discussion and \textit{n(0) da} construction preferences, and to consider the differences between Japanese and English talk organization by examining the different ways in which discussants accomplished a decision-making task in languages with very different pragmatic affordances.

**Chapter Two** reviewed the most significant previous studies and clarified the meaning and function of \textit{no} from both historical and ontological perspectives, arguing that the function of \textit{no} as a nominalizer is to convey third order propositionality, and that in the \textit{n(0) da} construction, following Maynard, \textit{da} foregrounds speakerhood. The \textit{n(0) da} expression as a whole makes it possible for a speaker to treat states and events as reified and to assert or question the extent to which he considers their propositional status justified.

**Chapter Three** analysed a naturally occurring conversation involving two Japanese native speakers. The purpose of this chapter was to investigate how the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of the various combinations of nominalizers, copulas and SFPs contribute to everyday talk-in-interaction, in which
there were relatively few constraints on participants, setting and topic of conversation.

Following **Chapter Four**, in which methodological issues were discussed, **Chapter Five** tabulated the pragmatic properties and sequential functions of all the \( n(o) \) \( da \) and related constructions found in the data.

**Chapter Six** examined Japanese group discussion data involving a goal-oriented decision-making task. The researcher demonstrated the relationship between participant roles and construction preferences by analysing both the ‘active’ and ‘reactive’ utterances provided by four Japanese native discussants. The active utterances were allocated to one of four different categories based on positive and negative values of two distinctive features, [R] (reification) and [C] (degree of certainty), capturing four participant roles, *shudoken, kaisetsu-sha, hatten-yaku* and *shitsumon-yaku*. We also demonstrated that a single participant can take one or more roles and that two participants can adopt the same role.

**Chapter Seven** then examined English group discussion data arising from the same decision-making task. It was found that both talk-content and talk-management roles needed to be identified to account adequately for the relevant data and to explain the differences in talk between Japanese and English from a comparative perspective. It turns out that
1) in Japanese talk, the degree of candidacy / acceptability of a proposition is of prime importance (its \( R \) value) with speakers also having the option of encoding the extent to which they subscribe to this \( R \) value (its \( C \) value), whilst in English talk \( R \) is not a relevant category and the \( C \)-value of a proposition is relatively more important.

2) in Japanese talk, the nature of the ‘next’ turn is determined by the previous speaker, and indicated by the ‘first’ speaker’s uses of the \( n(o) da \) construction, copulas and SFPs, whereas in English talk, each speaker tells an addressee how it relates to what has been said in the previous utterance.

3) Japanese discussion exhibits a predominantly start-to-finish trajectory, whereas English discussion progresses not only in a vertical way but also horizontally.

4) a Japanese speaker tends to work consistently in role with roles assigned from the beginning to the end of a discussion, whilst an English speaker tends to assume various roles at different points.

Finally, Chapter Eight discussed the differences of discussion organization in Japanese and English from a cross-cultural perspective.

9.2 Distinctiveness of the present study from earlier studies

The researcher considers that there are at least five respects in which the present
study is distinctive when compared with previous studies.

First of all, this study considered not only the pragmatic properties but also the **sequential functions of the n(o) da construction**. Some previous studies have investigated the meaning and function of each of no and da in the n(o) da construction and others have focused on the n(o) da expression as a whole, typically treating it as a discourse marker. In contrast, this study investigated not only no, da and no + da but also combinations of the nominalizers no and wake with copulas and SFPs so as to identify not only their pragmatic properties but also their sequential functions.

Secondly, and following on from the previous point, this study extended the area of analysis of the n(o) da construction to **talk-in-interaction**. In earlier studies, most linguists have focused on the n(o) da construction in writing and considered its meaning and function at sentence level, i.e. by comparing a proposition with and without the construction from a syntax-oriented perspective. In contrast, this study examines how the construction is related to the development of naturally occurring talk-in-interaction and its outcome directed orientation at a discourse level. The micro level analysis undertaken in this study shows that the n(o) da construction has both pragmatic properties and sequential functions and that its consequentiality-oriented function has a significant effect on Japanese talk organization.
Thirdly, most previous studies have either made use of invented examples or have extracted examples of the n(o) da construction from works of fiction and used them to support rationalistic accounts of the construction. Put simply, previous studies propose theoretical functions for the n(o) da construction and then either invent or cite examples from literature to support the researcher’s own theoretical claims. The present study used naturally occurring talk-in-interaction data, which was examined from an empirical perspective. This is because the way language used in the real world turns out to be a good deal more complicated than we think, not least because it is influenced by social, cognitive and psychological factors. For this reason, the present study was interested in the actual occurrence of the n(o) da construction together with SFPs in everyday talk, rather than in hypothetical examples which reflect only how we think it is used. Thus in this study, the data collected and analysed in Chapters 3, 6 and 7 are not illustrations of pragmatic meanings and sequential functions whose existence was hypothesized, but rather an empirical data set from which the existence of pragmatic properties and sequential functions particular to Japanese was inferred.

Fourthly, the present study used group discussion data. As far as the researcher knows, the present study is the first attempt to analyse the use of the n(o) da construction in discussion and associate it with participant roles. The reason why group
discussion was selected for analysis in this study is that participants choose nominalizers, copulas and SFPs to assume roles in ‘goal-oriented’ discussion.

Lastly, this study considered the possible cross-cultural implications of the availability of the $n(o)$ da construction in Japanese. Although many linguists conducting cross-cultural studies have been interested in the characteristics of Japanese talk organization, surprisingly there seem to be no studies which investigate the $n(o)$ da construction from a cross-cultural perspective by comparing the characteristics of Japanese and, in this case, English talk organization. As many linguists have claimed in cross-cultural studies investigating phenomena other than the $n(o)$ da construction, this study supports the finding that Japanese speakers work more collaboratively whereas English speakers work more independently in discussion. This study successfully accounted for the differences in talk organization between Japanese and English by examining the default settings for contributions in talk and for the trajectory of discussion; in particular, it revealed that the $n(o)$ da construction enables collective decision making and that a speaker’s choice of combinations of nominalizer, copulas and SFPs together with an addressee’s reactive utterances contribute significantly to Japanese talk organization, and particularly to the co-construction of understanding in talk characteristic of a reactive and listening culture.
9.3 Implications in relation to the broader issues and further directions

This final section considers how the findings of this study can contribute to broader issues in CA, pragmatics and TJFL (Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language) than those directly explored in the study itself.

The present study reveals what people do with the turns that fall to them in Japanese talk-in-interaction, and specifically how a speaker chooses turn-final combinations of nominalizer, copula and SFPs to express his attitude to propositions and, at the same time, to provide the addressee with an explicit indication of how she is expected to respond in the next turn. In the CA framework, researchers have been generally interested in how people manage turn-taking phenomena such as gaps, overlaps and repair; they have much less frequently investigated what people do with turn-taking from a strategic or pragmatic position, perhaps because CA proceeds essentially algorithmically and tends to discount the role of psychological motivation. In addition, much of the existing CA literature is in English and is about talk in English, a language in which speakers do not explicitly indicate at the end of a turn what kind of response is expected in the next turn, being satisfied merely to indicate how a proposition relates to what has been said in the previous utterance, as discussed in Chapter 7. By showing a Japanese view of interaction, this study may prompt studies of
how speakers seek to control next turns in languages other than English. In addition, this study has implications for the study of pragmatics because it shows that pragmatic properties and sequential functions are often interrelated, so that both should be studied together in order to fully understand each.

This study also has some implications for TJFL. It is said that the *n(o) da* construction is one of the most difficult for teachers of Japanese to explain and for learners to use properly. That is probably because TJFL textbooks mostly rely on isolated sentences to illustrate the use of the construction. Although the importance of communicative ability has been promoted in the last few decades in TJFL, the focus of instruction is still mostly on language at sentence level. This study thus contributes to TJFL in accounting for how Japanese speakers use various combinations of the *n(o) da* construction together with copulas and SFPs in naturally occurring talk-in-interaction, and draws teachers’ attention to the importance of pragmatic meanings and sequential effects as well as their relationship to participant roles in discussion. These findings seem to be immediately applicable to TJFL, particularly in a more communicative methodology.

Last of all, several factors which have limited the scope of this study should be mentioned. First, this was a qualitative study so that although the conversational data
was sufficient for an analysis of the kind undertaken here, the total number of active and reactive utterances studied was quite small. A similar study in the future but involving a greater number of utterances could usefully test the extent to which the relationship between participant roles and construction preferences revealed in this study occur more widely.

Second, the type of data was limited. The present study did not include Japanese native speakers talk in formal situations. Furthermore, although the number of female and male speakers in both naturally occurring talk-interaction and group discussion data was balanced, this study did not investigate the possibility of gender differences in the use of the *n(o) da* construction. Studies that include more social variables such as formal vs. informal context as well as age and gender need to be conducted, and may quite possibly reveal variable related functions of the *n(o) da* construction in talk, with implications for wider Japanese talk organization.

Third, although this study examined the construction uses in two talk types, i.e. in everyday talk-in-interaction and in group discussion involving a decision-making task, it would be desirable to examine the use of the construction in a wider range of talk types.

Despite these limitations, the researcher hopes she has been able to shed light on
the use of the \(n(o)\ da\) construction in naturally occurring talk.
APPENDIX 1

Japanese Naturally-occurring Conversational Data

Example: Trouble talk (Term assignment)

1Y: watashi wa sono: Toshi-san kara goyouron no hon o misete-moratte,
I T well Toshi from pragmatics of book 0 show
2T: un.
uh-huh
3Y: daitai no gainen (0.2) wa
rough LK idea T
4T: un.
uh-huh
5Y: wakatte-mo, ano:
understand-but well
6 (2.0)
7Y: dooju, sono: kekkyoku eigo no bunsho o mottekonai to,
how well finally English LK book 0 get otherwise
8 : .h 1500 UMANNAI janai.
write-cannot tag
9 (0.3)
10T: un.
uh-huh
11Y: dakara ne sore ga nanka toshokan ni aru kana: to omotta n da.
so IP that S something library at there-is FF QT thought Nom Cop
12T: mou kari-rarechatta-ra owari da yone.=-
yet borrow-be-if end Cop FF
13Y: =kari-rarechatta-ra owari.
borrow-be-if end

<English Gloss>

1Y: 'You showed me a Pragmatics book and,'
2T: 'Uh-huh.'
3Y: 'I got a rough idea'
4T: 'Uh-huh.'
5Y: 'but, well'
6 (2.0)
7Y: 'I need an English book, otherwise
8 : .h I can’t write 1500 words, can I (janai).'
9 (0.3)
10T: 'Un-huh.'
11Y: 'So, /I was thinking there could be something in the library/ n da.'
12T: 'If everything’s on loan, you’ve had it (=You’ve got a problem) da yone.'=
13Y: = 'If everything’s on loan, I’ve got a problem.'
Extract 1: Lunchtime talk

1Y: a, soshitara sa, zenzen hanashi chigau n da kedo, .h konaïda hora
  then IP at-all story different Nom Cop although recently IP
2 : Tanaka-san to Akiko-san to de o-hiru [tabe ni itta janaï?
  Tanaka-Ms and Akiko and with lunch eat went tag
3T: [un.
  yeah
4Y: Toshi-san ga do=-
  Toshi S
5T: =un.=
  uh-huh
6Y: =Jera to itta toki-ni=
  Jera with went when
7T: =un.=
  uh-huh
8Y: =ano toki ni ne, ano: Tanaka-san ga ne,
  that time at IP um Tanaka-Ms S IP
9 : Alan no nihon-go tte okashi ne tte itta no.=
  Alan of Japanese-language T strange FP QT said Nom
10T: =un.
  uh-huh
11Y: de, .h u: a: un, demo, kare wa sugoi sono, nan te iu, kaisha, sono
  then well but he T very um what QT say company um
12 : 'sarari:man o yat-teita yoone nihon-go da yone' tte itta-raba,
  salary-man O done-has like Japanese-language Cop FP QT said-then
13 : .h 'un, na n da kedo ne', nanka ne, kanojo ga iu ni wa,
  yeah Cop Nom Cop although IP something IP she S say in T
14 : are dake ne sono: koo, (0.5) bunpooteki-ni ba: tto seikaku-ni
  that much IP um this grammatically Ono QT precisely
15 : shabetteoki-nagara, ikinari ano hora [senshu mo
  speak-but suddenly um remember last-week also
16T: [gobi ga
  ending S
17Y: ano:, so, 'so na no kashira', toka ne=
  um so Cop Nom (I)wonder and-so-on IP
18T: =un.
  uh-huh
19Y: onna-kotoba ni-nattari ne, aruiwa sono: zenen, nan-chu no,
  women-language became IP or well at-all what-say Nom
20 : nihon-go ni nai (0.8) sono kobun de hanashi-suru (.t) tte,
  Japanese-language in no IP um structure with speak QT
21 : nande ne kare gurai hana-suru hito ga aa-iu machigai o
  why IP he about speak-can person S that-like mistake O
22 : okasu no ka ne, fushigi da tte itteta,
  make Nom Q IP wonder Cop QT said
23 : a kono hito yappa gengogaku suki-na dake-atte
  ah this person I-thought linguistics favorite because
24T: <laughs>
25Y: chotto miteru kanten ga chigau na to omotta no.
  a-little see point S different FP QT thought Nom
26T: a: ah
27Y: un. .h tada ne watashi, sore o kiite gyaku-ni omotta no wa (1.0)
  yeah but IP I that O hear contrary thought Nom T
28 : tateoba ne, Emily to Alan ga watashi ga hanashi-teiru eigo o kiite
  for-example IP and S I S speak English O listen
29 : .h aru-tokoro made wa atteru, totsuzen gaku tto .h machigaeru to
  that-point to T right suddenly Ono QT make-mistake then
30 : a: yappa aa-yatte omou no ka-na to omotte ne.=
  ah I-think so think Nom FP QT thought FP
31T: =sorya omou n darou ne.
  (they)think Nom Cop FP
1Y: 'By the way, I have a completely different story though (kedo) n da,
2: .h recently I [had lunch with Ms. Tanaka and Akiko, didn’t I (janai)?’
3T: ['Yeah.’
4Y: 'When you’=
5T: = 'Uh-huh.’
6Y: 'went with Jera’=
7T: = 'Uh-huh.’=
8-9Y: = 'At that time, um, /Ms. Tanaka said that Alan’s Japanese is strange/ no.’=
10T: = 'Uh-huh.’
11-2Y: 'Then, .h well, but his Japanese is, I mean, like that used in a company
um, I said 'we can tell from his Japanese that he used to be an office
worker yone’,’
13Y: '.h then (she said) 'Yeah, /it is/ n da but (kedo)’, according to her,
14 = his grammar is perfect, but
15: he suddenly says, do you recall, [last week,’
16T: ['Yes, the way he ended his sentence,’
17Y: 'I wonder (no kashira)’ and so on,’=
18T: = 'Uh-huh.’
19Y: 'women’s language, or /I mean/ no,
20 = ungrammatical sentences,
21-2: she said she wondered (no ka) ne /why Alan made such mistakes
although he could speak Japanese frequently/,
23 = /I thought because she likes linguistics,’
24T: <laughs>
25Y: 'she sees his Japanese from a different perspective/ no.’
26T: ‘Ah.’
27Y: 'Yeah .h But, when I heard that, the thing I thought was (1.0)
28 = for example, when Emily and Alan hear me speaking English,
29 = it has been right up to a certain point, but suddenly I make a mistake,
30 = then ah /I guess /they think as Tanaka thought/ no ka-na/² ne.’=
31T: = 'Yeah, /maybe they do/ n darou ne.’

¹ This slash indicates the scope of ne.
Extract 2: A problem of translation

1T: kami ni (0.8), suggest tte iu toki no tsukai-kata wa paper in suggest QT say when Gen use-how to T
2: doui-toki-ni suggest tte tsukau n darou.
what kind of time in suggest QT use Nom Cop
3 (0.2)
4Y: un.
uh-huh
5T: dai-DAita nihon-go da to teian-suru [toka desho?]
generally Japanese-language Cop QT suggest and-so-on Tag
6Y: (UN Un un un un un un yes yes yes yes
7T: dakedo, DO:-DO kangaetemo sono bunsho da to teian-suru (.) tte iu
but how (I)-think that context Cop QT suggest QT say
8: yonna .h imi demaNE= like meaning Cop-Neg Nom FP
9Y: =un= uh-huh
10T: =ma, HONOMEKAsu tte iu imi mo (.) ma aru ni-shite-mo,=
well imply QT say meaning also well there-is anyway-but
11Y: =un= uh-huh
12T: nande show janakute suggest na n darou.
why show Cop-Neg suggest Cop Nom Cop
13 (0.4)
14Y: ha:= yeah
15T: =tatoeba ano so kono-koto-ga-shimesu-yoni tte iu toki-ni,
for-example um yes this thing show-as QT say when
16 : nande hhh ano show janakute suggest o tsukatta n darou ka.-
for-some-reason um show Cop-Neg suggest Q use Past Nom Cop Q
17Y: =un (1.5) show wa karada de yeah show T body with
18 (1.2)
19T: iya, boku wa zu na no ka-na tte iu: kanji-mo-shita wake ne.
no I T figure Cop Nom Q-FP QT say feel-also Past Nom FP
20Y: A:::, .h dakara sa, watashi-tachi tte sa:, sooyatte sa jisho: no yeah so IP we T IP like that IP dictionary Gen
21 : nihon-go yaku bakkari dakara sa, .h ano:, honto-no
Japanese-language translation just because IP umm real
22 : kankaku tte iu no ga wakan-nai yone .h dakara, hora, watashi ga sa intuition QT say Nom S know-not FP so IP I S IP
23 : Lisa ga kono toki wa explain wa tsuka-e-nai n da, tte , .h nande da Lisa S this case T explain T use-cannot Nom Cop QT why Cop
24 : tte kii-ta-ra sore wa setsumei dekinai kedo kono toki wa QT (I)-asked-then that T (she)-explain cannot although this case T
25 : dame na n da tte [itta= impossible Cop Nom Cop QT (she)-say Past
26T: =<laughs>
27Y: =.hh ano KANKAKU GA (.). yappari (.). watashi: mo hoshii n da yone.
the intuition S (I)-think I also want Nom Cop FP
28T: m: demo sore tte doo na n darou ne. tatoeba (2.0) dokoma-, demo well but how Cop Nom Cop FP for-example how much but
29 : s-sono hito ga DOKOMade kotoba ni:() [kodawatteru ka tte: ku: the person S how much word to pay-attention Q QT say FP
30 : da ne.=
Cop FP
31Y: [un binkan na no ka, ka ne.
mm sensitive Cop Nom FP FP FP
32T: =tatoeba conceal to [hide toka mo ne, for-example conceal and hide and-so-on also IP
33Y: (a, demo ne, are da tte yo, akumade ne oh but IP that Cop QT FP doubtless IP
34: sore wa ne:: .h ano: eigo no joshiki to-shite tte itteta yo. it T IPS um English Gen common-sense as QT (she)-say-Past FP
35 (0.5)
36T: <laughs>
37Y: mo: da kara ne, sonnani fukai mon janai mitei .h da kara ne watashi umm therefore IP such deep thing Cop-Neg seem so IP I
38: mo ne (.) dame na n da yo, da kara da kara koko-ni kita also IP impossible Cop Nom Cop FP that-is-why here (I)-came
39: n da yo. Nom Cop FP
40 (2.0)
41T: m: [ma: ne. m: yeah FP
42Y: [mo, soo'i NE, chigai tte iu no ka-na, kono toki WA so like-that IP difference QT say Nom FP-FP this case T
43T: [m:.
44Y: (explain da kedo kon toki WA (1.2) a nan da exam-exama explain Cop although this case T well what Cop exam(ine)
45T: examine?
46Y: examine (.). toka ne, soo'i (..) kuriaa-na ano: (1.2) chigai examine and-so-on IP like-that clear umm difference
tte iu no ka-na:, (2.0) so'oiu no o shiri-tai n da yone. QT say Nom FP-FP like-that one 0 know-want Nom Cop FP
48T: [m::.
49 (3.0)
50T: ma: sokorahen wa honto-ni yappari native janai to well that T really (I)-think native Cop-neg QT
51: wakannai yone.= understand-Neg FP
52Y: =' wakan[nai] ( ) understand-Neg
53T: [tatoeba konkai mo, e: news de for-example this-time also um news in
54 : 'tsugi no yona mono ga AKASA-RETA' to. reveal to disclose no following of like thing S reveal-ed QT reveal and disclose of
55 : chigai o jisho de hi-hita wake ne. (1.5) soshitara nanka difference 0 dictionary in look-up Nom FP then something
disclose of to S something like past in um secret in
56 : ano: disclose no ho ga nanika ko::: kako: ni ano: himitsu ni um disclose of to S something like past in um secret in
57 : sa-rete-ita yona (.). mono tte iu nanika motto genteitekina kanji no kept-been like thing QT say something more limited like of
58 : tsukai-kata tte atta (wake. use-way QT there-was Nom
59Y: [un un un un. yes yes yes yes
60T: dakedo, ja honto-ni jissaini native wa soo'i imi de tsukau no ka but then really actually native T that meaning with use Nom FP
61 : tte iu no wa (.). yappari kare-ra ni (.). kiite-mi-nai to QT say Nom T I-think them(natives) to ask-try-not then
62 : wakannai shi ne. know-not and FP
63Y: da kara sa, yoku sa, honyaku: nihon de ne, honyaku-o-yaru to .h so IP often IP translation Japan in IP translation-O-do then
64 : ano: yappari native no (.). checker (.).[ga= um people-think native of checker S
65T: [un. uh-huh
66Y: =partner ni-natteiru hito no ho ga shigoto ga hairi-yasui tte iu partner be person of to S work S get-easy QT say
67 : n da yone. Nom Cop FP
68T: a:::
ah
69Y: [yappa. de, kanarazu ookina honyaku no kaisha ni iku to
people-say then definitely big translation of company to go then
70 : native no hito ga (.) iite
native of person S there-is
71T: [iru [iru.
there-is there-is
72Y: [saishu ni check-suru janai.
last in check tag
73 : aru imi SORE MO ARU kamo ne.
that sense that also there-is might FP
74 (0.8)
75Y: so, [dakara yappari, sore mo ano Tanaka-san ga itteta kedo
yeah so I-think that also um Tanaka-Ms S said but
76T: [m:::::::
yeah
77Y: jibun-tachi wa native ni wa (.). NE [chikazu-ke-nai tte iu no wa mo
we T native to T IP close-can-not QT say Nom T well
78T: [sore wa mo muri da yone.
that T well impossible Cop FP
79Y: u:n. sore wa.
yeah that T

<English gloss>

1T: 'In the paper (0.8), the way 'suggest' is used is,'  
2 : I wonder (n darou) /when people use the word 'suggest'/.'
3 (0.2)
4Y: 'Uh-huh.'
5T: 'Generally we translate it as teian-suru in Japanese [etc, don’t we (desho).]'  
6Y: ['YES Yes yes yes.'
7T: 'But /even if I think about it deeply, the word 'suggest' in that context
8: does not mean teian-suru/ wake NE.'
9Y:='Uh-huh.'=
10T:='Well, there is another meaning 'imply' (.). but anyway,='
11Y:='Uh-huh.'=
12T:='I wonder (n darou) /why it’s 'suggest' rather than 'show'/.'
13 (0.4)
14Y:='Yeah.'=
15T:='For example, when you say 'As this suggests',
16 : I don’t understand (n darou ka) /why ‘show’ isn’t used but 'suggest' is/.='
17Y:='Yeah' (1.5) 'show' is something to do with demonstrating with your body,'  
18 (1.2)
19T:='No, /I had the feeling /it might be a way of introducing
an illustration of some kind/, might it not (no ka-na) / wake ne.'
20-25Y:  
‘Yeah, so, because we just depend on the (English-Japanese) dictionary, we
don’t know the real native English intuition yone. So Lisa said that /I
couldn’t use ‘explain’ in this case/ n da. I asked why da, and she
[said /although she cannot explain, it is impossible/ n da’=
26T: [laughs]
27Y: ='.hhh /I think I want that native speaker’s intuition/ n da yone.’
28T: = 'Well, but I wonder (n darou ne) /how important that is/. For example
29-30: it is how much [you pay attention to words da ne.’
31Y: ['Or /how sensitive you are about (words)/ no ka ka ne.’
32T:='For example, 'conceal' and ['hide' are also..'
33Y:='Yeah, but the way it works according to
34 : what she said is the doubtless it depends on English intuition yo.’
35 (0.5)
36T: <laughs>
37-39Y:
‘Umm therefore, it does not seem to be such a difficult thing. .h So, /it's
because (n da yo) /I lack such intuitions n da yo/ that I came here/.
38 (2.0)
41T: ‘M: [yeah ne.’
42Y: [‘So, can I say (no ka-na) /it is the difference/, in this case you
"M: ..."

44Y: "should use [explain, but in that case (1.2) you should use 'exam-exama']"

45T: "Examine?"

46Y: "'examine' etc etc, /I want to know, like, umm, can I say (no ka-na),

47: (2.0)/there is this [kind of clear difference/ / n da yone."

48T: "'Yeah.'

49 (3.0)

50T: "Well, I don’t think we can understand that

51 : because we are not natives yone."

52Y: = "We can’t [understand { })""

53-8T: 

['For example, this time also, um, in the news

it said 'the following was revealed'. /I checked the difference between reveal

and disclose in a dictionary/ wake ne. (1.5) Then /the dictionary said
disclose is dealing with something like a secret in the past and is more

limited in use/ [wake.'

59Y: 

['Yes yes yes yes.'

60-2T:

"but, then, we don’t know whether /they use disclose with that meaning/

no ka without asking them.'

63-4Y:

'So, in Japan /people often say [that’=

65T: 

['Uh-huh.'

66-7Y:

='it’s easier for translators who have English native partners to get work/

n da yone.'

68T: 'ah[:].

69Y: 

['People say. So you go to big translating companies and they

70 : definitely have English natives [and’

71T: 

['Yes [they do."

72Y: 

['they have a final check, don’t they (janai). In a sense, that might be the reason (why the

: companies always have natives)ne.’

74 (0.8)

75Y: 'Yeah, [so, Tanaka said another thing that

76T: ['M:;;;;;:

77Y: we can’t be [native,’

78T: ['That’s impossible (da) yone."

79Y: 'Yeah. It is.'
1Y: への水が流れていた時、元来自衛官が名前を聞いた。
2: どうしてそうか、不思議だ。
3: でも、大気を洗って、体を冷やした。
4: そして、大気を洗った後、大気を冷やした。
5: ようですね、それにすると。
6: あの水は、お風呂の水を冷やした。
7: それくらいの量で、別の水を洗って。
8: そうか、そうか。
9: この水の量は、水着を洗うのに十分だ。
10: そうか、そうか。
11: これは、あの水を冷やした。
12: そうか、そうか。
13: جامボンも、洗った。
14: そうか、そうか。
15: そして、水を冷やした。
16: たまたま、この水が、冷たい。
17: もう、もう。
18: そうか、そうか。
19: そして、冷たい水を飲んだ。
20: そうか、そうか。
21: そして、水を冷やした。
22: そうか、そうか。
23: そして、水を冷やした。
24: それくらいの量で、別の水を洗って。
25: そうか、そうか。
26: そして、水を冷やした。
27: そうか、そうか。
28: そして、水を冷やした。
29: そうか、そうか。
30: そして、水を冷やした。
31: そして、水を冷やした。
32: そうか、そうか。
33: そして、水を冷やした。
34Y: 30-pun gurai matanai to ofuro hai-re-nakatta.=
33-minutes about wait-not then bath take-can-not-Past
35T: me. (1.0) .h tada kore de ne, mafuyu ni-natte kaze hiichatta: na-
m just this with IP winter become cold catch anyway
37 : demo ne honto ne kinoo ne .h Pragma-Pragmatics hora ni-hon (1.0)
but IP really IP yesterday IP Pragmatics ah two
38 : 750 ni-hon kaka-nakya tte omotta toki ni ne .h
750(words) two write-should QT thought when IP
39 : totsuzen te ga ne ga:: tte tsumetaku nacchat-te ne
suddenly hand S IP Ono (quickly) QT cold got-and IP
40T: uggci::
lie
41Y: e, watashi konna no dekinai yo: to omotte (.) E YA konna
oh-no I this one can-not FP QT thought eh no this
42 : koto o kangaetech aikenai chotto Pragmatics no hon o
thing O think should-not just Pragmatics Gen book O
43 : yoma-neba tte ano
read-should QT that
44T: un.
uh-huh
45Y: kuroi chikkoi [yatsu
black small one
46T: [un.
uh-huh
47 : are nande katta n su ka.
that why bought Nom Cop Q
48Y: are wa ne: (1.5) ano: [sui-
that T IP un
49T: [a, susumetekureta no=?=
oh (she) recommended Nom
50Y: =un, [susumetekureta n de,
yeah (she) recommended because
51T: [a:: I-see
52 (1.8)
53Y: hoide, ki-o-magirawa soo to shita n da kedo dame de (1.5)
then mind-0-distract try QT did Nom Cop despite impossible Cop
54 : [doo-shiyoo doo-shiyoo to omotatte
what-do what-do QT thought
55T: <laughs> [matte.
wait
56 : sono sono koro ni wa boku no mail wa moo todoita no?
that that time in T I Gen email T already came Nom
57Y: iya, sono mae.
no that before
58T: .h ja ojuchii-o-kakeru yoona.=
then hit (you) like
59Y: =soo panikutta no, watashi.
yes panicked Nom I
60T: <laughs>
61Y: hoide ne ofuro ni haitte attamaroo to omotta-ra=
then IP bath in take get-warm QT thought-then
62T: =un= uh-huh
63Y: =kinoo wa saiaku datta no.
yesterday T worst Cop-Past Nom
64T: a; (1.0) naruhodo.
oh I-see
65Y: un, (2.0) da yo' =
no Cop FP
By the way, I will ask you about something a bit odd though:

Toshi, when you take a bath, well, while you are taking a shower, you wash your hair and body and then rinse, that’s it, isn’t it (ka)?

"Yes, [so,"

If you do that and I fill a bathtub

"it might be the same [amount/ NO KAMOshirenai."

"it is the same (da) yone."

But, can we say (no ka-na) /that’s to do with the plumbing/, and also I think that’s because (n da) /it is a problem of the system/.

"Uh-huh."

'Because I [have water anyway/ n da mon."

'Just, I mean, intermittently'=" Uh-huh."

= 'the water becomes hot, cold, hot, cold, so.'

'Ah, you mentioned it yone, um, a B&B, [yes (ne)?'

'Yes, I could not believe it though.'

'Uh-huh.'

'Wow, can this really be true, /this country is a civilized country/ no, I thought='

'Because English people did not take a bath ( )

'Uh-huh.'=

'in the past ne. And when I was a university student (.)

the house where I stayed had the same problem.'=

'Ah.'=

'You know, you have only cold water after someone takes a shower, so you have to wait for about 30 mins till you can have a bath.'=

'Ah.'

'M: (1.0) just because of this I might catch cold in winter, anyway but, yesterday, .h I had to write 2 750-word-Pragma-Pragmatics essays, when I thought of this, suddenly my hands became very cold'

'You're joking.'

'I thought oh no, I can't do that yo: (...),

then, I thought no, I shouldn’t think like this,

I just need to read a Pragmatics book, that'

'Uh-huh.'

'small black [one'

'Uh-huh.

'Why did you buy that one/ n su ka?'

'That one, well, um, [(she) reco-

'Oh /did she recommend it/ no?=

'Yeah, she [recommended it,"

'I see.'

then, although (kedo) /I tried to take my mind off it/ n da, I couldn’t,

I thought [what I should do, what I should [do,

[laughs> ['Wait,

'at that time, had you already got my email/ no?'

'No, before that.'

'Then, my email hit you more when you were down.'=

'Yes, /I panicked/ no.'

[laughs>

'Then, I went to bathroom to take a bath and get warm,='

='Uh-huh='

'it wasn’t my day yesterday/ no.'

'Oh, (1.0) I see.'

'No, (2.0) it wasn’t (da) yo.'
APPENDIX 2

Decision-making Task

Japanese version of ‘Meeting of the Grand Revolutionary Council of Freedonia’

あなたは Freedonia 共和国の Grand Revolutionary Council (GRC) のメンバーです。Freedonia 共和国は革命運動の末に占領国からの独立を獲得しました。早くも Freedonia 国の法令作成のための会議が開かれ、あなたは今、その会議に出席しています。すでに、GRC メンバーの 1 人が Freedonia 大統領に、そして残りのメンバー全員は副大統領に就任することが決まっています。

以下の議題を審議（可決・否決）してください。改正も可です。ただし採決は満場一致とします。Freedonia 共和国の未来はあなたの手に委ねられています！

1. 大統領の任期は (A) 終身 (B) 7 年とする。
2. (最初の任期に従って) 次期大統領を選ぶ場合は、
   (A) GRC によって
   (B) 国民によって
   (C) Freedonia 国会議員によって（国会が設立される場合）選出される。
3. 何事も最終決定権は
   (A) 大統領
   (B) GRC と大統領
   (C) 国会にある。
4. Freedonia 軍隊は、
   (A) 大統領
   (B) GRC と大統領
   (C) 国会が指揮・監督する。
5. 占領国政府による植民地管理機関を支持していた者はすべて
   (A) 死刑
   (B) 大統領により許されるまで国外追放
   (C) 犯した罪はすべて許され、ただちに恩赦とする。
6. Freedonia 国民はすべて、第二言語として英語の習得が義務づけられる。小中高で徹底的（インテンシブな）教育を受け、大学レベルでは講義は英語で行われる。
7. Freedonia ではどの教育機関もまったく宗教教育行わず、家庭における子供への宗教教育も 16 歳までは行うことができない。
8. Freedonia は軍事上、政治上、永久に中立を保つ。いかなる同盟にも参加しない。
9. 占領国より独立したその日に Freedonia に在住していた Freedonia 民族のみが完全な Freedonia 国民として認められる。
You are the members of the Grand Revolutionary Council of Freedonia. You have just won your independence after a revolutionary struggle with your colonial power. You have met here today to draw up part of the Constitution of Freedonia. It has been agreed that one of the members of the Council will be chosen President of Freedonia, and that all other members of the Council will be Vice-Presidents.

You must decide which propositions to accept, which to reject, and which you wish to amend. Your final decisions must be unanimous. Remember that the future of Freedonia is in your hands.

1. The president will be elected for life or for a period of seven years.
2. Following the first Presidency, all subsequent presidents will be elected
   (a) by the Grand Council
   (b) directly by the people
   (c) by a Parliament of Freedonia (if one is ever elected)
3. The decisions of the President will take precedence over all other decisions or the decisions of the Grand Council and the President will take precedence over all other decisions or the decisions of the Freedonian Parliament, if elected, will be supreme.
4. The army of Freedonia will be under the direct command and control of
   (a) the President
   (b) the President and the Grand Council
   (c) an elected Freedonian Parliament
5. All persons who supported the colonial administration of the enemies of Freedonia will be
   (a) executed
   (b) exiled until pardoned by the President
   (c) given a general and immediate amnesty
6. English will be compulsory as the second language of all Freedonia citizens. English will be taught intensively in both primary and secondary schools, and will be the language of instruction at University level.
7. No religion of any kind will be taught in the schools of Freedonia; neither can parents give any kind of religious instruction to their children until their children have reached the age of sixteen.
8. Freedonia will forever remain neutral in military and political affairs and will join no alliances.
9. Only ethnic Freedonians resident in Freedonia on Independence Day will be considered full citizens of the country.
APPENDIX 3

Group Discussion Data

Japanese data (Discussion of question 2 from Freedonia exercise)

M, T: female speakers, I, Y: male speakers

1T: a, sore wa tsugi no (.) shitsumon [ka.
ah that T next of question FP

2Y: [un.

3M: saisho no ninki ni shitagatte, jiki daitoryo o erabu baai WA.
first of presidency to follow next president O elect case T

4 4 (.)

5T: watashi kokumin (. ) ni-yotte da na.
I people by Cop FP

6U: [kokumin da ne.
people Cop FP

7Y: ne. GRC ni-yotte da to ( )-seiji mitai ni nacchau mon ne.= FP by Cop if government like in become FP FP

8U: =ne. [.hhh FP

9M: [<laughs>]

10Y: te-iu-ka kono GRC no name ga ground revolutionary council tte QT-say-Q this GRC of name S QT

11 : nanka ne chotto ( . ) osoroshiku [kakumeiteki da yone.]=
PT IP a-bit terribly revolutionary Cop FP

12T: [nanka PT

13T: =un.

14Y: [<laughs>]

15U: [<laughs>

16Y: nanka chotto Columbia toka so ju kanji.
PT a-bit etc so say like

17 (2.0)

18U: .hhh

19M: n? (1.0) watashi ga watashi ga kokumin ni-shi-yo toka it-tara mm I S I S people decide-let’s etc say-if

20 : kore de tsu- kono mondai mo kaiketsusuru n da yone . = h
this with this question also solve Nom Cop FP

21T: =e demo yappa Mari-chan 2 wa doo omou?
eh but anyway Mari T how think

22 (3.0)

23M: mm (3.0) ya, ii n janai ka-na. =
well well good Nom Cop-Neg FP

24Y: =demo kore tte kokkai ga setsuritsu-sareru baai tte natteru kara,
but this QT parliament S elect-ed case QT say because

25 : [setsuritsu-sare-nai baai mo arluru wake desho.
elect-ed-not case also possible Nom tag

26U: [e:. oh

2 When you call female friends in a friendly way, you can put ‘chan’ after the name.
27T: [m.]
yeah
28U: [a a a a a.
yes yes yes yes
29Y: dakara, setsuritsu-sareru baai ni wa kokumin ga nihon mitai ni so elect-ed case in T people’ S Japan like in
30: kokkaigiin o erande,=
parliamentarian O elect
31U: un.
uh-huh
32M: un.
uh-huh
33Y: de sono kokkaigiin no naka kara daitoryo o erabu tte iu=
them those parliamentarian of inside from president O elect QT say
34T: a:
ah
35M: un un un.
uh-huh uh-huh uh-huh
36Y: =hooshin ni-suru ka, soremoto kokkai sura
line decide or or parliament even
37: nakutte,
there-is-not
38MT: un.
uh-huh
39Y: daitoryo to sono (.). GRC no member dake (.). ga kuni osamechau ka.
president and the of member only S country govern or
40T: un.
uh-huh
41 (4.0)
42M: jissai-ni kokkai ga nakutte: daitoryo toka kimatteru
actually parliament S there-is-not president etc decide
43: kuni tte aru no?
country T/QT there-are Nom
44 (1.5)
45Y: kokumin (.). no chokusetsu [senkyo de?
people of direct election with
46M: (un un.
yes yes
47 (2.0)
48U: doo darou ne. shiranai.=
how Cop FP know-not
49T: =wakan[nai.
know-not
50U: [wakannai.
know-not
51M: datte sa tatoeba nihon (.). ga (0.5)
because IP for-example Japan S
52: nihon wa kokkai ga atTE=
Japan T parliament S there-is
53Y: =un.=
uh-huh
54M: =sok-kara daitoryo janai kedo,
there-from president Cop-Neg not
55Y: shusho ga [eraba-re-te
minister S elect-ed-and
56M: [ga eraba-neru wake desho?=
S elect-ed Nom tag
57T: "un",
uh-huh
58M: =soshitara dakara anna mechamecha ni-natteru wake jan.
then so that disorganised is Nom Cop-Neg
59Y: un.
yes
60M: dakara watashi wa yametā ho ga ii n janai no tte kokode ii-tai kedo=
so. I T stop than S good Nom Cop-Neg Nom QT here say-want but
61Y: =un.=
uh-huh
62M: =demo honto-ni kokkai toka ga nakutte, but surely parliament etc S there-is-not
daitoryo toka ga kimatteru kuni ga aru no ka-na to omotte. president etc S decide country S there-is Nom FP QT think
63: atte zettai umaku itteru n dat-tara kokumin ga ii jan?= there-is definitely well go Nom Cop-if people S good Cop-Neg
65T: =demo doko-no kuni mo kokkai tte aru n janai?= but every country also parliament T there-is Nom Cop-Neg
66Y: =un.= yes
67T: =nanka wakan-nai kedo. PT know-not though
68M: (0.8) janai ka to watashi wa omou n da yone.= Cop-Neg Q QT I T think Nom FP Nom T parliament of necessity S there-is QT thing tag
71: (0.3)
72Y: un. yes
73T: un, demo kokkai ga atte-mo kokumin ni-yotte (.) jiki daitoryo o yes but parliament S there-is-but people by next president O
74: erabu tte iu no wa (.) dame na no ka-na. elect QT say Nom T impossible Cop Nom FP
75Y: kokkai ga atte-mo kokumin ga, un parliament S there-is-but people S yes
76: [dakara America mitai-na koto desho? so America like thing tag
77U: [ii n janai? good Nom Cop-neg
78M: [a a [a a un un un un un [un. yah yah yah yes yes yes yes yes yes
79U: [un. un
80T: [un, demo America (.). yes but America
tte (.) kokumin ga eranderu? T people S elect
82M: sh[u goto? state each
83U: [kokumin, a un kokumin ga nanka aru yone people ah yes people S PT have FP
84: [kenri mitaina [{ } right like
85T: [ko-
86M: [un."
87T: [kokumin ga sono shu goto ni people S the state each in
88: Repa- Repabli- kyowa-to ka [minshu-to ka= Republican-party or Democratic-party or
89Y: [un un so so. yes yes so so
90T: ={erande, elect
erande, elect
92T: sok-kara (.) that-from
93Y: sono the
94M: sore o zenbu atsumete, that-O all - gather
95Y: dalhyo representative
96M: un.  
uh-huh
97T: de sono daihyo ga senkyosuru no? (.) daitoryo o.  
then that representative S elect Nom president O
98U: daihyo no kazu ga ite California shu dattra-ra nanka 9-nin toka ite,=  
rep. of number S there-are state Cop-if PT 9-people etc there-are
99T: =un.  
uh-huh
100U: de = California de docchi ka ga kattara sono 9-nin wa  
then in which Q S win-if that 9-people T
101M: un.  
uh-huh
102U: nantoka tou no ho ni iku wake jan.  
something party of side to go Nom Cop-Neg
103T: un un un un [un.  
yes yes yes yes
104U: [de Washington de ano: hoka no betsu no tou ni  
then in um other of other of party in
105: tatoeba hitori da to shite de katsu to suru jan.  
for-example alone Cop QT do then win QT do Cop
106T: [un.  
yes
107U: =tte koto wa 9-nin katsu kara socchi no tou no daihyo no  
QT thing T 9-people win because that of party of rep. of
108: hito ga tatoeba Bush-san tte hito dattra-ra [Bush-san ga daitoryo  
person S for-example Bush-Mr. QT person Cop-if Bush-Mr. S president
109T: [un un un un a so-kka sokka  
yes yes yes yes ah so FP
110U: ni-natte tte kanji.  
become QT like
111T: demo ja, (0.8) demo ja, a so-kka.  
but then but then ah so FP
112: (1.0)  
113U: da yone.  
Cop FP
114Y: un.  
yes
115U: <laughs>  
116T: ja ichiou kokumin ga eranderu tte [koto ni wa naru no ka.=  
then anyway people S elect QT thing in T become Nom FP
117Y: [iu koto ni wa naru.=  
say thing in T become
118 : =un.=  
yes
119T: =ma demo sono dare ga daitoryo ni naru ka wa era-be-nai n da yone.  
well but one who S president in become Q T elect-can-not Nom Cop FP
120U: [so da ne.  
so Cop FP
121Y: [so sorezore no tou ga tateta  
yes each of party S choose
122U: hai hai hai hai.  
yes yes yes yes
123T: un.  
yes yes
124M: [daihyo representative  
125Y: [koochosha candidate
126M: un.  
uh-huh
127Y: o erabu koto ni naru kara [ne.  
O elect Nom in become because FP
128T: [un un.  
yes yes
129: dakara yappa soo iu imi de wa kansetsuteki da yone.  
so I-think so say meaning in T indirect Cop FP
130U: demo nihon ni kurabe-reba choku(setsuteki da yone.
but Japan to compare-if direct Cop FP

131Y: yes yes yes yes yes yes
132T: yes yes yes yes yes yes
133M: yes yes yes yes yes yes

134: hoka no kuni wa shiranai watashi.
other of country T know-not I

135 (2.0)
136T: "un".
no
137U: shiranai ne.
know-not FP
138Y: "un"
no
139 (2.0)
140U: demo kokumin ni-yotte tte omoshirokunai? hh
but people by QT interesting-not
141: doo na no ka wakannai (kedo,
how Cop Nom Q know-not although
142T: "un".
yeah
143U: so iu seido ga atta-ra (.).
sugi taihen kamoshirena kedo omoshiroi.-
so say system S there-is-if very hard might but interesting
144Y: "un".
yes
145T: "ne".
FP
146M: =ii n janai? hoka no kuni de yatte-nai kara koko de hajimete,
good Nom Cop-Neg other of country in do-not because here in start

147TYU: <laugh>
148M: kono Freedonia kyowakoku toka de= this Freedonia public etc in
149T: [mechamecha ni-naru.
messy become
150U: Freedonia Freedonia
151M: =chotto tameshitemiru no mo ii n janai desu ka? <laughs>
small experiment Nom also good Nom Cop-neg Cop Q

152U: <laughs>
153T: doo na n darou.
how Cop Nom Cop
154 (1.5)
155T: datte honto-ni (.) honto-ni kono hito ni-natte
because really really this person become
156: demo honto-ni kono hito ni-natte hoshii na tte hito mo inai
but really this person become want IP QT person also there-is-not
157 : kedo sa:, although IP
158Y: un.
uh-huh
159T: nanka chokusetsu erabi-tai jan.
PT direct elect-want Cop-Neg
160Y: yes yes yes yes yes
161M: [nanka sekinin-kan ga umareru yone,=
PT responsibility-sense S have? FP
162T: =u::n.
yes
I I S elect-ed etc
164T: "un".
yes
165M: soshitara motto kyoryoku-suru yo-ni-naru to omou shi kanshin mo
then more cooperate become QT think and interest also

351
M, T: female speakers, U, Y: male speakers

17: 'Ah, we are on the next question, [aren't we ka?]

2Y: '{Yes.'

3M: 'Following the first Presidency, all subsequent presidents will elected.'

4 Y: 'I vote for 'by the [people' da na.'

6U: ['Yeah, 'by the people' da ne.'

7Y: 'Yes (ne). That's because (mon ne)

8U: 'Yes (ne). [...hhh'

9M: [</laughs>

10-1Y: 'Anyway, 'Ground Revolutionary Council' is a bit [extreme da yone.'=

12T: ['Well

13: =Yeah.'

14Y: [<laughs>]

15U: [<laughs>]

16Y: 'It's a bit like Columbia.'

17 (2.0)

18U: '...hhh'

19-20M: 'Mm? (1.0) If I say let's go for 'by the people',

then /this problem is solved/ n da yone.'=

21T: ='Eh but, what do you think, Mari?'

22 (3.0)

23M: 'Well (3.0) well, I'm not sure (n janai ka-na) /it's a good idea./=

24Y: = 'But if it says that a Parliament is ever elected, so /I wonder it's

25: [possible to have [an unelected parliament/, isn't it wake (desho).']

26U: = 'Oh.'

27T: ['Yeah.'

28U: ['Yes, yes, yes, yes.'

29Y: 'so, in case the Parliament is elected, people elect parliamentarians

30: like Japan,'=

31U: 'Uh-huh.'

32M: ['Uh-huh.'

33Y: = ['then, say a president is elected among the parliamentarians'

34T: 'Ah.'

35M: 'Uh-huh, uh-huh, [uh-huh.'

36Y: [='we take that system,

37: or even there is no parliament,'

38MT: 'Uh-huh.'

39Y: 'and only the president and the member of GRC govern the country.'

40T: 'Yeah.'

41 (4.0)

42-3M: 'Are there any countries in which the president is elected

without the parliament/ no?'

44 (1.5)

45Y: 'Directly [elected by the people?'

46T: ['Yes, yes.'

47 (2.0)

48U: 'I wonder (darou) how it is ne. I don't know.'=

49T: = 'I don't [know.'

50U: ['I don't know.'

51M: 'Because, for example, in Japan (0.5)

52: there is a parliament in Japan and'=

53Y: = 'Uh-huh.'=

54M: = 'among them, not a president but'

55Y: '/a prime minister [is elected and'

56M: = 'I think/elected so far as I know/ wake (desho) ?'=

57T: 'Uh-huh.'=

58M: = 'Then that's why /it's such a disorganized government/, is it not wake

: (jan).'
59Y: 'Yes.'
60M: 'So, although I want to say here that //it's better not to have
:
a parliament//न जानाई/ no/'=
61Y: = 'Uh-huh.'=
62-4M: = 'But am I right in thinking (नो का-ना) //there are some countries
where a president etc etc is elected without a parliament.
//If there are some and it's definitely going well/ न दात-(तारा),
it should be by the people, shouldn't it (जान)?'
65T: = 'But //there is a parliament in every country, isn't there न जानाई?'=
66Y: = 'Yeah.'=
67T: = 'Well I'm not sure though.'=
68M: (0.8) '/I'm sure/ न दा योने.'=
69T: = ['Yeah.'=
70M: = ['Then, I suppose (देशो) a parliament is a necessity कतो?'=
71 (0.3)
72Y: = 'Yes.'
73T: = 'Yes, but given a parliament, I wonder (नो का-ना) //if a president can be
: elected by the people//. '
75Y: = 'Although there is a parliament, the people, yes
76 : [therefore //it's like [America, isn't it koto (देशो)?'
77U: = ['That's good, isn't it न (जानाई)?'
78M: = ['Yah, yah, [yah, yah, yes, yes, yes [yes.'
79U: = ['Yes.'
80T: = ['Yes, but in America,
81 : do the people elect a president?'
82M: = ['in [each state?'
83U: = ['The people, ah yes the people have something yone
84 : [like a right ([ )'
85T: = ['Uh-huh."
86M: = ["The people, in each state,
87T: = ['The people, the Rep- Republi- Republican Party or [the Democratic Party'
88Y: = ['Yes, yes, that's right.'
90T: = ['elect,'=
91M: = ['elect, and then'
92T: = 'from the party (.).
93Y: = 'The'
94M: = 'gather all of them, and then'
95Y: = 'representative'
96M: = 'uh-huh.'=
97T: = 'then do the representatives elect no? (. ) a president.'=
98U: = 'There are representatives, in case of California, 9 people for example,='
99T: = 'Uh-huh.'=
100U: = 'then in California, if either party wins /those 9 people
101M: = 'Uh-huh.'=
102U: = will go to the whichever party/ isn't that so वेक जान.'
103T: = 'Yes, yes, yes, yes, [yes.'
104U: = ['Then in Washington, um, for example supposing one
105 : person is in the other party and wins. But it's 9:1, isn't it (देशो).='
106T: = ['Uh-huh.'=
107U: = ['That means because 9 people will win, the representative of the party,
108 : for example, [Mr. Bush will be a president and
109T: = ['Yes, yes, yes, yes, ah I see I see'
110U: = something like that.'=
111T: = 'But then, (0.8) but then, ah I see.'
112 (1.0)
113U: = 'I'm right, am I not (=दा योने).'
114Y: = 'Yes.'
115U: = <laughs>
116T: = 'Then, /the people get to choose [anyway/ नो का.'=
117Y: = ['Anyways, that's the way it works.'=
118Y: = 'Yes.'=
119T: = ['Well, but /they can't choose who's going to be a president/ न दा योने.'
120U: = ['That's right/ दा ने,'=
121Y: = ['Yes, because each party chooses'=
122U: = ['Yes, yes, yes, yes.'
123T: = 'Yes, yes.'
"representatives"
125: ['candidates'
126: 'Uh-huh.'
127: 'are going to get elected [ne.'
128: ['Yes, yes.
129 : So, in that sense, I think that’s ‘indirectly elected’ da yo(ne.’
130U: ['Yes, yes.'
131Y: 'But it’s [direct if it’s compared to the Japanese system da yone.'
132T: ['Yes, yes, yes, yes, yes.'
133M: ['Yeah.'
134 : 'I don’t know the systems in other countries.'
135 (2.0)
136T: "'No.''
137U: 'Me neither ne.'
138Y: "'No.''
139 (2.0)
140U: 'But isn’t it interesting if a president is elected by the people? hh
141 : I don’t know /how it is/ no ka [though,'
142T: ['Yeah.'
143U: 'it might be very hard if the country has that kind of system,
: but it is interesting.=
144Y: =-"'Yes.'"-
145T: =’I think so too (ne).’=
146M: ='/That’s good, isn’t it/ n (janai)? We can start it as other countries don’t
147ALL: <laugh>
148M: in this country [Freedonia’=
1497: ['It’s going to be [messy.'
150U: ['Freedonia’
151M: =‘Small experiment would be good/, would it not n (janai desu) ka? <laughs>
152U: [<laughs>
153T: 'I wonder (n darou) /how it turns out/,''
154 (1.5)
155-157T: 'Because really I really want this person to be, but (well)
there is no such a person anyway,’
158Y: 'Uh-huh.'
159T: 'We) want to elect directly anyway, don’t we jan.’
160Y: 'Yes, yes, [yes, yes.'
161M: ['We will have a sense of responsibility yone,’=
162T: =’Yeah.’
163M: 'We have elected this person, we think.’
164T: 'Yeah.'
165-6M: 'Then I think that we will cooperate with and become interested in
(the election), so .h '/directly by the people’ is good, isn’t it/ no dewa?
167Y: 'Then, we move on to the next question yone.'
English data (Discussion of question 3 from Freedonia exercise)

A, E: female speakers, N, J: male speakers

1 E: OK the decisions of the President will take precedence over all other
2 : decisions or the decisions of the Grand C-ouncil or the President will take
3 : precedence over oh hang on hhh over all other decisions or the decisions
4 : of the Freedonian Parliament if elected will be supreme
5 N: ha <laughs>
6 E: hhh
7 N: what does that mean .hh
8 E: .hh who's gonna have power over [other people in decision
9 A: [yeah
10 E: making (.) I guess
11 N: OK
12 (3.5)
13 N: so basically, it's either the President or the Grand Council and the
14 : President or the [Parliament
15 A: [Parliament, yeah
16 (2.5)
17 N: hhhhh
18 (2.0)
19 E: so, the President's pretty much like the queen isn't it
20 A: yeah
21 E: and then
22 (1.7)
23 N: much like an American president
24 E: yeah but you know [(0.5) we're in England <laughs>]
25 A: [should it be the Grand Council and the President=]n
26 N: =no we're in Freedonia
27 E: <laughs> that's very true yeah where is Freedonia you need a map <laughs>
28 A: <laughs>
29 <knocking> <knocking> (1.0) <knocking>
30 N: um
31 E: and then like the i- is the Grand Council then like the House of Lords
32 : then Parliament's like House of (..)
33 A: Commons
34 E: Commons yeah (.) so I'm just trying to work this out
35 A: <laughs>
36 N: presumably
37 E: OK thank you
38 (2.0)
39 N: well, I reckon it should be::
40 A: I say the second option sounds (.) pretty feasible
41 J: eh, you catch the wrong guy [making the wrong decision
42 N: [I reckon the Parliament though
43 E: hhh a diplomat hhh
44 (0.5) <knocking>
45 A: <laughs>
46 E: I bet you're a libdem aren't you
47 N: <laughs>
48 E: OK um (.) I'd actually probably go with Parliament
49 (2.2)
50 E: cos the more people making a decision the better (.) I think
51 (2.0)
52 N: [emm (.) yep
53 J: [probably uh the Grand Council could be an old pals act (.) something
54 E: yeah
55 J: with er (.) the Parliament might be more uh general or
56 E: yeah
57 (3.5)
58 N: so
59 J: 'cos th~ all the Council choose the President don't they
60 A: yeah and they draw up the constitu[ ]tion
61 J: [so
A: yeah but if you are the Grand Council we are the Grand Council here we're
: we're like we're just giving away our power
(2.0)
E: that's true shall we get it back
A: <laughs>
E: <laughs>
N: right no I guess that's true but I still think the right thing to do the
: moral thing by the people would be (1.3) [Parliament
A: [but but we've assigned here to
N: like discuss this an an giving away our power and our you know decision making=
A: you shouldn't care about power
E:
A: shut up hhh
E: 
A: =so we amend this through the ( )
E: <laughs>
N: what so you mean the Parliament should set well what's the point
E: in having a Parliament if the Grand
E: ]yeah no no yeah
N: Council are just going to [er er disagree with it
E: ]well
N: that's what the Queen does though she can always say no I don't agree
E: with that but she never does
N: [Queen doesn't do anything
E: no no she's got the power to though [so if she
N: ]yes but she
E: just k-
(1.5)
E: hhh
N: no but she [doesn't DO anything
E: ]hhh
N: no but she CAN if you want her to
J: if she wasn't really interested in the idea then they could step in
(2.0)
E: yeah but it's unlikely considering with such a large number of people
E: anyhow so
E: <knocking>
A: "yeah"
N: so: how- let's just go around and say like (...) who thinks what
A: I say the Grand Council and the President
N: right
(1.0)
J: I say (...) the Parliament
(1.5)
J: hm
(0.5)
N: right
(2.0)
E: well
A: Lizzie you know you want to be power hungry (...) you know you want to
E: oh no I would say Parliament but it says like (...) will take precedence over
N: so: ultimately I'd say yeah the Grand Council and the President should have
precedence over the (...) Parliament hhh "I don't know"
N: what so you [do you think I don't understand you think the Parliament should=
E: ]well
A: =I I think the Parliament should make the decisions [but then
N: ]yeah we [ ] the decision if it's good or not (1.0) cos what's the
A: [point of having giving the name the Grand Council when it's not that grand
129: N: [but
130: E: <laughs>
131: <knocking>
132: A: and it's not making the decisions
133: N: now what's the point of having [Freedonia
134: E: [you want to change their names now
135: A: no [because
136: J: [you've only got freedom or freedon
137: N: [exactly
138: (2.0)
139: N: but um what's [the the I I don't understand the point of like having
140: E: [:)
141: a parliament that's making decisions if the Grand Council's then just going
142: to step in when they don't like it
143: A: [what
144: E: [what's the point of having a Grand Council and a President if (.)
145: : they're not going to have any power over the decision making anyway
146: : you might as well just have a Parliament
147: <knocking>
148: N: shush
149: E: <laughs>
150: (1.5)
151: A: but that's how bills and laws get passed they have to go through
152: : the House of Lords anyway in this country
153: E: exactly
154: (0.8)
155: A: i- it does work
156: (3.0)
157: N: mmm
158: (1.0)
159: E: well we're right you're wrong
160: A: yeah there we go
161: N: hey
162: E: <laughs>
163: N: it has to be unanimous
164: E: er (.) oh yeah (.) sorry (.) oh we'll be here for ever then
165: <laughter>
166: J: would we want Freedonia to be run like our country is would they like it
167: : if they don't like our country
168: N: er actually you're right I think it should be more like America
169: E: NO
170: N: <laugh>
171: E: oh come on
172: A: <laughs>
173: E: don't be ridiculous
174: <laughter> <cough>
175: (1.8)
176: N: yeah but if you'd like America then you won't pass a whole
177: : [group of countries
178: N: [well uh I can see [I can-
179: A: [Freedonia will just become really polluted and horrid
180: N: I can actually [see your point of like having a Grand Council
181: A: [it'll be like America
182: N: that's not doing anything so (1.0) but [I I (...) but
183: A: ["thank you"=
184: "yeah"
185: A: on the other hand I don't agree that the Parliament should make the decision
186: E: if the Grand Council are just going to step in I think it should just be the
187: A: Grand Council and the President and (...) s- forget the Parliament
188: E: you don't even want a Parliament (0.5) oh it says if one is ever elected so
189: A: you don't want one
190: N: no
191: E: but then it'll get really (2.0) insular wouldn't it
192: N: what
193: E: you need [more people being in control
194: A: [can I just
195: J: [people should contribute sound bites n [I think people
[you've just gone from
one from one major idea swung right the other major idea and we're
sitting in the middle with the right idea and you're ignoring us
oh oh oh she's got some crisps (.). I'm sure it's for us there’s four
sandwiches and- or five
are we allowed though
(0.7)
sorry [(0.5) I'm REALLY sorry
just can we (.). can we concentrate Angie come on
I'm just hungry
right so: [basically you're the problem (.). we've
[indeed
we've decided hhh
now what have you? was James agree?
yeah you said what we said didn't you
the Parliament one yeah
yeah
[.5]
what
and then (.). they can-
they can-
(step in [if it really really is necessary
yes
(1.5)
OK fine so we're amending it for (.). [Parliament and then the Grand-
[but
does unanimous mean that you've been bullied into it is that OK
<laugh>
well as long as I uh uh agree it's
OK
bullied me that's fine
OK that's fine then
# APPENDIX 4

## Classification of the Team Roles
(Cited from Belbin 2001: 170)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Team role</th>
<th>Significant contributions</th>
<th>Allowable weakness&lt;sup&gt;3&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Non-allowable weakness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plant</td>
<td>Creative, imaginative, unorthodox. Solves difficult problems.</td>
<td>Preoccupation with ideas and neglect of practical matters.</td>
<td>Strong 'ownership' of idea when co-operation with others would yield better results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource investigator</td>
<td>Extrovert, enthusiastic, communicative. Explores opportunities and develops contacts.</td>
<td>Loss of enthusiasm once initial excitement has passed.</td>
<td>Letting clients down by neglecting to follow-up arrangements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordinator</td>
<td>Mature, confident. Clarifies goals, promotes decision-making, delegates well.</td>
<td>An inclination to be lazy if someone else can be found to do the work.</td>
<td>Taking credit for the effort of a team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shaper</td>
<td>Challenging, dynamic, thrives on pressure. Has the drive and courage to overcome obstacles.</td>
<td>A proneness to frustration and irritation.</td>
<td>Inability to recover situation with good humor or apology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team worker</td>
<td>Co-operative, mild, perceptive and diplomatic. Listens, builds, averts friction, calms the waters</td>
<td>Indecision on crucial issues.</td>
<td>Avoiding situations that may entail pressure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementer</td>
<td>Disciplined, reliable, conservative, efficient. Turns ideas into practical actions.</td>
<td>Adherence to the orthodox and proven.</td>
<td>Obstructing change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>Single-minded, self-starting, dedicated. Provides knowledge and skills in rare supply.</td>
<td>Acquiring knowledge for its own sake.</td>
<td>Ignoring factors outside area of competence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>3</sup> Strength of contribution in any one of the roles is commonly associated with particular weaknesses. These are called allowable weaknesses. Executives are seldom strong in all nine team roles (Belbin 1993: 22).
APPENDIX 5

Handouts for Raters

In my research, I focus on the different ways in which Japanese and English participants accomplish a decision-making task based on the ‘Freedonia’ exercise (See attached sheet). In Japanese discussion, I identified four participants’ roles, roughly, initiative taking role, rationaliser role, developer role and perspective seeking questioner role. I am currently working on English data and find it difficult to match Japanese participants’ roles to the English data. Probably the reason is that there is a tendency of the Japanese participants to focus more on the problem they’re confronted with and the relevant propositional content associated with it; in contrast, the English participants spend a lot of time managing the talk – it is as if the Japanese ‘talk the talk’ and the English also talk about the talk. Therefore, in the English data analysis, I decided to set up two more categories, one relating to Talk content, the other to Talk management roles. I then assumed that the participants’ roles devised for the Japanese speakers could transfer to the English Talk-content roles. I created the following Talk-content roles for the English data:

Talk-content roles:
   Accelerator participant roles:
      1. Initiator (I)
      2. Rationaliser / Explainer (R)
   Decelerator participant roles:
      3. Developer (D)
      4. Issue raiser / Questioner (Q)

1. A participant who makes a proposal or proposes an outcome is labelled ‘initiator’.
2. A participant who accepts an outcome, justifies what he says, rationalizes what the other says and explains in relation to the ongoing topic is labelled ‘rationaliser / explainer’.
3. A participant who develops the idea being discussed or provides a new idea is labelled ‘developer’.
4. A participant who raises an issue or questions another speaker in order to clarify what she says is labelled ‘issue raiser / questioner’.

I then tried to allocate the utterances obtained during a discussion of the third question to one of these four categories. I’d like to show some examples and then would like you to make your own judgement on 5 more cases.
Examples:

39 N: well I reckon it should be::
40 A: I say the second option sounds (.) pretty feasible
41 J: eh you catch the wrong guy [making the wrong decision
42 N: [I reckon the Parliament though
43 E: hhh a diplomat hhh
44 (0.5) <knocking>
45 A: <laughs>
46 E: I bet you're a libdem aren't you
47 N: <laughs>
48 E: OK um (.) I'd actually probably go with Parliament
49 (2.2)
50 E: cos the more people making a decision the better (.) I think
51 (2.0)
52 N: [emmm (.) yep
53 J: [probably uh the Grand Council could be an old pals act (..) something
54 A: yeah
55 J: with er (.) the Parliament might be more uh general or
56 E: yeah
57 (3.5)
58 N: so
59 J: cos th- all the Council choose the President don't they
60 A: yeah and they draw up the constit[ution
61 J: [so

Examples of initiator role (40, 42, 48, 55)
Examples of rationaliser role (52, 54, 56, 60)
Examples of developer role (50, 59, 60)
Examples of questioner/issue raiser (41, 53)

77 E: OK maybe the Parliament should make like (.) the decision and then (..) the
78 Grand Council and the President should say whether that decision's OK or not
79 A: yeah
80 (1.0)
81 E: but
82 A: so we amend this through the ( )
83 E: <laughs>
84 N: what so you mean the Parliament should [set] well what's the point
85 [in having a Parliament if the Grand
86 E: [yeah no no yeah
87 N: Council are just going to [er er disagree with it
88 E: [well
89 that's what the Queen does though she can always say no I don't agree
90 [with that but she never does
91 N: [Queen doesn't do anything

An example of initiator role (77-8)
Examples of rationaliser/explainer role (79, 84) and questioner (84-5, 87)
An example of developer role (88-90)
1. 
31 E: and then like the i- is the Grand Council then like the House of Lords
32 [then] Parliament's like House of (..)
33 A: Commons
34 E: Commons yeah (.) so I'm just trying to work [this out
35 A: <laughs>
36 N: presumably
37 E: OK thank you

2. 
88 E: [well
89 that's what the Queen does though she can always say no I don't agree
90 [with that but she never does
91 N: [Queen doesn't do anything
92 E: no no she's got the power to though [so if she
93 N: [yes but she
94 E: just k-
95 (1.5)
96 E: hhh
97 N: no but she [doesn't DO anything
98 E: [hhh
99 E: no but she CAN if you want her to
100 J: if she wasn't really interested in the idea then they could step in

3. 
106 N: so how- let's just go around and say like (.) who thinks what
107 A: I say the Grand Council and the President
108 N: right
109 (1.0)
110 J: I say (.) the Parliament

4. 
166 J: would we want Freedonia to be run like our country is (.) would they
167 : like it if they don't like our country
168 N: er actually you're right I think it should be more like America
169 E: NO

5. 
188 E: you don't even want a Parliament (0.5) oh it says if one is ever
189 : elected so you don't want one
190 N: no
191 E: but then it'll get really (2.0) insular wouldn't it
192 N: what
193 E: you need [more people being in control
194 A: [can I just
195 J: [people should contribute sound bites n [I think people
REFERENCE


Kudo, Mayumi. (1985) *No, koto no tsukaiwake to dooshi no shurui* (How to use *no* and *koto* and verb types). *Kokubungaku Kaishaku to Kansho* (Japanese literature, interpretation and appreciation) 3, 45-52.


----- (1997) 'No (da)' no Kino (The Function of *n(o) da*). Kuroshio.


**JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEXT BOOKS**


