NOTE: Variation is treated in a branch of linguistics called 'sociolinguistics.'

What types of language variation are observed?

→ Various; e.g.
(1) historical; e.g. classical vs. modern JPN
(2) geographical/regional; dialects
(3) sociocultural; e.g. social status, rank, roles
(4) gender; feminine/gentle ↔ masculine/rough
(5) stylistic; e.g. written ↔ spoken, formal ↔ informal, polite ↔ neutral ↔ impolite speech styles

NOTE: Honorification is subsumed under sociocultural, gender, and stylistic.

1. Dialectal variation

SQ1. (1) At what levels of language can regional variations be observed?

→ phonetic; e.g. [ʃi] vs. [su]
accentual; e.g. ame (HL) in Tokyo vs. (LH) in Tohoku for ‘rain’
lexical; e.g. arigatoo vs. ookini for ‘thank you’
morphophonological; e.g. rendaku is most common in Tohoku
morphosyntactic; e.g. verbal conjugation patterns;
   e.g. kaka-nai in Tokyo vs. kaka-n in Kansai for ‘not write’
& a combination thereof.

SQ1. (2) Where is the major regional division within the mainland (Honshu) of Japan?

→ Kanto vs. Kansai

p. 422 Who pronounces /u/ with more lip rounding, eastern (Kanto) or western (Kansa) dialect speakers?
Kansai dialect speakers.

SQ2. (1) Pronounce uki-uki浮き浮き ‘happy’ & usu-usu 蔵々.

Do all JPN dialects have a 5-vowel system?
→ No, Ryukyu dialects include one with just 3 vowels, and another with 7 vowels.

How do Kansai speakers pronounce what is a one-mora word in Tokyo JPN?
They elongate the vowel.

SQ2. (1) Pronounce Me-ga ao-i 目が青い & Ki-o kiru 木を切る.

How are [i] and [u] different from [i] and [u], respectively.
They are more centralized.

SQ2. (2) Pronounce the following words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>‘lion’</th>
<th>‘sushi’</th>
<th>‘governor’</th>
<th>‘map’</th>
<th>‘mouth’</th>
<th>‘shoe’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tokyo</td>
<td>sishi</td>
<td>su-shi</td>
<td>ci-jii</td>
<td>ci-do</td>
<td>ku-ci</td>
<td>ku-do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akita (N. Tohoku)</td>
<td>sishi</td>
<td>ci-jii</td>
<td>ki-ci</td>
<td>ki-ci</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sendai (S. Tohoku)</td>
<td>susu</td>
<td>tu-do</td>
<td>kutosu</td>
<td>kutosu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

pp. 423-425

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>‘string’</th>
<th>‘well’</th>
<th>‘target’</th>
<th>‘window’</th>
<th>‘hawk’</th>
<th>‘hoop’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tokyo</td>
<td>i-to</td>
<td>i-do</td>
<td>mato</td>
<td>mado</td>
<td>taka</td>
<td>taga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So. Tohoku</td>
<td>i-do</td>
<td>mado</td>
<td>i taga</td>
<td>s- (HL)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Tohoku</td>
<td>i-do</td>
<td>mado</td>
<td>s (HL)</td>
<td>taga</td>
<td>la'ga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
<td>(HL)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Are the accentuation and pitch patterns different in Kanto & Kansai dialects?
→ Yes, very.

(2a)-(2o), p. 425 を発音（はつおん）する！

What is peculiar about the pitch pattern in the dialect of Takamatsu (in Shikoku)?
→ (1) Unlike the Tokyo dialect, the Takamatsu dialect has ‘falling pitch (on a single mora)’ (F), in addition to high (H) & low (L) pitch.

NOTE: Shouldn’t it be on a ‘single syllable,’ & not on a ‘single mora’?? (MEH)

(2) Also, in this dialect, the first & second morae may have identical pitch.

(3a)-(3j), p. 425 を発音（はつおん）する！

What is peculiar about the pitch pattern in the dialect of Kagoshima (in Kyushu)?
→ Unlike in the Tokyo dialect, the first & second morae may have identical pitch in the Kagoshima dialect.

(4a)-(4h), p. 426 を発音（はつおん）する！

What is peculiar about the pitch pattern in the Kyoto dialect?
→ Unlike in the Tokyo dialect, the first & second morae may have identical pitch in the Kyoto dialect; therefore, 2-mora words can have a 3-way distinction, as opposed to the 2-way distinction in the Tokyo dialect.

(5a)-(5c), p. 426 を発音（はつおん）する！

Are the Tokyo & the Kansai dialects different in terms of intonation contours?
→ Yes. In the Tokyo dialect, assertion sentences end with falling intonation, and interrogative sentences with rising intonation.
In contrast, the Osaka/Kyoto dialects have level intonation for both assertions and questions.

(6)-(9), pp. 426-427 を発音（はつおん）する！

Are the Tokyo & the Osaka/Kyoto dialects different in terms of lexical items, too?
→ Yes, there are many words that are different in the two dialects.

(10), p. 427 を見る！

Can greetings be different depending on the dialects?
→ Yes.

(11)-(12), p. 428 を見る！

Are the Tokyo & the Osaka/Kyoto dialects different in terms of verbal conjugation patterns, too?
→ Yes.

(13), p. 428 を見る！
2. Styles and levels of speech

What is the most obvious means/strategy JPN speakers use to express politeness?
→ Honorifics/Polite Language/Keigo

NOTE: Overuse of Keigo is regarded as 恭敬無礼 (いんげんぶれい) ‘hypocritical courtesy; superficially polite but rude in intent.’

Some facts about Keigo (MEH)

* Keigo is ‘difficult’ for native speakers (NSs) of Japanese, but many consider its use ‘inevitable’ or even ‘desirable’ (Bunkacho Yoron Chosa “national survey,” 1995-2005).

* This is probably related to the general belief that its successful manipulation shows ‘proper’ education and/or upbringing.

* As a result, an amazing array of academic and nonacademic books are available on keigo usage.

* For nonnative speakers (NNSs), keigo is one of the most difficult features of Japanese.

* Keigo materials for learners do exist (e.g. Mizutani and Mizutani 1987; Niyekawa 1991; 金子 2006; 草薙 2006), but those based on research seem rare.

* Keigo usage pertains to self-identity, and thus is a complicated issue. The knowledge about how keigo is actually used and perceived by college-age NSs and NNSs in Japan will be beneficial for learners, whether they wish to model their usage on that of NS or not.
NOTE: (1) It’s not accurate to say ‘The use of respectful verb … indicates the student’s respect for his teacher’ (p. 430). People often use ‘respectful’ and ‘humble’ forms because they are supposed to (or to avoid sounding rude), even to/about individuals for whom they have no respect.

(2) One uses the desu/masu form to people whom one doesn’t know well and to those higher in rank even if they know them well. Otherwise, they would sound too familiar and/or childish.

To whom will each of the above questions be typically used?

Ik-u?: to close equals or social subordinates
   e.g. friends, family members, colleagues, children, younger people who work for you

Iki-masu ka?: to distant equals or social subordinates
   e.g. taxi drivers, neighbors, colleagues, people who work for you

Irasshai-masu ka?: to close or distant social superiors
   e.g. boss, teacher, doctor, friend’s parents
   & distant equals when you’re being polite
   e.g. taxi drivers, neighbors, colleagues who are older or your age

Irasshar-u?: to close equals when you’re being polite
   e.g. colleagues who are your age

Iki-yagar-u ka?: used by men to anyone when they are being very rude in fights

Cf. Ik-u ka?: used by men to close equals or social subordinates when they’re being impolite
3. Gender differences

NOTE
(1) As Jorden (1987) explains, the gender differences in personal pronouns and sentence-final particles should be analyzed NOT as ‘men’s vs. women’s styles,’ but on the continuum of rough/blunt ↔ gentle/soft.

(2) Typo, p. 434 middle: ‘… itashimasu ‘will do’ is a respectful verbal form… ’ → humble verbal form…

pp. 433-435
What kinds of 1st & 2nd person pronouns (=’I’ & ‘you’) are there in JPN, and how are they used?
(24)-(26), pp. 433-434 を見る！

pp. 435-436
Does gender affect the sentence-final particle usage?
→ Yes, some sentence-final particles are used predominantly by men, some predominantly by women, and others by both.
(27)-(29), p. 435 を見る！

p. 436
By whom are words like kuu ‘eat’ (rough),’ and dekai/dekee ‘big (rough)’ predominantly used, men or women?
→ Men.

Are the words ‘profane’ or ‘obscene’?
→ No, they are slang expressions.

By whom is ‘beautification honorifics’ predominantly used, men or women?
→ Women.

p. 436
What is the general rule for attaching polite prefix o- and go-?
→ O- is attached to JPN native words, and go- to S-J words.
(30)-(33), pp. 436-437 を見る！

p. 437
Give an example of a scrambled sentence.
→ ____________________________________________
(35)-(36), pp. 437-438 を見る！

p. 438
NOTE: Sentences like (35)-(36) and sentences like (37)-(39) should NOT be lumped together as right dislocation sentences, in which mainly subjects and objects are affected; e.g.
He’s Mary’s husband, that man over there.
pron. longer/more specific (=afterthought)

First, the two sets of sentences are syntactically different from each other. Only (37) can be analyzed as an instance of right dislocation. Second, (35)-(36) are instances of postposing, which is different from right dislocation (Simon 1989), while in (38)-(39) fragments are simply added to the end of the sentences; i.e. instances of ‘repetition.’

Why do you think women (allegedly) scramble, ‘postpose’, and drop case particles more often than men do?
→ ________________________________

p. 439
NOTE: Haig’s conclusion about the findings in his Nagoya study is questionable. His findings should be probably analyzed in terms of ‘prestige,’ to which women are said to be more attracted than men are universally.
In sociolinguistics, prestige describes the level of respect accorded to a language or dialect as compared to that of other languages or dialects in a speech community. The concept of prestige is also closely tied to the idea of the standard language, in that the most prestigious dialect is likely to be considered the standard language, though there are some notable exceptions to this rule.

What important issue has been raised recently regarding ‘gender indexing’?
- That one must look into wide diversity among a specific gender group, instead of taking traditional gender-specific generalizations for granted.

What is an example of relevant variables?
- Age.
  For example, in Okamoto’s (1997) study, older women tend to use ‘feminine’ forms [e.g.  wa yo] more often than younger female speakers.
  In contrast, the use of ‘strongly masculine’ forms [e.g. zo] was common in younger female speakers data, but virtually non-existent in the middle-age women’s speech.

Isn’t it that women in those areas do NOT use keigo or ‘women’s language’ because they have traditionally done as much work (or more) on the farm as have men, and there was no need to sound polite/feminine? (MEH)

Younger women (esp. teenagers) CHOOSE to use ‘masculine’ forms [e.g. ore, boku, …zo, ittero] to create rapport and solidarity.

Some of these women feel female-specific forms create distance, or even sarcasm, between the speaker and the listener (Okamoto 1997)

SQ7. Why do teenage women use the rough variety to ‘create rapport and solidarity,’ instead of men using the gentle variety to accomplish the same purpose?
- ??
  Both young men and women use ‘youth language’ (若者語) to create rapport and solidarity among themselves. They create many expressions of their own that adults do not understand.

What does Abe’s (2004) study on lesbian bar talk in Japan tell us?
- It is important to distinguish linguistic ideology from actual language use with respect to gender differences.

‘Sunaoshi (2004) explains that the farm women’s almost exclusive use of the dialect, which is devoid of the normative features of female speech, reflects their strategy to create rapport and solidarity.’

IMPORTANT: An accurate description of how men and women actually use (or do not use) gender indexing in the language must go beyond ideological and normative language use by referencing a broad range of factors.

Exercises #3-6
Variation in address terms

'I'm going to quit.' (said by a male teacher)

To his principal: \textit{Wata(ku)shi yamesasete itadakimasu}.
To his colleague: \textit{Boku yamemasu}.
To his friend, wife: \textit{Ore (or boku) yameru yo}.
To his student: \textit{Sensee yameru yo}.
To his child: \textit{(O)toosan (otoochan or papa) yameru yo}.

'Are you tired?' (said to a woman teacher named Yoshiko Yamada)

By her assistant: \textit{Sensee (or Yamada-sensee), otsukare desu ka}.
By her acquaintance: \textit{Yamada-san, tsukareta n desu ka}.
By her close friend: \textit{Anata (or Yoshiko-san, Yoshiko) tsukareta no}?
By her husband: \textit{Kimi (or omae, Yoshiko, Yotchan), tsukareta no}?
By her mother: \textit{Yoshiko (or Yoshiko-san, Yotchan), tsukareta no}?
By her child: \textit{(O)kaasan (or okaachan, mama), tsukareta no}?