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THE NEW USAGE OF JAPANESE REGIONAL DIALECTS:
EMERGENCE AND MOTIVATION

presented by

Misako Matsubara

has been accepted towards fulfillment
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Master's

degree in

Department of Linguistics and
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**THE NEW USAGE OF JAPANESE REGIONAL DIALECT:
EMERGENCE AND MOTIVATIONS**

By

Misako Matsubara

A THESIS

**Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of**

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Linguistics and Germanic, Slavic, Asian, and African Languages

2008

ABSTRACT

THE NEW USAGE OF JAPANESE REGIONAL DIALECT WORDS: EMERGENCE AND MOTIVATION

By

Misako Matsubara

The mixture of regional dialect words and Tokyo Japanese has been reported in some articles (e.g., Inoue 1986a and 1986b) and a newspaper column (e.g., 'The war of dialect') because Tokyo Japanese is generally considered as standard. This study investigates whether gender, age, or both have had an effect on mixing dialect words when speaking in Tokyo Japanese. In this thesis, "dialect" means regional dialect.

This thesis comprises two different studies. The first study determines the use of dialect forms by the Tokyo Japanese. This is based on the blogs of two different age groups (18-19 and over 50). The results were analyzed in terms of gender and age. The results reveal that men use dialect words more frequently than women and that the younger group uses these words more often than the older group. The other study was to determine whether people in general think that the dialect forms are cute and comical, whether people in the Kanto area use them, and who the participants think use these forms. In total, 238 people responded to my questionnaire, and the results demonstrate that the participants do not think that the use of dialect words is either cute or comical. The frequency of the dialect form use is relatively low except for intensifier. Although the use of dialect forms is found throughout the different age groups, younger people are thought to use these forms more often than older people. Major limitations of these studies are noted at the end.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank Dr. Mutsuko Endo Hudson for her continuous support and guidance of this thesis. I am also grateful to Dr. Yen-Hwei Lin and Dr. Suzanne Wagner for giving me insightful comments and advice. Lastly, I would like to show my appreciation who passed around the questionnaire and the participants of the questionnaire. Without their cooperation, I could not complete this thesis. I am also thankful to my family and friends who kept encouraging and supporting me.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. General remarks

Regional dialects have been considered as substandard for a long time in Japan. However, the use of dialect words in Tokyo Japanese by young people has been observed although Tokyo Japanese has been generally regarded as standard in Japan. The present study investigates the use of the mixture of Tokyo Japanese and dialect words by gender and age, and the reasons Tokyo people mix these words in their Tokyo Japanese. One of the examples of this mixture is *a, arede yokato?* ('Oh, is that good?'). *Yokato* is a dialect word that means 'good', and *ii* is the equivalent of *yokato* in Tokyo Japanese. Therefore, the sentence above in Tokyo Japanese is *a, arede ii?*. In this thesis, I will use "dialect" as regional dialect, not social dialect.

Using dialect forms in Japan had been prohibited by the government in Meiji period (1868 – 1912 A.D.) in order to propagate Standard Japanese at the beginning of twentieth century, and it ended up being stigmatized as "bad language" (Kunihiro et al. 1999: 191). Due to the stigmatization, some people who grew up with non-standard forms still have negative feelings on their own variety of Japanese. However, these forms are observed in commercials, rap songs, and the names of snacks and beer as well as printed on local souvenir products (Inoue 2007), and general attitudes to dialects seem to be changing in positive direction (Sato and Yoneda 1999). In the last few years, dialect forms seem to have become popular. There was a part in a popular TV program in which celebrities spoke in their local dialects¹. Books have been published showing how to mix dialect words and Tokyo Japanese, too (e.g., *Kawaii hoogen techoo*).

1. Matthew's BestHitTV from 2001 to 2006

Lexical innovations usually spread and disappear quickly because they are often fad words. No one knows whether this phenomenon will be gone like fad words. It might in fact be disappearing already. It is hoped that this study can document a part of the linguistic change in progress, and that it will contribute to the future study in the use of Japanese dialect words by gender and age as well as sociolinguistics in general.

1.2. Purposes and hypotheses

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate whether or not young people use the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese and why young people in Tokyo mix two or more different varieties of Japanese. I carried out two studies to examine five hypotheses. The first study focuses on the frequency of dialect words used in Tokyo Japanese, and there are two hypotheses to be tested in this study. The data were collected from blogs in a Japanese social networking site, and the results were compared by subjects' gender (man and woman) and age (18-19 and over 50). The second study is mainly about the impressions people have toward the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese, and three hypotheses are tested in this study. The data were collected by an internet survey I developed and conducted.

In my first study, I address two hypotheses to examine the frequency of dialect forms used in Tokyo Japanese by gender and age. There have been many research studies concerning youth language, mainly slang and the use of intensifiers. When looking at the results of youth language studies by gender, men use slang more frequently than women (e.g., Stenström et al. 2002; Jay 1992), and women use intensifiers more frequently than men (e.g., Tagliamonte and Roberts 2005; Macaulay 2006). In terms of age, younger

people used both the slang and the intensifiers with higher frequency than older people (e.g., Strenström et al. 2002; Ito and Tagliamonte 2003). Based on these results, I created the first two hypotheses below since young people are the users of this mixture of language varieties.

Hypothesis 1: There is no gender difference in terms of the frequency of dialect words used in Tokyo Japanese.

Hypothesis 2: Younger people mix dialect forms more frequently than do older people in Tokyo Japanese.

In my second study, the following hypotheses are addressed to explore the reasons behind the dialect word use:

Hypothesis 3: Dialect forms are considered to be cute and comical.

Hypothesis 4: People in Tokyo and the surrounding areas use dialect forms in casual situations.

Hypothesis 5: Younger people are thought to use the dialect forms more than do older people.

A series of columns *The war of dialects* in Yomiuri newspaper in 2006 talked about the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese. Kazuko Miyake² asked college students their impressions of dialect forms, and one of the impressions given was *kawaii* ('cute') (series #68). The author of this column also interviewed high school students, and they said using dialect forms made the speech comical, and it also softened the tone of speech (series #58). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 asked whether people in general also had the same idea as high school students did. Hypothesis 4 was based on the data of Coupland (1980)

2. Professor of Japanese Literature and Culture at Toyo University, Japan

and Labov (2006), which illustrated that style-shifting occurred in everyday speech depending on the contexts, and asked if the participants used dialect forms in Tokyo Japanese in casual situations. Additionally, I asked who the participants think would use this mixture of language (Hypothesis 5). It has been reported that the users of the mixture of dialect words in Tokyo Japanese are young people (e.g., *The war of dialect*), but the general perception might be different.

1.3. Outline of the thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. Literature concerning youth language, dialects in Japan, and some keywords about Japanese youth, is reviewed in Chapter 2. A series of newspaper column *The war of dialects* gave actual examples of the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese, and I cite the examples from series #58 and #68 in Chapter 3. A Japanese map and explanations of each example are added. In Chapter 4, the frequency of dialect words in blogs compared by gender and age is examined, and the results are reported. Chapter 5 describes results on the online questionnaire that investigated people's impressions of the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese. This Chapter includes methodology, participants, results and discussion of the online questionnaire. Conclusion and limitations of the present studies are discussed in Chapter 6.

Chapter 2. Literature review

In this chapter I will review the literature in the following three areas: youth language, Japanese dialects, and some keywords about Japanese youth. The literature on youth language illustrates some characteristics of the language young people use, because mixing dialect words and Tokyo Japanese, which is the focus of this thesis, is popularly believed to have emerged from the speech of young people. Therefore, it seems appropriate to review the literature on youth language in general. Studies regarding Japanese dialects provide background information on dialects in Japan. There is a unique desire, according to Kinsella (1995), particularly among Japanese young people, to be “cute”, which is explained at the end of this section. This desire seems to be the motivation for the use of dialect forms in Tokyo Japanese.

2.1. Youth language

Youth language has been one of the popular areas of sociolinguistic study by many researchers because young people often create a variety of new words and new usage of existing words. Tokyo young people’s mixing of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese is a relatively new phenomenon, so there are some reports focusing on it (e.g., ‘The war of dialects’ 2006; Inoue 1998). Slang vocabulary and a high frequency of intensifier use are two of the features that have been identified as characteristic of youth language in English (e.g., Stenström et al. 2002; Ito and Tagliamonte 2003). Other linguistic features that are characteristic of youth language are the use of the discourse marker *like* (e.g., Romaine and Lange 1991) and quotatives (e.g., Tagliamonte and D’Arcy 2004). In this section, I will focus on slang and the use of intensifiers.

Allen (1998: 878) defines slang as “a vocabulary that has become used and understood with social purpose beyond the boundaries of the subgroup that originated the lexical items or their special meanings.” According to his definition, it seems anyone, men or women, younger or older, could potentially use slang although it is stigmatized. The definition of “intensifier” in *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (1987: 760) is as follows: “a word such as *very* or *extremely*, which you can put in front of an adjective or adverb in order to make its meaning stronger.” Intensifier use has been explored relatively recently, and this phenomenon is similar to the dialect word use among Tokyo Japanese because younger people use intensifiers more frequently than older people, and this seems to be the tendency in the dialect word use in Tokyo Japanese as well. In addition, dialect intensifiers are borrowed into Tokyo Japanese.

2.1.1. Slang

In general, semantic categories of slang range widely from drinking, drugs, music, sports, money, to sexual and other social relations, to name a few (e.g., Allen 1998; Dumas and Lighter 1978). Slang is used not only by young people but also by older people. In Dumas and Lighter’s study (1978: 10), the subjects characterized slang as something that “anyone can recognize”, but “no one can define.”

Strenström et al.(2002) shows that gender and age differences matter in slang use. Strenström et al. (2002), based on the study of the Bergen Corpus of London Teenage Language (COLT), uncovered that teenagers use slang more often than other age groups. In this study, slang covers proper slang, which means words that are labeled as slang in the dictionaries, dirty words, and taboo words. Proper slang such as *man*, *sad*, and *wicked*

was found more frequently than dirty words including taboo words such as *crap* and *bastard* in terms of variation and frequency in this study. Many of the proper slang words express either derogatory meaning or sexual connotations, whereas the large majority of dirty words are linked to sex. This study also reports that male speakers use slang more frequently than female speakers. Jay (1992) confirms male's frequent use of slang over female's. His study concerned "dirty words", which usually is a subcategory of slang and which is offensive. He tape-recorded 12 college students' conversations, six males and six females, in various situations, and noted each slang occurrence. For example, he wrote down who the speakers were, who the listeners were, how old they were by estimation, and how they used slang such as "angry" or "joking". His results reveal that male speakers use slang words more often, and so, in terms of gender difference, the results are the same in terms of gender as those of Stenström et al (2002).

Why do people use slang? What is the function of slang? Some functions that are mentioned are "solidarity" (Yonekawa 1994), "in-group marker" (Taylor 1998), and expectation for boys to be "tough and competitive" (Stenström et al. 2002). Solidarity is one of the functions scholars mention when they talk about youth language, too (Eckert 1988; Okamoto and Sato 1992). The use of special words such as slang that make sense only among a certain group of people can create closeness. Feelings of covert prestige help to build solidarity (Loveday 1986). Covert prestige is a feeling some people have by using particular linguistic forms which are looked down upon in the society or the community. Obviously, slang provides covert prestige and helps to build solidarity. Stenström et al. (2002) refer to the expectation for boys to be tough and competitive, a notion applicable to many cultures. Because many slang words have been considered to

have come from male subcultural languages (Allen 1998), and these words are associated with masculinity, Strenström et al. (2002) writes that boys are to be allowed to use slang and dirty words more than girls. Haig (1991: 14) interviewed and analyzed junior high and high school students in Nagoya, Japan. His results also showed that the dialect word usage was “a covert marker of masculine speech.” Therefore, I speculate that using stigmatized language might add toughness to the male speakers.

Another function some research states is a desire to be original. There are two kinds of being original by young people: one is to use slang frequently compared to other age groups (e.g., Strenström et al. 2002), and the other is to create novel slang words frequently (e.g., Yonekawa 1998). An example of the former case is the frequent slang use. According to Strenström et al. (2002), among the five age groups (10-13, 14-16, 17-19, 20-29, and 30+), the group of 17-19 used 12.2 slang words per 1000 words, which was the highest among these groups. The results of 10-13 and 14-16 groups were close to those of 17-19 (10.6 and 10.7 slang words per 1000 words respectively). The age group of 20-29 used 6.7 slang words per 1000 words, and the age group of 30+ scored only 1.7 slang words per 1000 words. Below an example of the latter case on Japanese is given, although the ways of creating new words are not limited to this. Borrowings from other languages (e.g., English) are common in Japanese, and different meanings are often added to the words when they are used in Japanese. For example, *kurisuchan diooru* (Christian Dior), *kyasshu disupensaa* (Cash Dispenser), and *konpakuto disuku* (Compact Disc) all mean a person who received the grades of C and D mostly because the initial alphabet of these words in English is all C and D.

2.1.2. Studies of Intensifiers

Regional intensifiers are used in Tokyo Japanese, and this is why I am reviewing the literature on intensifiers. All the studies explained here but two are about the use of intensifiers in English.

Strenström et al. (2002: 139) define an intensifier as “items that amplify and emphasize the meaning of an adjective or an adverb,” whereas some other literature (e.g., Ito and Tagliamonte 2003) refer only to adverbs of this kind. *Very* is one of the traditional intensifiers (Tagliamonte and Roberts 2005) and was also the most frequently used intensifier until the 1940s (Fries 1940). Although *very* was formerly the most frequent intensifier, it is now competing with *so* and *really*, which have recently become very frequent in both British and American English. Researchers study the kinds of intensifiers preferred by age and gender as well as by location. Below are examples of studies about intensifiers as they relate to studies of young people’s language.

Ito and Tagliamonte (2003) look at intensifier use in York, England. They analyze the speech data of 48 subjects (eight men and eight women each in three age groups). The data indicate that the subjects between the age of 17 and 34 use intensifiers more frequently than other age groups (35-65 and 66+). Chiavetta (2006) interviewed 24 people, four men and four women each in three age groups (11-20, 21-32, and 33-50), and her results indicate that the age group of 21-32 uses intensifiers more frequently than do the other two groups. Although the youngest group of Chiavetta’s study did not score the highest frequency, the age range between these two groups that use intensifiers the most frequently in the two studies overlaps. It can be assumed then that those who are in their late teens through early 30s use intensifiers frequently.

Several studies have been conducted concerning gender differences in intensifier use. They report opposite results to slang studies: female speakers use intensifiers with higher frequency than male speakers. Tagliamonte and Roberts (2005) analyzed the scripts of an American television series called *FRIENDS* to see the change of trends in intensifier use. *FRIENDS* is a comedy, and the main characters (three men and three women) live in New York City. There are three intensifiers that were predominantly used in this series: *very*, *so*, and *really*. *So* and *really* are used by female characters more often than male characters, but both groups use *very* equally. Macaulay (2006) explores the new intensifier *pure* in Glasgow, Scotland. He recorded the Glasgow working-class adolescents talking with a same-sex friend in 1997, 2003, and 2004; in each of the three time periods, girls used *pure* more frequently than did boys. Stenström et al. (2002) report girls' more frequent use of intensifiers over boys. Stenström (1999) examined the use of five intensifiers, *completely*, *absolutely*, *really*, *bloody*, and *fucking*, in COLT, and her results demonstrate that girls use intensifiers with higher frequency than boys.

Peters (1994) investigated intensifier use in letters written in the 15th, 17th, and 18th centuries. According to his study, even in those early times, women used intensifiers more often than men. Johnson and Roen (1992) observed women's more frequent use of intensifiers in written peer reviews as well. Chiavetta (2006), on the other hand, provides the opposite results. In her interviews, men used intensifiers more often than did women in all age groups (11-20, 21-32, and 33-50). Unfortunately, she did not state the location of her study and the kind of speech community her subjects belonged to in her article. Hence, there is no clue as to the reasons why her study arrived at different results than others.

All the studies discussed above are about the use of intensifiers in English. Turning to Japanese examples, Yonekawa (1998) cited his student's unpublished study about the frequency of intensifiers in Osaka, the western part of Japan. Tatsuko Toyota, the student, had 200 subjects for her questionnaire, 50 each of male college students, female college students, male junior high school students, and female junior high school students. There were 21 intensifiers including non-western dialect words, and the participants were asked to divide them into four groups depending on the frequency of use: i.e., "often use it", "sometimes use it", "have heard but never used it", and "never heard or used it". The results show that *meccha* (western dialect) is the top choice regardless of age and gender. There was no explanation in his book whether *meccha* was a traditional or a new intensifier in the western dialect. Men in both age groups chose more intensifiers in "often use it" group than women. The intensifiers from Tokyo Japanese were frequently used by women in both age groups.

Another study of Japanese intensifier was conducted by Akizuki³ (n.d.), whose results can be found on his website (<http://www17.plala.or.jp/subculing/>). His subjects were 170 people of two age groups who lived in Sendai, the northern part of Japan, and other cities near Sendai: the younger group is from the age of 18 to 22, and the older group is from the age of 30 to 67. There were 11 intensifiers in the questionnaire, and the subjects were asked to choose the frequency they used each intensifier. The choices were "often used it", "sometimes used it", "have heard it but not used it", and "have never heard it." Some are from Tokyo Japanese (e.g., *sugoi*, *choo*, *kanari*), and some are from dialects other than Sendai (e.g., *bari*, *gottsu*). The results unveiled that both age groups

3. Associate Professor, Department of Human Science, Shokei Gakuin University, Japan.

indicated that they used intensifiers from Tokyo Japanese most often. The top three choices of the younger group were *kanari*, *sugoi*, and *sugoku*, and those of the older group were *sugoku*, *totemo*, and *sugoi*, all of which are from Tokyo Japanese. These results imply that Tokyo Japanese was preferred by both age groups in this survey.

Tagliamonte and Roberts (2005) write that it seems that the intensifiers are constantly changing in many places since each new generation adopts new intensifiers, and the frequency of use of older intensifiers also changes. These results also demonstrate that some older intensifiers (e.g., *very*) do not disappear even though new intensifiers (e.g., *so*, *really*) keep joining the variety.

The above studies show the tendency in gender that women use intensifiers more frequently than do men. Regarding age, it seems that the subjects of these studies from their late teens to early 30s make use of intensifiers most often. Furthermore, the studies explained above illustrate different preferences by age, gender, and location. In English, younger groups favor *really* whereas older groups like *very* better (Ito and Tagliamonte 2003). Female speakers use *so* and *really* (Stenström 1999; Tagliamonte and Roberts 2005). In Glasgow, Scotland, young people prefer *pure* (Macaulay 2006), and those in London prefer *really* (Stenström 1999). Furthermore, two studies about the use of Japanese intensifiers show that local variations are more frequently used than Tokyo Japanese in Osaka (Yonekawa 1998), and people in the northern part of Japan use the intensifiers from Tokyo Japanese more often than western dialect (Akizuki n.d.). However, the second study on Japanese intensifiers also demonstrates that a few intensifiers from other areas (e.g., *erai*, *mecha*) are also used in eastern Japan.

2.2. The history of Japanese regional dialects

Sato and Yoneda (1999) claim that Japanese dialects have undergone eradication, rediscovery, and coexistence. Inoue (2007) uses different labels for almost the same time period, which are eradication, description, and entertainment. The following explains each part of the Japanese dialect changes.

In the middle of the Edo period (1603-1868 A.D.), the languages of some regions were incomprehensible for people in other areas (Kunihiro et al. 1999). When the Meiji period (1868-1912 A.D.) started, the government decided to establish a standard language as one way to promote national solidarity. Since the capital at that time was Tokyo, at the beginning of the twentieth century, the government selected one of the varieties spoken in Tokyo, “in particular the dialect of the Yamanote area of the city” (Gottlieb 2005: 7) and labeled it *Hyoojungo* (‘Standard Language’). Radio, the primary means of mass communication at that time, was the best tool to disseminate Standard Japanese. However, the government realized that although Japanese people became able to understand Standard Japanese, they were not able to speak it. Therefore, Standard Japanese was promoted in education. Textbooks were written in Standard Japanese; teachers and students were supposed to use Standard Japanese regardless of the regions they lived in. At the same time, dialects were considered to be hindrances to the further propagation of Standard Japanese, so they became stigmatized as “bad language” (Kunihiro et al. 1999: 191). To discourage people from using their local dialects, *hoogen fuda* (‘dialect tag’) was used in school systems. For example, in Okinawa, the southernmost prefecture of Japan, middle school students who spoke local dialects had to hang a dialect tag around their necks until they caught someone else using local dialect

words. They reported him/her to the teacher, and the tag was passed to the next person (Shibatani 1990). Kondo (2005) describes how students dealt with the dialect tag: some students tried making other people say a local dialect word by stepping on their foot on purpose, and others climbed a tree not to be caught for the dialect tag . This was the time of dialect eradication.

According to Kunihiro et al. (1999), in the 1950s Standard Japanese began to be called *Kyootsuugo* ('Common Japanese'). The general attitude used to be that Standard Japanese was the only variation everyone should use, but the government changed the label to Common Japanese. It "is close to Standard Japanese in all its main features but not as formal" (Gottlieb 2005: 7). With the value of dialects reconsidered, the label of Common Japanese replaced Standard Japanese in the field of education (Mizutani 1990) and Common Japanese spread nationwide later. Although Common Japanese is basically comprehensible throughout Japan, variations of Common Japanese more or less reveal the flavor of each region in different places. Standard Japanese and Common Japanese now refer to the same thing. In this period, according to Sato and Yoneda (1999), people realized that they had denied and ignored dialects, which were culturally valuable. For example, in 1977 the Agency for Cultural Affairs began documenting dialects that were disappearing rapidly in all the 47 prefectures. This period is called rediscovery or description.

The last of the three time periods is called coexistence or entertainment. As a result of the promotion of Standard Japanese education at the beginning of twentieth century, dialects were stigmatized. Since then, dialects have been used on limited occasions such as when the speakers of dialects talked to people from the same area (Sato

1996). For example, he conducted a survey of the people living in Tokyo and Aomori in the late 1980s. Aomori is located in the northernmost part of the main island, and its dialect is known to be difficult to understand for those who live in other regions. The results showed that 96 percent of the Aomori residents in the survey used Common Japanese when they asked for directions in Tokyo. Some of them answered they would not speak their Aomori dialect at all on the train in Tokyo even with other Aomori residents. Instead, they used Common Japanese. These Aomori residents did not want others to hear them speaking in their dialect because it was stigmatized. In contrast, since the late 1980s it is also a time of entertainment. Dialect words were used in commercials, rap songs, and the names of snacks and beer as well as printed on local souvenirs (e.g., handkerchiefs and key chains) (Inoue 2007). The subjects of the survey of Sato and Yoneda (1999) were from 14 cities in Japan and three different age groups⁴, and they also showed positive attitudes and found dialects natural and interesting when they heard them on TV. These facts confirm that the attitudes toward dialects are changing, and that Japanese people are ready to welcome the diversity of language variations within Japanese.

After a few decades Common Japanese was taught all over Japan, Fumio Inoue, a Japanese linguist proposed the term *Shinhoogen* ('New Dialect') in his 1978 paper for the first time. The definition of New Dialect is that "it (a) is used more by younger people than by older people; (b) is treated as stylistically low by users themselves; and (c) has different forms from the standard language." (Inoue 1986b: 329) For example, *-jan*

4. These 14 cities are Sapporo, Hirosaki, Sendai, Tokyo, Chiba, Kanazawa, Matsumoto, Ogaki, Kyoto, Hiroshima, Kochi, Fukuoka, Kagoshima, and Naha. The age of the participants is high school students, 25-40, and over 60.

(‘isn’t it’) was originally used in the central part of Japan and came into Tokyo through the western suburb of Tokyo (Inoue 1986a). This word, not part of Common Japanese, was used by younger people in informal contexts. Hence, Inoue classified *-jan* as New Dialect. The term New Dialect caught on gradually. Research studies have been carried out to report language changes in various places in Japan as well as in foreign countries (Inoue 1991).

Wakamonogo (‘Youth language’) is not a new idea but is another notion that is applicable to the dialect word use in Tokyo Japanese, and the definition is similar to that of the New Dialect. Yonekawa (1998: 15) defines youth language as “the words and expressions that people from early teens to around thirty years-old use within a group.” The youth language has several functions such as entertainment, conversation booster, solidarity, and softening, and it is also “playful and free from norms” (Yonekawa 1998: 15). Youth language is usually used in a certain period of lifetime. For example, many college students use a group of words called *kyanpasu kotoba* (‘campus vocabulary’) and *gakusei go* (‘students’ language’) during the years at college. The latter includes not only the vocabulary about the campus and classes but also the vocabulary frequently used in a college student’s life. For example, *katei kyooshi* (‘tutor’) and *shinjirarenai* (‘I cannot believe it’) are listed as *gakusei go* in Nagase (1999). However, when they start working after graduation, they cease to use *kyanpasu kotoba* because this vocabulary no longer fits their working environment or new lives. Instead, they begin employing vocabulary that is used specifically on the job and/or at the work place.

2.3. The study of Japanese youth

This section portrays characteristics of Japanese young people, who are the main users of dialect words in Tokyo Japanese. First, the concept of being cute is illustrated because the young people who provided the real data to the newspaper indicated that it was the reason they used the dialect forms. Second, the idea of *amae* ('dependency') further explains the importance of cuteness to Japanese society. Last, I describe *yasashisa shikoo* ('the orientation toward gentleness') and being fun-loving as the changing characteristics of current Japanese youth.

2.3.1. *Kawaii* ('cute')

The series of #68 of *The war of dialects* (2006) reports that some dialects are considered *kawaii* ('cute') by some female high school and junior high school students in Tokyo. This is likely the reason for young girls to mix dialect words in Tokyo Japanese. According to Kinsella (1995: 220), *kawaii* means not only cute but also "childlike, sweet, adorable, innocent, pure, simple, genuine, vulnerable, weak" and more. The implication of *kawaii* also adds "trustingly reliant, helpless, unresistingly receptive of love and care" (Lebra 2004: 88). *Kawaii* could be used for fluffy and frilly clothes with pastel colors and children's inability of doing things and speaking (Kinsella 1995). She provided three examples of cuteness by Japanese women in their late teens and twenties: desexualized clothing, rounded writing symbols, and goods with cute characters printed on them.

According to Kinsella (1995), in early 1990s, *kawaii* seems to have gained new meaning: individualization. She shows a picture of a Japanese magazine called *Cutie* issued in August 1993, and several girls who were wearing cute clothing were on the

front cover. They do not wear frills and ribbons. Instead, their clothing embodies rebellious, freedom-seeking, funky, desexualized, and individualistic attitude as Figure 2.1. shows below.

Figure 2.1. Cute fashion without frills and ribbons (Kinsella 1995: 231)



Differentiation from others was important in the 1990s (Sengoku 1996). After Japan lost the Second World War, Japanese people worked very hard to catch up and surpass other advanced countries, especially the United States and Great Britain. Thanks to their hard work, the Japanese economy grew rapidly, and people become able to afford many things. Luxury goods and clothing and oversea travels are affordable nowadays even for college students. Now that the Japanese characterize themselves as “all

belonging to the middle class” with many people owning and doing the same things, young people want to distinguish themselves from others (Sengoku 1996: 74-78). For example, they look for something new that has not been introduced in magazines or that their friends do not own yet.

One example of cuteness is the rounded kana symbols that were very popular among young girls, shown in Figure 2.2. Compare this to the Textbook font in Figure 2.3. When all children in elementary schools practice calligraphy as one of the required subjects, it is usually the Textbook font that is used as the model of writing. It is reported that young girls use this kind of rounded kana symbols when writing short letters to their friends, and that the use of these symbols among young girls disappear when they get a job because their colleagues as well as the employer think that it is not appropriate at work (Yamane 1986).

Figure 2.2. Rounded kana symbols in Japanese (Yamane 1986: 38)

あ	い	う	え	お	か
き	く	け	こ	さ	し
す	せ	そ	た	ち	つ
て	と	な	に	ぬ	ね
の	は	ひ	ふ	へ	ほ
ま	み	む	め	も	や
ゆ	よ	ら	り	る	れ
ろ	わ	を	ん	じ	で

Figure 2.3. Textbook font in Japanese

あ	い	う	え	お	か
き	く	け	こ	さ	し
す	せ	そ	た	ち	つ
て	と	な	に	ぬ	ね
の	は	ひ	ふ	へ	ほ
ま	み	む	め	も	や
ゆ	よ	ら	り	る	れ
ろ	わ	を	ん	じ	で

Another type of example is various goods with characters pictures printed on them. The most famous character of this kind is Hello Kitty (Figure 2.4.), and it appears not only on the notebooks and stationery that target young girls but also on a credit card

(Figure 2.5.). A company called *Sanrio* created Hello Kitty as well as other cute characters, and *Sanrio* has an amusement park in Tokyo that features Hello Kitty and these cute characters. The examples of the credit card and the amusement park reveal that “cuteness” seems to be important not only to girls in their teens but also to adult women.

Figure 2.4. Hello Kitty



Figure 2.5. Hello Kitty credit card



While young women actively “involve in cuteness” (Kinsella 1995: 243), young men also are part of this cuteness by dressing like a young girl and writing rounded kana symbols (Yamane 1986).

The “cuteness worship” comes into the language, too. To make their speech cute, young women often try to sound comical because being humorous is one aspect of *kawaii* (Kinsella 1995) and serves an entertainment function in youth language, which is important (Yonekawa 1994). Dialect words are used to sound humorous. In addition, *The war of dialects* #56 (2006) cites an interview with Mizuho Hidaka⁵, who says that to use dialect words in Tokyo Japanese is like an “accessory.” As accessories can be arranged in various ways, dialect forms can also be used differently from their normal usage.

5. Associate professor of Japanese and Asian Cultures at University of Akita, Japan

Some books list dialect words and show how to mix them into Tokyo Japanese. The titles of these books illustrate how the concept of *kawaii* is important: *Chikappa menkoi hoogen rensyuuchoo* ('A practice book of very *cute* dialects') and *Kawaii hoogen techoo* ('A *cute* dialect handbook'). *Chikappa* means 'very', which is a dialect word used in northern Kyuusyu. *Menkoi* means 'cute' in the northern part of the Japanese main island. Even the name of the editors of the former book is *Kawaii nihongo de nihon o shiawase ni suru kai* ('Group for making Japan happy with *cute* Japanese language').

2.3.2. *Amae* ('dependency')

According to Noguchi (1997, cited in Lebra 2004), being *kawaii* is important for Japanese women in order to be liked by Japanese men. Why is cuteness such an important concept for the Japanese? *Amae* ('dependency') seems to play an important role in being cute. It was first suggested by Doi (1973), a Japanese Psychiatrist. One day his colleague said that the concept of *amae* seemed to be unique to Japanese, and this conversation led him to the research on *amae* although this concept does exist in Western countries as well. It initially "refers to the feelings that all normal infants at the breast harbor toward the mother – dependence, the desire to be passively loved, the unwillingness to be separated from the warm mother-child circle" (Doi 1973: 7). He also explains it as "a noun of *amaeru*, an intransitive verb which means 'to depend and presume upon another's benevolence'" (Doi 1973: 145).

This concept is not only relevant for infants. It can also be seen in the relationships between two adults. Maynard (1990) writes that *amae* prevails within a feeling of *uchi* ('inner-group'). *Uchi* usually consists of one's family members and close

people, and the feeling of *uchi* also takes place in parent-child-like relationships. Some of the examples of parent-child-like relationships are a chief and a subordinate in a work situation, and a senior and a junior in school. A subordinate and a junior in these situations depend on the superiors for help and support (Lebra 2004), which is taken positively, and Lebra (1976) even notes this kind of relationships are desirable. Those who know how to solicit one's indulgence have easier time in Japan than people who do not (Lebra 1976) because people who can depend on others are likely to be considered as *kawaii* to those who are in the parent roles.

The fact that Japanese has a specific word for this concept and that European languages do not have a direct translation reveals its importance in the Japanese culture (Doi 1973). Therefore, considering the *amae* mentality, Japanese people place high value on being *kawaii*.

2.3.3. Characteristics of Japanese youth

There are a couple of other keywords to describe Japanese young people: *yasashisa shikoo* ('orientation toward gentleness') (Yonekawa 1994) and being fun-loving (Sengoku 1996).

According to Yonekawa (1994), *yasashisa shikoo* ('orientation toward gentleness') is one characteristic of youth language. Nobody wants to hurt others or be hurt. Everyone worries about having conflicts with others, and expressing different opinions from those of others. When young people need to say something critical, they use different vocabulary instead of changing the whole phrase to soften the tone of their speech, and this is a softening function of youth language (Yonekawa 1998). He also

points out that the reason for using a different word instead of changing the whole phrase is due to lack of communication skills. One of the reasons is that they are young and less experienced in life compared to adults. Also, many young people grow up without experiencing personal interactions such as fighting, arguing, or reconciling face-to-face because many of them are the only child and they are busy studying at after-school cram schools (Kageyama 1999). He also states that new communication tools with technology such as e-mail and cell phones replace direct contacts between people, and they even help young people to form superficial relationships. Lauwereyns (2000: 2) examined the use of hedges by Japanese people in Tokyo. She defined hedges “as expressions of uncertainty, possibility, tentativeness, and approximation which convey a sense of vagueness” in her dissertation. For instance, hedges in English are *I think*, *sort of*, and *perhaps*. She notes that the frequent use of hedges by younger speakers could be related to the lack of personal interactions and the forming of superficial relationships.

Sengoku (1996) introduced another youth characteristic, being fun-loving. One example is that athletes having big competitions often answer in interviews *tanoshinde imasu* (‘I am enjoying (the games/situations’). Fifty years ago, no athletes said this kind of phrase. They used to say *kuni no tameni ganbari masu* (‘I will do my best for my country’). He claims that being fun-loving in any situation is becoming important among younger generations. Since using dialect forms in Tokyo Japanese is one way to make conversations sound comical among young people, being fun-loving is related to it.

2.4. Summary

To know the tendency of young people’s language compared by gender and age,

Section 2.1. discussed the research of slang and intensifiers, which is a specialty of young people. These studies show similar results: 1) In terms of age, younger people use both slang and intensifiers more often than older people. 2) In terms of gender, men use more slang than women, and women use intensifiers more frequently than men. However, Chiavetta (2006)'s results show that men use intensifiers more often than women.

Next, I presented a brief history of Japanese dialects in 2.2. Although *Hyoojungo* ('Standard Language') and *Kyootsuugo* ('Common Language') are the same thing, Standard Language education created stigma for dialects. The survey results of Sato and Yoneda (1999) reveal that the general attitude toward dialects has been changing in a positive direction. I also explained the concept of youth language because it looks the mixing of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese is common in that variety.

The last section, 2.3., explained some keywords about Japanese youth because it is they who mix dialect words and Tokyo Japanese most according to the literature. The desire to project oneself *kawaii* ('cute') seems to be a motivation of this mixture because, based on *amae* ('dependency'), being cute is important and pervasive. In addition, *yasashisa shikoo* ('orientation toward gentleness') and being fun-loving further explains the characteristics of the Japanese youngster, who are the main users of mixing dialect words and Tokyo Japanese.

Based on the above, I will construct two hypotheses in Chapter 4 to examine whether there are differences in the dialect word use by gender and age. The concepts introduced in the section 2.3. will be the foundations of three hypotheses in Chapter 5, and whether a desire to sound cute and comical is important or not will be examined in the internet questionnaire.

Chapter 3. Sample sentences of the mixture of Tokyo Japanese and dialect words

Five examples are given below, taken from a series of newspaper articles entitled *Hoogen no tataikai* ('The war of dialects') in Yomiuri newspaper (series #59 and #65, 2006). This series started on April 4th, 2006 and continued until September 15th, 2006. The first example was said by a female high school student in Tokyo, and was collected by the columnist. The rest were taken from text messages among college students in Tokyo, and they were collected by Professor Kazuko Miyake at Toyo University, Japan. Dialect words are italicized. The Tokyo Japanese version is shown in the parentheses, with the words corresponding to the dialect words italicized. The areas where the dialect words are originally from are indicated on the Japanese map in Figure 3.1. (Shibatani 1990).

The areas in the map filled with horizontal lines are the eastern part of Japan, and the dotted area is considered as the western part. The area with vertical lines is called Kyuusyuu, and people in this area use Kyuusyuu dialect. A, B, and C were added on the map to indicate the sources of the dialect words:

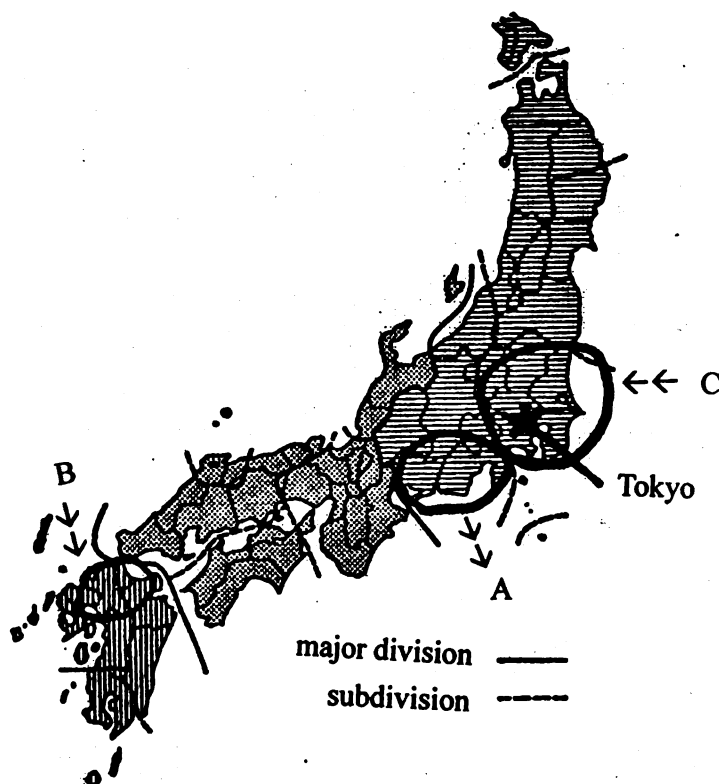
- (1) [by a female high school student]
tsukue *tsur-oo* yo. (=tsukue *hakoboo* yo.)
desk carry-vol⁶-NONPAST TQ
'Let's carry the desk.'

6. The abbreviations used for the gloss are the following:

CON	conviction particle	COP	copula verb	EXC	exclamation particle
EXP	explanation particle	INST	instrument particle	NONPAST	nonpast tense
PAST	past tense	Q	question particle	QUOTE	quotation particle
RES	resultant state	TOP	topic particle	TQ	tag question particle
Vol	volitional form				

- (2) [by a male college student]
 a, are-de *yoka-to?* (=a, are de ii?)
 Oh that-INST good-NONPAST-Q
 'Oh, is that good?'
- (3) [by a female college student]
 doo shita-*n?* (=doo shita *no?*)
 how do-PAST-Q
 'What happened?'
- (4) [by a female college student]
 Watashi-wa mata korekara *jugyoo-dabe* yoo.
 I-TOP again from now class-COP-NONPAST CON
 'I have a class now again.'
 (=watashi wa mata kore kara *jyugyoo da yoo.*)

Figure 3.1. Geographic division of Japanese dialects



- (5) [by a male college student]
 juuden yabai-n- ya na.
 (battery) charge risky-EXP-COP-NONPAST TQ
 'The battery is almost gone, isn't it?'
 (=juuden yabai *nda ne.*)

The dictionary form of *tsur-oo* in example (1) is *tsuru*, which means 'to carry an object by two or more people' in area A in the above map. *Yoka-to* in example (2) is mostly used in B area. *Yoka* corresponds to *ii* ('good') and *to* is used as a question particle. In example (3), the use of *n*, instead of *no*, at the end of the sentence is characteristic of the western and Kyuusyuu areas. *Dabe* in example (4) is originally from area C except Tokyo. *Yana* in example (5) is generally used in the western and Kyuusyuu areas. All the examples except (1) are well-known words from each area so that most Japanese people will understand the sentences. *Tsuru* has a different meaning in Tokyo, which is to fish, and the usage of the example (1) does not make sense unless one knows it. As these examples show, young people in Tokyo use dialectal forms from various areas. Based on these sentences, the dialect words used in Tokyo Japanese seem to be mainly verbs and particles.

Chapter 4. Study of dialect word use in blogs

4.1. Hypotheses

The newspaper columns (*'The war of dialects'*) reported on the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese as shown in the examples in the previous chapter. The studies reviewed in Chapter 2 show that a higher frequency of slang and intensifier use is found among teenagers and those in their twenties. In those studies, however, men used slang more frequently than women, and women used intensifiers more often than men. Based on these results, the hypotheses to be tested in this study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There is no gender difference in terms of the frequency of
dialect words used in Tokyo Japanese.

Hypothesis 2: Younger people mix dialect forms more frequently than do older
people in Tokyo Japanese.

4.2. Subjects

The subjects in this study totaled 127, as shown in Table 4.1 below. They are all members of a Japanese social networking site called *Mixi* (mixi.jp). *Mixi* is the biggest social networking site in Japan, and the number of registered members exceeded ten million as of May 2007. The users of this site can write a blog, join virtual communities, send messages to other members, and upload photos. The subjects of the present study were searched by gender (male and female), age (18-19, and over 50), place of birth, and current residence. The birthplace and current residence were restricted to Tokyo except for the group of women over 50, although it does not necessarily mean that the subjects have been living in the same places all their lives. I had difficulty finding the subjects in

the group of women over 50 who were born and lived in Tokyo at that time, so I needed to expand the areas of their birthplace and current residence to obtain data. The subjects in the group of women over 50 are from or currently reside in Tokyo or the prefectures near Tokyo, and they are Kanagawa, Saitama, Chiba, Gunma, Tochigi, and Ibaragi prefectures. Table 4.1. shows the number of subjects in each of the four categories.

Table 4.1. The number of participants in the blog study

	Young (18-19)	Old (over 50)	Total
Male	40	30	70
Female	34	23	57
Total	74	53	127

The internet is an anonymous space, and anyone can pretend to have different identities, as other researchers have observed (e.g. Gao 2004; Huffaker and Calvert 2005). In other words, there is a possibility that the information about the subjects of this study does not represent to the true information. However, it was impossible for me to validate the identity of every respondent to the present study. It should be noted that people over 50 who are members of a social networking site might be a special group. Even though the Internet penetration rate has been growing in Japan, according to the 2006 Whitepaper for Information and Communication in Japan issued by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, it is not as common for older people to write blogs and participate in a social networking site as for younger people. It is, therefore, possible that the subjects of the present study do not accurately represent the reality, especially about older people.

4.3. Methodology

The data for this study were collected from January 2007 to May 2007 to determine whether people do indeed mix dialect words in Tokyo Japanese. Some bloggers restrict their blogs only to those who have registered each other as friends. Even though I found many possible subjects after searching, I was not able to enter many of these blogs. In addition, some blogs contained dialect words and some did not, so I decided to use only the blogs that contained a dialect word. Table 4.2. shows the number of blog entries used in this study. On average, there are 2.76 blog entries per person.

Table 4.2. The number of blog entries used in this study

	Young (18-19)	Old (over 50)	Total
Male	136	52	188
Female	125	38	163
Total	261	90	351

Next, all dialect words were identified and confirmed by Makimura (2004), Tojo (1966), and other dialect reference books⁷. The list of dialect forms is provided in Appendix A. The number of the dialect words found on the blogs was counted, and the four most frequently used words, one of which was a category, were used for further analysis. These four words are as the following. The word in Common Japanese is listed first, the dialect words are written after slash, and its meaning in the parenthesis: *-da* / *-ya* (copula), intensifiers such as *totemo*, *sugoku* / *meccha*, *deeji* ('very'), *damedai* / *ikan*, *akan* ('not good'), and *-teiru* / *-toru*, *-too*, *-choru* (action in progress or resultant state).

7. Inoue and Yarimizu (2002), *Kawaii hoogen de nihon o shiawase ni suru kai* (Ed.). (2005), *Kawaii hoogen techoo* ('A cute dialect handbook'). (2005), *Kotoba tanteidan* (Eds.). (2005), Kurosaki (n.d.), *Matthew's Best hit TV* (Ed.) (2005), Yamashita (2004)

Examples of these dialect words follow. All the examples were taken from the blog data I collected.

(6) [by a young male subject]
 Maji happii ya. (=maji happi *da.*)
 Very happy COP⁶-NONPAST
 ‘I am very happy.’

(7) [by an older male subject]
 Saisho wa *meccha* kinchooshita naa.
 At first TOP very get nervous-PAST EXC
 ‘I got very nervous at first.’
 (=saisho wa *sugoku* kinchooshita naa.)

(8) [by a young male subject]
 Kore jaa *ikan* to omou.
 This INST(casual) not good QUOTE think-NONPAST
 ‘I think this is not good.’
 (=kore jaa *ikenai* to omou.)

(9) [by a young female subject]
 Barentain owat-*toru.* (= barentaine owat-*teru.*)
 Valentine’s day finish-RES-PAST
 ‘Valentine’s day is already passed.’

A list of variations of these four dialect forms is presented in Table 4.3. below. The number of tokens of each dialect form over the total tokens was counted, and the rate of the dialect forms over the total tokens was counted. The rate of these four dialect words are compared by gender and age in Tables 4.6. to 4.12.

6. The abbreviations used for the gloss are the following:

CON	conviction particle	COP	copula verb	EXC	exclamation particle
EXP	explanation particle	INST	instrument particle	NONPAST	nonpast tense
PAST	past tense	Q	question particle	QUOTE	quotation particle
RES	resultant state	TOP	topic particle	TQ	tag question particle
Vol	volitional form				

Table 4.3. The list of variations of four English elements

English	Non-dialectal variations	Dialectal variations
Intensifiers (very/totally greatly etc.)	<i>totemo, kanari, sootoo, choo, maji(de), gattsuri, honto(ni), riaru(ni), tera, futsuu(ni), kuso, yabai, zettaini, sugoi (sugoku), hanpanaku, honkide, omoikkuso, shinuhodo, totetsumonaku, kanpeki, choozetsu, osoroshiku</i>	<i>deeji</i> – used in the very southern part of Kyuusyuu (Okinawa) <i>meccha, muccha, errai, erai, messa, honma, mechanko, mecha</i> – used in the western part of Japan <i>namara</i> – used in the very northern part of eastern Japan
Copula verb	<i>–da</i>	<i>–ya</i> – used in the western part of Japan
Not good	<i>ikenai</i>	<i>ikan / akan</i> – used in the western part of Japan
Action in progress / Resultant state	<i>–teiru</i>	<i>–toru, –choru, –too</i> – used in the western part of Japan

In fact, there were three dialect words that were removed from the list intentionally. One was *–ja* (copula). Although it was not used frequently, its meaning is the same as *–da* in Tokyo Japanese, so it was possible to be included in the list. However, it has been used not only as copula in some dialects but also stereotypically in the language of older people regardless of the regions (Kinsui 2003), and these usages were hardly distinguishable from each other especially in written texts. Therefore, I decided to remove it from the list. Another dialect word that was removed from the list was *–n* ('not') for the same reason as *–ja* although *–n* was employed more frequently by all the groups. The other dialect word was *uchi* 'I (feminine)'. This was used very frequently by young female members. Since this word is originally gender-biased, this word was excluded from the analysis as well.

4.4. Results and Discussion

4.4.1. General results

Fifty seven different kinds of dialect forms were identified (Table 4.4.) in the data.

Table 4.4. The total number of dialect forms appearing in the blog study

Gender	Age	Kinds of dialectal forms
Male	18-19	36
	Over 50	28
Female	18-19	36
	Over 50	24
Total		57 different kinds

Young people used a wider variety of dialect forms than did older people. In terms of gender, a slight difference was found between males and females in the older groups but no difference was observed between males and females in the younger groups. However, only nine of the 57 kinds of the dialect words were used by all four groups. The total number of dialect word tokens that appear in this study is 537. In addition, the number of each dialect word used in each group is shown in Appendix B.

Table 4.5. The number of occurrences of dialect forms divided by open and closed class words

Gender	Age	Open class words	Closed class words	Total
Male	18-19	95	98	193
	Over 50	46	44	90
Female	18-19	107	104	211
	Over 50	24	19	43
Total		272	265	537

I divided 57 dialect forms into the categories of open and closed classes to determine whether there is a difference, and the results are displayed in Table 4.5. above.

In all groups, the number of each category is almost same. Therefore, no differences were found either by gender or age.

4.4.2. Results of selected dialect forms

Further, four kinds of frequently used Tokyo Japanese words were selected. These are the intensifiers (e.g., “*very*” and “*really*”), *–da* (copula), *dame(da)* (‘not good’), and *–teiru* (action in progress and resultant state). I counted all kinds of intensifiers as a category while I looked at the specific words for the other three groups. Dialectal variations of each Tokyo Japanese word are listed in Table 4.3. above, and sample sentences containing these words are given above in (6) to (9) also.

The number of total tokens of these words is given in Table 4.6. Younger male group used the dialect words the most frequently, followed by older male group and then younger female group. These three groups employed the dialect words to a similar extent. On the other hand, the older female group used them about half the number of times the younger female group did.

Table 4.6. The number of total tokens of intensifiers, *–ya* (copula), *ikan / akan* (‘not good’), and *–toru / –too / –choru* (action in progress / resultant state)

Gender	Age	Dialect words	Tokyo JPN	Total	
Male	18-19	137	598	735	(18.6%)
	Over 50	38	189	227	(16.7%)
Female	18-19	102	579	681	(15%)
	Over 50	18	212	230	(7.8%)
Total		295	1578	1873	

Tables 4.7. and 4.8. show the results of Table 4.6. by gender and age. In terms of gender, males used these words more often than females. As for age, the younger group

showed more frequent use of these words than the older group. However, the differences between the groups in both tables are not significantly large.

Table 4.7. The total number of tokens by gender

Gender	Dialect words	Tokyo JPN	Total
Male	175	787	962 (18.2%)
Female	120	791	911 (13.2%)
Total	295	1578	1873

Table 4.8. The total number of token by age

Age	Dialect words	Tokyo JPN	Total
Young (18-19)	239	1177	1416 (16.9%)
Old (over 50)	56	401	457 (12.3%)
	295	1578	1873

When the occurrences of four dialect words were counted separately, they exhibited mixed results.

Table 4.9. The total number of dialectal intensifiers

Gender	Age	Dialect words Total	Tokyo JPN	Total
Male	18-19	63 (35.4%)	115	178
	Over 50	20 (64.5%)	11	31
Female	18-19	48 (23.4%)	156	204
	Over 50	13 (61.9%)	8	21
Total		144 (33.1%)	290	434

Table 4.9. shows the intensifiers as a single group though many kinds of intensifiers appeared in this study. The young male group employed dialect words a little more than half as often (35.4%) as the older male group (64.5%) while the older female group employed them close to three times as often (61.9%) as the younger female group

(23.4%). It is also worth noting that males of both age groups used dialect words more often than females of both age groups. As for *-ya* (copula), younger groups of both genders used it more often than the older groups, but gender differences within the same age groups were minimal (Table 4.10.).

Table 4.10. The total number of *-ya* (copula)

Gender	Age	- ya	Tokyo JPN	Total
Male	18-19	50 (13.2%)	324	374
	Over 50	6 (5.5%)	94	100
Female	18-19	47 (13%)	311	358
	Over 50	3 (2%)	139	142
Total		106 (10.6%)	868	974

Concerning *dame(da)* ('not good'), all groups except for the young female group recorded frequent use of this word (Table 4.11.). Though there was not a big difference between the male groups, the female groups revealed a huge difference. This is probably due to the lack of tokens in older female group since the older female group had only one token in this category.

Table 4.11. The total number of *dame(da)* ('not good')

Gender	Age	<i>ikan</i>	<i>akan</i>	<i>ikan / akan</i> total	Tokyo JPN	Total
Male	18-19	8 (44.4%)	3 (16.7%)	11 (61.1%)	7	18
	Over 50	3 (50%)	1 (16.7%)	4 (66.7%)	2	6
Female	18-19	2 (28.6%)	0	2 (28.6%)	5	7
	Over 50	0	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	0	1
Total		13 (40.6%)	5 (15.6%)	18 (56.2%)	14	32

Table 4.12. shows the frequency of dialect words used for action in progress / resultant state. It also shows that male groups used them more often than female groups.

The older groups displayed a big difference whereas the younger groups showed similar results. Again, the older female group used these dialect words only once, so it is difficult to generalize.

Table 4.12. The total number of *-teiru* (action in progress / resultant state)

Gender	Age	<i>-toru</i>	<i>-too</i>	<i>-choru</i>	<i>-toru / -tool</i>	Tokyo JPN	Total
					<i>-choru total</i>		
Male	18-19	9 (5.5%)	0	2 (1.2%)	11 (6.8%)	152	163
	Over 50	6 (6.8%)	1 (1.1%)	0	7 (8%)	81	88
Female	18-19	6 (5.4%)	0	0	6 (5.4%)	106	112
	Over 50	0	0	1 (1.5%)	1 (1.5%)	65	66
Total		21 (4.9%)	1 (0.2%)	3 (0.7%)	25 (5.8%)	404	429

The next two figures demonstrate the frequency of each selected dialect word compared by gender and age. Only slight differences are recognized except for “not good” when compared by gender (Figure 4.1.), but “intensifier” and “not good” (Figure 4.2) showed bigger differences. Intensifiers and “not good” were used much more often than the other two words in dialect words shown in the following two figures.

Figure 4.1. The rate of selected dialect words by gender

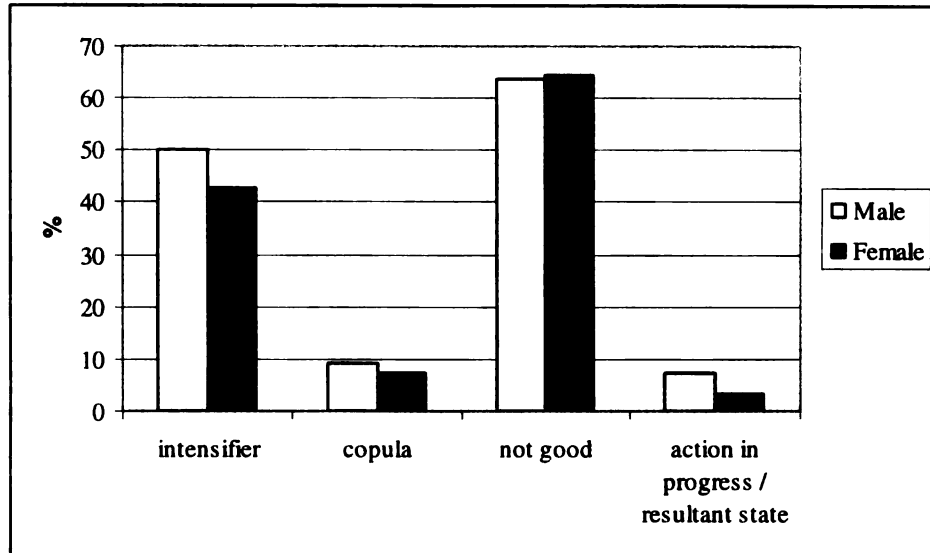
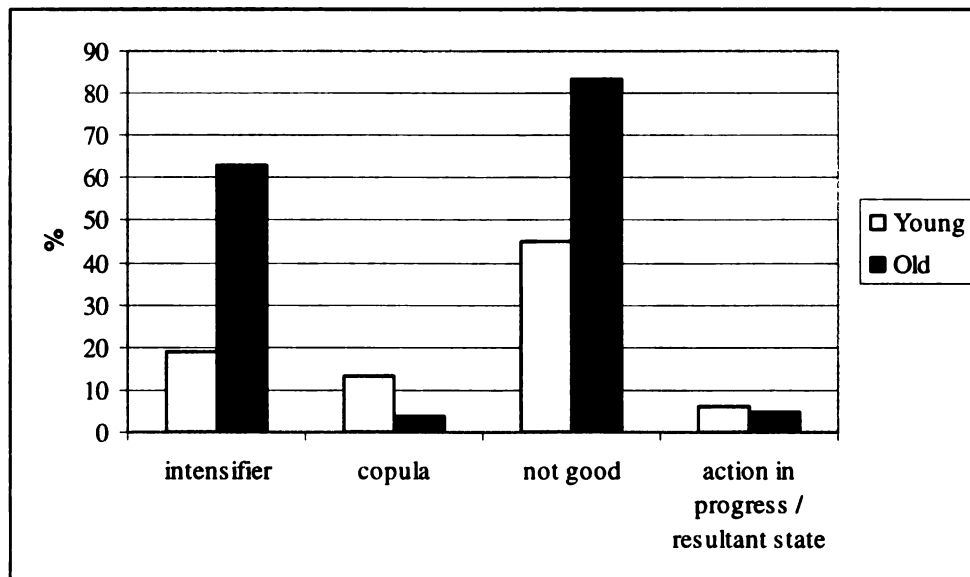


Figure 4.2. The rate of selected dialect words by age



4.4.3. Discussion

The results of this blog study show that, in terms of gender, men used dialect words more frequently than women, which does not support Hypothesis 1: There is no gender difference in terms of the frequency of dialect words used in Tokyo Japanese.

These results may be associated with the idea that non-standard forms assert masculinity (Trudgill 1983; Haig 1991). Non-standard forms in Tokyo are the dialect forms from other areas in this case, so the higher frequency by men can be explained, similar to the results of slang vocabulary studies.

With respect to age, younger people used dialect forms more often than did older people when the total number is compared, which is in line with Hypothesis 2: Younger people mix dialect forms more frequently than do older people in Tokyo Japanese. However, Figure 4.2. reveals mixed results. Looking closer at the four most frequently used dialect forms, the older group used dialect forms of intensifiers (e.g., *erai*, *meccha*) and *ikan* / *akan* ('not good') more often than the younger group. On the other hand, both groups used *-toru*, *-too*, and *-choru* (action in progress / resultant state) to the same degree, and the younger group used *-ya* (copula) more often than the older group. It is fair to say that the frequency of these words in Tokyo Japanese shows the same tendency as the slang vocabulary discussed in Chapter 2.

The results for intensifiers (e.g., *erai*, *meccha*) and *ikan* / *akan* ('not good') in Figure 4.2. are unexpected. The older group used these two kinds almost twice as frequently as the younger group. It may be because people in the older group have lived in places other than the Kanto area. Although I could restrict the prefectures of the participants to where they were born and currently live, there was no way to find out all the places that they had lived in from their profile pages. It is possible that they have retained those local varieties. There is also a possibility that they could have been influenced by their friends, children, or colleagues at work.

Ikan and *akan* ('not good') are negative evaluation words, and it is possible that

the subjects of this study used dialect words instead of Tokyo Japanese to soften the impact on the listener. Therefore, I also looked at a few other evaluation words that appeared in this study to find out whether they demonstrated the same trend as *ikan* and *akan* ('not good') (Figure 4.2.); i.e., *ee / yoka* ('good'), *kakkoe* ('cool'), and *aho* ('stupid'). Obviously, "good / cool" are positive evaluation words, and "stupid" is a negative evaluation word like "not good".

Table 4.13. The total number of *aho* ('stupid')

Gender	Age	<i>aho</i>	Tokyo JPN	Total
Male	18-19	3 (75%)	1	4
	Over 50	1 (100%)	0	1
Female	18-19	6 (75%)	8	14
	Over 50	4 (57.1%)	3	7
Total		14 (53.8%)	12	26

Table 4. 14. The total number of *ee / yoka* ('good') and *kakkoe* ('cool')

Gender	Age	Dialect words Total (<i>ee / kakkoe / yoka</i>)	Tokyo JPN	Total
Male	18-19	8 (20.5%)	31	39
	Over 50	5 (26.3%)	14	19
Female	18-19	2 (3.7%)	54	56
	Over 50	1 (4.5%)	22	23
Total		16 (11.7%)	121	137

Table 4.13. shows that the subjects of this blog study used dialect forms of *aho* more often than Tokyo Japanese. Though the number of tokens is small, these data show that using dialect forms in Tokyo Japanese may soften the tone to some extent. Moreover, Table 4.14. below illustrates the result of positive evaluation words, and that the subjects used Tokyo Japanese more often than dialect forms this time. Since I have looked at only three kinds of evaluation words, "not good", "stupid", and "good / cool", further

investigation is necessary to reach a definitive conclusion.

I would also like to refer to the kinds of intensifiers appeared in the data, so it could be a reference for the future studies of Japanese intensifiers (Tables 4.15. and 4.16.). There were 30 different intensifiers appeared in the present study. 22 were in Tokyo Japanese, and eight in dialect forms. Meccha (Kansai dialect) was the most frequently used intensifier in this data. Younger groups employed wider variety of intensifiers than older groups, and many of these intensifiers seemed newly joined to the variety (e.g., *gattsuri* and *choozetsu*).

Table 4.15. The frequency of Tokyo Japanese intensifiers used in the data (YM=younger male, OM=older male, YF=younger female, OF=older female)

	YM	OM	YF	OF	Total
<i>honto(ni)</i> ⁸	38	3	45	1	87
<i>maji(de)</i>	16	1	50		67
<i>sugoku (sugoi)</i>	15		22	1	38
<i>kanari</i>	14	3	17	3	37
<i>totemo</i>	8		3	2	13
<i>choo</i>	3	1	9		13
<i>zettaini</i>	4			1	5
<i>riaru(ni)</i>	4		1		5
<i>futsuuni</i>	4		1		5
<i>gattsuri</i>	2		1		3
<i>hanpanaku</i>	2				2
<i>yabai</i>	2				2
<i>sootoo</i>		1	1		2
<i>tera</i>	1		1		2
<i>honkide</i>	1		1		2
<i>kuso</i>	1				1
<i>osoroshiku</i>		1			1
<i>shinuhodo</i>		1			1
<i>totetsumonaku</i>			1		1
<i>choozetsu</i>			1		1
<i>omoikkuso</i>			1		1
<i>kanpeki</i>			1		1
Total	115	11	156	8	290

8. This word includes *honto*, *hontoo*, *hontoni*, and *hontooni*.

Table 4.16 The frequency of dialectal intensifiers used in the data
 (YM=younger male, OM=older male, YF=younger female, OF=older female)

	YM	OM	YF	OF	Total
meccha (mecha)	50	12	33	11	106
honma	1	3	7	1	12
messa	5	1	4		10
deeji	3				3
mechanko	2		3	1	6
erai (errai)	1	4			5
muccha	1				1
namara			1		1
Total	63	20	48	13	144

Chapter 5. Study of impressions of mixing dialect forms used in Tokyo Japanese

5.1. Hypotheses

Chapter 2 showed that the perception of dialects in Japan has been changing in a positive direction, and that Japanese youth consider dialect forms as “cute” and “funny / comical.” This second study aims to investigate whether people think dialect forms “cute” and “funny / comical” or not in relation to gender, age, and the frequency of their use. The hypotheses for this study are:

Hypothesis 3: Dialect forms are considered to be cute and comical.

Hypothesis 4: People in Tokyo and the surrounding areas use dialect forms in casual situations.

Hypothesis 5: Younger people are thought to use the dialect forms more than do older people.

5.2. Methodology

I conducted a study regarding the impression of mixing a dialect form in Tokyo Japanese using an online survey open to the public. I used a free survey site (www.efeel.to). All the questions asked are listed in Appendix C. On top of the page, the information required by the Institutional Review Board was shown, and 30 multiple-choice questions followed. The participants were asked to give background information such as gender, age, date of birth, place of birth, and the prefecture of their current residence, at the end of the questionnaire.

The participants in this questionnaire were Japanese people who had lived in Japan for at least the last three years and were still living in Japan. They also had to be at

least 18 years of age. The reason they had to have lived in Japan for the last three years is that the participants might have missed encountering this linguistic phenomenon in Japan if they lived in foreign countries.

I asked the date of birth in this study to see how effective the request I posted on the social networking site was. To encourage as many participants as possible, my academic adviser and I sent an e-mail to friends and acquaintances asking them to participate in this survey. We asked them to write 99/99 as their date of birth to distinguish them from the participants who saw the request. This way, I could separate the answers of those with the 99/99 date of birth from others and compare whether these two groups showed any difference. The request I actually posted on the social networking site is in Appendix C.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, due to the anonymity of web space, the web identity does not necessarily match the real-life identity. There is also the possibility that one person participated in the survey multiple times. But there is no way to prevent it, and I do not think many people would fill out the survey more than once since there is no benefit. I tried to have as many participants as possible in order to neutralize these disadvantages of cyber space.

The survey started June 19, 2007 and continued through August 3, 2007 at www.efeel.to/survey/japanese. There were five Japanese sentences with dialect forms mixed in, and each sentence accompanied a set of six multiple-choice questions. Each sentence was provided with a situation followed by questions. For example, the first question was: “While you were on a train, you heard the following sentence ... If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?” The participants were asked

to choose the closest answer from the five choices between “not cute at all” and “very cute”. The second question asked “if **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?” with the same choices. The next two questions are whether the same sentence sounds “funny / comical” first if a man says it, and second if a woman says it, followed by five choices from “not funny / comical at all” to “very funny / comical.” The fifth question asked whether the participants themselves used this kind of sentence or not. This was also followed by five choices: “often use it,” “sometimes use it,” “seldom use it,” “have heard it but not used it,” and “have never heard or never used it.” The last question asked the participants who they think says this kind of sentence from among six choices: “men under 25,” “men between 25 and 50,” “men over 50,” “women under 25,” “women between 25 and 50,” and “women over 50.” The participants were asked to select the closest answer to their impression for the first five questions, but for the last question, the participants could select as many choices as they wanted. All the five sentences were taken from the blog data I collected in Chapter 4, and they contained two open class words, *meccha* (intensifier, Kansai dialect) in the first sentence and *kakkoe* (‘cool’, Kansai dialect) in the third sentence, and three closed class words, *-ya* (copula, Kansai dialect) in the second sentence, *-hen* (negative, Kansai dialect) in the fourth sentence, and *-nen* (assertion and explanation, Kansai dialect) in the fifth sentence. One sentence was a mixture of Common Japanese and a dialect word, and other four were entirely in regional dialects.

5.3. Results and discussion

5.3.1. Participants

The online survey ran for 45 days at www.efeel.to/survey/japanese. The total number of answers received was 238. Of the 238 participants, 59 were men, and 179 were women. There were 105 participants who saw the request on the social networking site whereas 133 participants were recruited from the personal contacts. Depending on the age group, the number of participants varied widely. I regrouped participants into three: Group 1 is from ages 18 to 29, group 2 from 30 to 39, and group 3 over 40. Table 5.1. shows the number of participants in each age group.

Table 5.1. The number of participants by age group

	Age	Male	Female	Total
1	18-29	33	100	133
2	30-39	14	45	59
3	40-	12	34	46
	Total	59	179	238

The 238 people who participated in my survey were from all over Japan, therefore some people used dialect words in the sentences of their every day speech, and some did not. To specifically look at the impression of people in the Kanto area, which includes the prefectures of Tokyo, Chiba, Kanagawa, Saitama, Ibaragi, Gunma, and Tochigi, I summarized the results of people who were born in and currently live in one of the prefectures of the Kanto area. Table 5.2. shows the number of people who were categorized as the “Kanto people”.

Table 5.2. The number of the “Kanto people”

	Age	Male	Female	Total
1	18-29	9	41	50
2	30-39	6	17	23
3	40	5	11	16
	Total	20	69	89

5.3.2. Hypothesis 3

This section provides the results of the first four questions for each sentence in the questionnaire, which asked the impressions in terms of cuteness and comicalness. The results of this section are compared with Hypothesis 3: Dialect forms are considered to be cute and comical. Table 5.3. shows the mean scores of the Kanto people’s impression of each sentence. Sentence 1 is with a dialectal intensifier, *meccha* (‘very’). Sentence 2 contains – *ya* (copula). Sentence 3 has *kakkoe* (‘cool’), in which *-ee* is particular to Kansai dialects. Sentence 4 contains – *hen* (‘not’), and sentence 5 contains – *nen* (‘assertion, explanation’). The first question asks whether the sentence sounds cute if **a woman in your generation** says it. The second question asks if it is cute if **a man in your generation** says it. The third and fourth questions ask if the sentence was comical if **a woman in your generation** and **a man in your generation** say it. Each answer was converted into a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 is “not cute/comical at all”, 3 is “neutral”, and 5 is “very cute/comical”. In Table 5.3., the first column shows the age, and “K1” means Group 1 of the Kanto people. The number in parentheses after Male/Female shows the number of participants in each category. S1-Q1 in the next column shows the sentence number (S1, S2, etc.) and the question number, so S1-Q2 means it is the second question of the first sentence. The numbers in parentheses next to means scores are Standard Deviation.

Table 5.3. The mean scores of the Kanto people's impression of each sentence

		S1-Q1	S1-Q2	S1-Q3	S1-Q4
K1	Male (9)	2.78 (1.10)	2.33 (1.12)	2.56 (1.01)	2.33 (1.00)
	Female (41)	2.93 (0.88)	2.51 (1.06)	2.56 (1.05)	2.63 (1.20)
K2	Male (6)	2.50 (1.38)	1.67 (1.03)	2.00 (0.89)	1.83 (0.98)
	Female (17)	2.41 (0.87)	2.12 (1.05)	2.24 (0.83)	2.18 (0.95)
K3	Male (4)	3.50 (1.73)	2.00 (1.16)	3.50 (1.92)	2.25 (1.50)
	Female (11)	1.64 (0.81)	1.45 (0.82)	2.55 (1.30)	2.09 (1.04)

		S2-Q1	S2-Q2	S2-Q3	S2-Q4
K1	Male	3.22 (1.30)	2.22 (1.20)	2.63 (1.30)	2.11 (1.45)
	Female	2.80 (1.08)	2.85 (1.01)	2.41 (1.16)	2.41 (1.10)
K2	Male	2.67 (1.03)	2.00 (1.10)	2.83 (1.17)	2.33 (1.03)
	Female	2.53 (1.07)	2.35 (0.93)	2.12 (1.05)	2.12 (1.05)
K3	Male	2.75 (1.26)	2.75 (0.50)	2.50 (1.00)	3.00 (1.00)
	Female	2.55 (0.93)	2.36 (0.92)	2.18 (1.17)	1.91 (1.04)

		S3-Q1	S3-Q2	S3-Q3	S3-Q4
K1	Male	2.44 (0.73)	1.89 (1.05)	2.44 (1.01)	2.11 (0.93)
	Female	2.29 (0.98)	2.49 (1.05)	2.29 (1.01)	2.68 (1.13)
K2	Male	2.83 (0.98)	2.00 (1.10)	2.33 (1.03)	2.17 (0.75)
	Female	2.00 (1.06)	2.12 (1.05)	1.94 (1.14)	2.18 (1.24)
K3	Male	2.75 (1.26)	1.50 (0.58)	2.50 (1.92)	1.25 (0.50)
	Female	2.09 (0.94)	2.09 (0.94)	1.91 (0.94)	1.82 (0.98)

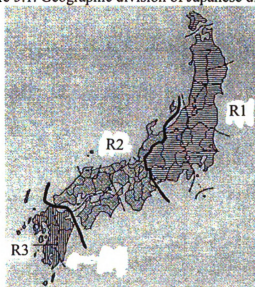
		S4-Q1	S4-Q2	S4-Q3	S4-Q4
K1	Male	3.33 (1.32)	2.22 (1.20)	2.22 (0.97)	2.22 (1.20)
	Female	2.66 (1.02)	2.59 (1.10)	2.45 (0.96)	2.48 (0.93)
K2	Male	3.00 (1.27)	2.33 (1.03)	2.50 (0.84)	2.83 (1.33)
	Female	2.41 (1.18)	2.29 (1.05)	2.12 (1.05)	2.00 (0.94)
K3	Male	3.00 (1.41)	1.75 (0.96)	2.25 (1.89)	1.75 (1.50)
	Female	2.00 (1.10)	1.64 (0.81)	1.73 (1.10)	1.73 (1.10)

		S5-Q1	S5-Q2	S5-Q3	S5-Q4
K1	Male	3.00 (1.12)	2.00 (1.23)	2.56 (1.01)	2.33 (1.41)
	Female	2.88 (1.11)	2.85 (1.05)	2.65 (1.03)	2.75 (1.13)
K2	Male	2.67 (0.82)	1.83 (0.98)	2.83 (0.98)	2.50 (0.84)
	Female	2.71 (0.96)	2.53 (0.87)	2.41 (1.00)	2.35 (1.06)
K3	Male	3.00 (0.82)	2.50 (1.29)	3.00 (1.41)	2.25 (1.50)
	Female	2.45 (1.04)	2.27 (0.91)	2.00 (1.10)	2.00 (1.10)

Table 5.3 demonstrates that there is a general tendency for the perception of sentences with dialect forms to be lower than 3. The Kanto people did not necessarily consider the dialect forms to be cute or comical. Table 5.3. shows that most of the mean scores fell between 2 (not cute / comical) and 3 (neutral). When **a woman in your generation** says the sentence, the mean scores tended to be slightly higher than when **a man in your generation** says it in all three age groups and questions except for the third sentence. The mean scores of the youngest group often were higher than other two age groups. However, in the third sentence, the female participants of groups 1 and 2 answered that it was cuter and more comical when **a man in your generation** says this sentence.

According to the dialect division in Tojo (1953), the northeast part of Japan is also the area where people do not use the western dialects. Therefore, I also analyzed my data along Tojo's dialect division. He divided Japan into three groups, and I call them Region 1 (R1), Region 2 (R2), and Region 3 (R3) in this thesis.

Figure 5.1. Geographic division of Japanese dialects



R1 is the area where people do not use western dialects. Although a couple of prefectures are adjacent to R2 where the western dialects are used, and may have some influence on it, it is not the purpose of this thesis to go into such detail. Below is a list of prefectures to which R1 in Tojo's map corresponds:

R1: Hakkiado, Aomori, Iwate, Miyagi, Akita, Yamagata, Fukushima, Ibaragi, Tochigi,
Gunma, Saitama, Chiba, Tokyo, Kanagawa, Niigata, Yamanashi, Nagano, Gifu,
Shizuoka, Aichi

Compared by regions, the results in Table 5.4. also demonstrate the same tendency as those of the Kanto people. That is, in the cases where ****a woman in your generation**** saying a sentence tends to be perceived as slightly cuter and more comical than when ****a man in your generation**** say the same sentence. Again, in the third sentence, which contained *kakkoe* ('cool'), some of the mean scores were higher when ****a man in your generation**** said the sentence than when ****a woman in your generation****says it. Most of the mean scores in Table 5.4. also fall between 2 (not cute / comical) and 3 (neutral). The numbers in parentheses next to the means scores are Standard Deviation.

Table 5.4. The mean scores of survey participants in R1

	Gender	S1-Q1	S1-Q2	S1-Q3	S1-Q4
R1	M (17)	2.88 (0.99)	2.47 (1.13)	2.59 (1.06)	2.41 (1.12)
	F (76)	2.92 (0.76)	2.70 (1.11)	2.51 (1.05)	2.54 (1.19)
R2	M (8)	2.50 (1.20)	2.25 (1.49)	2.00 (0.76)	2.00 (0.93)
	F (26)	2.35 (0.89)	2.08 (0.98)	2.20 (0.91)	2.19 (1.02)
R3	M (10)	2.90 (1.73)	2.00 (1.05)	3.20 (1.55)	2.70 (1.49)
	F (14)	1.79 (0.98)	1.50 (0.86)	2.57 (1.28)	2.21 (1.12)

Table 5.4. The mean scores of survey participants in R1 (continued)

	Gender	S2-Q1	S2-Q2	S2-Q3	S2-Q4
R1	M	3.12 (1.22)	2.35 (1.06)	2.94 (1.00)	2.41 (1.23)
	F	3.05 (1.09)	2.89 (1.07)	2.46 (1.11)	2.53 (1.06)
R2	M	2.50 (1.07)	2.13 (0.99)	2.50 (1.20)	2.13 (0.99)
	F	2.50 (1.03)	2.46 (0.99)	2.15 (1.08)	2.12 (1.03)
R3	M	2.80 (1.14)	3.00 (0.82)	2.50 (0.97)	3.00 (0.87)
	F	2.50 (0.94)	2.07 (1.00)	2.14 (1.10)	2.07 (1.00)

	Gender	S3-Q1	S3-Q2	S3-Q3	S3-Q4
R1	M	2.65 (1.00)	1.94 (1.09)	2.59 (1.06)	2.59 (1.18)
	F	2.30 (1.21)	2.39 (1.12)	2.29 (1.07)	2.66 (1.11)
R2	M	2.75 (0.89)	2.13 (0.99)	2.25 (1.04)	1.88 (0.84)
	F	2.00 (0.98)	2.19 (1.02)	2.15 (1.26)	2.19 (1.27)
R3	M	2.11 (1.05)	2.22 (1.30)	2.22 (1.30)	1.78 (0.83)
	F	1.86 (0.95)	2.00 (0.96)	1.71 (0.91)	1.93 (1.07)

	Gender	S4-Q1	S4-Q2	S4-Q3	S4-Q4
R1	M	3.06 (1.39)	2.24 (1.15)	2.35 (1.00)	2.29 (1.05)
	F	2.92 (1.24)	2.75 (1.16)	2.57 (1.07)	2.56 (1.04)
R2	M	2.75 (1.28)	2.63 (1.06)	2.50 (0.76)	2.50 (1.31)
	F	2.42 (1.07)	2.35 (1.02)	2.00 (0.98)	1.92 (0.89)
R3	M	2.56 (1.24)	1.78 (1.09)	2.11 (1.36)	1.89 (1.05)
	F	2.14 (1.03)	1.86 (1.03)	1.93 (1.21)	1.93 (1.21)

	Gender	S5-Q1	S5-Q2	S5-Q3	S5-Q4
R1	M	3.24 (1.03)	2.29 (1.21)	2.71 (0.99)	2.53 (1.23)
	F	3.08 (1.17)	2.96 (1.08)	2.71 (1.05)	2.84 (1.14)
R2	M	2.50 (0.93)	2.00 (0.93)	2.75 (0.87)	2.75 (0.87)
	F	2.81 (1.02)	2.58 (0.99)	2.31 (1.05)	2.31 (1.12)
R3	M	2.44 (1.13)	2.22 (0.97)	2.44 (1.24)	2.11 (1.27)
	F	2.50 (0.94)	2.29 (0.91)	2.00 (1.04)	2.00 (1.04)

5.3.3. Hypothesis 4

This section deals with the results of the fifth question in each sentence. It asked whether the participants themselves used this kind of sentence. The five choices that the participants were to choose from were: “often use it,” “sometimes use it,” “seldom use

it,” “have heard it but not used it,” and “have never heard or never used it.” For this question, “often use” is counted as 5 and “have never heard and never used” was counted as 1 in the 5-point Likert scale. The results of this question will be compared with my fourth hypothesis: People in Tokyo and the surrounding areas use dialect forms in casual situations.

Table 5.5. provides the mean scores of the Kanto people. The mean scores of the first sentence outscored all the other sentences in groups 1 and 2. Most of the mean scores were between 2 (“have heard it but not used it”) and 3 (“seldom use it”). The highest was 4.12 by the younger female group for the sentence with the dialectal intensifier, and the lowest was 1.50 by the older male group about the same sentence. The tendency observed here is that the younger people think they would say sentences like this more frequently. R1 people’s scores and the tendency in Table 5.6. were similar to those of the Kanto people in Table 5.5. Note that although 4 points out of 5 seems high, 4 in this question means “sometimes use it”.

Table 5.5. The mean of the use of dialect words by the Kanto people

	Gender	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5
K1	M	3.33	2.78	2.22	2.67	2.44
	F	4.12	2.73	2.66	2.48	2.48
K2	M	3.00	2.17	2.17	2.00	2.50
	F	3.18	2.35	2.65	2.12	2.24
K3	M	1.50	2.00	2.00	2.67	2.25
	F	2.45	2.09	2.00	1.91	2.18

Table 5.6 The mean of the use of dialect words by the people in Region 1

	Gender	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5
R1	M	3.41	3.06	2.41	2.71	2.59
	F	4.08	2.63	2.47	2.36	2.35
R2	M	3.14	2.38	2.38	2.13	2.50
	F	3.31	2.50	2.42	2.31	2.38
R3	M	2.40	2.22	2.75	2.38	2.44
	F	2.29	2.07	2.00	1.93	2.14

5.3.4. Hypothesis 5

This section concerns the results of the sixth question in each sentence, which asked the respondents who they think uses this kind of sentences. Out of six categories, “men under 25”, “men between 25 and 50”, “men over 50”, “women under 25”, “women between 25 and 50”, and “women over 50”, participants could choose as many as they wanted. My hypothesis is that younger people are thought to use the dialect forms more than do older people.

Table 5.7. The groups that the Kanto people think say this kind of sentences

S1	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	68	16	2
Female	78	21	2

S2	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	71	51	28
Female	57	50	28

S3	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	62	38	10
Female	60	46	14

Table 5.7. The groups that the Kanto people think say this kind of sentences (continued)

S4	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	69	40	24
Female	67	38	23

S5	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	66	48	22
Female	64	48	22

Table 5.7. illustrates the number of participants who chose each group. The total of the Kanto people is 89. In all the sentences, the younger the speakers were, the more likely the participants thought that they would say this kind of sentences. No clear gender difference was found in these results. However, with the first sentence, as the age level grew older, the number of people who chose the older group decreased much more sharply than for the other four sentences. The results from all the participants of this question are summarized in Table 5.8. It shows the same tendency of a sharp decrease in the number who chose the older group to say the sentence with a dialect intensifier. The number of the total participants is 238.

Table 5.8 The groups that all the participants think say this kind of sentences

S1	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	179	54	6
Female	210	61	8

S2	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	182	144	71
Female	169	142	72

Table 5.8 The groups that all the participants think say this kind of sentences (continued)

S3	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	154	106	36
Female	154	113	42

S4	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	182	136	87
Female	178	133	83

S5	18-25	26-50	51-
Male	182	143	70
Female	179	144	70

5.3.5. Discussion

The results of this questionnaire study show that dialect words were not considered as cute and comical by the Kanto people and by those in Region 1 (Tojo's dialect division). The results also demonstrate that younger people were likely to use sentences with dialect forms more frequently than older groups in the Kanto area and Region 1. The mean score of the dialectal intensifier was especially higher than the other dialect forms. Furthermore, people in general thought that younger people would say such sentences. To summarize, the third hypothesis was not supported by the results of this study, but the fifth hypothesis was. The fourth hypothesis was supported with regard to the first sentence in the questionnaire, but not supported by the results of the other four sentences.

The results of my study regarding cuteness and comicalness contradict the interviews mentioned in the newspaper columns *The war of dialects* (2006). This may be because dialect forms are regarded cute and comical only among a small group of people, and the people interviewed may have been from that group. The results of this

questionnaire show that the impression of cuteness and comicalness was not shared by people in general. Some people may have used these forms to create solidarity, or they could not find other words that better suited the occasion.

As shown in Tables 5.5. and 5.6., the sentence with a dialectal intensifier scored the highest among the five sentences in all categories except for the older male group from the Kanto area. Other dialect forms were rarely used according to the results. Based on these results, it is possible to say that people use dialectal intensifiers not because they are cute or comical but because they are fad words, since, regardless of gender and age, the trend is the same. I speculate that the frequency of dialect forms used on TV has increased in the last decade, which has had some effect on the general public's language. Many of the entertainment TV programs show the words and phrases that have impact and are funny with big and bold characters like subtitles (this technique is called *teroppu*) even though these words and phrases are in Japanese. Yamashita (2004) writes that western dialect and cultures became one of the choices of the sense of values as the Japanese economy stopped growing in the early 1990s, and people began to seek different sense of values than they used to have. He also mentions that celebrities who are from the Kansai area began to use the dialect words that are closer to Tokyo Japanese on TV because the real dialects may not be comprehensible to people in other regions. The fact that Osaka, the biggest city in western Japan, is the third biggest city in Japan according to the 2005 Population Census perhaps add hip and urban images to the western dialect. Moreover, Long (1996) demonstrates the people in Osaka consider Tokyo as a rival regarding the language and are unwilling to describe Tokyo Japanese as Standard. Osaka's linguistic pride is reflected in the behavior that the Osaka people do

not change their language wherever they move.

According to Yonekawa (1998), new intensifiers often become popular but soon fade, so that people look for new intensifiers. The results in Tables 5.7 and 5.8 indicate the possibility that intensifiers are a separate group from the other dialect forms used in the questionnaire because the decreasing rate of the intensifier among the three age groups is different from that of the other four dialect forms. Table 5.8 includes all the participants including people who are not from the Kanto area, and who may use these dialect forms on a daily basis. The fact that these people answered that they thought the younger group would be much more likely to use a dialectal intensifier than the older group as did people from the Kanto area, demonstrates that younger people are the most frequent users of intensifiers regardless of whether they are dialect forms or not.

I should also like to comment on the choices of dialect forms and the sentences in which they were used. Although I extracted sentences from the younger people's blog data in Chapter 4 and modified them so that they were not too gender- or age-biased, the third sentence probably turned out not to be a good choice. The dialectal form in the sentence 3 was *kakkoe*. When verbs and adjectives end with *-ee* in Tokyo Japanese, it sounds strongly masculine (Okamoto 1995). Although *kakkoe* appeared as a dialect word in the questionnaire, the influence of the masculine image in Tokyo Japanese cannot have been avoided. This is probably the reason this sentence showed a different trend than the other sentences. That is, the mean score is mostly higher for cases when ****a man in your generation**** says the sentence than when ****a woman in your generation**** says the sentence.

The participants seemed to have the impression that this questionnaire was about

what they thought of the western dialects. Unfortunately, all five words are from the western dialects, and there was only one sentence that clearly combined a dialect word and Tokyo Japanese, which is the second sentence. Furthermore, the results of the second sentence did not reveal any difference from the other four sentences. It is possible that the four other sentences neutralized this one sentence, and the difference between the second sentence and the others was too small for the participants to notice after getting the impression that they were being asked about western dialects.

I collected the data through personal contacts and the social networking site, and compared the data of these two groups to see whether they show different tendencies or not. The same procedures for the three hypotheses were followed, and the same kind of Tables (Appendix E to I) was produced for the purpose of comparison. In these Tables, I call the participants through the personal contacts “acquaintances”, and those who participated in the questionnaire through the social networking site “SNS”. As for Hypothesis 3, the mean scores and Standard Deviation of each of the four answers were calculated for the groups of “acquaintances” and “SNS” (Appendix E.1., E.2., F.1., and F.2.). The frequency of using these sentences was compared between these two groups for Hypothesis 4 (Appendix G and H). Concerning Hypothesis 5, the results of the Kanto acquaintance and the Kanto SNS was compared as well as the results of all the acquaintance and all the SNS (Appendix I.1. and I.2.).

Although there were some differences in the mean scores, the same tendencies for each hypothesis were found. For Hypothesis 3, the Kanto acquaintances, the Kanto SNS, the R1 acquaintances, and the R1 SNS all demonstrated that 1) the mean scores were lower than 3 (“neutral”), 2) when ****a woman in your generation**** says the

sentence, the mean scores were slightly higher than when ****a man in you generation**** says it, and 3) the mean scores tended to be a little higher when ****a man in you generation**** says the sentence with *kakkoe* than when ****a woman in you generation**** says it (Appendix E.1., E.2., F.1., and F.2.). Hypothesis 4 asked the frequency of this kind of sentences use, and the results also showed that 1) the mean scores were in between 2 (“have heard it but never used it”) and 3 (“seldom used it”), and 2) the mean score of the sentence with a dialectal intensifier was higher than those of other four sentences (Appendix G and H). Hypothesis 5 was about the participants think uses this kind of sentences, and the results revealed that the participants in the both groups, regardless of the regions they were from, thought younger people would be more likely to use this kind of sentences (Appendix I.1. and I.2.). The sharp decrease in the number who chose the older group to say the sentence with a dialect intensifier was also observed. In summary, the results of comparison between “acquaintances” and “SNS” showed similar results. These results did not support Hypothesis 3 while they fully supported Hypothesis 5 and partially Hypothesis 4 (Table 5.9). These results imply that the data from an anonymous online questionnaire can be as trustworthy as the data from the acquaintances.

Table 5.9. Summary of comparison with “acquaintance” and “SNS”

	Acquaintance		SNS	
	Kanto	R1	Kanto	R1
Hypothesis 3	Not supported	Not supported	Not supported	Not supported
Hypothesis 4	Partially supported	Partially supported	Partially supported	Partially supported
Hypothesis 5	Supported	Supported	Supported	Supported

Chapter 6. Conclusion

I will first summarize the results of two studies I presented in this thesis along with the hypotheses of each study. Then, conclusion will be drawn in the first section of this chapter. The next section notes major limitations for future studies of this kind.

6.1. Conclusion

Chapter 4 discussed the frequency of dialect forms used in blogs written by Tokyo Japanese. The data were collected from a Japanese social networking site, and the subjects of this study were 70 men and 57 women from two age groups: 18-19 and over 50. Two hypotheses were posited for this study:

Hypothesis 1: There is no gender difference in terms of the frequency of
dialect words used in Tokyo Japanese.

Hypothesis 2: Younger people mix dialect forms more frequently than do older
people in Tokyo Japanese.

Concerning the gender difference, men used dialect forms more frequently than do women in general (Table 4.7), and Hypothesis 1 was not supported by my data. The results may imply that the male subjects in this study projected masculinity through the use of dialect words. As for the age difference, Table 4.8 shows that the younger group used dialect forms more often than the older group, which supports Hypothesis 2.

Based on an internet survey of 238 Japanese people, Chapter 5 tested the following three hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Dialect forms are considered to be cute and comical.

Hypothesis 4: People in Tokyo and the surrounding areas use dialect forms in

casual situations.

Hypothesis 5: Younger people are thought to use the dialect forms more than do older people.

The results of the online questionnaire did not support Hypothesis 3 because the participants' responses were relatively negative to both "cute" and "comical". The frequency of dialect word use in Tokyo Japanese varied depending on the word. The questionnaire participants responded that they used dialectal intensifiers much more often than other types of dialect forms. The last hypothesis, Hypothesis 5, was fully supported by the results of this study. For all the sentences in the questionnaire, not only the participants from the Kanto area but also those from other areas tended to choose the younger group as the users of the sentences in which dialect forms and Tokyo Japanese were mixed.

The results from these two studies illustrate that the use of dialect forms in Tokyo Japanese is similar to slang since the tendency that younger people and males use these forms more frequently than older people and females is same as that of slang as explained in Chapter 2. The motivation to use dialect forms in Tokyo Japanese was not to project cuteness or comicalness according to the results of the online questionnaire in Chapter 5, but solidarity seems to play an important role. The results of the online questionnaire also suggested that the data from the participants recruited on the websites could be reliable. It is hoped that the results of the present study opens more possibilities of collecting data and participants from the websites.

6.2. Limitations of the present studies

The two studies have some limitations. I will point out the major ones below.

First, the blog study had a very limited subject base since I only used one social networking site for data collection. It is common for younger people to write blogs, but as mentioned in Chapter 4, people over 50 who write blogs do not seem to be the best representative of general population. Also, the data were collected only from the users of dialect forms among Tokyo Japanese speakers. However, collecting data randomly from both users and non-users of dialect forms would give a more accurate picture of actual use.

Second, speech data may demonstrate different tendencies from written data such as blogs. In writing, people do not have to worry about the pronunciation or accent, so it is much easier for non-native speakers of the dialects to use them such as in blog, e-mail, and instant messaging. Hence, it is possible that these forms are used more in writing than speaking.

Lastly, I should have selected the sample sentences more carefully in the questionnaire. Although each sentence contained a dialect form, most of the sentences in the questionnaire were actually entirely in the western dialect, and I could not show the contrast between them and sentences that mix a dialect form in Tokyo Japanese. It is likely that participants had the impression that this questionnaire was about perception of the western dialect rather than that of a mixture. I also could have used dialect words from the books that show how to mix dialect words in Tokyo Japanese. Since the user of these books are young people, using the words from these books would have provided different results.

After conducting two studies, I have now realized many things I should revise. Therefore, I would like to consider this thesis as a pilot study and have a better questionnaire which clearly shows the mixture of dialect words and Tokyo Japanese in the near future to find out the motivations of this mixture of language varieties.

Appendix A: The complete list of regional dialects in the blog study

Eastern Japan

Area	Linguistic label	Regional dialect	Non-regional dialect	meaning
Hokkaido	adjective	menkoi	kawaii	cute
Hokkaido, Tohoku	adverb	namara	Sugoku, totemo	very
	particle	---be	---yoo	let's ---
Nagano, Yamanashi, Shizuoka	aux verb	---zura	---desyoo	implying assumption
Aichi	adjective	umyaa	oishii	tasty

Western Japan

Area	Linguistic label	Regional dialect	Non-regional dialect	meaning
Osaka	noun	aho	baka	stupid
		onago	onnanoko, josei, onnanohito	woman, girlfriend, maid, etc.
		nanbo	ikura	how much
		sonnan	sonnnakoto	such a thing
	Verb	chau	chigau	to be different, wrong
		yarakasu	shidekasu	to do something not good
		see	shiro	to do (Imperative)
	adjective	ikan	ikenai, dameda	not good
		akan	dameda, yakunitatanai	not good, not useful
		ee	ii, yoi	good
		omoroi	omoshiroi	funny, comical
	adverb	yoo	yoku	enough, well
		donai	dou	how
		tottoto	hayaku	fast, quickly
		erai, errai, eraku	totemo, hidoku	very
		meccha (mecha, muccha, mechanko, metameta)	sugoku	very
		honma (ni)	hontoo (ni)	really
	particle	---ya	---da	copula verb
		---de	---yo	assertion

Appendix A: Western Japan (continued)

		---na(a)	---ne	agreement
		---n	---no	explanation, emotive emphasis
		---nen	---no(da)	explanation, emotive emphasis
	conjunction	---kendo	---keredo	but
		hona	sorenara	then
	aux verb	---toru	---teiru	action in progress, resultant state
		---yoru	---yagaru	implying insult
		---taru	---teyaru	to do something kindly
		---yasu	---asobase	please honorably (V)...
	negative	---hen	---(shi)nai	not
	phonological change	CooCV ⁸ (ex. Koota)	CaCCV (ex. Katta)	N/A
	others ⁹	---gana	---janaika	----, isn't it?
		---masse	---masuyo	(a person) does / will do ...
		---koccha	---kotoda	it is (adj) thing (lit.)
		---desse	---desuyo	it is ...
Shiga	verb	---yansu	---masu	polite form ending of a verb
Kyoto	verb	dosu	desu	polite form ending of Noun /Adjective
Hyoogo	aux verb	--- too	--- teiru	action in progress, resultant state
Hiroshima	particle	---noo	---ne	exclamation
Yamaguchi	aux verb	---choru	---teiru	action in progress, resultant state
In general	verb	oru	iru	to exist (animate)
	adverb	messa	totemo, monosugoku	very
	Aux verb	---yoru	---teiru	action in progress, resultant state

8. This rule can be applied only if the negative form of the verb contains /w/ before *-anai* (e.g., *kawanai*, *warawanai*).

9. The words that are categorized in others are the combinations of two or more categories in non-regional dialect.

Kyuusyuu

area	Linguistic label	Regional dialect	Non-regional dialect	meaning
Fukuoka	adjective	yoka	yoi, ii	good
	particle	--- to	--- no	explanation, emotive emphasis
		---tai	---dayo	emphasis
Okinawa	adverb	deeki	totemo,sugoku	very
In general	particle	---ken	---yo	assertion

Appendix B: The number of each regional dialect used in each group

Linguistic label	Regional dialect	Non-regional dialect	YM	OM	YF	OF	Total
noun	aho	baka	3	1	6	4	14
	onago	onnanoko, josei, onnanohito	0	0	1	0	1
	nanbo	ikura	0	1	0	0	1
	sonnan	sonnnakoto	0	0	1	0	1
verb	chau	chigau	0	0	2	0	2
	yarakasu	shidekasu	0	0	1	0	1
	see	shiro	0	0	0	2	2
	---yansu	---masu	0	3	2	0	5
	dosu	desu	0	1	0	0	1
	oru	iru	2	8	0	0	10
adjective	ikan	ikenai, dameda	8	3	2	0	13
	akan	dameda, yakunitatanai	3	1	0	1	5
	ee	ii, yoi	5	1	2	1	9
	kakkoe	cool, handsome	1	1	0	0	2
	yoka	yoi, ii	2	0	1	0	3
	omoroi	omoshiroi	1	0	2	0	3
	menkoi	kawaii	0	0	1	2	3
	umyaa	oishii	1	0	0	0	1
adverb	erai, errai, eraku	totemo, hidoku	1	5	0	0	6
	yoo	yoku	2	2	1	0	5
	donai	dou	1	4	1	0	6
	tottoto	hayaku	0	0	0	1	1
	meccha (mecha, muccha, mechanko, metameta)	sugoku	55	12	35	12	114
	messa	totemo, monosugoku	5	1	4	0	10
	namara	sugoku, totemo	0	0	1	0	1
	deeji	totemo	3	0	0	0	3
	honma (ni)	hontoo (ni)	1	3	7	1	12
particle	---ya	---da	50	6	47	3	106
	---tai	---da	2	0	1	0	3
	---de	---yo	3	1	7	0	11
	---na(a)	---ne	3	15	6	1	25
	---n	---no	2	0	11	1	14
	---nen	---no(da)	8	1	8	1	18

Appendix B: The number of each regional dialect used in each group (continued)

Linguistic label	Regional dialect	Non-regional dialect	YM	OM	YF	OF	Total
	---noo	---ne	0	0	1	2	3
	---be	---yoo	3	3	3	1	10
	--- to	--- no	2	0	2	1	5
conjunction	---kendo	---keredo	2	0	1	0	3
	hona	sorenara	0	1	0	0	1
aux verb	---toru	---teiru	9	6	6	0	21
	--- too	--- teiru	0	1	0	0	1
	---choru	---teiru	2	0	0	1	3
	---yoru	---yagaru	2	1	1	2	6
	---taru	---teyaru	0	0	1	0	1
	---yasu	---asobase	0	0	0	1	1
	---zura	---desyoo	0	0	2	0	2
negative	---hen	---(shi)nai	0	2	5	1	8
phonological change	CooCV (ex. Koota)	CaCCV (ex. Katta)	6	0	2	2	10
others	---gana	---janaika	3	1	0	0	4
	---masse	---masuyo	1	0	0	1	2
	---koccha	---kotoda	0	3	0	1	4
	---desse	---desuyo	0	2	0	0	2
Total			192	90	174	43	499

Appendix C: The request posted on the social networking site to recruit participants of online questionnaire

Japanese version

初めまして。アメリカのミシガン州立大学大学院で言語学を勉強してる松原と申します。卒業論文のために日本語に関するアンケートを作ったので、皆さんにもご協力してもらえればと思いここに書き込みました。所要時間は約5分程度で、過去3年間は日本に住んでいらっしゃる方ならどなたでも大歓迎です。アンケートは下記のサイトにてやっていますので、是非ご参加ください。よろしくお願いします。

<http://www.efeel.to/survey/japanese>

English version

Hi, my name is Misako Matsubara. I am a Linguistic graduate student at Michigan State University. I have created a survey about Japanese language for my MA thesis and would like to ask you to participate in the survey! It will take about five minutes to complete. If you are Japanese and have lived in Japan for at least the last three years, please click the URL address below and participate in the survey.

<http://www.efeel.to/survey/japanese>

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire

日本語についてのアンケート

このアンケートではみなさんに以下の文について、正しいかどうかを判断してもらうのではなく、どう思うのかお聞きしたいと思います。正解・不正解はありませんので、誰にも相談せずに思ったようにお答えください。

1a) みなさんが電車に乗っていたら、「昨日のサッカー見た？メッチャよかったよ」と聞こえてきました。あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

かわいくない あまりかわいくない 普通 まあまあかわいい とてもかわいい

1b) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

かわいくない あまりかわいくない 普通 まあまあかわいい とてもかわいい

1c) あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

おもしろくない あまりおもしろくない 普通 まあまあおもしろい とてもおもしろい

1d) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

おもしろくない あまりおもしろくない 普通 まあまあおもしろい とてもおもしろい

1e) このような言い方をご自身でもなさいますか。

よく使う 時々使う あまり使わない 聞くけど、使わない

聞いたこともないし、使わない

1f) このような文をどの年代の人達が言うと思いますか？ 当てはまるものを全部選んでください。

男性 25 歳以下 男性 25-50 歳 男性 50 歳以上

女性 25 歳以下 女性 25-50 歳 女性 50 歳以上

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

2a) 電車に乗っていたら、「そうなんや。知らなかった。」というのが聞こえてきました。あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
かわいくない	あまりかわいくない	普通	まあまあかわいい	とてもかわいい

2b) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
かわいくない	あまりかわいくない	普通	まあまあかわいい	とてもかわいい

2c) あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
おもしろくない	あまりおもしろくない	普通	まあまあおもしろい	とてもおもしろい

2d) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
おもしろくない	あまりおもしろくない	普通	まあまあおもしろい	とてもおもしろい

2e) このような言い方をご自身でもなさいますか。

よく使う 時々使う あまり使わない 聞くけど、使わない
聞いたこともないし、使わない

2f) このような文をどの年代の人達が言うと思いますか？ 当てはまるものを全部選んでください。

男性 25 歳以下	男性 25-50 歳	男性 50 歳以上
女性 25 歳以下	女性 25-50 歳	女性 50 歳以上

3a) 電車に乗っていたら、「やっぱり福山雅治ってかっこええ」というのが聞こえてきました。あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
かわいくない	あまりかわいくない	普通	まあまあかわいい	とてもかわいい

3b) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
かわいくない	あまりかわいくない	普通	まあまあかわいい	とてもかわいい

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

3c) あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
おもしろくない	あまりおもしろくない	普通	まあまあおもしろい	とてもおもしろい

3d) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
おもしろくない	あまりおもしろくない	普通	まあまあおもしろい	とてもおもしろい

3e) このような言い方をご自身でもなさいますか。

よく使う 時々使う あまり使わない 聞くけど、使わない
聞いたこともないし、使わない

3f) このような文をどの年代の人達が言うと思いますか？ 当てはまるものを全部選んでください。

男性 25 歳以下	男性 25-50 歳	男性 50 歳以上
女性 25 歳以下	女性 25-50 歳	女性 50 歳以上

4a) 電車に乗っていたら、「これ読んだけど分からへん」というのが聞こえてきました。あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
かわいくない	あまりかわいくない	普通	まあまあかわいい	とてもかわいい

4b) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
かわいくない	あまりかわいくない	普通	まあまあかわいい	とてもかわいい

4c) あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
おもしろくない	あまりおもしろくない	普通	まあまあおもしろい	とてもおもしろい

4d) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
おもしろくない	あまりおもしろくない	普通	まあまあおもしろい	とてもおもしろい

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

4e) このような言い方をご自身でもなさいますか。

よく使う 時々使う あまり使わない 聞くけど、使わない
聞いたこともないし、使わない

4f) このような文をどの年代の人達が言うと思いますか？ 当てはまるものを全部選んでください。

男性 25 歳以下 男性 25-50 歳 男性 50 歳以上
女性 25 歳以下 女性 25-50 歳 女性 50 歳以上

5a) 電車に乗っていたら、「冬に沖縄行きたいねん」というのが聞こえてきました。あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
かわいくない あまりかわいくない 普通 まあまあかわいい とてもかわいい

5b) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はかわいく聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
かわいくない あまりかわいくない 普通 まあまあかわいい とてもかわいい

5c) あなたと**同年代の女性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
おもしろくない あまりおもしろくない 普通 まあまあおもしろい とてもおもしろい

5d) あなたと**同年代の男性**が言ったら、この文はおもしろく（コミカルに）聞こえますか？

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)
おもしろくない あまりおもしろくない 普通 まあまあおもしろい とてもおもしろい

5e) このような言い方をご自身でもなさいますか。

よく使う 時々使う あまり使わない 聞くけど、使わない
聞いたこともないし、使わない

5f) このような文をどの年代の人達が言うと思いますか？ 当てはまるものを全部選んでください。

男性 25 歳以下 男性 25-50 歳 男性 50 歳以上
女性 25 歳以下 女性 25-50 歳 女性 50 歳以上

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

6) あなたの年齢を教えてください。

-19 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60-

7) あなたの誕生日を教えてください。

8) あなたの性別を教えてください。

男性 女性

9) 出身地はどちらですか？

10) 現在のお住まいはどちらですか？

Survey of Japanese Speech

This questionnaire is not asking you whether the following sentences are correct or not but how you think about these sentences. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer honestly without any consultation.

1a) While you were on a train, you heard the following sentence: *kinoo no sakkaa mita? Meccha yokattayo*. If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

1b) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

1c) If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

1d) If ****a man in your generation**** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

1e) Do you use this kind of sentences?

often use sometimes use seldom use have heard them but not used
have never heard and never used

1f) Which of the following groups do you think say this kind of sentences? Check all groups that apply.

man under 25	man between 25-50	man over 50
woman under 25	woman between 25-50	woman over 50

2a) While you were on a train, you heard the following sentence: *soo nanya.*

Shirana katta. If ****a woman in your generation**** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

2b) If ****a man in your generation**** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

2c) If ****a woman in your generation**** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

2d) If ****a man in your generation**** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

2e) Do you use this kind of sentences?

often use sometimes use seldom use have heard them but not used
have never heard and never used

2f) Which of the following groups do you think say this kind of sentences? Check all groups that apply.

man under 25	man between 25-50	man over 50
woman under 25	woman between 25-50	woman over 50

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

3a) While you were on a train, you heard the following sentence: *yappari Fukuyama Masaharu tte kakkoe*. If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

3b) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

3c) If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

3d) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

3e) Do you use this kind of sentences?

often use sometimes use seldom use have heard them but not used
have never heard and never used

3f) Which of the following groups do you think say this kind of sentences? Check all groups that apply.

man under 25	man between 25-50	man over 50
woman under 25	woman between 25-50	woman over 50

4a) While you were on a train, you heard the following sentence: *kore yonda kedo wake wakara hen*. If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

4b) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

4c) If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

4d) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

4e) Do you use this kind of sentences?

often use sometimes use seldom use have heard them but not used
have never heard and never used

4f) Which of the following groups do you think say this kind of sentences? Check all groups that apply.

man under 25	man between 25-50	man over 50
woman under 25	woman between 25-50	woman over 50

5a) While you were on a train, you heard the following sentence: *fuyu ni Okinawa iki tai nen*. If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

5b) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound cute?

1	2	3	4	5
not cute		normal		very cute

5c) If **a woman in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

5d) If **a man in your generation** says this, does it sound funny/comical?

1	2	3	4	5
not funny/comical		normal		very funny/comical

5e) Do you use this kind of sentences?

often use sometimes use seldom use have heard them but not used
have never heard and never used

5f) Which of the following groups do you think say this kind of sentences? Check all groups that apply.

man under 25	man between 25-50	man over 50
woman under 25	woman between 25-50	woman over 50

6) Please choose your age.

(This will be a pull-down style, and the choices are 10-19, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, and 60-.)

7) Please write your birthday (mm/dd).

Appendix D: The questions on the questionnaire (continued)

8) Please choose your gender.

(This will be a pull-down style, and the choices are man and woman.)

9) Please choose the prefecture you were born.

(This will be a pull down style, and the choices are all the prefecture names of Japan and overseas.)

10) Please choose the prefecture you are currently living in.

(This will be a pull down style, and the choices are all the prefecture names of Japan and overseas.)

Appendix E.1. The mean scores of the Kanto acquaintances' impression of each sentence

	Acquaintances	S1-Q1	S1-Q2	S1-Q3	S1-Q4
K1	Male (1) ¹⁰	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Female (31)	2.84 (0.90)	2.35 (1.08)	2.48 (1.09)	2.45 (1.12)
K2	Male (1)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female (8)	2.50 (0.93)	2.25 (0.89)	2.50 (0.76)	2.63 (0.92)
K3	Male (1)	5.00	3.00	5.00	3.00
	Female (5)	1.60 (0.89)	1.40 (0.89)	2.40 (1.34)	2.00 (1.00)

	Acquaintances	S2-Q1	S2-Q2	S2-Q3	S2-Q4
K1	Male	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Female	2.80 (1.14)	2.84 (1.00)	2.40 (1.15)	2.29 (1.10)
K2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	2.80 (1.16)	2.38 (0.92)	2.60 (1.06)	2.63 (1.06)
K3	Male	1.00	2.00	2.00	3.00
	Female	2.20 (0.84)	2.00 (1.00)	1.80 (1.10)	1.40 (0.89)

	Acquaintances	S3-Q1	S3-Q2	S3-Q3	S3-Q4
K1	Male	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Female	2.29 (1.04)	2.39 (1.02)	2.32 (1.05)	2.70 (1.10)
K2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	2.13 (1.25)	2.38 (1.19)	2.00 (1.20)	2.50 (1.31)
K3	Male	3.00	2.00	3.00	2.00
	Female	2.00 (1.00)	2.00 (1.00)	1.60 (0.89)	1.40 (0.89)

	Acquaintances	S4-Q1	S4-Q2	S4-Q3	S4-Q4
K1	Male	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Female	2.55 (0.89)	2.58 (1.06)	2.43 (0.97)	2.47 (0.97)
K2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	3.13 (1.13)	2.75 (1.04)	2.63 (1.06)	2.38 (0.92)
K3	Male	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00
	Female	1.80 (0.84)	1.60 (0.89)	1.40 (0.89)	1.40 (0.89)

10. The number in the parenthesis after gender is the number of participants in each group, and the number in parentheses next to the mean score is Standard Deviation. S1 means the first sentence in the questionnaire, and Q1 means the first question of each sentence. This is also applicable to Appendix E.2., F.1., F.2, G, and H.

Appendix E.1. The mean scores of the Kanto acquaintance's impression of each sentence
(continued)

	Acquaintances	S5-Q1	S5-Q2	S5-Q3	S5-Q4
K1	Male	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	Female	2.80 (1.06)	2.77 (0.94)	2.63 (1.07)	2.70 (1.12)
K2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	3.25 (0.46)	3.00 (0.53)	2.88 (0.99)	2.88 (0.99)
K3	Male	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00
	Female	2.40 (0.89)	2.40 (0.89)	1.60 (0.89)	1.60 (0.89)

Appendix E.2. The mean scores of the Kanto SNS's impression of each sentence

	SNS	S1-Q1	S1-Q2	S1-Q3	S1-Q4
K1	Male (8)	2.75 (1.16)	2.25 (1.16)	2.50 (1.07)	2.25 (1.04)
	Female (10)	3.20 (3.20)	3.00 (0.94)	2.80 (0.92)	3.20 (1.32)
K2	Male (5)	2.80 (1.30)	1.80 (1.10)	2.20 (0.84)	2.00 (1.00)
	Female (9)	2.33 (0.87)	2.00 (1.22)	2.00 (0.87)	1.78 (0.83)
K3	Male (4)	2.50 (1.73)	2.00 (1.15)	3.00 (1.63)	2.50 (1.73)
	Female (6)	1.67 (0.82)	1.50 (0.84)	2.67 (1.37)	2.17 (1.17)

	SNS	S2-Q1	S2-Q2	S2-Q3	S2-Q4
K1	Male	3.25 (1.39)	2.13 (1.25)	2.57 (1.40)	2.00 (1.51)
	Female	2.80 (0.92)	2.90 (1.10)	2.50 (1.27)	2.80 (1.03)
K2	Male	3.00 (0.71)	2.20 (1.10)	3.20 (0.84)	2.60 (1.30)
	Female	2.33 (1.00)	2.33 (1.00)	1.67 (0.87)	1.67 (0.87)
K3	Male	3.00 (0.82)	3.00 (0.00)	2.50 (1.00)	3.00 (1.00)
	Female	2.83 (0.84)	2.67 (0.82)	2.50 (1.22)	2.33 (1.03)

	SNS	S3-Q1	S3-Q2	S3-Q3	S3-Q4
K1	Male	2.38 (0.74)	1.75 (1.04)	2.38 (1.06)	2.00 (0.93)
	Female	2.30 (0.82)	2.80 (1.14)	2.20 (0.92)	2.60 (1.26)
K2	Male	3.20 (0.45)	2.20 (1.10)	2.60 (0.89)	2.40 (0.55)
	Female	1.89 (0.93)	1.89 (0.93)	1.90 (1.17)	1.90 (1.17)
K3	Male	2.25 (1.50)	1.50 (0.58)	2.25 (1.89)	1.25 (0.50)
	Female	2.17 (0.98)	2.17 (0.98)	2.17 (0.98)	2.17 (0.98)

Appendix E.2. The mean scores of the Kanto SNS's impression of each sentence
(continued)

	SNS	S4-Q1	S4-Q2	S4-Q3	S4-Q4
K1	Male	3.38 (1.41)	2.13 (1.25)	2.13 (0.99)	2.13 (1.25)
	Female	3.00 (1.33)	2.60 (1.26)	2.50 (0.97)	2.50 (0.85)
K2	Male	3.40 (0.89)	2.60 (2.60)	2.80 (0.45)	3.20 (1.10)
	Female	1.78 (0.83)	1.89 (0.93)	1.67 (0.87)	1.67 (0.87)
K3	Male	2.75 (1.71)	1.75 (0.96)	2.00 (2.00)	1.75 (1.50)
	Female	2.17 (1.33)	1.67 (0.82)	2.00 (1.26)	2.00 (1.26)

	SNS	S5-Q1	S5-Q2	S5-Q3	S5-Q4
K1	Male	3.00 (1.20)	1.88 (1.25)	2.50 (1.07)	2.25 (1.49)
	Female	3.10 (1.29)	3.10 (1.37)	2.70 (0.95)	2.90 (1.20)
K2	Male	3.00 (0.00)	2.00 (1.00)	3.20 (0.45)	2.80 (0.45)
	Female	2.22 (1.09)	2.11 (0.93)	2.00 (0.87)	1.89 (0.78)
K3	Male	2.75 (1.26)	2.50 (1.29)	2.75 (1.71)	2.25 (1.50)
	Female	2.50 (1.22)	2.17 (0.98)	2.33 (1.21)	2.33 (1.21)

Appendix F.1. The mean scores of the R1 acquaintance's impression of each sentence

	Acquaintances	S1-Q1	S1-Q2	S1-Q3	S1-Q4
R1	Male (5)	3.40 (0.55)	3.40 (0.55)	2.40 (1.34)	2.40 (1.34)
	Female (58)	2.83 (0.78)	2.57 (1.08)	2.45 (1.11)	2.43 (1.02)
R2	Male (1)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female (13)	2.38 (0.87)	2.23 (0.83)	2.31 (0.95)	2.38 (1.04)
R3	Male (5)	3.20 (2.05)	2.20 (1.10)	3.20 (1.79)	2.60 (1.52)
	Female (6)	2.00 (1.26)	1.67 (1.03)	2.67 (1.37)	2.33 (1.21)

	Acquaintances	S2-Q1	S2-Q2	S2-Q3	S2-Q4
R1	Male	2.60 (0.89)	2.60 (0.89)	3.20 (0.45)	3.00 (0.00)
	Female	2.97 (1.11)	2.79 (1.06)	2.40 (1.15)	2.41 (0.88)
R2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	2.85 (0.99)	2.69 (0.85)	2.46 (1.05)	2.46 (1.05)
R3	Male	2.60 (1.52)	3.00 (1.22)	2.40 (1.14)	2.80 (0.84)
	Female	2.00 (0.89)	1.83 (0.98)	1.83 (1.03)	1.67 (0.63)

Appendix F.1. The mean scores of the R1 acquaintance's impression of each sentence
(continued)

	Acquaintances	S3-Q1	S3-Q2	S3-Q3	S3-Q4
R1	Male	3.20 (0.45)	2.80 (1.10)	2.60 (0.89)	2.80 (1.10)
	Female	2.22 (1.19)	2.28 (1.09)	2.33 (1.10)	2.69 (1.05)
R2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	2.23 (1.09)	2.46 (0.97)	2.38 (1.12)	2.46 (1.13)
R3	Male	2.00 (0.71)	2.80 (1.48)	2.20 (0.84)	2.20 (0.84)
	Female	1.83 (0.98)	2.17 (0.98)	1.50 (0.84)	1.83 (1.33)

	Acquaintances	S4-Q1	S4-Q2	S4-Q3	S4-Q4
R1	Male	3.60 (0.55)	3.20 (0.45)	3.20 (0.45)	3.00 (0.00)
	Female	2.78 (1.16)	2.72 (1.14)	2.60 (1.10)	2.58 (1.08)
R2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	2.92 (0.95)	2.69 (0.85)	2.31 (1.03)	2.15 (0.90)
R3	Male	2.40 (0.89)	1.80 (1.30)	2.20 (0.84)	2.00 (0.71)
	Female	2.00 (0.89)	2.00 (1.26)	1.83 (1.33)	1.83 (1.33)

	Acquaintances	S5-Q1	S5-Q2	S5-Q3	S5-Q4
R1	Male	3.60 (0.55)	3.40 (0.55)	3.20 (0.45)	3.20 (0.45)
	Female	3.00 (1.16)	2.86 (1.04)	2.65 (1.08)	2.77 (1.15)
R2	Male	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Female	3.31 (0.63)	3.15 (0.69)	2.62 (1.12)	2.62 (1.12)
R3	Male	2.20 (1.10)	2.00 (0.71)	2.20 (0.84)	2.00 (1.22)
	Female	2.33 (0.82)	2.17 (0.98)	1.67 (0.82)	1.67 (0.63)

Appendix F.2. The mean scores of the R1 SNS's impression of each sentence

	SNS	S1-Q1	S1-Q2	S1-Q3	S1-Q4
R1	Male (12)	2.67 (1.07)	2.08 (1.08)	2.67 (0.98)	2.42 (1.08)
	Female (18)	3.22 (0.65)	3.11 (1.13)	2.72 (0.83)	2.89 (1.18)
R2	Male (7)	2.71 (1.11)	2.43 (1.51)	2.14 (0.69)	2.14 (0.90)
	Female (13)	2.31(0.95)	1.92 (1.12)	2.08 (0.90)	2.00 (1.00)
R3	Male (5)	2.60 (1.52)	1.80 (1.10)	3.20 (1.48)	2.80 (1.64)
	Female (8)	1.63 (0.74)	1.38 (0.74)	2.50 (1.31)	2.13 (1.13)

Appendix F.2. The mean scores of the R1 SNS's impression of each sentence (continued)

	SNS	S2-Q1	S2-Q2	S2-Q3	S2-Q4
R1	Male	3.33 (1.30)	2.25 (1.14)	2.82 (1.17)	2.17 (1.40)
	Female	3.33 (1.03)	3.22 (1.06)	2.67 (0.97)	2.89 (0.76)
R2	Male	2.71 (0.95)	2.29 (0.95)	2.71 (1.11)	2.29 (0.95)
	Female	2.15 (0.99)	2.23 (1.09)	1.85 (1.07)	1.77 (0.93)
R3	Male	3.00 (0.71)	3.00 (0.00)	2.60 (0.89)	3.25 (0.96)
	Female	2.88 (0.83)	2.25 (1.04)	2.38 (1.19)	2.38 (0.92)

	SNS	S3-Q1	S3-Q2	S3-Q3	S3-Q4
R1	Male	2.42 (1.08)	1.58 (0.90)	2.58 (1.16)	2.50 (1.24)
	Female	2.56 (1.29)	2.78 (1.17)	2.17 (0.99)	2.56 (1.34)
R2	Male	3.00 (0.58)	2.29 (0.95)	2.43 (0.98)	2.00 (0.82)
	Female	1.77 (0.83)	1.92 (1.04)	1.92 (1.38)	1.92 (1.12)
R3	Male	2.25 (1.50)	1.50 (0.58)	2.25 (1.89)	1.25 (0.50)
	Female	1.88 (0.99)	1.88 (0.99)	1.88 (0.99)	2.00 (0.93)

	SNS	S4-Q1	S4-Q2	S4-Q3	S4-Q4
R1	Male	2.83 (1.59)	1.83 (1.11)	2.00 (0.95)	2.00 (1.13)
	Female	3.39 (1.42)	2.83 (1.25)	2.50 (0.99)	2.50 (0.92)
R2	Male	3.00 (1.15)	2.86 (0.90)	2.71 (0.49)	2.71 (1.07)
	Female	1.92 (0.95)	2.00 (1.08)	1.69 (0.85)	1.69 (0.85)
R3	Male	2.75 (1.71)	1.75 (0.96)	2.00 (2.00)	1.75 (0.58)
	Female	2.25 (1.16)	1.75 (0.89)	2.00 (1.20)	2.00 (1.20)

	SNS	S5-Q1	S5-Q2	S5-Q3	S5-Q4
R1	Male	3.08 (1.16)	1.83 (1.11)	2.50 (1.09)	2.25 (1.36)
	Female	3.33 (1.19)	3.28 (1.18)	2.89 (0.96)	3.06 (1.11)
R2	Male	2.71 (0.76)	2.14 (0.90)	3.00 (0.58)	3.00 (0.58)
	Female	2.31 (1.11)	2.00 (0.91)	2.00 (0.91)	2.00 (1.05)
R3	Male	2.75 (1.26)	2.50 (1.29)	2.75 (1.71)	2.25 (1.50)
	Female	2.63 (1.06)	2.38 (0.92)	2.25 (1.16)	2.25 (1.16)

Appendix G. The mean of the use of dialect words by the Kanto acquaintance and the Kanto SNS¹¹

Gender		S1		S2		S3		S4		S5	
		AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
K1	M	5.00	3.10	3.00	2.75	2.00	2.25	5.00	2.38	4.00	2.25
	F	4.20	4.00	2.61	3.10	2.61	2.80	2.37	2.80	2.47	2.50
K2	M	3.00	3.00	2.00	2.20	2.00	2.20	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.60
	F	3.00	3.30	2.13	2.56	2.75	2.56	2.13	2.11	2.38	2.11
K3	M	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.33	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.67	2.00	2.25
	F	2.00	2.80	2.00	2.17	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.83	2.00	2.33

Appendix H. The mean of the use of dialect words by the R1 acquaintance and the R1 SNS¹²

Gender		S1		S2		S3		S4		S5	
		AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
R1	M	4.00	3.20	3.80	2.75	3.00	2.17	3.80	2.25	3.20	2.33
	F	4.00	4.30	2.55	2.89	2.45	2.56	2.32	2.50	2.35	2.33
R2	M	3.00	3.20	2.00	2.43	2.00	2.43	2.00	2.14	2.00	2.57
	F	3.20	3.50	2.15	2.85	2.46	2.38	2.15	2.46	2.31	2.46
R3	M	2.40	2.40	1.80	2.75	3.20	2.00	2.20	2.67	2.60	2.25
	F	2.00	2.50	2.00	2.13	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.88	2.00	2.25

11. The number of participants in each group is same as in Appendix E.1. (acquaintance) and F.1. (SNS).

12. The number of participants in each group is same as in Appendix E.2. (acquaintance) and F.2. (SNS).

Appendix I.1. The groups that the Kanto acquaintance and the Kanto SNS think say this kind of sentences¹³

S1	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	38	30	8	8	1	1
Female	42	36	10	11	1	1

S2	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	44	27	28	23	16	12
Female	38	19	25	25	16	12

S3	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	36	26	21	17	7	3
Female	34	26	24	22	8	6

S4	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	40	29	21	19	15	9
Female	39	28	18	20	13	10

S5	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	39	27	26	22	12	10
Female	37	28	23	25	11	11

13. The total number of AC (acquaintances) was 47, and the number of SNS was 42.

Appendix I.2. The groups that all the acquaintance and SNS think say this kind of sentences¹⁴

S1	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	104	75	36	18	5	1
Female	123	87	35	26	6	2

S2	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	108	74	89	55	41	30
Female	106	63	83	59	40	32

S3	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	92	62	66	40	22	14
Female	91	63	63	50	27	15

S4	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	108	74	82	54	54	33
Female	103	75	76	57	51	32

S5	18-25		26-50		51-	
	AC	SNS	AC	SNS	AC	SNS
Male	108	74	86	57	40	30
Female	105	74	83	61	40	30

14. The number of the acquaintances is 133, and that of SNS is 105.

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