Part I

Overview

1

Introduction

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1 Overview

Designed to serve as a concise reference book for researchers interested in the Japanese language and/or in typological studies of language in general, *The Cambridge Handbook of Japanese Linguistics* explores diverse characteristics of Japanese that are particularly intriguing when compared with English and other European languages. It consists of five thematic parts: (i) overview (Chapters 1 –6), (ii) sound system and lexicon (Chapters 7–11), (iii) grammatical foundation (Chapters 12–18), (iv) grammatical constructions (Chapters 19–24), and (v) pragmatics/sociolinguistics topics (Chapters 25–29). In the hope of stimulating readers to participate in and carry on these dialogs, many chapters survey critical discussions arising in Japanese linguistics. This preliminary chapter introduces subsequent chapters as well as providing background information, knowledge of which is often taken for granted.

Japanese is the native language of virtually all Japanese nationals, over 127 million as of 2015,[1] the ninth largest native-speaker population among the world's languages.[2] As of 2015, approximately 192,000 non-native speakers residing in Japan were studying Japanese as a foreign language;[3] overseas, approximately 3.65 million in 137 countries studied the language in 2015.[4]

Japanese is a "rigid" SOV language (Greenberg 1963: 79). It is also commonly classified as an *agglutinative language* because units of

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[1] The Statistics Bureau of Japan: www.stat.go.jp/data/kokusei/2015/kekka/pdf/youyaku.pdf.

[2] The SIL Ethnologue: www.ethnologue.com/statistics/size.

[3] The Agency for Cultural Affairs: www.bunka.go.jp/tokei_hakusho_shuppan/tokeichosa/nihongokyoiku_jittai/h27/pdf/h27_zenbun.pdf (p. 5).

[4] The Japan Foundation: www.jpf.go.jp/j/about/press/2016/dl/2016–057-1.pdf.

meaning are "glued" on one after another, as exemplified in (1). (Abbreviations appearing in the glosses are listed at the beginning of this *Handbook*.)

(1) *kotae-* *sase-* *rare-* *taku-* *na-* *katta-* *ra* ...
answer CAUS PASS DES NEG PST COND
'if (you) don't want to be made to answer...'

Kotae- is the root of the verb *kotaeru* 'to answer'; *sase-* is the causative auxiliary; *rare-* is the passive auxiliary; *taku-* is the adverbial form of the desiderative auxiliary *-tai* 'want to do ~'; *na-* is the root of the negative auxiliary *nai* 'not'; *-katta* can be considered as the past tense marker; *-ra* is a conditional connective particle. Kaoru Horie's Chapter 4, "Linguistic Typology and the Japanese Language," elaborates on a typological profile of Japanese regarding its structural and functional-cognitive characteristics. Specifically it analyzes two typologically noteworthy linguistic phenomena (one grammatical and the other lexico-grammatical) which highlight the interpretive flexibility of grammatical constructions and the innovative creativity of borrowing phenomena in Japanese.

Although SOV is undeniably canonical, the word order in Japanese is remarkably flexible. Mitsuaki Shimojo's Chapter 18, "Word Order and Extraction: A Functional Approach," demonstrates that the actual order is determined according to the information structure of the utterance, especially that which pertains to focused elements.

It is fortunate that Japanese has been recorded since the eighth century CE, which enables us to fathom its diachronic development and synchronic variations. A succinct account of the history of the Japanese language is provided by Bjarke Frellesvig in Chapter 2, "The History of the Language," and Michinori Shimoji's Chapter 5 "Dialects" takes up divergent variations of contemporary Japanese. Readers are likely to be inspired to broaden their perspectives on Japanese linguistics by the information supplied in these chapters.

A brief explanation of the notion of "Standard Japanese" is pertinent here. After two hundred years of isolation, Japan opened its doors to the West in the mid-nineteenth century, in the midst of the predatory colonial period when many Asian countries had been colonized. In order to preserve independence, the most pressing matters for the government were industrialization of the nation and strengthening of the military as rapidly as possible. When people from all over Japan were recruited to work for factories, the military, and the government, communication problems occurred because many, possibly most, of those recruits spoke mutually unintelligible dialects.

A movement to establish *hyōjungo* 'Standard Japanese' commenced. However, due to the presence of the great number of dialects, achieving a consensus about which dialect should serve as the basis of standardization was a formidable problem. Eventually, it was decided that *hyōjungo*

would be a refined variation of the dialect spoken by intellectual Tokyoites (Ueda 1895).

The government aggressively enforced use of the standard as part of the newly established compulsory education, whereby dialects were viewed as social evils. This biased view made many dialect speakers feel inferior (Shibata 1958: 90–139). Nevertheless, most people did not actually have opportunities to hear how intellectual Tokyoites spoke, so *hyōjungo* was considered by them as a kind of written language detached from daily life. However, 1925 brought the beginning of national radio broadcasting, and announcers were trained to speak only in *hyōjungo*, thus accelerating the spread of *hyōjungo* as a spoken language.

After World War II, the term *kyōtsūgo* 'common Japanese' gained popularity in order to remedy the negative impact of the authoritarian enforcement of *hyōjungo*. Today, the term *hyōjungo* is rarely used in mass communication for political correctness, although younger generations do not suffer from this dark history surrounding *hyōjungo* and tend to use the term without reservation.

2 Sound System

Organization of Japanese phonology is fairly simple. Nevertheless, it is an indispensable stock language in phonology courses for illustrating the concept of mora (vis-à-vis syllable). This is the theme of Timothy Vance's Chapter 7, "Moras and syllables." It also addresses the important issue of whether Japanese has diphthongs. Haruo Kubozono in Chapter 8, "Pitch Accent," discusses another frequently addressed phonological topic. Japanese is known for its diverse pitch accent systems found in regional dialects. Kubozono describes and analyzes this diversity with Tokyo Japanese as a reference point. Unlike English, in which suprasegmental prominence is distinguished by pitch, duration, amplitude, and articulatory precision, only pitch is critical in the Japanese accentual systems. This leads to an interesting issue concerning the interaction between pitch accent and intonation – the topic of Yosuke Igarashi's Chapter 9, "Intonation" – both of which are manifested by manipulation of the voice fundamental frequency.

3 Writing System

Compared with its plain phonology, the Japanese writing system is astonishingly complicated, as epitomized by Sampson (1985: 173): "One reason why Japanese script deserves its place in this [Sampson's] book is as an illustration of just how cumbersome a script can be and still serve in practice." As concisely described by Florian Coulmas's Chapter 6,

"Writing and Literacy in Modern Japan," this notoriety is ultimately due to the fact that Japanese writing evolved from that of Chinese, a language with substantially different sound and word formation systems.

Another consideration at this point is romanization. Two schemes (and their variations) are concurrently in use when representing Japanese in the Roman alphabet: the *Hepburn system*, invented by the American missionary James Curtis Hepburn (1815–1911), based on English writing conventions, and the *Kunreishiki* 'Cabinet Ordinance System.' The former is widely employed for general purposes, while the latter is selected almost exclusively by linguists, *sans* researchers in pragmatics, because of its systematicity (cf. Hasegawa 2015: ch. 4). They are similar, and yet, they differ in a crucial way, as shown in (2).[5]

(2)	Hepburn	*Kunreishiki*
[ɕ]	*sha, shi, shu, sho*	*sya, si, syu, syo*
[t͡ɕ]	*cha, chi, chu, cho*	*tya, ti, tyu, tyo*
[t͡sɯ]	*tsu*	*tu*
[d͡ʑ]	*ja, ji, ju, jo*	*zya, zi, zyu, zyo*
[ɸɯ]	*fu*	*hu*

This *Handbook* utilizes the modified Hepburn system, except Chapter 7, "Moras and Syllables." Long vowels are designated by the use of macron (ā, ī, ū, ē, ō), except for well-known proper nouns used in an English context; for example, *Tokyo, Osaka*. Chapter 2, "The History of the Language," Chapter 7, and Chapter 8, "Pitch Accent," use duplication of vowels (aa, ii, uu, ee, oo) for expository purposes.

4 Lexicon

In lexical categorization schemes, the following are commonly recognized: nouns, verbs, adjectives (and adjectival nouns), adverbs, particles, interjections, conjunctions, and mimetics. Some noteworthy characteristics are described below.

4.1 Nouns

There is no grammatical distinction between singular and plural in Japanese. The so-called *verbal noun* can co-occur with the verb *suru* 'do' to form a verb – for example, *ito* 'an aim' + *suru* 'to aim,' *meiwaku* 'annoyance' + *suru* 'to be troubled.' While this formation permits some flexibility as to which nouns can participate in it, and innovative combinations can occasionally be observed, not all semantically plausible nouns can function as verbal nouns. For example, *mokuhyō* 'an aim' cannot co-occur with *suru* to mean 'to aim' nor can *giwaku* 'suspicion' co-occur with *suru* to mean 'to

[5] [ɕ] (voiceless alveolo-palatal fricative); [t͡ɕ] (voiceless alveolo-palatal affricate); [t͡sɯ] (voiceless alveolar affricate); [d͡ʑ] (voiced alveolo-palatal affricate); [ɸ] (voiceless bilabial fricative); [ɯ] (close back unrounded vowel).

suspect.' English, by contrast, is highly adaptable in this respect; many, if not most, nouns can be used as verbs – for example, *to pen this comment, Let's seafood*. Foreign loanwords can be used as verbal nouns, as exemplified in (3).

(3) *kyanseru suru* 'to cancel,' *rikabā suru* 'to recover,' *sabaibu suru* 'to survive'

4.2 Verbs

With two exceptions (*kuru* 'come' and *suru* 'do'), Japanese verb stems end either in a consonant (e.g. *tor-* 'take') or in the vowel /i/ or /e/ (e.g. *mi-* 'see,' *tabe-* 'eat'). The suffix for consonant-ending stems to make the *shūshikei* 'conclusive form' (which appears in dictionaries as entry labels and serves as the default non-past tense marker) is *-u*; thus, in teaching Japanese as a foreign language (TJFL), they are called *u-verbs*. For vowel-ending stems, the suffix is *-ru*, and they are called *ru-verbs*.[6] According to Kokuritsu Kokugo Kenkyūjo (1964: 64), approximately 63% of verbs are *u*-verbs, 32% are *ru*-verbs, and the remaining 5% includes variations and compounds of the two irregular verbs.

The following forms are commonly recognized in TJFL (cf. Hasegawa 2015: ch. 6):

(4) a.	Negative	*tor-ana-*	'not take'
b.	Adverbial	*tor-i*	'taking'
c.	Conclusive	*tor-u*	'take'
d.	Hypothetical	*tor-eba*	'if (someone) takes'
e.	Imperative	*tor-e*	'Take (it)!'
f.	Volitional	*tor-ō*	'I shall take (it), let's take (it)'
g.	*Te*-form	*tot-te*	'taking'
h.	*Ta*-form	*tot-ta*	'took'
i.	Causative	*tor-ase-*	'make (someone) take'
j.	Passive	*tor-are-*	'be taken'

In the traditional grammar taught at schools in Japan, only the following conjugations are recognized:

(5) a.	*Mizen*	'irrealis'	*tor-a-*
b.	*Ren'yō*	'adverbial'	*tor-i*
c.	*Shūshi*	'conclusive'[7]	*tor-u*
d.	*Rentai*	'attributive'	*tor-u*
e.	*Katei*	'hypothetical'	*tor-e-*
f.	*Meirei*	'imperative'	*tor-e*

Forms listed in (4), but not in (5), are considered to be derived from (5). For example, the volitional form is derived from the irrealis form plus the

[6] In traditional Japanese grammars, *u*-verbs are called *go-dan katsuyō* 'five-tier conjugation' verbs, whereas *i*-ending *ru*-verbs are called *kami-ichi-dan katsuyō* 'upper one-tier conjugation,' and *e*-ending *ru*-verbs *shimo-ichi-dan katsuyō* 'lower-one-tier conjugation' verbs.

[7] The conclusive and attributive forms were distinct in classical Japanese, but in Modern Japanese, they are identical, except for the copula: *da* (conclusive) versus *na* (attributive). This issue is discussed in Chapter 2, Section 4.1; Chapter 4, Section 3.1; Chapter 19, Section 1; and Chapter 20, Section 2.

auxiliary suffix *-u* (i.e. *tor-a-u* > *torō*) by euphony, and the *te*-form from the adverbial form plus the conjunctive particle *-te* also by euphony (*tor-i-te* > *totte*). The verbal negative form (for clausal negation) is derived from the irrealis form plus the negative auxiliary. Unlike English *not*, clausal negation in Japanese is not expressed by a negative adverb but by auxiliaries. As discussed by Hideki Kishimoto in Chapter 14, "Negation," it exhibits various morphosyntactic constraints.

Although it is usually taught in TJFL that the *ta*-form indicates the past tense, and the conclusive form the non-past tense, whether or not Japanese has tense markers comparable with those in European languages has been highly controversial. In Chapter 15, "Tense and Aspect," Wesley Jacobsen shows how this controversy is rooted in the close interrelationship that exists between the order that events have in time with respect to other events, called tense, and the structure that events describe as they unfold in time, called aspect. While both kinds of meaning are present in most temporal forms in Japanese, a careful analysis of their use allows us to identify the existence of both markers of tense and markers of aspect in Japanese.

There is also a group of words that are collectively referred to as the *copula.* Among several variations, the most common forms are *da* (plain non-past) and *datta* (plain past), while its polite counterparts are *desu* (non-past) and *deshita* (past), with no singular–plural distinction.

4.3 Adjectives

Japanese has two kinds of adjectives. *I*-adjectives (so called because its non-past form ends in *-i*) are native Japanese adjectives that cover semantically primary vocabulary, as in (6):

(6)	*akaru-i*	'bright'	*kura-i*	'dark'
	hiro-i	'spacious'	*sema-i*	'small (space)'
	omo-i	'heavy'	*karu-i*	'light'
	taka-i	'high'	*hiku-i*	'low'

Unlike English adjectives, they do not need copula-support, that is, they can stand by themselves as a predicate (e.g. (7a)), and, like verbs, they conjugate (e.g. (7b–c)):

(7) a. *Kono heya wa akaru-i.*
this room TOP bright-NPST
'This room is bright.'

b. *Kono heya wa akaru-k-atta.* (*ku-atta* > *katta*)
bright-ADV-PST
'This room was (once) bright.'

c. *Kono heya wa akaru-ku-te hiro-i.*
bright-ADV-CONJ spacious-NPST
'This room is bright and spacious.'

The second type is called *na*-adjectives (e.g. (8)), because they require the attributive form of the copula (*na*) when they modify an NP, as in (9a). When used predicatively, they need the conclusive form of the copula (*da*/*desu*), as in (9b).

(8) *benri* 'convenient,' *kōka* 'expensive,' *zenryō* 'law-abiding'

(9) a. *benri na kuruma* 'convenient car,' *kōka na hon* 'expensive book,' *zenryō na shimin* 'law-abiding citizen'

b.

Kono	*hon*	*wa*	*kōka*	*da.*
this	book	TOP	expensive	COP.NPST

'This book is expensive.'

Semantically appropriate foreign words can be treated as *na*-adjectives, as in (10):

(10) *janbo na takarakuji* 'jumbo lotto,' *risukī na torihiki* 'risky deal,' *rūzu na hito* 'loose person'

4.4 Postpositional Particles

Japanese has four groups of particles (i.e. dependent formatives that are invariant in form and do not belong to such main classes of lexemes as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs); viz. *case, adverbial, conjunctive*, and *sentence-final*. Case particles comprise nominative, accusative, and dative, which designate grammatical relationships between the predicate and the nominal constituent that they accompany. Wataru Nakamura's Chapter 12, "Case," discusses the complexity of the Japanese case-marking system. He provides a historical overview of the generative accounts of the nominative, accusative, and dative particles and suggests a functional alternative.

Adverbial particles also indicate relationships between the NP and the predicate but do not specify case – for example, *wa* (topic marker), *mo* 'also,' *dake* 'only,' *sae* 'even.' Chapter 13, "Subjects and Topics," by Yoko Hasegawa explores the uses of the particles *ga* and *wa*, both of which can mark grammatical subjects.

Conjunctive particles join phrases or clauses – for example, *ga* 'and/but,' *kara*/*node* 'because,' *keredo*/*noni* 'although,' *nagara* 'while,' *shi* 'and.' Those pertaining to conditionality (e.g. *ba, nara, (ta)ra, to*) are discussed by Seiko Fujii in her Chapter 24, "Conditionals."

Sentence-final particles, some of which can also occur sentence-medially, play a particularly important role in spoken Japanese. Maynard (1997: 88) reports that in her 60-minute conversation data, sentence-final particles occurred approximately once in every 2.5 phrase-final positions (about 40.0% of the utterances). Emi Morita explores this topic in Chapter 25, "Sentence-final Particles."

4.5 Mimetics

One of the defining characteristics of human language is its arbitrariness. That is, there is no logical or natural relationship between the word and its meaning. However, some vocabulary in human languages is not so arbitrary. Albeit vaguely and sometimes synesthetically,[8] we can intuitively perceive some correspondences between sound and meaning. Words created as a result of such experience are called *mimetics* (sound-symbolic words). Japanese is well known for its rich inventory of mimetics, as illustrated in (11):

(11) a. Auditory

kokekokkō	'cock-a-doodle-doo'	*wanwan*	'bow-wow'

b. Visual

meramera	'flare up'	*pikapika*	'glitter'

c. Glossal (taste)

kotteri	'rich/heavy'	*sakusaku*	'crisp'

d. Tactile (touching)

nebaneba	'sticky'	*subesube*	'smooth'

This is the topic of Kiyoko Toratani's Chapter 10, "Semantics and Morphosyntax of Mimetics."

4.6 Predication

Taro Kageyama's Chapter 11, "Events and Properties in Morphology and Syntax," has a unique place in this *Handbook*, for its ultimate interest is form–meaning mismatch. Arguing for the significance of the distinction between event and property predication that underlies linguistic phenomena that challenge theories concerning the interface of morphology, syntax, semantics, and possibly pragmatics, Kageyama scrutinizes two issues: (i) agent compounding, which is claimed to be prohibited universally, **student-writing of a letter*, and (ii) *suru* 'do' when it appears in a description of physical attributes – for example, *Naomi wa aoi me o shite iru* 'Lit. Naomi is doing blue eyes,' that is, 'Naomi has blue eyes.'

5 Subjectivity

In the Japanese linguistic tradition, sentences are commonly analyzed in terms of a layered structure that locates propositional content at the core, subjective elements surrounding it, and intersubjective expressions in the

[8] Synesthesia is a condition in which one type of sensation (e.g. sound) evokes sensation of different modality (e.g. color).

outermost layer. Chapter 3, "Layered Structure, Positional Shifts, and Grammaticalization" by Rumiko Shinzato, accounts for this structural organization with reference to Western diachronic studies of grammaticalization. It is demonstrated that semantically heavy, contentful constituents are likely to move to the left periphery, while semantically light lexemes tend to move to the right periphery.

In the same tradition, *modality*, the topic of Heiko Narrog's Chapter 16, is often understood in terms of subjective elements. In this case, *modality* can include a wide variety of categories, such as topic and focus marking, tense, politeness, sentence moods, illocutionary marking, and evaluative adverbs. Narrog argues that it is best instead to define modality in terms of factuality, with expressions of possibility and necessity at the core. Subcategorizing such expressions, Narrog teases out this often intangible concept of modality.

Yukio Hirose also examines subjectivity in Chapter 17, "Logophoricity, Viewpoint, and Reflexivity." He analyzes the reflexive pronoun *jibun* 'self' from a cognitive-semantic perspective and argues that it has three related but distinct uses (viz. logophoric, viewpoint, and reflexive). He discusses the kind of self encoded in each use and its characteristics in relation to other subjectivity-related phenomena in Japanese.

6 Grammatical Constructions

Part IV of the *Handbook* consists of six chapters. It begins with Masayoshi Shibatani's Chapter 19, which navigates the labyrinth of "Nominalization." He argues that the products of nominalization are like nouns by virtue of their *metonymic* association with denotations and referents, for example, *tachi* 'standing' + *nomi* 'drinking' → 'establishments that let customers drink while standing.' He criticizes the tendency to concentrate on lexical nominalizations and neglect grammatical nominalizations, despite the latter's theoretical importance.

Yoshiko Matsumoto explores another highly complex phenomenon in her Chapter 20, "Clausal Noun Modification," where she demonstrates that Japanese provides only one construction (involving a head noun and its modifying clause) that corresponds to several different constructions in English; for example, relative, noun complement, infinitival (*things to do*), gerundive (*the result of practicing everyday*), and participial (*burnt toast*) clauses.

Japanese is equipped with an uncommon construction, which is the topic of Kyoko Hirose Ohara's Chapter 21, "Internally Headed Relativization and Related Constructions." Example (12) is adapted from Furui Yoshikichi's *Seto no saki* 'beyond Seto.'

(12) *Sono yoku-yoku-nen no aki ni, [hahaoya ga machi*
that next-next-year GEN autumn in mother NOM town
no byōin no shujutsu.shitsu kara nakanaka dete.ko-nai
GEN hospital GEN operating.room from considerably come.out-not
no] o sue no musuko wa ikameshige.na ki no tobira
? ACC end GEN son TOP daunting wood GEN door
no mae de matte.ita.
GEN front at was.waiting
Lit. 'Two years later, in autumn, the youngest son was waiting outside the daunting wooden door for [his mother was in the operating room at the town hospital for quite some time].'

Here, the main clause asserts that the youngest son was waiting for his mother, who did not emerge from the operating room for a long time. The direct object of *wait* (i.e. the head noun) is apparent semantically; however, it appears inside the relative clause with no syntactic identification. Hence the term "internally headed relativization." This is a widely accepted analysis of this type of sentence. Nonetheless, a quite different perspective is proposed by Shibatani in Chapter 19, Section 4.2.1.

One of the salient differences between Japanese and English language use occurs in expressions pertaining to one's subjective evaluation of a described event. Such expressions are sometimes mandatory in Japanese, but never in English. For example, (13a) sounds indifferent, and, therefore, can potentially be regarded as inappropriate. Its English translation, on the other hand, exhibits no negative qualities.

(13) a. *Chichi wa watashi ni kuruma o katta.*
father TOP I DAT car ACC bought
'My father bought me a car.'

If the speaker is grateful for her father's buying a car for her, it is idiomatic to add the auxiliary verb *kureru* 'give' to express this feeling of gratefulness.

b. *Chichi wa watashi ni kuruma o kat-te kureta.*
father TOP I DAT car ACC buy-CONJ gave
Lit. 'My father gave me a favor of buying a car.'

Because this type of construction describes actions or events from which someone receives benefit, it is called a *benefactive (construction)*. Nobuko Hasegawa's Chapter 22, "Benefactives," inspects their structural aspects and addresses the question as to the possibility of representing the speaker's empathy or point of view in syntax.

Discussions of Japanese passive constructions are frequently heard in linguistics classrooms because they differ conspicuously from their

English counterparts. Most notoriously, many find bewildering passives with intransitive verbs, for example, *shinu* 'die' (I was died by my father?!). In Chapter 23, "Passives," Shoichi Iwasaki lays out peculiarities of Japanese passive constructions from structural, functional, and discourse perspectives and scrutinizes the concept of "adversity" frequently associated with them.

The "Grammatical Constructions" section concludes with Seiko Fujii's Chapter 24, "Conditionals." She investigates multifaceted families of Japanese conditionals (in both form and meaning) as well as neighboring semantic domains (temporals, causals, and concessives). The chapter also discusses the use of Japanese conditionals as discourse markers.

7 Pragmatics

Japanese is one of the most extensively studied languages in the field of pragmatics. This *Handbook* devotes the five final chapters to its essential topics. These chapters all convincingly demonstrate the methodical importance of scrutinizing how given expressions are used in actual, naturalistic settings.

As mentioned earlier, sentence-final particles (SFPs) are ubiquitous and are an indispensable part of spoken Japanese, and yet they defy precise characterizations. Emi Morita describes in Chapter 25, "Sentence-final Particles," the complexity of their uses and proposes a future research direction: only a detailed analysis of actual interactional context, she argues, will enable us to understand how meanings of SFPs are derived, and ultimately how SFPs verbally structure Japanese social interactions.

The most extensively studied aspect of Japanese pragmatics is arguably *politeness*, that is, display of respect and consideration for the feelings of interlocutors. Because Japanese furnishes "fossilized" politeness expressions (*honorifics*), making politeness research is tremendously complex. Michael Haugh's Chapter 26, "Linguistic Politeness," provides a comprehensive account of Japanese politeness research in various academic traditions. He suggests that, although the study of honorifics has an important role to play in politeness research, Japanese linguists can also contribute to politeness research through analyzing both the (meta)language that underpins different conceptualizations of politeness in Japanese and the role that the specific linguistic composition of turns at talk play in the interactional accomplishment of politeness.

The intricacy of Japanese linguistic politeness is also manifested in speech style shifts between addressee honorifics (the *desu/masu* style) and their non-honorific counterparts (the plain style) even during a single span of conversation, in which the interlocutors' social relationships can hardly be altered. Haruko Minegishi Cook accounts for this perplexing phenomenon in her Chapter 27, "Speech Style Shift."

Researchers in pragmatics commonly utilize concepts and techniques developed in discourse analysis and/or conversation analysis. In Chapter 28, "Discourse/Conversation Analysis," Polly Szatrowski surveys outcomes since the 1970s related to discourse/conversation units, devices, strategies, utterance functions and discourse structure, sequential organization, and multimodality (gaze and body movements). Recurring themes include ellipsis/zero anaphora, aizuchi 'back channel,' turn-taking, postposing, and co-construction.

In the final chapter of the *Handbook*, Chapter 29, "Language, Gender, and Sexuality," Shigeko Okamoto reviews previous research, addressing the questions of how linguistic gender norms have been constructed and how men and women negotiate such norms and choose linguistic forms in specific social contexts. She emphasizes the multiplicity and variability of meanings of linguistic forms in situated practice.