

different for male and female speakers. The final particle (PART) *wa* is a typical female form, whereas *zo* occurs in rough male speech. Since these discourse particles occur in intimate speech, an expression such as *Mairimasu wa* (go.HUMBLE-POL PART) ‘(I will) go’ indicates that the subject is the speaker (humble form), that the addressee is someone worthy of respect (polite ending), and that the speaker is a woman who is on intimate terms with the addressee (final particle).

Thus, Japanese, though it lacks agreement markers, has a number of grammatical features that not only indicate the nature of the subject but also index the social relationships between the speaker and the addressee and between the speaker and the nominal referent, as well as the gender of the speaker. These features, on the other hand, require the speaker of Japanese to predetermine the social relationships between the speaker and the addressee and the nominal referent, so that appropriate combinations of honorifics and discourse particles can be chosen. Japanese,

in other words, is a highly context-sensitive language in which individual expressions encode various factors that make up conversational contexts in which they are embedded.

See also: Ainu; Altaic Languages; Austronesian Languages: Overview; Honorifics; Japan: Language Situation; Japan: Writing System; Japanese Lexicography; Korean; Ryukyuan.

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Japanese Lexicography

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There are three broad categories of dictionaries for the Japanese language: (a) Chinese–Japanese character dictionaries (*Kanwa Jiten*), (b) Japanese monolingual dictionaries (*Kokugo Jiten*), and (c) specialized dictionaries (*Tokushu Jiten*), which include thesauruses and terminology dictionaries. In terms of lexicographical development, it would be fair to divide the chronology into four main periods or stages: (1) the dawn of premodern lexicography (900 A.D.–1868 A.D.), (2) Westernization and rapid development of modern lexicography before World War II (1869–1945), (3) expansion of the dictionary market and projects (1946–1999), and (4) the electronic age (2000–).

The Dawn of Premodern Lexicography (900 A.D.–1868 A.D.)

Development of Kanwa Jiten

The oldest of the three categories of dictionaries is the Chinese–Japanese character dictionary. In the 7th century, Buddhism was introduced into Japan by way of Korea. Because there was no indigenous writing system in Japan at that time, the Buddhist

monks had to learn how to read and write Chinese by consulting imported Chinese monolingual dictionaries, such as *Erya* (爾雅), *Shuowen Jiezi* (說文解字), and *Yupian* (玉篇). Gradually they compiled a list of Chinese characters with Japanese translations, which grew into a genre of *Kanwa Jiten* (漢和辭典; Chinese–Japanese character dictionaries). The first Chinese character dictionary produced in Japan was the *Shinsen Jikyō* (新撰字鏡), compiled by a Buddhist monk, Shouju, probably between 898 and 901 A.D. Following the *Shinsen Jikyō*, numerous Chinese–Japanese character dictionaries appeared. Among those produced from the Heian period (794 A.D.–1185) through the Edo period (1600–1868), four stand out: *Tenrei Banshō Meigi* (篆隸万象名義, 30 vols., early 9th century¹) by a Buddhist monk, Kukai; *Ruijū Myōgi Shō* (類聚名義抄, 10 vols, late 11th century, author unknown); and *Jikyō* (字鏡) and *Wagokuhēn* (和玉篇) (dates and compilers unknown). The primary aim of these dictionaries was to provide information on how to read Chinese characters and their translations by using the Japanese writing system (*Manyōgana*, a set of Chinese characters developed in the 8th century to

¹An electronic version of *Tenrei Banshō Meigi* has been developed in Japan. See further details at <http://homepage3.nifty.com/shikeda/kkg178.html>.

be used as phonetic symbols to represent Japanese syllables, and *katakana* and *hiragana*, a system of 48 syllabic writing units for writing non-Chinese loan words and indigenous Japanese words, respectively).

Development of Kokugo Jiten

Because Chinese–Japanese character dictionaries were not able to describe Japanese indigenous words, there was a pressing need for Japanese monolingual dictionaries. One of the earliest extant examples of such a dictionary is the *Iroha jirui shou* (色葉字類抄), compiled by Tachibana no Tadakane between 1174 and 1181. It is a prototype of similar dictionaries in use today. Unlike Chinese character dictionaries, its entries are arranged according to sound (using *iroha* poetry) rather than Chinese characters. Nowadays most monolingual dictionaries are generally arranged on the basis of the standard *gojyūon* (50-sound) system. Notable examples of pre-modern monolingual dictionaries produced from the late Muromachi period (1333–1568) to the late Edo period include: *Setsumyōshū* (節用集; the first one was compiled in the mid-Muromachi period, with various subsequent versions appearing throughout the Edo period); *Wakun no shiori* (和訓栞, compiled by Tanikawa Kotosuga in the mid-Edo era; the first monolingual dictionary arranged in the *gojyūon* system); and *Gagen shoran* (雅言集覽, compiled by Ishikawa Masamochi from 1826–49; revised by Nakajima Hirotari in 1887; the first monolingual dictionary illustrating the meanings of old Japanese words with examples from authentic texts) (Kimura, 2002).

Early Western Influence

In the Azuchi-Momoyama (1573–1597) and the Edo (1600–1868) periods, lexicographical methods used in Europe were introduced through the Europeans who had contact with the Japanese under special circumstances. Among them were the Jesuit missionaries who compiled bilingual dictionaries such as *Rahonichi Jisho* (*Dictionaricum Latino-Lusitanicum ac Iaponicum*, 1595) and *Nippo Jisho* (*Vocabulario lingua de Iapam com adeclaraa em Portugues*, 1603). During the Edo period, the Netherlands was the only country that was allowed to have trade relations with Japan. People learned *Rangaku* (i.e., Dutch studies) in order to absorb Western culture. Inamura Sanpaku and others translated François Halma's Dutch–French dictionary, *Woordenboek der Nederduitsche en Fransche Taalen* (1708), and compiled a Dutch–Japanese bilingual version called *Halma Wage* (波留麻和解, published in 1796; 80 000 entries). This version was called 'Edo Halma,' while the one

translated later in 1816 by Hendrick Doeff, head of the Dutch trading post at Nagasaki, was called 'Nagasaki Halma.' The latter version was never printed, and students at the Tekijuku academy of Dutch studies in Osaka made their own manuscript copies. It was later revised by Katsuragawa Hoshu and published under the title *Oranda jii*.

It was not until the introduction of Western lexicography in the Meiji era that Japanese lexicography began its modern phase of development. One of the most influential dictionaries was James Curtis Hepburn's Japanese–English dictionary *Waei Gorin Shusei* (和英語林集成; 1867; Japanese–English: 20 772 entries; English–Japanese and: 10 030 entries). Due to its systematic description of Japanese words, this dictionary not only influenced other bilingual dictionaries (Japanese–German and Japanese–French, among others) but also had a great influence on the development of Japanese monolingual dictionaries. The third edition (Japanese–English: 35 618 entries; English–Japanese: 15 697 entries), which appeared in 1886, was especially famous as it introduced Hepburn's Romanization, a transliteration scheme for writing Japanese, for the very first time. This Romanization system became the standard in Japan and is still used today.

Westernization and Rapid Development of Modern Lexicography (1869–1945)

Meiji Restoration and Educational Reform

Two important watersheds in the development of Japanese dictionaries occurred in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. One was the introduction of foreign dictionaries and lexicographical methods in the late Edo period. The other was the system of compulsory education instituted in the early Meiji period (1868–1912). Because of this education reform, mass production of all types of dictionaries took off in Japan.

Among the dictionaries compiled during this period, *Genkai* (言海, edited by Otsuki Fumihiko) was the most influential and ambitious (Yamauchi, 1965). It originally started as a government-led lexicographical project. After the Meiji Restoration, the new government wished to have a new unabridged monolingual dictionary. This was influenced by linguistic nationalism in major Western countries, which had led to large-scale monolingual dictionary projects (e.g., the *Oxford English dictionary* in the United Kingdom, Grimm's *Deutsches Wörterbuch* in Germany, Webster's *An American dictionary of the English language* in the United States, and Littré's *Dictionnaire de la langue française* in France). The

government appointed around 10 Japanese language scholars for this work, and the first section of what was then called *Goi* (語彙) was published in 1871. The project had to be terminated, however, due to the lack of government funding and conflicting editorial policies among the team members. Otsuki Fumihiko was asked by the Education Ministry to take over this job in 1875 and spent 17 years completing the rest of the dictionary almost single-handedly. The first edition was published in 1889, and robust sales resulted in more than 500 printings by the beginning of the Showa period (around 1930).

Genkai was roughly based on Webster's dictionary in terms of its editorial policy. The criteria for selecting and organizing entries, especially for inflected forms, compound words and idioms, were much more refined and scientific than in previous dictionaries. It contained 39 103 entries, each of which consisted of information such as pronunciation, part of speech, word origin, senses, and citations. In particular, the structure of the entries became more scientific; definitions were ordered on historical principles and supplied with illustrative examples wherever possible. If a firm definition or explanation could not be fully established, a phrase such as *to iu ha ikaga* (i.e., 'suggested') was added after the description. Japanese linguistics was still in its infancy at that time, and the objective attitude adopted in the dictionary toward the description of the language became an important milestone in its development. *Genkai* was highly regarded and welcomed by scholars and became the most authoritative dictionary during the Meiji era, with a high academic standing among Japanese scholars and the general population alike. Most modern Japanese dictionaries are still influenced by *Genkai* to some extent.

After *Genkai* set the standard for medium-sized Japanese monolingual dictionaries, many attempts were made to match or even surpass this work. Among these attempts were *Jirin* (辞林, 1907; revised as *Kojirin* in 1925) by Kanazawa Shozaburo, *Jien* (辞苑, 1935) by Shinmura Izuru, and *Jikai* (辞海, 1952) by Kindaichi Kyosuke.

The publication of *Genkai* encouraged publishers to provide more thorough descriptions of the Japanese language, which led to some attempts to publish more comprehensive, unabridged dictionaries. For instance, *Genkai* was later revised and updated by Otsuki's successor, Okubo Toshio, and other Japanese language scholars at the University of Tokyo. This enlarged version was entitled *Dai-Genkai* (大言海, 4 vols, 1932–37; c. 80 000 entries). Other unabridged dictionaries in the early 20th century include *Dai Nihon Kokugo Jiten* (大日本国語辞典, 4 vols, edited by Matsui Kanji & Ueda Kazutoshi,

1915–19; c. 220 000 entries; most examples with references), *Nihon Daijiten Gensen* (日本大辞典言泉, by Haga Yaichi, 1921–29; many encyclopedic entries), and *Daijiten* (大辞典, 24 vols, by Heibonsha, 1934–36; encyclopedic in nature).

Expansion of the Dictionary Market and Projects (1946–1999)

After World War II, Japan needed some time to recover from its chaotic state. In the 1950s, however, rapid recovery and economic growth encouraged dictionary publishers to produce dictionaries capitalizing on their prewar heritage. *Jien* (1935), for example, was revised and updated and renamed *Kojien* (広辞苑, edited by Shinmura Izuru, 1955; 200 000 entries), which became a best-selling medium-sized monolingual dictionary for a long time.

Major dictionaries published in the latter half of the Showa period are:

- *Jikai* (辞海, edited by Kindaichi Kyosuke, 1952; 130 000 entries)
- *Shincho Kokugo Jiten* (新潮国語辞典, edited by Yamada Toshio, 1965; 130 000 entries)
- *Nihon Kokugo Daijiten* (日本国語大辞典, edited by Kankokai, 1972–1976; 450 000 entries)
- *Gakken Kokugo Daijiten* (学研国語大辞典, edited by Kindaichi Haruhiko and Ikeda Yosaburo, 1978; 100 000 entries)
- *Kadokawa Kokugo Daijiten* (角川国語大辞典, edited by Tokieda Motoki *et al.*, 1982; 155 000 entries)
- *Gensen* (言泉, edited by Hayashi Oki, 1986; 150 000 entries)
- *Daijirin* (大辞林, edited by Matumura Akira, 1988; 220 000 entries)
- *Kodansha Color Nihongo Daijiten* (講談社カラー版日本語大辞典, edited by Umesao Tadao *et al.*, 1989; 175 000 entries).

One of the largest and most comprehensive dictionaries is the 20-volume *Nihon Kokugo Daijiten* completed by Shogakukan Publishing Co. Ltd. in 1976. This project was ambitious in the sense that they designed the dictionary with the *Oxford English dictionary* as their model, with not only definitions for the entries but also information on their origins and citations showing a chronological range of meanings, from the time the word entered the language to the present. It contains 450 000 entries, with 750 000 illustrative examples from more than 30 000 references. Detailed descriptions are provided for pronunciation variants (regional differences in accents), and more than one etymology is given for words of uncertain origin. Definitions in this dictionary are ordered according to word-sense derivation, and citations are

given with clear references. It is also noteworthy that this dictionary makes reference to all the major Japanese dictionaries published before the Meiji period to indicate whether the given word was already listed in those dictionaries (Kurashima, 1997).

Nihon Kokugo Daijiten was welcomed enthusiastically by the Japanese public as an authoritative monolingual dictionary. The second edition was published in 2001 (500 000 entries; 1 million citations) and is the biggest monolingual Japanese dictionary published so far.

During this period, hundreds of monolingual Japanese dictionaries were produced, catering to all the different sectors and niches of market. The major trends in modern Japanese lexicography can be summarized as follows.

1. Attention has shifted away from mere explanations of difficult terms to more careful linguistic descriptions of ordinary words. Unabridged monolingual dictionaries in Japan used to cover classical words and phrases more fully and provided rather sparse treatment of modern usage and vocabulary. Even the most popular dictionary, *Kojien* (1995), had ordered word senses on historical principles. Its rival, *Kojirin*, on the other hand, lists the most recent senses first, beginning with modern usages and working backward to the word's origins. Nowadays, even small, compact dictionaries deal with everyday words in some detail.
2. Illustrative examples are now also taken from modern texts. Citations used to be from classical literature and were given only for the more difficult terms. Contemporary dictionaries use more examples from contemporary texts.
3. There has been a growing awareness that the needs of the end user should be taken into account in designing a dictionary. This is shown in the fact that monolingual dictionaries designed especially for schoolchildren now focus on more productive knowledge of vocabulary (everyday expressions, collocations, word choice, etc.).

This period was also characterized by the publication of more Chinese-character dictionaries and various types of terminological dictionaries. Of the numerous *kanwa jiten* published for general use, the following achieved a particularly wide circulation: *Kanwa Daijiten* (1903), jointly compiled by Shigeno Yasutsugu, Mishima Takashi, and Hattori Unokichi (1867–1939), and *Daijiten* (1917), by Ueda Kazutoshi. The most comprehensive of the modern *kanwa jiten* is the *Dai Kanwa Jiten*, compiled by Morohashi Tetsuji and published in 1955–60.

By the year 2000, there were already more than 2500 terminological dictionaries available. Some are

general dictionaries with a special emphasis on certain technical fields, whereas others are more like lists of terminology along with translation equivalents and brief comments. There are dictionaries that deal exclusively with recently coined words, slang, trade terms, place and personal names, recently introduced loan words, acronyms, sports and leisure activities, and so on. Field-specific dictionaries exist for such subjects as mathematics, physics, chemistry, computer science, linguistics, Japanese literature, world literature, music, history, geography, medicine, social work, transportation, architecture, communication, law, economics, management, business, education, the performing arts, and movies.

The Electronic Age (from 1985)

In the field of natural language processing, a nine-year project called the EDR (Electronic Dictionary Research) (1986–1994) was launched. It aimed to produce dictionaries for human language technology. The EDR electronic dictionary is a machine-tractable dictionary that catalogues the lexical knowledge of Japanese and English (a word dictionary, a bilingual dictionary, and a co-occurrence dictionary), and has unified thesaurus-like concept classifications (a concept dictionary) with corpus databases (the EDR corpus). It is now widely available for research and commercial purposes.

As computer technology advanced in the late 20th century, Japanese lexicography gradually moved into a new age of electronic publishing. The first CD-ROM dictionary was *Saishin kagaku yogo jiten* (最新科学用語辞典, *A new dictionary of scientific terms*, Sanshusha) in 1985. In 1987, Iwanami Press published the CD-ROM version of *Kojien*, the most popular monolingual dictionary in Japan, which triggered a rapid growth of the electronic dictionary market. In 1991, Fujitsu, Sony, Dai Nippon Printing Co. Ltd, and Iwanami Press, all involved in the production of *Kojien*, founded the EPWING Consortium, and most publishers involved in electronic dictionary publishing joined it. Until the Internet and Web technology began to flourish, this EPWING Consortium facilitated the appearance of various types of electronic dictionaries on the market. Sony's *Denshi book* (Electronic Book DD-25) became very popular because it contained several dictionaries from different publishers on the same diskette. More recently, websites such as Yahoo and Infoseek have begun to provide free Web dictionary services, in which major unabridged monolingual dictionaries such as *Dai jirin* (大辞林 233 000 entries) and *Dai jisen* (大辞泉 220 000 entries) can be accessed via the Web. Also, pocket electronic dictionaries

produced by Casio, Seiko, Sharp, and Sony all contain several Japanese monolingual as well as Chinese character dictionaries. The electronic dictionary market is rapidly growing in Japan, and the market share will soon exceed that of paper dictionaries. The most popular type of these electronic dictionaries is the all-in-one type, which contains more than 30 different titles, including all types of Japanese dictionaries (monolingual, Chinese character, thesaurus, old Japanese, idioms, proverbs, and loan words), different English dictionaries (monolingual, Japanese–English, English–Japanese), encyclopedias, and some specialized dictionaries such as dictionaries of medicine and new words.

See also: Japan: Writing System; Japanese.

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Jargon

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The word *jargon* probably derives from the same source as *gargle*, namely Indo-European **garg-* meaning throat, and it originally referred to any noise made in the throat. In Middle English it was generally used to describe the chattering of birds, or human speech that sounded as meaningless as the chattering of birds. It was used (contemptuously) to refer to trade languages such as *Chinook Jargon* (q.v.). Jane Austen used *jargon* in the sense ‘cliché’ (*Sense and sensibility*, Ch.18). Today,

Jargon is the language peculiar to a trade, profession, or other group; the language used in a body of spoken or written texts dealing with a circumscribed domain in which speakers share a common specialized vocabulary, habits of word usage, and forms of expression.


This definition includes what some scholars call ‘specialist’ or ‘technical’ language, ‘restricted’ language (Firth, 1968: 98), ‘sublanguage’ (Kittredge and Lehrberger, 1982), and others ‘register’ (e.g., Zwicky and Zwicky, 1982; Wardhaugh, 1986).

Jargons differ from one another grammatically and sometimes phonologically or typographically, as can be seen by comparing a statement of some of the requirements on the cricket field with the two-line excerpt from a knitting pattern, then the wedding

invitation that follows it, and all of these with the excerpt from a Wordsworth poem and a text message version of that (such as might be conveyed using the SMS facility on a mobile phone).

A fast-medium right arm inswing bowler needs two or three slips, a deep third man, a gully, a deepish mid-off, a man at deep fine leg and another at wide mid-on.

Cast on 63 sts: Knit 6 rows plain knitting.
7th row: K4, wl. fwd. K2 tog to the last 3 sts. K3.



 Sue and Graeme Cannon
 together with
 Anne and Bob Ervin
 extend a warm invitation to
Natalie and friend
 to share with us the joyous occasion of the wedding of
 Vikki and Ken
 in the gardens of Nathania Springs, Monbulk
 at 4.45pm on Sunday 10th May 1992
 Following the ceremony, a celebration will be held
 in their honour at the adjoining reception centre.
 R.S.V.P. 1st May, 1992