Graphical and Grammatical Viewpoints on the Necessity of an Omote-Ura Spatial Axis to Explain Japanese Pragmatics

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Introduction

A characteristic of the Japanese language that sets it apart from many other languages is its grammar’s strong degree of situational dependency. In Japanese, the semantics and grammar are often closely related; sentences that are grammatical with one semantic meaning may no longer be grammatical when it is intended to carry an alternate meaning. Examples of grammar subtleties will be given later, but this coupling of semantics and grammar encourages the study of pragmatics, defined by the Merriam-Webster dictionary as “linguistics concerned with the relationship of sentences to the environment in which they occur.” The nature of Japanese is such that an understanding of higher level Japanese requires the consideration of pragmatics.

So far, the archetypal way of tying together the grammar and the environment is housed in the concept of *uchi* and *soto*, which, in English, have taken on the meaning of “in-group” and “out-group,” respectively. Although “the *uchi-soto* dichotomy is a social phenomenon” (Sukle 115), the *ushi* and *soto* viewpoints transcend Japanese grammar, where their presence accounts for many subtleties of the grammar.

Not all linguists have adopted the *ushi* and *soto* dichotomy as a linguistic phenomenon, however. For instance, whereas *ushi* and *soto* dichotomy proponents see *no* and *koto* as nominalizers whose differences are housed in the *ushi* and *soto* connotations, respectively, Kuno sets out to explain their distinction based purely on usage and circumstance. Yet, she concedes that “there are a great many idiosyncratic factors involved” (214).
Even though some idiosyncrasies can be explained using uchi and soto, Lebra argues that the type of social interactions that occur in Japanese society cannot be defined by the use of the uchi-soto dichotomy alone. She suggests the addition of an omote-ura (“front”-“back”) axis, and, together with the uchi-soto axis, defines three common situational domains—the intimate, the ritual and the anomic (112). As with the uchi-soto axis, the Japanese omote and ura carry connotations far beyond their dictionary translations. This paper will attempt to address these connotations with the use of graphical and grammatical examples.

Each of the above situational domains is associated with unique concepts and social behavior, as will be discussed later. However, unlike the uchi and soto dichotomy that manifests itself relatively clearly in the Japanese language through the multitude of binary choices existent in Japanese grammar, it is unclear whether the omote-ura dichotomy can be substantiated by grammatical evidence. In fact, minimal work has been done on this topic, and the research to date has focused on relating grammar and context solely on the basis of uchi and soto. Therefore, before accepting or rejecting the omote-ura dichotomy as an integral part of Japanese culture, there is a need for the analysis of omote and ura in grammatical terms. This is the purpose of this paper—to analyze the need for the additional omote-ura axis from a pragmatics viewpoint. As such, grammatical evidence is taken to be the most valid form of evidence for or against the use of the extra axis. However, graphical examples, that is, illustrating the grammatical subtleties via the use of diagrams and schematics, can also help to demonstrate how spatial axes are able to illustrate Japanese language and social characteristics. Before

1 Literally, uchi means “the home” or “inside,” and soto means “outside,” but these literal translations are unable to convey the myriad of connotations associated with uchi and soto, so the looser definitions of “in-group” and “out-group” are often used when for linguistic and social analyses.
exploring the omote-ura dichotomy, however, I will briefly summarize the current thinking on uchi-soto
The Accepted Foundation of Japanese Pragmatics: Uchi and Soto

Linguists such as Makino have adopted the **uchi** and **soto** dichotomy as being the basis of the Japanese culture's situational dependence, and this is no doubt partially due to the existence of grammatical evidence and the wide applicability of the **uchi** and **soto** concept. To summarize the nature of the dichotomy, Quinn has provided extensive lists of **uchi** compounds and **soto** compounds (Quinn 46-64). The distinction of **uchi** and **soto** carrying spatial connotations of “in” and “out,” respectively, are defined in basic dictionaries and are not detailed here, but it is important to note that **uchi** and **soto** also apply to social and partitive concepts, among others, and not just the spatial notions. For example, psychologically, the **uchi** words refer to some close and warmer action or feeling, where the sense of empathy is strong, while the **soto** words convey a certain distance and remoteness. Quinn also associates **uchi** and **soto** with the concepts in Table 1. From a slightly different viewpoint, **uchi** houses all the familial concepts such as belongingness, conformism, collectivism, empathy, commitment, dependency, indulgence, among others, whereas these qualities are not emphasized in a more formal **soto**. Rather, the **soto** is often thought of as interactions concerned with definitions, obligations, honors, rank and other less emotional attributes.

In exemplifying the **uchi-soto** dichotomy, linguists such as Makino have portrayed the concept of **uchi** and **soto** graphically to make the conceptual dichotomy more inline with its

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uchi</th>
<th>Soto</th>
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<td>Indoors</td>
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<td>Closed</td>
<td>Open</td>
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<td>Experienced</td>
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<td>Lineal family</td>
<td>Extralineal family</td>
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<td>Familiar</td>
<td>Unfamiliar</td>
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<td>&quot;Us&quot;</td>
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<td>Controlled</td>
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<tr>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>Detached</td>
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<tr>
<td>Early/primary</td>
<td>Late/secondary</td>
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</table>

Table 1. Concepts and connotations related to **uchi** and **soto**. (Quinn Uchi/Soto... 254)
fundamental spatial translations of “inside” and “outside.” Makino’s basic **uchi-soto** diagram consists of two concentric circles of different sizes, as shown in Figure 1. On this diagram, **uchi** is the area around the center of the circles, and **soto** defines the outside, annular portion. Thus, graphically, **uchi** and **soto** differ by their radial distance to the center of the circles, which is the person or party in concern. That is, ego is the innermost **uchi**, while actions with the **soto** signify more distant relationships.

Figure 1 should not be seen as a purely abstract schematic. The radial separation between **uchi** and **soto** physically exists in Japanese society. Perhaps the most salient example can be found in the architecture of Japanese castles. Specifically, Japanese castles are often segregated from the streets first with an encirclement of the **uchi bori** (inner moat) and then, closer to the streets, by a **soto bori** (outer moat) (EAS 447). Similar but less distinct structures often surround regular Japanese homes as well.

In addition to spatial evidence, the grammatical evidence for the strength of the **uchi-soto** concept is strong and comes in many forms, in syntax, particles, verbs, nominalizers, formality, et al. A deep study of the grammatical evidence for **uchi** and **soto** is not provided here, but it should be kept in mind that a large part of Japanese grammar can be classified as either **uchi** or **soto** based on the criteria depicted in Table 1.

In summary, Wetzel summarizes the implications of the **uchi-soto** dichotomy:

Recognizing **uchi/soto** social deixis in Japanese has wide-ranging implications... In the larger scheme of things, recognizing **uchi/soto** deixis provides us with a powerful tool for examining linguistic
phenomena that have long been taken to be related but for which existing models are inadequate... Finally, the linguistic manifestations of *uchi/soto* demonstrate once again the complex interrelationship between language and its sociocultural setting. (84)
Lebra's impetus for defining the extra omote-ura axis stems from her belief that social interactions commonly encountered by people involved with Japanese culture can be classified into three domains. These are the intimate, ritual and anomic domains. Table 2 illustrates the characteristics of each of these domains. In summary, the intimate domain is one in which all pretenses are removed, and one's true self is exposed. This is why characteristics of the intimate domain include unity, empathy and communication. In contrast, the ritual domain occurs in formalized circumstances where one's emotions are masked by a front or face that the Japanese have accepted as appropriate for situations where there is a separation in hierarchy, or when two parties are interacting at a purely acquaintance-like level. As a highly regulated domain, ritual interactions encourage a considerable degree of humility, enryo (self-restraint), unobtrusiveness and omoiyari (consideration). This side of the Japanese culture is often the one that is stereotyped because it is the side that the Japanese typically reveal to foreigners.

So far, the intimate and ritual domains may seem analogous to the uchi and soto dichotomies, respectively; the intimate domain takes on the homely qualities of the uchi, while the ritual domain shares the restricted and governed attributes of the soto. However, Lebra...
purports the existence of a third domain—the anomic. As Table 2 shows, the anomic domain is largely defined by adjectives that are preceded by words such as “free from,” prefixes such as “un-,” and suffixes such as “-less.” In other words, the anomic domain is one in which all concerns are forgotten and obligations are lifted; one lives for himself or herself. In very general terms, one can regard the anomic situation as one in which a person is unaffected and unable to affect others. In this manner, the anomic is neither truly *uchi* nor truly *soto*.

Although Sukle urged that “*uchi-soto* signaling must be examined in social interaction” (115), Lebra proposes that the *uchi-soto* dichotomy, albeit necessary in defining the three situation domains, is, in itself, insufficient (112). She proposes the addition of the *omote-ura* axis, independent of *uchi* and *soto* to complement the well-established *uchi* and *soto* axis. Table 3 is Lebra’s interpretation of how the three domains of situational interaction are a result of the combination of the two spatial axes. The combination of *uchi* and *ura* is the basis for the intimate domain, while *soto* and *omote* form the ritual domain. However, the impetus for Lebra’s system lies in the existence of the third, anomic domain. While the intimate domain can be distilled down to homely *uchi*, and the ritual domain can taken as the colder *soto* it is unclear where the anomic domain resides, because it shares some aspects of *uchi* listed in Table 1, but also some of the characteristics of *soto*. For instance, the anomic domain does not foster the warmth of *uchi*, but neither is it as regulated as the typical *soto*. It has the “self” idea that is typically *uchi*, while it also has the “unknown” aspect of *soto*.

3 It is of importance that it is not only the Japanese themselves whose behavior fall into three domains. In fact, their relation with non-Japanese cultures can also be classified with these domains.
Lebra defines the anomic domain not directly, but by contrasting it with the other two domains:

Finally, the anomic situation contrasts with the intimate situation in that Ego defines Alter as an outsider, which rules out intimacy between Ego and Alter; it contrasts with the ritual situation in that Ego is freed from concern that an audience is watching his behavior. The anomic situation is likely to occur when Ego finds Alter or a third person to be a stranger or enemy who does not share Ego’s norms and whose approval is irrelevant to Ego. It is in this sense that the anomic situation combines sōto and ura (113).

I prefer to explain irrelevance aspect of the anomic domain as that which one is neither deeply affected by others nor can one readily affect others. I think that the lack of affect is what characterizes the anomic domain as both sōto and ura. One will note that the combination of two axes naturally gives rise to four combinations, but Lebra dismisses the fourth possible (uchi-omote) combination as “unlikely to occur” (112) and makes no attempt to characterize it. The uchi-omote combination is unlikely to be encountered. Nevertheless, it is an important combination. I tend to view this combination as one’s self-image since the uchi describes the self. But rather than being a true self, it is the self with a front. That is, the uchi-omote region reflects one’s own concern of how others view the ego.⁴

⁴ This is obviously more of a psychological debate and not the point of the paper, so it will not be considered in more detail here.
Graphical and Grammatical Viewpoints on the Necessity of an Omote-Ura Spatial Axis to Explain Japanese Pragmatics

Graphical Interpretations and Extensions of the Spatial Axes

One way in which the parallels between grammar and societal interaction can be represented is via the use of diagrams. Just as Makino represents the *uchi-soto* axis graphically on a diagram (Figure 1), Lebra uses a diagram to illustrate her three domains. This diagram is reproduced in Figure 2, where one’s central ego is surrounded by the three domains. However, I do not believe that this figure is truly reflective of her definition of the three domains based on the two spatial axes. Instead, the diagram underscores Lebra’s efforts in the creation of the *omote-ura* dichotomy for the simple reason that the illustration makes no graphical use of the *uchi-soto* and *omote-ura* axes. Traveling outward from the center of the circle merely allows one to leave the ego, which is not a domain in itself, and the there is no further change of domain as one travels further away from the center. Thus, the change from *uchi* to *soto* is not conveyed by Figure 2. Furthermore, it is unclear how the *omote-ura* axis is represented by the figure; there is no direction specified with either *omote* or *ura*. In summary, Lebra’s figure does not make use of either of the dichotomous pairs as spatial axes.

I therefore propose Figure 3 as an alternative Figure 2, which, although being more complex, is able to integrate both deictic axes as well as account for dynamic shifts in interactions and changes in domains. Figure 3 is similar to the Makino’s basic *uchi-soto* diagram shown in Figure 1, except that the circles are now split into left and right halves.

Figure 2. Lebra’s graphical interpretation of the three situational domains (112).

Figure 3. Alternative spatial representation incorporating the *uchi-soto* and *omote-ura* dichotomies.
to differentiate **omote** from **ura**. In the orientation as shown in Figure 3, the unshaded right half is the **omote**, while the gray left half is the **ura**. The purpose of the arrow is to clarify which half is the **omote** and it can be regarded as pointing to the front of a person if one takes Figure 3 as an abstraction of a person viewed from the top. The three situational domains are now logically displayed in the diagram and correspond to the definitions provided by Lebra (Table 3). Graphically, the **soto-ness** increases with radial distance from the center, while **omote-ness** increases to the right. Thus, the intimate **uchi-ura** is the inner-left semi-circle, the ritualistic **soto-omote** is the outer-right annular region, and the elusive anomic **soto-ura** is the outer-left annulus. Being the back of the person, the anomic domain demonstrates the irrelevance which Lebra described in locating the anomic domain in **soto-ura**.

In addition to defining the domains logically, Figure 3 has the additional characteristic of being, in a geometric sense, rotationally and translationally dependent. That is, different interactions can be realized simply by rotating and moving the concentric circles. Thus, Figure 3 is even able to describe how groups or people can interact. For example, Figure 4 shows the example of two strangers, A and B, bumping into each other unexpectedly. Since there is no defined relation between person A and person B, the situation is anomic, as indicated by the overlapping of the gray anomic regions of A and B. The circles can also be pictured as two people back-to-back. Clearly, neither A nor B is trying to present a front or image. Of course, the relationship can

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Figure 3 also shows the self-image domain as **uchi-omote** which was discussed earlier.
immediately become ritualistic (as shown by the lower half of Figure 4) if the two discover out that they in fact know each other through a common friend, or have met elsewhere before. This type of ritualization, which I call “anomic ritualization” is made possible by a rotation of both A and B such that the zone of interaction now occurs in each other’s soto-omote ritual area.

Next, one can consider an interaction that changes from ritual to intimate (top two diagrams of Figure 5), where A and B initially interact ritually. With the passage of time, A and B get to know each other better and share more in common. This natural process is depicted by B’s leftward movement (or A’s rightward movement) such that A and B essentially have overlapping intimate regions (sharing the black uchi-ura region in the middle pair of Figure 5). Of course, the intimate relationship can also turn sour. If B continues to move further leftward, the overlapping intimate region is now replaced by an overlapping anomic region. This is the case when good friends become enemies. It is interesting to note that this sort of change to an anomic interaction involves the diagrams literally “turning their backs on each other,” just as the deterioration of friendship often causes.
Lebra makes mention of another kind of ritualization, where, if a third person suddenly shows up with whom intimate interaction is not possible, “the initial dyadic intimacy is suddenly terminated and replaced by ritual behavior” (133). This is depicted by Figure 6. A and B have overlapping intimate regions, but the entrance of C forces both A and B to rotate and interact with C only in the *soto-omote* ritual manner. A and B remain intimate as their *uchi-ura* regions still overlap, but to C, only the ritual interaction is seen.⁶

One can certainly imagining other dynamic shifts in situational interaction, but, hopefully, Figures 4 to 6 have given a sense of how the new diagram that incorporates both the *uchi-soto* and the *omote-ura* axes is useful in the understanding the spatial nature and dynamism of Lebra’s three domains.

Just as the *uchi-soto* dichotomy is physically apparent in Japanese architecture, as evinced by the castle moats, Bachnik, through the use of two vignettes, illustrates how the rooms of a home can be classified on the *omote-ura* axis, where the room in which relatives or guests are greeted is symbolic of the level of interaction (143-166).

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⁶ This form of ritualization as a result of an intruder is depicted very closely by the dynamic roles of the family members in two vignettes provided by Bachnik (143-66).
Grammatical Support for the Omote-Ura Dichotomy: The Levels of Speech

Although I have introduced the *uchi-soto* and *omote-ura* dichotomies, the analysis so far has been based more on diagrams and cultural observations, and I have yet to justify that the use of the *omote-ura* axis is essential to the Japanese culture using grammatical evidence. A two-dimensional graphical viewpoint, although visually analogous and appealing, is insufficient from a pragmatics point of view.

According to Lebra, there is no doubt that the anomic domain of situational interaction exists and is actually common encountered. The recognition that the domain shares both *uchi* and *soto* aspects and that *uchi* and *soto* alone are insufficient to define the anomic situation uniquely is perhaps one of the strongest arguments for the use of *omote* and *ura* as a supplement. In this section, I will show that there exist some grammatical concepts in Japanese that cannot be explained solely with a binary *uchi-soto* dichotomy either, thereby supporting the necessity for the additional *omote-ura* axis. The first piece of evidence deals with the three levels of speech in Japanese. Here, I am referring to: the plain form, the formal *desu-masu* form and the polite forms (both honorific and humble).

Of these three forms, the most well defined are the polite honorific and polite humble forms. Makino asserts that these forms are used to elevate the speaker’s superior and to lower the speaker or his in-group members, respectively (Makino. *Uchi to Soto…* 36). Thus, a

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7 I have specifically chosen not to refer to the levels of speech as “formality” levels or “politeness” levels because I feel that the neither “formality” nor “politeness” is encompassing enough. By referring to the levels as “levels of speech,” I leave the interpretation open for the time being.
The consequence of the polite forms is to establish a well-defined and mutually agreeable relationship between the speaker and the alter. The polite forms are used only when such defined psychological and physiological relationships are required (Makino. *Uchi to Soto*.. 173). They are also noticeably longer than the other forms (Makino. *Uchi to Soto*.. 176-77) as they either humbly or honorifically reach outward to the alter. Furthermore, the polite forms are also the last to be learned by native speakers and foreign learners alike; they are the least likely to be internalized, and the quickest form to be forgotten (EAS 447). As a consequence, the polite forms “can become fantastically cumbersome and error-ridden” (Quinn 70). Because of its formal purpose and unnaturalness, the polite forms are akin to the ritual domain of situational interaction. Figure 7 shows the placement of the polite forms in the *soto-omote* region.

It is worth noting that the polite forms cannot cross into the *ura*. In speech, this is made obvious when two people may be conversing about the emperor. Although, if either of them were to speak to the emperor directly, he or she would be obligated to take on polite speech, the two, in talking to each other, do not refer to the emperor by using the polite forms because neither knows the emperor personally, and no front is needed when talking “behind the emperor’s back.” In other words, the polite forms can only be used when the listener is in the speaker’s *soto* and a special front is required or desirable.

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8 The plain form is often called the informal form by many authors and linguists. I choose to call it the plain form because I do not feel that informality characterizes the form’s usage appropriately. The reason for this will be explained later.
The preferred form for intimate situations, such as those found in the home and among tightly knit circles of friends, is the plain form. It contrasts with the polite forms because it is the first to be learnt by native speakers. The plain form is short, to the point and carries empathy. As a result, even formal conversation and interaction can shift from the desu-masu form to the plain form if empathy and agreement are warranted (EAS 447). Makino and Tsutsui write, “The [plain] style is a suitable style to be used when the speaker/writer wants to express his feeling, his knowledge or his conviction in a straightforward manner” (…Intermediate Japanese…, 37). This high degree of empathy associated with the plain form therefore precludes the existence of a front or a face, and the plain form situates itself in the intimate uchi-ura zone of Figure 7.

However, it is also common for the plain form to be used in anomic situations, when two unacquainted parties undergo a dispute, for instance. In this case, the vulgar language is likely to be in the plain form. Clearly, the two parties are not within each other’s uchi. In this case, the plain form is not inviting the alter into ego’s uchi. Instead, it is relegating alter to ego’s back, a zone which is marked by the anomic characteristics of “free of concern,” et al. This is why the plain form crosses over to the soto-ura region in Figure 7. It is clear here that the plain form cannot be properly classified as uchi or soto because it is used in both. On the other hand, the plain form is precisely defined by the ura zone. Thus, one can treat the plain form more appropriately as an ura marker, and not as an uchi marker. In summary, the omote-ura deictic axis needs to exist because it is needed to define the most commonly used plain form of the Japanese language.
The desu-masu formal form is also a hybrid in that it situates itself in more than one region. First, it is obvious that this form is not used for intimate interactions because it distances the parties. This precludes its classification as an uchi marker. The desu-masu formal form thus lies only in the soto regions (both omote and ura). It shares in the unaffected and unaffectable characteristics that define the anomic situation, but the “front” characteristic of the ritual domain is not entirely removed. The desu-masu form is unique in that it is one of the few grammatical features of Japanese that is the relatively neutral and is least likely to offend any party. It is no wonder that this is the form that is first taught to non-native speakers. After all, Figure 7 shows the desu-masu form as one which encompasses all of the soto and the desu-masu form is thus the first interface with which a foreigner is likely to come into contact.

Table 4 summarizes the applicability of each level of formality. Thus far, I have avoided the distinction between “formality” and “politeness.” However, there is a subtle difference between the two that is crucial in justifying the use of the omote-ura dichotomy. The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines formality as the “compliance with formal or conventional rules,” and the extent of compliance and convention is largely determined by the psychological distance between parties. A formal type of behavior or speech is one in that is characterized by the alter being further removed from ego’s uchi, where convention sets the basis for interaction. Thus, formality is largely measured on the uchi-soto axis.

In contrast, politeness is not as dependent on the uchi-soto position. One can be equally polite to a new acquaintance or to a loved one. Of course, excessive politeness can hinder
situational intimacy. This is because politeness is a front that one establishes for specific interactions. The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines being polite as “marked by an appearance of consideration, tact, deference, or courtesy.” The crucial word here is “appearance.” As such an appearance of a front, politeness can be measured more accurately by the omote-ura axis. The fact that the plain form is the first to be learned by native speakers reflects the fact that children are not expected to display the “front” of politeness that is expected of adults.

With uchi-soto as the measure of formality and omote-ura as the politeness measure, the form of Table 4 can be better appreciated. The polite forms naturally fall into the omote region because omote symbolizes politeness. The desu-masu form is a formal form and so it is applicable only in soto regions. The plain form is used when politeness is not emphasized and thus exists only in the ura regions. It should now be clear why I have chosen not to call the plain form the informal form; the plain form is really characterized by the lack of its politeness front, and not solely by its lack of formality.
Grammatical Support for the Omote-Ura Dichotomy: The Demonstratives

In addition to the grammatical support of the omote-ura axis given by the levels of speech, the three demonstratives, ko, so, and a (do is excluded because it is the interrogative) provide additional reinforcement for Lebra’s use of the omote-ura dichotomy. For these demonstratives, I propose that ko is the intimate (uchi-ura), so the ritual (soto-omote), and a the anomic (soto-ura). The ko/so relationship is shown in Figure 8 where the small circle is the referent object. Person A is the speaker and focus of empathy/identification for Figures 8 and 9. Niimura and Hiyashi have already shown Sakuma’s Speaker-Hearer model as being incomprehensive (814), and I will not discuss the demonstratives in light of that model. Instead, I will make use of Kinsui and Takubo’s mental space framework, which states that ko and a reside in the domain of the speaker’s experience, while so resides outside of the speaker’s experience and often refers to the hearer’s (person B) domain of experience. The distinction between ko and a is that, although both are in the speaker’s experience, a is beyond the speaker’s direct control (Niimura and Hayashi, 815). Therefore, Niimura and Hiyashi’s framework model focuses on the distinction between control and experience. I will show here that control is analogous to the uchi (as opposed to soto), while experience is akin to the ura of the omote-ura dichotomy.

Figure 8. The use of the new diagram to explain the ko and so demonstratives.
In Figure 8, the referent is in the speaker’s (person A) domain of control and experience. The combination of control and experience means that, to person A, the referent is in his *uchi-ura* region, which is signified by *ko*. Because person B is in the conversation, he/she is also experiencing it, but is not in direct control (so the referent is *soto*). Therefore, the referent is considered *soto* to person B. However, just as a ritual interactions can turn intimate, person B could also share person A’s control, allowing the referent to become part of his/her control as well. In this case, the referent ends up being *ko* to both parties. In real life, an example of this is when two people sit together in close proximity looking at a photograph, with the referents being people in the photograph.

Similarly, we can also see how the *anomic* demonstrative, *a*, fits in. Typically, *a* is used when the referent is in neither party’s control or direct experience. An example of this is when a tour guide points to a distant monument or when one reminisces over a common nostalgic event that neither party claims to own with control. This is shown in Figure 9 where the *a* referent is something that’s in neither party’s control or experience. Rather, it refers to a fuzzy, shared item. This notion of sharing or commonality is peculiar to the *a* demonstrative because *ko* and *soto* both try to attribute control and experience to a particular owner, whereas *a* does not.

To summarize, *ko* and *a* are similar in that they are both in the *ura* region; this is similar to explanation that they both signify referents within the speaker’s domain of experience. *Soto* differs in that the referent is not within the speaker’s experiential domain. Seen in this light,
Kinsui and Takubo’s domain of experience is analogous to the *ura*, while the aspect of control that distinguishes *ko* from *a* is marked by the *uchi-soto* axis.
Evidence Against the Omote-Ura Spatial Axis: Binary Aspects of Japanese

The support provided by the levels of speech and the demonstratives lies in the fact that they are both ternary aspects of Japanese grammar. With the existence of three choices, the demonstratives and the levels of speech lend themselves to a comparison with Lebra’s three domains and are able to make use of the new omote-ura axis. But where the omote-ura axis cannot be easily justified is at the lower levels of Japanese grammar, such as phonetics and particles. The best evidence that these axes are not required in these aspects of Japanese is that there exists a slew of grammatical choices in Japanese that only offer two possible choices and thus are not ternary in nature. Some examples are given in Table 5. Were there a third grammatical choice, then the omote-ura dichotomy could be better substantiated. With only two choices, the redundancy of the omote-ura axis is apparent.

For the examples listed in Table 5, the two words (uchi or soto) on a given row both have the same basic meaning, although the uchi choice carries a connotation of closeness that is absent from the corresponding word in the soto column. For instance, the ni particle meaning “from” is well suited to marking things received from a beloved, whereas kara carries a more neutral connotation (Makino. Oto to imi... 12-14). In grammatical terms, the binary choices are themselves sufficient for situations likely to be encountered. There is no apparent need for a third choice or to separate the anomic from the ritual. Whether a teacher and student (ritual combination) interact, or two strangers meet (anomic), the interaction is likely to make use of the grammatical items listed in the soto column. The lack of grammatical structures that offer a
ternary choice, and the lack of a need for their existence together form the strongest evidence pointing to the redundancy of the omote-ura axis.

What about the anomic domain? It clearly is experienced, but is it possible to locate the anomic domain without the use of omote and ura? Makino gives a possibility, by placing the anomic at the furthest area of soto and by sandwiching the ritual domain between the anomic and intimate, as is shown in Figure 10. In this figure, the anomic domain is analogous to an outer soto while the ritual domain is analogous to the inner soto. That is, the ritual domain is one with which one has direct interaction, which is lacking in the anomic situations. Therefore, the ritual domain is immediately adjacent to uchi, while the anomic domain, in essence, out of reach of the uchi. Makino points out also that the near soto, where the ritual domain resides, is analogous to the seken, where one is being watched by the public (EAS 447). The diagram based on uchi-soto is credited for its simplicity but of course loses on clarity and specificity when compared to Figure 3.

One reason for the functionality of the spatial diagram given in Figure 3 was the ease with which situational interactions and their dynamism could be depicted. In light of the directionality, it is perhaps appropriate to turn to directional concepts in Japanese grammar to consider the omote and ura axis. These include the motion verbs, primarily iku and kuru, and the giving verbs, kureru, ageru and morau. Unfortunately, these verbs themselves carry only the “in”

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9 It is usually in the explanation of the giving verbs that students of introductory Japanese are first introduced to the notions of uchi and soto.
and “out” connotations, and no connotation of “front” or “back.” Therefore, these verbs cannot support the use of the omote and ura axis either.

Given the lack of low-level grammatical evidence for omote and ura, Makino suggests to treat omote and ura as subsets of soto and uchi, respectively. This is shown in Table 6, where the uchi-soto dichotomy is the parent of many more important contrastive Japanese social concepts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uchi</th>
<th>Soto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ura</td>
<td>omote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ninjoo</td>
<td>gir/gimu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honne</td>
<td>tatemae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kunyomi</td>
<td>onyomi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amae</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>miren</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Social concepts with uchi and soto as parents.
Defending the Omote-Ura Axis

In the previous section, I showed that the majority of choices in Japanese grammar are binary in nature, and that Makino has attempted to account for all three situational interaction domains not with the use of an extra axis, but by layering the concentric circles as shown in Figure 10. However, the layering technique and using only the uchi-soto axis fails to highlight some key connotations of certain grammatical forms.

First, the levels of speech mentioned earlier cannot be located uniquely using solely uchi-soto. The most crucial breakdown becomes obvious when considering the plain form. Because the plain form is used in intimate situations and in some anomic situations, the plain form would have to be both uchi and soto sandwiching the polite forms and the desu-masu form somewhere in between, as shown in Figure 11. With the lack of the “front” concept to explain the polite forms and the back concept to explain the plain form, the levels of speech are not well-defined when only uchi and soto are used.

The three demonstratives cause even more problems when the omote-ura dimensionality is lost. Consider the following ambiguities in defining ko so and a using only uchi and soto. Although ko is unequivocally the uchi, what are so and a? Calling them both soto would be incorrect because so signifies the lack of direct experience while a signifies the lack of direct control, and they differ from ko not in their degree of sotiness, but in experience and control. Perhaps the best that one can do is to call both so and a “not uchi.” The lack of an extra “front-
back” axis is perhaps one of the reasons for why it has been so difficult to explain the differences between ko, so, and a to foreigners.
Conclusion

Linguists focusing on the pragmatics of Japanese have so far limited themselves to *uchi* and *soto* as the link between culture and grammar. Under most circumstances, the primarily binary nature of Japanese has not posed any problems for this viewpoint, and the paucity of lower level grammatical choices has not prompted strong consideration of the *omote-ura* axis as absolutely essential. On the other hand, numerous subtleties of Japanese grammar cannot be explained without Lebra's additional *omote-ura* spatial axis.

Regardless of the position one takes on the validity of the *omote-ura* dichotomy, one should keep in mind that the pure existence of at least the *uchi* and *soto* axis means that the organization of Japanese society is relational as opposed to absolute and that one's role is dynamic to account for shifts in the relations.

Although I am in support of Lebra's *omote-ura* axis, I have put forth amendments with the intent of making its spatial attributes clear. For example, neither the *uchi-soto* diagram (Figure 2) or Lebra's diagram of the domains (Figure 3) is able to capture the dynamism of situational interactions. By making Figure 2 rotationally dependent and assigning the *omote* and *ura* sides, the new diagram (Figure 3) is able to account for many of the conceivable social situations.

Grammatically, strong support for the *omote-ura* axis is given by the levels of speech. Rather than using formality and politeness interchangeably, there should be a marked distinction between the two. Formality and its associations with conventions are marked by the *uchi-soto* axis, while *omote* and *ura* can be used to indicate the level of politeness. This parallel lends itself well to classifying the plain form as an *ura* marker and the *desu-masu* form as a *soto*
marker, while the polite forms are *omote* markers because politeness is a more superficial appearance that one conveys. These classifications are most necessary because, without *omote ura*, the plain form cannot be uniquely identified or located.

The three demonstratives are also examples of the importance of the additional spatial axis. Here, I paralleled control with *uchi-soto* and experience with *omoteura* and associated *ko* with the intimate domain because the *ko* referents give the speaker both control and experience. *A*, being the opposite, is analogous to the anomic domain. Lastly, *so* marks referents with experience but not control. These associations are important and may clarify the subtleties of the demonstratives to non-native speakers.

In summary, although further opportunities lie in the search of more evidence for the use of *omote* and *ura* as a primary spatial axis for Japanese language and culture, there are already numerous areas which *uchi* and *soto* cannot explain on their own. Of course, it is possible to force grammatical constructs to the *uchi-soto* axis alone, but much of the intuitiveness is lost in the process. The collapsing of the three situational domains to concentric circles removes entirely the subtleties between the situational domains that Lebra proposes.

I believe that the existence of three situational interaction domains and their unique characteristics provides good grounds for the acceptance of the *omoteura* spatial axis, especially for helping students who are learning the subtleties of higher level Japanese.
Graphical and Grammatical Viewpoints on the Necessity of an Omote-Ura Spatial Axis to Explain Japanese Pragmatics

References


Merriam-Webster Dictionary. 1999 online ed.


