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#### HANDBOOK

OF

## COLLOQUIAL JAPANESE

BY

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#### Fourth Edition

Revised

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E.A.L.

#### PREFACE

TO THE

#### FOURTH EDITION.

TIIIS edition, though carefully revised, practically reproduces its forerunners of 1888, 1889, and 1898. In the second or "Practical Part" of the book, a few pieces that had lost their interest have been dropped, and replaced by others more up to date. The author's thanks are due to the Fiji Shimpo Publishing Company for permission to make use of one of the chapters of the late Mr. Fukuzawa's "Autobiography." He would also express his gratitude for the corrections and suggestions of more than one critic and correspondent. Similar aid will always be welcome; for in the case of a language so exceptionally difficult as Japanese, the utmost that any grammarian, however painstaking, can hope to produce necessarily falls far short of the ideal, and here, if anywhere, the saying holds good that in multitude of counsellors there is safety.

All learners should provide themselves with Hampden and Parlett's English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language, and when they find the little Vocabulary at the end of the present volume insufficient, with either Brinkley's or Hepburn's Japanese-English

dictionary.\* For the written characters, consult the present writer's Practical Introduction to the Study of Fapanese Writing (Moji no Shirube). On pronunciation the only scientific authority is Edwards' Étude Phonétique de la Langue Japonaise. Those rare students who may desire to pass beyond modern colloquial practice into the field of philological research should peruse Aston's Grammar of the Fapanese Written Language, - an admirably lucid work embodying all the best results obtained by the native school of grammarians,—and the present writer's Essay in Aid of a Grammar and Dictionary of the Luchuan Language ("Trans. Asiat. Soc. of Japan," Vol. XXIII. Suppl.), wherein an attempt has been made to attack some of the problems of Japanese philology from the outside.

Health considerations have compelled the author to have recourse to the kind offices of Mr. Walter Dening, the well-known author of *Specimens of Translation* and other useful works, for the English versions of "Mr. Fukuzawa's English Studies" and "A Debate in the Diet." To the same gentleman, to Mr. W. B. Mason, and to Mr. E. Nagahara his thanks are due for reading the proof-sheets.

Miyanoshita.
October, 1907.

<sup>\*</sup> To students familiar with French, Lemaréchal's Dictionnaire Japonais-Français and Raguet's Dictionnaire Français-Japonais may also be recommended.

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# THEORETICAL PART.

## 

#### HANDBOOK

OF

### COLLOQUIAL JAPANESE.

#### CHAPTER I.

#### Introductory Remarks.

¶ 1. "How can I learn to speak Japanese?"—This question has been so often addressed to the present writer that he has resolved to put his answer into a permanent shape. He is persuaded that no language was ever learnt solely from a grammar,—least of all a language like Japanese, whose structure and idioms are alien from all that we are accustomed to in Europe. The student is therefore recommended only to glance through the Theoretical Part at first, in order to obtain a general idea of the territory he has to conquer. He can pick up by the way such of the examples as strike him, committing them to memory and seeking opportunities for using them to his servants and his native teacher. He should then go on to the Practical Part, and attack the "Fragments of Conversation" and the "Anecdotes" as soon as possible, however baffling it may seem to be confronted with such long sentences. After all, as Japanese consists chiefly of long sentences, one cannot too early decide to face them. A little practice will rob them of much of their terror. Every now and then the Theoretical Part should be consulted on difficult points. It should be read

through carefully, a little at a time, after a diligent study of the Practical Part and the committal of a few pages of the latter to memory shall have caused the student to make some way in the mastery of the language.

¶ 2. The necessity for memorising cannot be too strongly insisted upon. It is the sole means of escape from the pernicious habit of thinking in English, translating every sentence literally from a whispered English original, and therefore beginning and ending by speaking English Japanese instead of Japanese Japanese. It is not only that the words and idioms of Japanese differ from our English words and idioms, but that the same set of circumstances does not always draw from Japanese speakers remarks similar to those which it would draw from European speakers. Japanese thoughts do not run in quite the same channels as ours. To take a very simple instance. If an Englishman wishes to make a polite remark to a friend about the latter's sick father, he will probably say, "I hope your father is better to-day." In French, German, Italian, etc., the phrase would be pretty nearly the same. In each of these languages the same kindly hope would be expressed. In Japanese it is different. The phrase must run thus:

Otottsan va, do de gozaimasŭ ?
Honourable-father-Mr. as-for, how is?
or, more politely,

Go shimpu va, ikaga de irasshaimasŭ ?
August real-father as-for, how deigns-to-be?

The idea of hoping or fearing, which to us is so familiar, does not present itself with the same vividness and frequency to the less anxious, less high-strung Far-Eastern mind. The characteristic phrase here is rather the ever-recurring fatalistic

The student should endeavour to place himself from the outset at the Japanese point of view. This he can do only by dint of much learning by heart. The trouble thus taken will be of infinite advantage to him, even if his ultimate aim be the indoctrination of the Japanese with foreign ideas. It will put him in sympathy with his hearers. It is true that, since the opening of the country, English idioms have begun to penetrate into the Japanese language. But it is chiefly into the language of the lecture-hall and the committee-room. The style of familiar every-day speech remains little affected by this new influence.

¶ 3. It is still doubtful under what family of language Japanese, with its sister-tongue Luchuan, spoken in a little archipelago to the south between Kyūshū and Formosa, should be classed. There is no relationship between these and Aino, the speech of the hairy aborigines whom the Japanese conquerors have gradually pushed eastwards and northwards. In structure, though not to any appreciable extent in vocabulary, Japanese closely resembles Korean; and both it and Korean may possibly be related to Mongol and to Manchu, and may therefore claim to be included in the Altaïc group. Be this as it may, Japanese is what is generally termed an agglutinative language, that is to say, it builds up its words and grammatical forms by means of suffixes loosely soldered to the root or stem. It also shows faint traces of the "law of vowel harmony" or "attraction," which characterises the Altaïc languages. This manifests itself in a tendency to uniformity in the vowels of

successive syllables, as *ototoshi*, "the year before last," for *ato toshi*. Similarly in several of the words recently adopted from English, such as *mishin*, "a (sewing-) machine;" *bōto*, "a boat;" *bukku*, "a (European) book."

¶ 4. The earliest Japanese literature that has come down to us dates, in its present form, from the beginning of the eighth century after Christ. The general structure of the language at that time was nearly the same as it is now; but the changes of detail have been so numerous that a page of eighth century Japanese is unintelligible to a modern native of Tökyö without special study. One of the chief factors in the alteration of the language has been the gradual infiltration of Chinese words and phrases, which naturally accompanied the borrowing of Buddhism, Confucianism, and the various arts and sciences of China. Chinese established itself, so to speak, as the Latin and Greek of Japan. It retains this position even at the present day, supplying names for almost all the new implements, sciences, and ideas, which are being introduced from Europe and America. In this manner, one curious and unexpected result of the Europeanisation of Japan has been the flooding of the language with Chinese terms at a rate never known before. Thus we have:

"steam-ship," "a steamer." ki-sen. lit. "a railway train." "steam-vehicle," kĭ-sha. "iron-road." "a railway." tetsu-dō, "copy-truth," "photograph." sha-shin, "people-right," "democracy." min-ken. ron-ri-gaku, " "argue-reason-science," "logic." "no-wire-lightning-"wireless telemu-sen denmessage." graphy."shin

- ¶ 5. The Japanese do not pronounce Chinese in a manner that would be intelligible to any Chinaman. They have two standards of pronunciation, both of which are corruptions of the Chinese pronunciation of over a thousand years ago. One of these is called Go-on, the other Kan-on, from the names of certain ancient Chinese kingdoms. Usage decrees that the same word shall be pronounced according to the Go-on in some contexts, and according to the Kan-on in others. Thus the myō of dai-myō, "a feudal noble" (lit. "great name"), is the same as the mei of mei-butsu, "the chief production of a locality" (lit. "name thing," i.e. "a famous thing"). In this case myō is the Go-on, and mei the Kan-on, of the same Chinese character 27, which in China itself is pronounced ming. The practical student will do best to learn words by rote, without troubling himself as to whether each term, if Chinese, be Go-on or Kan-on.
- ¶ 6. The effect of the steady influx of Chinese words during more than a millennium has been to discredit the native Japanese equivalents even when they exist. A foreigner who wishes to be considered an elegant speaker should, therefore, gradually accustom himself to employ Chinese words very

<sup>\*</sup> En (Jap. itou) is less "to dislike" than "to weary of." Shu-gi, "chief (or master) meaning," comes to signify "principle," and serves to render our syllable "ism" in many abstract terms, as "monism," ichi-gen shu-gi; "socialism," sha-kwai shu-gi, etc.

freely, except when addressing uneducated persons. He should, for instance, prefer

THINESE

myō-chō, "to-morrow morning," to ashǐta no asa.
tai-boku, "a large tree," to ōki na ki.

Wa-sei, "Japanese make," to Nihon-deki.
jin-ryoku(suru), "to endeavour," to chikara vvo tsūkusu.
tōchaku(suru), "to arrive," to tsūku.

Some thoughtful persons, both Japanese and foreign, regret the fashionable preference for Chinese words. But the fashion exists, and to follow it is considered a mark of refinement; neither is it possible, even were it desirable, for an outsider to set up a standard of his own, different from that acknowledged by the people themselves. The copiousness of the Chinese tongue, and the marvellous terseness which generally enables it to express in two or three syllables ideas which would require five or six in Japanese and indeed in almost any other language, form an argument in favour of this species of Japanese Johnsonianism. On the other hand, much confusion is caused by the fact that numbers of Chinese words are pronounced alike. The consequence of this is that it is often impossible to know what a term means, without reference to the Chinese characters with which it is written. In any case, whether he speak simply or learnedly, the student should at least avoid speaking vulgarly. Japanese resembles English in being full of slang and vulgarisms of every sort. But what should we say to a young Japanese, who, having been sent to London to learn our language, should return home with the haccent of 'Ighgate and the diction of the street Arab? Japanese has also many provincial dialects; but the dialect of Tōkyō (itself a slightly modified form of the Kyōto dialect, which was formerly

considered the standard Colloquial) has gained an over-whelming importance as the general medium of polite intercourse throughout the country. Practical students are advised to devote themselves to it alone. If they speak it well, they will be as generally understood as a man who speaks standard English is generally understood in England, that is to say, they will be understood everywhere by all but the peasantry, and in most provinces even by the peasantry.

- ¶ 7. Japanese writing consists of the Chinese characters, ideographs, as they are sometimes styled because representing sense not sound, whole words not individual letters,mixed with a syllabic writing called the Kana. Speaking generally, the Chinese characters serve to figure all the principal words of the sentence, such as nouns, adjectives, and verbs, while the function of the Kana syllables interspersed throughout the text is to transcribe phonetically such lesser elements as particles and grammatical terminations. cannot here treat any further of this important subject,important because Japanese, like every language boasting a long history and extensive literature, may be said to live and move and have its being in its written system. Students desirous of pursuing it will find what they require in the present writer's "Moji no Shirube", or "Practical Introduction to the Study of Japanese Writing." The characters may advantageously be attacked very soon after the Colloquial, say, as soon as oral communication between the student and his teacher has become established in however lame a way. The ideal plan would be never to look at Romanized texts at all.
- ¶ 8. A peculiarly intricate system of writing is not the sole barrier that divides the Colloquial from the language of books. The Japanese, like other Easterns, still remain at the stage in

which we were during the Middle Ages:—they do not write as they speak, but use an antiquated and partly artificial dialect whenever they put pen to paper. This is the so-called "Written Language."

Of late years, it is true, the advantages of assimilating writing to speech have been practically championed by a small minority of authors, who have published works in the Colloquial, notably novels. From among these, "Taio Takon," by Ozaki Kōyō, may be singled out as likely to suit foreign readers, owing to the simplicity of its style and the circumstance that it deals with modern, yet thoroughly native, conditions. Tokutomi Roka's "Omoi-de no Ki" is another story much to be recommended. The "Autobiography" of the philosopher and educationist Fukuzawa Yukichi ("Fuku-ō Fiden") is an extremely interesting book of a different cast. Occasionally the newspapers and the "Transactions" of the Educational, Geographical, and other learned Societies reproduce a lecture exactly as taken down by the short-hand writer from the mouth of the lecturer, and the reports of the debates in the Imperial Diet are given verbatim in the "Official Gazette" (Kīvampō). The more usual practice, however, is to dress everything up in the Written Style before it is allowed to appear in print.

¶ 9. A word as to the parts of speech in Japanese. Strictly speaking, there are but two, the verb and the noun. The particles, or "postpositions" and suffixes, which take the place of our prepositions, conjunctions, and conjugational terminations, were themselves originally fragments of nouns and verbs. The pronoun and the numeral are simply nouns. The true adjective (including the adverb) is a sort of neuter verb. But many words answering to our adjectives and adverbs are nouns in Japanese. There is no article.

Altogether our grammatical categories do not fit the Japanese language well. They have only been adhered to in this work in so far as they may serve as familiar landmarks.

¶ 10. In conclusion, the following warnings concerning errors into which European speakers of Japanese are apt to fall, may be found useful:—

Do not confound long and short vowels. (See ¶ 13.)

Do not use personal pronouns too freely. (See ¶ 71.)

Do not insert the postposition *no* between a true adjective and the noun to which it belongs. (See  $\P$  208.)

Do not apply honorifies to yourself. For me to ask any one, for instance, to shinjō something to myself, or to haiken something belonging to myself, would be as if I should say: "Have the honour to give it to me," or "Have the honour to look at this thing belonging to me." As explained in Chap. XI, honorifies can only be applied to other people, while contrariwise humble terms must be used in speaking of oneself. I shinjō (lit. "respectfully lift up") something to you; but I ask you to kudasai (lit. "condescend") something to me. I haiken (lit. "adoringly look at") something belonging to you; but I ask you to goran nasai (lit. "august-glance deign") something belonging to me. (See ¶ 405.) If you hear beggars in the street shouting after you to shinjo a copper to them, it is only because, having learnt from experience that foreigners constantly misuse the honorifics, they think to ingratiate themselves and to be more easily understood by doing likewise. Were they addressing a Japanese, they would never dream of saying anything so rude and so absurd.

#### CHAPTER II.

#### Pronunciation and Letter-Changes.

#### PRONUNCIATION.

- ¶ 11. Japanese, when written phonetically with the Roman alphabet, according to the phonetic spelling sanctioned by general local usage, requires the same letters as English, with the exception of *l*, *q*, *v*, and *a*. The letter *c* occurs only in the combination *ch*, which is sounded nearly like English *ch* in "church," but a little more softly, as *cha*, "tea;" *chichi*, "milk."
  - A'. B. The simplicity of Dr. Hepburn's system, which practically coincides with that recommended by the Royal Geographical Society for the transcription of hitherto unromanized languages, has brought about its general adoption in Japan not by Anglo-Saxons only, but by Frenchmen, Germans, and the Japanese themselves. Not a few spellers do, it is true, deviate on minor points, either from inadvertence or in order to satisfy their individual notions of phonetic perfection. Probably no language admits of being written phonetically with absolute precision; and the present writer, for one, gladly sacrifices some minute personal preferences for the sake of what is far more important in such a case,—unity of usage.
- ¶ 12. The vowels are sounded as in Spanish and Italian, but are always short, unless marked with the sign of long quantity. It is impossible to express the values of the Japanese vowels correctly in English; but, speaking approximately, we may say that

```
a resembles the a in "father,"but is shorter.e ,, e ,, "men."i ,, i ,, "machine," but is shorter.o ,, o ,, "for" (not "four").u ,, u ,, "bush."\bar{o} ,, o ,, "bone," but is a purer o.\bar{u} ,, o o ,, "food."
```

¶ 13. Particular care must be taken to distinguish the short from the long vowels; for there are many words totally distinct in meaning, but differing, so far as pronunciation is concerned, merely in the quantity of their vowels, thus:

```
dozō, "a mud godown;"* dōzo, "please."
koko, "here;" kōkō, "filial piety."
sato, "a village;" satō, "sugar."
toru, "to take;" tōru, "to pass through."
tsuji, "a cross-road; tsūji, "an interpreter."
zutsu, "[one, etc.] at a time;" zutsū, "a headache."
```

The only long vowels of common occurrence are  $\tilde{o}$  and  $\tilde{u}$ . Long  $\tilde{a}$  hardly occurs, excepting in the interjections  $\tilde{a}$  /  $m\tilde{a}$  /  $n\tilde{a}$  / and  $s\tilde{a}$  / and in the words  $ob\tilde{a}san$ , "an old lady," "grandmamma," and  $okk\tilde{a}san$  (but also okkasan), "mamma." Long  $\tilde{e}$  hardly occurs, excepting in the interjection  $n\tilde{e}$ . Long i does not occur, because replaced in writing by double ii, as in yoroshii, "good," though in reality the sound is that of i protracted.

¶ 14. When preceded by another vowel or by *n*, the vowels *e*, *i*, and *o* are pronounced *ye*, *yi*, and *wo* respectively. Thus *ue*, "above;" *kon-in*, "marriage;" and *shio*, "salt," are pronounced (and by some transliterators written) *uye*, *konyin*, *shiavo*.

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Godown" is Far-Eastern English for a store-house or warehouse. The word apparently came to us through the Malay from the Tamil or Telugu.

¶ 15. I and u are often inaudible, or nearly so in the mouths of natives of Tōkyō after f, h, k, s, sh, and ts, as

futatsu,	"two,"	pronounced	{ ftatsu, or { ftats,
- hito,	"person,"	"	hlo.*
watakushi,	" I,"	"	watakshi.
takusan,	"much," "many,"	,,	taxan.
gozaimasu,	"there is,"	,,	gozaimas.
shita,	"" below,"	,,	shta.
lsuki,	"the moon,"	,,	tski.

¶ 16. Initial u is silent, and the following m doubled in the pronunciation of the four words

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uma,"a horse,"pronounced mma.umai,"nice,""mmai.umareru,"to be born,""mmareru.ume,"a plum-tree,""mme.
```

- ¶ 17. The quiescent vowels are distinguished in this work by the sign of short quantity, as hito, shita, takisan, ima. But it should be noted that the Japanese themselves are not conscious of failing to pronounce the i's and u's in question, and that these letters often recover their proper power for the sake of clearness or emphasis. They count in prosody, and are sounded even in ordinary conversation by the natives of many provinces. That is why they are allowed to remain in the transliteration, most persons writing them without any diacritical mark.
- ¶ 18. The vowel u, when following sh or j, is often mispronounced as i by the Tōkyō people, thus:

  teishi, for teishu, "a husband."

<sup>\*</sup> The h here has the sound of German ch in ich.

They are also apt to mispronounce yu as i, thus: iki, for yuki, "snow;" but this is distinctly vulgar.

¶ 19. Be very careful to discriminate final *e* from final *i*. Englishmen are often unintelligible owing to their confounding such words as

sake, "rice-beer," and saki, "front," "before." take, "a bamboo;", taki, "a waterfall."

yume, "a dream;", yumi, "a bow."

- ¶ 20. The diphthongs ae, ai, ao, au, ei, oi, ui, call for no remark, each vowel retaining its own proper sound, as in Spanish or Italian. Englishmen and Germans must beware of mispronouncing ei as in "eiderdown" or German "klein." Japanese ei being simply e+i, the second syllable of such a word as kirei, "pretty," sounds nearly like the English word "ray" or the German "Reh," not at all like "rye." Be equally careful not to give to au (a+u) the peculiarly English sound of "awe;" but pronounce, for instance, kau, "to buy," very nearly like English "cow." In the case of verbs, however, ending in au, such as kau, "to buy;" morau, "to receive;" shitagau, "to follow," it is optional to pronounce the letter au like a long ō. But this is more characteristic of western Japanese than of Tōkyō usage.
- ¶ 21. The Tökyö people are apt to say ai for ae, and oi for oe; thus mai, instead of mae, "before;" koi (which means "love"), instead of koe, "voice." They also often contract ai into a long ē, as naranē for naranai, "it won't do.". But this last is as bad as the dropping of the letter h by cockneys.
- ¶ 22. It is usual to write iu (rather than  $y\bar{u}$ ) in the case of the verb meaning "to say."

N.B. This is a concession to etymology, the other tenses being itte, itta, etc., with initial i.

It is usual to write ou rather than  $\bar{o}$  in the case of verbs like omou, "to think;" sorou, "to be in order."

N.B. This is done in order to show the original and theoretical conformity of these verbs to the general rule whereby the present tense must always end in u.

¶ 23. The consonants are pronounced approximately as in English, subject to the following remarks:—

F is a true labial as in German, not the English labiodental; that is to say, it is formed by means of the lips alone, not, as our f is, by placing the upper teeth on the lower lip.

G never has the sound of j. At the beginning of a word it is pronounced hard, like the g in "give;" similarly in such reduplicated compounds as geji-geji, "a myriapod;" goro-goro, an onomatope for "purring." In the middle of a word it has the sound of English ng in "slangy." Thus Kiga, the name of a place near Miyanoshita, rhymes almost exactly with "singer." (Not with "finger," where the ng does double duty, first to render the sound of ng, and then the sound of g alone. The double sound is represented in Japanese by the combination ng, as kin-gin, "gold and silver," pronounced king-gin). Foreigners constantly err in pronouncing such words as Kiga like Kinner or else Kigger, instead of uttering the nasal sound of "slangy," "Bingham," etc.

N.B. In western Japan, g retains its hard pronunciation in all situations.

H is pronounced as in English, except before the vowel i, when it assumes nearly the sound of the German ch in ich. The syllable hi has, moreover, a tendency to pass into shi and even into simple sh, especially in the mouths of the vulgar of Tōkyō, who pronounce, for instance, the word hige, "beard," as shige, and hito, "person," as shio.

N final is pronounced half-way between a true n and the French nasal vowels. When (as happens chiefly in Chinese compounds) a syllable ending in n is followed by a or u in the next syllable, the n sounds very nearly like English ng, and a distinct hiatus is made before the vowel. Thus gen-an (almost geng an), "the draft of a document,"—quite different from ge-nan, which may equally well be written genan, "a man-servant." When the vowel next to n final is e, i, or o, a different method is resorted to (see  $\P$  14).

R is the softest of English r's, and is never rolled or gargled as in French and German. Some speakers pronounce it almost as if it were a d, especially before the vowel i.

S is always sharp as in "past," never assuming the soft or z sound heard in "misery."

¶ 24. W (pronounced exactly as in English) shows so strong a tendency to become obsolete after k and g, not only in Tōkyō, but in most parts of the country excepting the west, that it is optional to write, for instance, kwa-shi or kashi, "cake;" Gwaimushō or Gaimushō, "the Foreign Office." Even between two vowels, as in omo(w)anai, "I do not think;" kama(w)anai, "it does not matter," many natives of Tōkyō drop it. In the present work the w has been retained in all such cases, in order to conform to the usage of the dictionaries. Frenchmen, Germans, and other Continentals must beware of mispronouncing w as v.

V is always a consonant. Thus the syllable mya in myaku, "the pulse," is pronounced as one syllable, like mia in the English word "amiable." Care must be taken not to confound the monosyllable mya with the dissyllable miya in such words as miyako (mi-ya-ko), "a capital city."

Z, when preceding the vowel u, has the sound of dz,

and is accordingly so written by many transliterators, as midzu, for mizu, "water." We write z in this work, rather than dz, somewhat against our personal preference, in order to conform to general usage. (Conf. second foot-note to p. 21.)

¶ 25. Double consonants must, as in Italian, be sharply distinguished from single ones, thus:

```
ana, "a hole;" anna, "such."
ichi, "one;" itchi (for ichi-chi), "union."
oto, "a sound;" otto, "a husband."
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N. B. Though plenty of consonants are written double in English, few are pronounced so. Such words, however, as "bookkeeping," "unneighbourly," "missent," will serve to exemplify the peculiar insistence on the consonantal sound that is here spoken of.

Where, however, no confusion is liable to ensue, the natives of Tōkyō often pronounce as double a consonant which is properly single, thus:

```
ammari, for amari, "too much."
minna, ,, mina, "all."
tokkuri, ,, tokuri, "a bottle."
```

This peculiarity, which seems to have originated in a desire for emphasis, is slightly vulgar.

N. B. Only the following consonants are liable to reduplication: ch(tch), k, m, n, p, s, sh(ssh), and ts(tts).

¶ 26. All Japanese words theoretically end either in a vowel or in the consonant n. But the fact of the occasional quiescence of  $\tilde{i}$  and  $\tilde{u}$  produces the impression that there are words ending in other consonants. Thus, the polite termination  $mas\tilde{u}$  (e.g. in  $arimas\tilde{u}$ , "there is") mostly sounds like mas, excepting in the mouths of unusually careful or old-fashioned speakers. In no other case is the clipping of final vowels to be recommended.

#### ACCENT.

- ¶ 27. Generally speaking, the Japanese pronunciation both of vowels and of consonants is less broad and heavy than that current in most European languages, and especially in English. Particularly noticeable is the manner in which ch, j, sh, and ts are minced. Tones, like those of the Chinese, are entirely absent. Such tonic accent as may exist is slight and fluctuating; the rhetorical accent, too, is relatively slight. Students must, therefore, beware of importing into Japanese the vigorous and continually recurring stress by which, in English, German, and most European languages, one syllable in every polysyllabic word, and the chief words in every sentence, are singled out for special notice. Only occasionally, and for the most part among the lower classes, does the desire for exceptional emphasis cause a word or syllable to be emphasised in a peculiarly declamatory manner. Then the strength of the entire body seems to be concentrated on the production, on the laborious squeezing out, of the word in question.
  - N. B. The old native philologists knew nothing of tonic accent, and some European investigators have denied its existence, while others have asserted it in confident, but mutually contradictory, terms. Dictionaries do not mark it, it has no influence on prosody, it varies from province to province, and inhabitants of the same province contradict, not only each other, but themselves in their usage and in the explanations which they give concerning it.

The researches of Dr. Edwards, the only scientifically trained investigator who has written on the subject, seem to establish the following points of Tōkyō usage:—

I. Words and series of words are entirely devoid of stress if all their

syllables are short, or all are long, e.g. kono katana (all short syllables), "this sword;" kō iu ningyō (all long\*), "a doll of this kind."

- II. A long vowel among short ones bears a slight accentual stress, e.g. môshimasŭ, "I say;" vaka-dánna, "the son of the master of the house;" arimashô, "there is perhaps."
  - III. Diphthongs are treated like long vowels, e.g. *Ēikoku*, "England;" akāi, "red."
  - IV. So is any syllable wherein a vowel is followed by more than one consonant, e.g. akindo, "a merchant."
    - V. So is any syllable terminating in n, as kabán, "a portmanteau."
  - VI. When two vowels do not form a diphthong, the second generally receives a slight accent, e.g. mièru, "to appear."
  - VII. As a rider to Rule I, a short vowel is sometimes "weakened." This weakening still further shortens it, and, by contrast, gives a slight accent to its neighbour. Examples are  $k \check{a} k \acute{a} r u$ , "to hang;"  $k \check{o} k \acute{o} r o$ , "the heart." As shown in these instances, a and o undergo this weakening chiefly when occurring in the first of two similar syllables. E is never weakened. In the case of i and u, the weakening may be of two kinds, either slight or extreme.  $K \check{\tau} t \acute{a}$ , "came;"  $i n \acute{u}$ , "dog;"  $u t \acute{a}$ , "song," are instances of weakening so slight as merely to place a little accent on the next syllable. When the weakening is extreme, the i or u in question becomes almost or quite inaudible. These are the very numerous cases mentioned in ¶ 15, and printed i and i throughout this book, as  $sh \check{t} t e$ , "done;"  $gozaimas \check{u}$ , "is," etc. In such a case as  $arimas \check{u}$  k a (pronounced  $arim \acute{a} s k a$ ), "is there?" the inaudibility of the i causes an accent to fall on the preceding a, in obedience to Rule IV.
  - VIII. Some speakers use a slight tonic accent to distinguish pairs of words that are spelt alike in Kana or Roman. Thus áme, "rain," but amé, a kind of sweetmeat; háshi, "chopsticks," but hashi, "bridge" (or háshi, with both syllables slightly emphasised, but equal); kiru, "to cut," but kirú, "to wear." Other speakers either make no such distinction at all, or make it in other ways.

<sup>\*</sup> In Dr. Edwards' terminology, reduplicated consonants, as  $\mathcal{U}$ , kk, etc., are called long. Ng, sounding as it does like a reduplicated nasal g, naturally belongs to this category. A "long syllable" therefore signifies in this context one containing either a long vowel or a reduplicated consonant.  $Iu=y\bar{u}$ ; see ¶ 22.

Sum total:—The tonic accent is very slight, variable even within the narrow limits of the city of Tōkyō, and altogether of scant importance. The tendency of all Europeans, excepting Frenchmen, is to accentuate Japanese too strongly. New-comers cannot do better than endeavour to acquire a light, even, tripping enunciation, not only of individual words, but of whole sentences. The effect produced in English by emphasising particular words is either obtained in Japanese by turning the sentence some other way, or (much more frequently) it is not sought for at all.

#### LETTER-CHANGES.

- ¶ 28. Aigori, lit. "muddling," is the name given by the Japanese to the substitution of sonant consonants for surds.
  - N. B. In contradistinction to the sonant letters (d, g, z, etc.), the surd letters (t, k, s, etc.) are said to be sumi, i.e. "clear." The two categories together are termed sei-daku by the native grammarians, sei being the Chinese word for "clear," and daku for "muddled."

The consonants affected change as follows:—

Surds.		S	Conants	·
$\begin{cases} ch \\ sh \end{cases}$	into		<i>j</i> .*	
$ \begin{cases} f \\ h \end{cases} (anciently probably p) $	"		в.	
k	- ,,		g.	
$\begin{cases} s \\ ts \end{cases}$	,,		2.†	
ť	,,		d.	

\* In western Japan, where the rules and analogies of the ancient language have been more faithfully preserved than in the present capital, the *nigori* of *ch* is pronounced like English *j*, and the *nigori* of *sh* like the softer French *j*; thus *fuji*, "the wistaria" (hard), but *Fuji*, "Fusiyama" (soft). The Tōkyō pronunciation ignores this delicate distinction, and has English *j* (but just a trifle softer) for both alike.

† In the western provinces (following ancient usage), the *nigori* of s is z, while the *nigori* of ts is dz; thus mizu, "not seeing," but midzu, "water." In Tōkyō these two sounds are confounded, both being alike pronounced as dz, Conf. the end of ¶ 24, pages 17–18.

The broad law governing the use of the *nigori* is that the initial surd (ch, sh, f, h, k, s, ts, or t) of an independent word—especially of a noun—changes into the corresponding sonant (j, b, g, z, or d) when the word is used as the second member of a compound. The law affects, not native words only, but likewise those borrowed from the Chinese. Thus:

- From *ryōri*, "cookery," and **ch***aya*, "a tea-house," is formed *ryōri-jāya*, "an eating-house."
- From **sh***ima*, "an island," repeated, is formed *shima*-**j***ima*, "various islands."
- From yane, "a roof," and fune, "a vessel," is formed yane-bune, "a house-boat."
- From hi, "fire," and hachi, "a pot," is formed hi-bachi, "a brazier."
- From the "indefinite forms" of the verbs kiru, "to wear," and kaeru, "to change," is formed ki-gae, "a change of clothes."
- From kaku, "an angle," and satō, "sugar," is formed kaku-zatō, "loaf-sugar."
- From tsŭki, "moon," "month," and sue, "end," is formed tsŭki-zue, "the end of the month."
- From kwan, a Chinese word signifying a "jar" or "gallipot,"\* and the indefinite form of the verb tsumeru, "to pack," is formed kwan-zume, "tinned (provisions)," "canned things."

<sup>\*</sup> Sir Ernest Satow suggests that this word \*kwan\*, though fitted by Japanese ingenuity with a suitable Chinese ideograph (\*\*), may, after all, be nothing but the English word "can" itself, whose meaning it serves to convey.

From *ōrai*, "a thoroughfare," and the indefinite form of the verb **t**omeru, "to stop" (trans.), is formed *ōrai*-**d**ome, "no thoroughfare."

N. B. Nigori'ed syllables are not limited to compounds. Kaze, "wind;" abura, "oil," and numerous others offer examples of the occurrence of the nigori in the middle of a simple word. The nigori is also found at the beginning of many simple words in modern Colloquial, but it may then almost always be traced to the action of phonetic decay. Thus de, "by," is from Classical nite; dore? "which?" is from Classical id(z)ure; and so on. Many other words with initial nigori come from the Chinese, such as dozō, "a godown;" go, "august;" zashīki, "a room," etc.

¶ 29. A rider to the above law is that f and h in Chinese compounds sometimes change, not into b, but into p. This is called the *han-nigori*, or "half-muddling." Thus, to take somewhat high-flown instances,

From *jun*, "to accord," and  $\mathbf{f}\bar{u}$ , "wind," we have  $jum-p\bar{u}$ , "a fair wind."

From ten, "heaven," and hen, "change," we have tem-pen, "a sign in the heavens."

N. B. The monosyllables jun and  $f\bar{u}$  are scarcely ever used alone in Japanese in the senses here given. For the change of n to m in jun and ten, see ¶ 32.

¶ 30. In some words of native origin, the Tōkyō people, led by the same love of reduplication which makes them say minna for mina, "all;" tokkuri for tokuri, "a bottle," etc. (see ¶ 25), turn the letter h, which could not well be doubled, into what commends itself to them as the nearest approach to hh, viz. pp; thus:

yappari, for yahari, "also." yoppodo, ,, yohodo, "a lot," "very."

N. B. Perhaps it might be more correct to view this phenomenon

as a relic of the old pronunciation of h as p. Conf. ¶ 28, near end of p. 21, small type in middle of column.

¶ 31. The law regulating the use of the *nigori* is by no means an absolute one, euphony and sometimes the varying caprice of individuals deciding in each case whether the change shall or shall not be made. Thus  $\bar{o}$ , "great," and saka, "a hill," compounded to form the name of a large town in Central Japan, may be pronounced either  $\bar{O}zaka$  or  $\bar{O}saka$  (never Osarkur, as Englishmen are apt to say). F and h, however, always change either into b or into p, if the first member of the compound ends in a nasal consonant. Thus it would be inadmissible to say jum-fūt for jum-pū.

It is considered ugly to have many nigori'ed letters in one word. For instance, as kaze, "wind," already has the nigori'ed letter z, it will, when combined with kami, "above," make kaza-kami, "windward," not kaza-gami, which would sound awkward and thick. Observe, too, that no nigori'ed letter is ever doubled.

- ¶ 32. As shown by the examples of  $jum-p\bar{u}$  and tem-pen, n changes to m before a labial. To give another instance: "tem-mon-gaku," "astronomy;" from tem, "heaven;" mon, "markings or letters" (not used alone); and gaku, "science."—N or m is sometimes inserted corruptly by careless speakers, as o shamberi for o shaberi, "a chatterbox;"  $yon-j\bar{u}$  for  $yo-j\bar{u}$  (better  $shi-j\bar{u}$ ), "forty." They make up for this by dropping n where it should be retained, saying, for instance, daiko instead of daikon, "a radish."
- ¶ 33. Less important than the *nigori* affecting initial consonants, is a change which affects the final vowels in certain native Japanese words of one syllable and two

syllables. In this class of words, e final is often strengthened to a in the first member of a compound,\* thus:

From kaze, "wind," and kami, "above," we have kaza-kami, "windward."

From te, "the hand," and motsu, "to hold," we have tamotsu, "to keep."

From ue, "top," and the indefinite form of kiru, "to put on, "to wear," we have uwa-gi, "an over-coat."

As an irregular member of the same class may be mentioned *shira* for *shiro*, the stem of the adjective *shiroi*, "white," in such compounds as

shira-giku, "a white chrysanthemum." (Kiku="chrysanthemum.")

shira-ga, "white hair." (Ga here stands for ke, "hair," —an anomalous change.)

¶ 34. All the Japanese consonants do not admit of being sounded before all the five Japanese vowels. F only occurs before the vowel u, the other four vowels taking h instead. S is replaced by sh, and z by j, before the vowel i. T is replaced by ch, and d by j, before the vowel i; t is replaced by ts, and d by z, before the vowel u. W occurs only before the vowel a; y only before the vowels a, a, and a. The sole exceptions, according to the orthography adopted in this work, are those offered by the postpositions tvo and t. Compare, however, ¶ 14.

N. B. The phenomena mentioned in this paragraph seem to be of comparatively modern growth, though they can be traced back some three centuries. The archaic form of the language probably possessed f (or rather p), s, and t, but no b, h, sh, j,  $\epsilon h$ , ts, or (d)z.

<sup>\*</sup> Strictly speaking, it is a which is weakened into c, a study of the older language showing that the forms in a are almost certainly the original ones. We state the rule as in the text simply for the sake of practical convenience.

To the practical student the peculiarity above noted is interesting only in so far as it affects the conjugation of verbs. He is therefore referred to Chapter VIII, ¶ 235 et seq. It may, however, be worth while to instance in passing the strange alterations introduced into borrowed European words by this inability of the Japanese to pronounce certain consonants before certain vowels, by their further inability to pronounce combinations of consonants or any final consonant except n, and by the absence from their language of some of the commonest European sounds, such as l and v. Hence such metamorphoses as kara, "collar;" ramune, "lemonade;" shatsu, "shirt;" wanishi, "varnish." Such cases as penki and risurin, for "paint" and "glycerine," are abnormal. Sometimes a foreign word has two Japanese representatives, one moulded on the spelling, the other on the pronunciation, as biru or biya, "beer"

¶ 35. Finally certain contractions are brought about by euphony and the desire for speedy elocution. Such are ip-pun for ichi fun, "one minute;" jis-sō, for jū sō, "ten vessels." For these the student is referred to the Chapter on Numerals, ¶ 153, as it is in the case of the numerals that these contractions most frequently occur, and that it is most necessary to commit them to memory.

# CHAPTER III.

## The Noun.

#### NUMBER AND GENDER.

¶ 36. The noun is indeclinable, distinctions of number and gender being left to be gathered from the context, and case relations being, as in English, indicated by separate words, which are, however, "postpositions," not prepositions. Thus

it. horse in ride

may mean, according to circumstances, to ride on one horse or on several horses, on one mare or on several mares.

> Hito ga kimashi/a lit, person (nominative particle) has-come

may mean either that one person has come, or that several people have come. Similarly the word *yama* may designate one mountain or many mountains, it being properly rather a kind of collective noun, like the German "das Gebirg."

¶ 37. In the rare cases in which it is indispensable to mention the sex of an animal, this can be done by the use of the prefixes o, "male," and me, "female," the resulting compound being sometimes slightly modified by euphony. Thus:

ushi, "any bovine animal."
o-ushi, "a bull," "an ox."
me-ushi, "a cow."
ŭma, "any equine animal."

omma, "a horse."

memma, "a mare."

tori, "a bird," "a fowl."

ondori, "a cock."

mendori, "a hen."

The words otoko, "man," and osu, "male;" onna, "woman," and mesu, "female," subserve the same purpose, thus:

ko, "a child;" otoko no ko, "a boy:" onna no ko, "a girl." woman 's child

inu, "any canine animal;" {
 osu no inu, inu no osu, mesu no inu, inu no mesu, }
 "a dog;"
 inu no mesu, }
 "a bitch."

Such a phrase as

Osu desă ka, mesu desă ka ? { "Is it a male or a Male is ? female is ? { female?"

may mean "Is it a horse or a mare?" "Is it a gander or a goose?" "Is it a he or a she-ass?" etc., etc., according to circumstances. The words osu and mesu are never applied to human beings, whereas the words otoko and onna are applied indifferently to human beings and to other living creatures.

¶ 38. In some rare cases, chiefly the names of the degrees of relationship, the sexes are distinguished by the use of different words, thus:

chichi, "father;" haha, "mother."
olottsan, "papa;" okkāsan, "mamma."
ojiisan, "grandpapa," obāsan, "grandmamma,"
"an old gentleman;" "an old lady."
oji, "uncle;" oba, "aunt."

ani, "elder brother;" ane, "elder sister." otōto, "younger brother;" imōto, "younger sister."

¶ 39. What we call the singular number is occasionally indicated by the use of the word hitotsu or ichi, "one," thus:

hako hĭtotsu, "one box." ichi-nen, "one year."

¶ 40. The idea of plurality, universality, or variety is occasionally indicated by doubling the word, thus:

 $h\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{o}$ , "everywhere;" from  $h\bar{o}$ , "a side." iro-iro, "all sorts;" from iro, "a sort" (properly "a colour").

kuni-guni, "various countries;" from kuni, "a country." tokoro-dokoro, "many places," "here and there;" from tokoro, "a place."

As exemplified in these words, the second member of such compounds almost always takes the *nigori*, when it begins with a consonant capable of so doing.

¶ 41. Another method of expressing plurality is by agglutinating certain particles, viz. gata, tachi, shu (often pronounced shi), domo, and ra, to the end of the word, thus:

okŭsama-gata, "ladies" from okŭsama, "a lady," "my lady."

shikwan-tachi, "officials;" ,, shikwan, "an official."
onna-shu, "women;" ,, onna, "a woman."
onna-domo, "women;" ,, onna, "a woman."
kuruma-ya-ra, "jinrikĭsha-men;" from "kuruma-ya,
"a jinrikĭsha-man."

The order in which the foregoing particles and examples are given is that of a gradually decreasing politeness. There is, indeed, no great difference between *gata* and *tachi*, but

both are certainly more polite than the three that follow them. *Onna-shu* may be used in speaking of the female attendants of another; *onna-domo* is better in speaking of the female attendants in one's own household. The suffix ra is decidedly familiar.

- ¶ 42. Numerous as are the above particles, the idea of plurality is not always very clearly expressed even by their help. Thus, whereas ko may mean "children" as well as "child," the ostensibly plural form ko-domo may mean "child" as well as "children." In this particular instance, but scarcely in any other, we may, in order to get an undoubted plural, superadd one suffix to another, and say ko-domo-ra or ko-domo-shu, "children."
- ¶ 43. We may also (chiefly in vocables borrowed from the Chinese) prefix certain words in order to obtain a sort of plural; thus:

ban-koku, "all countries," "international;" from ban, "ten thousand," and koku, "a country."

sho-kun, "gentlemen;" from sho, "all," and kun, "prince," "Mr."

su-nen, "many years;" from  $s\bar{u}$ , "number," and nen, "a year."

N.B. None of the Chinese words here given—ban, koku, sho, etc.,—can be used alone, but occur only in compounds. Observe the shortening of  $s\bar{u}$  to su,—not obligatory, but usual.

¶ 44. But though the ways of indicating sex and number are thus various, it cannot be sufficiently borne in mind that they are all more or less exceptional, and are scarcely found except in a limited number of cases which usage has sanctioned. Distinctions of sex and even of number are not dwelt on at every moment by the Japanese, as they are by the European, mind.

#### COMPOUND NOUNS.

- ¶ 45. Compound nouns are very numerous, and can be formed at will. They generally consist either of two nouns, or of a noun preceded or followed by the stem of an adjective (conf. ¶ 183), or by the "indefinite form" (see ¶ 221 and ¶ 241) of a verb. As the indefinite forms of verbs are themselves constantly used as nouns, two such forms may combine to constitute a compound noun. The following are specimens of the various sorts of compound nouns:
  - furo-ba, "a bath-room," from furo, "a bath," and ba (used only in compounds), "a place."
  - te-bukuro, "gloves; from te, "the hand," and fukuro, "a bag."
  - Seimei-hoken-kwaisha, "a life insurance company" (three Chinese words, each itself really a compound).
  - kuro-megane, "black goggles;" from kuroi, "black," and megane, "spectacles." (Megane is itself a compound of me, "eye," and kane, "metal.")
  - to-megane, "a telescope;" from toi, "far," and megane, "spectacles."
  - me-kura, "a blind person," lit. "eye-dark;" from me, "the eye," and kurai, "dark."
  - kai-mono, "a purchase," "shopping;" from kau, "to buy," and mono, "a thing."
  - kake-mono, "a hanging scroll," from kakeru, "to hang" (trans.), and mono, "a thing."
  - yake-do, "a burn;" from yakeru, "to burn" (intrans.), and to (for tokoro), "a place."
  - ki-chigai, "a lunatic;" from ki, "spirit," and chigau, "to differ," "to be wrong."

- mono-oki, "an out-house;" from mono, "a thing," and oku, "to put."
- te-nugui, "a towel;" from te, "the hand," and nuguu, "to wipe."
- haki-dame, "a dust heap;" from haku, "to sweep," and lameru, "to collect together" (trans.)
- hiki-dashi, "a drawer;" from hiku, "to pull," and dasu, "to take out."
- make-oshimi, "unwillingness to acknowledge oneself beaten" (e. g. the fox in the fable, who said that "the grapes were sour"); from makeru, "to be defeated," and oshimu, "to regret."
- .V. B. Observe the tendency of the second member of the compound to take the *nigori* (Conf. ¶ 28).
- ¶ 46. The forms indicating gender and some of those indicating number are really compounds, as may be seen by reference to ¶ 37 and ¶ 43. So are the augmentatives formed by prefixing  $\bar{o}$ , the root of  $\bar{o}kii$ , "big," and the diminutives formed by prefixing ko, "child" (very rarely o, "small"), thus:

baka, "a fool;" ō-baka, "a great fool." ishi, "a stone;" ko-ishi, "a pebble." nezumi, "a rat;" ō-nezumi, "a large rat;" ko-nezumi, "a small rat," "a mouse."

 $\mathcal{N}$ . B. The names of the young of animals are formed by means of ko, either by prefixing it as a particle, or by using it as a separate word, thus:

inu no ko, or ko-inu, a puppy."

/// dog 's child, child-dog "a puppy."

mukade no ko, a young centipede."

Usage evinces certain preferences in this matter. Thus, though *inu* no ko and ko-inu are indifferently employed to signify "puppy," one cannot call the young of the centipede ko-mukade. It is obligatory to say mukade no ko.

¶ 47. In all the examples of compounds hitherto quoted, one of the two members is subordinated to the other. Sometimes, however, the two members of the compound are co-ordinated, thus:

tsŭki-hi, "months (and) days."

sō-moku, "herbs (and) trees." (This is a Chinese compound, the component parts of which are not used alone.)

But though they are closely joined in pronunciation, there would be no harm in considering these as separate words, and in so writing them, especially if they are native Japanese terms, thus:

ani ototo, "elder brother (and) younger brother," i.e. "brothers."

ane imōto, "elder sister (and) younger sister," i.e. "sisters."

umi kawa, "(the) sea (and the) rivers."

tsŭki hi hoshi, "(the) moon, sun, (and) stars,"

Co-ordinated compounds are sometimes obtained by abbreviation, after the manner of the following:

Ei-Bei, "England and America," from Ei-koku, "England," and Bei-koku, "America," by dropping the second half of each.

sak-kon, lit. "yesterday and to-day," "recently," from sakujitsu, "yesterday," and kon-nichi, "to-day."

This occurs only in words taken from the Chinese language, which esteems nothing so much as brevity.

- N. B. The order of such compounds cannot be reversed. Bei-Ei or kon-saku would not be understood.
- ¶ 48. Such co-ordination sometimes assumes a peculiar form, which has been aptly named "the synthesis of contradictories," because from two terms of opposite signification there results a third abstract term giving the mean of the two, thus:

en-kin, "far-near," i.e. "distance." kan-dan, "cold-heat," i.e. "temperature."
nan-nyo, "man-woman," i.e. "sex."
sei-sui, "prosperity-decline," i.e. "the ups and downs,"
"the fortunes," of a family, kingdom, &c.

The above are Chinese vocables. As puré Japanese examples, though not nouns, we may take

aru-nashi, "is-isn't," i.e. "(the question of) the existence of a thing."

yoshi-ashi, "good-bad," i.e. "degree of excellence," "quality."

The use of these convenient expressions, which is borrowed from Chinese grammar, is chiefly confined to persons of education.

¶ 49. The student should note the difference in construction between genuine native compounds and those derived from the Chinese, when one member of the compound is a verb governing the other. In genuine Japanese compounds the verb comes last, as in English, thus:

hara-kiri, lit. "belly-cutting," the old form of legalised suicide.

yama-nobori, "mountain-climbing."

In Chinese compounds, on the contrary, the verb commissions. Take, for instance, the elegant Chinese synonyms for *hara-kiri* and *yama-nobori*, which are preferred by cultured speakers, viz.

sep-puku, from setsu, "to cut," and fūku, "belly."

to-zan ,, tō (here to), "to ascend," and san (zan),
"mountain."

N. B. Hyphens need not be used so freely as we, for etymological purposes, have here done. A hyphen is, however, indispensable between the two members of such compounds as *gen-an*, "the draft of a document," where a final n is followed by an initial vowel. (Corf.  $\P$  23, p. 17 under the heading of N.)

Quite a number of compounds are hybrid, that is, partly native, partly Chinese, as *omote-mon*, "a front gate"; *Nihon-bashi*, "Japan bridge" (the name of a bridge in Tōkyō), where *mon* and *Nihon* are Chinese, the other half of each Japanese.

#### COMPOSITION A GREAT FACTOR IN WORD-BUILDING.

¶ 50. The student interested in etymology will gradually discover that almost all long Japanese words and many short ones are really compounds, though their composite origin has often been forgotten even by the Japanese themselves. Thus michi, "a road," is from mi, an honorific prefix, and chi, the original word for "road." Mikado, "the Imperial Court," hence "the Emperor," is from the same mi, and kado, "a gate" (compare the "Sublime Porte" of Turkey).\* Kagami, "a mirror," is from kage, "shadow,"

<sup>\*</sup> Sir Ernest Satow prefers to derive *mikado* from the archaic *mika*. "great," and *to* (*nigori*'ed to *do*), "place."

"reflection," and miru, "to see." Place-names are almost always compounds which can be easily resolved into their constituent elements, as Yoko-hama, "cross strand;" E-do - (Yedo), "inlet door;" Ara-kawa, "rough river;" Ō-shima, "big island: "Fuji-san, "Fuji mountain," "Fujiyama" (the etymology of Fuji is obscure, but probably the name is of Aino origin); Miya¹-no²-shĭta,³ "below³ of² Shintō-shrine¹," i.e. "beneath the shrine;" E1-no2-shima3, "island3 of2 inlet<sup>1</sup>." Similarly in the case of surnames, most of which are of geographical origin, being borrowed from the names of the localities where the persons who first assumed them resided, thus Ko-bayashi, "small forest;" I1-no-2ue3, "above3 of2 (the) well<sup>1</sup>; Ta<sup>1</sup>-naka<sup>2</sup>, "among<sup>2</sup> (the) rice-fields<sup>1</sup>;" Yamada, "mountain rice-field," etc. Men's personal names, answering to our Christian names, are also nearly always compounds. Unfortunately few of these personal names can be translated, founded, as they are, on allusions to texts in the Chinese Classics, to feudal functions now obsolete, to cyclical signs, and to other recondite matters. Such names as Ta-rō, "big male," i.e. "eldest son;" Ji-rō, "second (lit. next) son;" Saburō (for San-rō), "third son," etc., are sufficiently clear.

## N. B. For women's personal names, see ¶ 418.

All Chinese words of more than one character are compounds, e.g. *chawan*, "a tea-cup," from *cha*, "tea," and *wan*, "a bowl;" *sendō*, "a boatman,"—properly "the master of a junk,"—from *sen*, "junk," "vessel," and *tō* (*nigori*'ed to *dō*), "head," "chief;" *Tōkyō* from *tō*, "east," and *kyō*, "capital city," etc., etc.

¶ 51. As shown in the foregoing examples of *michi*, "road," and *Mikado*, "Emperor," honorific prefixes sometimes enter

into the actual formation of words. Generally, however, they are felt to be distinct entities, and are therefore written separately, as

```
o cha, lit. "honourable tea," i.e. "tea."
go mottomo, lit. "augustly right," i.e. "you are
quite right."
o mi ashi, lit. "honourable august feet," i.e.
"your feet."
```

For more detailed information concerning the honorifics, which form so important and all-pervading an element of Japanese speech, see Chapter XI.

#### VARIOUS KINDS OF NOUNS.

¶ 52. Abstract nouns, expressing degree as well as quality, are often derived from adjective stems by agglutinating the syllable sa, thus:

```
alsŭsa, "heat," "the degree of heat." degree of cold." "the degree of cold." shirosa, "whiteness, "the degree of fun." degree of whiteness."
```

A tinge or trace of a quality, hence sometimes the actual quality itself, and even the object possessing the quality, may be denoted by the termination mi agglutinated to an adjective stem, thus:

```
akami, "a tinge of red."

omoshiromi, "(a certain amount of) fun."

shiromi, "a tinge of white," "the white of an egg."

Amami ga usū
Sweetness (nom.) thin
gozaimasŭ.
is.
```

¶ 53. These nouns in sa and mi must be distinguished from the periphrasis formed by means of an adjective or verb and the word koto, "(an abstract) thing," "a fact," "an act," "a state," as

atsui koto, "heat," "the fact of being hot."

kitanai koto, "dirtiness," "the fact that something is dirty."

shiroi koto, "whiteness," "the fact that something is white."

machigatta koto, { "a mistake," "the fact that some lit. mistook thing one has made a mistake."

shimpo suru koto, { "progress" (the noun); also "to lit, progress" (the verb).

on wo shiranai koto, ignores thing "ingratitude."

In speaking of the blade of a fine sword, one might say:

Sono kissaki no surudoi koto,
Its point 's sharp state,
sono yaki no uruwashii koto,
its tempering's beautiful state,
hito-me mite mo sugu samusa
one-eye seeing even, at-once coldness
wo oboeru kurai da.
(accus.) feel amount is.

"So sharp is its point, so fine its edge, that the merest glance at it gives you a shiver."

These periphrases in *koto* are often used exclamatorily, especially by female speakers, thus:

Atsui koto! "Oh! how hot it is!"

Kŭsai koto! "Oh! what a horrid smell!"

¶ 54. Parallel to the abstract nouns in *koto*, are concrete nouns in *mono*. While *koto* denotes "a thing of the mind," "a fact," "an act," *mono* almost always denotes a tangible, material thing or person, thus:

```
dekimono, ("a bad place," "an abscess."

kŭsai mono, "a smelly thing."

shiroi mono, "a white thing."

shōjiki-mono, "an honest fellow."
```

This distinction between *koto*, "an abstract thing," and *mono*, "a material thing," must be clearly kept in mind, if the student would avoid constant misapprehension. Thus *onaji mono* means "the same thing," "the identical article," whereas *onaji koto* means "the same sort of thing,"—the quality, pattern, etc., being the same, but the actual article a different one. For *mono voo* at the end of a sentence, see ¶ 287.

Mono no, or to wa in mono no, has a curious use, whose origin is unknown, but which may most easily be parsed by assuming no to stand for nagara, "while," "whereas:"—

```
Rikutsu de wa kō iu mono
Theory by indeed, thus say thing
no, jissai wa yohodo
whereas, practice as-fr, very
muzukashii.
difficult (is).

"That is all very fine in theory, but it is mighty hard in practice."
```

Baka da to ver in mono Fool is that indeed say thirm of the fool is that indeed say thirm of the fool as he is, he is canon, sukoshi no yō ni while, little is business in pable of making himself useful in minor matters."

¶ 55. The names of shops are denoted by the termination ya, "house," as:

```
hon-ya, "a book-store;" from hon, "a book."
niku-ya, "a butcher's shop;" from niku, "flesh."
pan-ya, "a bakery," from pan, "bread."
```

Kame-ya, lit. "tortoise house" (or, as we might say, "At the Sign of the Tortoise"), the name of several well-known shops in Tōkyō.

Owing to the general Japanese habit of naming persons after places, such words as the above come to denote, not only the "book-store," the "butcher's shop," and the "bakery," but by extension the "bookseller," the "butcher," and the "baker" themselves. Sometimes indeed the person only, and not the place, is thus designated, as:

kuruma-ya, "a jinrikisha-man." shimbun-ya, "a newspaper man."

¶ 56. Names of trees and plants often terminate in ki, "tree," or in its *nigori*"ed form gi, thus:

hagi, "the lespedeza." mugi, "wheat, "barley."

sugi, "the cryptomeria." susŭki, "the eulalia" (a kind of tall grass).

tsubaki, "the camelliatree."

yanagi, "the willow-tree."

Names of rivers end in kawa (generally nigori'ed to gawa), "river;" names of stretches of sea in nada; those of islands in shima (often nigori'ed to jima); those of mountains in yama or san (zan), thus:

Ōkawa, lit. "Great River." Sumida-gawa, "the River Sumida."

Bungo-nada, the stretch of sea near the province of Bungo, separating the islands of Kyūshū and Shikoku.

Kojima, lit. "Small Island," a name common to several islands off the Japanese coast.

Ogasawara-jima, "the Bonin Islands;" named after their discoverer, Ogasawara. Asama-yama, "Mount Bandai-san, "Mount Bandai."

¶ 57. The nouns aida, "interval;" hazu, "necessity;" toki, "time;" and tokoro, "place," often assume grammatical functions perplexing to the beginner. Aida comes to correspond to our conjunction "while," hazu to our verbs "ought" or "should," toki to our conjunction "when," thus:

Mō kuru hazu da. { "He ought to be here by this time."

Areba, jiki ni kiku

If-there-were, immediately hear

hazu da ga,—mada sō iu
necessity is although, still such
koto voo kikimasen.
fact (accus.) (I)hear not.

"If anything of that kind had happened, I should have heard of it.

N. B. Observe the suppressed negative which hazu almost always implies. Observe, too, that hazu is often strengthened by a preceding beki, "should," "ought," thus: Areba, jiki ni kiku-beki hazu da ga, etc. (Conf. ¶ 178 and ¶ 192.)

Nochi ni, yō no nai toki,
Afterwards, basiness's is-not time,
hanashimashō.

(I)will-p.otably-speak.

Toki ni at the beginning of a sentence is a sort of expletive corresponding more or less to our "by the way."

¶ 58. More difficult than any of the above are the uses of *tokoro*, which, from the original concrete sense of "place," has come to be used in various abstract meanings. Sometimes, like *koto*, it assumes the signification of "a thing of the mind," "a matter," "a subject," "a quality," as in the following example:

Kyūkin no tokoro zeu, tsŭki ni Wage 's matter as-for, month in, jū-go-en tsukawashimashō. fffteen-dollars (I) will-probably-give.

"Coming now to the matter of wages, I may say that I will give you fifteen dollars a month."

A good instance of *tokoro*, as equivalent to our suffix "....ness" used to form abstract substantives, occurs at the end of  $\P$  280.

In the middle of a sentence, *tokoro*, especially when followed by *ye*, is apt to assume the force of some such conjunction as "while," "whereupon," "when," "just as," thus:

Chōdo deru tokoro ye, kyaku Exactly go out when, guest ga mieta. (nom.) appeared. "A visitor came just as I was going out."

Tokoro ga implies opposition, thus:

Ima-jibun irasshtta tokoro ga, Now-time deigned-to-go even-if, o rusu deshō. honourably absent will-probably-be.

Similarly at the beginning of a sentence, tokoro de means "thereupon" or "and so," while tokoro ga means "nevertheless," "still," "all the same," sometimes "it occurs to me that." Another grammatical use of tokoro is that in which it corresponds to some extent to the relative pronouns of European languages, as explained in ¶ 86.

Tokoro is often, in familiar talk, nigori'ed to dokoro, and then expresses an almost scornfully strong degree of affirmation. For instance, a male visitor hazards the remark that his hostess's baby is old enough to creep along the floor. The fond mother, indignant at having her offspring's powers rated so low, retorts:

Hau dokoro ja nai; yoku
Creep place isn't; well
arukimasŭ.
(he) walks.

"It is no case of creeping,
I can assure you. Why! he
walks beautifully."

## Similarly:

Yomeru dokoro ka i kōshaku "Able to read, indeed! Why! he can explain what he reads."

¶ 59. Many nouns are simply the indefinite forms of verbs used substantively, somewhat like our English nouns in "....ing," such as "the beginning," which is properly a part of the verb "to begin." Here are a few examples:

```
from akinau,
         "trade:"
                                      "to trade."
akinai.
         "a canal:"
hori.
                                      "to excavate."
                              horu,
         "a mat:"
                                      "to pile up."
tatami,
                              tatamu.
         "companions:"
                             tsureru, "to take with one."
tsure.
        " laughter : "
                          " zvarau, "to laugh."
warai.
        " joy ; "
yorokobi,
                             vorokobu, "to rejoice."
```

## NOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES.

- ¶ 60. The Japanese parts of speech do not exactly coincide with ours (see ¶ 9), and nouns are much more extensively used in this language than in English. We shall see in the next chapter that the so-called pronouns are really nouns. True adjectives also are scarce, and are frequently replaced by nouns, just as in English we say "a gold chain," "a sugar-plum," "the Paris fashions," "a thing of beauty." The chief ways in which a noun may do duty for an adjective are:
- $\P$  61. I. As first member of a compound, thus:

Amerika-jin, lit. "America person," i.e. "an American."

doro-ashi, ,, "mud feet," ,, "muddy feet."

Nihon-go, ,, "Japan words," ,, "the Japanese language."

¶ 62. II. Followed by the postposition no, "of,"—the order of the words, it should be noted, being the reverse of that followed in English, thus:

atari<sup>1</sup> no<sup>2</sup> keishoku,<sup>3</sup> lit. "scenery<sup>3</sup> of <sup>2</sup> neighbourhood<sup>1</sup>, i.e. "the surrounding scenery."

kinjo no tōbutsu-ya, lit. "Chinese-thing-shop of vicinity," i.e. "a neighbouring general shop."

mukashi no hito, lit. "people of antiquity," i.e. "the ancients."

¶ 63. III. Followed by the word na (see ¶ 197), thus:

baka¹ na² yatsu³, "a foolish¹ (being²) fellow³."

chōhō na kikai, "a convenient machine."

heta na e-kaki, "an unskilful painter."

jōzu na e-kaki, "a skilful painter."

kirei na musŭme, "a pretty girl."

odayaka na nami, "a calm sea" (lit. "calm waves").

Some of these words—kirei, for instance,—are so constantly used as adjectives, that their proper sense as nouns tends to pass out of remembrance. In the cases where it is preserved, the word takes no after it when it is used as a noun, and na when it is used as an adjective, thus:

heta<sup>1</sup> no<sup>2</sup> naga<sup>3</sup>-dangi<sup>4</sup>, "the long<sup>3</sup> speech<sup>4</sup> of <sup>2</sup> an unskilful<sup>1</sup> (speaker)," a proverb signifying that bad speakers are apt to say more than the occasion requires.

heta¹ na² isha³ sama⁴, lit. "unskilful¹ being² physician³ Mr⁴," i.e. "an unskilful doctor." (予ēzu 上手 corresponds

almost literally to the English "a good hand at," and heta 下手 to "a bad hand at.")

N. B. Conf. also ¶ 197.

### NOUNS USED AS ADVERBS.

¶ 64. When followed by the postposition ni, "in," or de, "by," nouns such as those above instanced often correspond to European adverbs, thus:

baka ni, "foolishly."

gwaikoku ni or de, "abroad." (gwaikoku="outer countries," i.e. "foreign countries.")

jozu ni, "skilfully."

Sometimes they are taken adverbially, even though no postposition be suffixed, thus:

konnichi, "this day," or "to-day."

mukashi, "antiquity," ,, "anciently," "formerly."

For nouns used as postpositions, see ¶ 141 et seq.

# CHAPTER IV.

## The Pronoun.

#### PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

- ¶ 65. The Japanese words corresponding to the personal pronouns of European languages are simply nouns whose original significations are quite clear, and which are still often used with those significations. Except for the sake of convenience to foreign students, it would not be necessary to discuss them apart from nouns in general. They belong to the category of such descriptive expressions as "your humble servant," "your ladyship," "His Majesty." Self-depreciatory terms are naturally preferred in speaking of oneself (1st. person), and complimentary terms in speaking to other people (2nd. person), also sometimes in speaking of other people (3rd. person).
- ¶ 66. The most usual equivalent for "I" is watakwshi, lit. "selfishness." The vulgar often contract it to watashi and washi. Other nouns now current in the same sense are boku, "servant," which is much affected by young men in familiarly addressing each other; sessha, "the awkward person; shōsei, "junior." Ore is a very vulgar corruption of ware, which is the commonest word for "I" in the Written Language. Orā, which may often be heard from the mouths of coolies, stands for ore wa.
- ¶ 67. The following equivalents for "you" are all in common use:—anata, a contraction of ano kata, "that side," beyond" (which meaning is still retained in poetry, as

kumo no anata, "beyond the clouds"). Anata is a polite expression; with the addition of sama, "Mr.," "Mrs.," "Miss," "Lord," "Lady," it is supremely polite. Omae, lit. "honourably in front," was formerly polite, but is now only used in addressing inferiors, such as coolies, one's own servants, one's own children, etc. Omae san (san is short for sama) stands half-way between anata and omae in politeness. It is much used by women. Sensei, "senior," is used chiefly in addressing men or women of learning. Danna san, "Mr. Master," is used by a servant in addressing his master, and by inferiors generally. Kimi, "prince," is chiefly used by young men in addressing each other familiarly. Besides the above may be mentioned Heika, lit. "beneath the steps of the throne," i.e. "Your Majesty;"

N. B. Reverence naturally restrains loyal subjects from addressing the throne itself:—they raise their eyes no higher than the ground below the steps leading up to it.

Kakka "beneath the council-chamber," i.e. "Your Excellency; "sono  $h\bar{o}$ , "that side," the equivalent for "you" employed in the law-courts by legal officers;  $k\bar{i}sama$ , an insulting term used in addressing an inferior with whom one is angry.

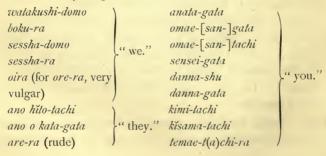
The word *temae*, lit. "before the hand," is remarkable; for it may be used either as a very humble and therefore polite equivalent for "I," or as an insulting equivalent for "you." In the sense of "you," it formerly had the honorific  $\theta$  prefixed. The rude use of it came in through the dropping of the honorific.

¶ 68. Sensei, Danna san, Heika, and Kakka are as appropriate for the third person ("he" or "she"), when speaking

politely, as for the second. Anata may also occasionally be heard in that sense. Much in use also for "he" and "she" are ano hito, "that person," more politely, ano o kata, lit. "that honourable side:" ano otoko. "that man:" ano onna, "that woman;" ano ojiisan, "that old gentleman;" ano obāsan, "that old lady," etc. Mukō, lit. "the opposite side," i.e. "the other party," not infrequently represents "he," "she," or "they." Are, "that," is also sometimes used for "he" or "she," but it is not at all polite, and more often refers to things, i.e. it means "it." The vague English "you" or "one," which corresponds to French "on" and German "man," has no equivalent in Japanese. Thus, "to clap one's hands" is simply to two tataku, lit. "hands (accus.) clap." "You can't tell" (meaning "one has no means of knowing") is simply shiremasen, which might equally well stand for "I can't tell."

N. B. The word hito has been adduced by some as an equivalent of the French impersonal "or." But it is not really so, as it always retains its proper sense of "persor," "people," especially "other people."

¶ 69. Like other nouns—indeed more frequently than other nouns—the so-called personal pronouns may take the plural suffixes mentioned on page 29. The following forms are sanctioned by usage:



- N. B. Observe, however, that watakŭshi domo is often used for the singular, it being slightly humbler than watakŭshi. Oira, too, may be heard in the singular, the line between singular and plural, as already noticed in ¶ 44, being less sharply drawn in Japanese than in European languages. Note, moreover, that the Japanese never use their words for "we," as we sometimes do ours, to signify "you and I." They only use them to signify "other people and I," or rather "I and my fellows." "We," in the sense of "you and I," may be expressed by such a phrase as anata to watakŭshi to; but more often the meaning is approximately rendered in some other idiomatic way by employing an honorific. See, for instance, ¶ 445, No. 115, and ¶ 449, No. 16.
- ¶ 70. Like other nouns, the so-called personal pronouns may be followed by postpositions. Thus, just as they say

ano ko no oya, that child of parent, which is also do they say

zvatakŭshi no oya, i.e. "the parent of me," i.e. "my parent,"

omae no oya, "the parent of you," i.e. "your parent" (in addressing an inferior); ano hito no oya, "the parent of that person," i.e. "his (or her) parent;" etc.

Just as they say

Sono ko voo hidoi me ni
That child (accus.) harsh eyes to

awasemashila,
caused-to-meet.

i.e. "He treated that awasemashila,

so also may one say

Watakŭshi wo hidoi me ni awasemashita. "He treated me very badly."

There is, therefore, no such thing as a declension of pronouns or any special set of possessive pronouns.

¶ 71. The chief thing to remember in connection with the Japanese nouns answering to our personal pronouns is the

extremely rare use that is made of them. Except in cases of special emphasis or antithesis, the information concerning persons which is in European languages conveyed by means of pronouns, is left to be gathered from the context. Thus the single word *kaerimashita* will mean "I have come back," or "he, she or they have come back," according to the previous drift of the conversation.

Kore kara furo wo tsŭkaimashō, i.e. "Will now take This from, bath (accus.) will-use, a bath."

naturally means "I will now take my bath;" for it is almost a matter of course that, in such personal things, each individual can speak only for himself. I can only eat my own dinner, probably love only my own country, and work only to support my own wife and children. To be, therefore, for ever reiterating and harping on the words "I," "me," "my," "you," "he," etc., seems to Japanese ears absurd and tedious tautology. A Japanese will often discourse for half-an-hour without using a single personal pronoun. The perpetual recurrence of watakushi and anata is one of the surest signs of a clumsy foreign speaker, who translates his own idiom into Japanese, instead of thinking impersonally as the Japanese do. These remarks will lead the intelligent student to observe that most of the examples scattered throughout the present work are susceptible of being variously rendered. Where, for instance, we have put "I," it would often be equally correct to insert "he," "she," or," they," in its stead. The use of "you," that is, of the second person, in English generally necessitates some change in the Japanese phrase, especially if an equal or superior be addressed. This point will be elucidated in the Chapter on Honorifics, ¶ 392 et seq., a chapter which the student would do well to read through in connection

with what has here been said on the subject of personal pronouns.

#### REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

¶ 72. The word "self" may be expressed by jibun (less often by jishin), commonly followed by the postposition de, thus:

watakushi jibun,
watakushi jishin,

omae jibun, (not honorific),
go jibun (honorific),
"yourself."

N. B. The above occur only when the idea of "self" has to be emphasised. (Conf.  $\P$  71, also  $\P$  324.)

Another word for "self" is *onore*, which is also used as an insulting equivalent for "you."

Waga, a Classical form whose proper meaning is "my," may still sometimes be heard in the sense of "my own," our own," "our own," thus:

waga kuni, "my country," "one's country," "la patrie." But its use is chiefly confined to set speeches and lectures. So is that of the phrase waga hai, "we," more lit. "my fellows."

# DEMONSTRATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, AND INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADVERBS.

¶ 73. The demonstrative, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns, being marked by certain correspondences of sound and formation, may be best studied by means of the table which we give on the next page. The adverbs derived from the same roots are also given there, so that the learner may embrace all the kindred forms in one glance. He should note that Japanese, like Latin, distinguishes a nearer "that" (sore, Latin "iste") from a further "that"

₹ 74.	DEMONS	DEMONSTRATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADVERBS.	SATIVE PRO	VOUNS AND ADV	ERBS.	
kore,	this. (Subst.)	sore, that (near).(Subst.)   are,	)   are,	that (far). (Subst.)   dore?	dore?	which? (Subst.)
kono,	this. (Adj.)	sono, that (near).(Adj.)	ano,	that (far). (Adj.)	dono?	which? (Adj.)
konna, }	this kind of,	~	anna,	that kind of,	donna?	what kind of?
kō iu, 1 koko, 1	(such as this.	soko, ( such as that.	a iu, )	such as that.	do in 1	what like?
kochi(ra), §	hereabouts.	sochi(ra), fullere: sokoera, thereabouts (near).	achi(ra), \	thereabouts (far)	dochi(ra)? \	whereabouts?
konata,	hither.			you.	donata?	who? (polite)
dare?	who? what?	ikura! or ika hodo? ikani? "ikaga! iku(tsu)? "iku-mai? etc.	how much? how? how many?	how much? how? how many? (See¶157 et seq.)	itsu?	when?
		INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADVERBS	OUNS AND A	DVERBS.		
dore-ka,	one or other, some one (thing).	dare ka somebody (o	(or   nani ka,	something (or other).	dōka,	somehow (or other), would
dore mo,	any one (thing).	dare mo, everybody.	na(n)ni mo,	anything.		somehow (or
dore de mo,	either one, any one.	dare de mo, anybody, every body.	y nan de mo,	thing, every- do de n	do de mo,	other), really.
itsu ka,	some time (or	MORE POLITELY:		0	dozo,	would that!
itsu mo, itsu de mo,	other). any time, always. any time whateever, always.	donata ka. donata mo. donata de mo.	dok	doko mo, somewhere (everywhere.	somewhere (or other). everywhere. anywhere.	
ikura ka, ikura mo, ikura de mo,	ikura ka, a certain amount. ikura mo, any amount. ikura de mo, any amount whateever.	ikutsu mo, any number. ikutsu de mo, any number what- ever.		Or dochi(ra) ka. Also used dochi(ra) mo. dochi(ra) mo. spoken of	Also used for dore ka, dore mo, dore de mo, when only two are spoken of.	a, dore mo,

N.B. Are and ano are sometimes replaced by their Classical equivalents kare and kano.

(are, Latin "ille"), the former being used of things not very distant and of things connected with the person spoken to, while the latter is applied to things which are distant or have relation to the person spoken of. He must note furthermore that Japanese, like French, distinguishes substantive forms of these pronouns from adjective forms, e.g. kore, "celui-ci," but kono, "ce."

¶ 75. Here are a few examples of the use of the substantive forms kore, "this;" sore, "that" (near); are, "that" (far); dore ? "which?" dare ? or more politely donata? "who?"; nani? "what?"—

Kore wa omoshiroi. Si.e. "As for this, it is amusing," or more briefly, "This is fun."

Sore wa, nan desu? \ "What is that (which you have in That as-for, what is (it)? \ your hand, etc.)?"

Are wa, dare no uchi desŭ? \{\text{"Whose is that house That as-for, who of house is(it)?}\} \{\text{(over there)?''}}

Dore ni shimashō? \\
Which to shall-do? \\
Which shall I take?"

Nani voo suru? { "What are you doing?" | Said to an inferior. The polite equivalent would be Nani nasaru?)

Dare ga kimashita? { "Who has come?" (Donata ga mairaremashita? would be more polite.)

¶ 76. Here are some examples of the adjective forms kono, "this;" sono, "that" (near); ano, "that" (far); dono? "which?" and of the forms in na and iu:—

Kono nedan. Konna nedan.

Sono mama.

Sonna koto. So iu koto.

Ano takai yama.

"This price."

"This sort of price."

"That way;" "as it is."

"That sort of thing."

f" That high mountain (over there)."

Anna tohōmonai kake-ne. Such an extravagant over-that-like outrageous overcharge. charge as that."

(Said in speaking to a third party. In addressing the shopkeeper who was guilty of the overcharge, one would say sonna, not anna, because sonna corresponds to the second person, anna to the third.)

Dono tsumori de ? \ What intention by? \ \ "With what intention?"

 $D\bar{o}$  in tsumori de? How say intention by? \ "With what kind of intention?"

¶ 77. What we have here, for the sake of convenience, termed adjective forms, are not adjectives properly so called. Kono was originally two words, viz. ko, "this" (substantive), and no, "of," so that kono meant "of this." Similarly in the case of sono, ano, and dono ?, which meant respectively "of that" (nearer) or "of him," "of that" (further) or "of him," and "of which?" They still preserve this their ancient sense in certain contexts, as:

sono tame, "(for the) sake of that." sono oya, "his (or her) parent."

Similarly, kono nedan, translated above by "this price," may also mean on an occasion "the price of this."

Konna, "such," is a contraction of kono yō na, lit. "this manner being," i.e. "being in this way," "being thus." Similarly sonna is from sono yō na, anna from ano yō na, and donna  $\geq$  from dono yō na  $\geq$  Kō iu, "such," means literally "thus (they) say," i.e. "people call it thus." Sō iu, ā iu, and dō iu  $\geq$  have a similar etymology.

¶ 78. Before words of Chinese origin, the adjective pronouns "this" and "that" are often expressed by the syllable to (當), a Chinese vocable properly signifying "the one in question," "the actual one," as:

tō-nin, "the person in question," "this (or that) person."

tō-getsu no sue, \ "the end of the month."

Some of the adverbs given in the paradigm on page 52 will be found exemplified in Chapter X, ¶ 368.

¶ 79. The indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogative pronouns by the addition of the interrogative particle ka, of the postpositions mo and de mo, "even," and of the emphatic particle zo. Thus dare¹ de² mo³, "anybody," "everybody," is literally "even³ by² whom?¹" Here are a few examples of the use of the indefinite pronouns:

Omocha'ya nani ka. "Toys or something."

(The words ya nani ka here have the same vague meaningless application that " or something" often has in Colloquial English.)

Nan de mo yoroshii kara,
Auything (is',good because,
nani ka te-garui mono voo
something-or-other easy thing (accus.)
dashite kudasai.
putting-forth condescend.

"Anything will do. Just
give us something or other
which it will take no trouble
to get ready."
(Said, for instance, by a hungry
traveller arriving late at a hotel.)

Dochira ga yoroshū gozaimashō? ("Which (of the two) do you think will-probably-be?

Sore wa, dochira de mo yoroshii. ("Oh! (sore wa) either That as-for, either (is)good. will do quite well."

Donata ka o ide ni Somebody-or-other honourable exit to natte orimasŭ ka? having-become is ? Ie, donata mo o ide ni natte ("No, no one has orimasen. (More lit. "Everybody has unarrived."—Conf. (433.)

Nan¹ no² sewa³ de⁴ mo⁵ shite⁶ kuremasŭ¹, lit. Gives¹ doing⁶ "He will help you in help³ of² everything.¹,⁴,⁵,⁵

Dare1 mo2 so3 iimasŭ4.

"Everybody<sup>1,2</sup> says<sup>4</sup> so<sup>3</sup>."

#### RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

¶ 80. The Japanese language has neither relative pronouns nor relative words of any sort. Their absence is generally made good by the use of a construction in which the verb is prefixed to the noun attributively, just as an adjective might be. Thus the Japanese not only say "a good man," "a bad man," etc.; but they say "a comes man," "a goes man," "the went man," instead of "a man who comes," "a man who goes," "the man who went." This is illustrated in the following examples:—

Kuru hito.
Comes person.

Kita hito.
Came person.

"The person who comes."

(Or "The people who come.")

"The person who came."

(Or "The people who came.")

Kinō kita hǐto. Yesterday came person. { "The person (or persons) who came yesterday."

Ano yama no zetchō
That mountain's summit
ni haete iru ōki na
on, growing is large
matsu.
pine.

"The large pine-tree which grows on the top of that mountain over there."

Shinakucha naran "It is a thing which it won't do not to do, i.e. "It is a thing koto desŭ. (Conf. ¶ 348) which must be done."

¶ 81. As shown in the foregoing examples, the English relative and verb are represented in Japanese by a verb alone, which is used participially, or, as it is more usual to say in Japanese grammar, attributively, prefixed to the noun. In English this construction is allowable only in the case of participles, as "the shipwrecked sailors," "the shrieking women and children." In Japanese it is the actual tenseforms of the verb that are thus employed. Properly speaking, all the tenses of the indicative mood are capable of being thus used attributively in relative constructions. In the Book Language they are all constantly so used. But the Colloquial exhibits a strong tendency to limit this way of speaking to the "certain past" and the "certain present or future," the merely "probable" tenses (e.g. koyō, kitarō) being rarely if ever now heard in such contexts, save in a few special idioms, such as:

Narō koto nara. Will-probably-be fact if(-it)-is \ "If possible." (Conf.  $\P$  348.)

 $Ar\bar{o}$  hazu zva nai. { "There ought not (There-)will-probably-be necessity as-for, is-not. } to be."

Observe that as the Japanese language, generally speaking, abhors the use of the passive, the verbs employed in relative sentences are almost always neuter or active ones, thus:

( "The shipwrecked Nansen ni aimashita suifu-ra. Shipwreck to, met sailors.

Haruka oki ni mieru fune. { "The vessel that is to be seen far away at sea."

Hepburn sensei no koshiraeta ( "The dictionary which Hepburn senior 's (he)prepared was compiled by Dr. Hepburn's burn," i.e. "Dr. Hepburn's jiten.

dictionary."

Otokichi to iu annai no mono.
Lit. "the guide (annai no mono, i.e. person of guidance), of whom people say (iu) that (to) he is Otokichi."

"The guide called Otokichi," or "Otokichi the guide."

Arashi to iu mono.

Lit. "the thing (mono) of which people say (in) that (to) it is a typhoon (arashi.)"

"What is called a typhoon," typhoon (arashi.)"

Amerika to iu kuni. { "The country people call America," i.e. simply, "America."

N. B. This impersonal but active construction with to iu and other synonymous verbs, corresponding to the English passive, must be thoroughly mastered, as it is constantly in the mouths of the people. It is often used for making general assertions, such as

"Dogs are faithful creatures," or Inu to iu mono wa, chūgi no aru The dog is a faithful creature." Inu to iu mono desŭ.

Lit. As-for (va) the thing (mono) of which people say (iu) that (to) it is a dog (inu), it is (desu) a thing (mono) which is (aru) of (no) faithfulness (ehugi). Here our single word "dog" or "dogs" is rendered by the five words inu to iu mono va.

¶ 82. This use of the active where a European would expect the passive sometimes causes an appearance of ambiguity. Thus shiran ii hito may signify either "a person who does not know" or "a person who is not known (to me)," i.e. "a person whom I do not know." But as a rule the context sufficiently indicates which way the phrase should be taken. For instance, yonde¹ shimatta² hon³ cannot possibly mean "the book which has finished reading," as such a collocation of words would have no sense. It can only mean "the book³ which (I, they, etc.) have finished² reading¹." Sumau² tochi¹ cannot mean "the locality² which resides." It must mean "the locality² in which (so-and-so) resides." The following are similar instances:

Tōchaku shita toki. Arrival did time.

"The time when (I, they, etc.) arrived."

Wakaranai koto. Understand-not thing.

"Something which I don't understand."

Te ni motteru mono, Hand in is-holding thing.

"That which he is holding in his hand.

¶ 83. The example just given of sumau tochi, signifying "the locality in which so and so resides," exemplifies a remarkable Japanese idiom according to which the preposition that frequently accompanies an English relative pronoun is always omitted, thus:

Toji no furuku natta hon. { "A book of which the Binding of old has-become book."} binding has become old."

tomari nastla yadoya desŭ lo ka la ?

"Is10 that1 the hotel9 Sore<sup>1</sup> wa, <sup>2</sup> anata<sup>3</sup> ga<sup>4</sup> saku-nen<sup>5</sup> o<sup>6</sup> in which you<sup>3</sup> staid<sup>6,7,8</sup> mari<sup>7</sup> nastta<sup>8</sup> yadoya<sup>9</sup> desŭ<sup>10</sup> ka<sup>11</sup>? (lit. honourably o, deigned nastta, to stay, tomari) last year<sup>5</sup>?"

Ie: watakushi wa tomarimasen No: me as-for stay-not ga-, saku-nen tomodachi ga whereas- last-year friend (nom.) tomarimashite, taisō ni ni greatly spirit having-staid, to irimashita yadoya desu. entered hotel is.

"No, I did not stay there; but (ga) it is the hotel in which a friend of mine staid last year, and with which he was much pleased."

Dono yama kara kono Which mountain from, this meibutsu neighbourhood 's famous-production no suishō wa demasŭ ka? 's crystals as-for, issue ?

"From which of these mountains come the crystals, for which this locality is noted?"

Watakushi ga Yokohama no)
I (nom.) Yokohama 's
ni-jū ban ye tanomimashitara,
twenty number to when-had-applied,
achira kara uke-atte
there from guaranteeing
yokoshimashita "boy" desŭ.
sent boy is.

"He is a servant whom I got by applying to the Grand Hotel at Yokohama, and for whose good behaviour the hotel-keeper is guarantee."

N. B. The English word "boy" has been largely adopted by the Europeanised Japanese in the sense of "servant." We have even heard onna no boy (!) used to signify a "maid-servant."

Closely similar are such cases as warui rikutsu, signifying not "a bad reason," but "the reason why (so-and-so) is bad."

- ¶ 84. The terseness of the Japanese expression as compared with ours should not occasion any insuperable difficulty to the careful student. After all, we use a somewhat similar idiom in English when we speak of "a shaving-brush," meaning "a brush with which a man helps himself to shave;" of "a smoking-room," meaning "a room in which people smoke;" of "a stepping-stone," meaning "a stone on which one may step," &c., &c.
- ¶ 85. Several "whos" or "whiches" are often attached in English to the same noun. In such cases the Japanese language uses the gerund (in set speeches the indefinite form) for the verbs of every clause, excepting that immediately preceding the noun qualified (see ¶ 278 et seq. and ¶ 422 et seq.). An instance of this construction is given in the example on the foregoing page, where tomarimashite is a gerund and irimashita a past tense, both qualifying the word yadoya. But this idiom—the referring of several relative clauses to a single noun—is not a favourite one in Colloquial Japanese. The example at the top of this page shows, in the case of the word tanomimashitara, the

avoidance of such a construction. Indeed a great number of relative phrases—even single phrases—are turned in some other way. For instance:

Mune¹ no² zwaruku³ naru⁴ hanashı⁵, "A story zwhich it makes one feel sick to listen to;" lit. "chest¹ 's² bad³ becoming⁴ story⁵."

Sono meishi no kata, "The gentleman zvho left that card," lit. "the gentleman of that card."

Musume¹ ga² hitori³ atte⁴, O Haru⁵ to⁶ mōshimasuˇ¹, "He has one daughter zvhose name is O Haru," lit. "Daughter¹ one-person³ being,⁴ (people) sayˇ that⁶ (she is) O Haru⁵."

Kesa¹ no² yōsu³ de⁴ wa⁵, furu⁵ ka¹ to³ omottara⁰, sukkari¹⁰ haremashĭta¹¹, i.e. "The weather, which looked like rain this morning, has cleared up beautifully;" more lit. "By⁴ appearance³ of² this-morning¹, when-(I) had-thought⁰ that⁵ will-(it) rain ²⁰,¹, quite¹⁰ (it) has-cleared¹¹."

¶ 86. The words *tokoro no*, lit. "of place," are sometimes used by the educated classes in relative phrases as a sort of substitude for the relative pronouns "who," "which," and "that." But these words really add nothing to the sense, and only encumber the construction. They owe their origin to the slavish imitation of a Chinese idiom. Thus:

Kuru tokoro no htto, for Kuru htto.
Kinō kita tokoro no htto, ,, Kino kita htto.
Shinakucha naran tokoro ,, Shinakucha naran hokoro no koto desu, koto desu.

N. B. The student is recommended to compare the Japanese and English texts of any of the longer pieces given in Part II of this work. Such comparison, carefully carried out, will teach him better than anything else the manner in which Japanese thought moves under circumstances which, in our European idiom, demand the employment of relative pronouns or other relative words. The subject is important enough to reward any amount of trouble taken on its behalf.

## CHAPTER V.

# The Postposition.

#### THE POSTPOSITION PROPER.

¶ 87. Japanese postpositions correspond for the most part to English prepositions, serving like them to indicate those relations of words which Latin, German, and other Aryan languages of the older type denote by the use of case-inflections.

There are two kinds of postpositions, viz. postpositions proper and quasi-postpositions (¶ 141 et seq.).

The postpositions proper, with their most usual significations, are as follows:

## DE.

¶ 88. De has two widely different uses. One is to render the sense of "by," whence also "with," "by means of," less often "in." This its first acceptation offers no difficulty. In its second acceptation, de seems at first sight to mean nothing at all, and thus puzzles the foreign student who is desirous of accounting for its presence in the sentence. De is here etymologically a corruption of nite, itself the gerund of an obsolete substantive verb. Its proper sense is therefore "being." But in most contexts this de has sunk so completely to the level of a mere grammatical particle as not to need translating into English. It is a moot point whether what was originally one word has branched out into these two significations, or whether two words

originally distinct have coalesced into a single particle. Here are a few examples of *de* meaning "by," "with," "in:"

DE.

Nawa<sup>1</sup> de<sup>2</sup> shibaru<sup>3</sup>. Hasami <sup>1</sup> de<sup>2</sup> kiru<sup>3</sup>. "To tie<sup>3</sup> by means of <sup>2</sup> a rope<sup>1</sup>."

"To cut<sup>3</sup> with<sup>2</sup> scissors<sup>1</sup>."

Inu voo küsari de Dog (accus.), chain by, Chain up the dog!"

tsunaide oke!

fastening put!

(Said to a coolie.)

Kore de gaman nasai! { "Please be contented with this."

Kono kawa de, ai ga
This river in, trout(nom.)

tsuremasŭ ka?
are-catchable?

"Are there any trout to be caught in this stream?"

Kono mono wa,
This thing as-for,
Nihon-go de nan to
Japan-language by, what that
Möshimas ka?

say

"What is this called in Japan-ese?"

(More lit. "As for this thing, in Japanese, what do people say that it is?")

It will be gathered from these examples that *de* has its first signification ("by," "with," "in") chiefly when construed with transitive verbs.

De has its second signification, i.e. it properly means "being," in such cases as the following:—

Ima no kuruma-ya wa,
Now 's jinrikisha-man as-far,
dajaku de yaku ni
indolent being, usefulness to tatanai.
stands-not.

"My present jinrikisha-man is no good,—he is so indolent."

(More lit. "The present jinrikisha-man, being indolent, is of no use.")

Voppodo beppin de very extra-quality being pretty girl."

aru. Said, e.g. of a singing-girl.)

(More lit. "She is an uncommonly pretty girl."

(More lit. "She is being a very extra-quality.")

San-ji han de gozaimasŭ. { "It is (being) half-past three-hours half being is. } three."

The first of these phrases illustrates a construction with what are called "quasi-adjectives," which will be touched on again in \$\Pi\$ 200, and exemplified in \$\Pi\$ 201 (examples 9 and 10). The second and third phrases are much more important, showing, as they do, the most usual manner of expressing our verb "to be," viz. by means of de aru, de arimasŭ, de gozaimasŭ (see also \$\Pi\$ 341 et seq.). De aru is commonly contracted to da, de gozaimasŭ to desŭ, less often and somewhat vulgarly to de gozansŭ, de gesŭ, or de gasŭ; similarly in the other tenses, for instance datta for de atta, deshita for de gozaimashita, and so on (see also \$\Pi\$ 233, 270, 343, and 344). The foregoing examples would therefore generally become Yoppodo beppin da, San-ji han desŭ. The following is a very common phrase illustrating this idiom:

 $Say\bar{o}\ de\ gozaimas \check{u}.$  (Polite)  $S\bar{o}\ des \check{u}.$  (Familiar)  $\bigg\}$  "That is so," i.e. "Yes."

¶ 89. It happens not infrequently that de, in both its acceptations, is strengthened by means of the postposition wa, especially in phrases expressing interrogation, negation, or something disagreeable. De wa, in familiar talk, is apt to be contracted into ja. Thus:

Yoppodo beppin de Very extra-quality being "Isn't she very pretty?" (Or, zva nai ka? isnot? Yoppodo beppin ja nai ka?)

Kore de zva, ōki ni This by indeed greatly komarimasŭ. am-in-a-quandary.

"I am greatly bothered by this." (Or, Kore ja ōki ni komarimasŭ.) ¶ 90. When the substantive verb has a qualifying word or phrase along with it after de, the noun followed by de often corresponds to an English nominative,—not that de has any nominative force properly so called, but because the word which we treat as a nominative is conceived of by the Japanese as the means whereby, or the place in which, the action or state denoted by the verb occurs, for instance,

Mizu de takŭsan.

Cold-water by,(it voill be)plenty:

("Cold water will do perfectly well." (i.e. "You need not trouble to bring hot water as well.")

 $N.\ B.$  The Japanese sentence should, properly speaking, have  $des \tilde{u}$ , "it is," stuck on to the end of it; but, as will be further illustrated in  $\P$  429, the final verb is often omitted when no ambiguity is likely to ensue.

Hitotsu de yoroshii.

One by is-good.

(More politely, Hitotsu de yoroshiu gozaimasii.)

"One will be enough."

Seifu de o Government by, honourable kai-age ni narimashita.

purchase to has-become.

Seifu de o o (The Government has bought it," or "It has been purchased by the Government."

#### GA.

¶ 91. The original sense of ga is "of," now only preserved in certain names of places and in a few locutions, such as Hoshi-ga-oka, "The Mound of the Stars" (the name of a part of Kamakura);.....ga sŭki, "fond of," "liking;"......ga kirai, "not fond of," "disliking;"......ga hoshii, "desirous of."

Watakŭshi wa, tabako ga Me as-for, tobacco of, dai-sŭki (desŭ). great-fond (am). Sake ga kirai desŭ. "Sake" of hating am.

"I am not fond of sake."

Mizu ga hoshiu gozaimasu. Water of, desirous

"I want some water."

## ¶ $g_2$ . Ga is used as a sign of the nominative case, as:

Kane ga nai. Money (nom.) isn't. "There is no money;" hence "I have no money."

Ame ga futte kimashita. Rain (nom.) falling has-come.

"It has come on to rain."

Kono kuruma ga, furukŭte This jinrikisha (nom.) being-old ikemasen. is-no-go.

do; it is too old."

morau ga Physician by, seeing to-receive (nom.) the doctor about it." yokarō. will-probably-be-good.

"You had better consult (More lit. "It may be well to get (it) seen by the doctor.")

Sensei ga miemashita.

"The teacher has peared," i.e. has come.

Observe that the nominative use has developed out of the genitive. For instance, the etymological signification of Kane ga nai is "The not-being of money;-" that of Sensei ga miemashita is "The having-appeared of the teacher." Originally none of these sentences with ga were predicative. Modern usage alone has made them so, just as—to borrow an apt illustration from Mr. Aston—the incomplete sentences of an English telegram or advertisement convey a predicative sense to the mind of the reader. Observe too, from the example Isha ni mite morau ga yokarō, that postpositions may be suffixed to verbs as readily as to substantives, and that verbs, and indeed whole phrases, may form the subject or object of other verbs.

- ¶ 93. When found at the end of a clause, ga has an adversative force, of which "whereas" is the most literal English equivalent, but which is generally best rendered in practice by prefixing "yet" or "but" to the following clause. Sometimes the adversative force is softened down to a mere intimation of discontinuity between two successive states or actions, and then ga must be translated by "and so " or " and."
  - N. B. The final u of masu revives pretty distinctly before ga, for which reason we write masu in all such examples.

Shina wa yoroshiu gozaimasu Article as-for, good ga, - nedan ga osoroshii tako one, but the price is frighthigh whereas, price (nom.) frightful gozaimasŭ. is.

"The article is a good fully high."

N. B. For such expressions as osoroshii takai, see the second N. B. to ¶ 181.

Vama-michi de hi 70a Mountain-road in. day as-for. ga,kuremashita tsure ga darkened whereas, companions (nom.) ki-jōbu datta kara, were because, spirit-sturdy deshita. (70e)were.

"It got dark while we were on the mountain side; but, as we were several of us together, we felt no alarm."

Watakushi wa kon-do de, Fuji as-for, this time by, Fujiyama ye to-san wa san-do-me desu ga,to ascent as-for, third-time is whereas. shi-arvase to itsu mo tenki-tsugō luckily always weather-circumstances gozaimasŭ. yō (nom.) good are.

"This is the third time I have made the ascent of Fujiyama, and I have each time been lucky enough to have fine weather.

¶ 94. Sometimes ga with adversative force is repeated in two consecutive clauses, after the manner of "either....or:"

Kokŭsai-hō gaInternational-law (nom.) may-exist ga nani either, something (nom.) may-exist ga.-mada mada dori bakari still right only ga katsu koto conquer action (nom.) dekimasen. forthcomes-not.

"We may have international law, and we may have all sorts of fine things; but we are still very far from having arrived at a social state in which right always triumphs."

Perhaps-1-shall-go either, perhaps-1-shan't-go ga, watakwshi no katte da.
or I of convenience is.

or whether I go, or whether I don't go, is no one's business but my own."

Sometimes ga occurs elliptically at the end of an unfinished sentence. See, for examples, those given about the middle of ¶ 287.

#### KA.

¶ 95. Ka serves to ask a question, as:

Arimasu.

"There is."

Arimasŭ ka?

"Is there?"

Furo¹ wa² dekimashĭta³.

("The bath is ready."
(More lit. "As-for2 the bath, it-has-forthcome.")

Furo wa dekimashita ka? "Is the bath ready?"

If the sentence already contains some other interrogative word—an interrogative pronoun or adverb,—ku is often omitted, and it is generally best to omit it, thus:

Nan-doki ni mairimashō ka? What-hour at shall-come ? or Nan-doki ni mairimashō?

"At what o'clock shall I come?"

Itsu shinimashita (ka)?

"When did he die?"

Dō iu reake de konna what-sort-of reason by, such baka na koto reo suru? foolish things (accus.) do ?

Why do you do such silly things as this? " (Said to an inferior.)

¶ 96. Sometimes ka expresses a merely rhetorical or ironical question, sometimes nothing beyond a mere shade of doubt. In the latter case it corresponds to such English words as "may," "might," "perhaps:"

Aru mono ka? \ "Who in his senses would ever Exists thing? believe that such a thing exists?"

Mata yuki ga furimashõ Again snow (nom.) will-probably-fall "I thing it will snow to omoimasŭ. that think.

Mata yuki ga furimashō
Again snow (nom.) will-probably-fall
ka to omowaremasŭ.

? that can-think.

Suzuki to iu hito. Suzuki that(they)call person. } "A man called Suzuki."

Suzuki to ka iu hito.
Suzuki that ? (they) call person.

{ "A man called, if I mistake not, Suzuki."

Ii ka warui ka, shirimasen. Good? bad?, is-unknowable. { "I can't tell whether it is good or bad."

Mukŭ desŭ ka, mekki desŭ ka? { "Is it all gold or only gilt?" (Or, "Is it all unalloyed is ? plated is ? { silver or only plated?")

Ikō ka, dō shiyō ka to "Shall-go? how shall-do?" that of ther to go or not."

"I am considering whether to go or not."

¶ 98. Ka helps to form certain indefinite pronouns and adverbs, such as "somebody," "something," "somewhere." See the paradigm on page 52.

#### KARA.

¶ 99. Kara means "from," "since," "because," "after:"

Koko kara toge made wa, ) "How far may it be from. pass to mō dono kurai arimashō? still what amount probably-is?

indeed, from here to the top of the pass?"

Ni-san-nen-zen kara hito Two-three-year-before since, people ga fu-keiki da to umasu (nom.) unprosperity is that say ga,-honto desu ka? whereas,-true is

"For the last two or three years people have been saying that the times are bad. Is this really the case?"

Kŭtabiremashĭta kara. chotto Have-got-tired because. a-little vasumimashō. will-probably-rest.

"I am tired; (so) let us rest a minute."

- N. B. Some speakers say kara shite (shite is the gerund of suru, "to do") for kara; others say kara ni. The phrase mono desŭ kara or mon' desŭ kara, lit, "because (it) is thing," is another favourite circumlocution having the meaning of "because." The noun yue, lit. "cause," or yue ni, almost lit. "because," is also in use, though perhaps sounding just a trifle old-fashioned and stiff.
- ¶ 100. Kara has the sense of "after" only when suffixed to the gerund in te, and in a few special locutions, as:

"after having gone." "after going," itte kara, "after having seen." "after seeing." mimashite kara. "after this," "henceforward." kore kara, "and then," "next." "after that," sore kara,

- N. B. The past itta kara means "because he has gone;" mimashita kara means "because I have seen." Be very careful not to confuse these two locutions, which differ only by the use of the gerund in e when "after" is meant, and of the past tense in a when "because" is meant.
- N. B. The Japanese often use "from" (kara sometimes vori). when "at" would come more naturally to English lips, as:

Myönichi no enzetsu wa, nan-ji To-morrow 's lecture as-for, what-hour kara hajimarimasu?-Gogo ni-ji begins? noon." kara desii. from (it) is.

"At what o'clock does the lecture begin to-morrow?— Noon-after two-hours At two o'clock in the after-

The idea is that the lecture, beginning as it does at two o'clock, will last from two to some other hour not named.-Observe how the Japanese idiom retains the verb "it is" (desu) at the end of the sentence, while English dispenses with it. A similar instance of this occurs in the second example given just below under made.

#### MADE.

¶ 101. Made means "till," "as far as," "down to," "to:" "Thus far," "hitherto," "till now." Kore made.

Tetsudo wa, doko made dekite "How far is the rail-Railway as-for, where to done way finished?—As far as orimasŭ ?—Aomori made desŭ. Aomori." Aomori as-far-as

Watakushi no kuru made, matte "Please wait of come till, waiting come." (More lit. "till my comite kudasai. being condescend.

("Ever so long," "forever." Itsu1 made2 mo3. (Lit, even3 till2 when.1) ("Ever so far," "for any distance." Doko1 made2 mo3. (Lit. even3 till2 where.1)

N. B. For made ni in the sense "by," see N. B. at end of  $\P$  135.

#### MO.\*

¶ 102. Mo means "even," "also," "and," "too." When repeated, mo.....mo means "both.....and:"

Itsu made mo

{ lit. "Even till when," i.e. "forever."

Watakushi mo mairimasu.

"I will go too."

Kore mo wasurecha
This also, as-for-forgetting,
ikemasen.
is-no-go.

"And you mustn't forget this either;" or "Nor must you forget this."

Ka mo nomi mo
Mosquitoes also, fleas also,

\( \bar{o}i \) tokoro des\( \bar{u} \),

rumerous place is.

also, also, also, "It is a place where there are plenty both of mosquitoes and of fleas."

Nai koto mo gozaimasen. Not-being fact also is-not. { "It cannot be said that there are none," or simply "There are certainly some."

(This is a very common idiom.)

Construed with a negative verb, mo.....mo means "neither.....nor," thus:

Yoku mo waruku mo nai. Good also, bad also is-not. Sad." It is neither good nor

Mo is sometimes placed after ka, when the latter means "perhaps" (see ¶ 96). It retains in Japanese something of its proper force of "even," but can hardly be represented in the English translation, thus:

Mata rai-nen kuru ka
Again coming-year come ?

mo shiremasen.
even cannot-know.

"Perhaps I may come again next year."

 $N.\ B.$  For mo serving to form expressions analogous to the concessive mood, see § 289.

<sup>\*</sup> Not to be confounded with the adverb mô, for which see ¶ 373.

#### MOTTE.

¶ 103. Motte, properly the gerund of the verb motsu, "to hold," is in Written Japanese the usual word for "by," "thereby." In the Colloquial it survives only as a sort of emphatic particle, which is moreover little used except by old-fashioned speakers. Thus hanahada motte is the same as hanahada, "very," but emphasised; ima motte may be rendered by "even now," or by the help of some such word as "very," thus:

Mukashi kara ima motte,
Ancient-time from, now indeed,
ai-kawarazu
mutually-changing-not well from old times down to
ureru mise desŭ.
sells(intrans.) shop is.

"It is a shop which has carried on a good trade well from old times down to this very day."

N. B. Ai, the equivalent of our word "mutually," is often thus prefixed to verbs by pedantic speakers. It is a relic of the Book Language, and has little or no meaning now. This sentence is a good example of the apparent ambiguity of relative constructions in Japanese, which was pointed out in ¶ 82. The speaker of course means to say that the things in the shop sell well; but he seems to say that it is the shop itself which sells well.

When de is used in the sense of "by" or "with," motte is often suffixed to it by all classes of speakers, thus:

 $H\bar{o}ch\bar{o}$  de (motte) kiru. To cut with a knife."

Natura de (motte) shibaru. } "To tie with a rope."

 $Kaze \ de \ (motte) \ to \ ga$  "The door keeps stamwind by, door (nom.) ming on account of the stamming is.

For NA and NAN, see ¶ 197.

#### NI.

¶ 104. The original sense of ni is "in," "into," "to:"

Kono hen ni kiji
This neighbourhood in, pheasants pheasants in neighbourhood?"

wa imasen ka?

as-for, are-not ?

N. B. Compare this example with the fifth on p. 63, and note that de serves to indicate the place where something is done, ni the place where something merely is.

Kono kamo vo ryōri-nin
This wild-duck (accus.), cookery-person
ni watashite kudasai.
to, handing condescend.

"Please hand this wild-duck to the

Hajimete o me Having-begun, honourable in (I) have-hung.

me Hajimete o me eyes have had the honour to meet you."

(A phrase which it is considered polite to use when introduced to a

new acquaintance.)

¶ 105. Ni has many other idiomatic uses, of which the following are the chief, viz.

With a passive verb, ni corresponds to "by," thus:

Osoroshiku, dōmo! ka
Frightfully really, mosquitoes
ni sasaremashita.
by have-been-stung.

"Oh! I have been the frightfully stung by the mosquitoes."

Ame ni furi-komeraremashita. \ "We were kept in by kept in by were-kept-in."

A kindred idiom is found in the *m* corresponding to our "by" or "with," in such phrases as:

Me ni miru mono, mimi
Eyes by, see things; ears one's eyes, and hears with one's ears."

one's ears."

¶ 106. With a causative verb, ni denotes the person who is caused to perform the action, thus:

"Boy" ni sagasasemashō. { "I will make the boy look for it."

¶ 107. Suffixed to the indefinite form of a verb, m means " (in order) to," thus:

Ueno no sakura voo Ueno 's cherry-blossoms (accus.) 'I want to go to see mi ni ikitai. 'Ueno.'' I want to go to see the cherry-blossoms at Ueno.''

N, B. It is only with the indefinite form of the verb that ni has this meaning. When, as often happens, it follows the present tense used as an infinitive, it preserves its original force, thus:

Michi ga warukŭte, aruku ni Roads (nom.) being-bad; walk in, hone ga oremasŭ.
bones (nom.) break (intrans.).

Michi ga warukŭte, aruku ni in, bad, it is fearfully hard walking."

Mada neru ni wa hayai. \ "It is still too early to Still to sleep to as-for (it is) early. \ go to bed."

¶ 108. Ni suffixed to nouns serves to form expressions corresponding to European adverbs, as:

daiji, "importance," "care;" daiji ni, "carefully."

heta, "a bad hand (at);" heta ni, "unskilfully."

ima, "the present moment," ima ni, "now."

jōzu, "a good hand (at);" jōzu ni, "skilfully."

rippa, "splendour;" rippa ni, "splendidly."

(See also  $\P$  64.)

¶ 109. When several things are enumerated, m often means "besides the foregoing," "and :"

Biiru¹  $ni^2$ ,  $bud\bar{o}$ - $shu^3$   $ni^4$ , tansan- $sui^5$   $two^6$   $motte^7$  iki- $mash\bar{o}^8$ .

Lit. Besides² beer¹, besides⁴ wine³, we-will-go⁶ carrying¹ soda-water⁶, i.e. "We will take beer, claret, and soda-water.\*"

<sup>\*</sup> Tansan-sui, lit. "carbonic acid water," really differs somewhat from soda-water proper.

Hana<sup>1</sup>  $va^2$  sakura<sup>8</sup>  $ni^4$ , hito<sup>5</sup>  $va^6$  bushi<sup>7</sup>. (A proverb.) "The cherry is the chief of flowers, and the warrior the chief of men."

Lit. As-for<sup>2</sup> flowers<sup>1</sup>, (the best is) the cherry-blossoms<sup>3</sup>; and-to-the-foregoing-it-may-be-added-that<sup>4</sup>, as-for<sup>6</sup> human-beings<sup>5</sup>, (the best are) warriors<sup>7</sup>.

#### NO.

¶ 110. No means "of," or denotes the possessive case:

America<sup>1</sup> no<sup>2</sup> Daitāryō<sup>3</sup>. { "The President<sup>3</sup> of <sup>2</sup> the United States<sup>1</sup>."

Neko<sup>1</sup> no<sup>2</sup> tsume<sup>3</sup>. "A cat'1s<sup>2</sup> claws<sup>3</sup>."

Ari' no<sup>2</sup> mama<sup>3</sup>. (Ari is) "Lit. "Way of being," verb aru, "to be.")

Katta bakari no shina. Bought only 's article. ("Something I have only just bought." (More lit. "An article of quite recent buying.")

We have already noticed, when treating of the postposition ga, the genitive origin of many apparently nominative expressions in Japanese. The same tendency is exemplified by no, though less frequently in the Colloquial than in the Written Language, thus:

Kisha no tsūkō suru toki, senro ("It is dangerous to cross the line when the train is passing." (accus.) as-for-crossing, (is) dangerous. (More lit. "at the time of the passing of the gozaimasŭ.)

¶ 111. No is used in attributive phrases either in lieu of, or suffixed to, the other postpositions, it being a rule that none of the postpositions excepting no can connect two nouns in such phrases. An example or two will make this clearer:

- (1) Kono ura ni ike ga gozaimasŭ. S "There is a pond This back in, pond (nom.) is. at the back of this."
- (2) Kono ura no ike w.i, asō { "The pond at the back gozaimasŭ. of this is shallow."
- (3) Kuni kara dempō ga kimashĭta. { "I have received a telegram (nom.) has-come. } "I have received a telegram from home."
- (4) Kuni kara no dempō. "A telegram from home."

In the above predicative phrases (the first and the third), each English preposition is rendered by the Japanese post-position properly corresponding to it. But turn the phrase attributively (the second and fourth), and no either supplants, or is suffixed to, that postposition (no for ni in the second, kara no for kara in the fourth).

In this manner no, "of," comes to express almost every idea of relation; or rather all the various ideas of relation come to be summed up by the Japanese mind under the one idea of "of;" thus:

Atami no onsen.

Fuji no yuki.

" Nichi-Nichi" no shasetsu.

Oya no mo.

Heirva no dampan.

Korera-byō no yobō.

Hanashi no aite.

"The hot springs at Atami."

"The snow on Fuji."

\ "A leading article in the "Daily News."

"The mourning for a parent."

"Deliberations about peace."

" Precautions against cholera."

"Some one to talk to."

Even the idea of apposition finds its place under this heading, for instance:

Segare no Tarō.

"My son Tarō."

Indeed apposition is often expressed in English itself by a similar idiom with "of," as when we say

"The province of Yamato." Yamato no kuni.

¶ 112. No is used substantively with the meaning of the English word "one" or "ones" (see also ¶ 137), thus:

Warui no. "A bad one." Fōbu na no. "A solid one."

N. B. For the na of jobu na, see ¶ 197.

Iku tabi mo mita no desŭ. { "It is a thing I have seen any number of times."

Under this heading, note the following specimens of a curious idiom:

Yūbin-gitte¹ no² furui³ no⁴, as lit. as possible, "old³ ones⁴ of² postage stamps¹," i.e. "stamps that are old," hence "some old stamps."

Kwashi 1 no² shinki 8 ni 4 yaita 5 no 6, as lit. as possible, "in 4 newness 8 have-burnt 5 one 6 of 2 cake 1, i.e. "a cake that has been freshly baked," or more simply, "a freshly baked cake."

There is just the shadow of a shade of difference in intention between these circumlocutions and the simpler expressions

Furui kitte. "Old stamps."

Shinki ni yaita kwashi. "A freshly baked cake."

The circumlocutory form with the two *nos* seems to contain a tacit reference to stamps that are *not* old and cakes that are *not* freshly baked,—a sort of emphatic dwelling on the ideas of oldness and of freshness respectively.

¶ 113. No often serves to form expressions corresponding to English adjectives, as Nihon no, "of Japan," i.e. "Japanese" (see ¶ 62, and ¶ 197 et seq.). Sometimes, in

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quite familiar talk, it occurs as a final particle with a certain emphatic force, corresponding to that of the Colloquial English phrase "and so there!" or "and what do you think of that!" A good example of this occurs towards the end of this Handbook, in Chap. II of the "Botan-dōrō," in the conversation between O Yone and Shijō, where attention is drawn to it in a foot-note.

¶ 114. At other times,—and this is a very favourite idiom,—no is employed as a kind of equivalent for the word koto meaning "act," "fact." This construction is specially apt to occur in conjunction with the substantive verb da or desŭ, and is generally best rendered in English by the phrase "it is that," or "is it that?" For instance, a man has made an appointment, but a note comes from him about the time he is expected to arrive. One of the bystanders, observing this, says:

Konai no darō. { "I suppose it is that he will-not-come fact probably-is. { isn't coming."

N. B. Though the sense is properly that of koto, may not no, after all, be here derived from the word mono by apocope of the first syllable? For notwithstanding what has been said in ¶ 54 concerning the distinction to be drawn between koto and mono, a certain amount of confusion in the use of the two words can scarcely be denied; and as a matter of fact, one not infrequently hears such expressions as konai  $mon[o] dar\bar{o}$ .

In such contexts, the word no may be, and in familiar conversation generally is, clipped of its vowel, so that it sinks into the single letter n'. Thus the above example might equally well be  $Konai\ n'\ dar\bar{o}$ , or more politely  $Konai\ n'\ desh\bar{o}$  (conf.  $\P$  343-5).

Nani vo suru n' desŭ? "What is it that you are What (accus.) do fact is? doing?"

Massugu ni iku n' desŭ ka? { "Am I to go straight on?" more lit. "Is it that I am to go straight on?"

Aru no? { "Is there?" Is fact? " Do you mean to say that there is?"

N. B. As shown in this last example, no cannot be clipped of its vowel when standing at the very end of a sentence.

The exact force of no preceding the verb da or  $des\check{u}$  may be practically exemplified by comparing, say, Nani  $voshimas\check{u} \geq "$  What are you doing?" with Nani vosuru n'  $des\check{u} \geq "$  What is it that you are doing?"

¶ 115. The verb da, "is," and the postposition no combine to form the word dano, which serves for purposes of enumeration. Dano must, like the Latin que, be repeated after each of the items enumerated, thus:

Shishi dano, tora dano, zō ) "Lions, tigers, elephants, dano, rakuda dano. and camels."

There is a difference between dano and ni (see ¶ 109) used enumeratively. Ni is simply copulative, dano conveys the idea of a multiplicity of objects. Thus, when a Japanese says sake dano, sakana dano, kwashi dano, he means to convey to his hearers the idea of a variously assorted feast, including possibly other good things besides the liquor, fish, and cakes enumerated. But when he says sake ni, sakana ni, kwashi, he speaks of just those three and no more. Observe, moreover, that the word dano s somewhat vulgar. The polite equivalent is de gozaimasŭ no, but this is less often used. No sometimes serves as an enumerative after other than the substantive verbs. Thus:

ga warukatta 10, "Talk of feeling Mental-feelings (nom.), were-bad and frightened and so forth, osoroshii to. me 122 I have had a rough that, fearful eves and time of it. I can tell you." having-met (1) have-come. (Famil.)

N. B. No, in its proper sense of "of," is sometimes replaced in formal speech by the Chinese word teki Hij, properly "a target or bull'seve." but used for "of" in modern Mandarin. Sometimes the two are used together, as seiji-teki kakumei, or seiji-teki no kakumei, lit. "a revolution of politics," i.e. "a political revolution." With ni suffixed, teki corresponds to English adverbs in "ly," as hikaku-teki ni, "comparatively."

#### SHI.

¶ 116. Shi, a postposition which is not capable of translation into English, has a sort of enumerative force, and serves as a kind of pause, thus:

Kono nikai wa. Fuii mo This second-storey as-for, Fujiyama also mieru shi, umi mo mieru shi; makoto see Fujiyama and you sea also is-visible; truth ni ii keshiki desu. in, good view

"From the second storey here you can can see the sea, truly a beautiful view."

Shi is frequently appended to the verbal form in mai (the "improbable present or future"). Thus, when bandying words with a jinrikisha-man who should attempt to make an overcharge, one might say:

Hajimete kuruma For-the-first-time vehicle (accus.). "You don't imagine, do tanomi ya shimai shi. you? that this is the first time as-for, (I) probably-do-not, I have hired a jinrikisha, and sõba mo also that I don't know the proper for-the-most-part market-price fare!" shitte wa! iru knowing (emph.)

Occasionally shi seems to terminate a sentence; but this is only because the speaker, after finishing the first clause,

finds himself at a loss concerning the second, and so perforce leaves the sentence unfinished.

N. B. Do not confound the postposition shi with shi the "indefinite form" of the verb suru, "to do," which appears in such idioms as mi mo shi, kiki mo suru, "one both sees it and hears it."

#### TO.

¶ 117. To originally had the sense of our demonstrative pronoun "that," but it now has the sense of our conjunction "that:"

Uso da to imasŭ. \ '' He says that it is a lie.''

Honto da to omoimasŭ. Truth is that think. I think that it is true."

N. B. Originally therefore the sense was: "It is a lie. He says that." "It is truth. I think that." The conversion of the demonstrative pronoun into the conjunction came about gradually in the case of to, as in the case of its English equivalent "that."

In the above, and in most similar phrases, English idiom generally prefers to omit the word "that;" but to cannot so be omitted in Japanese. The following are instances of to meaning literally "that," but not lending itself to expression in idiomatic English:

Omae san no na vva,
You Mr. 's name as-for,
nan to iu ka? (Said to a comwhat that say ? mor person.)

"What is your name?"
more lit. "As for the name of
Mr. you, what [do people]
say that it is?"

"Tōkyō Maru" to Maru," more lit. "A vessel [of mōsu fune.
say vessel.

"Tōkyō Maru" to Maru," more lit. "A vessel [of which people] say that it is the 'Tōkyō Maru."
(Conf. p. 58 for this important idiom.)

Similarly in the case of such onomatopoetic adverbs as hatto, kitto, patatto, etc., where the to (strengthened into tto) is, properly speaking, a separate word, thus:

 $Ha^{1}tto^{2}$  omoimashĭta<sup>3</sup>.  $\begin{cases} \text{```I started,''} \quad more \quad lit. \\ \text{thought}^{3} \text{ that}^{2} \text{ [it is] } ha^{1} \text{ ?''} \end{cases}$ 

TO.

Nochihodo<sup>1</sup> kitto<sup>2</sup> mairimasŭ<sup>3</sup>. { "I will certainly<sup>2</sup> come<sup>3</sup> later-on<sup>1</sup>."

Pata¹tto² ochimashĭta³. "It fell³ flop¹."

Under this heading, too, comes the idiomatic use of to at the end of a sentence; for some verb must always be mentally supplied after it. Take, for instance, the common colloquial phrase Nan to 2 "What did you (or he) say?" standing for Nan to osshatta 2 (polite), or Nan to itta 2 (famil.)

¶ 118. To itte, "saying that;" to omotte, "thinking that;" to kiite, "asking (lit. hearing) whether," and similar gerundial phrases, are often contracted to tote (vulgarly tte):

Honourable hot-water to, (I) go tote, demashita. (saying) that, went-out tote

Tote frequently has a sort of oppositive force, as in the following examples, where it may be best parsed as standing for to itte mo, "even saying that," i.e. "even supposing that." (Conf. also ¶ 289.)

gakumon Ikura shita How-much study have-done "However much a man okonai ga may study (more lit. saying conduct (nom.) that a man may study how even-saying-that, warukereba, nanni mo much), nothing will come of if-is-bad, anything it if he is badly behaved." narimasen. becomes-not.

Zōhei-kyoku zwa, muyami ni
Mint as-for, recklessly
itta kara tote,
went because even-saying-that,
haiken zwa dekimasen.
adoring-look as-for, forthcomes-not,

- N. B. Women and the lower classes often end a sentence by tte, when they should says to iimasŭ or to iimashita.
- ¶ 119. To sometimes means "and." When it has this sense, it is, like the Latin que, generally repeated after each noun. Even when not so repeated, it always belongs to the word immediately preceding it, not to the word following it. Europeans often make the mistake of commencing a clause with to, in imitation of the European idiom which introduces clauses by the conjunction "and." But this sounds ludicrous in Japanese:

Anata to, watakŭshi to. "You and I."

Fŭransu to, Doitsu to. "France and Germany."

Certain idiomatic uses of to may best be classed under this head, thus:

Musüko to fütari.
Son and two-persons.

Ano hito to ikimashita.
That person and (I) went.

Okiru to sugu mi.
Rise and immediately.

Kore to vva chigaimasü.
This and as-for, (it) differs.

"Two counting my son."

"I went with him."

"As soon as I got up."

"It is different from this."

Observe also such adverbial phrases as shi-awase to, "luckily."

¶ 120. To sometimes comes to mean "if" or "when." It has this sense only after the present tense of verbs and adjectives, thus:

Sō suru to, shikararemasŭ. \ So do if, get-scolded. \ \ you do that." \ Sugu | ikanai to go-not if, \ \ "You will get scolded if you late if you late if you

okuremasŭ. don't go at once."

Sō mōshimasŭ to, sugu ni so said when, immediately simmediately gave me a shikararemashita.

¶ 121. Observe the use of to in such phrases as the following, where it is not susceptible of any English rendering:

Chiri tsumotte, yama to "Dust accumulating becomes a mountain."

naru. becomes.

Chiri tsumotte, yama to "Dust accumulating becomes a mountain."

(A proverb used to inculcate the importance of little things.)

Mizu ga dete, nizva Water (nom.) issuing, garden ga umi to natte shimaima-(nom.) sea has-become.

The garden has become a perfect sea through the overflowing " (of the neighbouring stream, etc.).

Observe the strong affirmative force of to (generally followed by mo) at the end of an assertion, thus:

Arimasŭ ka ?—Arimasŭ to course there are!" or, "I should just think there were!"

To wa or tote sometimes replaces to mo in such strongly affirmative phrases.—For to mo and to wa iedomo in concessive phrases, see  $\P$  288 and  $\P$  289.

### WA.

¶ 122. Wa was originally a noun signifying "thing," hence "that which," "he, she, or they who;" but it is now used as a separative or isolating particle, corresponding in some measure to the French "quant à," or, when repeated antithetically, to the Greek  $\mu \acute{e} \nu$  and  $\delta \acute{e}$ . Perhaps the most perfect idea of the character of a Japanese word or phrase isolated by means of wa is given by such French constructions as "Lui, qu'est ce qu'il en dit?" "Ces gens qui viennent d'arriver, personne n'en sait rien,"—where the

words "lui" and "ces gens qui viennent d'arriver" are, as it were, lifted out of the regular current of the sentence and set in a place apart. "As for," "with regard to," "so far as......is concerned," are the most explicit English equivalents of vea, which has accordingly been rendered by "as for" in most of the literal translations of the examples scattered throughout the present work. But in practice its force is generally sufficiently indicated in an English translation by an emphasis on the equivalent of the word to which zva is suffixed, or by placing that word at the beginning of the sentence or clause. A slight pause, which may sometimes be indicated by a comma, is usually made after zua:

Budō-shu wo sŭkoshi atatamete,\ "Warm the claret de a little; but so far Wine (accus.) a-little warming, wa sono mama as the beer is concerned, that will do as-for, that condition voroshii. as it is." (is) good.

Konnichi wa, yoi\ "To-day it is fine weather." To-day as-for, good (i.e. "Whatever it may have been other days, to-day at least tenki de gozaimasŭ. (it) is. it is fine.")

Oki wa, yohodo nami gay Offing as-for, plentifully waves(nom.) "Out at sea the waves arai yō desŭ kara, fune seem pretty rough; so rough appearance is because, vessel probably the vessel will demasumai. not sail." as-for, probably-won't-go-out.

Ima wa te-sŭki de gozaimasŭ. leisure." Now as-for, hand-empty am.

"This water comes from the aqueduct." Koko no mizu wa, Koko no mizu wa, Here 's water as-for, (Not "the water here is an aqueduct" (!) suido desu. as the beginner might suppose, if he miswater-road

took wa for a sign of the nominative case.)

Kore de wa komarimasŭ. ("This being so, I am in a quandary." (The de wa may be contracted into ja; see \$\\ \\$ 89.)

Tabako wa nomimasen.\*

Tabacco as-for, drink-not.

Tabacco as-for, drink-not.

Tabacco as-for, drink-not.

Yoku was zonjimasen. Well as-for, (I) know-not. 

"I don't know well."

Kore wa wasei, are
This as-for, Japan-make; that
wa hakurai (de gozaimasŭ). that is an imported article."
as-for, importation (is)

Nishi zva Fuji, kita West as-for, Fujiyama; zva Tsŭkuba de gozaimasŭ. as-for, Tsukuba (it) is.

Kita north Fujiyama, to the north Mount Tsŭkuba."

¶ 123. In an interrogative sentence, wa would sometimes seem to be the means of asking a question; but an ellipsis must always be supplied. For instance, Inu wa? pronounced in an interrogative tone of voice, practically signifies "Where is the dog?" But literally it is, "As for the dog, (where is he?)"

Wa also sometimes occurs at the end of a sentence with a certain interjectional, exclamatory, or emphatic force. This idiom is heard only in quite familiar talk, and especially from the lips of women; thus:

Watashi wa, kono hō ga ii wa! "I like this Me as-for, this side (nom.) (is) good indeed! one, I do."

¶ 124. The peculiar power of wa to separate or limit ideas is well shown in some of the negative phrases given in the Chapter on Syntax, ¶ 433, and also in such favourite verbal idioms as the following:

<sup>\*</sup> For tabako vvo nomu, some substitute tabako vvo suu, "to inhale (or "such") tobacco."

Aru ni wa arimasu ga, sŭkunō "There are some, is in as-for, is whereas, scarce gozaimasŭ. (or Aru koto wa, etc.) it is true, but they are scarce."

Ame wa futte imasŭ ka?—Furu ni Rain as-for, falling is ? "Is it raining? Falls in futte imasu ga, hidoi koto —Yes, it is rainas-for, falling whereas, intense fact ing, but it is not wa gozaimasen. raining hard." as-for is-not.

Kotowatte okimashita. Refusing (I) put. } "I refused."

Kotowatte wa oki- { "I refused, but..." (the sentence mashita ga.... \ remaining unfinished.)

The former of these two phrases states the fact of the refusal, and nothing more. The latter emphasises it; but the emphasis is the emphasis of hesitation, as if one should say, "I did indeed refuse, but my refusal was tempered by politeness," or "I left myself a loophole for taking back the refusal," etc., etc.

Tsŭkai va kita ga, tōnin "Oh! yes; a Messenger as-for, came although, personva ki va shinai.
in-question as-for, coming as-for, does-not.

"Oh! yes; a messenger came, but the man himself didn't."

Very often we hear ki wa shinai (and similar constructions with other verbs), where simple konai, etc., would seem sufficiently clear according to European ideas. But the Japanese prefer the more emphatic form with wa, whenever any mental reservation or allusion implies the existence somewhere or other of contradiction or opposition to the idea which is actually expressed, as illustrated in the two foregoing examples.

N. B. When thus suffixed to the indefinite form of a verb (ki is the indefinite form of the irregular verb kuru, "to come"), wa is often pronounced ya; thus ki ya shinai for ki wa shinai.

WA. 89

¶ 125. A consideration of the foregoing examples, and indeed of those which any page of Japanese affords, will convince the student that wa is not, as some European writers have erroneously imagined, a sign of the nominative case. The following example, which is the last we shall quote, illustrates this fact almost to the point of absurdity. It is race-day, let us suppose. You meet a friend walking in the direction of the race-course, and you say to him:

Anata wa, keiba desŭ ka? You as-for, horse-race is?

i.e. if interpreted on the hypothesis of wa being a sign of the nominative case, "Are you a horse-race?" (!) The proper meaning of course is "As for you, is it the races (that you are going to)?" or more simply "Off to the races, eh?" The utmost that can be said with regard to the so-called nominative force of wa is that the word followed by wa must, in not a few instances, be rendered by a nominative in English, though it is never properly a nominative in the Japanese construction. The nearest approach made by the Colloquial Japanese Language to the possession of a nominative particle is in the particle ga (see p. 66). But even this, as has been there explained, originally meant "of," that is to say, was a sign of the genitive, not of the nominative.

¶ 126. Europeans often find it hard to decide whether to say wa or ga; and it is true that two Japanese phrases, one with wa, the other with ga, must often be rendered by the same English words. There is, however, a slight difference of intention. When (if we may so phrase it) a speaker has in his mind a predicate and gives it a subject, he uses ga; when the subject is uppermost in his mind and he gives it a predicate, he uses wa. As a general empirical

rule, seemingly but not really contradicting the above enunciation of principle, the use of ga necessitates emphasis on the subject in the English translation, whereas the use of wa necessitates emphasis on the predicate. The Japanese themselves, as stated in ¶ 27, are not much given to the use of such vocal emphasis. They prefer a change in the actual words.

To take an example:—if you are expecting your Japanese teacher, the servant will probably inform you of his arrival by saying Sensei wa miemashita, "The teacher has come" (lit. appeared). The etymological sense is, "As for the teacher, he has come." That is to say, the teacher (subject) was in the servant's thoughts as a daily visitant, and now here he is. But should the same personage arrive in the middle of the night or at some other unusual hour, the servant will say Sensei ga miemashita; i.e. "The teacher has come,"-more properly and etymologically, "The coming of the teacher." In the servant's mind his coming at such an hour (predicate) is the curious and important thing. So too of an unexpected death one would say, for instance, Hayashi san ga shinimashita, "Mr. Hayashi is dead." But if he had long been known to be past recovery, the phrase would be Hayashi san wa shinimashita, "Mr. Hayashi is dead." Similarly Kore ga ii means "This is good;" whereas Kore wa ii means "This is good." The distinction flows naturally from the original force of the two particles, Kore ga ii being properly "the goodness of this," while Kore wa ii is properly "as for this, it is good."

In comparative sentences the rule is quite simple. The subject takes ga, while the word denoting the thing with which the subject is compared is generally separated off by means of wa: thus: Kore yori wa, are ga ii, "That is better than this,"

- ¶ 127. The student who has followed this explanation with due regard to the original genitive force of ga, will perceive that there is nothing specially emphatic about ga in the Japanese idiom, though an emphasis on the word preceding it is its nearest equivalent in English. On the other hand, wa is emphatic and separative in Japanese, though there will generally be no emphasis on the corresponding portion of the phrase in English, when the English noun is a nominative. Wa, however, corresponds to an emphasised word in English whenever that word is not a nominative, as shown by several of the examples given above.
- ¶ 128. It may be asked: what is the rule in the case of two nominatives in antithetical clauses? The answer is that either ga may be used in both, or else wa may be used in both. Thus the fourth example on p. 87, Kore wa wasei, are wa hakurai, "This is of native make, that is an imported article," might be altered to Kore ga wasei, are ga hakurai. The effect would be to throw the emphasis more strongly on the two subjects than on the two predicates.

 $N.\ B.$  Sometimes wa, occurring after an adjective in ku, must be rendered by "if," thus:

Voroshiku vva, dekakemashi. 5 "If you are all right, let us Is-good if, will-go-out. (start."

Elegant speakers sometimes prefer to say yoroshikuba, which is the form employed in the Book Language.

### WO.

 $\P$  129. Wo is the nearest Japanese equivalent to a sign of the accusative case, thus:

Tamago vo uderu.

Eggs (accus.) to-boil.

To boil eggs."

Yome veo Bride (accus.) "To receive a bride," i. e. "to marry." (Of course said only of the man. A girl's marrying is generally called yome ni iku, lit. "to go as a bride,")

Sonna kake-ne zvo Such excessive-price (accus.) itcha, komarimasŭ. as-for-saying, (I)am-hampered. "I don't know what to do if you ask such an exorbitant price," or more simply, "You should not ask such an exorbitant price."

Hito no kuru 700
Person 's comes (accus.)

matsu.
to-await.

¶ 130. Originally 200 was nothing more than an interjection serving, as it were, to interrupt the sentence and draw attention to the word to which it was suffixed. We must therefore not be surprised at its absence in many cases where European languages could not dispense with the accusative case. It is not that the 200 has been dropped in such contexts, but that it never was there, thus:

Meshi kuu toki. (famil.) { "When eating rice," i.e. "When dining."

Before the verb suru, "to do," wo is mostly absent, as:

Hon-yaku suru. \[ \begin{aligned} \text{" To make a translation,"} \text{" To translate."} \end{aligned}

Saisoku suru. "To do urgency," i.e. "to urge on."

¶ 131. The student will sometimes meet with, and probably be puzzled by, sentences like the following:

Daijin-gata vo hajime,
Minister (accus.) beginning (trans.)
sho-kwan-in made soroimashita.
all-officials till were-complete.

"All the officials were there, from the ministers of state downwards."

Here the first clause literally means "placing the ministers of state at the beginning." It is therefore not unnatural that the word Daijin gata, being what we should term an accusative, should take zvo.

¶ 132. In the Written Language, wo is often used adversatively at the end of a clause. But this is rare in the Colloquial, which prefers to use ga for that purpose, as already explained in ¶ 93, p. 67.

### VA.

¶ 133. Ya is an interrogative and exclamatory particle of constant occurrence in the Written Language. In the Colloquial it is less used, excepting in such contexts as Haru ya! "I say, Haru!" said when calling a person by name. It also occurs corruptly for zva after the indefinite forms of verbs, as explained in the N. B. on p. 88. Sometimes it has the sense of "and" or "or," thus:

Tonari no uchi de, inu ya) "They would seem to Next-door 's house at, dog and ga sŭki to miete, seeming, fond that takŭsan ni katte orimasŭ. quantity in rearing are.

... va nani ka.

be very fond of dogs and cats in the house next door; for they keep quite a number of them."

... or something or other."

### YE.\*

¶ 134. Ye means "to," "towards," hence sometimes "at:"

Gakko ye o ide desŭ ka ? { "Do you go School to, honourable exit is ? } school?"

<sup>\*</sup>Some good authorities prefer the orthography E. In Classical Japanese the word is spelt  $\wedge$  (he). We follow Hepburn's and Brinkley's dictionaries.

Sutensho ye iki-gake ni, going-while denshin-kyoku ye chotto telegraph-office at, just yorimasŭ. will-stop.

Koko ye oite oite kudasai.
Here to putting putting condescend. { "Please put it down here."

N. B. The second *oite* is the same verb as the first, but has only the force of an auxiliary (see  $\P$  298).

### YORI.

¶ 135. Yori means "from," "since," "than:"

Kamigata yori. \( \) \(

Issakujitsu yori.

neighbourhood),

"Since the day before yesterday."

Nani yori kekkō na o Anything than, splendid honourable did present." (More lit. shina zvo, arigatō gozaimasŭ. am. for your more-splendid-than-anything present.)

#### POSTPOSITIONS COMBINED.

¶ 136. Postpositions may be combined in Japanese, much as in English we say "in at," "in by, "away from," etc. Some instances have already occurred in the preceding portions of this chapter. Here are a few more:—

Go shimpai ni vaa "It is not worth your troubling about." (Ni vaa is more emphatic than ni alone would be. For a still more emphatic construction with ni vaa, see ¶ 124.)

Oshii koto ni wa.... "It is a pity that...."

V. B. Phrases of this kind are idiomatic and in constant use.

Twelve-hours than even, late natcha ikemasen.

as-for-becoming, is-no-go.

Twelve-hours than even, late than twelve o'clock."

Ano hito to wa, goku
That person with as-for, very
kon-i de gozaimasŭ.
intimate is.

"He is very intimate with that man."

Ano hen mo, moto That neighbourhood also, origin to zva yohodo hirakemashita. with as-for, very much has-opened-out. "That neighbourhood also is much improved compared with what it used to be."

Isogazu to mo yoroshii. (Familiar) { "You needn't Hurrying-not even, (is) good.

Kuru to ka iimashita. Comes that ? said. { "If I mistake not, he said he would come."

Kao de mo o arai nasaru ka ? { "Will you wash Face even, honourably to-wash deign ? { your face, Sir?"

N. B. De mo is often thus used in a manner not needing translation into English, though retaining the force of "even" in Japanese.

Konnichi made no 's "I will do the accounts kanjō zvo shimashō. accounts (accus.) will-do. "I will do the accounts (More lit. the till-to-day's accounts.)

Sore made no koto ni That till 's thing to itashimashō. (I) will-make.

"I will let it alone," or "Don't let us think about it any more."

Kore made ni mita koto
This till in, saw act
ga nakatta.
(nom.) was-not.

"I had never seen it till
now." (Made ni is stronger
than made alone would be.)

N. B. Made ni often corresponds to our word "by" in such phrases as myōnichi made ni, "by to-morrow;" hachi-ji made ni, "by (i.e. not later than) eight o'clock." The Japanese mind does not clearly apprehend the shade of difference which, with us, separates "by" from "till" in idioms of this class. Compare the N. B. to ¶ 100 for a case of a somewhat similar character.

¶ 137. No followed by other postpositions generally has the substantive force of the English word "one" or "ones," already exemplified on p. 78, thus:

Motto ii no zva arimasen ka? { "Haven't you any More good ones as-for, are-not ? { better ones ? "

Mō chitto ii no wo More a-little good ores (accus.)

misete kudasai.

showing condescend.

"Please show me some rather better ones."

O(kii) no ga hoshii. Big one of (am) desirous. G(am) "I want a big one."

Kō iu no mo hayarimasŭ Such ones also are-fashionable kara, goran nasai. because, august-glance condescend.

This kind too is fashion-able. So please look at them."

Motto yasui no ni shiyō.

More cheap one to will-probably-do.

Shiyō.

(a cheaper one."

¶ 138. Though the no of no ni may, as in the last example, be used in the sense of "one" or "ones," it more frequently signifies "whereas," "while," "when," It may be known to have this acceptation by observing that a verb (or an adjective equivalent to a verb) precedes it, as in the following sentence:

Moto no mama de yokatta
Origin 's manner by, was-good
no n, naze jun zvo
whereas, why order (accus.)
naoshita?
have amended?

"Why have you changed their order, when it did quite well as it was?"
(Said e.g. to a servant.)

As here exemplified, no ni occurs chiefly in phrases expressive of censure or regret. Conf.  $\P$  287 for further details concerning this important idiom.

¶ 139. Observe that wo and wa, when combined, change by euphony into woba, which is used to denote a specially

emphatic accusative; also that de va is often contracted into ja, as has already been incidentally mentioned in ¶ 89.  $\Im a$ , owing perhaps to its being a modern corruption, sounds somewhat more familiar than de va, but the two are always interchangeable:—

Kimono ni abura woba kakemashita. { "I have stained Clothes on, oil (accus.) have-placed. (my clothes with oil."

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S\bar{o} \ de \ wa \ nai. \\ S\bar{o} \ ja \ nai. \end{array} \right\} \ \ \text{(famil.)}$$
 
$$S\bar{o} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} de \ wa \ gozaimasen. \\ ja \end{array} \right. \ \ \text{(polite)} \right\}$$
 "That is not so;" "no."

¶ 140. Occasionally an ellipsis must be supplied. Thus to wa is sometimes equivalent to to in mono wa, as in the following sentence:

 $Go^1$ - $j\bar{o}^2$   $to^3$   $to^3$   $to^4$  (the-thing-of-which people say) that (it is)  $go^1$ - $j\bar{o}^2$ , what is it they  $des\ddot{u}^0$   $ka^{10}$ ?  $talk^7$  of i.e. "What is meant by the term go- $j\bar{o}$ ?" (See Vocabulary.)

### QUASI-POSTPOSITIONS.

¶ 141. What may be termed quasi-postpositions are really nouns preceded by the postposition no, "of," and used in a sense less concrete than that originally belonging to them. Such are, for instance:

no hoka, "exterior of," i.e. "besides" (metaph.).
no kage, "shade of," ," behind."
no kawari, "change of," ," "instead of."
no mukō, "opposite of," ,, "opposite, "beyond."

```
"interior of."
                                  "inside, in."
no naka,
                             i.e.
no shita.
            "lower part of,"
                                  "below."
                                  "outside," "beyond."
            "exterior of,"
no soto.
                                  "because of."
no tame,
            "sake of."
                                 "in order to."
                                  "inside," "in."
            "interior of."
no uchi,
                                  "on," "upon,"
            "top of,"
no ue.
            "back of,"
                                  "behind."
no ushiro.
            "side of,"
                                  "beside" (by the side).
no waki,
```

## We thus get such phrases as:

Ie no uchi.

Hei no soto.

"Beyond the fence."

Kura no naka.

"In (side) the godown."

Omoi no hoka.

"Outside of thought," i.e. "unexpectedly."

Hanashi no tsuide.

"Occasion of talking," i.e. "in the course of conversation."

Ano yama no kage.

"Behind those mountains."

¶ 142. When followed by a verb, the quasi-postpositions take ni after them (less often ye), except in the case of the substantive verb "to be," which requires de, unless when signifying "there is," etc. (De aru is generally contracted to da; de gozaimasŭ to desŭ, and so on; see p. 64). Thus:

To-dana no naka ni Cupboard 's inside in, haitte imasŭ. entering is. "It is in the cupboard." (One might equally well say Todana no naka desŭ.)

Tsükue no ue ni notte imasen
Table 's top on, riding isn't
ka?—Tsükue no ue desü.
Table 's top (it) is.

"Isn't it on the table?
—Yes, it is."

Kono hoka ni, mada) "There are various kinds besides This-of besides, 1, still (this one."

iro-iro gozaimasŭ. various-kinds are.

(For kono = " of this," see p. 54; similarly for sono immediately below.)

Ie no soto ye deru. To go out-of-doors. House 's outside to

Kawa no mukō de gozaimasŭ. { "It is on the other River 's opposite sale (it) is. } side of the river."

Note also the idiom sono kawari ni, lit. "change of that," used in the sense of "on the other hand."

¶ 143. When prefixed attributively to a noun, this class of words changes the ni into no, in accordance with the rule explained in ¶ 111, thus:

Tansu no naka no kimono. ("The clothes in the Chest-of-drawers 's interior is clothes. chest of drawers."

Kono hoka no shina-mono. This-of exterior 's articles.

"The other things besides these."

. Mon no waki no momiji wa, Gate 's side 's maple as-for, maple-tree by the gate rippa ni kōyō shimashita. splendidly red-leaf has-done.

"The leaves of the have become beautifully

¶ 144. When a member of this class of words follows a verb, its force changes slightly, so as to correspond to that of an English adverb or conjunction, thus:

hi ga kuremashita. day (nom.) darkened.

Kare kore suru uchi ni, this do while, this, night came on."

(Note the idiom kare kore, "that and this," or, as we should say, "this, that, and the other.")

Sō suru hoka, shikata So do except, way-of-doing ga nai. (nom.) isn't.

"There is nothing else to be done."

Kinō furimashĭta kawari
Yesterday rained change
ni, kyō zva ii o
in, to-day as-for, good honourable
tenki (de gozaimasŭ).
weather (is).

Whereas it rained yesterday's rain),
it is beautiful weather to-day."

¶ 145. There are also quasi-postpositions formed by m and the gerunds of verbs, as m atatte, "just at," from ataru, "to strike;" m shitagatte, "according to," from shitagau, "to conform;" m yotte, "owing to," from yoru, "to rely;" thus:

Kyaku ni taishite shitsurei desŭ. (or do) that to a guest."

Anata ni taishite, mōshiwake ga You to confronting excuse (nom.) gazaimasen, is-not.

"I know not how to excuse myself to you."

Amari nyūhi wo kake-sugimashite,
Too-much expense (accus.) having-put-exceeded,
ima ni itatte kōkwai shite imasŭ.
now to reaching, repentance doing am.

"I am sorry
now for my
extravagance."

Shinnen ga kimasŭ ni yotte,
New-year (nom.) comes to owing,
o kazari
honourable decorations (accus.)
itasankereba narimasen.
if-we-don't-make. (it isn't.

## CHAPTER VI.

### The Numeral.

#### CARDINAL NUMBERS.

- ¶ 146. In European grammars the numerals are generally disposed of in a few lines, as forming a mere subdivision of the adjective. In Japanese the numeral is rather a species of noun, and a species of noun with marked peculiarities of its own, necessitating its treatment as a separate part of speech.
- ¶ 147. There are two sets of numerals, one of native and the other of Chinese origin. The native set is now obsolete except for the first ten numbers, which are as follows:—

### SUBSTANTIVE FORM. FORM USED IN COMPOUNDS. ENUMERATIVE FORM.

```
I hitotsu
                  hito(-tsŭki) ( I month )
 2 f ŭtatsu
                 f\bar{u}ta(-,,) (2 months) f\bar{u}
 3 mitsu
                   mi(-,,)(3)
                                         mĭ
4 votsu
                   yo(- ,, ) ( 4
                                         yō
 5 itsutsu
                  itsu(- ,, ) ( 5
                                       ) itsu
                                 ,, ) mū
6 mutsu
                  mu(-,,)(6)
                                 ,, ) nana
                nana(- ,, ) ( 7
7 nanatsu
8 yatsu
                  ya(- ,, ) ( 8
                                  ,, ) yā
q kokonotsu
               kokono(- ,, ) ( 9
                                       ) ko(ko)no
10 to
                   to(- ,, ) (10
                                          tō
```

N. B. It will assist the memory to notice that the even numbers are formed from the odds of which they are the doubles by a process of vowel-strengthening, the consonants being originally the same, though slightly disfigured in modern pronunciation, thus:

1 hito (anciently probably pito,) 2 futa (anciently probably puta).

3 mi, 6 mu.

4 yo, 8 ya. 5 itsu (anciently itu), 10 to.

¶ 148. The substantive forms of the numerals may either be used quite alone, or they may follow the noun, or lastly they may take the postposition no, "of," and precede the noun. They very rarely precede a noun without the intervention of no. Thus:—

Ikutsu gozaimasŭ ka?—Hitotsu. { "How many are How-many are ? — One."

Tsutsumi hitotsu, or Hitotsu no tsutsumi.

Mitsu de takŭsan (de gozaimashō). \ "Three will no three by, great-deal will-probably-be. \ doubt be plenty."

Yatsu de tarimasŭ ka? } "Will eight be enough?"

To bakari kudasai.
Ten about condescend.

"Please give me about ten."

Iki mo, kaeri mo, Going also returning also "Taking the same road there and back again."

- ¶ 149. The form used in compounds always precedes the noun to which it refers, as hito-tsūki, "one month;" fūta-hako, "two boxfuls;" mi-ban, "three nights."
- ¶ 150. The enumerative form is used in counting over things, e.g. a bundle of paper money, linen to be sent to the wash, etc.
- ¶ 151. Though the native Japanese numerals above "ten" are now obsolete for ordinary purposes, note that hatachi,

the old native word for "twenty," is still used in the sense of "twenty years of age, and that *chi*, "a thousand," and *yorozu*, "a myriad," or "ten thousand," are still retained in proper names and in a few idioms, e.g. *Chi-shima*, "the Thousand Isles," i.e. "the Kurile Islands;" *Yorozu-ya*, a favourite shop-name, probably originating in the fact of many sorts of articles being exposed for sale.

## ¶ 152. The set of numerals borrowed from the Chinese is:

I	ichi, rarely itsu	6	roku, rarely riku
2	ni, rarely ji	7	shichi
3	san	8	hachi
4	shi	9	ku, rarely kyū
5	go	10	$j\bar{u}$
1:	100 hvaku	LOOO sen	10.000 man or ba

N. B. Ichi also means "whole," "all," as ichi-nichi, "one day," but also "all day long." The native Japanese numeral hito, "one," has come to have the same secondary sense in certain cases, as hito-ban, "one night" or "all night."—The word  $ry\bar{o}$ , properly "both," is often substituted for ni.

## All the others are formed by combining these, thus:

II jū-ichi	20 <i>ni-jū</i>	29 ni-jū-ku
12 jū-ni	21 ni-jū-ichi	30 san-jū
13 jū-san	22 ni-jū-ni	40 <i>shi-jū</i>
14 jū-shi	23 ni-jū-san	50 <i>go-jū</i>
15 jū-go	24 ni-jū-shi	60 roku-jū
16 jū-roku	25 ni-jū-go	70 shĭchi-jū
17 jū-shĭchi	26 ni-jū-roku	80 hachi-jū
18 jū-hachi	27 ni-jū-shĭchi	90 <i>ku-jū</i>
19 jū-ku	28 ni-jū-hachi	100 hyaku or ip-pyaku (for ichi-hyaku)

200 ni-hyaku 300 sam-byaku 400 shi-hyaku
(for san hyaku)
500 go-hyaku 600 rop-pyaku (for roku hyaku)
700 shĭchi-hyaku 800 hap-pyaku (for hachi hyaku)
900 ku-hyaku 1,000 sen or is-sen (for ichi sen)
10,000 man or ichi-man 100,000 jū-man
1,000,000 hyaku-man 108 hyaku hachi

365 sam-byaku roku-jū-go 1907 is-sen ku-hyaku shǐchi 43,000,000 shi-sen sam-byaku-man

There is a term *oku* meaning 100,000,000. Multiples of *man* serve for lesser numbers, as in the last examples given.

¶ 153. The Chinese numerals are not often used independently. It is customary to make them precede a noun, with which they form a sort of compound, as *ichi-nen*, "one year;" *is-sun* (for *ichi sun*), "one inch."

In forming such combinations, note the category of letter-changes of which the following are examples:

"one chō\*" ch it-chō for ichi chō " hachi chō "eight chō" hat-chō " jū chō "ten chō" jit-chō "one minute" f and h ip-pun , ichi fun " once ichi hen ip-pen "three minutes" san fun sam-punt san hen "thrice" sam-ben " roku fun "six minutes" rop-pun " roku hen "six times" rop-pen

<sup>\*</sup> A measure of distance equivalent to about 120 yards English.

<sup>†</sup> Some words change f, not into p, but into b; thus sam-buku, three scrolls," from san and  $f \tilde{u} ku$ .

```
"ten minutes"
      jib-bun
                   for ju fun
      jip-pen
                    " ju hen
                                     "ten times"
                      hyaku fun
       (hyap-pun*
                                     "a hundred minutes")
                    " hyaku hen
                                     "a hundred times"
       hyap-pen
       (sem-bun*
                    " sen fun
                                     "a thousand minutes")
                                     "a thousand times"
       sem-ben
                    .. sen-hen
                      ichi kin
                                     "one pound"
 k
       ik-kin
                                     "three pounds"
                    ,, san kin
       san-gin
                                     "six pounds"
       rok-kin
                      roku kin
                                     "ten pounds"
      iik-kin
                      jū kin
                      hyaku kin
                                     "a hundred pounds"
       hyak-kin
                                     "a thousand pounds"
       sen-gin
                      sen kin
                                     "three (flat things)
                      san mai
       sam-mai
m
                                     "a thousand ..
                      sen mai
       sem-mai
                                     "one (vessel)"
       15-50
                      ichi sō
S
                                     "three (vessels)"
       san-zō+
                      san sō
       has-sō
                      hachi sō
                                     "eight vessels"
                                    "ten vessels"
      iis-sõ
                      jũ số
      sen-zō
                      sen-so
                                    " a thousand vessels"
      is-shaku
                      ichi shaku
                                     " one foot "
sh
      has-shaku
                      hachi shaku
                                    "eight feet"
      ( jis-shaku*
                      ñi shaku
                                    "ten feet")
                                    "one drop"
                      ichi teki
      it-teki
      hat-teki
                      hachi teki
                                     "eight drops"
      iit-teki
                   " jū teki
                                    "ten drops"
```

N. B. Though the difficulty of making these letter-changes correctly will strike the beginner chiefly in the case of numeral combinations, the same euphonic rules apply to all other Chinese compounds, thus:

ket-chaku, from ketsu chaku, "decision," "final resolve." tem-pō, ... ten hō. (See Vocabulary.)

<sup>\*</sup> Not in use.

<sup>†</sup> Some words in s do not change the s into z, thus san-satsu, "three volumes," not san-zatsu.

```
" Japan."
Nip-pon, from nichi hon,
          " aku kō.
                          " bad language."
ak-kō.
        , an ma.
                          "a shampooer."
am-ma,
mes-so.
            metsu sō.
                          "extravagant,"
          ••
zas-shi.
        " zatsu shi,
                          "a magazine," "a review,"
bet-to.
        " betsu tō,
                         "a groom,"
```

(In practice the hyphen is generally omitted in such words.)

¶ 154. The Japanese numerals, as far as they go, are mostly employed with Japanese nouns, and the Chinese numerals with Chinese nouns. But there are numerous exceptions to this rule, for instance:

```
it-toki (but also hito toki), "one hour."

fūta-fūfu, "two married couples."

mi-ban, "three nights."

yo-nen, "four years."
```

After "ten," beyond which the Japanese numerals no longer run, the Chinese numerals are perforce employed with Japanese as well as with Chinese words, thus:

```
jū-ni hako, "twelve boxfuls." hyaku kumi, "a hundred sets."
```

¶ 155. Usage plays various freaks with the numerals. Thus the Chinese numeral shi, "four," which is considered unlucky because homonymous with shi, "death," is in many contexts replaced by the equivalent Japanese numeral yo, for instance:

```
yo-nin, "four persons." (Shi-nin means "a corpse.") ni-jū-yo-ban, "No. 24."
```

N. B. Colloquialism sometimes goes a step further, corrupting the yo into yon. Thus people may say yon- $j\bar{u}$ , instead of shi- $j\bar{u}$ , "forty."

Chinese *shichi*, "seven," is sometimes replaced by Japanese *nana*. This is done for clearness' sake, as *shichi* is easily

confounded with *shi*, "four." Thus tradesmen and accountants will often say *nana-jis-sen*, instead of *shichi-jis-sen*, "seventy cents."

¶ 156. Usage likewise establishes a shade of difference in the sense of certain expressions which would at first sight appear to be synonymous, thus:

htto-hako, "one boxful;" hako httotsu, "one box."

htto-tsuki, "one month;" ichi-getsu, "the first month,"
i.e. "January;" ik-ka-getsu, "one month." (For ka see ¶
159, middle of p. 109.)

hito-ban, "one night;" ichi-ban, "number one." fita-ban, "two nights;" ni-ban, "number two."

N. B. Both these bans are of Chinese origin; but they are different words written with different characters.

#### AUXILIARY NUMERALS.

- ¶ 157. In English we do not say "one bread," "two beers," but "one loaf of bread," "two glasses of beer." Similarly we say "ten sheets of paper," "a hundred head of cattle," "so many rubbers of whist." Compare also the Pidjin-English "piecey," in such expressions as "one piecey man," "two piecey house," etc. Words of this kind are, in Japanese grammar, termed "auxiliary numerals." "Auxiliaries to the numerals" would be more strictly correct. The term "classifier" has also been proposed; but "auxiliary numeral" is that which has obtained the widest currency. The auxiliary numerals constitute a highly important class of words. For whereas in English such expressions as those just mentioned are somewhat exceptional, they are the rule in Japanese.
- ¶ 158. In some cases, indeed, the numeral is prefixed directly to the noun, forming with it a sort of compound, e.g. ichi-

nichi, "one day;" ichi-nin, "one person;" ichi-ri, "one league." But usage ordinarily demands the insertion of an auxiliary numeral, as:

tera ik-ken, "temple one eaves," i.e. "one Buddhist temple."

fŭton sam-mai, "quilt three flat-things," i.e. "three-quilts." onna roku-nin, "woman six persons," i.e. "six women."

N. B. One may also say ik-ken no tera, sam-mai no futon, etc.

¶ 159. The choice of the auxiliary numeral appropriate to each class of words is fixed by custom, a mistake in this matter producing the same absurd effect as does a wrong gender in French or German. The Japanese auxiliary numerals are, however, easier to remember than the French and German genders, since they are generally more or less founded on reason, as will be be seen by the following list of those most in use. As the auxiliary numerals are always employed, not independently, but in combination with the numerals proper, we give them here preceded in each case by ichi, "one," and ni, "two." The student should carefully notice the phonetic changes caused in many instances by the presence of ichi, and should refer to the table of changes on pp. 104-105. The presence of ni causes no such changes. An auxiliary numeral may therefore always be seen in its original shape when following that word. The chief auxiliary numerals are:

· (*ichī-bu*, *ni*, etc.-)*bu*, "a class;" for copies of a book. (*it-chō*, *ni*-)*chō*, "a handle;" for things with handles, such as muskets, jinrikishas, and many kinds of tools.

(*ichi-dai*, *ni-*)*dai*, "a stand;" for carriages and jinrikishas. (*ip-puku*, *ni-*)*fūku*, (various meanings;) for scrolls, sips of tea, whiffs of tobacco, and doses of medicine.

(ip-pai, ni-)hai, "a wine-cup;" for cupfuls and glassfuls of any liquid; also for loaded junks or steamers.

N. B. Ip-pai also means "full."

(*ip-piki ni-*)*hiki*, "a fellow;" for most living creatures, excepting human beings and birds; also for certain quantities of cloth and sums of money.

(ip-pon, ni-)hon, "a stem;" for cylindrical things, such as sticks, trees, fans, pens, bottles, newspapers rolled up to be posted, etc.

(ichi-jo, ni-) jo, "a mat;" for mats.

(ik-ka, ni-)ka, sometimes ko, "the culm of the bamboo;" for a few things that have no other auxiliary numeral appropriated to them, more, however, in the bookish style than in genuine Colloquial.

(ik-ken, ni-)ken, "eaves;" for buildings generally.

(ichi-mai, ni-)mai, "a shrub;" for flat things, such as sheets of paper, coins, plates, coats, shirts, rugs, etc.

(ichi-mei ni-)mei, "a name;" for human beings. This word mei is somewhat bookish; nin is more genuinely Colloquial.

(ichi-nin, ni-)nin, "a person;" for human beings.

(is-satsu, ni-)satsu, "a volume;" for volumes of a book. Do not confound satsu with bu, which latter refers to complete copies of a work, irrespective of the number of volumes contained in it.

(is-shu, ni-)shu, "a head;" for poems.

(is-so, ni-)so, "a boat;" for vessels of every description.

(is-soku, ni-)soku, "a foot;" for pairs of socks, clogs, boots, etc.

 $(it-t\bar{v}, ni-)t\bar{v}$ , "a head;" for horses and cattle; but  $h\bar{i}ki$  may also be used.

(ichi-wa, ni-)wa, "a feather;" for birds, also for hares. This word suffers irregular phonetic changes, thus:

3 sam-ba,

1 shi-wa

5 go-wa

6 rop-pa

7 shichi-wa.

8 hachi-wa

o ku-rva

10 jip-pa

## 1 160. EXAMPLES OF THE USE OF THE AUXILIARY NUMERALS.

Hanshi ichi-mai.

Uta is-shu.

Ko-gatana ni-chō.

Fude sam-bon.

Waraji is-soku.

Hon go-satsu.

Rok-ka-sho. Six-piecey-place.

Gunkan jis-sō.

Ushi hyap-piki. Ushi hyakŭ-tō.

Suzume sem-ba.

Sem-ba suzume.

Ichi-nim-biki no kuruma. One-person-pull 's vehicle.

"One sheet of (a certain common kind of) paper."

"One (Japanese) poem."

"Two pen-knives."

"Three pens."

"One pair of straw sandals."

"Five volumes." (Hon ="book.")

"Six places."

"Ten war-vessels."

"A hundred head of cattle."

"A thousand sparrows" (in nature).

"A thousand sparrows" (in art).

iinrikisha with man."

N. B. This biki (the nigori'ed form of hiki, the "indefinite form" of hiku, "to pull") is of course quite a different word from the auxiliary numeral hiki in ip-piki, sam-biki, etc.

Ichi-nin-nori no kuruma. One-person-ride 's vehicle.

Ni-nin-nori no kuruma. Two-person-ride 's vehicle.

Ni-tō-biki no basha. Two-head-pull 's carriage.

"A jinrikisha capable of holding one person only."

iinrikisha capable of holding two persons."

carriage with two horses."

Cha wo ip-pai.
Tea (accus.) one-cupful.

[Bring me] a cup of tea.

Mukō san-gen, ryō-donari. Opposite three-eaves, both-next-door. The three houses opposite and the one on either side."

Kochira wa hachi-jo, tsugi no Here as-for eight-mat; next of wa ju-m-10. ma as-for. twelve-mat. That space jū-jō ni, roku-jo ni. and, besides, ten-mat six-mat and, gozaimasŭ. yo-jō-han mo four-mat-half also (there) are.

"This room has eight mats, the next twelve. Besides these, there is ni, one of ten mats, one of six, and one of four and a half."

goro san-ji Gogo no ni Noon-after of three-hour about at kara, made deru sore ni in, go-out because, that ni nim-biki no inriki ichi-dai of jinrikisha two-person-pull one-stand Shitaku sasete oite preparation causing-to-do placing kudasai. condescend.

"I am going out at about three o'clock. So please see that a jinrikisha with two men is ready for me by then."

Dōgu-ya de byōbu is-so to. Utensil-house at, screen one-pair and, kakemono ni-f uku katte. hanging-scroll two-border having-bought kara, kozukai placed because, coolie (accus.) fetch ni yatte kudasai. to sending condescend.

"Please send a coolie to fetch a pair of screens and two *kakemonos*, which I have just purchased at the curio-dealer's."

¶ 161. It will be noticed that all the examples hitherto given of auxiliary numerals are Chinese.\* The auxiliary numberals of native Japanese origin are far less numerous. The only ones worth mentioning here are:—

<sup>\*</sup> Wa (p. 110) indeed is Japanese. But we have classed it under the Chinese auxiliary numerals, because it is always used in conjunction with the Chinese numerals *ichi*, *ni*, etc.

- (hito-) hashira, "a post;" for Shinto divinities.
- ,, kabu, "a stump;" for shrubs, plants, and (business) shares.
  - (hito-) kumi, "a company;" for sets of things or persons, such as toys consisting of more than one part, tea-sets, nests of boxes that fit into each other, pairs of gloves, parties of tourists, etc.
    - (hito-) ma, "space;" for rooms.
  - " mune, "the ridge of a roof;" for houses and any groups of buildings included under one roof.
  - (hito-) soroi, "a match;" for sets of things of like nature, such as suits of clothes.
    - (hito-) suji, "a line;" for towels and for rope-like things.
      ,, tomai, "a hut thatched with matting;" for godowns.

The native auxiliary numerals take the Japanese numerals before them up to "ten" inclusive, thus: fŭta-kumi, mi-ma, mu-tomai. After "ten" they perforce take the Chinese numerals (conf. ¶ 154), thus: jū-ni-kumi, ni-jū-ma, shi-jū-hachi-tomai. No euphonic changes take place.

- N. B. Things having no special auxiliary numeral appropriate to them are counted by means of the native Japanese numerals hitotsu, fütatsu, etc.; thus tamago hitotsu "one egg;" momo tō bakari, "about ten peaches." Even things provided with a special auxiliary numeral sometimes replace the latter by hitotsu, fütatsu, etc., in slipshod talk. Purists, too, sometimes employ bookish auxiliary numerals now scarcely intelligible to the uneducated, as kagami ichi-men, "one mirror" (lit. mirror one surface), isu ik-kyaku, "one chair" (lit. chair one leg), where ordinary speakers would simply say kagami hitotsu, isu hitotsu.
- ¶ 162. In Classical Japanese, human beings are counted by means of the native numerals, with the unexplained suffix tari attached. Of these words the Colloquial language has retained only the following:

```
hitori (for hito-tari), "one person;"
futari (for futa-tari), "two persons;"
yottari (for yo-tari), "four persons;"
```

which are used concurrently with, but oftener than, their Chinese synonyms ichi-nin, ni-nin and yo-nin.\*

¶ 163. Questions respecting number and quantity are asked by means of the word *iku*, which is, however, not used alone, but always in combination, thus:

iku-ra? how much?, lit. "about how much?", ra being the particle of vagueness already mentioned on pp. 29—30 as helping to form certain plurals;

and so on with all the auxiliary numerals, no phonetic changes taking place in the latter.

¶ 164. Iku may be replaced by nani, usually shortened to nan in such contexts. Nani, though itself Japanese, is chiefly found before words of Chinese origin, thus:

```
nan-ji? "what o'clock?"
nan-nen? "how many years?"
nan-nin? "how many persons?"
nan-ri? "how many leagues?"
```

Very often the word hodo, "about," is added, thus:

nan-nen hodo ? nan-ri hodo ?

<sup>\*</sup> See ¶ 155, p. 106, for the substitution, even before Chinese auxiliary numerals, of Japanese yo for Chinese shi, "four."

"How much?" is often rendered by ika-hodo ? dore hodo ? or dono kurai? all really meaning "about how much?"

¶ 165. The following are examples of the use of the Japanese auxiliary numerals and of the interrogative numeral words:

Sakazuki htto-kumi. "One set of sake-cups."

Yōfuku htto-soroi. "One suit of foreign clothes."

Kami fŭta-hashira. "Two Shintō deities."

O ikŭ-tari de Honourable how-many-people gozaimasŭ? "How many are there in your party?"

Yottari desŭ. "There are four of us."

Nan-ji desŭ ? "What o'clock is it?"

Iku-tsu gozaimasŭ ?

"How many are there?"
(The choice of one or other of these

Tku-hon

Tku-mai (etc.),

Tku-mai (etc.),

Tku-mai (etc.),

Kono tansu wa, ikura
This cabinet as-for, how-much
desŭ ?

"How much is this cabinet?"

Kesa ake-gata no This-morning dawn 's kwaji de, naga-ya ga

conflagration by, long-house (nom.)

fita-mune yakele, dozō
two roof-ridges having-burnt, godown

ga htto-tomai ochita sō

(nom.) one-hut fell appear desŭ.

is.

"They say that two naga-ya were burnt down and one godown ruined by the fire at dawn this morning."

N. B. As the auxiliary numeral, so also does the Japanese equivalent of our word "pair" vary with the object to which it is applied. Thus people say

byōbu is-sō, "a pair of screens."

hanatate it-tsui, ", ", flower-vases."

hashi ichi-zen, ", ", chopsticks."

tori hīto-tsugai, ", ", ", fowls," etc.

### ORDINAL, FRACTIONAL, ETC., NUMBERS.

¶ 166. What we term ordinal numbers are sometimes marked by suffixing the word me ("eye") to the Japanese, or banme (ban="number") to the Chinese cardinal numbers; or else the word dai ("order") may be prefixed and nothing added, or dai may be prefixed and banme added, to the Chinese cardinal numbers. All such forms take the postposition no, "of," when preceding a noun, thus:

Dai ni-ban, or simply ni-ban also dai ni-gō—constantly means "number two;"—similarly in the case of the other numbers.

Nan-gō no shitsu ni What-number 's room in "What is the number of irasshaimasŭ. deign-to-be?" (your room (or cabin)?"

Dai san-gō ni orimasŭ. { "I am in number order three-number in am. three."

Iida-machi roku-chō-me enth.") of Iida Street."

Kado kara san-gen-me. Corner from, third-house from the corner."

N. B. Gen is the nigori'ed form of ken, the auxiliary numeral for houses (see p. 109).

¶ 167. Notwithstanding the existence of such forms as the above, the Japanese mind has not, properly speaking, a very

clear idea of the distinction between cardinal numbers and ordinal numbers, for which reason the cardinals are often used in an ordinal sense, thus:

Meiji shi-jū-ichi-nen (lit. "Meiji 41 year"), "the forty-first year of (the chronological period termed) Meiji," i.e. "A.D. 1908," according to the European reckoning. Similarly ni-gwatsu or ni-getsu (lit. "two month"), i.e. "February;" jū-ichi-nichi (lit. "eleven day"), i.e. "the eleventh day of the month."

- N. B. The context generally shows whether the number should be taken as a cardinal or as an ordinal. Sometimes the cardinal numbers are distinguished by the insertion of an auxiliary numeral. Thus "two months" would be not ni-getsu, but ni-ka-getsu, or, in native Japanese parlance and without any auxiliary numeral, futa-tsūki.
- ¶ 168. Years are usually counted by what are termed "year-names" (Jap. nengō) i.e. periods of irregular length with names arbitrarily chosen. The present period "Meiji" began with the overthrow of the Shōgunate and the restoration of the Mikado to absolute power in 1868. Occasionally of late, years have been counted from the fictitious era of the mythical Emperor Jimmu, who, according to the Japanese history books, was the first human monarch of this empire, and ascended the throne on the 11th February, B. C. 660.
- ¶ 169. January is called shō-gwatsu, lit. "the chief month;" sometimes also ichi-getsu, lit. "one month." (Gwatsu is the Go-on, getsu the Kan-on pronunciation of the same Chinese character 月, "moon;" see p. 7 for these technical terms.) The other months are formed by prefixing the Chinese numerals to the word gwatsu or getsu. Thus the months run as follows:

```
shō-gwatsu, "January," shǐchi-gwatsu, "July."
ni-gwatsu, "February." hachi-gwatsu, "August."
san-gwatsu, "March." ku-gwatsu, "September."
shi-gwatsu, "April." jū-gwatsu, "October."
go-gwatsu, "May." jū-ichi-gwatsu, "November."
roku-gwatsu, "June." jū-ni-gwatsu, "December."
```

¶ 170. The counting of the days of the month is a medley of native Japanese and imported Chinese parlance. We give the former in ordinary Roman, the latter in Italic type:

ichi-nichi, the 1st of	jū-roku-nichi,	the 16 <i>th</i>						
tsuitachi, sthe month.	jū-shichi-nichi,	,, 17th						
futsŭka, the 2nd	jū-hachi-nichi,	,, 18th						
mikka, " 3rd	jū-ku-nichi,	" 19 <i>th</i>						
yokka, " 4th	hatsŭka,	,, 20th						
itsŭka, " 5th	ni-jū-ichi-nichi,	" 2 I st						
muika, " 6th	ni-jū-ni-nichi,	,, 22nd						
nanuka, ", 7th	ni-jū-san-nichi,	,, 23rd						
yōka, ,, 8th	ni-jū-yokka,	,, 24 <i>th</i>						
kokonoka, " 9th	ni-jū-go-nichi,	,, 25th						
tōka, "10th	ni-jū-roku-nichi,	" 26th						
jū-ichĭ-nichi, " 11th	ni-jū-shichi-nichi,	,, 27th						
jū-ni-nichi, "12th	ni-jū-hachi-nichi,	" 28th						
jū-san-nichi, "13th	ni-jū-ku-nichi,	" 29th						
jū-yokka, ", 14th	san-jū-nichi,	,, 30th						
jū-go-nichi, "15th	san-jū-ichi-nichi,	,, 31st						
misoka, "the last day of the month"								
(whether the 30th or 31st).								
ō-misoka, "the last day of the year."								

N. B. The word misoka is tending to pass out of educated usage.

¶ 171. The above forms, which are really cardinals, serve likewise for such expressions as "two days," "twelve days,"

"twenty days," etc. But tsuitachi cannot be used in the sense of "one day," because it is derived from tsuki tachi, "the moon rising," i.e. "the first day of the moon." "One day" is therefore always ichi-nichi. Neither can misoka be used in the sense of "thirty days" or "thirty-one days," notwithstanding the fact that "thirty (miso) days (ka)" is its etymological meaning in archaic Japanese.

¶ 172. Hours are counted by prefixing the Chinese numerals to the Chinese word ji, "time," "hour," thus:

ichi-ji, "one o'clock."

yo-ji jū-go-fun, "a quarter (lit. fifteen minutes)

past four."

jū-ichi-ji han, "half-past eleven."

jū-ni-ji jū-go-fun, "eleven forty-five."

"a quarter to twelve."

"a quarter to twelve."

"han-ji-kan, "half-an-hour." (kan="interval.")

"an hour and a half."

¶ 173. "Half," as just instanced, is han, or, when used substantively, hambun (lit. "half part").

N. B. The word hambun is used idiomatically in such expressions as kazari hambun, "half (i.e. partly) as an ornament,"—said, for instance, of the charm-bags worn by children; omoshiro hambun, "half in fun," where the ordinary rules of Japanese construction would lead one to expect to see hambun placed first instead of second. In all such instances the stress lies on the word hambun.

Other fractional and multiplicative numbers are expressed, as in the following examples, by means of the words *bun'* "part" and *bai*, "double:"

sam-bun no ichi, "one-third." sam-bun no ni, "two-thirds." shi-bun no ichi, "a quarter." shi-bun no san, "three-quarters."

jū-roku-bun no ichi, "one-sixteenth."

jū-bun no san, "three-tenths."

bai or ni-bai, "double," "twice as much."

sam-bai, "treble," "three times as much."

N. B. Dropping the n of bun and at the same time the postposition no, one may also say sam-bu ichi, sam-bu ni, etc. Such an expression as ni-bu, lit. "two parts," may mean either "two tenths" or "two hundredths" (i.e. "two per cent"), etc.

### ¶ 174. Note also the following miscellaneous locutions:

```
"twice."
                                                        "thrice."
 ni-do.
                                    san-do.
                  "the second
                                                       "the third
                  time."
                 ("portions for
                                                       " portions
futari-mae,
                                    san-nin-mae,
                                                       for three."
                  "twenty per
                                                        "thirty per
                                   san-wari.
                  "twenty-five
 ni-zvari
                                                       "thirty-five
                per cent."
                                   san-warigo-bu,
                                                      per cent."
  go-bu.
futatsu or at two at mitsu or at mi-mai, etc. at time." sam-mai, zutsu, at time."
   dai ni ni, { "in the second place," "secondly,"
                              "two or three."
  fŭtatsu mitsu,
                             "four or five days."
   shi-go-nichi,
  jū-go-roku-nin.
                             "fifteen or sixteen persons."
  jū ni hak-ku,
ten in, eight-nine.
                             "eight or nine out of ten," hence
                         "ten to one," "probably."
   hitotsu oki,
                             "every other one, alternate."
    one omitting.
   ichi-nichi oki, (famil.)
                             "every other day."
   kaku-jitsu, (elegant)
```

## CHAPTER VII.

# The Adjective.

#### PRIMARY INFLECTIONS.

- ¶ 175. The salient points of the primary inflections of adjectives in the Tōkyō Colloquial may be compendiously described as follows:—
  - 1. Adjectives have a form in *i*, which is both attributive and predicative, that is to say, which may be used either prefixed to a noun, or else at the end of a sentence with the English verb "to be" understood, thus:

Takai yama, "A high mountain."

Yama ga takai, "The mountain is high."

Samui kaze, "A cold wind."

Kaze ga samui, "The wind is cold."

- N. B. Ga must not be mistaken for the equivalent of the English word "is." It is a postposition serving approximately to denote the nominative case. (See p. 66.)
- II. Adjectives have a form in  $\bar{v}$  or  $\bar{u}$ , which is used instead of the form in i when  $gozaimas \bar{u}$ , the polite verb for "to be," is expressed. Thus:

Yama ga takō gozaimasŭ. "The mountain is high."
Kaze ga samŭ gozaimashō. "The wind is probably cold."

III. Adjectives have a form in ku, which is used when a verb other than gozaimasŭ follows, and which often, though not always, corresponds to an English adverb in "ly;" thus:

Yama ga takaku miemasŭ. ("The mountain looks Mountain (nom.) high looks. high."

Hayaku kite kudasai. § "Please come quickly."

- ¶ 176. But in order to attain to a full and satisfactory intelligence even of these Colloquial forms, it is necessary to dig deeper, and to see how matters stand in the Classical language, from which the Colloquial forms are still in the act of being evolved. Observe at the outset that the inflections of Japanese adjectives have no reference whatever to such European grammatical categories as number, gender, or the degrees of comparison. Their object is partly to distinguish the attributive from the predicative relation, partly to distinguish the end of a mere clause from the end of a complete sentence.
- ¶ 177. The Classical termination of adjectives when used attributively is ki. Their termination when used predicatively at the end of a sentence is shi. Hence this latter is technically called the "conclusive form," thus:

#### ATTRIBUTIVE.

#### CONCLUSIVE.

Takaki yama, "A high Yama takashi, "The mounmountain."

Samuki kaze, "A cold Kaze samushi, "The wind wind."

¶ 178. It is from these two Classical forms in ki and shi that the single Colloquial form in i has originated, by the dropping of the distinctive consonants k and sh.

In set speeches and in the conversation of pedantic speakers, the "attributive form" in *ki* may still not infrequently be heard. It is employed exclusively in the case of the words *gotoki*, "like," "similar," and *beki*, a sort of verbal adjective

corresponding to our termination "..., ble," or to our auxiliary verbs "ought" or "should," thus: shinzu-beki, "credible," "ought to be believed;" osorubeki, "terrible." (Conf. ¶ 192.)

N. B. The corresponding conclusive form beshi is no longer employed by educated speakers; but the bei perpetually heard at the end of sentences from the lips of the lowest classes in Eastern and Northern Japan, and signifying "shall," "will," "must," is a corruption of it. For instance, Sō dam-bei, "That is probably so," "No doubt you are right," represents an older Sō de aru-beshi, and is equivalent to the standard Colloquial Sō de gozaimashō.

¶ 179. The "conclusive form" in shi is still used in the words nashi, "non-existent," "is not," and yoshi, "good," concurrently with the commoner forms nai and yoi, thus:

Nani¹ mo² nashi.³ (elegant) { "Everything¹,² (is) non-existent³," i.e. "There is nothing."

Yoshi, yoshi! "All right!"

It is also still to be heard in such emphatic locutions as

Samusa va samushi. Coldness as-for, (it is) cold cold," or, "It vas cold," or, "It is cold with a vengeance."

"It is dark," etc. Kurasa wa kurashi.

¶ 180. The third Classical termination of adjectives is ku. It corresponds to the indefinite form of verbs (conf. ¶ 278 and ¶ 425), and its original function is that of predicate at the end of every clause of a sentence excepting the last, which alone takes the conclusive termination shi. Thus:

jinka sŭkunashi.

Yama takaku, kikō samuku, ("The' mountains (of a certain country) are high, the 'climate is cold, and the human dwellings there

This construction is now rarely heard except in set speeches, genuine Colloquial usage preferring either to end each clause by the form in *i* (sometimes followed by the expletive *shi*, as in the last example but two on p. 127), or, oftener still, to turn the sentence some other way, thus:

Taiyō wa ōkii, atsui, akarui "The Sun as-for, big, hot, light sun gururi de, sono hot. great, ball around(accus.) being. -ball. around vüsei to sekai iu circle otherworlds that (they) say called planets." ga mawatte iru. (nom.) circling are.

Okii chiisai no arasoi.
Big small 's dispute. } "An argument about the size (of a thing)."

Shina mo yoroshikereba, Article also whereas-is-good, nedan mo yasui. price also (is) cheap.

"The article is a good and cheap one.

N. B. For the conditional (as yoroshikereba above) thus used, see  $\P$  300. The following example shows it and the ku form in harness together:

Commentary also nakereba as-there-is-not, kyōshi "Truly great were my perplexities, being, as I was, mo naku, kyōshi dictionary also not-being, yō na to iu without a commentary, withalso is-not that say manner being out a dictionary, and without rvake de, jitsu ni go-ri a teacher. by, five-miles reason truly muchīt de arimashita. fog-inside

¶ 181. What the Colloquial has retained in full vigour is a secondary use of the form in ku, prefixed to verbs; and it has become rather usual, having regard to this use alone, to call the form in question the "adverbial form," because the European equivalents of Japanese adjectives in ku are often, though not invariably, adverbs, thus:

Omoshiroku kikoemasŭ

"It sounds amusing."

Osoku kacrimashita.

"I came home late."

Yoku dekita.

"It is well done."

Ōkiku narimashita koto!

"How big he has become!"

N. B. For koto thus used, see top of p. 38.

Naru-take hayaku o
As...as possible quickly, honourable ide nasai.
exit deign.

"Please come as quickly as possible."

- N. B. Just as vulgar speakers often omit the termination "ly" of English adverbs, so also, in familiar Japanese style, and not from the uneducated alone, do we hear such expressions as osoroshii warni, "dreadful (ly) bad," where osoroshiku warni would better accord with the old traditions of the language.
- ¶ 182. The verb "to be" is no exception to the rule whereby all verbs must be preceded by the adverbial or indefinite form in ku. It is therefore correct to say, for instance:

Ano yama wa takaku gozaimasŭ. Kaze ga samuku gozaimashō.

"That mountain is high."

"The wind will probably

be cold."

But Colloquial usage prefers to drop the k of the termination in such contexts. Moreover, after the k has been dropped, a crasis of the remaining vowels of the termination ensues. By this series of changes,

(Stems in a) takaku passes through takau to takō.

( ,, ,, i) yoroshiku ,, ,, yoroshiu ,, yoroshiu.

( ,, ,, o) shiroku ,, ,, shirou ,, shirō.

( ,, ,, u) samuku ,, ,, samuu ,, samu

N. B. The genuine modern Colloquial possesses no stems ending in e. In earlier times, however, and in the semi-Colloquial of certain books we find such series as

shigeku, shigeu, shigyō beku, beu, byō. Hence it is usual to say:

Ano yama wa takō gozaimasŭ; Kaze ga samū gozaimashō; etc.

- N. B. The Kyōto dialect goes a step further even than that of Tōkyō, and prefers to make use of these abbreviated forms before all verbs whatsoever. The same usage is found in the more or less artificial Colloquial alluded to just above, as sometimes making its way into print.—Foreigners are apt to say Ano yama wa takai de gozaimasŭ, etc. The use of such expressions, though not absolutely forbidden, should be avoided. If addressing an inferior, say Ano yama wa takai. If addressing an equal or superior, say Ano yama wa takō gozaimasŭ.
- ¶ 183. It will be noticed that all the inflections of adjectives are added to a stem which terminates in one of the vowels. This stem is occasionally employed as an independent word. Thus Aka, Kuro, Shiro, "Brownie," "Blackie," and "Whitie," serve as names for dogs. The phrase naga no toshi tsŭki means "long months and years" (lit. "years and months"). But by far the commonest use of the stem is to form compound words, thus:
  - aka-gane, "copper;" from akai, "red," and kane, "metal."
  - hoso-nagai, "slender;" from hosoi, "narrow," and nagai "long."

  - shiro-kane, "silver;" from shiroi, "white," and kane, "metal."
  - yasu-domari, "a cheap lodging;" from yasui, "cheap," and tomaru, "to stay."
  - yo-sugiru, "to be too good;" from yoi, "good," and sugiru, "to exceed."

- N. B. There is a slight difference of signification, or at least of intention, between such expressions as takai yama, "a high mountain," and taka-yama, "a high-mountain," similar to that which we feel in English between "high land" and "the Highlands," or "a black bird" and "a blackbird." The compound form is more idiomatic, it tends to assume a specific meaning irrespective of the original signification of its constituent parts (e.g. fita-go, "twins," from fita, "two," and ko, "child"), and it is that preferred in proper names. Thus there are several places called Takayama, but none called Takai yama.
- ¶ 184. From the foregoing remarks, we may proceed to construct a table of the primary inflections of adjectives, as used in ordinary conversation. We take as specimens the adjectives takai, "high;" yoroshii, "good," shiroi, "white;" and samui, "cold;" i. e. one for each of the four vowels a, i, o, u, with which Japanese adjective stems almost invariably terminate:

· .	"High."	"Good."	"White."	" Cold."
Stem	taka	yoroshi	shiro	samu
Attribut. Conclus.	takai	yoroshii	shiroi	samui
Adverbial Indefinite	or } takaku	yoroshĭku	shiroku	samuku
Predic. w verb "to b expressed	e" takō	yoroshiū	shirō	samū

- N. B. Onaji, "same," is irregular, as its attributive (conclusive) form coincides in Colloquial with the stem. The adverbial form onajiku is still often heard; but with the verb "to be," more speakers say onaji de than onajiū.
- ¶ 185. The following are a few examples of the use of the primary inflections of adjectives:

O hayō gozaimasŭ. "Good morning." Honourably early (it) is.

Yoi o tenki de Good honourable weather gozaimasŭ.

(it) is.

Zosa ga nai. "There is no difficulty."

Difficulty (nom.) is-not. (Gozaimasen would be more polite than nai.)

Yakamashii! shabetcha (You) are-noisy! as-for-chattering, it-is-no-go. "Don't chatter and make such a row!"

Yoku wakarimasen. Well understand-not. { "I don't quite understand."

Warui no da.
Bad one is

"It is a bad one." (For *no*, see ¶ 112.)

Tsui ni naku narimashita. Sinally non-existent has-become.

"He is dead at last."

Kanjō vo hayaku dōka Bill (accus.) quickly please (kudasai). (condescend).

bill quickly."
(Said to a hotel-keeper.)

Ano wakai kirei na hito. "That handsome young That young pretty person. fellow."

Shina mo yoi shi, nedan mo yasui. "It is both good and Article also (is) good, price also (is) cheap. cheap."

Takai to yasui to zea, to The cheap ones do not wear so well as tamochi-kata ga chigau. durability (nom.) differs.

Ai-niku no ame. "A rainy day coming just when Meet-odious of rain. it is not wanted."

N. B. Observe the stem-form niku with no suffixed, here used exceptionally for the attributive form nikui. The nickname Arigata no Kichibei, in one of the stories in the Practical Part (\$\mathbb{T}\$451), is a similar case.

### SECONDARY INFLECTIONS.

¶ 186. Besides the primary inflections of adjectives, as set forth above, there is a series of secondary inflections which

-		ad.	will		bad.	imes		bad.	oad.		1	or ū					rly in
		is or will be bad.	probably is or will be bad.	was bad.	was probably bad.	being sometimes bad.	if (it) is bad.	if(it)had been bad.	though (it) is bad.	being bad.	**	N. B. It is more polite, especially for the first four tenses, to use the form with long $\tilde{v}$ or $\tilde{u}$ and the verb <i>gozaimasti</i> , "to be," as explained in pp. 120 and 124—5, thus:					* Many in Tōkyō say yoroshikutte, warukutte, with double t and an emphasis on kut, and similarly in
9		is or	prob se	was	was	{ being bad	if (it			bein	**	form wi		1.*	ta.	tarō.	on kut, a
D MOC			2,	a,	arō,	ari,	·ba,	ara(ba)	do(mo),		ha,	use the —5, thu	aimasŭ.	aimashi	aimashi	aimashi	phasis o
TABLE OF THE SECONDARY OR TENSE AND MOOD	IVES.	varui,	probably is or will warnkarō, be good.	warukatta,	was probably good. warukattarō,	(being sometimes warukattari, good.	warukereba,	if(it)had been good. warukattara(ba),	though (it) is good. warukeredo(mo),	warukute,	warukicha,	nses, to and 124	warū gozaimasŭ.	warū gozaimashō.	waru gozaimashita.	warū gozaimashītarō.	nd an en
OR TEI	DJECTI	good.   z	v will	2	good.	etimes z		good.	good.	2	12	t four te	_(+	- 2	22	72	uble t ar
JARY (	INFLECTIONS OF ADJECTIVES	is or will be good. warui,	probably is or be good.	was good.	probably	g som	if (it) is good.	nad beer	gh (it) is	being good.	*	the firs					with do
ECONI	CTIONS	is or	probi	was	wasl	(being	if (it)	if(it)l	thoug	being		as expla		· .	ita.	itarō.	ukutte,
THE	INFLE			,	trō,	ıri,	ia,	era(ba),	to(mo),		a, '	e, especi to be,"	yoroshiū gozaimasŭ.	Probable Present yoroshin gozaimashō.	yoroshiū gozaimashīta.	yoroshin gozaimashitarö.	tte, war
LE OF		shii,	yoroshikarō,	yoroshikatta,	yoroshikattarō,	yoroshikattari,	yoroshikereba,	PAST CONDITIONAL yoroshikattara(ba),	yoroshikeredo(mo),	yoroshikute,	yoroshikucha,	re polite	oshiu go	shiū go.	shin go	shin go:	oroshiku
TAB		T Jore	Tyon	yor	yor	yor	yor	L yore	yor	yor		t is mo b goza	yor	T yord	yor	yor	o say y
		PRESEN TRE	PRESEN	AST	PAST	ATIVE	IAI.	DITTONA	国		HASISEI	7. B. I the ver	RESENT	Presen Jre	AST	PAST	n Tōkv
¶ 187.		CERTAIN PRESENT Yoroshii,	PROBABLE PRESENT OR FUTURE	CERTAIN PAST	PROBABLE PAST	FREQUENTATIVE	CONDITIONAL.	ST CON	CONCESSIVE	GERUND*	DO. EMPHASISED	And	CERTAIN PRESENT OR FUTURE	OBABLE OR FUT	CERTAIN PAST	PROBABLE PAST	Many i
-	=	CE	PR	CE	PR	HR	ပိ	PA	ပ္ပ	S			CE	PR	CE	PR	1

are employed to indicate tense and mood. Most of these secondary inflections are obtained by agglutinating parts of the verb aru, "to be," to the adverbial or indefinite form in ku, euphony producing certain slight changes, as will be seen by comparing the table on the opposite page with the paradigm of the first conjugation, to which aru belongs. The use of the various moods and tenses will be found explained in ¶ 273 et seq. We have omitted from the table such imperative forms as yoroshikare, "be good!" and warukare, "be bad!" because they rarely if ever occur in practice, save in a few such idiomatic phrases as osokare hayakare, "sooner or later."

¶ 188. One of the most useful adjectives is what is called the "negative adjective" nai. Its proper meaning is "non-existent;" but it commonly replaces the negative conjugation of the verb aru, "to be," and also sometimes corresponds to our preposition "without." Its inflections are as follows:

```
(Attributive
                    nai.
                    nai, rarely nashi.
Conclusive
Adverbial
                     naku.
  N. B. The contracted form n\bar{o} is not in common use.
Certain Present
                                    is not or will not
   or Future
Improbable Pre-
                                    probably is not or
                    nakarō,
   sent or Future
                                       will not be.
 Certain Past
                    nakatta,
                                    was not.
Improbable Past
                    nakattarō,
                                    probably was not.
     And so on, through all the forms given in the paradigm
   of adjectives on p. 128.
```

¶ 189. Nai, added to the adverbial form of adjectives, serves to form their negative conjugation, thus:

Certain Present or Future	yoroshĭku nai,	is or will not be good.
Improbable Present or \Future	) yoroshĭku ∫ nakarō,	probably is not or will not be good.
Certain Past	{ yoroshĭku } nakatta,	} was not good.
Improbable Past	( yoroshĭku ( nakattarō,	{ probably was not good.
And so on through	the other moods	and tenses.

N. B. In polite parlance, this negative conjugation in nai is mostly replaced by one with the verb gozaimasen, "not to be," thus:

Certain Present or) yoroshiu gozai-(is or will not be masen, good. Improbable Present) yoroshiū gozai- (probably is not or or Future \ masumai, will not be good. And so on through the other moods and tenses.

Nai itself is not susceptible of the negative conjugation. There is no such expression as naku nai, "not non-existent."

N. B. Positive adjectives happening to end in nai, as, for example, kitanai, "dirty," must not be confounded with adjectives in the negative form. The negative of kitanai is kitanaku nai, following the paradigm given in the above table. Similarly with abunai, "dangerous;" sŭkunai, "scarce," etc.

#### EXAMPLES OF THE TENSE AND MOOD 190. INFLECTIONS OF ADJECTIVES.

```
Ko suru to yokatta ga.... ( "I ought to have done it
 Thus do if, was-good although.. ) in this way." (Conf. ¶ 287.)
                                  "Oh! what a fright I
  41
       kowakatta!
  Ah!
        was-afraid.
                               have had!"
               vokarō
 "That (nom.) will-probably-be-good"
                                 "I think that that one
                               will probably do."
to
    omoimasŭ.
that (I) think.
                                  "How painful it must
  Itakattarā.
                                have been!"
```

Saku-ban, inu ga hoete. dogs (nom.) barking, night, on account of the sōzōshikute neraremasen deshita, noise the dogs made barkbeing-noisy, could-not-sleep (it) was. ing."

"I couldn't sleep last

Kono hen wa. hai This neighbourhood as-for, flies ga ōkŭte urusō gozaimasŭ. the humber of in-(nom.) being-many, tiresome

"It is quite tiresome. the number of flies in this

tsugō ga August convenience (nom.) honourably yoshi warukereba. 0 if-is-bad, honourably cease nasaimashi. condescend.

"Please don't do it, if it is inconvenient to you."

goro no tenki wa, This period 's weather as-for. vokattari warukattari being-sometimes-good being-sometimes-bad shite, ate ni narimasen. doing, reliance to becomes-not.

"The weather is so changeable just now, that one can't rely upon it."

Tonto mo muzukashiku nai. Trifle even difficult is-not.

"It is not in the least difficult."

Muzukashiku nakereba, yatte) if-is-not, Difficult sending mimashō. (Conf. ¶ 296.) will-see.

"If it is not difficult, I will try my hand at it."

Nakucha naranai mono. As-for-not-being, becomes-not thing.

"A thing one cannot do without."

Tenka ni nai bijin. Empire in, non-existent belle.

"The greatest beauty in the land.' (More lit. "A belle with

whom there is none to compare beneath [ka] the sky [ten].")

## COMPOUND AND DERIVATIVE ADJECTIVES.

¶ 191. Compound adjectives are numerous, and offer no difficulty. They sometimes consist of two adjectives, more frequently of a noun or verb followed by an adjective, thus:

- usu-akai, "light red," "pink;" from usui, "thin," "light-coloured," and akai, "red."
- usu-gurai, "dusk," "almost dark;" from usui, "light-coloured," and kurai, "dark."
- kokoro-yasui, "intimate;" from kokoro, "heart," and yasui, "easy."
- yondokoro-nai, "unavoidable;" from yoru, "to rely," tokoro, "place," and nai, the negative adjective.
- kiki-gurushii, "ugly (to hear);" from kiku, "to hear," and kurushii, "painful."
- mi-gurushii, "ugly (to look at);" from miru, "to see," and kurushii, "painful."
- wakari-nikui, "difficult (to understand);" from wakaru, "to understand," and nikui, "odious."
- wakari-yasui, "easy (to understand);" from wakaru, "to understand," and yasui, "easy."
- ¶ 192. There are various classes of derivative adjectives. Of these the chief are:—
  - 1. Those in beki, corresponding to our phrases with "must" or "should," or to our adjective in "...ble," and already noticed on pp. 121-2 as being now used only in attributive constructions. It is to verbs that beki is suffixed,—in the first conjugation to the present tense, as aru-beki, "should be," "necessary;" in the second and third conjugations to the indefinite form, as tabe-beki, "eatable;" dekibeki, "possible;" not taberu-beki, dekiru-beki. In the Written Language, beki is suffixed to what is termed the "conclusive form" of the present tense of the second and third conjugations, i.e. a short form ending in u without a following ru, thus: tabu-beki, (i)deku-beki; and this use may still sometimes be heard in the Colloquial. A like rule

obtains in the case of the irregular verbs kuru and suru, which always make ku-beki and su-beki. The verb miru is peculiar, making either miru-beki or mi-beki.

Su-beki koto.
Do-must thing.

" A thing to be done."

Shinzu-beki koto.
Believe-must thing.

"A credible thing."

Kono hen ni miru-This neighbourhood in, seebeki tokoro vva gozaimasen ka? should places as-for are-not ? "Are there no places worth going to see in this neighbourhood?"

Omae no kamau-beki koto
You of meddle-should thing
de nai. (familiar)
is-not.

Under the control of the control

Kore vva mukō ye yaru-This as-for, opposite to sendbeki mono desŭ.
must thing is,

"This is a thing which
must be sent there."

- N. B. Observe how our English passive idioms are replaced by active idioms in Japanese, following a general tendency of the language commented on in ¶¶81—82, ¶427, and ¶439.
- ¶ 193. II. The so-called "desiderative adjectives" in tai, as tabetai, "desirous of eating," "hungry;" ikitai, "desirous of going." These will be treated of when we come to speak of the verb, ¶ 242 and ¶ 285.
- ¶ 194. III. A noticeable class of derivative adjectives is formed by agglutinating to nouns the termination *rashii*, which corresponds to the English terminations "ish" and "ly," and occasionally to some such phrase as "said to be," or "I think," thus:

baka-rashii, "foolish;" from baka, "a fool." kodomo-rashii, "childish;" from kodomo, "children."

$$j\bar{o}zu$$
- $rashu$ , {"said to be skilful;"} from  $j\bar{o}zu$ , "skilful." konnichi- $rashii$ , {"to-day, I believe;"} from konnichi, "to-day."

A much smaller class is obtained by reduplicating an adjective stem and agglutinating the suffix shii, thus: ara-arashii, "rude and rough;" tō-dōshii, "lengthy;" uto-utoshii, "cold" (metaph.), "estranged."

¶ 195. It may be well to notice, in connection with these classes of derivative adjectives, two classes of verbs derived from adjectives. One of these is obtained by suffixing to the stem the suffix garu, a contraction of ge aru,—ge or ke (氣) being an old word signifying "spirit," "air." When added to the desiderative adjective in tai, the resulting compound suffix is tagaru:—

kowagaru, "to think fearful;" i.e. "to be frightened," from kowai, "fearful."

mezurashigaru, "to think strange;" from mezurashii, "strange."

ikitagaru, "to want to go;" from ikitai, "wanting to go,"—itself the desiderative adjective of iku, "to go."

N. B. Observe that garu occasionally serves to verbalise nouns, thus: zannengaru, "to regret," from zannen, "regret;" iyagaru, "to dislike," from iya, "nay!" "repugnance." Also that the termination tagaru often means "to be apt to....." rather than "to want to....."

Of the second class of adjective-verbs the following specimens will give an idea:

hiromeru, "to spread" (trans); hiromaru, "to spread" (intrans.), from hiroi, "wide."

"maromeru, "to make round," from marui, "round."

 $N\!\!\cdot\!\!/ B$ . Both these classes of verbs are, like verbs in general, susceptible of the passive and causative forms (conf. Chap. IX), thus

Mezurashigarareru, "to be thought strange," "to be lionised."

Urayamashigarareru, "to be regarded with envy," from urayamashigaru, "to regard with envy," itself derived from urayamashii' "enviable."

Ureshigaraseru, "to cause to feel joyful," i.e. "to make happy;" from ureshigaru, "to feel joyful," itself derived from ureshii, "joyful." Hiromesaseru, "to cause to spread."

#### QUASI-ADJECTIVES.

- ¶-196. There are large numbers of words in common use, such as nama, "raw;" shizuka, "quiet;" yaseta, "thin;" koraerarenai, "unendurable," which at first sight appear to be adjectives, and which must be translated into English by adjectives, but which are not true adjectives in Japanese, either as regards origin or grammatical treatment. Some of them are nouns, some are verbs, some are phrases formed from various parts of speech. They may be best understood by being classed under the following five headings:—
- ¶ 197. I. Nouns followed by no; as Amerika no, "of America," i.e. "American." Such are:

gwaikoku, "foreign countries;" gwaikoku no, "foreign." kin, "gold;" kin no, "golden." konaida, "a short while ago;" konaida no, "recent."

II. Nouns followed by na,\* a corruption of the Classical

<sup>\*</sup> It has been stated in ¶ 112 (p. 78) that the postposition no often assumes the signification of the English word "one" or "ones," used substantively. Thus from the adjective nagai "long," one can form the phrase nagai no, "a long one," and similarly from such quasi-adjectives as shōjiki and kirei one can form the phrases shōjiki na no, "an honest one;" kirei na no, "a pretty one," etc. This idiom must not be confounded with another nearly alike in sound containing the word nan, which it is difficult to explain in English except by the help of examples, and whose origin is obscure. The following sentences containing it may be taken as representative of its use:

verb naru, "to be" (not to be confounded with naru, "to become"); as shōjiki na, lit. "honesty being," i.e. "honest." Such are:

- mendō, "a bother:" mendō na. "bothersome." "uselessness;" muda. muda na, " useless " rambō. "disorderly rambō na, "disorderly." conduct:"

shizuka, "quiet" (subst.); shizuka na, "quiet" (adj.).

N. B. No mostly follows concrete nouns, na abstract nouns. Indeed the same noun will take no or na, according as it is viewed from the concrete or the abstract point of view, For instance, baka no hanashi means "a fool's story," "the story of a fool," whereas baka na hanashi means "a foolish story." Very fine-

Kore deshō ka?—Ā! sore nan desŭ. { "Is this it?—Ah! yes; that is it."

Ano otoko wa, dōmo akip-poi.—Sō sa! Mezurashii koto deed, because he is always hankering ga suki nan da kara. after something new and striking."

nakute, taivo no deru no ga asal nan desu.

"Most people suppose it to be the Taiyō wa asa dete, maiban hikkomu no ga atarimae da to to reige in the morning and to refire taitei wa omotte imasu ga,—jitsu in the morning and to retire in the morning and to retire in the evening. But the truth is ning, but that the sun's rising is the morning."

Of the various authorities, both Japanese and foreign, whom the present writer has consulted on the subject of this idiom, some pronounce it to be "relative," others "relative, elliptical, and reflective(!)." Some say that it is a corruption of naru, "to be." Others would trace it back to the word nani? "what?" used as a kind of expletive indicating vagueness, like "thingummy" or "what-d'ye-call-'em" in vulgar English. Others again assert that the phrase means nothing at all. We ourselves incline to see in it a survival of the Classical particle nan (archaic na mo), which served to emphasise the word to which it was suffixed. Observe, however, that whereas Classical nan may occur before any verb, this Colloquial nan survives only before the verb "to be," as in all three examples given above.

drawn distinctions are sometimes produced in this way. Thus marui kao no hito means "a man with a round face," the concrete idea of "face" being here prominent. But maru-gao na hito means "a round-faced man," the abstract quality of round-facedness being uppermost in the speaker's mind. This particular phrase might be turned in yet a third way, viz. kao no marui hito, "a man round of face." Such idioms as this last are dealt with in ¶ 202. In some few cases no and na may be used almost indiscriminately. Thus we may say mugaku no hito or mugaku na hito equally well. But na is more common.

¶ 198. To the class formed by means of na belongs a numerous body of words obtained by adding  $s\bar{o}$ , "appearance," to the stem of adjectives proper or to the indefinite form of verbs, thus:

omoshiroi, "amusing;" omoshirosō na, "likely to be amusing," "amusing-looking."

ŭmai, "nice to eat;" ŭmasō na, "appetising."
furu, "to rain;" fŭrisō na, "likely to rain."
kikoeru, "to be audible;" kikoesō na, "audible, one would suppose."

The forms yosasō na, "apparently good," and nasasō na, "not likely to exist," are derived irregularly from the adjectives yoi, "good," and nai, "non-existent," by the insertion of an epenthetic syllable sa. Compounds of nai, such as tsumaranai, "worth nothing," "trifling," may either follow nai in this its irregularity, or else be made to conform to the rule affecting adjectives in general, thus: tsumaranasasō na or tsumaranasō na, "looking worth nothing," "trifling-looking."

¶ 199. Sometimes words of the above two classes may be compounded with the following noun, instead of being divided from it by no or na, for instance:

kara na (or no) hako, or kara-bako, "an empty box." kin no tokei, , kin-dokei, "a gold(en) watch."

mimashita. saw.

Sometimes, again, a word may be treated indifferently either as a true adjective or as a quasi-adjective of class II. for instance:

```
chiisai.
              or chiisa na.
                                     "small."
                ., ōki na.
                                     "big."
ōkii.
                                     " soft."
yawarakai,
                ., yawaraka na,
```

- ¶ 200. The forms of classes I and II given above are the attributive forms. When the quasi-adjectives of classes I and II are used predicatively at the end of a clause (conf. ¶ 180), no or na is replaced by de, "being," which thus corresponds to the termination ku of adjectives proper. When they are used predicatively at the end of a sentence (conf. ¶ 177), no or na is replaced by any tense of the verb "to be," such as da (familiar), desŭ (polite), de gozaimasŭ (very polite). The word de in such contexts has been treated of at some length in ¶ 88, pp. 62-64, which the student should carefully read over.
- To 201. The following examples will show the use of these various forms of the quasi-adjectives of classes I and II:

```
kata.
  Igirisu no
                                   "An English gentleman,"
  England 's honourable side.
  Gin no ga hoshiū gozaimasŭ. Silver one of desirous am.
                                        "I want a silver one."
  Okashi na )
                hanashi
                                    "A funny story."
  Kekkō na
                          shina
    Splendid
              honourable article
                                    "It is a splendid thing."
                                     (Said in thanking one for a gift.)
de gozaimasŭ.
   (it) is.
  Fushigi na
                 yume
                             7001
     Strange
                 dream (accus.)
```

"I had a strange dream."

Fushigi da. (familiar) desŭ. (polite)

"It is strange."

Rikā na inu desŭ. Clever dog

"It is an intelligent dog."

Kono inu wa, rikō desŭ. "This dog is intelligent."

hito wa, shōjiki person as-for, honest Ano de, yoku hatarakimasŭ.
being well works.

"He is honest, and he works hard."

Amari somatsu de, shitsurei ("It is quite rude of me Too coarse being, rude desu (it)is.

to offer you so trifling a present." (Said in depreciating a gift made

Are hodo yonda no ni,) "One would think he That amount called whereas, would hear, after being kikoesō na mon(o) da. called so often." likely-to-be audible thing is.

Yosasō na hito deshita. Significant of the seemed a good Apparently-good person was. Significant of the seemed a good fellow."

¶ 202. III. Phrases composed of nouns (including indefinite verbal forms used as nouns) followed by no, "of," and an adjective proper, as genki1 no2 yoi3, lit. good3 of2 spirits1, i.e. "spirited," "lively." Such are:

me1 no2 chikai3, "near3 of2 eye1," i.e. "short-sighted." "far of ear," ,, . "hard of hearing." mimi no tōi. wakari no hayai, "quick of understanding," i.e. "sharpwitted."

¶ 203. Great numbers of quasi-adjectives belonging to this Class III are formed by means of the words voi, "good" (often corrupted by the Tōkyō people to ii), warui, "bad," and nai, the negative adjective. Such are:

```
benri no yoi, "good of convenience," i.e. "convenient." benri no warui, "bad of convenience," ,, "inconvenient." shi-kata no nai, "no way to do," ,, "unavoidable."
```

Such quasi-adjectives in *nai* as that last instanced correspond to English adjectives with the prefix "un" or "in," or with the suffix "less," as *tsumi no nai*, "innocent;" *kagiri no nai*, "unbounded."

¶ 204. The above examples are all attributive in form. When the quasi-adjectives of class III are used predicatively, the postposition no changes to ga; thus:

```
Mimi ga tōi. "He is hard of hearing."

Shi-kata ga nai. "There is no help for it."

Ano ko wa, wakari ga hayai. "That child is sharp."
```

These examples are in the style used between intimates. It is always more polite to add the word *gozaimasŭ*, except when addressing an inferior. Of course with *gozaimasŭ* the *i* form of the adjective is exchanged for that with the long final vowel (see pp. 120 and 124). Thus the preceding examples would, in more polite parlance, become:

Mimi ga tō gozaimasŭ. Shĭ-kata ga gozaimasen (nō gozaimasŭ is not used). Ano ko wa, wakari ga hayō gozaimasŭ.

¶ 205. IV. Various tenses of verbs; also phrases formed from such verbs, as:

```
mieru, "to appear;" hence "visible."

fŭtotta, "has become fat;" ,, "fat."

dekinai, {"forthcomes not;"} ,, "impossible."

yomeru, "reads;" (intrans.) ,, "legible."

shireta, "was knowable;" ,, "self-evident,"
```

```
nakereba1 na- ("won't-do2 if-there-is-) hence "indispens-
tame1 ni2 na-
                "becomes to sake";
                                               "beneficial."
  ru^3
ki1 ni2 iru3.
                "enters to spirit;"
                                               "agreeable."
ki ni iranai,
                "enters-not to spirit;"
                                                "distasteful."
ki1 no2 kiita3,
                "was-efficacious of2
                               spirit1:"
                                                "quick-witted."
tsumi1 no2 aru3, "is3 of2 guilt1;"
                                                "guilty."
enryo1 suru2, "does2 diffidence1;"
                                                " diffident."
tai1 shita2.
                "did2 great1;"
                                                "important."
                "did2 slightly1;"
                                                "slight."
choito1 shita2
                                           ,,
               for goes-not of comprehension;"
gaten1 no2
                                                "incomprehen-
  ikan3
                                                    sible."
```

¶ 206. The above are the attributive forms. Most of them serve also to express the predicative relation at the end of a sentence. Observe, however, that no must then be replaced by ga, and the simple past tense in ta by the continuative present tense in . . . te iru (¶ 294), thus:

```
Ano
                ojiisan
                               wa,
                                       "That old gentleman is
    That
             old-gentleman
                              as-for,
futotte
           iru.
  fat
            iochū
                                 kı
                      wa.
                               spirit
                                     quick-witted."
          kiite
(nom.) being-efficacious
```

Of course the simple verb may in all cases be replaced by the polite inflection in *masŭ*. It is almost always so replaced in predicative constructions, except when an inferior is addressed. Thus the above examples would become in ordinary polite parlance:

Ano ojiisan wa, f ŭtotte imasŭ (or orimasŭ). Ano jochū wa, ki ga kiite imasŭ (or orimasŭ).

- N. B. Quasi-adjectives of Class iv ending in shita, as tai shita, choito shita, are never used predicatively.
- ¶ 207. When employed predicatively at the end, not of a sentence but of a *clause*, most of the words of this Class IV turn into gerunds, thus: *miete*, *fŭtotte*, *dekinakŭte*, etc. But sometimes a periphrasis with *de* is used instead, as: *ki ni iranai de*.
- ¶ 208. Foreigners speaking a little Japanese constantly say yoroshii no cha, shiroi no tma, ōkii no neko, etc., etc. But this is mere "pidjin." It should be yoroshii cha, "good tea;" shiroi tma, "a white horse;" ōkii neko or ōki na neko, "a large cat." (Yoroshii and shiroi are always true adjectives, whereas we may either use ōkii as a true adjective, or ōki na as a quasi-adjective.) The mistake arises partly from a confusion between no and na, partly from the fact that nouns followed by no often correspond to the adjectives of European languages, e.g. Nihon¹ no² kotoba³, "the language³ of² Japan,¹" i.e. "the Japanese language;" moto¹ no² tsumori³, lit. "intention³ of² origin¹," i.e. "the original intention." No is only used after adjectives in the sense of the indefinite pronoun "one" or "ones," as already explained in ¶ 112:—

Dochi ga ii ?—Kuroi no. { "Which are the best?—

 Ōkii no
 two
 katte
 kimashita.
 "I have bought have-come."

 Big ones
 having-bought have-come.
 some big ones."

¶ 209. Do not confound such Chinese quasi-adjectives as kirei, "pretty;" mumei, "anonymous," with real adjectives, simply because they happen to end in i. One cannot say kirei onna, "a pretty woman;" one must say kirei na onna. Similarly mumei no katana, "a sword without the maker's name inscribed on it."

¶ 210. v. The words ko forming diminutives and  $\bar{o}$  forming augmentatives, together with the honorific prefixes o,\* "honourable;" go, "august;" ki, "exalted;" and mi, "honourable," are quasi-adjectives, as in the following examples:

ko-bin, "a small bottle."

ō-bin, "a large bottle."

o tera, "an honourable Buddhist temple," i.e. simply "a Buddhist temple."

go hon, "the august book," i.e. "your book."

ki-koku, "the exalted country, i.e. "your country."

o mi ashi, lit. "august honourable feet," i.e. generally "your feet."

N. B.  $\bar{O}$  and ko frequently cause the nigori'ing of the word to which they are prefixed, as  $\bar{o}$ -dera, "big temple;" ko-dera, "small temple;" ko-jima, "small island" (but  $\bar{o}$ -shima, without the nigori, "big island"). Such compounds as these are extremely common in place-names, the whole Japanese coast being lined with  $\bar{O}$ shimas and Kojimas. To express the idea "a big island," "a small island," the longer equivalents  $\bar{o}$ ki na shima, chiisa na shima, would sound more natural, and similarly in most other cases.

The honorifies o and go are also used adverbially, thus:

O¹ yasumi² nasai³, lit. "honourably¹ deign³ to rest,²" i.e. "good night."

Go yururi to, "augustly quietly that," i.e. "Don't injure yourself by overdoing it (in walking, etc.)."

A noticeable peculiarity of this fifth class of quasi-adjectives is that they only occur prefixed to other words. They cannot be used predicatively at the end of a clause or sentence. If, for instance, we want to predicate smallness of a thing, we cannot say that it is ko. We must use a to-

<sup>\*</sup> Carefully distinguish long  $\bar{o}$ , "large," from short o, "honourable."

tally distinct word, such as *chiisai*. (For further details concerning the honorifics o, go, etc., see Chap XI, ¶ 395 et seq.)

### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

¶ 211. Comparison in Japanese is more often implicit than explicit. Thus, when referring to the relative height of Fujiyama and Asama-yama, a Japanese will not say as we should, "Fujiyama is the higher," but simply "Fujiyama is high" (Fuji ga takai, or Fuji no hō\* ga takai), that is, it is high as estimated from the standpoint of the other mountain mentioned. Similarly, when pricing various goods, a Japanese will not say "Which is the cheapest?" but simply "Which is cheap?" (Dochira ga yasui?) i.e. by implication, cheap as compared with all the rest. Indeed, even in English the so-called positive is not infrequently a comparative by implication. When, for instance, we talk of a lake as large, what do we mean but that it is larger than most other lakes in the country or in the world? When we say that such and such a man is old, what interpretation can be put on our words, except that the man in question is older than the majority of people? This is a consideration which will hardly occur to such as are familiar with European languages only; but it may well engage our attention for a moment as a curious, though simple, instance of the different channels in which Eastern and Western thought runs. The only disagreement between English and Japanese usage is that the Japanese employ

<sup>\*</sup> Hō means literally "side," hence "one," "ones," as Kono hō ga katai, "This one is hard." In phrases like that in the text, it has no English equivalent. Similarly in such contexts—and they are of frequent recurrence—as toshi no wakai hō, "the younger of the two."

these "comparatives and superlatives by implication" in nine cases out of ten, whereas with us they are somewhat exceptional.

¶ 212. Comparison may, however, be rendered explicit by using the postposition *yori*, "than," properly "from," as:

Asama yori, Fuji ga takai, or (more frequently) Asama yori, Fuji no hō ga takai, i.e. "(Viewed) from (the stand-point)

of) Asama-yama, Fujiyama is high."

Umibe de sodatta hito wa, Sea-shore at grew-up people as-for, lation makes better army than, navy 's troops to sailors than it does tekishimasu.

Muda na hanashi vvo suru yori
Useless talk (accus.) do than
vva, damatte iru hō ga
as-for, silent being side (nom.)
ii to omoimasŭ.
(is)good that (I)think.

"I consider silence better than useless chatter."

At bottom, the idiom is the same as that explained in the last paragraph, only more circumstantial. In negative phrases *yori* is replaced by *hodo*, which means "quantity," "amount," "about," e.g.

Asama wa, Fuji hodo takaku nai, lit. "As for Asama, (it) is not Fuji('s) amount high," i.e. "Asama-yama is less high than Fujiyama."

¶ 213. The idea of the superlative may be rendered explicit by the use of the word *ichi-ban*, "number one," "first," for instance:

Sore zva, ichi-ban omoshirō number one amusing," sozaimashō. will-probably-be.

"That will probably be number one amusing," i.e. "That will no doubt be the most amusing of all."

Fuji voo miru ni voa,
Fuji-yama (accus.) see for,
Otome-tõge ga ichi-ban
"Maiden pass" (nom.) one-number
yoroshiu gozaimasü.
good is.
"The Otome-tõge pass
from."

Ichi-ban kisha.
One-number train.

"The first train in the morning."

There are various other periphrases employed for the same purpose. Specially noticeable is one with the word uchi, "inside," "in," or its Chinese equivalent  $ch\bar{u}$  (nigori'ed to  $j\bar{u}$ ; conf. ¶ 28); thus:

Sono uchi no yosasō
That inside 's apparently-good to be the best of the lot."

Whichever may seem to be the best of the lot."

- ¶ 214. After all, the chief thing the student should bear in mind with regard to the Japanese equivalents for our comparative and superlative, is not to have recourse to them, but to accustom himself from the beginning to use the simple positive instead, which alone, in nine cases out of ten, is idiomatic.
- ¶ 215. "Still" with the comparative is rendered by one of the adverbs motto or nao; thus:

Motto chōjō made noborimashō.

More summit till will-probably-ascend.

further, up to the very top."

Kono hō zva, nao yoroshiū "This is a still gozd better one."

¶ 216. "The" with the comparative repeated is rendered by hodo, lit. "amount," thus:

Mireba miru hodo, rippa ("The longer I look at As-I-look, look amount splendid it, the more splendid it appears." desŭ. (it)is.

Takai tokoro hodo, kaze voo High place amount, wind (accus.) "The higher the situation, the windier it is." atemasŭ. applies.

¶ 217. "Very" (comparatively little used) is expressed by such words as hanahada, itatte, or taisō (ni), takusan. The word taihen (ni) resembles the "awfully" of English Colloquial parlance, and is in perpetual requisition. The following are a few examples:

Taisō ni kirei.

"Very pretty,"

Itatte muzukashii mon(o)) "It is an extremely difda. (Or more politely, desu.) ficult thing."

Hanahada o kinodokŭ ) "I am extremely sorry." Very honourably sorrow sama (de gozaimasŭ).

(More lit. "It is honourable sorrow for Mr. vou.")

Taihen ni omoshirō gozai- } "It was awfully jolly." mashita.

¶ 218. Another favourite phrase answering to our Colloquial "awfully" is the gerund of the adjective or verb, followed by the words shi-yō ga nai or shi-kata ga nai, which signify literally "there is nothing to be done," "there is no help for it," thus:

Atsŭkute shi-yō ga nai.

"It is awfully hot."

Kutabirete shi-yō ga nai. { "I am awfully tired," or "I am so tired I don't know what to do."

Taikutsu de shi-kata ga nai. "I am awfully bored."

N. B. Observe de in this last instance, where it replaces the gerund because taikutsu is not an adjective, but in reality a noun here used as a quasi-adjective.

The following expressions may serve to exemplify a kindred idiom answering to our "so" or "too:"

Kurakŭte mienai. { "It is so dark, I can't see;" or "It is too dark to see."

Tokute arukemasen { "It was so far, we couldn't walk there;" or "It was too far to walk."

Ano hito wa, baka de, That person as-for, fool being, tsükai-michi ga nai. employ-way (nom.) isn't. "He is such a fool that it is impossible to make any use of him."

¶ 219. "Not very" is expressed by amari, "excess," "too," or yokei (ni) "superfluity," with a negative verb, thus:

Amari omoshiroku nai. (familiar) \ "It is not very Amari omoshiroku gozaimasen. (polite) \ amusing."

Yokei gozaimasen. 

{ "There are not very many," or "There is not very much."

Yokei ni mokarimasen. Superfluously gains-not. ("There is not much money made."

# CHAPTER VIII.

## The Verb.

#### GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

- ¶ 220. The nature and functions of the Japanese verb differ considerably from those of the verbs of European languages. Conformably with the absence of number in the noun and of true personal pronouns, the Japanese verb entirely disregards all considerations of person and of number. "I am," "thou art," "he is," "she is," "it is," "we are," "you are," "they are," are all expressed by the same word da (familiar) or desŭ (polite). Similarly all the persons of the past tense ("I was," "thou wast," etc.) are expressed by the same word datta or deshita; all the persons of the probable present or future ("I probably am, or probably shall be," "thou probably art, or probably wilt be," etc.) by the same word darō or deshō. The present and past indicative can be used as adjectives (see ¶ 81 and ¶ 205), and even as nouns (see ¶ 45). Many of the moods are different from anything that exists in Europe. There are negative, potential, and causative conjugations, etc., etc. In fact, the whole verbal conception has been worked out in an alien manner.
- ¶ 221. Most of the Japanese verbal forms occurring in actual practice consist of four elements, viz., the root, the stem, the inflections or "base," and the agglutinated suffix or suffixes. Take, for instance, the word komarim ishit, which

is so often heard in conversation, and which signifies "(I) was in trouble," "was at a loss," "didn't know what to do." The root is kom, which we meet with in the small group of related verbs komu, "to stuff into," "to crowd into." "to inclose," "to confine;" komeru, synonymous or nearly so with komu; komoru, an intransitive verb signifying "to be in a state of confinement," "to be shut up." From the root kom is formed the stem komar by the agglutination of ar(u). "to be." To this is added the unexplained suffix i, which gives the "indefinite form" of the verb, a sort of participle or gerund (see ¶¶ 278—281 and ¶¶ 422—426), which can also be used as a "base" or foundation form, to which certain suffixes are agglutinated.\* In this case the agglutinated suffixes are mashi, which originally signified "to be," and ta, the index of the past tense, itself shown, by reference to the Classical form of the language, to be a corruption of the gerundial suffix te and of aru, "to be." The single word komarimashita therefore contains the verb "to be" three times over.

<sup>\*</sup> It seems almost incredible that serious grammarians should ever have thought of applying the name of "root" to the indefinite form of the verb, which is as much an inflection of the stem (probably an ultimate analysis would prove the inflection to be an agglutinated form obtained from the stem) as any other. There is no more reason for calling komari a "root" than komaru or komare. But the unfortunate precedent set by Rodriguez, and followed by Hoffmann, has been constantly adhered to by writers who have not taken the trouble to think out the subject for themselves. Hence we are treated to such sesquipedalian "roots" as araserare (really the indefinite form of the potential of the causative conjugation of aru, "to be"), and we are told that such is the form from which all the other principal parts of the verb are derived! It would be about as reasonable to call "disregarding" the root of the verb "to disregard," and to say that "disregardest," "disregardeth," etc., are derived from it.

- ¶ 222. Again take samasanai, "(I) do not cool" (transitive). The root is sam or sab, which we find in sameru, "to cool" (intransitive), "to fade," "to wake;" in samui. "cold;" and in samushii or sabishii, "lonesome." The stem is samas, formed from the root sam and the verb suru. "to do," the second a apparently owing its existence to the "attraction" of the first (see  $\P$  3). The third a is the inflection constituting the "negative base" samasa, to which is agglutinated the negative adjective nai, "non-existent," in order to form the certain present tense of the negative conjugation. In some cases—for instance in sameru, "to cool" (intransitive)—the stem (sam) is not a lengthened form of the root, but simply the root itself. In others again there is no agglutinated suffix, the base itself being used as an independent word. Of this the imperative of verbs of the first conjugation offers a good example.
- ¶ 223. Japanese roots form an obscure subject, and one into which it is not necessary for the beginner to plunge, as it has scarcely any practical utility. For practical purposes the stem (whether identical with the root, or a lengthened form of the root) may be accepted as an ultimate fact,—not indeed as a complete word, but as the unit to which the bases are attached. The stem itself should, theoretically speaking, always remain absolutely invariable. But we shall see later on how phonetic decay has caused all verbs of the first conjugation to depart from this standard in the modern Colloquial speech.
- ¶ 224. The "bases" are formed from the stem by the addition of one or more letters, whose origin is too obscure to discuss here. The bases are four in number, and all the other conjugational forms are obtained by agglutinating certain suffixes to them. Their names are the Certain

Present, the Indefinite Form, the Conditional Base, and the Negative Base.\* The Negative Base is never used as an independent word. The Conditional Base is, in the first conjugation, identical with the imperative. In the other conjugations it is not used as an independent word. The Bases are not always formed in the same manner, nor are the suffixes always attached to them in quite the same manner. Hence the distribution of verbs into different conjugations. Of these there are in the Written Language four, but in the Colloquial only three, as the third and fourth have coalesced.

# ¶ 225. EXAMPLES OF THE BASES IN THE THREE REGULAR CONJUGATIONS OF VERBS.

(The stem is Italicised.)

	ıst.	Conj.	2nd.	Conj.	3rd Conj.				
- a	to sell	to put	to sleep	to eat	to fall .	to see			
Certain Present	uru	<i>ok</i> u	neru	<i>tab</i> eru	ochiru†	miru			
Indefinite	uri	oki	ne	tabe	ochi	mi			
Negative Base	ura	oka	ne	tabe	ochi	mi			
Condit. Base	ure	oke	nere	tabere .	ochire	mire			

Observe how the letter r never enters into the formation of the bases of verbs of the 1st. conjugation, but always enters into the formation of those of the 2nd. and 3rd. conjugations. Of course r may appear in the *stem* of any verb, as it does in that of uru, "to sell," 1st. conj.

<sup>\*</sup> For the Certain Present, see ¶¶ 273 and 240; for the Indefinite Form, see ¶¶ 278 and 241; for the Conditional Base, see ¶ 252; and for the Negative Base, see ¶ 256.

<sup>†</sup> The stem—indeed the root—is really ot, as in the active verb otosu, "to drop" (1st. conj.). But the consonant t changes euphonically to ch before the vowel i (see p. 25).

- ¶ 226. Before proceeding to the more important matter of verbal paradigms, we may just mention in passing that, when naming Japanese verbs, it is usual to mention the present tense as in Greek, not the infinitive as in English, Latin, and most other European languages. Thus uru, "to sell;" yorokobu, "to be glad;" neru, "to sleep;" koshiraeru, "to prepare;" ochiru, "to fall;" kiru, "to wear." But uru has not the infinitive signification of "to sell;" at least it has not generally or properly that signification. It means "I (or you, they, etc.) sell." Similarly in the case of all other verbs. The Japanese language has no form exactly answering in signification to our infinitive. The usual makeshift for an infinitive will be found mentioned in ¶ 277.
- ¶ 227. The following paradigms of the three regular conjugations and of the three most important irregular verbs, viz. kuru, "to come;" suru, "to do;" and masŭ, for which English has no equivalent, will serve to show how the various Japanese moods and tenses are formed by agglutinating suffixes to the bases. The memory will be assisted by noticing that almost all the tenses of the Positive Voice are obtained from the Indefinite Form and the Conditional Base, while those of the Negative Voice are obtained from the Negative Base and the Certain Present. Note further that the only difference between the second and third conjugation is that while the vowel e characterises the former, the vowel i characterises the latter. This fact has caused some European grammarians to class them together as a single conjugation (the second). They are thus classed in Mr. Aston's Grammar and in Dr. Imbrie's "Handbook of English-Japanese Etymology."

3	put.	put.	" nave) put. ve) put. ttting.	-	I probably put, I shall probably put.
rion.	I,put, I shall put.	I want to put. likely to put. I put, I shall put.	having put, putting. """  I (have) put. I probably (have) put. if I had put. though I (have) put. sometimes putting.	put (thou)! if I put. though I put.	I probably pu
(ST CONJUGATION, which is the control of the contro		(used for all tenses)	The & of the stem is dropped in these tenses in modern speech.	=(	(nn)
FIRST CONJUGATION.  OKU, "to PUT" (stem ok).  POSITIVE VOICE.	oku .	okitai‡ okisō na okimasŭ‡	oite oicha oita oitaro oitara(ba)† oitarado(mo)† oitari	oke! okeba okedo(mo,†	oka re , okō (for okau)
.83	I. Certain Present or Future	definite Form Desiderative Adjective Adjective of Probability Polite Certain Present or Future	Gerund do. Emphasised Certain Past Probable Past Conditional Past Concessive Past Frequentative Form	nditional Base Imperative Conditional Present Concessive Present	gative Base Probable Present or Future
228.	r. Certain	2.* Indefinite Form Desiderative Adjective of P Polite Certain	Gerund do. Certain Probabli Conditii Concess Freques	3.* Conditional Base Imperative Conditional P	4* Negative Base Probable Pr

	do not put! (I probably do not put. (I shall probably not put.	I do not put, I shall not put. I did not put. I probably did not put. sometimes not putting. if I do not put. if I had not put. though I do not put. not having put, not putting.	I do not put, I shall not put. I did not put. I probably did not put. sometimes not putting. (I probably do not put. if I shall probably not put. if I do not put. if I do not put. if I had not put. though I do not put. not having put, not putting. """""""	N B See 202 et sea for the various compound tenses formed by means of auxiliary verbs, specially
(First Form.)	oku-na! okumai	okan(u)† okananda okanandarō okanendari okaneba okanandara(ba)† okanedo(no)†	NEGATIVE VOICE.  (Second Form—more used than the First.)  okanakatta  okanakattarō  okanakattarō  okanakarafa  okanakarafaro  okanakarafaro  okanakarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro  okanakattarafaro	e various compound tenses formed
	1.* Imperative Improbable Present or Future	4.* Certain Present or Future Certain Past Improbable Past Frequentative Form Conditional Present Conditional Past Concessive Present Gerund	4.* Certain Present or Future Certain Past Improbable Past Frequentative Form Improbable Present Conditional Present Conditional Past Concessive Present Gerund do, Emphasised	N B See ¶ 292 et sea, for th

NEGATIVE VOICE.

IV. D. See 1 292 et seq. for the various compound tenses forther by means of auxinary verus. Specially important are iru and oru, "to be," which form continuative tenses (oite iru or oiteru, oite ita, etc.) like our "I am putting," "I was putting," etc.; see ¶ 294.

† The letters within these brackets may be dropped at will. \* These numbers refer to the bases. ‡ Itself conjugated through the various moods and tenses (see p. 165.) SECOND CONIUGATION.

229.

TABERU, "to EAT" (stem tab).

	VOICE.	n.)			ttle-used in the Firs
	NEGATIVE VOICE,	(First Form.) taberu-na!	nt }tabemai	or $taben(u)^*$	r tenses of this li egative Base, as
"" (stem tab).		Imperative	Improbable Present stabemai	Certain Present Future.	N. B. The cther tenses of this little-used obtained from the Negative Base, as in the Firs

4. Improbable Present

I. Imperative

I eat, I shall eat.

POSITIVE VOICE.

I. Certain Present | taberu

or Future

I want to eat.

tabetai

(used for all tenses)

2. Indefinite Form tabe

Desiderative Adjective of

Adjective

likely to eat.

tabeso na

Probability

THE VERB. the First Conjugation. I do not eat.

(Second Form.)

4. Certain Present or Improbable Past Certain Past Future I probably ate.

having eaten, eating.

I eat, I shall eat,

Polite Certain Pre- \tabemasw

sent or Future .

Gerund

do. Emphasised tabecha

if I had eaten.

though I ate.

tabetaredo(mo)\*

Frequentative Form tabetari

tabero!

Imperative

!abetara(ba)\*

Conditional Past

Probable Past

Certain Past

Concessive Past

tabetaro

abeta

sometimes eating.

eat (thou)!

Frequentative Form tabenakattari Conditional Present tabenakereba Improbable Present tabenakaro or Future

I probably did not eat. sometimes not eating.

shall not eat. if I do not eat.

tabenakeredo(mo)\* though I do not eat. tabenakattara(ba)\*if I had not eaten.

Concessive Present

though I eat.

Concessive Present taberedo(mo)\*

Conditional Present tabereba

3. Conditional Base tabere

if I eat.

Gerund

Conditional Past

tabenakute tabenai de

not having eaten. not having eaten.

de. Emphasised tabenakucha

(I probably eat. I shall probably eat.

! tabeyo

Probable Present

or Future

4. Negative Base

\* The letters within brackets may be dropped at will.

not eating. not eating.

I probably do not or

tabenakattarō

tabenakatta

tabenai

I did not eat.

I shall not eat.

-	
,	NEGATIVE VOICE,
	POSITIVE VOICE.

THIRD I probably do not fall.
I shall probably not fall. I do not fall, I shall N. B. The other tenses of this little-used First Form are all obtained from the Negative Base, as in the First Conjugation. not fall. Certain Present or | ochin(u) † 4. Improbable Present | ochimai

do not fall!

(First Form.)

chiru-na!

I. Imperative

I fall, I shall fall.

chiru

I. Certain Present)

or Future

POSITIVE VOICE.

or Future

I want to fall,

ochitai ochi

> Desiderative Adjective of

2. Indefinite

Adjective

(used for all tenses)

likely to fall.

Future

I shall not fall. I do not fall.

I did not fall. Second Form.)

4. Certain Present or

having fallen, falling.

I fall, I shall fall.

.ochimasu ochiso na

Polite Certain Pre-

Probability

sent or Future

I probably did not fall. I probably do not or shall not fall. sometimes not falling. ochinakattarō Frequentative Form ochinakattari ochinakatta ochinakarō . ochinai Improbable Present) Improbable Past or Future Certain Past Future

sometimes falling.

fall (thou)!

chiro! ochitari

Frequentative Form

Imperative

though I fell.

ochitaredo(mo)

ochitara(ba)+

Conditional Past

Probable Past

Certain Past

Concessive Past

ochitaro

I probably fell. if I had fallen.

I fell.

ochicha

do. Emphasised

Gerund

ochita

ochinakeredo(mo)† though I do not fall. ochinakattara(ba)‡if I had not fallen. not having fallen. not having fallen. if I do not fall. not falling. not falling. Conditional Present ochinakereba do. Emphasised ochinakiicha ochinakite ochinai de Concessive Present

Conditional Past

Gerund

though I fall.

ochiredo(mo) +

if I fall.

ochireba .

Conditional Present

Conditional Base

Concessive Present

4. Negative Base

ochire

† The letters within brackets may be dropped at will.

\* See p. 25 and p. 152.

I probably fall. I shall probably fall.

Probable Present or ochiyo

Future

157

158								THE	VE	RB.								
THE IRREGULAR VERB KURU "to COME."	NEGATIVE VOICE.	First Form.)  1. Imperative kuru-na! do not come!		or Future   kimai   I shall probably not come.	4. Certain Present or \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	he other tenses of this little- m the Negative Base, as in the	(Second Form.)	4. Certain Present or   konai   I do not come. Future   I shall not come.	Certain Past konakatta I did not come.	Improbable Past konakattarō {I probably did not	.2.	Improbable l'resent $\begin{cases} konakar\bar{o} \end{cases}$ (I probably do not or or Future $\begin{cases} konakar\bar{o} \end{cases}$ shall not come.	Conditional Present konakereba if I do not come.	Conditional Past konakattara(ba)* if I had not come.	(om)0)*	Gerund konai de not having come.	do. Emphasised konakúcha not having come.	
¶ 231. THE IRREGULAR VE	POSTIVE VOICE.	1. Certain Tresent kuru or Future   kuru	m ki (used for all tenses)	Desiderative $kitai$ I want to come.	likely to come.	Polite Certain Pre- <i>i kinnasii</i> I come, I shall come.	Gerund kite having come, coming.	do. Emphasised kicha ", ", "Certain Past kita I came	Probable Past kitarō I probably came.	k kitara(ba)*	Frequentative Form kitari sometimes coming.		Conditional Present kureba if I come,	Concessive Present kuredo(mo)* though I come.	4. Negative Base ko	Probable Present   keyō   I probably come or Future   keyō   I shall probably come	Imperative koi / come (thou)!	

\* The letters within brackets may be dropped at will.

	IRREGULAR CONJUGATIONS.																			
	CE.	do not do!	I shall probably not	(I do not do	I shall not do.	N. B. The other tenses of this little-used First Form are all obtained from the Negative Base, as in the First Conjugation.		(I do not do.	(I shall not do.	I did not do.	I probably did not do.	sometimes not doing.	(I probably do not or	shall not do.	shinakereou ii I do not do. shinakattara(ba)* if I had not done.	shinakeredo(mo)* though I do not do.	not having done.	onot having done.	not doing.	
"to DO."	NEGATIVE VOICE.	(First Form.) suru-na!	shimai shimai		$sen(\tilde{u})\dagger$	tenses of this little ive Base, as in the I	(Second From.)	)	(sumar	shinakatta	shinakattarö	shinakattari	Shinakarā	7 7	shinakattara(b	shinakeredo(m	shinakite shinai de	shinabucha	Sterious test	
TERB SURU,	N	I; Imperative	2. Improbable Present (shimai	A Certain Present or	Future	N. B. The other obtained from the Negati		I. Certain Present or	Future	Certain Past	Improbable Past	Frequentative Form	Improbable Pre-	sent or Future	Conditional Past	Concessive Present	Gerund	do Fumbasised	no rambinasisca	mon be dropped of will
THE IRREGULAR VERB SURU, "to DO."	POSITIVE VOICE.	suru I do, I shall do.	shi (used for all tenses)	shitai I want to do.	shisō na likely to do.	shimasŭ I do, I shall do.	shite having done, doing.					do(mo)*	shitari sometimes doing.	shiyō (I probably do.) I shall probably do.	shiro! do (thou)!	sure		suredo(mo)* though 1 do.	86	fine to bound of more socious, within most of " *
232.	)d	I. Certain Present or Future	J.	Desiderative Adjective	Adjective of Pro-	Polite Certain Present or Future	Gerund	do. Emphasised	Certain Past	Probable Past	Conditional Past	Concessive Past	Frequentative Form	Probable Present	Imperative	3. Conditional Base	Conditional Present	Concessive Present	4. Negative Base	

\* The letters within brackets may be dropped at will.

do. Emphasised

Gerund 2nd. Base

Certain Past

Certain Present

1st. Base

or Future

233.

Conditional Past Concessive Past

Imperative

3rd. Base

Probable Past

do, not deigning to

nasaimasen de

Gerund

Deshita and deshitaro stand for de gozaimashita and de gozaimashi-The termination should be nakereva, but the first a is generally dropped.

\* The letters within brackets may be dropped at will.

The same is the case in the next two forms.

Probable Present or nasaimassus (for you probably deign Future sussaimassus) ( or will deign to do.

deign to do!

nasaimase!

Imperative

4th. Base

do(mo)\*

¶ 234. It will be found good practice to conjugate, according to the paradigms of the three regular conjugations, a few of the verbs in commonest use. Such are:

```
"to beat." komaru, { "to be in trouble." to take out." nomu, "to drink. "to make haste." omou, "to think." To be in trouble." to make haste." omou, "to think." To be in trouble."
f "to make haste."
                                        " to call.
  "to go out."
                        makeru, "to be beaten."
                                        (in war, etc.)
"to sleep."
 "to prepare." neru,
 "to get tired."
                          suteru, "to throw away."
  "to bathe."
                                         " to wear."
                       kiru.
  " to be able."
                        niru.
                                         "to boil."
  "to borrow."
                         tariru.
                                          " to be enough."
```

¶ 235. As may be seen by the paradigms, the Japanese verbal forms are not numerous in comparison with those of French, Latin, and most other European tongues. But a peculiar difficulty arises from the fact that all verbs of the first conjugation are more or less anomalous. In the Classical language each suffix was simply agglutinated to one of the bases, without any letter-changes occurring, e.g. gerund oki-te, "having put;" ari-te, "having been;" tsugi-te, "having joined." But in modern usage phonetic decay has obliterated this pristine simplicity, and has given us oite, atte, tsuide,—forms in which the stem loses its final consonant, and other letter-changes are apt to take place. The nature of the irregularity thus caused depends in every case upon the last letter of the

<sup>\*</sup> Vulgarly contracted to kosaeru.

of Eastern Japan. A similar case is offered by the verbs *kariru*, "to borrow;" *tariru*, "to suffice," and one or two others, which the genuine usage of Tōkyō inflects according to the third conjugation, but which public speakers sometimes make of the first conjugation (*karu*, *taru*, etc.), in imitation of the Kyōto dialect and of old Classical rules.

¶ 239. In the case of stems ending in s, the change of s into sh in the indefinite form is caused by the inability of the modern Japanese to sound an s before the vowel i. Originally nashi was probably nasi, and so in other cases.

The changes in the t series have their origin in a similar modern inability to pronounce that consonant before the vowels i and u. It is probable that, some centuries ago, people consistently said

PRESENT INDEF, FORM CONDIT, BASE NEG, BASE "to wait;" matu, mati, mate, mata. and the conditional and negative bases still retain the pronunciation which theoretical unity postulates, while the other two bases—matu and mati—have slid respectively into matsu and machi. All that we know for certain on this point is that the modern pronunciation was already established at the close of the sixteenth century, from which time the first Jesuit works on the language date. The insertion of a zv in the negative base of verbs ending in vowel stems (shimawa, iwa, omowa, nuwa) has its origin in a curious phonetic change which took place many centuries ago. Originally the stem of all such verbs ended in an f, thus:

PRESENT INDEF. FORM CONDIT. BASE NEG. BASE shimafu shimafi. shimafe shimafa.

- ¶ 237. It will be observed that most of the above letterchanges have ease of pronunciation for their sole efficient cause. Some, however, may appear strange; for instance, that affecting the stems in g, when d and j replace t and ch in the terminations. The reason of this is that when the nigori'ed letter g\* dropped out, there remained a feeling that the nigori should be marked in some other way. It was therefore carried on to the next syllable, converting plain t and ch into nigori'ed d and i. Had this not been done, many forms of such pairs of verbs as tsugu and tsuku would have become indistinguishable,—a disaster which has actually overtaken verbs with stems ending in b and m, and also those ending in a vowel, in r, and in t. Thus it is only by the context that we can tell whether yonde is to be understood as the gerund of yobu, "to call," or of yomu, "to read;" whether nutte is the gerund of nuu, "to sew," or of nuru, "to lacquer;" whether utte is the gerund of uru, "to sell," or of utsu, "to strike."
- ¶ 238. The Kyōto people, together with the people of Central and Western Japan generally, say

```
shimōte, shimōta, etc., for shimatte, shimatta, etc.

iūte, iūta, ,, ,, itte, itta, ,,

omōte, omōta, ,, ,, omotte, omotta, ,,

nūte, nūta, ,, ,, nutte, nutta, ,,
```

and the educated in Tōkyō sometimes follow their example, especially when speaking in public. But this sounds somewhat pedantic. The habit has arisen from the fact that in former days, when the Court resided at Kyōto, the dialect of that place was naturally esteemed above the vernacular

<sup>\*</sup> See ¶ 28.

of Eastern Japan. A similar case is offered by the verbs *kariru*, "to borrow;" *tariru*, "to suffice," and one or two others, which the genuine usage of Tōkyō inflects according to the third conjugation, but which public speakers sometimes make of the first conjugation (*karu*, *taru*, etc.), in imitation of the Kyōto dialect and of old Classical rules.

¶ 239. In the case of stems ending in s, the change of s into sh in the indefinite form is caused by the inability of the modern Japanese to sound an s before the vowel i. Originally nashi was probably nasi, and so in other cases.

The changes in the t series have their origin in a similar modern inability to pronounce that consonant before the vowels i and u. It is probable that, some centuries ago, people consistently said

PRESENT INDEF, FORM CONDIT, BASE NEG, BASE matu. mati, mate. mata, "to wait;" and the conditional and negative bases still retain the pronunciation which theoretical unity postulates, while the other two bases—matu and mati—have slid respectively into matsu and machi. All that we know for certain on this point is that the modern pronunciation was already established at the close of the sixteenth century, from which time the first Jesuit works on the language date. The insertion of a w in the negative base of verbs ending in vowel stems (shimawa, iwa, omowa, nuwa) has its origin in a curious phonetic change which took place many centuries ago. Originally the stem of all such verbs ended in an f, thus:

PRESENT INDEF. FORM CONDIT. BASE NEG. BASE shimafu shimafi. shimafe shimafa.

But according to a rule which permeates the whole vocabulary of the modern language, the f has been dropped before u, i, and e, and has been converted into a w before a, thus giving shimau, shimai, shimae, shimavea.

ANALYSIS OF THE FORMATION OF THE VARIOUS MOODS

AND TENSES IN THE REGULAR VERBS,

- ¶ 240. Certain Present or Future (the 1st. base): to the stem add u for the 1st. conjugation, eru for the 2nd., and iru for the 3rd. The origin of these terminations is unknown.
  - N. B. In the Written Language, both *eru* and *iru* are replaced by *uru*, a peculiarity to be heard also from the lips of some speakers.
- ¶ 241. Indefinite Form (the 2nd. base): to the stem add *i* for the 1st. and 3rd. conjugations, and *e* for the 2nd. The origin of these terminations is unknown.
- ¶ 242. **Desiderative Adjective:** to the indefinite form add *tai*. *Tai* is an adjective originally identical with *itai*, "painful," and is capable of conjugation like other adjectives, according to the paradigms on pp. 126, 128, and 130, thus: *okitaku*, *okitō gozaimasū*, *okitakereba*, *okitaku nai*, etc.
- ¶ 243. Adjective of Probability: to the indefinite form add  $s\bar{o}$  na (see p. 137).
- ¶ 244. Polite Certain Present or Future: to the indefinite form add masŭ, which can itself be conjugated through most of the moods and tenses, thus: okimashita, okimashō, etc. (see p. 160).
- ¶ 245. **Gerund** (by some called the Past Participle): to the indefinite form add *te*, observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162). *Te* is supposed by the native grammarians to be a fragment of the verb

hateru, "to finish." If this view is correct, oite, for instance, literally means "having finished putting," or "finishing putting." The next six tenses in the paradigm are all obtained by agglutinating other suffixes to the te of this one.

- ¶ 246. Gerund Emphasised: to the indefinite form add cha, observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162). Cha is a corruption of te wa, which latter original form is still mostly preferred by cultured speakers. Wa is the postposition treated of in p. 85 et seq.
- ¶ 247. Certain Past: to the indefinite form add ta, observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162). Ta is a corruption of the Classical past tari, itself derived from te ari (ari is the Classical "conclusive present" of aru, "to be"). Oita therefore etymologically means "am having finished putting."
- ¶ 248. Probable Past: to the indefinite form add  $tar\bar{o}$ , observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162).  $Tar\bar{o}$  stands for te  $ar\bar{o}$ , lit. "probably shall be having finished."
- ¶ 249. Conditional Past: to the indefinite form add taraba or tara, observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162). Taraba stands for te araba, lit. "if am having finished," araba being a Classical form—the so-called "hypothetical mood"—of aru, "to be" (see ¶ 287, p. 184).
- ¶ 250. Concessive Past: to the indefinite form add taredomo or taredo, observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162). Taredomo stands for te aredomo, lit. "though am having finished." Aredomo, the concessive present of aru, "to be," is itself compounded of the conditional base are and the postpositions to and mo.

- ¶ 251. Frequentative Form: to the indefinite form add tari, observing the rules of phonetic change in the 1st. conjugation (see p. 162). Tari would seem to stand for te ari, in which case its original meaning is the same as that of the past indicative tense.
- ¶ 252. Conditional Base (the 3rd. base): to the stem add e for the 1st. conjugation, ere for the 2nd., and ire for the 3rd. The origin of these terminations is unknown. The name of "conditional base" was given to this form by Mr. Aston from one of its functions, that of serving as the basis on which the present conditional tense is built up. From it is also formed the concessive present.
- ¶ 253. **Imperative:** in the 1st. conjugation it is identical with the conditional base; in the 2nd and 3rd. conjugations it is formed by adding to the indefinite form the syllable *ro*, which seems to be a corruption of *yo*, an exclamation resembling our word "oh!"
  - N. B. Some speakers drop the termination.—A familiar imperative, often used by members of the same household in addressing each other, is obtained by adding na to the indefinite form, as yobi-na! "call!" shi-na! "do!" It is uncertain whether this na be simply an interjection, or a corruption of the word nasai, "please." The former view is, however, the more probable.
- ¶ 254. Conditional Present: to the conditional base add ba, which is an irregularly migori'ed form of the postposition wa.
- ¶ 255. Concessive Present: to the conditional base add domo or do. Do is the migori'ed form of the postposition to, and mo is also one of the postpositions.
- ¶ 256. **Negative Base** (the 4th. base): in the 1st. conjugation add a to the stem; in the 2nd. and 3rd. conjugations the negative base is identical with the indefinite form.

The name of "negative base" was given to this form by Mr. Aston with reference to one of its functions, that of serving as the basis on which most of the tenses of the negative voice are built up. Note, however, that it likewise helps to form the probable present or future of the positive voice, together with all passives, potentials, and causatives. The name is, therefore, not a completely adequate one, though there is no harm in retaining it, provided the nature of the form itself be always borne in mind.

- ¶ 257. Probable Present or Future: in the 1st. conjugation add u to the negative base, and then contract the diphthong au thus obtained into  $\bar{o}$ . The termination u is a corruption of the unexplained Classical n. The steps of the process therefore are okan (the Classical probable present or future of oku), okau, okō. Rapid speakers sometimes go further still, and, shortening the o, say oko (retaining an emphasis on the final syllable). In the 2nd, and 3rd, conjugations the Classical language also simply adds n, thus: taben, "I shall probably eat;" ochin, "I shall probably fall" (not to be confounded with the negative present tabenu and ochinu). Some of the Colloquial dialects of the Western provinces vocalise this n into u exactly as in the 1st. conjugation, and say tabeu, ochiu. The Tōkyō forms in yō, as tabeyō, ochiyō, are built on a false analogy suggested by the  $\bar{o}$  sound of the future in the 1st. conjugation.
- ¶ 258. **Negative Imperative**: to the present indicative add *na*, which is probably a fragment of *nakare*, the Classical imperative of the "negative adjective" *nai*. (*Nakare=naku*¹ are\*, be\* not-being¹.)
- ¶ 259. Negative Probable Present or Future, also called Improbable Present: in the 1st. conjugation add

mai to the present indicative, in the 2nd. and 3rd. conjugations add it to the negative base. Mai is a corruption of maji, majiki, majiku, a Classical adjective expressing doubt or prohibition. In the Colloquial it has ceased to be conjugated.

- ¶ 260. **Negative Certain Present** or **Future**: to the negative base add *n*, which here and throughout the negative tenses is probably a corruption of the Classical negative particle *ani*, which exists likewise in Korean. The *n* should properly be followed by *u*, but this latter is now generally omitted in pronunciation.
- ¶ 261. Negative Certain Past: to the negative base add nanda, a termination of unknown origin.\*
- ¶ 262. Negative Probable Past i.e. Improbable Past: to the negative base add nandarō, formed from the negative certain past on the model of the same tense of the positive voice.
- ¶ 263. Negative Frequentative Form: to the negative add *nandari*, formed from the negative certain past on the model of the same tense of the positive voice.
- ¶ 264. **Negative Conditional Present:** to the negative base add *neba*. *Ne* is really a sort of negative conditional base formed on the analogy of the conditional base of the positive voice, and *ba* is the postposition *wa* with the *nigori*.
- ¶ 265. **Negative Concessive Present**: to the negative base add *nedomo* or *nedo*. For *ne* see the preceding paragraph. *Do* (for *to*) and *mo* are postpositions.
- ¶ 266. **Negative Gerund:** to the negative base add zu, a termination of doubtful origin. The postposition ni is often added to this form without affecting its signification, as tabezu ni for tabezu, "not eating," "without eating."

<sup>\*</sup> See, however, the present writer's "Essay in Aid of a Grammar of Luchuan,"  $\P$  124.

- ¶ 267. Second Form of the Negative Voice: to the negative base add the "negative adjective" nai (see p. 129) in one or other of its conjugational forms.
  - N. B. In order to avoid tedious repetition, we leave the student to analyse for himself on the above model the conjugation of adjectives given on p. 128. A curious little item for him to notice is the occasional substitution of the Chinese negative prefix fu or bu for the negative Japanese negative suffixes. The use of this idiom implies, not simple negation, but the additional idea of badness, dereliction of duty, etc. Thus, fu-deki, "badly made;" fu-iki-todoki, "negligent;" bu-ashirai, "discourteous."

### IRREGULAR VERBS.

- ¶ 268. Japanese has very few irregular verbs, and the irregularities even of these few are but slight. We have already given paradigms of the three chief ones, viz. kuru, "to come" (p. 158); suru, "to do" (p. 159); and masŭ (p. 160), which formerly meant "to be," but which is now used only as a termination that may be added to the indefinite form of any verb. With its aid there is obtained an honorific conjugation, which sounds more courteous than the ordinary conjugation and which is therefore in particularly frequent use. The plain verb without masŭ is apt to strike the ear as curt, especially at the end of a sentence. Instead of giving masŭ alone, the paradigm shows it attached to the verb nasaru, "to deign to do" (for nasaru, see also below, ¶ 270 and ¶ 402).
- ¶ 269. The peculiarities of the other slightly irregular verbs are as follows:—Aru, "to be," when combined with the postposition de, loses its final syllable, making du instead of daru. It lacks the desiderative adjective. Its negative voice likewise is not used, being replaced by the "negative"

adjective" nai. The improbable present or future arumai alone remains, used concurrently with nakarō.

- ¶ 270. Gozaru, "to be," in the mouths of most Tōkyō speakers, drops the r of its last syllable when  $mas \tilde{u}$  is suffixed; thus gozaimasŭ for gozarimasŭ (but see end of ¶ 388). The same is the case with the polite verbs irassharu, "to go," "to come;" kudasaru, "to condescend;" nasaru, "to deign to do;" and ossharu, "to deign to say." These latter verbs also use the forms thus obtained, viz. irasshai, kudasai, and nasai, as imperatives, in lieu of the older iraserare, kudasare, and nasare. But osshai is rare, osshaimashi being preferred. Another peculiarity of these four verbs is that, though now conjugated according to the 1st conj., they are corruptions of verbs originally belonging to the 2nd, viz., iraserareru, kudasareru, nasareru, and oserareru, properly potential forms which early assumed an honorific meaning (conf. ¶ 403). Kureru, "to give," 2nd. conj., follows their example, having the imperative kurei for kurero. Moreover, irassharu, kudasaru, and nasaru may drop the letter a of the termination aru in the gerund and in the six following tenses, thus: irashtte for irasshatte, kudasttarō for kudasattarō, nasttara for nasattara. In familiar conversation gozaimasŭ is often shorn of all its middle letters, and pronounced gozansu, gozasu, gasu, or gesu. Similarly gozaimashita becomes gashita, etc. When the particle de precedes it, gozaimasŭ is apt to lose its initial letter as well, de gozaimasŭ being fused into desŭ, de gozaimashita into deshita, etc.
- ¶ 271. Iku, "to go," instead of the gerund iite, the emphasised gerund iicha, etc., which would be required by the rule for verbs of the first conjugation with stem ending in k (see p. 162), shows the following irregular forms:

Gerund itte, "having gone, going," Emphatic Gerund "having gone, going." itcha. Certain Past "I went." itta. "I probably went." Probable Past ittaro. Condit. Past ittara(ba), "if I had gone." "though I went." Concess, Past ittaredo(mo). Frequent, Form "sometimes going." ittari.

These irregular forms of iku coincide with the regular forms of the same tenses of the verb iu, "to say." Otherwise the verb iku is conjugated regularly.

¶ 272. Shinuru, "to die," is conjugated regularly through most of the moods and tenses, as if it were shinu (stem shin), and belonged to the first conjugation. But the addition of the syllable ru makes its certain present shinuru, and also the negative imperative shinuru-na, irregular. It has, moreover, inherited from the Classical Language a conditional base shinure, which occasionally replaces the regular shine. Altogether it appears as a sort of hybrid between the first conjugation and the third.\*

### REMARKS ON THE USE OF THE MOODS AND TENSES.

¶ 273. Present, Future, and Past.—The Japanese verb does not, like ours, clearly distinguish present from future time. It has one form serving to denote any certain action or state, whether present, future, or habitual, and another serving to denote any merely probable action or state, whether present or future. It is the question of certainty or uncertainty that forms the criterion, not the question of time. Still, as future

<sup>\*</sup> Such does *shinuru* appear from the exclusively Colloquial stand-point, 
Proof has been supplied elsewhere ("Essay in Aid of a Grammar of Luchuan," section entitled "Excursus on the Origin of the Japanese Conjugations," p. 139 *ct seq.*) of the thesis that *all* Japanese verbs originally followed a system of which *shinuru* is the sole surviving relic.

actions and events must, in the nature of things, be more often uncertain than present actions and events, the form denoting certainty is applied in the majority of cases to present time, while the form denoting mere probability is applied in the majority of cases to future time.

Bara wa, ii hana da. "The rose is a beauti-Rose as-for, good flower is. ful flower." Doko ni sunde irassharu? "Where are you livin dwelling deign-to-be? (ing?" Kimasŭ ka? (certainty) "Will he come?" "Is he likely to Kimashō ka? (mere probability) come?" "Do you think he will come?" "He will come im-Fiki kimasŭ. (certainty) mediately." "He will probably Kimashō. (mere probability) come." Kimasŭ deshō "I don't think he will /probability of a negation come." "It snows;" snowing." Yuki ga furimasŭ. Snow(nom.) will will probably Yuki ga furimashō. Myonichi shuttatsu shimasu. (shall) start to-To-morrow start do "I think of starting Myönichi shuttatsu shimasho. to-morrow."

In this last case there is little difference in English between "I think I won't," and plain "I won't." The former is less abrupt; that is all. Similarly in Japanese,

kara, Wind (accus.) have-drawn because, caught cold, I think

I won't take

hiita

yoshimashō. hot-water (accus.) (I) will-probably-forbear. bath to-day." where consequently the merely probable present or future tense sometimes comes in a roundabout way to correspond exactly to our real future. Thus:

Isoide

Having-hastened, will-probably-go. (More politely, Isoide ikimashō)

"I will go quickly," or "I will make haste and go."

But it would do equally well to use the present, and to say *Isoide ikimasŭ*.—See also ¶ 291.

¶ 273. A. The essence of the probable present or future in Japanese being uncertainty with a strong tinge of probability, this tense is often used to express a supposition, such as English idiom generally conveys by means of the word "may," in certain cases "must." Thus, Fukuzawa, in his "Autobiography," after mentioning that he has never been in debt, adds:

yosu mite. Sono appearance (accus.) seeing, "Korva! nan de mo kanemochi "This-indeed! anyhow money-owner to suirvõ Suru hito do people is " that, supposition Tokoro. ga. arimashō. probably-are. Nevertheless. . zvatakŭshi mata 7E'a Sono as-for. also those to suryō-sha ga aro supposers perhaps-are that, (nom.) suisoku nakarō to. sono perhaps-are-not that, those suppositions atarō to perhaps-hit-[the-mark] that, (nom.) to, sukoshi atarumai perhaps-don't-hit-[the-mark] that, a-little tonjaku nashi mi, 1120 without. even concern to shite ai-kawarazu yuyu unchangeably quietly doing imasu. (I) am.

Some persons, seeing my manner of life, may well suppose me rich. Meanwhile I, for my part, continue to go my own quiet way, perfectly indifferent as to whether there may or may not be any such people, and as to whether their suppositions may or may not accord with fact.

Sazo go fu-jiyū "You must find it very de gozaimashō.

probably is. fu-jiyū inconvenience inconvenient."

N. B. Needless to say that this idiom cannot be used to express our very different "must" denoting necessity. The "must" of necessity is rendered by a double negative, thus:

Harawanakereba narimasen.
If-pay-not, won't-be.

"It won't do not to pay," i.e.

English speakers knowing a little Japanese are apt to use this double negative too freely, because in English we habitually scatter *musts* broadcast, even where no real necessity is implied, as, when rising to take leave, we say "I am afraid I must be going." A Japanese would say Mō o itoma itashimasū, lit. "Already I will do honourable leave."

¶ 273. B. Both the certain and the probable present must, in many cases, be translated by our conditional mood, thus:—

Mayoimasŭ nē!
Am-in-quandary indeed!

{ "Indeed I shouldn't know what to do."

Tōkyō no hǐto τεα, nan Tōkyō 's person as-for, what to iimashō P that will-probably-say?

nan "What would Tōkyō people say, I wonder? (e.g. if told of the dearness of living in America.)"

Kimo voo tsubushimasŭ. Liver (accus.) (they)will-burst. "They would be perfectly astounded."

- N. B. "I wonder," in the second of these instances, is intended to represent the shade of uncertainty inherent in the probable present iimashō. Japanese possesses no actual equivalent of our useful verb "to wonder."
- ¶ 274. The difference between the certain past and the probable past is precisely analogous to that between the certain present or future and the probable present or future:—

Kimo voo tsubushimashita. "He was astounded."

Kimo voo tsubushimashitaro. } "He must have been astounded."

It is unnecessary to dwell further on this point after the copious illustrations in the preceding paragraph. The student will be more perplexed by certain anomalous uses of the certain past itself. Thus this tense is sometimes used where English idiom would prefer the present, for instance: Arimashita (lit. "has been"), "Here it is!" said when one finds something which had been lost; Wakarimashita, "I have understood," i.e. "I understand;" Gozen ga dekimashita (lit. "dinner has forthcome"), "Dinner is ready;" Nodo ga kawakimashita (lit. "throat has dried"), "My throat is dry," i.e. "I am thirsty." Contrariwise the Japanese often use the present—especially the present of the negative—where strict logic demands the past, thus:

Narawanai kara, dekimasen. "I can't do it, because Learn-not because, forthcomes-not. I haven't learnt how."

¶ 275. In such an example as the following, the Japanese may seem illogical in using the past tense. But the English are equally illogical in using the present, seeing that the time referred to is future:

In the following example (and many similar ones might be quoted) the two languages play still more strangely at cross purposes, English using the past where Japanese has the future, and the present infinitive where Japanese has the past: Kō shǐta hō ga Thus have-done side (nom.) "You had probably better do yokarō.
will-probably-be-goo!.

N. B. Observe the phrase...hō ga yoi equivalent to our "should," "ought," "had better," and compare the foot-note to p. 144.

Somewhat similar are instances like the following, where the past tense (especially the past tense of adjectives) has the sense of our conditional:

Massugu ga chikakatta. Suraight (nom.) shorter to go straight on."

So do if, was-good. { "It would have been better to do so."

- N. B. If we were to use the bookish English idiom "it had been shorter," "it had been better," we should obtain a close approximation to the Japanese expression. Compare also last part of  $\P$  287.
- ¶ 276. Notwithstanding the occasional appearance of such cases as those hitherto exemplified, the use of the present and past generally gives no trouble, thus:

Tsune ni iu koto desŭ ka? \ "Is it a thing people Generally say thing is ? \ generally say?"

Ano hito zwa ki-yō da That person as-for, handy is kara, nan de mo shimasŭ. does. (Be careful to pronounce ki-yō as two syllables. Kyō, as one syllable, means "to-day.")

Uchi no shafu wa, 's jinrikisha-man as-for, "As the house jinrikishaashi voo itamemashita kara, because, man has hurt his foot, foot (accus.) has-hurt (trans.) I have called another no otoko 200 exchange man (accus.) instead." mairimashita. having-called have-come.

kiki Senkoku -111 vatta Former-hour hear sent "I sent to enquire a mada henii ga little while ago; but there whereas. (nom.) is no answer vet. gozaimasen. is-not.

¶ 277. The certain present and certain past, sometimes followed by the word koto, "thing," "act," "fact," to some extent replace the infinitive, a mood for which the Japanese language lacks a special form. Thus oku koto, "to put" in general; oita koto, "to have put" in the past:—

Mabushikute, miru koto ga Being-dazzling, to-see (nom.) adekimasen. Corthcomes-not.

Mita koto ga nai.

To-have-seen (nom.) is-not.

"I have never seen it."

¶ 278. Indefinite Form, Gerund, and Emphasised Gerund.—
The indefinite form of Japanese verbs is one to which there is nothing that exactly corresponds in our Western tongues. It is by itself of no tense and mood, but may denote any tense or mood according to the context. The rule regarding its use in the Written Language is as follows:—

When several clauses are correlated, that is to say, follow each other and express the same tense or mood, then only the verb or adjective of the last of such correlated clauses takes the termination which indicates the tense or mood intended by the speaker, the verbs or adjectives of all the foregoing clauses being put in the indefinite form. One thus has to wait till the end of the last clause before one can tell whether the writer intends to refer to the past, present, or future, to the indicative, conditional, imperative, etc. The final verb or adjective, so to speak, focuses and clinches

all that went before. Thus the Shinto theologian Hirata, when insisting on the inscrutableness of the divine nature, says:

Kami no mi ue wa. of august surface as-for, hakari-iu-beki midari ni mono calculate-say-should thing de rva nai. Tada sono tattoki Simply their venerableness is-not. voo tattobi, kashikoki voo (accus.) to-venerate, awfulness (accus.) kashikomi, - osoru-beki 700 to-reverence, fearfulness (accus.) osoreru hoka nashi. to-fear besides is-not.

"The nature of the gods is not a thing which men should rashly speculate and talk about. There is nothing else for us to do but to honour their greatness, to reverence their majesty, and to fear their power.'

In this passage tattobi and kashikomi, the indefinite forms of the verbs tattobu and kashikomu, must be rendered by our infinitive mood, because they are correlated with osoreru, which is in the certain present tense, here corresponding to what we term the infinitive (conf. ¶ 277). Note also the use of the bookish form in ki (see ¶¶ 177 and 178) of the attributive adjectives tattoki and kashikoki (for tattoi and kashikoi), here—as generally in the higher style employed in preference to the abstract substantives in sa, such as tattosa, kashikosa,

¶ 279. In the negative voice, the place of the indefinite form is supplied by the negative gerund, thus:

Sekai no kuni-guni no World 's countries uchi ni wa, somoku as-for, herbs-trees haezu, jimbutsu human-beings grow-not, nai tokoro ga exist-not places (noin.) arimasŭ. are.

"Among the various countries in the world, there are some where no plants or trees grow, and where no human beings live."

gerund of haeru, "to sprout," correlated with the present of the negative adjective nai.)

¶ 280. In the Book Language the foregoing rule concerning the use of the indefinite form is exemplified at every turn. It is also followed pretty frequently in set speeches, and sometimes even in the ordinary conversation of careful and cultured speakers. Foreign students should, therefore, not fail to make themselves acquainted with it. At the same time, it must be admitted that the familiar and lower styles of Colloquial almost completely disregard it. Sometimes it is replaced, as in European languages, by two or more clauses in the same tense. But more frequently the indefinite form gives way to the gerund, so that, for instance, the last example but one, if made genuinely conversational, would run thus:

Kami no koto wa, midari ni suiryō wa speculation as-for, rashly speculation as-for, dekimasen. Tada sono tattoi tokoro wo tattonde, canuot. Simply their venerable place (accus.) venerating, sono uya-uyashii tokoro wo uyamatte, sono osoroshii their awe-inspiring place (accus.) reverencing, their fearful tokoro wo osoreru yori hoka wa nai. place (accus.) to-fear than besides as-for, is-not.

- N. B. Notice the word tokoro, "place," used as a sort of suffix to the adjective tattoi, "venerable," to express the abstract quality of "venerableness," and similarly in connection with the adjectives of the other clauses.
- ¶ 281. Hardly a sentence—especially a sentence of any length—can be uttered without the gerund being thus used. Take, for instance, the following:

Matchi 700 motte
Matches (accus.) having-carried (More lit. "Having carried matches, come!"

" Please tell me."

Kikashite kudasai!
Causing-to-hear condescend!

Uchi ni ite, hon de mo
House in being, books even
mite orimashō.
looking-at (I) shall-probably-be.

"I think I will stay at home and read." (More lit. "Staying at home, I shall probably be looking at books."

Kaeri-gake ni kwankōba Returning-while in. bazaar votte, sŭkoshi kaive stopping, a-little purat shite kimamono chases having-done. (I) haveshita. come.

"On my way home, I looked in at the bazaar, and made a few purchases." (More lit. "Having stopped at the bazaar, and having made some purchases, I have come home again."

Kinō hiru-gozen 700 Yesterday midday-meal (accus.) uchi tabete. 200 having-eaten, house (accus.) demashite. sore kara having-gone-out. from mite, sumō 7820 wrestling (accus.) having-seen, kihan-nichi asonde half-day having-played mashita. have-come.

"I went out yesterday after luncheon, was present at a wrestling match, and had a pleasant afternoon." (More lit. "Having eaten luncheon, having gone out, then having looked at wrestling, having played half the day, I have come.")

¶ 282. Sometimes the gerund expresses instrumentality rather than correlation, thus:

Susugi-sentaku
Rinse-washing
shite, kurashi
doing, livelihood
tatete orimasŭ.
setting-up
is.

¶ 283. The gerund of adjectives occurs most frequently in phrases where English idiom employs the word "so," for instance:

Kurakute miemāsen. ) "It is so dark I can't see."

Itakute shiyō ga nai. don't know what to do," or "It is awfully painful." (Conf. ¶ 218.)

Occasionally the gerund of verbs is employed in the same manner, to help to express the meaning conveyed by our word "so," thus:

Ashi ga hiete being-cold, and I don't know what to do."

Ashi ga hiete being-cold, cold I don't know what to do."

¶ 284. The Emphasised Gerunds (oicha, tabecha, ochicha, shicha, etc.) are somewhat vulgar, or at least familiar, and cultured speakers still prefer the uncontracted forms oite wa, tabete wa, ochile wa, etc.

Necha inai. { "Oh! no; he is not asleep."

Matcha oraremasen. { "I can't wait."

Itcha  $d\bar{o}$   $da \geq 0$  "What do you say As-for-going-indeed, how is (it)? (to our going there?"

So shicha komarimasŭ. ("Annoyance will be caused if you do that."

So shicha ikemasen.
So doing-indeed, is-no-go.

("It won't do for you to do that," or "You mustn't do that."

Ko shinakucha narimasen.
This not-doing, not-doing, won't-be.

"It won't do not to do this," i.e. "You must do this."

- N. B. The last three examples illustrate what has already been said in the Note at top of p. 175 concerning the rendering of our word "must" by a double negative in Japanese, while also showing that "must not" is rendered by a single negative. Observe, moreover, the general tendency to use the emphatic gerund chiefly in phrases expressing negation, interrogation, or something disagreeable.
- ¶ 285. Desiderative Adjective and Adjective of Probability.—
  The use of these forms may be best understood from a few examples:

"Something Mitai mono. should like to see. Want-to-see thing. "I want to Sono 7820 mono. want-to-see. that." That thing (accus.) want to Chotto negaitō gozaimasu. you a slight favour." wanting-to-beg Slightly am. "Something which Arisō na koto. is likely to happen." Likely-to-be "Something which Arisō mo nai koto. isn't likely to happen." Likely-to-be also isn't fact. "It looks as if the ga Ame agarisō desu. likely-to-rise rain would clear off." (nom.) is. desu. (from the adjec-*Oishisō* "It looks good." oishii, tive Likely-to-be-nice is. "good to eat.") (e.g. a cake.)

¶ 286. Besides this "adjective of probability" obtained by agglutinating  $s\bar{o}$  to the indefinite form, there is an idiom formed by using  $s\bar{o}$  after the present or past tense.  $S\bar{o}$ , which is then best written as a separate word, has the force of "it would seem that," "they say that":—

¶ 287. Conditional Present and Past.—These tenses have a somewhat peculiar history. In the Classical form of the language there are what are called a "hypothetical present" and "hypothetical past," thus:

Condit. Pres., okeba, "when I put, "as I put;" tabureba, "when I eat," "as I eat."

Condit. Past, okitareba, "when (or as) I had put;" tabetareba, "when (or as) I had eaten."

Hypoth. Pres., okaba, "if I put;" tabeba, "if I eat."

Hypoth. Past, okitaraba, "if I had put; tabetaraba, "if I had eaten."

The hypothetical present, it will be noticed, was formed by suffixing ba to the negative base. All four forms may still be met with in the so-called Colloquial of certain books. But in actual Colloquial practice the distinction between hypothetical and conditional has been given up, and the sense of "when" is generally expressed by a periphrasis with the word toki, lit. "time," as kuru toki, "when he comes." The curious thing is that what have survived are the present tense of the old conditional mood, and the past tense of the old hypothetical. The single Colloquial mood thus pieced together from the halves of the two

Classical moods might perhaps better be termed the hypothetical, as it has the sense of "if....." But we have preferred the name of conditional as being more familiar to European ears, and as having been employed by other writers on Japanese Grammar. The only present tense hypothetical forms that have remained in common use are invaba, from iu, "to say," which is employed in the sense of "so to say," and naraba, from naru, a Classical verb meaning "to be," and not to be confounded with the naru which means "to become." Naraba therefore properly signifies "if it be;" but when employed as an auxiliary attached to other verbs, it comes to mean no more than "if." Thus iku naraba is "if I go." Naraba is often clipped of its last syllable, and becomes nara:—

Dekitara(ba), motte "Please bring it with you If-has-forthcome, carrying if it is ready." kite kudasai. coming condescend. iriyō naraba, "Please take it if you Honourably requisite if-is, require it." nasai. mochi honourably taking deign. iru nara, kashite "If you have no use for if, Open lending it at present, please lend it kudasai. to me." condescend. gozaimasu\ "I wish there were some Areba. võ

ga..... good (it) is (but I hardly think there are none."

Kochira de zonjite oreba, Here in knowing if-be, moshi-agemasu ga..... (Knew (but I don't know).") Thus if-do, forthcomes whereas...
or, with a stronger tinge of blame,
Kō sureba, dekiru mono you haven't tried, although
Thus if-do, forthcomes thing you ought to have done

700....
(accus.).....

These last three examples are specially important as illustrating a whole class of elliptical idioms with which Colloquial Japanese abounds, and by which our "I would if I could," "I should, had I been able," etc., etc., are expressed. It is true that the qualifying particles (ga, ni, no ni, mono voo) are sometimes absent; but they are generally there, and the sentence remains unfinished. After all, there is nothing to be astonished at in this. From the point of view of logic, a conditional sentence is always incomplete. For instance, when we say "I should like to travel," the implied rider is "but I cannot," or "I cannot yet," or some such clause. Compare also the words within parenthesis in the examples under discussion. Observe that ni final implies regret or reproach, while no ni superadds to this a further shade of meaning, showing that the thing to be done is either something concerning which a command had previously been given, or else that it is a point of duty, or that it refers to some other circumstance known to both speaker and doer. Mono zvo is more emphatic still. It lays still greater stress on the failure to perform the desired action, and often alludes to some accident or misfortune as the cause of such failure.

¶ 288. Concessive Present and Past.—The peculiar force of these forms corresponds most nearly to that of our word "though," but is generally best rendered in practice by prefixing "but" to the following clause. The orthodox

concessive forms given in the paradigms are not often heard in actual practice, being mostly replaced by the independent word *keredo* (mo), "though," itself of verbal origin, construed with the present or past indicative, thus:

Iya da keredo, shi-kata Distasteful is though, way-to-do ga nai. (familiar) (nom.) isn't. (It is distasteful to me, but I can't help myself."

Ii keredo, ne ga takai. "The article is a good though, price (nom.) (is) high. one, but it is too dear."

Sagashita keredomo, shi-Sought though, canremasen. not-know.

Shicanbut can't find it."

Sometimes, instead of keredomo or keredo, we hear the longer periphrasis to wa iedo(mo), lit. "though one says that." Thus oitaredo(mo), oita keredo(mo), and oita to wa iedo(mo) are all synonymous and equally correct. To wa iedo is abbreviated by some speakers to to wa ie.

¶ 289. A well-marked shade of meaning distinguishes the concessive mood proper from expressions closely resembling it in...te mo, de mo and to mo. Thus attaredomo, atta keredo, or atta to wa iedo signifies "though there was," "though there has been," whereas atta¹ to² itte³ mo⁴ (lit. "even⁴ saying³ that² there was¹) signifies "though there may (or might) have been," and aru to mo signifies "though there be." The former set of idioms serves to state facts, the latter to hazard suppositions:—

Karinakŭte mo tarimasŭ. Karinai de mo tarimasŭ. Borrowing-not even, suffices.

"I have enough, without borrowing any more."

Miru mo iya desŭ. Seeing even disagreeable is. Or Miru no mo iya desŭ. "I can't bear even to see it."

Iku to mo, yosu to mo,
Go whether, abstain whether,
go tsugo shidai ni
august convenience according to,
nasai.
deign.

"Pray suit yourself, whether it be to go or to stay."

Irvanakŭte mo shitteru. Saying-not even, knowing-am. "I know it without your telling me."

N. B. Shitteru stands for shitte iru. See end of ¶ 294.

Utchatte mo yoroshii.
Throwing-away even, (is) good.

done, even if you throw it away." I.e. "You may throw it away."

Sonna ni yoku nakute mo
Thus good not-being even,
yoroshii.
(is) good.

"You need not use such a good one."

N. B. These examples suggest the manner in which some of our idioms with "may," "need not," and "without" are to be rendered in Japanese.

We have already noticed in ¶ 118 (p. 83) the force, not unlike that of the concessive mood, often inherent in the postposition *tote*. Here is another example:

Seijin-tachi ga donna in-what mi yotte kangaeta way assembling reflected shire ya shinai. able-to-know as-for, do-not.

¶ 290. Frequentative Form.—Frequentatives are almost always used in pairs, the second member of the pair being generally followed by the verb suru, "to do." The fundamental force of this tense is either to show that the action denoted by the verb is occasional, or else to imply the alternation or opposition of two different actions. The English translation must vary according to circumstances:—

Kitari konakattari
Sometimes-coming sometimes-not-coming shimasŭ.
does.

Naitari konakattari
sometimes-not-coming and sometimes he comes, and sometimes he doesn't."

Nailari varattari, Sometimes-crying sometimes-laughing,  $\bar{o}$ -savagi  $des \tilde{u}$ . great-hubbub (it) is. "There is a great scene going on,—tears and laughter turn and turn about."

Kagen ga warukŭte,
Bodily-state (nom.)
netari okitari
sometimes-lying-down sometimes-getting-up shite orimasŭ.
doing am.

Kagen ga warukŭte,
being-bad,
okitari
sometimes-getting-up getting up and lying down again."

- ¶ 291. The Imperative occurs in military words of command, such as tomare! "halt!" and yasume! "stand at ease!" But in social intercourse, even with the lowest classes, it sounds rude, and is therefore rarely employed except in the case of a few honorific verbs, for instance asobase, "be pleased to do." An honorific periphrasis is mostly preferred, even when addressing an inferior, as will be explained in ¶ 409. It is to that paragraph that the student should devote his attention.
  - N. B. Observe, however, the idiomatic use of the imperative in such phrases as Nani shire, or nani itase, "do what you may," "act as one will." Conf. also end of ¶ 186.

A noteworthy idiom, by means of which the English first person plural of the imperative ("let us . . . . ") may generally be rendered, is shown in the following examples:—

 $K\bar{o}$  shiy $\bar{o}$  ja nai  $ka \geq 1$  { "Let us do it in this way." Hana-mi ni  $ik\bar{o}$  ja will-go arimasen  $ka \geq 1$  is-not ? { "Let us go and see the (cherry, etc.) blossoms."

Or else the future alone (without ja nai ka, etc.) may be employed. For instance, *Isoide ikō* may signify, not only "I will make haste to be off," but "Let us make haste to be off."

### AUXILIARY VERBS.

¶ 292. Properly speaking, several of the suffixes helping to form the moods and tenses are auxiliary verbs which were once independent, some of which are indeed still independent in other positions. Thus, when we make use of the common phrase yoku nemashĭta, "I have slept well," the polite suffix mashĭ originally meant "to be," and the past termination ta (for te aru) means "am having finished," as explained in ¶ 247 and ¶ 245. The whole word nemashĭta, resolved into its constituent parts, therefore signifies "am having finished being asleep." Many verbal stems, too, have been built up by means of the verbs aru, "to be," and eru, "to get" as:

alsumaru, "to collect" (intr.); alsumeru, "to collect" (trans.); suvaru, "to squat;" sueru, "to set."

N. B. Uneducated persons use such forms in aru unnecessarily when they say, for instance, narabaru, "to be in a row;" akatte imasŭ, "it is open." The simpler forms narabu and aite imasŭ are the correct ones.

¶ 293. More modern, and still felt to be separate and independent words, are the following auxiliaries:

Aru, "to be," which is often construed with the gerund of an active verb, to give a sense which we should render by a passive idiom, thus:

Muzukashiku kaite aru
Difficultly writing is
kara, watakushi-domo ni a hand for me to be able to
because, us
to read it." (More lit. "It is in such
difficult writing that to me and my
sort it is unreadable.")

Furoshiki ni tsutsunde Cloth-wrapper in having-wrapped arimasŭ. is. "It is wrapped up in a cloth." (More lit. "It is in a state of wrapped-up-ness in a

N. B. The corresponding active phrases "is writing," "is wrapping up," etc., would be rendered by kaite iru or oru, tsutsunde iru or oru, as explained in ¶ 294. Notice, moreover, that these quasi-passive idioms with aru always denote something which is done already, not something which is being done, that is to say that they are never what English grammarians term "continuative tenses." They are also rather intransitive in intention than properly passive.

The most frequent use of *aru* as an auxiliary is to form compound equivalents for the probable present or future, and for several of the tenses of the negative voice, thus:

Kuru de arō or kuru darō, for koyō, "will probably come."

Konai de atta or konaidatta, for konakatta, "did not come."

Konai de attarō or konai dattarō, for konakattarō, "has probably not come."

For darō, datta, etc., may be substituted their polite equivalents deshō, deshita, etc., already mentioned on p. 171, thus: kuru deshō, konai deshita, konai deshitarō. Notice that the compound future expresses a somewhat stronger shade of doubt than the simple future. Aru is also replaced by the politer gozaru in such phrases as naorimashite gozaimasŭ, for naorimashita, "He has got well again." The lower classes, too, when addressing their superiors, frequently use the periphrasis gozaimasen de gozaimasŭ in lieu of simple gozaimasen, "there is not."

¶ 294. Iru and oru, "to be," construed with the gerund, form continuative tenses corresponding to such English expressions as "I am reading," "I was writing," "I shall be working," etc., thus:

Nani voo shite imasu? "What is he doing? is? What (accus.) doing

Mada nete orimasu. "He is still sleeping." Still sleeping is.

Necha imasămai. Sleeping-as-for, probably-is-not. "He is not likely to be sleeping." (emphatic gerund.)

kara kumotte "It has been clouding This-morning since, clouding orimashila ga, tātā ame ni over (or cloudy) since the had-been whereas, finally rain to morning, and now at last it has come on to rain." natte kimashita. having-become has-come.

Igirisu no ichi-ri to, Nihon) England 's one-mile and, Japanese "Which do you think is no ichi-ri to, dochira ga 's one-league and, which (nom.) the longer, an English mile or a Japanese ri?" nobite imashō? extending probably-is?

"He is having come." Kite orimasi. Having-come is.

In such an instance as the last, the simple past kimashita would be less clear; for it might only mean that the man had come and had gone away again, whereas kite orimasu can only mean that he has come and is still there.

Sometimes we must translate such sentences by the English passive, Japanese idiom almost invariably preferring the neuter, thus:

Mada dekite imasen ka? { "Isn't it finished yet?"

Very often the word iru, "to be," loses its initial i after the gerund, especially in the present tense, and we hear neteru for nete iru, "is sleeping;" kaiteru for kaite iru, "is writing," etc. This is a good example of the tendency of the Japanese language to turn independent words into agglutinated suffixes. In very vulgar parlance the particle wa, used with an exclamatory force, often coalesces with a preceding iru. Thus naite irā! "oh! he is crying." Such expressions are to be carefully avoided.

N. B. Observe, too, that iru is often politely replaced by irassharu.

¶ 295. Kuru, "to come," construed with the gerund, forms what grammarians of certain other East Asiatic languages have termed "illative" tenses,—" illative" because they superadd to the main idea the subsidiary idea of motion towards the speaker or the person addressed, thus:

Kippu zvo katte
Ticket (accus.) having-bought
kimashō.
will-come.

"I will go and buy a

Yonde kimashō ka? "Shall I go and call Having-called shall (I)come ?" him?"

Omoshiroi koto zvo itte
Amusing thing (accus.) saying tita.
has-come.

\*\*Material Composition\*\*

\*\*He has told us a funny story."

- N. B. Observe how English sometimes exactly reverses the Japanese idiom, using "to go" where Japanese has "to come." In other cases, as in the last of the above examples, the word "come" must simply be omitted in English as superfluous.
- ¶ 296. Miru, "to see," construed with the gerund, shows that an action is to be attempted, but without any very great effort,—that it is to be, as the slang phrase has it, just taken a shot at:

Yatte mimashō. (from yaru, at it." I will just try my hand

Kitte miru ga 'ii.

Asking to-see (nom.) is-good.

"You had better enquire."

Nete mite mo neraremasen
Sleeping trying even, could-not-sleep
deshita.
(it)was.

(it)was.

- ¶ 297. Nara(ba), "if it be," serves to form a compound conditional (see p. 185).
- ¶ 298. Oku, "to put," construed with the gerund, indicates the full and complete settling of a matter, thus:

Kippu 700 katte
Ticket (accus.) having-bought "I have got my ticket
okimashita.
have-put.

Kangaete oile kudasai.
Reflecting putting condescend.

{ "Please think the matter zvell over."

Techō ni tsŭkete "I think I will put it down in my note-book (so as to be sure to remember it)."

· Sore made no koto ni shite 2s till thing to doing "There is nothing for it oku hoka. shĭ-kata ga but to let the matter rest to-put besides, way-to-do (nom.) there." nai is-not.

Atsuraete oita.
Having-ordered have-put.
(More politely, okimashita.)

"I have ordered it (at a shop.)"

N. B. The word oita in this last example shows that the speaker thinks that the order will be satisfactorily executed. Atsuracte kita would mean that one had just come from leaving the order with the shopman.

Oku suffixed often causes e final of the preceding gerund to be clipped in hurried speech,—atsuraete oita, for instance, becoming atsuraet oita.

¶ 299. Shimau, "to finish," construed with the gerund, expresses the completion of an action, thus:

Shinde shimatta. (familiar) "He is dead and gone." Having die1 has-fin'shed.

Isha sama ni natte
Physician Mr. to having-become a doctor (after having had sevshimaimashita.
has-finished.

"He has become a doctor (after having had several other professions in view)."

Motte

Having-carried

shimaimashita.

has-finished.

Motte

having-gane
having-gane

"He has carried it off."

Utchatte shimaimashō. ("I think I will throw it Throwing-away (I)-will-finish. (arvay."

Tōtō hom-buri ni natte
At-last main-falling to having-become shimaimashita.
has-finished.

"It has ended by turning into a regular wet day."

N. B. "Main-falling," in this last example, having been supposed by some students of the first edition to be a misprint for "rain-falling," it may be well to point out that hon, "main (rain)," is here antithetical to "occasional (rain)," or what we should call "a shower," Jap. yūdachi.

Beginners might easily be led into misapprehension by attributing to *shimau* an independent force, instead of looking on it as a simple auxiliary to the verb which precedes it. This point requires attention. Thus *nete shimatta* does not mean "He has finished sleeping," but rather "He has finished by sleeping," or more simply, "He has gone to sleep." *Dete shimaimashita* does not mean "He has finished going out," but "He has gone out."

¶ 300. The negative present of *suru* or *itasu*, "to do," construed with the indefinite form of any verb and the postposition *wa*, forms an emphatic equivalent for the negative present of that verb. In such contexts *wa* is generally pronounced *ya* in familiar intercourse (conf. p. 88):

Ari wa shimasen. (polite)
Ari ya shinai. (familiar)

"There isn't any."

Sonna koto wa, ii Such thing as-for, saying "I should never dream of ya ilashimasen. saying such a thing."

Mō ki ya ilashimasen. ("I am sure he won't Again coming as-fir, (he)will not-do. (come again."

When two such clauses are co-ordinated, mo replaces wa in both, thus;

Mi mo shinai, kiki mo Seeing even do-not, hearing even heard anything."

dent.

The first of two clauses thus co-ordinated is often put in the conditional, strange as such a construction may seem to European ideas. Thus the last example might equally well read thus: Mi mo shinakereba, kiki mo shinai. Indeed this last would be the most strictly grammatical manner of expressing the idea; for the two clauses would then be correlated syntactically, according to the rule explained in \$\$1278-279\$ (pp. 178-9), sezu being the negative gerund of suru, "to do."

¶ 301. Yaru, "to send," "to give," construed with the gerund, often helps to form a periphrasis for the simple verb when that verb is a transitive one, the periphrasis always retaining something of the idea of "giving," as in the following examples:

Dashite yaru, or dasu.

"To put outside."

Butte yarimashō.

"I will give him a beating." (Buchimashō would be simply "I will beat him.")

(Inu wo tokimasŭ would be simply "I am going to untie the dog.")

Daiku ni koshiraesasete Carpenter by, causing-to-prepare yarimashō.
(I) will-probably-give.

koshiraesasete Carpenter make one."
(Either in order to give him work, or in order to benefit some poor person.)

There are a few more auxiliary verbs; but as their force is purely honorific, the student is referred to ¶ 402 et seq., where the subject of honorific verbs is discussed at length.

¶ 302. The Japanese have a great fondness for rounding off their sentences by one of the equivalents for "to be," or by kuru, oku, shimau, or yaru. The plain verb, without one or other of these auxiliaries, is apt to sound bald. We do not mean to say that the auxiliaries are meaningless expletives. Far from it. They always retain in the mind of the Japanese speaker a portion of their original force. But whereas English idiom for the most part simply states the occurrence of an action, Japanese idiom delights in describing more particularly the manner of the action's occurrence with reference to the subsidiary ideas of "coming," "finishing," etc., which the auxiliaries express. For instance, an English maid-servant, speaking of a piece of dirty linen, will say "I will have it washed, Sir." Her Japanese sister would say Arawashite okimasho, lit. "Having caused (some one) to wash (it, I) will put (it)," that is to say, "I will have it washed, and there it will be." The simple verb merely states a dry fact. The addition of the auxiliary makes the action seem to pass vividly before you. The sentence becomes lifelike and picturesque.

## CHAPTER IX.

# The Verb (concluded).

#### PASSIVE AND POTENTIAL VERBS.

¶ 303. The Japanese language has no special conjugation for the passive voice. All passive verbs belong to the second (active) conjugation, the paradigm of which has been given on p. 156. They are derived from the corresponding active or neuter verbs according to the following rule:—

In verbs of the 1st conjugation add *reru*, in verbs of the 2nd and 3rd conjugations add *rareru*, to the negative base, thus:

The irregular verbs kuru, "to come;" shinuru, "to die;" and suru, "to do," have the passives korareru, shinareru, and serareru respectively. The polite termination masŭ is not susceptible of the passive form.

- ¶ 304. A glance at the origin of the Japanese passive will furnish the student with a key to all the difficulties connected with it. Properly speaking, the so-called passive is not a passive at all, but an active in disguise. Such a form as utareru, for instance, is etymologically uchi¹ ari² eru,³ as literally as possible "to get³ being² beating¹," i.e. "to get a beating," "to get beaten." hence "to be beaten." Similarly irareru is from the stem i, a euphonic r, and ari eru, i.e. "to get being shooting," "to get a shooting," "to get shot." Hence the place of all passive verbs in the second conjugation along with the verb eru, "to get." Hence, too, the fact that intransitive verbs are susceptible of passive forms, such as furareru, "to get rained upon," "to have it rain," from furu, "to rain;" shinareru, "to have some one die."
- ¶ 305. This curious idiom may be better illustrated by some complete sentences, thus:

Otottsan ni okorareru
Papa by (you) will-be-got-angry,
oh!

("Oh! you will have (or make) papa angry with you;" more lit.
"You will be got angry with] by papa."

Anna kyaku ni korarecha,
Such guests by getting-come,
meizwaku shimasŭ,
perplexity dces.

korarecha, getting-come, such guests as those come to the house;" more lit. "when he is come [to] by such guests."

Or take from the opening sentence of the second chapter of the "Botan Dōrō" in the Practical Part of this work, the words

Go shimpu sama ni wa naku Augist real-fath r Mr. by a for, non-existent narare....

getting-l ecome....

Parsed literally, they signify "Being died by his father;" but they simply mean "Having had his father die," or, as we should generally express it, "Having lost his father."

- N.B. As shown in the above instances, the preposition "by" of English passive constructions is expressed by the postposition ni. Some further examples will be found in ¶ 105.
- ¶ 306. The following examples are of a somewhat different nature:

Ano hito wa, dare ni That person as-for, who by de mo homerarete imasŭ. body."

He is praised by everybody."

Kono inu wa, muyami ni This dog gets itself hoeru kara, hito ni barks because, people by gets-disliked. "This dog gets itself disliked, because it is for ever barking."

Kubi wo hanerareta. Head (accus.) got-struck-cff. "He got his head cut off," less lit. "His head was cut off."

Ashi wo inu
Leg (accus.) dog
kui-tsŭkaremashŭa.
(I) have-got-bitten.

mi by "I have had my leg bitten by a dog;" less lit.
"I have been bitten in the leg by a dog;" still less lit.
"My leg has been bitten by a dog."

Oshii koto ni va, yūkyō ni Regrettable fact as-for, pleasure by, kokoro vo ubawaremashite, heart (accus.) having-got-stolen, gyō ga orosoka ni business (nom.) remissness to narimashita. has-become.

as-for, pleasure by, ubavvaremashite, having-got-stolen, orosoka mi remissness to mi to missing the hard specific missing

 $N.\,B.$  The phraseology of this last example would hardly be understood by the lower classes.

- ¶ 307. The presence of \$\text{tvo}\$ in such examples as the last three is apt to puzzle the beginner. But there is nothing really illogical about it. The word accompanied by \$\text{tvo}\$ actually is in the accusative in Japanese, as shown by the literal translations we have given. It is not in any way the subject of the sentence. That its English equivalent in a free translation may happen to be the indirect object of the verb, or even a nominative, only shows how necessary it is for those who would speak idiomatically to get into the habit of looking at ideas from the Japanese point of view. The real nominative here, as in sentences of every kind, is very rarely expressed in Japanese. (Conf. 131, p. 92.)
- ¶ 308. It is important for the student, when occupied with Japanese passive constructions proper, to compare what has been said in ¶ 293 (p. 190) concerning an intransitive idiom with aru, "to be," by which the English passive is frequently expressed. To that paragraph he is accordingly referred.
- ¶ 309. The passive often passes into a potential sense. Thus, okareru may mean either "to be put," or "to be able to put;" korareru may mean either "to have some one else come to one" ("to be comed"), or "to be able to come." This peculiarity of modern Colloquial Japanese seems, like certain others, to be traceable to Chinese influence, the Chinese auxiliary verb 🔠 (rendered by eru in Japanese) having the two significations "get" and "can."
  - N. B. The single form *omowareru*, from *omou*, "to think," is somewhat exceptional. When taken potentially, it does not mean "to be able to think," but "to venture to think," "I am inclined to think."
  - N. B. For the natural transition of these passive-potential forms to an honorific sense, see ¶ 403.

Ano hito ni wa, sake wa as-for, liquor as-for (More lit. "Sake does not get drunk by him.")

Gozen ga taberaremasen. Rice (nom.) gets-not-eaten.

"I can't taste a morsel.

Mairaremasu.

"One can go."

Ikaresō mo nai. Likely-to-be-able-to-go even am-not. (or more politely gozaimasen.) "I am not likely to be able to go."

Mazukute taberaremasen.
Being-nasty, cannot-eat.

"It is too nasty to eat."

Kyō no atsusa wa, korae-To-day 's heat as-for, cannotraremasen,

"The heat to-day is unbearable."

¶ 310. Potentiality is often otherwise expressed by means of the verb dekiru, a corruption of the Classical (i)de-kuru, "to come out," "to forthcome." Dekiru has assumed the signification of "to eventuate," "to take place," "to be ready," "to be done," "possible," but must often be rendered in English by the active "can," "can do," thus:

Watakushi wa agaru koto ga' Me as-for, go-up fact(nom.) dekimasen kara, anata ga "As I cannot go to you, because, you (nom.) forthcomes-not I can only see you if you o ide kudasaru koto ga will be so kind as to come honourable exit condescend fact (nom.) to me." dekimasŭ nara, mi forthcomes if, honourable eyes kakarimashō. will-probably-hang.

The original intransitive meaning of *dekiru* sufficiently explains why this verb is construed with the nominative

particle ga, and not with the accusative particle wo,—a point which foreigners often fail to grasp.

¶ 321. Impossibility is sometimes expressed by means of the verb *kaneru*, "to be unable," "cannot," which is suffixed to the indefinite form, thus:

Sekkaku 220 0 Sasoi am sorry I Special-pains of honourable invitation cannot avail myself de gozaimasă ga,- konnichi of your exceedingly although, to-day invitation mairi-kanemasŭ. to-day." go-cannot.

moshi-kanemashita) "I hardly like to Makoto Truth in say-could-not ask you for it, but kasa ip-pon would you kindly umbrella (accus.) one-piecey me an kashi kudasaimashi. brella?" honourably lending condescend.

• This idiom, which is inherited from the Written Language, is now heard only from the lips of the educated.

¶ 312. The verb morau, "to receive" (more politely, itadaku, "to put on the head," in allusion to the Japanese custom of raising a present to the forehead), construed with the gerund, helps to form an idiom which closely resembles the so-called passive both in formation and meaning, thus:

Shimbun we - yonde morau, Newspaper (accus.) reading to-receive,

i.e. "to receive [somebody else's] reading of the newspaper," or, as we should generally say, "to have the newspaper read aloud to one."

Monde morau. Rubbing to-receive. f "To have oneself shampooed." Asa hayaku okoshile moraitai.

Morning early, rousing called early in the morning."

wish you Dōka shinsen shite 7820 (accus.) doing (would be so Please august assistance verv kind as to help me." itadakitō gozaimasŭ. wishing-to-receive (very polite) am.

N. B. These last two examples show how wishing is expressed in the passive voice, the desiderative adjective of passive verbs not being in colloquial use.

One may even say *Moratte moraitai*, "I should like him [to do me the favour] to take it."

- ¶ 313. Many English passive verbs must be rendered by Japanese intransitives. This happens when the idea is one which does not necessarily imply the action of an outer agent, as in kŭtabireru, "to be tired;" odoroku, "to be astonished;" tasŭkaru, "to be saved" (not by another person, which would be the passive tasŭkerareru, but rather "to be safe owing to having escaped from danger"); yorokobu, "to be pleased;" hasen¹ m² an², "to be shipwrecked," lit. "to meet³ with² shipwreck.¹" After all, "to be tired," "to be astonished," "to be pleased," are not necessarily passive ideas even in English, as may be seen by comparing them with such synonyms as "to be weary," "to wonder," "to rejoice."
  - N. B. Many of the verbs here spoken of are inchoative, i.e. they mark the beginning of a condition. For instance, kitabireru means properly "to become tired;" mureru is "to get wet;" kawaku is "to get dry." "I am tired" is expressed by kitabirete iru, or by the past tense kitabiremashita. Similarly:

Nurete imasu, or Nuremashita.

"I am (i.e. have become) wet."

Kimono ga kawakimashita.

"Your clothes are dry (i.e. have become dry after having been wet)."

¶ 314. The aversion of the Japanese language to the use of passive constructions is strongly marked. In nine cases out of ten, the English passive must be replaced either by one of the intransitive verbs just mentioned, or by an active though subjectless construction, thus:

Risŭke<sup>1</sup> to<sup>2</sup> iu<sup>3</sup> otoko<sup>4</sup>, "A man called Risŭke;" lit. "A man<sup>4</sup> (of whom people) say<sup>3</sup> that<sup>2</sup> (he is) Risŭke<sup>1</sup>."

Kyo-nen¹ tateta² uchi³, "A house built last year," lit. "A house³ (which some one) built² last-year.¹"

Ate<sup>1</sup> ni<sup>2</sup> narimasen<sup>3</sup>, "It is not to be depended upon," lit. "(It) becomes-not<sup>3</sup> to<sup>2</sup> reliance<sup>1</sup>."

Yoshita¹ hō² ga³ yokarō⁴, "It had better be given up," hit. "The forbore¹ side² will-probably-be-good⁴."

Kore<sup>1</sup> wa<sup>2</sup> nani<sup>3</sup> ni<sup>4</sup> tsŭkaimasŭ<sup>5</sup>? "What is this used for? lit. "As-for<sup>2</sup> this<sup>1</sup>, (people) use<sup>5</sup> (it) for<sup>4</sup> what<sup>3</sup>?"

Kore<sup>1</sup> zva<sup>2</sup>, nan<sup>3</sup> de<sup>4</sup> dekite<sup>5</sup> orimasŭ<sup>6</sup>? "What is this made of?" lit. "As-for<sup>2</sup> this<sup>1</sup>, what<sup>3</sup> by<sup>4</sup> forthcoming<sup>5</sup> is<sup>6</sup>?"

Konna¹ tansu² vva³, doko⁴ de⁵ kaemasŭ⁶? "Where are such cabinets as this to be bought?" lit. "As-for³ such¹ cabinets², where⁴ at⁵ are-buyable⁶?"

These examples, together with those given on pp. 57—8 and in ¶ 439, besides others scattered throughout the volume, may serve to show the student how passive idioms are avoided. He could hardly do better than forbid himself the use of them altogether during the first six months of his battle with the language.

## ON CERTAIN INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

¶ 315. Japanese has a large class of verbs which it is generally convenient to translate by English passive or potential idioms, but which in Japanese itself are, properly speaking, intransitive. Even in English we feel a difference between

two such assertions as "The gold is melting in the furnace," and "The gold is being melted in the furnace." In the first case the melting appears as a spontaneous event; in the second case it is explicitly declared to be the work of some outer agent. The verb of the former corresponds to the Japanese tokeru, "to melt" (intransitive); that of the latter to tokareru, "to get melted" (passive derived from the transitive toku, "to melt"). There are thus numbers of intransitive verbs of the second conjugation, formed from transitives of the first conjugation by changing the termination u into eru:—

TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE	
kaku,	kakeru,	"to write."
kiru,	kireru,	"to cut."
toku,	tokeru,	"to melt."
toru,	toreru,	" to take."
uru,	ureru,	" to sell."
yomu,	yomeru,	"to read."

- ¶ 316. The transitives kiru, uru, yomu, etc., are used in translating such phrases as "to cut a slab of stone," "to sell goods," "to read a sentence." The intransitives kireru, ureru, yomeru, are used in translating such phrases as "This stone cuts easily," "These goods sell cheaply," "This sentence does not read well." The Japanese construction is less closely followed, but practical convenience often best served, by employing the word "can," thus:
  - "You can cut this stone easily."
  - "These goods can be sold cheaply."

More especially is this the case when the original verb is itself intransitive according to English ideas, thus: iku, "to go;" ikeru, "(I) can go." But there is never any reference to "I" or "can" in the mind of the Japanese speaker.

- ¶ 317. The difference between the intransitives in *eru* and the true potentials in *areru* and *rareru* is that the latter tend to express moral ability—"may" rather than "can,"—because the moral ability to perform an action depends on the sanction of a law outside the agent; whereas the forms in *eru* express a physical ability—"can" rather than "may,"—because the physical ability to perform an action is generally independent of any outer will. Thus *ikemasŭ* means "one can go" (because the way is easy, or because one is a good walker). *Ikaremasŭ* means "one can go" (because there is no prohibition against so doing). It is true that the two forms are sometimes confounded, just as English speakers occasionally use "can't" where "mayn't" would be more appropriate.
  - N.B. Ikenai (politely ikemasen) is an idiom of constant occurrence in the sense of "(that) won't do."
- ¶ 318. The difference in meaning between the passive forms in areru and rareru and the intransitives in eru, the former implying, and the latter not implying, the action of an outer agent, may be illustrated by the following example. Kiraremashita would be used in speaking of a man who had been wounded or killed (lit. cut) by some highwayman or other person. Kireta would be used in speaking of a rope which had snapped spontaneously, or of friendly intercourse which had dropped without either of the parties to it formally breaking with each other.
- ¶ 319. Verbs belonging to the second and third conjugations are not capable of forming intransitives in *eru*, and therefore make shift with the passive potentials in *rareru*. Note however *mieru*, "to be visible," "to seem," formed irregularly from *miru*, "to see." Like it is *kikoeru*, "to be audible," formed from *kiku*, "to hear."

koto no hoka

extraordinarily

# ¶ 320. The following are a few examples of intransitives:

Sõzõshikute kikoemasen. Being-noisy, is-not-audible	There is such a row, I can't hear a word."
Ienai koto zva nai. Cannot-say fact as-for, is-not.	("It can be said (though in practice people do not often say it)."
Kono mama de wa irarenai. This fashion by as-for, cannot-be.	{ "We can't go on in this way."
Kore de wa, totemo ikemasen. This by as-for, positively goes-not.	{ "This won't do at all."
$D\bar{o}$ de mo shire ya Anyhow be-knowable as-for shinai, (ya=va; see N. B. to p. 88.) does-not.	"There is no means of knowing."
Mazukŭte nomenai. Being-nasty, is-undrinkable.	{ "It is too nasty to drink."
Mazukŭte taberarenai. Being-nasty is-uneatable.	{ "It is too nasty to eat."
Yomeru ni wa yomemasu Readable as-for, is-readable	read it; but it is ex-
ga,— te ga zvarukŭte, although, hand (nom.) being-bad,	to the badness of the

Observe the repetition of the verb at the beginning of this last example. A specially strong emphasis is often expressed by this idiom, for which see ¶ 124 (p. 88).

handwriting."

mendo desu.

troublesome is.

#### ON TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE PAIRS OF VERBS.

¶ 321. In English the same word commonly does duty both as a transitive and as an intransitive verb, the context alone determining in which of these acceptations it is to be understood. Sometimes the passive does duty for the

intransitive, sometimes altogether different words are employed. In Japanese the transitive and intransitive meanings are almost always expressed by different verbs derived from the same root, thus:

INTRANSITIVE	TRANSITIVE
aku, 1st. conj., "to	akeru, 2nd. conj., "to
be open ;"	open."
hajimaru, 1st. conj., "to	hajimeru, 2nd. conj., "to
begin;"	begin."
hirakeru, 2nd. conj., "to	hiraku, 1st. conj., "to
become civilised;"	civilise."
kaeru, 1st. conj., "to	kaesu, 1st. conj., "to
return;"	return."
kakureru, 2nd. conj., "to	kakŭsu, 1st. conj., "to
hide (oneself);"	hide."
naoru, 1st. conj., "to	naosu, 1st. conj., "to
get well;"	cure."
nobiru, 3rd. conj., "to	nobasu, 1st. conj., "to
stretch;"	stretch."
oreru, 2nd. conj., "to	oru, 1st. conj., "to
break;"	break."
oriru, 3rd. conj., "to	orosu, 1st. conj., "to
descend;"	lower."
sorou, 1st. conj., "to	soroeru, 2nd. conj., "to
match;"	match."
tasŭkaru, 1st. conj., "to	tasŭkeru, 2nd. conj., "to
be saved;"	save."
tatsu, 1st. conj., "to	tateru, 2nd. conj., "to
stand;"	set up."
yakeru, 2nd. conj., "to	yaku, 1st. conj., "to

burn."

burn;"

- N. B. Sometimes only one of the pair is in modern use, e.g., hosu' to dry" (1st. conj., trans.), the corresponding intransitive of which—hiru (3rd. conj.)—is now always replaced by the synonymous verb kawaku.
- ¶ 322. The derivation of these pairs of verbs from a common root follows no fixed rule. Practice and the dictionary are the only guides. At the same time we may note that:
  - 1. Numbers of intransitives of the 1st. conjugation end in aru, thus:

```
aratamaru, "to be reformed."
                                 Such
                                         mostly
                                                    have
           "to hang."
kakaru,
                               corresponding
                                                  transi-
           "to be piled up."
kasanaru,
                               tives in eru belonging
                               to the 2nd, conjugation,
           "to be mixed."
mazaru.
                               thus, aratameru, kakeru,
           "to be fixed."
sadamaru.
                               kasaneru, etc.
           "to stop."
todomaru.
```

The reason of such verbs in *aru* all being intransitives is that they are formed by the agglutination of the substantive verb *aru*, "to be," to the stem.

¶ 323. 11. Numbers of transitives of the 1st. conjugation have stems ending in s, thus:

```
"to extinguish."
kesu,
            "to break."
kowasu.
                                             corresponding
                                    The
            "to turn."
marvasu,
                                 intransitives
                                                follow
            "to give back."
modosu.
                                 fixed analogy.
            "to remove,"
utsusu.
            " to boil."
wakasu,
```

The s terminating the stem of such verbs is probably—in many cases at least—a fragment of the auxiliary suru, "to do."

#### REFLEXIVE VERBS.

¶ 324. The Japanese language has no reflexive verbs. But we may, before quitting the subject of intransitive verbs, draw attention to the fact that many Japanese intransitives correspond to European reflexives, as, for instance, the following:

# Japanese intransitives — English reflexives asobu, "to amuse oneself" ("to play").

halaraku, "to exert oneself" ("to work").

kŭtabireru, "to tire oneself" ("to get tired").

shitagau, "to conform oneself" ("to obey").

Many compounds with *suru* likewise correspond to English reflexives, thus:

jisatsu suru, "to kill oneself" ("to commit suicide").

manzoku suru, "to content oneself" ("to be content").

shǐtaku suru, "to prepare oneself" ("to get ready").

taikutsu suru, "to bore oneself" ("to get bored").

N. B. The alternative non-reflexive English equivalents, which we have given for each of the above, will suffice to show how easy it is to render a reflexive idea in some other way, and how natural it therefore was for the Japanese mind not to hit on the reflexive form of verbal expression.

In cases where the word "self" would be emphasised in English, Japanese idiom adds some other word to the phrase. Speaking, for instance, of a child amusing himself (playing), one would simply say Asonde orimasă, whereas the emphatic "He is amusing himself" (i.e. playing alone) would be Hitori de asonde orimasă.

#### CAUSATIVE VERBS.

¶ 325. Causative verbs are derived from transitives or intransitives according to the following rule:—

In verbs of the 1st. conjugation add seru, in verbs of the 2nd. and 3rd. conjugations add saseru to the negative base, thus:

N. B. The s of the causative termination is probably a fragment of the verb suru, "to do,"

The chief irregular verbs are made causative as follows: kuru, "to come;" kosaseru, "to cause to come." shinuru, "to die;" shinaseru, "to cause to die." suru, "to do;" saseru, "to cause to do."

The polite termination *masŭ* is not susceptible of the causative form.

¶ 326. An alternative method of forming the causative, which belongs to the Written Language, but which may still occasionally be heard from the lips of the educated, is to agglutinate shimeru and seshimeru instead of seru and saseru respectively, thus: korosashimeru, eseshimeru, tsūkiseshimeru.

- A. B. The verb *imashimoru*, "to warn," is an interesting example of this method of formation. For though now current as a transitive verb, it is evidently nothing more than the old causative of *imu*, "to shun." When you warn a man of a thing, you naturally cause him to shun it.
- ¶ 327. All causatives are conjugated according to the paradigm of the second conjugation (p. 156) and are, like other verbs, susceptible of the passive voice, thus:

shiraserareru, "to be caused to know," i.e. "to be informed."

tabesaserareru, "to be caused to eat," i.e. "to be fed." abisaserareru, "to be caused to bathe."

In practice, however, these complicated forms are rarely employed.

- ¶ 328. The Japanese causative includes several shades of meaning. Thus koshiraesaseru, the causative of koshiraeru "to prepare," must be rendered sometimes by "to cause to prepare" or "to make...prepare," sometimes by "to allow to prepare" or "to let...prepare." The fundamental idea of the causative is that while the action is actually performed by one person, the question as to whether it shall be performed at all is in some way or other decided by another person.
  - N. B. In a few exceptional cases the causation is purely imaginary. For instance, you hope it will not rain to-morrow, and you say Myōnichi furasetaku nai, lit. "(I) do not wish to cause (it) to rain to-morrow."
- ¶ 329. In causative constructions, the noun standing for the person who is made to perform the action is marked by the postposition m, and the noun standing for the person or thing the action is performed upon is marked by the postposition vvo.

Kiku zwo ueki-ya ui "Please make the Chrysanthemums (accus.), gardener by, gardener plant out the sugu ni huesasite kudasai, condescend. condescend.

Daiku 760 vonde. "It will be as well to Carpenter (accus.) having-called, send for the futsugō na tokoro 700 inconvenient place (accus.) and get him to repair ga the broken places." naosaseru to-cause-to-repair (nom.) (is) good.

Ima kozukai ni ii-tsŭkete,
Now coolie to commanding,
nizva no sõji zvo saseru
garden 's cleansing (accus.) to-cause-to-do
ga ii.
(nom.) (is) good.

"You had better tell
the coolie to come and sweep up the garden."

Tsumari sake de mo kawaseAt-last liquor even to-be-causedrareru no deshō yo!

to-buy fact will-probably-be, oh!
(Example of passive of causative from the "Botan-Dōrō.")

"I tell you it will end by his getting to-buy his getting the other fellow to liquor."

kaite kara, 200 27'11 tell Answer (accus.) writing am because, messenger to wait matashite tsukai no mono veo message s' person (accus.) causing-to-wait (while write an kudasai. answer." condescend.

- N. B. The gerunds uesashite and matashite should, strictly speaking, be uesasete and matasete, according to the paradigm of the second conjugation to which all causative verbs belong. But it is very usua in ordinary conversation thus to make the gerund of such causative verbs follow the analogy of the first conjugation.
- ¶ 330. Do not confound transitive verbs of the first conjugation whose stem happens to end in s, such as dasu, "to put outside," "to send out;" hayasu, "to grow" (trans.), with causative verbs of the second conjugation, thus:

¶ 331. It is true that we have been obliged to use the causative word "let" in rendering the first of these sentences into English, and that we might just as well have used it in the second. Nevertheless, the distinction has some importance in Japanese. It would be a great mistake to confound kasu, "to lend," with karisaseru, "to cause to borrow," just as it would be a great mistake to confound tateru, "to set up," with tataseru (from tatsu), "to cause to stand up." In the case of "lending" and "causing to borrow," the difference is quite clear even in our English idiom. In Japanese it is so in all cases. Thus, tateru means to stand some dead object up, or to "set up" as king some puppet with no will of his own. Tataseru, on the other hand, implies that the person who is caused to stand up is an agent possessed of independent volition. Tatesaseru, the causative of tateru, "to set up," would mean to cause another to set a third person up. To take another instance, orosu means "to lower," i.e. "to · launch," a vessel into the water, while orisaseru (causative of oriru, "to descend") would be used, let us say, of making a person descend the side of a ravine on his own feet.

- ¶ 332. Though scrupulous with regard to the above point, the Japanese are less careful than ourselves to distinguish the causative from the ordinary active idiom. Thus, where we should say "I am going to have my hair cut," they prefer to say simply Kami¹ vvo² kari³ ni⁴ ikimasŭ⁵, lit. "(I) go⁵ to⁴ cut³ (my) hai¹." Even in English, however, we often violate logical exactness in precisely the same way. Thus we are apt to say that we are building a house, when what we really mean is that we are having one built for us by an architect, who himself causes it to be built by the workmen.
  - N. B. The causative occurs idiomatically in a few cases where European usage goes quite a different way. Thus, "Such and such a Chinese character is read so and so" is in Japanese Nani-nani no ji wo nani-nani to yomasemasi, with the causative representing our passive. The idea is of course that the literary authorities induce the world at large to pronounce the character in such and such a way. Noboseru, meaning "to be flushed," though causative in form, gives no indication as to what causes the blood to rush upwards. The phrase Kirashimashite gozaimasii (from kiru, "to cut"), used by tradesmen to signify that they are "out" of an article, offers another curious instance.
- ¶ 333. Observe that though Japanese, as stated in ¶ 327, p. 213, has passive forms of the causative, it has no causative forms of the passive. It never uses such idioms as the English "to cause to be arrested," "to cause to be altered," etc., but always employs the corresponding active instead, thus:

kosa-"We will Mihon wo motte Sample (accus.) carrying samples be brought, shite. södan consult about ing-caused-to-come, consultation More lit. "We will itashimashō. cause (some one) to bring some (tve) will-do. samples," etc.

This is but an additional illustration of the marked preference which the Japanese language has for the active over the passive voice. N. B. Note in passing how *motte kuru*, "to bring," becomes *motte kosaseru*, "to cause to bring," the second verb *kuru* alone suffering a change of form. All such cases are treated in the same manner.

### COMPOUND VERBS.

¶ 334. Many complex verbal ideas are expressed in Japanese by means of compound verbs, which replace the prepositional verbs of European languages, and sometimes correspond to whole phrases, thus:—

tobi-agaru, lit. "jump-ascend," i.e. "to ascend by jumping," "to jump up."

tobi-komu, lit. "jump-enter," i.e. "to enter by jumping," "to jump in."

tobi-kosu, "to cross by jumping," i.e. "to jump across." kiri-korosu, "to kill by cutting," i.e. "to cut to death."

buchi-korosu, "to kill by beating," i.e. "to beat to death."

buchi-taosu, "to prostrate by beating," i.e. "to knock down."

mi-mawaru, "to go round by looking," i.e. "to look round."

mi-otosu, "to drop in looking," i.e. "to overlook."

mi-sokonau, "to mistake in looking," i.e. "to fail to see."

kiki-sokonau, "to mistake in hearing," i.e. "to fail to hear."

shini-sokonau, "to mistake in dying," i.e. "barely to escape death."

wake-ataeru, "to divide and give," i.e. "to give in shares."

¶ 335. The following are further examples chosen from among many scores of those in commonest use:

de-au, "to meet by going out," i.e. "to meet out of doors," "to encounter."

deki-agaru, "to forthcome and rise," i.e. "to be completed."

meguri-au, "to meet by going round," i.e. "to come across after many adventures."

mi-tsŭkeru, "to fix by seeing," i.e. "to notice."

mōshi-awaseru, "to cause to meet by saying," i.e. "to arrange beforehand." (Awaseru is the causative of au.)

nori-okureru, "to be late in riding," i.e. "to be too late (for the train, etc.)."

omoi-dasu, "to put outside by thinking," i.e. "to call to mind."

toki-akasu, "to loosen and clear," i.e. "to explain."

tsŭki-aturu, "to reach by striking," i.e. "to strike against," "to come to the end (of a street)."

uke-au, "to meet by receiving," i.e. "to guarantee."

uke-toru, "to take by receiving," i.e. "to take delivery of."

uri-sabaku, "to manage by selling," i.e. "to sell off."

¶ 336. Some verbs recur with special frequency in the character of second member of a compound; thus (to mention only three or four):

Dasu denotes the action of coming out, taking out, or beginning, as in hashiri-dasu, "to run out;" tori-dasu, "to take out;" naki-dasu, "to begin to cry."

N. B. Dasu is properly a transitive verb, corresponding to the intransitive deru, "to come out." Its intransitive use in such compounds as hashiri-dasu is therefore somewhat anomalous, but it is sanctioned by usage.

Kakaru shows that the action denoted by the chief verb is about to commence, or else that it is accidental, as in naori-kakaru, "to be on the road to recovery;" tūri-kakaru, "to happen to pass by."

Kakeru, like kakeru, shows that the action is about to commence, as in shǐ-kakeru, "to begin to do;" hanashi-kakeru, "to begin to speak to," "to accost."

Kiru, "to cut," indicates totality, as in kai-kiru, "to purchase the whole" (of a consignment, etc.); kari-kiru, "to hire the whole" (of a house, etc.); shime-kiru, "to close up" (e.g. a room undergoing repairs).

Komu corresponds to the English word "in," as in tobikomu, "to jump in;" furi-komu, "to come in" (said of rain or snow coming into the house).

On the other hand, toru, "to take," is used in numberless compounds as their first member, with but little independent meaning. Thus, tori-atsŭkau, the same as atsŭkau, "to manage;" tori-kaeru, the same as kaeru, "to change," "to exchange;" tori-shiraberu, "to investigate." The prefix seems to make the signification of the second verb a little more precise.

- ¶ 337. Occasionally three verbs are compounded together, as mōshi-age-kaneru, a very respectful way of expressing "to hesitate to say." It is compounded of mōsu, "to say;" ageru, "to lift up;" and kaneru, "to be unable."
- ¶ 338. Compound verbs, like simple ones, are susceptible of taking the negative, passive, potential, and causative suffixes, as:

buchi-taosanakatta, "did not knock down;"
buchi-taosenakatta, "could not knock down;"
buchi-taosarete, "being knocked down;"
buchi-taosaseru, "to cause to knock down;"
all from the verb buchi-taosu, "to knock down."

- ¶ 339. As illustrated in the examples we have given, the first member of a compound verb is put in the indefinite form, while the second member alone is conjugated through the various moods and tenses. The first member generally stands in an adverbial relation to the second. Thus in buchi-korosu, "to beat to death," the first member buchi shows the manner of action of the second member korosu. In some few cases, however, the signification of the two members of the compound is co-ordinated, for instance in iki-kaeru, "to go and come back again."
- ¶ 340. The Japanese language makes such lavish use of compound verbs that it is essential for him who would speak idiomatically to get into the habit of employing them in preference to simple verbs wherever possible. Here are a few examples of their use:—

Futo omoi-dashimashita. Suddenly think-have-put-out. Tt has just occurred to me."

Ā! kaki-sokonaimashita.

Ah! write-have-mistaken.

"Oh! I have made a buistake (in writing)."

Chōdo vatakŭshi ga Just I (nom.) "I was just going de-kakeru tokoro deshita. go-out place was.

Tsŭkai ga iki-chigai ni to "The two messengers narimashita.

Kono uchi kara, ii no "I will select the This inside from, good ones two eri-dashimashō. (accus.) choose-will-put-out.

JIO hitotsu ii-tsükeru koto\ have one say-fix Still thing ga aru kara, ima no order to give to (nom.) is because, now ·messenger who tsŭkai voo yobi-kayashite messenger (accus.) call-having-given-back just started off; please call him back." kudasai. condescend.

*N. B.* With regard to the gerund *kayashite* in this last example, observe that the verb is properly *kaesu* (compare *kaeru*, "to go back"); but the corruption *kayasu* is in common colloquial use.

## THE EQUIVALENTS OF THE VERB "TO BE."

¶ 341. The student who is perplexed by the variety of manners in which the Japanese language expresses the sense of our substantive verb "to be," should note the following remarks:—

Aru, atta, arō, etc., except in the case to be mentioned in the next paragraph, mean properly "there is," "there was," "there perhaps will be," but are often best translated by "I (you, etc.) have," "had," "shall have," the Japanese nominative becoming the English objective case, as:

Kane ga aru. \ (honey (nom.) (there) is. \ (there) is.

By the addition of masu, as arimasu, arimashita, arimashita, the expression is made more polite, gozaimasu, gozaimashita, gozaimashio (conf. ¶ 270, p. 171) are more honorific still, but the signification is exactly the same.

¶ 342. However aru, arimasŭ, gozaimasŭ signify simply "to be" (not "there is") when construed with a gerund, as illustrated in ¶ 293. Gozaimasŭ also means simply "to be" when construed with an adjective, as

Kono mizu wa, taihen ni karū This water as-for, awfully light gozaimasŭ. (it) is. "This water is deliciously soft."

The certain present tense of aru and of  $arimas\~u$  is rarely, if ever, thus used with the  $\~u$  or  $\~o$  form of adjectives (see p. 120 and pp. 124—5), as the adjective includes in itself the idea of the verb "to be." Thus the less polite equivalent of the above sentence would be simply *Kono mizu wa, taihen ni karui*. In the other tenses, however, the verb aru appears as an agglutinated suffix, as explained in ¶ 186 (pp. 128—9), and there exemplified in a paradigm; thus karukatta, "was light;"  $karukar\~o$ , "is or will probably be light," etc.

¶ 343. De aru, de atta, de arō, etc. (familiar),—de arimasŭ, de arimashĭta, de arimashō, etc. (rather polite),—de gozaimasŭ, de gozaimashĭta, de gozaimashō, etc. (truly polite), are the simple verb "to be" without "there,"—that is to say, they mean "I am," "he, she, or it is," "we are," "you are," "they are," and so on through all the other tenses. Da is a corruption of de aru; datta and darō are corruptions of de atta and de arō, with which they exactly agree in meaning. (Conf. end of ¶ 88, p. 64.) These forms might with propriety be written d'a, d'atta, and d'arō, in order the more clearly to mark their composite origin.

Kore 70a nan de aru? (it)? (More often, Kore wa nan da?)

Uso de gozaimashō.
probably is.

"It is probably a lie."

Tōkaidō kara muzeatte itta hō mightn't think so, it ga kaette toku darō. (Politely, de gozaimashō.) "Though you mightn't think so, it will probably be shorter to go round by the Tōkaidō."

¶ 344. Desŭ, deshita, and deshō have the same signification respectively as de gozaimasŭ, de gozaimashita, and de gozaimashō, of which they are contractions. Thus the second and third examples in the preceding paragraph might equally well read thus:

Uso deshō.

Tōkaidō kara mawatte itta hō ga kaette toku deshō.

- ¶ 345. Iru (3rd. conj., stem i) and oru (1st. conj., stem ori) signify properly "to dwell," hence "to live," "to be" (in a certain place). Their chief use is as auxiliaries (see ¶ 294), in which function they are now often employed in speaking of inanimate things, notwithstanding their original signification, which would seem to limit their application to living creatures.
  - N. B. The use of *iru* for animate beings and *aru* for inanimate still, however, maintains itself in many idioms. Notice, for instance, the difference between *imasŭ* or *orimasŭ*, "he is there" (or here), "and arimasŭ, "it is there" (or here), "there is some."
- ¶ 346. Irassharu and o ide nasaru are honorific synonyms of iru, "to be," and of several other verbs, as will be shown in  $\P$  405.
- ¶ 347. Ja, as a verb, is not heard from the lips of Tōkyō speakers. But in the Colloquial of Kyōto, in the language of the stage, and frequently in printed Colloquial (so-called), it takes the place of da. It must not be confounded with ja, the Tōkyō contracted form of the two postpositions de wa, as in Kore ja nai for Kore de wa nai, "It is not this." (Conf. ¶ 89, p. 64.)

¶ 348. Naru, "to be," not to be confounded with naru, "to become," belongs almost entirely to the Written Language. We still find, however, in common use the form naraba explained on p. 185, and such expressions as isoganakereba¹ narimasen,² lit. "it-is-not² (i.e. it won't do) if-one-hurries-not¹" i.e. "you must make haste;" also occasionally the "conclusive present\*" nari, used to separate the various items of an enumeration, and hence coming to correspond to our conjunction "or:"

Toka nari, hatsŭka nari.
Ten-days is, twenty-days is.

"Ten or twenty days;"
less lit. "ten days or a fortnight."

¶ 349. Suru, properly "to do," sometimes passes over into the sense of "to be." See ¶¶ 356 and 357.

## THE VERB Suru.

¶ 350. No verb recurs more constantly in Japanese than the irregular verb *suru*, the paradigm of which has been given on p. 159, and whose primary signification is "to do," "to make," the French *faire*. Sometimes it stands independently in its proper sense of doing or making, the noun governed by it taking the accusative postposition wo, as usual with transitive verbs, thus:

Ikūsa vo suru.

Shitaku vo suru.

"To make war."

"To make preparations."

"To cook" (faire la cuisine).

"To make obstruction," i.e.

"to be in the way."

"To make imitation," "to imitate," also simply "to do" (something bad).

<sup>\*</sup> One form of the present tense is so termed in the Written Language. Conf.  $\P$  177, p. 121.

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Sō shite.

{ "Having done so;" "and then."

Omae dō shimasŭ ? "What will you do?"

Compare also such adjectival and adverbial expressions as *chan¹* to² shǐta³, lit. "did³ that² quiet¹," i.e. simply "quiet;" *sube-sube¹* shǐte², lit. "having-done² smooth¹," i.e. simply "smoothly." (*Chan* and *sube-sube* are onomatopes.)

¶ 351. More often *suru* sinks into being a mere suffix serving to verbalise nouns. Of verbs thus formed, the modern language contains an enormous number. The following are a few specimens:

```
"to love;" from ai,
aisuru.
            "to arrive;" ,, chaku, "arrival."
"to compare;" ,, hi, "comparison."
"to refuse;" ,, ji, "refusal."
"to decide;" ,, ketsu, "decision."
chakŭsuru, "to arrive;"
hisuru,
jisuru, "to refuse;" kessuru, "to decide;"
jisuru,
sassuru, "to guess;"
                                                 "a guess."
                                   ., satsu,
anshin suru, "to feel at ease;" from anshin, { "an easy heart."
                                           " chōai, "love."
chōai suru, "to love;"
kaikwa suru, "to love;" ,, choai, "love."

kaikwa suru, {"to be(come) } ,, kaikwa, {"civilisation."
kenkwa suru, "to quarrel;"
                                            " kenkwa, "a quarrel."
senshi suru, { "to die on the } senshi suru, { sen, "battle," and shi, "death."
                                            ., tōchaku, "arrival."
tochaku suru, "to arrive;"
```

N. B. It seems to have become usual among transliterators to attach suru to the preceding noun (e.g. aisuru, chakusuru) when this noun consists of a single Chinese character, and to write it separately (e.g. anshin suru, chōai suru) when the noun consists of two Chinese characters. There is nothing to object to in this practically convenient distinction.

- ¶ 352. When the noun is a monosyllable, the verb formed from it by means of *suru* is sometimes treated as if it belonged to the first regular conjugation, thus *jisanai*, "he does not refuse" (as if from *jisu*), instead of *jishinai*. But this is incorrect and somewhat vulgar.
- ¶ 353. When the noun is a monosyllable ending in *n*, *suru* generally changes to *zuru* in the Written Language, and thence to *jiru* in Colloquial speech, this *jiru* being conjugated regularly according to the paradigm of the third conjugation. The same thing sometimes happens even when the final letter is not *n*, thus:

```
anjiru, "to be anxious;" from an, "opinion."

ōjiru, "to accord;" "ō, "accordance."

ronjiru, "to argue;" "ron, "argument."

sonjiru, "to be injured;" "son, "injury."
```

¶ 354. The examples given in ¶¶ 351—3 are all Chinese words. Suru is less frequently attached to words of native Japanese origin. The following and several others are, however, in common use:

agari-sagari suru, "to go up and down;" from the indefinite forms (used substantively) of agaru, "to ascend," and sagaru, "to descend."

ne-age suru, "to raise a price;" from ne, "price," and ageru, "to raise."

kega suru, "to be wounded;" from kega, "a wound."

¶ 355. There are a few instances of zuru or jiru (for suru) being agglutinated to an adjective stem, as:

karonjiru, "to think lightly of;" from karui,\* "light."

<sup>\*</sup> Karoki, karoshi in the Written Language, whence the o of karonjiru.

omonjiru, "to esteem;" from omoi, "heavy."

But these words sound bookish, and are not much used in genuine Colloquial.

¶ 356. Just as in French the expression faire chaud does not mean "to make hot," but "to be hot," so also in Japanese the verb resulting from the combination of suru with a noun is not necessarily a transitive verb. It may indeed be transitive; but sometimes it is intransitive, and sometimes it corresponds to an English passive, as variously illustrated in the examples given in the preceding paragraphs. In a few cases, e.g., shōjiru (for shōsuru), "to produce" or "to be produced," it has a double acceptation. Usage is the sole arbiter in each instance. When usage sanctions the transitive use, then the corresponding passive is obtained by substituting for suru its passive serareru or sareru, thus:

aisuru, "to love;" aiserareru, "to be loved."

chōchaku suru, "to thrash; "chōchaku sera-{ "to get a thrashing."

omonjiru, "to esteem; "omonjirareru, { "to be esteemed."

¶ 357. Sometimes *suru*, when used independently, takes *ga* instead of *zvo*. It then signifies "to be," as in

Oto ga suru, "There is a noise."

Zutsū ga suru, "There is a headache," i.e. "I have a headache."

¶ 358. Construed with the particle to, suru means "to be about to," thus:

Ikō to shite, "Being about to go."

Construed with the particle *ni*, *suru* forms an idiom which the following sentence may serve to illustrate:

Kaette kara no koto ni shiyō. ("I will leave it till Having-returned after s' thirg to will-do.) after my return."

#### VERBS LIABLE TO BE MISTAKEN FOR EACH OTHER.

- ¶ 359. Foreign students of Japanese are often naturally perplexed by the fact that the stems of many verbs of the 1st conjugation end in r, while two of the "bases" (the cer-- tain present and the conditional base) of verbs of the 2nd and 3rd, conjugations always contain an r. For instance, is shaberu, "to chatter," of the 1st. conjugation or of the 2nd.? It is of the 1st., because the stem is shaber, the. indefinite form shaberi, and the negative base shabera. On the other hand, tsumeru, "to pack," is of the 2nd. conjugation, the letter r belonging in this case, not to the stem, but to the termination. Similarly chir-u, "to be scattered," is of the 1st. conjugation, while ni-ru, "to boil," is of the 3rd. Especially perplexing are such pairs of verbs as her-u (1st. conj.), "to diminish," and he-ru (2nd. conj.), "to pass through;" kir-u (1st. conj.), "to cut," and ki-ru (3rd. conj.), "to wear." Neither is it easy at first sight to distinguish correctly all the forms of, say, todomar-u, the intransitive verb "to stop," from those of todome-ru, the corresponding transitive verb "to stop." Practice and the dictionary are the only guides in this matter.
- ¶ 360. The comparative paradigm on the opposite page will serve to illustrate the differences obtaining, in the various moods and tenses, between pairs or sets of like-sounding verbs, such as those above-mentioned. The three verbs given are all in daily Colloquial use. They are:

*iru*, 1st. conj., stem *ir*; "to go in," used chiefly in the sense of "to be useful," and in the phrase *ki ni iru*, "to go into one's mind," i.e. "to be agreeable to one."

ireru, 2nd. conj., stem ir; "to put in." iru, 3rd. conj., stem i; "to dwell," "to be."

Iru, "to go in," and ireru, "to put in," are related to each other as respectively the intransitive and transitive forms of the same verb. The resemblance of these two to iru, "to be," is merely fortuitous.

3rd, Couj. fru, 't to be.'' i've '''re	ilai imassi iinassi iie iinassi iie ilai ilaraliai ilaraliai ilaraliai iia iia ii	irnena / innai de inakatta innanda or inakatta irena- inandarō or inakattarō rena inandari or inakattari reta inandari or inakattari rice (inandari or inakereba ir ire (inandari or inakereba irena- (inandari or inakere- irandina) or inakere- irandina (inakere- irankite irandia de
and Conj.  Preru, "to put in."  V () I C E  Preru  Preru	iretai riceso na ricenassi riceta ricela ricetare (na) ricetare (na) ricetari ricetari ricetari ricetalo (na) ricetalo (na) ricetalo (na) ricetalo (na)	VOICE: irena na i irena na i irena na i irena na i irenana na i irenana na i irenana na i kattarò na (irenandarò or irena kattarò ha ireneba or irenakreba ireneba or irenakreba na (irenadara(ba) na (irenadolno) irena irenadolno) irena irenadolno irenado
Ist. Conj.  Pru, "to go in."  POSTTIVE  POSTTIVE  refer.	lity It.	# 4 m m m m
I.  Fr.  Certain Present or Fut. Indefinite Form Conditional Base Noortive Bose		Improbative Improb Pres, or Fut. Certain Pres, or Fut. Certain Past Improbable Past Frequentative Form Conditional Present Concessive Present
1st. Base 2nd. "		

#### VERBS USED AS OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

- ¶ 362. Some few verbs, mostly in the gerundial form, are used as postpositions, e.g.
- ni yotte, "with," "by means of;" from motsu, "to hold." ni yotte, "owing to;" from yoru, "to rely."
- ¶ 363. Others correspond to English adverbs, adverbial phrases, or conjunctions, thus:
  - amari, "too (much); "indef. form of amaru, "to exceed."

    hajimete, "for the first time," gerund of hajimeru, "to "never before;" begin "(trans.).
  - kaette, "contrary to what one might expect;" gerund of kaeru, "to return" (intrans.).
  - kiri (vulg. kkiri), used as a suffix meaning "only," e.g. sore-kiri, "only that;" indef. form of kiru, "to cut."
  - nokorazu, "without excep- negative gerund of nokoru, tion," "all;" "to remain."
  - sayōnara, "good-bye," lit. "if that ) nara(ba), conditional be so (we must part)." of naru, "to be."
  - semete, "at least," "at most;" gerund of semeru, to "treat with rigour."
  - shiite, "urgently;" gerund of shiiru, "to urge."
  - subete, "altogether," "all;" { gerund of suberu, "to unite in one."
  - tatoeba, "for instance;" condit. of tatoeru, "to compare."
- ¶ 364. The present tense is in some few cases doubled and used adverbially, thus:
  - kaesu-gaesu, "over and over again;" from kaesu, "to send back."
- ¶ 365. It has already been shown in pp. 140—1 how Japanese verbs, and phrases formed from verbs, frequently replace the adjectives of European languages.

## CHAPTER X.

THE ADVERB, INTERJECTION, AND CONJUNCTION.

SPECIAL PHRASEOLOGY.

- ¶ 366. Japanese has few if any true adverbs. Almost all the words corresponding to our adverbs prove, on examination, to be stragglers from the other parts of speech. It will, however, afford some insight into the nature of the language, and be practically useful to students, to glance at the various expedients by which the necessity for adverbs is obviated.
- ¶ 367. The indefinite forms in ku of adjectives are used adverbially, and correspond for the most part to English adverbs in "ly," although, as has been explained in ¶¶ 180—181 (pp. 122—4), such is not their original force, nor indeed their invariable force even at the present day:—

Zōsa naku dekimasŭ. } "It can easily be Difficulty not-being, (it)forthcomes. } done."

Atarashiku tsükurimashita. Newly have-made. f "It has been newly built."

Kitanarashĭku¹ miemasŭ².

"It looks2 dirt(il)y1."

- N.B. Some few adjectives are no longer used colloquially, except in the ku form corresponding to our adverbs, e.g. kotogotoku, "altogether;" mattaku, "quite."
- ¶ 368. Japanese nouns often correspond to European adverbs, e.g. kon-nichi, lit. "this day," i.e. "to-day;" jū-bun, lit.

"ten parts," i.e. "plenty," "quite;" ō-kata, lit. "great side," i.e. "mostly;" ko-ko, lit. "this" (1st. ko), "place" (2nd. ko), i.e. "here." (Conf. ¶ 64, p. 45.) Words of this class retain their substantive character so completely that the equivalents of such particles as "of," "at," "from," etc.,—in fact the postpositions,—can be construed with them as readily as with any other substantives, thus:

Doko made o ide ni "How far are you till, honourable exit to going?" narimasu ? becomes?

Asuko kara saki wa, "It is no distance on from. as-for, from there to the next front jiki desu. place." immediately is.

Itsumo no kimono de yoroshii.
Always of, clothes by (is) good.

("My ordinary clothes will do." (Said to one's own servant.)

koko zvo son here (accus.) cleaning room afterwards." shite kudasai. doing condescend.

" Please clean this (Said to the servant at a hotel.

Sonna ni sawaija So as-for-making-a-row, ikenai yo! is-no-go, oh!

"I say! you mustn't make such a row."

¶ 369. Some nouns receive an adverbial tinge by means of reduplication, as:

hō-bō, "everywhere;" from hō, "side," "direction." naka-naka, "very," "more than you might think;" from naka, "inside."

tabi-tabi, "often;" from tabi, "a time" (une fois). toki-doki, "sometimes;" from toki, "time" (le temps). tokoro-dokoro, "here and there;" from tokoro, "a place."

- ¶ 370. There are also many words which are nouns etymologically speaking, but which are always or almost always used as adverbs, and which mostly take the postposition ni, as jiki or jiki ni, "immediately;" sude ni, "already;" sugu or sugu ni, "directly."
- ¶ 371. Phonetic decay has considerably altered some of these words in their passage from other parts of speech to the state of adverbs. Thus  $d\bar{o} \geq$  "how?" is a corruption of *dono*  $y\bar{o} \geq$  "what manner?" Similiarly  $s\bar{o}$  or  $say\bar{o}$ , "in that way;" and  $\bar{a}$ , "in that way," are derived from sono  $y\bar{o}$ , and ano  $y\bar{o}$  respectively, while  $k\bar{o}$ , "in this way," "thus," is from Classical kaku.
- ¶ 372. Many words which we are obliged to translate by adverbs or adverbial phrases are the gerunds of verbs, as explained in ¶¶ 362—3 (p. 230). How truly words of this class retain their verbal force even at the present day, may be seen from the use of such phrases as hitori¹ mo² nokorazu³, "all without exception," lit. "even² one-person¹ remaining-not³ (behind)."
- ¶ 373. The following are some of the chief Japanese words corresponding to our adverbs, not already mentioned in this chapter. More will be found in the paradigm on p. 52.

bakari, "about," "only."

chi(t)to, chotto, chotto, choito, slightly."

dake, "only," "about,"

"as ...as."

hanahada, "very."

ikaga ? "how?"

iku bun ka, "rather," "more or less."

itsudemo, "always;" with a negative verb, "never."

ma, "quite" (always combined with the following adjective, whose initial consonant is doubled, as makkurai, "pitch-dark," from kurai, "dark").

mada, "still;" with a negative verb, "not yet."

mata, "again."

mazu, "in the first place,"
"well!" (In this sense
often abbrev. to ma.)

mo, "already;" with a negative verb, "no more." motto, "more" (adverb).

naru-take, "as...as possible;" "if possible."

naze?" why?" sate, "well!"

sŭkoshi, "a little."

tada (vulgarly and emphatically tatta), "merely," "nothing but."

tadaima, "immediately" (from tada "only," and ima, "now,") taisō, "much," "very."

takŭsan, plenty, much.

tokoro de, "thereupon," and so."

tokoro ga, "nevertheless," "still."

yahari (emphatically yap- . pari), "also."

yohodo (emphatically yop-podo), "very."

zehi, "positively" (from Chinese ze, "good," and hi "bad," like our phrase "for better for worse").

zuibun, "a good deal,"
" pretty " (as in " pretty tired ").

N. B. Avoid, as much as possible, the Japanese equivalents for "very," "a little," "rather," as the Japanese rarely employ them.

¶ 374. It may seem strange that the foregoing list should contain no equivalent for our adverbs of affirmation and negation, "yes" and "no." The reason is that there are no words exactly corresponding to our "yes" and "no" in Japanese. There exists, it is true, a word ie which means "no;" but it is little used, except when the denial is emphatic. The word he! hei! or hai! which may sometimes be translated by "yes," is properly an interjection used to show that one has heard and understood what has been said to one. It does not generally imply assent to a statement. Thus, when a tea-house girl is called, she will cry out hei! simply to show that she is coming.

Instead of "yes," the Japanese say "that is  $so^3$ ,"  $so^3$   $da^2$ , more politely so deso, still more politely sayo de gozai-maso. Similarly for "no" they say "that is not so," so ja

nai, politely sayō de gozaimasen. Or else they repeat the verb of the question, thus:

O - wakari ni nari-Honourable understanding to has-"Do you undermashita ka A For use of past tense stand?"

here, conf. ¶ 274, p. 176.)

Wakarimashita. Have-understood.

Wakarimasen. Understood-not.

O ide ni narimasŭ ka?
Honourable exit to becomes ?

"Is he coming?"

Sayō de gozaimasŭ.

N. B. In familiar intercourse, sayō de gazaimasŭ is often abbreviated to the single word sayō,-Some speakers use the word ikanimo for "yes;" but this is decidedly old-fashioned.

- ¶ 375. The Japanese have a habit, which generally proves irritating to foreigners, of answering one question by another, especially in cases where a European would simply say that he did not know. Thus:

Ikaga de gozaimasŭ ka?. ("How is it?" i.e.

¶ 376. Japanese idiom differs from ours with respect to the answer given to a negative interrogation. The following examples will serve to illustrate the difference, which must be constantly borne in mind if grave misunderstandings are to be avoided:-

"Isn't he coming?" Kimasen ka?

"No." 

\[
\begin{cases}
Say\tilde{o} de gozaimas\tilde{u}. & (I.e. It is so as the negative in your question implies.)
\end{cases}
\[
\begin{cases}
Whele & I.e. & It is so as the negative in your question implies.}
\end{cases}
\[
\begin{cases}
Whele & I.e. & I

¶ 377. Adverbial phrases are formed by means of the post-positions de, mo, to, and especially mi, thus:

don to, "with a bang."

jōzu ni, "skilfully."

maru de, "quite."

metta ni (with a negative verb), "rarely."

shidai-shidai ni, "little by little."

sude ni, "already."

tonto mo (with a negative verb), "not in the least."

waza to, "on purpose."

¶ 378. Onomatopes, like the English words "ding-dong," "topsy-turvy," "higgledy-piggledy," etc., which are generally classed as adverbs, are extremely numerous in Japanese. Such are bura-bura, expressive of sauntering; guzu-guzu, expressive of complaining or scolding; kyan-kyan, expressive of the yelping of a dog; pika-pika, expressive of glitter; soro-soro, expressive of slow movement; bon-yari, expressive of obscurity or listlessness; katchiri, expressive of a clicking sound, etc., etc. Almost all words beginning with the letter p are onomatopes, excepting pan, "bread."

N. B. There is room for doubt whether Japanese pan is simply the like-sounding Spanish word, or whether it may not rather be a corruption of Portuguese "pão," anciently spelt "pam;" for the Portuguese came to Japan fully forty years before the Spaniards, namely, in the middle of the 16th century.

## INTERJECTIONS.

¶ 379. The chief interjections, besides he! (see p. 234) and those more or less inarticulate "ahs!" "ohs!" and "ehs?" which occur in all languages, are:

Aita! a cry of pain, derived from the exclamation  $\bar{a}$ ! and  $it\bar{a}$ , the stem of the adjective itai, "painful."

Ara! an exclamation of surprise, used chiefly by women.

Dokkoisho! a sort of sigh of relief, used for instance when one has safely lifted something heavy and put it in its place. This word is rarely employed by any but the lower classes.

¶ 380. Dōmo, lit. "even (mo) how? (dō r) This much-used term expresses difficulty, hopelessness, astonishment, and corresponds to some extent to such English phrases as "do what I may," "well! I never!" "really now!" or to an emphasis on the chief word of the clause, thus:

Omoshirokute dōmo .... \ "It was so amusing, that...."

the sentence perhaps remaining unfinished. But very often dōmo or naka-naka\* dōmo is a mere expletive, used to gain time and to cover paucity of ideas.

Hate na! equivalent to our "well! I never!"

¶ 381. Ke or kke, a final expletive conveying the idea of an indistinct conviction on the speaker's part, is often translatable by "surely" or "I believe." Thus atta means "there was;" but atta-kke is "surely there was!"

Ashita made ni dekiru
To-morrow by in, will-be-ready
to sempō de ittakke.
that, other-side at, said-surely.

"I believe he said it
would be ready by tomorrow."

Ke is used only in the most familiar intercourse.

Koso, an emphatic particle, used to strengthen the word which precedes it.

Mā! an exclamation of surprise or entreaty, used chiefly

<sup>\*</sup> See ¶ 369, p. 232.

by women. Very often it sinks into meaning nothing at all. Do not confound it with ma, for mazu (see p. 234).

Nan emphatic, see footnote to ¶ 197, pp. 135—6.

- ¶ 382. Naruhodo! a very useful word, for which there is no exact English equivalent. When pronounced in a tone of great surprise, it corresponds to "who would have thought it?" "you don't say so!" "well! I never!" But more often it is pronounced in an assenting tone of voice, and then it means "oh! indeed!" "really!" "I see," "yes indeed!" When some one is telling a long story, it is usual to chime in with a naruhodo! at every point he makes, or every time he pauses to take breath. Instead of naruhodo!, one may say so¹ desit² ka³ ? lit. "is² that so¹?" or less politely sō ka ?
- ¶ 383. Ne or nē, vulgarly and provincially nā or nō, serves to draw attention to the preceding word or clause, which it emphasises and separates, somewhat after the fashion of va (see p. 85). Indeed it may be superadded to va for the sake of greater emphasis and distinctness, as Kore wa ne, "This,—this." The meaningless "you know," or "don't you know?" with which so many English speakers interlard their remarks, has been suggested as the nearest equivalent to it in our language. Occasionally it might be rendered in French by "n'est-ce pas?" in German by "nicht war?" and in English by such idioms as "is it?" "do you?" "won't they?" etc., according to what has gone before. Sometimes it shows that the speaker is puzzled, as so desŭ në (pronounced in a hesitating tone of voice), "well, I don't know," or "let me see!" Ne belongs exclusively to familiar intercourse, and should never be employed on official or public occasions.

Many persons are in the habit of beginning sentences, and even of calling people, by means of the words *ano ne!* (ano="that"), just as English speakers often begin by "I say!"

¶ 384. Oi! an exclamation used to call people.

Oya-Oya! an exclamation of great surprise, heard chiefly from the mouths of women.

Sa! or  $S\overline{a}!$ —Short sa is used by the lower classes to give emphasis at the end of a sentence, thus:

Kore kara iku no sa! { "Now we'll go along!" (No is emphatic also; see ¶ 113.)

Sa and  $s\bar{a}$  are used indifferently to urge, hurry, or defy, as

Sa! o ide nasai! { "Come along! come along! come along!"

A very common idiom is sayō sa! "of course," "yes."

Yo, used emphatically at the end of a sentence, as: Arimasen yo! "I have none, and there's an end of it!"

Zo, belonging rather to the Written Language than to the Colloquial, but still occasionally heard at the end of a sentence, to which it adds emphasis. Ze seems to be a variation of zo.

N. B. The personal pronoun *anata*, "you," is sometimes intercalated in a sentence with a certain interjectional or expletive force, chiefly by members of the lower classes.

Banzai, a noun signiflying lit. "a myriad years," has lately come into common interjectional use as an equivalent for "long live!" "hurrah!"

#### BAD LANGUAGE.

¶ 385. Japanese is honourably distinguished from most languages of the world by being totally devoid of oaths. Where, for instance, a European driver would probably swear at his unmanageable steed, a Japanese will only emphatically exclaim kore! lit. "this!" or sore! "that!" Korya! and sorya! (for kore wa, and sore wa) are used much in

the same way, as scolding expletives. The words baka! "fool;" berabō-me! "scoundrel;" chikushō! "beast;" etc., are common terms of abuse. The me of berabō-me is a sort of particle of contempt, which may be suffixed to any noun, as ano inu-me, "that brute of a dog."

### BABY LANGUAGE, ETC.

¶ 386. In Japanese, as in English, there are numerous special words and corruptions of words which are used by young children, and also by adults in addressing young children. Such are:

abayo, "good-bye" (==baby English "ta!").

an-yo, from ashi, "the feet," hence "to walk."

bāya, from-obāsan, "an old lady," "granny."

bebe, "clothes."

botchan,\* "a little boy."

chan, from san, "Mr.,"
"Mrs.," "Miss."

nenne, from neru, "to sleep."

nennei, from ningyō, "a doll."

tete, "the hands;" from te repeated.

йтатта† " food."

wan-wan, "a dog" (properly "bow-wow").

Most of these words are also used in addressing pet animals. Thus a pet dog's forefeet are *tete*, its hind feet *an-yo*, its little "tummy" *pon-pon*.

¶ 387. There are also some few words which are almost entirely confined to the fair sex. Such is, for instance, o hiya, "cold water" (lit. "honourably fresh"), which men call mizu.

<sup>\*</sup> Derived from *bōsan*, "a Buddhist priest," Japanese children resembling Buddhist priests in having shaven pates.

<sup>†</sup> Not to be confounded with the term o mamma, "rice," "food," used by adults. *Umamma* is probably *umai*, "good to eat," twice repeated.

¶ 388. A number of objects and actions receive peculiar designations in the mouths of members of the Imperial Family, and of those privileged to address them. Although ordinary mortals can have no use for this exalted phraseology, a few specimens of it will doubtless not fail to interest the student. Some of the Court words are survivals from Classical times; some are euphemisms (e.g. ase, "perspiration," used to signify "blood"); some, as kachin and o kabe, belong also to the language of women, while others are of uncertain origin:—

aruku, o hiroi, (lit. honourably picking up)  chi, ase, (lit. perspiration) "blood."  dango, ishi-ishi, "a dumpling."  deru, o nari, (lit. honourably becoming) "going out."  juban, hiyo, "a shirt."  kami, o gushi, (Classical) "hair."  kane, lakara, (lit. treasure) "money."  kome, yone, (Classical) "rice."  miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce."  mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cool water."  mochi, kachin, "rice-cake."  meru, mi koshi, "sleeping."  sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ila, a board for sleeping."  sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."  zōri, kongō, "sandals."	ORDINARY EXPRESSION	COURT LANGUAGE	ENGLISH
dango, ishi-ishi, deru, o nari, (lit. honourably) juban, hiyo, "a shirt." kami, o gushi, (Classical) "hair." kane, takara, (lit. treasure) "money." miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce." mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cool water." mochi, kachin, "rice-cake." meru, mi koshi, "sleeping." sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food). sake, kukon, "rice-beer." tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	aruku,	o hiroi, (lit. honourably picking up)	" walking."
deru, o nari, (lit. honourably) "going out."  juban, hiyo, "a shirt."  kami, o gushi, (Classical) "hair."  kane, takara, (lit. treasure) "money."  kome, yone, (Classical) "rice."  miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce."  mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cool "rice-cake."  mochi, kachin, "rice-cake."  neru, mi koshi, "sleeping."  sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food).  sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	chi,	ase, (lit. perspiration)	" blood."
juban, hiyo, "a shirt." kami, o gushi, (Classical) "hair." kane, lakara, (lit. treasure) "money." kome, yone, (Classical) "rice." miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce." mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cold water." mochi, kachin, "rice-cake." neru, mi koshi, "sleeping." sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food). sake, kukon, "rice-beer." tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	dango,	ishi-ishi,	"a dumpling."
kami, o gushi, (Classical) "hair." kane, takara, (lit. treasure) "money." kome, yone, (Classical) "rice." miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce." mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cold water." mochi, kachin, "rice-cake." neru, mi koshi, "sleeping." sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food). sake, kukon, "rice-beer." tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	deru,	o nari, (lit. honourably)	"going out."
kane, takara, (lit. treasure) "money." kome, yone, (Classical) "rice." miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce." mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cold water." mochi, kachin, "rice-cake." neru, mi koshi, "sleeping." sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food). sake, kukon, "rice-beer." tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	juban,	hiyo,	" a shirt."
kome, yone, (Classical) "rice."  miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce."  mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cold water."  mochi, kachin, "rice-cake."  neru, mi koshi, "sleeping."  sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for cleaning fish on  sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	kami,	o gushi, (Classical)	" hair."
miso, o mushi, (lit. honourably) "bean-sauce."  mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cold water."  mochi, kachin, "rice-cake."  neru, mi koshi, "sleeping."  sakana, o mana, conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for fish" (food).  sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	kane,	'takara, (lit. treasure)	" money."
mizu, o hiya, (lit. honourably) "cold water." mochi, kachin, "rice-cake." neru, mi koshi, "sleeping." sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for cleaning fish on "rice-beer." tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	kome,	yone, (Classical)	" rice."
mochi, kachin, "rice-cake."  neru, mi koshi, "sleeping."  sakana, o mana, conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for fish "(food).  sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	miso,	o mushi, (lit. honourably) steamed	"bean-sauce."
neru, mi koshi, "sleeping."  sakana, o mana, (conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food).  sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	mizu,	o hiya, (lit. honourably)	"cold water."
sakana, o mana, conf. Colloquial mana- ita, a board for "fish" (food). sake, kukon, "rice-beer." tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	mochi,	kachin,	" rice-cake."
sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	neru,	mi koshi,	"sleeping."
sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."		conf. Colloquial mana	-\
sake, kukon, "rice-beer."  tōfu, o kabe, "bean-curd."	sakana,	o mana, ita, a board for	r)" fish " (food).
	sake,	kukon,	"rice-beer."
zōri, kongō, "sandals."	tōfu,	o kabe,	" bean-curd."
	zōri,	kongō,	" sandals."

Notice, too, that the Court, having resided at Kyōto for over a thousand years, retains a preference for Kyōto pronun-

ciations, e.g. gozarimasŭ for gozaimasŭ, nasare for nasai, kudasare for kudasai, etc.

### CONJUNCTIONS.

¶ 389. Conjunctions, can scarcely be said to exist in Japanese as an independent part of speech, their place being taken, partly by conjugational forms of the verb and adjective. partly by postpositions, partly by nouns. With regard to the word "and," which is in Western languages the most constantly recurring of all conjunctions, the necessity for it between verbs or clauses is almost completely obviated in Japanese by the construction with the indefinite form or the gerund, explained in ¶¶ 278—281. Between nouns, "and" is sometimes represented by mi or to, as explained in ¶ 109 and ¶ 119, or by mo, see  $\P$  102, or by dano,  $\P$  80, or by ya,  $\P$  133. But more often the two nouns are simply placed side by side, as Kazusa Bōshū, "Kazusa and Bōshū" (the names of two provinces on the ocean side of Tōkyō Bay). Occasionally "and" is represented between verbs-never between nouns-by the phrase sō shite (pedantically shikō shite or shika shite), lit. "having done so." But this idiom, imitated from the Chinese, must not be used too freely.

"But" is sometimes represented by *shikashi*; but neither must this Japanese word be repeated nearly as often as "but" is in English.

"Or" is sometimes expressed by means of the word *nari*, as explained in  $\P$  348.

"Provided" is represented by such constructions as

Iki sae sureba.

Going even if-do.

"Provided one goes."

"While" is sometimes represented by the word nagara agglutinated to the indefinite verbal form, as aruki-nagara, "while walking;" sometimes by tokoro, as explained in ¶ 58.

The following references to sections of this work, in which words or constructions corresponding to the chief English conjunctions are treated of, may be found useful:

```
"although," see ¶ 288.
                              "since."
                                         see ¶ 99 & 135.
"and."
                              "than,"
             ,, ,, 389.
                                          ,, ,, 135 & 212.
" as."
             ,, ,, 99 & 287.
                              "that,"
                                          ., ., II7:
"because,"
                              "though."
             ,, ,, 99.
                                          ., ,, 288.
" but."
             ,, ,, 288 & 389. "when,"
                                          ,, ,, 57, 58, 120,
                                                 & 287.
"either..or,", ,, 97, 133, & "whereas," ,, ,, 58, & 93.
                  348.
                              " whereupon."
                              "whether,"
             ,, ,, 120, 128, & "while,"
                                             ,, 57, 58, &
                   287.
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¶ 390. "As," meaning "in the same manner as," is expressed by the noun *tōri*, lit. "way," "road," thus:

```
Kono tōri no mono.

This way 's things.

Watakŭshi no iu tōri ni nasai.

I of say way in deign.

I tell you."
```

¶ 391. Details concerning the best manner of translating the English conjunctions into Japanese in various contexts belong not so much to grammar as to the dictionary. The student is accordingly referred to Hampden and Parlett's "English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language," where the words in question are amply illustrated.

# CHAPTER XI.

#### HONORIFICS.

- ¶ 392. No language in the world is more saturated with honorific idioms than Japanese. These idioms affect, not only the vocabulary, but the very grammar itself. Therefore, although scattered references have been made to the subject of honorifics in former chapters, it seems advisable to gather together under one heading all the leading manifestations of a habit of speech, without a proper mastery of which it is impossible to speak Japanese with any approach to correctness.
- ¶ 393. The use of honorifics is guided by four main considerations, namely:
  - i. Honorific forms are used in speaking of the actions or possessions of the person addressed, while depreciatory or humble forms are used in speaking of oneself. In other words, what we should style the first person is self-depreciatory, and the second person complimentary.
  - ii. In speaking of others (what we should call the third person), honorifies are used only if the person spoken of is superior in rank to the person spoken to, or if he is present and, though not a superior, at least an equal, or assumed to be such for courtesy's sake.
  - iii. There are gradations in the use of honorifics, according to the greater or less respect meant to be paid to the person spoken to or of.

- iv. Honorifics have a tendency to lose their original signification, and to sink into mere marks of a courteous style of speech. Sometimes they become absolutely meaningless.
- ¶ 394. It has been asserted by some that the use of honorifics in Japanese replaces that of the personal pronouns of European languages. This is not strictly correct. The expression go hon, for instance, means "the august book," not only etymologically, but also in the mind and intention of every Japanese speaker who makes use of it. It is only because "you" are an august person, that the words go hon come, in many contexts, to correspond pretty closely to our more precise phrase "your book." The correspondence is still only approximate; for very often go hon may mean the book of some other august lady or gentleman different from you, i.e. it may mean "her book" or "his book." In some circumstances it may denote the book of the most august of all persons, namely the Emperor, and this is indeed the more primitive signification of the Chinese character with which the word go is written. Similarly go yō, "august business," may be either "your business," "his business." or "Government business." Like considerations apply to other honorific phrases.
- ¶ 395. Descending from general considerations to particulars, the student should remember the following leading facts:—

In addressing an equal or superior, the word o, "honourable," or go, "august" (conf., ¶ 210, p. 143), is prefixed to most of the nouns denoting objects belonging to or connected with him in any way. Even adjectives and adverbs sometimes take one or other of the honorific prefixes. O, being of Japanese origin, is mostly employed

with native Japanese words, while go, which is of Chinese origin, is mostly employed with words borrowed from the Chinese. But usage admits of numerous exceptions to this rule.—O and go are applied to the third person, subject to the limitations mentioned in ¶ 393.

¶ 396. Here are a few familiar instances of the use of these honorific prefixes:

"Your (his, her, etc.) O kodomo-shu. "Your (or his) house," O taku. "Is he at home?" O taku desu ka ? "Your (or his) absence." O rusu. "He is out." O rusu deste. Go shōchi. "Your (or his) consent." "Your (or his) relations." Go shinrui. "Your (or his) loss" (in Go son. money, etc.). "Your (or his) wound." O kega. "By your (or his) kind O kage de. influence" (lit. shade). "It is very pretty" (e.g. desu. Yohodo Very honourably pretty is. this garden of yours). Danna honourably as-for, " My master is busy." isogashiu gozaimasu. busy perfectly are Go mottomo de gozaimasu. August very "You must Go taikutsu de gozaimashitarō. S bored." August tedium probably-was.

¶ 397. Occasionally the word sama, "Mr." is added, in order to make the expression still more polite, thus:

Go kuro sama. ("(Thanks for) your August trouble Mr. (trouble."

O machi-dō sama.

Honourable wait-long Mr.

"You have had a long time to wait;" or "Excuse me for keeping you waiting so long."

N. B. Regret on one's own account is expressed by the word zannen, never by kinodoku.

¶ 398. Examples such as these introduce us to the use of o and go in (so to speak) an *objective* way, which at first sounds very strange to European ears, thus:

O yasū gozaimasŭ. ("It is cheap, Sir," i.e. "I have the honour to offer it to you cheap."

Go busata itashimashita. August remissness (I)have-done. "I have been sadly remiss about calling upon you."

Go burei mōshi-agemashita. \( \begin{align\*} \text{``I was very rude} \\ \text{August rudeness} \quad \text{(I)}\text{said-lifted.} \( \begin{align\*} \text{to you.} \end{align\*} \]

O jama itashimashita. (L)have-done. (L)have-done. (L)have-done. (L)have-done.

At a first hearing, the literal import of the individual words may cause the student to think that the Japanese speaker is applying honorifics to himself. Far from any Japanese mind is such a thought. The idea underlying these idioms is that the cheapness of my goods, and even the remissness, the rudeness, the interruption, and what not, of which I have been guilty with regard to you, have a sort of reflected glory cast on them by their connection with so exalted a personage as yourself. It is as if one

should say "I have had the honour to be remiss in calling;" "I had the honour to be rude to you," etc. Moreover such phrases about remissness in calling, about rudeness, etc., are for the most part mere verbiage corresponding to no actual facts.

- ¶ 399. The phrase o saki, "honourably first," is employed in two contrary ways. It sometimes signifies "Please do you go first" (après vous), sometimes "Kindly excuse me for going first."
- ¶ 400. Many words in common use take  $\theta$  without any honorific intent vis-à-vis the person spoken to, especially in the mouths of women and of the lower classes. Thus we daily hear such expressions as
  - o bake, "a goblin."
  - o bon, "a tray."
  - o cha, "tea."
  - o deki, "a pimple," "a boil."
  - o kane, "money."
  - o naka, "a person's inside."
  - o shimai, "the end."
  - o tagai, "mutually."
  - o tenki, "the weather."
  - o tera, "a Buddhist temple."

- o tomurai, "a funeral."
- o tsŭki sama, "the moon" (lit. "Honourable Mrs. Moon!").
- o tsuri, "small change."
- o tsuyu, "soup" (lit. ... "dew").
- o yu, "hot water," "a hot bath."
- o zen, "the small trays on which Japanese food is served;" etc., etc.

These are examples of the tendency of honorifics to become meaningless. Occasionally honorifics are used with a point of satire, to convey an indirect attack under cover of an irreproachably courteous style of speech. Thus, not far from the beginning of Chap. II of the "Botan-Dōrō," the author tells us that Dr. Yamamoto Shijō was "an

honourable chatter-box and an honourable quack" (o taiko-isha no o shaberi)!—Compare o seji, "flattery;" o temba, "a hoyden."

- ¶ 401. Pedantic speakers sometimes use on, the Classical word of which o is an abbreviated form. Another honorific current in ancient times was mi, synonymous with o, and still retained in such words as Mikado (see p. 35); miya, lit. "honourable house," hence "a Shintō temple," less often "a palace," and, with the addition of the word sama, "a prince" or "princess" of the Imperial Family of Japan. In the phrase o mi ashi, "your feet," the two honorifics o and mi are used pleonastically.
- ¶ 402. In order to make verbs polite, the plain forms, as given in the verbal paradigms on pp. 154-9, are replaced by those in mast, illustrated on p. 160. These are, however, scarcely honorific in the proper sense of the word, that is to say, they are more often simply marks of a courteous style than of any special respect paid to the person addressed. For the latter purpose it is usual to employ a periphrasis consisting of the word o, "honourable," the indefinite form of the verb, and mosu ("I say") if the first person is intended, or nasaru (less frequently ni naru) if the second or third person is intended. Nasaru means "to deign," ni naru means "to become." Thus tanomu, "to ask," becomes o tanomi mosu, "I ask," and o tanomi nasaru, or o tanomi ni naru, "you ask." The past tanonda becomes o tanomi moshita and o tanomi nasatta, etc. The polite termination masu may be superadded, thus: o tanomi moshimasŭ, o tanomi nasaimasŭ; o tanomi moshimashita, o tanomi nasaimashita. The periphrases here indicated are used in addressing equals and superiors. They need not indeed always be accorded the preference over the simpler forms, but

they should be scattered about pretty freely. The more exalted the rank of the person addressed, the more frequently must they be introduced.

- ¶ 403. Another way of making a verb honorific is to replace the ordinary conjugation by the corresponding potential forms, it sounding more polite to suggest that a person is able to do a thing than bluntly to state that he does it. Thus we have noborareru, for noboru, "to go up;" naku narareru, for naku naru, "to die." This locution is specially affected by the lower classes in speaking of their betters; but in some few cases it is adopted by all the world, as iraserareru and ōserareru (usually corrupted to irassharu and ossharu, as explained in the N. B. near the bottom of p. 251).
- ¶ 404. The use of the verb ageru, "to raise," construed with the gerund, shows that something is being done by that lowly person myself for some one above me. The use of itadaku shows that some one superior to me is condescending enough to do something for me. We have already noticed this incidentally under the heading of passive verbs, in ¶ 312, pp. 203—4. Here are a few additional examples:

Kiite agemashō. Hearing will-lift-up.

Kiite itadakitō Hearing wishing-to-put-on-the-head gozaimasŭ.

Oshiete itadakitai.
Teaching wish-to-put-on-the-head.

O tsuide ni misete
Honourable opportunity in, showing
itadakitō gozaimasŭ.
wishing-to-receive am.

{ "I will go and ask for you."

"I wish you would be so kind as to ask (for me)."

so kind as to show me how."

misete showing that you will take some opportunity of letting me see it."

¶ 405. There are, moreover, several constantly recurring ideas, for which separate verbs are employed according as the expression is meant to be honorific or humble. The chief of these are:

PLAIN VERBS	HONORIFIC	HUMBLE
au, "to meet;"	o ai nasaru,	o me ni kakaru.
iku, "to go;"	\ \ oide nasaru,* \ \ irassharu,	) mairu, agaru, ( makaru.
iru or ) " to be ; "	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	} iru, oru,
iu, "to say;"	ossharu,	mōshi-ageru.
kariru, "to borrow;"	o kari nasaru,	haishaku suru.
kiku, "to hear;"	o kiki nasaru,	uketamawaru.
kuru, "to come;"	{ oide nasaru, { irassharu,	( mairu, agaru, makaru.
miru, "to see;"	goran nasaru,	haiken suru.
miseru, "to show;"	o mise nasaru,	o me ni kakeru.
suru, diasu, dia	{ nasaru, asobasu,	} tsŭkamatsuru.
taberu, "to eat;"	(meshi-)agaru,	{ itadaku, chōdai suru.
ukeru, "to receive;"	o uke nasaru,	{ itadaku, chōdai suru.
yaru, "to give;"	{ kudasaru, kureru,(less polite)	) ageru, ) shinjō suru.

- N, B. The slightly irregular verb irassharu (see ¶ 270, p. 171), which is used to express so many shades of meaning, is a corruption of iraserareru, the potential of the causative of iru, "to enter." Ossharu, the honorific equivalent of iu, "to say," is a corruption of  $\bar{o}serareru$ , the potential of the little-used verb  $\bar{o}seru$ , "to say."
- ¶ 406. Of course the honorific verbs can only be employed in speaking to or of others, while the humble verbs are

<sup>\*</sup> Or oide ni naru. Similarly in the instances given below.

applied only to the speaker himself, or to some one intimately connected with him, for instance, his own child or servant.

The following are a few examples of their use:

O me ni kakete mo Honourable eyes in putting even, yō gozaimasŭ ka ? . You?"

You?"

O mise nasaimasen ka?
Honourably show deign-not ?

Or Misete kudasaimasen ka?
Showing condescend-not ?

Or Misete kudasaimasen ka?
Show it to me?"

Haiken ga dekimasŭ ka? "May I look at it?"

Kō iu hanashi voo o Such story (accus.) honourably kiki nasaimashita ka ? story (or this piece of hear have-deigned ? news)?"

Mada uketamawarimasen.
Still (I) have-not-heard.

\*\*No, not yet."

Sō osshatte kudasai.
So saying condescend.

"Please say so."

Uso zvo mōshi-agemasen.
Lie (accus.) (I) say-lift not-up. } "I am not deceiving you, Sir."

Doko ye irassharu?
Where to deign-to-go?

Where are you going?"

Gakkō ye mairimasŭ. } "I am going to school."

O daiji ni asobase.

Honourable care to be-pleased-to-do.

of yourself."

¶ 407. The treatment of the imperative mood calls for special notice. The honorific verbs mentioned in ¶ 405 make use of their imperatives, thus:

```
"be pleased to do!"
asohase
                       "deign to look!"
goran nasai!
irasshai! or irasshai-
                       "deign to go! (or come, or be)"
  mashi 1
o ide nasai!
                       "condescend to give!"
kudasai!
                        "deign to eat (or drink)!"
meshi-agare!
                       "deign to do!
nasai!
                       "deign to say!"
osshaimashi !
```

N. B. Oide nasai is often familiarly abbreviated to oide; goran nasai to goran.

¶ 408. But except occasionally in addressing coolies or one's own 'servants, and in the naval and military words of command, the imperative mood of other verbs can scarcely be said to be in use (conf. ¶ 291, p. 189). Such a style of address would sound too rude and abrupt. The following examples will serve to illustrate the honorific periphrases by which the imperative is habitually replaced:

```
o' kaki² nasai³, lit. "honourably¹ deign³ to write²."

o kaki kudasai, "honourably condescend to write."

kaite kudasai, "writing condescend."

co mise nasai, o mise kudasai, "please show me."

misete kudasai, "please show me."
```

N. B. Defining the difference between nasai and kudasai perhaps a little too trenchantly, we might say that the former is essentially a command, though so polite as to have its imperative force disguised, whereas kudasai is a request. Therefore kudasai should be employed when we want a friend to do something for us.—A polite imperative very common in the Written Language is obtained by means of the verb tamau, "to deign," thus: kaki-tamae, mise-tamae. It is nowadays chiefly to be heard from the lips of members of the student class.

- ¶ 400. The above forms are those generally used in addressing equals or superiors. In speaking to the latter, the degree of politeness may be increased by lengthening the periphrasis, thus: o1 kaki2 nastte8 kudasai4 ("honourably1 condescend4 deigning8 to write2"), o mise nastte kudasai. In addressing inferiors one may say kaite kurei (" writing give "), misete kurei, or kaite o kun nasai, (" writing honourably giving deign"), misete o kun nasai, and similarly with all other verbs. (Kun is a corruption of kure, the indefinite form of kureru, "to give," of which kurei is the imperative (see p. 171). These latter forms are those to be preferred in speaking to one's own servants, to coolies, and to the servants at small inns and tea-houses. They would be too familiar as a mode of address to one's friend's servants, or to the servants at a first-class hotel. Such must always be treated to a fair amount of the honorifics illustrated in the preceding paragraphs. The same remark applies á fortiori to teachers, officewriters, respectable shopkeepers, etc. In fact, from the point of view of the proper use of honorifics, the term "inferiors" includes few but coolies, peasants, and the speaker's own children and servants. Other people may, as a matter of fact, be his social inferiors; but politeness forbids his reminding them of this by a rude mode of address. Even animals are often treated to honorifics, as when one says to a dog oide ! instead of koi! "come here!" o tachi! instead of tate! "sit up!" But this is semi-jocular.
- ¶ 410. It is rather common, in slipshod talk addressed to inferiors, to omit the honorific imperative, thus:

Cha vo irete. "Make (lit. put in) some tea."

Tea (accus.) putting in. "(for Cha vo irete o kun nasai.)"

The sentence thus appears to end in a gerund; but the ellipsis must always be mentally supplied. Observe also the

phrase... $h\bar{\rho}$  ga ii, "it will be good to...," "you had better...," which frequently replaces the imperative, thus:

Kō shita hō ga ii, ) "You had better do Thus did side (nom.) is good. ) it like this."

.V. B. For  $h\bar{\sigma}$  conf. p. 144, foot-note; for the past shita in a context where the present would better suit European ideas, see ¶ 275, pp. 176—7.

¶ 411. Dōzo and dōka, which the dictionaries give as equivalents of our word "please," are comparatively little used. The honorific equivalents of the imperative amply make good their absence. Properly speaking, both dōzo and dōka mean, not so much "please," as "somehow or other," "if possible," "by hook or by crook," "managing to do a thing," as in the following example:

Dōka va takushi no "I wish it could be Somehow-or-other managed so that others hito ga pron 7.00 would support my view (nom.) contention (accus.) people of the matter." (But I ii shite kurereba sansei. if-give, (is) good, hardly dare hope that doing approval they will.) ga . . . .

Arigatō, "thank you," is likewise used less profusely than its European equivalents. It must never be employed to mean "no, thank you." This latter phrase finds polite Japanese counterparts in yoroshiū gozaimasū, "it is all right (without it)," and yoshimashō, "I think I will desist."

¶ 412. The use of special honorific and humble words is occasionally exemplified in nouns as well as in verbs. Thus, whereas the general term for "head" is atama, the polite one is o tsumuri. But the honorific tendency comes into peculiar prominence in the case of nouns indicative of the degrees of relationship, of which we give the chief:

N. B. The humble words for "husband," viz. yado, uchi, and taku, generally take de wa instead of wa, thus:

Yado de tva, tabi ye uto "My husband is absent, dete, rusu de gozaimasŭ. having gone on a journey."

¶ 413. The words otottsan and okkasan well exemplify the remark made on p. 245, to the effect that Japanese honorifics do not replace the pronouns of other languages, though they often serve a somewhat analogous purpose. Being honorific words, otottsan and okkasan naturally

<sup>\*</sup> Okŭsama is also used in the closely related sense of "a lady," "my lady." The term comes from okŭ, "interior," "recess;" and sama, "Mr." or "Mrs." (referring to the retirement in which Japanese ladies formerly spent their lives).

serve to indicate "your father," "your mother," when I am speaking to you. But if I am addressing my own parents, they mean respectively "papa" and "mamma;" for it is natural for a dutiful son to address his parents politely. It is only in speaking of them to an equal or superior that he will be led to substitute the humble expressions oyaji and haha. The term o fukuro is slightly vulgar. The other words in the column marked "Honorific" are used only of the relatives of the person addressed, those in the column marked "Humble" only of the first and third persons.

¶ 414. Formal speakers occasionally employ humble terms that properly belong to the Written Language only. Such are gu, "stupid;"- hei, "broken down;" setsu, "awkward;" so, "rough," "coarse;" as in

gu-fu, lit. "the stupid father," i.e. "my father."
gu-sai, lit. "the stupid wife," i.e. "my wife."
hei-sha, lit. "the broken-down company," i.e. "our firm."
set-taku, lit. "the awkward house," i.e. "my house."
so-han, lit. "coarse rice," i.e. "the poor fare which alone
I am able to offer you."

¶ 415. But generally speaking, explicitly depreciatory nouns and indeed explicitly depreciatory words of any class are rare. Speakers show their humility chiefly by abstaining from applying honorifics to themselves, or to anybody or anything connected with themselves. Thus, whereas o kuni, lit. "honourable country," serves to designate "your country," the simple word kuni is taken to mean "my country." Similarly the simple verbs komarimashita, wakarimashita, etc., naturally in most cases denote the first person, and signify respectively "I was troubled," "I understand" (lit. "have understood"), whereas Sazo o komari nasaimashitarō

signifies "You must have been greatly troubled;" and O zvakari ni narimashita ka ? signifies "Do you understand?"

¶ 416. There are no polite modes of address exactly corresponding to our "Sir" or "Madam." But the student who has perused this chapter with care will be able to judge how amply their absence is made good by the use of verbal and other honorifies. Of titles, that in commonest use is Sama, as in

Kami Sama, "a Shintō god or goddess." Shaka Sama, "Buddha" (the Buddha, Shaka Muni). Tenshi Sama, "the Mikado," lit. Son of Heaven."

In speaking of ordinary mortals, Sama is mostly abbreviated to San, which then corresponds to our "Mr.," thus:

Watanabe San, "Mr. Watanabe," Chiji San, "the Prefect."

N. B. Compare such French expressions as Monsieur le Préfet.

Sometimes San is replaced by the Chinese word Kun, lit. "Prince;" thus, Watanabe Kun. This expression is much affected by the young men of the present day, whose slang is apt to be of the grandiloquent order. Members of the Diet also habitually refer to each other as so and so Kun.

¶ 417. There are no words corresponding to our "Mrs." and "Miss." These are replaced by such periphrases as

Watanabe San no okusama, "Mrs. Watanabe." Watanabe Mr. 's lady. Watanabe San no ojosan. "Miss Watanabe." Watanabe Mr. 's young-lady. "The baker's wife." Pan-ya no okamisan. (Instead of mentioning her surname.)

N.B. Such an expression as Watanabe San, though properly meaning "Mr. Watanabe," has come, quite of late years, to be sometimes employed to signify "Mrs." or "Miss Watanabe" in cases where no confusion of persons can arise.

¶ 418. Women's personal names (corresponding to our Christian names) are preceded by the honorific o, and followed by the title San; but the San is omitted in familiar intercourse. Such names are mostly borrowed from graceful natural objects, less often from other sources, thus:

```
O Hana San, (Honourable) "Blossom" (Miss).
O Kō San, "Filial Piety",
O Matsu San, "Pine-tree",
O Take San. "Bamboo"
```

Honorific o is, however, dropped before such women's names as consist of more than two syllables, thus Kiyoshi (San), Sonoe (San), not O Kiyoshi (San), O Sonoe (San); neither is it employed before surnames or men's personal names (for these see p. 36). Observe that the Japanese usage puts the surname first, the personal name last.

N. B. Of late years such alternative forms as Matsu-ko, Take-ko, have become fashionable. Ko is lit. "child."

¶ 419. It is not usual in Japan, as it is in England, to drop the title of "Mr." between friends. To do so would savour, if not exactly of contempt, at least of that excessive familiarity by which contempt is said to be bred. Officials, however, mostly drop the "Mr." in addressing their subordinates when on duty. This is on account of the halo which surrounds superiority in official rank. No Japanese speaker ever applies the word "Mr." to himself. If, therefore, a friend's servant asks what name he is to announce, the caller must give his name simply as Smith, Brown, or whatever it may be. It would sound conceited were he to speak of himself as *Smith San* or *Brown San*.

## CHAPTER - XII.

### SYNTAX.

- ¶ 420. The fundamental rule of Japanese construction is that qualifying words precede the words they qualify. Thus the adjective or genitive phrase precedes the noun which it defines, the adverb precedes the verb, and explanatory or dependent clauses precede the principal clause. The object likewise precedes the verb. The predicative verb or adjective of each clause is placed at the end of that clause, the predicative verb or adjective of the main clause rounding off the entire sentence.
  - $N.\ B.$  The adverb, instead of immediately preceding the verb which it defines, sometimes heads the whole clause.
- ¶ 421. Postpositions, which are words corresponding for the most part to English prepositions and conjunctions, follow the word or clause to which they belong. This seems, at first sight, an infraction of the fundamental rule of Japanese construction as laid down in the preceding paragraph. But the history of the language shows that this apparent exception is really an exemplification of the rule itself. Some of the postpositions were originally verbs, and as such naturally follow their object, e.g. kore¹ yori², "than² this¹," "henceforward," lit. "leaning (yori being from the verb yoru, "to lean") on this." Some were nouns, e.g. wa, which meant "thing," "person," so that fune wa, which now means "as for the ship" or simply "the ship," originally meant "ship thing." Yama no ue, "on the mountain," means lit. "the top (u) side (he) of (no) the mountain

(yama)." In such cases it is, historically speaking, the noun which qualifies the postposition, not the postposition the noun. Other postpositions again were independent exclamations, each, so to speak, forming a clause by itself. Such is the accusative postposition wa (see ¶ 130, p. 92). Altogether, in every case where the etymology of a postposition is traceable, we find that its position after the noun constitutes no exception to the main rule of construction set forth in ¶ 420.

¶ 422. When the verbs of several clauses are intended to express the same tense or mood, it is only the last of these verbs that takes the suffix by which such tense or mood is indicated. The previous verbs all assume the gerundial (or, in the higher style, the indefinite) form. Adjectives assume either the gerundial or the indefinite form. Conf. ¶¶ 278—283 and ¶ 180.

 $N.\ B.$  This rule, which was formerly inviolable, is now occasionally transgressed.

- ¶ 423. When the verb has a subject, this usually heads the sentence. But most verbs are subjectless, and express rather a coming-to-be with reference to some person than an act explicitly declared to be performed by him. In the absence of a subject, the word on which it is desired to lay most stress is often placed at the beginning of the sentence, and isolated by means of the particle wa. The student should compare with this paragraph what has been said of wa in p. 85 et seq., and the further discussion of the subjectlessness of Japanese verbs, which will be found in ¶ 427, pp. 266—7.
- ¶ 424. The following examples will serve to illustrate the above rules:

Ki-iroi hana.
Yellow-coloured flower.

Makka na kao. Quite-red being face.

"A very red face."

Kura no kagi.
Godown of key.

"The key of the godown."

Kirei ni sorotte
Prettily being-in-order
orimasŭ.
are.

"They are all nicely arranged."

Mae kara yoku shit-Before from, well knowteru hito.

"A person whom I have long known well."

Ki vvo tsŭkete kuda-Spirit(accus.) fixing consai.

" Please take care."

Kono Isugi no shuku
This next of post-town
made, nan ri hodo
till, what leagues about
arimashō?
probably-is?

"How many miles may it be to the next town?"

Goku goku tsugō Extremely extremely convenience ga varui. (nom.) is-bad.

"It is extremely inconvenient."

Taisō ni Nihon-go
Greatly Japan-language
wo yoku hanashimasŭ.
(accus.)well speaks.

"He speaks Japanese beautifully."

Itsu made matte
When till having-waited
mo, yūbin ga hǐtotsu mo
even, post (nom.) one even
kimasen kara, makoto ni
comes-not because, truth in
shimpai ni narimasū.
anxiety to (I)become.

"Wait as I may, no letters come, so that I am getting quite anxious."

hen fuyu Ano wa. as-for, winter That neighbourhood ni naru to, shimo-doke de. to becomes when, frost-melting by, michi ga warukute, aruku koto roads (nom.) bad-being, walking act ga dekimasen. (nom.) forthcomes-not.

Iva. mo! okite. te No. indeed! having-risen, hands wo arau koto mo dekimasen (accus.) wash act even forthcomes-not deshita. Chōzu-bachi mizu Washing-basin was. water maru de kōri-tsuite altogether freeze-sticking (nom.) do shite mo shimatte, having-finished, how doing even, shiyō ga arimasen deshita. doing-way (nom.) is-not was.

Sonna koto voo osshaiSuch things (accus.) deigning-notmasezu ni, sekkaku motte
to-say, toilsomely having-carried
kita mon(o) desŭ kara, dōzo
have-come thing (it)is because, please
totte kudasai.
taking condescend.

Or take the following ditty:

foro no makoto to, tamago no
Courtesan 's truth and, egg 's
shi-kaku, areba misoka
four-sides,— if(these)are, last-day-of-theni tsiki ga deru.
month on, moon (nom.) will-come-out.

"When winter comes, the roads in that neighbourhood are so bad with the thaw, that it is impossible to walk."

"No, indeed! when I got up, I couldn't wash my hands. The basin was entirely frozen over, and all my efforts to break the ice were in vain." (More lit. "It was a fact (deshita) that I cannot wash my hands..; it was a fact that my efforts are vain," etc.)

"Please do not feel any such delicacy about it, but oblige me by accepting it, as I have taken the trouble to bring it."

(Said to one who hesitates

to accept a gift.)

"When you find a truthful courtesan or a square egg, then will the moon come out on the last night of the month."

N. B. According to the old Japanese calendar, which went by real "moons," not by artificial "months," it would have been a miracle for the moon to come out on the last night of the month, i.e. on the night before new moon.

¶ 425. Now for a slightly more formal example, specially illustrating the use of the indefinite form in correlated clauses. It is taken from a modern Buddhist sermon:—

Uma ni mukatte Horse to confronting, "Kōkō wo tsukuse!" "Filial-piety (accus.) exhaust!" ōkami ni mukatte "Chūgi wolf to confronting, "Loyalty wo tsukuse!" nado to (accus.) exhaust !" etcetera, that itta tokoro ga, dekiru said place although, forthcomes koto de wa gozaimasen indeed is-not ga,-hito 7810. whereas,— person as-for. ze-hi zen-aku 200 right-wrong good-evil (accus.) wakatsu chie ga discern intelligence (nom.) atte, kimi ni chū 700 being, lord to loyalty (accus.) tsŭkushi, ova 111 exhausting, parent · kō wo tsŭkushi, filial-piety (accus.) exhausting, naka kyōdai wa brethren as-for, intercourse yoku, fūfu wa being-good, spouses as-for, mutsumashĭku, hōyū ni being-harmonious, friends to wa shĭtashĭku, makoto as-for, being-intimate, sincerity wo motte majiwat-(accus.) taking, having-interkoso, hajimete shin course indeed, firstly truth

no hito to invaremasu. 's person that gets said.

"Supposing you were to tell a horse to practise filial piety, or a wolf to practise loyalty, those animals would not be able to do what you required of them. But man has the intelligence wherewith to discern right from wrong, good from evil; and he can only then first be said to be truly man, when he practises loyalty towards his master and filial piety towards his parents, when affectionate towards he is his brethren, when he lives harmoniously with his wife, when he is amiable towards his friends. acts sincerely in all his social intercourse."

Here the two tsūkushis, yoku, mutsumashiku, and shitashiku—five indefinite forms—must all be rendered by the gerund, because majiwatte, the verb of the next clause, with which they are all correlated, is a gerund.

¶ 426. Next we give another passage from the same sermon, illustrating the use of the gerund in correlated clauses, and also, in one instance (sŭkunaku), that of the indefinite form. Sŭkunaku is rendered by the present "are few," because the verb omoimasŭ at the end of the sentence is in the present tense:—

Kono goro ni itarimashite, period at having-arrived, Bukkvō to mosu mono Buddhism that (they) say thing wa. tada katō-jimmin no as-for, merely low-class-people 's shinzuru tokoro to natte, believing place that having-become, chūtō  $zv\alpha$ middle-class thence-upwards in as-for, sono dori 7820 wakimaeteru reason (accus.) discerning-are ga sŭkunaku; shūmon persons (nom.) are-few; religion no toki ieba. sõshiki that if-one-says, funeral-rite 2s time bakari ni mochiiru koto 110 only in employ thing yō ni omoimasŭ. manner in (they) think.

"At the present day Buddhism has sunk into being the belief of the lower classes only. Few persons in the middle and upper classes understand its doctrines, most of them fancying that religion is a thing which comes into play only at funeral services."

Again take the following:

Hito ka omoeba. Person? that if-one-thinks, hito de mo naku; yūrei ka ghost ? person also is-not: yūrei to omoeba, if-one-thinks. ghost that mo nai. also is-not.

"One might have taken them for human beings; but they were not human beings.

"Or else one might have taken them for ghosts; but neither were they ghosts."

Here the indefinite form *naku* has exactly the same sense as the final *nai*; but it is preferred to *nai* in the first instance, because it merely ends a clause and does not complete a sentence.

For further examples of the correlation of sentences by means of the indefinite form and of the gerund, see pp. 178—182, and also the stories and extracts in the Practical Part passim.

¶ 427. Of all the peculiarities of Japanese syntax, the most puzzling to the foreign student is the already mentioned fact that most sentences are subjectless. It is not that the subject is dropped but still "understood," as so frequently happens in Latin, but that it does not exist at all in the mind of the Japanese speaker. The best way of getting behind this difficulty is to consider the case of passive constructions in our own language. We may say, for instance, "A house in European style has recently been built next door to mine." Now by whom has it been built? The sentence gives no information on this point. The action is affirmed, but no mention is made of any agent. In Japanese it is just the same, with this difference, that the verb used is an active instead of a passive one. English people say "A house has been built (by ?). The Japanese say "(?) has built a house." In strict reason the two assertions are identical; for it is only the grammatical clothing of the thought, not the thought itself, that varies. Thus the example in question, translated into Japanese, would run as follows:

Konaida zvalakŭshi no tonari ni seiyō-zŭkuri
Recently 1 of next-door in, European-construction
to ie zvo tatemashita.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;s house (accus.) has-built.

I. e. "Next door to me, recently (some one) has built a European house."

Again, take such an instance as "I think I'll send these boots to be mended." We do not in English explicitly state who is to do the mending. In Japanese the sentence will run thus:

Kono kutsu voo naoshi m yarimashō.

These boots (accus.) mend to will-probably-send.

Here the verb naoshi, "mend," is active, but as usual subjectless, so that the wording is, as literally as may be :-"I am going to send the boots (for some one) to mend." The verb yarimashō is subjectless too; but no ambiguity can arise with regard to it. For who, under ordinary circumstances, will trouble himself about any boots but his own? The pronoun "I" is so obviously the one to be supplied that its omission can cause no ambiguity. One specially complicated class of instances, in which two different pronouns must be supplied in the same clause, has been already treated of from other points of view in ¶ 312 and ¶ 404. Let us again take up the last example of ¶ 404, omitting the first unessential words. We thus get Misete1 itadakito2 gozaimasŭ3, lit. "to-be3 wishing-to-receive2 showing1," but employed to signify "I-am wishing-to-receive your showing," in other words, "I wish you would show me." The Japanese go the length of omitting personal pronouns in almost all cases. The perpetual iteration of "I" and "me," "you," "your," "he," etc., which characterises the languages of the West, would seem to them no less tiresome than superfluous and absurd. The student is referred to almost every page of this Handbook, and more particularly to every page of the Practical Part, for examples of the omission of personal pronouns and of the general subjectlessness of verbs. He should also refer to  $\P$  71 and to  $\P\P$  122—125, in which latter the difficult particle 70a, which has a bearing on this point, is treated of.

¶ 428. The relative order of the direct and indirect objects of the verb depends on circumstances. Whichever of the two it is desired to emphasise comes first. In English the same end is often attained by using the word "the" for the more important, and "some" for the less important of the two objects. Thus,

Hito ni kane zvo tsŭkazvasu Person to money (accus.) to-give

means "To give the person some money."

Kane wo hito ni tsikawasu means "To give the money to somebody."

¶ 429. Though, properly speaking, every sentence ought to terminate in a verb (or adjective used as a verb), the final verb is often omitted for brevity's sake, when there can be no ambiguity in the meaning, especially in short idiomatic sentences, for instance:

Chotto
A-little

respectful-glance
(accus.)

(I) beg.

(aiken (2vo (accus.))

(accus.)

(a minute.''

Watakŭshi sansei (itashimasŭ). { "I beg to second the motion."

Itsu go shukkin (ni)
When august office-going to "When does he go to narimasŭ)?

becomes? \*

This omission of final verbs, though the commonest form of ellipsis, is not the only one. The fondness of the Japanese for long and highly complex sentences (conf.  $\P$  442) often lands them in the predicament of not knowing exactly how to finish. The speaker then perforce breaks off either with a gerund (conf.  $\P$  410), or the postposition ga (conf.  $\P$  287, p. 186), or a concessive form, somewhat as if one should end by "and.." or "but..," through absence of further definitely expressible ideas. Thus we get such sentences as

meaning "That is not the only reason." There is some other reason behind; but the speaker either does not care to explain it, or does not exactly know how best to set to work to do so.

¶ 430. As in the case of verbs only the last of a set of correlated verbs takes the suffix denoting the tense or mood which is common to them all, so also in the case of nouns it is only the last of a set of nouns that takes the post-position common to all. Thus:

Yokohama<sup>1</sup>, Kōbe<sup>2</sup>, Naga- { "The ports<sup>6</sup> of <sup>5</sup> Yokohama, <sup>1</sup> saki <sup>3</sup>nado<sup>4</sup> no<sup>5</sup> minato<sup>6</sup>. Kōbe, <sup>2</sup> Nagasaki, <sup>3</sup> etc<sup>4</sup>."

\*N. B. The word "etc." might be dropped from the English translation, as *nado* is often absolutely meaningless.

O cha to kwashi

Honourable tea and cakes

wo motte koi.
(accus.) having-carried come.

O cha to kwashi
cakes

"Bring tea and cakes."

Mo (with any other postposition which may precede it) is, however, suffixed to every noun of a set, thus:—

Ryūkyū ni mo, Chōsen ni mo. "Both in Luchu and Luchu in also, Korea in also. in Korea."

¶ 431. Inversion of the regular order of words is rare. It occurs for the most part only when a word or clause which ought to have been inserted in an earlier portion of the sentence, has been forgotten, and is therefore perforce brought in at the end. From such forgetfulness result phrases like the following, which not infrequently occur in conversation:

Sono okamisan, jishin to ieba, massao
That married-woman, earthquake that if-one-say, perfectly-green

ni naru,—kowagatte.

to becomes,—being-frightened.

It should, properly speaking, run thus:

Sono okamisan,\* jishin "Mrs. (so-and-so) is so frightento ieba, kowagatte, mased of earthquakes, that she turns sao ni naru. (More politely narimasŭ.)

"Mrs. (so-and-so) is so frightened of earthquakes, that she turns friend the bare mention of them."

Again:

Naka-naka hi atatcha nando ni iraremasen.-Positively fire at as-for-touching, (1) cannot-be,etcetera tori. isogi vō desu kara. no 120 august-glance way, hurry 25 business because.

<sup>\*</sup> If a lady is meant, then say okŭsama, not okamisan. Conf. middle of p. 256.

This sentence should, properly speaking, be

yō desŭ kara, naka-naka hi nando ni atatcha iraremasen

Goran no tōri, isogi no, "As you see, the task I am engaged on is too urgent for me to be able to sit quiet, warming my hands at the fire."

In familiar conversation, occasional inversion, such as is here instanced, may perhaps be thought to add liveliness and variety to the expression. But it would hardly be considered appropriate in a set speech. In Japan as elsewhere, however, usage sanctions a few special locutions which seem to run counter to the general rules of the language, for instance, the placing of the adverb after its verb in phrases like Ima kita bakari, which is more idiomatic than Ima bakari kita, "He has just come."

### ¶ 432. Negatives destroy each other, as in English, thus;

wa nai. as-for, is-not. or "It is not a fact that there are none," i.e. "There are some," or "There are some."

"It won't do not to do thus," Kō shinakereba narimasen i.e. "It must be done in this Thus if-do-not,

N, B, The fondness for such mutually destructive negatives seems to have been borrowed from the Chinese, passing first into the Written Language and thence into the Colloquial.

Occasionally the Japanese employ a negative where we should employ a positive construction, for instance in such phrases as Ano hito no konai mae, lit. "Before that person's not coming," but signifying simply "Before he comes" (or came). The train of thought here seems to be that, before a man comes, he of course cannot have come yet, and similarly in other cases.

¶ 433. Japanese has no negative pronouns, adverbs, or conjunctions, such as the English words "nobody," "nothing," "none," "never," "nowhere," "neither...nor," etc. Their absence is supplied by the negative voice of the verb or adjective, combined with positive pronouns and other positive words. Thus, for the English "I know nothing," a Japanese will say Na(n)ni¹ mo² shiranai³, "(I) know-not³ anything¹,²,"—more literally (so far as the grammatical expression is concerned), "I ignore everything." For "There are none to be had anywhere," he will say Doko¹ ni² mo³ gozaimasen⁴, "Everywhere¹,²,³ (more lit. even³ in² where¹) arenon-existent⁴. The following examples will serve to illustrate the manner in which the various kinds of English negative and quasi-negative assertions, and other kindred idioms, are expressed in Japanese:—

Dare mo shiranai. (familiar)
Everybody knows-not. (i.e. ignores.)

Donata mo go zonji ga nai. (polite)
Everybody august knowledge (nom.) is-not.

Shiranai hito mo gozaimasii. sons who know not,"
Ignore persons also are. i.e. "Everybody doesn't know."

Shitteru hito mo gozaimasŭ. } "Some people know."

Shitteru hito mo areba, Knowing-are persons also whereas(-there)-are, shiranai hito mo gozaimasŭ, ignore persons also (there) are.

"Some people know, and some don't."

Shitteru knowing-are persons as-for, few gozaimasŭ.

are.

Shitteru htto wa sukunō ("There are few who know;" or "Few people know;" or "Few people know."

Mattaku zonjimasen. Completely know-not. } "I don't know at all."

Kuwashiku wa zonjimasen.

Minutely as-for, know-not.

"I don't quite know."

Mattaku tsumi ga nai. { "He has not committed completely crime (nom.) is-not. } the smallest crime."

Ano hito wa, ichi-do mo
That person as-for, one-time even ("He has never (once) kita koto ga gozaimasen. came act (nom.) is-not.

come."

Konai toki mo gozaimasŭ. Comes-not time also is.

There are times when he doesn't come," i.e. "He doesn't always come."

Kuru toki mo areba, Comes time also whereas-there-is, konai toki mo gozaimasŭ.

"Sometimes he comes, and sometimes he doesn't."

Kuru koto wa sukuno gozaimasu. "He rarely comes."

Konai koto wa gozaimasen. Comes-not act as-for, is-not.

as his not coming," i.e. "He does come."

Sŭkoshi mo konaku narimashita. { "He has quite left A-little even coming-not has-become. } off coming."

Are kara ijirimasen. That from (I)meddle-not. "I have never touched it since then."

Doko ye mo ikimasen. Everywhere go-not.

f "I don't go anywhere," or "I go nowhere."

Sappari wakarimasen. Quite (I)understand-not. Sukoshi mo wakarimasen. A-little even understand-not.

"I don't understand it at all."

Yoku wakarimasen. Well understand-not.

"I don't quite under-stand it."

Yoku vea veakarimasen. Well as-for, understand-not.

"I don't quite understand it."

Mina miemasen.
All appear-not.

Mina wa miemasen.
All as-for, appear-not.

"I can't see any of them."

"I can't see them all."

N. B. Observe the radical difference of signification effected by the limiting power of wa in such instances as the last.

Tonto kikimasen.
Quite (I) hear not.

Amari kikimasen.
Too much hear-not.

Hotondo nai kurai desŭ.
Almost exists-not degree is.

Ano hito to kyōdai desŭ
That person with, brothers are
kara, shiranai to iu vvake
because, ignores that say reason
ni wa mairimasen.

goes-not.

"I have heard nothing."

"I have not heard much."

"There is hardly any;"
or "There is little if any;"
more lit. "It is almost to
the pitch of there being
none."

"It is impossible that he shouldn't know about (it, seeing he is the fellow's brother."

- ¶ 434. The difficulty of using negative constructions correctly will vanish as soon as the learner clearly grasps the fact that in Japanese the negative and the verb are not conceived of as two separate ideas, as is mostly the case in European languages, but are fused into a single idea. Even in European languages, however, there is no lack of parallels to this Japanese idiom. Thus "to disapprove," for "not to approve;" "to disregard," for "not to regard;" "impossible," for "not possible," etc., etc.
  - N. B. Custom limits the use of the word sŭkunai (vulg. sŭkenai), "few," to predicative constructions, as instanced in two or three of the examples in the preceding section. Thus we can only render the phrase "Few people know" by Shitteru hito wa sŭkunai (more politely sŭkunō gozaimasŭ), lit. "The knowing people are few," never by Sŭkunai hito

wa shittern. The same remark applies to the kindred adjective  $\delta i$ , "many." The sole case in which the words  $s \check{u} kunai$  and  $\delta i$  can be used attributively is in relative clauses, for instance:

Nan de mo, shina no sŭkunai Anything-whatever, articles 's scarce toki wa, ne ga takō gozaimasŭ. expensive when it is scarce." time as-for, price (nom.)dear is.

Kyō wa, kisha ni nori-te ga
To-day as-for, train in, riders(nom.)
õi kara, yohodo konzatsu
many because, plentifully confusion
shimashita.
did.

"There was a great bustle at the train to-day, because there were such a lot of travellers."

It may perhaps be thought that as *toki* means "when," and *kara* means "because," the construction is not an attributive one even here. It is so, however, from the Japanese point of view, *toki* being even now apprehended as a noun signifying "time," and *kara* also having almost certainly been a noun in the archaic period of the language.

¶ 435. In Japanese almost all quotation, whether of the words of others or of the speaker's own thoughts, is direct. The manifold shiftings of person, mood, and tense, which are brought about in European languages by the use of indirect quotation, are consequently unknown. Thus a Japanese, when mentioning the plans of an absent friend, does not say "He said he would be back by Sunday;" but he repeats his friend's exact words, and says: "He said that: 'I shall be back by Sunday.'" In Japanese the phrase would run as follows:

"Nichiyō made ni kaeru," to iimashita.
"Sunday till to (I) will-return," that (he) said.

N,B The word to, "that," cannot be omitted in such contexts. Compare also to, ¶ 117, p. 82.

One alteration does, however, commonly occur in quotations,—an alteration affecting the honorifics. For instance, you say to me *O¹ ide² nasai³*, lit. "Deign³ honourable¹

exit<sup>2</sup>," i.e. "Please come." Now, if I am repeating this remark of yours to a third person, my modesty naturally prevents me from applying honorifics to myself, even within quotation marks. I therefore express the idea "He asked me to come" thus:

Watakushi ni "Koi!" to iimashita, or Watakushi ni kuru yō ni iimashita (conf. next ¶), employing the corresponding non-honorific verb kuru, "to come," in lieu of the honorific oide nasaru. So persistently inherent in the Japanese habit of speech is the tendency to give honour to others, and to abase self.

¶ 436. The sole kind of indirect quotation ever employed by the Japanese is a locution with the present tense and the words  $y\bar{o}^1 m^2$ , lit. "in² the manner¹," thus:

Kitto kuru yō mi to
Positively come manner in that,
sō itte koi.
so having-said come.

"Go and tell him to be sure to come."

(Said to an inferior in speaking of another inferior.)

Kuru yō ni to itta
Come manner in that(I)said
ga,— mukō de dō shite
though,—opposite at, how doing
mo korarenai to iimasŭ.
even, cannot-come that says.

"I told him to come; but he said it was absolutely impossible for him to do so."

*N. B.* To may be omitted after  $y\bar{o}$  ni. Notice the word  $muk\bar{o}$  in the last example, and consult p. 48, line 6 for it.

The phraseology of the above examples is not polite. That of the next is extremely so:

Daiji mi nasaru yō
Carefully deign-to-do manner
ni yoku osshatte kudain, well deigning-to-say consaimashi.
descend.

"Please be so kind as to tell him to take great care of himself." Somewhat similar in character to the above are such phrases as

Yosasō ni omoimasŭ. ("I think it looks as if it would do."

¶ 437. Notwithstanding the example given at the beginning of the preceding paragraph (*Kitto kuru yō ni to sō itte koi*), the Japanese generally avoid such phrases containing one command within another. Thus, rather than say "Tell O Haru to come here," they will mostly prefer the simpler expression "Call O Haru," viz.

O Haru voo yonde koi!
O-Haru (accus.) having-called come!
or more politely
O Haru voo yonde kudasai!
O-Haru (accus.) calling condescend!

Rather than say "Tell Jirō to get the jinrikisha ready for me at twelve o'clock," they will use the causative and say:

Fū-ni-jiniderukara,JirōnikurumanoTwelve-o'clockat,go-outbecause.Jirōto,jinrikisha'sshitakuwosashiteokugaii.preparations (accus.)having-caused-to-doto-place(nom.)is-good.

I.e. as literally as may be, "As I am going out at twelve o'clock, it will be well to cause Jirō to make preparations for the jinrikisha."—Similarly, "Tell him to wait" becomes "Cause him to wait," *Matashite kudasai*.

In still more complicated cases, the difficulty is often turned by omitting one whole clause. Thus, where an English servant would say "My master told me to tell you, Sir, that he particularly wishes to see you," a Japanese servant will more briefly say "My master said that he particularly wishes to see you." In Japanese the sentence would run thus:

Shujin ga zehi o ai-mōshĭtai "Positively honourably (1) wish-to-meet" Master (nom.) moshimashita. said.

N. B. Do not misinterpret the word moshitai as signifying "wants to say." O ai-mōshĭtai is simply a very polite equivalent for aitai, the desiderative adjective of au, "to meet." See ¶ 402, p. 240.

On the other hand, Japanese constructions with quotations are often pleonastic, some such formula as "he said" being used both before and after the words quoted, instead of once only, as is the case in English:

Doitsu no tetsugakusha Schopen-\ Germany 's philosopher hauer to in hito no itta kotoba hauer that say person 's said words ni. "Shūkyō wa hotaru 20 in, "Religion indeed firefly 's na mono, Kurai like a firefly. It can vo Dark being thing(is). tokoro de nakereba, hikaru koto ga place if-is-not, shine act(nom.) dekinai" to moshimashita. forthcomes-not" that (he) said.

The German philosopher Schopenhauer has said: "Religion is shine only in dark places" [is what he said].

- ¶ 438. Interrogation is not denoted, as in European languages, by an inversion of the usual construction. The construction remains the same, but the interrogative particle ka is generally added. (See p. 68.)
- ¶ 439. Passive constructions are very sparingly used, and when used, their grammar is peculiar (see p. 198 et seq; also pp. 57-58, 204, and 216). The passive is almost always replaced by the subjectless active construction explained in pp. 266-267, or else by an intransitive construction, as explained in pp. 204-5 and pp. 190-1. Thus, to give

one or two additional examples, a Japanese will not say "As has already been explained." He will say "As (I) have already explained,"

Sude ni toki-akashimashita tori.
Already (I) have-explained way.

He will not say "It has been notified by the Department," but "A notification has issued from the Department,"

Yakusho kara tasshi ga demashita.
Office from, notification (nom.) has-come-out.

¶ 440. Inanimate objects are rarely personified. Not only does Japanese idiom eschew all such fanciful anthropomorphic expressions as "the hand of Time," "old Father Christmas," "the spoilt child of Fortune," "Nature's abhorrence of a vacuum," etc., etc.; but it goes so far as almost to prohibit the use of the name of any inanimate thing as the subject of a transitive verb. For instance, a Japanese will not say "The rain delayed me," thus appearing to attribute action to those inanimate things, the drops of rain; but he will turn the phrase intransitively, thus:

Ame no tame ni ōi ni osoku narimashita. Rain 's sake in, greatly late (I) have-become.

I.e. "I am very late on account of the rain."

Similarly it will not come into his head to employ such a phrase as "His diligence surprises me." He will say:

Ano hito no benkyō ni zwa kanshin shimasit. That person 's 'diligence at, admiring-astonishment (I) do.

I.e. "I feel astonishment at his diligence."

The chief exceptions to the above general rule are offered by certain proverbial expressions, wherein brevity perhaps has been the mother of picturesqueness.\* For instance,

<sup>\*</sup> We are indebted to the scholarship of Mr. Walter Dening for this limitation of the too sweeping statement made in former editions.

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Muri ga tāreba, dāri ) "When folly passes by, reason hikkomu. draws back."

- ¶ 441. For the reason stated in the preceding paragraph, Japanese, like the Far-Eastern languages generally, does not naturally lend itself to the imaginative and mythopœic faculty. When a European speaks, for instance, of "the strife between Religion and Science," he very likely spells these names with a capital R and a capital S, and unconsciously slides into regarding them as being, in some sort, actual things, even individualities capable of aspirations, aims, and conquests, of teaching and sustaining their devotees, of revenging themselves on those who slight them, etc., etc. Such mythology (for mythology it is, albeit those who have been reared under the exclusive influence of European modes of expression may not recognise it as such) is alien to the matter-of-fact Far-Eastern mind. During the last few decades, the study of English, and the translation into Japanese of great numbers of English and other European books, have indeed resulted in the occasional adoption by public speakers of such expressions as Rekishi ga watakushi-domo ni.....vo oshieru, a literal rendering of our phrase "History teaches us that....." But such "Europeanisms" are unidiomatic. The same is the case with such picturesque phrases as "the Open Door," "the Yellow Peril," etc., etc., for which nowadays literal Japanese, or rather Chinese, translations are at once coined by the newspapers, but which do not grow spontaneously in this soil.
- ¶ 442. Languages differ greatly in the degree of integration of their sentences. For instance, Chinese and Pidjin-English simply put assertions side by side, like stones without cement, as "He bad man. My no like he." Our more

synthetic English would generally subordinate one assertion to the other, coupling them thus: "I don't like him. BECAUSE he is a bad man." Now one of the most essential characteristics of the Japanese language is the extreme degree to which it pushes the synthetic tendency in the structure of sentences. Japanese always tries to incorporate the whole of a statement, however complex it may be and however numerous its parts, within the limits of a single sentence, whose members are all mutually interdependent. In fact the normal Japanese sentence is a paragraph, or (so to say) an organism, as much more complicated than the typical English sentence just quoted, as the English sentence is more complicated than the Chinese or the Pidjin-English. As an illustration, let us take the following anecdote, the first paragraph of which forms but one sentence in Japanese, though it may be conveniently broken up into four or five in English :-

¶ 443. HEMPÖ-GAESHI.¹

TIT FOR TAT.

Aru<sup>2</sup> · hito ga naga-ya<sup>3</sup> A-certain person (nom.) block-of-houses mae wo torimasu toki. ishi of front (accus.) passes time, stone ni tsumazukimashitareba4, naga-ya when-he-had-stumbled, block-of-houses hito ga baka uchi no ni inside of person(nom.) fool to " Aitata6 !" koe making, " Ah !-how-painful !"

ki, ishi me, stone maga-ya ko-f-houses baka ni fool to to koe that voice had no me. Thereupon, some one inside the block of houses made fun of

<sup>1.</sup> Hempō is a Chinese expression meaning "requital;" gaeshi is the nigoried form of kaeshi, the indefinite form of kaesu, "to return" (trans.).—2. Aru, "to be," sometimes has the sense of "a certain."—3. Naga-ya, lit. "long house," is a building divided up into rows or sets of rooms, which are let out to poor families or as shops.—4. Tsumazukimashitara would be the more strictly Colloquial form of this word but see p. 184.—5. Hīto wo baka ni suru means "to make a fool of a person;" but here of course hīto ga is the subject of the verb, and the object is left unexpressed.—6. Ailata! is the same as aila! at the top

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zvo kakemashita kara, tsumazuita because, (the)stumbled (accus.) placed ima-imashii hito" wa. to as-for. disagreeable that person omoimashita ga, waza to though, (he) thought purposely " Iya! go men otomashiku". calmly "Nay! august excuse nasaimashi! Kemashita no deign! Kicked thing as-for. ishi ka8 to omoimashitara, anata stone ? that whereas-(I-) thought, you saki deshita no hana no of nose of tip to iimashita. that (he)said.

him, and cried out:
"Oh how I have hurt
myself!" So he who
had tripped constrained
himself to be quiet (although he felt disgusted), and said:
"Oh! pray excuse me,
I thought that what I
had kicked was a stone.
But was it the tip of
your nose?"

Naga-ya no hito no kokoro-mochi Block-of-houses of person 's feelings va, donna deshitarō ? as-for, what-like probably-were?

"I wonder how the man inside the block of houses felt on receiving this snub."

¶ 444. The integration of sentences, as illustrated in the foregoing example, is secured by the application of the rule of syntax which was set forth in ¶ 422, p. 261, and illustrated in pp. 264—6, and which is here exemplified in the word shite; furthermore by the incorporation of quotations, and by the use of such particles as kara; ("because") and ga ("whereas") and of the conditional and concessive moods of verbs and adjectives. In translating a Japanese sentence into idiomatic English it is generally necessary to break it at each of these hinges, as they may perhaps be termed.

of p. 237.—7. Otonashīku, more lit. "like a grown-up person." It qualifies the verb *iimashīta* at the end of the sentence.—8. Ishi ka, "perhaps a stone." Taken more literally still, the words *ishi ka* are a direct quotation of the speaker's thoughts: "Is it a stone?" i.e. "May it not perhaps be a stone?"

## PRACTICAL PART.

# PRACTICAL

#### ¶ 445. SHORT PHRASES

IN

#### CONSTANT USE.

I. Amari mita koto ga Too-much have-seen fact (nom.) gozaimasen. is-not.	I have hardly ever seen any.
2. Anala mazu do iu You, well, what-sort-of go iken de gozaimasŭ ? august opinion is?	Well, what is your opinion on the subject?
3. Arigatō gozaimasŭ.—Dō- Thankful (I) am.— How itashimashite ? having-done?	Thank you. — Oh!- pray don't mention it.
4. Ate ni narimasen. Reliance to becomes not.	He is not to be depended upon.
5. Ato kara go aisatsu Afterwards august answer voo mõshimashõ. (accus.) will-say.	I will send my answer afterwards.
6. Chito o kake A-little honourably to-place nasaimashĭ. deign.	Pray sit down a moment.

<sup>1.</sup> Amari, conf. ¶ 219, p. 148.—3. I.e. "You are grateful to me for having done what?" It is still more polite to substitute Dō tsukamatsurimashite for Dō itashimashite.—4. Observe the avoidance of the passive, and conf. p. 205. —7. After chito supply koshi vo, "the loins."

- 7. Chitto mo kamaimasen.
  A-little even matters-not.
- 8. Chitto haiken.
  A-little adoring-look (let me do).
- 10. Do shimasho ?
  How shall-probably-do?
- 11. Do shita ho ga
  How did side (nom.)
  yokarō ?
  will-probably-be-good?
- 12. Dochira ye irasshaimasŭ ?
  Where to, deign-to-go?
- 13. Dōka nasaimashita ka ?
  Somehow have-deigned?
- 14. Go busata itashi-August remissness havemashita.
- 15. Go kurō sama August trouble Mr.
  - 16. Go men nasai.
    August excuse deign.

It doesn't matter a bit.

Please just let me look.

Yes, but....

What shall we do?

What do you think we had best do?

Where are you going?

Have you hurt yourself? or Is anything the matter with you?

I have been very rude in not coming to see you for so long.

Thanks for your trouble. (Said chiefly to inferiors.)

Please excuse me, or I beg your pardon.

8. Conf. p. 268.—9. Properly speaking, this phrase should come in the middle of a sentence; but in familiar conversation it often begins one. For ga="but," see p. 67. The u of desŭ is pronounced before ga, for which reason we print it in this context without the mark of short quantity.—10 and 11. The Japanese habitually use "how?" for "what?" in such phrases as these. For hō see p. 144.—12. For irasshaimasŭ, substitute ikimasŭ in speaking to an inferior.—13. For nasaimashīta substitute shimashīta, or still less politely shīta, in speaking to an inferior.—14 and 15. See p. 247.—18. Yukkuri is a sort of noun, which the addition of to turns into an adverbial phrase; conf. ¶ 377. p. 236.

17. Go gozaimottomo de What you say is Angustly right very true; still.... masu ga.... but.... 18. Go vukkuri to itte Go slowly. (A polite going Augustly leisurely phrase frequently addressed irasshai. to one starting off on a walk.) deign-to-be. 19. Go zonii de mo You probably know August knowledge even that.... gozaimashō ga . . . . probably-is although .... 20. Go zonii 120 tori. As you know. August knowledge 's wav. Hakkiri to wakarimasen. I don't clearly ununderstand-not. Clearly derstand. 22. Hanashite mimashō. I will speak to him Speaking (/) will-see. about it. I've got a stomachga itai. (familiar) Hara 23. Belly (nom.) (is) painful. ache. 24. Hayaku! hayaku! Hurry up! hurry up! Quickly! Quickly! How much for one? Hitotsu ikura ? ()ne how-much? What I want to say is Hoka de 26. 200 nai

19 and 20. Zonji is the indefinite form, used substantively, of zonjiru, "to know." Ga has here but little meaning. Similarly in No. 26. For tōri, see p. 243.—21. For to see p. 82.—22. For miru auxiliary, see p. 193—23. The predicative adjective includes the meaning of the verb "to be." But if it is desired to make the phrase polite, itai must be changed to itō gozaimasŭ conf. p. 140, ¶ 204.—24. Supply the imperative koi! "come!" or hashire! "run!"—25. More grammatically Hitotsu wa ikura de gozaimasŭ? The numeral hitotsu will vary according to the article alluded to:—if a fan, substitute ip-pon; if a ticket, substitute ichi-mai, etc.; see ¶ 157 et seq., especially pp. 108—110.

isn't

simply this: -....

even

Other-thing

ga . . . . although . . . .

- 27. Ichi-nichi rusu desŭ. One-day absent is.
- 28. Ikenai koto shimashita. Can't-go thing have-done.
- 29. Ikura mo gozaimasen.

  How-much even is-not.
- 30. Itsu no koto deshita?
  When 's fact was?
- 31. Iya desŭ, yo!
  Disagreeable (it) is, oh!
- 32. Kagen ga varū gozai-Bodily-state (nom.) bad is.
- 33. Kare kore tarimashō.
  That, this, will-probably-suffice.
- 34. Kaze 100 hĭkimashĭta. Wind (accus.) (I) have-drawn.
- 35. Kazoete mireba.... when (I) see.

He is (or will be) away all day.

I've gone and done a stupid thing.

There is scarcely any more.

When did it happen?

No, I won't; or Get along with you! or None of your impudence!

I feel poorly.

I think it will be about enough.

I have caught cold.

On counting them over, I found that....

27. Ichi-nichi means indifferently "one day;" or "all day;" see N. B. to ¶ 152, p. 103.—28. Ikenai is lit. "cannot go"="no go," "won't do;" conf. ¶ 317.—29. This idiom may be explained thus: "There is not even enough to make it worth asking how much there is."—30. For the construction itsu no, conf. ¶ 363.—31. A phrase used chiefly by women of the lower class.—32. Kagen is originally one of the "syntheses of contradictories" noticed on p. 34, ka meaning "increase" (of bodily well-being), and gen "decrease."—33. Kare kore is an idiom expressive of approximation, like our "more or less," "pretty well,"—34. The English word "a cold" cannot be translated more literally into Japanese.—35. Miru, "to see," here has rather its proper signification, than the auxiliary use explained on p. 193. Moreover the conditional here has the sense of "when...; "see p. 184.

36. Kiite kurn Having-heard to-come ii. (familiar) (is) good. Kikashite kudasai. 37. condescend. Causing-to-hear 38. Kimi warui. (familiar) ga Feelings (nom.) (are) bad. ye Kochira tori Here to honourably to-pass nasai. deign. Kokoro-mochi warui. 40. gaBodily-feelings (nom.) (are) bad. Komatta koto desu. 4 I. Was-bothered fact Komban wa! 42. This-night as-for ! Kondate misete 7810 43. Bill-of-fare showing (accus.) kudasai. condescend.

78707 /

as-for!

Konnichi

This-day

44.

You had better go and sk.

Please tell me.

shudder.

Please come in here.
(The formula used to invite
a guest in.)

I feel unwell.

o It is a nuisance.

Good evening!

Please show me the bill of fare.

Good day! or How do you do?

36. Tou, which is the proper word for "to ask," is almost always thus replaced in the mouths of Tōkyō speakers by kiku, properly "to hear." For kuru as an auxiliary, see p. 193.—37. Kikashite should, strictly speaking, be kikasete, but see N. B. to p. 214.—38. Observe how Japanese prefers the intransitive to the transitive construction, of which "it" is the subject in English, and conf. p. 279 for this marked feature of the language. Kimi ga warui may also signify "you are wrong," if instead of kimi, "feelings," kimi, "you," is intended.—41. The use of the past, where the present would seem to us more natural, is idiomatic here.—42. Some polite phrase must be mentally supplied; but it is never expressed, unless it be some such hackneyed remark about the weather as (Komban wa) o suzushiū gozaimasŭ, "What a pleasantly cool evening it is!" etc.—44. Same remark as that concerning No. 42.

- 45. Kore de takusan.
  This by plenty (is).
- 46. Kore de yoroshii ja nai ka ?
  This by, good isn't?
- 47. Kore wa, nan de
  This as-for, what by

  dekite orimasŭ ?

  eventuating is?
- 48. Kore va nani ni
  This as-for, what to
  tsŭkaimasŭ ka ?
  (do people) use (it)?
- 49. Kore zwa o
  This as-for, honourable

  jama zwo itashimashita.
  impediment (accus.) have-done.
- 50. Kore wa, shikkei! rudeness.
- 51. Kore vva, yoku o
  This as-for, well honourable
  deki ni narimashita.
  eventuation to has-become.
- 52. Mada yohodo aida ga Still plenty interval (nom.) arimasŭ.
- 53. Mae ni mo itta tōri.
  Before in also said way.
- 54. Maido go yakkai Each-time august assistance (sama) desŭ. (Mr.) is.

This is quite enough.

Won't this do?

What is this made of?

What is this used for?

Oh! excuse me for having inconvenienced you. (Used as a polite phrase on concluding a visit.)

Oh! pray excuse me for being so rude.

You have done this beautifully.

There is still plenty of time.

As I have already stated.

o I am much obliged to you for your constant kindness.

<sup>45.</sup> Supply *de gozaimasŭ* at the end.—46. For *ja* see p. 64.—47. For the intransitive *dekiru*, corresponding to our passive "is made," see ¶ 310, p. 202.—50. Supply *itashimashita* at the end.—54. Conf. p. 247.

55.	Makolo Truth	ni mõsk in, ex	hi-wake	Really I know not
ga	gozaimase ) (there) is-not	,	cusc	what excuse to offer.
	Makoto ni			It is quite a long time
				since we last met.
57.	Mappira Quite-flatly	go august	men pardon	I humbly beg your
nasa:	i.		,	pardon; or Please be so good as to excuse me.
_	Maru de b			It is a totally different
	Completely di	fferent indeed	is.	one.
59.	Mata ira Again deign	esshai.		Please come again.
60.	Mata	o h	ayaku	Please come back soon
Again honourably quickly,  o kaeri nasaimashi.  honourably to-return deign.			again.	
	Manu	anna bhini	de	Well, that is about
~~~	Well,	that only		all.
	imasŭ. is.			
62.	Memboku	ga i	ıai.	I feel ashamed.
	Countenance (More politely	gozaimasen.	sn't.	
63.		zeo		Please tell me the
Road (accus.) teaching kudasai.				road.
	Mina se	ın ni	dōka	Please remember me
voro:	All Mes	srs. to	pl ease	kindly to all your people.

<sup>56.</sup> See top of p. 269.—58. For the difficult particle *nan* contained in this example and tentatively rendered by "indeed," see the footnote to pp. 135—6.—61. For *kkiri*, see p. 230—62. Compare our phrase "to be put out of countenance."—64. At the end supply *itte kudasai*, "please say."

yoroshiku. well (say).

65. Minai furi wo Seeing-not manner (accu shite.	Pretending not to see.
	i-las-There are none left.
67. Mō ikanakeree Already if-do-not-go, narimasen. is-not.	
68. Mō nan-ji Already what-hour narimasĭı ka ?	What o'clock is it?
becomes ?  69. Mō shimai. Already end (is).	I have finished; or They are all done.
70. Mo takusan.  Already plently (is).	That is plenty; or I don't want any more.
	iv It is no longer of any use.
72. Mō yoroshii. (familiar) Already (is) good.  Mō yoroshiū gozaimasŭ. (polite)	That will do; or I don't want any more.
73. Moshi-kanete orimasu.  To-say-unable am.	P I can hardly bring my- self to say the words. (Said in asking for some- thing.)

66. We may explain this phrase thus: "It has come to this, that all are gone."—67. This phrase is used only when the necessity is genuine and strong; conf. N. B. at top of p. 175.—68. More literally, "What o'clock is it already becoming?"—69 and 70. Supply desŭ.—72. A highly elliptical phrase, somewhat as if one were to say "It is all right without it."—73. For kaneru see ¶ 311, p. 203.

74. Motto o make
More, honourably to-cheapen
nasai.
deign.

75. Nai koto zva nai Isn't fact as-for isn't (desŭ).

(is.)

76. Naka-naka shōchi shimasen. Positively consent does-not.

77. Nan de mo yoroshii. What by even, (is) good. (More politely yoroshiū gozaimasŭ.)

78. Nan desŭ (ka) ?
What is (it) ?

79. Nan to osshaimasŭ ?
What that deign-to-say?

80. Nanzo omoshiroi Something-or-other amusing

hanashi ga gozaimasen ka? talk (nom.) is-not ? 81. Nodo ga kawakimashita.

Throat (nom.) has-dried.

82. O hayō (gozaimasŭ).

Honourably early is.

83. O itoma mōshimashō.

Honourable leave will-probably-say.

84. O kage sama de....

Honourable shade Mr. by.

<sup>o</sup> Please go down a little more in your price.

There is some; or There is some.

He won't hear of it.

Anything will do.

What is it? or What is the matter? or What did you say?

What do you say?

Can't you tell us something amusing?

I feel thirsty.

Good morning!

I think I must be going.

Thanks to your kind influence.

<sup>74.</sup> Makeru is literally "to lose" (a battle or a game), hence "to come down in price."—75. For the syntax of double negatives, see p. 271.—77. Nan de mo, though representing the English word "anything," is not the subject of the sentence. The sentence is subjectless, and nan de mo is an indirect object corresponding to the Latin ablative denoting causation or instrumentality.—82. It is of course absurd to use this phrase, as foreigners sometimes do, in the afternoon.

kage sama. sukkari Honourable shade Mr., quite naorimashite gozaimasu.

recovered

86 kangae no ue. ina Honourable reflection 's top, nav hentō ukagaiya no go 200 's august reply (accus.) (I) willmasŭ. enquire.

kinodoku 87. Honourable poison-of-spirit de gozaimasu.

machi-dō sama. Honourably long-waiting Mr.

matase-mōshi-8a. having-caused-to-Honourably mashite. makoto 22.2 ai-sumiwait. truth in. mutuallymasen. is-not-proper.

naka sŭkiga Honourable inside (nom.) hasmashita. (familiar) become-empty.

tomo itashi-Honourable companion willmashō. probably-do.

92. 0 toshi möse. Honourably let-through say.

I am quite well again. thanks to you.

(More lit. " Thanks to your influence.")

Kindly think the matter over, and let me have an answer one way or the other.

I am sorry for it on your account.

Excuse me for keeping you waiting so long.

Really I know not what excuse to offer for having kept you waiting so long.

I feel hungry.

I should like to go with you.

Show the guest in.

85. After sama one may insert the word de, "by," which strict logic and grammar would require. Naorimashite gozaimasŭ is more polite than simple naorimashita would be.—86. "Reflection's top" is, after all, not so very different from our phrase "on reflection." Instead of saying "an answer yes or no," the Japanese phrase mentions the negative only.—89. Still more polite than the preceding number. For mosu as a humble auxiliary, see p. 249,-90. For o naka, see p. 248,

- 93. O tsuide no setsu.

  Honourable occasion's opportunity.
- 94. O yasumi nasai Honourably to-rest deign (-mashi).
  - 95. Okashikute tamaranai.
    Being-funny, (I) endure-not.
- 96. Ōki ni o sewa sama
  Greatly honourable help Mr.
  ni narimashita.

to (I) have-become.

- 97. Ōki ni osoku narimashita.
  Greatly late have-become.
- 98. Ō-sawagi deshita. Great-uproar (it) was.
- 99. Oshii koto desŭ, ne!
  Regrettable thing is, eh?
- 100. Osoroshii dōmo michi Frightful really road

ga warui. (familiar) (nom.) (is) bad.

- IOI. Osoroshii takai mon' da.
  Frightful dear thing is.
  (familiar)
- 102. Ō-zvarai shimashita. Great-laughter (zve) did.

Whenever it happens to suit your convenience.

Good night!

It is really too funny.

I am much indebted to you for your kind assistance.

Excuse me for being so late.

All was bustle and confusion.

Oh! what a pity!

How frightfully bad the road is!

It is frightfully dear.

We had a good laugh over it.

92. The use of  $m\bar{o}se$  here shows that a person who is your inferior is to do something for one politely considered your superior.—93. I.e. "Don't take trouble about it; but, should the occasion offer... etc."—94. It is optional to omit the termination  $mash\tilde{u}$  in all such cases.—95. Conf. ¶ 218.—96. As if one should say, "I have come in for a great deal of your help."  $\bar{o}kin$  in means "greatly;"  $\bar{o}kiku$  means "big(ly)."—100. In strict grammar we should have osoroshiku, not osoroshii; but see first N. B. on p. 124. As shown by this example and the last, the Japanese turn in quite a different manner our exclamatory phrases beginning with "what" and "how."—101. Mon is familiar for mono.

103. Sakuban wa, yoppite
Last-night as-for, all-night

neraremasen deshita. cannot-sleep (it) was.

104. Sayō de gozaimasŭ. (polite)

Sō desŭ or Sō da. (familiar.)

105. Senjitsu zwa, arigatō Former-day as-for, thankful gozaimashita.

was.

106. Shikata ga nai. (More po-Doing-side (nom.)isn't. Shiyō ga nai (gozaima-Boing-way (nom.) isn't. (gozaimasen.)

107. Shitsurei itashimashita.
Rudeness have-done.

108. Sō desŭ ka ?

109. So ka mo shiremasen.
So ? even is-unknowable.

IIO. So ka to omoeba,
So ? that if-one-thinks,

kaette....

III. Sō shicha ikenai.
So as-for-doing, cannot-go.
(More politely ikemasen.)

112. Sō ja gozaimasen. (polite)

I couldn't sleep all last night.

That is so; or Yes.

Many thanks for your kind entertainment the other day.

(Always said on first again meeting the giver of a recent party.)

There is nothing to be done; or It can't be helped.

Excuse my rudeness.

Is that so? or Oh! indeed!

Possibly it may be so.

One is tempted to think so, and yet on the other hand....

You mustn't do that.

That is not so; or Oh! no.

103. Deshita might be omitted without mutilating either the sense or the grammar; but the Japanese like thus to round off the sentence with an auxiliary verb, if possible; conf. p. 197.—104. Conf. pp. 234-5.—109. More literally "One cannot know whether it is so," In vulgar parlance the phrase often runs thus: Sō ka shira (for shiran).—110. See bottom of p. 265 for a similar construction.—111. More lit. "It won't do, if you do that,"—112. Or Sō de gozaimasen.

- 113. Sonna mon' desŭ. Such thing is.
- 114. Sonnara, 0 yoIf-that-is-so, honourably to-deshi nasai.
  sist deign.
- III5. Sono go, hisashiku
  That after, lengthily

  o me ni kakarimasen.
  honourable eyes in (I) hang-not.

Itsu mo go söken de.... Always augustly robust being....

- 116. Sono hō wa ō

  That side as-for, numerous
  gozaimasŭ.
  are.
- 117. Sore wa sō de gozai-That as-for, so is.
- 118. Sore wa so desu ga....
  That as for, so is whereas...
- 119. Sude ni mōshi-agemashita
  Already tell-lifted-up
  tōri.
- 120. Sŭkoshi male. (familiar).
  A-little wait.

way.

deign.

- 121. Sukoshi o machi
  A-little honourable to-wait
  nasai. (polite)
- 122. Taigai wakarimashita.

  Mostly have-understood.

That is just about it.

Well then, don't do it.

It is some time since we last met. I am delighted to see you looking so well.

There are more of that kind than of the others.

That is so; or Yes, no doubt.

Yes, but....

As I have already had the honour to inform you.

Wait a minute.

Please be so kind as to wait a minute.

I understand most of it.

<sup>115.</sup> Supply at the end some such phrase as o medetō gozaimasŭ, " it is a subject for congratulation."—116. See p. 144.—122. The past tense here idiomatically replaces the present; conf. ¶ 274, p. 176.

123. Taisō nigiyaka de go-Very lively zaimashita.

was.

124. Te vo aratte
Hands (accus.) having-washed,
kimashō.

will-probably-come.

125. To mo kaku mo, go-That even, thus even, angust-

ran nasai. glance deign.

126. Totemo ikemasen.
Anyhow cannot-go.

127. Wake no wakaranai understand-not

koto.

128. Wasure-mono vua nai Forget-thing as-for, isn't ka? (familiar)

129. Watakŭshi ni kwankei Me to, connection ga nai. (familiar)

(nom.) isn't.

130, Yo gozaimasŭ to mo!

Good is that even!

131. Yohodo ii kiryō desŭ. Very good countenance is.

132. Yoi ambai ni....

It was very lively.

I think I'll go and wash my hands.

At any rate please just look at it.

It won't do at all.

Something I can't at all make out.

Are you sure you have forgotten nothing?

It has nothing to do with me.

Of course it will do quite well.

She is very pretty indeed.

It is fortunate that....

125. To mo kaku mo is an idiom meaning "at any rate," "in any case,"—127. A good example of the ambiguous relative phrases discussed in ¶ 82, p. 58. It is not the thing that does not understand, but I who cannot understand the thing.—130. To mo final="of course;" conf. p. 85.

- 133. Yoi keshiki desŭ, ne!
  Good view is,— eh?
- 134. Yoi mono voo 0
  Good thing (accus.) honourably
  motome nasaimashita.
  to-seek-out have-deigned.
- 135. Yoi tenki de gozaimasŭ.

  Good-weather is.
- 136. Yoku kega shimasen
  Well wound does-not
  deshita.
  (it) was.
- 137. Yoppodo, dōmo! omoshiroi
  very indeed amusing
  hanashi de gozaimasŭ.
  story (it) is.
- 138. Yoroshiū gozaimasŭ ka?
  Good is?

  —Yō gozaimasŭ.
- 139. Yosasō ni omoi-Likely-to-be-good to (I)

is.

think.

140. Yoshita hō ga yoDesisted side (nom.) will-

karō.
probably-be-good.

Good

141. Zōsa ga nai. (famil.)
Difficulty (nom.) isn't.

What a beautiful view!

What a beautiful thing that is which you have bought!

It is fine weather.

(A phrase used on accosting any one in fine weather.)

It is lucky he didn't hurt himself.

It is really a most amusing story.

Is it all right?—Yes.

I should think it would do.

I think it will be best to give up the idea.

There is no difficulty about it.

136. This sentence illustrates a large number of cases containing the idea "it is fortunate that..." The final *deshita* may be omitted at will.—139. Japanese idiom requires ni in such phrases, when the adjective of probability (... $s\bar{o}$  na) is turned into an adverb by the fact of a verb following.—140. Past tense used idiomatically for the present; conf. p. 176.—141, More politely,  $Z\bar{o}sa$  gozaimasen.

### ¶ 446. ADDITIONAL USEFUL

#### PHRASES.

- I. Ano hito no iu koto wa, mina uso desu.
- 2. Ano hito no na wa, nan to iimasu ?
- 3. Ashita wa yō ga gozaimasŭ kara, keiko wo yasumimashō.
- 4. Chitto wa hanashi no tane ni narimashō.
- Daibu kata-kage ni natte kimashita kara, soro-soro dekakemashō.
- Daibu niwa no sakura ga saki-kakemashita kara, tsugi no nichiyō atari ni wa, Mukōjima ga chōdo yoroshiū gozaimashō.

Every word that fellow says is a lie.

What is his name? (more lit. What do people say that his name is?)

I shall be too busy to study to-morrow.

It will be something to talk about.

There is a good deal of shade in many places; so I shall begin to think of going out.

A good many cherryblossoms have begun to come out in the garden; so I suppose Mukōjima will just be at its best about next Sunday.

<sup>1.</sup> For a good example of a similar construction with *no*, see p. 76, end of ¶110.—2. For *to iu*, see p. 58 and p. 82.—4. Lit. "talk's seed."
—5. The auxiliary *kimashita* makes the phrase paint or photograph, as it were, the gradual oncoming of the shade. Simple *natta* would be a very flat substitute for compound *natte kimashita*; conf. p. 197.—6. For *kakeru* see p. 219. Mukōjima is a part of Tōkyō celebrated for its avenue of cherry-trees. Observe the manner in which the two clauses are connected by *kara*,—lit. "because the cherry-trees have partially blossomed, etc."

- 7. Do ka ko ka, tsugo ga deki- We shall be able to masil
- 8. Doka Yokohama made no itto ōfuku-gippu wo ichi-mai kudasai.
- q. Domo! ka ni sasarete, nete mo ne-tsukarenai.
- 10. Furiso desŭ kara, voshimashō.
- 11. Hidoi furi ni natte kimashita. Shikashi, yūdachi desŭ kara, jiki agarimashō.
- 12. Hitori de bon-yari shite orimashita kara, nemuku narimashita
- 13. Ii no ga nakereba, maru If there are no good de yoshimasho.
- 14. Ii-tsŭketa tori ni shinai na rva, do shita mon' da ?

manage it somehow or other.

Please give me a firstclass return ticket to Vokohama

I have lain down, but I can't get to sleep,-I am so terribly bothered by the mosquitoes.

It looks like rain; so I think I will give up (the idea of the excursion. etc.).

It has come on to rain hard. Still, as it is only a shower, I suppose it will soon stop.

I was so dull all by myself, that I got quite sleepy.

ones, I won't take any of any kind.

Why didn't you do as I ordered you?

<sup>7.</sup> Dō ka kō ka is an idiom meaning "somehow or other," "by hook or by crook." If for dekimasŭ were substituted dekimasho, the phrase would signify "I think we shall be able," etc.—8. Kippu, "a ticket," takes the auxiliary numeral mai, because a ticket is a flat thing; see p. 109.—11. The contrary of (rain) "falling" being "rising," agaru means "to cease raining."-13. For no ga, conf. ¶ 112 and ¶ 137.—14. Do shita mon' da? here translated "why?" would be more literally rendered by "what sort of conduct is (this)?"

15. Iki-nari sonna koto voo iu to, That couldn't possibly do shite mo wakarimasen.

16. Ikura kake-atte mo, shōchi shimasen.

17. Ima-doki sono yō na koto
va sŭkunai. Yoshi! atta to
shita tokoro ga, tōji no ron ni wa
aimasen.

18. Jikō-gara de, asa-ban wa suzushiku narimashita.

19. Kana wa sŭkoshi wakarimasu ga,—ji wa yomemasen, That couldn't possibly be understood without some previous reference to the subject.

All my talking hasn't succeeded in getting him to consent.

Very little of that sort of thing goes on nowadays; and even supposing there to be instances of its occurrence, it doesn't suit the spirit of the age.

We are getting on in the season, and so the mornings and evenings have become cool.

I understand the Kana a little, but I can't read the Chinese characters.

15. *Iki-nari*, "abruptly," "disconnectedly."—17. *Sŭkunai*, is always predicative, as here; see pp. 274-5. But it is generally convenient to reverse, as has been done, the order of the ideas, when translating a clause containing *sŭkunai* into English. *Yoshi*, the conclusive form (see pp. 121-2) of the adjective *yoi*, "good," is here used as an exclamation, but forms from the grammatical point of view a sentence by itself. *To shita tokoro ga* is an idiom meaning "granting that....."—18. *Gara*, suffixed to a noun, indicates "kind," "nature," here "cause," very much like the postposition *kara*, "because," of which it is probably but a *nigoried* form.—19. *Kana*, see p. 9. Notice the force of the two *was*, acting like Greek μέν and δέ: "*As for* the Kana, I understand it a little; *but as for* the Chinese ideographs, I can't read them at all." A European's instinct would probably lead him to use the accusative particle *wo* in this place,

- 20. Kake-ne voo ivoanai honto no nedan voo itte dasai.
- 21. Keiko voo suru ni, do iu ambai ni hajimetara yokarō ?
- 22. Ketchaku no tokoro wa. ikura made makarimasu ka ?
- 23. Kiga ye iku michi wa, dochira de gozaimasŭ ?
- 24. Kitto kuru yō ni sō itte koi.
- 25. Komban va taisō masŭ kara, yagu wo mashite night; so please put on kudasai.
- 26. Komban wa taisō ka ga dete kita kara, kaya wo tsutte quitoes to-night; so kukasai.
- 27. Komban wa yakwai manekareta kara, reifuku shitaku voo suru ga ii.
- 28. Konna wa, doko tansu de kaemasŭ ?

de, || Don't ask fancy prices. ku- Tell me the true price. please.

> What is the best way to begin studying?

> What is the very lowest price vou will go down to?

> Which is the road to Kiga?

> Go and tell him to be sure to come.

hie- It is very chilly tosome more blankets.

> There are lots of mosplease put up the mosquito-net.

ni You must put out my no dress-clothes, as I am invited out to a party this evening.

> Where can one buy such cabinets as these?

instead of va. Notice how the Japanese construction omits both the nominative "I" and the accusatives "it" and "them."-21. Lit., "in doing practice, it will probably be good if one had begun in what sort of manner?"-22. Lit., "as for the place of decision, etc."-24. For the important subject of the rendering of indirect quotations, see p. 275 et seq., and especially ¶ 436 for the idiom in this phrase.—28. For such intransitives as kaeru, "to be buyable," see p. 205 et seq.

- 20. Kono mukō no tsukiatari wa. Where does this lead doko desu ?
- 30. Kore kara saki no michi wa, do desti 2.
- 31. Kore kara undo ni dekakemasii.
- 32. Mada motte kimasen ga,aru ni wa arimasu.
- 33. Mazu konnichi wa. kore made ni itashite okimasho.
- 34. Mijikai no mo areba, nagai no mo gozaimasu.
- Moshi! koko wa nan to iu tokoro deshō P
- 36. Nan to mo ii-yō gozaimasen.
- 37. Nani ka futsugō ga shōjimashita to miete . . . .
- 38. Nan-nen bakari benkyō shitara, hanashi ga dekiru yō ni narimashō ka ?

to?

How is the road ahead?

I am going out now to take some exercise.

Although they haven't brought them yet, there is no doubt about the things being there.

Well, we will leave off here to-day.

Some are short, and some are long.

Excuse me, what may be the name of this place?

It is quite indescribable.

It would seem that difficulties have arisen, and

How many years' study do you think would enable one to talk?

29. More lit. "As for the abutment-place opposite to this, where is it?"-32. Aru ni wa arimasu, "as for their existing, they exist," is an emphatic construction; see p. 88. Any verb may be so used for emphasis' sake.—33. Oku is auxiliary; conf. p. 194.—34. Conf. p. 196 for this peculiar construction with the conditional.—35. Instead of moshi, one may say go men nasai, "deign to pardon me," or chotto ukagaimasu, "I just enquire,"-36, More lit, "there is no way of calling it even what?" Of course this is not a reply to the previous No.-37. Our phrase "it would seem that," or the adverb "apparently," is generally thus rendered by the gerundial construction to miete, the sentence being reversed, and another clause being necessary to clinch it.-38. Lit. "If one did about how many years' diligence, will it probably become to the forthcoming of talking?"

30. Natsu to chigatte, fuyu wall ryūkō-byō ga nakute, yoroshiū winter than in summer; gozaimasu.

nasaimashi! kaeri Sago soto wa o samū gozaimashitara

11. 0! kŭtabireta. Omoigakenaku kyō wa aruita kara, gakkari shita. (familiar)

42. Oi! nēsan! Büru ip-pon o kure. Tsuide ni motte kite kanjo wo.

43. Omote-muki de naku, nainai de kiite kudasai.

44. Sakki made wa de-kakeru tsumori datta ga,-yōki no sei ka, kibun ga waruku natta kara, deru no wa yoshimashō. Kuruma-ya zvo kotorvatte kudasai.

45. Sensei! kore wa do iu imi de gozaimashō ?

46. Sensei ni choito o ide nasaru vo ni so itte koi.

47. So invarete domo wa. damatte iraremasen.

We are better off in for we have no epidémic diseases in winter.

Welcome back! You must indeed have found it cold out-of-doors.

Oh! I am tired. I walked to-day much further than I had meant to do, and I am quite played out.

I say, waitress! Bring a bottle of beer, please. And let us have the bill at the same time.

Don't ask officially, ask privately please.

Until just now I had intended to go out. But whether it is from the effect of the weather or from something else, I feel quite unwell now, and so shall give up the idea of going out. Please tell the jinrikisha-man that he is not wanted.

Sir! what may be the meaning of this?

Just go and ask my teacher to come here.

It is impossible to hold one's tongue on being spoken to in that way.

<sup>40.</sup> A phrase used by any of a household to their master, or by hotel people to a guest.-41. Gakkari is a sort of onomatope for exhaustion. 42. At the end supply motte kite o kure, "please bring."—44. Deru no wa might be replaced by deru no wo .- 46. See p. 276.

- 48. Soko no dote ye agaru to,|| junsa ni togameraremasu.
- 49. Sono koto ga shireru to. ōki ni futsugō de gozaimasu.
- 50. Taisō ase ni natta kara. kimono wo sukkari ki-kae-mashō.
- 51. Taisō kumotte mairimashita. Soko-bie no suru toko wo mimasu to, komban atari wa vuki ga furu ka mo shiremasen.
- 52. Tsugi no shuku made nan ri gozaimasu ?
- 53. Tsumaranai koto 700 iikakerarete, ōki ni komarimashita.
- 54. Watakushi wa achira no hō ye ichi-do mo itta koto ga that direction before, nai kara, annai wo hitori vatotte kudasai
- 55. Yuki wa kirei desu ga. -ato no michi ni komarimasu.

The police will find fault with you, if you get up on that embankment.

It will never do for that to get known.

I have got into such a perspiration, that I think I will change all my clothes.

The sky has all clouded over. I feel thoroughly chilled, which makes me think that perhaps it may snow to-night.

How many miles is it to the next town?

I felt much annoyed at so absurd an accusation.

As I have never been in please engage a guide for me.

Snow is pretty to look at, but it puts the roads in a frightful state afterwards.

<sup>48.</sup> Lit. "the embankment of there."—51. Toko is for tokoro, "place," hence "fact." Mimasŭ to, "when I see," "when I consider" (the fact that there is, i.e. that I am feeling, an under chill). For suru in the sense of "to be," see ¶ 356, p. 227. Furu ka mo shiremasen, lit. "one cannot know whether it will snow,"-54. Itta koto, conf. 5 277, p. 178. 55. More lit. "one is troubled by the after-roads."

#### QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

- Mada ma ni aimashō ka ?
   Mō ma ni aimasen.
- 2. Mõ ma ni aimasŭmai ka ? Mada ma ni aimasŭ.
- 3. Omoshirō gozaimashita ka ?
  —Ie; amari omoshiroku wa gozaimasen.
- 4. Go byōki wa ikaga de gozaimasŭ ka?—Arigatō gozaimasŭ. Ōki ni kokoro-yoku narimashĭta.
- 5. Dō o kangae nasaru ka ? Kangae ga tsŭkimasen.
- 6. Watakŭshi-domo ni mo miraremashō ka ? — Mirarenai koto wa arumai.
- 7. Anata wa, o kodomo-shu ga gozaimasŭ ka? — Ie; watakŭshi wa dokŭshin de gozaimasŭ.

Shall I still be in time?

—No, you won't.

Don't you think I shall still be in time?—Yes, you will.

Was it amusing?—No, not very.

How do you feel to-day?
—Much better, thank you.

What do you think about it?—I can't arrive at any opinion.

,Can I too be allowed to see it, do you think?—I don't think there is any reason why you should not.

Have you any children?
—No, I am a bachelor.

<sup>3.</sup> For amari, see p. 148. For the wa after omoshiroku, conf. p. 88. Such elliptical sentences as "No, not very," in the English version of this example and the answer in the next example, are not admissible in Japanese.—5. The answer is lit. "consideration sticks not."—6. Conf. ¶ 309, pp. 201-2, and ¶ 432, p. 271.—7. More lit. "As for you, are there honourable children?"

- 8. Ryokō menjō wo o mochi | Have you got a passport? de gozaimasŭ ka ?-He! shoji -Yes, I have. itashite orimasu,
- 9. Embi-fuku de irasshaimasu ka? - Sore de naku mo. furokku-koto de voroshii.
- 10. O meshi-mono 700 0 ki-kae nasaimasŭ ka ?--Iya! kono mama de, uwagi dake voi hō to kaevō.
- 11. Senjitsu wa, kekkō na o shina wo arigato zonjimasii.

Do itashimashite! Makoto ni somatsu na mono de, shitsurei de gozaimashita.

Are you going in evening dress, Sir?—No, my frock-coat will do enough.

Are you going to change your clothes, Sir?-No, I shall remain as I am, except that I will put on a better coat.

Many thanks for the beautiful present you made me the other day.

Oh! pray don't mention it. It was really such rubbish, that it was quite rude of me to offer it to you.

8. Ryokō may be omitted. The answer to this question is rather high-flown. In simpler parlance it would be He! motte orimasu.-9. In Chinese en="swallow," bi="tail," fuku="clothes." Sore de naku mo, "even without that," Furokku-kōto is the nearest approach to "frock-coat," of which Japanese organs are capable.—10. Meshi-mono is a very polite term for clothes, used chiefly by servants in addressing their masters. Yoi hō="the good one," or "a better one," "my best one." Observe the simple non-honorific kaeyō, used by the master in addressing his servant. Between friends it would be kaemasho; and the servant in the question uses the still more honorific periphrasis o ki-kae nasaimasŭ.-II. (Answer) It is the rule to use some such depreciatory phrase as this in speaking of a present made by oneself to another. The self-depreciation does not sound at all excessive to Japanese ears. For the de in somatsu na mono de, see p. 138, \$\ 200 et seq. This method of correlating sentences must be carefully studied. -12. When there is no bell, as in all old-fashioned Japanese houses, the visitor cries out O tano' moshimasii as in No. 14. The servant here says simply taku, rather than o taku, in order to avoid applying honorifics to any one connected with the family he himself belongs to, even though it be the lady of the house herself.

12. (Visitor rings the bell, and servant appears.)

Irasshaimashi!

Okŭsama voa, o uchi de gozaimasŭ ka?

He! taku de gozaimasŭ.

13. Rusu-chū ni donata mo oide wa nakatta ka?

He! senkoku kono meishi no kata ga irasshaimashite, o kaeri ni nattara, "Yoroshiku" to mōsaremashita.

(This last clause is a polite phrase in constant use.

14. O tano(mi) moshimasŭ!

(This is the formula used when)

Irasshaimashi!

Go shujin wa, o taku de gozaimasŭ ka?

Tadaima rusu de gozaimasŭ.

Sō desti ka? Sore de wa, o kaeri ni narimashttara, "Smith ga mairimashtte, "Yoroshtku moshimashtta" to itte kudasai.

Welcome!

Is Mrs.\* \* \* at home?

Yes, Sir.

Did any one call while I was out?

Yes, Sir, a gentleman called and left this card; and he desired his compliments to you when you came home.

I beg to ask!

Welcome!

Is your master at home?

No, Sir, he has gone out.

Indeed? Then please tell him, when he comes home, that Mr. Smith called and desired his compliments to him.

<sup>13.</sup> More lit. "Did no one call?" the Japanese usually preferring to turn such questions negatively. The potential mōsaremashīta at the end is more polite than plain mōsu would be; see ¶ 403, p. 250.—
14. The mi of tanomi is often dropped for brevity's sake. Persons who are not scrupulous about politeness cry out simply "Tanomu." These little dialogues instance the use of so many honorific idioms, that it might be well to read through the Chapter on Honorifics, p. 244 et seq., in connection with them.

## PROVERBS.

I. Ame futte,
Rain having-fallen,
ji katamaru.
earth hardens:

2. Awase-mono zwa, Joined-thing as-for, hanare-mono.

separable-thing(is).

3. Bō hodo negatPludgeon amount havingte, hari hodo
requested, needle amount
kanau.
corresponds.

4. Dorobō ni oi-Thief to, pursue-

sen. money.

5. Gō ni itte having-zva, gō ni shita-centered, district to con-

gae!
form!

6. Haki-dame ni tsuru. Sweep-mound on, stork. After rain the ground gets hard.

("Good comes out of evil.")

That which has been artificially joined together is easily separated.

(Said of a husband and wife who)

To ask for a bludgeon's worth, and to get a needle's worth.

Spending money on the pursuit of a thief.

("Throwing good money after)

When you enter a district, conform to its customs.

("When you are in Rome, do as)

A stork on a dust-heap. ("A jewel in a dunghill.")

<sup>2.</sup> Supply da, "is," after hanare-mono.—4. Supply wo tsuiyasu at the end.—5. This itte is the gerund of iru, "to enter."

7. Hari hodo no koto
Needle amount 's thing

100 bō hodo ni
(accus.) bludgeon amount to

iii.
to-say.

8. Hito no uwasa mo,
People 's rumour even,
shichi-jū-go-nichi.
seventy-five-days (is).

9. Hito voo noroeba,
Person (accus.) if-one-curses,

ana j utatsu.
holes two (eventuate).

10. Hiza to mo, dan-Knees with even, con-

sultation (do).

three-times.

11. Hotoke no kao mo, Buddha 's face even, san-do.

12. I no uchi no kawazu. Well 's inside 's frog.

13. Ichi voo kiite,
One (accus.) having-heard,
jū voo shiru.
ten (accus.) to-know.

14. Inu ni natte mo,

Dog to becoming even,

- \bar{o}\cdot doko no inu ni nare!

large-place 's dog to become!

To talk of a thing as small as a needle as if it were as big as a bludgeon.

"To make mountains out of mole-hills."

Sossip only lasts seventy-five days.

("The scandal will blow over like)
("a nine days' wonder."

Curse a man, and there will be two graves.

(A curse strikes not only him against whom it is pronounced, but also him who pronounces it.)

Consult any one, even if it be only your own knees.

("In multitude of counsellors)

\* Even a Buddha's face can only be tickled thrice.

("The crushed worm will turn.")

Like a frog in a well. (Knowing nothing of the world.)

To know all by hearing a part.

(Said of mental acuteness.)

If you become a dog, at least be the dog of a great house.

(If you must needs be a flunkey, serve a rich master,—good worldly advice.)

8. Supply da, "is."—9. Supply ga dekiru.—10. Supply shiro!—11. Supply some such words as shika¹ naderarenai², "cannot-stroke² but¹ (three-times)."—12. The complete saying is Ino uchi no kawazu daikai¹ wo² shirazu³ ("knows-not³ the ocean¹"). Shirazu here and in No. 30 is a relic of the Book Language, the "conclusive negative present."

- 15. Iri-mame ni hana.
  Parched-peas on, blossoms.
- 16. Jigoku no sata Hell 's decisions

mo, kane shidai.
also, money according(are).

- 17. Kai-inu ni te Keeping-dog by, hand woo kamareru. (accus.) to-get-bitten.
- 18. Kazvaii ko ni vva
  Dear child to
  tabi vvo sase!
  journey (accus.) cause-to-do!
- 19. Kowashi, mitashi. (Is)afraid; wants-to-see.
- 20. Kyōdai wa ta-Brethren as-for, othernin no hajimari. people of beginning (are).
- 21. Mekura sen-nin, Blind shousand-persons, me-aki sen-nin. teyes-open shousand-persons (are).
- 22. Mitsu-go no tamashii
  Three-child's soul

hyaku made.
hundred till (changes not).

Blossoms on parched peas.

"Grapes on thorns and figs on thistles."

Even hell's judgments may be swayed by money.

("Money is the key that opens all)

To get one's hand bitten by one's own pet dog.

("Nursing a viper in one's bosom.")

A pet child should be made to travel.

("Spare the rod, and spoil the)

Afraid, and yet itching to peep.

Brotherhood is the first step towards estrangement.

(So self-centred are men that even brothers, despite their near kinship, are to a certain degree strangers.)

For every thousand blind there are a thousand who can see.

- (The world's opinion is so evenly balanced, that there is little use in striving after unusual and often unappreciated excellence.)

A three-year-old child's soul will remain the same till he is a hundred.

("The boy is father to the man.")

<sup>16.</sup> Supply da.—18. Sasc!=sasero! imperative, second conj.—19. A good example of the survival of the conclusive form of adjectives, each word being here grammatically a complete sentence; see pp. 121-2.—20. Supply da.—21. Supply aru.—22. Supply kawaranai.

23. Nama-byōhō wa, Crude-tactics as-for, ō-kizu no moto. great-wound 's origin (are).

24. Neko ni koban.
Cat to, gold-coin.

25. Nikkō zwo minai Nikkō (accus.) see-not uchi zwa, "kekkō" within as-for, "magnificent" to iu-na!

26. O ni o zwo Tail to tail (accus.) Isukeru. to-affix.

27. Odawara hyogi. conference.

28. Omoi-tatta ga kichi-Resolved (nom.) luckynichi. day (is). Crude tactics cause grave wounds.

("A little learning is a dangerous)

Gold coins to a cat. ("Casting pearls before swine.")

Do not use the word "magnificent" until you have seen Nikkō.

To add tail to tail.
(To exaggerate and amplify.)

Like the Odawara conference.

(Endless talk resulting in nothing.)

The best day to execute a resolve is the day on which you form it.

"Procrastination is the thief of)

23. Supply da.—24. Koban is a specific name, not a general one; but the oval gold coin which it denotes is no longer current.—25. Nikkō is famed both for its mountain scenery, and for the splendour of its tombs and temples dedicated to the first and third Shōguns of the Tokugawa dynasty.—27. In the year 1590, when the castle of Odawara, belonging to the Hōjō family, was besieged by the Taikō Hideyoshi, the generals commanding the besieged force could not come to an agreement as to whether it were best to await the onslaught of the enemy, or to sally forth themselves and offer battle. While they were still discussing this question, Hideyoshi made a sudden onslaught, and captured the castle by a coup de main.—28. Supply da.

29. Oni no rusu ni Demon 's absence in, sentaku. washing (to do).

30. "Rongo" yomi no
"Analects" reading 's
"Rongo" shirazu

"Rongo" shirazu.
"Analects" knows-not.

31. San-nin yoreThree-persons if-comeba, Monju no chie.
together, Monju 's wisdom.

32. Sawaran kami ni tatari Not-touch god in curse nashi.

33. Shaka ni seppā.
Buddha to, sermon.

34. Shinda ko no toshi
Died child's years

700 kazoeru.
(accus.) to-count.

ni Doing the washing when the demons are absent.

(will play." when the cat's away, the mice)

To have read the "Analects," and not to know them.

("If ye know these things, happy) are ye if ye do them."

When three people consult together, there results wisdom worthy of Monju. ("Two heads are better than one.")

A god with whom one has nothing to do will inflict no evil on one.

("Let sleeping dogs lie.")

Preaching to Buddha.

("Teaching your grandmother to)
suck eggs."

To reckon up a dead child's age.

("Crying over spilt milk.")

29. Supply we suru. Sentaku is believed to be a corruption of tentaku, "changing house." If so, the original meaning of the proverb was "To change house when the demons are not by to see."—
30. The Confucian "Analects" is one of the most venerated of the Chinese Classics, and a committal of it to memory was formerly an essential part of every Japanese gentleman's education. The proverb applies to the failure to put principles into practice, not, as might be supposed, to the non-comprehension of texts. Yomi the indefinite form of yomu, "to read," is here equivalent to yomu hito. For shirazu see p. 311, note to No. 12.—31. Monju (Sanskrit Manjusri) is the personification of wisdom in the Buddhist mythology.—32. Notice the bookish "conclusive" nashi for Colloq. nai (¶ 179).—33. Supply wo suru.

35. Sumeba, If-you-reside, ko. city (it is).

miyacapital-

city (it is).

36. Tōdai, moto kura-Candlestick, bottom (is) shi.

37. Tokoro kawareba, shina
Place if-changes, kind
kawaru.
changes.

38. Uma no mimi ni Horse 's ear in, nembulsu. prayer-to-Buddha (to say).

39. Ushi wa ushi-zure, cow-companion; uma wa uma-zure.
horse as-for, horse-companion.

40. Uvasa vo sureba, Gossip (accus.) if-one-does, kage ga sasu. shadow (nom.) strikes.

41. Wataru sekai ni cross world in,
oni va nai. demon as-for, is-not.

If you live in a place, it becomes the capital so far as you are concerned.

One can make one's home any-

The foot of the lamp is dark.

("One has to go abroad to get)

So many places, so many manners.

Pouring prayers into a horse's ears.
(Taking useless trouble.)

Cows consort with cows, and horses with horses. ("Birds of a feather flock together.")

If you talk of a man, his shadow will fall on you.

("Talk of the Devil, and he'll ap-)

Cross the whole world, and you will find no demons.

(There is kindness to be found) everywhere.

<sup>35.</sup> Supply da. This proverb means that a man can accustom himself to any circumstances.—36. Kurashi, conclusive form of kurai, "dark;" conf. pp. 121-2.—38. Supply wo in.

## ¶ 449. FRAGMENTS

OF

#### CONVERSATION

 YŪBIN.—Kesa, yūbin wa kimasen ka ≥ He! mairimasen.

Hate-na! Kinō no asa Hama ye dashita henji ga mō kuru wake da ga.....

 Hakurankwai.—Tönen mo Ueno ni hakurankwai ga arimashō ka ≥

Ikaga deshō ka? Tonto uzvasa zvo kikimasen.

3. O Negai.—Dekiru nara, kyō-jū ni korc wo utsushite kudasai.

Dōmo! sō wa ikimasen.

4. Kyōshi Yatoi-ire.—Dōzo yoi kyōshi wo sagashite kudasai.

Mi-atari shidai, tsurete mairimashō.

5. Kyuryō.—Hĭto-tsŭki no kyūryō wa, dono kurai yattara yokarō ?

Mā! jū-shi-go-en de jūbun de gozaimasho.

<sup>1.</sup> For "yes," where "no" would seem more natural, see ¶ 376, pp. 235-6. Hama is a familiar abbreviation for Yokohama. The last line of the Japanese text is extremely concise:—Hama ye dashita henji may be best construed by expanding it to Hama ye dashita tegami no

#### FREE

## ENGLISH

#### TRANSLATION.

I. THE POST.—Have no letters come this morning? No, none have come.

I can't make it out! Why, there ought to be an answer to the letter I sent to Yokohama yesterday morning.

2. An Exhibition.—Is there to be an exhibition at Ueno this year also?

I don't know. I have not heard the slightest rumour on the subject.

- 3. A Request.—If you can manage it, do please copy this by to-night.
  - O! really, that is quite impossible.
- 4. Engaging a Teacher.—Please look out for a good teacher for me.

As soon as I find one, I will bring him to you.

5. SALARY.—How much salary should I give a month (e.g., to a teacher or clerk)?

Well, I should say that 14 or 15 yen would be ample.

henji. The sentence is incomplete; but such incomplete sentences ending in ga are of frequent occurrence, the speaker not knowing exactly what to add; conf. p. 186.—2. Ikaga deshō ka? is more or less equivalent to "I don't know;" see ¶ 375, p. 235.

6. Shokuji no Jikan.—Kochira de zva, gozen no jikoku zva, nan-ji to nan-ji desŭ ka ?

He! O hiru wa jū-ni-ji han de, o yashoku ga shichi-ji han de gozaimasŭ.

Sore de wa, asa-han wa ?

He! asa wa, kimari ga gozaimasen. Anata no go tsugō shidai.

7. O TAZUNE.—Moshi! uke-tsŭke wa, kochira desŭ ka ?

Hei! koko wo massugu ni oide ni naru to, sugu soko desŭ.

8. Mō HǐTOTSU O TAZUNE.—Koko kara Fuji ga mieru to wa, hontō desŭ ka ?

Mā! mieru to mosu koto de gozaimasu.

9. Kodomo to Hanashi.—Sā, botchan! koko ye o kake nasai. O otonashii koto! O ikutsu desŭ ka?

Yatsu.

Taisō ōkii koto! Gakkō ye o kayoi desŭ ka?

He! mainichi ikimasŭ ga,—kyō wa, doyōbi desŭ kara, o hiru-mae-giri deshĭta.

10. Oya to Hanashi.—Kono ko wa, anata no go shisoku de gozaimasŭ ka?

He! watakushi no soryo de gozaimasu.

Sore va, taisō o rippa na go shisoku vo o mochi nasaimashĭte, sazo o tanoshimi de gozaimashō.

Ie! domo, wampaku de komarimasŭ.

<sup>6.</sup> Jū-ni-ji han de, notice how de, used predicatively, correlates this clause with the next; conf. ¶ 200, p. 138, and the fourth and fifth examples on p. 139. After asa-han wa, supply itsu de gozaimasū? After shidai, supply de gozaimasū.—7. For koko wo, conf. p. 232.—8. To wa stands for to in koto wa, "the assertion that Fuji can," etc.—

6. Meal Hours.—What are the hours for meals here?

Luncheon is at half past twelve, and dinner at half past seven.

Then what about breakfast?

Breakfast? There is no fixed time for it, Sir. You can have it whenever convenient to yourself.

7. AN ENQUIRY.—Please, is this the enquiry office?

No; but you will come to it in a minute, if you go straight on.

- 8. Another Enquiry.—Is it true that Fuji can be seen from here?
- Well, it is supposed to be.
- 9. Talking to a Child.—Here, my little man! sit down here. What a good boy you are! How old are you? Eight.

How big you are for your age! Do you go to school?

Yes, I go there every day. But to-day we only had lessons till noon, because it is Saturday.

IO. TALKING TO A FATHER.—Is this little boy your son?

Yes, he is my eldest.

Indeed, you have a fine fellow for an eldest son. What a source of happiness he must be to you!

Oh! no, indeed! He is so naughty, I don't know what to do.

<sup>9.</sup> For botchan, see p. 240. Koto in taisō ōkii koto! is used exclamatorily; see p. 38. The o of o hiru-mae-giri is meaningless; see p. 248.—10. Such complimentary and self-depreciatory speeches are customary, quite irrespective of facts, and must not be understood too literally.

11. Denshin.—Kokoe-ra wa, hempi da kara, denshin ga nakŭte, fujiyū desŭ, ne!

Sayō de gozaimasuru. Oi-oi dekimasŭ de gozaimashō.

12. Nihon-go ga Jōzu.—Anata wa, yoku Nihon-go ga o wakari ni narimasu.

Tonda koto osshaimasŭ. Dō shite! Naka-naka mazū gozaimasŭ.

Iya! do itashimashite! Honto ni rippa de gozaimasu.

13. Ōrai-dome.—Ano hashi wa fushin-chū de, ōrai-dome da sō da.

Dori de, koko ni kari-bashi ga kakatte imasŭ.

14. Тосни хо Aisatsu.—Konaida wa tochu de hanahada shikkei.

Ie! dō itashimashĭte! watakŭshi koso. Shĭkashi, are kara dochira ye irasshaimashĭta?

15. Tsūkai.—Sakki no tsūkai wa, mada kaette konai ka ? Nani wo shite iru ka ? Taisō tema ga toreru.

Ōkata saki sama ga o rusu de, matte de mo orimasu n' de gozaimashō.

<sup>12.</sup> Lit. "As for you, Japan language becomes well to honourable understanding."—13. Dc, see ¶ 200. Da  $s\bar{o}$  is the "adjective of probability" of da, "to be."  $D\bar{o}ri$  de="being reasonable," here "that is why."—14. These and similar complimentary speeches are in constant use, and do not sound absurd in Japanese, though the faults apologised for on both sides are generally quite imaginary. After shikkei supply itashimashita. After koso supply shikkei itashimashita. Apropos the

there being no telegraph in this part of the country, on account of its being so out-of-the-way.

Yes. But I suppose we shall have it in time.

12. Speaking Japanese Well.—You speak Japanese beautifully.

Nonsense! How can you say such a thing? My Japanese is very poor indeed.

Not a bit of it. How can you say so? You really speak splendidly.

13. No Thoroughfare.—It seems that the thoroughfare is closed, because the bridge over there is undergoing repairs.

Ah yes! That is why they have put up a temporary bridge here.

pardon for having been so rude to you in the street the other day.

Oh! no, not at all! It was I who was rude. Where did you go after we parted!

15. A Message.—Hasn't the messenger whom I sent some time ago, come back yet? What is he doing? He is a tremendous time about it.

Probably it is because the gentleman you sent him to is out, so that he is kept waiting.

sentence beginning *Shikashi*, notice that such questions as to where one has been or is about to go are not considered indiscreet by the Japanese, but are, on the contrary, used in the best society.—15. *Sakki* is emphatic for *saki*; conf. ¶ 25, p. 18. *Toreru* is the intransitive corresponding to the transitive verb *toru*, "to take;" conf. p. 206. *Saki sama* "the gentleman in front," i.e. "the gentleman over there." For n' see bottom of p. 79.

16. Fŭ-kagen.—Kyō no shūkwai ni wa, irasshaimasen deshita ka ≥

He! kyō wa, nan da ka, kokoro-mochi ga warukŭte ikemasen kara, kotowari wo itte yarimashita.

17. Senchū.—Куō wa, yoi nagi de gozaimasŭ, ne! Sō de gozaimasŭ. Go dōyō ni shi-awase de gozaimasŭ.

Anata wa, Kōbe ye oide de gozaimasŭ ka ?

Ie. Nagasaki made mairimasŭ.

Ikaga de gozaimasŭ ? Kitsuen-shitsu de ip-puku itashimashō ka ?

Sa! o tomo itashimasho.

18. Yusan.—Kyō wa, ii hiyori da kara, undō kata-gata Ōjigoku wo mite kimasŭ kara, nani ka mi-tsŭkurotte, bentō wo san-nin-mae isoide koshiraete kudasai.

He! shōchi itashimashĭta. Go shu wa, nani-nani wo motasemashō?

Sake wa, biiru ip-pon to, whisky ip-pon ni, Hirano-sui ni-hon de yoroshii.

He! kashikomarimashita.

19. KYAKURAI.—Ima mieta o kyaku wa, mada gozen-mae da sō da kara, nan de mo ari-awase-mono de gohan wo dashite kudasai.

He! shōchi itashimashita.

<sup>16.</sup> Warukŭte ikemasen, fairly lit. "being so bad, that it is no go;" more simply "it is too bad." Similarly tõkute ikemasen, "it is too far;" kŭtabirete ikemasen, "I am too tired," etc.; conf. ¶ 218, pp. 147-8.—17. For the objective honorifics in go dōyō and o tomo, see p. 247.—18. Ōjigoku ("Big Hell") is the name of a valley near Miyanoshita containing some boiling sulphur springs. It is also called Ōīvaki-dani,

16. FEELING UNWELL.—Didn't you go to the meeting to-day?

No, I don't know what it is, but I feel unwell; so I sent an excuse.

17. On BOARD SHIP.—It is beautifully calm to-day, isn't it?

Yes, indeed! It is lucky for all of us.

Are you going to Kōbe?

No. I am going on to Nagasaki.

What do you say to our going and having a pipe in the smoking-room?

All right, come along!

18. A Picnic.—As it is fine weather to-day, we are going to Ōjigoku for the sake of a little exercise. So please make haste, and put up something or other as luncheon for three.

All right, Sir. What liquors shall I send?

Liquors?—A bottle of beer, a bottle of whisky, and two bottles of Hirano water, will be enough.

All right, Sir.

19. A VISITOR.—It would seem that the visitor who has just arrived has not dined yet. So please give him something to eat. Anything that happens to be ready will do.

All right, Sir.

i.e. "the Valley of the Great Boiling." Undō katagata, more lit. "at the same time as exercise." Mite kimasŭ; conf. kuru, p. 193. Go shu is Chinese for the Japanese o sake, and sounds more polite. Hirano is the name of a favourite Japanese table-water. Kashīkomarimashīta, or shōchi itashimashīta, as immediately above, is the usual term by which an inferior expresses that he has understood the orders of a superior.

20. Michi wo Kiku.—Moshi! Hakubutsù-kwan wa, donohen desŭ ka ?

Sayō de gozaimasŭ. Sore wa, koko wo massugu ni iku to, migi no hō ga kōban de, hidari no hō ga Hakubutsŭ-kwan desŭ. - Mon ni "Hakubutsŭ-kwan" to kaita gaku ga agete arimasŭ kara, jiki shiremasŭ.

Kore wa, domo! arigato zonjimasŭ.

21. Sho-taimen no Aisatsu.—Hajimemashite (o me ni kakarimasu). Watakushi wa Tanaka Tsunemasa to moshimasu. Nanibun yoroshiku negaimasu.

Sayō de gozaimasŭ ka? Kanete sommei wa uketamawatte orimashĭta ga.....Watakŭshi wa Smith to mōsu mono de, igo o kokoro-yasū.....

22. ITOMA-GOI.—Taisō chōza vvo itashimashǐta. Konnichi vva mō o itoma (ni) itashimashō.

Mā! Yoi de wa gozaimasen ka? Mō shōshō o hanashi nastte irasshaimashi.

Arigatō gozaimasu ga,—konnichi wa chito tori-isogimasŭ kara, izure mata sono uchi ukagaimasŭ.

Sayō de gozaimasŭ ka ? Kore wa taisō shitsurei bakari mōshi-agemashĭta. Sonnara, mata o chikai uchi ni zehi o tachi-yori wo.....

<sup>20.</sup> For the active past tense *kaita*, "wrote," where English idiom requires the passive past participle "written," see ¶ 293, pp. 190-17. Similarly in the case of *gaku ga agete arimasu*, lit. "a tablet is raising."—21. The complimentary phrases in this and the next three numbers should be carefully committed to memory, as they are in constant requisition however queer and stilted the English translations may

20. Asking the Way.—Please, Sir! would you tell me the way to the Museum?

Let me see! Yes! If you go straight on, you will find a police-station to your right, and the building on the left is the Museum. You will know it at once, for there is a tablet over the gate, with the word "Museum" written on it.

Oh! very many thinks, Sir.

21. COMPLIMENTS ON FIRST MEETING.—This is the first time I have had the honour to meet you, Sir. My name is Tanaka Tsunemasa. I beg for your kind friendship.

Oh! indeed! I have had the honour to hear of you before; although (we have never, met). My name is Smith. Henceforward I hope you will honour me with your intimacy.

22. TAKING LEAVE OF A FRIEND.—I have paid you an unconscionably long visit, and must now be taking my leave.

Oh! Why hurry so? Do please chat a little longer.

Many thanks, but I am rather pressed for time to-day. I will call again soon.

Must you really go? Well, pray excuse the shortcomings of my imperfect hospitality, and remember that I count upon your visiting me again very soon.

sound. After uketamawatte orimashita ga, must be supplied some clause such as has here been rendered in English by "we have never met." After o kokoro yasū supply negaimasū.—22. Yō would be more strictly grammatical than yoi de wa, but the latter is often used; conf. N.B. on p. 125. For the tori of tori-isogimasū, see p. 219. At the end supply negaimasū.

23. SEWA NI NATTA REI.—Sate, dan-dan kono tabi wa go shūsen kudasaimashite, arigatō gozaimasu.

Ie! iki-todokimasen de, makoto ni.....Shĭkashi mazu o medetō gozaimasŭ.

24. Shinnen no Aisatsu.—Mazu akemashite, o medetō gozaimasu.

O medetō gozaimasŭ. Kyūtō wa iro-iro o sewa sama ni narimashte, arigatō zonjimasŭ. Nao tōnen mo ai-kawarazu negaimasŭ.

- 25. Jishin.—Anata saki-hodo jishin ga gozaimashita no voo go zonji desŭ, ka ?
  - Ie! Sukoshi mo zonjimasen deshita.

He-hē! Yohodo hidō gozaimashĭte, ano tokonoma no hana-ike ga yurete, sunde no koto ni taoresō ni naru hodo deshĭta.

Sore voa, naka-naka õki na jishin de gozaimashĭta, ne! Nan-ji goro deshĭta?

Sono toki, tokei wo mimashitara, ichi-ji ni-jip-pun sugi deshita?

Naruhodo! ha-hā! Sore de wa, shiranai wake desu. Watakushi wa, ichi-ji ni Tsukiji wo demashite, kuruma de mairimashita kara, ōkata sono tochū de gozaimashitarō.

<sup>23.</sup> Sate="well!" Dan-dan, "gradually," which serves to show how long-continued your favours have been, is a word constantly thus used in polite speeches. After makoto ni must be supplied some such clause as that which we have translated by "I am ashamed of myself," "Result" is not actually in the original expression; but the idea is more or less pointed at,—24. Akemashite refers to the "open-

23. THANKS FOR ASSISTANCE RECEIVED.—I am very much indebted to you for all your kind assistance on this occasion.

Not at all! I am really ashamed of myself for having done so little. Anyhow, I congratulate you on the result.

24. New Year Congratulations.—I beg to offer you my congratulations on the New Year.

The same to you. I trust that you will continue to me throughout the present year those favours by which I have profited in so many ways during the year that has just closed.

25. An Earthquake.—Did you feel the earthquake a few hours ago?

No, I didn't feel it at all.

Indeed? It was very violent. It was such that, the flower-vase there in the alcove shook so that it seemed likely to fall.

Then it must indeed have been a severe earthquake. About what o'clock did it take place?

I looked at my watch at the time, and it was twenty minutes past one.

Ah! I see. In that case I was bound not to feel it. As I left Tsŭkiji at one o'clock, and came in a jinrikisha, it doubtless took place while I was on the road.

ing " of the New Year. Kyūtō is lit. " old winter " in Chinese, hence " last year."—25. Sunde no koto ni=" just about to." Shiranai wake, not " a reason which does not know," but " a reason why I should not know;" conf. p. 58. Tsūkiji is the name of a quarter in Tōkyō. For sono=" of that," see p. 54.

26. Kuruma wo Tanomu.—Kyaku.—Oi! kuruma-ya! Ueno no Hakubutsu-kwan ye itte, ne!—sore kara Asakusa no kōenchi wo kembutsu shite, kaeri ni Ginza de kai-mono shite, mata kono "station" made kaeru 'n da ga,—ikura de iku ka?

Shafu.—He! hidoku o tema ga, toremashō ka?

Kyaku.—Iya! sõ tema wa toremai,—yūkata made ni kaeru tsumori da kara.

Shafu.—He! Sore de wa, danna! shichi-jū-go-sen negaitō gozaimasŭ.

KYAKU.—H'm! stikoshi takaku wa nai ka?

Shafu.—Ie! Yohodo michi-nori mo gozaimasŭ kara, kesshĭte o takai koto wa mōshi-agemasen.

Kyaku.—Sonnara, sore dake yaru kara, kaeri ni Teikoku Hoteru ye choito yotte kurei,—tazuneru htto ga aru kara. Shikashi, kore wa tema wa torenai.

Shafu.—He! Yoroshiū gozaimasŭ. O meshi nasaimashĭ.

27. YŪBIN NI DASU TEGAMI.—Moshi! O Haru San! Dare ka ni kono tegami wo yūbin-kyoku ye motasete,—Nihon-ji de kaite aru hō wa, kakitome ni sasete, uke-tori wo torana-kereba naran ga,—yoko-moji no hō wa, gwaikoku-yuki da kara, jis-sen no kitte wo hatte, tada sashi-ire-guchi ye irete kureba yoroshii.

He! kashikomarimashita.

<sup>26.</sup> Ueno and Asakŭsa are districts in Tōkyō, Ginza is a street, and the "Imperial" a large hotel in European style. Notice the correlation of clauses in the first sentence by means of the gerund repeated several times. The clause tazuneru hito ga aru kara is inverted; it should properly precede the words kaeri ni immediately above.—27. Learn this example thoroughly by heart, parse it, and

26. HIRING A JINRIKISHA.—Fare. I say, jinrikisha-man! I want to go to the Museum at Ueno, you know,—from there on to see the Public Garden at Asakusa, then to make some purchases in Ginza on the way back, and to return again here to the station. How much will you go for?

Jinrikisha-man. Shall you be long about it, Sir?

Fare. No, probably not; for I intend to be back by dusk.

Jinrikisha-man. Well then, Sir, I must ask seventy-five sen.

Fare. H'm. Isn't that rather dear?

Jinrikisha-man. No, Sir; I haven't named at all a high price, for the distance is very great.

Fare. All right, then; I will give you that much. So just look in at the Imperial Hotel on the way back, as I have some one to call on there. But that won't take long.

Jinrikisha-man. All right, Sir. Please step in.

27. Letters for the Mail.—I say, O Haru! tell some one to carry these letters to the post-office. The messenger must have the one which is addressed in Japanese characters registered, and must get a receipt for it; but in the case of those written in Roman letters, it will be enough if he sticks a ten sen stamp on each, and just drops them into the post-box, as they are to go abroad.

All right, Sir.

analyse it, and you will have laid the foundation of a practical mastery of that most difficult portion of Japanese grammar, the integration of sentence, which is treated of at the end of the Chapter on Syntax, pp. 280-2.

28. Yokohama Kōgwai no Senchū.—Ano oki ni daibu shima ga miemasu ga,—are wa, nan to iu shima de gozaimasu ?

Are ga Izu no Shĭchi-tō de gozaimasŭ. Mae no ga Ōshima to iimasŭ.

He! are de mo, hito ga sunde imasu ka shira.

E! Sunde iru dokoro de wa arimasen. Koko kara miru to, chiisō gozaimasu ga,—Ōshima nazo ni wa, mannaka ni funkwazan ga atte, sono mawari ni mura-kazu ga rok-ka-son mo arimasu. Ato no shima-jima ni mo taigai—mottomo munin-tō mo arimasu keredo,—hito ga sunde imasu.

Hē! Sayō de gozaimasu ka ?

29. Kirisūto Kyōkwai.—Kono shŭku ni wa, Kirisŭto-kyō no shinja ga ōi to iu koto desŭ, ne!

He! sō de gozaimasŭ. Kono hen wa, moppara Yaso wo shinkō itashimasŭ.

Kzvaidō ga tatte orimasu ka ?

He! Kore made wa, sonchō san no bettaku wo kari ni kwaidō ni mochiite orimashita ga,—tezema ni tsuite, kondo shinki ni waki ye tatete arimasu.

Bokushi wa, seiyō-jin desu ka?

Sō de gozaimasŭ. Nichiyō-goto ni shusseki shĭte, sekkyō itasaremasŭ. Kono goro de wa, senrei wo uketa hĭto ga yohodo fuemashĭta sō desŭ.

Sō desŭ ka? Sore wa, naka-naka sakan na koto desŭ, ne!

<sup>28.</sup> Shira is familiar abbreviation of shiran. For dokoro see p. 43. Nazo, properly "etcetera," usually tones down a little the force of the preceding word. We have tried to represent this by the term "for instance" in the English version. Mura ("village") has for its auxiliary numeral the word son, which is but the Chinese synonym of the word mura; hence rok-ka-son="six villages."

28. NEARING YOKOHAMA.—I see quite a number of islands out there. What islands are they?

They are the Seven Isles of Izu. The one in front is called Ōshima ("Vries Island").

Indeed! I wonder whether there are any people living on it?

People living on it? I should just think there were! Why! Small as it looks from here, Vries Island has a volcano in the middle, round the base of which cluster no less than six villages. The other islands, too, though doubtless some are uninhabited, mostly have people living on them.

Dear me! You don't say so!

29. A Christian Church,—There is said to be a large number of (Protestant) Christians in this town,—isn't there?

Yes. Most of the people in this neighbourhood are Christians.

Is there a church?

Well, hitherto the mayor's villa had done duty as a church. But it was too small, and so they have erected a new building on another site.

Is the pastor a foreigner?

Yes; he comes and preaches every Sunday. It is said that great numbers of people have been baptised recently.

Indeed! Then Christianity is in a very fair way here.

<sup>29.</sup> If Catholics are intended, the term *Tenshu-kyō* should be used instead of *Kirisĭuto-kyō*, and *Tenshu-dō* for *kwaidō*. The *zema* in *tezema* is the stem form of the adjective *semai*, "narrow." One might omit *sakan* in the concluding sentence of p. 330, as *naka-naka na koto* by itself signifies "a considerable thing."

30. Kwaji.—Oya! kwaji to miete, hanshō wo utteru ga:—shirase bakari da kara, daijōbu da ga,—l.ōʒaku wa, dochira ni atatte iru ka mite kudasai.

He! tadaima soto kara maitta mono no mõshimasŭ ni wa, sappari miemīsen sõ desŭ. Tabun kinzai de gozaimashõ.

31. Shibai.—Chikagoro Kabuki-za ga aita sō desu ga, —gedai wa, nan de gozaimasu ka?

He! Kinō waki de kikimashitara, kondo wa "Chūshingura" no tōshi da sō de, de-kata mo daibu kao-zoroi da sō desŭ.

Sō desŭ ka? Sore ja, kyōgen ga ii kara, kitto ataru deshō.

32. O Saki ye Go Men.—Hanahada shitsurei de gozaimasu ga,—watakushi wa, go men kōmurimashite, fuserimasu,—myōchō wa, yohodo hayaku shuttatsu suru tsumori desu kara.

Dōzo watakushi-domo ni o kamai naku o yasumi nasaimashi. Komban wa, zehi kono kaki-mono wo shi-agete shimaimasen-kereba narimasen yue, yo ga fukemashō to omoimasu kara, myōchō wa, shikkei nagara, o me ni kakarimasen ka mo shiremasen ga, zuibun to go kigen yō.

<sup>30.</sup> The "intimation" (shirase) of a distant fire, that is, one not in the same district of the city, consists of two strokes of the fire-bell. Mōshimasŭ ni wa="he says." The words sappari miemasen are a quotation from the other man, and sō desŭ nearly="he says,"—the Japanese construction thus being pleonastic, as it contains the equivalent of "he says" both before and after the words quoted; conf. latter part of ¶ 437, p. 278.—31. Kabuki-za is the name of the chief theatre in Tōkyō. Gedai, "title," is said to be a corruption of geidai, lit. "list of

30. A Fire.—Halloo! there would seem to be a fire; they are ringing the fire-bell. However, as it is only the "notice-bell," it is all right. Still, please go and see in what direction the fire is.

Well, Sir! a man who came in a minute ago says there is nothing to be seen. Probably it is in one of the suburbs.

31. The Theatre.—I hear that the Kabuki-za Theatre has recently re-opened. What is being acted there?

On enquiring yesterday at a friend's house, I learnt that it was *The Forty-seven Rōnins*,—the entire play,—and that most of the best actors are taking part in it.

Indeed? That is a good piece. Doubtless it will be a great success.

32. Early to Bed.—Although it is very rude of me to do so, I must ask you to excuse me if I go to bed, as I intend to start very early to-morrow morning.

Oh! pray retire without paying attention to me. I must positively finish this writing to-night. So probably I shall not get to bed till late, and therefore please excuse me if I wish you a prosperous journey now, as I don't know whether I shall have the honour to see you in the morning.

accomplishments." For the story of the Forty-seven Rönins, a little epic of loyalty and revenge, see Mitford's "Tales of Old Japan." Its Japanese title,—Chū-shin-gura,—well describes it; for the tale is indeed a "store" of the feelings and deeds of "loyal retainers."—32. The first sentence is inverted; the clause beginning with myōchō wa should, properly speaking, come first. The last sentence lacks some such final verb as oide nasaimashī. The phrase go kigen yō is oftenthus used where we should say "good-bye."

33. Nihon-go no Konnan.—Dōmo! Nihon no kotoba wa, taihen ni iri-kunda mono de,—dōmo! koshi no magaru made manande mo, shosen oboe-tsukusemasumai.

Ie! masaka sono yō na muzukashii mono de mo gozaimasen. Benkyō sae sureba, nan de mo nai koto desŭ.

34. MICHI WO KIKU.—Chotto michi wo ukagaimasu.

Kore kara san-chō saki no tokoro ni hidari ye magaru yoko-chō ga aru ga,—soko ye haitte, sore kara mata migi ye magatte, massugu ni iku n' desŭ.

Sonnara, kono tori to narande orimasu, ne!

35. EI-KOKU TAISHI-KWAN NO MICHI.—Chotto mono wo o tazune mõshimasu. Igirisu taishikwan ye wa, dō mairimashitara yoroshiu gozaimasu ka?

He! Sore wa, kono Shimbashi-demae no yoko-dōri wo hidari ye sukoshi itte, densha ni sōte massugu ni oide ni narimasu to, Hibiya Kōen ni demasu. Sore kara kōen wo migi ni shite, massugu ni doko made mo oide ni narimasu to, Sakurada Mitsuke to iu mon no mae ye tsuki-atarimasu. Sore wo hairazu ni, o hori ni tsuite hidari ye doko made mo irasshaimasu to, mukō ni Eikoku taishikwan no hata ga miemasu kara, jiki shiremasu.

Domo, arigato zonjimasu. O jama wo itashimashita.

36. Shŭku-нат.—Aruji, shampan wo tsuida koppu wo mochi-nagara, za wo tatte:

Shokun wa, yoku komban wa o ide kudastte, makoto ni watakushi wa kinki ni taemasen. Nao ai-kawarazu shimmitsu naru go kōsai wo negaimasu.

<sup>35.</sup> Shimbashi, lit. "New Bridge," has given its name to the quarter of Tōkyō in which the principal railway terminus is situated.—
36. This example is in the stiff style, bordering on the Written Language, which is usual on such occasions Shampan voo tsuida koppu,

33. DIFFICULTY OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE.—Really, Japanese is a terribly complicated language. Even if one were to study till one's back became bent with age, one could not learn it thoroughly.

Oh! no; it is hardly so difficult a thing as that. It is a mere nothing if only you set yourself to it.

34. Asking the Way.—Please tell me the way.

About three hundred and sixty yards further on, there is a turning to the left. You must turn down it, and then turn again to the right, after which you go straight on.

Then it is parallel with this street, isn't it?

35. THE WAY TO THE BRITISH EMBASSY.—Excuse my asking you; but would you kindly tell me the way to the British Embassy?

Certainly. Look here! If you follow this street branching off to the left in front of Shimbashi Bridge for a short way, and then skirt the electric tram line, you will get to Hibiya Park. Keep this on your right and walk straight on, till you come to a gate called the Sakurada Gate. Don't go through it, but turn to the left along the moat, and go straight on, and you will at once know which is the British Embassy by seeing the flag ahead.

Very many thanks. Excuse me for having trespassed on your valuable time.

36. A Toast.—The host, taking a glass of champagne in his hand, rises and says:

Gentlemen! I am really overwhelmed by your kindness in coming here to-night, and I trust that you will ever continue to favour me with your friendship.

lit. "a glass (into which some one) has poured champagne." Kinki ni taemasen lit.="(I) cannot endure the delight." Nao ai-kawarazu, etc., lit.="I request intimate intercourse still mutually changing not." Naru is bookish for na; conf. ¶ 197.

37. Denwa.—Moshi! moshi! Watakushi wa Banchō Jūgo-ban desu ga, Shimbashi shichi-hyaku nana-jū kyū-ban ye kakete kudasai.

Hanashi-chū desŭ kara, chotto o machi kudasai.

38. KYAKU WO MATASERU.—Hanahada shikkei deshita. Shi-kaketa yo ga atte, o matase moshimashita.

Dō itashimashĭte! Jitsu wa, sensei ni o negai ga atte deta n' desu ga,—o isogashii tokoro wo,—hanahada sumimasen.

## 39. Shin-yū Hōmon.

Kyaku. Konnichi wa! O taku desu ka ?

Aruji. Dare ka kita. Dete mi-na!

Nyōbo. Hai! oya! mā! kochira ye.

Kyaku. Kyō wa mō doko ye ka oide desŭ ka?

Nyōbo. Ie, orimasŭ. Mā! o tōri asobase.. Anata!
Nakayoshi San ga irasshaimashita yo!

ARUJI. Sō ka? . . Sā! kochira ye.

Kyaku. Sensei o uchi datta, ne!

ARUJI. Yoku hayaku o de-kake deshita.

Kyaku. Hayaku mo nai. Mō ku-ji sugi da.

ARUJI. Naruhodo!

Kyaku. Kyō wa "Sunday" da kara, mō o rusu ka to omotta.

Aruji. "Sunday" de mo, betsudan ate-hameta yō ga nai shi, sŭkoshi kibun ga warui kara, doko ye mo demasen deshita.

<sup>38.</sup> Near the end, viz. after tokoro wo, a sentence is left unfinished. Hanahada sumimasen="it is very improper" (for me to have intruded on you).—39. Observe how in Japan it is the husband who orders his wife about, and not vice versâ. The word nyōbo is non-honorific. For the na of dete mi-na, see p. 167, N.B.—Male speakers should avoid such strings of exclamations as Hai! oya! mā! also the yo! in the good lady's next remarks. After kochira ye

37. The Telephone.—Hallo! I am No. 15, Banchō. Please connect me with No. 779, Shimbashi.

The line is engaged; so please wait a few minutes.

38. KEEPING A VISITOR WAITING.—Kindly excuse my rudeness in keeping you waiting; but I was occupied with something which I could not leave half-finished.

Oh! pray don't mention it! To tell the truth, what I have come for is to ask you a favour. But I must apologise for intruding on you when you are so busy.

39. Looking in on an Intimate Friend.

Visitor. (At the door) Good day! Are you at home?

Host. (To his wife) Somebody has come. Go and see who it is.

Wife. All right.—(To the visitor) Oh! is it you? Please come in!

Visitor. Has your husband already gone out to-day?

Wife. No, he is at home. Please come in !—(To her husband) Here is Mr. Nakayoshi.

Host. Indeed!—(To the visitor) Oh! Please come in!

Visitor. And so you are at home, I see!

Host. You are on the move very early.

Visitor: Not at all, It's past nine o'clock.

Visitor. Not at all. It's past nine o'clock.

Host. You don't say so.

Visitor. To-day being Sunday, I thought you might have gone out.

Host. True, it's Sunday. But I had no special reason for going out, besides which I am feeling rather unwell. So I was stopping at home.

supply o tōri nasai. The English word "Sunday" is paraded by the speakers to show their erudition. Japanese nichiyōti would do just as well. Betsudan ate-hameta yō, lit. "specially allotted (but active, not passive verb) business." For shi see p. 81. Observe the scantiness of honorifics in this little colloquy, arising from the intimacy of the two men.

#### 40. O CHAYA,

Jochů. Irasshaimashi! Makoto ni o atsū gozaimasti.

Kyaku. Zuibun atsui, nē! Motto suzushii tokoro wa arimasen ka ?

Jochū. Mina san ga sō osshaimasu ga,—kono tōri f'usagatte orimashite, makoto ni o kinodoku sama desu. Sono uchi yoi tokoro ga akimasu kara, dōka koko ni negaimasu.

Kyaku. Sō ka? Shikata ga nai.

- 41. Enzetsu-kwai Kaisan.—Kono aida chotto o taku ye ukagaimashitara, anata wa go fuzai de gozaimashite, okusan no osshaimashita ni wa, Kinki-kwan ye enzetsu wo o kiki ni oide no yō ni uketamawarimashita ga,—nani ka mezurashii enzetsu de mo gozaimashita ka ?
- Ō! Sono setsu wa, chōdo orimasen de, shitsurei itashimashĭta. Ano hi wa, ai-niku deshĭte, ne! → mottomo chito osoku
  de-kakemashĭta ga, Kinki-kwan no mae made ikimasu to,
  doya-doya hito ga dete kimasu kara, naze ka to omotte
  kikimashĭtara, ni-bam-me no enzetsu-chū nani ka sukoshi jōrei
  ni fureta koto ga atta to ka de, keisatsu-kwan ga chūshi wo
  meijita tame, sude ni kaisan ni natta toko deshĭte, jitsu ni
  zannen deshĭta.

Sore wa, oshii koto wo nasaimashita.

42. MIYANOSHĬTA DE KAIMONO.—Kyaku.—Go men nasai! Akindo.—He! irasshai! Chito o kake nasaimashĭ! Nani ka goran kudasaimase! Mada hoka ni iro-iro gozaimasŭ.

<sup>40.</sup> Observe how the waitress uses honorifies to the guest, but not the guest to the waitress. There would, however, be no harm in his doing so. Kono tōri, "this way," is often equivalent to our phrase "as you see." The words "I cannot accommodate you with one yet "have to be added in the English version, to complete the sense. Sono uchi, lit. "meanwhile," hence "soon."—41. Go fuzai is a highly cultivated expression. The common people prefer o russu. Oide no yō ni is

### 40. AT A TEA-HOUSE.

Waitress. Welcome! It is a very hot day, Sir.

Guest. Very hot, isn't it? Haven't you any cooler room?

Waitress. All our guests ask for cooler rooms. But we are, as you see, so full that I am sorry to say I cannot accommodate you with one yet. Please sit down here, Sir, until a better room becomes vacant.

Guest. Oh! then there's no help for it.

41. A MEETING DISPERSED.—When I looked in at your house the other day, you were absent, and your wife said that you had gone to listen to some speeches at the Kinki Hall. Were they at all interesting?

Oh! it was very rude of me to happen to be out just then. On that day it was unfortunate, you know. To begin with, I was rather late in starting; and then, when I got as far as the Hall, I found the people all pouring out in confusion. And on enquiring the reason of this, I was told that in the second speech there had occurred some remarks which slightly infringed the government regulations, or something of that kind, and that the police had ordered the proceedings to be stopped. So when I arrived, the meeting had already broken up, which was a pity.

Oh! I am sorry for your disappointment.

42. Shopping at Miyanoshita.—Customer.—Excuse me. Dealer.—Oh! pray come in, Sir. Please sit down a moment. Please inspect my wares. I have others besides, of various descriptions.

an example of indirect quotation. The direct would be oide da to; conf. pp. 275-6. Toko near the end is for tokoro.

Kyaku.—Omocha wo sukoshi misete kudasai

Akindo.—He! kashĭkomarimashĭta. Kono te\* no mono de wa ikaga de gozaimasĭt ?

Kyaku.—Naruhodo! kono uchi kara, iru dake no mono wo yorimashō.

Akindo.—Danna! kore wa ikaga de gozaimasŭ ? Tabimakura to mõshimashĭte,—naka kara, kono tōri, andon ga demasŭ. Koko ga satsu-ire. Hiki-dashi ga futatsu arimasŭ.
Soroban, yōji-ire, kagami, iro-iro shĭ-konde arimasŭ. Mada koko
ni kō iu mitsu-ire-ko no o bentō ga arimasŭ. Kore ga fudesashi, kore wa tabako-ire. Mina daijōbu ni dekite orimasŭ.

Kyaku.—Mazu sonna mono wa yoroshii.† Ōku wa, kodomo no miyage ni suru n' da kara, koko ye yori-dashita omocha ga kore dake to, undō-dama ga mitsu, mukō ni mieru shitan-iro no bon ga ni-mai to, kono shashin-basami ga futatsu. Kore dake de, ikura ni narimashō ?

Akindo.—He! arigatō zonjimasŭ. Atari-mae wa, ni-en roku-jū-go-sen ni negaimasu‡ ga,—ni-en go-jis-sen ni o make-mōshĭte okimashō.

Kyaku.—Sore zva taisō takai. Sonna ni kake-ne zvo itcha ikenai. Zutto o make nasai.

Akindo.—Ie! dö itashimashite! Kesshite o takai koto wa moshi-agemasen. Dono kurai made nara, negawaremasho‡ ka ?

<sup>42. \*</sup> The meanings of te, properly "hand," are almost endless. Here it signifies "sort," "kind."

Customer.—Please show me some toys.

Dealer.—All right, Sir! How would this kind of article suit you?

Customer.—Let me see! I will set aside from among these the ones that I want.

Dealer.—Sir! how would this suit you? It is called a travelling pillow. A lamp comes out of it, like this; also this purse for paper-money. It has two drawers. There are all sorts of other things inside it,—an abacus, a toothpick-holder, and a looking-glass. Here again is a luncheon-box in three parts, which all fit into one. This is a pen-stand, this is a tobacco-pouch. They are all quite solidly made.

Customer.—Well, I don't want that sort of thing. Most of the things I want are intended as presents to take home to the children. Here they are:—the toys which I have set aside here, besides three cups-and-balls, two of those sandal-wood-coloured trays over there, and those two photograph-frames. How much will the whole lot come to?

Dealer.—Oh! many thanks, Sir. The usual price would be two yen sixty-five sen; but I will let you have them for two fifty.

Customer.—That is awfully dear. You mustn't put on such fancy prices as that. You must go down a great deal.

Dealer.—Really, Sir, how could you expect me to? The things are not at all dear. What would be your idea as to the price, Sir?

<sup>†</sup> For sonna mono wa yoroshii, conf. p. 292, No. 72, and footnote.

<sup>‡</sup> Negau, "to beg," is often used by the lower classes when addressing their superiors, to signify "to say," "to do," even "to sell."

Kyaku.—Sō sa! ne! Ichi-en go-jis-sen nara, kaimasho.

Akindo.—Sore de wa, danna! go muri de gozaimasŭ. Sonna ni kake-ne wa mōshimasen. Dōzo go jōdan osshaimasen de, mō sŭkoshi o kai kudasai.\*

Kyaku.—Sore de wa, ni-en made ni kaimashō.

Akindo.—Sayō de gozaimasŭ ka? O yasū gozaimasu ga, mata negawanakereba† narimasen kara, o make-mōshĭte okimasŭ. Zehi o ŭme-awase wo.‡

43. RIKUTSU-ZUKI NO KODOMO.—Chichi.—Itagaki Haku wa, Kwazoku wa ichidai ni kagiru no iken wo happyō shita.

Segare.—Otottsan mo bimbō vva ichi-dai ni kagiru no iken vvo happyō shimasen ka ?

44. Izure mo Kawari-mono.—Kimura Fujin.—Hā! Kimura wa futsū no hǐto to wa chigau tokoro ga aru yō ni omotta kara, watakushi mo tsui ni kekkon shita no yo!

O Ŭme Jō.—Watashi mo sō darō to omotte yo! Kimura san ga anata wo o morai nastta to iu koto wo kiita toki, sugu sō omotte yo!

45. Oya no Na wo Hazukashimezu.—Yabu-i Jun-an no musuko wa, yahari oyaji no ato wo tsugu, në!

Sō ka e ? Ano musuko mo, isha ni natta ka e ? Chitto mo shiranakatta.

Unnya! Isha ja nai yo! Sõgi-gwaisha no shihai-nin wo yatteru kara sa!

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Deign to buy (it) a little more (dearly)," i. e. "Please give me a little more for it."

<sup>†</sup> See footnote to preceding page, and also ¶ 403, p. 250.

<sup>‡</sup> Supply some such final verb as negaimasŭ. We have expanded the idea of this phrase in the English translation. *Ŭme-awaseru* is lit. "to fill in" (a hole with earth).

<sup>43.</sup> This and the following numbers are not fragments of real conversation, but what the Japanese call otoshi-banashi, that is, catches,

Customer.—Well, let me see! I'll take them, if you will let me have them for one yen fifty.

Dealer.—Oh! Sir, that is unreasonable. I don't put on such fancy prices as you seem to suppose. Please don't joke in this way, Sir, but give me a little more for things.

Customer.-Well, then, I'll give you two yen.

Dealer.—Only two yen? That is cheap, Sir. However, as I hope for your custom, I will go down to that price. But do, please, Sir, Igive me the chance of recouping this alarming sacrifice by buying of me again.

43. A LOGICAL CHILD.—Father.—Count Itagaki has proposed that nobility should not be allowed to be hereditary.

Son.—And you, papa, won't you propose that poverty shouldn't be allowed to be hereditary?

44. Cranks Both of Them.—Mrs. Kimura.—Oh! it was because I saw that Kimura wasn't altogether like other men that I ended by marrying him.

Miss Plum.—That's just what I thought. It came into my mind the moment I heard that Mr. Kimura had married you.

45. KEEPING UP THE FAMILY REPUTATION.—So it seems that Dr. Quack's son is inheriting his father's business after all.

Indeed? Has the lad become a doctor too? I had no notion of that.

Humph! He's no doctor. What I mean is that he has become manager of a firm of undertakers.

quibbles, more like what we term anecdotes. More lit. "As for nobles, Count Itagaki has promulgated an opinion limiting them to one generation."—44. *Omotta*, lit. "thought," but best rendered by "saw" in many cases.—45. More lit. "not disgracing his parent's (father's) name." *Yabu-i*, "a quack," lit. "a bamboo thicket doctor," whence the appropriateness of the name "fun, "bamboo sprout," an, "a small villa" such as retired priests, doctors, poets, etc., inhabit. *Yatteru kara sa!* more lit. "oh! it is because he is doing manager, etc."

## ANECDOTES.

# ¶ 450. MAKOTO NO SEKKEN.

Kamakura<sup>2</sup> Kenchō-goro1 110 koto de. shikken 111 Kenchō-period 25 fact being. Kamakura Regent to tsukaeta Fujitsuna to in Aoto Saemon yakunin served Aoto Saemon Fuiitsuna that sav official Nameri-gawa yo zvataru toki 700 mi. kerai aru time a-certain night Nameri-river (accus.) crosses ga ayamatte zeni jū-mon voo kawa ye otoshimashita no coin ten-cash (accus.) river to dropped (trans.) vo<sup>3</sup>,—Fujitsuna voa, kyū ni hito zeo valoi.4 whereas,-Fujitsuna as-for, suddenly people (accus.) having-hired, taimatsu 700 tsükete. kotogotoku hirowasete having-lighted, completely torches (accus.) having-caused-to-pick-up, kaeraremashita.5 deigned-to-return.

Kono koto hito waratte. 700. aru ga This act (accus.) certain people (nom.) laughing-at. " Wazuka in-mon oshinde. taimatsu 120 zeni 200 "Trifle ten-cash coin (accus.) grudging, torches (accus.)

<sup>1.</sup> For the use of nengō or "year-names," see p. 116. The best book of reference on the subject of Japanese chronology is Bramsen's "Japanese Chronological Tables."—2. Kamakura, now two hours' journey by train from the more modern city of Yedo or Tōkyō, was, during the Middle Ages, the capital of the feudal rulers of Japan. The Hōjō family of Shikken, or "Regents," occupied this position during the thirteenth and a portion of the fourteenth century, and Aoto Fujitsuna held high judicial office under the fifth ruler of their line. Aoto is the surname, Fujitsuna the personal (equivalent to our "Christian")

### ANECDOTES.

#### TRUE ECONOMY.

The following incident happened about the period styled Kenchō (A. D. 1249—1256). When Aoto Saemon Fujitsuna, an official in the service of the Regent of Kamakura, was crossing the River Nameri one night, a retainer of his let ten cash fall by mistake into the river, whereupon Fujitsuna hastily hired some men, and made them light torches and pick all the money out of the water.

Some one is reported to have laughed at this, and to have said: "Through grudging the ten cash,

name, and Saemon a kind of title, which has, however, almost come to form part of the actual name itself. The Nameri-gawa is a small stream near Kamakura.—3. The whole sentence down to here forms a sort of accusative to the following clause relating Fujitsuna's action upon what had happened. "Thereupon" or "whereas" is the nearest approach to a literal English rendering.—4. The indefinite torm yatoi is here equivalent to a gerund, because correlated with the gerund tsükete immediately below; conf. p. 178, \$\mathbb{q}\$ 278, and p. 264.—5. Observe how the sentence is rounded off by kaeraremashita (honorific potential for kaerimashita; conf. \$\mathbb{q}\$ 403, p. 250. Further examples of such honorific potentials are offered below by kikaremashita, iwaremashita, and mōsaremashita). Hirowaseta alone would sound bald to Japanese ears, which generally expect to have the whole action related down to its very end; conf. \$\mathbb{q}\$ 302, p. 197.

kattari, hito yatottari shite, 7.00 nvūhi people (accus.) now-hiring now-buying, doing, expense kakattarō. Kore koso Ichi-mon This great-deal has-probably-cost. indeed one-cash grudging da" to hyaku shirazu itta. sō desu. hundred ignores is " that said appearance is.

Fujitsuna ga kikaremashite. 700. Fujitsuna (nom.) having-deigned-to-hear, That (accus.) ga,—tsuiyashĭta zeni omou mono mo aro think persons also may-be although,-spent coin shite iru kara, muyō mi wa naran circulation doing is because, uselessness as-for becomes-not to ga,-kawa no soko ye shizunda jū-mon wa, whereas,-river 's bottom to ten-cash as-for, now sank hirowaneba, tenka no takara voo ushinau 's if-do-not-pick-up, world treasure (accus.) lose because da" " iwaremashita. to that deigned-to-say.

Kore-ra ga, makoto no sekken to iu mono desti.
Such-as-this (nom.), truth 's economy that say thing is.

Oku wa tori-chigaete, sekken 200 Mostly as-for, taking-and-mistaking, economy (accus.) okonau tame ni rinshoku ni naru mono mo arimasu sake for, parsimony to become persons also are hito to döntsu ga,-sore-ra no 110 ron whereas,--such-like 's people with, same-day 's discussion in wa narimasen. as-for, becomes-not,

Shikashi, tōji no keizai-gakusha no setsu ni Nevertheless, present-time 's political-economists of opinion to itashitara, ikaga mōsaremashō ka ? if-one-made, how will-they-probably-deign-to-say ?

<sup>6.</sup> In this proverb oshimi = oshimu hito, "a grudging person," Shirazu is not the negative gerund of shiru, but its Classical "conclusive

Fujitsuna must have been put to great expense, what with buying torches and hiring men. This indeed is to be "Penny wise and pound foolish."

Fujitsuna, hearing of this, said: "There may be some folks who think so. But the money spent is not wasted, because it remains in circulation, whereas the ten cash that sank to the bottom of the river would, if not picked up, have been treasure lost to the world. That is why I acted as I did."

Actions of this kind are examples of true economy.

Most people, mistaking one for the other, fall into parsimony while endeavouring to practise economy. But though there are such, Fujitsuna is not to be mentioned on the same day as they.

Still, if one were to ask the opinion of the political economists of the present day, what would they say?

negative present," which is equivalent to the Colloquial *shiranai*.—7 I. e. "I do this because, if I did not pick it up," etc.

## ¶ 451. ARIGATA¹ NO KICHIBEI.

Mukashi "Arigala no Kichibei" to azana wo haciently "Thankful 's Kichibei" to azana wo haciently "Thankful 's Kichibei" to azana wo haciently "Thankful 's Kichibei" to azana wo his haciently "Thankful 's Kichibei" to azana wo his haciently "Siekerareteru" ojiisan ga arimashite, donna is-having-got-affixed old-gentleman (nom.) (there) being, what koto de mo "Arigatai! arigatai!" to yorokonde³ thing soever "(I am) thankful! (I am) thankful!" that rejoicing kurashite iru hitoc deshite,—natsu hito ga kite, passing-the-time is person being,—summer, person (nom.) coming, "Kyō wa, hidoi atsusa de gozaimashi" to iimashi "To-day as-for, violent heat is "that says to, kono ojiisan no hento ni, "Assui jisetsu wa, when, this old-gentleman 's answer in: "Hot season as-for, atsui hō ga arigatai. Samui jibun wa, samui no hot side (nom.) (is) thankful. Cold season as-for, cold fact ga arigatai." to yorokonde³ orimashi.

Mata hito ga Kichibei no bimbō vo sasshite, Again people (nom.) Kichibei 's poverty (accus.) guessing,

"Nani ka to go fujiyū deshō" to
"Something-or-other that august inconvenience must-be" that
iimasti to,— "Ie! valaktishi va sai-shi no shimpai
say when,— "No! me sai-sfor, wife-child 's anxiety
mo naku, timai mono mo tabemasezu; sono sei, ka, naga-iki
also is-not, tasty things also eat-not: that cause ?, long-life
veo shite imasti kara, arigatai" to ,—tada
(accus.) doing am because, (I am) thankful" that,—merely
nan de mo "Arigatai" to itte imasti.
everything "Thankful" to itte imasti.
that saying is.

<sup>1.</sup> Arigatai would be more strictly grammatical; but the stem form arigata with no is more idiomatic; conf. p. 125.—2. For tsükerarete

#### THANKFUL KICHIBEI.

Once upon a time there was an old man who had got nicknamed "Thankful Kichibei," and who led a happy existence, always thankful for everything, whatever it might be. When any one came to see him in summer and complained of the excessive heat, the old man would reply: "In the hot season we must be thankful for the heat. In the cold time of year we must be thankful for the cold."

If again any friend should sympathise with his poverty, how inconvenient it must be in every way, he would and remark say: "Oh! no! I am troubled neither with wife nor child, nor do I eat savoury food. Perhaps it is for this reason that I am long-lived, and I am thankful ful for it." Thus did he use the word "thankful" about everything.

iru see bottom of p. 192.— 3. To yorokonde=to itte yorokonde, i.e. "rejoicing, saying that."— 4. Arigatai here has a sort of objective sense, i.e. it means not exactly "thankful," but worthy of being thankful for."— 5. After to supply itte, "saying."

Aru toki, yoso no uchi ye itte, kaeri-A-certain time, elsewhere 's house to having-gone, returninggake ni omote no hashira de atama wo kotsun to post by, head (accus.) bumpingly while in, front 's - buttsükemashita ga,—yahari "Arigatai! arigatai!"
hit whereas, —also "Thankful! thankful!" 10 kuchi no uchi de itte imasu kara, soba ni iru that mouth 's interior in saying is because, alongside in is hito ga: "Kichibei San! anata wa, nan de mo person (nom.) "Kichibei Mr! you as-for, everything ka de mo' 'Arigatai! arigatai!' to ii-nasaru ga,—whatever, 'Thankful! Thankful!' that say-deign whereas, hashira de atama voo utte, sazo itakarō post at head (accus.) having-hit, indeed must-be-painful ga,—sore de nani ga arigatai n' desti?" to kiki-whereas,—that by, what (nom.) thankful fact is?" that when mashitara,— "He! kono itai no ga arigatai no he-had-heard,— "Yes! this painful fact (nom.) thankful fact desu. is. "Naze to iimasu to" ima buttsuketa toki, atama ga "Why? that says when, now hit time, head (nom.) kudakete, shinde shimaimashita nara, itai koto having-broken (intrans.), dying had-finished if, painful fact mo nani mo veakarimasen ga,—inochi mo atama mo, also anything understand-not whereas,—life also, head also,

o kage sama de buji deshita kara, honourable influence Mr. by, accidentless has-been because, itai no ga shiremasu. Sore desu kara, makoto painful fact (nom.) is-knowable. That is because, truth

ni arigatai" to kotaemashita.
in (am) thankful" that answered.

<sup>6.</sup> Kotsun to is an onomatope for the sound of bumping or thumping.—7. An idiom, which is also pronounced nan de mo, kan de mo.

One day, when, having gone to a friend's house, he was returning home again, he struck his head a tremendous blow against a post at the entrance. But even then, one who was near him heard him muttering his thanks, and exclaimed: "Mr. Kichibei, you say 'thank you' to everything. But what can there be to be thankful for in hurting yourself by striking your head against a post?" "Why!" replied Kichibei, "the pain is exactly what I am thankful for.

"Don't you see that if, when I struck against the post just now, my skull had been fractured and I had died, I should have felt neither pain nor anything else, whereas I now feel the pain because, thanks to your kind influence, my life and my head are both safe? That is why I am truly thankful."

This ka or kan is probably the root of kare, "that."—8. Naze to in to is an idiom meaning "for this reason," more lit. "if you ask why (then it is as follows)."—9. The words o kage sama, "thanks to your kind influence," are an empty compliment, indeed almost an expletive; conf. p. 294, No. 85.

thankful!

Suru to10, kono koto zvo saki-hodo kara koko Thereupon, this thing (accus.) previous-period since. here inkvo11 kiite orimashite, " Naruhodo!" ga retired-old-man "Oh !-indeed!" (nom.) listening having-been. shite, " A1 Wakanshin arigatai, arigatai! "Ah! (lam) thankful, admiration doing. thankful ! that takushi satori hirakima shita mo. ima 200 7810 enlightenment (accus.) have-opened. also. now as-for, " Iro-iro nani ka no serva ga yaketari.18 "Several-kinds something-or-other 25 cares (nom.) sometimestabi-tabi sama-zama 110 tsurai koto ni various-sort 57 disagreeable things often burning. to attari shite. 'A1 kurushii. kurushii! doing, 'Ah! (it is) distressing. distressing! sometimes-meeting -111 mi natta' to Fitsu kono VO gaiva world (nom.) objectionable Truth in, this to has-become' mo14 ga,- kore iu omou koto mo arimashita to 120 think fact also has-been whereas,-this that say fact also. inochi aru kara 110 koto deste. ga life because fact (nom.) is " Shite miru to15. Kichibei ga ima San "And-therefore. (nom.) says now Kichibei Mr. naruhodo! watakushi banni ga arigatai, 111.0 myriad things (nom.) (am) thankful, ves-indeed! also, arigatai!"16

<sup>10.</sup> Suru to (short for sō suru to) is an idiom which is often used, as here, at the beginning of a sentence, in order to resume, as it were, what has gone before.—11. The term *inkyo* denotes a person who has retired from active life, and has handed over his business and the greater part of his property to his successor.—12. After to supply *itte*, "saying," or *omotte*, "thinking."

Hereupon the old father of the master of the house, who had been listening to the conversation from the beginning, was struck with admiration, and said: "Yes, indeed. Thankful, thankful must we be. This has taught me a lesson.

"Often, when worried by divers cares and confronted by various misfortunes, I have said to myself how wretched, wretched it all is,—and what an odious place the world has become to me. But even all these things exist only because life itself exists.

"A careful consideration therefore shows that, as Mr. Kichibei has just said, I too have everything, everything to be thankful for."

<sup>13.</sup> Serva ga yakeru (intrans.)="to be busy and anxious." Serva zvo yaku (trans.)="to take great trouble."—14. Kore to iu no mo="this also," more lit. "also that (which people) say (is) this."—15. More lit. "when, having done so, one looks." Conf. suru to at top of page.—16. The words watakushi mo are, as it were, hung in the air without reference to any verb, while banji is the subject of arigatai, here taken in its objective sense (conf. p. 349, note 4).

## ¶ 452. MATEBA AU TOSHI. IF-WAIT, WILL-AGREE YEARS.

Mukashi, miyako no machi ni Unaziiki Babā Anciently, capital 's street in, Nodding Granny Nodding Granny Anciently, to iu kŭchi-benkō no ii mono ga arimashite, that say mouth-glibness 's good person (nom.) (there) being, itsu mo yome ya muko no serva rvo shite, yo rvo always bride or bridegroom 's help (accus.) doing, life (accus.) orimashita ga,—aru toki san-jū-go Ni was whereas,—a-certain time, thirty-five o okutte naru<sup>2</sup> otoko no toshi wo kakushite, jū-go no musume becomes man 's years (accus.) having-hidden, fifteen 's girl to engumi zvo tori-mochi, yuinō made oku-with, marriage (accus.) had-arranged, betrothal-gifts even hadrasemashila ga,—sono nochi muko no toshi caused-to-send whereas,—that after, bridegroom 's years vears of füketeru<sup>8</sup> koto zvo musume no oya ga kiki-tsükete, advanced-are fact (accus.) girl 's parent (accus.) having-heard, "Hoka ni nani mo mōshi-bun wa nai ga,—mu-"Elsewhere in, anything objection as-for, isn't but,—brideko to musume to toshi ga ni-ju mo chigatte wa, groom and daughter and, years (nom.) twenty even differing as-for, ikani shile mo yome ni wa yarenai" to iu. Otoko no hō de vea, "Yuinō made sumashita Man 's side on, "Betrothal-gifts even have-concluded kara zva, shinrui ye taishite mo, sonna futsugō na since as-for, kinsmen to confronting even, such inconvenient koto zva kikasarenai kara, zehi mora-thing as-for, cannot-cause-to-hear because, positively ifwankereba shōchi shinai" to iu kara, nakōdo mo receive-not, consent do-not" that says because, "match-maker also hidoku meirvaku shite, tsui ni kono koto wo violently quandary doing, last at, this affair (accus.) o kami ye uttaemashita.

# IF THEY WAIT, THEIR AGES WILL COME RIGHT.

Once upon a time, in a street in the metropolis, there lived a glib-tongued old woman called Granny Nod, who gained her livelihood by negotiating marriages. Well, she once arranged a match between a man of five-and-thirty, whose age she concealed, and a girl of fifteen, and had gone so far as to make them exchange the gifts customary on betrothal. But afterwards the girl's father, having heard how far advanced the bridegroom was in years, said to the old woman: "I have indeed no other complaint to make about him; but really I cannot think of giving my daughter to one whose age differs from hers by twenty years."-On the bridegroom's side, however, it was urged that he could not consent to forego her, as it was impossible, even vis-à-vis his relations, to mention such a difficulty -after the ceremony of exchanging gifts had once been concluded. Thus the match-maker was placed in a terrible quandary, and at last she brought the matter before the judge.

<sup>1.</sup> I.e. "years which will agree if one waits."—2. Naru=natta, i.e. "had already become (thirty-five years old.)"—3. For fithete iru conf. bottom of p. 192.

will-probably-send,"

de va, kami Honourable superiors at \_ yobi-dashi ni narimashite, musume no oya ni "Sono-hō calling-forth to having-become, girl 's parent to. ima-sara wa, ittan yakŭsoku wo shite, as-for, once agreement (accus.) having-made, now-again what 's motte hadan itasŭ 2"5 to kado wo tazune point (accus.) taking, rupture make?" that honourable enquiry ni narimasŭ to,—"He! kono gi wa, nakodo when,-"Ah! this affair as-for, match-maker to becomes itsuwari wo moshimashite, san-jū-go no amari person too-much lie (accus.) having-told, de wa, toshi muko ni jū-go no yome ga ni-jū bridegroom to, fifteen 's bride by as-for, years (nom.) twenty Sore yue fushōchi wo mōshimashita.

That owing-to, dissent (accus.) (I) said. chigaimasu, Sore toshi hambun-chigai Semete nara, musume half-difference if-were, vears girl (accus.) tsukawashimashō."

Kono toki yakunin no mōshi-watasaremasu ni wa:6 time, official 's deigns-to-speak-across in "Sonnara, sono-hō no nozomi-dōri ni shite tsukawasu" " If-is-thus, of wish-way in, doing (I) will-give you vori ima go-nen tatte musume wo because. now from, five-years having-elapsed, daughter (accus.) no hō mo, sore made wa kanarazu okure. Muko give. Bridegroom 's side also, that till as-for, positively matanakereba naran. Sono toshi ni nareba, otoko if-waits-not, is-not. That year to when-becomes, man  $Ch\bar{o}do$ wa shi-jū, wa hatachi. onna Just woman as-for, twenty-years. as-for, forty; no no toki ni naru" to mōshi-watasaremashi 's time to becomes" that deigned-to-speak-across naru" to mōshi-watasaremashita chigai kara, sō-hō osore-itte sagarimashita. because, both-sides fear-entering descended. ni omoshiroi o sabaki desu. in, amusing honourable judgment

<sup>4.</sup> O kami de wa="the judge," more lit. "at the superiors," i.e. "the Government." For de thus used, conf. ¶ 90, p. 65. The words immediately following mean literally "it having come to

The judge, having sent for both parties, asked the girl's father what was his reason for breaking off an engagement to which he had once agreed. The father replied: "You see, my lord, the matter stands thus. The match-maker told too outrageous a falsehood, there being a difference of no less than twenty years between a bridegroom of five-and-thirty and a bride of fifteen. That is why I said I could not consent. I would give him my daughter, if their ages differed at most by half."

Then the judge gave judgment as follows: "As that is how matters stand, I will decide in accordance with your desire. Do you give him your daughter five years hence. The bridegroom, on his side also, must faithfully wait till then. By that time he will be forty, and the girl twenty. It will be the time when their ages will differ exactly by half."—Thus was judgment given, and both parties left the judgment-hall with deep respect.

Truly it was a witty decision.

calling forth both sides."—5. Observe the total absence of honorifics in the judge's address to the litigant parties, who are of course immeasurably his inferiors.—6. Lit. "in his deigning (honorific potential) to give judgment," the verb becoming a sort of noun capable of taking postpositions after it.—7. Tsūkawasū (the final u becoming short before kara, as in the case of itasū a few lines higher up) is here a sort of auxiliary = yaru; see p. 196.

## ¶ 453. GAKŬSHA TO KEKKON, I LEARNED-MAN AND MARRIAGE.

Doitsŭ-koku no tofu de, Heidelberg to iu tokoro ni, daigakkō ga arimashite, soko ni kotoshi hachi-jū-roku ka shichi
ni narareru toshi no yotta sensei ga hitori oraremasu².
Kwakŭshaku² taru rōjin de, sono na wo Bunsen to iimashite,
sono hito no semmon kara ieba, watakŭshi-domo⁴ no nakama
de arimasu ga,—nenrei no chōyō⁵ to, chishiki no tashō kara
mōshimasŭ to, ware-ware no dai-sensei de arimasu ga,—
sono hito ga seinen no koro, aru beppin⁰ to kon-in no yakŭsoku ga dekite, nan-getsu ik-ka ni wa, gozen no jū-ichiji goro ni, tera ni oite kon-in no shiki wo okonaō to itte,
yakŭsoku wo shimashita ga,—fujin no hō de wa, rippa na
yosooi wo shite, "Osoku naru to ikenai" to itte, jū-ji goro
kara tera ni haitte, Bunsen no kuru no wo matte imashita
ga,—jū-ichi-ji ni natte mo, jū-ni-ji ni natte mo, san-ji ni
natte mo, yoji ni natte mo, Bunsen sensei yatte¹ konai kara,

I. This anecdote is extracted from a lecture delivered before the Imperial University Lecture Society by Prof. Nakazawa Iwata.—2. Narareru is honorific potential for naru; oraremasǔ is similarly for orimasǔ. Instead of saying "is eighty-six years old," Japanese idiom prefers to say "becomes eighty-six years old."—3. 要錄 a learned Chinese word for "hale." The following particle taru is a book language form, a contraction of to aru, "being (that);" na would be the true Colloquial equivalent, but is not used with this particular word. De="being,"—4. A humble term; see top of p. 49. Ware-ware, a little lower down, is humble too.

#### A SAVANT'S WEDDING.

At Heidelberg, a town in Germany, there is a university, where lives an old professor now eighty-six or seven years of age. He is a hale old man, and his name is Bunsen. He and I are colleagues, in the sense that we are both specialists in the same field. But the difference of our respective ages and of our talents makes of me his very humble follower. Well, this old gentleman, in his younger days, had engaged himself to a beautiful girl. It had been settled that the wedding should take place at the church at about eleven o'clock in the morning of a certain day in a certain month. So the bride, anxious not to be late, reached the church about ten in brilliant array, to find, however, that Bunsen had not yet arrived. Eleven o'clock came, twelve o'clock came, three o'clock, four o'clock,—still no sign of the Professor. A

The lecturer and Dr. Bunsen are both chemists.—5.  $Ch\bar{o}$ - $y\bar{o}$ ="old young;" hence "age." Ta- $sh\bar{o}$ ="much little," hence "amount;" conf. ¶ 48, p. 34, for the "synthesis of contradictories," which these terms exemplify.—6. This word is used half-jokingly. Indeed there is a touch of raillery in all this passage, especially in the bride's words "Osoku naru to ikenai."—7. A somewhat slangy substitute for the proper verb, which would here be dete or miete. Conf. yarakashite, so often used by the lowest classes as a substitute for all sorts of verbs. The yatte just below has its usual sense of "sending."

uchi ye hito wo yatte ukagawaseru to, sensei wa doko ye itta ka? inai to iu no de, fujin no hō de wa taisō hara wo tatete, sugu uchi ni kaette shimatta to iu koto.

Sate Bunsen sensei wa, sono hi no asa kara jikken-shitsu de chiisa na shiken wo hajimete ita ga,—sono shiken ni omoshiromi ga tsuite, jikan no sugiru no ni mo kokorozukazu, yagate tokei wo miru to, gogo no roku-ji de atta kara, ki ga tsuite, odoroite, tera ye itte miru to, fujin no hō wa, okotte kaette shimatka ato de arimashita. Soko de, Bunsen sensei no iwaku10: "Kon-in to iu mono wa, mendō-kisai mono da" to,—sore-giri sono go wa kon-in wo sezu ni, konnichi de mo kwakushaku taru rōjin de, musai de orimasi.

<sup>11</sup>Kore wo mite mo, gakumon no kenkyū no omoshiroi koto wa o wakari ni narimashō.

8. There is not any intention of quoting words actually used. In has here little signification, To in no de="it being the fact that..."—9. Koto is here a sort of expletive. To in, "it is said that," does not require to be represented in the English transla-

N.B. Apropos of this extract, we take the opportunity to remind students of the fundamental difference between English and Japanese in the matter of the length and complication of sentences, brought about by that system of syntactical "integration," which we have explained in ¶ 442—4, p. 280 ct seq. No foreigner will

messenger was sent to the house to make enquiries. Where was he? Nowhere to be seen! Thereupon, home went the bride in a fury.

The fact was that the Professor had instituted some small experiment in his laboratory on the morning of the day in question, and had become so deeply interested in it as to fail to notice the flight of the hours. By and by, on looking at his watch and finding that it was six o'clock in the afternoon, he recollected the situation with dismay, and hurried off to the church to see what could be done. But the bride had already departed in her wrath. Thereupon, the Professor came to the conclusion that matrimony was a bother. So he remained unmarried from that day forward, and he still lives on as a hale old man, but wifeless.

This example may suffice to show you the attraction which scientific investigation is capable of exercising.

tion.—10. No iwaku, lit. "the speech of," is a Classical equivalent for the Colloquial ga iimashita.—11. The original wording of this last paragraph has been slightly altered, to suit the purposes of the present work.

attain to a good Japanese style, unless he learns how to concatenate his thoughts into long and complicated periods, just as no Japanese will express himself clearly in English unless he learns to be short and simple. The English translation of the above extract has no less than eighteen sentences. The Japanese original has but five.

Eigo no "why," sunawachi waze to iu koto wa, hanahada taisetsu de aru no ni, Shina ya Nihon no mukashi no hito-bito wa metta ni kono kotoba wo tsukawazu², "Kōshi no setsu da" to ka, "Mōshi no jiron da" to ka iu toki wa, mohaya betsu ni sono rikutsu wo sensaku suru koto mo naku, tada gaten shite shimau no ga tsūrei de ari; soko de motte, "Utagai wa bummei shimpo no ichi dai-gen-in da" to iu ron mo dekita wake de, ima wa yaya mo sureba Seiyō-jin wa "Utagai wa taisetsu na mono da; bummei shimpo no gen-in da. Sono shōko ni wa, Shina-jin ya Nihon-jin wa, mono-goto wo utagau to iu koto wo shinai ni yotte, itsu made tatte mo shimpo shinai de wa nai ka?" to ronji-tateru koto de aru ga,—kō iu rei nado ni hikareru to iu wa, o tagai sama ni³ amari zotto itasan shidai to iwanakereba narimasen.

Utagai to wa, tori mo naosazu naze to iu kotoba no hitsuyō ni natte kuru gen-in de,—tatoeba, kodomo no jibun, "Uso itte wa, ikenai yo!" to obāsan nado ni ii-kikasareru de arō. Sono toki

<sup>1.</sup> This piece is a leading article taken from the columns of an extinct Tōkyō newspaper, the *Kaishin Shimbun*. It has been retained in this edition, though its point of view is somewhat antiquated, because of its representatively idiomatic style. Speak thus, and you will be intelligible to any audience, however uncultivated.

#### WHY?

What is termed why in English and naze in our language, is a very important thing. Nevertheless, the Chinese and Japanese of olden times hardly ever used the word. When told perhaps that such and such was the doctrine of Confucius or the opinion advocated by Mencius, they habitually acquiesced without further enquiry into the rights of the question. Now, therefore, when the theory has arisen that doubt is one of the greatest sources of enlightenment and progress, and when, consequently, Europeans are apt to assert the importance of doubt and its services to the cause of civilisation, and to prove this their assertion by pointing to the Chinese and Japanese as instances of nations forever unprogressive, owing to their neglect to subject all things to the scrutiny of doubt,—when we hear such opinions ventilated, and find ourselves quoted in such a connection, we all must agree that it is by no means a pleasant state of affairs.

It is exactly this thing called doubt that causes the word why to become an indispensable one. Take a child, for instance. Probably its grandmother or somebody says to it: "Mind you mustn't tell stories!" Then let the

<sup>2.</sup> The word naze is little used even now, except in anger. The circumlocution dō iu wake de? "for what reason?" is generally preferred.

<sup>3.</sup> O tagai sama ni, " mutually," "for you and me," the honorific o giving a half-polite, half-comical tinge to the expression.

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ni, "Naze uso wo itte wa, warui no de gozaimasŭ ka ? to utagai wo ii-dashĭte goranjiro!—"'Naze' datte! Sonna kotoba wo kaesu mono de wa arimasen. Ningen wa, uso wo itte wa, warui mono ni kimatte orimasŭ" to atama-kabuse ni ii-tsŭkerareru ga tsūrei de arō.

Naruhodo! ningen wa, uso wo itte wa, warui ni kimatte oru ni chigai nai ga,—sono warui rikutsu¹ wo shitte gaten suru no to, tada bon-yari to gaten suru no to de wa onaji gaten suru no de mo, gaten no wake ga taisō chigau de arō to zonjimasŭ. Naze ni kuni ni wa seifu to iu mono ga aru no ka? Naze ni jimmin wa sozei wo osameru mono ka? Mazu utagai wo okoshite, sono rikutsu wo sensaku shite koso, hajimete, jiyū-seido-ron mo okotte kuru to iu mono de,—tada rikutsu nashi ni, "Kuni ni wa seifu ga aru mono®, jimmin wa sozei wo osameru mono" to gaten shite ite wa, shidai ni hikutsu ni naru bakari de, kesshite shimpo suru koto wa arimasen.

Naze no hitsuyō na no wa, hĭtori dōtoku ya seiji nomi ni kagirazu, sono ta, sekai ni arayuru³ mono-goto ni wa, donna sasai no ten ni itaru made mo, subete hitsuyō na koto de,—yoku seken no hĭto-bito ga "Gakumon ga taisetsu da, taisetsu da" to iu ga,—tsumari nan no gakumon mo, utagai wo moto

<sup>4.</sup> Datte is from da to itte, "saying that;" but it has become a sort of interjection.

<sup>5.</sup> De wa arimasen, lit. "is not," is occasionally thus used in the sense of "must not,"

<sup>6.</sup> Atama-kabuse ni= "with a snub." The kindred expression atama kara kogoto wo iu is a common phrase for "unreasonable

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following doubt be expressed in reply. "Why is it wrong to tell stories?" and it will generally happen that the enquirer will be snubbed with a "Why?' indeed! None of your pert retorts for me! Every one agrees that it is wrong for people to tell stories."

Yes, indeed! no doubt every one agrees that it is wrong to tell stories; and to acquiesce in this principle with a knowledge of the reasons why story-telling is wrong, or to acquiesce in it unintelligently, is equally to acquiesce. But surely there is a great difference between the two modes of acquiescence. Why is it that there is what is termed a government in the country? Why do the people have to pay taxes? It is only by raising such questions and searching for reasons, that liberal political opinions get started. When people simply go on unreasoningly, accepting as ultimate facts the existence of government and the obligation to pay the taxes, they merely sink deeper and deeper into servility, and never make any progress.

Doubt is indispensable, not in morals and in politics only. It is indispensable in other things also, in every single thing in the world, down to the very smallest. People often say and repeat that learning is important. But after all, in no branch of learning is there any fruitful course to be pursued, unless we make doubt the foundation, and, with a perpetual

scolding."

<sup>7.</sup> Warui rikutsu does not mean "a bad reason," but "the reason why it is bad;" conf. p. 60.

<sup>8.</sup> Supply da, "it is (a fact that there is a government, etc.)."

<sup>9.</sup> Arayuru is an exceptional verbal form derived from aru, "to be," and meaning "all that there are."

ni shi, naze naze de motte oku no oku made rikutsu wo sensaku suru to iu koto ni hoka wa nai. Shi-sho Go-kyō¹¹ ni kaite aru mono-goto ni kesshite machigai wa nai to, tada rikutsu nashi ni gaten shite shimatte ita¹¹ hi ni wa, yo no naka wa Shi-sho Go-kyō inai no yo no naka de owaru no de, itsu made tatte mo susumu kizukai wa nai ga,—mottomo "Sore dake de, takusan da" to iu ki naraba, suman koto mo arumai keredomo, naze wo mochiite, rikutsu wo sensaku shita¹² hi ni wa, rikutsu kara rikutsu to, shidai ni rikutsu ni hana ga saki, mi ga nari, kwairaku no shurui ga ōku mo ōkiku mo naru to wakari-kitte iru to shite mireba¹³, naze wa mochiite mitai mono de wa nai ka ?

Ningen ga hikutsu no kyokutan ni tassureba, zuibun omoi mo yoran fūzoku nado ga shōjiru mono de,—mugaku no kyokutan, sunawachi mono-goto no rikutsu wo shiran to iu koto no kyokutan mo, zuibun myō na mono de,—ni-jis-seiki no konnichi de mo, yaban no shakwai ni iri-konde miru to, ki-ō no senzo no koto ya, mirai no shison no koto nado wa, sukoshi mo omowazu; tada ichi-dai-kiri ni owaru to iu yō na jinshu ga naka ni wa arimasu. Ina! ki-ō no senzo ya mirai no shison wa, iu made mo nashi. Hanahadashii no

<sup>10.</sup> Shi-sho Go-kyō, "the Four Books and the Five Canons," is the name given to the sacred Classics of China, which form the basis of the Chinese polity and of the Confucian morality.

<sup>11.</sup> Substitute the present tense *iru*, "to be," for the past *ita* in order to understand this passage. Strange as it may appear, Japanese idiom always employs the past in such contexts; conf. ¶ 275, p. 176.

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world, without a chance of progressing, however many centuries may roll by. Of course, too, it may be quite possible for those to get on thus, whose spirit is satisfied with such a state of things. But when people have once come to a clear understanding of how, if they use the world will go on from reason to reason, so that the reasons will first bear blossoms and then fruit, and that more numerous and more intense kinds of happiness will be attained to, will not why then become a thing which they will like to try their hand at using?

When human beings reach the *ne plus ultra* of servility, somewhat unexpected manners and customs are the result. Somewhat strange, too, are the results of the *ne plus ultra* of ignorance,—in other words, of a lack of knowledge of the reasons of things. Penetrate into savage societies at this very day, in this twentieth century of ours, and you will find among them races that show an utter disregard both for departed ancestors and for unborn descendants,—races that live for their own generation only. Nay! what need to talk of departed ancestors and of unborn descendants? Why! when you get to the

<sup>12.</sup> Similar remark to the preceding: substitute the present *suru* for the past *shīta* in order to understand the clause.

<sup>13.</sup> To shite mireba = da ni yotte, " in consequence of which."

<sup>14.</sup> A Classical word for "nay," used emphatically by contemporary writers in imitation of English idiom,

ni natte wa, genzai no oya-ko kyōdai no aida-gara ni sŭkoshi mo kwankei wo tsŭkete, shin-ai suru no, nan no<sup>15</sup>, to iu yō na koto mo naku, tada jibun is-shin ga dō ni ka kō ni ka romei wo tsunagu koto ga dekireba, sore de manzoku shĭte iru to iu jinshu mo ma<sup>16</sup> ni wa arimasŭ.

Shokun! inu wo mi-tamae,—inu wo<sup>17</sup> E! Ikaga de gozaru ? Oya-ko-rashiku omowareru wa, chichi wo nomu aida, wazuka bakari no koto de,—chi-banare wo suru to, mohaya tanin,—otto! \*\* mattaku taken\*\* ni natte shimau de wa nai ka ? Shikaraba, ima iu tokoro no yaban-jinshu no gotoki wa, iwayuru \*\* Kin-jū wo saru koto tōkarazu \*\*\* no renjū de arō. Oya-ko kyōdai yori shite, shidai ni shin-ai wo rinjin ni oyoboshi, ichi-gun ni oyoboshi, is-shū ni oyobosu no ga aikoku-shin no genso da keredomo,—genzai no oya-ko de sae betsu ni shin-ai sen to iu yō de wa, totemo aikoku-shin nado no arō hazu wa nai.

Shikashi Nihon-jin nado wa, shi-awase to sore hodo mugaku de mo naku; shitagatte söö ni aikoku-shin mo aru n' da ga,
—sude ni aikoku-shin ga aru naraba, kōno naze wa iyo-iyo

<sup>15.</sup> For no thus used enumeratively or to indicate a sort of pause, see ¶ 115, p. 8c. Shin-ai suru no, nan no is, as literally as possible, "loving or anything-(else-) ing."

<sup>16.</sup> Ma ni wa=tama ni wa "occasionally." Ma originally meant "space," "room."

<sup>17.</sup> The emphatic repetition of the accusative after the verb is rather common, especially in the mouths of the lower classes.

<sup>18.</sup> Otto is an interjection, which we have very freely rendered by "excuse me."

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very lowest races of men, some there are who pay not the slightest heed to the ties of kindred, who show no trace of family affection or of anything of that sort, but who are quite contented if, by hook or by crook, they can, each on his own account, scrape together a livelihood.

Gentlemen! just look at the way dogs live. What is it like, let me ask? Is it not true that the fondness between the parent and her young endures but for a brief season, while the puppies are sucking? Wean them, and at once they become strangers—excuse me, strange curs—to one another. This being so, I take it that such creatures as the savage races just referred to belong to the category described as "not far removed from the birds and beasts." To begin by parental, filial, and fraternal love, gradually to extend such kindly feelings to neighbours, then to all the people of a district, and next to those of a province is the origin of patriotism. But there can never be any such thing as patriotism in the absence of even the love between living parents and children.

However, we Japanese are fortunately not so ignorant as all that, and accordingly we have a fair share of the patriotic spirit. But having this patriotic spirit, the why of which I have spoken becomes all the more indispens-

<sup>19.</sup> Tanin and taken, lit. "other-person" (or "stranger") and "other-dog," make a sort of pun, which we have endeavoured to render in the English version by "strangers" and "strange curs" (!)

<sup>20.</sup> An exceptional verbal form meaning "what is called," and derived from iu, "to say," like arayuru from aru (see foot-note 9, p. 365).

<sup>21.</sup> This quotation is in the Written Language, where  $t\bar{o}karasu$  is the "negative conclusive present" of the adjective  $t\bar{o}i$ , "far," and is equivalent to the Colloquial  $t\bar{o}ku$  nai.

hitsuyō ni natte kuru shidai de,—Shi-sho Go-kyō wo rikutsu nashi ni gaten shite, Shi-sho Go-kyō inai no yo no naka de owarō to omotte mo, kochira wa kore de manzoku shite mo, Ō-Bei shoshū wa manzoku sezu; shidai ni naze wo mochiite, shin-kwairaku wo shōjiru to sureba²², yūshō-reppai shizen no ikioi de, betsu ni Ō-Bei-jin-ni Nihon wo horobosō to iu kokorozashi nashi to suru mo, hitori-de ni horobite shimau kara, shiyō ga nai. Nihon bakari, hoka ni kuni wa nai to iu koto naraba, go chūmon-dōri²² Shi-sho Go-kyō inai no yo no naka de itsu made mo irareru keredomo, hoka ni kuni ga takūsan atte wa, sō wa ikazu; mendō-kūsakeredomo, naze wo mochiite, mono-goto no sensaku wo seneba narimasen.

<sup>22.</sup> To sureba="if it should come to pass that."

<sup>23.</sup> Go chumon-dōri, lit. "according to (your) august orders," here used half-jokingly in the sense of "if you please." This half-polite

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able. Even should we, acquiescing unreasoningly in the dicta of the Chinese Classics, think to live on in a Chinese Classic world, the satisfaction with such a state of things would be for ourselves alone. None of the nations of Europe and America will be satisfied with it. They will go on using the word zuhy, they will go on inventing new sources of happiness. This granted, there will be no help for it but that Japan must perish naturally, without the necessity for assuming any special intention on the part of foreign nations to destroy her, but by the mere working of the law of the survival of the fittest. If Japan were the only country in the world, then, gentlemen! you might continue forever to please yourselves by living on in a Chinese Classic world. But this plan will not do when there are so many other countries besides ours. Troublesome though it be, we are bound to use the word why, and to search to the root of everything.

half-joking use of the honorifics is by no means uncommon, and is used to give many a sly tap under cover of an apparently polite style of address.

### ¶ 455. "SHINREI-JŌ NO KYŌGŪ."

(YOKOI TOKIO SHI NO SEKKYO NO UCHI.)

Chikagoro Seiyō ni shinkwa-ron ga sakan ni okotte, kono tenchi bambutsu ga deki, kono yo no naka ga deki-agattaru hō-hō wo toki-akashimasuru. Sono setsu ni yotte mireba, kono sekai ni wa hajime wa shigoku tanjun naru seibutsu shika arimasenanda ga,—sore ga tekitō no kyōgū no hataraki wo uke, ima no fūkuzatsu naru kono uruwashiki sekai wo tsūkuridashimashita. Kono tekitō no kyōgū to wa, sūnawachi shizentōta jano², shiyū-tōta jano to iu mono ga arimasū. Yūshō-reppai, tekishu-seizon to iu koto ga arimasū. Subete kore-ra seibutsu no hattatsu, shinkwa ni tekitō naru kyōgū to iu koto wo komaka ni setsumei shitaru mono⁴ de arimasū. Ima kono kyōgū no hataraki wa, tada dō-shoku-butsu no nikūtai no ue n mi narazu, mata watakūshi-domo no chishiki no ue ni totte k ingaete mo,

I. Written with the Chinese characters 心 嚴上 の 境遇. This sermon was printed in a Christian magazine (now extinct) entitled "Hankyō," or "The Echo." It somewhat approaches the Written Language in its style. Thus we find: in line 2, agattaru for agatta; lines 4 and 6, naru for na; line 6, uruwashiki for uruwashii; line 6 of p. 374, seshimeta for saseta, etc.; furthermore the constantly recurring use of the indefinite form at the end of clauses, as deki in line 2, corelated with deki-agattaru in the next clause. Here are (for the benefit of the student's Japanese teacher) the Chinese characters with which the most difficult words in this sermon are written:—shinkwa-ron, 進化論, "the doctrine of evolution;" fükuzatsu, 複雜, "complicated;" shizen-

#### SPIRITUAL ENVIRONMENT.

(EXTRACT FROM A SERMON BY THE REV. YOKOI TOKIO.)

Of late years wide credence has been given in Western countries to the doctrine of evolution, which explains the method whereby heaven and earth and all that therein is arose,—the way in which the world was finished. According to this theory, the world at first contained none but the simplest types of life, which, thanks to the action of a suitable environment, resulted in the formation of our present complicated and beautiful world. suitable environment in question includes such things as natural selection and sexual selection, such facts as the struggle for existence and the survival of the fittest. The theory explains in detail the conditions of environment which are favourable to the development and evolution of living beings. Now, this action of the environment is exercised not only on the bodily frames of animals and plants. It is as clearly to be traced in the develop-

tōta, 自然淘汰, "natural selection;" shiyū-tōta, 雌雄淘汰, "sexual selection;" yūshō-reppai, 優勝劣敗, "the struggle for existence" (including the idea of the survival of the fittest); tekīshu-seizon, 適種生存, "the survival of the fittest;" and, close to the end, jika-dōchaku, 自家撞着, "self-confutation."—2. Jano is the Kyōto equivalent of the dano explained on p. 80.—3. Mono in this-sentence is equivalent to koto in the next. The author was perhaps led to this somewhat exceptional use of mono by an instinctive dislike to the repetition of too many koto in succession.—4. This mono denotes the doctrine of evolution.—5. Short for dōbūtsu shokubutsu.

hanahada akiraka ni wakarimasu. Gakusha to gujin ga dekiru no mo, sono kyōgū ikan ni yotte ōi ni sadamaru koto de, ima koko ni onaji saichi, onaji rikiryō wo motte oru kodomo wo totte, hitori wa goku inaka no shimbun wo miru koto mo nai chihō ni oki; mata hitori wa, kore wo totte, bummei no chūshin to iu Tōkyō ni oki, tsui ni daigaku ni irete shūgaku seshimeta naraba, go-nen ka roku-nen no nochi ni wa, kono futari no chishiki-jō hotondo ten-chi no chigai ga dekiru koto de arimasu. (Chūryaku¹.)

Yo no naka no hito ga moshimasuru ni, watakushi wa voi koto voo shitai to iu kangae ga jūbun ari; watakushi ni wa zen wo nashitai to iu negai ga jūbun ari; watakushi no okonai wo mite mo, watakushi wa kakubetsu warui koto wo shite oru to wa omoimasen. Sude ni watakushi no kokoro ni ryoshin ga atte, watakushi ni zen wo susume, aku wo imashimemasu kara, sono ryoshin no sashizu voo motte ikeba, betsu ni Seisho voo yomazu, betsu ni inori voo shinakute mo yoroshii to iu is-shu no kangae ga gozaimasu. Sate kono kangae wa, Nihon nomi ni okonazvarete oru chiisai mono ka to iu ni, Seiyō no mottomo bummei naru Doitsu, Igirisu ni oite mo okonowaruru tokoro no mono de aru. Shūkyō voa iranai, sekkyō voo kiku koto voa iranai, Seisho wo yomu koto wa iranai, tada watakushi no kokoro de warui koto wo shinakereba yoroshii to moshimasu. Do de arimashō ka? Koko ni goku chiisai hito-tsubu no shii-no-mi ga dete kite mõsu ni, "Watakushi wa, watakushi no uchi ni kano kodai naru sora ni sobiyuru shii-no-ki to naru no chikara wo motte ori, kore to naru keikwaku wo sonaete oru ga yue ni,

<sup>6.</sup> Lit. "as for again one, having taken him" (kore).-7. This word is

ment of our intelligence. The environment it is, which chiefly determines whether a man shall be learned or ignorant. Take two children of equal intelligence and ability. Set down one of them in some remote spot where there is not even a newspaper to be seen. Take the other, and set him in Tōkyō, the centre of enlightenment; let him finish his studies at the university, and in five or six years there will result, in the intellects of these two youths, a difference almost as great as that which divides heaven from earth.....

People declare themselves to be full of good resolves, full of vearnings after virtue, and incapable, on selfexamination, of discovering anything particularly reprehensible in their actions. Their hearts, say they, have a good conscience, which recommends virtue to them and restrains them from vice,—a conscience which, if they follow its dictates, obviates all special need of reading the Bible and engaging in prayer. Nor is such a way of thinking an insignificant exception confined to Japan. It is to be found in the most civilised countries of the West,—in Germany and in England. There, too, men are apt to say that there is no use in religion, no use in hearing sermons preached, no use in reading the Bible, and that nothing is required beyond good intentions. Now, my brethren, how would it strike you, if a tiny acorn were to come and tell you that it contained in itself the capacity for growing into one of those gigantic oaks which rear their heads to the skies, and that, as its design was to become such a one, it had no special need of

used, as a row of stars or dots is with us, to show that a passage has been omitted. It signifies literally "abbreviating" (i. e. dispensing with), ryaku; "the middle," chū.

betsu ni taiyō ni terasarenai de mo yoroshii, ame ni awazu to mo yoroshii, tsuchi no naka ni ne wo habikorasenai de mo yoroshii" to iwaba, mina sama wa kore wo motte ika naru koto to nasaruru ka? Sadamete "Kōman ni mo hodo ga aru. Negau dake de wa, mokuteki wa tasserarenai" to ōseraruru ni chigai nai.

Oyoso hito wa, ika naru hito nite mo, toki to shite zen wo nashitai to iu negai vvo okosan mono vva arimasen. Ano Ishikawa Goemon<sup>8</sup> mo, isshō no uchi ni wa, kanarazu zen voo nashitai to iu nen voo okoshita koto ga aru ni chigai nai. Shikashi kanji ga okotta kara to itte, zennin to zva mosaremasen. Ware-ware mo, toki to shite wa, hijo ni shinkoshin ga okori, Seisho wo yomazu ni oraren koto ga arimasu; shinja no hito to majiwarazu ni oraren to iu koto ga arimasu. Shikashi kanji ga okotta kara to itteo, rippa naru Kami no shinja to wa mösaremasen. Tada ni kokorozashi dake de wa yaku ni wa tatan; kanji dake de wa mokuteki wa tasseraren. Kore voo yösei shi, kore voo hattatsu seshimuru ni tekitö naru kyögü ga hanahada hitsuyō de arimasŭ. Shūkyō wa iranai, Seisho wa iranai to iu hito-bito wa, dare ka to iu ni,-sono hito ga mottomo shinkwa-ron wo tonaete, yoki kyōgū ga nakereba dobutsu mo, shokubutsu mo, ningen mo dekinai to iu hito de, gakko wo omonji, shomotsu veo omonzuru tokoro no hito de arimasu. Kare-ra wa tada dotoku-jo, shinko-jo no koto ni kagiri, zenryo naru kyōgū wa iranai to iimasŭ. Yo no naka ni jika-dōchaku to iu koto ga ōku arimasu ga,-kore yori hanahadashiki osoroshiki jika-dochaku wa arumai to omoimasti.

<sup>8.</sup> A notorious highwayman of the latter part of the sixteenth century. He suffered the penalty of his innumerable crimes by being boiled to death in a cauldron of oil. The scene of the execution was

being shone on by the sun, no need of being moistened by the rain, no need of spreading its roots into the soil? What would you think of this? Most assuredly you would say that even conceit has its limits, and that the forming of a wish by no means entails reaching the goal.

There are none among the sons of men who do not occasionally form virtuous resolves. Doubtless Ishikawa Goemon himself formed virtuous resolves some time during the course of his life. But good impulses cannot be said to constitute a virtuous man. We ourselves occasionally experience an extraordinary ardour of belief, an extraordinary craving to read the Bible, an irresistible attraction towards the society of believers. But such good impulses cannot be said to constitute us exemplary Christians. A mere intention is of no use. A mere intention will not make us attain to the goal. It is essential that we should be placed in an environment calculated to foster our good intentions and develope them. Who are the men who say that religion and the Bible are useless? They are those self-same ones, who, holding firmly to the doctrine of evolution, and asserting that neither animals, plants, nor human beings can develope without a favourable environment, lay the greatest stress on schools and on booklearning. It is only in matters of faith and morals that they assert the uselessness of a virtuous environment. Numerous as are the instances which the world affords of self-confutation, surely there never was a more extreme, a more terrible instance of self-confutation than this.

the dry bed of the river Kamo at Kyōto.—9. For this idiom see  $\P$  118, p. 83.

### ¶ 456. FŬKUZAWA Ō NO EIGO BENKYŌ.

("FŬKU-Ō¹ JIDEN" YORI BASSUI.)

Watakushi ga Edo ni kita sono yokunen—sunawachi Ansei2 roku-nen-go-koku joyaku to iu mono ga happu ni natta no de, Yokohama wa masashiku hiraketa bakari no tokoro, soko de zvatakushi zva Yokohama ni kembutsu ni itta. Sono toki no Yokohama to iu mono wa, gwaikoku-jin ga chira-hora kite iru dake de, hori-tate-goya mita yō na uchi ga shoho ni choi-choi dekite, gwaikoku-jin ga soko ni sunde, mise voo dashite iru. Soko ve itte mita3 tokoro ga, chotto mo kotoba ga tsūjinai, Kotchi no iu koto mo wakaranakereba, atchi no, iu koto mo mochiron wakaranai; mise no kamban mo yomenakereba, bin no hari-gami mo zvakaran. Nani zvo mite mo, zvatakushi no shitte iru moji to iu mono wa nai. Eigo da ka, Futsugo da ka, ikkō zvakaranai. Kyoryūchi zvo bura-bura aruku uchi ni, Doitsu-jin de Kiniffuru to iu shonin no mise ni buchi-atatta. Sono shonin wa Doitsu-jin de koso are, Rango, Rambun ga wakaru. Kotchi no kotoba wa roku ni wakaranai keredomo. Rambun voo kakeba doka imi ga tsūzurus to iu no de, soko de iro-iro na hanashi vvo shitari, chotto kaimono vvo shitari shite, Edo ni kaette kita. Go kurō na hanashi de.6 Sore mo yashiki ni mongen ga aru no de, mae no ban no jū-ni-ji kara itte,

<sup>1.</sup> As if we should write "old [Mr.] F." Such abbreviations are elegant in the Written Style, see p. 33.—2. The "year name" Ansei lasted from 1854 to 1860.—3. Itte mita="went," "visited."—4. For koso and its "government," see Vocabulary, s. v.—5. Book form for tsūjiru.—6. Honorific applied to himself, and sentence incomplete,—both idiomatic.—7. Lit. "gate limit." Fukuzawa was living in the mansion

#### MR. FUKUZAWA'S ENGLISH STUDIES.

(AN EXTRACT FROM "FUKUZAWA'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.")

A year after my arrival in Yedo (from Ōsaka), in the year 1850, the Treaties made with five Western Powers were published; so Yokohama had only then just been opened. It was then that I went down from Yedo to have a look at the new settlement. Very few foreigners had arrived there at that time. Their dwellings, which were little better than log huts, were dotted about here and there. In these houses they opened shops. On visiting these places I was greatly embarrassed, as I had no means of communication with the foreigners who kept the shops. They did not understand my Japanese, and of course I could not make out what they said. I could neither read the shop signs nor understand the labels on bottles. Among all the letters that met my eye there was not one that was familiar to me. Was it English that was written, or was it French? I did not know at all. In wandering through the foreign settlement, I came across a shop owned by a German named Kniffler. This man, though a German, understood written and spoken Dutch. He didn't know much Japanese, but he said that if I wrote in Dutch he could manage somehow or other to understand me. So I carried on a good deal of conversation with him in this way; and, after making a few purchases, went back to The whole thing had proved to be a very toilsome In those times leave of absence from the mansion of affair.

of his feudal lord, the Daimyō of Nakatsu in Kyūshū, and the outer gate always closed at a certain hour.

sono ban no jū-ni-ji ni kaetta kara, chōdo it-chūya aruite ita wake da.

Yokohama kara kaette, watakushi wa ashi no tsukare de wa nai : jitsu ni rakutan shite shimatta. Kore wa!8 kore wa! domo! shikata ga nai. Ima made su-nen no aida shini-monogurui ni natte, Oranda no sho voo yomu koto voo benkyō shita. Sono benkyō shita mono ga ima wa nan ni mo naranai. Shōbai-nin no kamban wo mite mo, yomu koto ga dekinai. Sari to zva, makoto ni tsumaran koto zvo shita zvaio to, jitsu ni rakutan shite shimatta. Keredomo, kesshite rakutan shite irareru baai de nai, Asŭko ni okonavarete iru kotoba, kaite aru moji wa, Eigo ka Futsugo ni sōi nai. Tokoro de, ima sekai ni Eigo ga futsū ni okonawarete iru to iu koto wa kanete shitte iru. Nan de mo, are wa Eigo ni chigai nai. Ima zvaga kuni zva, joyaku zvo musunde, hirake-kakatte iru. Sasureba, kono go wa Eigo ga hitsuyō ni naru ni chigai nai. Yogaku-sha to shite, Eigo wo shiranakereba, tote mo nani ni mo tsūzuru koto ga dekinai. Kono go zva, Eigo zvo yomu yori hoka ni shikata ga nai to, 10 Yokohama kara kaetta yokujitsu da,11-ichi-do wa rakutan shita ga, doji ni mata arata ni kokoro-zashi veo hasshite, sore kara irai va, issai banji Eigo to kakugo wo kimete; -- sate sono Eigo wo manabu to iu koto ni

<sup>8.</sup> Here equiv. to "alas!"—9. See Vocabulary. Wai is current colloquially only in Kyōto and the provinces to the west, but may be heard in Tōkyō on the stage. Fukuzawa's speech bewrays his western origin in several places, e.g. kayōte for kayotte. Conf. p. 163, ¶ 238.—10. A new paragraph here in the English version, though the original has but a comma, illustrates what has been said in ¶¶ 442-4 about Japanese long sentences.—11. The sentence will be better understood and parsed, if da be omitted.

the lord one served was limited to a certain number of hours. I started one night at 12 o'clock and returned at the same hour the following night. So it meant that I had been on the tramp for no less than 24 hours.

But when I got back from Yokohama what I felt most was not the fatigue of the journey but bitter disappointment at the results of my visit. Alas! alas! How hard indeed was my lot! There had I been working myself to death for a series of years in order to be able to understand, Dutch books, and now all my study had turned out to be quite useless. not enable me to decipher even the shop signs which I had seen. "This being so," said I to myself, "I have indeed done a stupid thing." For a while I was quite despondent. But it was no time for despondency. It appeared to me that the language spoken and written in Yokohama must be either English or French. Now it happened that prior to this I had heard that English was in general use in various countries. So I said to myself:-"The language used in Yokohama is certainly English. This country is now making treaties with Western Powers and is in the process of being opened up. This being the case, henceforth a knowledge of English will certainly become necessary. A Japanese who professes to be versed in Western learning and yet who knows no English, do what he may, will not be able to understand anything at all. There is no other course for me to follow hereafter but to master written English."

It was the day after I got back from Yokohama when for a while I gave way to a fit of despair. But on that very day a new resolve sprang up in my mind,—I determined that thenceforth the study of English should be the one great purpose of my life, and that all things should be made to give

tsuite, do shite ii ka tori-tsuki-ha ga nai. Edo-ju ni, doko de Eigo voo oshiete iru to iu tokoro no aro voake mo nai. Keredomo dan-dan kiite miru to, sono toki ni joyaku wo musubu to iu ga tame ni, Nagasaki no tsūji no Moriyama Takichirō to iu hito ga Edo ni kite, Bakufu12 no go vō13 zvo tsutomete iru. Sono hito ga Eigo wo shitte iru to iu uwasa zvo kiki-dashita kara, soko de Moriyama no uchi ni itte, naraimashō to kō omōte, sono Moriyama to iu hito wa, Koishikawa no Suidō-chō ni jūkyo shite ita kara, sassoku sono uchi ni itte, Eigo kyōju no koto wo tanomi-iru to, Moriyama no iu ni, "Sakkon go yō ga ōkute, taihen ni isogashii keredomo, sekkaku naraō to iu naraba, oshiete shinzeyō.14 Tsuite wa, mainichi shukkin-mae asa hayaku koi" to iu koto ni natte, sono toki watakushi wa, Teppōzu ni sumatte ite, Teppōzu kara Koishikawa made yagate ni-ri yo mo arimasho. Mai-asa hayaku okite yuku. Tokoro ga, "Kyō wa mō shukkin-mae da kara, mata myōchō kite kure." Akuru asa hayaku yuku to, "Hito ga kite ite, ikenai" to iu. Do shite mo, oshiete kureru hima ga nai. Sore wa, Moriyama no fu-shinsetsu to iu wake de wa nai. Joyaku wo musubo to iu toki da kara, naka-naka isogashikute, jissai ni oshieru hima ga ari wa shinai. So suru to, "Konna ni maicho kite, nani mo oshieru koto ga dekin de wa, kinodoku da. Ban ni kite kuren ka." "Sore ja, ban ni mairimasho" to itte, kondo wa higure kara de-kakete yuku.

<sup>12.</sup> Bakū-fu means the "Shōgun's government," the term being derived from the tent (baku, better maku) from which that military ruler may have originally issued his orders and fu, "court," Kōgi, used on p. 386, was an alternative name for it.—13. Not "your business, honorific go here pointing to the Shōgun's government, just as nowadays it would point to the Emperor.—14. A mongrel form, half Book Language, equiv. to Colloq. agemashō.

way to it. But the question was, how was I going to begin? At that time there were no facilities for commencing such a study. There was of course no place anywhere in Yedo where English was taught. But after a while by inquiry I found out that a Nagasaki interpreter called Moriyama Takichirō was in Yedo, in the employ of the Government, in connection with the drawing up of the new treaties, and it was said that he knew English. So I thought I would go to his house and get him to teach me. He was living then in Suidō-chō, Koishikawa. I at once applied to him. This is what he said :-"At present, having a great deal of official business in hand, I am very busy; but since you say you are bent on learning English, I am willing to teach you. But you must come early every morning befere I go to office." Thus the affair was arranged. At that time I was living in Teppozu, which is, I should say more than five miles distant from Koishikawa. Well, I went to Mr. Moriyama's house every morning. But I did not get what I wanted. One morning he said :- "It is now near the time for my starting for office; so please come to-morrow morning." The next morning when I got there earlier, I was again put off. "Somebody has come to see me this morning," said Mr. Moriyama; "so it is no go." It was quite evident that he had no time to teach me. His refusal to do so was not because he was unobliging. As the treaties had to be got ready for signing then, of course he was very busy and had no time to give to teaching me English. But after making the above remark, he added :- "I can't bear to see you coming like this every morning and going away without my being able to teach you anything. Won't you come at night?" "I will do so," was my reply. So after that I started for his house after dark.

Ano ōrai wa chōdo ima no Kanda-bashi Hĭtotsu-bashi-soto no Kōtō Shōgyō Gakkō no aru atari de, moto Gojin-ga-hara to iu ōki na matsu no ki nado ga oi-shigette iru, osoroshii, sabishii tokoro de, oi-hagi de mo deso na tokoro da. Soko voo Koishikawa kara kaeri-michi ni yo no jū-ichi-ji jū-ni-ji goro toru toki no kowasa to iu mono wa, ima de mo yoku oboete iru. Tokoro ga, kono yo-geiko mo yahari onaji koto de, "Komban wa kyaku ga aru," iya "Kyū ni Gwaikoku-gata (Gwaimushō)15 kara yobi ni kita kara, dete yukanakereba naran" to iu vo na wake de, tonto shikata ga nai. Oyoso soko ni futa-tsuki ka mi-tsŭki kayota16 keredomo, do ni mo hima ga nai. Tote mo konna koto de wa, nani mo oboeru koto mo dekinai. Kuworu ni, Moriyama to iu sensei mo, nani mo Eigo voo taiso shitte iru hito de wa nai. Yoyaku sukoshi hatsuon wo kokoroete iru to iu gurai.17 Tote mo kore wa shikata ga nai to, yoginaku dannen.

Sono mae ni watakushi ga Yokohama ni itta toki ni, Kiniffuru no mise de usui Ran-Ei kwaiwa-sho wo ni-satsu katte kita Sore wo hitori de yomu to shita tokoro de, jisho ga nai. Ei-Ran taiyaku no jisho ga areba, sensei nashi de jibun hitori de gesuru koto ga dekiru kara, dōka jisho wo hoshii mono da to itta tokoro de, Yokohama ni jisho nado wo uru tokoro wa nai. Nan to mo shikata ga nai. Tokoro ga, sono toki ni Kudan-shita

<sup>15.</sup> Gwaimushō alone is now used.—16. Western Jap. for kayotta (Similarly above omōte for omotte, and further on negōta for negatta.) Just below, dō ni mo is Western for dō shite mo.—17. After gura supply deshǐta; after dannen supply shǐta.

On my way there I had to cross a plain that was then called Gojiin-ga-hara. It was situated beyond Kanda-bashi and Hitotsu-bashi, not far from where the High Commercial School now stands. At that time this plain was thickly wooded with huge pines and other trees, so that at night it was a fearfully lonely, uncanny spot where one feared that a highwayman might come bouncing out on one at any moment. I have a vivid recollection even to-day of the terror which I felt when passing along through the trees at eleven or twelve o'clock at night on my way home. The end of it all was that my nightly visits were as fruitless as my morning ones had been. I was put off with one excuse or another. At one time I was told that Mr. Moriyama had visitors, at another that he had been summoned to the Foreign Office and had to go there at once. The thing was hopeless. I kept up my visits to his house for two or three months, but I saw that, do what he would, he could not find time to teach me. It was plain that I could never learn English by going on in this way. Moreover, I found out that Mr. Moriyama was not at all well acquainted with English; that he had got no further than knowing a little about pronunciation. So I was forced to the conclusion that there was nothing for it but to try some other way.

Now it happened that when in Yokohama I had bought of Mr. Kniffler two little Dutch-English colloquial phrase-books. I intended to study these by myself, but I had no dictionary. I thought that if I only possessed an English-Dutch dictionary, I could interpret English without the aid of a teacher; and so I enquired for a dictionary, but was told that in Yokohama there was no shop where such books were sold. So here I was stumped again. But I did not give up hope. At that time, at the foot of the Kudan Hill there was a Government.

ni Bansho-shirabe-jo18 to iu Bakufu no Yō-gakkō ga aru. Soko ni wa iro-iro na jisho ga aru to iu koto wo kiki dashita kara. do ka shite sono jisho vvo karitai mono da. Kariru ni vva nyumon shinakereba naran. Keredomo hanshi ga dashi-nuke ni Kogi (Bakufu) no shirabe-jo ni nyūmon shitai to itte mo, vurusu mono de nai. Hanshi no nyūmon-negai ni wa, sono Han no rusu-i to iu mono ga gwansho ni oku-in wo shite. shikaru nochi ni 19 nyumon wo yurusu to iu. Sore kara Han no rusu-i no tokoro ni itte, oku-in no koto vvo tanomi, watakushi wa kami-shimo wo kite, Bansho-shirabe-jo ni itte, nyumon wo negota, Sono toki ni wa Mitsukuri Rinsho no ojii-san no Mitsukuri Gempo to iu hito ga shirabe-jo no todori de, sassoku nyūmon wo yurushite kurete; nyūmon sureba jisho wo kariru koto ga dekiru. Sugu ni haishaku wo negōte, Ei-Ran taiyaku no fisho wo te ni uke-totte, tsūgaku-sei no iru heya ga aru kara, soko de shibaraku mite, sore kara kwaichū no furoshiki wo dashite, sono jisho wo tsutsunde kaero to suru to, "Sore wa naran. Koko de miru naraba, yurushite kurushiku nai ga, uchi ni mochi-kaeru koto wa dekimasen" to sono kakari no mono ga iu. Korya 120 shikata ga nai. Teppōzu kara Kudan-zaka-shita made, mainichi jibiki wo hiki ni yuku to iu koto wa, tote mo ma ni awan hanashi da. Sore mo yoyaku nyūmon shite, tatta ichi-nichi itta-giri de dannen.

Sate, dō shĭtara yokarō ka to kangaeta tokoro de, dan-dan²¹ Yokohama ni yuku shōnin ga aru. Nani ka Ei-Ran taiyaku no

<sup>18.</sup> Lit. "place for examining barbarian writings," a designation showing in what low esteem the Foreign Language School was then held.—19. Shikaru nochi (ni), a Book term, "and then," "only then."—20. Half-way between original meaning ("this indeed") and the exclamation "alas!"—21. Dan-dan, properly "gradually," comes to mean "various," "occasionally," and sometimes is nearly meaningless: dan-dan arigatō gozaimasŭ, "thanks for your many favours."

school for the study of foreign languages called Banshoshirabe-jo. I heard that there were all sorts of dictionaries in use in the school. So I thought that I would try and get the one I wanted there. But in order to make use of the school books, it was necessary to become a pupil. Now an ordinary samurai in the service of a daimyō could not enter a Government school for the mere asking. (Certain formalities had to be gone through.) A samurai who wished to enter such a school was obliged to get his application endorsed by the officer in charge of his daimyo's mansion during his lord's absence prior to receiving permission to enter the school. I got this done, and then, donning my ceremonial dress, I proceeded to the Bansho-shirabe-jo and made my application. At that time Mitsukuri Gempo, the grandfather of Mitsukuri Rinshō, was in charge of the school. granted my application at once, so I was able to borrow the dictionary. This I did immediately. Carrying it to the room set apart for the use of day-scholars, I spent some time in examining it. After this, taking out a cloth that I had brought with me (lit., taking a cloth out of my bosom), I wrapped the book up in it and was about to take it home with me. when I was stopped by one of the officers of the school. "That is not allowed," said he. "There is no objection to your looking at the book here, but you can't take it home with you." "This will never do," I exclaimed to myself. "To be trudging all the way from Teppozu to the foot of the Kudan Hill every day just to look at a dictionary would not pay me at all." So it happened that, after taking all the trouble to enter the school, I spent no more than one day there. I decided never to visit it again.

On trying to hit on a way of procuring a dictionary, after a while, I remembered that a man whom I knew was in the habit of going to Yokohama on business. Him I asked to inquire in Yokohama whether there was an English-Dutch jisho wa nai ka to tanonde oita tokoro ga, Horutoppu<sup>22</sup> to iu Ei-Ran taiyaku, hatsuon-tsüki, no jisho ichi-bu ni-satsu mono ga aru. Makoto ni chiisa na jibiki da keredomo, atai go-ryō to iu. Sore kara watakushi wa Okudaira no han ni tangwan shite, kai-totte moratte, "Sā! mō kore de yoroshii! Kono jibiki sae areba, mō sensei wa iranai" to; jiriki kenkyū no nen wo kataku shite tada sono jibiki to kubippiki²² de, mainichi, maiyo, hitoribenkyō; mata aruiwa Ei-bun no sho wo Ran-go ni hon-yaku shite mite, Ei-bun ni nareru koto bakari kokoro-gakete imashita.

Soko de jibun no isshin wa sō kimeta tokoro de, kore wa dō shitemo hoyū ga nakute wa naran. Watakushi ga jibun de fubenri voo kanzuru24 tori ni, ima no Ran-gakusha voa kotogotoku fuben wo kanjite iru ni chigai nai. Tote mo ima made mananda no wa yaku ni tatanai. Nan de mo hōyū ni sōdan wo shite miyo to ko omota ga, kono koto mo naka-naka yasuku nai,-to iu no wa, sono toki no Ran-gakusha zentai no kangae wa, watakushi wo hajime to shite, mina su-nen no aida kokku benkyō shita Ran-gaku ga yaku ni tatanai kara, maru de kore wo sutete shimatte, Ei-gaku ni utsuro to sureba, arata ni moto no tori no kurushimi wo mo ichi-do shinakereba naran. Makoto ni nasakenai tsurai hanashi de aru. Tatoeba, go-nen mo san-nen mo suiren wo benkyō shite, yōyaku oyogu koto ga dekiru yō ni natta tokoro de, sono suiren wo yamete, kondo wa ki-nobori wo hajimeyō to iu no to onaji koto de, izen no benkyō ga maru de kū ni naru to,-kō kangaeta mono da kara, ikani mo ketsudan ga muzukashii.

<sup>22.</sup> The Kana spelling of Fukuzawa's text obscures the Dutch original,—perhaps Voltop or Voortop.—23. See Hepburn for the proper meaning; here, "with might and main."—24. Book form for kanjiru, "to feel."

dictionary to be had. This he did and subsequently informed me that there was such a book compiled by Voltop(?) complete in 2 volumes, with the pronunciation of words given. Though it was indeed a very small work, its price was 5 ryō. With much entreaty I put my case before Lord Okudaira and got him to buy the book for me, "There!" I exclaimed. "Now I am set up. With this dictionary in my possession, I can do without a teacher." So, resolving to rely more and more on my own power of application, day after day and night after night, I studied alone, poring intently over the dictionary or trying my hand at translating from English into Dutch.

Thus did I set my whole mind on the learning of English. But notwithstanding that I had resolved to study in this way, I began to feel a desire to find others bent on the same course. It seemed to me that the inconvenience of which I had been so conscious must certainly have been felt by all my fellow-countrymen who had studied Dutch. For what they had learnt could be of no earthly use to them now. If there were such scholars, I thought I should like to consult with them. But to find men who, like myself, had resolved to give up Dutch and take to the study of English proved to be no easy task. The reason of this was that all the Japanese who up to that time had studied Dutch were of opinion that if they gave up Dutch in favour of English, the many years of hard toil they had devoted to learning it would be lost and that, in order to master English, they would have to spend an equal number of years in arduous application. To expect them to do this seemed to them like expecting a man who has spent some three years or even five years in learning how to swim to give up swimming and take to tree-climbing. The whole thing appeared to them to involve labour thrown away.

Soko de, gakuyū no Kanda Kohei ni menkwai shite, dō shite mo Eigo wo yarō ja nai ka to sōdan wo kakeru to, Kanda no iu ni, "Iya mō, boku mo tō kara kangaete ite, jitsu wa sukoshi kokoromita. Kokoromita ga ikani mo tori-tsŭki-ha ga nai. Doko kara tori-tsuite ii ka, jitsu ni wake ga wakaranai. Shikashi nengetsu wo fureba,25 nani ka Eisho voo vomu to iu koguchi ga tatsu ni chigai nai ga, ima no tokoro de wa nan to mo shikata ga nai. Mā! kimi-tachi wa genki ga ii kara, yatte kure,—taitei hogaku ga tsuku to, boku mo kitto varu kara, Da ga, ima no tokoro de wa nanibun jibun de varō to omowanai" to iu. Sore kara Banchō no Murata Zoroku (nochi ni Omura Masujiro) no tokoro ve itte, sono tori ni susumeta tokoro ga, kore wa do shite mo yaran to iu kangae de, Kanda to wa maru de setsu ga chigau, "Mueki na koto vvo suru-na! Boku vva sonna mono vva yoman. Irazaru26 koto da. Nani mo sonna konnan na Eisho wo shinku shite yomu ga mono wa nai ja nai ka? Hitsuyō na sho wa mina Oranda-jin ga hon-yaku suru kara, sono honyaku-sho wo yomeba, sore de takusan ja nai ka?" to iu. "Naruhodo! sore mo issetsu da ga,-keredomo, Oranda-jin ga nani mo ka mo ichi-ichi hon-yaku suru mono ja nai. Boku wa senkoro Yokohama ni itte, akirete shimatta. Kono ambai de wa, tote mo Ran-gaku wa yaku ni tatan. Zehi Eisho

<sup>25.</sup> Book form for hereba, from heru, "to pass."—26. Book form for iranai.

They found it very hard to resolve on the adoption of such a course. (In order to find out what he thought on the subject.) I paid a visit to Mr. Kanda Kōhei, a fellowstudent of mine. "Let us take to the study of English," said I, to draw him out. "No;" he replied; "I have been thinking over this subject a long time, and have even gone so far as to have a try at the study. But the result was that I failed to discover any way of setting to work. It was all so much Greek to me; where to begin I did not know. No doubt if one spent years over the study, one would find some method or other whereby to understand English books, but at present the thing seems hopeless. But, there! young fellows like you are full of energy, so fire away at it. When you have some notion of how the thing can be done, I'll certainly take up the study. But at present really I have no intention of doing so." After that I went to see Murata Zōroku (afterwards called Omura Masujiro) and in the same way urged him to take up the study of English. He said he would not do so. But his ideas on the subject were quite different from those entertained by Kanda. This is what he said:-"Don't waste time to no purpose. I don't want to read English books. There is no need for it. What is the use of puzzling one's brains over difficult English works when all the English books one needs to know about are translated into Dutch. Isn't it quite enough to read the translations?" "To be sure!" I answered; "there is something in that. But still the Dutch don't translate everything published in English by any means. When I went to Yokohama a little time ago, I was astounded at my inability to read what I saw there. With things as they are now, a knowledge of Dutch is of no use. Don't you think that it

voo yomanakule wa naran de wa nai ka ?" to susumuredomo,27 Murata wa naka-naka doi sezu. "Iya! yoman. Boku wa issai voman. Yaru nara, kimi-tachi wa yaritamae. Boku wa, hitsuyō ga areba, Ran-jin no hon-yaku shita no wo yomu kara kamawan" to ibatte iru. Kore wa tote mo shikata ga naito iu no de, kondo wa Koishikawa ni iru Harada Keisaku ni sono hanashi wo suru to, Harada wa goku nesshin de, "Nan de mo yarō. Dare ga dō iute mo, kamawan. Zehi varo" to iu kara, "So ka? Sore wa omoshiroi. Sonnara, futari de yaro. Donna koto ga atte mo, yari-togeyo de wa nai ka?" to iu no de, Harada to wa goku setsu ga ōte,28 iyo-iyo Ei-sho voo yomu to iu. Toki ni Nagasaki kara kite ita kodomo ga atte, sono kodomo ga Ei-go wo shitte iru to iu no de, sonna kodomo wo yonde kite, hatsuon wo narotari, mata aruiwa hyöryü-jin de orifushi kaeru mono ga aru.—Nagaku atchi ye hyöryü shite ita mono ga, kaikoku ni natte, fune no bin ga aru mono da kara, orifushi kaeru mono ga aru kara, sonna hyöryüjin ga tsuku to, sono yadoya ni tazunete itte, kiita koto mo aru. Sono toki ni Eigaku de ichiban muzukashii to iu no wa hatsuon de, watakushi-domo wa nani mo sono imi wo manabo

<sup>27.</sup> Book form for susumeredomo.—28. Western for atte. Similarly, a little further on, narōtari for narattari.

is absolutely necessary that we should study English?" But, urge him as I might, he would not give in. "No:" said he, "I won't study English.-I'll have nothing to do with it. If you are for undertaking it, then do so, but as for me, should necessity call for it, I'll read the Dutch translations of English books. So the matter does not concern me at all." Seeing how self-sufficient he was, I concluded that there was nothing to be done with him (so I determined to try elsewhere). I next went to the house of Harada Keisaku, who lived in Koishikawa and sounded him on the subject. He took the thing up very earnestly and said :- "By all means let us do it. No matter what anybody says, most decidedly we'll undertake it." "Is that how you feel? I am delighted," I exclaimed. "In that case we'll study together. And, come what will, let us carry the thing through." So as Harada and I were of one mind about the matter, we decided to read English books together in real earnestness. (To get the pronunciation, we made use of several devices.) There was a child living near us who had come from Nagasaki and who was reported to know English. So we got it to come to us and teach us how to pronounce. In those days occasionally Japanese sailors whose vessels had drifted out to sea and who had been picked up and carried off to America or elsewhere, or had been wrecked on the Pacific coast, after remaining a long time abroad, came back to Yedo. This the running of regular mail ships after the opening of the country enabled them to do. No sooner did we hear of their arrival than we made our way to their stopping-places and put questions to them about the pronunciation of English. For in learning English at that time the most difficult thing of all was to get the pronunciation. Seeing that we did not want to have the

to iu no de wa nai. Tada superuringuºº wo manabu no de aru kara, kodomo de mo yokereba, hyōryū-jin de mo kamawan. Sō iu mono wo sagashi-mawatte wa, manande, imashita.

Hajime wa, mazu Eibun wo Rambun ni hon-yaku suru koto wo kokoromi, ichi-ji ichi-ji ji wo hiite, sore wo Rambun ni kakinaoseba, chanto Rambun ni natte, bunsho no imi voo toru koto ni kurō wa nai. Tada sono Eibun no goin wo tadashiku suru no ni kurushinda ga, kore mo shidai ni itoguchi ga hirakete kureba, sore hodo no nanjū de mo nashi. Tsumaru tokoro wa, saisho watakushi-domo ga Rangaku wo sutete. Eigaku ni utsurō to suru toki ni, shinjitsu no Rangaku wo sutete shimai, su-ne benkyō no kekkwa wo munashū30 shite. shōgai ni-do no kannan shinku to omoishi wa, ō-machigai no hanashi de, jissai mireba, Ran to ii, Ei to iu mo, 32 hitoshiku ōbun ni shite, sono bumpō mo hobo ai-onajikereba, 33 Ransho wo yomu chikara wa onozukara Eisho ni mo tekivo shite. kesshite mueki de nai. Mizu wo oyogu to, ki ni noboru to, mattaku betsu no yō ni kangaeta no wa, ichi-ji no mayoi de atta to iu koto wo hatsumei shimashita.

<sup>29.</sup> Jap. corruption of our word "spelling."—30. For munashiku; conf. ¶ 182. Omoishi, just below, is Book language for omotta.—31. The words no hanashi are little more than expletive.—32. Lit. "whether one say Dutch, or whether one say English," i.e. both Dutch and English.—33. For expletive prefix ai (a Book form), see p. 73.

meaning explained to us, but only to be taught how to spell out the words, children or shipwrecked sailors served our purpose well enough. So we went hither and thither in search of teachers of this kind, from whom we learnt how to pronounce.

In studying books the way we proceeded was first to translate the English into Dutch. This involved our looking up every separate English word in the dictionary. When we had written out the meaning of the original in Dutch, we had no difficulty in understanding anything. But at first we did find it hard to know how to pronounce all the words we came across. But since subsequently we found a means of getting over even that difficulty, our way became easy. The long and short of it is that we were quite wrong in thinking that if we took to the study of English we should thereby render all our knowledge of Dutch useless, that all the toil of years spent in acquiring that language would prove to be fruitless, and that we should have to go through the same painful process a second time. fact is that both Dutch and English are European languages which have many similarities and whose grammatical rules are in many respects alike. Hence the power of reading and understanding Dutch is by no means useless, as it is capable of being applied to the study of English. We discovered that our notion that the learning of Dutch and the learning of English were as different as swimming and tree-climbing was no more than a temporary delusion under which we had laboured.

## ¶ 457. GIKWAI NO TŌRON.'

(KEIHŌ KAISEI AN.)

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun).—Dai ni-shō, dai ku-jō wo gidai to itashimasŭ.—Hanai Takuzō Kun!

(Hanai Takuzō Kun tōdan.)

Hanai Takuzō Kun.—Shokun! Dai ku-jō ni gozaimasŭru "shikei" to iu ni-ji wo kezuritai to iu shūsei-an de arimasŭ. Shikei haishi no ron wa, hatashite honkwai ni oite go saiyō ni naru ya ina ya wa, aruiwa gimon de aru ka mo zonjimasen. Shikashi nagara, watakŭshi wa sū-jitsu zen no seigwan i-in-kwai ni oite shikei haishi no seigwan ga zenkwai-itchi wo motte kaketsu seraremashitaru no hōdō ni sesshimashite, kanarazu seigwan i-in-kwai no ketsugi dōri ni konnichi wa mukaeraru-beki mono de aru to shinzuru mono de arimasŭ. Saiwai ni go sandō wo eru koto ga dekimashita naraba, kono sakujo no hitotsu dake de keihō kaisei no memboku to iu mono wa tatsu mono de aru to watakŭshi wa shinzuru mono de aru.

Shikei haishi to ieba, aruiwa waga kuni no jitsujo ni kangamimashite, nao hayashi to iu setsu wo idaku hito ga aruiwa aru ka mo shiremasen. Hantai suru ronsha wa, tare mo nao hayashi to iu hantai ni hoka naran no de aru. Shikei wo sonchi su-beki kakudan naru riyu no aru-beki hazu wa nai no de arimasu. Watakushi wa go shōchi no gotoku

I. This debate, which took place on the 14th March, 1907, is extracted from the stenographic report in the "Kwampō" ("Official Gazette") of the succeeding day. Comparing the style of these representatives of New Japan with the genuinely native and Colloquial speech of "Naze" and the "Botan Dōrō," the student should notice the constant "Europeanism," which, permeating the whole thought, has naturally affected the language also. It begins on the very first

## ¶ 457. A DEBATE IN THE DIET.

(A BILL FOR THE REVISION OF THE PENAL CODE.)

The President of the House of Representatives (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). The ninth article of the second chapter of the Penal Code will now be discussed—Mr. Hanai Takuzō!

(Mr. Hanai Takuzō ascends the rostrum.)

Mr. Hanai Takuzō.—Gentlemen! The Bill before the House has for its object the erasure of the words "capital punishment" in the ninth article. This is the amendment proposed. I am perfectly well aware that it is questionable whether the House will approve of the arguments we bring forward in favour of the abolition of capital punishment. But it is my duty to report to you that some days ago the Petitions' Committee, when considering this matter before you, without a single dissentient voice, voted in favour of the petition for the abolition of capital punishment, and I take this occasion for expressing my belief that the House ought certainly to welcome the decision which has been reached by the Petitions' Committee. If we can obtain your consent to the one erasure which I have mentioned, it is my opinion that all will have been done that needs to be done to render our revision of the Penal Code worthy of our position as legislators.

When I speak of abolishing capital punishment, there may be some who will say that, in view of existing conditions in this country, it is still too early to adopt such a course. Those who oppose the abolition of capital punishment, without exception, bring forward this argument; for the simple reason that it is the only plausible argument they have against abolition. They can urge no special reasons for the retention of this form of punishment. As you yourselves know, I am by no means a highly cultured man, hence

page with the phrase gimon de aru ka mo zonjimasen, a literal translation of "I am aware that it may be questionable," goes on to shinzuru used like our "I believe," i.e. "I think," to setsu wo idaku, "to embrace an opinion," and so on throughout. The traces of the Book Language are similarly too frequent to enumerate.

makoto ni hi-bummei no ningen de gozaimasuru kara shite, amari ni bummei de aru to ka, nisshin geppo de aru to iu koto wo mōsu no wa yorokoban no de aru. Shikashi nagara, kuni no taimen wo kazaru tokoro no daihyō to mo mōsubeki keihōten no gotoki wa, yahari bummei no chōryū wo owana-kereba naran. Mata, nisshin geppo no keisei no riron to iu mono wo owanakereba naran to shinzuru no de aru. Yōfuku no kara ya, kimono wa nisshin geppo ya bummei nado wa nakute mo yō gozaimasu ga, kokka shin-un no daihyō-butsu to miru-beki hōritsu dake wa sono kiun ni mukawashimetai to watakushi wa shinzuru no de arimasu.

Shikōshĭte shikei haishi no ron wa konnichi izure no kuni ni okimashĭte mo, giron to shĭte, jijitsu to shĭte, nampĭto mo kore wo hitei suru mono wa gozaimasen. Makoto ni keisei kakŭshin no kiun wa jissai no rihei wo kōkyu itashimashĭte, ima ya shikei no sonzai wo yurusu-bekarazu to ronketsu wo ataete iru no de arimasŭ.

Shokun! shikei to mõsu mono wa, mõshi-ageru made mo naku, itsu no keibatsu de aru. Hĩto no seimei wo tatsu no keibatsu de aru. Kokka ga keibatsu-ken wo jikkō suru ni atatte hǐto no seimei wo tatsu ni arazareba, sono kiso kakuritsu sezu to itashǐta naraba, amari ni keibatsu no ishin to iu mono ga usuku wa gozaimasen ka? Shūkyō, dōtoku no kankwa wa, nan-ra no kenryoku mo naku, nan-ra no seisai mo gozaimasen keredomo, yoku zaiaku wo mizen ni fusegi, mata yoku zaishū wo senzen kaikwa no michi ni michibiki-eraruru no de aru. Shǐkaru ni kokka wa, keibatsu no ken-i wo karite, chi wo miru no sanjō

it is not for me in recommending this measure to try and represent myself as more enlightened and more progressive than others. (I urge this reform on other grounds.) Though some of us may be behind the age, it is my opinion that it is our duty as legislators to see that our Penal Code, which represents to the world the country's status, should follow the tide of modern enlightenment and keep pace with the perpetual new developments in the principles of systems of penal law. Even if we do get behind the world in respect of that ever changing so-called outward mark of civilisation, fashion, it does not matter. Though the cut of our clothes may be out of date and our collars not the right shape, we must keep our laws up to the level of the most forward countries, for these laws are no other than the symbol of national progress.

Now, no one can deny that the abolition of capital punishment is something that has been discussed in every country and that in some countries it has actually been carried out. The tendency of the reform of penal law is towards the conclusion that an examination of the actual advantages and disadvantages attending it undoubtedly shows that capital punishment ought to be abolished.

Gentlemen! You do not need to be told that the death penalty is a punishment—a punishment that deprives a man of his existence. If a State cannot show in an adequate manner that its right to administer punishment is firmly established without taking away a man's life, surely the authority which it wields is very slender. Religion and morality, without employing any of the authority or the restraints employed by the State are often able to prevent crime or lead prisoners back to the paths of virtue by means of other influences. It seems to me that when it is maintained that in the exercise of its power to punish, the State must resort to the cruelty of

wo enzuru ni arazareba, hito no kubi wo kiru ni arazareba. seimei wo tatsu ni arazareba, keibatsu no hongi to iu mono wo suikō shi-atawazu to itashimashita naraba, kokka no kenryoku wa shūkyō dōtoku no kankwa-ryoku ni mo oyoban to u koto wo shomei suru mono to watakushi wa shinzuru no de aru. Dodo taru kokka ga yowaki zaishū to tatakatte, sono zaishū wo satsuriku suru ni arazareba, seizon-bōei no ue ni oite konnan de aru to iu naraba, kore tori mo naosazu, kokka wa zaishū wo motte—hanzai-nin wo motte—onore no it-teki-goku to nasu mono de aru. Hannin to kokka to no chikara no doitsu de aru to iu koto wo jihaku suru mono de aru to iwanakereba naran no de aru, Watakushi wa kaku no gotoki ken-i naki keibatsu aru wo hosshinai. Keibatsu ken-i arite, hajimete kō wo sōsuru no de aru. Ken-i naki keibatsu wo kokka mizukara kore wo mochiiru ni arazareba, keibatsu no mokuteki wo tasshiatawazu to iu ga gotoki, makoto ni keihō no ken-i naki koto wo kokuhaku shi, mizukara shikei naru keibatsu wo sonchi suru rivū wo hitei suru mono de aru.

Shikashi nagara, naruhodo! sonchi no ron mo aru. "Shikei ni kayu-beki yoki kei ga nai kara, yamu wo enai no de aru."
Kō iu setsu ga gozaimashita naraba, watakushi wa yorokonde kikitai no de aru. Watakushi no shinzuru tokoro ni yoreba, shikei igwai kore ni kawaru-beki yoki keibatsu wa aru no de aru. Hōri, hōritsu ga gen ni kyōkun wo tarete iru no ni omoi-itarimashita naraba, hantai-ronsha no go ron to iu mono wa nan-ra no atai wo mo yūsen koto ni naru de arō to omou

shedding blood, must insist on cutting off people's heads, must deprive men of their lives, in order to thoroughly vindicate its right to wield authority, this is equivalent to confessing that the power of the State is able to effect less than is effected by religious and moral influences. If it be affirmed that the State, despite all its pretended greatness, in self-defence, is obliged to match itself against poor weak prisoners, is compelled to put them to death, this is nothing else but elevating these prisoners to the rank of a hostile country with which the State without loss of dignity might go to war. It is an implied confession that the power of the State and the power of the criminal are so equal that the destruction of the latter is necessary to the safety of the former. Punishment that has so little to back it as this I would feign see abolished. No punishment can be effective unless it is backed by real power. To say that punishment which in itself has no power must be enforced by the State in order to realize the main object of punishment, is to confess that penal law is without any inherent power of its own to effect anything. This is equivalent to denying that there is any reason for the retention of that form of punishment known as the death penalty.

But, according to some, there are reasons for its retention. It is alleged that there is no suitable form of punishment to take its place and therefore its retention is unavoidable. I should be pleased to hear an objection of this sort brought forward, because I think I can meet it. I am of opinion that there is a form of punishment that may suitably take the place of capital punishment. If we come to consider the lessons taught us by the principles of law, we shall see that the arguments of our opponents against abolition are quite worthless. I will not venture to trouble you with a number

no de aru. Aete enkaku-jō no koto wa chōchōshĭku wa mōshiagemasen. Shikashi nagara shiket to iu keibatsu wa mattaku kyūseiki no ibutsu de gozaimashite, izvayuru gomon wo saiyo itashite orimashita kein-soshō-hō to ryōritsu subeki keihō no kyū-shisō de aru. Furuki shisō de aru. Hari-tsŭke de aru to ka, gokumon de aru to ka, aruiwa hi-aburi de aru to ka, aruiwa nokogiri-biki de aru to ka to iu gotoki, makoto ni yaban naru keibatsu no arishi jidai ni oite saiyō sareta tokoro no keimei de arimasŭ. ("No! No! So de nai," to yobu mono ari.) Sayō de gozaimasen to iu setsu wa ato de haichō itashimasu. To ni kaku, yaban-koku ni oite yabanjin ni taisuru keibatsu de aru to iu koto wa ron wo matan no de arimasu. Yue ni, hari-tsuke, hi-aburi, nokogiri-biki nado to iu aku-keibatsu no seido ga keibatsu no hongi ni arazu to shite, jogwai seraretaru konnichi ni oite wa, kore to doji ni doitsu no kekkwa wo shōzu-beki shikei to iu mono mo onajiku sonritsu wo yurusubeki suji no mono de nai to watakushi wa shinzuru. Watakushi wa shikei wo sonsuru to iu koto wo motte jitsu ni kokka no ichi-dai-chijoku to shite, keibatsu kwannen no kiso wo kuzusu mono to watakushi wa dangen itasu no de arimasu.

Shika nomi narazu, kono shikei naru mono ga jijitsu no ue ni oite shimesu tokoro no kekkwa wa ikaga de gozaimashō ka ? Tokubetsu yobō to shite, ikubaku no kōken ari ya ? Ippan yobō to shite, ikubaku no kōken ari ya ? Kore wo tōkei, narabi ni, jijitsu ni chōshimashita naraba, keiji seisaku no ue yori ronkyū

of tedious historical details. I would only remind you that the punishment known as the death penalty is a relic of antiquity. It belongs to that old system of legal thought which resorted to torture in the conduct of criminal prosecutions. It belongs to a system of thought that is out of date. It is a form of punishment that was adopted in an uncivilised age—in an age when men were condemned to be crucified, to have their heads exposed after death, to be burnt alive, to have their bodies sawn in pieces, and the like. (A cry "No, no! that isn't so.") To the gentleman who says it is not so I will reply later on. One thing is certain, and that is that capital punishment was a form of punishment which originated in uncivilized countries and was first administered to barbarians. Hence, when to-day we have discarded crucifixion, death by burning and by sawing as belonging to a wicked system of punishment, our retention of capital punishment, which produces the same results as the forms of punishment we have given up, appears to me most unreasonable. I have no hesitation in affirming that the existence of capital punishment to-day is to be regarded as a great disgrace to the State and as calculated to destroy the very basis of the idea of punishment.

But this is not all. We may well ask what fruits this form of punishment has borne when put into practice. How much efficacy has it as a special preventive of crime? How much has it as a general preventive? Were we to appeal to statistics and to facts, or to test the question by inquiring how far it is in accordance with a sound policy in dealing with criminal cases, it would be easy to make it clear that the retention of capital punishment is not at all necessary.

itashimashite mo, shikei sonchi no hitsuyō naki kotogara wa kiwamete meihaku de aru no de gozaimasu.

Shokun! shikei to iu mono wa, shijin no zaiaku wo korasan ga tame, kokka mizukara zaiaku wo okasu mono de aru no de gozarimasu. Hito wo korosu wa mudō na koto de aru. Goku-aku naru hanzai de aru. Koko ni oite kokka wa keihō naru mono wo tsukuri-tatete, shimmin ni oshie wo tarete iru. Sono oshie wo tareshi keihō ga sono hannin wo korasu ni atatte wa, aete mizukara sono hannin to natte—koka mizukara hannin to natte—kono goku-aku naru hanzai wo okasu no de aru. "Okasu nakare!" to oshietaru mono ga mizukara sore wo okasu to sureba, keibatsu-ken no ishin ga ika ni shite tamotsu koto ga dekimashō ka? Satsujin no kōi wo bassen ga tame ni horitsu jishin ga satsujin no kōi wo nasu to iu no wa, kore wa shikei ni oite shikari to nasu no de aru. ("Soko wo saikō shinakereba naran. Sore ga machigai no moto da," to yobu mono ari.)

Shokun! keihō wa mizukara shisuru, sunawachi jisatsu suru to iu koto sae mo, kore wo kinjite iru no de aru. Mizukara ga mizukara wo korosu to iu kotogara wo hōritsu wo motte kinjite oki-nagara, shikōshite kokka mizukara wa tasatsu wo aete suru to iu koto wa, ika ni mo watakushi wa keibatsu-ken no kwannen to shite mujun de aru to shinzuru no de arimasu.

Sore kara mata ichi-men yori kangaete mimasureba, shikei naru mono wa keibatsu no kwannen wo fükushū ni totte iru mono de gozaimasu. Korera no setsu wa moto yori furuku yori tsutawatte iru no de arimasu kara, watakushi wa fuen shinai. Fuen shinai keredomo, kokka wa sunawachi kokka de aru. Ōyake no kikwan de aru. Is-shijin ni kawatte, is-shijin taru higaisha no kanjō shifun to iu mono wo yawaragu-beki seishisu no mono de wa nai no de aru. Hōritsu wa is-shijin no dairi-nin to natte, fükushū kōi wo nasubeki kennō mo hitsuyō mo yūshite oran no de arimasu. Kore mo yahari mae to onaji koto de, kokka ga fükushū wo kinjite, mizukara wa fükushū no dairi-nin wo nasu to iu kotogara ni naru no de arimasu. Jitsu ni watakushi wa kono ten ni okimashite, shikei sonchi no shugi to iu mono, risō to iu mono ni oite,

Gentlemen! Capital punishment amounts to this, that the State, in order to make a private individual suffer for his or her crime, commits a crime itself. It is quite inhuman to put people to death. It is a crime of the deepest dye. Here we have a State framing a Penal Code, with the idea of teaching people what is right, while itself is guilty of crime when it punishes the transgressors of penal law. The State itself becomes the criminal. It is guilty of the most heinous crime. If the State while saying, "Do not commit crime" is itself guilty of committing it, how is it possible for it to maintain that it has a right to exercise authority in punishing crime? In order to punish the act of murder committed by another, the State commits the same act itself—that is just what capital punishment amounts to. (A cry of "You must think more about that! That's what has led you astray!")

Gentlemen! Our Penal Law forbids people to die by their own hands, prohibits suicide. But the State, while forbidding people to take their own lives, assumes the right to kill them itself. This I cannot regard as anything but contradictory to the fundamental notion of punitive authority.

Then, to consider another aspect of the question, in the death penalty the notion adopted is that punishment is revenge. This theory, which came down to us from ancient times, I do not propose to discuss minutely. But I will say this much, the notion is contrary to the essential character of the State, which is a public organ, and is not of the nature of an instrument for appeasing the feelings and anger of individuals by acting as their proxy in the execution of vengeance. There is no need and no authority for endowing the law with the function of redressing the wrongs of individuals by executing vengeance in their stead. Here again the State is acting inconsistently. While condemning acts of vengeance in private individuals, it commits these very acts as their substitute. When considering this point I am compelled to affirm that both in principle and

tomo ni tomo ni mujun no kekkwa wo motarashi-kitatte iru mono to dantei sezaru wo en no de gozarimasŭ.

Mata, shikei naru mono wa desŭ², keibatsu no kwannen ni mottomo hitsuyō de aru tokoro no hito wo shite tsūku no nen wo idakashimenai mono de aru. Mata, kaikwa senzen no michi wo saegiru mono de aru. Keibatsu no mokuteki wa tsūku no uchi ni desŭ, tsūku no uchi ni ayamachi wo aratame, zen ni utsuru no michi wo hiraku ni atte, sonsuru no de arimasŭ. Shikaru ni ichi-do shikei no senkoku wo uketaru tokoro no mono ga, iwayuru shi wo kakugo shite tsumi wo okashi taru mono ga aru to itashimashita naraba—kore wo kokuji-han to itashimashita naraba, "teikwaku amaki koto nao ame no gotoshi" to ieru ga gotoki kakugo wo yūsuru mono wa tsūku wo kanzezu, mata mizukara shinjite yoki koto wo nashitari to suru mono nareba, kaikwa senzen no michi mo nai hazu de aru.

Hōkwa, issui, satsujin nado no shikei ni gaitō su-beki hanzai ni tsuite mo, chōsa wo itashite mimasureba, izure mo mina fundo de aru to ka, enkon de aru to ka, aruiwa chijō de aru to ka, shitto de aru to ka iu yō na kwankei ni kizasarete okoru-beki hanzai de atte, karera wa kono hanzai wo okasu tōji ni arimashite wa, shinshi jukuryo wo nasu no itoma naku, kono tsumi wo okashita naraba, ika naru kigai ga shakwai ni okori, onore wa ika-naru keibatsu ni shoseraruru mono de aru ka, to iu kotogara nado ni tonjaku wa itasanai no de aru. Fundo no mukau tokoro, enkon no mukau tokoro, shitto chijō no hashiru tokoro, shirazu, shirazu ni tsumi wo okasu no de gozaimasu kara shite, moto yori kare-ra ni mukatte shikei no senkoku wo itashimashita tokoro de, karera wa nan no tsūku mo kanjinai. Mizukara kakugo wo nashite okonaitaru shigoto de gozaimasu kara shite, kore ga fuzen nari, ayamachi

<sup>2.</sup> Desi is here superfluous.—3. Tei and kwaku are Classical Chinese names for different sorts of cauldrons formerly used to boil criminals alive in.

idea the retention of capital punishment necessarily involves contradiction.

Again, what is involved in the death penalty? It fails to realize the chief object of punishment; which is more important than anything, namely, making criminals suffer for their crimes. It closes for ever the road to repentance and reform. The object of punishment is only realized when the transgressor suffers. It is for the purpose of giving a man an opportunity to repent of his crimes, mend his ways and become virtuous that it exists at all. But capital punishment does not allow this to take place. The man who is condemned to death commits a crime knowing that it will cost him his life, in the case of grave political offences—high treason and the like—the guilty person does not really suffer, as the saying is, "Even death by boiling is as sweet as starch-sugar" to the palate of such a man, since he expected thus to die. Repentance and reform are in his case out of the question.

On examining the evidence elicited in the trials of persons who have been condemned to death for arson, for causing floods or for murder, we find that in every instance the crime had its origin in a fit of anger, or was prompted by hatred, envy or some foolish feeling of this kind. The criminals when they committed these acts had no time for deep reflection. They disregarded altogether the danger to society and the fearful punishment which the crime contemplated must involve. When carried away by anger, hatred, envy or any other foolish feeling, a man commits a crime before he knows what he is about. When condemned to death for his crime he does not think his lot to be a hard one. In committing the act he was prepared to take the consequences. He does not regard the act as wrong on account of the severity of the

nari, to wa shinjinai. Shitagatte kaikwa senzen no michi wo sazuken to hosshite, kare wa kobande kore wo irenai de arō.

Shikashi nagara, moshi kore voo shakwai to rikaku shite, hiru nao kuraki gokuchū ni tsunagi, katei wo hanare, shakwai wo hanare, saishi ari to iedomo mamiyuru wo ezu, shinseki ari to iedomo, mamiyuru wo ezu to iu kyōgū ni oite, nisseki ni tessa no moto kuyaku ni shitagawashimete, kare jishin ga zange suru tokoro no koe wo kikeyo! Issui-zai no ōi naru koto, hōkwa-zai no ōi naru koto, satsujin-zai no ōi naru koto wo hansei shite, naruhodo, enkon no amari, fundo no amari, itchō no ayamachi ni hashitte, kayō na hanzai wa shita mono no, sate, kayō na tsūku no seikwatsu wo shite mireba ika ni moaku naru mono to iedomo, honzen no zen ni kaeru-beki ichijo no komei to iu mono voo nozomazaru mono voa, voatakushi voa arumai to omoimasti, Katei ni wa kacritai, shakwai ni mo kaeritai, fubo ni mo aitai, saishi ni mo aitai to iu nenjo wa, tsūku no uchi ni shirazu shirazu kare no shinteki kanjo to iu mono voo yawaragete, honzen no zen ni kaeru-beki-hansei no nen wo okosu ni sōi nai no de aru. Shikōshite kore wa shikei iswai no aru keibatsu ni oite tamotaruru no de arimasu.

Watakŭshi wa shikei wo haishĭte kore ni kawaru-beki chōki no jiyū-kei wo motte sen to suru mono de arimasŭ. Kaku sureba, tsūku no uchi ni kaikwa senzen no michi wo hiraku to iu keibatsu no rigi wo keihō no ue ni hyōmei suru ni oite, makoto ni ik-kyo ryō-toku de aru to watakŭshi wa shinzuru mono de arimasŭ.

sentence passed on him. If it were suggested to him immediately after the commission of the crime that he ought to repent and reform himself and that an opportunity to do this would be afforded to him, he would probably refuse to accept such an offer.

But separate such a man from the community in which he has lived, let him pass his days in close confinement in a dark prison cell, away from his home, cut off from the world, with wife and children that he can never see, with relations with whom he can hold no intercourse, shackled day and night, and condemned to hard labour, and see what a change will come over him and how penitent he will become. He will then acknowledge how heinous are such crimes as causing floods, starting fires and taking life. Let a man but see that he is passing his days in misery solely because in a moment when hatred or anger was too much for him he lost control of himself and committed a serious crime, and no matter how ferocious he may be, it seems to me that the feeling that he can go back to his old self and become virtuous once more will come to him as a welcome ray of light. The desire to go back to his home, and to the world, the desire to see his parents or his wife and children is a feeling that will grow on him in the midst of his sufferings, that will soften his whole heart and awaken within him that penitent state of mind which leads a man back to the forsaken path of virtue. But this is something that can only be secured by means of punishment other than execution.

I am in favour of substituting a lengthy period of confine ment for capital punishment. In adopting this policy we should realize two desirable objects: we should open a way for the reform of criminals by chastisement, and we should embody in our new code in a conspicuous manner the fundamental principle of punishment (namely the benefiting of the persons punished). Hantai-ronsha wa aruiwa kono ten ni kwanshite adakamo zainin to iu mono wo motte kataki ka, ada ka no gotoku ni kokoroete, kare-ra wa doko made mo bokumetsu seshimu-beki mono de aru. Tsūku no uchi ni kaikwa senzen no kōmei wo sazukeru nado wa yokei na hanashi de aru to iu ron wo seraruru kata ga aru ka zonjimasen keredomo, sore wa hanahada bōron de aru. Keibatsu no kwannen wo maru de bokkyaku shitaru ron de aru to watakushi wa shinzuru no de arimasu.

Mata shikei sonchi no ronsha ga shiba-shiba shōdō itashimasuru, watakushi mo bōtō ni oite mōshiagemashitaru, sunawachi,
ippan yobō narabi ni tokubetsu yobō to shite, jakkan no kōken wo
arawasu ya to iu ten ni kwanshimashite wa, akiraka ni rei wo
Yōroppa ni toru wo yōsezu, waga kuni ni oite rippa na jitsurei
ga shimesarete iru no de arimasu. Kangoku ni jūji suru
hito-bito no dantai ni oite hakkō seraruru tokoro no zasshi wo
yonde mimasu to iu to, kore-ra no jirei wa iku-jū, iku-hyaku no
ōki wo kasanete iru no de aru.

Sunawachi Kyōto no kangoku no hōkoku-rashiki itsu no rombun wo "Kangoku Kyōkwai Zasshi" ni oite mimashita. Ichi-nin no rōba ga gozaimashite, shinrui mo nakereba, enja mo nai, oya mo nakereba, kodomo mo nai. Koko ni oite hi wo tsuketa naraba, kanarazu koroshite moraeru ni chigai nai. Tetsudō ōjō mo iya de aru. Mi wo nageru no mo iya de aru. Dōka kōshudai-jō ni oite koroshite moraitai to iu itsu no kangae wo okoshita. Toraerarete saiban ni fuserareta tokoro ga, jōjō no kumu-beki tokoro ga aru to iu no de, muki tokei ni shoserarete, gokuchū ni oite nichi-nichi gokuri ni uttaeru tokoro no mono wa, nan de aru ka to ieba, gwanrai watakushi wa shinitai ga yue ni tsumi wo okashita no de aru. Kōzai ni

It may be that the anti-abolitionists in considering this point regard a criminal as an adversary or foe who should be wiped out of existence and think that it is quite superfluous to talk about granting to such a creature the privilege of being able to repent and become virtuous. But this seems to me an outrageously irrational view to adopt, and it can only be held by persons who ignore altogether the fundamental notion of punishment.

Again, to come to a point already mentioned by me, which the advocates of the retention of capital punishment are always emphasizing, the actual amount of efficacy possessed by this form of punishment as a preventive of crime generally and of murders especially, it is plain that it is not necessary to cull examples from European annals on this subject, since we have in our own country all ready to hand striking instances of the working of the existing law. Such instances are recorded by the hundred in the pages of a magazine published by a Society consisting of Prison officials.

In the Kangoku Kyōkwai Zasshi we find an article that seems to be a sort of report published by the Kyōto Prison. It gives an account of a certain old woman confined in that gaol. According to her tale, being parentless and childless, having no relations and no ties of any kind, she grew tired of life, and the idea came into her head that if she started a fire she would certainly be executed. To throw herself under a train or to drown herself was repulsive to her. To die on the scaffold was, she thought, far better than this. So she committed arson and was arrested. When she was tried, extenuating circumstances were brought to light, so that she was only condemned to imprisonment for life with hard labour. This displeased her so much that day after day she poured forth her complaint to the goaler thus: "I committed a crime for the sole reason that I wished to

shoshite moraitai ga tame ni tsumi wo okashita no de aru. Shikaru ni shi itto wo genzerarete, kono kutsu wo shinuru made sazukerarete, ware no mokuteki wo tassuru koto ga dekinaku natta. Kisha ōjō wo shiyō to omotta no mo yame, mi wo nageyō to omotta no mo yame, kokka no keiten de hi wo tsükereba korosu to kaite aru kara, koroshite moraō to omotte, hōkwa shite mo, koroshite moraen no wa ikan de aru" to iu kujō wo nobetaru itsu no jijitsu ga kakagerarete aru.

Watakushi wa ōku no giron wo itashimasen. Shikei naru mono wa iwayuru tokubetsu yobō to shite dore hodo no kōnō ga aru ? Narabi ni ippan yobō to shite dore hodo no kōnō ga aru ? Shi wo kakugo shite nasu hannin ni taishite nan-ra no kōyō wo nasu ka to iu koto wa, kono ittan ni oite shiri-eraruru no de arimasu. Tokubetsu yobō, ippan yobō no ron wo suru hito wa shikei nado to iu mono wa keihō no ue ni kaite oite, tada ikaku wo suru dōgu ni mochiiru dake no koto de aru. Kesshite kore wo okonau shui de wa nai keredomo, shikei ga sonzai itashite otta naraba, hito-bito ai-imashimete, kanarazu kono shikei ni gaitō su-beki tsumi wo okasanai de arō. Kimen hito wo odosu no hōhō de, kamban no tame ni kakagete oku no da to iu koto wo gakusha mo tonaete iru mono ga aru no de arimasu.

Shikashi nagara kore wa kimen de aru. Oni no men de aru. Odosu tame ni tsukurareta oni no men de aru to iu koto wo hayaku sude ni hito ga shitta naraba, kimen tsui ni kimen ni arazu, ikkō ikaku no yō wo nasan de wa arimasen ka? Nomi narazu, okonawanai de mo kamban ni sonsuru to iu ga gotoki kotogara wa, keisei hitsubatsu no genri wo mushi suru

die. In order to get you to hang me, I started a fire. But by lightening the sentence a degree and condemning me to suffer thus to the end of my days, you have made it impossible for me to accomplish my purpose. I gave up the idea of throwing myself under a train or jumping into the water and drowning myself because I expected the authorities to execute me, seeing that according to the Law persons guilty of arson must be so dealt with. Think then how grieved I am to find that the crime I committed was not the means of bringing me the death I so desired!" This is one of the facts given in the magazine referred to above.

I do not purpose enlarging on this point much further. But this one case enables us to answer the question whether capital punishment has the effect of preventing the commission of general crime or of a particular kind of crime, whether it has any influence in the minds of persons who commit offences with their eyes open, resolved to bear the death penalty. According to the explanation of this matter given by those who contend that capital punishment is a preventive of crime, capital punishment need not be actually enforced; it is enough if it be prescribed only in the letter of the Law, so that it can be used as a scare. They say that as long as men know that by committing certain crimes they will render themselves liable to capital punishment, they will certainly refrain from committing them. So the Law puts on the fierce looks of an avenging demon, merely for effect, and this is justified by certain legal experts.

But the Law only *puts on* fiendish looks. Directly it gets to be known that the demoniac looks are only assumed for effect, that the whole thing is a subterfuge, that behind the mask there is no real demon, people will cease to be scared by it. But more than this, to keep laws in the statute book for mere show is to utterly disregard the fundamental principle of the

no hanahadashiki mono de arimasu. Kei wa okonau-beki ga tame ni sonsuru no de aru. Sonsuru ijō wa kanarazu okonau no de aru. Okonōte shikōshite nochi ika naru kōkwa wo shōzuru ka to ieba, nan-ra no rieki wo mo, hitsuyō wo mo shōji-kitaran to iu kotogara wa, tadaima made mōshi-ageta tōri de aru. (Isobe Shirō Kun "Mada takusan arimasu ka?" to yobu.)

Mata kore mo jijitsu no ron de gozaimasŭ ga, shikei to iu mono wa gohan wo kwaifuku suru ni michi naki keibatsu de arimasu, Osoraku wa, Isobe Kun atari no vosō serarelaru no mo kono ten de arō to omō. Bakuron no go jumbi ni narimashita no mo, kono ten de arō to omou, Kore zna mukashi kara Isobe Kun no sōhai suru Furansu no gakusha mo sõ itte orimasu. Shikei wa kwaifuku suru koto no dekinai akkei de aru. Hito tare ka ayamachi nakaran? Saibankwan mo hito de aru. Sore yue ni moshi ittan ayamatta naraba, do suru? Yūmei tokoro wo koto ni shite wa, ningenkai no saibansho wa Emma no chō ni made kōshō suru wake ni wa ikan kara shite, kanarazu kono godan to iu kotogara wo osorete, godan to iu kotogara wo ureite, shikei to iu mono wo zenzen haishi shinakereba naran to iu no wa, kore wa goku furui setsu de atte, mottomo mata seiryoku aru setsu na no de aru.

penal system of law, which in all cases insists on the carrying out of punishment. Penalties exist in order to be put into execution. As long as they are prescribed by the Law they must be carried out. If we come to inquire whether capital punishment when carried out has shown any particular efficacy, we find that it has conferred no benefit on anybody and has failed to furnish a single reason for its existence. This I have already made plain to you. (Mr. Isobe Shirō calls out "Have you got much more to say?")

My next argument in favour of the abolition of capital punishment, like the preceding ones, is based on facts. This form of punishment makes it quite impossible to repair the damage done by wrong verdicts. Unless I am mistaken people like Mr. Isobe must have already given some attention to this point. He and other anti-abolitionists no doubt have their arguments all ready for confuting us in respect to this. What I am going to say on this aspect of the question was said long ago by the French scholars whom Mr. Isobe venerates so much. According to them the death penalty is a bad form of punishment because it leaves no room for redress. What man is there that does not make mistakes? Judges are human and therefore liable to err. Supposing that they wrongly condemn a man to death, what can they do to set the thing right? This world and the land of Shades are cut off from each other and there is no means of establishing a connection between our earthly courts and the tribunal set up by the King of Hades. It is because they fear misjudgments, because they mourn over the wrong verdicts which have been given by judges, that for a very long time certain scholars have maintained that capital punishment ought to be totally abolished. This is one of the oldest and strongest arguments that have been advanced in favour of abolition.

Saibansho ga godan wo shite hito wo koroshite sekinin nashi to iu kotogara wa yuyushiki daiji de arimasu. Kore mo wata-kushi wa ronjite mitai no de gozaimasu keredomo, moshitai wa moshitai no de gozarimasu keredomo, koko ni wa ryaku shite okimashite, waga kuni ni okeru jitsujo ni tsuite hitotsu o hanashi wo shitai to omou.

Keiho-an no shinsa ni fuserareru ni atarimashite, seifu wa ware-ware ni itsu no hyō wo shimesareta. Meiji san-jū-san nen yori Meiji san-jū-hachi nen ni itaru, roku-nen kan no hyō de gozaimasŭ. Kono hyō ni yotte mimasurŭ to iu to, kono roku-nen kan ni oite shikei no senkoku wo uketaru mono wa hyaku-jū-hachi ken de gozaimasu. Hyaku-jū-hachi ken rokunen kan ni shikei no senkoku wo uketa mono ga gozaimasu. Shikaru tokoro, kono hyaku-jū-hachi ken no shikei to iu mono ga ika ni godan wo itashile iru ka to iu kotogara wo tsugi no hyō ga shimeshite iru. Hyaku-jū-hachi nin no hikoku-nin wa komo-gomo fufuku de motte joso wo itashita tokoro ga, dai is-shin ni oite ii-watashita shikei no saiban wa warui no de aru, kore wa muzai ni natte yoroshii no de aru, kore wa kinko ni natte yoroshii no de aru, kore wa menso4 ni natte ii no de aru, moshikuwa, sono ta no yūki-kei ni shite yoroshii mono de aru" to iu koto de; to ni kaku shikei wo hitei serarctaru ken ga hachi-jū-shichi ken aru. Rokunen no aida ni hyaku-jū-hachi ken no shikei no ii-watashi wo shite, tadachi ni hachi-jū-shichi ken dake wa godan de aru to iu koto wo hyō ga shimeshite iru no de aru. Wazuka ni san-jū-ik-ken to iu mono ga tashika ni shikei de aru to iu kotogara wo hyō ga shimeshite orimasuru keredomo, kore mo yahari ensei-kwan wo motte Kyōto no obā san no rei wo oimashita naraba, aruiwa gokuchū ni oite mizukara shinuru ga ii to iu kakugo wo shite, kono saiban ni manzoku shita mono ga iku-nin aru ka shiren. Shin ni shikei ni gaitō suru mono wa aruiwa go-ken ka rok-ken ka mo shirenai to omou. Sore

<sup>4.</sup> Lit. "letting off prosecuting." In the present case it is the Public Procurator who is let off. This occurs usually through some legal technicality,—sometimes owing to the fixed time for the production of evidence or the punishment of crime having passed.

To maintain that a Court of Law has no responsibility when it sends a man to his death by mistake would be outrageous. I should like to discuss this point somewhat fully, but I will not do so. I will confine myself to noticing a fact that illustrates clearly the state of affairs in our country to-day.

When the draft of the Penal Code was submitted to us for investigation, the Government furnished us with tables that give an account of the sentences passed between the 33rd year and the 38th year of Meiji (A.D. 1900-1905)—a period of six years. According to this table, during that time 118 persons were sentenced to death. Another table supplies information on the subject of misjudgments. Every one of these 118 persons expressed dissatisfaction with the decisions of the Courts of First Instance and appealed against them. In no less than 87 of these cases the death sentences were annulled and the decisions of the Lower Courts shown to be quite wrong. Some of the prisoners were declared not guilty; the sentences of others were commuted to imprisonment for longer or shorter periods, and in other cases circumstances occurred which freed the Public Procurator from the obligation to carry the prosecution any further or commence a new prosecution. We see then that in the short space of six years in 118 cases no less than 87 persons were wrongly condemned to death. This is made quite clear by the table. Among the 31 remaining cases in which the original sentences were confirmed by the Higher Court, how many criminals were there, we wonder, who, entertaining the same pessimistic notion as the old woman in the Kyōto gaol, were satisfied with their sentences? It is not improbable that there were not more than five or six cases in which the criminals were rightly sentenced to capital punishment (lit. which rightly come under the heading

wa amari sukunai to itashimashita tokoro ga, to ni kaku, kokumin no seimei wo hyaku-jū-hachi nin dake wa shimete yoroshii to iu saiban wo shite, hachi-jū-shichi ken dake wa machigatta to iu koto wo hyō ga shimeshite iru ijō wa, tashika ni shikei to iu mono wa godan kyūsai su-bekarazaru mono de aru kara shite tsutsushimanakereba naranai to iu jitsurei ga shimesarete iru to watakushi wa kangaeru.

Hitoshiku keibatsu de gozaimasuru ijo wa, watakushi wab höritsu no sazuketaru kenri, rieki wa moto yori kin-itsu m shinakereba narumai. Ippan no keiji hannin to iu mono wa tsūku no uchi ni kaikwa senzen no michi wo hiraite yaru to iu höritsu no moto ni shihai serarete iru. Shīkaru ni shikei hannin ni kagitte kono keibatsu kwannen ni jogwai wo suru to iu kotogara wa, kuni no hannin taigū ni oite ni-sha kotonareru mono to rontei sezaru wo emasen. Kotonareri to rontei seraruru yori mo, keibatsu kwannen ni futatsu no kotonaru i-shugi aru mono to iu koto wo hyōmei suru mono to rondan shinakereba narumai to watakushi wa omoimasu.

Go-shōchi no gotoku, saiban no godan to iu mono wa, hǐtori shikei bakari de arimasen. Ippan jiyū-kei ni okimashĭte mo, zaisan-kei ni oite mo tsutsushimanakereba naran. Sore yue ni hōritsu wa godan kyūsai no michi wo sazukete iru. Aruiwa hijō jōkoku, saishin, aruiwa kari-shutsugoku seido to iu mono wo mōkem ishĭte, tashika ni shikei igwai no jiyū-kei to zaisan-kei to ni taishĭte, godan kyūsai no kwatsuro wo sazukete iru. Shĭkaru ni ittan shikei ni shoserarete shikkō wo oeta mono wa, nochi ni hijō jōkoku no riyū aru koto wo hakken suru mo, saishin no riyū aru koto wo hakken suru mo, shishitaru mono onten ni yokushi-u-beki jijō wo hakken suru mo, shishitaru mono

<sup>5.</sup> This watakushi wa has no verb; supply omou.—6. A technical term signifying permission to appeal even after the date specified for lodging a notice of appeal has passed.

of capital punishment). Even supposing that my calculation is under the mark, and that there were more cases in which the sentence passed was a suitable one, we can't get over the fact that, according to the statistics given, the Lower Courts decided to hang no less than 87 subjects of the empire unjustly; and this, it seems to me, should make us extremely cautious in sanctioning a form of punishment which after being carried out admits of no redress.

Regarding all forms of punishment as on a level, in administering them the rights and benefits conferred by law should not be given to one offender and withheld from another. All ordinary criminals are benefited by that provision of law which allows of reformation by means of suffering. When the State makes an exception of persons condemned to death, according to them different treatment, we can only conclude that in administering punishment, instead of acting on one principle, it is acting on two, and these two contradict each other. This appears to me quite plain.

As you know very well, it is not only in cases of capital punishment that wrong verdicts are given. In imposing penalties affecting a man's liberty or his property mistakes have been made that show the need of caution. Therefore it is that the Law provides means for redress in the form of special appeals, new trials and the temporary release of prisoners on bail. In all ordinary instances that involve the loss of personal liberty or property in meting out punishments, the Law has provided easily applicable means for redress in case of misjudgment. But when once the death sentence has been carried out there is no way back. After a man's execution, reasons for a special appeal or for a new trial may be discovered, or circumstances may be brought to light which warrant a prisoner's being favoured with release on bail, but the dead man can't be

wa futatabi sosezu, ikan to mo subekarazaru mono de arimasu. Hitoshiku kore keihō no sazuketaru onten rieki de aru ijō wa mata, hitoshiku sono hannin de aru ijō wa, shikei hannin ni nomi kore wo sazukezu shite, sono ta no hannin ni sazukeru, shikei hannin ni usuku, sono ta no hannin ni atsui to iu koto wa, keibatsu ga kempō narabi ni gyōsei-hō no onten ni yotte sazuku-beki rieki to iu mono ni tōsa wo tsukeru to iu koto ni ai-narimasu. Kore mo rigi ikkwan sezaru ron to watakushi wa shinzuru no de arimasu.

Daitai no shuchō no ronshi wa tadaima no tōri. Sono ta shikei wo sonchi su-beki riyū to shite, shikei haishi ni hantai naru ronkyo to iu mono no aru wo hakken itashimasen. Shikaraba nanji no iwayuru shikei ni kawaru-beki ryōkei to wa nan zo ya ? to iu o tazune ni taishite o kotae su-beki sekinin ga watakushi ni wa aru no de gozarimasu. Kore wa watakushi wa shikei ni kayuru ni san-jū-nen no yūki-kei wo motte suru mono de gozarimasu. Naruhodo san-jū-nen to iu nengen wa hito ni yorimashite wa shikei dōyō ni ai-naru ka mo shirenai. Shikashi nagara, koko ni san-jū-nen to iu nengen wo fushite oku koto wa, tashika ni tsūku no uchi ni kaikwa, senzen ni michibiku to iu rigi ni kanau no de aru. Mata, hijō-jōkoku, saishin, kari-shutsugoku tō no onten rieki tō ni yokusehime-u-beki yochi wo mo sonshite iru no de aru. Godan—ayamaritaru saiban—wo kyūsai shi-eraru-beki rieki mo aru no de aru.

brought to life again, and so nothing can be done to rectify matters. Considering that the Penal Law which confers benefits and favours on criminals condemned to death and on other classes of criminals is one and the same Penal Law, and considering that transgressors of the Law are on an equality, when we find that while from the former class of offenders certain benefits and favours are withheld, they are granted to the latter class, when we find the Law favouring one class of criminals hardly at all and another class a great deal, we come to the conclusion that in the benefits which are conferred, in the administration of Penal Law, in the exercise of the authority given to it by the Constitution and the Executive, there is inequality (unjust discrimination). This, I take it, is sufficient to show that our Penal Code is not permeated by one principle and one law of right.

I have in a general way made the position I hold on this question clear to you. There are no arguments that I know of either in favour of the retention of capital punishment or against its abolition that I have not touched on. But it will no doubt be asked what suitable form of punishment I propose to substitute for the death sentence? I am of course bound to reply to this inquiry. Well, the substitute I propose is 30 years' imprisonment. Some may think that such a term of incarceration would be as bad as execution. But my fixing the limit to 30 years is done on the presumption that the misery of such a long imprisonment would certainly make a new man of the criminal. This period, too, would leave room for participation on the part of accused persons in the favours and benefits granted by the Law, such as special appeals, new trials or release on bail; and Courts of Justice, on their part, would also obtain benefit from the arrangement, as they would be able to rectify their mistaken verdicts.

Shikoshite kono san-iu-nen to iu ron wa, watakushi wa vahari genkō keihō—ina! kaisei keihō-an yori ami-tatetaru ron de arimasu. Watakushi wo shite iwashimemashita naraba. shikei ni kayuru ni san-jū-nen no yūki-kei wo motte suru to iu koto wa kaisei keihō-an ni meibun ga aru to iitai kurai de aru. Sore wa jiko no kitei de aru. Shikei ni shoseraretaru mono8 wa san-jū-nen wo keikwa shitaru toki wa jikō ga kwansei suru to kaite aru. Hito wo koroshite shikei ni shoserarubeki mono ga san-jū-nen no aida nigete, nige-oseta naraba, kokka wa, ibō no gensoku ni motozuite, sono tsumi wo towanai no de aru. Torae wo nogarete, ato wo kuramashite, san-jū-nen kakurete iru to, shikei hannin to iedomo, ibō wo suisoku serarete kokka ga wasureru naraba, rikaku shitaru kangoku,sekai wo chijimete kurushiku tsunagarete iru, shaba no ningen to wa kotsū wo maru de tatte iru no de gozarimasu kara shite, san-jū-nen mo oita naraba, yahari yo no naka ni arawarete mo, kakurete iru mono to onaji yō ni, ibō no gensoku wo ōyō shi, kokka ga wasurete yoroshii de wa gozarimasen ka? Iwanya, jo no ue kara ieba, toraerarete iru mono to toraerarete inai mono to, kutsū no do-ai, kokka keibatsu-ken no ovobitaru kwankei to no chowa wo kangaemashita naraba,

<sup>7.</sup> A technical term signifying "the effect of time on the fate of prisoners."—8. The speaker has in mind a man who escapes after having been condemned to death,—an exceptional, but not impossible, occurrence

It seems to me that an argument in favour of fixing the 30 vear period of imprisonment as the limit of punishment can be deduced from (or based on) the Penal Law now in operation, or, rather I should say, the Revised Penal Law. Were I asked to state my opinion on this subject I would go as far as to affirm that the wording and provisions of the Revised Code of Penal Law favour the substitution of the 30 years' imprisonment for capital punishment. I refer to the provision of the Law respecting time efficacy. It is recorded in the Statute book that at the expiration of 30 years a criminal condemned to death shall be considered to have completed the term required for the expiation of his crime. Supposing a man who has committed murder and rendered himself liable to be condemned to death escapes and succeeds in avoiding re-arrest for 30 years, the State acts on a principle of (apparent) forgetfulness and takes no further steps to inquire into his crime. If the crime of the murderer who has escaped and concealed himself during 30 years is passed over by the State on the ground of legal forgetfulness, cannot the State afford to apply the same principle to the man who has been cut off from his fellow-men, whose only world is a narrow cell, who pines in shackles year after year, and who is as far removed from the outside world as though he had been concealing himself in some obscure corner of the earth for 30 years? Surely at the end of this period the State can forget the crime of such a murderer. That it should do so ought to be still plainer to us if we allow our feelings to influence us \* in this matter; for surely when we consider the two cases, that of the man who has escaped and that of the man who has been shut up in prison, we must see that the latter, by the degree to which he has suffered and the way in which the State's authority to punish crime has been fully vindicated in

tashika ni san-jū-nen no yūki-kei voo toru to iu kotogara va rigi ni kanau no de aru. Watakŭshi wa kore voo motte kayubeki ryōkei to shnzuru no de aru.

Shikashi nagara muki-kei nado to iu kei ga sono aida ni wadakamatte iru kara, kore wo motte kaen to shuchō suru mono de nai. Muki-kei wa shikei yori mo akkei nari to shuchō suru mono de arimasu kara, san-jū-nen no yūki-kei wo motte shike ni kaen koto wo shōdō suru mono de arimasu.

Shikei haishi no rigai tokushitsu wa sude ni kenkyū shitsukusarete, amasu tokoro wa arimasen. Shikashi nagara watakushi wa konnichi made shikei sonchi no tekitō naru riyū to iu mono wo haichō itashita koto ga gozaimasen. Gwaikoku no hōsei wo mimashite mo, konnichi shikei to iu mono no sonzai serarete iru kuni wa, makoto ni wazuka na mono de gozarimasu. Hotondo sekai no zentai ni watatte, shikei to iu mono wa haishi ni kishite iru to iu kologara ga tadachi ni dangen ga dekiru no de aru.

Ōi naru kuni de, tatoeba Eikoku no gotoki, sonchi wa shite aru ga, chikaki ni-jū-nen rai jijitsu-jō kore wo kekkō shinai no de aru. Berugii mata shikari de, Furansu wa saku-nen naikaku kakugi de kore wo haisuru koto ni kettei shi, tabun honnen no gikwai ni wa hōan ga deru darō to kiite iru. Amasu tokoro wa Doitsu de aru ga, Doitsu ni oite wa, shikei haishi-an wa nari-tatanakatta keredomo, sono gikwai no keikwa wo mimasureba, ika ni Doitsu zentai no keisei kakushin no kiun ga shikei haishi wo kibō shite iru ka to iu koto no ippan wo shiru ni taru no de gozaimasu. Go shōchi no gotoku,

his case, is in justice far more entitled to be let off at the end of 30 years than the man who has remained free during this period. It is on the above grounds that I am in favour of substituting this form of punishment for execution.

But the question of life imprisonment is mixed up with the discussion of substitutionary punishment for the death penalty; so I had better say at once that I do not advocate any such measure. To me it seems that life imprisonment is even worse than capital punishment; hence I maintain that imprisonment for 30 years is the best substitute for capital punishment.

I think I have gone most exhaustively into everything that has been said for and against the abolition of capital punishment, into every advantage and disadvantage that might attend its discontinuance. I have yet to hear a single adequate reason for retaining it. We find on examining foreign systems of law that the countries where it exists are extremely few. So that it is true to affirm that in almost every country of the world the conclusion to which men have come amounts to abolition.

In big countries like England, for instance, though capital punishment exists, during the past twenty years, as a matter of fact, it has not been carried out. This is the case with Belgium also. In France it was decided at a Cabinet Council held last year that it should be abolished and it is said that it is probable that a bill for its abolition will be submitted to the Chamber of Deputies this year. One country that I have not mentioned is Germany. Well, it is true that the Bill for abolition did not finally pass the Reichstag; but what happened when this Bill was under discussion in the German Diet abundantly showed how fervent was the desire for its abolition as a part of the revision of the whole of Germany's Penal Code. As is well known to you, when the Penal Code Bill came before the Federal Parliament, notwith-

keihō sōan ga Rempō Gikwai ni fuseraruru ni alatte, tekketsu saishō Bisumaruku no gekirelsu naru ronsō arishi ni kakawarazu, Gikwai wa sono Ni-dokkwai ni oite hachi-jū-ni ni taisuru hvaku-hachi-nī-shichi no dai-tasū wo motte shikei wo haishi shita no de aru. Shikoshite San-dokkwai ni itatte, "Moshi mo shikei wo Giin ga hitei suru naraba, keihō zembu wo hitei shite mo yoi..... Aruiwa Gikwai ni taisuru Seifu no kōdō wa ippen suru ka mo shiren" to iu kyōhaku-teki no dai-enzetsu wo Bisumaruku ga shita kekkwa, hyaku-jū-ku ni taisuru hyaku-nijū-shichi, sunawachi, wazuka ni hachi-hyō no sa wo motte shikei wa sonchi suru koto ni natta to iu keikwa de aru. Ni-dokkwai ni oite, holondo dai-tasū wo molle haishi shite shikoshite San-dokkwai ni itatte, arayuru shudan seiryaku wo motte shite mo, wazuka ni hachi-hyō no shōsū ni suginakatta. Kore ni vori karöjite keihö-chū ni shikei wo sonchi suru koto ni natta no de aru.

Kayō no shidai yue, iwayuru konnichi no bummei hōkoku no keihō no ue ni oite, shikei wa hōbun no ue ni sonsuru mono hanahada sŭkunaku, tatoi sonsuru mono mo, jijitsu ni kore wo okonau mono naku, tama-tama Doitsu no gotoki kore ari to iedomo, Giin wo tsūkwa shĭta mono sae mo, sono keikwa ima no gotoku awarena mono de aru to iu koto ni kangamita naraba, kono shikei sae kezutta naraba, muki-kei sae kezutta naraba, sekai dai-ichi no keihō hōten taru-beki hon-an ga, kono fŭtatsu wo

standing the violent opposition of the Chancellor, that "man of blood and iron," Count Bismarck, at its Second Reading, the abolition clause of the Bill commanded 187 votes against 82, and so passed by a big majority. When the Bill came to its Third Reading Count Bismarck in the course of a long opposition speech gave utterance to the following threat:-"If the House refuses to retain capital punishment, it may as well reject the whole of the Revised Penal Code. And in that case it is not unlikely that the attitude of the Government to the House would undergo a radical change" (the House would be dissolved). Yet the after history of the Bill was this, that, despite the Chancellor's long oration, with its threat, the original Bill in which capital punishment was retained only passed the Third Reading by a majority of 8 votes, the ayes numbering 127, and the noes 119. Thus we see that at the Second Reading of the Bill capital punishment was abolished by almost an overwhelming majority and at the Third Reading, as the result of the employment of every conceivable device, the Government only succeeded in defeating the measure by a majority of 8 votes. Thus did capital punishment barely manage to retain its position as part of Germany's Penal Code.

This shows the state of feeling on the subject in civilised countries. In very few of the Statute books of these countries is there to be found a law sanctioning capital punishment. But even in countries where the law is still unexpunged, it is a dead letter and never carried into practice. If there are countries where it has been sanctioned by the National Assembly, it has been done in some such pitiable way as was witnessed in Germany. Taking all this into consideration, it seems to me that all that is required to render our Penal Code the first in the world is the abrogation of capital punishment and imprisonment for life. As long as clauses sanctioning these two forms of

nokosu tame ni sekkaku no kabe ni o-kizu wo nuru koto ni nari wa sen ka to uryōru no de aru. Jitsu ni kondo dasareta keihō wa, kore wo genkō-hō ni hishĭte hyaku-dan no masareru tokoro ga aru. Kyū-sōan ni hishĭte go-jū-dan no masareru tokoro ga aru. Kore ni muki-kei shikei wo haishĭta naraba, watakŭshi wa sekai-jū no mohan keihō ni naru to kakushin suru no de aru.

Negawaku wa mandō shokun no dōi wo emashĭte, shikōshĭte toku ni keihō-gaku ni oite tanen no unchiku aru Isobe Kun no dōi wo emashĭte, sĭnawachi, kono shūsei-an wa manjō itchi wo motte tsūkwa suru koto wo nozomimasĭu. Makoto ni keibatsu wa seiri kōdō no yōkyū suru tokoro wo kiso to shi, shakwai no chitsujo wo tamochi, hannin no kwaizen wo hōsu to iu koto igwai ni wa nan-ra no mokuteki wo mo yūsanai kara, dō ka shikei haishi to iu hon-in no shūsei-setsu ni dōi wo hyōsaren koto wo kibō itashimasĭu.

Morita Tokuji Kun.—Gichō! Iken ga arimasŭ. ("Hantai ka?" to yobu mono ari.) Hantai de mo, sansei de mo yoroshii. Iken ga arimasŭ......

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Hantai de mo sansei de mo nai. Nan desŭ ?

Morita Tokuji Kun.—Watakŭshi no iken vvo nobetai no desŭ.

punishment remain, we cannot but deeply regret that a code on which so much labour has been bestowed should be spoiled disfigurements of this kind (lit. should be like a newly finished wall that has been badly disfigured by dirt smeared on it in large patches). The draft of the Penal Code sent to the Diet certainly ranks a hundred grades higher than the Law now in operation, but it is true to say that the revised draft prepared by our Committee is fifty times better than the original draft; and if we can only secure the two erasures I have mentioned (capital punishment and imprisonment for life), it is my confident belief that our Penal Code will be worthy of being considered as a model for the world's imitation.

I earnestly desire that the whole House may signify its approval of this measure, and especially that it will be supported by Mr. Isobe, whose rich stores of learning on the subject of Penal Law are known to us all. I trust that the Amended Bill may pass without one dissentient voice. It is because punishment more than anything else ought to fulfil to the utmost the dictates of righteousness and humanity, because by it the order of society is maintained, because by it the reform of criminals is secured and because apart from it no worthy objects whatever can be realized, that I ask you to express your approval of the recommendation of the Revising Committee respecting the abolition of capital punishment.

Mr. Morita Tokuji.—President! I have an opinion to express. (Somebody calls out: "Are you an opponent?") Never mind whether I am an opponent or a supporter. I have an opinion to express.

The President (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). If you are neither for nor against the measure proposed, what is it you want to say? Mr. Morita Tokuji.—I want to express my opinion.

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Sore wa tsūkoku ga arimasŭ.—Isobe Shirō Kun!

Isobe Shirō Kun tōdan.

Isobe Shirō Kun. Watakŭshi wa shikei haishi m tsŭkimashĭte wa mattaku Hanai Kun ni hantai de gozaimasŭ.
Sono hantai ni tsŭkimashĭte Hanai Kun yori arakajime,
hantaisha wa kō iu giron wo toru de arō, ā iu giron wo nasu de
arō to, kochira no iu-beki tokoro wo sōzō sarete, yogen saremashĭta ga, watakŭshi wa sō iu ron wa itasan no de
arimasŭ. (Shōsei okoru.)

Watakushi wa Hanai Kun no go giron to shite, shikei wa ittai koku na kei de aru to iware, gwanrai keihō wa kokka wo daihyō shite iku-beki tokoro no taisetsu na mono de, nani ka shikiri ni shukyo ni mo makete wa ikan, dotoku ni mo makete wa ikan to iu rompō de shikei haishi wo go ronji ni narimashita ga, watakushi no kangae de wa sude ni keihō zempan ga yondokoro naku sonzai suru no de, moshi yūki wo dashite iu naraba, keihō naku shite osamareba, kono kurai kekkō na koto wa naku, jitsu ni ware-ware no mottomo kibō suru tokoro de aru. Hanai Kun no shuchō saruru Yōroppa shokoku de mo, kuni ni keihō aru wa kuni no yowami de happyō shite iru ni chigai nai. Kuni ni keihō naku shite konnichi shakwai no chitsujo wo tamotte ikeru naraba, konna mendō-kusai mono wo koshirae, kangokuhi to shite kuni ga nen-nen roppyaku-man-en zutsu mo tsuiyashi, takusan no saibankwan wo oku koto mo iranakereba, muyō no bengoshi mo takusan hitsuyō ga nai no de aru. (Shōsei okoru.9) Keredomo, doshite mo kono keiho wo motte isshu no reigwai-butsu wo kosoku shite iku hoho wo sonaenakereba, shakwai no chitsujo wo tamoten no de aru. Yue ni

<sup>9.</sup> The point of the joke is that both Mr. Isobe and Mr. Hanai are themselves barristers.

The President. (This would not be in order.) Notice has been given of a speech to be delivered. Mr. Isobe Shirō!

Mr. Isobe ascends the rostrum.

Mr. Isobe Shirō. On the question of abolishing capital punishment I quite disagree with Mr. Hanai. Respecting my opposition to his views Mr. Hanai has tried to anticipate my arguments. He has allowed his imagination to carry him away and has confidently predicted that opposition speakers will say this and say that, but he has not managed to hit off what I purpose saying. (Laughter.)

As I understand Mr. Hanai's argument, he contends that capital punishment is cruel, and that while in its very nature a Penal Code occupies an important place as representing State authority, it is outdone by religion and outdone by morality. This he regrets, and so, to right matters, he would abolish capital punishment. Now, according to my ideas, the existence of Penal Law at all is an absolute necessity. If I were to speak out my mind unreservedly, I should say that nothing could be better than our getting on without any Penal Law at all. This is something that I should immensely like to see effected. The existence of Penal Law even in the European countries of which Mr. Hanai has spoken so approvingly is an unmistakable display of weakness. If countries could maintain order and get along without it, they would never draw up such a troublesome thing as a Penal Code. With no penal law to administer, we should be able to save about six million yen a year—the money now spent on prisons—we should not need to employ judges, and the many useless barristers who now exist could well be dispensed with. (Laughter.) But the fact is that without providing means for restraining a class of persons who are unlike their fellow-men (given to violence) such as is furnished by Penal Law, public order could not be

hitori shikei nomi narazu, keihō zentai ga sude ni yondokoro nai hōritsu de, makoto ni kitanai mono de aru to iu koto wo watakushi wa yotei itashimasu.

Sōshǐte kono shikei wa ittai kore wo sonsuru riyū ga nai to kō mōsaremasŭ ga, watakŭshi wa keihō no gensoku to shǐte shikei hodo ri ni kanatte iru mono wa nai to iu ron de aru. (Shōsei okoru.) Sūkoshi mo okashīku nai shidai wo setsumei itashimasŭ. (Shōsei okoru.)

Sunawachi Hanai Kun no iu gotoku, gwanrai keihō wa fükushū ni okotte iru mono de. Kore wa rikutsu de wa nai, jintsu de aru. Izure no kuni de mo watakushi no fukushu ga ōyake no tukushu ni henjita no wa keihoka wo matte ronzuru made mo nai tokoro de. Kore ga fŭkushū no okonaenai mono ga aru. Yoku giron no deru koto de aru ga, sunawachi, dokushin no hito ga tanin no tsuma to kan-in shita toki ni wa, kore wa jissai ni tukushu wa okonawarenai. (Shōsei okoru.) Mata bimbonin ga dorobo shita toki ni sono kin-in wo hisho shita baai wa, iku-bai no bakkin wo motomete mo, jissai kore wo chōshū suru koto ga dekinai. Sunawachi fükushū shugi hodo rippa na kei wa arimasen ga, aite ni yotte fükushū wo shi-togeru koto ga dekinai kara, sore de shuju zatta no kei to iu mono wo mokete, kore ni shakwai ga kawatte fükushū shi-kitatte, sore de, higaisha no ikari wo dan-dan nadamete itta to iu koto ga jijitsu de aru kara, kore ga rikutsu ni ataru ka ataran ka to iu koto wa shuju zatta

maintained. Therefore not only capital punishment but the whole of Penal Law has become an absolute necessity, disfiguring to society as the whole thing is. That much I am prepared to grant.

But we are told that as far as capital punishment is concerned, the truth is there is no reason for retaining it. It seems to me, however, that as a principle of penal law there is nothing in closer accordance with reason than capital punishment. (Laughter.) There is nothing to laugh at in that, as I will show you presently. (More laughter.)

It is as Mr. Hanai has said, penal law at the outset had its source in the idea of revenge (righting wrongs). This is not an argument merely, but a fact. It is not necessary to consult an expert in criminal law in order to get to know that penal law originated in the substitution of public vengeance for private vengeance. But there are cases where vengeance can't be carried out. These cases have given rise to a good deal of discussion. Take, for instance, the case of a bachelor who has committed adultery with another man's wife, here vengeance, in the strict sense of the word, is impracticable. (Laughter.) When a poor man steals money and spends what he has stolen, you may impose as many fines on him as you please, but you can't get blood out of a stone. Paying people back in their own coin, punishing them in the precise way they have punished others—this no doubt is ideal punishment, but in many cases this form of punishment can't be carried out; and this has given rise to the inventing of all manner of substitutes, and by the application of these the State, acting as proxy for private individuals, has managed to appease by degrees the wrath of aggrieved persons. These are the facts. As to whether the punishments specified are reasonable or unreasonable—this has furnished abundant

na gakusha ga dete, shuju na rikutsu wo tsukemasu keredomo. konnichi de mo hito wo koroshita mono ga yo no naka wo heiki de ōrai shile, kore wo shakwai ga shibari mo nani mo sezu ni oita naraba, kanarazu higaisha no chii ni aru tokoro no mono wa watakushi ni fukushu wo okonau de aro to omou no de aru. Sore de Nihon no Yamato-damashii ga sukunaku natta no de mo, nan de mo, arimasen ga, sunawachi keihō no shobun to iu mono ga iki-todoite ichi-kagaisha ga areba shitagatte kei wo kwaseraruru to iu koto ni naru kara, fukushu to iu mono ga okonawaremasen keredomo, keihō no tekiyō mattaki wo ezu shite. saiwai ni kei wo manukareru mono ga yo no naka ni takusan habikotte oreba, itsu de mo fukushū to iu mono ga kao wo dashite kuru no de arimasu. De arimasu kara, Hanai Kun mo mosareru tori, fukushu wa shigoku warui mono de aru, Warui mono de aru kara, kojin no fŭkushū ni kawatte shakwai ga fŭkushū suru no de aru kara, sore de, kojin no kitanai fükushū wa satte, kokka no heian wo iji shite iku no de aru kara, sore ga sunawachi watakushi wa keiho no genri daro to omou. Shuju na koto wo itte, shakwai no hitsuyō to ka, yare meirei to ka, gakusha ga yatsu mo kokonotsu mo itte iru ga, hitotsu mo kampuku suru mono wa nai, Watakushi no kampuku suru keibatsu-ken no kiso wa fukushu yori hoka ni nai. Tokoro ga fŭkushū no jijitsu-jo okonawaren mono ga aru kara, shikata ga nai. Shikoshite hito wo koroshita mono ga shi ni ataru to iu koto wa sukoshi mo okashikunai koto de aru.

material for academic discussion among scholars of all sorts; but the common-sense view to take, it seems to me, is this, that if murderers were allowed by society to go about the world in an ordinary way like other people, if no attempt were made to arrest them, the persons who had suffered at their hands would certainly take the law into their own hands and execute vengeance on the offenders. It is not because the old national spirit is dying out, or growing less that there are nowadays no cases of the execution of vengeance by private individuals, but because the administration of penal law has become so effective as to be able to mete out punishment to every offender. Were the application of the law less perfect than it is and were the criminals who escaped its meshes to become plentiful, cases of private vengeance would constantly be popping up among us. This is why the State has to execute vengeance. As Mr. Hanai says, vengeance is undoubtedly a very bad thing, that is, is liable to lead to great abuses. Because of this it is the State does not allow private persons to carry it out. It takes it in hand itself. And as a result of this we get rid of all the ugly features of private vengeance and are able to pass our lives in peace under State protection. This principle of the State's redressing private wrongs constitutes, it appears to me, the basis of penal law. Attempts have been made by scholars to find other sanctions for penal authority. They say it is a necessity of society or that it is one of its decrees, and what not, but none of these arguments commend themselves to me (impress me). I see no other satisfactory basis for the authority which the Law wields but vengeance. The fact that this cannot always be carried out is something we cannot help. But whenever it is possible to carry it out, it should be done, and so to sentence a murderer to death is a natural course to take.

Sore kara, mō hitotsu wa, shikei ni tsuite wa kutsū wo kanjinai. Kore wa Hanai Kun ga go keiken ga gozaimasŭ ka shirimasen, keredomo shikei ni shoserarete minakute wa shinu made dō iu kutsū wo kanzuru ka, kono koto ni tsuite wa Hanai Kun to iedomo, go keiken wa arumai to kangaeru. Uketamawaru tokoro ni yoreba, dono kurai hinku no uchi ni kurashite mo, dono kurai omo-ni wo showasarete mo, ichi-mei wo tasŭkaritai. Kono ichi-mei wo toraruru to iu koto wa kono ue mo naki kurushii mono de aru to iu kotogara wa, omoi byōnin ni uketamawatte orimasŭ. Dōmo kore wa hontō de arō to kangaeru.

Sore kara mō hitotsu wa keihō wa sunawachi chōkai shugi de aru. Kō iu go giron de aru. Shikaru ni shikei ni mukatte zva chōkai no michi ga nai. Ika ni mo go mottomo shigoku de gozaimasŭ. Koroshite shimatta ijo wa, shakwai ni yo no nai ningen de gozaimasŭ kara, aete chōkai no hitsuyō mo nakereba, mata shikei ni shosuru hito wo chōkai shita tokoro ga, eki mo gozaimasŭmai. Sari nagara hatashile keihō no shui wa chōkai bakari de gozaimashō ka? Chōkai shugi to iu koto ni narimasu naraba, osoraku wa kokujihan to ka, aruiwa subete kō iu seiji-teki no zainin ni tsuite wa, hotondo chōkai shugi to iu mono wa okonawarete inai. Mata, osorakuwa konnichi shakwai ni hankō suru hito ga atte, rō ni torawarete otta tokoro ga, asu kara bōzu no sekkyō wo kiite, irai wa vasashii hito ni nalte, shakwai ni hanko suru koto wa yamemasho to iu yō na koto ga jissai areba kei wa gensoku ni oite chōkai de aru to ka, kanzen de aru to ka iu koto ga arimasŭ keredomo, kekkwa ni oite sono kō wo sōsuru koto wa dekinai Mr. Hanai says that persons condemned to death do not suffer as much as they ought. Has Mr. Hanai any experience to go on in this matter, I wonder? Without being condemned to death and seeing how it feels, one is not in a position to judge how much mental suffering there may be. It seems to me that Mr. Hanai himself (much as he knows) has nothing to guide him here. According to what I have been told, there is nothing that causes people more mental distress than the feeling that they must die. In the midst of the most abject poverty or when bowed down by other heavy burdens, the desire to remain alive is sufficient to sustain the mind, but according to the accounts of persons suffering from fatal diseases, there is no form of suffering more painful than the knowledge that death is near. This, I think, is certainly true.

Then another contention of Mr. Hanai's was that penal law is essentially disciplinary in principle—the object of punishment is the reform of criminals, and he said that in the case of persons condemned to death there is no way of realizing this object. This is undoubtedly true. Those who are condemned to death are persons for whom society has no further use. With them disciplinary punishment is uncalled for; even were they subjected to it, it is unlikely that any good would result. But is punishment merely disciplinary in aim? Penal Law to-day is certainly not administered on this principle, as may be seen by the way it deals with persons guilty of treason or other grave political offences. Were it a fact that persons who have committed offences against society and have been imprisoned on this account have been so changed by listening to Buddhist preaching as to become inoffensive members of society and have consequently ceased to act violently, then it might be affirmed that disciplinary chastisement with a view to reform is the underlying principle of punishment. But we

kara, kono setsu wa shakwai mizukara ga sono jakuten wo jishu shite iru mono to iwanakereba narimasen. Naze nareba, tanki jiyū-kei no gotoki wa, rō ni ireru to warui koto wo osowatte kuru kara, shikkō yūyo wo shita hō ga yokarō to iu koto de, hotondo chōkai-shugi no hantai wo hyō shite iru mono de aru. Gakuri to shite wa nobu-beki de arimasu keredomo, kesshite keihō wa chōkai no is-shudan wo motte mokuteki to shite wa orimasen.

Mō hitotsu go giron to shite demashita no wa gohan ga aru to iu koto ga saishū no ten de, gohan ga atte ayamari ga atta hi ni wa mōshiwake ga nai shidai de aru. Hanai Kun ni watakushi wa uketamawaritai. Moshi ta no kei ni shoserareta ningen ga, tennen no ju wo motte shinda nochi ni, nao sono ningen ga zainin de nakatta to iu koto ga wakaru to, kinodokuna wake de, kei ni shoserareta baai ni oite kono gohan ni tsuite shakwai wa ika naru mōshiwake wo suru koto ga dekimashō ?

Hanai Kun wa san-jū-nen kan ni kakaru gohan ga kanarazu arawaruru mono to dantei serareta wake de arimashō ka ? Watakŭshi no kangae ni itashimasureba, tatoi shikei no kei de shinde mo, muki no kei de shinde mo, itsu-ka de mo, tō-ka de mo, konnichi shakwai ga muzai no ningen wo basshĭta to iu naraba, kore wa shasanakereba naran. Shasuru no michi wa sono ningen no ikite iru toki wa shasuru koto ga dekimashō. Shĭkashi kono ningen wa tenju de aru kara shirenai. Tenju wo motte oeta mono to shĭta tokoro ga, sono gohan de atta to iu koto wa shigo ni shasuru no michi nashi to iu koto wa, kei no shikei taru to ina to wo tou no hitsuyō wa nai.

Moshi mata kei wo ayamatte wa ikan to iu okubyō-kaze ni sasowarete, keihō wo tekiyō suru koto ga dekinai to iu oboshi-

see no such results, hence it is true to say that society has found out for itself that no trust can be placed in this argument. For it not infrequently occurs that men grow worse instead of better in prison, from association with persons more wicked than themselves. In such cases the opinion that the law acts as a corrective is shown by facts to be untenable. In theory it would seem as if punishments ought to be delayed, but since disciplinary chastisement is not the sole object of penal law, the carrying out of this theory is undesirable.

The last point to which Mr. Hanai drew attention was the existence of misjudgments. With capital punishment, he said, there is no means of redress in these cases. Now the question I desire to put to Mr. Hanai is this: Is there any means of redress in other cases of undeserved punishment? Supposing that after undergoing punishment and dying a natural death, it is discovered that the victim of the law was wrongly accused and wrongly punished, can anything be done to right matters?

Can Mr. Hanai guarantee to us that the miscarriage of justice is sure to come to light in the course of 30 years! He cannot do so. As I regard the matter, society is always under an obligation to make amends to persons who have been unjustly punished. The death of these persons interferes with that being done. Whether men die on the scaffold, or whether they die while undergoing life imprisonment, whether they die after five days of punishment or after ten, the obligation of society to redress the wrong that has been done to them is the same. When death will come to such persons nobody can tell, and once dead, no amends can be made to them. This applies to all forms of punishment, and not to the death penalty only.

If Mr. Hanai and his fellow-thinkers in a fit of timidity, fear to put the penal law into operation lest mistakes should

meshi ga atta naraba, hanzai-nin wo jūō mujin ni doko de mo arukashīte, keihō wo yamenakereba naranai. "Kore mo gohan de arumai ka? Kennon na hanashi de aru kara, kei wo tekiyō suru koto wa yoshīte, kare no suru koto wo minakereba naran," to iu no de, keihō zempai-ron wo mochi-dasu ga sōtō de, hītori sono ichi-bubun no shikei-haishi wo mochi-dasu to iu koto wa, hanahada sono tō wo ayamatte iru to kangaemasu.

Sore kara ima hitotsu wa, Ei-koku aruiwa Furansu, moshiku wa Berugii ni oite wa, shikei wo shikko sezu ni, tada ikaku-teki ni sonzai shite oku to iwareru no wa, go mottomo de arimasu keredomo, watakushi no uketamawatte iru tokoro de wa, sō iu koto wa nai. Shikei wa moto yori tekiyō suru. Sari-nagara tekiyō su-beki zainin ga dete konai no de aru. Nihon ni okimashite mo, kono shikei wo sonchi seshimete oite, shikei ni shosu-beki zainin ga denakereba, makoto ni kekkō na koto de wa arimasen ka? Shikei ga sonsuru kara tote, muri ni hito no kubi wo kiranakereba naran to iu yō na gakusha mo nakereba, saiban-kwan mo nai no de aru kara, sunawachi, go-jū-nen mo, shichi-jū-nen mo, shikei wo sonzai shite oite, jissai tekiyō suru hitsuyō ni sōgū shinai no wa, watakushi no mottomo kibō suru tokoro de aru.

Keredomo ikan sen! ichi-ryō-nen irai, shikei wo futatsu mo mitsu mo karada ga aru naraba okonatte yaritai to iu yō na zainin ga, fukō ni shite, dete kimasu kara, kono aida ni tōtei shikei wo haisuru to iu koto ni itarimasen nomi narazu, itsu made mo be made, then we had better get rid of the Law altogether and let criminals go about by the hundred wherever they please. It is like saying:—"The application of criminal law is attended with so much risk of repeated misjudgments that it would be better to cease to use it and wait and see how criminals would act." It seems to me that people who hold Mr. Hanai's views should argue in favour of the total abolition of criminal law. Their contending for the discontinuance of capital punishment only is a wrong course for them to pursue.

Let me refer to one point more dwelt on by Mr. Hanai. He said that in England, France, and Belgium capital punishment was not carried out and is only kept in the statute books as a scare to prevent people from committing murder. This sounds plausible, but, according to information that has reached me, it does not represent the true state of affairs. The capital punishment law in these countries exists for use, but of late there have been no criminals of the kind that call for its application. In Japan, too, it would be a happy state of things if the existing law were never put into operation from lack of the right kind of criminals. It does not follow because the law exists that either legal experts or judges will advocate wholesale execution. There is nothing that I should like better than to see the law existing for 60 or 70 years even without there occuring a single occasion for putting it into practice.

But alas! we are far from this state of things, for during the last two or three years, unfortunately criminals have appeared whose wickedness has made one wish that they possessed two or three bodies, so that they might be executed several times over. This then is not the time to be talking about the abolition of capital punishment. I am for retaining it for an indefinite length of time for use in case of necessity. This will not prevent us from trying

sonshite oite, shakwai ga ta no hōhō ni yotte dan-dan kairyo serarete, shikei wo tekiyō suru no hitsuyō no nakunaru hō ni jūbun kokoro wo katamukerarete, sō shite, shikei ga atte mo naki ga gotoku, kono yo no naka ga osamatte ikeba kono kurai kekkō na koto wa arimasen ga, koko ichi-ryō-nen no shakwai no arisama wo miru to, shikei ni shosu-beki zainin no zoku-zoku dete kuru no wo makoto ni ikan ni omou no de aru kara, kono hen no tokoro de, taitei shokun ni oite mo, shikei no sonchi ni sansei atte yoroshikarō.

Watakŭshi wa shikei no kotogara ni tsuite, shōsō-ron wa tonaemasen. Gwanrai rikutsu ni oite yoi to kimatta mono wa konnichi mo yokereba, myōnichi mo yoi, myōnen mo yoi. Yoi to kimatta mono wa hyaku-nen mo, ni-hyaku-nen mo sonchi seshimete yoi to omou. Shikei no gotoki wa, keihō no sonzai suru kagiri, is-shakwai ni oite sono sonchi wo yōsuru itsu no gokkei de aru to shinjimasu kara, kore ni tsuite shōsō-ron wa kesshite tonaemasen.

Mata gohan ni tsuite no go giron mo gozaimasu. Kore wa go mottomo shigoku de arimasu ga, sono kawari Nihon ni okimashite wa, sakihodo go in-yō ni narimashita tōkei-hyō de arimasu. Sunawachi, kore wa Nihon ni oite gohan wo shōzeshimenai shōko de arimasu. Dai is-shin ni oite machigatta koto wo yareba, dai ni-shin ga ari; dai ni-shin ga machigatta koto wo sureba, Dai-Shin-In ni oite sono tekiyō yoroshiki wo eseshimeru to iu no de, jitsu ni shikei ni tsuite wa tekiyō-jō chūi wo kuwaete aru kara kono ten ni tsuite wa hotondo go anshin de arō. Shikashi man-ichi attara, dō suru ? Man ga

all sorts of ways for so improving society that the necessity for resort to this form of punishment will cease to exist. When the country can be governed without capital punishment, its existence in the statute book will no longer be of any consequence, as it will not be put into practice. Nothing more gratifying than this could take place. But I grieve to say that during the last year or two cases calling for the death penalty have been most frequent. In consideration of this you, gentlemen! will not be far wrong in signifying your desire to retain this form of punishment.

I do not care to argue in favour of the retention of capital punishment on the ground that it would be premature to abolish it now. With me it is not a question of abolishing at one time or another time. I hold that it should not be abolished at all. That which can be logically shown to be right will be as right to-morrow or next year as it is to-day—will be as right 100 or 200 years hence as it is now. Capital punishment is a thing of this sort. It is my belief that as long as criminal law exists capital punishment will need to be retained by society as an extreme penalty, and hence the argument against abolition based on prematurity is not one that I can use.

Mr. Hanai said much about misjudgments that was perfectly correct, but there is another way of looking at this subject. The statistics to which Mr. Hanai referred tend to show that as far as Japan is concerned no very bad results can come from misjudgments, as they are subsequently reversed. If the first court makes a mistake, there exists a second court to appeal to, and if this court too should err, means are provided in the Court of Cassation for applying the law in a suitable manner; so that, as far as capital punishment is concerned, there really need not be much anxiety, so great is the care exercised in administering the law. If I am asked to say

ichi ni aru gohan wo motte keihō zentai wo haisuru wake ni ikan ijō ni wa, shikei wo sonzai shite okanakereba naran to zonjimasu kara, sumiyaka ni dō ka shikei sonchi no koto ni manjo no go sandō aran koto wo nozomimasu. (Hakushu okoru.)

Ogawa Gen-ichi Kun. Gichō! Gichō!

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Nan desŭ ?

Ogawa Gen-ichi Kun. Enzetsu desu.

("Toron shūketsu!" to yobu mono ari. Sansei! "Sansei!" no koe okoru.)

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun Tōron shūketsu no dōgi ni teiki no sansei ga arimasŭ ka?

(" Sansei! Sansei!" no koe okoru.)

(Ogawa Gen-ichi Kun). "Konna dai-mondai wo sonna ni hayaku katazukeru to iu hō wa nai" to yobu.)

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Tōron shūketsu ni teiki no sansei ga aru to mi-tomemasŭ. Tōron shūketsu ni go dōi no shokun no kiritsu wo negaimasŭ.

(Kiritsu-sha tasū.)

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Dai-tasū de arimasū. Tōron wa shūketsu shimashĭta.—Saiketsu wo itashimasū. Sūnawachi Hanai Kun no shūsei wa, dai ku-jō no "shikei" no ni-ji wo kezuru, kō iu shūsei de arimasū. Sūnawachi, shikei wo haisuru to iu no de arimasū. Kono Hanai Kun no shūsei ni go dōi no shokun no kiritsu wo negaimasū.

(Kiritsu-sha shōsū.)

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Shōsū de arimasŭ. Hiketsu saremashĭta. Gen-an ni go igi wa arimasen ka ?

("Igi nashi" to yobu mono ari.)

Gichō (Sugita Tei-ichi Kun). Gen-an ni go igi wa nai to mi-tomemasŭ. Gen-an no tōri ni kaketsu ni narimashita.

what is to be done if by any chance a mistake should be made, my reply is that unless we are in favour of abolishing the whole Penal Code for fear of mistakes being made in its application, we had better risk the mistakes and keep capital punishment. Because this is my opinion I ask the whole House to signify its approval of the retention of capital punishment. (Applause.)

Mr. Ogawa Gen-ichi. President! President!

The President (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). What is it?

Mr. Ogawa Gen-ichi. I want to make a speech. (Some-body called out "The Closure!" Others, "I second! I second!")

The President (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). Are there the requisite number of supporters for a motion to apply the closure? (Cries of "I'll support it! I'll support it!")

Mr. Ogawa Gen-ichi. Surely there is no adequate reason for settling an important question like this in such a hurry.

The President (Mr. Sugita Tci-ichi). There seems to be a sufficient number of supporters for moving the application of the closure. Those who are in favour of the closure will please stand up. (A majority of members stood up.)

The President (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). There is a big majority. The debate is closed. I will now proceed to take the decision of the House on Mr. Hanai's Amendment in favour of omitting from the Penal Code the two words "capital punishment." This amendment has for its object the abolition of capital punishment. Those in favour of it will please stand up. (Those who stood up were in the minority.)

The President (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). You are in the minority. The Amendment Bill is lost. Has any one any objection to offer to the passing of the original bill? ("No objection!" called out.)

The President (Mr. Sugita Tei-ichi). I conclude that you have no objection to the original Bill. It has therefore passed the House. (The House has decided in favour of that Bill.)

# ¶ 458.

# BOTAN-DŌRŌ.1

### DAI IK-KWAI.

Kwampō<sup>2</sup> san-nen no shi-gwatsu jū-ichi-nichi, mada Tōkyō wo Edo to mōshimashĭta koro, Yushima Tenjin<sup>2</sup> no yashiro de Shōtoku Taishi<sup>4</sup> no go sairei wo okonaimashĭte, sono toki taisō sankei no hĭto ga dete, gunjū itashimashĭta.

Koko ni, Hongō San-chō-me ni Fujimura-ya Shimbeis to iu katana-ya ga gozaimashite, sono mise-saki ni wa yoi shiromono ga narabete aru tokoro wo,—tōri-kakarimashita hitori no o samurai wa, toshi no koro ni-jū-ichi-ni gurai de, iro no shiroi, me-moto no kiriritto shita, sūkoshi kanshaku-mochi to miete, bin no ke wo gutto agete yuwase, rippa na o haori ni kekkō na o hakama wo tsūke, setta wo haite, saki ni tachi; ushiro, kara asagi no happi ni bonten-obi wo shimete, shinchū-zukuri no bokūtō wo sashīteru chūgen ga tsūki-sotte, kono Fuji-Shin no mise-saki ye tachi-yorimashīte, koshi wo kake, narabete aru katana wo hīto-tōri nagamete,—

Notes.—I. This extract consists of the first two chapters of a story called " $Botan-D\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ ," slightly edited in order to make them more genuinely Colloquial, and to remove a few unpleasant expressions. The title alludes to an incident in a later portion of the story, which it would take too long to relate here. Placed after the up-to-date pieces just studied, this one may serve to introduce the student to the world of "Old Japan," a world which lives on in the affections of the people, and offers an inexhaustible storehouse to the dramatist, the novelist, and the professional story-teller. Enchō, author of the " $Botan-D\bar{o}r\bar{o}$ ," was the king of such story-tellers. He died in 1900.

## THE PEONY LANTERN.

### CHAPTER I.

On the 4th May, 1743, in the days when Tōkyō was still called Yedo, the festival of Prince Shōtoku was celebrated at the Shintō temple of Tenjin in Yushima, and the worshippers assembled in great crowds on the occasion.

Now in Third Street, Hongō, there was a sword-shop known as Fujimura-ya Shimbei, the fine articles exposed for sale in which were seen by a samurai who happened to pass by. He appeared to be about one or two-and-twenty years of age, had a fair complexion, a vivacious expression in his eyes, and a cue tightly bound up,—indicative of slight quickness of temper. He wore a splendid coat, a beautiful pair of trowsers, and sandals soled with leather. Behind him, as he strode along in front, there followed a servant in a blue coat and striped sash, with a wooden sword having brass fastenings. The samurai looked in at the shop, sat down, and, glancing round at all the swords that lay there, said:

<sup>2.</sup> Kwampō is the nengō, or "year-name," which lasted from A.D. 1741 to 1744; conf. p. 116.

<sup>3.</sup> Tenjin is the posthumous name, under which the famous and unfortunate court noble, Sugawara Michizane (died A.D. 903), is worshipped as the god or patron saint of letters.

<sup>4.</sup> Shōtoku Taishi, the great imperial patron of Buddhism in Japan, lived from A.D. 572 to 621.

<sup>5.</sup> Strictly speaking, Fujimura-ya is the name of the shop, and Shimbei the personal ("Christian") name of the shopkeeper. But Japanese idiom does not clearly distinguish between a shop and its owner. Conf. ¶ 55, p. 40.

Samurai: "Teishu ya! Soko no kuro-ito da ka, kon-ito da ka shiren ga,—ano kuroi iro no tsuka ni namban-tetsu no tsuba no tsuita katana wa, makoto ni yosasō na shina da ga, chotto o mise."

Teishu: "Hei, hei!—Korya! O cha wo sashi-age-na! Kyō wa, Tenjin no go sairei de, taisō hito ga demashita kara, sadameshi ōrai wa hokori de, sazo o komari asobashimashitarō" to,—katana no chiri wo harai-nagara, "He! goran asobashimase" to sashi-dasu no wo,—samurai wa te ni totte, mimashite,—

Samurai: "Tonda yosasō na mono. Sessha no kantei suru tokoro de wa, Bizen-mono<sup>6</sup> no yō ni omowareru ga, —dō da, na?"

Teishu: "Hei! Yoi o mekiki de irasshaimasuru. Osore-irimashĭta. Ōse no tōri, watakŭshi-domo nakama no mono mo, Tenshō Sŭkesada' de arō to no hyōban de gozaimasu ga,—oshii koto ni wa, nanibun mumei de, zannen de gozaimasŭ."

Samurai: "Go teishu ya! Kore wa dono kurai suru, na?"

Teishu: "Hei! Arigatō gozaimasŭ. O kake-ne wa mōshi-agemasen ga,—tadaima mo mōshi-agemashĭta tōri, mei sae gozaimasureba, tabun no ne-uchi mo gozaimasu ga,—mumei no tokoro de, kin jū-mai de gozaimasŭ."

<sup>6.</sup> Bizen is the name of a province in Central Japan, famous for its swords.

"Mine host! That sword over there with the iron guard to the dark-coloured hilt,—I don't know whether the braid is black or dark blue,—looks like a good one. Just let me have a look at it."

"All right, Sir," said the shopkeeper. (Then aside to the shop-boy:) "Here! you offer the gentleman some tea!" (Then again to the samurai:) "To-day, owing to the crowds gone out to see the festival, the roads are sure to have been dusty, which must have been a great nuisance to Your Honour." Then, dusting the sword, he said: "Here! pray look at it, Sir!" With these words, he handed it to the samurai, who, taking it up and inspecting it, said:

"It's an awfully good one. So far as I can judge, I should incline to consider it a Bizen."

"Ah!" replied the shopkeeper. "Your Honour is a real connoisseur. I am overpowered with admiration. It is just as you say. The other dealers in the trade believe it to be the handiwork of Sŭkesada in the sixteenth century. But unfortunately it bears no maker's name, which is a great pity."

"Mine host! What is the price of it, eh?"

"You are very kind, Sir. I ask no fancy prices; and, as I have just had the honour to tell you, the sword would be an extremely valuable one, if only it had the maker's name engraved on it. But as it is anonymous, the price is ten dollars."

<sup>7.</sup>  $S\~ukesada$  was a famous swordsmith of the Tenshō period, A.D. 1573–1592.

Samurai : "Nani P Jū-ryō to ka P Chitto takai yō da ga, shǐchi-mai han ni wa makaran ka, ē P

Teishu: "Dō itashimashĭte! Nanibun, sore de wa son ga mairimashĭte, hei! Naka-naka mochimashĭte, hei!" to,—shĭkiri ni samurai to teishu to katana no nedan no kake-hiki wo itashĭte orimasŭ to, ushiro no hō de tōri-gakari no yopparai ga kano samurai no chūgen wo toraete,—

Yopparai: "Yai! Nani wo shiyāgaru?" to ii-nagara, hyoro-hyoro to yorokete, patatto shiri-mochi wo tsŭki, yō-yaku oki-agatte, hĭtai de nirami, iki-nari genkotsu wo furui, chō-chō to buchimashĭta ga,—

Chūgen wa, "Sake no toga da" to kannin shite, sakarawazu ni daichi ni te wo tsŭki, atama wo sagete, shikiri ni wabite mo, yopparai wa mimi ni mo kakezu, nao mo chūgen wo nagutte imasŭ tokoro wo,—samurai wa, futo mimasŭ to, kerai no Tōsŭke da kara, odorokimashite, yopparai ni mukatte eshaku wo shite,—

Samurai: "Nani wo kerai-me ga buchōhō wo itashimashĭta ka zonjimasen ga, tōnin ni nari-kawatte, watakŭshi ga o wabi wo mōshi-agemasŭ. Dōzo go kamben wo."

Yopparai: "Nani! Koitsu wa, sono-hō no kerai da to ? Keshĭkaran burei na yatsu. Bushi no tomo wo suru nara, shujin no soba ni chiisaku natte iru ga tōzen. Sore ni, nan da ? Tensui-oke<sup>®</sup> kara san-jaku mo ōrai ye de-shabatte,

<sup>8.</sup> This sentence is incomplete; the next also, the worthy tradesman being too much excited to speak grammatically. *Mochimashite* is polite for *motte*, the postposition.

"What? you say ten dollars? That's rather too dear. But I suppose you'll go down to seven and a half,—won't you?"

"Oh! really," said the shopkeeper; "why! I should lose at that rate. Indeed, indeed I can't."

So, while the samurai and the sword-dealer went on bargaining about the price of the sword, a drunkard, who happened to pass by at the back, caught hold of the samurai's servant, and, calling out "Hey! what are you up to?" staggered, and came down plump in a sitting posture. Then, managing to get up again, he glared at the fellow sideways, shook his fist at him without more ado, and began to pommel him. The servant, laying the fault on the liquor, took the beating patiently, and, without offering any resistance, put his hands on the ground, and apologised over and over again with downcast head. But the drunkard would not so much as give ear to his apologies, and only thrashed him the more. The samurai suddenly happened to look round; and, as the fellow being thrashed was his own retainer Tosuke, he was taken aback, and made excuse to the drunkard, saying:

"I know not of what rude act that man of mine may have been guilty towards Your Honour; but I myself beg to apologise to you for him. Pray be so kind as to pardon him."

"What?" said the drunkard, "you say that this creature is your servant, this outrageously rude fellow? If he goes out as a gentleman's retainer, it would be but proper for him to keep himself in the background near his master. But no! what does he do? He sprawls out into the road

<sup>9.</sup> Rain-tubs or water-buckets stand in certain places along the streets in Tōkyō, as a provision against fire.

tsūkō no samatage wo shite, sessha wo tsūki-ataraseta kara, yamu wo ezu chōchaku itashita."

Samurai: "Nani mo wakimaen mono de gozaimasŭ kara, httoe ni go kamben wo. Temae nari-kawatte o wabi wo moshi-agemasŭ."

Yopparai: "Ima kono tokoro de temae ga yoroketa tokoro wo tonto tsŭki-atatta kara, inu de mo oru ka to omoeba, kono gerō-me ga ite, jibeta ye hizu wo tsŭkasete, mi-nasaru tōri, kore! kono yō ni irui wo doro-darake ni itashita. Burei na yatsu da kara, chōchaku shita ga,—dō shita? Sessha no zombun ni itasŭ kara, koko ye o dashi nasai."

Samurai: "Kono tōri, nani mo wake no wakaran mono, inu dōyō no mono de gozaimasŭ kara, dōzo go kamben kudasaimashi."

Yopparai: "Korya omoshiroi! Hajimete uketamawatta! Samurai ga inu no tomo wo meshi-tsurete aruku to iu hō wa arumai. Inu dōyō no mono nara, temae mōshi-ukete kaeri, machin de mo kuwashite yarō. Dō wabite mo, ryōken wa narimasen. Kore! kerai no buchōhō wo shujin ga wabiru nara, daichi ye ryō-te wo tsuki, 'Jū-jū osore-itta' to, kōbe wo tsuchi ni tataki-tsukete, wabi wo suru no ga atarimae. Nan da? Kata-te ni katana no koi-guchi wo kitte i-nagara, wabi wo suru nado to wa, samurai no hō de arumai. Nan da? Temae wa sessha wo kiru ki ka?"10

<sup>10.</sup> Observe the extreme rudeness of the style of address,—the insulting pronoun *temae*, "thou," and the absence of all honorifies. The commonest courtesy would require *ki desŭ ka* for *ki ka*. The sober samurai answers politely, the verb *makaru* three lines lower down being peculiarly courteous.

a good three feet beyond the water-barrel, and prevents people from passing, and so made me stumble up against him. That's why I couldn't help giving him a thrashing."

"He is a thoughtless fellow," replied the samurai, "whom I earnestly entreat Your Honour to pardon. I beg to apologise for him to you myself."

"Just now," continued the drunkard, "as something came bang up against me when I staggered, I thought that perhaps there was a dog there. But no! it was this ruffian, and he made my knee hit the ground. Here, just look! he has made my clothes all muddy like this. I gave him a thrashing, because he was an insolent fellow. What do you think of that? I'm going to do what I want with him; so be good enough to hand him over to me."

"You see, Sir," replied the samurai, "that he is too stupid to know what he is doing. He is no better than a dog. So do pray be kind enough to pardon him."

"Well! that's good!" retorted the drunkard. "I never heard of that sort of thing before. Is it etiquette for a samurai to go out walking with a dog for a retainer? If he is no better than a dog, I'll take charge of him and poison him with strychnine. You may apologise as you like, I won't take your apologies. Gracious goodness! If a master wanted to apologise for his servant's insolence, the natural thing for him to do would be to put both hands on the ground, and to express his regret over and over again, apologising and striking the earth with his head. But what do you do? While you are apologising, you are busy with one hand loosening your sword for use,—pretty manners indeed for a samurai! What do you mean? Is it your intention to kill me, you low knave?"

Samurai: "Iya! kore wa, temae ga kono katana-ya de kai-torō to zonjimashĭte, tadaima kanagu wo mite imashĭta tokoro ye, kono sawagi ni tori-aezu makari-demashĭta no de...."

Yopparai: "11Ei! sore wa, kau to mo kawan to mo, anata no go katte da<sup>12</sup>" to nonoshiru no wo,—samurai wa shikiri ni sono suikyō wo nadamete iru to,—

Ōrai no hito-bito wa, "Sorya! kenkwa da! abunai zo!"

—"Nani? kenkwa da to, ë?"—"Sō sa! aite wa samurai da."—"Sore wa kennon da!" to iu to,—mata hitori ga:

"Nan de gesŭ, ne?"—"Sayō sa! katana wo kau to ka, kawanai to ka no machigai dasō desŭ. Ano yopparatte iru samurai ga hajime ni katana ni ne wo tsŭketa ga, takakute kawarenai de iru tokoro ye,—kotchi no wakai samurai ga mata sono katana ni ne wo tsŭketa tokoro kara, yopparai wa okori-dashite, "Ore ga kaō to shita mono wo, ore ni busata de ne wo tsŭketa' to ka, nan to ka no machigairashii" to ieba,—mata hitori: "Nani sa! sō ja arimasen yo! Are wa inu no machigai da, ne! "Ore no uchi no inu ni machin wo kuwaseta kara, sono kawari no inu wo watase. Mata machin wo kuwasete korosō' to ka iu no desu ga,—inu no machigai wa, mukashi kara yoku

<sup>11.</sup> Observe the incorporation into one gigantic sentence of this paragraph, of all the various dialogues of the bystanders, and on from here to the end of the second paragraph on p. 458; conf. also ¶¶ 442-4.

"By no means," replied the samurai. "It is only that I had thought of purchasing this sword of the dealer here, and was just inspecting the metal-work, when all of a sudden I got in for this row, and....."

"Oh!" laughed the drunkard, "whether you buy the sword or don't buy the sword, that's your affair;"—whereupon, as the samurai continued to endeavour to appease his drunken frenzy, the passers-by put in their word, saying:

"Look out! there's a quarrel! take care!"

"What? you say there's a quarrel?"

"Yes; the parties to it are samurai."

"That's a bad look out."

Then, as another asked what it was, somebody replied:

"Well, you see, it appears it's a misunderstanding about the purchase of a sword. That drunken samurai there first priced the sword, and was just refusing to buy it on account of its being too dear, when the younger samurai here came up and also priced it. This angered the drunkard, who found fault with him for pricing, without reference to him, an article which he himself had been intending to buy. That's more or less what the misunderstanding sprang from."

But another broke in, saying, "Oh dear no! that's not it at all. The misunderstanding is about a dog. One of the two said to the other: 'As you killed my dog with strychnine, you must give me yours in return, and let me poison it with strychnine too. Disputes about dogs have always been common; for you know how, in Shirai<sup>13</sup>

<sup>12.</sup> Here the drunkard uses honorifics, but ironically.

<sup>13.</sup> The touching story of Shirai Gompachi and of his lady-love, Komurasaki, is to be found in Mitford's "Tales of Old Japan," Vol. I., p. 35 et seq.

arimasŭ vo! Shirai Gompachi nado mo, vahari inu no kenkwa kara anna sodo ni natta no desŭ kara, në!" to iu to,-mata soba ni iru hito ga: "Nani sa! sonna wake ja nai. Ano futari wa oji oi no aida-gara de, ano makka ni vopparatte iru no wa oji san de, wakai kirei na hito ga oi dasō da. Oi ga oji ni kozukai-zeni wo kurenai to iu tokoro kara no kenkwa da" to ieba,-mata soba ni iru hito wa: "Nani! are wa kinchaku-kiri da," nado to,ōrai no hito-bito wa iro-iro no hyōban wo shite iru uchi ni, hitori no otoko ga moshimasu ni wa: "Ano yopparai wa, Maruyama Hommyōji naka-yashiki14 ni sumu hito de, moto wa Koide Sama no go kerai de atta ga,-mimochi ga warukute, shu-shoku ni fukeri, ori-ori wa suppa-nuki nado shite hito voo odokashi, rambo voo hataraite shichu voo ogyo shi, aru toki voa ryori-ya ye agari-komi, jubun sake, sakana de hara wo fukurashita ageku ni, 'Kanjo wa, Hommyōji naka-yashiki ye tori ni koi!' to, ōhei ni kui-taoshi, nomi-taoshite aruku Kurokawa Kōzō to iu waru-zamurai desŭ kara, toshi no wakai hō wa mi-komarete, tsumari sake de mo kawaserareru no deshō yo."—"Sō desŭ ka? Namimono nara, kitte shimaimasu ga,—ano wakai taitei no

<sup>14.</sup> Each of the larger Daimyōs usually possessed three mansions in Yedo, respectively distinguished by the titles of *kami* or "upper," *naka* or "middle," and *shimo* or "lower."

Gompachi's case, too, it was a quarrel about a dog which grew into all that trouble."

"Oh dear no!" said another onlooker at the side of him who had just been speaking, "that's not it in the least. It seems that the two samurai are relations,—one the uncle, the other his nephew. It is the drunkard with the scarlet face that is the uncle, and the handsome young fellow that is the nephew. The quarrel between them arose from the nephew's refusing to give his uncle some pocket-money."

But another man standing by said, "Oh! no, he's a pickpocket." °

And then, among the various comments which were made by the passers-by, one man delivered himself of the information that the drunkard was a swashbuckler of a samurai called Kurokawa Kōzō, who was living in the middle mansion of Hommyōji at Maruyama, and who had originally been a retainer of my lord Koide, but who, being ill-behaved, had sunk into debauchery, used often to frighten folks by drawing his sword at random, and used to roam through the streets in a violent and disorderly manner, sometimes forcing his way into eating-houses, and then, when he had had his fill of victuals and drink, telling the eating-housekeeper to come for payment to the middle mansion of Hommyōji, thus ruining people by his violence and riotous living, so that the present row would doubtless end in the younger samurai getting bullied into treating him to liquor.

"Oh! is that it?" said a voice. "Any average man would cut the ruffian down. But I suppose the young samurai won't be able to do so,—will he?—for he looks weakly."

hō wa, dōmo byōshin no yō da kara, kiremai, nē!"—
"Nani! Are wa, kenjutsu wo shiranai no darō. Samurai
ga kenjutsu wo shiranakereba, koshi-nuke da," nado to
sasayaku koe ga chira-chira wakai samurai no mimi ni hairu
kara, gutto komi-age, kampeki ni sawarimashita to miete,
kao ga makka ni nari, ao-suji wo tatete, tsume-yori,

Samurai: "Kore hodo made ni o wabi wo mōshite mo, go kamben nasaimasen ka?"

Yopparai: "Kudoi! Mireba, rippa na o samurai,go jikisan ka, izure no go hanchū ka wa shiranai ga,o-ha uchi-karashita ronin to anadori, shitsurei shigoku! Iyo-iyo kamben ga naranakereba, dō suru ka?" to itte, katto tan wo waka-zamurai no kao ni haki-tsukemashita kara, sasuga ni kamben-zuyoi waka-zamurai mo, koraekirenaku narimashita to miete, "Onore! shita kara dereba tsuke-agari, masu-masu tsunoru bari bōkō, bushi taru mono no kao ni tan wo haki-tsukeru to wa, fu-todoki na yatsu!15 Kamben ga dekinakereba, kō suru" to ii-nagara, ima katanaya de mite ita Bizen-mono no tsuka ni te voo kakeru ga hayai ka, surari to hiki-nuki, yopparai no hana no saki ye pikatto dashita kara, kembutsu wa odoroki-awate, yowasō na otoko da kara, mada hikko-nuki wa shimai to omotta no ni, pika-pika to shita kara, "Sora! nuita!" to, ko no ha ga kaze ni chiru yō ni, shi-hō hap-pō ni bara-bara to

<sup>15.</sup> A subjectless and highly irregular sentence, lit. "You! when I come out from underneath (i.e., am conciliating), you are puffed up with pride;—abuse and violence accumulating more and more;—as

"Don't you believe it!" whispered another. "It must be because he doesn't know how to use a sword. A samurai who doesn't know how to use a sword is a coward."

And the buzz of these whispered insinuations found its way to the young samurai's ears, and he flared up, and, evidently flying into a passion, his face became scarlet, and the blue veins stood out on his forehead, and he drew close to the drunken wretch, and said:

"Will you not excuse my retainer, even after all the apologies I have offered?"

"You wordy idiot!" laughed the other. "To look at you, you are a mighty fine gentleman, of whom one might suppose that he either was one of the Shōgun's immediate vassals, or else belonged to one of the clans. But you are the rudest of fellows thus to scorn me as a shabby vagrant. Suppose I don't excuse you, what will you do?" and with these words he spat in the young samurai's face.

This was too much for the patience even of one so long-suffering as the younger man. "Impudent wretch that you are!" cried he, "to presume thus upon my forbearance, to continue getting more and more abusive and violent, and actually to spit in a gentleman's face! As you won't accept apologies, here's what I'll do to you! And with these words, and almost before he could be seen to have placed his hand on the hilt of the sword which he had just been inspecting in the shop, he out with it and flashed it in the drunkard's face. Thereupon the bystanders took fright. "Oh! he has drawn his sword!" cried they, as they saw it flash in the hands of him whom

for your spitting phlegm into the face of a person who is (taru, for to aru) a warrior, what an impudent fellow!"

nigemashite, machi-machi no kido wo toji, roji wo shime-kiri, akindo wa mina to wo shimeru sawagi de, machi-naka wa hissori to narimashita ga,—Fuji-Shin no teishu hitori wa nige-ha wo ushinai, tsukunen to shite, mise-saki ni suwatte orimashita.

Sate Kurokawa Kōzō wa, yopparatte wa orimasuredo, Nama-yoi honshō tagawazu<sup>16</sup> de, ano waka-zamurai no kemmaku ni osoremashite, hyorotsuki-nagara ni-ju-ashi bakari nige-dasu no wo,-samurai wa: "Onore kuchi hodo de mo nai, Bushi no aite ni ushiro wo miseru to wa, hikvō na yatsu! Kaere! kaere!" to, setta-baki de ato zvo okkakemasu to,-Kōzō wa mohaya kanawan to omoimashite, hyorotsŭku ashi wo fumi-shimete, katana no tsŭka ni te wo kakete, konata wo furi-muku tokoro wo,-waka-zamurai wa "Ei!" to hito-koe, kata-saki fukaku buttsuri to kiri-komu to,kirarete, Kōzō wa, "A!" tto17 sakebi, kata-hiza wo tsuku tokoro wo noshi-kakatte, "Ei!" to hidari no kata yori munamoto ye kiri-tsukemashita kara, hasu ni mitsu ni kirarete shimaimashita. Waka-zamurai wa sugu to rippa ni todome wo sashite, chi-gatana wo furui-nagara, Fuji-Shin no misesaki ye tachi-kaerimashita ga,-moto yori kiri-korosu ryōken de gozaimashita kara, chitto mo do suru keshiki mo naku, waga gerō ni mukatte:

Samurai: "Kore! Tõsüke! sono tensui-oke no mizu wo kono katana ni kakero!" to ii-tsükemasü to,—

<sup>16.</sup> A proverb. Classical tagawazu = Colloq. chigawanai.

<sup>17.</sup> Pronounce atto as a single word, tto standing by emphasis for to, the postposition; conf. bottom p. 82.

they had taken for a weakling, and had not imagined would draw it so quickly. And then, like leaves scattered by the wind, off they fled helter-skelter in every direction; and the ward-doors were made fast, and the barriers of every lane were closed, and the shop-keepers all shut up their shops, so that the whole street was deserted, the old sword-dealer alone continuing to sit listlessly in his shop-front, simply because he was too much dazed to run away.

Well, drunk as Kurokawa Kōzō was, he,—on the principle that 'a tipsy man follows his natural bent,'—scared at the rage that was painted on the young samurai's face, tried to escape, and had gone some twenty paces with a staggering gait, when his antagonist pursued him with his sandals on and cried out, "Wretch! your conduct does not bear out your insolent words. You are a coward, you are for showing your back to a gentleman whom you are disputing with. Come back! come back!"

Then Kōzō seeing it was no longer any good, steadied himself on his staggering legs, put his hand on the hilt of his sword, and was turning to face the young samurai, when the latter, with the single exclamation "Ha!" slashed deep into his shoulder, cutting him down, so that the man fell on to one knee with a cry, when his opponent, springing on him again, cut at him from the left shoulder down to the chest in such wise that he fell sliced obliquely into three pieces. The young samurai then dexterously gave him the coup-de-grâce, and returned to the sword-shop, shaking the blood from off his blade. As he had from the beginning intended to cut the swashbuckler down, he was not flurried in the slightest, but turned to his servant, and said:

"Here, Tōsŭke! pour some water on this sword from

Saizen yori furuete orimashita Tosüke wa: "Hei! tondemonai koto ni narimashita. Moshi kono koto kara Ōtono Sama no o namae de mo demasu yō na koto ga gozaimashite wa, ai-sumimasen. Moto wa, mina watakushi kara hajimatta koto. Dō itashitara, yoroshiu gozaimashō ?"

Samurai: "Iya! Sayō ni shimpai suru ni wa oyoban. Shǐchū wo sawagasu rambō-nin, kiri-sutete mo kurushǐkunai yatsu da. Shimpai suru-na!" to, gerō wo nagusame-nagara, yūyū to shǐte, akke ni torarete iru Fuji-Shin no teishu wo yobi:

"Korya! Go teishu ya! Kono katana wa, kore hodo kireyō to wa omoimasen datta ga, naka-naka kiremasu." Yohodo yoku kireru" to iu to,—

Teishu wa, furue-nagara: "Iya! Anata sama no o te ga saete oru kara de gozaimasŭ."

Samurai: "Iya! iya! Mattaku hamono ga yoi. Dō da, na ? Shichi-ryō ni-bu ni makete mo yokarō" to iu kara, Fuji-Shin wa kakari-ai wo osorete, "Yoroshiū gozaimasū."

Samurai: "Iya! Omae no mise ni wa, kesshite meiwaku wa kakemasen. Tomokaku kono koto wo sugu ni jishimban ni todokenakereba naran. Nafuda wo kaku kara, chotto suzuri-bako wo kashite kurero!" to iwarete mo, teishu wa jibun no soba ni suzuri-bako no aru no mo me ni tsukazu ni, furue-goe de,

<sup>18.</sup> This sentence excellently illustrates the manner in which Japanese sentences sometimes fail to hang together logically. The first

that water-tub;"—whereupon Tosuke, who had been trembling all the while, exclaimed:

"Oh! Sir, it has come to a pretty pass. It will be dreadful if our master, your father, gets talked about because of this. And I was the cause of it all. What shall I do?"

"Nay," said the samurai, to comfort him, "you need not fret like that. A disorderly fellow who goes about disturbing all the town! there is no harm in cutting down a creature of that sort. Don't fret about it."—And with these words, he called out nonchalantly to the terror-stricken shop-keeper: "Ha! ha! mine host! I never thought this sword of yours would cut as well as that. But it does cut. It cuts first-rate."

To which the shop-keeper, trembling the while, made answer: "Nay! it was because Your Honour's arm is skilful."

"Not at all," replied the samurai. "The blade is really a good one. And how now? I hope you'll go down to seven dollars and a half."

So the sword-dealer, anxious not to get implicated in the affair, said that it was all right.

"And mind," continued the samurai, "that in no case will I allow your establishment to be put to any inconvenience on account of what has happened. Of course I must report the matter at once to the warden of the ward. Just let me use your writing-box a minute to write a card."

clause is, so to speak, suspended in the air, as if followed by vaa := "(As for) a disorderly person who disturbs the town-middle, he is a person whom even cutting down is not bad."

"Kozō ya! Suzuri-bako wo motte koi!" to yonde mo,—kanai no mono wa, sakki no sawagi ni doko ye ka nigete shimai, hitori mo orimasen kara, hissori to shite, henji ga nai kara,

Samurai: "Go teishu! Omae wa sasuga ni go shōbaigara dake atte, kono mise wo chitto mo ugokazu ni gozaru wa, kanshin na mono da, na!"

Teishu: "Iye, nani! O home de osore-irimasŭ. Sakıhodo kara haya-goshi ga nukete, 19 tatenai no de...."

Samurai: "Suzuri-bako wa, omae no waki ni aru ja nai ka?" to iwarete, yōyō kokoro-zuite, suzuri-bako wo samurai no mae ni sashi-dashimasu to,—samurai wa suzuri-bako no futa wo hiraite, fude wo tori, sura-sura to namae wo "Iijima Heitarō" to kaki-owari, jishimban ni todokete oki, Ushigome no o yashiki ye o kaeri ni narimashita.

Kono shimatsu wo go shimpu Iijima Heizaemon Sama ni o hanashi wo mōshi-agemasu to, Heizaemon Sama wa "Yoku kitta" to ōse ga atte, sore kara sugu ni kashira no Kobayashi Gondayū Dono<sup>20</sup> ye o todoke ni narimashita ga,—sashitaru o togame mo naku, kiri-doku kirare-zon to narimashita.

<sup>19.</sup> We have freely rendered this clause by "unable to stir through fright." But the popular Japanese idea on the subject is that one of the bones actually gets put out of joint through fright.

<sup>20.</sup> Gondayū, here rendered as part of this personage's name, was originally a title indicative of a certain rank; but it came to be used more or less at will among the samurai class. It is to be supposed that this Kobayashi Gondayū was an official entrusted with certain

But the shop-keeper, never noticing that the writing-box was close beside him, called out in a tremulous voice: "Boy! bring the writing-box!"—a command to which nothing but silence responded; for all the people in the house had fled, none knew whither, when the row began, and there was no one present.

So the samurai exclaimed: "Mine host! I really admire your courage,—the courage proper in the owner of a sword-shop,—sitting here in your shop without moving an inch, notwithstanding this affray."

"Nay! Sir," gasped the tradesman. "Your praise covers me with confusion. I have been unable to stir through fright ever since the beginning of it, and...."

"Why!" said the samurai, "isn't the writing-box there at your side?"

These words at last brought the shopman to his senses, and he pushed the writing-box towards the samurai, who, lifting off the lid, took up a pen and quietly wrote his name, "Iijima Heitarō," then reported the matter to the warden of the ward, and went home to his lord's mansion at Ushigome.

On his relating the whole affair to his father, Iijima Heizaemon, the latter praised him for his manly deed; nor was the young man specially blamed when the report was sent in to their superior, Kobayashi Gondayū. It all simply ended by being so much the better for the slayer, and so much the worse for the slain.

affairs of the clan to which the Iijimas belonged, and who happened to be their immediate superior. The title of *Dono*, "Mr.," though still often used in writing, is rarely if ever heard in actual speech.

## ¶ 459. DAI NI-KWAI.

Sate Iijima Heitarō Sama wa, o toshi m-jū-ni no toki ni waru-mono wo kiri-koroshite, chitto mo osoreru keshiki mo naku, kishō na o kata de gozaimashita kara,-toshi wo toru ni ojite, masu-masu chie ga susumimashite, sono nochi go shimpu sama ni naku nararete, go katoku wo o tsugi asobashi, Heizaemon to na wo aratame, Suido-bata no Miyake Sama to mõshimasii o hatamoto<sup>3</sup> kara okiisama wo o mukae ni narimashite,-hodo naku go shusshō no o nyoshi wo O Tsuyu Sama to moshi-age, sukoburu you go kiryo de,-go ryōshin wa te no uchi no tama no yō ni aishite, o sodate ni narimashita ga,-sono o ato m o kodomo ga dekimasezu, hito-tsubu-dane no koto desii kara, nao-sara go hizō m nasaru uchi, 'kōin ni sekimori nashi'4 de, o josama wa kotoshi totte ju-roku m narare, o ie mo masu-masu go sakan de gozaimashita ga,—'mitsureba kakuru yo no narai' to nu tatoe no tori, okusama wa sukoshi no yamai ga moto to natte, tsui ni o naku narı nasaimashita.

Sono nochi kaji-muki go fujiyū no tokoro kara, O Kuni to iu nochi-zoi vo o mukae ni narimashita ga,—tokaku o iosama to O Kuni to no ada ga nan to naku ori-aimasen de, Iijima Sama mo kore vo mendō ni omoimashite, Yanagi-shima ye bessō vo ko-

I. A change of name on some important event was a common practice in Old Japan.

<sup>2.</sup> I.e., the bank of the aqueduct in Koishikawa, Yedo.

## CHAPTER II.

Now Iijima Heitaro, having, at the age of two-andtwenty, cut down a ruffian, and being an energetic young samurai who knew not what fear was, grew wiser and wiser as he advanced in years. Later on, having lost his father, he inherited the patrimony and changed his name to Heizaemon, and then married a wife from the family of a hatamoto called Miyake, residing at Suidō-bata. After a little while, there was born to them a daughter, whom they named O Tsuyu, and who was so beautiful that her parents doted on her as if they had held a jewel in their hand. As they had no other children after her, their only pet, their care for her increased all the more: and meanwhile, there being, as the proverb says, "no barrierkeeper to keep time back," the young girl was now in her sixteenth year, and the family was more prosperous than ever, when, as an exemplification of the saying that "in this world what waxeth waneth," some ailment, quite slight at first, attacked the mother and ended by carrying her off.

Afterwards Iijima, finding that the household would not work smoothly without a mistress, took to himself a second wife named O Kuni. But somehow or other, the daughter and O Kuni did not get on well together. This was a trouble to the master of the house, who thereupon

<sup>3.</sup> See Vocabulary.

<sup>4.</sup> Both these sayings are inherited from the Book Language. *Mitsureba* is Class. for *michireba*, 3rd conj. and *kakuru* for *kakeru*, 2nd conj.

shirae, o jōsama ni O Yone to u jochū wo tsŭkete, betsu-zumai wo sashĭte okimashĭta ga,—kore ga Iijima Sama no o ie no kuzureru hajime de gozaimasŭ.

Sate sono toshi mo tachi, akuru<sup>5</sup> toshi wa o jōsama wa jū-shĭchi-sai ni o nari asobashimashĭta.

Koko ni kanete Iijima Sama ye o de-iri no isha ni Yamamoto Shijō to mōsu mono ga gozaimashĭte—jitsu wa o taiko-isha no o shaberi de, shonin tasŭke no tame ni saji wo te ni toranai to iu jimbutsu de gozaimasŭ kara,—nami no o isha nara, chotto kami-ire no naka ni mo gwan-yaku ka ko-gusuri de mo haitte imasu ga,—kono Shijō no kami-ire no naka ni wa, tezuma no tane yara, hyaku-manako nado ga irete aru gurai na mono de gozaimasŭ.

Sate kono isha no chikazuki de, Nezu no Shimizudam nu dempata ya kashi-nagaya wo mochi, sono agari de kurashi wo tatete iru rōnin no Hagiwara Shinzaburō to mōsu mono ga arimashite, umare-tsuki kurei na otoko de,—toshi wa ni-ju-ichi de gozaimasu ga, mada nyōbo mo motazu, goku uchiki de gozaimasu kara, soto ye mo demasezu, shomotsu bakari mite orimasu tokoro ye,—aru hi Shijō ga tazunete mairimashite,—

Shijō: "Kyō wa, tenki ga yoroshiū gozaimasŭ kara, Kameido no Gwaryōbai¹ ye de-kakete, sono kaeri nı boku no chikazuki Iijima Heizaemon no bessō ye yorimashō.—'Ie' sa ? Kimi wa ittai uchiki de irassharu kara, fujin ni o kokoro-gake nasaimasen ga,—

<sup>5.</sup> This is Classical for *akeru*, 2nd conj., "to open," hence "to begin,' hence used to signify "next" in "next year."

<sup>6.</sup> The spoon (with which medicines are mixed) is the physician's special emblem. In the free translation we have used the phrase

built a villa in the neighbourhood of Yanagi-shima, and sent his daughter to reside there separately, attended by a maid called O Yone. And this it was which was the beginning of the downfall of the house of Iijima.

Well, that year too passed by, and in the following one O Tsuyu entered her seventeenth year.

Now there was a man named Yamamoto Shijō, who had long been the family physician of the Iijima's. In reality he was a chatterbox and a quack,—not one of those doctors who write prescriptions out of regard for the welfare of their patients, but a man who carried about in his pocket-book such things as the wherewithal for conjuring tricks, or else paper-masks for acting the mimic, instead of the pills or powders of which any ordinary physician has a little store by him.

Well, this doctor had a friend, an unattached samurai called Hagiwara Shinzaburō, who lived at Shimizu-dani in Nezu on an income derived from fields and house property. He was naturally a handsome man, still unmarried, though already twenty-one years of age, and so shy that he would not go out, but occupied himself with nothing but reading.

Shijō came to call upon him one day, and said: "As it is such fine weather to-day, let us go and see the plum-blossoms at Kameido, and, on our way back, look in at the villa of a friend of mine, Iijima Heizaemon.—What? you say no? You are altogether so shy, that you

<sup>&</sup>quot;writing prescriptions" as our nearest equivalent to the Japanese "taking the spoon in hand."

<sup>7.</sup> A garden in Tōkyō, celebrated for the picturesque beauty of its fantastic old plum-trees, lit. "the recumbent dragon plum-trees."

dansh ni totte wa, fujin no tsŭki-ai hodo tanoshimi na mono wa nai. Ima mōshīta Iijima no bessō ni wa, fujin bakari de,—sore wa! sore wa! yohodo beppin no o jōsama ni shinsetsu na jochū to tada futari-giri desŭ kara, jōdan de mo itte kimashō. Hontō ni jōsama miru dake de mo kekkō na kurai de,—ime mo yoroshii ga, ugoki mo shinai, kuchi mo kikimasen. Fujin wa, kuchi mo kiku shi, ugoki mo shimasu. Tomokaku ki-tamae!" to sasoi-dashimashite, futari-zure de Gwaryōbai ye mairi, kaeri ni Iijima no bessō ye tachi-yorimashite,—

Shijō: "Go men kudasai! Makoto ni shibaraku!" to iu koe wo kiki-tsukemashite,—

O Yone: "Donata sama? Oya-oya! irasshaimashi!"

Shijō: "Kore wa! O Yone San! Sono nochi wa, tsui ni nai go busata itashimashita. O jōsama ni wa o kawari mo gozaimasen ka?—Sore wa! sore wa! kekkō! kekkō! Ushigome kara koko ye o hiki-utsuri ni narimashite kara wa, dōmo empō na no de, tsui tsui go busata ni narimashite, makoto ni ai-sumimasen."

O Yone: "Mā! anata hisashiku o mie nasaimasen kara, dō nasatta ka to omotte, maido o uvasa wo itashite orimashita. Kyō wa dochira ye?"

Shijō: "Kyō wa Gwaryōbai ye ŭme-mi ni de-kakemashĭta ga,—'Üme mireba, hōzu ga nai's to iu tatoe no tōri, mada mi-tarinai no de, o niwa no ŭme wo haiken itashĭtakŭte mairımashĭta."

<sup>8.</sup> Shijō is joking. The real saying is *Ue mireba*, *hōzu ga nai*, "If one looks upwards, there is no limit," i.e., "there is no limit to the possibility of envying those more fortunate than oneself."

take no interest in ladies' society, whereas there is nothing so delightful for a man as that society. In the villa which I have just mentioned there are none but ladies, and oh! dear me! there are only two of them,—a perfectly lovely young girl and a good-natured maid-servant, so that we can have some fun. The young lady is really a treat just simply to look at. Doubtless the plum-blossoms are beautiful too; but then they don't move, they can't speak, whereas women possess both motion and speech. Anyhow, please come along!"

So saying, he led him off, and they went together to see the plum-blossoms, and then, on the way home, looked in at Iijima's villa.

"Excuse me!" called out Shijō. "Here I am, after all this long time."

"Who is it?" answered O Yone. "Oh, really! pray come in!"

"Ah! O Yone!" cried Shijō. "It is really an unconscionable time since my last visit. I hope the young lady is quite well.—Well, well! this is splendid.—But you do live so far off since you moved here from Ushigome, that I have become quite remiss in calling, which is really too bad of me."

O Yone: "Why! it's so long since we last had the pleasure of seeing you, that we wondered what had become of you, and have been constantly talking about you.—Where have you been to-day?"

Shijō: "To see the plum-blossoms at Kameido. But, as the saying is, 'When one looks at the plum-blossoms, there is no end to it.' So we don't yet feel that we have seen enough, and have come hoping to get a sight of the plum-blossoms in your garden."

O Yone: "Sore wa! yoku irasshaimashita. Mā! dōzo kochira ye o hairi asobase!" to,—kirido wo akemashita kara, "Go men kudasai!" to, niwa-guchi kara zashiki ye tōrimashita.

O Yone: "Mā! ip-puku meshi-agare! Kyō wa yoku irasshĭte kudasaimashĭta. Fudan wa, watakŭshi to o jō-sama bakari desŭ kara, samushĭkutte komatte orimasŭ tokoro de gozaimashĭta."

Shijō: "Kekkō na o sumai desŭ. Sate, Hagiwara Uji! Kyō kimi no go meigin ni osore-irimashĭta." Nan to ka mōshimashĭta, ne, ē ?

> ' Tabako ni wa, Suri-bi no umashi Ume no naka <sup>110</sup>

deshita ka, në ? Kampuku, kampuku! Boku no yo na ochaku-mono wa, deru ku mo ochaku de,

' Ŭme homete, Magirawashĭ-keri, Kado-chigai'<sup>11</sup>

ka, në P

"Kimi no yō ni shoken bakari shǐte ite wa, ikemasen yo! Sakki no sake no nokori ga koko ni aru kara, ip-pai agare-yo! Nan desǔ,—ne ? Iya desǔ ? Sore de wa, hǐtori de chōdai itashimashō" to ii-nagara, hyōtan wo dashi-

<sup>9.</sup> Every Japanese of education is supposed to be able to compose in verse; but the so-called verses here given are of course only Shijō's chaff, invented on the spur of the moment. This particular kind of stanza is termed *hokku*, and consists of three lines of respectively five, seven, and five syllables. Japanese prosody knows nothing either of rhyme or of quantity. Conf. ¶ 460 et seq.

<sup>10.</sup> The words lit. mean "As for tobacco (-smoking), within the plum-trees, is delicious of striking-fire," i.e., "How delicious it is to light

O Yone: "Well, well! and a good welcome to you! Oh! please come in this way!"—and so saying, she opened the wicket, so that the visitors, with a "By your leave," passed through the garden entrance into the house.

O Yone: "Oh! please smoke! It is exceedingly kind of you to have come to-day. We are generally very dull, because there are only the two of us,—my young mistress and I."

Shijō: "This is a splendid house.—Well, Mr. Hagiwara! I was quite taken aback by that beautiful stanza of yours to-day. What was it again?

'To the smoker

How sweet for striking a match

Is the entourage of the plum-blossoms!'

"That was it, wasn't it? Admirable! admirable! In the case of a villain like me, the verses that come out of his mouth are villainous too. My stanza was:

'I entered the wrong house;
But I covered my confusion
By praising the plum-blossom.'

"I think that was it.—It doesn't do to be always reading as you are,—indeed it doesn't. As we have the remains of the liquor we took with us on our picnic, just have a glass of it.—What? you say no? Well then, I'll drink alone;"—

a pipe among the plum-blossoms!" The second and third lines are inverted. Note the conclusive form of the adjective *ĭmashi*, "is delicious," equivalent to the more genuinely Colloquial *ĭmai*, and conf. p. 121.

<sup>11.</sup> Keri is a Classical termination of verbs and adjectives. In Colloquial the word would be magirakashita. Kado-chigai, lit, means "mistake of gates."

kakeru tokoro ye, O Yone ga cha to kwashi wo motte mairimashite,

O Yone: "Socha de gozaimasu ga, o hitotsu meshiagare!"

Shijō: "Dōzo mō o kamai kudasaru-na! Toki ni, kyō wa o jōsama ni o me ni kakaritakute mairimashita. Koko ni iru no wa, boku no goku shitashii hōyū desu. Sore wa sō to, kyō wa o miyage mo nani mo jisan itashimasen. —E, he, he! arigatō gozaimasu. Kore wa, osore-irimashita. O kwashi wa yōkan. Kekkō! Sā! Hagiwara Kun, meshiagare-yo!" to,—

O Yone ga kibisho ye yu wo sashi ni itta ato de, "Jitsu ni koko no uchi no o jōsama wa, tenka ni nai bijin desu. Ima ni irassharu kara, goran nasai!" to hanashi wo shite orimasu to, mukō no yo-jō-han no ko-zashiki de Iijima no o jōsama, O Tsuyu Sama ga, hito-mezurashii kara, shōji wo sukoshi akete nozoite miru to, Shijō no soba ni suwatte iru Hagiwara Shinzaburō no otoko-buri to ii, hito-gara to ii¹s, 'Onna ni shitara donna darō ?' to omou hodo no ii otoko desu kara, hito-me mimasu to zotto shite, dō shita kaze no fuki-mawashi de anna kirei na tonogo ga koko ye kita no ka to omou to, katto nobosete, makka na kao ni nari, nan to naku ma ga warukute, pata to shōji wo shime-kitte, uchi ye

<sup>12.</sup> It is a graceful Japanese custom to bring a present with one when coming to pay a visit.

<sup>13.</sup> To ii is often thus used in enumerations. It may be most easily parsed as equivalent to to itte mo, "whether saying that."

and with these words, he was just bringing out his wine-gourd, when O Yone came in with tea and cakes, saying:

"It is poor tea, but pray take a cup of it."

"Please don't take any more trouble about us," replied Shijō. "By the way," continued he, "we have come here to-day in hopes of seeing your young mistress. This gentleman here is an extremely intimate friend of mine.—Oh! by the bye, I have forgotten to bring you any present to-day.—Oh! thank you! I am really quite overcome by your kind attentions.—The sweetmeats are bean paste.—Delicious!—Come along, Mr. Hagiwara, do take some.—Really," continued he, after O Yone had gone to pour some hot water into the tea-pot, "the young lady of the house is one who has not her equal for beauty in the world. She'll be coming now; so look at her."

While he was thus speaking, Iijima's daughter, Miss O Tsuyu, in the small four and a half mat room opposite, curious to see the rare visitors, had opened one of the sliding paper doors a little and peeped out; and, as she did so, her glance fell on Hagiwara Shinzaburō seated at Shijō's side,—his bearing and appearance so handsome as to suggest the thought of what a beautiful woman he would have made. And she started, and wondered what stroke of fortune had brought hither so fine-looking a fellow. Then, the blood rushing to her cheeks, she became scarlet, and, overcome by a feeling of awkwardness, shut the paper slide with a click, and retired within it. But, as she could not see his face when shut up in the room, she again gently slid the door open, and, while pretending

hairimashĭta ga,—uchi de wa otoko no kao ga mirarenai kara, mata sotto shōji wo akete, niwa no ŭme no hana wo nagameru furi wo shi-nagara, choi-choi to Hagiwara no kao wo mite wa, hazukashisō ni shōji no uchi ye hairu ka to omou to, mata dete kuru. Detari hikkondari, hikkondari detari, moji-moji shĭte iru no wo Shijō ga mi-tsŭkemashĭte,

Shijō: "Hagiwara Kun! Kimi wo o jōsama ga sakki kara tsuku-zuku mite imasu, yo! Ŭme no hana wo miru furi wo shite ite mo, me no tama wa maru de kotchi wo mite iru, yo! Kyō wa, tonto kimi ni kerareta, nē!"—to uwasa wo shite iru tokoro ye,

Gejo no O Yone ga dete mairimashite: "O jösama kara 'Nani mo gozaimasen ga, hon no inaka-ryōri de ik-kon sashi-agemasŭ. Dōzo go yururi to meshi-agarimashite, ai-kawarazu anata no go jōdan wo ukagaitai' to osshaimasŭ."

Shijō: "Dōmo! osore-irimashĭta. Kore wa, kore wa! o suimono! kekkō! arigatō gozaimasŭ. Sakki kara reishu wa motte orimasu ga, o kanshu wa mata kakubetsu. Arigatō gozaimasŭ. Dōzo o jōsama ni mo irassharu yō ni. Kyo wa ŭme ja nai. Jitsu wa, o jōsama wo.... Iya! nani..."

to gaze at the plum-blossoms in the garden, cast sly glances from time to time at Hagiwara's face. Then again, apparently overcome with bashfulness, she withdrew within the sliding door, but had hardly done so when once more her face popped out. And so she went on fidgeting,—out and in, in and out, which Shijō perceiving said:

"Mr. Hagiwara! I say! the young lady has been staring at you all the time. She may pretend to be looking at the plum-blossoms; but for all that, her eyes are turned completely in this direction,—indeed they are. To-day I have been quite thrown into the shade by you, eh?"

While he was thus chattering away, the maid O Yone came into the room and said:

"My young mistress bids me say that, though she has nothing worthy your acceptance, she begs you to take a glass of wine accompanied by a snack of our poor rustic fare. She hopes you will take your own time over it, and give her the benefit of your amusing conversation, as on previous occasions."

"Really," replied Shijō, "I am confounded by so much civility. Dear me! dear me! Here is soup! Delicious! Thank you! Cold liquor we already had with us; but this hot wine of yours is quite a special treat. Many thanks! Please ask your young mistress if she too won't favour us with her company. It was not for the plum-blossoms that we came to-day. In reality it was the young lady whom....No! I mean the....

O Yone: "Ho-ho-ho!—Tadaima sayō mōshi-agemashĭta ga, o tsure no o kata wo go zonji ga nai mono desŭ kara, 'Ma ga warui' to osshaimasŭ kara,—'Sonnara, o yoshi asobase!' to mōshi-agemasŭ to,—'Sore de mo, itte mitai' to osshaimasŭ no!"14

Shijō: "Iya! kore wa boku no shin no chikazuki de, chiku-ba no tomo to mōshǐte mo yoroshii kurai na mono de, go enryo ni wa oyobimasen. Dōzo chotto jōsama ni o me ni kakaritakute mairimashǐta" to iu to,—O Yone wa yagate o jōsama wo tsurete mairimasu to,—o jōsama wa hazukashisō ni O Yone no ushiro ni suwatte, kuchi no uchi de "Shijō San! irasshaimashǐ!" to itta-giri de,—O Yone ga kochira ye kureba, kochira ye iki; achira ye ikeba, achira ye iki; shijū O Yone no ushiro ni bakari kuttsuite orimasu to,—

Shijō: "Kore wa! kore wa! Jōsama! Sono nochi wa, zonji-nagara go busata itashimashita. Itsu mo o kawari mo gozaimasen de, kekkō de gozaimasu. Kono hito wa, boku no chikazuki de, Hagiwara Shinzaburō to mōshimasu. Dokushin-mono de gozaimasu. Kyō wa hakarazu tsuremashite, go chisō ni nari, osore-irimasu. Chotto o chikazuki no tame, o sakazuki wo chōdai itasasemashō.—Oya! nan da ka? Kore de wa, go konrei no sakazuki no yō de gozaimasu" to,—to, sukoshi mo togire naku tori-maki wo itashite orimasu to,—o jōsama wa, hazukashii ga, mata ureshikute, Hagiwara

<sup>14.</sup> Notice the force of this final particle *no*, half exclamatory, half expressive of helplessness to deal with the situation. See p. 79, ¶ 113. 15. Sake-drinking is a notable feature of a Japanese wedding.

O Yone (laughing): "I told her so just now; but she said she felt awkward, because she doesn't know the gentleman whom you have brought with you. But when I thereupon said 'Then refuse to see him,' she said 'But I do want to see him all the same."

Shijō: "Nay! nay! there is no reason for her to feel shy. This gentleman is a most intimate friend of mine. It would hardly be too much to say that we played about as children together; and we have come with the most earnest desire to see her just for a minute or two."

After this speech of Shijō's, O Yone led in her young mistress, who was, however, evidently so bashful that, after whispering a welcome to Shijō from the place where she sat behind O Yone, she said no more, but constantly stuck close behind O Yone, edging hither when O Yone came hither, and edging thither when O Yone went thither.

"Well! well! Miss O Tsuyu!" cried Shijō, "I know that I have been an unconscionable time in coming to see you. It is delightful to find you in the same excellent health as ever. This gentleman is my friend, Hagiwara Shinzaburō. He is a bachelor. Happening to bring him with me to-day, we have been hospitably feasted, and are overcome with gratitude. I should like you to offer him the wine-cup, just to drink to the making of a new acquaintance.—Ha! ha! ha! what is this? At this rate, it looks as if we were celebrating a wedding!"

And as he thus went on ceaselessly keeping the ball rolling, the young lady, though bashful, was glad too, and, while pretending not to look at Hagiwara Shinzaburō, was casting furtive side-glances at him; and, as an illustration of the saying that "when the intention is there,

Shinzaburō wo yokome de jiro-jiro minai furi wo shi-nagara mite orimasŭ to,—'ki ga areba, me mo kuchi hodo ni mono wo iu' to iu tatoe no tōri, Shinzaburō mo jōsama no yoi kiryō ni mi-torete, muchū ni natte orimasŭ. Sō kō suru uchi ni, yūkei ni narimashĭta kara,

Shinzaburō: "Kore wa hajimete ukagaimashite, hakarazu go chisō ni narimashita. Mo o itoma itashimasu."

O Yone: "Anata! mada o hayō gozaimasŭ." Mo sotto go yururi asobashimase"—to, o jōsama no kokoro-arige na yōsu wo sasshi, iro-iro to todomete orimasŭ to, Shinzaburō mo, kokoro no uchi wa omoi wo kakete orimasu ga, mada seken naremasen yue, moji-moji shite:

"Arigatō zonjimasŭ. Shǐkashi yo ni irimasŭ to, taku no mono mo anjimasŭ yue, mata kasanete ukagaimasŭ" to, kotoba wo nokoshĭte, tachi-kakemashĭta kara,

Shijō: "Sayōnara<sup>18</sup>, o itoma mōshimasā. Kyō wa iro-iro go chisō ni narimashite, arigatō gozaimasū. Izure kinjitsu, o rei kata-gata, o ukagai mōshimasū.—Sā! Hagiwara Kun, o tomo itashimashō" to,—jibun wa katte narete orimasū kara, O Yone to jōdan ii-nagara, genkwa no hō ye mairimasū to,

O Yone: "Shijō San! Anata no tsumuri ga taisō pika-pika to hikatte mairimashita yo!"

Shijō: "Nani sa! Sore wa, akari de miru kara,

<sup>16.</sup> Here used half in its original and proper sense of "if that is so," half in its newer sense of "good-bye."

the eyes can say as much as the mouth,' Shinzaburō too, captivated by the girl's beauty, felt as if he were in a dream.

While they were thus occupied, the evening was drawing in. So Shinzaburō said:

"Many thanks for your kind hospitality on this my first visit. I think I must now be taking my leave."

"Oh!" cried O Yone, who had guessed her young mistress's tender passion, and who therefore did her best to detain the young man, "it is still early. Please don't be in such a hurry."

Shinzaburō, too, in his heart of hearts, was in love, but as he was still ignorant of the world, he was embarrassed and said:

"Many thanks. But when it gets dark, my people will become anxious about me; so I will call again another day instead."

With these parting words, he made to go. So Shijō said:

"Well then, we will take our leave. Many thanks for all your kind hospitality to us to-day. We will certainly come in a few days to call and thank you.—Come along, Mr. Hagiwara! let us go!"

And with these words, knowing, as he did, his way about the house, he went in the direction of the entrance, joking with O Yone all the while.

"Mr. Shijō," said O Yone, "your head has become perfectly shining."

"Nonsense!" retorted Shijō, "you only think it shines, because you are looking at it under the light,—ha! ha!"

hĭkaru no desŭ wa, në!" to,—futari wa ki wo kikashi, o jōsama to Shinzaburō wo ato ni nokoshi, jōdan-majiri ni iro-iro no hanashi wo shi-nagara, saki ye mairimashita.

Ato ni Shinzaburō wa o jōsama ni okurare-nagara, hǐto-me no nai no wo saiwai ni, hazukashisa wo koraete, kogoe de nani ka kuchi-yakusoku wo itashimashĭta kara, O Tsuyu Sama wa hazukashisō ni:

"Anata! Sore de wa, mata kitto oide kudasaremashi! Kite kudasaranakereba, watakŭshi wa shinde shimaimasŭ yo!" to,—muryō no jō wo fŭkunde, omoi-kitte mōshimashita.

O Yone: "Sayōnara! konnichi wa makoto ni o sōsō sama. Sayōnara!" to,—Shijō, Shinzaburō no ryō-nin wa, uchi-tsure-datte kaerimashita.

Sono nochi Shinzaburō wa, o josan no kotoba ga mimi ni nokori, shibashi mo wasureru hima wa arimasenanda.

Thus did these two display their tact as they walked on towards the entrance, talking and joking about all sorts of subjects, and leaving the young lady of the house and Shinzaburō behind. Shinzaburō, to whom the young lady showed the way, was only too glad to find that no one was by to see. So, overcoming his shyness, he whispered some vow into O Tsuyu's ear, thereby making her look bashful and answer:

"Oh! then, do please come again! If you don't come, I will die,—indeed I will." In this decided manner did she speak, with infinite love in her words.

"Good-bye!" cried O Yone. "Pray excuse the poorness of our entertainment to-day. Good-bye!"—and thereupon Shijō and Shinzaburō went off together.

From that day forward the young girl's words remained in Shinzaburō's ears, and he never forgot them even for a moment.

## A WORD ABOUT POETRY.

¶ 460. With few exceptions, all the Japanese poetry that is esteemed by the educated is written in the Classical language of a thousand years ago. Even the ditties sung by singing-girls to the twanging of the *samisen* are usually more or less Classical in diction. Hence it is difficult to find verses written in the Colloquial that shall be worthy to place before the student. The following specimens are therefore offered with some diffidence. The chief positive characteristics of Japanese poetry are:

I. Its lines of five syllables and seven syllables. This is the basis on which all the existing varieties of the stanza are raised.

II. Its extreme shortness,—three, four, or five lines constituting an entire poem.

III. The terseness of the style, the poetical sentence often having no verb and being in fact rather an exclamation than an assertion. These Lilliputian poems remind a European of the sketches in which a Japanese artist will represent a flight of cranes passing before the moon, or a bamboo swaying in the wind, with but half-a-dozen bold touches of the pencil.

The chief negative feature of Japanese poetry is the absence of rhyme and of quantity. Long vowels, diphthongs, and syllables ending in n or m do indeed count double; but that is because they were originally pro-

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nounced separately, and are still figured separately in the Kana writing.

- ¶ 461. Here is a miniature ode,—what is called a hokku,—by the poetess Chiyo, who flourished in the 18th century:—
  - (5) Asagao ni
  - (7) Tsurube torarete,
  - (5) Morai-mizu!

lit. "Having had my well-bucket taken away by the convolvuli,—gift-water!" The meaning is this:—Chiyo, having gone to her well one morning to draw water, found that some tendrils of the convolvulus had twined themselves round the pole serving to work the bucket. As a poetess and a woman of taste, she could not bring herself to disturb the dainty blossoms. So, leaving her own well to the convolvuli, she went and begged water of a neighbour,—a pretty little vignette, surely, and expressed in five words. Whether the circumstance actually occurred or not, we cannot undertake to say; for Japanese poets are as much given to the invention of apocryphal esthetic incidents, as our own rhymesters of an earlier generation were to the invention of non-existent Chloes and Amelias,\*

- ¶ 462. The following is a hokku by the most famous of all hokku-writers, Bashō, a poet of the latter part of the seventeenth century. It is entitled Getsu-zen no Hototogisu, or "The Cuckoo in Front of the Moon:"
  - (5) Hito-koe wa,
  - (7) Tsŭki ga naita ka?
  - (5) Hototogisu!

lit. "As for the single note, did the moon sing?—Cuckoo!"

(is a parody on the above, depicting the plight of a man driven by his wife's excessive thrift to beg a meal of a neighbour.

<sup>\*</sup> Nyōbō ni O hachi torarete, Morai-meshi!

The poet means that, startled by the note of the cuckoo, he looked up in the direction whence it came,—to see, however, no cuckoo, but the brightly shining moon. Could it then be the moon that was the songstress? No, it must be the cuckoo after all.

- ¶ 463. Japanese poets are fond of jokes, puns, and whimsical notions. The already-mentioned Bashō was riding along a country lane one day, when his disciple Kikaku espied a red dragon-fly, and cried out in verse
  - (5) Aka-tombo-
  - (7) Hane wo tottara,
  - (5) Tō-garashi!

i.e., "Pluck off the wings of a red dragon-fly, and you have a cayenne pepper-pod." But Bashō reproved him for so cruel a fancy, and corrected the verse thus:

- (5) Tō-garashi-
- (7) Hane wo tsuketara,
- (5) Aka-tombo!

i. e., "Add wings to a cayenne pepper-pod, and you have a red dragon-fly."

- ¶ 464. The following  $ky\bar{o}ka$ , or "comic poem," of thirty-one syllables, contains a pun on the words go-bu go-bu, "five parts and five parts," i.e., "half and half," and gobu-gobu, an onomatope for the gurgling sound made by a liquid in issuing from a bottle:—
  - (5) Kimi mo nomi
  - (7) Boku mo nomu kara,
  - (5) Wari-ai mo
  - (7) Go-bu go-bu to tsugi-
  - (7) Dasu taru no sake!

This may mean either: "Oh! the liquor from the cask, poured out in equal halves, because, as you are drinking and I too am drinking, proportion must be observed," or "Oh! the liquor from the cask poured out gurgle-gurgle, because, etc."

- ¶ 465. The following contains no pun, but has a delicate touch of satire :--
  - (5) Hototogisu
  - (7) Jiyū, jizai ni
  - (5) Kiku sato wa,-
  - (7) Saka-ya ni san-ri,
  - (7) Tōfu-ya ni ni-ri!

i.e., "The village where one may listen undisturbedly to the cuckoo's song is—three leagues from the grog-shop, and two from the bean-curd shop!"-Notice in passing that this stanza of thirty-one syllables is the vehicle of the greater portion of the Classical poetry of Japan.

- ¶ 466. The dodoitsu generally consists of three lines of seven syllables and one of five. Take, for instance,
  - (7) Hito wa suki-zuki, ( So many men, so many tastes.
  - . (7) Soshiru wa yabo yo! To blame is clownish. He who (7) Horete iru ucha, is in love is blind, though is in love is blind, though possessed of eyes.
    - (5) Aki-mekura.
    - (7) Shote wa jodan, (7) Nakagora giri de,
    - (7) Ima ja tagai ni Fitsu to jitsu. (5)

At first 'twas a joke, in the mid-time a duty, but now it is true love on both sides.2

I. For uchi wa, Such contracted forms in a are common in the popular poetry. In the next poem we find nakagora for nakagoro wa. -2. It is to be understood that, though no longer enamoured of his choice, the lover had remained faithful to her through a feeling of honour,-a feeling which was rewarded by the eventual growth of solid mutual affection.

(7) Konna kokoro ni

(7) Shita no mo omae.

(7) Ima-sara akite wa,

(5) Kawaisō.

You it is who have put my heart in this state. For you to weary of me now is cruel.<sup>3</sup>

¶ 467. Occasionally the dodoitsu has five lines, thus:—

(5) "Kono hana wa

(7) Kataku oru-na<sup>4</sup>!" to

(7) Iu tate-fuda mo,(7) Yomenu kaze ni wa

(5) Zehi mo nashi.5

Even a board stuck up and inscribed with the words "It is strictly prohibited to pluck these blossoms" is useless as against the wind, which cannot read.

¶ 468. We will end up by a longer poem of a form called *Sendai-bushi*, which, though containing two or three Book Language forms, is otherwise easy. It is put into the mouth of one who was exiled to a small island beyond the stormy reach of sea called the Genkai-nada, to the north-west of Kyūshū:—

(7) Tori mo kosanai

(7) Genkai-nada wo

(8) Yarareru kono mi wa,

(5) Itowanedo,—

(7) Ato ni nokorishi<sup>7</sup>

(5) Tsuma ya ko wa,
(7) Dō shǐte tsuki-hi wo

(5) Okuru yara<sup>8</sup>?

I care not for myself, who am sent across the Genkai Sea over which even the birds do not pass. But the wife and children who have remained behind,—how will they spend the months and days?

3. In the little book from which this verse is taken, there is, opposite the lines, a picture of a girl weeping and stretching out imploring hands to a man who is turning his back on her.—4. Lit. "positively break not!" kataku being equivalent to kesshite,—5. Equivalent to shikata ga nai.—6. This line has eight syllables instead of seven, by a poetical license.—7. Nokorishi is Classical for nokotta.—8. Yara comes from Classical ya aran, which is equivalent to the Colloquial de arō ka?

# VOCABULARY

OF

### ALL THE JAPANESE WORDS

#### OCCURRING IN THIS WORK

(All verbs are of the 1st. conjugation, unless marked 2, 3, or irregular. Compound verbs are given under their first member, as mi-sokonau under miru. When several references to pages are given, the most important reference is placed first.)

Α

AKA

### A

ā, like that, in that way: ā iu, that kind of, such as that.

ā! or aa! ah!

abayo, good-bye (in baby language).

abiru (3), to bathe.

abu, a horsefly.

abunai, dangerous.

abura, a general name for all oil, grease, and fat.

achi or achira, there.

adakamo, as if, just as, as it were. ada, an enemy.

aete, venturing (the present aeru is not in use); but sometimes a mere expletive belonging to the Written Style.

agari, ascent, produce: agarisagari suru, to go up and down.

agaru, to rise; to get clear (said of the weather); also to take, to eat or drink (honor.): agari-komu, to force one's way up into. For agaru honorific, see pp. 251, 202.

ageku ni, as a final result, at last.
ageru (2), to raise, hence to give to a superior. For honorific use of ageru, see pp. 250-1.

ai, a verbal prefix; see p. 73.

ai, indigo, dark blue.

ai (properly ayu), a kind of trout.

aida, an interval, time, while (see p. 41): aida-gara, connection, relationship: aida ga ori-aimasen, do not get on well together.

ai-kawarazu, without change, the same as heretofore.

aikoku(shin), patriotism.

ai-niku, inopportune.

aisatsu, salutation, acknowledgment, response, answer; aisatsu suru, to salute, to answer.

aisuru (irreg.), to love.

aita! or aitata! oh! how painful! see p. 237.

aite, a party (to a transaction), an antagonist (at a game), a companion.

ajiwai, taste, flavour.

akagane, copper.

akai, red, brown.

akambō, a baby.

akami, a tinge of red.

akari, a light.

akarui, light (not dark).

ake-gata, dawn.

akeru (2), to open (trans.); to begin (intrans.),—said of the New Year

aki, autumn.

aki-mekura, one who is blind, but has his eyes open.

akinai, trade, commerce.

akinau, to trade.

akindo, a merchant, a dealer.

akippoi, easily wearied, fickle.

akiraka (na), clear, evident:

akiraka ni, clearly.

akireru (2), to be astounded.

akiru (3), to be satiated.

akke ni torareru (2), to be amazed, thunder-struck.

akkō, bad language, abuse.

aku, evil, vice.

aku, to open (intrans.), to become vacant: aite iru, to be open, to be unoccupied, not used.

aku-hei, vicious habits.

**akuru**, Class. form of *akeru*, to open, used Colloq. in such expressions as *akuru hi*, the next day.

akŭtō, a villain.

ama, a (Buddhist) nun.

amai, sweet.

amami, a tinge of sweetness.

amari, too much, too; (with a negative) not very, see p. 148.

amaru, to exceed, to remain over.

amasu, to leave or have over.

ambai, way, manner, bodily feelings: ambai ga warui, I feel unwell; dō iu ambai? how? kono ambai de wa, thus; yoi ambai ni, fortunately.

ame, rain; ame ga furu, to rain;ame ni naru, to come on to rain.ame, a kind of sweetmeat made of

fermented grain.

Amerika, America, the United States: *Amerika-jin*, an American; *Amerika no*, American.

ami, a net: ami wo utsu, to net (fish).

amma, a shampooer.

amu, to weave, braid, compile: ami-tateru, ditto.

an, an opinion, a case, a point, a draft, a bill.

an, a hermitage.

ana, a hole, a cave, a tunnel.

anadoru, to jeer, to revile.

anata, you; see pp. 46-8, 239.

andon, a lamp (of the old-fashioned Japanese style with paper sides).

ane, an elder sister.

ani, less often aniki, an elder brother; conf. p. 256.

ani, a negative particle; see p. 169. anjiru (3), to be anxious.

anna, that kind of, such as that.

annai, guidance, knowing one's

way about, a guide: annai suru, to guide.

ano, that (adj.): ano hito, he, she; ano ne! see p. 239.

anshin, mental ease: anshin suru, to feel at ease.

an-yo, the feet, to walk (in baby language).

aoi, green, blue.

aoru, to slam backwards and forwards (intrans.);—said of a door. ao-suji, blue lines, e. g., on the

forehead.

ara! see p. 237.

arai, rough: ara-arashii, ditto. arakajime, beforehand.

araserareru (2), to be, hence to go (very honorific); conf. p. 150.

arashi, a storm, a typhoon. arasoi, a dispute.

arasou, to dispute.

arata ni, anew.

aratamaru, to be renewed, overhauled, altered, rectified.

aratameru (2), to renew, overhaul, examine, alter, rectify.

arau, to wash.

arawareru (2), to show or reveal oneself, to appear.

arawasu, to show, to reveal. arayuru, see p. 365, note 9.

are, that (subst.); it, he, she, see pp. 53, 48: are hodo, as much as that; are kara, after that.

ari-awase-mono, anything that there may happen to be.

ari-gachi, apt to be.

arigatai, thankful (said both of the person who feels thankful, and of the thing for which he is thankful); hence sometimes beneficent: arigatō (gozaimasŭ), thank you; conf. p. 255.

arimasŭ, see pp. 221-2.

arisama, a state, a condition.

ari-tei, the facts of a case.

aru, (irreg.) to be; see pp. 170, 190-1, 221, 129, 210, 223: de aru, see p. 222: aru nashi, see p. 34; arino mama, see p. 76. Sometimes aru means a certain, some, as in aru toki, on a certain occasion, sometimes.

aruiwa, or else.

aruji, the master of a house, a host.

aruku, to walk.

asa, the morning: asa-gao, the morning glory, or convolvulus; asa-han, breakfast.

asagi, light blue, light green.

asai, shallow.

asatte, the day after to-morrow.

ase, perspiration: ase ga deru, to perspire; ase ni naru, to get into a perspiration.

ashi, the foot, the leg; ashi no yubi, the toes; o mi ashi, see p. 249.

ashīta, to-morrow; ashīta no asa, to-morrow morning.

asobasu, an honorific equiv. of the verb *suru*, to do; see p. 251.

asobi, a game.

asobu or asubu, to play, to amuse oneself.

asŭko, there: asŭko kara, thence; asŭko ye, thither.

asŭkoera, thereabouts.

ataeru (2), to give, to grant.

atai, price, value.

atama, the head: atama-kabuse, and atama kara kogoto wo iu, see p. 364, note 6.

atarashii, new, fresh.

atari, neighbourhood, hence near, on or about.

atari-mae, ordinary, generally: atarimae no, usual, proper.

ataru, to hit the mark, also to be near, as hi ni ataru, to sit near the fire: ni atatte, just at; dochira ni atatte? where?

atatameru (2), to warm (trans.). atchi, vulgar for achi, there.

ate, reliance: ate ni naru, to be reliable; ate ni suru, to rely on.

ateru (2), to apply one thing to, or use it for, another; to hit: ate-hameru, to allot, to assign; kaze wo ateru, to have it windy.

ato, traces, effects, a sign, behind, afterwards, the rest: ato de, or sono ato, afterwards; ato no, the remaining, other; ato-saki, the context, circumstances.

atsui, hot.

atsui, thick (said of solids).

atsŭkau, to manage, to undertake.

atsumaru, to collect (intrans.). atsumeru (2), to collect (trans.).

atsuraeru (2), to order (e. g. things at a shop).

atsusa, heat, the degree of heat. atsusa, thickness, the degree of thickness.

au, to meet, to agree, to suit; see also p. 251: ame ni au, to get rained upon; hidoi me ni au, to experience cruel treatment: hidoi me ni awaseru, to treat cruelly.

aware (na), poor, pitiable.

awase-mono, something artificially joined together.

awaseru (2), to cause to meet, hence to add, to join.

awatadashii, flurried.

awateru (2), to be flurried,—especially from fright.

ayamachi, a fault.

ayamatsu, to make a mistake.

ayu, a species of trout.

azana, a nickname.

### В

ba, a place;—used only in composition, as furo-ba, a bathroom.
ba, (auxil. numeral), see p. 110.
ba, (conditional suffix), see p. 167.
ba-ai, case, occasion.

babā, an old woman (rude). bai, double; see also p. 118.

baka, a fool: baka na, or bakarashii, foolish, absurd; baka ni, foolishly; hito wo baka ni suru,

to make a fool of a person.

bakari, about, only, just.

bakemono or *o bake*, any supernatural and uncanny creature, a ghost, a goblin.

bakkin, a fine.

bakŭchi, gambling.

Bakufu, the Shōgun's government. bakuron, confutation.

bambutsu, all things, nature.

bamme, a word used to form ordinal numbers; see p. 115.

bam-meshi, supper, (late) dinner.

ban, ten thousand, a myriad; also used as a pluralising prefix, as ban-ji, all things: bankoku, all countries, international.

ban, an evening, a night.

ban, number (so-and-so); see p. 115.

ban, watch, guard: ban wo suru, to keep watch.

banchi, the number (of a house in a street).

banto, a head clerk or manager.

banzai, hurrah, see p. 239.

banzuke, a programme.

bara, a thorny bush, a rose-bush.

bara-bara, helter-skelter.

bari, insult, abusive language: bari suru, to revile, to slander.

basha, a carriage.

basho, a place.

bassui, an extract.

bassuru (irreg.), to punish.

bata, butter (from English).

bāya, an old lady, grandmamma (in baby language).

bebe, clothes (in baby language).

bei (vulg. for beshi), see p. 122. Beikoku, America, the United States.

beki, see pp. 121-2, 124, 132.

bekkō, tortoise-shell.

bemmei, elucidation, explanation: bemmei suru, to elucidate.

bengoshi, a barrister.

benjiru (3), to discuss.

benjo, a water-closet.

benkō, eloquence: benkō no yoi, eloquent, glib.

benkyō, diligence, study.

benri, convenience: benri no yoi or benri (na), convenient, benri no warui, inconvenient.

bentō, food carried with one, e. g. luncheon for a picnic.

beppin, lit. another quality; hence a superior article, (hence metaph.) a pretty girl.

berabo (-me), a scoundrel.

Berugii, Belgium.

beshi, see p. 122.

bessō, a villa.

betsu, a difference; betsu ni, differently, specially; betsu no, different, other; betsu-zumai, living apart.

betsudan (no), special.

bettaku, a villa.

bettō, a groom.

biiru, beer (from English).

bijin, a belle.

bijutsu, the fine arts.

bikko, lame.

bimbō, poverty: bimbō na, poor.

bin, opportunity, convenience.

bin, a bottle.

bin, the Japanese cue.

bō, a bludgeon, a stick.

bōei, defence.

bōeki, trade.

bokkyaku suru (irreg.), to destroy.

boko, violent conduct.

boku, a servant, hence I.

bokumetsu, destruction.

bokŭshi, a pastor, a clergyman.

bokŭtō, a mock sword made of wood.

bon, a tray.

bonten-obi, a cheap striped belt worn by coolies and servants.

bon-yari, an onomatope for obscurity, tedium, dullness: bon-yari shita dull, dazed, obscure.

boron, an absurd opinion.

bosan, a Buddhist priest.

bōshi, a hat, a cap.

botan, a peony.

botchan, a little boy; see p. 240.

bōto, a boat; conf. p. 6.

bōtō, a preamble.

boy, a house-servant, a valet (from English).

bozu, a Buddhist priest (rude).

bu, a negative prefix: bu-ashirai, discourteous, inhospitable; buchōhō, awkwardness.

bu, a copy of a book.

bu or bubun, a part, see pp. 118-

budo, grapes: budo-shu, wine.

buji, no accident, safe and sound. buki, a weapon.

Bukkyō, Buddhism.

bummei, enlightenment, civilisation: bummei na, civilised, cultured.

bumpai, distribution.

bumpō, grammar.

bun, a part, see pp. 118-9.

bun (shō), a written composition. Buppō, Buddhism.

bura-bura, in a sauntering manner.

burei, rudeness; burei na, rude, impertinent; go burei, see p. 247.

buri, a suffix signifying gait, demeanour.

busata, failure to give notice, remissness in paying a visit: go busata, see p. 247; watakŭshi ni busata de, without letting me know.

bushi, a warrior.

bushō (na', indolent, slovenly, lazy.

butsu, to beat, to strike: buchiataru, to knock up against; buchi-korosu, to beat to death; buchi-taosu, to knock down.

butsu, a thing (in compounds), buttsukeru (2), (for buchi-tsŭkeru) to bump.

buttsuri to, slashingly.

byōki, a disease: byōki (na), ill, sick.

byōnin, an invalid, a patient. byōshin, a weakling.

# C

cha, tea; cha-nomi-jawan, a teacup; cha wo ireru, to make tea. cha, (termin. of the emphasised gerund), see pp. 166, 182. chakusuru (irreg.), to arrive. chan, baby language for San, Mr., Mrs., or Miss. chanto, correctly: chanto shita, correct. chawan, a tea-cup, a bowl. chaya, a tea-house. chi, blood: chi ga deru, to bleed (intrans.); chi-gatana, a bloodstained sword. chi, a thousand (in compounds). chi-banare, weaning (of an infant). chichi, a father; but see p. 256. chichi, the breasts, hence milk. chie, intelligence, wisdom. chigai, a difference, a mistake: chigai nai, there is no doubt. chigau, to differ, hence to be mistaken, to be the wrong one. chihō, a direction, a locality. chii, position. chiisai, or chiisa na, small: chiisaku naru, to crouch.

chiji, a prefect.

chijō, blind love. chijoku, shame.

chikagoro, recently.

chijimeru (2), to shrink (trans.).

chikai, near: chikai uchi, soon.

chikara, strength: chikara wo tsŭkusu, to do one's best, to endeavour. chikazuki, friendship, timate friend. chikuba, a sort of toy stick on which children ride-a-cock-horse. chikuba no tomo, a friend from childhood upwards. chikushō, a brute animal, a beast. chimba, lame. chin, a Japanese pug. Pugs are not included under the generic term inu dog.) chira-chira, flutteringly. chira-hora, scattered, here and there. chirasu, to scatter (as the wind does dead leaves). chiri, dust. chiru, to be scattered. chishĭki, talent, wisdom. chiso, (generally with the honorific go prefixed) a feast. chi(t)to, see choito. chitsujo, order. chō, an auxil. num.; see p. 108. chō, a butterfly. chō, a measure of distance equivalent to about 120 yards English. There are 36 chō in the official ri or league. Chō also means street or ward: ni-chō-me, the second ward (of such and such a street). chō, government office. chōai, love: chōai suru, to love.

chōbatsu, punishment: chōbatsu suru, to punish.

chōchaku suru (irreg.), to give a thrashing, to beat.

chōchin, a lantern.

chōchō, a butterfly.

chō-chō, an onomatope for the sound of beating or chattering.

chōdai suru (irreg.), to receive respectfully; conf. p. 251.

chōdo, just, exactly.

chōhō, convenience: chōhō na, convenient, useful.

choi choi (to), little by little, just a little.

choito, choto, chotto, chito, or chitto, just a little, a trifle: choito shita, slight, trifling; chotto, is also used to signify about, as in chotto ichi-nen, just about a year.

chōjō, the summit of a mountain. chōkai, disciplinary punishment. chōki, a long period.

chōryū, tide, current.

chōsa, investigation.

Chōsen, Korea.

chōshū suru (irreg.), to levy.

chōsuru (irreg.), to refer to, to corroborate by.

cho(t)to, see choito.

chōwa, unification, conciliation.

chōyō, age; see p. 359, note 5.

**chōza**, sitting long, paying an interminable visit: *chōza suru*, to pay too long a visit

chōzu, water to wash the hands

with: chōzu-ba, a water-closet; chōzu-bachi, a washhand-basin (porcelain); chōzu-darai, ditto (metal).

chū, in; conf. p. 146.

chū or chūgi, loyalty (to a superior): chū wo tsūkusu, to behave with perfect loyalty.

chūgen, a samurai's retainer of the lower sort.

chūi, attention, care: chūi suru, to pay attention.

chūmon, an order (e. g. at a shop): chūmon dōri, as ordered.

chūryaku, see p. 374, note 7.

chū(shaku), commentary. chūshi, cessation, stoppage.

chūshin, the centre.

chūshin, a loyal retainer. chūtō, second class, middling.

chū-ya, day and night.

D

da, see pp. 64, 222: da ga, but.
dai, great, big, very. Used in compounds, as dai-kirai, greatly disliking: dai-siki, very fond.

dai, a word used to form ordinal numbers, see p. 115; dai-ichi ni, in the first place; dai-is-shin, a Court of First Instance.

dai, a table.

dai, a reign, a generation.

dai, the auxiliary numeral for vehicles; see p. 108.

daibu, a good deal.

daichi, the ground.

dai-dokoro, a kitchen.

daigakkō, a university.

daigaku. daihyō suru (irreg.), to represent.

daiji, importance: daiji na, important; daiji ni suru, to take great care of.

daijin, a minister of state.

daijobu (na), all right, safe and sound.

daikai, the ocean.

daiku, a carpenter.

daimyō, a feudal lord; conf. p. 7.

dairi, a substitute.

daishin-in, the Court of Cassation.

daitai, the general character of a thing, its main features.

daitoryo, a President,-of the United States, etc.

dajaku (na), indolent.

dake, only, about, as .... as,

damaru, to keep silence.

damasu, to cheat.

dampan, negotiation.

dan, a step, degree: dan-dan, gradually; see also p. 326, note 23.

dangen suru (irreg.), to assert.

dangi, a speech, a sermon, advice.

dango, a kind of dumpling.

dangō, consultation: dangō suru, to take counsel.

danjiru (3), to consult.

danna, a master: danna san sometimes means you or he, see p. 47.

dannen suru (irreg.), to cease thinking of.

dano, a postposition; see p. 80.

danshi, a male child, a man. dantai, a group or set of men.

dantei suru (irreg.), to assert. conclude.

darake, a suffix meaning smeared or covered with, as chi-darake, blood-smeared; doro-darake, all covered with mud.

dare? who?-dare ka, dare mo. dare de mo, see p. 52; dare-dake? exactly who?

darō, see p. 222.

dashi-nuke, unawares, suddenly. dasu, to take out, to put outside; see also p. 218.

datta, see p. 222.

datte! see p. 364, note 4.

de, a postposition; see p. 62: de aru, de arimasu, and de gozaimasu, see p. 222; de gozaimasu no, see p. 80; de mo, see pp. 55, 95-187; de motte, see p. 73; de wa, see pp. 64, 97.

de-guchi, an exit, the way out.

de-iri, the entrée to a house; deiri no isha, a family physician.

de-kakeru (2), to start off.

de-kata, a troupe of actors.

deki, workmanship, produce; o deki or dekimono, anything which comes out on the skin, as a boil, a sore.

dekiru (3), to come out, etc.; see p. 202: deki-agaru, to be finished, ready.

dempata, landed property.

dempō, a telegram.

densembyo, an infectious disease. densha, an electric tram.

denshin, telegraphy: denshinkyoku, a telegraph-office.

denwa, the telephone.

deru (2), to come out of, to issue forth, to go out: de-au, to meet out of doors, to encounter; dekakeru, to go out.

de-shabaru, to stick out, to obtrude (intrans.).

deshi, a pupil, a disciple.

deshita, see pp. 171, 223.

deshō, see p. 223.

desŭ, see pp. 64, 171, 223: desu, ga, see p. 286.

do (concessive suffix), see p. 167.

do, a time (une fois): ichi-do, once.

do, same (in compounds): dojitsu, the same day; dōyō, the same manner.

do? how?-do de mo, anyhow; do itashimashite or do tsukamatsurimashite, see p. 285, No. 3; do iu? what kind of? what like? dō (ni) ka, kō (ni) ka, see p. 301, No. 7; do suru? what shall you do? do shite? how? do shite mo, do what you will, in any case; do shita mon' da? see bottom of p. 301.

do-ai, degree, amount.

dobutsu, an animal.

dochi? or dochira, where? sometimes which?-for this word with ka mo, or de mo added, see p. 52.

dodo taru, mighty.

dodoitsu, a kind of popular song; see p. 487.

dōgu, a utensil, tool; dōgu-ya, a furniture shop.

doi, the same opinion: doi suru, to agree.

Doitsu, Germany; Doitsu-jin, a German; Doitsu no, German.

doitsu (no), identical, equal.

doka, somehow or other, hence please; but see pp. 52 and 255.

dokkoisho! see p. 237.

doko? where? doko ka, doko mo, doko de mo, see, p. 52; doko kara? whence? doko made? how far? doko made mo, see p. 71.

dokoera? whereabouts?

dokoro, see p. 42.

doku, poison: doku ni naru, to be unwholesome.

dokushin(-mono), a bachelor, a spinster.

domo, a pluralising suffix; see

do(mo), (concessive suffix), p. 167. domo! see pp. 52 and 237.

don, bang: don to, with a banging noise.

donata? who?-donata ka, donata mo, donata de mo, see p. 52.

donna? what kind of? what like? donna ni...mo, however much.

dono? which? (adj.): dono kurai? how much?

dono, Mr. (in Book Language).
dore? which? (subst.): dore-dake?
what amount? dore ka, dore mo,
dore de mo, see p. 52; dore hodo?
how much?

dori, reason.

doro, mud: doro-ashi, muddy
feet; doro-darake, all muddy;
doro-michi, a muddy road.

dorobō, a thief.
dōsuru (irreg.), to be agitated.
dote, an embankment, a bank.
dōtoku, morality.
doya-doya, tumultuously.

doyōbi, Saturday. dozō, a mud godown, conf. p. 13. dōzo, please, but see pp. 52 and 255.

### E

e! eh! eh?
e, a picture.
eda, a branch of a tree, river, etc.
egaku, to paint (pictures).
ei! ah! oh!
Ei(koku), England: Eigo, the
English language.
e-kaki, a painter.

eki, profit.
embi-fúku, a swallow-tail coat.
Emma, the Buddhist Rhadaman-thus.

empitsu, a pencil.
empō, a long way off.

en, a yen or Japanese dollar = about fifty cents of American money, or two shillings English.

endan, a rostrum.
engawa, a verandah.
engumi, marriage.
enja, kinsfolk.
enkaku, changes, development.
en-kin, distance, how far?
enkon, enmity.

ennichi, a festival day; hence a fair.

enryo, diffident: enryo suru, to be diffident.

ensei-kwan or ensei-shugi, pessimism.

ensoku, an excursion, a picnic. enzetsu, a lecture, a speech: enzetsu suru, to lecture.

enzuru (irreg.), to play, to do. erabu, to choose. erai, wonderful, able, very. eri. a collar.

eru (2), to get; conf. p. 199.
eru, to choose: eri-dasu, to select
from among several,

eshaku, an apology, a bow:
eshaku wo suru, to bow, to
apologise.

Ezo, the island of Yezo.

### F

fu, a negative prefix.fū, two (in enumeration).

fu-annai, ignorant of, unacquainted with.

fuben or fubenri, inconvenience. fubo, father and mother. fuda, a ticket. fudan, the ordinary routine: fudan no, usual, common.

fude, a pen: fude-sashi, a penstand.

fu-deki, badly made.

fuen suru (irreg.), to enlarge upon.

fueru (2), to increase (intrans.).

fūfu, husband and wife.

fufŭku, discontent.

fuhai, putrefaction: fuhai suru, to rot.

fu-ikitodoki, negligent.

fuji, the wistaria plant.

fujin, a lady.

Fuji(-san), Fujiyama.

fujiyū, inconvenience, discomfort: fujiyū na, inconvenient.

fŭ-kagen, unwellness.

fŭkai, deep.

fŭkeiki, hard times, depression of trade.

fŭkeru (2), properly to deepen: yo ga fŭkeru, to become late at night; toshi ga fŭkeru, to grow old. Also to be steeped in (e.g. in vice).

fukō, a misfortune.

fŭku, an auxiliary numeral; see p. 108.

fŭku, to blow (e.g. the wind): fŭkimawasu, to blow round.

fŭku, to wipe.

fŭkumu, to contain, to include.

fŭkurasu, to distend, to swell (trans.).

fŭkuro, a bag: o fŭkuro, a mother, but see p. 256.

fŭkushū, revenge.

**fŭkuzatsu**, a medley, a complication: *fŭkuzatsu na*, disorderly, complicated.

fumbetsu, discrimination.

fu-mimochi, vice, immorality.

fumu, to tread (on): fumi-hazusu, to stumble; fumi-shimeru, to tread firmly.

fun, a fraction, a tenth part, a minute: jū-go-fun, a quarter of an hour.

fundo, anger.

fune, any kind of boat or ship: fune ni you, to be sea-sick.

fu-ninjo, unkindness.

funkwa-zan, a volcano.

Furansu, France: Furansu-jin, a Frenchman; Furansu no, French.

fureru (2), to touch; hence to infringe.

furi, a fall (of rain or snow).

furi, airs, gait, pretence.

furo, a bath: furo-ba, a bath-place. furokku-kōto, a frock-coat (from the English word).

furoshĭki, a cloth used to wrap up parcels.

furu, to fall,—said only of rain, snow, hail, etc.: furi-dasu, to come on to rain, etc.; furi-komerareru, to be kept indoors by rain or snow; furi-komu, to come into the house (said of rain, etc.).

furu, to brandish, to wave: furimuku, to turn and face. furue-goe, a quivering voice.

furueru (2), to quiver, to tremble.

furui, old (said only of things): furu-dōgu, an old utensil or curio.

furuu, to shake (trans.).

**fŭsagaru**, to be obstructed, to be quite full.

fŭseru (2), to lie down, to go to bed.

füsetsu, rumour, report.

fŭ-shi-awase, misfortune.

fŭshigi, a strange thing, a miracle: fŭshigi na, strange.

fŭshin, doubt: fŭshin ni omou, to consider suspicious, to doubt.

fŭshin, building: fŭshin-chū, while building, while undergoing repairs.

fu-shinsetsu (na), unkind.

fŭshōchi, dissent, objection: fŭshōchi wo iu, to object.

fusuru (irreg.), to submit (trans.), to hand over.

fŭta, a lid.

fŭtago, twins.

**fŭtari**, two persons: *fŭtari-mae*, portions for two.

fŭta(tsu), two: fŭtatsu-me, second; fŭtatsu mitsu, two or three; fŭtatsu oki, every third (lit. leaving out two).

fŭto, suddenly, accidentally.

fŭtodoki (na), insolent.

**fútokoro**, properly the bosom of a dress, but used to signify a breast pocket.

fŭton, a bed-quilt.

fŭtoru, to grow fat; fŭtotta, fat. futsū (no), usual, general.

Futsu, French (in compounds, as) Futsu-go, the French language.

futsugō, inconvenience.

futsŭka, two days, the second day of the month: futsŭka-me, the second day; futsŭka-yoi, the day after a carousal.

fuyasu, to increase (trans.).

fuyu, winter.

fuzai, not at home, absent.

fuzen, evil, wrong.

fūzoku, manners, customs.

# G

ga, a postposition; see pp. 65, 89-91, 140-1.

gaitō suru (irreg.), to be liable, conformable.

gake, a talus, a precipice.

gake, while, during, as kaeri-gake, while returning, on the way back.

gakkari, a sort of onomatope for bodily exhaustion.

gakkō, a school.

gakkwa, a subject, or line of study.

gaku, science, learning.

gaku, a tablet, a picture (oblong and hard).

gakumon, study, learning.

gakuri, theory.

gakŭsha, a learned man.

gakuyū, a fellow-student.

gaman, patience: gaman suru, to be patient.

gara, a suffix; see p. 302, footnote 18.

garasu, glass (from the Dutch). garu, a verbal suffix; see p.

Gasshūkoku, the United States. gasŭ, (for gozaimasŭ) see p. 64. gata, a pluralising particle; see p. 29.

gaten, comprehension, acquiescence: gaten suru, to comprehend, to acquiesce; gaten no ikan, incomprehensible.

gatera, while, as, by way of.
gedai, the title (of a drama); conf.
p. 332, foot-note 31.

gehin (na), vulgar, base. gei, an accomplishment, a trick.

geji-geji, a myriapod.

gejo, a maid-servant.

gekiretsu (na), ferocious.

gen ni, in fact.

genan, a man-servant.

gen-an, the draft of a document, a bill (Parliam.).

gen-in, cause, origin.

genjiru (3), to diminish.

genki, good spirits: genki ga ii, in good spirits.

genkin, ready money, cash. genkō, now in operation.

genkotsu, the knuckles.

genkwa(n), the entrance to a house, a porch.

genri, principle.

genron, speech, discussion.
genso, an essence, an element.
a factor, an atom.

gensoku, principle.

genzai, the present time.

gerō, a (low-class) man-servant.

gesŭ, (for gozaimasŭ) see p. 64.

gesuru (irreg.), to understand.

getsu, a month; —used only in compounds, as *ik-ka-getsu*, one month.

getsuyōbi, Monday.

gi, duty, signification, affair.

gichō, a chairman, a president.

gidai, a subject of discussion.

gi-in, one of the Houses (of the Diet).

gi-in, a member of an assembly.
gikwai, a public assembly, the
Imperial Diet.

gimon, a question.

gimu, duty, an obligation.

gin, silver.

gi-nen, doubt, suspicion.

giri, duty, right or proper feeling.

giri, only; see kiri.

giron, argument.

go, five.

go, an honorific prefix; see pp. 143, 245-7.

go, after: sono go, since then.

gō, a designation, a name, a number.

gō, a district.

gobu-gobu, see p. 486.

godan, a wrong decision.

gogo, the afternoon.

go-gwatsu, May.

gohan, rice, food.

gohan, a wrong judgment.

goin, the sound of a word.

go-jō (五常), the five cardinal virtues according to Confucius, viz., jin, gi, rei, chi, shin, i.e., benevolence, righteousness, propriety, wisdom, and sincerity.

go-jū, fifty.

goku, extremely, very.

goku, a prison.

gokumon, the exposure of a criminal's head.

gokuri, a jailer.

Go-kyō, see 366, note 10.

gomen, (properly go men), lit. august pardon; gomen nasai, please excuse me.

gomi, dust (on things).

gōmon, torture.

gondayū, the title of a high official of former times, a kind of vice-minister.

Go-on, see p. 7.

goran nasaru (irreg.), to deign to look; conf. pp. 11 and 251. Occasionally goranjiro, occurs as the Imperative.

go-ri muchū, great perplexity (see p. 123).

goro, time, about, as kono goro, now; san-ji-goro, about three o'clock.

goro-goro suru (irreg.), to purr, to rumble.

go-roku, five or six.

gosŭ, see pp. 64, 171.

gotoki, like, such as; see p. 121.
goto (ni), a suffix meaning each,
 every.

gozaimasŭ, gozarimasŭ, gozaru, gozansŭ, gozasŭ, to be; see pp. 64, 171, 221-3, 242: de gozaimasŭ, see pp. 64, 138, 222.

gozen, boiled rice, (hence) a meal: gozen-mae, not having dined.

gozen, the forenoon.

gu, stupid: gufu, my father (see p. 257).

gujin, a dolt, an ignoramus.

gun, a district.
gunkan, a war-vessel:

gurai, about, approximately.

gururi, around.

gusai, my wife; see p. 257.

gushi, (with honorific prefix ο), the Court word for hair.

gutto, tightly, suddenly.

guzu-guzu, a word descriptive of the sound or act of complaining or scolding.

gwai, outside (in compounds).

gwaikoku, foreign countries, abroad: gwaikoku-jin, a foreigner; gwaikoku-no, foreign.

gwaimushō, the foreign office. gwanrai, originally.

gwansho, a written application.

gwan-yaku, a pill.

gwappi, the day of the month, a date.

gwatsu, a month; see p. 116.
gyō, work, business.
gyōsei-hō, laws regulating the
executive power.

### H

ha, a leaf (of a tree).

ha, a tooth: ha-migaki, tooth-powder; ha ga itai, I have a toothache.

haba, width: haba no hiroi, wide. habakari, shamefacedness, diffidence, (hence) a water-closet.

habakaru, to be ashamed, to dread.

habikoru, to spread (intrans.); to get disseminated.

hachi, a pot.

hachi, eight.

hachi-gwatsu, August.

hachi-jū, eighty.

hadan, breaking off: hadan suru, to break off (e.g. negotiation).

haeru (2), to grow (intrans.).

hagaki, a post-card.

hagi, the lespedeza shrub.

haha, a mother; but see pp. 256-7.

ha-hā! ho! ho! I see.

hai, the auxiliary numeral for cupfuls of liquid; see p. 109.

hai, a fly.

hai! same as hei!

hai, a fellow.

haichō suru (irreg.), to listen respectfully.

haiken suru (irreg.), to look re-

spectfully at something belonging to a superior; conf. pp. 11 and 251.

hairu, to go in, to enter: haitte
iru, to be inside, to be contained.

haishaku suru (irreg.), to borrow, see p. 251.

haishi, abolition.

haisuru (irreg.), to abolish.

haji, the edge, ledge, or end of anything.

hajimari, the beginning.

hajimaru, to begin (intrans.).

hajime, the beginning.

hajimeru (2), to begin (trans.), often little more than simply "to do" and conf. bottom of p. 92.

hajimete (gerund of hajimeru), for the first time, never before: conf. p. 324, No. 21.

hakama, a kind of wide trousers worn in half full dress.

hakaru, to weigh, to estimate, to plot: hakarazu, unintentionally.

haki-dame, a dust-heap.

hakken, discovery.

hakkiri (to), clearly.

hakkō suru (irreg.), to issue, publish.

hako, a box.

hakobu, to transport, to convey. haku, to spit, to vomit: tan wo

haki-tsŭkeru, to spit on a person.

haku, to sweep.

haku, to wear or put on the feet or legs.

hakubutsŭ-kwan, a museum.

hakurai, imported from abroad: hakurai-hin, an imported article.

hakurankwai, an exhibition.

hakŭshu, clapping of hands.

hama, the sea-beach, the strand: hama-be, ditto.

hambun, half: hambun-chigai, a difference of half. Conf. p. 118.

hamono, a blade.

han, a clan (in feudal Japan).

han, half: han-nichi, half the day, han-nigori, see p. 23; jū-ichiji han, half-past eleven.

han, rice, a meal.

hana, a flower, a blossom: hanaike or hana-tate, a flower-vase; hana-mi, going to see the blossoms; hana-muko, a bridegroom; hana-yome, a bride.

hana, the nose; hana no saki, the tip of the nose.

hanahada, very; hanahada motte, see p. 73.

hanahadashii, excessive, extreme.

hanare-mono, a separate or separable thing.

hanareru (2), to separate from,
to part with.

hanashi, a story, a talk, something said or told: hanashi no tsuide, apropos of something said.

hanasu, to speak, to tell: hanashikakeru, to accost.

hanchū, a clansman.

haneru (2), to splash,—as mud

(intrans.); to cut off,—as a head (trans.).

hankō, opposition.

hankyō, an echo.

hannin, a criminal.

hansei, introspection.

hanshi, a common kind of writingpaper.

hanshi, a provincial samurai.

hanshō, a fire-bell.

hantai, contrary: hantai suru, to oppose.

hanzai-nin, a criminal.

haori, a sort of coat worn by the upper and middle classes as half full dress.

**happi**, a kind of cheap livery-coat worn by servants and coolies.

happu, publication.

happyō, to make public.

hara, a moor.

hara, the abdomen: hara ga heru, to be hungry; hara ga itai, to have a stomach-ache; hara wo kiru, to commit harakiri; hara wo tateru, to get angry.

hara-kiri, see p. 34.

harau, to clear away (trans.); hence to pay.

hareru (2), to clear (intrans.),—said of the sky or clouds.

hari, a pin, a needle.

hari-gami, a paper label; harigami wo suru, to paste on a label.

hari-tsŭke, crucifixion: haritsŭke ni suru, to crucify. haru, to stick (trans.).

haru, spring(-time).

haruka, afar.

hasami, scissors.

hasen, shipwreck: hasen ni au, to be shipwrecked.

hashi, chopsticks.

hashi, a bridge.

hashigo, a ladder: hashigo-dan,

hashira, a post; also the auxiliary numeral for Shintō gods and goddesses.

hashiru, to run.

hassuru, to put forth.

hasu ni, obliquely.

hata, the side,—e.g. of a canal or of a well.

hata, a flag.

hatachi, twenty years of age.

hatake, a vegetable field.

hatamoto, an immediate vassal of the Shōgun in feudal Japan, ranking next to the daimyōs.

hataraku, to work.

hatashite, after all, really.

hate-na! well, I never! how extraordinary!

hateru (2), to finish (intrans.).

hatsŭka, twenty days, the twentieth day of the month.

hatsumei, an invention, a discovery, inventive genius.

hatsuon, pronunciation.

hattatsu, development: hattatsu suru, to develop (intrans.).

hatto, an onomatope for starting,

—as with fright or sudden recollection of something forgotten.

haya-goshi, see koshi.

hau, to creep.

hayai, quick, early: ga hayai ka, as soon as.

hayari, a fashion: hayari no, fashionable; hayari-gi, a fashionable craze.

hayaru, to be wide-spread (e.g. a disease), to be fashionable.

hayashi, a forest.

hayasu, to grow (trans.),—e.g. a beard.

hazu, necessity, should, ought; conf. p. 41.

hazukashii, bashful.

hazukashimeru (2), to put to shame, to insult.

hazukashisa, bashfulness.

hazure, the end (e.g. of a village). hazureru (2), to come out of its

proper place, to miss, to fail.

he! hei! or hai! yes; but see
bottom of p. 234.

hei! same as he!

hei, a hedge, a fence.

hei, broken down, effete; see p. 257.

heian, peace.

Heika, Your, His, or Her Majesty.

heiki, a weapon.

heiki, nonchalant.

heikin, an average.

heisha, our firm; see p. 257.

heiwa, peace.

heizei (no), usual.

hempi, out-of-the way.

hempō, requital; hempō-gaeshi, tit for tat.

hen, a change: hen na, odd, queer. hen, a neighbourhood, a locality.

hen, a time (une fois).

hen, a section of a book, a treatise.

henji, an answer.

henjiru (3), to change.

henkwa, a change.

hentō, an answer.

herasu, to diminish (trans.).

heru, to diminish (intrans.).

heru (2), to pass through.

heta (na), a bad hand at, unskilful.

heya, a room, a cabin.

hi, the sun, hence a day: hi ga kureru, the day is waning, darkness approaching; hi no de, sunrise; hi no iri, sunset.

hi, fire: hi wo tsŭkeru, to set fire; hibachi, a brazier.

hi, a Chinese negative prefix.

hi, expense (in compounds).

hi, one (in enumeration).

hi-aburi, burning alive.

hidari, the left (side).

hidoi, harsh, cruel: hidoi me ni au, to experience harsh treatment; hidoi me ni awaseru, to treat harshly.

hieru (2), to be cold.

higaisha, an injured person.

higasa, a parasol.

higashi, east: higashi-kita, north-east; higashi-minami, south-east.

hige, the beard: hige we hayasu, to grow a beard.

higure, dusk, night-fall.

hijō (na), unusual, extraordinary.

hikari, light (in the abstract).

hĭkaru, to shine, to glitter.

hiketsu suru (irreg.), to reject.

hĭki, an auxil. num.; see p. 109.

hiki-dashi, a drawer.

hikkomu, to retire inside.

hikkonuku, to draw (a sword).

hikkuri-kaesu, to upset.

hīku, to pull, to draw, to withdraw, hence to quote: hīki-dasu, to draw out; hīki-muku, to draw (e.g. a sword); hīki-utsuru, to remove (intrans.), to change house.

hĭkui, low.

hikutsu, servility: hikutsu na, servile.

hĭkyō, cowardice: hikyō na, cowardly.

hima, an interval, leisure: hima wo yaru, to dismiss, also to allow to go on leave.

himitsu (na), secret.

hinata, the sun (only in the sense
 of sunlight): hinata ye hosu, to
 dry in the sun.

hineru, to twist (trans.).

hinkō, conduct: hinkō no ii, well-conducted, moral.

hinku, extreme poverty.

Hiragana, the cursive form of the Japanese syllabary.

hirakeru (2), to be opened out, to become civilised.

hirattai, flat.

hiroi, broad.

hiroi-mono, something picked up, a find.

hiromaru, to spread (intrans.). hiromeru (2), to spread (trans.). hirou, to pick up, hence to find.

hiru (3), to dry (intrans.).
hiru, day-time, noon; hiru (-go-zen), the midday meal, luncheon,

hiru-mae, the forenoon; hiru-

sugi, the afternoon.

hisashii, long (of time).

hishō suru (irreg.), to squander. hisō suru (irreg.), to guard

jealously, to treasure up.

hissori to, quiet, deserted.

hisuru (irreg.), to compare.

hĭtai, the brow, the forehead.

hitei suru (irreg.), to deny.

hito, a person, a human being; conf. p. 48: hito-gara, personal appearance, hito-goroshi, murder, manslaughter, a murderer; hito-me, public notice; hito-mezurashii, rare (of visitors, etc.); ano hito, he, she.

hitoe, properly one fold; hence single: *Hitoe* ni, earnestly, please.

hitori, one person, hence alone: hitori-de ni, of itself, spontaneously.

hĭtoshii, equal to, same as.

hito(tsu), one; sometimes whole, all, same: hito-ban, all night

long; hito-me, one look; hito-tōri, generally; hito-tsuhu-dane, an only child. hitotsu michi, the same road; hitotsu oki, alternate.

HOH

hitsubatsu, certain punishment. hitsuyō (na), indispensable.

**hiya**, cold; hence, with the honorific prefix o, cold water (so called at Court and by women).

hiyori, the weather.

hiza, the knee; hiza wo tsiku, to fall on one's knees.

hizuke, a date (of the month, etc.).

hō, a law, a rule, a usage; hō ga nāi, unreasonable.

**hō**, side; but see p. 144; *hōbō*, on all sides, everywhere; *hō ga yoi* (or *ii*), see pp. 177, 255.

hō, the cheeks.

hōan, a bill (Parliam.).

hobo, nearly, mostly.

hōbun, the text of the law.

hōchō, a (kitchen) knife.

hodo, degree, quantity, proper limit, about, as nan-ri hodo? about how many miles?—Also as much as, conf. pp. 113, 145, 147; hodo naku, forthwith.

hōdō, imformation.

hoeru (2), to bark: hoe-kakaru, to spring at with a bark.

hōgaku, a direction (point of the compass): hōgaku ga tsŭku, to find one's way.

hohō! oh!

hoho, manner, way, means.

ho-ho-ho! the sound of laughter.
hoka, another place, besides,
except: no hoka ni, besides;...
suru ni hoka wa nai, there is
nothing for it but to; hoka de
mo nai ga, see p. 287, No. 26.

hoken, insurance.

hokennin, an underwriter.

hokku, a stanza of seventeen syllables; see p. 485.

hōkoku, a report.

hōkoku, countries.

hōkō-nin, a servant.

hokori, dust (in the air).

hōkwa, arson.

homburi, heavy lasting rain, not a passing shower.

homeru (2), to praise.

hōmon suru (irreg.), to visit.

hon, a book; less often same as honto: hon no, true, quite, mere.

hon, an auxil. num.; see p. 109.

hone, a bone: hone ga oreru or hone wo oru, to take a great deal of trouble.

hongi, true meaning, principle.

hongoku, one's native country.hon-in, lit. the present member, used by members of any assemb-

ly in the sense of I, me. honkwai, this assembly.

honō, a flame.

honshō, the original and true character.

hontō, truth; hontō no, true, real.
hon-ya, a book-store, hence a bookseller.

hon-yaku, a translation: hon-yaku suru, to translate; hon-yaku-sho, a translated work.

honzen, the virtue natural to man.

hora(-ana), a cave.

horeru (2), to be in love.

hori, a canal, a moat.

hōri, legal principle.

hori-tate-goya, a shanty, a log hut.

hōritsu, a law.

horobiru (3), to be overthrown or ruined.

horobosu, to overthrow, to ruin.

horu, to dig, to excavate, to carve.

hōru, to throw.

hōsei, legislation.

hoshi, a star.

hoshii, desirous; see p. 65, and conf. oshii.

hosoi, narrow: hoso-nagai, slender.

hossuru (irreg.), to wish.

hosu, to dry (trans.).

hotaru, a fire-fly.

hotoke, a Buddha.

hotondo, almost; (with a negative) hardly.

hototogisu, a cuckoo.

hōyū, a companion, a friend.

hōzai-gaki, a doctor's prescrip-

hōzu, an end, a limit.

hyaku, a hundred: hyaku-man, a million.

hyaku-manako, a sort of game or show in which a number of masks are used.

hyakŭshō, a peasant, a farmer. hyō, a vote.

hyō, a paradigm, table.

hyōban, rumour, report: hyōban wo suru, to gossip.

hyōgi, a conference.

hyōmei suru (irreg.), to express. hyoro-hyoro, an onomatope for staggering.

hvorotsŭku, to stagger.

hyōryū suru (irreg.), to drift: hyōryū-jin, a stranded sailor.

hyōsuru (irreg.), to express. hyōtan, a gourd.

#### 1

i (oftener *ido*), a well.
i, signification, intent.
i, different (in compounds).
ibaru, to put on airs.
ibi, vulg. for *yubi*, a finger.
ibō, forgetfulness.
ibutsu, a remnant.

ichi, one: ichi-nim-biki, pulled by one man; ichi-nin-nori, accommodating one person; ichi-ichi, each, every.—Ichi is used idiomatically, e.g. in ichi-ban, number one, but also first, most (see p. 145); ichi-nichi, one day, but also the first of the month, all day long; ichi-nichi oki, alternate days.

ichi(-ba), a market(-place), a fair. ichi-gai, altogether.

ichigen-shugi, monism.

ichi-ō, once, once for all.

idaku, to embrace.

ido, a well.

ie, a house: ie no uchi, indoors.

ie, no; see p. 234.

iedomo, though; sometimes even.

ifuku, a garment.

igi, objection.

Igirisu, England: Igirisu-jin, an Englishman; Igirisu no, English.

igo, henceforward.

igwai, besides.

ii, a corruption of yoi, good.

i-in, a committee-man: i-in-kwai, a committee.

ii-tsŭtae, a tradition.

ii-wake, an excuse: ii-wake wo iu, to excuse oneself.

ii-watashi, a sentence (legal).

ii-yo, a way of saying.

ijiru, to touch, to meddle with, to tease.

iji suru (irreg.), to keep, maintain. ijō, from thence upwards, that and upwards (the Japanese reckoning inclusively), after, because.

ika? an interrogative word found in ikaga, the compounds ikahodo, etc.: ika na koto? what sort of? what?

ikaga? how?

ikahodo? how much?

ikaku suru (irreg.), to scare.

ikan? or ikani? how? ikan sen, what is to be done? alas!

ikan, regret.

ikanimo, yes, certainly, p. 235.

ikari, anger.

ikasu, to vivify, to free.

ike, a pond.

iken, opinion: iken wo noberu, to give one's opinion.

ikenai (neg. potential of iku, to go), "is no go," "won't do."

iki, the act of going, the way there.

iki-nari, abruptly.

ikioi, strength, force.

ikiru (3), to live: ikite iru, to be alive.

ikka? what day? such and such a day.

ikkyo ryōtoku, killing two birds with one stone.

ikkō, with a negative verb, not at all.

ik-kon, a glass (of wine).

ikkwan suru (irreg.), to be thoroughgoing.

iku? how many? iku bun ka,
 rather, more or less; iku-hon?
 iku-mai? iku-nin? iku-tabi?
 etc., see p. 113.

iku (irreg.), to go; see pp. 171,251:
iki-au, to chance to meet; iki-chigau, to cross and miss one another; iki-kaeru, to go and come back again; iki-tagaru, to want to go; iki-todoku, to reach, to be effectual; itte shimau, to go away.

ikubaku, how many? how much?

ikura? how much? ikura ka, ikura mo, ikura de mo, pp. 52, 113; ikura mo nai, there are hardly any.

ikŭsa, war: ikŭsa wo suru, to make war.

iku(tsu)? how many?—ikutsu mo, ikutsu de mo, see p. 52.

ima, now: ima-doki, or ima-jibun, now; ima hitotsu, one more; ima motte, see p. 73; imasara, now again; ima ni itatte, by this time.

ima-imashii, disagreeable.

imashimeru (2), to reprove, to warn (conf. p. 213).

imi, signification, meaning.

imōto, a younger sister.

imu, to shun.

ina! nay! ina ya, yes or no: aru ka ina ya or ya ina ya, whether there is or not.

inai, within the limits of; towards the interior.

inaka, the country (as opposed to the town).

ine, rice (growing).

Indo, India.

inkyo, see p. 352, note 11.

inochi, life.

inori, prayer; inori wo suru, to pray.

inoru, to pray.

inu, a dog.

in-yō suru (irreg.), to quote.

ip-pai, one cupful, full: ip-pai na, full; ip-pai ni suru, to fill.

ippan (no), general, universal. ippen, a thorough change.

irā, see p. 193.

irai, henceforth, since, after.

iraserareru (2), see pp. 171, 251.

irasshai or iraserare, Imperative of irassharu, see pp. 171, 253.

irassharu (irreg.), see pp. 171, 251; 223.

ireru (2), to put in, to insert; to make (tea); conf. pp. 228-9.

iri-kumu, to be complicated.

iri-mame, parched peas.

iri-umi, a gulf, a bay.

iriyō (na), needed, necessary.

iro, colour,: *iro-iro* (*no*), all sorts. ironna, all sorts, various.

iru, to enter; conf. p. 228-9: iri-komu, to enter.

iru (3), to be; see pp. 191, 223, 228—9, 251; ...irarenai (preceded by a negative), cannot do without.

iru (3), to shoot.

irui, garments, clothing.

isha, a physician.

ishi, a stone.

ishin, authority.

isogashii, busy.

isogi, a hurry.

isogu, to make haste.

issai, whole, altogether; (with a neg.) not at all.

issakujitsu, the day before yesterday.

is-setsu, a (tenable) opinion.

is-shin, one person: jibun isshin, oneself only.

isshō, a whole life-time.

issho ni, together.

is-shu, one kind, a sort.

issui, causing floods.

isu, a chair.

itadaku, to receive; see pp. 203, 250.

itai, painful, hurting.

itameru (2), to hurt (trans.).

itami, pain.

itamu, to hurt (intrans.).

itaru, to reach: ni itaru made, down to: ni itatte, at.

itasu, to do; conf. p. 195.

itatte, very.

itchi, union, unison.

itchō, one morning, hence suddenly.

ito, a string, thread: itoguchi, a clue.

itoma, leave (of absence), dismissal: mô o itoma itashimasŭ (or môshimasŭ), I must be saying good-bye; itoma-goi, leave-taking.

itou, to avoid, to be weary of.

itsu, same as ichi, one.

itsu? when?—itsu ka, itsu mo, itsu de mo, see p. 52; itsu made (tatte) mo, see p. 71; itsu no ma ni ka, some time or other.

itsŭka, five days, the fifth day of the month.

itsŭ(tsu), five.

itsuwari, a lie.

ittai, altogether; but sometimes almost an expletive.

it-tan, once.

it-tan, one case.

itto, first class, one degree.

it-toki, one hour, once.

iu, to say, see pp. 185, 251:

to itte, see p. 83; to iu, see pp.
58, 69, 82; to ka iu, see p. 69;
to itte mo, see p. 187; to wa
iedo mo, see p. 187; ii-dasu,
to say, to express, to enounce;
ii-kakeru, to address, to speak
to; ii-kikaseru, to tell; iitsŭkeru, to order; iu made mo
nai, needless to remark.

iwa, a rock.

iwaba, see p. 185.

iwaku, a Classical form of iu, to say; see p. 361, note 10.

iwanya, how much more.

iwayuru, see p. 369, note 20.

iya! nay! no! (rarely) or else: iya na, objectionable; iya desŭ yo! see p. 288, No. 31.

iyagaru, to dislike.

iyashĭku-mo, even if, supposing that.

iyo-iyo, more and more.

izen, previously; izen no, previous.

izumi, a spring, a fountain.

izure? which? in any case; but

often a mere expletive: *izure no*, some...or other.

#### J

ja, a contraction of de wa; see pp. 64, 97: ja nai ka, see pp. 64, 189; at the beginning of a sentence, well then.

ja, to be; see p. 223.

jakkan, (how) much, (how) many.

jakuten, a weak point.

jama, obstruction, impediment: jama wo suru, to be in the way; o jama, see pp. 247, 290 (No. 49).

jano, the Kyōto equiv. of dano.

ji, earth, ground.

ji, time, hour, as in nan-ji? what o'clock? roku-ji han, half-past six o'clock.

ji, a written character or word, specifically a Chinese ideograph: ji wo hiku, to look out a word.

jibiki, a dictionary.

jibun, a time, a season.

jibun, self: jibun no, one's own.

jidai, epoch, time.

jiden, an autobiography.

**jigi** (generally with o), a bow—of the head and body.

jigoku, hell.

jihaku, confession: jihaku suru to confess, to own.

jijitsu, a fact.

jijō, circumstances, reason.

jikan, a period of time, hour.

jika-dōchaku, self-confutation.

jiki (ni), immediately.

jikisan, a vassal of sufficiently high rank to be allowed personal access to the Shōgun.

jikken-shitsu, a laboratory.

jikkō suru (irreg.), to execute, to practice.

jikō, temperature, the state of the weather.

jikō, effect of time.

jikoku, an hour, time, period.

**jimbutsu**, people, figures (as opposed to scenery), etc.

jimen, a plot of ground.

jimmin, the people (of a country).

jimusho, an office.

jin, a person, a man.

jinja, a Shintō temple.

jinka, a human habitation, a house.

jinrikĭ(sha), a jinrikisha, i.e., a species of bath-chair pulled by a man.

jinryoku suru (irreg.), to endeavour, to do one's very best.

jinshu, a race of men.

jirei, an example.

jiriki, one's own strength.

jiro-jiro, furtively, by snatches.

Jirō, a man's name; see p. 36. jiron, an opinion, a contention.

jisan suru (irreg.), to bring (respectful).

jisatsu, suicide: jisatsu suru, to commit suicide.

jisetsu, a season, a time.

jishin, self.

jishin, an earthquake.

jishimban, a ward-office, a warden,—a kind of police-office and of policemen, under the Tokugawa régime.

jisho, a dictionary.

**jishu**, voluntary confession of crime.

jissai, practice (as opposed to theory), fact.

jisuru (irreg.), to refuse.

jiten, a dictionary.

jitensha, a bicycle.

jitsu, truth: jitsu no, true.

jitsu-getsu, the sun and moon.

jitsujō, real state.

jitsurei, an actual instance.

jiyū, freedom, liberty: jiyū-kei, confinement; jiyū na, free; jiyūseido, a free government; jiyūseido-ron, radical opinions.

**jizai,** freedom,—rather in private than in political matters.

jō, passion, tenderness.

 $j\bar{o}$ , a lock:  $j\bar{o}$  we oresu, to lock.

jō, the auxiliary numeral for mats. jō, on, with regard to, in the matter of, from the standpoint of, as gakumon.jō, from the stand-

point of erudition. jō, an article, a line.

jōbu (na), sturdy, solid, strong.

jōbukuro, an envelope.

jochū, a maid-servant.

jodan, a joke: jodan wo iu, to

joke; jōdan-majiri ni, half-jok-ingly.

jogwai suru (irreg.), to exclude, abolish.

jōjō, circumstances: jōjō wo kumu, to take circumstances into account.

jōki, steam.

.jōkoku, an appeal.

jorei, an official regulation.

jōriku suru (irreg.), to land (intrans.).

jōro (jorō), a courtesan.

jōsama (generally with *ο* prefixed), a young lady, Miss, a daughter (honorific).

jōso, an appeal.

jōtō, first-class; jōtō-shakwai, aristocratic society.

jōyaku, an agreement, a treaty: jōyaku wo musubu, to make a treaty.

jōzu (na), a good hand at, skilful.

ju, age, longevity.

jū, the *nigori*ed form of *chū*; see p. 146.

jū, ten: jū-man, a hundred thousand; jū ni hak-ku, (lit. eight or nine out of ten), ten to one.

juban, a shirt.

jūbun, plenty, ample, quite.

jū-go, fifteen: jū-go-nichi, fifteen days, the fifteenth day of the month: jū-go-roku, fifteen or sixteen.

jū-gwatsu, October.

jū-hachi, eighteen; jū-hachi-ni-

chi, eighteen days, the eighteenth day of the month.

jū-ichi, eleven: jū-ichi-nichi, eleven days, the eleventh day of the month.

jū-ichi-gwatsu, November.

jūji suru (irreg.), to engage in.

jū-jū, over and over again.

jū-ku, nineteen: jū-ku-nichi, nineteen days, the nineteenth day of the month.

jukuryo, serious reflection.

jūkyo, residence; jūkyo suru, to reside.

jumbi, preparations.

jumoku, a tree.

jumpū, a fair wind.

jun, the regular order or turn.

jū-ni, twelve: jū-ni-nichi, twelve days, the twelfth day of the month.

jū-ni-gwatsu, December.

junjo, order, sequence, turn.

junsa, a policeman.

jūō, lengthwise and crosswise, to and fro.

jūrai, hitherto.

jū-roku, sixteen: jū-roku-nichi, sixteen days, the sixteenth day of the month.

jū-san, thirteen: jū-san-nichi, thirteen days, the thirteenth day of the month.

jū-shi, fourteen.

jū-shǐchi, seventeen: jū-shíchinichi, seventeen days, the seventeenth day of the month.

# K

ka, a mosquito.

ka, an auxil. numeral; see p. 109.
ka? an interrogative postposition; see pp. 68, 55: ka mo, see p. 72; ka mo shiren, perhaps.

ka (in compounds); house, oftener a person.

kaban, a portmanteau, a leather bag.

kabe, a mud wall.

kabu, a stump, used as the auxiliary numeral for shrubs.

**kabu**, stock, shares: *kabu-nushi*, a shareholder.

kabuki, a dramatic performance.kabuseru (2), to put on to another's head, to impute.

kado, a corner.

kado, a gate, sometimes an item.
kaeri, the way back; kaeri-gake
ni, on the way back.

kaeru, to return (intrans.), hence to go away: kaeri-michi, the way back.

kaeru (2), to change (trans.), to exchange, to substitute.

kaesu, to give back, to send back, to return (trans.).

kaesu-gaesu, over and over again.

kaette, contrary to what one might have expected, rather.

kagaisha, an aggressor, offender. kagami, a mirror. kage, shade, shadow, reflection, hence influence: no kage ni, in the shadow of, behind: o kage sama, see p. 293, No. 84-5.

kagen, amount, hence flavour, also the bodily feelings; conf. p. 288, No. 32, foot-note.

kagi, a key.

kagiri, a limit, as long as: kagiri no nai, boundless.

kagiru, to limit, to be limited :... ni kagirazu, is not restricted to ..., not only.

kago, a kind of palanquin.

kaifuku suru (irreg.), to restore, repair.

kaigun, the navy.

kaihen, the sea-shore.

kai-inu, a pet dog.

kaijō, the surface of the sea: kaijō-hoken, marine insurance.

kaiko, a silkworm.

kaikoku suru (irreg.), to open a country (to foreign trade, etc.).

kaikwa, civilisation: kaikwa su-ru, to become civilised.

kaikwa, repentance.

kaimono, a purchase, shopping: kaimono wo suru, to shop.

kairyō, improvement.

kaisan, dispersion, adjournment.kaisei, amendment, revision:kaisei suru, to revise.

kaishin, reform: kaishin suru, to reform.

kaji, a rudder.

kaji, household affairs: kaji-mu-ki, the state of a household.

kakageru (2), to raise, to publish.

kakari, having to do with, as in kakari no mono, the person in charge; kakari-ai, implication,—e.g. in a crime.

kakaru, to hang (intrans.), to be in place, e.g. a bridge; see also p. 218: o me ni kakaru, see p.
74. Sometimes kakaru means to cost, also to take time.

kakawarazu, in spite of.

kake, a broken fragment, a bit.

kake-au, to discuss, to bargain, to arrange about.

kake-hĭki, bargaining.

kakemono, a hanging scroll.

kakene, an overcharge: kakene wo iu, to make an overcharge.

kakeau (2) to run.

**kakeru** (2), to be flawed or nicked, to wane.

kakeru (2), to hang (trans.), to put; see also p. 219.

kakeru (2), to be able to write; conf. p. 206.

kaketsu, adopting, passing,—as a motion.

kaki-mono, a document.

kaki-tsŭke, a note, a memorandum, a bill.

Kakka, Your or His Excellency. kakkoku, all countries, foreign countries in general. kaku, an angle: kaku-zatō, loafsugar.

kaku, each (in compounds).

kaku, thus: kaku no gotoki, such; kaku made, to such an extent.

kaku, to scratch, to write; kakinaosu, to write out fair; kakiowaru, to finish writing; kakisokonau, to make a mistake in
writing; kaki-tomeru, to register;
kaki-tsükeru, to jot down.

kakubetsu (no or na), different, special.

kakudan (na), special.

kakugi, a cabinet council.

kakugo, determination, readiness.

kakujitsu, every other day.

**kakumei**, a revolution (in government, etc.).

kakureru (2), to hide (intrans.).

**kakuritsu suru** (irreg.), to stand firm, to establish firmly.

kakushin, reform.

kakŭsu, to hide (trans.).

kamau, to have to do with, to meddle with, to matter: kamai-masen, it doesn't matter.

kamban, a signboard.

kamben, forbearance, forgiveness: kamben-zuyoi, patient.

**kame**, a tortoise: *kame-no-ko*, ditto in Tōkyō Colloquial.

kami, above, upper: o kami, the government; o kami san, see okamisan.

kami, a Shintō god or goddess.

Most of the Protestant missionaries use this term to denote the Christian God.

kami (no ke), the hair of the head: kami-yui, a hair-dresser.

kami, paper: kami-ire, a pocket-book.

Kamigata, a general designation for the old capital Kyōto and its neighbourhood.

kaminari, thunder.

kami-shimo, above and below, hence a samurai's ceremonial coat and a divided skirt.

kamo, a wild-duck.

kampan, the deck of a vessel.

kampeki, the temper (of a person): kampeki ni sawaru, to irritate one's temper.

kampuku, see kanshin.

kamu, to bite.

kan, interval; see p. 118.

kan, heating: kan wo tsŭkeru, to heat sake.

Kana, the Japanese syllabic writing; see p. 9.

kanagu, metal work, metal fastenings.

**kanai**, inside a house, all the members of a household; hence a humble word for wife.

kanarazu, positively, certainly.

kanau, to correspond, to agree with, to eventuate, to succeed.

kan-dan, cold and heat, temperature.

kandankei, a thermometer.

kane, metal, money: kane-ire, a purse; kane-mochi, a rich man.

kane, a bell.

kaneru (2), to be unable; see p. 203.

kanete, beforehand, together.

kangae, consideration, reflection, a thought, an intention: kangae wo okosu, to have an idea come into one's head; kangae ga tsŭku, to hit on an idea; kangae no ue, on consideration.

kangaeru (2), to consider, to reflect.

kangamiru (3), to look at, consider.

kangoku, a convict prison.

kan-in, adultery.

kanji, a feeling: kanji ga okoru, to begin to feel.

kanjiru (3), to feel.

kanjō, an account, a bill: kanjō wo suru, to do accounts.

kankwa, influence.

kannan, toil, hardship.

**kannin**, patience; *kannin suru*, to be patient.

kannushi, a Shintō priest.

kano, Classical for ano, that.

Kan-on, see p. 7.

kanshaku, a quick temper: kanshaku-mochi, quick-tempered.

kanshin, admiration, astonishment: kanshin suru, to admire, to be astonished at.

kanshu, hot sake.

kantei, examining and judging:

kantei suru, to judge (as a connoisseur).

kanzen, incitation to virtue.

kanzuru (irreg.), see kanjiru.

kao, the face: kao-zoroi, everybody being present, the full troupe.

Kara, China.

kara, a postposition; see pp. 70, 275: kara ni, kara shite, see p. 70; kara to itte, see p. 83.

kara, a collar (from the English). kara (na), empty.

karada, the body (of any living creature).

karamu, to twine (intrans.).

kare, Classical for are, that: kare kore, this, that, and the other; more or less, pretty well.

kari (in compounds), temporary.
kariru (3), to borrow, to hire;
conf. pp. 164, 251: kari-kiru, to
hire the whole of.

karōjite, barely.

karonjiru (3), to think lightly of.
karui, light; hence soft (in speaking of water).

kasa, a broad sun-hat, a parasol, an umbrella.

kasa, quantity, amount.

kasanaru, to be piled up, to be repeated.

kasaneru (2), to pile up, to repeat.

kasanete, several times, again.

kashĭkoi, awe-inspiring; also clever.

kashĭkomaru, to receive orders respectfully: kashĭkomarimashĭta, all right, Sir!

kashĭkomu, to reverence.

kashikosa, sublimity, cleverness. kashi-nagaya, a nagaya to let.

(conf. p. 281, foot-note 3.)

**kashira**, the head, a chief, a superior.

kassai, applause.

kasu, to lend, to let (e.g. a house).

kata, the side of anything, a direction, hence one side, one: kata-ashi, one foot; kata-gata, at the same time as on the occasion of: kata-kage, shade on one side of the road: kata-te, one hand; (o) kata, a gentleman, a lady; ano kata, he, she: kono kata sometimes means since.

kata, a shoulder: kata-saki, ditto. katachi, shape, form.

katai, hard, stiff; hence strict, honest.

**Kata-kana**, the square form of the Japanese syllabary.

kataki, an enemy (private).

katamaru, to grow hard.

katamukeru (2), to bend to one side (trans.).

**katana**, a sword: *katana-ya*, a sword-shop, a dealer in swords.

katazukeru (2), to put away, dispose of.

**katchiri**, a word expressive of the sound of clicking.

katei, home.

katō, low class, third class (on railways, etc.).

katoku, the headship of the family.

katsu, to conquer, to win.

katte, will, choice, (hence) convenience, (hence) kitchen; go katte desŭ, you can do as you like; katte narete iru, to know one's way about a house.

katto, an onomatope for sudden-

kau, to buy: kai-ageru, to buy up (said of the government); also to buy at a higher price; kaikiru, to buy up the whole of; kai-mono, a purchase; kai-toru, to buy.

kau, to keep (domestic animals). kawa, a river.

kawa, the skin, rind, or bark of anything; leather.

kawaii, pet, dear little, poor little.

kawaisō, worthy of pity, in distress.

kawaku, to get dry: kawaite iru, to be dry; nodo ga kawakimashita, I am thirsty.

kawari, a change,—especially for the worse: no kawari ni, instead of; sono kawari ni, on the other hand, see also p. 99; kawari no otoko, another man (instead of the usual one); kawari-mono, an eccentric person. **kawaru**, to change (intrans.), to be a substitute.

kawazu, a frog.

kaya, a mosquito-net.

kayasu, vulg. for kaesu.

kayō, (from kono yō), this kind, thus.

kayou, to go backwards and forwards, to attend (e.g. a school).

kaza-kami, (to) windward.

kazari, an ornament.

kaze, the wind, sometimes a fit (of passion etc.): kaze vvo hiku, to catch cold.

kazoeru (2), to count.

kazu, a number.

ke, a hair, hairs on the human body, the wool of animals.

ke! an expletive; see p. 237.

kedamono, a quadruped.

kega, a wound: kega suru, to be wounded, to hurt oneself.

kegasu, to defile.

kei, punishment: keibatsu, a penalty; keihō, a penal code; keihōten, ditto; keiji-soshōhō, the law for the conduct of criminal actions; keimei, a penalty; keisei, penal regulations; keiten, a penal code.

keiba, a horse-race.

keiben (na), easily to be used, convenient.

keiken, experience.

keiko, practice, study: keiko wo suru, to practise.

keikwa, passage, a way of

getting along: keikwa suru, to pass (as in time).

keikwaku, a design, an intention, a plan.

keisatsŭ-kwan, a police officer. keisatsŭ-sho, a police-station.

keishoku, scenery.

keizai-gaku, political economy; keizai-gakusha, a political economist.

kekkō (na), splendid.

kekkō suru (irreg.), to carry into execution.

kekkon, marriage.

kekkwa, a result.

**kembutsu**, looking at, sight-seeing, sometimes spectators: *kembutsu suru*, to go to see (sights, etc.).

kemmaku, the air (fig.), attitude. kempō, a constitution (polit.).

kemuri, smoke.

ken, a matter, a case.

ken, the auxiliary numeral for houses.

ken, rights (polit. etc.).

ken-i, power, authority.

kenjutsu, swordsmanship.

kenkwa, a quarrel: kenkwa suru, to quarrel.

kenkyū, investigation, research: kenkyū suru, to investigate.

kennō, power, authority.

kennon, danger: kennon na, dangerous.

kenri, a right, a privilege.

kenryoku, power.

kerai, a retainer, a follower.

keredo(mo), though, but; see p. 187.

keru (2), to kick, rarely to outdo. kesa, this morning.

keshĭkaran, outrageous, absurd. keshĭki, a view, scenery, appearance.

kesshite, positively, certainly; (with a neg.) never.

kessuru (irreg.), to decide.

kesu, to extinguish.

ketchaku, decision, final resolve: ketchaku no, positive, lowest (in price).

ketsudan, a decision.

ketsugi, a decision.

kettei suru (irreg.), to decide.

kezuru, to cut (off), to erase.

ki, the spirits (of a person), sometimes intention: ki ga tsŭku, to have one's attention called to something; ki ni iru, to be agreeable to one; ki no kiita, quick-witted; ki wo kikaseru, to show wit or tact; ki wo otosu, to let one's spirits droop; ki wo tsŭkeru, to pay attention.

ki, a tree, wood (the material): ki no mi, a fruit, a berry; ki-nobori, climbing trees.

ki, an honorific prefix, see p. 143.
ki, the indef. form of kuru, to come.

ki, a termination of adjectives; see p. 121.

ki, a record.

kibisho, a tea-pot.

**kibō**, a desire; *kibō suru*, to desire, to hope.

kibun, the bodily feelings: kibun ga warui, to feel unwell.

kichigai (no), mad.

kichi-nichi, a lucky day.

kido, a small door, a wicket.

kifū, a disposition of the mind.

ki-gae, a change of clothes.

kigai, danger, harm.

kigen, the bodily feelings: go kigen yō, I wish you good health; see also p. 333, foot-note 32.

ki-iroi, yellow.

kiji, a pheasant.

ki-jōbu, of good cheer, not alarmed.

kikai, a machine.

kikaseru (2), to inform.

kikidasu, to hear of.

kiki-me, efficacy, acting (as a drug).

kikō, climate, temperature.

kikoeru (2), to be audible, to be able to hear.

kikoku, (your) august country. kiku, a chrysanthemum.

kiku, to hear, to listen; (conf. p. 251); hence to ask, to enquire, as kiki ni yaru, to send to enquire; less often to have an effect, to act (e.g. as a drug): kiki-gurushii, unpleasant (to hear); kiki-sokonau, to fail to hear; kiki-tsükeru, to happen to hear, to notice.

kikwan, an organ.

kimari, a fixed arrangement: kimari ga nai, there is no rule.

kimaru, to be fixed: warui ni kimatte oru, there is no doubt of its wrongfulness.

kimen, a bugbear.

kimeru (2), to decide, to fix.

**kimi,** a prince, a sovereign; hence you.

kimi, feelings: kimi ga warui, to feel frightened.

kimo, the liver: kimo voo tsubushimashita, lit. burst the liver, i.e. I was astounded.

kimono, clothes, specifically the long upper robe worn by the Japanese: kimono wo kiru, to dress; kimono wo nugu, to undress.

kimpen, a neighbourhood.

kin, gold, money.

kin, a pound (in weight).

kinchaku, a purse: kinchakŭkiri, a pickpocket.

kingyo, a goldfish.

kinin, a sum of money.

kin-itsu, equal, similar.

kinjiru (3), to forbid.

kiniitsu, a few days hence.

kinjo, neighbourhood.

kinjū, birds and beasts.

kinki, joy: kinki ni taezu, to be overcome with joy.

kinko, confinement (penal).

kinō, yesterday.

kinodoku (lit. poison of the

spirit), regret or concern felt for others: o kinodoku sama, see p. 247.

kinsen, money.

kinu, silk.

kinzai, a suburb, the country near a town.

ki-ō (no), past, former.

kippu, a ticket.

kirai, averse to; see p. 65.

**kirare-zon,** see end of pp. 464-5.

kirasu, to be out (of an article); see p. 216.

kirau, to dislike.

kire, stuff (for clothes, etc.), a bit.

kirei (na), pretty, neat, clean.

kireru (2), to cut (intrans.), to snap; see p. 206.

kiri, a suffix derived from kiru, to cut, and meaning only. It is also pronounced kkiri and giri: fitari-giri, only two people.

kirido, a garden-gate.

kiri-doku, see end of pp. 464-5.
kiriritto shita, sharp, vivacious, well-defined.

Kirisŭto, Christ: Kirisŭto-kyō, Christianity.

kiritsu, standing up.

kiru, to cut, (hence) to kill, see also p. 219: kiri-komu, to cut into; kiri-korosu, to cut to death; kiri-sŭteru, to kill and do for; kiri-tsŭkeru, to cut at.

kiru (3), to wear, to have on or

put on (clothes): ki-kaeru, to change one's clothes.

kiryō, countenance, looks.

**kĭsaki,** an empress or queen consort.

kĭsama, you; see p, 47.

kisen, a steamship.

kisha, a railway train.

**kishō**, spirit, temper, kishō na, spirited.

kiso, foundation, basis.

kĭsoku, a law.

kissaki, the point of a blade.

kisuru (irreg.), to attribute, to result in.

kita, north.

kitai (na), queer.

kitaku, returning home.

kitanai, kitanarashii.

kitaru, same as kuru, to come.

kitei, settlement, regulation.

kitsuen-shitsu, a smoking-room.

kitte, a ticket, a stamp.

kitto, positively, without fail.

kiun, tendency of the age.

kiwamaru, to be settled, finished; to be carried to an extreme.

ki-yō (na), handy, clever.

kizasu, to sprout.

kizetsu suru (irreg.), to faint.

kizu, a wound, injury, flaw.

kizukai, anxiety.

kke, an expletive, see p. 237.

kkiri, see kiri.

ko, an auxiliary numeral; see p. 109.

ko, powder.

ko, a child, the young of any animal; hence used as a prefix to form diminutives, as kirei, -pretty; ko-girei, rather pretty; see also p. 143.

ko, archaic for ki, a tree, still used in ko no ha, the leaves of trees.

kō, a harbour (in compounds).

kō, merit, great deeds, a feat.

 $k\bar{o}$ , thus, like this, in this way:  $k\bar{o}$  iu, this kind of, such as this;  $k\bar{o}$  suru to, if one does this.

kō or kōkō, filial piety: kō wo tsŭkusu, to be very filial.

kō, efficacy.

kobamu, to oppose, refuse.

koban, an obsolete gold coin of an oval shape.

kōban(-sho), a police-box.

kōbe, the head.

koboreru (2), to get spilt.

kobosu, to spill (trans.).

kobune, a boat.

kochi, or kochira, here.

kōdai (na), gigantic, immense.

kōdan, a lecture.

kōdankwai, a lecture society.

kōdō, action.

kōdō, equity, justice.

kodomo, properly the plural children, but also used for the singular child; kodomo ga dekiru, children are born; kodomorashii, childish.

koe, the voice: koe wo kakeru, to cry out.

kōen(-chi), a public garden or park.

ko-gatana, a penknife.

kōgō, an empress or queen consort.

kogoe, a low voice.

kogoto, scolding: kogoto wo iu, to scold.

koguchi, a clue: koguchi ga tatsu, to obtain a clue.

ko-gusuri, powders (medicine).

kōhei (na), fair, just. koi, (sexual) love: koi no michi,

ditto.

koi, strong, thick (said of liquids).

kōi, action.

koi-guchi, the joint where the sword-handle and scabbard of a sword meet: koi-guchi wo kiru, to loosen a sword for use.

kōin, time.

ko-ishi, a pebble.

koitsu, a contraction of kono yatsu, this fellow, this rascal.

kōken, result.

kokka, a country, state.

kokku, hard work, toil.

kokkwai, a parliament.

koko, here: koko ni, here, but sometimes thereupon, well.

kōkō, filial piety.

kokoera, hereabouts.

kōkoku, an advertisement (especially in a newspaper).

kokonoka, nine days, the ninth day of the month.

kokono(tsu), nine.

kokoro, the heart (metaph.):

kokoro-arige, the appearance of a
tender passion; kokoro-eru (2),
to know, to remember; kokorogake, interest taken in or attention paid to something; kokorogakeru, to pay attention; kokoromiru (3), to try; kokoro-mochi,
the feelings (especially bodily
ones); kokoro-yasui, intimate,
great friends; kokoro-yoi, comfortable, well; kokoro-zashi, intention, resolve; kokoro-zuku, to
notice.

koku, a country; used only in compounds.

kokuji-han, a political offence. koku(na), cruel.

kokuhaku suru (irreg.), to confess, to announce.

kokumin, the people of a country. kokusai-hō, international law.

kōkwa, efficacy, result.

kōkwai, repentance, regret: kō-kwai suru, to repent.

kokyō, lit. the old village, i.e., home, one's native place.

kōkyū, investigation.

komakai or komaka (na), minute, small: komaka ni, in detail.

kōman, pride, conceit, kōman na, proud.

**komaru**, to be in a quandary, to be in trouble; conf. p. 149.

komban, to-night: komban wa! see p. 289, No. 42.

kome, hulled rice.

kōmei, light.

komeru (2), to stuff into.

komo-gomo, alternately, hence all.

komori, a nurse, a governess.

**komoru**, to be inside something else, to be shut up.

komu, to stuff into; see also p. 219: komi-ageru (2), to retch, less often to have a sudden feeling or impulse (e.g. of anger).

**kōmuru**, to receive from a superior.

kon, dark blue.

kona, fine powder, flour.

konaida, a short while ago, recently.

konata, hither.

**konda**, a contraction of *kondo wa*, this time, now.

kondate, a bill of fare.

kondo, this time.

kon-i, intimacy; friendly feelings: kon-i na, intimate.

kon-in, marriage.

konna, this kind of, such as this.

konnan, a difficulty.

konnichi, to-day; konnichi wa! see p. 289, No. 44.

kono, this (adj.): kono nochi, hereafter.

kōnō, a good result, efficacy.

konomu, to like.

konrei, a wedding.

konzatsu, confusion.

koppu, a glass (from the Dutch kop, a cup).

koraeru (2), to endure, to bear:

korae-kirenai, cannot endure any
longer.

korasu, to chastise.

kore, this (subst.): kore kara or kore yori, henceforward; kore made, hitherto. For the interjectional use of kore, see p. 239.

korera (byō), cholera (from the English word).

kōri, ice.

koro, a period, a time.

korobasu, to roll (trans.).

korobu, to roll (intrans.), to fall down.

korosu, to kill.

kōru, to freeze (intrans.): kōritsŭku, to stick together through freezing, to freeze over.

korya! see p. 239.

kosaeru (2), a vulgar contraction of koshiraeru.

kōsai, intercourse.

kōshaku, an explanation, a lecture,

koshi, the loins: koshi wo kakeru, to sit down; koshi ga mukeru, lit. the loins getting put out of joint, hence to be crippled,—especially through fright; koshi-nuke, a coward; hayagoshi ga mukeru, to become unable to move through fright.

Kōshi, Confucius.

koshiraeru (2), to prepare.

koshō, pepper.

kōshō (na), exalted, sublime.

kōshō suru (irreg.), to negotiate. kōshū, the public.

kōshudai, a scaffold.

**koso**, an emphatic particle. In the Written Language, *koso* brings about the change in the termination of the succeeding verb, generally *e* for *u*, as...*koso* are (for aru).

kōsoku suru (irreg.), to restrain. kosu, to cross (a mountain).

kosui, a lake.

kosuru, to rub.

kotae, an answer.

kotaeru (2), to answer.

kotchi, vulgar for kochi, here.

koto, an (abstract) thing,—not to be confounded with mono, a (concrete) thing; see pp. 38-9; 79, 178: koto no hoka, extraordinary, exceptional.

kōtō, high class: kōtō-gakkō, a High School.

koto ni suru (irreg.), to differentiate.

kotoba, a word, a language: kotoba wo kaesu, to retort.

kotogotoku, all, completely.

kotoshi, this year.

kotowari, a refusal, also an excuse.
kotowaru, to refuse, to excuse oneself; less often to explain, to mention.

kotozuke, a message.

kōtsū, intercourse.

kotsun to, with a thump or thud.

kowagaru, to be frightened.

kowai, afraid, also frightful.

kowareru (2), to break (intrans.).

kowasa, dreadfulness, hence fear.

kowasu, to break (trans.).

koya, a hut.

kōyō, red (autumn) leaves: kōyō suru, to turn red (said of the leaves of trees).

kōyō, efficacy.

kōzai, death by hanging.

ko-zashĭki, a small room.

kozō, originally a Buddhist acolyte, now applied to any little lad or shop-boy.

kozukai, a house-coolie, an errand boy; small expenses; kozukaizeni, pocket money.

ku, nine.

ku, a stanza, one half of a stanza.

**ku**, the indefinite or adverbial termination of adjectives; see pp. 120, 122.

kū(na), empty, hence useless.

**kubetsu**, a difference; *kubetsu suru*, to discriminate.

kubi, the neck, the head.

kŭchi, the mouth, an opening: kŭchi-benkō (na), glib; kŭchi-buc voo fuku, to whistle; kŭchi-yaku-soku, a verbal promise; kŭchi ga kiku, to be able to speak (e.g. a young child).

kudakeru (2), to break into pieces (intrans.).

kudaru, to descend.

kudasai, or kudasare, Imperative of kudasaru; see pp. 171, 242, 253.

kudasaru, to condescend, to give, conf. p. 171.

kudoi, verbose, tedious.

**kŭfū**, a contrivance, a dodge, a plan.

ku-gwatsu, September.

kujō, a complaint.

ku-jū, ninety.

kūki, the air, the atmosphere.

kumi, a set, a clique; also an auxiliary numeral; see p. 112.

kumo, a cloud.

kumoru, to get cloudy; kumotte iru, to be cloudy.

kun, a prince, a lord, also Mr.; see p. 258.—Used chiefly in composition, as shokun, gentlemen, lit. all (you) princes.

kun nasai, see p. 254.

kuni, a country, a province; ο kuni, your (honourable) country.

kunjū, a crowd; kunjū suru, to crowd (intrans.).

kura, a godown; see p. 13, footnote.

kurai, rank, hence quantity, about, such as to; dono kurai? how much.

kurai, dark.

kuramasu, to darken, bewilder; ato wo kuramasu, to destroy all trace.

kurasa, darkness.

kurashi, a livelihood; kurashi wo tateru, to gain a livelihood.

kurasu, to spend time, to live.

kure-gata, twilight (evening).

kureru (2), to give; see pp. 171, 254.

kureru (2), to grow dark; hi ga kureru, the daylight is waning, it is getting dark.

kūri, an empty fancy, a mere hypothesis.

kurō, trouble, pains; go kurō sama, see p. 247.

kuroi, black.

kuro-megane, black goggles.

kuru (irreg.), to come; see pp. 158, 193; 133, 198, 212: ki-kakaru, to happen to come; motte kuru, to bring; totte kuru, to fetch; konaku naru, to leave off coming.

kuruma, a wheel, anything moved by a wheel, specifically a jinrikisha: kuruma-ya, a jinrikisha man.

kurushii, painful, in pain: kurushi-magire, distraction caused by pain, terrible throes;.....mo kurushiku nai, there is no harm in, may .....

kurushimi, distress, toil.

kurushimu, to be distressed.

kŭsa, a plant, a herb.

kŭsai, stinking.

kŭsari, a chain.

kŭsaru, to rot.

kŭse, a bad habit or trick.

kŭshi, a comb.

kŭsuri, medicine: kŭsuri ni naru, to be good for one's health.

KWA

kŭtabireru (2), to get tired: kŭtabirete iru, to be tired : conf. p. 204.

kutsu, a boot, a shoe: kutsuva, a bootmaker's shop, hence a bootmaker.

kutsū, pain, suffering.

kuttsuku, to stick close to.

kuu, to eat: kui-taosu, to cause loss (e.g. to an innkeeper) by eating food and not paying for it; kui-tsŭku, to bite (as a dog, etc.).

kuwaeru (2), to add. Sometimes pronounced kuworu; kuworu ni, moreover.

kuwashii, minute, exact.

kuyaku, hard labour.

kuyashigaru, to feel sorry.

kuzureru (2), to crumble, to break to pieces (intrans.).

kuzusu, to smash.

kwai, an association, a society, a meeting, a church (metaph.).

kwai, a chapter.

kwaichū, in the bosom or pocket. kwaidō, a meeting-house, a church, a chapel.

kwai-in, a member (of a society, etc.).

kwairaku, joy; pleasure.

kwaisha, a company.

kwaiwa, conversation: kwaiwasho, a conversation book.

kwaizen, moral reformation.

kwaji, a conflagration, a fire.
kwakushaku, see p. 358, note
3.

Kwampō, the "Official Gazette." kwan, a can; conf. p. 22; kwan-

kwan, a can; cont. p. 22: kwan zume, tinned (provisions).

kwan-in, an official.

kwankei, connection, relation, having to do with something else: kwankei suru, to be related; kwankei wo tsŭkeru, to get into relations.

kwankōba, an industrial bazaar.

kwannen, an idea.

kwansei, completion.

**kwashi**, any sweetmeat, such as a bónbon, cake, or pudding.

kwasuru (irreg.), to impose, inflict.

**kwasai**, calamity caused by fire: kwasai-hoken, fire insurance.

**kwatsuro**, a means (especially of livelihood).

kwayōbi, Tuesday.

kwazan, a volcano.

kwazoku, a nobleman.

kyaku, a guest, a customer, a fare: kyakurai, the advent of guests, a visit, a party; kyakuma, a drawing-room.

**kyaku**, the auxiliary numeral for chairs and tables.

kyan-kyan, the sound which dogs make in yelping.

kyō, to-day: kyō-jū, during to-day, by to-night.

kyō, a sutra.

kyōdai, brothers; henec sometimes

brothers and sisters: kyōdai-naka, the terms on which brothers stand.

kyōgen, a play, a drama.

**kyōgū**, environment, surrounding circumstances.

kyōhaku suru (irreg.), to threaten.

**kyōju**, instruction: *kyōju suru*, to teach.

kyōiku, education.

kyōka, a species of comic poem; conf. p. 486.

kyoku, a bureau or subdivision of a government department, an office.

kyōkun, instruction: kyōkun wo tareru, to impart instruction.

kyokŭtan, the acme, ne plus ultra.

kyōkwai, an association.

kyōkwai, a church (metaph.).

kyōkwaidō, a church, a chapel, a meeting-house.

kyonen, last year.

**kyoryūchi**, land set apart for foreigners to reside in.

kyōshi, a teacher.

kyū, old, ancient.

kyū, rare for ku, nine.

kyū (na), sudden.

kyūji, waiting at table, a waiter: kyūji wo suru, to wait at table.

kyūjitsu, a holiday.

kyūkin, wages.

kyūryō, salary.

kyūsai, help, relief.

kyūtō, last year; see p. 327, footnote.

kyūyō, urgent business.

### M

ma, quite; see p. 233.

ma, in the first place; see p. 233.

ma, space, interval, hence a room:

ma ga warui, to be a bad opportunity for doing something, to feel awkward; ma ni au, to be in time, to do well enough (although not precisely what is required).

mā! see bottom of p. 237.

mabushii, dazzling.

machi, a town, a street: machinaka, the whole street (or town).

machi-dōi, long to wait, tediously long in coming: o machidō sama, see p. 247.

machigai, a mistake, misunderstanding: machigai naku, without fail; machigai-rashii, apparently a mistake.

machigau, to make a mistake, to mistake.

machin, nux vomica, strychnine. mada, still; (with a negative) not vet.

made, a postposition, see p. 71:

made ni, see p. 95; sore made no
koto, see p. 95.

mado, a window: mado-kake, a window-curtain.

mae, front, before: mae kara,

beforehand; httori-mae, a portion for one; san-nin-mae, portions for three.

magaru, to bend (intrans.): magatte iru, to be bent, crooked.

mageru (2), to bend (trans.).

magirakasu, to confuse, to mystify.

mago, a grandchild.

mai, an auxiliary numeral; see p. 109.

mai, a verbal termination (neg. future), see p. 168-9, 81.

mai, each, every, as in mai-do, each time, always; mai-nichi, every day.

mainai, a bribe.

mairu, to come, to go; conf. p. 251.

maji, majiki, majiku, see p. 169.

majiri, a suffix meaning partly, half.

majiwaru, to mix with, to associate.

makaru, to go, to come (humble): makari-deru, ditto, also to meet with.

makaru, to go down in price (intrans.).

make-oshimi, unwillingness to give way; see also p. 32.

makeru (2), to lose, to be beaten (in war or at a game), to yield: to lower a price: o make ni, into the bargain.

makka (for ma-aka), very red.

makoto, truth: makoto no, true; makoto ni, really.

maku, to wind.

makura, a pillow.

mama, way, manner: sono mama ni shite oku, to leave in statu quo.

mame, beans.

mamieru (2), to have an interview.

**mamma**, (generally with honorific o), rice, food.

mamoru, to guard, to keep, to watch.

man, ten thousand, a myriad.

manabu, to practise, to study.

mana-ita, a board for cleaning fish on.

mando, a whole assembly.

mane, imitation: mane we suru, to imitate, hence sometimes to do (in a bad sense).

maneku, to invite.

man-ichi, lit. myriad to one, if per chance.

manjō, a whole assembly.

mannaka, the middle.

manukareru (2), to escape.

manzoku, contentment: manzoku suru, to be content.

mappira, quite; only used in such apologetic phrases as that in p. 291, No. 57.

mari, a ball (for throwing, etc.). maromeru (2), to make round.

maru, an obscure word helping to form the names of merchant ships, as "Tōkyō Maru."

maru de, quite. marui, round.

masaka (with a negative), hardly, surely not.

masaru, to be superior.

masashĭku, truly, just then.

ma-seba, insufficient space.

massao, perfectly green, livid.

massugu (na), straight.

masŭ (irreg.), an honorific verbal suffix; see pp. 160, 170, 249; also 18, 67, 198, 212.

masu, to increase (trans.).

masu-masu, more and more.

masuru, see p. 160.

mata, again; (with a negative), no more.

matsu, a pine-tree.

matsu, to wait.

matsuri, a festival.

mattaku, quite.

mawaru, to turn (intrans.).

mawasu, to turn (trans.).

mayoi, a delusion.

mayou, to stray, to be in a quandary.

mazaru, to be mixed.

mazeru (2), to mix (trans.).

mazu, in the first place, well, anyhow, at all events.

mazui, nasty to eat, bad.

me, the eyes, a mesh, an open space: me ga sameru, to wake (intrans.); o me ni kakaru, to have the honour to meet you; o me ni kakeru, to have the honour to show you; hidoi me ni au, to

be harshly treated; hidoi me ni awaseru, to treat harshly; me no chikai, short-sighted; me-moto, the part of the face near the eyes; me ni tsŭkanai, not to notice; me no tama, the eyeballs; me wo mawasu, to faint. Me is also used to form ordinal numbers, see pp. 115, 119.

me, a feminine prefix, see p. 27. me, a contemptuous suffix; see p. 240.

me-aki, one who can see, not blind.

medetai, auspicious: o medetō gozaimasŭ, I beg to congratulate you.

megane, spectacles.

meguru, to go round: meguri-au, to come across after many adventures.

mei, a niece.

mei, a name, an inscription; see also p. 109.

mei, life (in compounds).

meibun, clear expression.

meibutsu, the production for which a locality is specially noted.

meigin, a celebrated song or poem.

meihaku (na), clear, evident.

Meiji, see p. 116.

meijiru (3), to command.

meirei, a command.

meishi, a visiting card.

meisho, a celebrated place.

meiwaku, perplexity, trouble: meiwaku suru, to be in perplexity or trouble; (hito ni) meiwaku wo kakeru, to bring (some one) into trouble.

mekata, weight.

mekiki, connoisseurship.

mekki, plated,—e.g. with gold.

mekura, blind.

memboku, the countenance (metaph.): memboku ga nai, to feel ashamed; memboku ga tatsu, reputation is intact.

memma, a mare.

men (generally go men), permission, excuse.

men, a surface, a face, mask; conf. p. 112.

mendō, trouble: mendō-kŭsai, troublesome; mendō na, ditto.

mendori, a hen bird.

menjō, a diploma, a passport.

menso, the dismissal of a law
case.

menkwai, an interview: menkwai suru, to meet.

meshi, boiled rice, a meal.

meshi-mono, clothes (honorific). meshi-tsŭkai, a servant.

messō (na), extravagant.

mesu (no), female.

mesu, to employ (honorific); used very widely, e.g. for putting on clothes, getting into a jinrikisha: meshi-agaru, to eat or drink (honorific); meshi-tsureru, to take with one (e.g. a retainer). metta ni (with a negative), rarely, hardly ever.

mezurashigaru, to think strange, to lionise.

mezurashii, strange, wonderful. mi, three.

mi, an honorific prefix; see pp. 143, 249.

mi, a fruit (generally ki no mi).

mi, oneself, body: mi wo nageru, to drown oneself.

mi, a suffix used to form nouns; see p. 37.

michi, a road, a way : michi-nori, mileage, distance.

michibiku, to lead.

michiru (3), to grow full,-e.g. the moon, or the tide at flood.

midari (ni), in confusion; hence rashly, unduly.

midasu, to throw into confusion, to deprave.

midori, a lightish green.

mieru (2), to be visible, to appear, to seem; hence sometimes to come: mienaku naru, to disappear; to miete, see p. 304, foot-note 37.

migaku, to polish, to brush (boots). migi, the right (side): migi-(t)te, the right hand.

migoto (na), beautiful.

migurushii, ugly (to look at). mi-harashi, a view (down or over), a prospect.

mihon, a sample. mijikai, short.

Mikado, see p. 35.

mikka, three days, the third day of the month.

MIS

mimi, the ears: mimi ni mo kakenai, won't listen to it; mimi no tōi, hard of hearing.

mimochi, conduct, morals (good or bad).

mina, all: mina ni narimashita, see p. 292, No. 66; mina san, all of you, all your people.

minami, south.

minato, a harbour, a port.

minken, popular rights, mocracy.

mirai, the future,—lit. [that which is] not yet come: mirai no, future.

miru (3), to see, to look, sometimes to try, also to consider as (conf. pp. 193, 251; 133): miataru, to find; mi-awaseru, to put off; mi-dasu, to discover: mi-komu, to see into or through, to estimate: mi-mawaru, to look round; mi-nogasu, to let out of sight; mi-otosu, to overlook; misokonau, to fail to see; mi-tariru, to see enough of; mi-tomeru, to notice, to consider; mi-toreru, to be captivated; mi-tsŭkeru, to notice; mi-tsŭkurou, to look out for and get (something suitable): mi-ukeru, to observe.

misaki, a cape.

mise, a shop: mise-saki, a shopwindow.

miseru (2), to show; conf. p. 251. mishin, a sewing machine; see p. 6.

miso, a kind of bean sauce.

misoka, the last day of the month, whether the 30th or 31st.

mi(tsu), three: mitsu-go, a threeyear-old child; mitsu-ire-ko, three boxes fitting into each other.

mitsŭke, a castle-gate.

miya, a Shintō temple, but see p. 249.

miyage, a present, especially one brought by a person returning from a journey.

miyako, a capital city.

mizen, beforehand.

mizu, water; specifically cold water as opposed to hot, and fresh water as opposed to salt: mizu-gwashi, fruit; mizu-umi, a fresh-water lake; mizu ga deru, water overflowing, to inundate.

mizukara, of my (his, etc.) own accord: oneself, personally.

mo, a postposition; see pp. 72, 166, 196, 270; *de mo*, see p. 55, 95. mo, mourning.

mō, already, still, yet, more: (with a negative verb) no more; mō hitotsu, one more; mō sikoshi de, nearly; mō yoroshii, see p. 292, No. 72.

mōaku(na), ferocious, cruel. mochi, a kind of rice-cake. mochiiru (3), to employ. mochi-kaeru, to take home. **mochimashite**, polite for *motte*, both as gerund of *motsu* and as postposition.

mochimono, property, possessions.

mochi-nushi, an owner, possessor.

mochiron, of course, certainly.

modosu, to give or send back, to

vomit.

mohaya, same as mõ.

**moji,** or **monji,** a written character, specifically a Chinese ideograph.

moji-moji suru (irreg.), to be nervous.

mohan, a model.

mōkaru, to be earned, or made, —said of money.

mõke, profit, gains.

mōkeru (2), to make (money), to establish.

mokuroku, a list.

mokŭteki, an object, a motive.

mokuyōbi, Thursday.

momiji, the maple-tree,—celebrated for its red leaves in autumn.

mommō (na), ignorant.

momo, a peach: momo-iro (no), pink-coloured.

momu, to rub, to knead, to shampoo.

mon, a "cash" (a small copper coin).

mon, a gate; *mongen*, the hour at which a gate is closed.

e,

mon', short for *mono*, a thing. mondai, a problem, a question.

mono, a (concrete) thing,—not to be confounded with koto, an (abstract) thing, see pp. 38–9:
mon(o) desŭ kara, see p. 70;
mono-goto ni, each thing (in its turn); mono iu, to speak; mono no, see p. 39; mono wo, see p. 186;
mono-oki, an out-house.

moppara, chiefly.

morau, to have given one, to receive; see also p. 203.

mori, a wood, a forest.

moshi, if; also used as an initial exclamation answering to our "excuse me" or "hallo!" Perhaps it comes from mōshimasŭ, I say.

Mōshi, Mencius.

moshĭku wa, or else.

mōsu, to say (see also pp. 249, 278): mōshi-ageru, to say to a superior; mōshi-age-kaneru, not to venture to say; mōshi-awaseru, to arrange beforehand (e.g. a meeting); mōshi-bun, an objection; mōshi-kaneru, not to venture to say; mōshi-ukeru, to receive, to take in charge; mōshi-wake, an excuse, an apology; mōshi-watasu, to deliver judgment.

motarasu, to cause to carry, to bring.

moto, bottom, origin, originally, cause; .....no moto to naru, to cause; moto yori, of course.

motode, capital (a fund of money).
motomeru (2), to search for, to
 ask for, to get.

motozuku, to originate in, be founded on.

motsu, to hold, (hence) to have, also intransitively to last, to wear: mochi-ageru, to lift; mochi-dasu, to take out, produce.

motte; a postposition: see p. 73:
 motte iku, to carry away; motte
 kuru, to bring (things).

motto, still, more; conf. p. 146. mottomo, quite, very, (hence)
quite right or reasonable, of
course; go mottomo de gozaimasŭ, see p. 246.

moyō, a pattern.

mu or mū, six; see p. 101.

muchū, (as) in a dream.

muda (na), useless.

mudō (na), heinous.

mueki (na), useless.

mugaku, ignorance: mugaku na or no, ignorant.

mugi, a general name for wheat and barley.

muika, six days, the sixth day of the month.

mujin (no), inexhaustible, a lottery.

mukade, a centipede.

mukaeru (2), to send for, to welcome, to marry (a wife).

mukashi, antiquity, old days.mukatte (preceded by ni), turning to, towards, to.

mukau, to be opposite to; ni mukatte, confronting, towards, to. muki, an indefinite time.

muko, a bridegroom, a son-in-law. mukō, the opposite side, opposite, the other party, he, she, they, there: no mukō ni, on the other side, opposite, beyond.

muku, pure, solid, unalloyed, said of metals.

mumei (no), anonymous.

munashii, useless, fruitless.

mune, the chest: mune ga warui, to feel sick at the stomach; munamoto, the chest.

mune, a roof-ridge; see also p. 112.

munin-tō, an uninhabited island. mura, a village.

murasaki, lilac, purple.

muri, unreason: go muri desŭ, what you say is unreasonable; muri na, unreasonable.

muryō, incalculable, infinite.

musai (no), wifeless, a bachelor. musen-denshin, wireless telegraphy.

mushi, an insect, any small creature that is neither bird, quadruped, nor fish.

mushi suru (irreg.), to set at naught.

musubu, to tie.

musŭko, a boy, a son; but see p. 256.

musume, a girl, a daughter; but see p. 256.

mu(tsu), six.

mutsumashii, friendly, on good terms.

muyami (na), reckless, helterskelter: muyami ni, recklessly.

muyō (no), useless.

muzai, not guilty.

muzukashii, difficult.

myaku, the pulse: myaku wo toru, to feel the pulse.

myōchō, to-morrow morning.

myō, next (in compounds): myōgonichi, the day after to-morrow; myōnichi, to-morrow.

myō (na), wonderful, strange. myōji, a family name.

# N

n', short for no, of; see p. 79.
na, a name, specifically the personal name which corresponds to our "Christian name:" na wo tsükeru, to give a name.

na, termination of the positive imperative; see p. 167.

na, termination of the negative imperative; see p. 168.

na, a particle used to form quasi-adjectives; see pp. 135-8; 44,142: na no, 78, 135, 142.

nā! an interjection; see p. 238.

nada, a reach or stretch of sea along a limited portion of the coast.

nadakai, famous.

nadameru (2), to pacify.

naderu (2), to stroke.

nado, properly etcetera, but often used at the end of an enumeration as a sort of expletive. Sometimes it may be rendered by such as, or like.

nafuda, a visiting card.

nagai, long: naga-iki, long life. nagameru (2), to gaze.

nagara, while; see pp. 242, 39. nagare, a flow.

nagareru, (2), to flow.

nagasa, length.

naga-ya, see p. 281, foot-note.

nageru (2), to throw.

nagi, a calm.

naguru, to beat, to thrash.

nagusameru (2), to console, to cheer.

nai, the "negative adjective;" see pp. 129, 137, 139, 140: nai koto wa nai, see p. 271; nakereba naran, indispensable.

nai-nai, private, secret.

naikaku, a ministry, the cabinet. naisho (no), secret, private.

naka, inside; hence the relations (friendly or otherwise) existing between people: no naka ni, inside; o naka, a person's inside; o naka ga suku, to be hungry. Sometimes naka means all, whole, as machi-naka, the whole street.

nakagai, a broker.

nakagoro, a middle or intermediate time.

nakama, a mate, a comrade.

naka-naka, very, more than you might think: naka-naka dōmo, see p. 237.

nakanzuku, more particularly, of all others.

nakare, see bottom of p. 168.

naka-yashīki, see p. 456, footnote 14.

nakereba narimasen, must; see N.B. at top of p. 175.

nakōdo, a middleman, a matchmaker.

naku, to cry, to sing.

naku naru, to disappear, to die (lit. to become non-existent).

nama, raw, crude: nama-byōhō, see p. 313, No. 23; nama-yoi, half-tipsy.

namae, a (person's) name.

namakete iru, to be idle.

nama-iki (na), conceited, vain. namakeru (2), to behave idly:

namban-tetsu, a particular kind of iron, so called because brought to Japan by the "southern barbarians" (namban), i.e., the Portuguese or Dutch.

nami, a wave.

nami (no), ordinary, average: nami-taitei, ditto.

namida, tears: namida wo kobosu, to shed tears.

nampito mo, anybody.

nan? abbrev. of nani? what? nan da ka, somehow or other; nan de mo, anything; nan de mo ka(n) de mo, anyth in an everything (see also p. 350, note 7); nan-doki? or nan-ji? what o'clock? nan-nen? nan-ri? see p. 113; nan-ra no, any, whatever; nan to ka, something or other; nan to naku, without any assignable cause.

nan, emphatic, see foot-note to p.

nana(tsu), seven.

nanda, nandai, nandarō, neg. verbal suffixes, see p. 169.

nando, same as nado.

nani? what? nani-bun, somehow, please, indeed, but often a mere expletive; nani-gashi, such and such a person, so and so; nan no nanigashi, Mr. so and so; nani-hodo? what amount? nani ka, nan(n)i mo, nan(i) de mo, see p. 52, and with a neg., not at all; nani mo ka mo, everything, all; nani-nani, such and such, so and so, nani shiro or nan ni itase, see p. 189; nani yori, more than anything.

nanjū, distress, difficulty.

Nankin, China (vulg.).

nanni, popular for nani; nanni mo nai, there is nothing at all.

nan-nyo, men and women, sex. nanoka, vulgar for nanuka.

nansen, a shipwreck: nansen ni au, to be shipwrecked.

nanuka, seven days, the seventh day of the month.

nanzo, something, how? what? also used for *nado* and for *naze*.

nao, still more; see p. 146: nao-sara, ditto.

naoru, to get well, to recover
(intrans.): naori-kakaru, to be
on the road to recovery.

naosu, to amend, to rectify, to cure, to change.

nara, haraba, if; but see p. 185.

naraberu (2), to place in a row.

narabi ni, and also, besides.

narabu, to be in a row, to be parallel.

narai, a habit, a usage.

narasu, to ring (trans.).

narau, to learn.

nareru (2), to get accustomed: narete iru, to be accustomed.

nari, or; see p. 224.

nari (with prefix o), see p. 241.

narimasen, see p. 224.

naro koto nara, if possible.

naru, to ring (intrans.).

naru, to be, see pp. 224, 136, 175, 185:...ni naru, p. 249.

naru, to become, sometimes to ripen. For such phrases as o tanomi ni naru, see p. 249: nari-kawaru, to replace; nari-tatsu, to come to existence.

naruhodo! see p. 238.

narutake, as.....as possible, if possible.

nasai or nasare, imperative of nasaru; see pp. 171, 242, 253.

nasakenai, cruel.

nasaru, see pp. 160, 171, 249. nasareru (2), see p. 171.

nasaso na, apparently non-exis-

nashi, (there) is not; see pp. 122,

nashi, a pear.

nasu, to do.

natsu, summer.

nawa, a rope.

naze P why? naze naraba or naze to in to, because, but see p. 351, foot-note'8.

nazo or nanzo, same as nado.

ne, a root.

ne, price: ne wo tsŭkeru, to price; ne-age suru, to raise a price.

ne or në! an important interjection; see p. 238.

**neba**, termination of the negative condit. present; see p. 169.

nedai, a (European) bed.

nedan, a price.

nedo(mo), termination of the
negative concessive present; see
p. 169.

negai, a request, a desire.

negau, to request, to beg; sometimes (in the mouth of the lower classes) to have to do with, to sell to: negawaku wa, please.

negiru, to bargain.

nejiru, to twist (trans.).

neko, a cat.

**nembutsu**, a kind of Buddhist prayer or litany.

nemui, sleepy.

nen, a year;—used only in compounds, as tōnen, this year; nennen, year by year.

nen, a thought, a wish, heed paid:
nen wo okosu, to have a thought enter one's mind.

nengen, a term of years.

nengetsu, (years and months), time, nengetsu voo heru, to spend time.

nengō, a "year-name;" see -p.

nenjō, feelings.

nenne, to sleep (in baby language). nennei, a doll (in baby language). nenrei, age, years.

neru (2), to go to bed, to lie down, to sleep: nete iru, to be asleep; netsŭku, to get to sleep.

nēsan, lit. Miss elder sister (ane san), and hence used as a half-polite half-familiar style of address in talking to girls.

nesshin, zeal.

netsu, fever.

ne-uchi, value, price.

nezumi, a rat: nezumi-iro, grey.
ni, a postposition; see pp. 74; 45,
80, 94, 98, 99, 100, 169, 213; ni
itatte, ni itashite, ni yotte, see p.
100; ni suru, see p. 227; ni wa,
see pp. 88, 94; ni oite, in.

ni, two: ni-bai, double; ni-ban, number two; ni-banme, the

second; ni-do, twice; ni-do-me, the second time; ni-wari, twenty per cent; ni-wari go-bu, twenty-five per cent.

ni, a burden, luggage.

nichi, a day (in compounds), as nichi-nichi, daily.

nichiyo(bi), Sunday.

nigai, bitter.

nige-ha, the power of flight.

nigeru (2), to run away; nige-dasu, to begin to run away.

nigiru, to grasp.

nigiyaka (na), lively.

nigori, see pp. 21, 29, 32, 143, 163.

ni-gwatsu, February.

Nihon, (less elegantly Nippon), Japan: Nihon-go, the Japanese language; Nihon-jin, a Japanese; Nihon-koku, Japan; Nihon no, Japanese (adj.).

niji, a rainbow.

ni-jū, twenty.

ni-jū-yokka, twenty-four days, the twenty-fourth day of the month.

nikai, a second storey, upstairs. niku, flesh, meat: niku-sashi, a fork; nikitai, the flesh (religiously speaking, as opposed to the spirit); niku-ya, a butcher's shop, hence a butcher.

ni(-motsu), luggage, cargo.

nin, a person;—used only in compounds, as *go-nin*, five people.

ningen, a human being: ningenkai, human society.

ningyő, a doll.

ni-nim-biki, pulled by two men.
ni-nin-nori, accommodating two
persons;—said of a jinrikisha.

ninsoku, a coolie.

nioi, a smell.

Nippon, see Nihon.

niramu, to glare at with the eyes. niru (3), to boil (food, not water): ni-tatte iru, to be at boiling point.

nishi, west; nishi-kita, northwest; nishi-minami, south-west.

nishĭki, brocade.

nisseki, day and night.

nisshin geppo, continual progress.

**nite**, the Classical form of the postposition *de*, see p. 62.

ni-tō-biki, pulled by two horses.
niwa, a courtyard, a garden:
niwa-guchi, the entrance to a garden.

ni-zukuri, packing: ni-zukuri wo suru, to pack.

no, a moor: no-hara, ditto.

no, a postposition; see pp. 76, 96, 97, 99, 102, 142, et pass.; no ni, pp. 96, 186; for no followed by other postpositions, see p. 96; no nan no, see p. 81.

no! an interjection : see p. 238.

nobasu, to stretch (trans.), to put off.

noberu, (2), to narrate, to express opinion.

**nobiru** (3), to stretch (intrans.), to be long.

noboru, to go up, to climb.

noboseru (2), to rush to the head (said of blood); see p. 216.

nochi, after, afterwards: nochihodo, afterwards, by and by: nochi-zoi, a second wife.

nodo, the neck, the throat: nodo ga kawaku, to be thirsty.

nogareru (2), to escape.

nokogiri-biki, death by sawing. nokorazu, without exception, all; conf. pp. 230, 233.

nokori, a remainder.

nokoru, to remain over, to be left. nokosu, to leave behind.

nomi, only: nomi narazu, not only.

nomu, to drink: nomi-taosu, to cause loss to a wine-dealer by drinking his liquor and not paying for it; tabako wo nomu, to smoke.

nonoshiru, to revile.

**nori-te**, one who rides (on a horse, in a carriage, etc.).

norou, to curse.

**noru**, to ride—on a horse, in a vehicle, in a boat, etc.: nori-okureru, to be too late (for the train, steamer, etc.) Notte iru sometimes means simply to be on.

noshi-kakaru, to spring upon. nozoku, to peep.

nozomi, a wish: nozomi-dōri, according to one's wish.

**nozomu**, to look forward to, to expect.

nugu, to take off.

nuguu, to wipe.

nuimono, needlework.

nukeru (2), to slip out, to get pulled out, to get out of joint.

nuku, to pull out (e.g. a cork).

nureru (2), to get wet: murete
iru, to be wet; conf. p. 204.

nurimono, lacquer-ware.

nuru, to smear, lacquer, paint.

nurui, lukewarm.

nusumu, to steal.

nuu, to sew.

nyōbō, a wife.

nyoshi, a girl.

nyūhi, or nyūyō, expenses:

nyūhi wo kakeru, to spend money.

nyūmon suru (irreg.), to enter a school (lit. a gate).

# 0

o, a tail.

o, an honorific prefix; see pp. 143, 245-9, 259.

o, a masculine prefix; see p. 27.

ō, a king.

ō, an old man.

ō, an augmentative prefix (see p. 143), as ō-atari, a great hit.

oba, an aunt.

obāsan, an old lady, granny.

**ō-Bei**, Europe and America.

obi, a sash, a belt.

obiyakasu, to frighten.

oboeru (2), to remember, to feel, to learn: oboe-tsŭkusu, to learn thoroughly.

oboshi-meshi, thought, intention.

Obun, a European written composition.

ōchaku (na), villainous, ōchakumono, a rascal.

ochiru (3), to fall; see pp. 157,

odayaka (na), calm, quiet.

odokasu, to frighten.

ō-doko, a large place.

odoroku, to be astonished, to be afraid: odoroki-awateru, to rush into a panic.

odoru, to dance.

odosu, to frighten.

oeru (2), to finish.

**ōfŭku**, going and returning: *ōfŭku-gippu*, a return ticket.

ogi, a fan (of the opening and shutting kind).

**ōgyō suru** (irreg.), to stalk along through, to traverse insolently.

o-ha uchi-karasu, lit. to wither one's tail and wing, i.e. to come down in the world and have nothing left but rags, to be shabby.

ohayō (better o hayō), good morning; conf. p. 293, No. 82 and foot-note.

ō-hei, insolence, arrogance.

oi, a nephew.

ōi, plentiful; see p. 275: ōi ni, very, chiefly.

oide (properly o ide, i.e. honourable exit), conf. pp. 251, 223.

oi-hagi, a highwayman.

oi-oi, gradually.

oira, a very vulgar word for we.

oishii, nice to eat, tasty.

oite, in (bookish word).

oi-yaru, to drive away.

oji, an uncle.

ojiisan, an old gentleman, grandpapa.

ojiru (3), to accord, answer, suit.

ōjō, going to the other world.

ojosan, a young lady, Miss.

oka, land (as opposed to water).

oka, a hillock, land.

õkami, a wolf.

okamisan, a married woman of the lower or lower middle class, Mrs.

okashii or okashi na, laughable, absurd.

okasu, to violate: tsumi wo okasu, to commit a crime.

**ōkata**, for the most part, probably. **oki**, the offing, out at sea.

oki, alternately, see p. 119.

ōkii or ōki na, large, conf. pp. 138, 142: ōki ni, very.

okiru (3), to rise, to get up; okiagaru, to rise up (e.g. from the ground).

ökisa, size.

okkakeru (2), to pursue.

okkāsan or okkasan, mamma, a mother; see pp. 256-7.

okonai, conduct, behaviour.

okonau, to practise (e.g. virtue).

okoru, to arise, to take place.

okoru, to get angry: okori-dasu, to begin to get angry.

okosu, to rouse, to raise: negai wo okosu, to begin to feel a desire.

oku, to put, sometimes to lay aside; ni oite or ni okimashite, in, conf. pp. 154, 152, 194.

oku, a hundred millions.

oku, the inner part or recesses, e.g. of a mountain range.

ōku, much, for the most part.

okubyō, cowardice.

**okuin,** sealing as witness or endorser.

okureru (2), to be too late, not to be in time.

okuri-mono, a present.

okuru, to send, give, accompany, see off; also to spend (time).

okŭsama, okŭsan, a married woman of the upper class, my lady, Lady, Mrs.; conf. p. 256.

omae, you; see p. 47.

omba, a wet-nurse.

ō-misoka, the last day of the year.

omma, a stallion.

omocha, a toy.

omoi, heavy, grave, important.

omoi, thought, (hence) affection:
omoi no hoka, unexpectedly, omoide, recollection.

omoi-gake-nai, unexpected.
omonjiru (3), to esteem greatly.

omoshiroi, amusing, interesting.

omoshiromi, (a certain amount of) fun, or interest.

omoshirosa, amusement, fun, interest, the amount or degree of amusement.

omotai, heavy.

omote, the front, out-of-doors: omote-mon, a front gate; omotemuki, outwardly, official.

omou, to think: omoi-dasu, to call to mind; omoi-itaru, to come to think of; omoi-kiru, to make up one's mind; omoi mo yoran, unexpected; omoi-tatsu, to resolve; omoi-yaru, to sympathise.

omowareru (2), to venture to think, conf. p. 201.

on, kindness: on wo shiranni, to be ungrateful.

on, the Book language form of the honorific prefix ο.

onaji, the same; see p. 126.

ondori, a cock bird.

oni, a devil, a goblin.

onna, a woman: onna no ko, a little girl.

onore, self; also you (insulting).

onozukara, spontaneously, naturally.

onsen, a hot spring.

onten, grace, favour.

orā, I, but see p. 46.

**ōrai**, going and coming, hence a thoroughfare: *ōrai-dome*, no thoroughfare: conf. p. 23.

Oranda, Holland: Oranda-jin, a Dutchman.

ore, see p. 46.

oreru (2), to break (intrans.).

ori, an occasion, a time; ori-ori, from time to time.

ori-au, to agree, to be on good terms.

orifushi, on a certain occasion, sometimes, just then.

oriru (3), to descend.

orosoka (na), remiss.

orosu, to lower, hence to launch.

oru, to be; see pp. 191, 223, 251: ...ni orarenai, cannot do without.

oru. to break (trans.), to pluck.

osamaru, to be peaceful, governed. osameru (2), to pacify, hence to

govern, to guide; also to put away.

ō-sawagi, confusion, a hubbub. ose, something said (honor.).

ōseru, to complete, accomplish.

oserareru (irreg.), honorific for to say, see pp. 171, 251.

oshie, instruction, doctrine, a religion.

oshieru (2), to teach.

oshii, regrettable: oshii koto desŭ ne! what a pity!

oshimu, to regret, to grudge. osoi, late.

osoraku wa, probably.

osoreru (2), to fear; osore-iru, to be filled with dread, often an almost meaningless polite phrase.

osoroshii, frightful, fearful.

osowaru, to be taught, to learn. ossharu, to say (honorific), see pp. 171, 251.

osu (no), male.

osu, to push.

oto, a sound, a noise: oto ga suru, there is a noise.

otoko. a man: otoko-buri, looks (said only of men); otoko no ko. a boy.

otona, a grown-up person.

otonashii, good (of a child), quiet in behaviour.

ōtono, the Mikado's palace, a feudal lord.

otoroeru (2), to decline (intrans.), to grow feeble.

otoshi-banashi, see pp. 342-3. otosu, to let fall.

ototo, a younger brother.

ototoi, the day before yesterday.

ototoshi, the year before last.

otottsan, papa, a father; conf. pp. 256-7.

otto, a husband; but see p. 256. ou, to grow: oishigeru, to grow luxuriantly.

ou, to pursue, to follow.

ō-warai, a good laugh.

owari, the end.

owaru, to end (intrans. and trans.). oya, a parent, generally a father: oya-ko, parents and children: ova-ko-rashii, like or suitable to parents and children.

oyaji, a father; see p. 256. oya(-oya)! an interjection; see p. 239.

ōyake (na), public.

ōyō suru (irreg.), to apply.

oyobosu, to cause to reach, to extend to (trans.).

oyobu, to reach (intrans.): sore ni va oyobimasen, there is no need to do that.

oyogu, to swim.

ōyoso, or oyoso, altogether, on the whole, in the main.
ōzei. a crowd.

### P

pan, bread, conf. N. B. to p. 236:
 pan-ya, a bakery, hence a baker.
pata(t)to, flop, bang.
penki, paint; conf. p. 26.
pika-pika, with a flash, glit-pikatto, teringly.

### R

ra, a particle of vagueness or plurality; see pp. 29, 52.

rai, thunder.

rai, next (in compounds), as rainen, next year; also since.

raida (na), lazy.

rakuda, a camel.

rakutan, discouragement: rakutan suru, to be discouraged.

rambō, disorderly conduct: rambō na, wild, riotous; rambō-nin, a turbulent fellow. rampu, a lamp (from the English word): rampu wo tsŭkeru, to light a lamp.

ramune, lemonade (from the English word).

Ran, short for *Oranda*, "Holland," in compounds: *Rambun*, Dutch writing; *Rango*, Dutch language.

rasha, woollen cloth.

rashii, a suffix; see p. 133.

rei, ceremonies, politeness, thanks: o rei voo iu, to thank.

rei, a precedent, an example.

reifŭku, full dress, dress clothes.

reigwai, an exception. reishu, cold sake.

reitei (with honor. prefix go), your younger brother.

rekĭshi, history.

rengwa, a brick.

renjū, a company, associates.

rempo, federated states.

ressha, a railway train.

ri, a Japanese league of nearly 2½ miles English.

ri, reason.

rieki, profit, advantage.

rigai, advantage and drawback.

rigi, principle.

rihei, advantage and disadvantage, interests.

rikaku suru (irreg.), to separate. rikiryō, degree of strength, ability.

rikken-seiji, constitutional government.

riko (na), cute, intelligent.

riku, land; riku-age suru, to land (trans.).

rikugun, an army.

rikutsu, a reason; arguing (often in a bad sense): rikutsu voo iu, to quibble.

ringo, an apple.

rinjin, a neighbour.

rinshoku, stinginess.

rippa (na), splendid.

rippō, legislating.

rippuku, anger: rippuku suru, to get angry.

riron, theory.

risō, an ideal.

risū, the number of miles.

risurin, glycerine (from the English word).

riyū, reason.

ro, an imperative termination; see p. 167.

rō, an upper storey with a gallery, a large hall.

rō, a prison.

rō, trouble.

roba, an old woman.

roji, an alley.

rōjin, an old man: go rōjin, your father.

roka, a passage (in a house), a corridor.

roku, six.

roku ni, easily.

rōku-gwatsu, June.

roku-jū, sixty.

Romaji, the Roman alphabet.

rombun, an essay,

romei, lit. dew life, hence a scanty livelihood: romei voo tsunagu, to eke out a subsistence.

rompo, (method of) argument.

ron, argument, opinion: ron wo matan, indisputable.

rondan, a conclusion (in argument).

Rongo, the Confucian Analects.

**rōnin**, a wandering samurai who served no particular lord.

ronjiru (3), to argue: ronji-tateru, to start an idea.

ronkyo, the basis of an argument.ronketsu, a conclusion (in argument).

ronkyū suru (irreg.), to examine minutely.

ronrigaku, logic.

ronsha, a disputant.

ronshi, a point (in argument).

ronso, contention.

rontei, a conclusion (in argument). rōsoku, a candle.

rō(ya), prison.

rusu, absent: rusu-ban or rusu-i, a care-taker; rusu-chū, while absent.

ryakusuru (irreg.), to abbreviate, hence to omit.

ryō, a dragon.

ryō, both, as in ryō-hō, both (sides); ryō-nin, both persons; ryō-te, both hands.

Ryō, an old gold coin, approx. one dollar.

ryō, good (in compounds).

ryōken, judgment, opinion, intention, sometimes excuse.

ryokō, journey: (ryokō-)menjō, a passport; ryokō suru, to travel.

ryoku, power (in compounds).

ryōri, cooking: ryōri-jaya, an eating-house; ryōri-nin, a cook; ryōri-ya, a restaurant; ryōri wo suru, to cook.

ryōritsu suru (irreg.), to coexist. ryōshin. conscience.

ryōshin, both parents.

ryūkō, prevalence, fashion: ryūkōbyō, an epidemic disease; ryūkōsuru, to be in fashion, to prevail. Ryūkyū, the Luchu Islands.

# S

sa, a suffix used to form abstract nouns; see p. 37.

sa! or sā! an interjection; p. 239. sa, a difference.

sabaki, a judicial decision.

sabaku, to manage, to decide the merits of.

sabi, rust.

sabishii, lonely, dull.

Saburō, a man's name, see p. 36.

sadamaru, to be fixed, settled.

sadameru (2), to fix, to settle.

sadameshi, or sadamete, posi-

sae, even (adverb), if only.

saegiru, to hinder.

tively, surely.

saeru (2), to be clear and cold, hence calm and skilful.

sagaru, to descend, hence to go away.

sagasu, to seek, to look for.

sageru (2), to lower, to hang down (trans.).

sai, a humble word for wife: saishi, wife and children.

saiban, judgment, trial: saibankwan, a judge; saiban-sho, a court of justice.

sai-chi, intelligence.

saiketsu, decision, verdict: saiketsu suru, to take a vote.

saikō suru (irreg.), to think twice. saiku, workmanship, a ware.

saikun, an honorific word for wife, conf. p. 256.

sairei, a religious festival.

saishin, a second investigation (legal).

saisho, the beginning.

saisho, prime minister.

saishū, the last, final.

saisoku, urging on: saisoku suru, to urge on, to hurry up (trans.).

saiyō, acceptance, employment.

saizen, the very beginning, before.

saji, a spoon: saji wo toru, to practise as a physician, conf. p. 468, note 6.

saka, the hilly part of a road, an ascent: saka-michi, ditto.

sakan (na), prosperous: sakan ni, greatly.

sakana, anything taken with sake, hence more especially fish.

sakarau, to resist.

sakasama, upside down.

saka-ya, a grog-shop.

sakazuki, a sake cup.

sake, rice-beer, also alcoholic liquors in general: sake-zuki, fondness for strong drink, a toper; sake ni you, to get tipsy.

sakebu, to yell.

saki, front, before, on ahead, further, a cape: saki-hodo, a short while ago; o saki, see p. 248; saki sama, the gentleman at the other end.

sakki, emph. for saki.

sakkon, these days, latterly.

saku, to blossom.

saku, to tear (trans.).

saku, last (in compounds), as sakuban, last night; sakujitsu, yesterday; sakunen, last year.

sakujo, erasure.

sakura, a cherry-tree.

sama, way, fashion; also Mr., Mrs., Miss; see pp. 246-7, 258: sama-zama, all sorts.

samasu, to cool (trans.).

samatage, a hindrance: samatage wo suru, to hinder.

samatageru (2), to hinder.

sam-bai, treble.

sam-bu(n) no ichi, one third.

sameru (2), to cool (intrans.), to fade: me ga sameru, to wake.

samui, cold;—said only of the weather or of one's own feelings.

samurai, a gentleman of the military caste under the feudal

system, a warrior.

samusa, coldness, the degree of cold.

samushii, lonely, dull.

san, three: sam-bu, three per cent; san-do, thrice; san-do-me, the third time; san-nin-mae, portions for three; san-wari, thirty per cent; san-wari go-bu, thirty-five per cent.

san, short for sama; see p. 258.

san, a mountain (in compounds), as Fuji-san, Mount Fuji.

sandō, support, agreement.

san-gwatsu, March.

sanjo, pitiful state.

san-jū, thirty.

sankaku, a triangle.

sankei suru (irreg.), to go to a temple for worship.

sansei, approval, seconding (a motion): sansei suru, to support, to second; sansei-sha, a seconder, a supporter.

sappari, quite; (with a negative) not at all.

sari (for sa ari), it is thus: sarinagara, nevertheless, sari to wa, this being the case,

saru, to leave (a place), hence to be distant from.

sasai, a trifle: sasai na (or no), trifling.

sasayaku, to whisper.

saseru (2), to cause to do, to let.

sashitaru, a Class. word meaning special, particular.

sashizu, a command, dictate, information.

sasou, to take along with one, to invite: sasoi-dasu, ditto.

sasshiru, or sassuru (irreg.), to guess.

sassoku, immediately.

sasu, to thrust, to sting; to carry (e.g. a sword): sashi-ageru, to present (to a superior); sashidasu, to present; sashi-ire-guchi, the opening (of a post-box, etc.).

sasuga (ni), even so, even such, howsoever.

sasureba, it being so.

sata, an order, a decision, information.

sate, well! (at the beginning of a sentence).

sato, a village.

sato. sugar.

satori, comprehension, discernment of (religious) truth: satori wo hiraku, to come to a knowledge of the truth (Buddh.).

satsu, a volume.

satsu, paper-money: satsu-ire, a pocket-book.

satsujin, man-slaughter, murder.

Satsuma-imo, a sweet potato, so-called because first introduced from Luchu into the province of Satsuma.

satsuriku, slaughter.

sawagasu, to disturb, to make turbulent.

sawagi, a fuss, a row.

sawaru, to strike or clash against. to touch

savo (a contraction of sono vo. that way), so: savo de gozaimasŭ (p. 64), that is so, yes; sayō de gozaimasen, no ; savo sa, oh ! yes. of course.

sayonara, good-bye; conf. p. 230. sazo, indeed, surely, doubtless.

sazukeru (2), to bestow.

segare, a humble word for son; conf. p. 256.

sei, a family name.

sei, cause, effect.

sei, stature: sei no hikui, short (of stature); sei no takai, tall.

sei, pure (used chiefly in compounds).

sei, make, manufacture: seisuru, to manufacture.

seibutsu, a living being,

sei-daku, surds and sonants; see p. 21, N.B.

seido, government, political forms. or regulations.

seifu, a government.

seigen, a limit: seigen suru, to limit.

seigwan, a petition.

seiji, government, politics.

seijin, a sage, a philosopher.

seiki, a century.

seikwatsu, living, livelihood.

seimei, life.

seinen, the prime of life, youth.

seiri, righteousness.

seiryaku, policy.

seiryoku, strength, power.

seisai, restriction.

seisaku, measures, policy.

seishin, the stars (and constellations).

sei-shitsu, character, nature.

Seisho, the Holy Scriptures.

sei-sui, sec p. 34.

Seiyō. Western or European countries generally, Europe, America: Seiyō-jin, a European, American: Seivō-zukuri, foreign-built.

seizō, manufacturing : seizō suru, to manufacture.

seizon, existence: seizon suru, to exist.

seji, flattery.

sekai, the world: seken narete seken, iru, to be used to the ways of the world.

seki, a cough: seki ga deru, to cough.

seki, a barrier : seki-mori, a guard at a barrier.

sekinin, responsibility.

sekitan, coal.

sekkaku, special pains, signal kindness, on purpose.

sekken, thrift, economy: sekken wo okonau, to be thrifty.

sekkyō, a sermon: sekkyō suru, to preach.

semai, narrow, small.

semete, at any rate, at least. at most; conf. 1). 230.

semeru (2), to treat with rigour, to press upon.

semmon, a specialty (in learning). sempo, the other party, they, he

sen, a thousand,

sen, a cent,  $=\frac{1}{2}$  Amer. cent or I farthing.

senaka, the back (of the body).

senchū, on board ship.

Sendai-bushi, a kind of poem, see p. 488.

Sendo, the master of a junk, hence a boatman.

senjitsu, the other day.

senkoku, a sentence (penal),

senkoku, a little while ago.

senkoro, lately.

senkyōshi, a clergyman, a missionary.

senrei, baptism: senrei wo ukeru, to be baptised.

senro, a line of railway.

sensaku, research: sensaku suru, to make researches.

sensei, an elder, a teacher, hence you, he; see p. 47.

senshi, dying in battle.

sensu, a fan, see ōgi.

sentaku, the washing of clothes: sentaku-ya, a washerman; sentaku suru, to wash (clothes).

senzen, restoration to virtue.

senzo, an ancestor.

seppō, a sermon.

seppuku, the same as hara-kiri, see p. 35.

seri-uri, an auction.

seshimeru (2), to cause to do, see p. 212.

sessha, I, lit. the awkward person. sessuru (irreg.), to be in contact.

to receive.

setomono, porcelain.

setsu, an occasion, a time.

**setsu**, an opinion: *setsu ga au*, to be of the same opinion.

setsu, awkward; conf. 257.

setsumei, an explanation: setsumei suru, to explain.

setta, sandals soled with leather: setta-baki, wearing such sandals.

settaku, my house; see p. 257.

sewa, help, trouble: sewa ni naru, to be helped by; sewa ga yakeru, to be busy and anxious; sewa wo suru (or yaku), to help; o sewa sama, see p. 295, No. 96.

sha, a company, a society, a firm.

sha, a person (in compounds).

shaba, this world, hence out of prison.

shaberi, chatter, a chatter-box.

shaberu, to chatter.

shafu, a jinrikisha-man.

Shaka Sama, the Buddha Sâkya Muni.

shakkin, a debt.

shaku, a foot (measurement).

shakwai, society: shakwai-shugi, socialism; also used in such phrases as gakŭsha shakwai, the learned world. **shampan**, champagne (from the French).

sharei, a fee, a salary.

shasetsu, a leading article.

**shashin**, a photograph; *shashin-basami*, a photograph-holder or frame; *shashin-ya*, a photographer.

shasuru (irreg.), to thank, apologise.

shatei, a younger brother (humble).

shatsu, a shirt (from the English).

shi, death: shisuru, to die.

shi, four.

shi, a Chinese poem.

shi, Mr.

shi, a postposition; see p. S1.

**shi**, a Classical termination of adjectives; see pp. 121-2.

shi, the indefinite form of suru, to do.

shi-ageru, to finish doing.

shi-awase, good fortune, lucky.

shiba, turf, grass.

shibaraku, some time (whether short or long): makoto ni shibaraku, see p. 269.

shibaru, to tie.

shibashi, a short while.

shiba-shiba, often.

shibomu, to wither.

shi-bu(n) no ichi, a quarter  $(\frac{1}{4})$ .

shi-bu(n) no san, three-quarters. shichi, seven.

shichi-gwatsu, July.

shichi-jū, seventy.

shichū, (the middle of) the streets. or town.

shidai, arrangements, state, reason why, (hence) according to: shidai ni, according to, gradually.

shifun, anger for personal injury.

shigai, a corpse.

shigei, dense (see p. 124).

shigo, after death, posthumous.

shigoku, extremely, very.

shigoto, work: shigoto woo suru, to do one's work.

shi-gwatsu, April.

shihai-nin, the manager of a commercial house.

shi-hō hap-pō, all (lit. four and eight) sides.

shihon, capital (a fund of money).

shii (no ki), a species of live oak: shii-no-mi, an acorn.

shii, an adjective suffix, see p. 128.

shiiru (3), to urge, to try, to force. shiite, urgently, with violence.

shijin, a private individual.

shijū, constantly.

shi-jū, forty.

shǐka (with a neg.), nothing but, only. Some pronounce shǐkya.

shĭka, a deer, a stag.

shika, thus: shika nomi narazu, not only so; shikashite, and.

shikaku (na or no), square.

shikaru, to be so: shikaru ni, thereupon, but; shikaraba, if (or as) that is so, then.

shĭkaru, to scold.

shĭkashi, but (see pp. 242-3);

shikashi-nagara, but, nevertheless.

shĭkata, a way of doing: shĭkata ga nai, there is nothing to be done, no help for it; conf. p. 147.

shikei, capital punishment.

shiken, an examination, an experiment: shiken voo ukeru, to be subjected to an examination.

shĭki, a ceremony.

shĭkiri (ni), perpetually.

shĭ-kitari, a custom that has been handed down.

shikkari, firm, tight: shikkari shita, firm.

shikkei, rudeness: shikkei na, rude, impolite.

shikken, a regent (in mediæval times); see p. 344, note 2.

shikkō suru (irreg.), to execute.

shĭ-komu, to put into, to arrange inside.

shĭkwan, an officer.

shĭkya, see shĭka (1).

shima, an island.

**shimai**, the end: *mō shimai*, see p. 292, No. 69.

shimatsu, the beginning and end, the whole of any affair.

shimau, to finish; see p. 194.

shimbun, news, a newspaper: shimbun-shi, newspaper; shimbun-ya, a journalist; a newspaper office.

shimeru, a causative suffix, see p. 212.

shimeru (2), to fasten, close,

strangle, hence to put or have on round the waist; *shime-kiru*, to close up, to shut up.

shimizu, pure (spring) water.

shimesu, to manifest, show.

shimmin, the subjects (of a state).

shimmitsu (na), intimate.

shimo, (hoar-)frost; shimo-doke, thaw; shimo ga furu, there is hoarfrost.

shimo, below.

shimpai, anxiety, sorrow; shimpai suru, to be anxious or troubled; shimpai ni naru, to become anxious.

shimpo, progress: shimpo suru, to progress.

**shimpu**, (with go) a father (honor.).

shin, new (in compounds), as shinnen, the new year.

shin, the heart; hence the wick of a lamp.

shin (no), true, real: shin ni, really.

shina, a kind, hence more frequently an article, goods: shina-mono, ditto.

Shina, China: Shina-jin, a Chinaman.

shin-ai, affection, love.

shinchū, brass: shinchū-zukuri, arranged or fastened with brass.

shini-mono-gurui, desperation.

shinja, a believer.

shinjiru (3), to believe, to think.

shinjitsu, truth.

shinjō suru (irreg.), to present respectfully to a superior; see pp. 11, 251: shinjō-mono, a present.

shinki (na), new.

shinkō, belief: shinkō suru, to believe.

shinku suru (irreg.), to suffer hardship.

shinkwa, evolution: shinkwa-ron, the doctrine of evolution.

shinnen, the New Year.

shinrei, the soul.

shinri, truth.

shinrui, a relation, a kinsman.

shinsa, investigation.

shinsei, sacredness: shinsei na, sacred.

shinseki, kinsfolk.

shinsetsu, kindness: shinsetsu na, kind.

shinshi, a gentleman.

shinshi, deep thought.

shintai, a new shape.

shin-teki, mental.

Shintō, the name of the aboriginal religion of the Japanese prior to the introduction of Buddhism. It means "the way of the gods."

shin-un, progress.

shinuru (irreg.), to die; see pp. 172, 198, 212: shini-sokonau, barely to escape death.

shin-yō suru (irreg.), to believe in, to trust.

shin-yū, an intimate friend.

shinzō, properly a girl, but with

honorific go prefixed now used in the sense of a married woman of the lower middle class, Mrs.

shinzu-beki, credible.

shio, salt, salt water, the tide.

shira, familiar for shiran, don't know.

shiraberu (2), to investigate, to examine.

shira-ga, white hair; conf. p. 25. shirase, an intimation, an an-

shiraseru (2), to inform.

shireta, self-evident.

shirimochi wo tsŭku, to fall down in a sitting position.

shirizoku, to withdraw (intrans.). shiro, a castle.

shiro, Imper. of suru, to do: nani shiro, see p. 189.

shiroi, white: shiro-kane, silver.

shiromi, a tinge of whiteness.

shiromono, merchandise.

shirosa, whiteness, the degree of whiteness.

shiru, to know: shirenai, can't tell.

shirube, a sign, an indication.

shirushi, a sign, a mark.

shishi, a lion.

Shi-sho, see p. 366, note 10.

shisō, a thought.

shisoku, (with honorific prefix go) your son; conf. p. 256.

shison, a descendant.

shǐta, the under or lower part of anything, downstairs: no shǐta ni, below, underneath; shǐta no hō, the bottom, beneath.

shǐta, the tongue: shǐta-uchi

snita, the tongue: shita-uchi suru, to lick one's chops.

shitagau, to follow, to obey: ni shitagatte, according to.

shitagi, under-clothing.

shitaku, preparations: shitaku woo suru, to prepare.

shitan, sandal-wood.

shitashii, intimate, friendly.

shitsu, a room, a cabin.

shitsurei, rudeness, impertinence: shitsurei na, rude, impolite.

shitto, jealousy.

shiyāgaru, equivalent to suru, yagaru being a contemptuous and vulgar suffix, and ā (for a) adding to the lowness of the expression.

shiyō, a way of doing: shiyō ga nai, there is no help for it, nothing to be done; see also pp. 147, 182.

**shi-yū**, female and male: *shiyū-tōta*, sexual selection (Darwin).

shizen, spontaneity: shizen no, spontaneous, natural; shizentōta, natural selection.

shizuka (na), quiet.

shizumaru, to quiet down (intrans.).

shizumu, to sink (intrans.).

sho, many, all;—in compounds, as shohō, every direction; shonin, people in general; shoshū, all countries.

sho, a place (in compounds).

sho, a book.

shō, a chapter.

shōbai, trade, business: shōbaigara, the nature of a trade, appropriate to a certain trade; shōbai-nin, a tradesman.

shobun, treatment, punishment.

shōchi, consent, assent, comprehension: shōchi suru, to consent, etc.

shōdō suru (irreg.), to assert.

shōgun, the title (meaning literally generalissimo) of the de facto military rulers of Japan from the end of the twelfth century to A.D. 1868.

shōgwai, one's whole life.

shō-gwatsu, January.

shōgyō, trade.

shōji, the wood and paper or glass slides which enclose a Japanese room.

shoji suru (irreg.), to possess.

**shōjiki**, honesty: *shōjiki na*, honest.

**shōjiru** (3), to produce, to be produced, to arise.

**shoken**, reading (books): *shoken* suru, to read.

shōko, a proof: shōko-nin, a witness.

shokubutsu, a plant.

shokuji, food.

shokumotsu, food.

**shokun**, gentlemen, Sirs, all of you.

shomin, all men, every one.

shomei suru (irreg.), to prove. shomotsu, a book.

shōnin, a merchant, a dealer.

shōri, a victory.

shosei, a student.

shōsei, I, lit. junior.

shōsei, (the sound of) laughter.

shosen, after all, at last.

shōsetsu, a novel.

shōshō, a little.

shōsō (na), premature.

shōsū, a small number, minority. shosuru (irreg.), to dispose of, to

condemn.

sho-taimen, a first interview.

shote, the beginning.

shou, to carry on the back.

shu, the auxiliary numeral for poems.

shu, Chin. for sake, strong liquor. shu, rarely shū, also shi, a

pluralising suffix; see p. 29.

**shu**, a sort, species (in compounds), *shu-ju*, all sorts.

shū, a province, a country.

shubiki, a boundary line on a map: shubiki-gwai, outside "treaty limits;" shubiki-nai, inside treaty limits.

shuchō, assertion, contention.

shudan, a means.

shūgaku suru (irreg.), to study.

shugi, a principle, conf. p. 7.

shui, intention, meaning, purport.

shujin, the master of a house-hold.

shūketsu, termination, closure.

shukkin, going to official work; to go to office.

shŭku, a post-town.

shuku-hai, a toast.

shūkwai, a meeting.

shūkyō, religion, a sect.

shūmon, a sect, a religion.

shurui, a sort.

shūsei suru (irreg.), to amend (as a bill).

shūsen, assistance: shūsen wo suru, to assist.

shushi, purport, intention, aim.

shu-shoku, wine and lust.

shusseki, attendance,—as at a party or a meeting: shusseki suru, to attend, to go.

shusshō, birth.

shutsugoku, coming out of prison.

shuttatsu, starting, departure: shuttatsu suru, to start.

so, rough, coarse; see p. 257.

sō (a contraction of sayō, itself a contraction of sono yō), like that, in that way, so: sō da or sō desŭ, that is so, yes; sō desŭ ka? is that so? indeed! sō ja nai or sō ja gozaimasen, that is not so, no; sō iu, that kind of, such as that; sō ka mo, sō ka to, see p. 296, Nos. 109 and 110; sō kō, this, that, and the other; sō sa! yes indeed; sō shite, see p. 242; sō wa ikan, that won't do.

so, a pair (of screens).

so, the auxiliary numeral for boats

and ships.

sō (na), a termination of quasiadjectives, see pp. 137 and 183; also used separately, as "it would seem that" (see pp. 183—4).

so shite, having done so, and then; conf. pp. 242, 225.

soan, a draft,-e.g. of a bill.

soba, alongside.

soba, the market price, the current rate.

sobieru (2), to stretch up, to reach up (intrans.).

socha, inferior tea.

sochi, or sochira, there.

sodan, consultation: sodan suru, to hold a consultation, sodan wo kakeru, to suggest.

sodateru (2), to bring up.

sodatsu, to be brought up, to grow up.

sodo, a row, a tumult.

sogi, funeral rites.

sogū suru (irreg.), to meet with.

sõhai, worship.

sohan, see p. 257.

soho, both sides.

sõi, difference, discordance: sõi nai, there is no doubt.

soji, cleansing: soji wo suru, to cleanse.

sõken (na), healthy, vigorous.

soko, there: soko de, thereupon.

soko, the bottom (e.g. of a lake): soko-bie, an internal chill.

sokoera, thereabouts.

**soku**, the auxiliary numeral for all sorts of foot-gear.

somatsu, coarseness: somatsu na, coarse. rude.

someru (2), to dye.

sommei, (your) august name.

**sōmoku**, herbs and trees, vegetation.

son, loss, especially pecuniary loss.son, lit. a village,—the auxiliary numeral for mura, village.

sonaeru (2), to provide; (sometimes) to be provided with.

sonata, you.

sonchi, retention.

sonchō, a (village) mayor.

sonjiru (3), to spoil (trans. and intrans.).

sonna, that kind of, such as that: sonna ni, so (much).

sonnara (for sō nara), if that is so, well then.

sono, that (adj.): sono hō, you (in legal parlance).

sonritsu, existence.

sonshitsu, pecuniary loss.

sonsuru (irreg.), to exist, to preserve.

sonzai, existence.

soo, suitability, a fair amount: soo na, fit, proper.

sora, the sky: sora-iro, sky-blue.

sora! (for sore wa), there!

sore, that (subst.), see pp. 51--3:
 sore de wa, that being so, then;
 sore kara, after that, and then,
 next; sore made no koto, see p.

194. For the interjectional use of *sore*, see p. 239.

soroban, an abacus.

soroi, a match, a set: see also p. 112.

soroeru (2), to put in order, to arrange.

soro-soro, leisurely, slowly.

sorou, to be in order, to be all in their places.

soru, to shave.

sorya! there now! see p. 239.

sōryō, an eldest son.

sõshĭki, a funeral.

soshiru, to blame, to revile.

sosō (also corruptly sōsō), coarseness: o sosō sama, excuse the coarseness of my poor entertainment.

sosuru (irreg.), to come to life-again.

sosuru (irreg.), to report to the Emperor, to accomplish.

sōtai (no), whole.

sotaka, the total amount.

sote, alongside, skirting.

soto, the exterior, out-of-doors: no soto ni, outside of.

soto (na), suitable, proper.

sotto, gently: also used for chotto.

sozei, taxes, imposts.

sōzō, fancy, imagination.

sōzōshii, noisy.

sū, a number.

subarashii, splendid, very.

sube-sube shita, smooth.

subete, altogether, all.

sude ni, already. sue, the end or tip of a thing. sueru (2), to set, to place. sugi, past, after.

sugi, the cryptomeria tree.

sugiru (3), to exceed, ..ni sugimasen, it is no more than, Suffixed to an adjective or verb. sugiru may be rendered by too or too much, as vo-sugiru, to be too good; nomi-sugiru, to drink too much.

sugu (ni or to), immediately. sui, water (in compounds): suido, an aqueduct, water-works; suifu, a seaman, a common sailor.

suiko suru (irreg.), to execute. suikyō, intoxication. suimono, a kind of soup. suiren, practising swimming. suiryō, a conjecture : suiryō suru,

to suppose. suisho, a crystal.

suisoku, a conjecture. suivobi. Wednesday.

suji, a line, a vein, reason; see also p. 112.

sŭki, fond; see p. 65: sŭki-zuki, various tastes.

sŭkima, a chink : sŭkima-kaze, a draught (of air).

sukkari, quite, completely; (with a negative) not at all.

sŭkoburu, very.

sŭkoshi, a little, a bit.

sŭku, to be empty.

sŭkunai, few, scarce; see p. 274.

sumai, a residence.

sumasu, to conclude (trans.).

sumau, to reside.

sumi, charcoal, Indian ink.

sumiyaka(ni), speedily.

sumo, wrestling: sumo wo toruto wrestle.

SUR

sumu, to dwell.

sumu, to come to an end. neg. suman sometimes means to be improper, unpardonable.

sumu, to be clear.

sun, an inch.

suna, sand.

sŭnawachi, namely, forthwith. sunde no koto ni, just about to. sū-nen or su-nen, many years. suppa-nuku, to draw one's sword at random, hence to expose abruptly.

suppai, sour.

sura, even, if only.

smoothly, withsurari to, sura-sura to, ) out more ado.

suribi, a match (for striking).

suru (irreg.), to do, to make; see especially pp. 159, 224; also pp. 92, 133, 151, 195, 198, 210, 211, 212, 251; shi-kakeru, to begin to do; shi-togeru, to accomplish; suru to, at the beginning of a sentence, see p. 352, note 10; shite miru to, see p. 353, note 15; to sureba, see p. 370, note 22.

suru, to rub; used also incorrectly for soru, to shave, as hige

700 soru or suru, to shave.

surudoi, sharp.

susugi-sentaku, the washing of clothes.

susugu, to rinse, to cleanse.

susumeru (2), to urge, to offer, to recommend.

**susumu**, to advance, to progress (intrans.).

sŭtensho, a railway station (from the English word).

sŭteru (2), to throw away.

suu, to suck, to inhale.

suwaru, to squat (in Japanese fashion).

suzu, tin.

suzume, a sparrow.

suzuri-bako, an ink-box.

suzushii, cool, fresh.

#### T

ta, a suffix denoting past time; see pp. 150, 166.

ta, other, different: sono ta, besides that.

ta, a rice-field.

tabako, tobacco (from the European word): tabako-ire, a tobacco-pouch; tabako wo nomu, to smoke.

taberu (2), to eat; conf. pp. 156, 251.

tabemono, food, victuals.

tabi, a time (une fois): tabi-tabi, often; iku tabi? how many times? iku tabi mo, any number of times, however often.

tabi, a journey; tabi ye deru, to go on a journey.

tabi-bito, a traveller.

tabun, a good deal, most; hence probably.

tachi, a pluralising suffix; see p. 29.

tada, only, simply.

tadachi ni, forthwith.

tadaima, immediately.

tadashii, correct, just.

tadasu, to rectify, to examine into, to warn.

taeru (2), to endure.

tagai (ni), mutually: o tagai (sama) ni, see p. 363, foot-note 3.

tagaru, a verbal suffix; see p. 134. tai, big; tai shita, important.

tai, a termination of desiderative adjectives; see pp. 133, 165, 183.

taiboku, a large tree.

taigai, for the most part, probably.

taigū, treatment.

taihen, lit. a great change, hence very, awfully, see p. 147.

taiko, a drum: taiko-isha, a quack physician.

Taikō, a title of honour,—rarely applied to any but the Taikō Hideyoshi, the military ruler of Japan at the end of the sixteenth century.

taikutsu, tedium, ennui; taikutsu suru, to feel bored.

taimatsu, a torch.

taimen, honour, reputation.

taira (na), flat.

taisetsu, importance; taisetsu na, important.

taishi, an ambassador: taishi-kwan, an embassy.

taishĭte, see taisuru.

taisho, loud laughter.

taiso, greatly, much, very.

taisuru (irreg.), to be opposite to;

ni taishite, vis-à-vis, to.

taitei, for the most part, generally. taiyaku, original and translation together, as in a bilingual dictionary.

taiyō, the sun.

taka, a quantity.

takai, high: hence dear (in price), loud.

takara, a treasure: takara-mono, something very precious.

take, a bamboo.

take, a mountain peak.

take, length, stature.

taki, a waterfall.

tako, a kite (toy).

taku, a house, hence a humble term for husband (see p. 256): o taku de, at home.

taku, to light (the fire), to cook (rice).

takŭsan, much, many, plenty:

mō takŭsan or sore de takŭsan,
that is plenty, I don't want any
more; conf. p. 65.

tama, a ball, a bead, a jewel.

tamago, an egg: tamago-yaki, an omelet.

tamaru (intrans.), to collect (as water in a puddle).

tamaru (intrans.), to endure; tamaranai sometimes means too, conf. p. 295, No. 95.

tamashii, the soul.

tama-tama, rarely, occasionally.

tamau, to deign; conf. p. 253.

tame, sake: no tame ni, for the sake of, because of, in order to, by; tame ni naru, to be profitable.

tameru (2), to collect (trans.).

tamesu, to try, to taste.

tamochi-kata, the degree of wear in an article.

tamotsu, to keep (trans.).

tan, phlegm.

tana, a shelf.

tane, a seed, the material for the formation of anything projected, a subject, the wherewithal.

tangwan, an earnest entreaty.

tan-haki, a spittoon.

tani, a valley.

tanin, another person, a stranger.

tanjun (na), simple.

tanki, a short period.

tanomu, to rely on, to apply to, to ask, hence sometimes to hire, to engage: tanomi-iru, to lodge a request, see also p. 249; o tano(mi) mõshimasŭ, see p. 309, No. 14.

tanoshimi, joy, pleasure.

tansan, carbonic acid; tansansui, the name of an effervescing water.

tansu, a cabinet, a chest of drawers.

taoreru (2), to fall over.

tara(ba), termination of the conditional past, see pp. 166, 184.

tare, same as dare.

taredo(mo), termination of the concessive past, see pp. 166, 187.

tareru (2), to hang down (trans.), hence to leave, to give.

tari, termination of the frequentative form, see pp. 167, 189.

tari, an auxiliary numeral; see pp. 112-3.

tariru (3), to suffice, to be enough, conf. p. 164: ni taran, is not worth.

tarō, the termination of the probable past, see p. 166.

Tarō, a man's name, see p. 36. taru, a cask.

taru, a Classical particle contracted form to aru=is (that), as; bushi taru mono, one who is a warrior.

taru, same as tariru.

tasatsu, manslaughter, murder.

tashĭka (na), certain, sure: tashĭka ni, certainly.

tashĭkameru (2), to ascertain, to verify.

tashō, more or less, hence amount, degree, see p. 359, note 5.

tasshi, a notification.

tasshiru (3), to attain to, to reach.

tasŭkaru, to be saved; but conf. p. 204.

tasū, a great number, majority.

tasŭkeru (2), to save, to help.

tatakau, to fight.

tataku, to knock: tataki-tsŭkeru, to knock on.

tatami, a mat.

tatamu, to pile up.

tatari, a divine judgment or curse. tate-fuda, a notice-board.

tateru (2), to set up, to build.

tateru (2), to be able to stand (intrans.).

tatoe, a comparison, a metaphor.

tatoeba, for instance.

totoeru (2), to compare.

tatsu, to stand up, to rise, to
depart: tachi-kaeru, to go back;
tachi-yoru, to look in at.

tatsu, to cut off.

tatta, vulgar and emphatic for tada.

tattobu, to honour, to venerate. tattoi, venerable, worshipful.

tattosa, venerableness.

tayori, something to rely on:
tayori ni suru, to rely on.

tazuneru (2), to ask, to enquire, to visit.

te, the termination of the gerund, see p. 165: te iru, see pp. 155, 192, 141; te mo, see p. 187.

te, the hand, the arm, hence handwriting. Sometimes in compounds it means person, as in *nori-te*, lit. riders, i.e., the passengers in an omnibus, railway carriage, etc.; see also p. 340, foot-note; *te-bukuro*, a glove.

te-arai, violent, rough.

techo, a note-book.

tefuda, a visiting card.

tegami, a letter.

tegarui, easy, slight.

tei, a state (of things).

teiki (no), requisite.

teikoku, an empire, specifically Iapan.

teikwaku, see foot-note, p. 406. teinei (na), polite.

teishi, incorrect for *teishu*, the master of a house, a husband; conf. p. 256.

teki, an enemy (public).

teki, a drop.

teki, of; see p. 81.

tekĭ suru (irreg.), to be appropriate.

tekĭshu-seizon, the survival of the fittest.

tekitō (na), fit, suitable.

tekiyō suru (irreg.), to apply.

tekketsu, iron and blood, war-like.

tema, trouble: tema ga toreru, to take time and trouble (intraus.). temadoru, to take time and

trouble (intrans.).

temae, front, this side of; you, also I, conf. p. 47.

tempen, a sign in the heavens.

Tempō, a nengō or "year-

name," which lasted from A.D. 1830 to 1844.

ten, a point.

ten, the sky, heaven.

ten-chi, heaven and earth.

tengu, a kind of goblin with a long nose.

tenjō, a ceiling.

tenju, natural term of life.

tenka, the world, the empire (of Japan).

**tenki**, the weather; o tenki, ditto, also specifically fine weather; tenki-tsugō, the state of the weather.

tenkoku, the kingdom of heaven.

tennen (no), natural.

tennento, small-pox.

Tenno, the Mikado.

Tenshi, the Mikado; see p. 258.

Tenshō, see p. 369, foot-note.

**Tenshu,** God (of Roman Catholics): *Tenshu-dō*, a Catholic church; *Tenshu-kyō*, Roman Catholicism.

tensui-oke, a rain-tub.

tentaku, changing house: tentaku suru, to change house.

tentō (o tentō sama), the sun (vulg.).

tenugui, a towel.

teppō, a gun: teppō wo utsu, to fire a gun.

tera, a Buddhist temple.

terasu, to shine upon, illumine.

4

teru, to shine.

teru, a contraction of the termin. te iru, see p. 192.

tessa, iron chains.

tesŭki, leisure, nothing to do.

tete, the hands (in baby language).

tetsu, iron: tetsubin, a kettle: tetsudō, a railway.

tetsŭgaku, philosophy; tetsŭgakŭsha, a philosopher.

te-tsuzuki, a process, a way of arranging matters.

te-zema, the state of being crowded.

tezuma, jugglery, a trick: tezumatsŭkai, a conjuror.

to, a door.

to, ten (in compounds).

to, a postposition: see pp. 82, 166, 275; to iu, see pp. 58, 82, 97; to iu mono wa, see p. 58; ditto at beginning of sentence=what I mean is...; to ka, see p. 69; to itte, see p. 83; to mo, see pp. 85, 187; to itte mo, see p. 187; to mo kaku mo, see p. 298; to suru, see p. 227; to wa ie or to wa iedo, see p. 187; to wa iu mono no, while, whereas, see p. 39.

tō, a pagoda.

tō, ten.

to, that, the, proper; see p. 54.

to, an auxiliary numeral for horses and cattle.

tō, etcetera.

tō, in tō ni or tō kara, long ago, already.

tobu, to jump, to fly: tobi-agaru, to fly up; tobi-komu, to jump or fly in; tobi-kosu, to jump across.

tōbutsu-ya, a general shop for foreign goods.

tochaku, arrival: tochaku suru, to arrive.

tochi, a locality, a place, soil. tochū, on the road, by the way.

todai, a lamp-stand, a light-house.

todan, ascending the pulpit or rostrum.

todana, a cupboard.

todoke, a report.

todokeru (2), to send to destination, to give notice, to report.

todoku, to reach (intrans.).

todomaru, to stop, to stay (intrans.).

todome, a stop, a pause, the coup de grâce: tadome wo sasu, to give the coup de grâce.

todomeru (2), to stop (trans.). tōdori, a manager, a president.

tofu, a city.

tōfu, bean-curd: tōfu-ya, a shop for or seller of bean-curd.

toga, fault, blame.

togame, blame.

togameru (2), to blame.

togarashi, cayenne pepper.

togeru (2), to do thoroughly.

toge, a mountain pass.

togetsu, this month.

togire, temporary cessation.

tohomonai, outrageous, ex-

\_\_\_

tortionate.

tōi, far, distant.

toji, the binding of a book.

toji, the present time, at that time. tojiru (3), to close (trans.), to bind

(a book).

tōka, ten days, the tenth day of

the month.

tokaku, same as to mo kaku mo;
see under to.

tokei, a clock, a watch.

tokei, imprisonment with hard

tōkei, statistics.

tokeru (2), to loosen, to melt (intrans.).

toki, time, hence when (conjunction), see pp. 41, 184, 275: toki-doki, often; toki-ori, occasionally; toki ni, see p. 41; toki to shite, sometimes.

tōki, porcelain.

tok-kai, the reading (of a bill).

toko, an abbreviation of tokoro,

tokonoma, an alcove.

tokoro, a place, but see pp. 41-2, 180; tokoro de, see p. 42; tokoro ga, tokoro ye, see p. 42; for tokoro no used as a kind of relative pronoun, see p. 61; tokoro-dokoro, here and there, in many places.

tokoro-gaki, an address (written).

toku, to loosen, to melt (trans.), to unfasten, to explain: tokiakasu, to explain. toku, profit, advantage, efficacy.

tokubetsu (na), special.

tokuhon, a reading book.

tokui, a customer.

tokuri, a bottle.

tokushitsu, gain and loss.

tomai, an auxil. numeral, see p. 112.

tomaru, to stop, to stay (intrans.). tombo, a dragon-fly.

tome-bari, a pin.

tō-megane, a telescope.

tomeru (2), to stop (trans.).

tomo, a companion, a follower:

tomodachi, a companion, a friend.

tomurai, a funeral.

tonaeru (2), to recite, to proclaim (e.g. opinions).

tonari, next door.

tonda, absurd, awful,

tondemonai, excessive.

tonen, this year.

tonin, the person in question.

tonjaku, concern (always with neg.): tonjaku suru (irreg.), to be concerned.

tonogo, a man, a gentleman, a husband.

tonto (mo), (with negative) not at all. *Tonto* sometimes means with a thud.

tora, a tiger.

toraeru (2), to seize, to arrest.

toreru (2), to take (intrans.), to be able to take.

tori, a bird, especially the barn-door fowl.

tori, a thoroughfare, a street, a way, as; see p. 243.

tori mo naosazu, neither more nor less than, just, exactly.

tori-aezu, forthwith.

tori-maki wo suru, (irreg.), to keep the ball of conversation rolling, to entertain skilfully.

tori-tsŭki-ha, something to hold on by, facilities.

toro, a stationary (e.g. a stone) lantern.

tōron, a discussion, debate.

toru, to take, but sometimes merely expletive in compounds: tori ni iku, to go for; tori ni kuru, to come for; tori ni yaru, to send for; tori-atsŭkau, to undertake, to manage; tori-chigaeru, to confuse; tori-ireru, to gather in; tori-isogu, to be in a hurry; tori-kaeru, to exchange; tori-kakomu, to surround, to besiege; tori-motsu, to arrange; tori-shiraberu, to investigate; tori-tsŭku, to catch hold of; ni totte, with regard to.

tōru, to pass through, to pass by: tōri-kakaru, to happen to pass by.

tosan, the ascent of a mountain: tosan suru, to ascend a mountain.

toshi, a year, hence age: toshi wo toru, to grow old; toshi no

yotta, elderly, aged.

tōshi, the act of doing something right through.

toshiyori (no), old (said only of people).

tōsu, to put or let through, to admit (e.g. a guest): o tōshi mōse, see bottom of p. 294.

tōta, selection.

tote, a postposition; see p. 83.

tōtei, (with a neg.) by no means.

totemo, anyhow, in any case; (generally with a neg.) not at all, by no means.

tōtō, at last.

tou, to ask.

tozan, same as yama-nobori, see P. 35.

tözen, right, proper.

tsuba, the guard of a sword.

tsūben, interpretation, an interpreter: tsūben wo suru, to interpret.

tsubo, a jar.

tsubu, a grain,—e.g. of rice; a seed.

tsŭchi, earth.

tsue, a stick, a staff: tsue wo tsŭku, to lean on a staff.

tsugai, a pair (of fowls, etc.).

tsūgaku-sei, a day-scholar.

tsugi (no), the next: sono tsugi ni, next (adverb).

tsugō, the sum total, altogether; also convenience, certain reasons: tsugō no yoi, convenient; tsugō no warui, inconvenient

go tsugō shidai, according to your convenience; tsugō ga de-kimasŭ, see p. 301, No. 7.

tsugu, to join (trans.), to follow, to succeed to (a patrimony); also to pour into: tsugi-dasu, to pour out.

tsui, by chance, unconsciously.

tsui, a pair.

tsui ni, at last.

tsuide, occasion, apropos: no tsuide ni, apropos of.

tsuitachi, the first day of the month.

tsuite (preceded by ni), with regard to, about: tsuite iku, to follow.

tsuiyasu, to spend, to squander. tsuji, a cross-road.

tsūji, an interpreter, interpreting. tsūjiru (3), to understand, to speak (a language).

tsŭka, a hilt.

tsŭkaeru (2), to serve.

tsŭkai, a message, a messenger: tsŭkai no mono, a messenger.

tsŭkai-michi, a means of employing.

tsŭkamaeru (2), to catch.

tsŭkamatsuru, to do (humble); conf. p. 251.

tsŭkare, fatigue.

tsŭkasadoru, to control, to direct.

tsŭkau, to use, to employ.

tsŭkawasu, to give, to send.

tsukeru (2), to fix, to affix, (hence)

to set down in writing, to add, to light: *tsŭke-agaru*, to be puffed up with pride.

tsŭki, clinging to, inserted in.

tsŭki, the moon, a month: tsŭki hi, the sun and moon, a date; tsŭki-zue, the end of the month; tsŭki ga agaru, the moon rises.

tsŭki-ai, intercourse.

tsŭki-atari, the end of a road where one must turn either to the right or to the left.

tsŭki-ataru, see tsŭku.

tsŭkiji, land reclaimed (from sea or swamp).

tsŭkiru (3), to come to an end, to be exhausted.

tsūkō suru (irreg.), to pass through or along.

tsŭku, to push, to shove: tsŭkiataru, to collide, to come to the end (of a street).

tsŭku, to stick (intrans.), sometimes to result, also, to arrive: tsŭki-sou, to accompany.

tsūku, pain.

**tsŭkue**, a table, specifically a very low Japanese writing-table.

tsükunen, listlessness, gaping.

tsŭkuru, to make, to compose; to grow (trans.): tsŭkuri-dasu, to produce; tsŭkuri-tateru, ditto.

tsŭkusu, to exhaust, to do to the utmost.

tsŭku-tsŭku, attentively.

tsūkwa suru (irreg.), to pass.

tsuma, a wife; but see p. 256.

tsumaran(ai), worthless, trifling.
tsumari, in short, in the long run:
tsumaru tokoro, ditto.

tsumazuku, to stumble.

tsume, a finger or the nail, a claw.

tsumeru (2), to stuff, pack, or squeeze into: tsume-yoru, to draw near.

tsumetai, cold (to the touch).

tsumi, a sin, a crime: tsumi suru, to punish.

tsumori, an intention: tsumorigaki, a written estimate.

tsumoru, to be heaped up.

tsumuri, the head.

tsunagu, to fasten, to tie up.

tsune (ni), generally: tsune no, usual, ordinary.

tsunoru, to collect (trans.), to levy, to increase or grow violent.

tsurai, disagreeable, unsympathetic.

**tsure,** a companion. *Nigoried* and used as a suffix, it means together, as *fūfu-zure*, a husband and wife together.

tsure-datsu, to go together.

tsureru (2), to take with one:

tsurete kuru, to bring (a person).

tsūrei, the general precedent, the usual plan.

**tsuri** (often with honoritic o), change, small money.

tsuru, a stork.

tsuru, to hang (e.g. a mosquitonet); tsuri-ageru, to hang up.

tsuru, to angle, to catch fish with

a line and hook.

tsurube, a well-bucket.

tsutawaru, to be handed down.

tsutomeru (2), to attend, to be occupied with.

tsutsumi(-mono), a parcel.

tsutsumu, to wrap up.

tsūyō, circulation: tsūyō suru, to circulate (as money).

tsuyoi, strong.

tsuyu, dew : o tsuyu, soup.

tsūzoku, colloquial, common.

tte, see pp. 83--4.

tto, see bottom of p. 82.

# U

uba, a wet-nurse.

ubau, to take by force, to rob.

uchi, the inside, hence a house home, hence a humble term for husband (see p. 256), taken from, an extract; no uchi ni, inside, in; sono uchi, meanwhile, soon; o uchi de, at home. Uchi ni sometimes means while. For uchi helping to form superlatives, see p. 146.

uchiki, retiring, bashful.

uderu (2), to boil,-e.g. an egg.

ue, the top of anything; conf. p. 260: no ue ni, above, on, after. Sometimes ue means circumstances or nature, as kami no mi ue, the nature of the gods; also a point of view, with regard to.

ueki, a garden plant: ueki-ya, a gardener.

ueru (2), to plant.

ugokasu, to move (trans.).

ugoku, to move (intrans.).

uguisu, a nightingale.

uji, a surname, hence Mr.

ukagau, to enquire, to ask, to listen to, to visit.

ukeru (2), to receive: conf. p.
251: uke-au, to guarantee; uketoru, to take delivery, to receive.

uketamawaru, a humble word for to hear; conf. p. 251.

uketori, a receipt.

uketoru, to receive.

uke-tsüke, a sort of enquiry office, superior in dignity to a mere porter's lodge, where cards are received, information given, etc. There is one at the entrance to every public department and other large establishments in Japan.

ŭma, a horse.

ŭmai, nice to eat, tasty.

ŭmamma, food (in baby language); conf. p. 240, footnote.

ŭmareru (2), to be born.

**ŭmare-tsŭki**, by birth; hence the character or disposition.

**ŭme**, a plum-tree : *ĭme-mi*, going to see the plum-blossoms.

umeru (2), to fill up with earth, to bury: ume-awaseru, to make up (metaph.), see pp. 342-3.

umi, the sea: umi-be, the sea-

shore.

umu, to give birth to, to bear: umi-dasu, ditto.

un, luck; un no yoi, lucky; un no warui, unlucky.

unazuku, to nod.

undô, bodily exercise: undô-dama, cup-and-ball; undô suru, to take exercise.

unnya! humph!

ura, the back or reverse side of anything.

urayamu, to envy (not urayamashigaru, in a bad sense); also to wish to be like.

urayamashii, enviable.

ureeru (2) or ureiru (3), to grieve.

ureru (2), to sell (intrans.), to be able to sell; conf. p. 206.

ureshigaru, to feel joyful.

ureshii, joyful.

uru, to sell (trans.): uri-sabaku, to sell off.

urusagaru, to find troublesome. urusai, troublesome, a bother.

urushi, lacquer, varnish. uruwashii, beautiful, lovely.

ushi, a cow, a bull, an ox, beef.

ushinau, to lose.

ushiro, the back or hinder part of anything: no ushiro ni, at the back of, behind.

uso, a lie, a falsehood: uso wo iu, to lie; uso-tsŭki, a liar.

usui, light, thin (in colour or consistence), insufficient: usu-akai,

pink; usu-gurai, dusk.

**uta**, a Japanese (as opposed to a Chinese) poem, a song.

utagai, a doubt: utagai wo okosu, to raise a question.

utau, to sing.

utcharu, to throw away, to disregard: utchatte oku, ditto.

utoi, estranged: uto-utoshii, ditto.
utsu, to strike, to hit. It is sometimes used as a meaningless and omittable prefix in compound verbs, as (uchi-)tsure-datsu, to go along together.

utsŭkushii, beautiful.

utsuru, to remove (intrans.), to go over to.

utsusu, to remove (trans.), to copy.
uttaeru (2), to go to law about, to
appeal.

uttoshii, cloudy, dull.

uwa-gaki, an address (on an envelope, etc.).

uwagi, a coat.

uwasa, gossip, rumour: uwasa wo suru, to talk about.

**uwo**, a fish: *uwo wo tsuru*, to fish with a rod and line.

uyamau, to reverence.

uya-uyashii, awe-inspiring.

# W

wa, a separative particle; see p.85; also pp. 94, 166, 193, 195,238, 260, 274. For its use as an interjection, see p. 87.

wa, an irregular auxiliary numeral, see p. 110.

wabi, an apology.

wabiru (3), to lament, to apologise.

waboku, peace.

wadakamaru, to be coiled.

waga, my own, one's own, see p. 51: waga mi, myself; waga hai, we.

wai, an exclamatory and emphatic particle.

waka-danna, the son of the master of the house.

wakai, young.

wakareru (2), to part with, to be separated.

wakari, understanding: o wakari ni naru, to understand (honorific); wakari no hayai, quickwitted, sharp; wakari-nikui, hard to understand; wakariyasui, easy to understand.

wakaru, to understand: wakarikitte iru, to come to a clear understanding.

wakasu, to boil (trans.); said of water.

wakatsu, to discern.

wake, a reason, a cause: dō in wake de? why? sō in wake ni wa ikimasen, it can't be managed in that way.

wakeru (2), to divide, to share: wake-ataeru, to distribute in appropriate shares.

wakete, specially.

waki, the side of anything, sometimes elsewhere: no waki ni, at the side of, beside; waki ye, elsewhere.

wakimaeru (2), to discriminate, to comprehend.

waku, to boil (intrans.).

wampaku (na), naughty.

wan, a bowl.

wan, a gulf, a bay.

wanishi, varnish (from the English word).

wan-wan, bow-wow. Children call dogs so.

warai, laughter.

waraji, a kind of straw sandals used only out-of-doors.

warau, to laugh.

ware, I (in Book Language): ware-ware, people like me, we.

wari, a share, hence ten per cent: wari-ai, proportion; wari-biki, discount; wari-mae, a share.

warui, bad, (hence sometimes) ugly, see also pp. 128, 139: waruku iu, to blame; waruküchi, bad language; waru-mono, a worthless fellow, a ruffian.

Wasei, made in Japan.

washi, a vulgar contraction of watakiishi, I.

wasure-mono, something forgot-

wasureru (2), to forget.

watakŭshi, selfishness, (hence)
I: watakŭshi-domo, we, people
like me, I; conf. pp. 48-9.

wataru, to cross (a river).
watashi, a somewhat vulgar
contraction of watakiishi. I.

watasu, to hand over.

waza to, on purpose.

wazawai, a calamity.

waza-waza, on purpose.

wazuka, a trifle: wazuka ni, only, nothing but.

wo, a postposition; see p. 91; also pp. 201, 203, 213, 224, 261.
woba, see p. 96.

# Y

ya, a termination signifying house, see p. 39.

ya, a postposition; see pp. 93, 88 (N.B.), 195: ya nani ka, p. 55.

ya and yā, eight; see p. 101.

yaban, a barbarian: yaban no or na, barbarous.

yabo, a boor, a dolt.

yabu, a bamboo thicket: yabu-i, a quack doctor.

yabuku, to tear (trans.).

yado, a dwelling-place, a hotel; hence a humble word for hushand (see p. 256); yado-ya, a hotel.

yagate, forthwith, by and bye, almost, perhaps.

yagu, bed-clothes.

yahari, also.

vai! halloa!

yakamashii, noisy, hence given to fault-finding, fussy.

yakedo, a burn.

yaki, burning, roasting, tempering (a blade).

yakkai, assistance; see also p. 290, No. 54, and conf. p. 247.

yaku, to burn (trans.), to roast, to toast, to bake.

yaku, usefulness, service: yaku ni tatsu, to be of use.

yakunin, an official.

yakŭsha, an actor.

yakŭsho, a public office.

yakŭsoku, an agreement, a promise: yakŭsoku suru, to promise.

yakwai, an evening party.

yama, a mountain, a hill, sometimes dishonest speculation: yama-michi, a mountain path.

yamai, a disease.

yama-nobori, see p. 34.

Yamato, one of the provinces of Japan, hence Japan itself: Yamato-damashii, Japanese spirit, ideal, patriotism.

yameru (2), to put a stop to. yamu wo ezu, unavoidably. yanagi, a willow-tree.

yane, a roof (see p. 36).

yappari, emphatic for yahari.

yara, see p. 488, foot-note 8.

yarakasu (vulg.), to do; hence to perform almost any action, e.g. drinking, eating, working.

yare! (an exclamation of encouragement derived from yaru, to give), go on! halloa! sometimes, or else.

yaru, to send, to give, conf. pp. 196, 251: yatte miru, to try (one's hand at); yatte shimau, to give away; yaru is sometimes used instead of suru, to do.

yasashii, easy, gentle.

yaseru (2), to grow thin; yasete iru, to be thin; yaseta, thin.

yashĭki, a nobleman's mansion, also a "compound."

yashiro, a Shintō temple.

yashoku, supper, (late) dinner.

Yaso, Jesus: Yaso-kyō or Yaso-shū, (Protestant) Christianity.

yasui, cheap, easy: yasu-domari, a cheap lodging.

yasumu, to rest, to go to bed: o yasumi nasai, good-night.

yatou, to hire, to engage.

yatsu, a (low) fellow; rarely a thing.

ya(tsu), eight.

yawarakai or yawaraka na, soft.

yaya, more or less, somewhat: yaya mo sureba, apt to, liable to.

ye, a postposition; see p. 93.

yen, see en.

yo! an interjection, see pp. 239, 167.

yo, the night: yo-geiko, studying at night; yo-naka, midnight; yo ni iru, to become dark.

yo, the world: yo no naka, ditto; yo wo okuru, to spend one's life, to make a living. yo, surpluss.

yo and yo, four ; see p. 101.

yō, business, use; yō wo nasu, to be of use.

yō, appearance, way, kind: yō ni, to, so that; see p. 276.

yo-ake, dawn.

yobo, a precaution.

yobu, to call: yobi-dasu, to summon; yobi-kaesu, to call back.

yochi, space, room.

yofuku, European clothes.

yōgaku, European learning: yōgaku-sha, one versed therein.

yoginai, unavoidable.

yohodo, plenty, a lot, very.

yoi, good, (hence) handsome; see also pp. 137, 139.

yō-i (na), easy.

yōji, a tooth-brush, less correctly a tooth-pick (ko-yōji): yōji-ire, a tooth-pick holder.

yo-jō-han, (a room) four mats and a half (in size).

yōka, eight days, the eighth day of the month.

yōkan, a kind of sweetmeat made of beans and sugar.

yokei, superfluity; (with a negative) not very, not much; see p. 148.

yöki, the weather.

yokka, four days, the fourth day of the month.

yoko, cross, athwart: yoko-chō or yoko-dôri, a side street (whether cross or parallel); yoko-me, a side glance; yoko-moji, European written characters.

yokogiru, to cross.

yokosu, to send hither.

yoku, well, hence often.

yoku, next, as in yoku-jitsu, next day.

yoku suru (irreg.), lit. to bathe, hence to avail of.

yökyū, a demand.

yome, a bride, a daughter-in-law: yome ni iku, to get married (said of a girl); yome ni yaru, to give (a girl) in marriage; yome wo morau, to marry (a wife).

yomeru (2), to read (intrans.), can read; conf. p. 2c6.

yomu, to read (trans.): uta wo yomu, to compose (Jap.) poetry.

yomuki, business, affairs.

yondokoronai, inevitable.

yo-naka, midnight.

yone, hulled rice.

yo (no naka), the world.

yopparai, a drunkard.

yopparau, to get tipsy.

yoppodo, emphatic for yohodo.

yoppite, all night long.

yori, a postposition; see pp. 94, 145, 260.

yorokeru (2), to reel.

yorokobi, joy.

yorokobu, to rejoice.

Yöroppa, Europe.

yoroshii, good, conf. pp. 128, 130, 255: mō yoroshii, all right, no more required; ...de yoroshii, ... will do well enough; yoroshiku mōshimasi, see p. 309; yoroshiku negaimasi, see pp. 324—5, No. 21.

yorozu, a myriad, ten thousand. yoru, the night.

yoru, to lean on, to rely, to depend; hence to look in at, to stop at for a short time: ni yotte, owing to; toshi no yotta, aged.

yoru, to select: yori-dasu, ditto. yoru, to assemble.

yosasō (na), having a good appearance, conf. p. 137.

yōsei suru (irreg.), to foster, to nourish,

yoseru (2), to collect (trans.).

yoshi, good, all right; conf. p. 122: yoshi-ashi, see p. 34.

yōshi, an adopted son: yōshi ni iku, to be adopted.

yoso, elsewhere.

yosō suru (irreg.), to anticipate.

yosooi, adornment, fine array.

yosu, to leave off, to abstain from, to put an end to, to omit.

yōsu, appearance, circumstances.

yo-sugiru (3), to be too good.

yōsuru (irreg.), to need.

yūsuru (irreg.), to possess.

yo(tsu), four.

yotei, settling beforehand.

yottari, four persons.

yotte, for that reason: ni yotte, owing to.

yowai, weak.

yowami, weakness.

yōyaku, barely, at last, with vovo.

yu, hot water, a hot bath: yu wo sasu, to pour in hot water.

yūbe, yesterday evening.

yubi, a finger, a toe: yubi-nuki, a thimble.

yūbin, the post: yūbin-gitte, a postage-stamp; yūbin-kyoku, a post-office; yūbin-zei, postage.

yūdachi, a (thunder-) shower.

yue ni, therefore.

vuen, cause, rationale,

yūgata, twilight, evening.

yuinō, gifts exchanged on betrothal.

yuka, the floor.

yūkata, see yūgata.

yūkei, evening.

yuki, snow.

yūki, courage.

yūki-kei, confinement for a fixed term.

yukkuri, leisurely, slowly.

yūkyō, pleasure.

yume, a dream; yume wo miru, to dream.

yūmei, darkness and light, hence death and life.

yūmeshi, supper, (late) dinner.

yumi, a bow (for shooting): yumiya, a bow and arrows.

yūrei, a ghost.

yureru (2), to shake (intrans ).

yururi (to), leisurely: go yururi to, see p. 143.

yurusu, to allow, to grant.

yusan, a picnic.

yūsei, a planet.

yūshi, a brave warrior.

yūshoku, supper, (late) dinner.

yūshō-reppai, the survival of the fittest (in the struggle for existence).

yuu, to bind up or do (the hair). yūyo, postponement, hence hesita-

yūyū tō, nonchalantly. yuyushii, serious, grave.

za, a seat, in compounds sometimes a theatre: za ni tsŭku, to take a seat; za voo tatsu, to rise from one's seat.

zaiaku, crime.

zaisan, property: zaisan-kagiri. bankruptcy; zaisan-kei, a fine.

zaishū, a criminal.

zampatsu, hair-cutting.

zange suru (irreg.), to confess.

zannen, regret (for one's own sake): zannen-garu, to regret.

zashĭki, a room.

zasshi, a magazine, a review.

zatta (na), miscellaneous.

ze, same as zo.

zehi, right and/or wrong; (hence) positively: zehi mo nai, nothing more to be said, unavoidable, useless.

zembu (or zempan), the whole. zempai, total abolition.

zen (generally with honorific o), a kind of tray; see p. 248.

zen, before (in compounds), as shi-go-nen-zen, four or five years ago.

zen, whole: zenkwai, whole meet-

zen, virtue.

zen, a pair (of chopsticks).

zen-aku, good and /or evil.

zeni, coin, coppers, money.

zennin, a virtuous person.

zenryō (na), virtuous, good.

zentai, the whole body, hence generally.

zenzen, altogether, quite.

zetchō, the summit of a mountain.

zo, an interjection: see pp. 239 and 55.

zō, an elephant.

zōhei-kyoku, a mint.

zoku, commonplace, vulgarity: zoku na, vulgar.

zoku-zoku, continuously.

zombun, the heart's content: zombun ni suru, to do as one likes (with a thing).

zonji, knowledge; used in such phrases as go zonji desŭ ka? do you know? zonji-nagara, I must own that...

zonji-yori, an opinion.

zonjiru (3), to know.

zōri, a kind of straw sandals worn indoors.

zosa, difficulty: always with a negative, as zōsa mo nai, there is no difficulty.

zotto suru (irreg.), to start with surprise; also to be natural or pleasant.

zu, termination of the negative gerund, see p. 169.

zubon, trousers.

zuibun, a good deal, pretty (adverb), very.

zure, see tsure.

zuru, a verbal termin., see p. 226. zutsu, (one, etc.) at a time, apiece, each, as *mitsu-zutsu*, three at a time.

zutsū, a headache: zutsū ga suru, to have a headache.

zutto, straight, quite, a great deal.

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