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JAPANESE GRAMMAR.

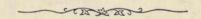
JAPANESE GRAMMAR.

BY

J. J. HOFFMANN, PHIL DOC.

MEMBER OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, ETC. ETC.

SECOND EDITION.



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HOMAGE TO THE LATE

J. J. ROCHUSSEN

L. L. D.

GOVERNOR OF DUTCH EAST INDIA, MINISTER FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF THE COLONIES, MINISTER OF STATE

FOR THE LIBERAL AND ENLIGHTENED MANNER IN WHICH HE
HAS PATRONIZED THE STUDY OF THE CHINESE AND JAPANESE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

PREFACE

TO THE FIRST EDITION.

The Grammar of the Japanese language, which accompanied with this Preface, is simultaneously published in the English and in the Dutch languages, is an original work, not a remodelling or an imitation of any other works of that stamp at present existing. As the result of a many years' study of the Japanese literature, it describes the written or book language, as it really exists in its ancient, as well as in its modern forms.

It also contains the author's own observations on the domain of the spoken language, which his intercourse with native Japanese in France, in Engeland and especially in the Netherlands has afforded him ample opportunities to make; opportunities, which have been the more valuable to him, in as much as that they brought him in contact with people belonging to the most civilized and the most learned, as well as with those of the inferior classes of Japanese society. Thence he derives the right, even though he has never actually trodden the soil of Japan, to embrace the spoken language in the range of his observations, and to treat it in connection with the written language.

The author is convinced that, all he has quoted from Japanese writings, whatever their character, is genuine: he relies upon it himself, and trusts that the experience of others, unprejudiced, will find that it is so.

With regard to the manner in which he has conceived the language, and in all its phenomena treated it analytically and synthetically, he believes it to be in consonance with the spirit of this language, simple and natural, and, — his daily experience confirms this, — thoroughly practical.

This method of his, was made known in general outline ten years ago, when he published the *Proeve eener Japansche Spraakkunst* door Mr. J. H. Donker curtius, and the seal of approbation was affixed to it by the judgment of scholars, whereas Mr. s. R. Brown, who, in 1863, published the very important contribution: Colloquial Japanese or conversational sentences and dialogues in English and Japanese, not only founded his Introductory remarks on the Grammar, on the Author's method, but with a few exceptions, followed it in its whole extent.

The Grammar, now published, to lay claim to completeness, ought to be followed by a treatise on the Syntax, the materials for which are prepared. It will be published as a separate work, and be of small compass.

By these aids, initiated in the treatment of the language, the student may, with profit, make use of the Japanese-Dutch-English Dictionary, for the publication of which the author has prepared all the materials necessary, and by so doing he will have at his disposal the most important means of access to the Japanese literature.

LEIDEN, May 1868.

THE AUTHOR.

NOTICE

TO THE SECOND EDITION.

As the first edition of this Grammar published in 1867 by command of His Majesty's Minister for colonial affairs is out of print, the publisher E. J. BRILL, being now proprietor of the Chinese types, acquired by order of the Dutch Government, has resolved on a re-issue.

The Author has found no inducement to alter or modify the matter of this work; only a few words have been occasionally inserted, others of less importance removed in order to get room for a new instance more fit to elucidate the grammatical rule. There are also some notices added, as on page 157 concerning the Introduction of the Western Calendar, and page 172 some words about the new Gold-currency.

Some other additions are to be found in the addenda to the book. The paging of both editions is the same; the second, however, is accompanied by a register of words treated on in the work, for which the Author is indebted to Mess^{rs}.

L. SERRURIER and W. VISSERING, who have used this Grammar as a basis for the study of the Japanese language.

The Author, being now engaged in printing the Japanese-Dutch and Japanese-English Dictionary mentioned in the Preface to the first edition, is happy in recommending to the student the valuable Japanese-English Dictionary of J. C. HEPBURN, Shang-hai 1872, and the Dictionnaire Japonais-Français, publié par Léon pagès, Paris 1868.

LEIDEN, 26 July 1876.

THE AUTHOR.

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INTRODUCTION.

1. CONNECTION OF THE JAPANESE WITH THE CHINESE LANGUAGE. — THE NECESSITY OF UNITING TO THE STUDY OF THE JAPANESE, THAT OF THE CHINESE LANGUAGE.

In its general character, it is true, the Japanese is cognate to the Mongolian and Mandju languages, but with regard to its development, it is quite original, and it has remained so notwithstanding the later admixture of Chinese words, since it rules these as a foreign element, and subjects them to its own construction.

In the Japanese language, as it is now spoken and written, two elements, the Japanese and Chinese alternate continually and, by so doing, form a mixed language which, in its formation, has followed the same course as, for instance, the English in which, the more lately adopted Romance element, which forms a woof only, in like manner, is governed grammatically by the Anglo-Saxon.

In the study of the Japanese language the distinction of the two elements, is of the greatest importance; and as the Chinese element is rooted in the Chinese language, both spoken and written, and thence is to be explained, the student of Japanese ought to know so much of the Chinese language, as shall enable him to read and unterstand a Chinese text.

The Japanese learns Chinese by means of his mother tongue, thus one, who

is not a Japanese and does not understand Japanese, but wishes to learn it, must make himself master of Chinese by another way; to do this, he will be obliged to make use of the resources which already exist in European languages.

Whoever supposes that he can learn the Japanese language without, at the same time, studying the Chinese will totally fail of attaining his object either theoretically or practically. Even let him be so far master of the language spoken, as to be able to converse fluently with the natives, the simplest communication from a Japanese functionary, the price-list of the tea-dealer, the tickets with which the haberdasher or mercer labels his parcels will remain unintelligible to him; because they contain Chinese, if, indeed; they are not wholly composed of Chinese. Thus, whoever wishes to learn Japanese thoroughly, by means of this grammar, is supposed to possess, in some degree, knowledge of the Chinese written language.

2. ON THE WRITING OF THE JAPANESE.

The Japanese write Chinese but have, at the same time, their own native writing derived from the Chinese and which they, in imitation of the Chinese, write in perpendicular columns which follow one another, from the right hand to the left. Our alphabet, for that purpose would have to be written thus:

I	E	A
J	F	В
K	G	C
etc.	H	D

If the words are written in a cross direction, they begin at the right hand, thus, I H G F E D C B A.

The circumstance, that the Japanese writting does not run in the same direction as ours, but crosses it, or takes an opposite course, causes difficulty as soon as we have to couple Japanese writting with our own. Since, the Japanese, adhering to the custom of writting their words under one another, have altered their perpendicular columns of letters to cross lines, which thus show $\triangleleft \square \bigcirc$; to bring their form of writing into some agreement with ours, I have, till now, thought it best to follow their example and, like them, placed the Japanese letters at the side. Now, however, some Japanese philologists, whenever their

writing is coupled with ours have, in conformity with it, adopted the plan of writing perpendicularly, and from left to right, I likewise have relinquished the manner formerly adopted, and now have, together with the Chinese, reduced the Japanese writing to the rule of ours, and applied to it the modification in the order of the signs already generally in use for the Chinese writing.

The Japanese running-hand, on the contrary, is too much confined to the columnar system to be susceptible of any modification in its direction.

3. INTRODUCTION OF THE WRITTEN AND SPOKEN LANGUAGE OF CHINA INTO JAPAN.

The first knowledge of Chinese-writing was carried to Japan by a prince of Corea in the year 284 of our era, and then, immediately after, the tutor to that prince, a Chinese, named Wang žin (王仁), having been invited, the Japanese courtiers applied themselves to the study of the Chinese language and literature. According to the Japanese historians, Wang žin was the first teacher of the Chinese language in Japan 1).

In the sixth century, the study of the Chinese language and system of writing first became generally spread, by the introduction of the doctrine of BUDDHA. Then every Japanese, in polished society, besides being instructed in his mother tongue, received instruction in Chinese also, consequently read Chinese books of morality, and aimed at being able to read and to write a letter in Chinese.

The original pronunciation of the Chinese, it is true, degenerated early and that to such a degree, that new dialects of it sprung up, which were no longer intelligible to the Chinese of the continent; but notwithstanding that the Japanese, on account of their knowledge of the Chinese writing, and their proficiency in the Chinese style remained able, by means of the Chinese writing to interchange ideas not only with Chinese, but with all the peoples of Asia that write Chinese. The Chinese written language has become the language of science in Japan. It, still, is such and will yet long remain such, notwithstanding the influence which the civilization of the West will more and more exert there. The

¹⁾ This historical fact is mentioned in Japan's Bezüge mit der Koreïschen Halbinsel und mit China. Nach Japanischen Quellen von J. HOFFMANN, Leyden, 1839, page 111.

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Chinese written language is, though, the palladium of Japanese nationality, and the natural tie which will once unite the East against the West!

And, however slight be the influence till hitherto exerted on the Japanese language written as well as spoken, by the study of the Western languages and, to wit the Dutch, formerly the monopoly of the fraternity of interpreters and a few literary men, who used this knowledge as a bridge, over which the skill of the West was imported and spread over their country, by means of Chinese or Japanese translations, just as little will it be in future, even if the study of the Western languages should be ever so greatly extended, as the consequence, of Japan's being at last opened to the trade of the world.

4. APPLICATION OF THE CHINESE WRITING, TO THE WRITING OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE.

When, after the introduction of the Chinese written and spoken language into their country, the Japanese adopted it to write their native language, which is not in the least cognate to the Chinese, instead of resolving the sound of the words into its simplest elements, and expressing them by signs, like our letters, they took the sound in its whole, and expressed it syllable for syllable by Chinese characters.

Every Chinese radical word, it is known, is expressed by a more or less composite monogram (character) which has its peculiar ideographic and phonetic value — its peculiar signification and pronunciation. To choose an instance, such is \mathbf{T} the Chinese word for a thousand. The Chinese says $tsi\bar{e}n$, the Japanese pronounces it sen, and the Japanese word for a thousand is tsi.

¹⁾ The distinction between Koyé en Yomi agrees with this, as it is made by the compiler and publisher of the Élémens de la Grammaire Japonaise par le P. RODRIGUEZ in § 1 of that work, and it is, therefore, important to maintain the contents of this paragraph as quite correct against the misconception,

quoted, may thus stand as an ideographic character, pronounced by the Japanese as sen or translated by tsi, or it is only used as a phonetic sign and expresses the syllable sen or the syllable tsi. That, by such a confusion of Koyé en Yomi, the whole writing-system of this people rests on an unfirm basis is evident at a glance.

Departing from the principle, to write Japanese with the Chinese writing, and to express the Japanese words syllable by syllable, by means of Chinese characters, some hundreds of the Chinese characters most in use were pitched upon and used for phonetic signs, Kána.

[The Japanese word $K\acute{a}na$, pronounced as $K\acute{a}nna$, has arisen from kar^{i} or $kar^{oe}na$ by assimilation of the r, and means taken upon trust, or borrowed name, thus a phonetic sign without farther meaning, in distinction fron Ma-na (真名), a real name. The word $K\acute{a}na$ is generally expressed by the Chinese characters 假名, $ki\grave{a}$ $m\^{n}ng$, borrowed name; the $K\acute{a}na$ sign is called 假为名,文章字》 $K\acute{a}na$ - $m\acute{o}nzi$, and the $K\acute{a}na$ writing 假名書, $K\acute{a}na$ - $g\acute{a}ki$.]

These phonetic signs, just as the Chinese writing generally, were at first written in full, either in the standard-form, or in a running hand, which is produced of itself, whenever a Chinese character, composed of several strokes, is written in one continuous pencil-stroke, and gives rather a sketch of it, than a full draught. Running hand forms for
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The standard-form, written in full, commonly called 真之字 Sin-zi or 正文字 Sei-zi, the real, proper character, also 楷文書 Kai-sio, normal writing, and 行意書 Gyoo-sio, text-hand, was used in the Japanese Chronicle 日本書記 Yamáto-bumi or Nippon-sio ki 1), containing the oldest history of Japan, from 661 B. C. till 696 A. C. and published in 720 A. C. as manuscript in thirty parts.

The running-hand form was used in the old Japanese Bundle of Poems

on the ground of which, R. ALCOCK, pp 9 and 10 of his Elements of Japanese Grammar, takes the field against RODRIGUEZ and his publisher. Yomi, nevertheless, means the same, as the Chinese word The Kun, the Kung of ALCOCK.

¹⁾ The work is written in Chinese, and was one of the principal sources, in the elaboration of my treatise: Japan's Bezüge mit der Koreïschen Halbinsel und mit Schina; published in von Siebold's Nippon-Archief. 1839.

萬文葉 # Man-yov-siu or the Collection of the Ten Thousand Leaves, compiled about the middle of the eighth century.

The first Kána-form was, consequently, called Yamáto-kána 1) (大和假名), the other Man-yov-Kána (萬葉假名).

5. JAPANESE WRITING PROPER.

An abbreviation of the two forms of Chinese writing led to the formation of another writing which, in opposition to the Chinese character writing, was styled, as the writing of the Japanese Empire, 日本國之文字, Nippon gókǔ no mon-zi.

a. The Káta-kána.

Abbreviation of the Chinese standard writing gave rise to the Káta-kána gáki. It was, originally, intended when placed side by side with the Chinese characters, to express in remarkably smaller writing either their sound (koyé), or their meaning (yomi), and was therefore denominated Káta-kána-mon-zi (片意假节名广文学学), i. e. side-letter 2). According to the Japanese sources 3), the inventor of this writing is unknown, and the invention of it has been incorrectly, attributed to the Japanese statesman, KIBI DAIZIN, who died in 757.

b. The Fira-gána 4).

The more or less abbreviated form of the Chinese running-hand or short hand (草学 Sōo-zi) is called Fira-gána-gáki (平假名書) or the even letter-writing, or, according to another reading, Firo-gána (廣假名), i.e. broad letters, since they take up the whole breadth of the writing-column. It is the running hand in which official documents, as well as letters and by far the greatest number of Japanese books are written and printed, and thus must be distinguished as the popular writing, proper. It has the advantage

¹⁾ Yamáto, contracted from Yama ato, behind the mountains, properly the name of the Province, to which the Mikado's court was removed in 710, is at the same time applied to the Japanese Empire. See Fak-buts-zen, under Yamáto, and the Japanese Encyclopedia, Vol. 73, p. 4 verso.

²⁾ The notion of some Japanese writers seems less correct, as by Káta-kána were meant half-letters.

³⁾ The Japanese Encyclopedia San-sai-dzu-e. Vol. 16, p. 35 v.

⁴⁾ People say and write too Fira-kana and Hira-kana.

over other forms of writing, that the letters of a word can be joined to one another.

6. ON THE JAPANESE PHONETIC SYSTEM.

The number of sounds or syllables in Japanese was first, fixed at 47 and that in imitation of the Brahmanical-writing (梵字 Bon-zi), which distinguishes 12 vowels and 35 consonants 1). The fixing of the Japanese phonetic system is attributed to the Buddhist Priest KOO-BOO DAI-SI (弘法大師), who, in his 31st year, went to China in 804 A. C. to study more closely the doctrine and institutions of BUDDHA and who, during a stay of three years, acquired there, among other knowledge, that of the Brahmanical writing (Sanscrit) and the phonetic system, as it was understood by the Chinese Priesthood 2).

A. SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF THE 47 SOUNDS, EXPRESSED BY CHINESE AND JAPANESE KANA-SIGNS.

The Japanese phonetic system with its Chinese and Japanese Kána-signs systematically arranged according to the organs of speech, by which the sounds are produced, is as follows: (五十十岁連三音三) isiranokowe

- 1. Palatal sounds 5). 阿ア, a. 伊イ, i. 宇ウ, u. 江ヱ, e 遠オ, o. (ye).

 2. 加力, ka. 幾キ, ki. 人ク, ku. 計ケ, ke. 已コ, ko.
- 3. Lingual sounds 4). 左サ, sa. 之シ, si. 須ス, su. 世セ, se. 曾ソ, so.
- 多夕, ta. 知子, ti 津ツ, tu 天テ, te. 土ト, to. (tsi). (tsu).
- 奈十,na. 仁二,ni. 奴又,nu. 禰子,ne. 乃ノ,no.

¹⁾ The Japanese Encyclopedia San-sai-dzu-e. Vol. 15, p. 35 v.

²⁾ The way in which the Chinese translators have copied, syllabically only, by means of Chinese characters, the Sanscrit words in the Buddhist writings imported from India, is placed in a clear light by the work: Méthode pour déchiffrer et transcrire les noms sanscrits qui se rencontrent dans les tivres chinois, inventée et démontrée par M. STANISLAS JULIEN. Paris 1859.

⁸⁾ 喉音.

- 6. Labial sounds 1). 波り, fa 比ヒ,fi 不フ,fu 邊へ,fe 保ホ,fo (va). (vi). (vu). (ve). (vo).
- 7. 末マ, ma. 美 き, mi. 無 ム, mu. 女メ, me. 毛 モ, mo.
- 8. Palatal sounds. 也ヤ,ya. 為イ,i. 油ユ,yu. 惠工,ye. 與ヨ,yo.
- 9. Lingual sounds. 良ラ, ra. 利リ, ri. 留ル, ru. 禮レ, re. 呂口, ro.
- 10. Labial sounds. 和ワ, wa. 伊井, wi 宇ウ, wu. 江 ヱ, we. 於ヲ, wo. (i).

We give this view from a Japanese source 2), we must, however, remark that the Chinese signs of the sounds are not generally those, from which the Japanese Káta-kána sign placed next it, by way of abbreviation, is derived, for, properly, the Káta-kána sign:

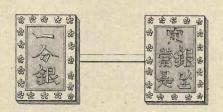
了, a, answers to the Chinese character 安.

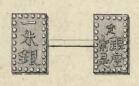
- 才, o, » » » 於, vulgo 扵.
- チ, tsi, » » » チ, a thousand, Jap. tsi.
- 子, ne, » » » 子, the cyclical sign for mouse, Jap. ne.
-)), fa, » » » 华.
- え, mi, » » » 三, three, Jap. mi.
- **4**, mu, » » » 单.
- メ, me, » » » 女, woman, Jap. me.
- ル, ru, » » » 流.
- 井, wi, » » » , » 井, well, Jap. wi.
- 了, we, » » » » 惠.
- ヲ, wo, » » » » 平.

According to this system, some dictionaries, particularly those of the unmixed old Japanese language have been arranged.

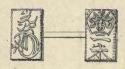
¹⁾唇音.

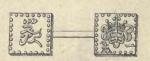
²⁾ Wa-kan Sets'yoo moe sau bukuro, p. 38, r., where the pronunciation of the Sanscrit phonetic system is given with Japanese Káta-kána.











The late Japanese gold and silver winage. See page 172.

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和高地大変を

人 弘 及 L.S.

Tacsimile of a quittance of a coolymas A proof of Chinese running han Digitized by Microsoft® Tapanese Firegana!_ See Addenda!_ Digitized by Microsoft® This system of 47 sounds or syllables, however, and indeed with relation to the consonants, is incomplete. It is not sufficient to express all the sounds of the Japanese language. Therefore, to supply the defect, recourse has been had to a modification of some $K\acute{a}ta-k\acute{a}na$ signs, and for that purpose points, or a small ring, have been placed next them. Thus is placed

The sounds, thus modified, are called Nigoréru koyé (酒音), i. e. confused or impure sounds, the points used to indicate the modification Nigóri, and the small ring Máru.

In the Yamáto- and Man-yov-kána the modified sounds are expressed by proper Chinese characters chosen for that purpose. While, to give an instance, the syllable ka is expressed by one or another of the characters, 加. 哿. 架. 嘉. 迦. 可. 河. 何. 荷. 珂. 柯. 柯. 軻. 軻. 訶. 歌. 甘. 間. 簹. 个, to express the syllable ga, one of the characters 我. 俄. 峨. 餓. 鵝. 雅 may be chosen.

B. THE IROVA IN CHINESE CHARACTERS AND IN KATA-KANA SIGNS.

To facilitate the learning of the Japanese sounds or syllables, they have been so arranged as to compose a couple of sentences, and as these begin with the word *Irová*, that name has been given to the Japanese alphabet. The composition of the *Irová* is attributed to the Bonze, κου-Βου Daisi, (who died in 834) already mentioned, the writing-form he used for it was, it is asserted, running-hand or *Fira-gána*.

THE IROVA.

Iro vá nivovetó tsirínuruwó.

Wága-yó daré zo tsŭné narám.

U-wi no ókŭ-yáma kévŭ koyéte,

Asaki yŭmémisi, évi mó sézŭ.

TRANSLATION.

Color and smell (love and enjoyment) vanish!

In our world who (or what)
wil be enduring?

If this day passes away into the deep mount of its existence,

Then it was a faint vision; it does not even cause giddiness (it leaves you cold). THE IROVA WITH CHINESE TRANSLATION.

The Káta-kána signs of the Irová, which stand in the place of our alphabet, and according to which the Japanese dictionaries are commonly arranged, are derived from Chinese characters, which are likewise used, and that by way of Capitals or large letters. They are:

The characters marked * stand for ideographic signs, answering to the Japanese word tsi (a thousand), ne (mouse), wi (well), ye (bay), yu (bow), me (woman), and mi (three).

The sign &, mu, which was also used in the old Japanese for the final

sound m (at present n) has, in this quality, more lately acquired the sign \mathcal{S} , n, as a variation.

7. REPETITION OF SYLLABLES. — STOPS.

The repetition of a letter is expressed by , of dis- or trisyllabic words by ; thus, for instance, ; stands for ; ya ya; ; for ; iro-iro,

As stenographic signs, for some Japanese words that frequently occur, in connection with the Káta-kána, the following are to be remarked:

Stops.

As stops, only the comma ($^{\circ}$) and the point ($^{\circ}$ or $^{\circ}$) occur in Japanese. The use of them, however, is left wholly to the option of the writer. Some use $^{\circ}$ also at the beginning of a new period, and thus begin that with a point, while others with the same object place a somewhat larger ring, \bigcirc , or a \triangle there. The comma ($^{\circ}$) stands on the right of the letter (for instance $^{\circ}$), while the repetition sign is placed on the diameter of the column of letters (for instance $^{\circ}$, kuku).

The principle of separating the words from one another in writing is, for the most part, quite lost sight of in writing with the Káta-kána, and the Kána signs of a whole period are written at equal distances. The consequence of it is, that for an unpractised person, who is not already pretty well acquainted with the Japanese, it is very doubtful how he has to divide some fifty or a hundred successive Kána signs into words. With a view to perspicuity and not to require from the reader that he shall be already acquainted with the period which is offered him to read, to enable him to read and understand it, it is in the highest degree desirable that our method of separating the words should be applied to the Japanese, as it is done by the author of this grammar. If the method of separating word for word were adopted by the Japanese, it would be a great step in the improvement of their writing-system.

Note. For the sign of quotation see Addenda p. 349.

8. REMARKS ON THE JAPANESE SYSTEM OF SOUNDS, AND THE EXPRESSION OF IT WITH OUR LETTERS.

To promote the unity necessary in the reduction of the Japanese to Roman characters, we have adopted the Universal or Standard alphabet, by ROBERT LEPSIUS. As this alphabet enables people of various nations to reduce to their own graphic system, the words of a foreign language, in a manner systematic, uniform, and intelligible to every one; and as it has been adopted by the principal philologists in all countries, as well as by the most influential Missionary Societies, its application to the Japanese language will be welcomed by every one who prizes a sound, uniform and, at the same time, very simple system of writing.

In reducing the Japanese text to Roman character the following signs borrowed from the Standard alphabet have been adopted.

- a. a open as heard in the Dutch vader; English father, art; Jap. 7.
- i. i pure as heard in the Dutch ieder; Eng. he, she; Jap. 1.
- i. i long; Jap. #.
- ĭ. i short.
- u. u pure, as oe heard in the Dutch, goed; Eng. oo in good, poor, o in lose; Jap. > . At the beginning of a word it is frequently pronounced with a soft labial aspiration, as wu.
- ŭ, short, silent u.
- e. e close, e as heard in the Dutch bezig, meer, geven; Eng. a in face, nation; German e in weh; Jap. \(\chi \).
- ĕ. e short.
- e open as heard in the Dutch berg; Eng. a in hat; French è in mère, ètre; German Bär, fett.
- o. o close as heard in the Dutch jong, gehoor; Eng. borne; German Ton; Jap. 才.
- ŏ. o short.
- a, a sound between a and o, leaning rather to the a than the o, as heard in the English water, all and oa in broad.
- **o.** When the sound a inclines rather to the o than a, it is expressed by \underline{o} .
- au. In the dialect of $Y \notin (au)$ changes to ao, because the a, for ease in rapid pronunciation, inclining to the u changes to a, while the u, to approach more nearly the a, changes to a.

In some dialects of Western Japan, particularly that of Kiu-siu, au changes to δo , and arau $(\vec{\xi})$ is superseded by $ar\delta o$ $(\vec{\xi}, \vec{\xi})$.

The etymology considered, however the written form au or au is to be preferred.

- ou. Etymologically ou (‡) in the dialect of Yédo sounds oo, being the hard open o heard in the Dutch loopen, German mond, followed by the u inclining towards the soft o. By some Japanese, this diphthong is also pronounced as oo and is written so, as well. On the etymological principle we write ou, in distinction from au, or au.).
- eu. (了岁) is pronounced ĕo.
- k, as in Dutch, German, and English. 力, 丰, 力, 方, \supset , = ka, ki, ku, ke, ko.
- g. In Western Japan, particularly in Kiu-siu, \mathcal{H} , $\mathcal{$

In the dialects of Eastern Japan, on the other hand, particularly in that of $Y \in \mathcal{C}$ of the g has the sound of the ng in the German lang, English singing thus a really impure sound, by no means the medial of k; and the series \mathcal{D}^k , \mathcal{D}^k , \mathcal{D}^k , \mathcal{D}^k , are prononced nga, ngi, ngu nge, ngo according to the Standard-alphabet, na, ni, nu, ne, no.

Even might the pronunciation of $Y\acute{e}do$ deserve preference above that of the other dialects, still we think we ought to retain the g for the representation of the impure g, because this form of writing is as good as universally adopted, and also because the n does not appear with it, even in the Japanese writing. Therefore without wishing to dispute the freedom of others to write wanga for \mathcal{F} and Nangasaki for \mathcal{F} \mathcal{F} \mathcal{F} because people in $Y\acute{e}do$ speak so, we adhere to our already adopted written form waga and $N\acute{a}gas\acute{a}ki$, and say $w\acute{a}nga$ and $N\acute{a}ngas\acute{a}ki$.

Te Dutch guttural g (gaan, geven), = γ of the Standard-alphabet is quite foreign to the Japanese organs of speech.

s. s sharp, サ,シ,ス,セ,ソ,=sa, si, su, se, so. - Si and se, in the pro-

¹⁾ LEON PAGES, also has kept this distinction in view, and expresses T by o and T by o. — Dictionnaire Japonais-Français traduit du dictionnaire Japonais-Portugais composé par les missionaires de la compagnie de Jésus. Pablié par LEON PAGES. Première livraison. 1862.

nunciation of Yedo have the sound of the German schi, sche, the English she, shay, and thus answer to the written forms ši, še of the Standard-alphabet. Etymology, nevertheless, requires for Σ and Σ the written form si and se, leaving she and shay, and sometimes also tse, to the pronunciation.

- z, soft s impure, being heard, in the dialect of Yédo, as a combination of n and z or also of d and z. 一 サー, ジ, ズ, セー, ゾ = za, zi, zu, ze, zo (nza, nzi, nzu, nze, nzo or dza, dzi, dzu, dze, dzo), consequently アラズ occurs as aránzű or arádzű.
- š, Dutch sj, German sch, English sh, French ch. As pronounced at Yédo this consonant is distinguished as a palatal variety of š which, as such, ought to be represented by š of the Standard-alphabet.

The combination of this sound with a, u, o, so $\check{s}a, \check{s}u, \check{s}o,$ is expressed by $\check{\xi}, \check{\xi}, \check{\xi}$ (siya, siyu, siyo), which, is pronounced by some Japanese of $Y\acute{e}do$, as $\check{s}iya$, $\check{s}iyu$, $\check{s}iyo$, with a scarcely audible y, whereas from the mouths of some others, a sound is heard which inclines rather to $\check{s}a, \check{s}u, \check{s}o.$ Since the first pronunciation lets the etymological value of these combinations appear, we think to give the preference to the written forms $\check{s}iya, \check{s}iyu, \check{s}iyo,$ leaving it to the reader to pronounce them $\check{s}a, \check{s}u, \check{s}o$ or sya, syu, syo.

- ž. The Dutch zj, French j, English s in measure, the softer pronunciation of \tilde{s} . $\tilde{z}', \tilde{z}', \tilde{z}', \tilde{z}', \tilde{z}u$, žo. For the sake of etymology, we write $z\tilde{i}ya$, $z\tilde{i}yu$, $z\tilde{i}yo$.
- t. \mathcal{B} , \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{P} , \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} = ta, tsi, tsu, te, to. Properly, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{P} , ti and tu are etymological; but these combinations of sound are, at once, foreign to the Japanese organs of speech and are, whenever they have to be adopted from another language, expressed by $\bar{\mathcal{F}}$ $t\check{e}i$ and $\dot{\mathcal{F}}$ $t\check{o}u$. \mathcal{F} (tsi), commonly pronounced $t\check{s}i$ as in the English cheer.
- d. ダ、ギ、ツ、デ、ド、da, dzi, dzu, de, do, according to the dialect of Yédo nda, ndzi, ndzu, nde, ndo. The Coreans express the impure Japanese d by 耳 (nt.)
- tš. The Dutch tsj, English ch in chair. \mathcal{Z} , \mathcal{Z} , \mathcal{Z} , etymologically tsiya, tsiyu, tsiyo, according to the $Y\acute{e}do$ pronunciation tsya, tsyu, tsyo, the y being scarcely audible. Some are heard to pronounce it tša, tšu, tšo.
- dž. The Dutch dzj, English g in George, j in judge. \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{L} , \mathcal{L} , etymologically dziya, dziyu, dziyo, according to the $Y\ell do$ pronunciation dzya, dzyu, dzyo, in the mouths of some also dza, dzu, dzo.
- n. ナ, 二, ヌ, 子, ノ, na, ni, nu, ne, no.

 \searrow , n, final letter, serves as well for the dental, as the nasal final sound, which approaches the French faint n at the end of a syllable and is expressed by ng ($\dot{\mathbf{n}}$ of the Standard-alphabet).

Formerly, instead of the final letter \mathcal{S} , the Kána-sign \mathcal{L} , mu was used, and pronounced as a mute m. In Japanese words \mathcal{S} , stands for the faint nasal final sound \hat{n} , in Chinese words, on the contrary, for the clear dental final sound n as in our »man, dan."

In composition, the final sound n has a euphonic imfluence on the consonants following it and changes k, s, t and f into the impure sounds g, z, d, b, which are pronounced more or less like ng, nz, nd, nb. The combined sound nb, in pronunciation, changes to mb; Tanba ($\mathcal{A} \supset \mathcal{N}$) is pronounced Tamba; Nanbok ($\mathcal{A} \supset \mathcal{N}$), Nambok; Kenbok ($\mathcal{A} \supset \mathcal{N}$), Kembok.

For the sake of unity in spelling, although in the dialect of $Y \neq do$ it is pronounced as the French faint n, we retain for the final sound \mathcal{L} , the written form n, since long current, and continue to write Nippon, leaving it to the reader to pronounce it Nippong.

f(h), v.)), と, フ, へ, ホ, fa, fa, fu, fe, fo or ha, hi, fu (not hu), he, ho. Originally the aspirated labial sound f, which has been retained in some dialects, in others, on the contrary, superseded by the soft h; a phenomenon which occurs in the Spanish also, in which the f of the Old-Spanish language has, in later times, passed into the soft aspirated or scarcely audible h.

In the dialect of the old imperial city of Miyako, and its dependent provinces, the f is retained, and so far as we know, in Sanuki and Sendai, where commonly $f\acute{a}na$, $f\check{i}t\acute{o}$, $f\check{u}r\acute{u}$, $f\acute{e}ri$, $fok\acute{a}$, are heard. In the dialect of $Y\acute{e}do$, on the contrary, the f has been quite driven out and there, $h\acute{a}na$, $h\check{u}t\acute{o}$, $f\check{u}r\acute{u}$ (fu remains fu), $h\acute{e}ri$, $h\check{o}k\acute{a}$ are said.

This distinction of the two sounds, according to fixed dialects, rests on communications made to us orally by Japanese.

That, in the language of Miyako, where Japanese is spoken the purest, as also in the dialect of Sanuki, the f occurs to the exclusion of h, I have been assured by a native of Yédo who has passed some years in Sanuki, while another native of Yédo and another native of Yédo has mentioned to me the province of Sendai

¹⁾ OHO-GAVA KITAROO, mechanician, resident in the Netherlands since 1863.

²⁾ ENOMOTO KAMADZIROO, an officer in the Japanese Navy, also resident in the Netherlands since 1863.

and the North-eastern part of Japan as districts, in which the f, to the exclusion of h, is commonly in use.

In the middle, or at the end of a word, the f or h in the pronunciation, passes over to v or a pure labial (not labio-dental) w, and even in writing $\mathcal{P}(wa)$ supersedes) (va): \mathcal{H}) \mathcal{H} , \mathcal{H}) are heard kava, kiva, kiva, kiva, kiwa, ki

On the contrary the syllables $\[\] \]$, vi, $\[\] \]$, vu, $\[\] \]$, ve, $\[\] \]$, vo, whenever a vowel precedes reject the aspirate, and $\[\] \]$ is pronounced as ai, $\[\] \]$ as au (au), $\[\] \] \]$ as ae, $\[\] \]$ is pronounced as ai, $\[\] \]$ as iu, $\[\] \]$ as

The aspirated labial $\c L$, fi, in $\c L$ $\c L$, fito, man, sounds like a fit or fivi whistled with the mouth, and is easy to be pronounced. In the $Yédo\ hi$, on the contrary, the h often occurs as a palatal aspirate, which, whenever it is pressed through the closed teeth, forms a sound quite strange to European ears, which it is not possible to express with our letters. What former travellers, GOLOWNIN, MEYLAN and others have said about this sound $\c L$ is now confirmed by our observation; and we have only to add that in the mouths of some from Yédo the word $\c L$ $\c L$

Since for the syllables) \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\), \(\) two forms of writing have now come into existence, in proportion as one or the other pronunciation is followed, one with f, the other with h, the question becomes important, which of the two forms of spelling deserves the preference. If Japanese is to be written according to the accent of $Y \stackrel{\cdot}{e} do$, then, naturally, the h must be adopted, just as, to let the dialect of Zeeland enjoy its rights, Olland and oofd must be written for Holland and hoofd, or, not to do injustice to the Berlin dialect, Jabe, Jott and jut must be written for Gabe, Gott and gut. If, however the pronunciation most generally in vogue, with the exception

^{1) &}quot;No European," says GOLOWNIN, "will succeed in pronouncing the Japanese word for "fire," — it is y, fi. — I have practised at it two years, but in vain. As the Japanese pronounced it, it seemed to be fi, hi, psi, fsi, being pronounced through the teeth; however we might wring and twist our tongues into every bend, the Japanese still stuck to their: "not right."" — Begebenheiten des Capitains von der Russisch-Kaiserlichen Marine GOLOWNIN, in der Gefangenschaft bei den Japanern in den Jahren 1811, 1812 und 1813. Aus dem Russischen übersetzt von Dr. c. J. SCHULTZ. 1818. Vol. II, p. 30.

of $Y \in do$, that of Miyako be preferred, then must the h be put aside and f adopted. We do the last, and that for the following reasons:

- 1. The Japanese philologers themselves have, at all times, characterized the consonant of their series of sounds)), と,フ,へ, ホ as labial, and made it equivalent to the labials of the Sanscrit.

- 4. From the beginning Europeans, who had intercourse with the Japanese, generally wrote f and not h; thus the Portuguese missionaries, and their contemporary, fr. caron (1639); also more lately, e. kaempfer (1691), p. thunberg (1775), j. titsingh 1) (1780), and others. All wrote Farima, Fanna, Firando, Fori. In this century the h first appeared, because then Europeans came more frequently in contact with interpreters and natives of Yédo. If now we adopt the h, then will all connection with what was formerly done for the knowledge of the language, history and geography of Japan be broken off, a door opened for endless confusion, and for thousands of Japanese words we shall have a double spelling.
- b, impure, from the sound arisen from the blending of n with v, which the Coreans, whenever they write Japanese words in their character, express by $mp(\Pi | 1) \gamma^n, \, \gamma^n, \, \gamma^n, \, \gamma^n, \, \gamma^n, \, ba, \, bi, \, bu, \, be, \, bo.$
- p.) \, ', ', ', ', ', pa, pi, pu, pe, po.
- y. The Dutch j; English y in yard; French y. \forall , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , y_a , y_u , y_e , y_o . The pronunciation of \sharp is not fixed, and fluctuates between wi, yi, ii, and i.
- r. Soft guttural r, just as the English r in part, art, r of the Standard-

¹⁾ In TITSINGH'S Bijzonderheden whenever an h occurs in Japanese words, it has been placed there, from a mistake of either the writer, or compositor.

alphabet. \ni , \ni , \triangleright , \triangleright , \triangleright , \triangleright , \triangleright , \vdash , ra, ri, ru, re, ro. The Japanese r, comes from the root of the tongue, which is kept almost motionless. Our trilling dental r cannot be uttered by a thorough-bred Japanese of Yedo.

This is also the case with our l; this sound too is quite for eight to the Japanese mouth l). Instead of adopting a proper letter for the l, the Japanese, whenever they have had to reduce words of European languages to Japanese writing, have made the foreign l equivalent to the r, and have used their r for both sounds; a mistake, by which they subjected themselves to a perpetual mutation of the letters r and l when writing a foreign language, and induced our philologers to suppose that the Japanese r was an intermediate sound between l and r which, as it now appears, is not the case.

In combinations of sounds such as $\mathcal{V} \supset ren$, $\mathcal{V} \supset riu$, with the utmost attention, it remains doubtful, whether the r or the d is meant. This is to be remarked especially in words adopted from the Chinese, and which in that language begin with l, which becomes r in Japanese, such as den for ren (Chinese lien), dyu for ryu (Chinese ling, dragon), dyoo-ri-nin and doo-sok for ryoo-ri-nin and roo-sok (Chinese liao-li-nin, cook, liau tiu, wax-candle).

It is worthy of remark, that with the Chinese just the opposite takes place, that they can pronounce the l easily, but the r not at all.

w. The German pure labial w. ア, ウ, ヲ, wa, wu, wo.

9. DOUBLING OF CONSONANTS BY ASSIMILATION.

If the letter \mathcal{Y} $ts\check{u}$, which is mostly pronounced as the ts mute, occurs in a compound word before a k, s, t or p, then it passes over to the latter sound and is lately expressed by \mathcal{Y} .

¹⁾ This has become quite evident to me, from the instruction in the Dutch language which several Japanese have received under my superintendence. After having first pronounced the l as the guttural r, they cequired long practice before being able to utter a sound, that in any degree resembled l.

Spalding also, has observed that thorough-bred Japanese of Yédo, with whom he met, could not possibly pronounce his name. "They cannot say L," he adds, "they call it R. The word glove, which they rall grove, is too much for them." — J. w. spalding, The Japanese expedition. Redfield, 1855. p. 233.

```
一、 笛力, itsǔ-ka
                 written, is pronounced ikká (one).
一千 斤 +, itsŭ-kin
                                     ikkín (one pound).
ープ 見 が, itsŭ-ken » » ikkén (a glance).
ープ 関 プ, itsŭ-kókŭ » » ikkók (a whole empire).
北*, 京*, Fótsŭ-kin » »
                                      Fokkin (Peking).
一寸切井, itsŭ-sai »
                                      issái (all).
一ヶ所シ, itsŭ-sĭyo »
一ヶ寸ス, itsŭ-sun »
                                      isšo (one and the same place).
                                      issun (the tenth of a foot).
合,戰<sup>セ</sup>、katsŭ-sen »
                                      kassen (battle, fight).
一、錢<sup>v</sup>, itsŭ-sen » »
issen (one cent).
                                    Nippon (Japan).
日 = 本*, Nitsŭ-pon
```

The 1) ri also before t is sometimes subject to assimilation; of γ 1) β arita, the pronunciation becomes atta, for which $\gamma \not \supset \beta$ is written.

Upon this principle the double consonants in words from foreign languages also are expressed in Japanese writing; in this case some place the \mathcal{Y} of the diameter a little to the right and write \mathcal{Y} for dutch *ridder" and * for *schip."

10. ON ACCENT AND RHYTHM.

In Japanese distinction is made between accented and unaccented syllables.

To the unaccented belong chiefly those ending in i or u, in which these sounds are scarcely heard at all, and that especially at the end of the words. Thus, e. g.,

シダ, sita (beneath) sounds as sta,

シメ, sime (let) sounds as smé,

≥ +, siki (like) sounds as ski,

マシ、マス、マシタ、masi、masu、masita sounds as masi、mas、masta、

39, tatsu (dragon) sounds as tâts,

3 Δ, yomu (to read) sounds as yóm,

tw, naru (to be) sounds as nár,

プクリ, tsukuri (to make) sounds as tskûri, etc.

The *i* has, moreover, the peculiarity, that as a final letter it is whispered. As in Japanese the *i* and *u* mute have not ceased to be real elements of the words, and to be necessary to the distinguishing of them, they ought to be expressed in all philological writings. Even if $\geq f$ (mitsi, way) and $\geq \mathcal{P}$ (mitsu, three) sound as mits, in our writing we must, because the Japanese do so in theirs, distinguish both words and write mitsi and mitsu, or characterize the weak vowels, as weak and mute by writing mitsi and mitsu. — The form of writing adopted by some, mitsi and mitsu, answers that purpose also.

The accented vowel is pronounced either long or short-close. Thus is, e. g. the a long in $\forall \mathcal{I}$, mâtsŭ (pinetree), short-close $\#\mathcal{I}$, sáke (strong drink).

The consonant, following a short-close vowel is often doubled in pronunciation, though not in writing. Thus, e. g. ?? +, fána (flower) sounds as fánna; ? +, ása (the morning) as ássa; + sáke (strong drink) as sákke.

Since, with regard to the correct indication of the quantity of the syllables, the Japanese graphic system is defective, it behoves us to keep it in view the more carefully, because the accentuation, provided it be based on the pronunciation of Japanese, is an indispensible help in the acquiring of a correct pronunciation.

Hitherto the only European, who has paid attention to the accent of Japanese words, and expressed it after a fixed principle, was E. KAEMPFER. From his manner of writing it might be gathered, that \mathscr{AP} , dragon, and \mathscr{AP} , pine-tree, are pronounced as $t\hat{a}ts$ ands $m\hat{a}ts$, thus with an a long, \mathscr{AP} , \mathscr{EP} and \mathscr{AP} as $y\hat{a}mma$, $min\hat{a}to$ and $tatsb\hat{a}nna$. Later travellers, who have visited Japan and written books about it, have been either unable or unwilling to follow his example, and thereby have left their readers in uncertainty with regard to the rhythm of Japanese. Only recently, since the arrival of natives of Japan in Europe, have our linguists had the opportunity to hear Japanese spoken by Japanese, and so to become acquainted with the rhythm peculiar to that language. Availing ourselves of this opportunity, we have already been able to publish the reading of a Japanese text¹) supplied with a continuous accentuation. See Addenda II p. 350.

If we cast a hasty glance over what has previously been said, with regard to the Japanese phonetic system, the writing, the pronunciation, it will appear most clearly, that the Japanese phonetic system is very defective. It does not satisfy the requirement of being able, with it, to write the Japanese language itself, as it is spoken, let alone the possibility of its being applied to foreign languages. The Japanese, with all their attempts to write Dutch, French or English, after their *Kana*-system, have been able to effect nothing else, than—caricatures of those languages.

From their defective syllabic-writing are the Japanese behind not only the Western nations, but other Asiatic peoples also, and even the Coreans, their neighbours who rejoice in the possession of an original, and simple character-writing, not borrowed from the Chinese. With regard to the writing of foreign languages, the Chinese alone are worse off.

The intricate, often equivocal writing with which Japanese is written, occasions more difficulty for those, who have not grown up with it, than the study of the language itself, witness the Japanese running-hand, whose turn comes next.

¹⁾ The Grand Study (Ta Hio or Daigaku). Part. I, The Chinese text with an interlineary Japanese version. Part. II, Reading of the Japanese text in Roman character, by J. HOFFMANN. Leiden, 1864.

11. THE JAPANESE RUNNING-HAND FIRA-GANA.

a. The Irová in Fira-gána.

The *Irová* in *Fira-gána*-writing, as it is learned in schools and, in connection with Chinese running-hand, is generally in use, consists of the following signs, which are derived by abbreviation from the Chinese characters placed next them.

b. Synopsis of the Fira-gána-characters most in use.

Were the Fira-gána-writing confined to the 47 or 48 signs cited, it would not, with a slight exercise in writing with the pencil, be more difficult to learn, than the Káta-kána. But the desire for fariety, change and ornament, has rendered this writing so abundantly rich, that to make learning to read Fira-gána texts possible, a synopsis of these signs has become an absolute necessity.

With the synopsis, we give at once the Chinese character to which each sign owes its origin.

SYNOPSIS OF THE JAPANESE FIRA-GANA.

A. r安ああるおお 阿ほほら KA.カ加 か か か ヴ 可 う う う ろ ろ り

I. 1以以以いいいい KI. #幾をきき

ひ. ッチ う

KU.ッ外名ムくら 具をそそを

E. z惠 及ゑゑ 衛 跕 KE.対けけけ 化化乃八八八八 希る答言答答 遺をを発

0. *於於打損劣物

KO. 3已 とこ 了 了 了 了 了 古 志 岩 志 志 志

左をさささ

TA. タ太 プレナス と 」 多多 堂をををを包

SI. 》志 之 さりしし TSI. +知方名らちちちち 地产比

SU. 2寸すす 須ほど 頂以川 春を芝 TSU.»洲M M M 門門ワつ [T. ン·] 徒汽汽 津冰水

きき 勢努劣劣

SE. t世ゼゼをを TE. ラ天てててる了了るる 亭富富

楚找

80. y曾曾ろろそ TO. r止 そとととと 登安をラウ

NA. +奈ななななななない。 FA. n波はははははは 南をかるふふち 5 那那我我们们

NI. =仁171173 13 丹西西马 耳牛子的多了了

NU. x奴的为为为 FU. 7不多分子子 わ ...n L L

NE. *称ねねねねねね FE. ~反(て)へ~~ 爾於統務 [本] 子るる 年度连连

NO. 1373300 野班册税 農君君君生艺艺 能涉及好什么什 八八から 者をうらりとな それななす 盤沒好是是名 多杂文

FI. 上飛 記 を記 此切のひ

婦級協協的

遍函面沿沿

FO.*保证活场图 本本幸奉不

MA、マ末まままま 万万多多 滿域は海海岛 知为

YA.ヤ也ややア 屋盆总

MI. ≥ = } } 美英みみみみよ 見ススス

> YU.z由ゆゆゆゆゆ カヤヤ 遊路

MU. A武 む む む 舞發森

ME.x女めめらめめめめ YE.z江にいい 为 免经验处

衣分

MO. *毛もももをも YO. *與与よよよ 9 9 9 9 8 8 母舟あ

をとよら

RA. ラ良らアケドラり|WA.ラ和わわわわわ 羅孫孫 樂乐乐车

みおわりり FIFFE

RI. 『利例りりりり WI. #為 あめなるるろ りりりりろり 井野井 梨柔 里でてて

RU. r留 るろろろ 累子子ふ 流はならいる 類於软乳

RE. レ連を見をきせせ 禮於稅稅稅 礼机船机机

RO. n 呂 ろ ろ 路场外

WO.ヲ遠 表ををを 越级拨版 平安全女

The synopsis of Japanese running-hand characters, given on the preceding pages, collected by ourselves in reading Japanese books and manuscripts, is deserving of remark on account of its correctness. As we appreciated its being submitted to the criticism of a clever Japanese, we, some years ago, sent a few proof impressions, to a respected friend in Japan 1), on whose invitation Mr. MATS MOTO was so kind as to undertake the revision and correction of one of them. This impression being returned to us, we were enabled to submit our synopsis to a strict revision, and if we have given it a place here, it is with the conviction that it will be a faithful guide in the deciphering of Firagána texts.

To become familiar with this writing, the Chinese character should be taken for basis, and attempts made at learning to write with a pencil the more and more sketchy *Fira-gána* forms derived from it. By following this practical way, the student will most quickly become so conversant with this writing, as to be able to read without hesitation a text written in it, provided the printing of it be not too bad.

In the Fira-gána writing the letters are more or less obviously attached to one another. The way in which this is done will be best learned by copying some Japanese texts 2), in which it will at once be discovered, that some peculiarities in the manner of attaching them are only the natural results of a quick handling of the pencil.

The point, which in the Káta-kána, placed under a letter shows that it is repeated, in the Fira-gána runs together with the letter into one stroke. Opposed to † kiki and ½ tada, are the Fira-gána forms } and .

The repetition of two or three syllables is shown by .

¹⁾ w. J. C. HUYSSEN VAN KATTENDYKE, Knight, Commander of the Naval-detachment in Japan in 1857, 1858 und 1859.

²⁾ The Japanese Treaties, concluded at Yedo in 1855 with the Netherlands, Russia, Great-Britain, the United States and France. Fac-simile of the Japanese text. The Hague, MARTINUS NIJHOFF. 1862.

As stenographic abbreviations come under notice

12. WRITTEN OR BOOK LANGUAGE.

Books among the Japanese are written either in the Chinese, or in the Japanese language.

A. Exclusively Chinese are scientific works, intended for literate persons, who make use of the Chinese written language, just as formerly our learned men did of Latin. To this class of books belong, among others, the oldest Chronicle of Japan (Yamáto-bumi or Nippon-ki), in which the pure Japanese words, such as the names of persons and places, are expressed phonetically with Chinese characters, the Japanese Encyclopedia Wa-Kan san-sai dzu-e, the Chronicle Wa-Kan nen-kei, the Japanese Government-Almanac, etc., while furnishing the books, which are written for the general public and in Japanese, with at least a Preface in Chinese, is still considered to be in good taste.

Among the pure Chinese texts must also be reckoned the Chinese translations of Buddhist works, originally written in Sanscrit, which translations, chiefly imported from China, are hummed by Japanese Bonzes in a peculiar Chinese dialect.

That a Chinese text can be read aloud with a Chinese pronunciation (koyé) by literate Japanese is a matter of course, for, with the Chinese character, they become acquainted with its pronunciation also, and this according to certain dialects; but that whole sentences, when read aloud, according to the pronunciation of the characters, are intelligible to listeners, we have constantly doubted and now, upon the authority of a learned Japanese 1, dare deny. The Chinese text with its ideographic signs is there, to be apprehended according to its contents and, for the Japanese, the translation into his mother tongue is included in this apprehension. The apprehension and translation of a Chinese

¹⁾ Mr. TSUDA SIN-ITSI-ROO.

text is therefore very justly called its reading (Yomi) or Wa-kun (和訓), the reading in Japanese.

Respecting the Chinese dialects, which have been here mentioned, the following ought to be added.

In Japan the pronunciation of three dialects of the Chinese written language have been adopted, which are called after the Chinese dynasties $\begin{tabular}{c}$ Hán, $\begin{tabular}{c}$ U and $\begin{tabular}{c}$ $\begin{tabular}{c}$ Tâng (in the Japanese pronunciation Kan, Go and Too), Kanwon ($\begin{tabular}{c}$ $\begin{tabuar}{c}$ $\begin{tabular}{c}$ $\begin{tabular}{c}$ $\begin{tabular$

The dynasty of $H\acute{a}n$, which had its seat in the country of Ho-nan-fu, thus on the borders of the Hoang-ho, flourished from 202 B. C. till 220 A. C. The dynasty of U, settled on the Yang-tse-kiang, where at present Nan-king is situated, existed from 222 till 280 A. C. The dominion of the dynasty of $T^*\acute{a}ng$ embraced the period between 618 and 906.

If with the Japanese it be accepted, that the said dialects were not local dialects existing next one another, but changes which the Chinese language has undergone in the lapse of ages, then the introduction and continued existence of those dialects in Japan would not be without importance in the knowledge of the old Chinese language. But since, with the defective Japanese Kánawriting, it is impossible to represent any Chinese dialect faithfully, those dialects too, that have wandered to Japan lose all historical value, and we therefore confine ourselves to the question of their introduction into Japan, and the use to which they have been applied.

On the first point the Japanese works at our command do not shed sufficient light. As the first teacher of the Kan-won, 表信公 Piao Sin-kung, a scholar from the country of Hán is mentioned, with the addition, that he came to Fakáta in the country of Tsikuzen; but the time at which this happened we do not find recorded. Such also is the case with the introduction of the Go-won, which is attributed to 禮信, Kin Lì-sin and another Bonze from the country of U. As both had settled on the island of Tsusima, the Go-won was at first also called Tsusima-won (對學馬子) or the Tsusimanian pronunciation 1).

With regard to the second point, it may be assumed as certain, that the

¹⁾ The Japanese Encyclopedia XV, 33 verso. - Fak-buts-zen under Kan-won and Go-won.

Go-won was the dialect, in which the Bonzes read the Buddhist writings, imported from China, and that it still, with a few exceptions, is in vogue among them, whereas the Kan-won, the use of which was, in virtue of an edict published by the Mikado as early as 792, made obligatory in the study of the Chinese language 1), prevailed in the domain of science, and penetrated into the whole profane literature. See Addenda III.

In the Chinese-Japanese dictionaries the pronunciation of each word is found, given in both dialects and that, first in Kan-won, and then in Go-won. In the instances $\underbrace{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathbf{y}}^{\mathbf{y}}$ or $\underbrace{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathbf{y}}^{\mathbf{y}}$ and $\underbrace{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathbf{y}}^{\mathbf{y}}$, $\underbrace{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathbf{y}}^{\mathbf{y}}$ and $\underbrace{\mathbf{y}}_{\mathbf{y}}^{\mathbf{y}}$ are placed as Kan-

won, Z and Z as Go-won.

The dialect of T'âng (Too-in), as it has been fixed by means of the Kana-writing approaches more nearly the ordinary Chinese official language (Kwan-hoa), than the two other dialects, but is just as unintelligible as they, to a Chinese. This dialect is found mostly in works about China, used in the description of the names of places, and it is also said to be used by the monastic order of the »Five hills or convents" (无人口 Go-san) at Miyako.

We close this digression on the three dialects with a quotation of the specimen by which the difference is shown in te Japanese Encyclopedia.

Wa-kun.	Too-in.		Kan-won & Go-won.	Wa-kun.	Too-in.	0	Kan-won.	Go-won.
マタ	ユ。ウ	又	ユ	タト	+	假	ħ	5
イハク	ノイユン	云	ウン	2	ار پ	令	V	リャウ
ヒッチ	ハアウ	拗	ョゥ	フタツノ	ルウ	=	33	=
ジハ	ツウ	字	ÿ	コスハ	1	音	1 2	ラ ン
ガナッシ	ユゥ	_猶	イウ	ゴトク	ジュイ	_如	ジ ∃	3
3	ッサ	子	2	7 =	ヒョン・	兄	ケイ	キャッ
マゴノ	ろう シ	_孫	ツ ン	ラト	ティ	_弟	ティ	タイ

Japanese translation: Tatove va Ftáts no koëva ani otóto no gotóku, mata iváku, fibiki no ziva ko mago no gotosi, i. e. The two dialects, to use an example, are like brothers. It is also said: The assonances or finals are like sons and grandsons.

¹⁾ Wa-nen kei oder Geschichtstabellen von Japan, aus dem Originale übersetzt von J. HOFFMANN.

Chinese text with Japanese translation.

In Chinese there are books written, which contain a complete Japanese translation at the side of the text.

There are also some, in which the Japanese translation is incomplete, and only here and there words or fragments of words are explained. In this case are found either only the principal ideas translated, or merely the terminational inflections given. It is supposed here, that the Japanese reader knows the signification of the Chinese character and the word corresponding to it in his mother tongue, or not being acquainted with it, he resorts to a Chinese-Japanese dictionary, to supply all that, in which the translation is deficient.

Were the construction of the two languages alike, it would suffice simply to represent the signification of each Chinese character by a Japanese word placed at the side of it, and to read Japanese in the same order as Chinese. But there is one point, from which the two languages diverge; to wit, the Chinese verb has its objective (complément, régime), whether a simple noun or a substantive phrase objective, after it, the Japanese has it before. To give an instance, the Chinese construction requires one to say: "He reads a book: he desires to go home;" on the contrary, the Japanese: "He a book reads; he homewards to go desires."

Thus in the reading aloud of the Japanese translation of a Chinese sentence a transposition, a skipping over of the Japanese words is necessary, as often as the case in question occurs. This transposition is shown on the left-hand-side of the Chinese text — the right-hand one being occupied by the Japanese translation — by numbers or equivalent signs. This transposition of the words is called 逆 ; ラスル Geki-tókŭ-suru, i. e. against (the order) in reading, or also Kayéri, turning back, and the transposition-signs Kayéri-ten or marks of going backwards.

These marks are

- 1) the hook, ν , which indicates the transposition of two words following each other, as $\nu = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{motte}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sum_{motte}^{2} korewo = korewo motte \text{ (thereby)};$
- 2) the Chinese ciphers -, =, = (1, 2, 3) when the translation of a character skips over two or more characters;
- 3) the signs £, Φ, π (above, in the middle, beneath), whenever the parts of a sentence, that have been already marked, must be again skipped over;

4) the cyclical signs \$\Pi\$, \$\Z\$, \$\overline{\Pi}\$ for a further skipping over.

The ciphers and signs cited may occur in connection with the simple transposition-sign, thus: 点 点 点 点 点 点 点 点.

A practical indication of the use of these signs will be found in our edition of the *Grand Study* (*Ta-hiŏ*), a few lines of which are subjoined as a specimen of Chinese text with a complete as well as a fragmentary translations in Japanese.

CHINESE TEXT.

1, with a	complete t	ranslation in	Japanese.	2, with a fragmentary translation in Japanese.					
安文	定数	在了	0 .	安了	定,	在	0		
而多	而	正意	大一學	而	而	此堂	大學		
后子	后至	於	之,	后	后	_於	Z		
能多	能多	至シ	道景	能	能,	至	道		
慮主		_善き	在了	慮ル	#20	_善。	在		
慮。なモンバタル	静。	知草	明	•	明。为	和声	-明 =		
唐がなった	静シカラメ	上京	ルー メイ	慮っ	静ラジ	IF ∄	明		
而	而参	而多为	-徳クラ	而	丽	丽	-德。ヲ		
后年	后年	后子	在了	后	后	后	在親系		
能多	能力	九有了	ミスル	能	能	有	ルニ		
得。	安美	定数	親のスプラスショスショスショスショスショスショスショスショスショスショスショスショスショス	得。	安。シ	定ル	民,		

Reading of the translation in Japanese:

Dai-Gakŭ no mitsi vá méĭ tókŭ wo akiráká ni súrŭ ni árǐ; tami wo arátă ni súrŭ ni árǐ; si-sen ni todomárŭ ni árĭ.

Todomárůkoto wo sítte, sikáusité notsi sadamárůkoto ári. Sadamátte, sikáusité notsi yóků sidzůká nári. Sidzůká ni sité, sikáusité notsi yóků yásůsi. Yásůu-

sīté, sīkausīté notsi yóku ómönbākaru. Omönbākatte, sīkausīté notsi yóku u ¹). If, as here, the Chinese text is in the standard form written in full, then the Kata-kana is used for the interlinear translation in Japanese, whereas the Fira-gana accompanies the Chinese running-hand.

B. Books written in the Japanese language.

In these, the national writing, whether Fira-gána or Káta-kána, forms the chain, in which a larger or smaller number of Chinese characters are inserted. In this style, the Chinese characters represent ideas, for which the reader, in case the meaning of the Chinese character has not been already expressed at the side of it in Japanese writing, must substitute Japanese words and connect them with the inflectional forms, which the writer has placed after the Chinese character. Here also the Káta-kána accompanies the Chinese standard-writing, and the Fira-gána the Chinese running hand. In this style the whole Japanese literature proper is written. A Japanese text without an admixture of Chinese ideographic signs, women's letters excepted, has never yet come under our notice.

To exemplify what has been said, we subjoin a few lines written in this style. In the one specimen the translation in Japanese will be found written next to each Chinese character, in the other it is left out; the latter happens chiefly in official documents.

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¹⁾ Translation. The way of the Grand Study consists in illustrating illustrious virtue, it consists in renovating the people, it consists in resting in the highest excellence.

The point where to rest being known, the object of pursuit is then determined: that being determined, a calm unperturbedness may be attained. To that there will succeed a tranquil repose. That being attained, there may be careful deliberation, and that deliberation will be followed by the attainment (of the desired end. — J. LEGGE, Chinese classics. Vol. I. 220.

Reading of the Japanese text.

Nagasáki oyóbi Hakodate no mináto no foká, tsugini nósuru ba-sĭyo wo sa no ki-gen yori ákŭbesi ¹).

The frequent use made of Chinese ideographic signs in this style of writing has for consequence, that even people of the lower order are more or less acquainted with it and, appreciating a sort of knowledge, which pleads for a good education, make ample use of it. We possess written communications from Japanese work-people which, written in the prevalent epistolary stile, contain more Chinese characters than Japanese letters.

It stands to reason that, to understand texts written in this style, in the first place, an acquaintance with the Japanese language is necessary, since the logical connection between the parts of the proposition and the ideas indicated by the Chinese characters is expressed in Japanese letters, thus in Japanese.

C. Style.

Just as every living language the Japanese too has, during the lapse of centuries, undergone change and had a gradual development, which is reflected in a litterature of more than a thousand years. This is not the place to investigate those changes or to indicate specimens of different periods. We desire merely to direct attention to the difference which exists between the old and new Japanese language, written as well as printed.

a. Old Japanese.

The old language, Fürú-koto, is an idiom free from foreign ingredients, that has been developed freely and independently in the isolated Nippon. Originally the language of the ancient Mikado-dynasty, that was settled in Yamáto 660 years B. C., and therefore also called Yamáto-kotobá or the language of Yamáto, this idiom had, with the political, intellectual and spiritual power of that dynasty obtained supremacy over the other dialects of the empire and was, for ages long, the general written language, expressed at one time in Chinese, and then again in Japanese writing; but when at last the power of this dynasty declined, and lost its direct influence in the government of the empire, this old language shared its fate: it was superseded by a new idiom, and supplanted in

¹⁾ That is: Besides the Ports of Nagasaki and Hakodate, the places mentioned beneath shall be opened at the following periods. — Art. 2 of the Netherlands-Japanese Treaty of the 18th August, 1858.

the political life, but by no means driven from the mouths of the people, or forgotten. As the vehicle of an extensive literature, and chiefly by the power of its poetry and of the old religion, this language has kept its stand, and is still held in respect, since the literature founded on it, as the expression of an ancient civilization, and as the witness of a past, glorious in the eyes of the nation, still finds its admirers; and the old service of *Kamis*, which still lives on among the people, is rooted in this language.

Considered from a philological point of view, the Yamáto-kotoba is the mirror which reflects most faithfully the being of the Japanese language, the most exposes its organic structure, and sheds a clear light on the grammatical forms also of the new idiom, now become prevalent.

The student of the Japanese language, who is not satisfied with the mechanical learning of grammatical forms, but wishes to penetrate into the knowledge of their origin and being, must, in the etymological and grammatical treatment of that language, take the *Yamáto-kotoba* for basis, following, in this respect, the example of the Japanese themselves who, to be able to lay any claim to literary proficiency, apply themselves to the study of their old language and read the old authors and poets, and sometimes even imitate their versification.

The Japanese literature is rich in works in the Furú-koto, but not less rich in philological resources, chiefly in dictionaries, in which the old or pure Japanese language is illustrated by citations of the sources. The principal sources are the works on mythology and history, the oldest of which are those which have been designated with the name of *the three records" (\equiv^* \Rightarrow^* \Rightarrow

- 1. »Original account of the old events of former times, 先さ代音 書っ本* 紀* Sen-dai ku-zi fon-ki," executed by sykau-tok dai-si and Sogano Mumakono sukune, by order of Mikado sui-ko, in 10 volumes, beginning with the god-dynasties, and extending to 620 (the 20th year of the said Mikado).
- 2. The »Book of antiquity, Fürú-koto-bumi or 古 事 記 * Ko-zi-ki," written by Oho-ason vasu-maro and presented to the Mikado gen-mei in 711 or 712, 3 volumes. It begins with the mythological times and reaches to 597 (the 5th year of the Mikado sui-ko).
- 3. The »Japanese book, Yamáto-bumi or 日 = 本常書之紀 * Nippon sĭyo-ki," completed by Toneri no sin-woo and Oho-ason Yasu-Maro, in 720, in

20 volumes, beginning with the creation and ending with the year 697 1). These works, executed before the introduction of the Japanese $K\dot{a}ta-k\dot{a}na$ -writing, are, as appears from the copies, that we have of them, generally written with Chinese writing, partly ideographic, partly phonetic; at the side of which is found the reading in Japanese expressed with $K\dot{a}ta-k\dot{a}na$, but this is an addition of later time. As a specimen we here subjoin the first lines of the Ko-zi-ki (\pm^{2}

Reading: Ame tsutsi no fazimé no toki taka-ma no fara ni nárimáseru kami no mi-na vá Ame no mi-nakanusi no kami, tsugi ni Taka-mi-musúbi no kami, tsugi ni Kami-musúbi no kami, — Kono mi fásira no kami vá mina fitóri gami nárimásité, mi-mi voo kákusi-tamáviki.

Translation: The three gods: Ame no mi-naka-nusi no kami, Taka-mi-musúbi no kami, and Kami-musúbi no kami, at the time of the creation of Heaven and Earth existed in the high expanse of heaven, were solitary gods and hid themselves.

¹⁾ Of this work I have made ample use in the elaboration of an historical treatise, which appeared in 1839 in von siebold's "Nippon-Archiv" under the title of Japan's Bezüge mit der Koreïschen Halbinsel und mit China. Nach Japanischen Quellen bearbeitet.

It might be expected, that the style, in which these annals are written, would be characterized by unadorned simplicity; but the opposite is the case. The oldest Japanese prose is completely subservient to courtly manners; it is verbose and diffuse, and any one, unless he is penetrated, like the authors themselves, with the divine worship, which they display towards the prince and his bouse, will discover but too soon that behind the richness of courtlike expressions lies hid — poverty of ideas.

in three different periods (三,代文格力式之 San-dai káku-siki) of 820, 869 and 907; — Historical narratives and romances (均产 語菜 Mono-gatári); — collections of Lyric poems (歌文 utá), as well as the Bundle of Ten thousand leaves; — Epic poems and Melo-dramatic pieces (舞文 Mavi, or mai) etc.

As philological aids towards illustration of the Fürú-koto deserving of mention are:

和名動 Wa-mei-seo, or explanation of Japanese names, collected by MINA-MOTONO SITAGAVU (源順), a famous poet, who died in 986. 20 volumes. There are editions of 1617, 1667 and 1851.

古声音 梯 Furú koto no bási, or »Ladder to the old language." 1765.

雅^ガ 言
ゲ 集
^シ 覧
^ラ Ga-gen siyu-ran or Miyávi-koto-atsŭmé, »View of the correct language," by ISI-GAVA GA-BAU. 1812.

雅节言如假节字》格为 Ga-gen ka-zi kákŭ, »Standard of the correct language" in Kána-writing, by itsi-oka take-fiko. 1814.

倭っ訓学菜 Wa-gun no siwori, or Guide to the Japanese language," by TANI-GAVA SI SEI. 1830.

b. New Japanese.

Opposed to the Fărâ-koto is the New Japanese, as it has been in vogue since the 16th century, for the newest type of which the style may pass, in which the diplomatic documents of our time, particularly the Treaties concluded with the Western Powers in 1855, are composed 1).

The distinguishing characteristic of this style does not lie in the spelling, — for this, as the literature of this people, dating more than a thousand years ago, has undergone but few changes, — but in the analytic character, by wich it forms an opposition to the antique-synthetic Japanese, and chiefly in the strong mixture of Chinese, or, properly, Japanized Chinese words, wich, it is true, are governed by the Japanese element, but play so important a part in it, that this style has been, not with injustice, called the Sinico-Japanese.

Rising in the opinion of the Japanese, above the popular language proper, in dignity, conciseness and strength of expression, this style is more particularly a possession of the more civilized classes of society and, at one time more, at another less, impregnated with the foreign element, forms the book-language;

¹⁾ See p. 28. note 2.

as such, has penetrated to the lower classes of the people, and exercises its influence even on the polite conversational language and the epistolary style.

It follows, as a matter of course, that in our treatment of the Japanese language this style occupies a prominent place, and if at the same time we look back upon the old as well, it is but to be able, from a grammatical point of view, to illustrate the new as it requires.

13. LANGUAGE SPOKEN. — GENERAL CONVERSATIONAL LANGUAGE AND DIALECTS.

Almost each province of the Japanese Empire has its peculiar dialect, and the difference of dialect becomes greater, in proportion as the provinces are more distant from one another.

It is a fact confirmed by the testimony of different Japanese, whom we have questioned on the subject, that a native of the southern part of Japan and one from the northern cannot understand each other's dialect. The merchant or functionary passing from Yédo to Nagasaki, understands the dialect spoken there just as little as, on the other hand, a native of Nagasaki understands the language of the common people of Yédo.

The case is just the same with dialects of Japan, as with the many dialects, which, e. g., exist next one another in Germany. But as amidst those many dialects one general polite written and spoken language, — the High German, — has gained the ascendancy there, so in Japan also, (instead of the old Yamáto-kotoba) a general polite spoken language has obtained admittance. It is the spoken language, at present in general use in Miyáko and, with slight modification at Yédo also, but here it is spoken by the polite classes alone 1). Since the influence of Yédo spreads to the most remote parts of the empire, and the instruction in the schools is everywhere given in that lan-

¹⁾ In confirmation of this assertion, we here quote the very words of Ohokava Kitaroo as we noted them down, when uttered, "Miyáko no stó bu-men wo yomi-más toori ní handsi-mas; káru-nga-yuèni yorósik' kotowa bakári gozárimas. Eddo no kotoba wá, ki-nin wa yorósiki kotoba nite hánasi-másu, i. e. The inhabitants of Miyako speak as one reads in a book, and therefore have only good language. With regard to the language of Yédo, only the polite man speaks good language.

guage, every well-bred person in the provinces makes use of it in his intercourse with the educated, and leaves the local dialect to the lower classes of the people. To foreigners, who wish to get some knowledge of the spoken language whether at Kanagava or at Nagasaki, it is not a matter of indifference to whom they apply for instruction. If they choose for language-master a servant taken from the street, he will sell them his patois for good Japanese, declares what really is good Japanese » not good," and, although it may not be his intention, gives them the means to afford Japanese functionaries — amusement. As in every language, so in the Japanese also, the dialects have their unquestionable right to existence, and knowledge of them is of importance, as well for the daily intercourse with that portion of the population that do not rise above their dialect, as for comparative philology; but to intercourse with the well educated part of the nation, with whom the foreigner will certainly wish to place himself on a level, he gains admittance only by means of the general polite spoken language, and for this he must look about him. To take an instance, he will then use the word watákusi for »I," just as the gentleman and merchant of Yédo, and not accept the porter's *watski or wasi," or a servant-maid's *watasi" or » watái" instead, or please himself with the ataksa from the district of Yosihara.

The ordinary conversational language differs from the book-language, both in respect of diction and pronunciation. If the book-language is succinct, and concise, the conversational is more circumstantial and diffuse; the natural consequence of the task laid on it of coming up to the rules of good-breeding, which prescribe the form of social intercourse in the different ranks of society.

These rules require from every one respectful politeness to his superiors, strict courtesy to his equals. From a people that, like the Japanese, has obtained among the Western nations the reputation of being the most civilized and most courteous on the earth 1), it is to be expected that its conversational language should express that character, and this is the case: the language familiarly spoken is a concatenation of courtly expressions and goes even so far, that a person, who has not been brought up with it, will not, to use the mildest expression, acquit it of exaggeration.

With regard to pronunciation, of which we have already spoken above (p. 21), the same phenomenon occurs as, among the Western languages, in the

¹⁾ In 1862 in the Netherlands we became acquainted with some exceptions to this rule.

French: the pronunciation deviates from the written form, and this deviation arises partly from the original inadequacy of the Japanese phonetic system, which cannot possibly express all the existant combinations of sound, partly from the development of the language, in which the pronunciation has undergone many a change, whilst the once adopted, old orthography, with but slight modifications, has maintained its historical claim.

Specimens of the Japanese conversational style in the form of dialogues have only very lately reached us.

It is true, about forty years ago, a Japanese translation of Dutch dialogues found its way into a Museum in the Netherlands, and later a place in a book about Japan 1), and every one who attached importance to the study of Japanese, in the supposition that that translation was also in the Japanese conversational style, had then to attach no small value to it; but, now that we have been able to become better acquainted with the familiar conversational style, it appears that people were misled: the translation of these dialogues is not written in the conversational, but in the book style, and therefore loses its supposed value.

The first specimen of the genuine conversational language that reached us was a pocket-work published at Nagasaki for the use of Japanese merchants, which we, with a view to the wants of the non-Japanese, recast and published in 1861 with the title of Shopping-dialogues in Dutch, English and Japanese. The Japanese it contains, is the pure conversational style in use among the tradespeople.

This specimen was in 1863 followed by Familiar dialogues in Japanese with English and French translations for the use of students; a contribution with which the names of R. ALCOCK and LÉON PAGÈS are connected.

Now the want of aids to oral intercourse with Japan is daily becoming more prominent, and as yet it is not to be expected, that the Japanese, who reluctantly see the attempt of the foreigner to become in any degree master of their language, will themselves coöperate therein and publish dialogues, from which the foreigner may draw profit, — it may be hoped, that for that very reason the zeal of such Europeans, as apply themselves more particularly to the study of language in Japan, or do so in their intercourse with Japanese out

¹⁾ Bijdrage tot de kennis van het Japansche Rijk, by VAN OVERNEER FISSCHER. 1833.

of Japan, — for the Japanese language is not grown fast to the Japanese soil, — will succeed in collecting new series of dialogues and distinguishing in them the more or less polite style of speaking, the correct and the incorrect manner of expression 1).

Epistolary style.

The Japanese epistolary style (文文 Bun siyau) is the conversational language purified; it is equally subject to stamped forms, and is a model of courtliness and deferential politeness. Knowledge of it is rendered easy, because every popular encyclopedia contains a series of model letters, in which, the difference in rank between the writer and the person to whom the letter is addressed being considered, the choice of words and expressions is defined.

14. ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Japanese have of old distributed the words of their language in three classes:

- 1. The Noun, A + Na, i. e. name (nomen). To this category belong besides the noun substantive, the pronouns, the adjectives, the numerals, and the exponents of relation, which last, placed as postpositions, do the office of our so called prepositions, as well as, in part, of our conjunctions also.
- 2. The Verb, 声声 Kotoba, i. e. the word (verbum) by eminence, and considered as the living element (Fataraki-kotoba working word) of the sentence.
- 3. Particles, formal or constituent words, generally suffixes (suffixa), which do the office of our terminational inflections (casus) such as the particles te, ni, wo, va, and therefore comprised under the name of Teniwova or Teniva.

Remark 1. By the written form 出京介=葉ハ or 出京葉ハ used for the name Teniva by which the signification of »opening leaves" is attributed to the word, one must not be misled into the supposition, that these particles might be actual shoots of words, or what are sometimes called organic terminational inflections, and not suffixes. The form of writing quoted is nothing else, than one of the frequently occurring rebuses, in which, to arrive at the truth, the meaning of the characters employed must be overlooked.

Remark 2. In one European Grammar 2) these particles are also called

¹⁾ When plubishing the first edition of this grammar we were not acquainted with S. R. Brown's Colloquial Japanese, Shanghai 1863, which may be recommended to students of the Japanese.

²⁾ RODRIGUEZ, Elem. § 67.

»Sutegana" and »Wokiy," names, which require a further illustration. Sute-gana (格克度 发力), i. e. deserted, or foundling-letters (a foundling child is called sute-go) is the name given to the terminations of Japanese words expressed with Japanese Kána-writing between, or at the side of Chinese characters, which words themselves are only indicated ideographically by Chinese characters 1). The marks \nearrow no and \nearrow ku in \nearrow Kou-si NO notamava KU (= saying or Confucius), or \nearrow vu in \nearrow \nearrow

 $omo\,V\,U$ are thus foundling-letters that must be taken up in the translation.

Okí-zi (置 学 字)—the written form Wokiy appears to be an error of impression—is said of those characters of a Chinese sentence which, in the translation into Japanese, must not be translated separately, but passed over, as 於 in _遊, San-tsiu-ni asobu (= walking among the

山 中 -中

mountains). The Oki-zi thus are characters to which, in translating into Japanese, the part of statists or mute players is assigned.

By more recent Japanese grammarians the name of 體多詞是 Taino kotoba corporal or bodily word (substantive) has been given to the noun, and that of 用多詞是 Youno kotoba, or Fataraki-kotoba, = effective word to the verb, whereas for the particles the name of Teniwova has been retained.

If the Japanese grammarians confine themselves to the distinction of three classes of words, we, to be able to fix the logical and grammatical value of the words properly, must apply our grammatical categories, our distinction of the parts of speech to the Japanese language. Consequently we distinguish 1. Nouns, (under which are included 2. Pronouns,) 3. Adjectives, 4. Numerals, 5. Adverbs, 6. Verbs, 7. Suffixes (postpositions) simple, answering to our terminational inflections, and such as answer to our prepositions and conjunctions, 8. Interjections.

¹⁾ Compare pag. 34.

15. A GLANCE AT THE ARRANGEMENT AND CONNECTION OF WORDS IN JAPANESE.

The laws for the arrangement of words, which govern the Japanese syntax, also govern the formation of the words themselves, that is: the manner, in which that language, from its monosyllabic roots, has formed words, and from those existing words has formed, and is still forming new ones, is subject to the same laws, as the manner in which the elements of sentences standing in relation to one another are governed. A concise view of those laws should, therefore, precede the theory of the grammatical forms of words.

The Japanese construction of words is based on two principles, viz: that of *Predicative Apposition*, and that of *Subordination* or order of dependance.

A. Predicative Apposition.

The subject, if it is named, precedes, the predicate follows, the subject being mostly separated from the predicate by an isolating particle ()), whereas the predicate, in the absence of personal inflections of the verb, is not joined to the subject grammatically. As the subject too is left without a sign of the nominative, a congruency of predicate and subject properly so called does not exist.

B. Subordination.

Every modifying word precedes the word to which it belongs. — Application:

1. The attributive definition, be it a genitive, or adjective, is thus placed before the word to which it belongs.

Thus Yáma-móri, mountain-wood, Móri-yáma, wood-mountain; Ame ga furu, rain-fall, raining; Nútsuno ame, summer-rain; Tsuyóki ame, heavy rain; Yóku, well; Yóku wakári, understanding well; Hána-háda yorósiku, very well. Consequently the connectives answering to our in, at, of, through, with, on, under, before, after, for, by etc. etc. become suffixes to the word, which is their attributive definition. This takes place also with the noun, which is to be considered as the attributive definition of the inflexion.

- 2. The verb is placed before the connective (conjunctio), because it is governed by it.

 Instead of "I go, because he goes," an expression in used answering to "he to go because || I going am."
- 3. The adverb precedes the adjective or the verb, and the subordinate or dependent proposition, in quality of adverbial definition, precedes the principal proposition.

E. g. "The sun brightly shining is," instead of our "The sun is shining brightly."

- 4. The predicate is placed before the copula, because the meaning included in the predicate adds a definition to the copula (be, is).
 - E. g. "The flower in bloom is," for our "The flower is in blossom," or "the flower blooms.".
- 5. The object direct, as well as the indirect, is placed before its verb; the substantive phrase objective is placed before the principal proposition governing.

 Instead of "he sends a letter home; he knows that I shall come," expressions are used answering to "he || home(wards) a letter sends; he || I come shall that, knowing is."
- 6. The verb is placed before the auxiliary verb, whether it be affirmative or, in consequence of the blending with a negative element (= not), negative.

Instead of ,,he will go; I will not go;" expressions are used answering to ,,he go will, or he || (to) go willing is; $I \mid |$ (to) go willing not am."

7. The verb, by means of which a derivative verb is formed, has the root of this verb placed before it.

The saying: "I let him go," is rendered by an expression equal to "I him go let."

The interrogatives and certain exclamations (interjections), follow the word or proposition they characterize.

Instead of "Understand you? — Oh heavens!" we meet with expressions answering to "You understand eh? — Heavens, oh!"

When several definitions independent of one another belong to one predicate, then the less important precedes the more important: the definition of time is placed before the definition of place; the object indirect (Dative, Local, Instrumental, Ablative) before the object direct (Accusative).

Coördination.

In coördination of words, the last alone receives the characteristic of grammatical relationship, while the preceding ones are left undefined.

Thus if it be a series of nouns, which are linked together, the last only receives the terminational inflection, that refers to them all.

Our saying: "The three lights of sun, moon and stars" gets the Japanese form of "sun, moon, stars, of three light." (日ッ月デ星センノ三サ光分 Zit get sei-NO san kwoo).—

In the saying: "Who has made heaven, earth, sun, moon, water, air, fire?" only the last of the nouns linked together gets the terminational inflection of the accusative, thus Darega ame, tsutsi, fi, tsuki, midzu, kazé, fi WO go-záku nasareta? — Both examples, corrected, have been taken from RODRIGUEZ Élém. § 88.

The case is just the same with propositions linked together, the verb only of the last proposition, in like manner, receiving the terminational inflection, while the verbs of the preceding propositions, left undefined, retain their radical form.

The Japanese and the Chinese order of words, with regard to the attributive

definitions, agree, as in both these languages they precede the word to which they belong; but they differ from each other, in respect of the object (complement), which, as it has been shown on p. 32, in Japanese is placed before, in Chinese after the verb.

Might it be objected that in Chinese there are prepositions also such as 於, 于, 自, 由 etc. which have the word they govern placed after them, we must observe that, in our opinion, those prepositions are verbs, and therefore have the complement after them.

Inversion.

Inversion or transposed order of words plays an important part in Japanese. The Syntax will show, how it can step out of the monotonous march of the regular order of words, and without violating its laws, set off the principal elements and the definitions of a sentence rhetorically.

ETYMOLOGY, NATURE AND INFLECTION OF WORDS.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

§ 1. The root is the monosyllabic element of a word. Roots are, e. g.

i, to go,
kik, to hear,
ki, to come,
ag, to ascend,
mi, to see,
sag, to descend,
tor, to take,
tat, to stand.

§ 2. The verbal form, on which derivative or inflectional suffixes are grafted, is called the RADICAL OF PRIMITIVE WORD.

The Radicals are the names either of objects or qualities, or verbs, as:

Kíki, hear, Káva, river, Táka, high, Itári, gone, Yáma, mountain, Fiki, low, Kitári, come, Age, raise, Firo, broad, Kuni, land, Miye, seem, Ságe, abate, Tóri, hold, Nága, long, Mitsi, way, Táte, fix, place.

§ 3. THE RADICAL IN COMPOSITION.

If a word in its radical form stands before a noun, then both words are either coördinate, or the first is to the second, as a definition, subordinate. In the latter case the rule is, that Japanese words are combined with Japanese, Chinese with Chinese.

4

A. Coördination takes place in expressions as: Ame-tsutsi, heaven-earth; — Fi-tsŭki, sun (and) moon; — Kŭsa-ki, plant (and) tree.

天 ⁺ 地 ⁺ Ten-tsi, heaven (and) earth; 日 ⁻ 月 ⁻ 月 ⁻ Zit-get, sun (and) moon; 國 ⁻ 家 ⁺ Kókŭ-ka, country (and) people; 草 ⁺ 木 ⁻ Sau-mok, plant (and) tree.

B. Subordination.

I. Subordination by way of genitive or adjective definition takes place in compositions, as:

Kava-oso, river-otter; Oso-gava, otter-river.

Kava-yeda, river-branch; Yeda-gava = branch-river.

Yáma-mori, mountain-wold; Mori-yáma, wold-mountain.

Taka-yáma, high-mountain; Yoko-háma, cross-strand.

Naga-sáki, long-cape; Firo-no, large field.

天艺神艺 Ten-zin, heavenly gods;

地 节 神 ジ Tsi-zin, earthly gods;

國克人芝 Kóku-zin, country-men, inhabitants;

國 ラ 字 ジ, Kóku-zi, country-writing, the Káta-kána.

II. The object direct or indirect, if taken in a general sense, is placed in its radical form before the verb !).

- 1. The radical form occurs as object direct (Accusative) in compounds as Anafori, the hole-digger; Kava-watári, one who crosses a river; Súná-tori, sand-fetcher, sand-skipper; Midsu-kósi, water-filter; Ama-terásu, heaven-lighting.
- 2. The radical form occurs as object indirect in Ama-kudári, (from) heaven descending; Te-tori, asi-tori, to seize (any one by the) hands, seize (by the) feet; Me-gake, (in the) eye hold; Me-sasi, (with the) eye show, give a wink; Ana-dori, (in) holes catch.

III. The radical form as a definition before adjectives, e. g. Te-baya = hand-quick, handy, dextrous; Asi-faya, = foot-quick, swift of foot, fleet; Asi-taka = leghigh, high-legged; O-naga, = tail-long, long-tailed.

Remark. In composition rules of euphony are observed and bring about modifications of sound, as well with regard to vowels, as to consonants, whenever

¹⁾ Comp. H. STEINTHAL, Charakteristik der hauptsächlichsten Typen des Sprachbaues, p. 184, 185.

their meeting is embarrassing to the pronunciation. From Asa + ake, dawn, is formed asáke; from Yáma + áto, = hill-behind, behind the hills, Yamáto; from Tóyo + ŭra, = rich-creek, the name of a place, Toyóra; from Abŭra-mŭsi, cock-roach, $Ab\~urozi$, etc.

As we must draw up the rules of euphony from the grammatical phenomena we shall, to be able to refer to them, insert the rules at the end of the Etymology.

GENDER.

§ 4. Grammatical gender does not exist. If the gender must be definitely expressed of objects in which a distinction of sex exists, then this distinction is made, A. either by means of particular words or B. as in English, in which male-servants and female-servants, »a he-animal" and »a she-animal" are spoken of, by placing \mathcal{P} O, man, and \mathcal{P} Me, woman, as attributive before the word.

A. To the particular names belong: $Mi-k\acute{a}lo$, = the sublime port, the sovereign, king or emperor. Ki-sáki: originally $\Xi_{\stackrel{*}{=}} \stackrel{*}{=} \stackrel{*}{=} Kimi$ -sáki, = princely fortune, the queen or empress; thence in the Mythology which, under the name of $K\acute{a}mi$, $K\acute{a}n$, = prince, chief, includes the gods, the expression $Kis\acute{a}ki$ -gámi, i. e. higher being $(k\acute{a}mi)$ that is consort $(kis\acute{a}ki)$, to indicate a goddess, who is the consort of a god.

Tsitsi, kazo, father.

Mama-tsitsi, stepfather.

O-dsi, uncle.

Ani, eldest brother.

Tsitsi-tori, = father-bird, cock.

Fava (haha), irova, mother.

Mama-fava, stepmother.

O-ba, aunt.

Ane, eldest sister.

Fava-tori, = mother-bird, brood-hen.

B. 1. By the prefixes \mathcal{F} 0 and \mathcal{S} Me the sex is determined in

O-vi, o-i, nephew.

O-ke-mono 1), male-mammal.

O-usi, ox.

O-mumá, stallion.

O-inu, dog.

Me-vi, me-i, niece.

Me-ke-mono, female-mammal.

Me-ust, cow.

Me-mumá, mare.

Me-inu, bitch.

¹⁾ Ke, hair, hairy, mono, being.

O-inó-ko, boar.

O-fitsŭzi, he-goat.

O-siká, stag.

O-néko, he-cat.

O-kúzĭra, male-whale.

Me-inó-ko, sow.

Me-fitsuzi, she-goat.

Me-sĭká, hind.

Me-néko, she-cat.

Me-kúzĭra, female-whale.

2. Instead of the radical form O and Me the genitive attributive Ono and Méno also occur.

Ono-ko, male-child, boy.

Ono-kami, a god.

Meno-ko, female-child, girl.

Meno-kami, goddess.

Remark. When Ono and Meno are contracted to On and Men, then the pure sounds k, s, t if following, generally pass to the troubled g(i), z(nz), d(nd).

From ono + tori, male-bird, becomes successively ランドリ ondori and ヲドリ odori (pronounce ondori); from meno + tori, female bird, メンドリ mendori, and メドリ medori (pron. mendori); from meno + sárň, female-monkey, メンザル menzáru and メザル mezáru (pron. menzárŭ); meno + tora, female-tiger, メンドラ mendora and メドラ medora (pron. mendora); from meno + kataki, female-enemy, メガタキ me-gatáki (pron. mengatáki).

3. There come under notice also Ko (子) and Me (女*), lad and lass, with antecedent attributive definition.

Otó-ko 2), lad, man.

Fikó, young nobleman.

the ore-mountain.

Mi-koto, Sublimity, Highness.

Ono mi-koto, His Highness.

Oto-mé, virgin, maid.

 $Mus\ddot{u}-k\dot{o}=$ begotten son, (my) son. $Mus\ddot{u}-m\dot{e}=$ begotten maid, (my) daughter.

Fimé, young lady.

Kana-yáma fikó no kami, the god of Kana-yáma fimé no kami, the goddess of

the ore-mountain.

Fimé-gami, goddess.

Fine no mi-koto, Her Highness.

The old-Japanese also has ki and mi instead of ko and me, probably with a view to the vocal-harmony; thence Izana-ki and Izana-mi, = male-goer to and fro, female-goer to and fro, name of the divine pair that first mingled carnally.

¹⁾ Comp. Introduction, p. 15, line 8.

²⁾ Oto, old-Japanese for ono, genitive attributive of o (), small, young.

C. The ideas of male and female are sometimes transferred to objects without sex, for the purpose of characterizing the one as big, strong, rough, the other as little, weak and mild, or to indicate other peculiarities of one or the other of the sexes; e. g. O-matsŭ, the masculine firtree, or Kŭró-matsŭ, the black firtree 1); Me-mátsŭ, the feminine firtree, also Aka-matsŭ, the red pinetree 2).

Two islands being next each other, when they are of unequal size, are often denominated O-sima, man-island, and Me-sima, woman-island.

Me-ikŭsa, a female-army, means a weak army (= Yowáki ikŭsa); me-nizi, a female-rainbow, is the name of the faint by-rainbow. Me-kavára or feminine-tile is the name given to flat tile (fira-kavára), on which the rollshaped (máru-kavára), as the masculine tile (O-kavára), rests.

D. The Chinese expressions, used in connection with Chinese names for female and male, are for quadrupeds 果是 生 fin and bo; for birds 雌 结束 si and yuu, e. g. 果是 fin-ba, mare; 雄 yuu-tsi, cock-pheasant.

NUMBER.

§ 5. The grammatical distinction of singular and plural is wanting. The noun used in its radical form expresses the idea generally and leaves it undetermined, whether the said object is to be adopted in the singular or plural.

Only when it is strictly necessary to make the general idea appear in a definite sense as something either singular or plural, such is expressed in one way or another.

A. In Japanese words the singular is expressed by the numeral 2 h fito, one;

Fitó yo, one night.

Fitó kádo, one corner.

» tose, one year.

» katamári, one clog.

» tábi, one time, once.

» fána, one flower.

in Chinese words by 一章 th, ikka or ikkáno, as

一、箇カ所シ, ikka siyo, one place;

一、簡カノ地 * ikkáno tsi, one piece of ground.

More amply, when treating of the numerals.

¹⁾ Pinus massoniana LAMB.

²⁾ Pinus densiflora SIEB. et Zuc.

B. The plural is expressed:

I. By a repetition of the noun, for so far as a distributive generality 1) indicated by the repetition includes the idea of a plural. Yáma, hill; Yáma-yáma, every hill.

The number of such repetitions is determined by custom. In the pronunciation the accent lies on the first part of the compound, while the second occurs as a soft prolongation of the sound, and the consonant, with which it begins, undergoes a softening and becomes impure. Examples:

國 ² kuni, country, province;	國皇 汉 『 kuni-guni, each country, every
	province.
那素 kohóri, koóri, district;	那弄 マド kohóri-gohóri, every district.
村身 mŭra, village;	村 与 又 \ mŭrá-mŭrá, each village.
# sato, village;	邑 ‡ 々 i sato-zato, each village.
町译 mátsi, ward, street;	町季 ♥ 1 matsi-matsi, every ward.
家工 x hé, xé, house, family;	家工 V \ ĭ hé-ǐ hé, every house, each
	family.
戶 fe, he, door, family;	戶~♥、fe-fe, door for door, every
topout at the self pain all thomas nous on	family.
武士 yasiro, chapel;	前上記 マト yasiro-yasiro, every chapel.
Щ‡ yáma, hill, mountain;	Ц 🖫 🗸 \ yáma-yáma, every hill or moun-
	tain.
處立 tokóro, place;	處立 マド tokóro-dokóro, every place, eve-
the filler one corner.	rywhere.
禹圣 sumi, corner;	陶瓷 マド sumi-zumi, every corner.
間 ^マ ma, space, (place and time).	聞ママ・ma-ma, every space, every time.
間靠 aī, space between;	間景 又 \ aï-aï, mean-while.
橋公 fási, hási, bridge;	橋記以 fási-bási, every bridge.
亡 y ono, one;	各方 V \ ŏnó-ónŏ, each.
人片 fitó, one, man;	人ドマド fittó-bittó, every one.

^{1) &}quot;Die Wiederholung der Substanzwörter vezeichnet nicht den Plural, auch nicht schlechthin Mehrheit, sondern distributive Allheit, die wir am besten durch "jeder" wiedergeben." — Steinthal, Typen des Sprachbaues, pag. 158.

親类 oya, old;

役号 yákŭ, office;

3 yo, age, time of life;

年 tosi, year;

H & fi, day;

時 toki, time, hour;

角点 iro, 1) color, 2) sort;

2) quality.

種主 siyu, sort;

樣 sama, the look, the mien;

度各 tabi, journey, turn;

藥者 kŭsúri, medicine;

型呈 koyé, sound;

親*マ \ oya-oya, both parents.

役为 7 \ yákŭ-yákŭ, every office.

3 7 · yo-yo, every age.

年之 7 } tosi-tosi, each year.

H & V : fi-bi, every-day.

時事 7 7 toki-doki, always, each hour.

色音 V \ iro-iro, every color or sort.

級字。品字 sina, 1) degree, rank, 品字 7 1 sina-zina, every quality, every article.

種主 マド sǐyu-zǐyu, every sort.

樣 * 以 sama-zama no of every form.

度多又 \ tabi-tabi, each turn.

或名 Y l' kŭsúri-gŭsúri, every medicine.

型呈 7 koyé-goyé, each sound.

II. The plural is expressed by nouns used adjectively, which signify a quantity, generality.

1. In composition with Japanese words (yomi) are used:

差景, ohóku no, oókuno, many. Oóku no fitó, many people. Oóku no kane, much money, in opposition to sukósi no kane, little money.

大多勢力, tai-seino, in great power, in multitude. Tai-sei no ftto, people in multitude.

大多壯步, tai-sau no, tai-soo no, exceedingly.

選多山サッ、沢多山サッ, tákǔ-sán no, abundant.

色点 7 1/, iro-iro no, of every color or sort, of all sorts. Iro-iro no fána, all sorts of flowers. Iro-iro no yákŭ nin, functionaries of every rank.

面子 マド, sina-zina no, of every quality.

様サマドノ, sama-zama no, of all sorts. Sama-zama no wake, all the different judgements. Sama-zama no mono, things of all sorts.

數文 7 //, kázŭ-kázŭ no, numerous.

種主 マドノ, sĭyú-zĭyú no, šu-žu no, of every sort. Sĭyú-zīyú no fǐtó, people of every sort.

一引切物, is-sai no, all. 一引切物 眾多生業, is-sai no sĭu-zǐyau, all living beings.

Moro-moro no, all. [from \mathcal{R}_{Ξ}^{Ξ} , moro, both]. Moro-moro no fitó, all people; moro-moro no mono, all things; moro-moro no tsutsi-rui, all sorts of earth. Taka moro-moro no tori wo kásumů, the falcon plunders all birds.

2. In composition with Chinese words (koyé) are used:

數7, su, number, many.

數 代 代 su-dai, many generations.

年予, su-nen, many years.

月梦, su-get, many months.

日夢, su-zit, many days.

人艺, su-zin, many people.

諸言, sĭyo, every, all.

諧量國元, sǐyọ-kókŭ, the countries.

方分, siyo-fau, the regions.

物学, siyo-buts, the things.

人 5, siyo-nin, mankind, the people.

± 2, siyo-si, the warriors.

數^ス万乏, su-man, many tens of thousands.

千岁, su-sen, many thousands.

| 百克 人志, su-byákŭ nin, many hundreds of men.

諸主役岁, sǐyo-yákǔ, the functions.

說多, siyo-setsŭ, the arguments.

藝字, siyo-kei, the arts.

職義, sĭyo-sĭyókŭ, every trade.

宗芳, sǐyo-siu, the sects.

III. The plural of a noun is also expressed by one or another suffix, which signifies a quantity or generality, and either must be considered as coördinate, as e. g. Co in I and Company for we, or with the preceding word forming a collective word, as e. g. man-kind for men. These suffixes are, ra, domo, gara, bara, nami, tatsi, sĭu, gata, nado.

1. Ra (等^ラ) signifies a class of persons or things without any distinctive, e. g. Yátsŭkáre, subject or vassal; Yátsŭkárerá (臣等), subject and class, all that belongs to the category of subjects, the subjects (or vasals).

Otóko, man; Otókorá (男等), man and class, all that belongs to the category of man, men.

Fiyak-siyou rá (百岁姓夢等ラ), or Nou-min rá (農人民ご等ラ), country-people.

Ware, the I; Warerá (吾等), I and class, we. Nandsi, thou; Nandsirá (汝等), you.

Koré, something that is here, this; Korérá (是等), this and class, such. Koreráno nozomi, such a desire, a desire of that nature 1). Koto, matter; Korerá no koto, such a matter. Sono mono, such a one; Sono monorá (其者等), such a one and Co., such persons 2).

Mígi (pronounce mingi), on the right, in a writing referring to what precedes. Migirá, all that precedes, the aforesaid. 右章等ラ 諸シ入っ費, migirá no siyo niu-fi, the expenses of all the aforesaid 3).

Atsi kotsi, there and here; Atsira kotsira, all that is included in there and here.

Kova Wani no kimi, Kamo no kimi rá ga oya nari, this is the father of the princes (princely houses) of Wani and Kamo.

Remark. If we are at liberty to consider ra as a coördinate word, and then again as a suffix that forms collective words, logic will require the first, seeing that such an expression and I and Company really answers to we, which is not the case with the expression my company, by which »I" may be excluded.

2. Tomo, domo, mate, fellow, companion, particularly in the spoken language, for persons and things.

Watákusi no tomo, my mate or friend; Watákusi domo (我共), I and mate, we; Watákusi domo no hon, our book. Ko, child; Ko-domo, a mate who is a child, (my or his) child; Ko-domo ra or Ko-domo domo, (my or his) child and mate, (my or his) children. Ke-rai, attendant; Ke-rai domo, attendants, the suite of a prince. Sono mono domo (其) 者 [片元), such persons 1). Ware, I; Ware domo, we. Mi, I myself; Mi domo, we ourselves; Mi domo ga kimi, the prince of us ourselves, our own prince. Ohókuno taka domo, falcons in multitude. Yebisu domo wo tairakésimű, he has the savages subjected. Takano na tomowo sirúsű, to give up the different names of the falcon. Neko, the cat; Neko domo, the cats. Műmá, horse; Műmá domo, horses.

3. Gara, series, row; division of objects distributed in classes.

Fitó, man; Fitó-gara (人品。人柄), series of men. Fitó-gara no yauni, after the manner of men. Fi-gara (日大), series of days. Koto, matter; Koto-

¹⁾ The Treaty between the Netherlands and Japan, concluded at Yedo, 18th August, 1858, Art. II, al. 12.

²⁾ Ibid. Art. VI, al. 9.

gara, series of matters. Tomo (友。朋), fellow, mate; Tomo-gara (倫。辈。曹。儔), a row of companions, a series or class (of men or brutes). Waga-tomo-gara (吾辈), the class of the I, we. Nandsi ga tomo-gara (爾曹), the class of you, you. Nézǔmi no tomo-gara (鼠之儔)¹), the mouse-kind.

4. Bara, group.

Taka-bara (竹林), bamboo-wood. Mátsŭ-bara (松林), firtree-wood, a group of firtrees. Nandsi-bara (汝曹), your group, you. Tono-bara (黨曹), they there without.

5. Nami (大), series.

Fi-nami, series of days. Tsŭki-nami, series of months. Se-ken-nami, the common people. Fǐtó-nami, the people. Wa-nami (吾 管), my series, we.

6. Tatsi $(\mbox{\ensuremath{\mathfrak{F}}}_{\mbox{\ensuremath{\mathfrak{F}}}}^{\mbox{\ensuremath{\mathfrak{Z}}}})^2$), row of persons who are, or may be, in an upright posture for, or at a given time, host.

Yákŭ-nin, functionary; Yákŭ-nin-tatsi (役人等), row of functionaries, functionaries. Kami, god; Kami-tatsi (神等), series of gods, gods. Kono mi-fasira-no Kamiva mina Wataravi-ayataní masu Kami-tatsi nari, these three gods are a series of gods residing in the district of Wataravi.— Kono fǔtá fasira no kamiva minasokó-ni narimaséru Kami-tatsi nari, both the gods are gods sprung from the bed of the river. Tomo, fellow, friend; Watákusi no tomo-tatsi, my friends.

7. Sĭu, Siyu (\(\mathbb{R}\) \(\frac{\pi}{\pi}\), šu, also su, in the written language \(\mathbb{R}\) \(\pi\) \(\mathbb{H}\) \(\pi\), sĭu-dsyu, company, circle of persons. Samŭrái sĭu, band of warriors, warriors, Onágo-sĭu, circle of women.

Remark. Bot expressions, samurái-síu and onágo-síu, already given by collado as forms of the plural, are acknowledged by natives of $Y\acute{e}do$, in answer to our personal inquiry, to be good Japanese, in colloquial style. Thus, when in Alcock's Japanese Grammar (page 19, line 6 from the bottom) it is remarked: Rodriguez speaks of a fourth (particle expressing the plural), soo, but this appears to be always a prefix. It has reference to number, but is not indicative, as alleged, of rank, while the other three $(\cancel{2} + \cancel{6} + \cancel{6} + \cancel{6} + \cancel{6})$ undoubtedly are," it appears that there the difference between $\cancel{2} \times 3$ su, number,

¹⁾ Jap. Encycl. 39, 6, v.

²⁾ Instead of 等 occurs 達, but only as the phonetic representative of tatsi.

multitude (see page 56), and the $\mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}}$ siu, su, used elliptically is not taken notice of. $\mathbb{E}^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbb{H}^{\frac{1}{2}}/\mathbb{L}^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbb{B}^{\times}$ the persons who put their seal (to this document and signed it).

8. Gata, pronounced ngata, = no gata, side of.

Mi-kata, the side or party of the Mikado. Tekino kata, the hostile party. To indicate the plural gata is used for high persons, and characterizes deep respect towards them.

Dai-miyau, = great name, nobleman; Dai-miyau-gata (大名方), the noblemen, the nobility. — Tono sáma, young nobleman; Tono-sáma-gata, young noblemen. — Te-mae-sáma, you, Sir; Te-mae-sáma-gata, you, Sirs or gentlemen. — Ka-nai-sáma-gata, the gentlemen house-mates, your family. — O-ko gata, your Highness's children, your children. — Dzyo tsiu gata (女常 中华方为), women of quality, young gentlewomen.

9. Nado, from nani-to, nando, whatever, and so forth, and such (等, vulgo 求。 太). Iyé-nado, house and so forth, house and such like, houses. — Samuráinado, warriors.

As the grammatical distinction of singular and plural is wanting, so the compound words, which express a plural, have no separate declension.

Remark. With a view to courtesy, which particularly dominates the spoken language, it is not a matter of indifference which of the words given, is used to indicate the plural. Ra, domo and nado refer directly to a class of persons or things and therefore are used when one speaks of his own or of subordinate people, or in general of objects, to which no importance is attached. — Gara and bara belong to the written language. — Tatsi implies respect, and gata, side, the highest respect, which is analogous to our son the part of the King' for sfrom the King."

It is natural, that more or less elevated expressions, which from politeness are used to others, are not applied to oneself and one's own.

IV. The plural is also expressed by adverbs, as Mina (音声), together, Nokorázu (不及意声), without exception, and Koto-gótoku (武), generally, which then precede the predicative verb to which they belong, for instance, Moto sinawa mina yorósii, the article itself is together good, the articles themselves are all good. — San-kan nokorázu mitsŭki-monowo taté-matsuru, the three empires offer without exception tribute. — Tane koto-gótokŭ mewo idásŭ nari, the seed shoots generally, all the seed shoots.

ISOLATING OF THE NOUN.

§ 6. The suffix)) va, \mathcal{P} wa,) ba.

Every one, who for the first time hears a Japanese harangue, is struck by the continual repetition of the little word wa, which pronounced in a sharp and high tone and followed by a pause, breaks off the equable flow of words, in which the speaker then proceeds in his ordinary tone of speaking. On a hearer, not acquainted with the language, this little word with its resting point makes the impression, that the speaker would emphasize what he has just said, and separate it from what follows. And that impression is correct. Wa, γ , in the booklanguage γ , va, is an emphatic suffix or rather an interjection, intended to isolate some word or saying, and to separate it from what immediately follows. We do the same, when we raise the voice at some word and, after a pause, continue, speaking in our ordinary tone.

Va or wa therefore is used, in the first place, to separate the subject from the predicate, as in Táma vá yáma yóri ídsű, = the jewels || mountain out come (jewels come out of mountains); and it may not cause surprise when, on that account, it is understood as characteristic of the subject and consequently as the sign of the nominative, which, strictly considered, it is not. It is indeed joined to the subject, but not exclusively, and serves to isolate every other relation, every dependent case. The isolating power of va finds its equivalent in expressions like as to, with regard to, quant à Fr., quoad, quod attinet ad, Lat., wat...aangaat, Dutch.

Whenever va isolates the subject, it answers to the Chinese * $t \check{s} \check{e}$, which has the signification of a »definite something" and passes for a relative pronoun. As a euphonic modification of va,) ba also occurs.

The subject and the predicate are not always separated by va, but how necessary this separation sometimes is, appears from the instance quoted, which, with the omission of va, may also signify: "jewel-mountain from come," i. e. be produced from a jewel-mountain.

Examples: 獅シ子シハ百分 默ジノ長葉ナリ、Sisiva fáku-ziuno tsǐyau nari, the lion is the head of all brutes, or: as to the lion, he is the head etc. — 牛ゥハ田タヲ耕灸ス 畜デナリ、Usiva tawo tagavesu tsiku nari, as to the ox, he is a field-ploughing domestic animal. — 獺ラハ木ス中デニスム、Osova sǔi-tsiu ni sumǔ, = the otter in (the) water lives.

DECLENSION.

§ 7. The relations of one noun to another word, or its cases, are expressed by suffixes, by particles (*Teniwova* or *Tsŭké-zi*)¹), which generally have a definite signification, and, arranged, according to our declension, are limited to the following.

Nominative (subject) and Vocative	Statement with the second
Accusative (object direct)	7 wo.
Genitive	が ga (pronounced nga, na), among in-
	exact writers often # ka.
Qualitative Genitive	/ no, old-Japanese also + na and >
Their Bush H. The new Culture	tsu, originally tu.
Dative and Terminative	ve, he or I ye, e (wards).
Index of the relation of the Place.	= ni (in, at), > to (to).
Means and Instrument	二 ni, テ te.
The state of the s	= $\overline{\mathcal{T}}$ nite, $\overline{\mathcal{T}}$ de (pron. nde).
Ablative	ヨリ yori, カラ kara (out, from).

If, notwithstanding, they are here already cited and illustrated, it is for the behalf of those, who do not willingly dispense with the ordinary declensions.

Explanation.

I. Nominative. The primitive form of a noun is at the same time that of the nominative, which thus has no inflectional termination. In imitation of former grammarians the suffix) va, vulgo va, has been considered as a characteristic of the Nominative, but as this suffix is merely an isolating particle, which may also be of use with other cases, it must not be longer considered as a definite characteristic of the Nominative (subject) 2).

¹⁾ See Introduction, § 14. 3. pag. 42.

^{2) &}quot;Keine altaische Sprache hat einen Nominativ." H. STEINTHAL, Characteristik der hauptsächlichsten Typen des Sprachbaues, 1860, pag. 186.

VOCATIVE. The poet sometimes stretches or doubles the final sound of a noun, to make known, that his feelings are thereby affected, or that he invokes the object. This emphatic prolongation of sound, by which the vocal-harmony comes into play, belongs properly to the interjections, and has the same effect as our exclamation O? or Oh?

Hána, flower; hánaa! (花, 今) o flower! oh the flower!

Tori, bird; torii! (鳥,兮) o bird!

Mi, three; mii! (三章 分1).

Yo, four; yóo! yowo! (四3 今).

 $\dots u; \dots uwo!$

As exclamation \mathcal{I} , we occurs, e.g. in Irova nivoveto tsirínŭrŭwó, = the colour with the smell corruption o! i. e. oh! that the colour with the smell should vanish!

Besides, \exists yo, just as in German: Feuerio! Mordio! is used as an emphatic suffix and, added to the simple root of a verb, strengthens the Imperative, e. g. Towo akéyo, open the door!

II. Accusative. If the object direct of a transitive verb is indefinite, it is placed before the verb in the primitive form and the logical accent falls upon the verb' e. g. $K\ddot{u}s\acute{a}$ kari, = grass to mow. If the object is definite (Accusativus definitus), it is characterized by wo and at the same time is accentuated, e. g. $K\ddot{u}s\acute{a}$ wo karu, = grass (or the grass) to mow. If it is to be brought out with emphasis as the subject of conversation, then the accusative is isolated by the particle va besides, and the form wova is obtained, which for euphony passes over into wobá, and is frequently pronounced oba.

Examples. Tori-odósivá tori kedamono wó odósŭ mono nári, the scarecrow || is something that frightens birds and beasts. — Uwó tóru ami vá uwo wó toru gu nari, = the fish catching-net, is a fish catching-net. — Mídzŭ kumi, water scooper. — Ikéno mídsu wó kumŭ, to scoop the water from a pond. — Kefurino nobóru wó mirŭ, to see the mounting of the smoke. — Kaminí nĭkúmŭ tokóro o ba mótte simo wó tsŭkáu koto nŭkáre 1), with that which people disapprove of in their chief, they must not charge their inferiors.

In the book on the Middle-Way (h Table Cap. IX) after what a man may un-

¹⁾ The Grand Study (Dai Gaku), X, 2.

dertake of what is great has been summed up, there follows as antithesis: »but he cannot keep the Middle-Way," which the Japanese translation very correctly expresses by 中華 清潔 ラバ 木木 可葉 能力 train-you wóbá yó-kňsu běkǎrázu. It would have the same effect, if it were: »Tsiu-you wá, koréwo yokňsu běkǎrázu = but the Middle-Way — that can one not keep." The form Tsiu-you wa cannot, it is plain, pass for an accusative. On the other hand the saying: »Mǐma sárǐ wo ba nava nite korewo sibáru, = the horse and the ape — with a rope (one) binds them fast," contains an unnecessary repetition of the object, characterized as accusative. If the wo ba is perserved, the koréwo is superfluous; if the koréwo remains, Mǐma sárī va must remain, the wo being superfluous.

The use of wo in Kai-henwo isi-kabewo tsŭku, to build a wall on (or along) the seaside, deserves notice. — Nipponno bu-naiwo riyo-kau-suru men-giyo (日本ノ部内ラ旅行スル免許), permission to travel through the inland of Japan 1). The Accusative employed here indicates a continuous motion which we express by means of along, through.

III. GENITIVE. 1, \mathcal{T} ga, nga, na (\mathcal{Z}), in pronunciation sharp toned, characteristic of the genitive relation, sets forth the object as something taken in a definite sense, and has the effect of of the. The genitive subordination by means of ga is considered disrespectful; thence the speaker applies it only to himself and to persons and things of which, having higher persons in view, he makes no case. One says, indeed, $W\acute{a}reg\acute{a}$ or $Wat\acute{a}kusig\acute{a}$, = of the I, of me, and $Areg\acute{a}$, of him; but ga is not used with those nouns and pronouns, with which respected persons are addressed or indicated 2).

Examples. Ko va Misima-agata-nusi gá oya nari, this is the progenitor of the bailiff of the district of Misima. — Kono kamivá N. N. ra gá oya nari, this god is the progenitor of the N. N.s.

Fitó mina Sukunegá kau-riki wo zo kan-zi keri, each admired Sukune's strength. —

¹⁾ Netherlands and Japanese Treaty I. al. 3.

²⁾ This RODRIGUEZ also must have meant, when he, according to the French edition § 7, says: "as s'emploie comme pronom de la troisième personne, pour les inférieurs, et comme pronom de la première, par humilité." Let the misprint "comme pronom" be altered to "après" or "pour le pronom," and the agreement with our assertion will be found. A pronoun, ga, does not exist. The same mistake is met with in Alcock's Japanese Grammar of 1861 p. 18, where we read: "# ga, a sign of the genitive in nouns, is used as a pronoun in the third person for inferiors, and in the first person as a term of humility."

Kai-mongá dake, the peak of the sea-port (Kai-mon is the name of the entrence to the bay between the provinces of Oósŭmi and Sátsŭma).

Sagámino Miŭra gá sáki, the cape of the Sagámian Miŭra, the cape of Miŭra in the province of Sagámi. — Amegá sǐtá (天下), under the heavens, the sublunary world. — Fǐtówo nai gá síroní su, to estimate others at the value of nothing, te consider others of no value. — Kárŭ, being so, Kárŭgá yǔéni, = for the reason of the being so, on account of the state of affairs. — Watákusigá kimono, the dress of me.

The Ga, no index of the subject.

The particle ga is also considered as an emphatic definite characteristic of the subject. Now the question arises, if a particle, which, as it most evidently appears from the instances cited, is an emphatic definitive characteristic of the genitive, can also be one of the nominative. The answer is negative. The cases, in which ga is considered as an emphatic nominative termination, are capable of a conception, which leaves to this particle its value of a characteristic of the genitive, and besides places in a clear light the reasons, why ga has that effect, which is ascribed to it as an emphatic characteristic of the subject. An instance will make this clear. Speaking of an undertaking the question is proposed: »Is there money for it?" and which is answered by: »There is money for it." Now in the question money is the subject, which after the Japanese arrangement, is placed first and, as a subject first brought into conversation, isolated by va or wa. In the answer, on the contrary, the predicate ** there is" logically has the greater weight, and the subject "money," as subordinate attributive definition, precedes the predicate, as genitive, emphatically characterized by ga. The answer: » There is money" changes to: » of money the presence (is)" 1). The question sounds in Japanese: Kanewa árimásűká? the answer: Kanega árimásű.

Another instance consisting of the words fi, day, and $kuret\acute{a}$, become dark. To the question: Fi wa $kuretak\acute{a}$? = the day (as to the day) || has become dark? i. e. has the day approached the end? as answer, follows: Fi gá $kuret\acute{a}$ = the day's having become dark is, i. e. the day has become dark?

¹⁾ It must be kept in view that in Japanese no congruency, properly so called, of the predicative definition with the subject exists. See Introduction § -15 A. p. 44.

²⁾ This instance is taken from the "Japansch en Hollandsch Woordenboek van den Vorst van Nakats"
1810, letter fi.

The Shopping-Dialogues are rich in instances, which plead for this conception. E. g. pp. 1 and 2:

The buyer. I have come to buy something = Watákŭsi wa kai mononi maitta.

The seller. What whill you buy? = Naniwo O kái násárű ká?

The buyer. What is there? = Náni ga ári-másŭka?

The seller. There are lacquered goods inlaid with mother of pearl = Awo-gái mono ga ári-másŭ.

The buyer. Are there any gold-lacquered goods? = Máki-ye mono wa ári-másűka?

The seller. Yes, gold-lacquered goods are at hand = Hei. Maki-ye mono ga árimásű. —

Question: O ko samagata wa ikága de iraserare másňka?, your children, how do they do? — Answer: Sňéno ko ga sugure masénň 1), the youngest child is not quite well.

Therefore is said rightly for »it snows" Yukiga furŭ or furi-másu, = of snow come down is, whereas Yukiwa furŭ = with respect to the snow, it is coming down, would be a definition which attributes "come down," the predicate, to the snow. The same is the case with Fokáno fűnéga tsűki-masta?), there is another ship arrived, properly the arrival of another ship has happened, whereas Foká no fűné-wa tsűki-másta, would signify: another ship — is arrived," the subject now being another ship" the idea to which the most importance is attached, and on which the attention is first fixed. The degrading of the subject to attributive genitive of the predicate is a phenomenon, that commonly occurs in the Altaic languages 3), and in the Chinese also, plays an important part. Thus, to choose a classical expression, the saying 日 為人也 Hoei wei žin yè, means Hoei is (or was) a man, Japanese Kwai va fito to nari. Hoei is here the subject brought under consideration, of which something is said. On the contrary the saying of confucius: 回之之"為"人片也), Japanese Kwaiga fito to nari, = Hoei's a man to be (is), lays the accent emphatically on the predicate > to be a man," which we might express by "Hoei was eminently a man."

¹⁾ Copied, with correction, from R. ALCOCK, Familiar dialogues, pp. 1, 2.

²⁾ R. BROWN, Colloquial Japanese, p. 1, nº. 6.

³⁾ STEINTHAL, Characteristik etc., p. 186.

⁴⁾ Tschung-yung, Cap. VIII.

Still worthy of a place here, is R. BROWN'S remark in his Colloquial Japanese, pp. XXXIII and XXXIV, his opinion concerning the power of both particles being fully confirmed by our illustration.

"Wa, which is merely an isolative particle, serving to separate a word or clause, from the words that follow it, is not a sign of the nominative, though it frequently stands between the subject and its predicate... Wa is a sort of vinculum around a collection of words, and serves to give definiteness to this group of words, distinguishing it from the other elements of the propositions... Nga or ga (#) is used for the same purpose, except that it seems to be more emphatically definitive. — The difference between wa and nga is scarcely translatable, but is to be expressed by the tone of the speaker's voice, rather than by any corresponding word in English. The native ear at once perceives the difference, and a foreigner can acquire the use of these particles only by practice and much familiarity with the Japanese usage. The native teachers say that wa is a kind of cordon drawn around a word or words, as if to isolate it or them, as a distinct subject of thought, and that nga is used when one or more objects are singled out, being present or conceived to be present, spoken of specifically. Thus, if a Japanese should say of a certain lot of teas; Here are the musters, his expression for the musters, would be Mihon wa, i. e. the musters, as separated from the original packages, but, if a buyer, taking one of the samples should say he liked it, his expression would be Kono mihon ga ki ni irimas'. The idea would then be, that that particular sample suited him." -Thus here a difference is made between Mi-hon wa (properly Te-hon wa) koko ni arimásu, samples are here at hand, and Kono te-hon ga ki ni irimásu, these samples please me.

2. No, \mathcal{I} , cognate to ni, to be, is used for the attributive subordination of one substantive to another, and gives to the subordinated the character of an adjective. As the use of ga is limited by etiquette, no distinction of person is intended by no; it is used for high and low.

Examples: Kousi no i-siyo (孔子之遺書), a writing left by Kung tsè.—
Dai-gákň no mitsi (大學之道), the way of the Grand Study.— Ama no gava,
the river of heaven, the milky-way.— Fosi no fikári, starlight.— Tósinó fázimé,
beginning of a year.— Fázǐménó tosi, a beginning year, New year.— Kabeno
fima, a split in a wall.— Nisikino bousi, cap of colored silk.— Akaganeno derň
tokóro, = of copper the birth place, i. e. the place whence copper comes.— Watákŭsinó kimono, my garment.

Remark. By way of elision the o of no is suppressed as in $\mathcal{I} \vee \mathcal{F} \mathcal{I}$ ondori, for ono tori, male bird; $\mathcal{I} \vee \mathcal{F} \mathcal{I}$ mendori 1), for meno tori, female bird. The n also is dissolved in the following consonant, which in the writing then is marked as impure (nigori), so, Fito-yo-no sake, Sake of one night, becomes $\overset{\mathcal{L}}{\longrightarrow} \mathcal{F}$ $\overset{\mathcal{F}}{\nearrow}$, Fito-yo-nzake.

That no frequently has still another particle (case) after it, is the consequence of an ellipsis, e. g.: 潮菜。早女ノラレ日で潮菜ト。晩2ノラレ日で沙菜ト。

¹⁾ Compare § 4, A. 2. Remark p. 52.

Usivo, ásītánowó ásasivo to ívi, kurénowó yúusivo to ívu¹), tide, that of the morning is called the morning-tide, that of the evening the evening-tide. — Kore wa amari tsiisai; mo sŭkósī ookiinowo O mise²), this (case) is too small; let me see a larger one.

3. Na, + (abbreviation of $n\acute{a}r\breve{u}$, »being" vid. § 12), old, and in the popular language, still used variation of no, in the mouths of the vulgar at Yedo da (\nearrow) also (pronounced nda) 3), which, however, is to be considered as a syncope of do-arū.

Simozama na koto (鄙事), baseness, vulgarity, from simo, beneath, sama, manner, and koto, thing. — Kova na-bakári nari, that is only a name. — Na-bakári na mono, something (mono) that exists only in name. — Kanna gawa, for kaneno gawa (金川), metal-brook, or kami no gawa (神奈河), god's-river. — Taizi dá (for Tai-zi de-aru) koto wá gozárimasénň, there is nothing of consequence.

4. Tsu, \mathcal{Y} (津), old-Japanese characteristic of attributive relation, appears still only in old compounds, instead of no; sometimes, for the sake of euphony, after m or n it passes over to du, dzu (\mathcal{Y}). The oldest records sometimes have, instead of \mathcal{Y} and \mathcal{Y} , \mathcal{X} su and \mathcal{X} zu also.

Examples. Amatsu kami, = of heaven khan, heavenly god. — Amatsu sora, the expanse of heaven, the firmament. — Amatsu miko, the son of heaven (the Emperor). — Amatsu fitsŭki, the heavenly (imperial) crown. — Kunitsu kami, the country god. — Kunitsu or kunizu ($\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{K}$) 4) mono, country objects, country products. — $Iv\underline{e}$ tsu imo, house potato 5). — Iratsu kokóro, = prickle heart, shrewdness. — Nivatsu dori, the court-bird, the cock. — Aki, 1. glitter, 2. autumn. — Akitsu musi, the glittering insect (Libellula). — Akitsu sima, glittering islands (a name of Japan). — Sita, beneath, under. — Sitatsu mitsi, an underground way. — Kibitsu 6) takefiko, the hero of Kibi.

Instead of 少》津ッ子, Otsuko, bachelor, and 少》津ッ女, Otsume, spinster, occur in old writings otóko and otóme also.

IV. DATIVE and TERMINATIVE. ~ vo (ho) or I (I) ye, e properly signifies

¹⁾ Jap. Encycl. 57, 2 verso.

²⁾ Shopping-dialogues, p. 3.

³⁾ From oral communication by O. Y. from Fedo.

⁴⁾ In the Nipponki, XXII, 20, both forms (7=y and 7=Z) occur alternately.

⁵⁾ Caladium esculentum.

⁶⁾ It must seem strange, that the writer of the Japanese Encyclopedia (78. 8. r.) has thought it necessary to subjoin to this name the note: 津ッハ助ッ語・原子・レスノ同ジ, TSU en ziyo-go, No to onázi, i. e. TSU, an auxiliary word, the same as No.

side or direction, e. g.: Yamanove, the mountainous side, the side of, the direction of (towards) the mountains. — Yúku vé, the side, by which one goes away. — Ma vé, ma yé, vulgo mai = look-wards, i. e. forwards, before. — Atove or ato ye, = spur-side, backwards, behind.

As suffix ve or ye answers in all respects to our wards and indicates the direction in which any thing proceeds, e. g. Yédo-ve (or Yédo-he), Yedo-wards, as distinction from Yédoni, in or at Yedo, Yédoni óité, being in Yedo; Yédoveno mitsi, = Yedo-wards road, the road to Yedo. — Nipponve no miyáke, presents for Japan.

Examples: Siyok'-motsŭ wó fǐtó vé ŏkúrŭ, to send victuals to others. — Kariva minámivé sárita, the geese have gone away towards the south. — Tovóki kunive yúků, to go to distant countries. — Ten-kivá simo vé kůdári, tsi-kivá kamive no-bóru, the mists of the sky sink towards beneath (to the earth), the mists of the earth rise towards above. — Moto ve modóru, to return to the source. — Kara-fűné itsu sou (issou) Sagámino Miŭrága sakive feu-tsiyaku-su, a Chinese junk ran aground on the cape of Miŭrá, in the province of Sagámi.

Instances from the treaty between the Netherlands and Japan. Art. II, § 17. Kóku-daive furi-watasu, to make known into every part of the realm. — II, 18. 軍プ用 () 諸 (物 で) 日 本 で 役 所 () 外 か 東 で で う ズ の Gun-yoúno siyo-buts va Nippon-yák'-siyo no fokáve úrŭ-békarázu, munitions of war may not be sold to any other than the Japanese government. — V, 1. Olandazin ve (or ni) taisi (對 () fau wo (法 () ラ) okásu, to transgress the law against the Dutch. — VI, 9. コンシュルヘ 申 (注 ア ス , to communicate to the Consul. — V, 1. 各 ア 方 、 , in every direction, towards every side.

Ni (於。子), with relation to, in general points out the relation of an indirect object, and is therefore used to indicate the place at which, as well as into which and answers to our in, at, unto, by and by means of, according as the verb, to which it belongs, indicates that the place has been reached, or that the object makes movement towards it. Thence one says Yédo ye yûku and Yédoni ôru, to go to Yedo and to reside in Yedo.

The relation expressed by Ni may be understood as:

a. Dative or Ablative, by which, in general, a collateral relation to the predicate verb is expressed. E. g. Fitóni tsikáki mitsi, a road, which with relation to people is near. — Fitóni tovóki mitsi, a road which with relation to (for) people, is remote. — Fitoni fanáruru, separated from people. — Kávi ko kuváni fánarénu, the silkworm does not remove from the foliage.

b. Local, to the question where or when. E. g. Kono tokóroni, at this place. — Nusubitó tokóro-dokóroni okóru, robbers rise at every place (everywhere). — Figa figásini nobóri, nisini úru, the sun rises in the east, and goes in (down) in the west. — Yédoni kiyo-riu-suru yakŭ-nin, functionaries residing in Yédo. — Yámani iri ki wo kiru, = to go into the mountains and chop wood. — Fŭnéni nóru, to be load in a ship (to navigate). — Yáma-gŭsáwo návani tsuri, kazéni sarásu, to hang up mountain-herbs on a rope and dry (them) in the air. — Kavikoni yamavi dekiru, by (among) the silk worms exists sickness. — Ivuni todokovoru, to stick fast in speaking. — Kono tosini, in this year. — Firuni, at noon. — Yuvuni, in the evening. — Firu-gavo ásani ake, yúvubéni sibómu, the »face of noon" 1) opens in the morning, and closes in the evening.

Ni va, the relation indicated by ni isolated by va. — Nan-bu, $Tsŭk\'ar\~u-benno$ tsi-meiniva fan-mei oh'osi, among $(ni\ va)$ the names of places ($tt^{\frac{1}{2}}$ $t^{\frac{1}{2}}$) of the country of Nan-bu and $Ts\~uk\'ar\~u$ strange names are manifold.

Ni va sometimes elliptically changes into nva (>))). — Aru tókinivá or áru tokinvá, at any time.

c. Modal, to the question how. E. g. Dai-sini tatsi-tamavu, he appears as (in the quality of) hereditary Prince. — Ikáni, vulgo ikán' (イカシ), how, in what manner. — Iká-sámani, in what (or which) manner. — Saka-samani, perversely. — Kotoni, particularly. — Makótoni, in truth, indeed. — Tadani, mere, only. — Ookini, often, very. — Sŭmiyakani, suddenly, quickly.

d. Casual and Instrumental, to the question of whom, by which or by what, with which, with what, although here also the original signification, with relation to, is preserved. E. g. Yani ataréta, struck with an arrow. — Fitóni damasaréta, deceived by people (others). — Dai-Minno seiva fai-gunni korite susumi tsiká-dzukázu, Tá-Ming's army, confounded by the defeat, does not approach.

e. Dative of the person, to the question to whom. E. g. Oyani niru, with relation to the parents, to be like, to resemble the parents. — Fitóni taisu, to stand opposite others. — Fitó-ni mono wo atavuru (pron. atquru), to concede or give anything to others.

f. Dative of the thing, to the question to what or to which, for which

¹⁾ The flower of Pharbitis Nil CHOIS, or Ipomoea Nil LINN.

the suffix to is used also. E. g. Kũváno miwo tanení (or tanetó) tórũ, to take mulberries for seed. — Máyuwo wáta ní tóru, to use cocoons for wadding. — Yuminí tsũkũruki, wood worked into bows. — Wáravá musironi oru bési, náva ni návu bési, fáki-mononi tsũkũrũ bési, with regard to straw (waravá), it can be woven into mats, it can be twisted into rope, it can be worked up into shoes. — Nami kaze mo tawoyakani nari, wind and waves become smoother. — Asiwo kirite sĩyókũ-mótsũni atavu besi, he will cut off his feet and give (them) for food.

g. Terminative, the direction whither, signifying to which (to what, to whom), provided the movement directed towards an object extends to within its limits or reach, distinguished from $\sim ve$ which properly answers rather to our wards. E. g. $Kaz \not e v \acute{a}$ nisi-katani kaváru, = the wind changes to (veers towards) the west side. — Yowo fini tsúgŭ, to continue the night to the day. — $Kaz \not e$ yámite (yande) fǔné kisini tsúkŭ, the wind lulls and the ship comes to the shore. — Fákŭsai yori Nipponni watárŭ, he passes from Fakusai to Japan. — Isini náru, to turn to stone.

V. To, >, to, Dutch tot, ter, German zu, a particle that denotes the inherency of a substantive in a predicate verb, which expresses a becoming or a making to, in general a working, which has an object for its apposition. Of such sort are the verbs nari, to become; nasi, to make; ivu, to be called, to name; nádsukuru, to name; miyu, to seem; kaku, to write, etc. E. g. Midsňkára toravare-fitó to nari, he becomes, of his own accord (to) a prisoner. — Májuwo ma-wata to nasu, people make (work up) cocoons to silk wadding. — N.va tori to késite tobiyuku, N. changes himself to a bird and flies away. — Fitó to ivu, to be called man; Fitó to ivu va (by syncope Fitó to vá), that which is called man, the so called man. To, serves as a sign of quotation. Vide Addenda I. V. Tote page 343, 190. n°. 20.

Nite, = \nearrow , in the spoken language, passing into nde, for which \nearrow (de) is written, characterises alike the Local and the Instrumental and is used, especially, when the predicate-verb does not follow it immediately, but is separated from it by the interposition of the subject or of the object direct. E. g. Kono sedonite sivo fayási, = in this strait the tide is rapid. — Kari-básinite kava wo watáru, to cross the river by means of a temporary bridge. — Komewo kárausň nite kómakáni kudáku, to stamp rice fine in a mortar. — Kňvá nite káviko wo yásinávu, to rear silk-worms with leaves. — Tamago nite siyau-zuru mono beings proceeding from eggs. — Fáku-sai-kókň niteva takawo Kutsin tó ívu, in

the country of $F\acute{a}ku$ -sai, the hawk is called Kutsin. — Aru kuniniteva kaviko-ami wo tsukavu nari, in a certain country the silk-worm net is used. — Morogosinite va, in China. — $\def{p} \not = \def{p} ,$ in the Middleland. — Kuni-guninite, in each country. — Te nite, with hands; Te nite no si-kata, gestures with hands. — Fasi nite fasámu, to take hold of with eating-sticks.

De, $\overline{\nearrow}$, contraction of ni+te and pronounced as nde, characterizes alike the relation of a. the Local and b. the Instrumental, but is only peculiar to the easy, spoken and written styles. Examples:

a. Miyakode, at Miyako. — Tsükino mótode avu, to meet under the moon (here below). — Yŭméno ŭtsi de ávu, to meet with in a dream. — Mŭmáno ŭyéde katamukeru, to sit awry on horseback. — Fánano sĭtáde mayóvu, wander among flowers. — Tsübamega yanagino fotoride mayovu, the swallow roams around willows. — Kŭsa nakade naku musi, insects chirping in the grass. — Ikkade dékimásŭ ka, in how many days can it happen, is it possible?

b. Fudede káku, to write with the pencil. — Iside ganwo tsňkňrň, to build a temple of (with) stone. — Tsiwo tside arávu, to wash off blood with (or in) blood. — Yótsň mňmáde fikaserň kurúma, a waggon drawn with four horses. — Sono ne de wa kaye masénň 1), with (for) that price it is not to sell. The spoken language of Yedo Changes de wa into dža (🗲 😙) according to the English writing ja french. gia V. § 109. II. 5.

Remark. 1. The book language generally expresses the Instrumental by ... wo motte (以美で・・・ラ), and uses for »to wash off blood with blood," the expression 以業 血 デ がまっている motte tsiwo aravu, = holding or using blood (with blood) to wash off blood.

Remark. 2. For the explanation of expressions belonging to the book-language, in schools and school-books the spoken-language is used, and this, whenever ni occurs in the book-language as a characteristic of the Local or of the Instrumental, generally substitutes de for it.

VI. ABLATIVE. Yori, Э) and kara, カラ(由。自。從), out of, from, indicate a movement in a direction from a place, in opposition to へ, ve, towards, or マラ, made, to, till. If the point of departure is a period of time, or an action, then yori and kara answer to our from . . to, from, since; after, afterwards.

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 3.

Examples. Firatoyori Nagasaki made san ziyu fátsi ri ári, from Firato to Nagasaki it is 38 ri (Japanese miles). — Inisivé yori (戶自事 書戶), from old times. — Fázǐmé yori, from the beginning. — Ima yori (戶自事 今戶), from now. 國之三到沒着之人日內可以 Kunini tau-tsiyakuno fi yori, from the day of the arrival in the country 1). — Fusi-yamava Wun-zenga takeyori takási, = Fusi-mountain is out of the peak of the warm springs high, i. e. the Fusi-mountain in higher than the peak of the Wunzen. — Korewá sore-yori takáku árimásu 2), = this from that out high is, i. e. this is higher, than that.

Yori, subordinated by means of no to another substantive: Kono misakiva okiyorino meáte nari, this cape is a mark (meáte) out of sea.

Kara, indicating rather the direction, from which any thing comes 3), as the German her, occurs in the written language seldom, and only in old compounds, as in Oki kara, out of sea, and is, rather peculiar to the spoken language. Kore kara (上上), thence, also therefore, for that reason (= kore ni yotte). — Sore kara, so with. — 見 本 切 ガ 有 アマスカラ 是 ラ ラ ナサン, Tehon-girega árimásň kara, korewo Goran-nasare 4), since (kara) there are patterns at hand (árimásň), please see this. — Age-masu kara uketori-gakiwó kudasare 5), after (kara) delivery (agemasu) please, give a receipt. — Kon-nitsiwa yohodo ósói kara 6), míyau-nítsi kahéri masíyoo, as (kara) to day it is too late (yohodo-ósói), I will come back to morrow.

Remark. Yori, verb continuative, derived from yi (#), to shoot, from which, among others ya, arrow, and yumi, bow, derive. (Kara seems to belong to the root, ki, come). Preceded by a local ni, yori, means to have its point of departure in; Kore-ni yoreri, from that flows forth. — Koreni yórité or yótte, in consequence of, therefore.

¹⁾ The Treaty between the Netherlands and Japan, I, § 5.

³⁾ _所從_來也. Wa-gun siwori, under Kara.

⁴⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 23.

⁵⁾ Ibid. p. 14.

²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 35.

⁶⁾ Ibid. p. 41.

CHAPTER II.

PRONOUNS.

- § 8. The Pronouns in Japanese are:
- I. Nouns which express a quality.
- II. Pronouns demonstrative, which point out something, either a person or thing according to its relation to the speaker.

They are all subject to the ordinary declension, and which the genitive suffix, no, are used as pronouns possessive.

The distinction of three grammatical persons (I, Thou, He) has remained foreign to the Japanese language 1). All the persons, that of the speaker (the I), as well as that to which or of which he speaks (Thou, He), are considered as contents of the proposition and thus, according to our peculiarity of language, in the third person, and etiquette, having in view the meaning of words expressive of quality, has to determine, which person, by one or another of these words is intended. Etiquette distinguishes only between the »I," and the »not-I," it abases the one, and exalts the other. Thus, it is the meaning, which in this sort of words comes first under notice, before the use, that etiquette makes of it, is indicated.

¹⁾ Therefore, as it will be seen hereafter, the verb has no conjugational suffixes, which tend to the expression of this distinction.

With respect to the use of the qualifying pronouns especially, the written or book language and the conversational differ from each other.

I. Qualifying nouns, which are used as pronouns, are,

A. For the »I":

Yátsŭ-kó (日学), prou. Yákko, = house-boy, valet, servant; belongs to the old written language. — Yátsŭ-káre (僕学ル), valet, your servant.

Yatsu-bara (奴 膂 , the valets, we subjects.

The Chinese 🗒 yū, Jap. gu, unintelligent, in compounds, as:

思⁷人=, Gu-nin, the unintelligent man, I.

思^グ者シ, Gu-ša, the unintelligent.

思^プ草*, Gu-sau, the unintelligent herb 1), the »I" of the Bonzes.

思 老 , Gu-rau, the unintelligent old man.

思っ心シ, Gu-sin, my heart.

- B. For the person spoken to, THOU:

Támi tomo ni nándziwó míru, the people look up to you together, or every one looks up to you. — Nándzi fitó ga me wo tsukéte óru, you have attracted the eyes of the people.

- 2. Imásĭ ($\mathcal{H}_{\stackrel{?}{>}}$), shortened másĭ, = present, leaves it uncertain, whether a person speaks to his betters or inferiors. \cancel{E} $\cancel{\Gamma}$.
- 3. Sáma (蒙幸。 读幸。), vulgo San, = the look, appearance, shape, e. g. Minátonó sáma yósi, the shape of the harbour is beautiful, the harbour looks well, was, originally, as a characteristic of modesty, applied by the speaker to himself; since the middle ages, however, conceded to a person beyond the speaker, it is now generally used as an expression of respect and at present answers to our »Sir, Mister." It is subjoined to nouns and pronouns.
- 4. Kimi (君常), Sir, Mister; Kimi-sama (君意 様常), vulgo Kimi-san = honour, lordship. N. N. kimi-samaye, to Mr. NN.
 - 5. Te-maye (手^方前式), vulgo Te-mai, Te-mee, = at hand, indicates the per-

¹⁾ Corporal, only to vegetate from the example of the Lotusplant, but to make the spirit free, is the duty of the Buddhist's life; thence the clerical (Bonze) considers himself as an herb.

son spoken to. Plural Te-maye-tatsi, vulgo Te-mairá, Te-mee-tatsi. Te-máye-sáma, vulgo Te-máye-sán, the gentleman at hand (present), you, Sir; plur. Te-máye-sáma-gáta.

On, O ($(\begin{tabular}{c} \begin{tabular}{c} \be$

6. On, O (御**, abbreviated 南. 法. b. 次. (ち. ツ. ツ), as given by Japanese authors, an abbreviation of $+ \frac{\pi}{4}$ 60, 60ná, great, sublime, answers to our »His or Her Highness" referring to a prince; it is, however, prefixed to the names of things or matters that have reference to any person in honour, and applied by the speaker to all beyond himself, for which he wishes to make his respect known. Thus the presence of on or o before substantives and verbs, makes known, without the help of another pronoun, that the things or matters have reference to a person beyond the speaker. As a Japanese element on or o is compounded with Japanese words, e, g. O-Yedo, the princely Yedo. - O-kata, the honoured side, Your honour. - O-mi, the honoured body, Your-self - O-me, Your eye. — O-meni kakári-masyyoo, I shall appear before your eyes. — O-na, your name. — O-ide, your rise. — Yókü O-ide nasaré, may your rise happen = be welcome! — O-agári, your rise. O-agári nasaré, = may your rise happen, come on! - O-negái, your wish. O-negai-máse, may you wish, the common expression for »if you plase." — O-mise, let me see! — On-tádsuné, your inquiry. — Onbumi, your letter, etc.

In old-Japanese the place of On, O is filled by Mi, thence Mi-kado, sublime port; Mi-koto, Highness; Mi-yáma, chief mountain.

7. 很可可Go, the koye of O, is generally prefixed to Chinese words. It means princely," but from politeness is also used towards other persons beyond the speaker.

御 五, Go-won, your favour.

御 用 , Go-you, your use.

御 書之, Go-siyo, your writing.

御 ず 前 さ, Go-sen, before you, in your presence.

御 = 座 #, Go-za, sublime seat.

御 死 , Go-men, your permission.

御工管ラ, Go-ran, your look.

御 * 懇 * 意 1, Go-kon-i, your friendly feelings.

御 相 # 談 A, Go-squ-tan, your conversation.

御^{*}機^{*}嫌^ケ, Go ki-gen, your disposition.

8. O-máye, ŏ-máë (泊本 京文), vulgo ŏ-máĭ, from the honorary o and ma-ye or ma-ve, = look-wards, that is before, thus something that is present before the speaker, or as by him imagined present and honoured, = Your Honour. The lower classes of functionaries and small people call one another omae and omáe-sáma, omáesan.

Formerly by O-mae was meant the place before the prince; thence; Omaëve mairu, to step before the Emperor. Npr. II, 4, r.

9. 貴[‡], Ki, noble, honourable, = »you" in genuine Chinese compounds, as:

貴 * 國 z, Ki-kókŭ, your country.

貴 带 , Ki-fu, your town.

貴 縣 大, Ki-ken, your district.

貴 郡 , Ki-gun, your canton.

貴[†] 所^シ, Ki-siyo, ki-so, your place, your Excellency.

貴 辛 笔 Z, Ki-tákň, your house.

貴 黄 黄 t, Ki-gan, your face.

貴 面 *, Ki-men, your countenance.

貴 = 覽 , Ki-ran, your look.

貴 翰 h, Ki-kan, your pencil, your pen.

貴 * 札 **, Ki-zat, your letter.

貴 書之, Ki siyo, ki-so, your writing.

貴[†] 命^メ, Ki-mei, your command.

貴‡意↑, Ki-i, your will.

貴 意 , Ki-riyo, your care.

貴[‡] 報ⁿ, ^{*}, Ki-fau, ki-foo, your answer.

貴 * $\Delta_{\mathcal{I}}^{z}$, Ki-koo, ki-koo-sama, the noble Lord, your Lordship.

貴[‡] 殿^デ, Ki-den, your Excellency. Ki-den sama.

貴 邊 , Ki-fen, ki-hen, your side, your Excellency. Ki-fen-sama.

貴[‡] 方ⁿ, Ki-fau, ki-hoo, your side.

Ki-foo sama.

貴 * 樣 *, Ki-sama, your Honour.

10. 真, Son, worshipful, reverend, = »your" in Chinese compounds, as:

尊义君?, Son-kun, the worshipful gentleman, Sir.

尊ッ 公っ, Son-kou, the worshipful gentleman, your father.

尊ッ炎^フ, Son-fu, the worshipful father, your father.

尊》母**, Son-bo, your mother.

尊义客ⁿ, Son-kák, the worshipful guest,
my guest.

尊ッ草**, Son-squ, the worshipful herb, you, Bonze.

尊ッ體タ, Son-tai, your body, your person.

尊ッ骸ガ, Son-gai, your limbs.

尊义容3, Son-you, your appearance.

尊, 覽, Son-ran, your look.

尊义方心, Son-fau, the worshipful side.

草"札", Son-zat, your letter.

尊义書文, Son-siyo, son-so, your writing.

尊, 簡, Son-kan, your letter.

尊少翰为, Son-kan, your pencil, your pen.

尊ッ意「, Son-i, your will.

尊义 慮 , Son-riyo, your care.

尊义答为, Son-too, your answer.

尊,號力, Son-gau, your title.

真ッ下ゥ, Son-ka, that which is below

the worshipful; the »I" of the modest

speaker.

In proportion as any thing belongs to the speaker or to a person beyond him, it is frequently mentioned under different denominations, to express modesty on the one side, and respectful politeness on the other. As much is presumed on this abundance of names, and ample use is made of them, we may not entirely overlook them here. They occur in popular books under the title of »Particular names of human relations" (人》倫力之/異常名文Zin-rinno i-mǐyau).

One's own father (我 文 学) is:

家为 发7, Ka-fu.

家为君力, Ka-kun.

家カ大ダ人ジ, Ka-tai-zin.

Another's father (人上之/父子) is:

令と父ラ、Rei-fu.

嚴ケ君ク, Gen-kun.

老ラ大ダ人ジ, Rau-tai-zin.

尊"父", Son-fu.

One's own mother (我"母") is:

兹ジ母ボ, Zi-bo.

家 为 母 ボ, Ka-bo.

老章母*, Rau-bo.

One's own eldest brother

(我是兄子) is:

長女兄女, Tstyqu-kei.

家力兄女, Ka-kei.

阿 兄女, A-kei.

Another's mother 人に之/母ツis:

令と尊ツ, Rei-son.

令と堂々, Rei-dau.

北本堂祭, Fókű-dau.

Another's eldest brother

(人"之"兄") is:

会と兄ケ, Rei-kei.

難 + 兄 +, Nan-kei.

令、伯?, Rei-fákŭ.

元ケ芳公, Gen-jau.

長女公立, Tsiyau-kou.

One's own youngest brother

(我"弟下) is:

家^力弟ラ, Ka-tei.

阿 P 弟 F, A-tei.

阿了权艺, A-siyuk.

阿ァ仲产, A-tsiu.

舍》弟章, Siya-tei.

One's own son (我"子") is:

小ヤ子シ, Seo-si.

黒グ子シ, Gu-si.

痴 手子シ, Tsi-si.

One's own wife (我为妻》) is:

荆ヶ妻+, Kei-sai.

賤·妻+, Sen-sai.

內,助章, Nai-dziyo.

賤で室シ, Sen-sits.

One's own concubine (我只要刻 is:

小文妾t, Seo-seo.

荆ヶ妾で, Kei-seo.

側,室シ, Sókŭ-sits.

One's own country and town

(我で國ク郷サ) is:

山世縣方, San-ken.

賤世里", Sen-ri.

獎之里", Fei-ri.

里"間々, Ri-ken.

寒力鄉去, Kan-kiyau.

Another's youngest brother.

(人上之/弟*) is:

令と弟テ, Rei-tei.

貴 弟 克, Ki-tei.

難 * 弟 * , Nan-tei.

合と仲子, Rei-tsiu.

淑美弟ラ, Siyuk-tei.

Another's son (人と之/子ョ) is:

國²器⁺, Kok-ki.

令レ子シ、Rei-si.

秀シ子シ, Siu-si.

蘭之玉素, Ran-giyok.

掌文珠文, Siyau siyu.

Another's wife (人と之/妻ッ) is:

令、室シ, Rei-sits.

内ナ子シ, Nai-si.

內,相美, Nai-siyau.

細世君?, Sai-kun.

Another's concubine (人上之/妾刻is:

合い可力, Rei-ka.

令、寵素, Rei-tsiyou.

盛·籠盖, Sei-tsiyou.

Another's country and town

(人ピセノ國ク郷サ) is:

貴‡ 國 z, Ki-kokŭ.

仙 *(貴*)府7, Sen-fu or Ki-fu.

貴 縣 大, Ki-ken.

貴 郡で、Ki-gun.

錦节里", Kin-ri.

One's own dwelling place

(我,居#處言) is:

蝸っ含シ, Küva-sǐya.

蝸? 室シ, Kuva-sits.

矮了屋*, Wai-ókŭ.

犢,盧n, Tókŭ-ro.

寒力舍之, Kan-siya.

莆*室シ, Fou-sits.

(人片之/居#處計is:

Another's dwelling place

高力計了, Kau-iu.

甲力第六, Kau-tei.

華?第章, Kŭva-tei.

蘭ラ房水, Ran-bau.

佳^カ室シ, Ka-sits.

寸ス毫力, Sun-kau.

手之讀上, Sīyu-tókŭ.

柔が尺型, Ziu-séki.

尺º楷手, Seki-tsiyo.

思が翰力, Gu-kan.

Another's letter (人と之/ 釈美) is:

杂文 雲ウ, Da-un.

藻 静力, Sau-kan.

芳分札*, Fau-zat.

郇兰雲之, Styun-un.

華?翰办, Kuvá-kan.

II. Pronouns proper, which point out objects with distinction of the place they occupy in space. They are formed from adverbs of place. They are:

- 1. Wa (), pointing to the centre of space, therefore to the person speaking, to his »I."
- 2. A (), anywhere, elsewhere, indicates a place not sufficiently known beyond the speaker.
 - 3. Ka (力), there, indicates a definite, more distant place.
 - 4. Ko (), here, indicates a definite place in the neighbourhood.
- 5. Yo (3), yonder, indicates a place, which is beyond a place already defined, and serves to suggest the idea of other, Dutch ander, German der andere, äussere.
- 6. So (\mathcal{Y}) , so, indicates a place already mentioned or imagined as mentioned, and serves to form the reflective pronoun.
- 7. The interrogative elements Ta (汉) or To (卜), vulgo Da (汉) or Do (卜), and Itsu (イ ツ) or Idzu (イ ツ), answering to wh in who? which? what? where?" and to the Latin qu in wquis? quid?"—又 and 卜 is the written form occurring in old books, that now, in accordance with the pronunciation of the people,

is more generally superseded by \nearrow and \nearrow 1). The first form may perhaps be attributed to the inaccurary of writers and engravers.

a. To the immediate compounds with the root **Wa** (own, proper) belong: Wa-nusi ($\Xi^{\gamma} \stackrel{>}{\pm} \stackrel{>}{\star}$), proper master, the master, the master of the work-people.

Wa-dono (吾 殿), my or our master.

Wa-nami (吾) 僑;), the proper row, we.

Watákŭsi (我, 我), the »I," plural Watákŭsi-dómo, we, among people of fashion, and in the familiar language the ordinary pronoun for the first person. It is commonly abbreviated to Watáksi or Watáks, and Watákŭsivá to Watáksá, whereas the porter at Yédo says Wátski, Wási or Wáši, and the servant-girl Watási, Watái. Whoever does not wish to put himself on a footing with the last mentioned should, thus, use Watákŭsi.

About the meaning of $t\acute{a}k \breve{u}si$, the second element of this compound, the Japanese etymologists keep silence; likewise, our question directly proposed on that subject always remained unanswered. Referred to our private judgement, we now recognize this word as the $t\acute{a}ki$ (\mbed{x} , vulgo \mbed{x}), greedy, desirous, in use in the popular language, adv. $t\acute{a}k\ddot{u}$, whence the verb $t\acute{a}k\ddot{u}si$ to desire, to be greedy, is derived. Thus $Wa-t\acute{a}k\breve{u}si$ means self-love, egotism, and is tantamount to the ordinary Chinese compound \mbed{x} , self-love, egotism.

b. The remaining adverbs of place enter into immediate composition with words as 1) Ko(底²。所²), place, region, 2) Tsi(子), plural tsira(子ラ), way, tract, in the popular language also Tsutsi(沙子), province, etc. These compounds indicate a place or places, and are, as nouns, declinable.

1) Compounds with Ko (處"。所"):

Doko (何 吃 意), what place? — Doko no tsurugizo, whence this sword? — Doko ni or Doko de, at which place? at what place? — Doko vé or Doko yé, towards which place? whither? — Doko ye yákŭ ka, where is it going to? whither is it going?

Koko (此 " 處 "。此 " 所 "。爰 "。兹 "), this place, here. — Koko ni or Koko de wakáru, herein lies the difference. — Koko ni o'tté, herein.

Sŏkó (彼》處。其》所3), pron. sko, such a place, the place of which is

¹⁾ Wa-gun siwori, under Tare

spoken, or the place of something, pointed out, serving formerly to indicate the person spoken to; plural sokora (其》所言等意). — Sóko-móto, for ásökó-moto = the seat there, serves as pronoun for the person spoken to: Thou, You. — Sóko-móto naniwo kŭrásŭ zo? in the spoken language: Sóko-móto ikága O kŭrási nasáru, how do you do? literally: how do you let (the time) go round, how do you wind round? — Asöko, pron. áskó = of some where the quarter, any where. — Kásökó, vulgo kásikó (後度), = the place of there, that or yon place. — Doko kásikó, which quarter? — Koko kásikoni, at this and yon place, here and there yonder. — Kono yama yori kasikono yama ve útsuru, to remove from this mountain to yonder mountain.

Yoko, because it means »cross" is superseded by Yoso (外 3, 遠 3), another place, elsewhere. — Yosoye útsuru, to remove to elsewhere. — Yosoye ugokánu, not to remove to elsewhere, i.e. to stay firm at (or in) one's place.

Idzūkunzó, イグクシブ, originally Idzūkunizo, イグク=ブ, — old-Japanese Idzukonizo, イグコ=ブ, from the elements, of which it is composed, has the meaning of »at what place? where?", answers nevertheless to our »on what ground? why?" also, and with this meaning is ranked with Nan to site and Dousite 3). The force of Idzūkunzó appears most plainly in the Japanese translation of the Chinese expression following:

Kare idzŭkunzó korewo sirán? 4) = he there on what ground (why) 知 为 shall he know this?

The speaker's object here is, not to draw out an answer, but

¹⁾ See p. 68, line 8 from the bottom.

²⁾ MENCIUS (LEGGE, Chinese Classics, Vol. II, p. 18).

³⁾ See p. 85.

he will have it understood that he not only doubts the assertion, but even is convinced of the contrary: »one does not known it."

If the question proposed by Idzukunzó is affirmative, as in the instance quoted, the speaker has the negative contrary in view, if however it is negative, then the positive, as in the phrase:

Kau-miyau idzŭkunzo imáda firokarázu? Why should his fame not

高力 be spread everywhere?

The affirmative question 庸子 龍子 可享 平, Idsŭkunzó kanarán? = why shall that be possible? implies that the speaker is 加了 narán? = why shall that be possible? implies that the speaker is convinced, that it is impossible; the negative form: Idzikunzo kanarazáran? = why shall that not be possible?, is a consequence of the conviction, that it must indeed be done.

The Chinese characters, which are used to represent Idzŭkunzo are 艺篇. ヲ惡。ヲ烏。コ胡。ネ奚。タ曷。‡豊。言庸。言庸責証. Of the Japanese word only the termination nzo is mostly found added. These characters have the force indicated only, when they occupy a place before the verb of the predicate; at the end of a sentence, where some occur likewise, they imply a direct question.

2) Compounds with Tsi (道 *。地 *), way, place.

Do-tsi, which place? where? - Dotsira, which places? - Dotsiye, whither? -Dotsira yemó, whithersoever, to everywhere. — Dotsira karamó műkái-ávű, to meet each other from whatever places it may be (from all sides).

A-tsi (外 地 f), Atsira, elsewhere. — Ko-tsi (此 z 地 f), here. — Atsi kotsi or Otsi kotsi, Atsi kotsi to, plural Atsira kotsira, elsewhere and here, here and there.

So-tsi (其 为 方, old-Jap., his place, plural Sotsira, serves to indicate the person, of whom it is spoken. - Sotsira kotsira, those (the persons) there, and those here.

3) Compounds with Tsutsi.

Do-tsutsi, which place? - Do-tsutsive, whither? - Do-tsutsikara, whence?

c. The adverbs of place Ta (vulgo Da) and Wa with the genitive possessive termination #, ga (pron. nga), which is mostly, but improperly, written #, ka.

Tága, vulgo Dága, (pron. Da-nga), arisen, perhaps by syncope, from Tarega or Darega, whose. — Dága ĭyéka, whose house (is this)? — Dága awarémű-koto argu (or aroo), whose compassion will there be? who will have compassion?

Waga, pron. Wanga, own, my or his own, according as the subject of discourse, to which Waga refers, is the speaker or another person, - for distinction from Waka, young. - Wága kuni, own country, my or his native country. -我只朝京 Waga teô (or Waga tšoo), own realm, my or his, our realm. — Wága tyé, also contracted Wágiyé, own house. — Watáküsi vá wága tyé yé kayéru, I return home. — Kareva wóga tyéyé kayéru, he returns home. — Wága tsumá, one's own beloved, my wife. — Wágimóko, old-Jap. for Wága móko (吾如妹皇子), my little wife. — Wágakó (吾ァ子), own son. — Wága mi (我 身主), own body, one's own person, my person, - the »I" in a woman's mouth. -Wága tátsi, one's own station, we. - Wága tómo, ours. - Wága tómo de nai, they are not of ours. — Wága tómo-gára, one's own relations or clan, we. — Wága mămă, own authority, arbitrarily. - Wága mămăni (or de) wá nái, it is not arbitrary. -Wága rikutsu wó taténu, not to persist in one's perverse view. — Wága tăméni, for own behoof; I for my own sake, or he for his own sake. - Ware sorewo wágă mononí sitá, I have made that my own property. - Kare soréwó wága mononi sitá, he has made it his own property, he has appropriated it. - Waga mavení, = » before the I" of the subject of discourse, whether the speaker, or a being beyond him. - Kaviko sŏnŏ sékiwó sarázŭ, wíte, kŭvá mo waga maveni kitarebá, kúvů, the silkworm does not leave its mat, sitting still it eats, whenever food comes before it. - Waga de ni, with one's own hands.

d. Pronouns possessive.

By suffixing no, the adverbs of place become pronouns possessive; thus we have, Ano, Kano, Kono, Yono, Sono, Dono, Idzuno.

And fits (アノヒト), after the Yédo pronunciation: And his and And sto, a man of elsewhere, any one, he. — Ano onna (アノラシナ), a woman of elsewhere, she. — Ano fits tatsi, Ano fits gata, the men there, those people, they. — Ano káta (アノカタ), contracted Anáta (アナタ), the side of elsewhere, is used as a polite indication of the second person, thou (you); plural Anáta gáta. — Anáta dewá gozári-masénű; watákűsi zi-sinni itási-másíta, = it is not you; I have done it myself,

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Ada (アダ), pron. Anda, is used with the signification of other, opposed to Ware, I, Mino, own and Midzŭkára, self.

Kano kisi $(\pi/ + \nu)$, the bank (or shore) yonder, the other world. — Kano kata, you side. — Kano fitó, that man.

Kono yo (コノヨ), this world, this life. — Kono toki, this time, this hour. — Kono kata, this side, — with relation to time, since. — Kono aida, between there, meanwhile. — Kono yǔéni, for this cause, therefore. — 此 治 信 净 係 八, these articles.

Yono (ヨノ), without, on the outside, other, with reference to something that has been already mentioned. — Yono fitó (他う人片), another man, someone else; the same as Fökáno fitó (夕孝人片) or Bétsű(Bet)zin (別う人ご). — Yono ísǐyá, another physician than he, of whom it is question. — Sobáno ísǐya, an additional physician.

sŏnŏ (其岁), his, its.

Ano fitó sŏnŏ tokóro máde yŭkí-tsŭkú, he arrives at his place, he reaches his object. — Fitó bǐtó sŏnŏ sásidsŭmé wó fádzŭsánu, each one misses not his aim, = no one misses his aim. — Kun-si sŏnŏ kŭráiní so-sĭté okonávu, sono fókáwó negavázŭ, the nobleman acts according to his station, what is beyond that, he does not long for. — Sŏnŏmi, his body, himself. — Ayamatsiwó sono miní motomurŭ bési, men must seek for the fault in or with themselves. — Sŏnŏ tóki, or sŏnŏ sétsŭ (其》時景。其》節章, its time, such a period, the period of the act that has just been mentioned, then, there. — Sono fi (當日), that day, — Sono migíri (其初), that point of time. — Sono fen (其》是今。其记。其记), thereabouts. — Sono nótsǐ (其》後分。自》後分, thereafter. — Sono nýyé (其》上之。 由), or after the Yédo pronunciation: Sŏnŏ wwe, moreover, besides, also. — Sŏnŏ átó, behind that, thereafter, there upon. — Sono yǔéni, for that cause, so, therefore. — Sono ta va (其》他为 n), else, otherwise. — Sono toórini, thus.

Sono kata, contracted: Sŏnáta, his (or its) side, yon side, the familiar word for Nandzi, your Honour, you; vulgo Sónŏ fóo, Sŏnŏ hoo (其学方字), plural Sono fóo domo.—Sŏnŏ fóo tóri-tsŭkŭró ye, undertake it! = Nandzi kănăvé yo!

Sono moto (其》 許美) = you domicile or seat, for »you, ye." — Koko motoni (上於 茲之上美), at this place. — Kamino moto, seat of gods. — Fitó ga motoni, at the place where someone dwells. — Tsuku-yumino mikoto mikotonoriwo ukéte kŭdári-másŭ. Tsuini ŭké-motsino kamino motoni (許美) itári-tamavŭ, the god of the moon-bow receives the divine charge and descends. At length he

comes to the seat of the goddess of the harvest. — Sono moto motsi-kita, you have brought. — Kŭni-gŭni nite iro-iro no si-fqu ari; ono-ono sono yŏrósīkini sīta-gavu besi, in every country different ways of acting exist; people ought to keep to the best (yŏrósīki) of each (ono-ono-sono). — Ono-ono-sono bun wo u, = each gets his share. — Sono i ni makáse (上注文文), leave it to his pleasure.

Tá no or Tó no, commonly Dá no or Dó no (何笑), or Donna (何片), the interrogative which? what?

Dóno fǐtó, which (what) man? who? — Dóno tokóroni, at which place? where? — Dóno káta, or contracted Dónatá, which (what) side? where? — is at the same time used as the »who?", polite interrogative — Dónatáye yúků zo, whither, or to whom, are you going? — Dónatá ga anataní koréwo ŏsíye-másīta ká, who has taught you this? — Donna kotozo (何节 事意), which matter?

Dóno yau (何片樣力), pron. dono yóo, = which way? how? — Yóru do no yau na, how is the night?

In the popular language $Dono\ yau$ or Dóyau resolves into Doo, which is written F or F also F. Thence: $Douká\ (F F)$, pron. dóoká, $Douzó\ (F F)$), how? — $Dóu\ mó$, however. V. page 326. I. § 122. 1. — Ano koto $wá\ dou\ náttaká$, = the matter how is (it) become? what has become of the matter? — Ano fitóno $ná\ wá\ dou\ iiká$, = his name how is it called? what is his name? — Koréwa dou $tsikirité\ yókaróo\ ká$, = what concerns this, by what making will it be good, i. e. how will people have to make this?

Dou-si, = how to do? — Ka-yau-si (彼 * 様 * * * *), contracted Ka-si, Kbo-si, so to do. — Dóu-sǐté (何。何以。曷), = how doing? — Dou-sǐté makóto de nái to $iwareu\ zo$, = how could people say, that it is not true? — Waré dou-sǐte sómukau zó, how should I be against it?

Dou-sitá (an abbreviation (apocope) of Dóusitári), = how done? how? is used adjectively. — Dóusitá koto gá ári, what sort of matter? — Dóusitá koto zo, = what sort of matter? what matter?

e. Substantive pronouns.

By suffixing re the adverbs of place become substantive pronouns, which refer to something (whether person or thing, remains undetermined) as being present in a place. The termination re is indeed an abbreviation of are, which, by a mutation of sound, has arisen from ari, to be. The pronouns thus formed are declinable as every other noun, with the genitive termination no, are used as attributive adjectives, and, in this form, answer to our pronouns possessive

(*mine, thine"), they are, however, used as substantives also, in which case they, as every other noun, are declinable.

The substantive pronouns are:

1) Ware, アレ, the »I," understood as that which is in the midst, in the circle (wa), by which the person thinking or speaking supposes himself surrounded. The characters used for it are *我。 吾。「台。」 儂。 * 中。シ身。シ子。 言. The Mikado uses for »I" * 朕 Tsin, for which formerly Maro (麻 君 ²) was used, which word however has at present become an appellative of youth. The Tai-kun generally uses for »I" ** 余 or ** 子 (not to be confounded with 子). — Ware fitó (我了人片。** 自 ** 定), the I and another. — Ware ware wó wasúrǔ (吾? 定之我身), I forget the I, — I forget myself. — Kono kása va wareno nari (此 笠、我为人,), this hat is mine ¹).

Plural: Wáre-ware, Wáre-ware-dzŭré, Wárerá (我) 等 , Ware domo, we; Warerágá, ours.

Ware properly belongs to the book-language, nevertheless it is used in the conversational, when the speaker exalts his »I." Then it answers to our we.

2) Aré, アレ(彼。定), something that is some where, he, she, it, German er; plural Aré-are, Arera. Being short in matter it, just as »he or it," refers to something (person or thing) of which no case is made.

Arega hon, that one's book, his book. — Areva tare? = something what? i. e. what is it? who there? — Arewó mi-tái, I long to see him (or it).

In old-Japanese Are occurs, as a variation of Ware, I.

Aremé, = that there, also A-itsu and Ko-itsu, = that there and this here, or A-itsumé, Ko-itsumé are opprobrious terms.

Oré va fitó wo iyásimete ívu kotoba nari; kou-sei midzukára mó ívu. Oré is a word, with which one mentions another disrespectfully; in later times persons have applied it to themselves. — Furú-koto no basi.

- 3) Karé, カレ (夫。伊。渠), something that is there, he, she, it, that.
- 4) Koré, フレ, something that is here, this. (シ此。シ是。シ茲。シ之).

¹⁾ Here an ellips takes place, as the word Kasa, which belongs to Ware no also, is expressed but once. Comp. pag. 66, line 4 from the bottom.

Koréwa amari tsiisai (是之7 余元 小元 1), this is too small 1). — Koréwo motowó sírŭ tó iŭ, this is called knowing the foundation. — Are kore, that and this, those and these. — Korékara inŭrŭ, to go from here. — Koréni yótte (太皇之之), therefore. — Koréde yói, so far well, good so!

Plural: Kore-kore, Korera. — The isolated Korevá is often superseded by Kova (此 = 者"), and the attributive Koreno continually, by Kono. — Kova ao-fitó-kūsáno fazīméno oya nari, this is the progenitor of the human race. — Kono nedanwa ikūra si-másūká, the price (nedan) of this (article), how much is it? 2).

5) Sŏré, ソレ(夫。爾。其), something that is so, such. Plural soré-sore, so or such. — Sore kore (其之斯之), = such ones. — Sŏrěwá deki-másňka, can such happen? — Sŏrěvá nánidé gŏzárň, what is such? — Ware soréwó wágamono mi sǐtá, I have made such (or that) my property. — Sŏrěno tokinó fan yóri tsǔ-gǐnó tokiní itárň made, = from the half of such an hour till it comes to the next hour (till the next hour). — Sorení tsuité (京文 大之), concerning that. — Sore niwá oyóbi-masénň, = it comes not to such, such is unnecessary. — Soredénó yói, also so it is good, also that is good. — Soredéwa, kai-mašoo, so (this being so or then) I will buy it. — Soré kará ňyé, = from there upwards; in relation to time, earlier than, before. — Sore yórǐ mayé, = proceeding from there forwards, i. e. earlier than. . . . — Soreyórǐ simo, = proceeding from there downwards, i. e. afterwards, there upon (以後). — Soreyori kono kata (爾來), = proceeding from there on this side, i. e. since. — Soré-sorenó mŏnŏrá, things which are so or so. — Soré-sorení sĭtagátte, = according to the so or such, in proportion as it is so or so. The poet employs Sowo for Sore-wo, e. g. Sowo mireba, seing such.

If Soré happens to be at the beginning of a sentence as attributive definition (such) of a noun immediately following, then it reflects on that, which has previously been said of the same subject already; e.g.: Mention has been made of the historical commencement of Japan; after some general remarks the writer continues: Söré Nippon-gokŭva Tsiu-kwano tsiyöri figásini atárů yůvéni Nůtsů too so ívů, what concerns such country Japan, as it lies towards the east of the Central Blooming country (China), so it is called the Nitsůtoo (Nittoo) or country eastward of the sun. Evidently Sore is here, not as a mere expletive particle, but is of the same value, as the Latin relative qui at the beginning of a

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, pp. 2, 23, 24.

²⁾ Ibid. p. 34.

sentence such as: Quae contumelia non fregit eum sed erexit. (C. Nep. Themistocl-I. 3). In cases such as this, we supply the place of the reflective pronoun with the demonstrative, and the Japanese Soré Nippon gokŭ is equal to: this country Japan.

Sŏrégásĭ = such a man, formerly used only by princes as a modest indication of their own persons towards higher ¹), latterly it has come into vogue with inferior persons, and is used by them to speak modestly of themselves. It is taken for a amalgamation of Sorega nusi, Mister such a one, and is placed on a footing with the Chinese 某 or 人, = somebody, quidam ²).

- 6) Yore is not in use.
- 7) Tare, $\not\supset \mathcal{V}$, old language, now usually Dare, $\not\supset \mathcal{V}$ (誰。孰), = who? Lat. quis?—Dore, $\not\vdash \mathcal{V}$, which of many? By suffixing the emphatic particle $\not\supset zo$, is formed Dar'ezo, abbreviated Dazo, who? Darega, whose? (cujus?), is often superseded by Daga.

Kavá (= karevá) dáre (後点 能文), who is there? — Kavá-daré-tóki (= the who is there?-hour), the hour at which objects are still too faintly lighted, to be recognized well, the morning twilight. — Kavá-daré-bosi, the morning-star. — Sore wa dareno O ko de gozarimásŭka, what boy is that? vulgo: Arewa dareno ko daká (daká = de áruká). — Sŭmíre daréga taméni nivóvň, = the violet for whom does it smell? — Sŏkóni daréga árŭzó, who is there? — Daréga yókň sĭríte órň, who knows it well? — Kono fitówa daréde árň-másŭka, = this man who is he? = vulgo Ano fitówa (or Arewá) daré da ká (properly: daréde árŭká), who is he. — Nandzi va daréde árŭzó, who are you? — Darétó ŏnázi koto, with what identity? — Darétó fanási súrň, with whom to talk? — Darétó tomoní tomoní

Remark 1. The Japanese does not distinguish the interrogative sentence

¹⁾ In the Nippon woo dai itsi ran (39th Mikado, 10th year, 10th month), the Emperor's brother, addressed by him as Nandzi, calls himself Soregasi, whereas now every one speaks of Soregasigá káita fumi, = the letter written by me.

²⁾ Wa-gun siwori, under Soregasi.

from the affirmative by an altered order of words; the sentence who is it?" must, therefore, as wit" is the subject of discourse, be expressed by Soréwa daré de arimásŭ ká, and not, as in the Ban-gozen 1), II, 39 r. is the case, by Darega sore de arimásŭ ká.

Remark 2. The question, whether Dare, just as the Latin quis, with the signification of $\acute{a}r \breve{u}f it\acute{b}$, = somebody, is used as an indefinite pronoun, has been answered negatively by a literate Japanese 2).

Idzŭré, イ グレ (誰。孰。何), mostly イ ツ レ Itsure, who?, what?, which? — used rather in poetry and in the epistolary style, is superseded in the ordinary conversational language by dore, doko, dotsira or dou.

III. Determinative and reflective pronouns.

Self, determinative pronoun in I myself, he himself, reflective pronoun in myself, himself, herself, is expressed by

- A. 1. Onóre, = Individual; ŏnŏdzŭkárá, apart, by oneself.
- 2. Mi, = body, person; Midzūkára, personal; Waga-mi, = own body.
- 1. Onóre, オノレ(己(vulgo 已)身。躬), from onó, = single, and ore, = are (being), thus something that is single, single being, individual,—allied in sense to fitóri (= fitó + ori, being alone, single, alone); plur. onóredomo, onórera, also onóra (已等) in old Japanese.

¹⁾ 蠻語箋.

³⁾ Ka, an interrogative suffix.

²⁾ Mr. TSUDA SIN ITSIROO.

Onóre, used attributively (genitively), or objectively, refers to the subject as being itself the object of its action, and answers to; his own, himself. Examples:

Onóre fitóno oyáwo ŭyámavebá, Fitó mata onóregá oyáwo uyámavu.

Onoregá miwo tassentó hóssŭrebá, Mádzŭ ta-zin wo tásse-sĭméyó.

If an individual honors the parents of others, Then others honor the parents of the individual.

Will you improve yourself, First improve others.

¹⁾オノレ。寡なキ人に。諸な侯な自が稱なる。

Remark. If we have derived onore from ono and attributed to this the signification of one, the word ono-ono pleads for this conception, for ono-ono, as a repetition of ono, has the signification of one and one," i. e. each one, answers to the Chinese & kö, and is equal to Fito-bito, = man and man, i. e. each man, everyone. As derivatives from this ono, which, singly, is no longer in use, comes under notice: Onazīki (), not individual, i. e. identical.

Onore is frequently superseded by Ore $(\stackrel{*}{\square} ^{*})^{1})$, which some Japanese philologers consider an abbreviation of Onore.

2. Mi () body, person, understood as the concrete self, whereas the idea of self, when it is taken in opposition to all that does not belong to self, is indicated by Ware or Onóre — Miwo tatsuru mono, = one (mono) who makes his body stand, is one who makes the most of his person; Warewo tátsuru mono on the contrary, is one who places his I, his will, his interests on the foreground, and by which is, in general, understood a self-willed person. — Sono miwo usinavázu mono, is one who does not throw himself away, does not lose sight of his personal dignity; on the contrary Ware warewo wasurénă, I do not forget my I, do not lose sight of my own interest. — Kare onórewo wasurénă, he does not forget himself (his individual in opposition to others). — Onórewó homeru, = to praise oneself as an individual; miwo homeru, to praise one's own person.

Examples: Mi ten-kano ken-meiwó usinavázň (身章 不幸夫子下天了下堂之/題之名美), he himself (by his personal conduct) does not lose his brilliant name in the Empire 2). — Kun-si sono miwó fádzňkásťmezň, the noble man brings no disgrace upon himself. — Miwo ŏsáműrň yuénwo sirebá, sunavátsi futó wó ŏsámuru yuénwo sirň, if one knows the way to rule oneself, then one knows the way to rule others. — Miwó m'máni makásěté nűgé-sárinu, yielding himself to the horse, he escapes.

Wága-miwo uru, to sell his own body (himself); said of girls who prostitute themselves for hire. — Wága-miwo yásuméru, to let one's own body rest, to allow oneself rest. — Wága deni wága-miwo wáruu súru mono, one who deforms himself with his own hand.

^{1,} See p. 86.

²⁾ Techung-yung, Cap. XVIII, § 2.

Women use Waga-mi and Mi, plural Midomo, for I. — Midomoga m'aitta toki, when we have come — at the thime of our coming 1).

Mi-mi (御 z 身 z), = Highness' self, in old Japanese the self of illustrious persons, e. g. Kono fǔtá fasirano kami mo . . . mi-miwo kákusi-tamaviki, also both these gods kept their sublime persons (themselves) concealed.

Midzu kără, ミッカラ, compounded of mi (body), dzu (piece, i. e. something that, as a part of a whole, exists apart for itself, so that mi-dzu, means a separate something that is body) and kara (from), answers to our of itself, from itself. It is expressed by the Chinese characters 自。自然。身自。躬。親。化來。

Remark. As the Japanese etymologists do not satisfactorily explain this word, as they leave the dzu unnoticed, we must explain the derivation given here. We acknowledge now, and that for the first time, dzu, — to be distinguished from the genitive termination tsu, — to be the same suffix, that, added to the radical numbers (fitó, futá, = one, two), forms of them proportional numerals, (thus: fitó-dzu, futá-dzu, = single, double, simplus, duplus), and which, by means of repetition, used in the form of dzu-dzu, gives to these numbers the character of distributives: fitó-dzu-dzu, futá-dzu-dzu, = singuli, bini, one at a time, in couples. Whereas now in mi-kara (= from a body) the idea of body is taken quite generally, and only opposed to something else, midzu-kara, refers to a separate body, to a separate person (opposed to all other persons).

By means of the same derivative elements (グカラ), from Te (テ), hand, and Kokóro (コ・ロ), heart, will, are formed the words Te-dzŭ-kara (手自。手親), = from a separate hand, i. e. with one's own hand, and Kokóro-dzŭ kara (心言 アカラ), from a separate heart, i. e. spontaneous (from one's own free movement).

According to its form $Midz \check{u}kara$ is originally an adverbial definition (= of itself), and as such not susceptible of declension; e.g. $Midz \check{u}k\acute{a}r\check{a}$ tor $\check{a}v\acute{a}re$ fito to $n\acute{a}ri$, he becomes a prisoner of himself, he surrenders himself a prisoner. — $T\acute{e}dz \check{u}-k\acute{a}ra$ $k\check{u}v\acute{a}wo$ $t\acute{o}r\check{u}$, to pluck feeding leaves of mulberry trees with one's own hands.

Sibi
$$=$$
 $Mini$, ni , ni
Se $=$ $Miwo$, wo , wo .

¹⁾ The words given in RODRIGUEZ Élémens, pp. 11 and 80 ought, for the correction of typical errors, to be reduced to the forms: Sui = Mino, Waga-mino, Ware-tomono

Midzukara also occurs there with the inflectional terminations no, ni and no, although in original texts it is always undeclined.

However it is also used (in the quality of subject or of object), for I myself or he himself, and for they themselves.

Midsūkara is used as subject, whenever another object is mentioned before the verb of the predicate; e. g.: Midzūkara omóvákūva fakári-kotowo yetári, he has himself, as he thinks, attained what he intended. — Midzūkara is also characterized as the subject in the proverb:

Ta-nin no ŭréi wó míte vá, sunavátsi midzŭkara tomoni urécŭ bési, 見美 見美 lf one sees another's grief, then one must oneself be grieved with him.

As object (= himself), on the contrary, Midzŭkara is used, whenever it is immediately followed by a transitive verb; e. g. Mina mídzŭkara akirákani sŭrŭ nári (皆自明也)」, all (these sayings) mean: to enlighten oneself. — Midzŭkara azámuku (自欺)²), to deceive oneself, self-deception. — M. osámŭrŭ (自修)³), to cultivate oneself, self-culture. — M. óru, to stand on oneself (to rely on oneself). — M. kokóromű, to take the proof of oneself. — M. yomín-sŭrŭ mono (自好者), one who is fond of himself. — M. itamű, self-torture.

Onódzŭkara (オノヅカラ。自。自然。已デカラ。化來), = from individual, from oneself, of self, Lat. sponte. What has been said of Midzw-kara, is, with regard to its adverbial character, applicable to Onodzwkara also.

Onodzňkárá kuru-kuru to mavárň mono, things turning themselves, having their own revolution. — O. maukérň fitó, one who, of his own accord, immigrates. — O. náru kotowáriwo miyo! behold reasons, which are self-evident!

B. As Chinese expressions of the determinative and reflective pronoun self are in use:

- 1. 身艺, Sin, body, self, opposed to 人艺, zin, others.
- 2. 自步身之, Zi-sin, often pronounced as dzi-sin, own body or person.—
 Zi-sinwo aisŭrŭ fitó, one who loves his own body, i. e. who is fond of ease, the same as Sono miwo aisŭrŭ fitó.— Watáküsi zi-sinui itásimásita, I have done it in my own person (myself).— Anáta Go-dzi-sinui (御 自 身之二) itásimásita, = You have done it in your Honor's own person.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, I, 4.

- 3. 自步分之, Zi-bun, = own part, his part. Zi-bun wo mi-sutéru mono, one, who loses sight of himself, his interest. Zi-bunni suwátte órŭ, = midzu-kara órŭ, to be substantive. Zi-bunno sai-kuwo suru, to do one's own work. Zi-bunno mono to naru, to become property.
- 4. 自步然美, Zi-zen (by some pronounced as dzi-zen), also zi-nen, = being of self, original, natural, unworked. Zi-zenni, or zi-zento, = Lat. sponte. Sore fitóno tsi-áruvá zi-zen nari, that this human understanding is there, is a something natural. Yámanó ňyéni zi-zenno fo ári, on the mountain there is a natural fire. Yuméni zi-zenni mírň, to see something in a dream, of oneself (involuntarily). 自步然美生美术, to exist of itself (spontaneous existence).

Besides these, there occur many more expressions compounded with $\not\equiv$ ", zi (self), in which zi, at one time, has the meaning of "own," then of "self." In the former case it stands adjectively before a substantive, in the latter objectively before a transitive verb.

自^少, zi, enters adjectively into compounds, as:

自ジ 國 ラ, own country.

自ジ家ガ, own house.

自》身艺, own body, self.

自步已3, own person.

自ジ已コ流岁, own clan.

自ジ 躰冬, own person.

自ジカ[‡], own strength.

自"性美, own disposition.

自ジ儘艺, own whim.

自ジ業プ, own trade.

自^ジ作ち, own fabric.

自"筆声, own pencil.

自》画写, own drawing.

自ジ 間き, own question.

自"答多, own answer.

自"慢了, own neglect.

自ジ 炊菜, own boiling.

自ジ得ら, own interest.

Zi is objective to the verb in standard compounds as:

自步 愛了, self-love.

自^ジ 賛^サ, self-praise.

自 * 在 * , self-existence.

自^ジ 頁^フ, self-confidence.

自ジ 縛び, self-bondage.

自シ稱素, self-nomination.

自ジ棄*, self-prostitution.

自ジ 害才, self-injury.

自ジ 賣习, self-sale.

自ジ殺サ, self-murder.

自》盡艺, self-destruction.

自ジ减多, self-annihilation.

These compounds by suffixing the verb si, su, suru (to do), can be changed to verbs, as Zi-fits-suru, to write with one's own hand; Zi-san-suru, to praise oneself.

IV. Expressions of reciprocity.

The reciprocity of an action is expressed in Japanese not by pronouns, but by the adverbial (modal) definition Tägávǐní (スガヒニ, pronounced tǎ-ngáini, 五之二。送。透), or Ai-tǎgáini (アヒタガヒニ), = reciprocal, or also by the verb Avi (アヒ), vulgo Ai (アイ). The last means » meet each other" and signifies, whenever it is prefixed to another verb, that the action takes place reciprocally or mutually. The meaning of Tagai, is generally explained by $Kare\ kore$, this and that; $Atsi\ kotsi$, here and there; $Ware\ fito$, self and another.

Remark. Japanese etymologists 1) ascribe to Tagavi the meaning of F^{2} K_{1} , F_{2} , F_{3} , F_{4} , F_{4} changing of hands, by which nevertheless the change of the k to the troubled g (= ng) is not explained. To be able to give a reason for this, we think we must consider F_{3} as a fusion of F_{4} mukávi, F_{4} meeting of (or with) the hands, as this takes place in weaving when the shuttle is thrown with one hand and caught up with the other. We, thus, see in F_{4} see in F_{4} fusion of the F_{4} mukhasi (pron. F_{4} - F_{4} - F_{4} fusion of F_{4} - F_{4} - F_{4} fusion of F_{4} - F_{4} -

Examples: 豆菜= 二為之賓芝工芝士, Tagáini fin-zǐyutó náru²), by turns he becomes guest and host. — Tǎgávǐní nǐkúmň, hate each other. — Tǎgávǐní miru, see each other, meet. — Kwan-nin ǐdé-mǔkávi, Fokkin yorino okuri-fǐtó tó tǎgávǐni ai-sátsǔ tamávǐkí, Mandarins came out of (the town) to meet, and exchanged welcome-greetings with the people sent from Pekking.

Avi-nitaru mono (相文 似意 物文), things resembling one another. — Aviútsŭ, strike each other, come to blows. — Avi-siru, know one another. — Avikatárŭ, converse (speak together). — Avi-tagaini (相文 五章), reciprocal.

V. Pronouns Indefinite.

In Japanese, if the subject of a proposition is indefinite, it remains unex-

¹⁾ Wa-gun siwori. 2) MENCIUS (LEGGE, Chinese classics, Book V. Pt. II. Ch. III. § 5.)

pressed; there, propositions without subjects are something very common. Our idioms do not permit this, and having to represent the subject of a proposition by a pronoun indifinite, in such sentences we make use of our »one" (people) or »it."

Besides, for our »one," in a more definite sense are also found Fitó, man, and Arŭ-fitó, = some person, e. g. Fitóga árŭyá (大方人大於), is there anybody? — Fitóga nandziwo tóvň, someone asks for you. — Fitóga árite (or atte) O meni kakári tási, there is somebody, who wishes to appear before you.

»Something" or »anything" is expressed by Mono, which »thing," means, however it is also applied to living beings. — Korewo káku mono (書方之う者が) is »a this-writing-individual," some one who writes this, distinguished from Kaki-mono, = a written something, a writing (文牒), and from Mono-kaki, = a something writing, a writer, = Fumi-bǐtó (史). In Kaki-mono, mono, has the signification of thing or something and is defined by the verbal root Kaki as, something written; in Mono-kaki, mono is the objective definition to the same verbal root.

Nani, = what? is also used as our »somewhat," with the signification of »something."

If by »nothing" is intended something without contents or substance, it is expressed by the noun-substantive Nai, = something of no value; e. g. Fitówo nai ga sironi su, to consider anyone as worth nothing.

Our »nobody," when no particular accent falls upon it, is superseded by »somebody" with the negative form of the verb connected with it, the negative (»not") being thus taken from the noun or pronoun and incorporated in the termination of the verb. — Fitoga ari-másň, there is somebody. — Fitoga ári-masénň, in the written language Fito nasi (AF), somebody is-there-not, = there is nobody.

If, however, it is wished to bring out "nobody" and "nothing" with emphasis, the expressions which signify "whoever, whatever," are used in connection with a negative verb.

Dare korewo siránu means: who does not know this? (siránu, verb negative = not know). — Daremó korewo siránu, whoever (who it may be) knows not this, nobody knows it. — Kare naniwo sénu, = what does he not? — Kare nani mo sénu, = he does not whatever it may be, i. e. he does nothing. — Doko ni mo arázu, wherever not to be, = to be no where.

Consequently the instance, cited in the Elements of Japanese Grammar, Shang-hai 1861, page. 23, Dare mo kokoni kimasinanda, will mean: whoever has not come here," and not wnobody here come (honorific) has not." We are not at liberty to assign to Dare mo the meaning of Nobody, and to overlook, that in Japanese the negation of a negation is equal to a confirmed assertion.

VI. Relative pronouns are wanting, because the Japanese, having no relative clauses, substitute for them adjective clauses, which precede the word, to which they refer. Instead of *the man, who is present," an expression is used, answering to *the present man" (Arn fito); instead of *the town, which the enemy has sacked," — *of the enemy-to have-sacked-town."

In such cases, moreover, the substantive Tokóro (所。所。所。所), = place, is also used to intimate the passive something.

Tsŭkúru koto is the fabricating, the fabrication;

Tsŭkúru mono, a fabricating being;

Tsakúru fitó, a fabricating man, one who fabricates;

Tsăkúru tokóro, the place of fabrication;

Fitó no tsükúru tokóro no mono is something (mono) of a man's (fitó no) fabricating- (tsükúrŭ-) place (tokóro no), i. e. something that somebody fabricates. — Inísiye yóri motsíyürű tokóro no nen-gau is a year-name (nen-gau) of a place, where (not which) one from ancient times has used, i. e. a year-name used from ancient times.

Thus we, although the Japanese philologers do not do so, give to *Tokóro*, in that position also, in which it seems to do the work of a pronoun relative, its proper signification, namely that of »place."

In the Syntax this construction will be treated again.

VII. Interrogative pronouns.

In the previous pages, treating of the formation of the pronouns, those, of which the interrogative elements Ta or To, vulgo Da or Do, and Itsu, vulgo Idzu are the foundation, have already been explained. To embrace them in one glance, they are:

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Dáno, which? p. 85. Doko, where? p. 80. Idzuku,
                                                    where?
                                                                    p. 81.
Dare, who?
                 88. Dotsi, »
                                     82. Idzŭkunká,
                     Dotsira, »
Darega, whose?
                                          Idzŭkunzó*), on what ground?
                     Dotsutsi, »
                                             how?
Daga,
      >>
                                     >
                                                                       >
Dazo, who?
                 » Dóno, which?
                                     85. Idzure, who, which?
                                                                       89.
Darenoka, whose? »
                   Donna, »
                                         Idzarenó, whose?
                                      >>
                                                                      >>
                                             *) Zo is an emphatic suffix.
Darenozo*), »
                   Dónata, who?
                     Dono yau, how? ».
                     Doyou, dou, »
                     Dousite,
                     Dore, which?
                                     87.
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Besides these are still Nani, what? and Ika, how?, which from the important part they play, deserve an acquaintance more than superficial 1), whereas Iku, how much?, as being related to the numerals, will be treated of with them.

1. Nani, 十二(何), abbreviated Nan, 十之, obsolete Nam, 十人, plural Nan ra (何等), what? which? Lat. quid? quod? It is used both substantively, and adjectively, and very often strengthened by an interrogative suffix, ka or by the emphatic zo.

Substantively, with the meaning of »what?", Nani occurs in expressions as: Naniwo yerabi másüká?, what do you choose? — Naniwo tóvu ká?, after what do you ask? — Naniwo nandziga motomuru yá?, what do you seek? — Naniwo O kai nasáru ká?, what do you buy? 2). — Naniwo motte?, wherewith? whereby? — 何景以美元 大学 一 灵 , Naniwo motte waga kuniwo ri-sen, wherewith shall I advantage my empire? — Nanigá ári-mâsüká?, what is there at hand? 4). — Korewa nanini motsii-masüka?, what is the use of this? — Soreva nanini yoika?, for what is such good?

¹⁾ The greatest stumbling-blocks in oral intercourse with the Japanese, are the interrogatives (we understand by the term every word, by which inquiry after anything is made), and the ways of using them. Uncertainty in that respect brings about misunderstanding on both sides; one answers to what the other has not asked; and the speakers, weary of the continual deviating answers, probably end by thinking each other reserved, if not by suspecting each other of a want of understanding. With a view to this, the interrogative pronouns, and the combinations formed with them are here treated of with the diffusiveness required.

²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 2. 3) MENCIUS (LEGGE, Chinese Classics, II. Book I. Pt. I. Ch. I. § 4).

^{4) &}quot; p. 2.

Nani to, = to what, whereto, as appositive definition 1). — Anátano O na va nanito ii-masüka?, = your name what (how) is it called?, what is your name? 2).

Nanito zo ($\overleftarrow{\mathfrak{h}} \stackrel{\dot{\tau}}{=} \overset{\star}{\mathfrak{P}}$), for Nanito ivu zo, what says it?, supersedes, like doozo, our »if your please."

Nanito te, also ナドラ, Na-ndote, from Nanitó sǐté, = to what?, tending, whereto? wherefore? — Nanitote koréwo itásimásĭtaka, to what end have you done this? Nande, ナンデ、何以, why?

Nani yori (於青何生), Nani kara (自多何生), = of what?, whereof?
Nani ni yotte (何生由量。 綠葉底生), = on what ground?, whence? — 何生由量 知》 吾是可力 19也3), Nani ni yotte waga kanáru-koto wo siran?
on what ground, (how) do you know that I am able for that?

Nazeni, from nan-se-ni, = for what? to do, why? — Nazeni sorewo sezuni árňka?, why does not one such? — Nazeni O agári nasaránňka? = why does not your rise happen?, i. e. why do you refuse? 4).

Nani-sini, Nani-sini ká, variation of Nazeni, why? — Nan sore zo, properly Nansurezo, how doing, on account of which, why? 何為.

無い 大力 王子 Wau mosi korewo yositoseba, sunavatsi nansurezo okonava-本元 則子 如き zaru 5), if the king considers this as good, why does not 行力 何ナー 善い Nanizo (ナニン。何). abbreviated Nanzo (ナンソ) also

The Nanizo (ナニゾ。何), abbreviated Nanzo (ナンゾ), also Na-nzo (ナゾ), how? in what way, for what reason? — occurs also as a mere characteristic of a direct question. — 王ヶ何テロス 利力の, Wau nanzo riwo ivan. = the king, why does he mention the word advantage? — 何テロス 酸乳 也 7), Nanzo faisu beken, how can one abolish (such)? — 牛麦羊菜 何テ 撰美 焉 3). Giu yau nanzo eraban, why to choose between ox and

¹⁾ See page 70, V. 2) Shopping-Dialogues, p. 19.

³⁾ MENCIUS (LEGGE, Chinese Classics, vol. I, p. 15.) 4) " p. 21.

^{5) ,,} Ch. V. § 4. 6) MENCIUS (LEGGE, Vol. II. Book I. Pt. I. Ch. I. § 3).

^{7) ,,} Ch. VII. § 4. 8) Ibid. Ch. VII. § 7.

goat? — Nanzo O kini iri-másu monoga gozárī-másŭ, is there anything that pleases you? — "盍," 反,其,人本。矣」), Nanzo sono motoni kaverazáru, why not return to the foundation?

Nanzoya, ナンブヤ, obsolete ナブヤ。何也。何如, = how is this, how does it happen? as predicate closing the sentence, and preceded by a subjective clause.

多素 民意 Tami ohokikotowo kuvavezaruva nanzoya 2), that the people does not increase its number, how is this?

「 Nazo-nazo, = how? how?, riddles.

Nani naru 3), = what? being. — Nani naru mono, or koto, what thing, or what matter?

Nanino, nanno, adjectively what? in the expressions: Nanino fi (何 中日 中), what day? vulgo itsu. — Nanino kókǔ (何 亨 刻 弓), what hour? — 是己誠言=何 が 心言が哉 *4), Kore makotoni nanno kokorozoya, what was really (my) opinion concerning that?

Nani-gasi (何意某意), after Jap. etymologists from Naniga nusi, = where-of? master, what somebody, now in use only with the signification of the indefinite pronoun »any-(some-)one" (某) and applied by the speaker to himself. Compare Sore gasi, p. 88.

Combinations with Nan (ナン) are: Nan-nen (何 た 年 き), wich year? — Nan-guwats' (何 こ月 美), which month? — Nan-doki (何 こ 時 ‡), which (what)

¹⁾ MENCIUS (ibid. Ch. VII. § 23.)

²⁾ Ibid. (Ch. II. § 1).

³⁾ Not Naniru,

⁴⁾ Ch. VII. § 7.

time? what hour? — Nan-doki-goroni (何 节 時 章 頁章), against what time? '). — Nan-dan (何 节 段 多), which pieces? — Kono iroga nan-dan árīmásūka? '), what (how many) pieces are there of that color? — Nan-gin? ') (何 节 斤 节), how many pounds?

Nani, Nanzo occur also with the signification of the indefinite pronoun any-(some)-thing." — Nandzivá sono kotoni tsuité nanzo kikite óraká, have you heard anything about that matter?

2. Iká, イカ (如何。云何), how?

Current combinations with *ká are:

Ika-mono (何分者引), what thing.

Ika-sama, vulgo Ika-yau, Ika-yoo (何分 於文。何 方), which way. — Ika-yauni, in what way, how. — Ika-yaunimo, however. — Ika-yauni nárǔ tomo, however it may be. — Ika-yau nárǔ mono, what sort of thing. — Ika-yau naru mono nite mo, what sort of being or thing it may be, who or whatever. — Ika-yauna koto de mo sárǔ, do whatever thing it may be, do every thing.

Ika-fodo (何分 程本), quantity. — Ika-fodoka, how much? — Ika-fodono tsikára, how much power. — Ika-fodono aida, = how much interspace, how long? — Sorewo iká-fodoni uruya, for how much is such sold? — Ika-fodo ooku tomo, however much? how much soever?

Tka-bakari, how yet (still). — Sono kotowo ika-bakari kuvinka, how will people yet (still) be sorry for that.

Ika-naru, how being, of what sort. — Ika-naru kotozo, what sort of thing? — Sokóni ika-naru fitózo, what sort of man is there? — Ika-naru sei-meizo, what (is your) name?

The modal terminations of Ika are: Ikani, イカニ, — Ikanika, イカニカ, — Ikanizo, イカニブ, abbreviated Ikan, イカン, — Ikanzo イカンブ, or even Ikade, イカデ (pronounce Ika-nde, イカデカ, Ikadeka, Ika-ndeka, how? Lat. quomodo.

Sore va ikan? = such — how? how is such? According to the rule of the Japanese arrangement of words ikan, as predicate, follows soreva as subject '). The subject may also be a subjective clause, e.g... aru vá ikani, how does it happen, that there... is? — Ikade (vulgo doude) iraserare másūká, how goes it? — Ikade arazaran, how should there not be, why not?

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 17.

³⁾ Ibid. p. 11.

²⁾ Ibid. p. 35.

⁴⁾ See Introduction, p. 44, 15, A.

Tkága, イカガ, pronounce řká-nga (如何。云何), how?, probably a fusion of iká řka. — Ikága On watári sorooya, = how is your passage?, how do you do? — Sokó-moto řkága O kurásizo?, = how do you let (the time) go round? how do you do? — Ikága sen, how will one do (anything)? — Ikága náru (or Ikága ná) koto, what matter? — Ikága nó obósímésízo, what opinion? what do you think?

Interrogative pronouns with the suffix mo.

Connected with the suffix mo, \mathcal{T} (= also, Latin que, cunque), the interrogative pronouns embrace all that is comprehended in the interrogative as individuals together. Dare mó, the same as quicunque, whoever, everyone that may be reckoned under Dare or qui.

If the interrogative is joined to a substantive, mo is placed after it, and if it is declined, after the inflectional termination. — Idzŭreno ya mo karató ívŭ bésĭ, every arrow may be called kara (shaft). — Dokonimó or Dokodémó, wherever, everywhere.

Instead of mo, temo (\mathcal{F}) is often used; e.g. Darétemó sono ziwo hŏmétărĭ, = whoever it may be (everyone) has praised this poem. — Idzŭreno tosini temo, in whatever year it may be: temo having, by apheresis, arisen from sĭté mo (= also is), whereas to te mo in expressions as Nani to te mo, = whatever people (may think or say), is the same as an ellipsis, being the verb that means think or say, and that governs the apposition of characterized by to (nanito), not expressed itself, but only indicated by the termination te. Nani to te mo, thus stands elliptically for Nanito iyu te mo of characterized by the called or be. An abbreviation of which is Nanitomo, Nántomo. — Nánto omovuka, what do people think of it? Nántomo omovánu, people think nothing of it, people do not trouble themselves about it.

VIII. Arrangement of the personal pronouns in the conversational language.

The choice of the words, which are used in the oral intercourse as pronouns, is not indifferent, but it is prescribed by etiquette. From our own experience, if after an intercourse of more than two years with Japanese we may speak of it, and from the information given by a learned Japanese gentleman 3)

¹⁾ Compare p. 70, V.

²⁾ Wa-gun siwori.

³⁾ Mr. TSUDA SIN ITSIROO.

the following expressions, used as pronouns, enter into the conversational language.

1. For. I.

- 1) The humblest expression is Te-máe, plural Te-máe-tátsi, in the popular tongue of Yédo which frequently changes a to e, Temée. = at hand, i. e. that which is at hand or present to the person opposite.
- 2) Watákŭsi, plural Watákŭsi-domo, a modest, and, in confidential intercourse, most usual expression. Every respectable man speaks of himself thus; and the man of the people at Yédo says for it Waši (waschi).
- 3) Oré, plural Oréra, in the Yédo-dialect Oira, after the mention on page 86 supported by a quotation from the Dictionary of the old-Japanese language, a self-humiliating expression, is now considered as one of pride at Yédo.
- 4) Ware, plural Warera, the »I" and »We" in the mouth of a prince, when he speaks to his people.
 - 2. For the person spoken to, THOU, YOU, YE.
- 1) Ware, plural Warera, the most humiliating expression, which is applied only to low people. Probably confounded with Are?
- 2) Te-mae, the same as given above for »I," is fit for subordinate persons and servants, and answers to the well known German »Er" and »sie."
- 3) Temáe-sáma, plural Temáe-sáma-gata, is equal to You, Sir, You, gentlemen, used by a person of quality towards those somewhat below him.
- 4) O-máĕ, in the Yédo-dialect Omée, plural O-máĕ-gata, in use among the middle class.
- 5) O-máĕ-sáma, = Your Honor, more periphrastical and consequently more solemn than O-máĕ.
- 6) Anáta, plural Anáta-gáta, used, with preference, by polite people towards their equals 1).
- Anáta-sáma, plural Anáta-sáma-gáta, is expressive of the greatest respect towards the person addressed.
 - 3. For the person spoken of, HE.
- 1) Are, plural Arera, is put down for disrespectful.

¹⁾ The members of the first Japanese embassy, which came to Europe in 1862, and to which the author was appointed as one of a committee by his Government, generally used Andta mutually.

- 2) Ano mono, = that person there, characterizes the person spoken of as a mere object (mono), deserving of no respect.
- Ano fitó, plural Ano fitó-gata, polite indication of one's equals. One officer
 or functionary speaking of another intimates him by Ano fitó.
- 4) Ano O fitó, plural Ano O fitó-gata, somewhat more stately, is used when the person spoken of is related to the person spoken to.
- 5) Ano kata, plural Ano kata-gata, = the side there, and Kono kata, = the side here, looking from the person, and only indicating the direction, in which he is, both belong as our Your Honor, to the very respectful expressions.
- 6) Ano O kata, plural Ano O kata-gata, is indicative of the highest respect.

The above arrangement of the pronouns of the conversational language agreeing, in general, with that adopted by R. ALCOCK in his *Elements of Japanese Grammar*, page 21, contains, however, a few deviations which, the reader will please to observe, rest upon the authority of Mr. TSUDA SIN ITSIROO.

CHAPTER III.

THE ADJECTIVE.

§ 9. The adjectives attributing to the idea, expressed by a noun substantive, one or another quality, have, in proportion as they represent an attribute or a predicate, different forms which, though strongly prominent in the written or book language, are, on the contrary, more or less obsolescent in the conversational. The forms of the written, will, therefore, be treated before those of the spoken language.

I. THE ADJECTIVE IN THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE.

A. Construction of the adjective in its radical form with a noun. — If the quality expressed by the adjective is represented as present in the object from the very beginning, then the adjective is, as a subordinate attributive definition in its radical form, joined to the substantive in a compound word; Taka-no, = Highland, German Hochland. Thus also:

Naga-sáki, Long-cape.

Aká-tsütsi, red earth, ruddle.

Siró-gáne, white ore (silver).

Küró-tsütsi, black-earth.

Amá-zake, sweetbeer.

Fürú-tósi, the old-year.

B. Adjectives in ki.

1. a. Ki, termination of the adjective used as attributive. — If the quality is first to be attributed to the object expressly, the adjective, to be used as attributive, acquires a conjunctive, or properly a derivative termination, which

for a particular class of adjectives, is ki; Takakino, = a high land, land that is high, distinguished from Takano, = highland. Thus also:

Nagáki saki, a long cape.

Akáki tsŭtsí, red earth (ruddle).

Siróki gáne, white ore.

Kuróki tsŭtsí, black earth.

Amáki saké, sweet beer.

Fürúki áto, old traces, ruins.

The adjectives belonging to this class generally express a quality, to which activity is not allied.

Remark. The termination Ki, whose vocal I is the root, from which the continuative verb ari = to be, is derived, means "being so" that is to say, as the essential part of the word implies. The relation of the essential part to the verbal element can be no other, than that of an adverb to the verb, whereas the mutual relation of Takaki and Yama is that of a compound word. — Compare what has been said on page 96 line 15 et sqq. concerning Kaki-mono.

The vulgar language of Nagasaki substitute ka for the adjective termination ki, thus sir óka for sir óki, white 1).

- b. The adjectives with the termination ki may be used substantively, as nouns concrete, and then as such are declinable. Yama takaki or Yamano takaki is the high of mountains, i. e. eminently high, or the highest of mountains, yama now being a subordinate definition to takaki.
- 2. Ku, adverbial form. If an adjective of this class is used as an adverb, then its radical form assumes the termination ku. Takakŭ tobu, = to fly high. The adverb in ku under all circumstances remains an adverb, yet represents in the coördinate sentence, whose predicate verb must be in the unconjugated radical form 2), the undefined radical form of the adjective verb terminating in si.

Isolated by the suffix va (§ 6) the adverb acquires a position separated from the verb, which brings out its idea with more emphasis. — Oósĭkňva, = manifold, often (frequently).

3. a. Si, form of the adjective as praedicate. — When an adjective of this

¹⁾ The question, formerly mooted in the "Proeve eener Japansche Spraakkunst" by D. Curtus, 1857, p. 34, if the termination ka is really peculiar to the dialect of Nagasaki, has since been answered affirmatively, as well by Japanese orally, as in writing by the late R. DE SAINT AULAIRE, who was stationed, as Dutch interpreter for the Japanese language; at Nagasaki. "The adjective termination in a," wrote the latter to me, "is really used generally in Nagasaki and the lower class of the people understand nothing else; those however who have had a little education, know very well, that it is not right."

²⁾ See Introduction, p. 45, Coördination.

class is used as a predicate, its radical form acquires the termination si, = to be, is. Yama takasi, = the mountain high to be, i.e. the mountain is high '). The relation in which taka stands to si, is, in the spirit of the Japanese language, again no other than that of an adverb to its verb.

This si, placed by Japanese grammarians among the auxiliary verbs (Ziyogo) 2) and designated Gen-zaino si, 3) or the si of the present tense, undergoes no verbal change.

b. If now a verbal change to indicate term and mood is required, then instead of si, the continuative verb ari, aru 4) (= exist), is used, which added to the adverbial form ku, fuses with this into kari; from Takaku ari, = continually high to be, comes Tákakári, a derivative verb, which is now to be conjugated in accordance after the general plan of conjugation 5). Instead of ari, eri is also used, as expressing the praeteritum praesens, see § 80.

4. By the change of si into sa these adjective verbs are made nouns abstract; Takasa, = the height.

Remark. Sa is a contraction of the si predicate, and the isolating va. Takása, therefore includes the Takási predicate = ,,is high," whereas va raises this idea to a noun substantive ,,the height." The Chinese follows the same way, when it expresses the abstract idea of "height" by 高 也 者.

5. LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL ADJECTIVE ROOTS IN KI.

1. Taka-ki,	高条, high.	2. Fíki-ki, Fíka-ki,	低草芳, low.
3. Fŭka-ki,	深元, deep.	4. Asa-ki,	淺耳, shallow.
5. Naga-ki,	長节, long.	6. Midzika-ki,	短茅, short.
7. Fĭró-ki,	廣告, wide, broad.	8. Seba-(Sema-)ki,	狹芳。陜, narrow.
9. Fŭtó-ki,	太子, thick, coarse.	10. Foso-ki,	細莎, fine.
6) [Ooi-naru,	大事ナル、large.]	11. Tsiisa-ki,	小草, small.

¹⁾ In R. BROWN'S Colloquial Japanese, p. XXXIX, line 26 et sqq., &i is cited as the termination of the adjective predicate, and si is wholly overlooked; no doubt a printing fault, that we may not leave unnoticed.

²⁾ 助 ; 語 ".

³⁾ 現ご在ず Z/止シ. — Wa-gun siwori under Si. Compare RODRIGUEZ, page 66.

⁴⁾ Not karu, nor yaru, as it is printed in ALCOCK Elem., p. 27, line 9.

⁵⁾ See § 10.

⁶⁾ The adjectives placed between brackets [] do not belong to this category, and are inserted only for the antithesis.

12. Fira-ki,	平 片, level, even.	13. Kevasĭ-ki, ¹)	險欠シ, steep.
14. Naka-daka-ki,	古か, gibbous, con-	15. Kubo-ki,	凹名。 窪, hollow, con-
	vex.		cave.
16. Fĭrata-ki,	扁麦, flat.	17. Máro-ki(Ma- rŭ-ki),	九云。无。圓。團, round.
18. Atsu-ki,	厚了, thick.	19. Usu-ki,	薄裳, thin.
20. Nao-ki,	直‡, right.	[Magaru,	曲克, crooked.]
21. Toó-ki,	遠未, far, distant.	22. Tsĭká-ki,	近美, near.
23. Amane-ki,	普章。遍。徧, eve-	24. Sŭkŭ-ná-ki,	寡 ³ , seldom.
the land of the land	rywhere.		Manda Transfer of the
25. Oó-ki,	多 [†] , much, many.	26. Sŭkósĭ-ki,	少分少,little, few.
27. Sigé-ki,	茂茅。繁。數, dense.	28. Mŭná-sĩ-ki,	交拿, without con-
promisi i pe			tents, void.
29. Matta-ki;	全蒙, entire, whole.	30. Náki,	無 +, without, less.
31. Ková-ki,	圖式, hard.	32. Moro-ki,	冠舌。脆, brittle.
33. Tsuyo-ki,	强型, strong.	34. Yowá-ki,	弱引。柔, weak.
35. Ara-ki,	暴引。虐。荒。麁,	[Yawaraga-	軟章だ, soft, weak.]
	harsh, rude, waste.	náru,	
36. Omó-ki,	重業, heavy.	37. Karó-ki,	輕喜, light.
38. Káta-ki,	難多, difficult.	39. Yásŭ-ki,	易文, facile, easy.
40. To-ki,	銳 '。疾, pointed,	41. Nibu-ki,	鈍ラ, blunt.
watering the table	sharp; quick.		
42. Hayá-ki,	早\$.急.速.疾,	43. Osó-ki,	運້, late; slow.
	early; quick.		
44. Waka-ki,	少别。若, young.	[Oitaru,	老女儿, old.]
[Arátă-nárŭ,	新景龙, new.]	45. Fŭrú-ki,	古え。舊, ancient,
		ole francisco version	antique.
46. Yo- (old. Ye-) ki,	善。能, good, well.	47. Wárŭ-ki,	惡力, bad, base.
	寒艾, cold.	[Atataka-naru	,暖 ^{夏克} , warm.]

¹⁾ Kevasiki, and the adjectives cited under Nos. 28, 30, 66 and 73 have siki (No. 71) for their derivative form.

49. Suzu-ki,	凉 ³ , cool.	50. Nuruki,	温之。 運, lukewarm;
El Vol: Vol:	油コケー		lazy.
31. Ао-кі, Лекі,	濃 ^っ 。ケ, strong (of		淡天。云, faint (of taste
THE RESIDENCE OF STREET	taste or color).	ki,	or color).
53. Ao-ki,	青马, pale blue, pale	54. Aka-ki,	赤孔, 紅, red.
	green.		
55. Sĭró-ki,	白言, white.	56. Kŭró-ki,	黑名, black.
[Akĭráká-narŭ	,明禁, light, clear.]	57. Kŭrá-ki,	暗多, dark, dusky.
58. Amá-ki,	甘了, sweet.	59. Sŭ-ki,	酸z, acid.
60. Umá- (Mŭ-	旨之。令。美, sweet,	61. Niku-ki,	醜声, ugly.
má-) ki.	nice, beautiful.		
62. Kayu-ki,	痒望, itching.	63. Niga-ki,	苦声, bitter.
64. Sibu-ki,	准美, raw, acerb,	65. Yegu-ki,	鼓秀, tart.
66. Kaubasi-ki,	芳克シュウシ, fragrant.	67. Kŭsá-ki,	臭氧, stinking.
Kauvasi-ki,			
68. Sivá-ki,	格於於, covetous,	6é. <i>Tá-ki</i> ,	欲 ^x 。度,desirous,
	scant		willing.
70. Gŏtó-ki,	如节。若, like.	[Kotonáru,	異元, different.]
71. Sĭ-ki,	如シ。敷, being such	72. Sĭká-ki,	然芳, being so, or such.
	as (substantive suffix		
	$= \ldots ish, \ldots like$).		
73. Be-ki,	可 ~, allowable.		

THE SAME ROOTS ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

Aka .	54.	Fiku 2.	Kaubasi 66.	Matta . 29.	Niku 61.	Sige 27.	Too 21.
Ama .	58.	Fira 12.	Kayu 62.	Midzika . 6.	Nuru 50.	Siro 55.	Tsuyo . 33.
Amane	23.	Firata . 16.	Ke 51.	Moro 32.	- X - X -	Sina 68.	
Ao	53.	Firo 7.	Kevasi . 13.	Muma . 60.	Omo 36.	Su 59.	Uma 60.
Ara	35.	Foso 10.	Ko 51.	Munasi . 28.	00 25.	Sukosi . 26.	Usu 19.
Asa	4.	Fuká 3.	Kova 31.		Oso 43.	Sukuna . 24.	
Atsu .	12.	Furu 45.	Kubo 15.	Na 30.		Suzu 49.	Waka 44.
Ava	52.	Futo 9.	Kura 57.	Naga 5.	Samu 48.		Waru 47.
Mark.			Kuro 56.	Naka-da-	Seba 8.	Ta 69.	
Be	73.	Goto 70.	Kusa 67.	ka 14.	Sema 8.	Taka 1.	Yasu 39.
		Pala In		Nao 20.	Si 71.	Tsiisa 11.	Yegu 65.
			Maro 17.				
Fiki .	2.	Karo 37.	Maru 17.	Niga 63.	Sibu 64.	To 40.	Yowa 34.

Remark. The termination ki, as the distinguishing characteristic of this class of adjectives, ought to be placed on the foreground, deviating from the method in the Japanese dictionaries, which give these adjectives as adjective verbs with the termination si and, so doing, do not distinguish them from those, which terminate in siki (= ish). So, to give an instance, their expression $\mathcal{L}_{\frac{1}{2}}$ is defective, since fisdsi (= is of long duration) as a syncope of fisdsisi, is in all respects the form of the adjective verb, has but fisdsiki, not fisdki, for adjective form, whereas the adjective form of nagasi is not nagasiki, but nagaki.

6. Examples of the use of the forms cited.

[Ki.] Sibu-kakino tanewo ŭéte, amaki kakiva fayezárŭ, if people sow seed of the sour fig, then do not grow figs, that are sweet, — Tanba-kŭniyori kŭróki kitsŭnéwo saságŭ, from the country of Tanba people offer a fox which is black. — Tsikára-náki yumi, a powerless bow. — Tsikára-náki koto, powerlessness. — Nezümino sirókiwá siro-nezümito íŭ, the white of mice (= mice that are white) are called white mice. — Fūrúkiwó sŭtéte ătărásĭkíni tsukŭ, forsaking the old, to apply oneself to the new. If objects are previously mentioned, from which a choice is made, then the expression is good: Fŭrúkinowó sŭtéte ătărásĭkinowó toru, to reject the old (objects) and take the new ones¹).

イズ 山き Yáma takáki ga yűéni tattokarázu, a mountain is not considerable, 貴美 高葉 because it is high; Kiárűwo mótte tattositó su, because he carries 故さ wood, people consider him to be respectable.

キンピータカードー・アニオモムク。 下ニオモムク。 マタキー・ タタキー・ タタキー・ タタキー・ アヨリ高ニノボ

Măsasabiva takákiyori fikikini ŏmómuku. Fikikiyori takakini nobóru-koto atavázu²). The bat turns itself with its head from above towards below. To climb from below towards above it may not.

[Ku.] Konofa akákŭ térite firŭgaverŭ, the tree-leaf shining red flies around. — Iyéwo takákŭ tsŭkúru, to build a house high. — Káriva takáku tonde tooku yori kĭtári, the wild goose flying high, comes from afar.

¹⁾ With regard to this construction compare, page 86, line 10, in connection with note 1.

²⁾ Kasira-gaki kin-moo dzu-i. XII. 11. recto.

Remark. Do the adverbs in ku in the three last expressions, which we have taken expressly from R. BROWN's valuable Colloquial Japanese, p. XL, retain their adverbial character, or are they predicate adjectives? this question is answered in the place quoted in that sense, "that wherever this form (the adverb in ku) precedes a substantive verb, it is an adjective or a predicate adjective, a conception with which we cannot agree. As the Japanese has no properly called nominative termination, an adjective, to stand as predicate, cannot agree with the subject; these adjectives are governed as subordinate definitions, by verbs which, as regards their signification, answer to our "be" and "become," but their complement, when it is a noun, to the question where? how? or whereto? in the case of ni or de, and, if it is an adjective, have ku before them, in the equivalent adverbial form. Ten-ki yóku ári (yokari) or Ten-ki yóku nari; the weather is good, or the weather becomes good, is in a language nearer perfection in all respects expressed by Tempestas bona est, or bona fit, but the Japanese expression is, as far as form is concerned, equal to Tempestas bene est, or bene fit.

[Si.] Kono misákiwá hanahada nagási, this cape is very long. — Neno adzi ămási, the taste of the root is sweet. — Kariga tobu-koto takasi, the flight of the geese is high. — Yama toosi, the mountain is far. — Kono sedonite sivo fayási, in this strait the stream is swift. — Siyuni mázivárů monová akási

¹⁾ Kasira-gaki kin-moo dzu-i. XIII. 6. recto.

^{1) 11400, 60 90000 10000 10000}

³⁾ Ibid. p. 37.

(交朱者丹), whoever goes abouth with red is red. — Fino atárňtokóro, takifino kin-ziyo ve óku koto ásīsi. Sňbéte ásīki nivoviwo únu bésī, in a place where the sun comes, (and) in the neighborhood of fire (the eggs of the silkworm) to lay is not good. In general people ought to avoid the nasty smell. — Kono sima fīto nasi, this island is without inhabitants. — Yosito ŏmóvň, to think that it is good. — Neno adzi asisi yotte, because the taste of the root is nasty. As to the difference existing between Yokino, = a beautiful field and Yosino, = a place which is renownd as the Beautiful field, see Addenda No. IV.

[Sa.] Kono misaki nagása san ri bakari nari, the length of this cape is only three ri (miles).

II. THE ADJECTIVE ACCORDING TO THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE.

The spoken language suppressing the k and the s of ki, si and ku, thus retains only the i and the u, which now immediately follow a vowel. Thereby they acquire.

for aki and asi the form ai and for aku the form au, pronounced as au, ao, oo.

- » eki » esi » » ei » » eku » » eu, » » eo.
- » iki » isi » » ii » » iku » » iu.
- » oki » osi » » oi » » oku » » ou, » » oo.
- » uki » usi » » ui » » uku » » uu.

The easy written style, which follows the spoken language, has for au, eu and ou, no fixed written form; it supersedes the form of writing to be used by choice.

Examples of the use of the forms.

[i for ki]. Nagai matsu yori otsuru yuki, snow falling out of the long (high) pine-trees. — Karoi kemuri noboru, light smoke ascends. — Fána simono samuiwo osóru, the flower fears the cold of the rime.

[i for si]. Kuréno figa akai, the evening-sun is red. — Kariga tobŭ-koto takai, the flight of the geese is high. — Korewa amari tsiisai!), this is too small. —

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 2.

.. nagai 1), is long. — .. takai 2), is high. — Fitoga nai 3), there is no one. — Korewa dziyaiga usui 4), this is thin of texture. — .. atsui 5), is thick. — Korewa iro ga koi 6), this is dark of color. — .. iro ga usui 7), this is light of color. — .. iro ga warui 8), this is bad of color — Osoi kara 9), as it is late — Yásui nara, tori-mašoo 10), as it is cheap, I shall take it.

[u for ku]. Ari-gátau or Ari-gátao, difficult to be, abbreviated for Ari-gátaku ari-másŭ, it is difficult to be, = I am obliged to you. — Yóo moosú, for Yókŭ mausŭ, to speak well. — Kasīkóo suru, for Kasīkókŭ suru, to do wisely. — Fūkóo wadzuróo, for Fúkákŭ wádzūrávu, to be deeply involved in difficulty.

In Japanese vocabularies the expressions of the conversational are mostly distinguished from those of the book language by an antecedent \triangle or \bigcirc ; thus

that is: the word Kanari of the book language is equivalent to Soredomoyoi of the conversational. — Inaya (= should not...) of the book language is the same as Soosita kotowa nai (= such sort of thing there is not) or as Kautewa nai (= so is there not) of the conversational.

DERIVATIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 10. Adjectives in karu and garu.

By a fusion of the adverbial form ku with aru (being), the form karu is obtained (so being as the previous adverb indicates). Nomi-táku-aru, passes into Nomi-takáru (/ ≥ 3 n n), = desirous of drink or being thirsty.

Derivatives of this stamp take the same inflections as ari, — dri being the attributive, dri the predicate form; and as the adjectives in ki themselves, express a quality, to which the idea of activity is not allied, the derivative form k+ari expresses merely the continual presence of the not-active quality.

Waka-ki, young. — Waka-ki tokoni, in youthful time. — Wakakárit tokini, while or as long as one is young. — Wakakárisi toki yóri, since the time when one was young.

Naki, not at hand, being without. — Nakari, continually not to be at hand. Siróki, white. — Sirokáru, continually white.

Yásŭki, easy. — Yásŭkári, continually to be easy.

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, page 8. 2) page 12. 3) page 5. 4) page 23. 5) page 24. 6) page 23. 7) page 23. 8) page 14. 9) page 41. 10) page 37.

Remark. This illustration of the derivative form kari explains the obscure § 55 and 57 of RODRIGUEZ, Étém. The garu there mentioned on page 55, lines 8 to 12, is a fusion of the genitive-termination, ga and aru peculiar to the conversational language exclusively. Joined to the Chinese word Yek-ki'), gladness, with it, it forms Yékkigáru, being full of gladness, synonymous with Yekkináru, Yekkina, being glad. See § 12.

§ 11. Adjectives in árů.

Ari, arŭ ($f(\vec{r})$), verb continuative, to be at hand, to be there, to exist, antithetical to Naki ($f(\vec{r})$), not at hand,less. Ari is the radical (to be) and at the same time, but by exception, the predicate form (= there is); $ar\tilde{u}$ the substantive form (the being), which is at the same time used attributively (being), to derive adjectives from substantives. — $Iro\ ari$, = there is color or colors are there. — $Kumova\ iro\ ari$, = what concerns the cloud, there is color, i. e. the cloud has color. If the definition: *here is color" is to become attributive, then $ari\ acquires$ the attributive form $ar\tilde{u}$; the subject $iro\ now$ becomes an attributive proposition of $ar\tilde{u}$, and assumes the attributive form, thus the genitive termination no, in the spoken language, ga. $Iro\ no\ or\ iro\ ga\ aru\ kumo\ means$, literally: colors present being clouds, i. e. colored clouds or clouds which have colors.

The genitive termination no is often omitted in similar expressions, particularly when the attributive definition joined to aru is a verb, which is in its radical form; e.g. Asiki nivôi árŭ ki, wood (ki) of a bad smell. — Nivoi, to smell, smell.

§ 12. Adjectives in naru, na and taru.

By means of the substantive suffix naru, which is, in my opinion, a fusion of the Local ni and of ári, áru, and thus means »being lasting in ...," from

¹⁾ 悅云喜*.

substantives and adverbs adjectives are formed, which indicate a possession of that which the root expresses.

The familiar conversational, and the epistolary style abbreviates naru to na vulgo da. — Ki, yellow. Ki-uri, the yellow pumkin 1). Ki- $n\acute{a}ri$ or Ki-na uri, a pumkin that is yellow. — \triangle $Fim\acute{a}na$ $tok\acute{o}ro$, a place of rest. — \triangle Kirei-na nizi a beautiful rainbow.

With the inflectional termination ni the radical forms of this class are used as adverbs. — Omni, greatly. — Tsunini, commonly. — Suguni, directly, straightly.

As words, which have naru for their derivative form are to be noticed:

Examples of the use of the forms.

Fito sono naveno ooi náruwo sírů koto násť ³), = it is not the fact (koto nasí) that a man knows that his rice-crop is so large (ample). 一音 リチュハ大多 カラアリ・オンイナルハハトノ大 サアリ、In-kova dai seo ari; oot nárůva fatono ooisá ári, of parrots people have big and little ones; those which are big have the bigness of a dove. — Sono kou oot nari, his merit in great. — Kari-ko no katávara naru taka-tokóro, a high place at the side of the silkworms. — Sakini nevurisť kavikova ůve (or ů) naru kava wo nugi-idzuru, = the silkworms that have previously slept, throw off the skin being (which is) upon them.

2) By means of naru, or na, Chinese words are made Japanese adjectives.

仁ジャル, Zin-nárň, humane.

思うナル, Tsiu-nárů, sincere.

スプ 点 サナル、Fu-tsiu-nára, insincere.

勇ュナル, Yuu-nárň, brave.

¹⁾ Cucurbita Pepo verrucosa LINN.

²⁾ Ooi, great, after the old writing オ本と, and the forms ook, oosi, in the conversational language ooi, derived from oo, much, are frequently interchanged; the same writer frequently uses by turns ooisa (オーナー) and oosa (オーナー) for "great," and ooi-nari and ooki nari for "is great."

³⁾ Dai Gaku, VIII, 2.

貢シ實ッナル、Sin-zits-nárň, solid, real, sincere.

丁克ンデナル、Tei-nei-nárň, courteous.

稿 * 麗イナル, Ki-rei-nárŭ, beautiful, fair.

不デ 続 華 麗 ブナル, Bu-ki-rei-nárň, not beautiful.

模式, Yau-na, ...ly, being as ... — Yumino yau na, archwise.

笑文止, Sóo-si 1), = cease laughing, feel pain. — Soo-si nari, It is not to be laughed at, It is sorrowful.

Tárǔ (タル), = te aru, is also used to form Japanese adjectives from Chinese words. — 現て然でタル、Gen-zen-tarǔ, apparent, public.

If more adjectives thus formed follow, linked to one another, then only the last has the attributive form $tar \check{u}$, whereas those preceding have the indefinite form tar i.

君之 有, 備ゥ 瑟ッ Sit-tari, kan-tari, fǐ-tárǔ kun-si ari 2), there is a prince 子シ 斐々 今々 今々 stately, worthy, perfect.

§ 13. Derivative adjectives in ka.

The termination ka, in my opinion, allied to the adjective radical forms Ke and Ko (page 109 n°. 51), just as these, indicates, that the quality expressed by the radical word is present in a large degree or is strongly prominent. As evidence of the mutual affinity of ka, ke and ko may be adduced that the forms kanaru, kanari and kani, the first being attributive, the second predicate, the third adverbial, are frequently superseded by kéki, kési and kéku. — For kánaru and kánari the conversational language uses only kána.

Adjectives of this class are:

Akiráká, 明泽ラカ, bright, clear, light; allied to Ake, light.

Atataká, 温泉力, warm; allied to Atatameru, to warm.

Farŭká, 🎉 🎝 , far. — Sono áto farŭká nári or farŭkana or farŭkési, his trace is far.

Kásňká, 以 , remote, solitary. — Umino kazéva kasňká nári, the sea-wind is so solitary. — Mitsiga kásňkani farňkana, the way is solitary and far. As to ni see § 160.

¹⁾ Both expressions are taken up here, to illustrate the forms occurring in RODRIGUEZ Élémens, p. 55, line 9 and 10 sósina, "avoir du regret" and yekina, se rejouir."

²⁾ Dai gaku, III, 4.

- Kiráraká, 晶支丸, brilliant; from Kira-kira, glitter; Kirara, glimmer, mika.
- Komaká, 知之力。細 密, fine; allied to Komamérŭ, to make fine, to make small. Komakana sŭná, fine sand. Komakani, adverb, to the most minute particulars; minutely, exactly.
- Nadaraká, 木ラカ, smooth, ironed out; from Naderii, to iron, to stroke.
- Nameraká, 🎁 🏃 🤊 ½, smooth, slippery; allied to Namerŭ, suck, and to Namésŭ, to make smooth.
- Nodoká, 悠冷, set fair (of the weather); from Nodo, calm.
- Ogosoka, 莊立y n, severe, strict. Oróka 思立n。癡, stupid, obsolete ŏróké.
- Orósoka, 读之, negligent, lazy. Orósokanisu, to neglect; allied to ŏrósu, to lay down, put off.
- Sadaka, 真葉。 真, certain, sure, definitive. Sadaka nári or Sadakesi, it is certain; allied to Sadámeru, to define, fix.
- Sidzūká, 詩家。寂然, calm, still. Asa-figa sidzūka nari, or sidzūkána, or sidzūkési, the morning is so calm. Sidzūkáni, old-Japanese also sidzukuni, yuku, to go softly, slink, sneak. The old form Sidzukuni pleads for the influence of the vocal harmony. (Compare page 62, line 2). The radical word Sidzu is preserved in Sidzu-kokóro, a calm mind.
- Tavĭraká, 🏞 😤 ***, or Taĭraká, even, plane, flat; from ta, hand and fira, flat, thus hand-flat-ish.
- Tsumá-bĭráká, 詳美ラカ, clear and plain, decided, settled; after the Siwori from Tsumári, concise and firáku, to open. Tsumábĭrakáni, or old-Japanese Tsumabĭrakékü, adverb, plainly.
- Wadzūká, 僅至。纔, scarce; Wadzūkáni, scarcely, hardly.
- § 14. Derivative adjectives in yaka, in old-Japanese also vaka,))].

 Attributive yakánaru, predicate yakánári (in the conversational language yakana), adverbially yakani.

The derivative form yaka means as much as having the appearance of that which the root points out 1).

To the words of this class, which have passed from the old language to the new, belong:

¹⁾ This notice of the meaning of yaka agrees with that which a Japanese etymologist gives of it: ヤカ。凡子物ラッ形名容易シテ詞よン. - Wa-gun siscori, under yaka.

Asáyāká, 鮮素力。鮮明, fresh and bright as the morning (asa). Also Azayaka Azayagu, Asayuga, Azarakeki. — Asayaká náru iro, a bright color. — Kurenaiva iro hana-hada asáyǎká nari 紅藍花八色豆誌菜 鮮柔明菜之, the safflower is very bright of color.

Fiyáyaká, 冷炎, bleak, cold. — Aki-kazéva fiyayaka nari, the autumn wind is bleak. From Fiya, cold.

Ke-zayaka, 氣ヶ亮素, bright (of the weather).

Kiráviyaká, 真意, glittering; also Kirabiyaka, from Kirámi, to glitter.

Kŏmáyǎká, 积之, 1) tight, close, dense; from Komi, Komu, to fill. — Kǔsáki komayakana, grass and wood close growing. — Komayakanaru saké 濃酒, strong beer. — 2) narrow, precise.

Maméyaka, 真文成节, sincere, unfeigned, true; from Mamé, reality.

Miyabiyaka, 艷美 , , splendid, beautiful; allied to Miyaburi, courtly.

Nagóyǎká, 妍立妖美, maidenly, graceful; from Nago, maid.

Nigiyaka, 販売マカ, busy, bustling. — Nigiwavi, bustle.

Nikoyaka, 坎克克·文力, fine, tender, soft, mild; from Niko, pleasing; fine.

Nobiyaka, 舒子力, elastic; from Nob)i, u, to stretch.

Odáyňká, 穩大力, calm, still; from Odáv)i, u, to become calm.

Saváyaká, 爽井快美, bright; gay; brave.

Sayaká, 清节明节, ook Sayakeki, clear (of light and sound).

Sináyaká, 如学、龙, supple, pliant; soft, flexible; also Sinábiyaka, from Sinámi, to bend (oneself).

Sinóbiyaka, 密文力, secretly, from Sinob)i, u, to hide; to suffer.

Săkóyaká, 健子ャカ。勇健, strong, full of power; also Săkúyaká, Săkúyŏká, Săkúyŏká, and Sukíyaká; allied to Săké, support. (?)

Sǔmíyǎká, 读文, quick, swift; allied to Sǎsǎmi, pronounce ssmi, to advance. — Kava-osova midzu-nakawo fasiru-koto sǎmiyaká nari, the motion of the river otter under water is quick.

Tawóyaká, 妈竟, also Tawayaka, pliable, supple, soft; after Japanese etymologists from Ta, hand, and Yowa, weak, being the weaker sex, opposed to the man, called Tawoya-me; — allied to Tawam)e, eru, to bend. — Nami kazemo tawóyakáni naru, waves and wind become softer.

Wakáyăká, 夭支, juvenile. — Waka-ki, young. — Wakayaka náru sámŭrai, a youthful warrior. — Yuruyaka 徐文, limp; slow; allied to Yurusi, to loose.

§ 15. Derivative adjectives in kéki or kóki.

Kéki or Kóki, radical form Ke or Ko (濃), = strong (of taste or color), already mentioned among the adjectives in ki, whenever it is joined to the root of another word, signifies that the object richly possesses that, which is mentioned by this word. Words of this stamp are chiefly characterized as old-Japanese, although not totally excluded from the modern language. The conversational language supersedes the attributive keki or koki and the predicate kesi or kosi with kei or koi, and the adverbial kekit or kokit by keu (keo) or kou (koo). The forms keki and koki frequently mutate with the derivative form ka (§ 13).

To this class belong:

Fára-keki, 1) 克允5+, very clear.

Keya-keki, 健々ケキ。尤, very strong. Nure-koki, 濡る濃素, thoroughly

Sámŭ-keki, 寒光方丰, very cold.

Tsuyu-keki, 露至多年, full of dew.

Azara-keki, 鮮葉ヶキ, quite fresh. Ne-koki, 睡辛濃素, lying in a deep Fárā-keki, 1) 亮 ルケキ, very clear. sleep.

damp.

Sidzu-keki, 情多方主, very calm. Sitsu-koki, 濕多濃素, wetthrough.

§ 16. Derivative adjectives in siki, = .. like.

Adjective siki (2+), adverbial siku (22), predicate sisi (21), often, but not generally, si (>); in the conversational language by the clision of k and s, mostly sii (シイ) and siu (シウ。シフ), the last mentioned frequently pronounced as šu (shu); substantive sisa (>+); continuative verb sikari, u, = so to be. Root si (如 , = so, Lat. sic 2).

Siki means, just as .. like (German .. lich, Dutch .. lijk, .. aardig), equality with that, which is expressed by the root, to which it is joined. Being of a similiar sound to the transitive verb Siki, Siku, = to spread, Chinese W. or ff, it is indicated in writing also by these Chinese characters, thus by a rebus, which places the word indicated in a false light.

As in old-Japanese many of the adjectives in ki (§ 9. B.) occur with the termination siki or ziki, the Japanese philologers consider the ki as an abbreviation of siki.

¹⁾ Distinguished from Faru ke-siki, spring-weather.

²⁾ 如う。似えモノト云う事テン. Zoo boo si-mon tsin-boo bi, 1773, under Situ.

Siki forms adjectives from nouns, from adverbs and interjections, and from verbs.

1) Denominative and Adverbial i. e. derived from nouns and adverbs are, e. g. A-sǐki, 張ァシキ。邪, bad. — Kokórono asǐki mono, any one bad in disposition, a person of bad character. — Asiki utsuva: bad tools. — Asiku manábu, to learn badly. - Fino teri-kómuva hanahada asisi, = the entrance of sunshine (in an apartment where silkworms are bred) is very injurious. — Yosi asiwo wakemavénň, = not once to distinguish the, »it is good and it is bad," not to distinguish good from bad. — Asikáru, continuative verb, from asikŭ and áru.

Ava-sǐki, 淡バシキ, frothy; faint of taste; also Ava-ava-sǐki.

Aya-siki, 奇マシキ。怪, wonderful; singular; from Aya!, exclamation of surprise. Ayasiki ame, a wonderful rain, e.g. a stone-rain.

Bi-bi-sīki, 美ピマ、敷彰, handsome. — Fage-sīki 烈ゲシキ, heavy; eager.

Fana fada- or Hana hada-sǐki, 甚 デダンキ, very, uncommonly; from hanahada, very.

Fisá-siki, ハギシキ, long ago, antithetic to Sibáraki, shortly, lately. — Faku-sai Hon-tsiyauni towóru koto fisási, it is long, that Fakŭ-sai has intercourse with our empire. — Fisása, length of time. — Iku fisásani nari-másüká, = what lapse of time is it?, how long is it ago. In Fisa is placed the meaning of 日 去, i. e. the sun or the day goes hence, or has gone hence, which refers to Fi sárisí.

Fito-siki, 均ドシキ。等, = of one sort; agreeing.

Futó-siki, 太トシキ, thickish, stout.

Ikága-sǐki, 切り がシキ, interrogative, inquisitive.

Iyá-sĭki, ₱₹≥‡, despicable, mean; from Iya, no!

Kána-sĭki, 京草シキ, painful, pitiful; from Kana! alas! — Kánasĭki kána! how

Kibi-sĭki, 麗さシキ, originally Kimi-sĭki, = masterly, authoritative, strict, severe.

Kuda-kuda-siki, 瑣るマト 敷彰, piecemeal.

Kuru-šiki, 苦えシキ, Kuru-kuru-šiki 苦 ソ 敷, tiresome, disagreeable, grievous. Mi-kuru-siki, disagreeable to be seen, ugly, misformed. Root Kur)i, u, to reel (reel off cocoons).

Kavá-siki, 妙スシキ。美。委, fair, neat. — Kavá-sikima, a fair horse. — Kavásiku, neat, precise.

Mádzŭ-sǐki, 貧テシキ, poor, shabby.

Mása-sĭki, IF ₹ ≥ +, real; from Mása, truth.

 $M\ddot{u}n\acute{a}-siki$, $\Xi + > +$, without contents, empty; in vain; from mi, kernel, fruit and na, without; thus fruitless. — $M\ddot{u}n\acute{a}-siku$ $n\acute{a}ru$, to become empty; to give up the ghost.

Oná-ziki, 同 芋ジキ, identical.

Sabi-siki, 寂セシキ。開一寂。淋。孤, rusty; alone (solitary).

Suzu-sīki, 🏠 🗦 +, cool. — Suzu-sīkāru, continually cool.

Tădá-sĭki, 但 冬シキ。 真, proper, real.

Taye-daye-siki, 斷至 7 「 敷羊, often interrupted, by pausing.

Uré-siki, 喜之 ***, glad, merry, joyful, pleasant. — Watákusimo ŭrésiku gozárimásŭ, also I am joyful. — Urésisa, gladness. — Urésisa kagiri nakeri, the
gladness was boundless. — Urésikáru or Urésigárŭ, = ŭrésikŭ-aru, continuative
verb, to rejoice. — Fi-kázuno ooiwo urésigárŭ, to be glad at the greatness
(ooiwo) of the number of days (at a long life). — Urésimū, transitive to make
glad. — Uré, Yakutic Yör, joy. — The Wa-gun Siwori gives 得 (e, uru,
= to get, acquire) as root.

Utsukú-sĭki, 美党シキ, lovely; agreeable; handsome; old-Japanese Itsaku-sĭki; allied to Itsŭkú-sĭmu, or also Utsŭkú-sĭmu, to love.

Yăsá-siki, 温菜和菜, meek; honest, graceful.

Yŏró-sǐki, 宜昌シキ。義, apt, fit; well.

2) Verbal, derived by means of siki.

The transitive or intransitive meaning of the verb, from which adjectives are derived by means of siki, passes over to the adjective too, because siki is, by nature, neuter. On the manner, in which the derivation in one case or another is brought about, the Japanese etymologists, at least those, whose works are within our reach, preserve silence; they talk about it, indeed, but leave the matter itself in the dark. To be able to treat thoroughly and satisfactorily this class of words which, from an etymological point of view, belong to the most intricate, we ought also to be able to compare the forms, in which they occur in the different dialects of the popular language. As these are still unknown to us, we think we must confine ourselves to a mere indication of the most conspicuous phenomena.

Adjectives with a causative meaning derived by means of siki from causative or factive verbs, from verbs, by which, as it is known, to cause an ac-

tion to take place or be carried out is indicated, and which in Japanese, as it will be seen, hereafter, are formed by changing the verbal termination *i* into asi (or for vocal-harmony sometimes into osi). From Konómi, = to like, to be fond of, is formed the causative Konomási, = to cause fondness for, to make one to be fond of, and from this the adjective Konomásiki, = lovely. The adjectives, so formed, thus show, that in the nature of the object lies the action, expressed by the causative verb, to exercise or to bring to light.

To this kind of adjectives, among others, belong:

- $Ibuk\acute{a}siki$, 訳章 欺诈, strange, wonderful; polite expression for: doubtful, suspected; from $Ibuk\acute{a}s$)i, u, to excite surprise, and this from Ibuk)i, u, to be surprised at something.
- Isogášiki, 開京 製主。 急。忙, busy; from Isogás)i, u, to make busy; and this from Isog)i, u, to make haste. Isogášiki tokóro, a busy place. Watákusiwá kon-nitsiwá isogásii (私 ワ 今日 ワ 多う 忙まつ)¹), I have much business to day. As a variation of Isogá-sǐki, we have Isogavá-sǐki, derived from the causative form Isogavási, = to make busy, which proceeds from Isogáv)i, u, = to be busy.
- Itamásiki or Itavásiki, 傷冬數率。痛 敷, smarting, painful; from Itamás)i, u, to torture, and this from Itám)i, u, to feel pain, to suffer.
- Kónomásiki, lovely, agreeable, from Konomási, u, cause to like, to excite one's love, to attract a person; and this from Kŏnom)ĭ, u, to be fond of. H.
- Medzŭrásiki, 珍菜 數章。奇, exciting interest, interesting; from Medzŭrás)i, u, to excite interest, and this from Mede, Medzŭru, also Medzŭri, to take interest in..., to have gladly (愛). Distinguished from Medzŭráká, important; costly. Every thing that is strange and rare, and however insignificant, an object of taste, is called Medzŭrási. If from Me-tsŭki or Mi-tsŭki, = to fix the eye upon a thing, an adjective with the signification of *attractive to the eye," must be formed by means of sǐki, we should obtain Metsŭkásiki, as derivative from the causative form Metsŭkási (= cause one to look), but not Medzŭrasiki²).

Mutsŭkásĭki, tiresome, grievous, vexing, 難, or also, by means of rebus, ex-

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 16.

²⁾ This as an answer to the question, proposed in R. BROWN'S Colloquial Japanese, XLI.

- pressed by 六分借業 and 六分分为數章; from $Muts \tilde{u}kas$)i, u, to vex, to grieve, make sad, and this from Mutsuk)i, u, whence the continuative Mutsukdr)i, u, = to be grieved (or sad), is more in use.
- Natsūkásiki, 嬋媛, vulgo 懷美數美, attractive, engaging. Fánanó ninóvi natsukásii, the scent of flowers is attractive. From Natsūkás)i, u, make disposed, excite inclination or love; and this from Natsūk)i, u, to be inclined, have inclination to.
- Omovósiki, causing to think of one, keeping another's thoughts engaged, and that in a good sense, thus engaging, dear, kind; from Omovás)i, u, also Omovós)i, u, to cause to think, and this from ŏmóv)i, u, to think ().
- Osorósiki, 恐党シキ, frightful; from Osŏrós)i, u, to make fear, and this from Osór)é, uru, to fear.
- Sawagásiki, 躁力數彰。驗, full of rustling and noise, stormy, turbulent; from Sawagás)i, u, to make rustle, to disturb, to confound, and this from Sawag)i, u, rustle, make a noise, be uneasy (林幸。不安也). Sivo sawagasi, the sea is stormy. Kokórowo sawagásū, make the mind uneasy. Sáruva sei savagasīku site monowo kai-su¹), = the monkey makes much noise and injures every thing. The old-Japanese has as variation of Sawagi also Sawagavi, rage, tear; Sawagavás)i, u, enrage, and Sawagavásiki, full of noise.
- Tanomósiki, 可真, trusty, a thing upon which one can rely; from Tanomos)i, u, make trust, and this from Tanóm)i, u, to trust to, to rely upon.
- Urámásĭki, exciting disgust; from Urámas)i, u, make have disgust, to prejudice against oneself, and this from ŭrám)i, u, to be disgusted with. 怨。恨.
- Uráyamásiki, (vulgo, and by way of rebus 浦多山之數章), worthy of envy; from ŭráyamás)i, u, to make one evy; excite envy, and this from ŭráyam)i, u, to envy. 美。歆.

¹⁾ Kasira-gaki kin-moo dzu-i. XII. 11. recto.

- Uruvásĭki, ŭrŭwásĭki, 艶えシキ。美, charming; from Urŭvás)i, u, enliven, and this from ŭrúvi, ŭróvi, to be enlivened, or charmed.
- Utágavásiki, 訝えハシキ。不審, doubtful; from ŭtágavás)i, u make doubt, and this from ŭtagav)i, u (疑。嫌。讼), to doubt.
- Utomásiki, despicable, from Utomás)i, u to despise, properly to estrange, and this from utom)i, u, to be strange, to be despised.
- Wadzūravásiki, 煩素數率。 燭, tiresome, teasing, plaguing, from Wadzūravás)i, u, to tease, and this from Wadzūráv)i, u, to be plagued.
- Yádŏrásĭki, hospitable; from Yádŏrás)i, u, to lodge, take anyone in, and this from Yadór)i, u (清 \mathring{h}), to lodge somewhere.
- Yawásiki, $All^{\frac{1}{2}} > \pm$, calming, from Yawás)i, u, to make rest, to reduce to calmness, and this from Yav)i, u; or Yam)i, u, to come to rest.
- Yŏrókobásiki, joyful, rejoicing, from Yorókobás)i, u, to please anyone, and this from Yŏrókŏbi), u, to rejoice, to be glad. 歡, 喜.
- Yŭkásiki, 恒元シキ, urging on, impatient; from Yŭkás)i, u, to make go; to drive; and this from Yuk)i, u, to go.

§ 17. Derivative adjectives in ká-síki.

To the adjectives in siki unite the derivatives in ka-sīki, ka-sīku, ka-sī; terminations, which are considered by Japanese etymologists as contractions of kamasīki, kamasīku, kamasī (for which kavasīki etc. also occur), and which are indicated in writing by 通意文. The sign 通 means to go through or to make go through for..., in Japanese Kayovi or Kayovasi. Is this character to be remarked as a rebus here, or is its signification allied to that of the Japanese termination? This question remains unanswered by the Japanese philologers. The writer of the present, leaves the rebus for what it is, and sees in the kasiki in question nothing more, than the frequently occuring abbreviation of sīkā-sīki, of which the radical form sīka (於意) is quoted among the adjectives in ki (page 109 n°. 72) with the meaning of »being so, such."
Kasi is met with, and that as a substantive predicate verb with the signification of »is as much as," in simple expressions such as »Mister to va kimi zo kasi" 1); = the word Mister is as much as kimi; whereas the continuative verbal

¹⁾ I berrow this satisfactory example from a metrical list of Japanese and Dutch words, by a Japanese diletante.

form Karu (for sǐkáru) in Karuga yuéni [= for reason (yuéni) of the (ga) being so (káru), that is therefore, on that account], is generally in use, and that to exclusion of sǐkáru. The derivative forms kásīki, kásīku, kásīsi or kasī thus answer to ...ish, ...some; whereas kamásīki is equivalent to a fusion of sīká-másī-sīki (masī, = to be).

To this class of derivative adjectives, among others, belong:

Fádzi- (vulgo Fádzŭ-) ka-siki, 歌学 通 * 數彰。耻 數, timid; also Fadzi- (vulgo Fadsu-) ka-mášiki, or -kavášiki; from Fadzi, blush; Fadzu, Fadzūru, to blush.

Fárŭ-ká-sǐki, 晴心通素, clear (of the weather); also Fárŭ-kavásĭki; root Fare, clear.

Kara-kaviga másĭki, droll, jocose; from Kara-gavi, to laugh, aud this from Kara-kara, = ha! ha!

Ne-ka-sǐki, 寐 華 通 * 數 義, sleepy, also Ne-kama- (or kava) sǐki; from Ne, sleep. Ya-kamásǐki, 喧声, noisy; from ya! an exclamation like Heh! holla! ho!!).—

Kokode yakamásǐkiwo sakerň, here people prevent what is noisy.— Sidzuka
ni sǐte yakamasi nai (寂 不 喧), it is quiet and without noise.

Yume-ka-siki, 夢文通 * 數章, also Yumé-kama- (or kava-) siki, as in a dream; from Yume, a dream.

§ 18. Derivative adjectives in rá-síki, = having a resemblance to

They are generally denominative. Ra is instead of ará, which has arisen by the strengthening the final vowel of ari into a; ará-sīki, by apheresis ra-sīki, thus means: »such (sīki) as were there...," or »so as if there were." Makoto, = truth; Makoto-narŭ, = being truth, true; Makoto-ra-sīki, such as if it were truth, i. e. probable. Makoto-rá-sīki koto, or Makoto-rá-sīsa, probability.

Ra-siki therefore answers to the derivative termination ..ish, so far as it means having a resemblance, to that, which is indicated by the root, as bluish 2), whereas the Japanese termination gives at the same time, to the adjective formed with it, a diminishing, frequently also a contemptible signification in addition.

The old way of writing the predicate form Arasi is 有了良?志之 The presence of 有, which is here ideographically, with the signification of to be

¹⁾ Ya, yobi-kakuru koyeni iveri, = Ya is said of a calling voice. - Wa-gun siwori, under Ya.

²⁾ BRILL, Nederl. Spraakleer, 1854, § 42. 1. 1).

on hand, = Jap. ari," pleads for the correctness of the assimilation of ra-si to ara-si, and therefore against the supposition, that the ra used here might be the characteristic of the plural (§ 5. III. 1. page 56).

The dialect of Nagasaki has raska for rasiki.

Examples of derivative adjectives in ra-siki:

Otóko, man; Otóko-rásiki ónna, a manly woman.

Onnágŏ, woman; Onnágŏ-rásiki ŏtóko, a womanish (effeminate) man, = ŏnnáno yauni okonái-másŭ ŏtóko¹), i. e. a man conducting himself like a woman.

Warabe, Warambe, boy; Warambe-rásiki, boyish.

Ko-domo, child; Kodomo-rásĭki, childish. Kodomo-rásĭki hanási, childish-talk. Ko-domo no yau nárŭ, childlike.

Kimi, gentleman; Kimi-rásiki, playing the gentleman.

Dai-miyau, = great name, imperial prince; Dai-miyau-rásĭki hátamoto, a vassal, who plays the prince.

Baka, fool, madman; Baka-rásĭki, stupid, foolish; Baka-rásĭki koto, stupidity, folly.
Uso, gossip, untruth; Uso-rásĭki, trifling.

The derivative Fito-rásiki, from Fito, man, answers formally indeed to »human," must however, with a view to the examples quoted, have a signification, by which it is only applicable to a not human being, that acts humanly 2).

Also words of Chinese origin are compounded with rásiki, e. g.

Kou, 为, merit; Kou-aru waza, = a merit being deed, a deed, that really is meritorious. — Kou-rásĭki waza, an apparently meritorious deed.

Ri-kou, 利力 万克, whetted mouth or tongue, eloquence. — Rikou-nárň fǐto, an eloquent, witty (but not blunt) man. — Rikou-rásĭki fǐtó, a man, who plays the witty person or the orator.

Ai, \$\frac{1}{2}\cdot\, \text{kind}; \text{Ai-rásīki, amiable.}

Ka-wai, proper 可,发子 Ka-ai, kind, agreeable. Kawai-rásǐki, amiable, lovely.

Ka-wai-rasǐku naki koto, ungraciousness.

Bin-bou, 貧い乏が, poverty; Bin-bou-rásiki, poorly.

¹⁾ Thus Mr. Oono Yasaburoo, when requested to describe the meaning of Onnagorasiki otoko, defined it.

²⁾ We know this word alone from a Vocabulary, in which it was translated "menschlijkerwijze."

§ 19. Derivative adjectives in beki.

Placed after the attributive form of a verb beki () signifies, that what the verb expresses may, can, must and shall happen. The predicate form is bési, the adverbial béků. — Onna kono téwazawó sű-bési, women may, can or will do this work — Korewa onnano sű-béki tewaza nári, this is a work to be done by women. — Sű-beki, = being allowed or able to do, is here conceived in an active sence, whereas the genitive onnano precedes as definition. Compare page 97 § 8. VI. — Fitó-bitó kono tamawo tattomű, every one values this jewel highly. — Korewa fitó-bitó no tattomű-beki tama nari, this is a jewel, which every one may, can and shall value highly.

In the chapter on the verbs (§ 104.) we shall refer again to Beki.

§ 20. Derivative adjectives in naki, = without, ...less, indicating the want of that, which is mentioned in the radical word.

Na-ki ##‡, in the conversational language Nai, from the radical word Na, = not, used substantively means ** the good for nothing' or ** something good for nothing," = nothing, e. g.: Fitowo naiga sironi su, to consider a person as good for nothing (of no value). Naiga is genitive.

Used attributively it means » not existing;" Naki-fitó is a not existing man, one deceased; Nai-mono, a good for nothing, a not existing thing, a nothing.

— Fitó no naki-koto wo kiku, to hear of a person's not existing (his death).

When Naki is preceded by an attributive definition of what does not exist, it answers to the suffix ...less. — Tsikára-naki or Tsikarano naki yumi, a powerless bow.

The predicative form Nasi, in the conversational language Nai, means the not being at hand of anything, be it thing or circumstance. — Kono yumi wa tsikára nasi, this bow is powerless. — Iwau-ga-sima fittó nasi, the sulpher island is without inhabitants. — Ari nasiwo tovu, 国内方有了一种文, to inquire about the existence or non-existence of a thing.

Adverbially Náků (無方), in the conversational language Ngu, Noo (ナウ・ナフ・ノウ・ノフ). — Thence the continuative verb Nakari (= Náků + ari), not to exist. — Náku nari, to go to nothing, to die. — Naku s)i, u, to be without..., to want.

Na and the forms derived from it will be found treated more diffusely in the chapter on the verbs (§ 109.).

§ 21. Adjectives with the negative prefix Na, or the Chinese 不, Fu. Na, with negative power comes before adjectives as well as substantives, and causes them to express the contrary. This use of Na peculiar to the old language has been preserved in expressions as: Na-yami, = no rest (不安); Na-yî (ナ井), = no seat, for *earthquake* (地震); Na-ivizo, = not speak, = be silent!

The Chinese X^{7} , Fu, = not, as a pure negative prefix to Japanese words expressive of quality has also got into use. To the few compounds of that nature belong:

Fu-de-ki, 不为出产來*, mis-chance, bad-growth. De-ki, to proceed, to be produced.

Fu-nari, 不 實力, bad growth. — Fu-narino tosi, a bad year.

Bu-nari-naru, 不声形力, misshapen; Nari, shape.

Fu-katte-naru, 不 勝力手, uncomfortable, disadvantageous; uneasy; Kátte, the winning hand.

Fu-mi-motsi-naru, 不 身 = 特景+ル, behaving badly; Fu-mi-motsi, bad behavior, Fr. inconduite; Mi-motsi, behaving as it should be.

Fu-ratsino, 不为 将享, extravagant; absurd; improper, irrational; from the Chinese Liuĕ (埓, vulgo 坅), after the Japanese pronunciation, Ratsi, limit, fence. — Fu-ratsino koto, what goes beyond limits. — Ratsimo naki zon-zi yori 坅享美++ 存资 奇贵, an irrational opinion.

Fu-sai-vai-naru, 不 幸業とナル, unprosperous; Sai-vai, prosperity, luck, blessing; from saki, development, and favi, growth.

Fu-si-avase-naru, 不っ仕シ合スャナル, not lucky; from Si-avase, chance.

Fu-sugurete imasu, 不 勝えってマス, not excellent, not being particularly well.

Fu-tsu-gau-náru, 不 都 今 合 த , unfit, inconvenient, incongruous; from the Chinese 都 今 合 த , = altogether, the sum; thence Tokino tsu-gauni yori, according to the time.

More numerous are the compounds with \mathcal{K}^{7} , which, adopted from the Chinese, and sanctioned by use as classical expressions, have penetrated even to the language of daily life.

As attributive definitions prefixed to Japanese words, they occur with the suffixes no or naru; e. g.:

不プ和ファル, discordant.

不プ幸労ナル, desastrous.

不プ考タナル, unchildlike.

不プ足分ナル, insufficient, not enough.

不 快きナル, indisposed.

well.

不っ作 法*ナル, unfashionable.

不 斷 第 , unceasing gossip.

不,朽步,親シ睦梦, imperishable friendship.

不 意 美 難 t, unforeseen difficulty.

chance.

If the pure negative \mathbb{X}^{7} , of similar expressions is superseded by $\mathbb{H}^{7}(bu,$ = without), the meaning of the word undergoes a considerable modification, which is still frequently lost sight of. 不 元 元 + r Fu-rei-naru, is uncourtly, and equal to coarse, clownish. # 7 11 + 1, = without ceremony," and may also be rude behavior, which does not wound. 非上流上, is a behavior, antagonist to the nature of politeness, thus misbehavior. 不 時 , Fu-zi is untimely, i. e. not at the time fixed; 無ブ時ジ, without fixed time, i. e. always; 非ピ時シ, wrong-time, the improper time, the time at which something may not happen.

8 22. Adjectives with a previous definition.

Nouns, prefixed to an adjective as definitive, form with it a compound word, provided they are not characterized as an attributive addition by the termination no. — Te, hand; Naga, long; Te-naga zaru, long-armed ape. — Kutsi, mouth; Omoki, heavy; Kutsino omóki fitó, a man heavy of mouth or tongue.

Examples.

Inisihé imáno na-takáki fitó, High named (celebrated) persons of old aud new times. Te-baya, asi-faya, = of hand quick, of foot quick; quick-handed, quick-footed.

Kotoba-fayasi, he is ready of speech. - Kotoba-oosi, he is woordy. - Kutsi-firóki,

broad-mouthed. — Me-akáki, red-eyed.

Mimi-tóki fitó, a man, sharp of ears, a quick-hearing man.

Fara-butó, thick of belly, a paunch-belly, name of a fish.

Faráka ŭwó (for fara-aka ŭwó), a fish red of belly, the red-belly.

Omó-siróki, white or clear of countenance, friendly.

Mono-kóyeno naki yo, a night without sound, a dead night.

Kokóro-neno firóki kotoba, a word ample of meaning.

Kokóro-neno warui fito, a man bad of disposition.

Ke-no ara-mono, ke-no niko-mono, rough haired beings, soft haired beings.

- § 23. The definition, that the quality in any object in full or relatively full measure is met with, is expressed by adverbs or definitions equal to them, which precede the adjective; as such are worthy of notice:
- 1. Ma, 貢 。 真, in conversational language generally Man, = effectively, really; genuine unadulterated, indicates the full measure of the quality. Ma-naka, or Man-naka, 真 中 , the just middle. — Yumino ma-naka wo tórŭ, just the middle of the bow to seize, to seize the bow just in the middle. — Man-nakano iyé, the middle house, standing between two others. —

Mán-firáki, 貢多平片+, quite level, even.

Mán-márŭki, 貢き 圓元‡, quite round.

Má-yásŭki, 貢マ安菜‡, quite easy.

Má-sǐróki, 貢《白光+, quite white, snow-white.

Má-kŭróki, 貢《黑名+, quite black, jet-black.

Ma, = effectively, really, variation of Mi (Ξ^{z}), is the same radical word, that occurs in Ma-koto (真事。 真言),= reality, truth. Ma-gokóro, an upright heart; Masa, truth; Masa-siki, = really.

- 2. Itsi-dan, 一手 段等, a whole piece, adverbially: wholly. Itsi-dan ŭtsŭkúsĭki ónna, a woman in all respects beautiful. — Itsi-dan kek-kau nárŭ, in all respects excellent.
- 3. Ikanimo, = however, in all respects. Ikanimo tsiisaki, as small as possible. — Ikanimo tayásŭki, as easy as possible.
- 4. Zŭi-bun, 隨至分乙, = comparatively, so much as possible. Zŭí-bun fayákŭ, pretty early; is also used with the signification of »very early."
 - § 24. Absolute comparative.

Adverbs which, expressing a higher degree of the quality, come before the words of quality, are:

1) Mo, 最^t。 vulgo 宽, yet, yet more; to be distinguished from Ma, = real, with which it frequently mutates.

Mo-yásňki, 最*安菜, easierMo-fayá, 最*早菜, still quicker orMo-gami, 最*上芝, higher up.earlier; already.Mo-sotto, 最*些菜, yet less.Mo-sňkósi, 最*少菜, yet a little.

Mo-săkosi sakini, still rather earlier; just now. — Korewa amári tsiisai. Mo-

sŭkósi ookiinowo O mise 1), this (case) is too small. Let me see one rather larger.

- 2) Ookini, 大業_, greatly, very. Ookini furúki, very antique. Ookini aráki, very rough.
- 3) Sŭkósi, 🏂, little, in slight degree. Sŭkosi takai tokóro, a place high only in a slight degree.
- 4. Nao, 猶方, old-Jap. Navo, 猶未, once more so..., still more. Sore de nao yokŭ nari, thereby it becomes so much the better. Sore dake nao yorósii, it is so much the better.
- 5) Iyá or iyó, also yá or yó, 爾京。 元, = once more so.., farther, more; to be distinguished from iya, no. Iyá taka yama, the mountain once as high. Iyá medzŭrásiki, still more interesting.
- 6) Iyá-ĭyá or ĭyó-ĭyó, 彌氣 又 \。 彌蓋 又 \, more and more; in the conversational language Iyága ŭyéni also. Iyó-ĭyó fŭkáki, still much deeper.
- 7) Másu-másu, 📆, more and more. Riyau-kókuno mázivari másu-másu átsükú nári, the intercourse of both the empires extends more and more.
 - § 25. The relative or real comparative.
- 1. If a quality be attributed to one object in the same measure as to another, the likeness, if it is quantitative, is expressed by Fodo, if it is qualitative by Yauni. Fodo (程序) means quantity, Yauni, or Yooni (校文), in the manner.

Namiva yama-fodo takasi, the waves are as high as mountains. — Namiva yukino yauni sirosi, the waves are white as snow. — Yama-fodo, = size of mountains, and Yukino yauni, = in the manner of snow, are here adverbial definitions, which, as such, precede the words of quality takasi and sirosi. The particle va, vulgo wa, is here necessary to separate the subject nami from the following substantive (yama, or yuki), which, as subordinate definition, belongs to the predicate word of quality.

San ri fodo toósi, it is so far as three miles. — Isi yauni kataki, = stony hard, i. e. so hard as stone. — Zen fodo dai-sétsŭ nárŭ monova nasi, 無し善ま程本 大孝切まナル 書きい, there is nothing so important as virtue; in the conversational language: Zen fodo tai-setsu na (or also tai-si ta, 大孝事ック) monowa nai.

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 2.

2. If a quality is ascribed to one object in a higher degree, than to another, with which the comparison is made, the latter is considered as the point of departure in the ascription and, as such, characterized by the termination yori (out), immediately precedes the word of quality, which does not assume a comparative form; thus Namiva iyéyori takasi, = the waves are from houses out high. i. e. the waves are higher than houses. In this form of speech also the isolating particle va or wa is indispensible.

The Mongolian and Mandju, in respect of the comparative, follow the same way 1). To the expression: »The horse is higher than the sheep," is equivalent in Japanese the expression: Mǔmáva fitsúziyori ooi nari (馬之八二大之 於引工 上京 也 前), = the horse — from the sheep out high is; in Mongolian Morin anu chonin etse jeke.

Examples.

Meiva koo-mooyori karosi (命之) 重要支於青鴻文 毛夢), the life is lighter than down. — Ookamivá yama-ĭnuyori takesi, the wolf is bolder than the wild dog. — Olanda-fűnévá Too-senyori sakini tsǐyáku-gansu, the Dutch ship lands earlier than the Chinese. — Kakűretárűyóri aravaruruva nasi, = something more manifest than the hidden, is there not, there is nothing more manifest, than the hidden. — Riwo kivamete, Ten-kawó ŏsáműrű-kotova — sǐyuyori ooi-nárűva nasi, what concerns the forming of the understanding, and the government of the state, there is nothing greater than the doctrine of confucius. — ...yori sűkósíku naru, less becoming than...

Remark. No comparison is contained in the sentence: Kono sákayori tsutsi fíkisi, = the land (tsutsi) is of this steepness off low; as the words » of this steepness off (kono saka yori)" are an attributive definition of » land (tsutsi)," and not of the word of quality » low (fiki)."

The relative comparative may also be defined by means of one of the adverbs (§ 24), which indicate a higher degree of the quality; e. g.: Wasiva kuma-takayori mata-mata ooi nari, the eagle is twice as big as the bear-falcon (the horned falcon). — Kuma-takava me-ono dai-siyau mina takani onáziku, takayori ooi-naru koto san bai seri, with the bear-falcon (Spizaidos orientalis) the size of the female and the

¹⁾ Compare I. J. SCHMIDT, Grammatik der Mongolischen Sprache St Petersburg, 1831. S. 39. — CANON DE LA GABELENTZ, Élém. de la Grammaire Mandchoue, 1832. page 86. — Characteristic der hauptsächtichsten Typen des Sprachbaues, von Dr. H. STEINTHAL Berlin. 1860. page. 200.

male generally is as with the hawk; his size (ooinaru koto) with relation to (yori) the hawk amounts to threefold (san bai); i. e. it is thrice as big as the hawk.

The object, with which the comparison is made, is also isolated by va, when the word expressive of quality does not immediately follow it, but is separated from it by a subordinate adverbial definition; e. g.: Kono iyé yoriva mata takasi, is as high again as this house. — Kono iyé yoriva nao takasi, is yet higher than this house.

Verbs also, which express a more or a less, such as Mási, Masári, Masárieri (愈乏。素。膀。優), = to be more, to excel (praeslare); Otóreri (劣龙山), = to be less, are used in the forming of comparisons; e. g. Idzurega nandzini masáru (乳 愈 於 汝), who is more than you? — Kono kunini masárite takárano árŭ kuni (愈 豆 茲 / 國 = 面 有 瓊 / 國), a country better than this country and rich in treasures. — Wareni masáreri, he has excelled me. — Siro-mayu-kavikoni masáreru monova nási, there is nothing, that surpasses the silkworms of white cocoons. — Fitóni otóru, to be less than others.

Remark. When in the saying: »It is better not to go, than to go," deviating from the usual order of words, according to which one would be obliged to say »Yukánň va (the not going) yukuyori (than the going) masi (is better)," is expressed by Yukuyoriva yukánň gá mási, a rhetorical inversion takes place, to make it appear, that the predicate »it is better (= Lat. praestat)" is of the most importance. Therefore the subject yukánň, as a subordinate definition precedes the predicate, but is emphatically characterized by ga, whereas the yuku yori, contributed to the comparison,

¹⁾ Compare RODRIGUEZ Élémens, p. 80.

isolated by va, is placed in front. Compare what is said on this subject, on page 64.

The poet supersedes yoriva by kara koso or gara koso; e. g.:

Uéte miyo! Fana no sodatanu satová nási. Kokóro gára kósó miva íyasikere 1).

Plant and look! There is no village where flowers do not come up. My outside is worse than my heart.

Koso, an emphatic suffix.

§ 26. The absolute superlative.

The absolute superlative is expressed by one of the abverbs, which imply the highest degree of the quality and precede the word expressive of quality. The adverbs are:

- 1) Fana-fáda, or hana-háda, $\biguplus_{\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{K}}}^{\mathcal{F}}$, very; old-Japanese $\mathit{Fata-fata}$, from fata , yet again. $\mathit{Fana-fáda}$ takaki , very high. $\mathit{F.}$ $\mathit{sebáki}$, very narrow. $\mathit{F.}$ $\mathit{tákŭ-san}$ $\mathit{náru}$, very plentiful. $\mathit{Tsŭbame}$ $\mathit{tobi-kakeru}$ koto $\mathit{fana-fada}$ $\mathit{fayá-si}$, the flight of the swallow is very quick. $\mathit{F.}$ $\mathit{taí-sétsŭni}$ $\mathit{omóvu}$, to consider of the most importance.
- 2) Mottomo, 最美。 起。尤, originally Mótomó, utmost, quite. Aka-kaneno nari mottómo yorósiku, itátte mare nari, as to the standard of copper (the coin) is quite good, it is however extremely rare.
- 3) Ito, ito-ito, 最仁。太。爾。甚。痛, very. Ito yásŭki, very easy. Ito sšiki fimé, a very lovely girl.
- 4) Itatte, 至多元, the gerund of itári, = arrive at the place to which one will come; as adverb complete, entire, utmost, highest. Itatte yorósi, it is quite good. Itatte fayáku, very early. Sasakiva katatsi itatte tsiisáku sité koyé ooi nari, the wren is in form very small, yet in voice strong. . . . to kokoro-yuruvá makotoni itatte oróka nari, mean that ..., is indeed utterly stupid. Instead of it place the inversion: makotoni orókanó itári nari, = is indeed the highest point of stupidity, if the logical accent is to be placed on itari. En-in ainari kino-dokuno itarini soro, 延去月1相子成青氣方。至為三)口, delay is the summit of vexation.

The Chinese $\mathfrak{Z} \mathfrak{D}$ si, = Ytátte, also is used to express the superlative, and that in composition with Chinese words; e.g.:

¹⁾ A leaf in an album, written by FUKU-SAVA, 1862.

至シ極ブ, si-góku, top-point, utmost.

至シ善ぎ, si-zen, highest good, perfectly good.

至シ炒菜, si-beo, excellent.

至文要表, si-you, needful in the highest degree.

- 5) Meppoó (メッポウ), which is said to be in use with the signification of » most," but only at Yedo, was known to us only under the form of Meppou-naru, as synonym of Mono-osóre sénŭ, = caring for no danger, fearless, bold. Kono nedanva meppoo takai might thus signify: this price is boldly high. But as we now recognize this word to be the Japanese pronunciation of the Chinese 滅 法, Mič-fa, signifying »annihilation-law", i. e. unavoidable dead, we must translate Meppoo takai by mortaly high. Some write 波克 亡劳, and pronounce it Met-boo.
- 6) Itsino, 一手,, first; Dai-itsino, 第年一手, = the first. Tsuruga kilakuni itsino yoki minato nari, Tsuruga is the first good (the best) harbour in the northern provinces. — Nippon itsino takeki mono, the bravest man in Japan. — On the other hand itsi stands for itsi, = blow, in Itsi fayaku, = quick as the lightning. — Ten-ka dai-itsino gáku-síya, the first scholar in the empire.
- 7) Itsi-ban, 一手番で, = first rank (see § 31. 1)). Itsi-ban yorósiki, the very best.
- 8) Suguréte, 特養, excelling, surpassing. Suguréte medzurásiki, most interesting.
- 9) Kitsuku, kitsuu (西方), heavy, very. Kitsuu sui mono, something very sour. Very common also, are the following Chinese compounds with it, Sai, = very, utmost, which express a superlative:

最节上学, uppermost, best. 最节頂芽, the highest.

最节中支, middlemost.

最サ下ゲ, lowest, least.

最节初至, very first, first begin-

ning.

最节前艺, first; with relation to time, = just now, presently, a few mo-

ments ago.

最类動意, most diligent.

§ 27. The relative superlative.

The relative superlative is characterized in that, that the objects surpassed are expressly named, and this naming, whether in the genitive, or in the local, is placed before the word expressive of quality, by way of a definition, and thus subordinate to it. The bright of (or among) the stars is, after the Japanese manner of speaking, the brightest of (or among) the stars, Fosino (or Fosino nakani) akiraka náru va.

Examples. Karasi fazikamiva nano tattoki nari, mustard and ginger are the principal of vegetables; or: Nano tattokiva karasi fazikami nari, the principal among the vegetables are mustard and ginger. — 薬者 之ノ中立 之ノ勝る[劣むレル者 5, Kŭsurino nakano masáreru [otóreru] mono, the best [the least] among the medecines.

一勝子 最幸 諸子 佛子 Buppoova moro-moro no norino nakani motomo sarani 法学 sugurete imásu¹), the Buddha-doctrine is among all 株子 大き coctrines the most excellent.

§ 28. The excess in a quality is expressed by:

Amári, 餘章。余, = excess, adv. excessively, too ... — Tsikarano amari, excess of strength. — Amári gin, excessive money. — Korewá amári tsiisai, 是こり余章 小章 イン, this is too small. — Korewá amari nagai³), this is too long. — Korewa amari iroga koi⁴), this is too dark of color. — Korewa amari dziyaiga átsui⁵), this is too thick of stuff.

Yo-fodo, 余³程章, = excess, excessive, too..., = Amári. — Soredewa yo-fodo takáku nari-masu, 夫ンデワ 余³程章高多直プナリマス 6), then it becomes too high (too dear). — Yo-fodo osói 7), it is too late.

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¹⁾ Nippon-ki, Vol. 19, page 25 verso.

 ²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, page 2.
 3) page 8.
 4) page 23.
 5) , page 24.
 6) page 37.
 7) page 41.

CHAPTER IV.

NUMERALS.

The Japanese language has its own numerals; but with the introduction of the Chinese system of measures, weights and reckoning of time, the Chinese numerals and the Chinese marks of number came early and generally into use. Therefore one has to do with two sorts of numerals, with the Japanese and with the Chinese. The Japanese are connected with Japanese words, and the Chinese with Chinese.

§ 29. The ancient Japanese cardinal numbers are:

とト, Fitó (F'tó, H'tó) one.	ファノ, Kökónó · · · · · nine.
フタ, Fütá (F'tá) two.	ト ヲ, Tóo, = once ten.
جَ, Mi three.	y, so, ten, termination of tens.
J, Yo four.	E, Momo hundred.
イツ, ĭtsú five.	功,fo,vo, as termination of
ム, Muyu six.	hundreds.
	f, Tsi thousand.
Y, Yaeight.	ヨログ, Yŏródzü ten thousaud.

The vulgar man says for Hito (1) and Kokono (9), by way of abbreviation, Hi and Koko also. Oral communication by OONO YASABUROO ESQ.

These radical forms are used in the forming of compound words in which, according to the principle fixed in § 9. I. A., the idea of number is supposed to be already combined with the object, e. g.:

Fitó-vino fána, = one day's flower. — Fitó-yono sake, = one night's rice-beer, i. e. sake, that is only one night old. — Fitó-fána, one-flowered.

Fŭtá-go, a twin. — Fŭtá-gokóro, a double heart. — Fŭtá-nari, an hermaphrodite. — Fŭtá-oyá, the parents. — Fŭtá-tábi, twice. — Fŭtá-nanó sima, a two-named island.

Mi-ka, the day (ka), which has the number three as characteristic, the third day; also the period of three days (triduum). — Mi-ka-tsŭki, = the third-day-moon, the moon of the third day. — Mi-tose, the year three, also the period of three years (triennium). — Mi-kūsáno kayu, = three-herbed pap.

Yo-mo, the square. — Mŭ-tóse, the year six, also the period of six years. — Mŭ-tóseno, six yeared. — Năná-yáma, the Seven mountains.

Used as substantive numerals, the cardinal numbers from 1 to 9 take the suffix \mathcal{Y} tsu, which just as the Chinese numeral-substantive $\stackrel{\leftarrow}{\boxminus}$ (ko), with which in the most ancient writings 1) it is assimilated, means, originally, a piece of bamboo and, in a general sense, in the counting of articles, is taken for piece, number 2. Consequently we have the following compound nouns:

Fító-tsű (F'tóts', H'tóts') . oue.	Mŭ-tsú six.
Fŭtá-tsŭ (F'táts') two.	Năná-tsŭ seven.
Mi-tsu three.	Yá-tsŭ eight.
Yo-tsŭ four.	Kŏkóno-tsŭ nine.
Itsŭ-tsŭ (Its'ts') five.	

These numerals answer to the question: Iku-tsu ($\cancel{3}$), how many pieces? Fitó-tsu-fa, a single leaf³). — $M\check{u}-ts\acute{u}-h\acute{a}na$, or $M\check{u}-ts\acute{u}$ no $h\acute{a}na$, flowers to the number of six, being $M\check{u}ts\acute{u}$ characterized by the genitive termination no as a noun used attributively.

¹⁾ Nippon-ki.

²⁾ When, in 1857, I published the Proeve eener Japansche Spraakkunst van DONKER CURTIUS, I considered this tsu as the old genitive termination.

³⁾ The name of Acrostichum Lingua.

By combination with ari or ori (= to be), Fitto, Fitta, Mi and Yo form the words Fitori (獨方), Futari (二 人名), Mitari (三 人名), and Yottari, = individual, alone; - pair, both; - triad, three together; - four; - nouns, which are only applicable to persons, and thus are used as substantives, as well as attributively. - Kun-siva sono fitóriwó tsütsűsímű, the philosopher attends to his own person, himself alone. — Iku-tari, how many persons?

The tens: 10, 20 to 90, consist of the cardinal numbers followed by y, so, which means ten (just as .. ty in twenty). Mi-so, three ten, = thirty. If they are used as substantive numerals; they take as suffix, (instead of P, tsu) +, tsi, which is only a modification of tsu, and for the sake of euphony also changes to f, dzi. Mi-so-dzi, = thir-ty-number. Mi-so-dzino hána, flowers to the number of thirty. Let this F be distinguished from F zi, for Misozi means the age of 30 years (三ミナッ歳ジ).

The tens are:

Radical forms.

 $\triangleright \mathcal{I}$, $To\delta$, also $T_{\underline{O}}$, contracted from $F't\delta so, =$ once ten.

(フタン, twenty, not in use.)

٤٧, Mi-so, thirty.

37, Yo-so, forty.

イグソ, Itsŭ-so (its-so), commonly:

イソ, I-so, fifty.

47, Mŭ-só, sixty.

ナ、ソ、Naná-so, seventy.

ヤソ, Yá-so, eighty.

コ、ノソ, Kökŏnó-so, ninety.

Compounds with toi.

トラチ, Toó-tsi, one ten.

フタチ、Fütá-tsi、 ハタチ、Fătá-tsi、

ミソデ, Mi-so-dzi, number of thirty.

ヨソギ, Yo-so-dzi, number of forty.

インデ, is-só-dzi, (its-só-dzi), number of

fifty.

ムソギ, Mu-so-dzi, number of sixty.

ナッソギ、Na-ná-sodzi、 seventy.
ヤソギ、Yá-só-dzi、 number of eighty.

コ、ノフギ、Kokonó-so-dzi、 » ninety.

€ , Momo, a hundred; in combinations \$, -fo, -vo, -ho; thence Yo-vo, 400, -I-vo, 500, - Ya-vo, 800; others we have not met with.

f, Tsi, thousand; f, Tsi-tsi, thousands.

フタチ 、, Fata-tsi-tsi, two thousand. - ナ、チ、Naná-tsi, nine thousand.

I I T, Yord-dzu, ten thousand. - + , f, Momo-tsi, a hundred thousand.

モ、ヨログ, Momo-yŏródzu, a hundred times ten thousand, or a million.

ヤキヨログ, Yavo-yŏródzu, eight hundred times ten thousand, or eight millions.

The Japanese numbers Momo, Tsi and Yŏródzu are generally used in a general sense for many and all; Momo-kŭsá, all plants; Tsi-tose, many years; Yoródzuno mono, all things; Momo-tsi-dori, all birds 1).

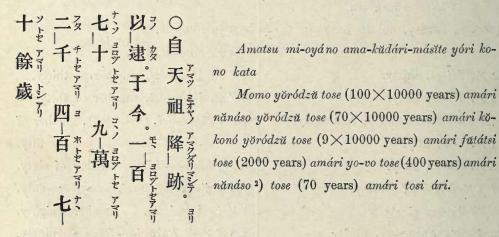
If a numeral precedes another numeral in its radical form, then it is the attributive definition of such: Mi-yotsu is thrice four; Miso-yotsu, thirty times four.

Two and thirty, on the other hand, is expressed by Misodzi amári (or simply mári) fütátsu, i. e. a number of thirty plus a number of two. One counts thus:

> Eleven Toó-tsi mári fitótsu. Twelve.... » » fŭtátsu etc. One and twenty, Fătátsi mári fitátsu etc.

Mù-só-tsi mári mùtsúno kuni (六 十 十 余 子 六 タ 之) 國 (), the six and sixty countries. - Ya-fo yŏródzŭno kami, eight hundred times ten thousand gods.

The saying: »It is more than 1792470 years, since the heavenly parents descended from heaven," we find in the ancient chronicle Nippon-ki III. 2 verso, expressed by:



The numerals in tsu and tsi serve as nouns substantive and are also used, with or without the genitive termination no, as attributives. - Kono simavami fitotsuni site, omo yotsu ari, = this island (the island of the four countries, Sikóka) is of body a unit, and has of faces four in number.

¹⁾ Momo-tsi-dori is also the name of the thrush, that imitates the voice of all birds.

²⁾ The original, printed with some worn out forms, has nana instead of nanaso.

§ 30. The Chinese cardinal numbers, after the Japanese pronunciation. The first column contains the number in full.

壹。	一手。少,	Itsi, Itsŭ (its')	one.
貳。	<u> </u>	Ni	
參。	三世,	San	three.
肆。	四シ,	Si $^1)$	
伍。	五",	Go (no, ngo)	five.
陸。	六号。为,	Rokŭ, Rikŭ	six.
柒。	七彩	Sĭtsi (s'tsi, at Yédo h'tsi)	seven.
捌。	八字,	Fátsi (hátsi)	eight.
久。	九寺。2,	Kiu, Ku	nine.
拾。	十艺。学	2), Ziyu (at Yédo dziā, džiu, džī, Eng. ji),	ten.
百岁		Fĭyak' (hyak')	a hundred.
千艺	,	Sen	a thousand.
萬。	万艺。公,	Man (ban)	ten thousand.

The number of the tens, hundreds, thousands and tens of thousands is more definitely determined by the units preceding them, thus:

イツジエ,	İs-ziyú, ten.
ニ ジエ,	Ni-ziyu, twenty.
サンジュ,	San-ziyu, thirty.
シ ジユ,	Si-ziyu, forty.
ゴ ジエ,	Go-ziyu, fifty.
ロクジュ,	Rok'-ziyu, sixty.
シチジユ,	Sĭtsí- (h'tsi) ziyu, seventy.
ハチジユ,	Fatsi-ziyu, eighty.
ク ジュ,	Ku-ziyu, ninety.
イタピヤク,	Ip-pyyak', one hundred.
ニ ヒヤク,	N-fiyak', two hundred.

サンピヤク, Sam-byak', three hundred.

ETT, Si-fiyak', four hundred.

ロクピヤク、Rop-pĭyak', six hundred. シチヒヤク、Sĭtsí-fĭyak', seven hundred.

I' LYD, Go-fiyak', five hundred.

ハチピヤク, Fap-pyyak'. eight hundred.

אר, Ku-ſiyak', nine hundred.

イクセン, Is-sen, one thousand.

= tv, Ni-sen etc., two thousand.

イチマン, Itsi-man, once ten thousand.

= \(\nabla \nabla \), Ni-man, twice ten thousand.

ジュマン, Ziyu-man, 10×10000.

 $= \mathcal{V} \mathcal{I} \mathcal{I} \mathcal{V}$, Ni-ziyu-man, 20×10000 .

ピヤクマシ、Flyak-man, a million.

ニヒャクマン, Ni-flyak-man, two mill.

¹⁾ The numeral Si (4) is mostly avoided in composition with nouns, and superseded by the Japanese numeral Yo because Si also means "to die."

²⁾ The written form Py would, in all respects, answer rather to the Yédo pronunciation, is however, in

To a Japanese word, the Chinese numerals are connected by the genitive termination no. — Ziyu nino iro, twelve sorts.

- § 31. Ordinal numerals, the first, the second. As the most in use are:
- 1) The Chinese numbers Itsi, Ni, San etc., followed by 番点 ban, that means watch, and number. To the question 幾月 番点, Iku-ban, = what number?, answer
 - 一手番ご, Itsi-ban, number one, i. e. the first.
 - 二=番び, Ni-ban, number two, i. e. the second.
 - 三世番び, Sam-ban, number three.
 - 四 3 番 5, Yo-ban, number four, exceptionally for Si-ban.
- 2) The Chinese numbers, preceded by 第多Dai, = series; thus: 第多一章, Dai-itsi, = one according to order, i. e. the first. Nippon-ki ken daini ziyu sitsi, = Japanese chronicle, volume 27, literally: 27 according to the order of the volumes. 第多三步子, Dai-san si, the third son.
- 3) The compounds Itsi-ban, Ni-ban, Sam-ban, etc., preceded by 第 Dai; thus Dai-itsi-ban, Dai-ni-ban, Dai-sam-ban, first, second, third. Dai-yo-ban, fourth, exceptionally for Dai-si-ban; so also Dai-ziyu-yo-ban (14th), Dai-ni-ziyu-yo-ban (24th).

With the genitive termination no, these three sorts of compounds become attributive.

If only two objects are to be counted, the difference is made by in ξ Sen and $\mathcal{E}^{\mathcal{F}}$ Go, before and after. If the arrangement is limited to three classes,

Japan itself, not yet adopted. — By a mutation of the French letters j and y, in the Supplement to RODE.

Gr. from page 15 you is generally found improperly for jou (ten).

they are distinguished as the topmost, middle and lowest, by 上菜 Ziyoo, 中共 Tsiu and 下ゲ Ge¹), or as foremost, next and last, by Saki, Tsugi and Ato or nsiro. — 上菜, 種菜。中女, 種菜。下ヶ種菜 is the seed of the first, second, third quality.

The first, with reference to the time, is expressed by 19 Fátsű, or 12 \$\frac{1}{2}\$ Fazimeno, = first: Fatsű-mono, the firstlings, the first fruits; Fazimeno tosi, the first year (of a period).

§ 32. The iterative numerals, once, twice etc., are:

Japanese, to the question:
Iku-tabi, 樂月度各, how often?

Fitó-tabi, once.

Fŭtá-tabi, twice.

Mi-tabi, thrice.

Yo-tabi, four times.

Itsú-tabi, five times.

Mŭ-tabi, six times.

Năná-tabi, seven times.

Ya-tabi, eight times.

Kökóno-tabi, nine times.

To-tabi, ten times.

In numbers higher than 10 the Chinese numbers also are compounded with tabi; thus

Ziyu-itsi-tabi, eleven times.

Chinese, to the question:

Nan-do, 何艾度F, how often? 2)

一手度F, Itsi-do, once.

二=度F, Ni-do, twice.

三世度 F, San-do, thrice.

四3度 F, Yo-do, four times.

Si-do, four degrees.

五"度片, Go-do, five times.

大豆度 F, Rok'do, six times.

七字度 F, Sitsi-do, seven times.

八字度序, Fatsi-do, eight times.

九ヶ度 F, Ku-do, nine times.

十岁度 F, Ziyu-do, ten times.

十至一年度 F, Ziyu-itsi-do, eleven times.

etc.

Momo-tabi, 百き度さ, a hundred times; many times. — Tsi-tabi, 千 度さa thousand times; many times. — Tsi-tabi momo-tabi, 千 度を百き度さ, a thousand times, a hundred times 3); often. — Tabi-tabi, 度さて1, as often.

Tabi, with which the Japanese cardinal numbers form a compound word, means journey; Tabi-bitó, a traveller.

¹⁾ The yomi: Kami, Naka, Simo, is in the case in question, according to the oral communication of a native of Yédo, there at least, not in use.

²⁾ Also how many degrees; Itsi-do, 1°; Ni-do, 2°, etc. 3) Also hundred times of thousand times.

三世四里度片, San yo do, three to four times; San si do, 30 to 40.

By suffixing Me (|), which means eye and, figuratively, mark, these iterative numerals become ordinal numbers, which with the genitive inflection no are also attributive. — Iku-tabi-me, 幾月度多目*, what number of times? - Fitó-tabi-me, or Chinese - f 度 F 目 →, Itsi-do-me, the first time. - Totabi-meno hanasi, a story for the tenth time.

§ 33. The doubling or multiplying numerals, single, twofold etc., consist of the Jap. noun , ve or he, vulgo I, ye or e, = fold (German fach), preceded by the Japanese cardinals. To the question Iku-ye (幾月重工), = how manifold? answer:

Fitó-yé, single.	Itsu-ye, five-fold.	Yá-yé, eight-fold.
F'tá-ye, two-fold.	Mŭ-yé,	Kökóno-ye, nine-fold.
Mi-ye, three-fold.	$M\check{u}-y\acute{e}$, $M\check{u}-v\acute{a}$ (obsol.), $\begin{cases} six-fold. \end{cases}$	To-ye, ten-fold.
Yo-yé, four-fold.	Năná-ye, seven-fold.	Fatá-ye, (obsol.), twenty-f.

Fitó-yeno fána, a single flower (flos simplex). — Ya-yeno fána, an eightfold, i. e. a full flower (flos plenus).

The counting by pairs is expressed by the Chinese 信子 (also 陪), bai, = double, pair, in connection with Chinese numerals, thus:

一手 悟了, Itsi bai, one (or a) pair. | 四 = 倍了, Yo bai, four pair.

二= 倍学, Ni bai, two pair.

十芝倍等, Ziyu bai, ten pair.

三世信子, San bai, three pair. 百岁信子, Fiyaku-bai, a hundred pair.

Instead of bai, 雙引 Soo, pair is also used. 一引 雙引 Is-soo, one pair.

§ 34. For sort numbers, as one sort, two sorts etc., serve the Chinese numbers compounded with the Chinese 種立siyu (pron. su), which means sort, kind. They are, after the Yédo pronunciation:

$\forall \mathcal{V} \mathcal{I}$, Is -su one sort.	ロクシユ、Rok'-su six sorts.
= >1, Ni-su two sorts.	シチシク、H'tsi-su seven sorts.
サンシュ, San-su three sorts.	ハチシユ, Hátsi-su eight sorts.
ョ シユ, Yó- (not Si-) su. four sorts.	ク シユ, Kú-su nine sorts.
ュ シユ, Go-su five sorts.	ト シユ, Tó-sǔ, etc ten sorts.

Ren-ziyak' va, wo no nagaki to mizikaki to no ni-siyu ari, of the bird Ren-ziyak (Bombyciphora) there are two sorts: as well a long- as a short-tailed.

With the termination no these substantives are used attributively: San-siyuno sin-too, the spirit-service of three kinds. The Japanese numerals are also used either compounded with Kusa, sort, kind, f. inst. Futa-Kusano tsutaye, 二克種子/傳菜。 two different traditions, or combined with the pluralsuffix rano, f. inst. Itsurano koye (十一五》連亨音至) the five kinds of vowels occurring in ka, ki, ku, ke, ko; sa, si, etc. etc.

§ 35. To express the distributive numbers, one at a time, two at a time, etc. are used:

1) the Jap. adverb \nearrow \nearrow , dzŭ-tsŭ, pron. dzts, = at a time, preceded by the Jap. numerals Fito-tsu, Fito-tsu (= one piece, two pieces), or also by the Chinese numerals in connection with the object counted. Dzitsii is expressed by \nearrow \nearrow . To the question ikii-tsu dzitsii, \nearrow \nearrow , how many pieces at a time? answer:

Fǐtó-tsu dzŭtsŭ, 一片ッ 宛芬, one piece at a time. Fŭtá-tsu dzŭtsŭ, 二名ッ 宛芬, two pieces at a time.

Navawó fǔtá-sudzi dzǔtsǔ fáru, one spins ropes (fáru), two pieces at a time. As it appears, here the accusative navawo (rope) is the objective direct to faru, whereas fǔtá-sudzi dzǔtsǔ, by way of adverbial definition, is placed between the object and verb. — 千日辛二二三世及 *アッ、Itsi-nitsinini san do dzǔtsǔ, twice or thrice a day each time. — In accordance with this is the saying: Ano otóko no kodomo ni Too hǐyákǔ (當百) wo itsi-mai dzǔtsǔ O yari nasáre²), = give to these boys a Too hǐyákǔ, one piece at a time. — 片色五十之二三反泛龙子有子云云, Fitó-iro zǐyu-ni dan dzǔtsǔ ari-másǔ, of one and the same color, twelve pieces at a time are at hand. — 二三大美八分尺头龙子, 二之切之, Ni ziyoo fasšak dzǔtsǔno fǔtá-kire³), two pieces of 2 ziyoo 8 šak at a time (= 28 Jap. feet).

One, two, three or four at a time, when persons are spoken of, is expressed by Fitóri dzütsű, Fütári dzütsű, Mitári dzütsű, Yottári dzütsű. — Ikutári dzütsű,

¹⁾ The common written form is inexact, as it, according to the rule given on page 11, answers to dzudzu. Misled by indistinct examples in badly printed Japanese books we have in our Spracktunes of 1857, page 64 improperly adopted Fito-dzudzu instead of Fito-tau dzutzu.

²⁾ R. BROWN, Colloquial Japanese, No. 171. — Too hiyak, i. e. "a hundred (cash) worth, " inscription on the new Jap. bronze coin of the period Ten-boo (vulgo Tempo).

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 33.

= how many persons at a time? (see § 29.) — Ko fűnéni fítóri dzűtsű noritaru fűnákatá roku-ziyu fodo kogi-kitári, sailor to the number of sixty, seated one at a time in a small boat, came rowing.

2) In the same manner, instead of dzŭtsŭ Ateni (元章), the modal of Ate is used, which means an object, that is proportioned to another, and fully answers to it in respect of value or quality. We consider it equivalent to »per ration, in proportion."

Ikŭ-tsu ateni, 幾5 箇ッ 充了=, how many pieces per ration? Fitó-tsu ateni, 一片 箇ッ 充了=, one piece per ration.

Fŭta-tsu ateni, two pieces at a time.

Doru itsi mai ateni yaru, to give one dollar to each person.

§ 36. Fractional numbers or broken numbers are expressed by means of Chinese ciphers and numerals. The denominator as genitive, indifferently with, or without no, precedes the numerator, thus 金貴爾美ノ四シ分プー学、Kin-riyoono si-bu itsi, or si-buno itsi, i. e. one of the four parts of a Riyoo gold, = a fourth Riyoo or ¼ koban.

半少分で、 Ham-bun, = the half part, the half. 三サ分プー4, Sam-bu itsi, a third (part). 四シ分ブー4, Si-bu itsi, a fourth. 五ず分ブー美, Go-bu itsi, a fifth. Rokŭ-bu itsi, a sixth. 大号分プー4, 七字分"一手, Sitsi-bu itsi, a seventh. 八字分"一手, Fátsi-bu itsi, an eighth. 九ヶ分デー手, Ku-bu itsi, a ninth. 十些分"一年, Ziyu-bu itsi, a tenth. 十堂一年 分プ一年, Ziyu-itsi-bu itsi, an eleventh. Fiyákŭ-bu itsi, a hundredth. 百岁分ブーチ, 千さ分ブーチ, Sen-bu itsi, a thousandth. 一手 万 3 分プ 一年, Itsi man-bu itsi, a then thousandth. 一手 万三分プ 三世, Itsi man-bu san, three ten thousandths.

In broken numbers \mathcal{F} is generally read bu instead of bun, and therefore often, but improperly superseded by \mathcal{F} , bu, the name of a superficial measure.

Mi-tsu itsi, Mi-tsuni means one of three, two of three, properly of a number of three, being the denominator, which is expressed by a Japanese numeral, the partitive genitive of the numerator expressed by a Chinese numeral. They count further:

Yo-tsu itsi, one of four.

Itsu-tsu itsi, one of five.

Mu-tsu itsi, one of six.

Naná-tsu itsi, one of seven.

Ya-tsu itsi, one of eight.

Kokóno-tsu itsi, one of nine.

Kokóno-tsu fatsi, eight of nine.

The division of a hundred by ten is called Wari, 割了, = splitting. — 二年割了, Itsi-wari, = 10 per cent $(10^{\circ}/_{\circ})$. Ni, san, si, go wari, = 20, 30, 40, 50°/_o. Ku wari, žiyu wari, = $90^{\circ}/_{\circ}$, $100^{\circ}/_{\circ}$.

Bu, $\mathcal{H}^{\mathcal{T}}$, vulgo chiefly but erroneously $\mathcal{H}^{\mathcal{T}}$, is called the tenth part of Wari. -1 $\mathcal{H}^{\mathcal{T}}$, Itsi bu, = 1 per cent. Ni, san, si, go bu, = 2, 3, 4, 5%.

The definition, that the import duty of certain articles shall be paid for with 35 percent, in the Regulations, under which the Netherlands-Trade shall be carried on in Japan, belonging to the Treaty of the 18th Aug. 1859, edition of the Japanese text page 25 verso line 2, is expressed by 右下三割五分道上ラ級ムヘシ、Migiva san wari go bu no un-ziyau wo komu besi, i. e. on the said articles a duty of $35^0/_0$ shall be paid.

§ 37. Numeral-substantives, or Numeratives.

Since the Japanese language, like the Chinese, is deficient in the grammatical distinction of singular and plural (see page 53 § 5), to distinguish what is enumerated as something in the singular, or in the plural as a repetition of singular objects, it must have recourse to certain names, which, joined to a numeral, express that the object, which is to be counted, is present as a unity so many times, as the numeral denotes. For some cannon, six cannons," the Japanese uses an expression answering to: some-piece cannon, six-piece cannon," in which case some-piece" and six-piece" have the value of an attributive definition to scannon," or, in its place, is found: scannon one-piece, cannon six-piece." The number of suchlike auxiliary names in Japanese is greater, than is really necessary. Considering objects in respect of their outward

appearance, they are counted according to one or another noticeable characteristic, as stags, by heads, — fish, by their tails, — brooms and objects with handles, by the handles. Hence has arisen a distribution of articles into classes, which are denominated either with Japanese or with Chinese names, and are usually indicated with Chinese characters. The Japanese names of classes are associated with Japanese numerals, the Chinese with Chinese. We have thus for not piece of wood" either the Japanese expression — \sharp \star \dagger , Fitómoto no ki, or the Chinese — \sharp \star \dagger , Ippon (or also Ipponno) ki.

A list of these classes has been taken up in some Japanese Encyclopedias, under the head of 大家, Tsui-miyau, i. e. names which are used for pendants or matches; a denomination, which very justly describes the character of these words. The Japanese-Chinese dictionaries also contain lists of these words, being amassed, the Japanese under Fitó (one), the Chinese under —\$\frac{1}{2}, Itsi, Itsu, but at the same time being mixed with words which indicate an idea of measure or of a quantity, as one grain of rice, one bale of rice. As the last mentioned properly belong to the names of the objects contained in the dictionaries, we limit ourselves here to those auxiliary names, which are alone used for fixing the idea of number, and them we divide into Japanese and Chinese.

I. Japanese Numeratives.

1. Fasĭra, 柱掌, post, column, for Kamis or gods of the Japanese myths. Iku-fasĭra, 幾分 柱掌, how many (gods)? — Fǐtó-fasĭrano kami, one god. — Mi-fasĭrano kami, three gods. — Kono fǔtá-fasĭrava kazéno kami nari, both these are wind-gods. Fǔta-fasĭra, here used substantively, includes alone the idea of »both."

Applied to statues of Buddhist saints, Fasira is expressed by ^ヶ軀, = statue. 釋き迦^ゥ佛ゔ金^ゥ銅^ャ, 像夏一片軀ỷ, one bronze statue of Šâkya-Buddha.

- 2. Kutsi, \$\supersquare\$, mouths, for souls, that are not to be counted. Also Mune, breast.
- 3. Kásĭra, 頭掌, head, for stags and wild boars. Sǐká mi-kasĭra, or Mi-kasĭra no sǐká, three stags.

¹⁾ Nippon-ki, XIX, page 25 verso.

- 4. Fami, \$\frac{1}{2}\$, bit, for reined horses. M'mano f'ttó- (vulg. f'ttótsu) fami, one reined horse.
- 5. Moto, 本丰。居, pale, seat, for hunting-hawks, which are held on perches; for trees.
- 6. Fa, Wa, Z, feather, wing, for birds. Kisino fitó-va, one pheasant. Hayabusawo futa-fa kakuru, to let start falcons by couples. Compare page 130, 7.
 - 7. Q, 尾, tail, for fish. Koi futá-o, two carp.
- 8. Ori, \$\frac{1}{7}\$, fragment, piece, for perch (Tavi), which are offered as a present, and from modesty are called a small piece.
- 9. Sǔdzi, 節章, line (from sumi, ink and dzi, way), for things that are long and thin. Nava, Tádzǔná, Tsuru, Obi fttó-sudzi, one line, one rein, one tendon, a girdle.
- 10. Fira, 張亨。校, spot, stretched, for things which are flat and even. Osi-gava fitó-fira, one piece of leather.
 - 11. No, 响前, breadth, for rolls of writing. Maki-mono fito-no, one roll.
- 12. Ma, 田, room, for apartments. Ne-dokóro fitó-ma, one sleeping-apartment.
- 13. Tomáya, 苦草屋*, vulgo Tomai, for warehouses. Kira jitó-tomai, a warehouse.
- 14. Nagáre, 流龙, stream, for rivers and waving flags. Futú-nagáre kara or fata, two rivers, two flags.
 - 15. Yeda, 枝菜, branch. Naginata fitó-yeda, one pike.
- 16. Furi, 振行, sway, for drawn swords. Katana futo-furi, one drawn sword.

II. Chinese Numeratives.

The scope of a Japanese Grammar excludes a complete list of this numerous class of idle words. For such we refer the reader, who wishes to see them all treated, to J. EDKINS, Grammar of the Chinese Colloquial Language, page 121 and further, and restrict ourselves here to those most in use.

In the union of the Chinese numerals with a successive numerative noun the Japanese spoken language allows itself a few modifications of sound, which arise as it were naturally from a rapid pronunciation, though in writing generally remain unnoticed.

The rule, which the spoken language follows in this respect is: if the enu-

merative noun begins with k, s, t, or with the labial f (h) and p, then the numeral unites itself more closely to it, and the final consonant undergoes an assimilation, which has been already illustrated on page 19.

Itsu-k	becomes	<i>Ik-k</i>	San-f becomes	Sam-b
Itsu-s	»	Is-s	Ziyu-k »	$\check{Z}ik$ - k
Itsu-t	»	It-t	Ziyu-s »	Žis-s
Itsu-f	»	<i>Ip-p</i>	Ziyu-t »	Žit-t
Roku-f	»	Rop-p	Ziyu-f, »	Žip-p

The combinations subject to assimilation are to be known by the numeral — 5; e.g. — 5 筒*, pron. Ik-ka.

No assimilation takes place, when the enumerative noun begins with one of the impure sounds g, z, d, which are pronounced as ng, nz, nd, or also with m, n, r, y and w. The characteristic of this class is the form $-\frac{1}{2}$; e. g. $-\frac{1}{2}$ $\stackrel{\text{def}}{\approx}$, Itsi-mai.

To the Chinese Enumerative nouns most in use belong:

- 1. $\bigwedge_{\sim}^{=}$, Nin $(-\frac{1}{4} \bigwedge_{\sim}^{=})$, man, for persons.
- 一手人意, Itsi-nin, = the Only, is applied to the Emperor (Mikado) alone. Bon-si ni-nin, two Bonzes. 沙を門ま十堂余 人意, Siya-mon zǐyu yo nin, ten Shamans. San-ninno onna, three women. Go-ninno kwai-kokŭ-nin, five foreigners; Kwai-kokŭ-nin go-nin, foreigner five persons.

The conversational language uses for one, two, three or four persons the words Fitóri, Fitári, Mitári and Yottári (see page 145). — Fitorino akindo, one merchant. — Fitárino sii-fii, two sailors.

2. 箇 † . 個, by abbreviation † or † , Ka (†), the most generally used enumerative noun, applicable to objects, which it is wished to characterize as individuals, as a piece, answers to the Japanese $^{\flat}$, tsu (page 138). The counting according to the Yédo-pronunciation is:

$$Ik-ka$$
, イタカ · · · · 1. $Go-ka$, ゴカ · · · · 5. $Ku-ka$, クカ · · · 9. $Ni-ka$, $=$ カ · · · · 2. $Rok-ka$, $ロクカ$ · · · 6. $\check{Z}ik-ka$, $\mathring{\it E}$ クカ · · · 10. $San-ka$, サンカ · · · · 3. $Hitsi-ka$, シチカ · · · · 7. $\check{Z}iu-ik-ka$, ジユイタカ 11. $Si-ka$, シカ · · · · 4. $Hatsi-ka$, ハチカ · · · · 8. $\check{Z}iu-ni-ka$, ジュニカ · 12.

一 5 簡 所 引, Ik-ka-siyo, a district (by counting). — 一 5 所 引, Itsŭ-siyo (is-šo) one and the same district. — 三 サ 介 カ 日 享, San-ka nitsi, three days. — 三 サ 日 デ, San-zitsŭ, the day three, the third day. — 四 ケ , 大 季 寺 デ, Sikano Dai-zi, the four great temples.

To show that a quantity counted is spoken of, the word Oyoso (元素), pronounced ŏyósso, = in sum, together, is generally placed before the number. 一元素十分月素, Oyóso ziyu-ka getsű, ten months. 一元素一分年,間素, Oyóso ik-ka nenno aida, the interval of one year (in counting), i. e. a year long.

3. 匹羊。 走。 之, Fiki, Hiki (一章 厄葉), objects, which are paired or given in pairs, as horses, horned cattle, some sorts of fish, such as perch (Tai), woven stuffs etc. The counting at Yédo is:

M'má řp-píkř, one horse. — Sám-břkí usř, three oxen. — Kinu řp-příkř, one piece of silk, of the length of 56 Jap. feet, or two pieces of 28 feet each.

4. 世, Fa, vulgo Wa (一手 地,), handful, bunch. Budoo, Dai-kon, Kari-kŭsá, Wara itsi-wa, a bunch of grapes, radishes, hay, straw. At Yédo they count:

This enumerative noun is applied to birds also (except birds of prey), and then expressed by \mathbb{Z}_i^n , Fa, vulgo Wa, feather. — Oo-sagi itsi-wa, a heron (not to be confounded with usági, = hare). — Ni-wa sira-sagi, two white herons. Sam-ba fibari, three larks.

- 5. 尾^Ľ, Bi (一月尾^Ľ), tail, for fish. Koi, Fasu, Funa itsi-bi, ni-bi, carp, white fish, stone carp one piece, two pieces.
 - 6. □ 7, Ku (-1, □ 7), mouth, for pots and pans.
- 7. 杯分, vulgo 杰, Fai, Hai (一步杯分), a saucer as a measure of what is drunk; also a numeral-substantive for muscles. People count:

<i>Ip-pai</i> 1.	Rop-pai 6.	Žiu ip-pai 11.	Ni-žiu ip-pai 21.
Ni-hai 2.	H'tsi-hai 7.	Žiu ni-hai 12.	San-žip-pai . 30.
San-bai 3.	Hatsi-hai 8.	Žiu san-bai . 13.	Si žip-pai 40.
Si-hai 4.	Ku-hai 9.	Žiu si-hai 14.	Rok žip-pai . 60.
Go-hai 5.	Žip-pai 10.	Ni-žip-pai 20.	Hiap-pai 100.

Midzu ip-pai, a saucer or a glass of water. — Tša ni hai, two cups of tea.

- 8. 枝孝, Mai (一章 枝孝), handle, anything single, leaf, for things thin and flat, as boards, paper, prints, coined silver, some sorts of fish etc.
- 9. **\(\sigma\), Fon, Hon (\$\longrightarrow\), stem, stalk, handle, for trees, plants, in general things long and slender, which have the property of length, as a pencil (Fude), fan (Oogi), spoon (Tsiya-siyáků), whip (Mutsi), needles (Fari), salmon (Sake), etc. At Yedo, they count:

<i>Ip'-pon</i> 1.	$H't\check{s}i$ -hon 7.	Žiu sam-bon . 13.	Ni-žiu-ni hon 22.
Ni-hon 2.	Hatši-hon 8.	Žiu si-hon 14.	San-žip-pon. 30.
Sam-bon 3.	Ku-hon 9.	Žiu go-hon 15.	Si-žip-pon 40.
Si-hon 4.	Žip-pon 10.	Žiu rop-pon . 16.	Si-žiu ip-pon 41.
Go-hon 5.	Žiu ip-pon 11.	Ni-žip-pon 20.	Hiap-pon 100.
Rop-pon 6.	Žiu ni hon 12.	Ni-žiu ip-pon 21.	Hiak ip-pon. 101.

10. 端冬, Tan (一多端冬), a folded piece, for silk and cotton goods. Vulgo 反冬, sometimes 段冬 also. In answer to the question Nan dan (幾之反冬), how many pieces? the manner of counting is:

<i>It-tan</i> 1.	Go-tan 5.	Žit-tan 10.	Si-žit-tan 40.
Ni-tan 2.	Rok-tan 6.	Žiu-it-tan 11.	Si-žiu it-tan 41.
San-dan 3.	H'tsi-tan 7.	Ni-žit-tan 20.	Hiak-tan. 100.
Si-tan 4.	Hatsi-tan 8.	Ni-žiu it-tan. 21.	Sen-tan 1000.

絹ま一寸端, Kinu it-tan, one piece of silk. — 布多二反, Nuno nitan, two pieces of hempen cloth. — 段多匹亨三世反答, piece-wares three pieces.

- 11. 挺美, Tšoo (一步挺美), handle, for tools with handles. Nomi it-tšoo, a chisel. So also Kiri, borer; Yasuri, file; Teppoo, gun; Naginata, pike; Sumi, East-Ind. ink; Roo, wax; Soku, flat candlestick.
- 12. 柄介, Fei, Hei (一切柄介), stem, handle, for pikes and articles with handles.
- 13. 膜景, Yoo (一手 腰景), the middle, the waist, for swords, which are stuck in the girdle. Tatsi, Katana, Waki-sasi itsi-yoo, one sword with belt, one large, one small sabre. Utsiwo, Yebira itsi-yoo, one quiver.
- 14. 蓋孝, Kai (一分蓋孝), cover, for hats (kasa), umbrellas and parasols (kara-kasa). They count as with Ik-ka: Ik-kai, 1. Ni-kai, 2. Žik-kaĭ, 10. Ni-žik-kai, 20. Sen-gai, 1000.

- 15. 脚葉, Kǐyakǔ, Kĩak (一步 脚葉), foot, for articles of furniture having feet. Tsŭkue, or Keu-sok ik-kĭak, one desk. Sǐyoo-gi san-kĭak, three couches.
- 16. 模克, Tšo (一元 模克), swing, for trunks and traveling-articles, which are carried hanging on a stick. Norimo no it-tšo, a litter or sedan chair. Nagabitsu or Naga-motsi ni-tšo, two traveling trunks.
 - 17. 艘岁, Soo (一步艘岁), vessel, for ships. Counting is done:

<i>Is-soo</i> 1.	Go-soo 5.	Кй-800 9.	Ni-žis-800 . 20.
	Rokй-soo 6.		
San-200 3.	H'tsi-soo 7.	Žiu- is-soo . 11.	Si-žis-800 40.
Si-soo 4.	Has-soo 8.	Žiu-ni-800 . 12.	Hĭakŭ-soo . 100.

Is-soo-füné, one ship: Is-soo gun-kan, one war-ship. Ko-büné is-soo, one boat.

- 18. 軟炭, Riyoo (一手 軟炭), a pair of wheels, for carriages. Kuruma itsiriyoo, one wagon.
- 19. 卷分, Kwan (一分卷分), roll, for writings and stuff, which are rolled up. Siyo(šo)-motsŭ ik-kwan, a roll of writing.
 - 20. 中国名, Fuku (一手中国名), breadth, for piece-goods, pictures etc.
- 21. 軸芳, Ziku (一手 軸芳), axle, for pictures, which are hung on rollers. Kake-mono itsi-ziku, a hanging piece.
- 22. 面 之, Men (一 章 面 之), face, for mirrors, flags, fiddles, drums. Kagámi itsi-men, a looking glass.
- 23. 删节, Sats' (一分 删节), volume, for books. *Is-sats' no šo-mots*, one volume. *Hon ni-sats*', two volumes.
- 24. 通岁, Tsuu (一步通岁), for open letters, written declarations, proofs of receipt etc. They count:

一步通多,書字壯美, It-tsuuno šo zioo, or 書字簡章, Šo-kan, or Tegami, one letter. —二三通多,請多取片書菜 or 請多壯美, two receipts.

25. 封弓, Fuu (一引封弓), seal. for sealed letters. They count:

<i>Ip-puu</i> 1.	Go-fuu 5.	Ku-fuu 9.	Ni-Yiu-ip-puu 21:
A7: f 9	Rob-muy: 6.	Zip-puu 10.	San-Lip-puu . 30.
San-puu 3.	H'tsi-fuu 7.	Žiu-ip-puu . 11.	Hiak-fuu 100.
Si-fuu 4.	Hatsi-fuu 8.	Ni-žip-puu . 20.	

一ラ封ず,書言翰力 or 手 簡ヹ, Ip-puno šo-kan or te-gami, one sealed letter.

26. 足劣, Sokŭ (一步足劣), foot, for shoes: — Tabĭ is-sokŭ, one pair of stockings.

NOTATION OF TIME.

§ 38. Enumeration of years.

Year, Japanese トレ、Tosi, old-Japanese トセ、Tosé, Chinese 年子、Nen.

1. The enumeration of years in pure Japanese is limited, on the question: Iku tosé (幾5年長), how many years?, to:

一片年长, Fitó těsé, a full year.

二多年长, Fütá tősé, two years.

三章年t, Mi tŏsé, three years.

四 写 年 t, Yo tŏsé, four years.

五分年点, řtsú těsé, five years.

七 年 , Năná tǒsé, seven years.

八 年 , Yá tŏsé, eight years.

九号年表, Kökönó tösé¹), nine years.

十年章, Tó tósé, ten years.

百、年长, Momo tosé, a hundred years.

大年表, Mú tosé, six years. | 千年表, Tsi tosé, a thousand years.

2. The Chinese enumeration of years, on the question: 何 文 年 元, Nan-nen, how many years?

一手年表, Itsi-nen, or 一分簡为年表, Ik-ka-nen, a year.

二=年表, Ni-nen, = 簡 年表, Ni-ka-nen, two years.

三世年刊, San nen, » 三世簡为年刊, San-ka-nen, three »

四章年表。上, Yo-nen, or Yo-tosi, » 四之箇为年表, Si-ka-nen, four

五 年 美, Go-nen, 为 适 * 年 美, Go-ka-nen, five

The Chinese si (four) immediately before nen is superseded by the Japanese yo as they do 'nt like to speak of 死》年刊, Si-nen, the year of death.

在节位 # 四 > 十 至 年 元, the year 40 from the accession to the throne. 四年目メニナリマス, Yo-tosi-meni or Yo-nen-meni nari-masu, it is now (it goes now in) the fourth year.

3. The question: how old? = Japanese íku těsé (幾方歲之), how many years? is answered in the Chinese manner of counting. — 十艺七字歲辈=ラ位章= " + E7, Zĭyu-sitsi zai nite kŭráini tsuki-tamoo, in the 17th year of his life he

¹⁾ Vulgo Konó tosé also.

comes to the throne. — Ni-ziyuno tosini or Tosi ni-ziyuni, in his 20th year. § 39. Chronological notation of years.

1. Japan uses the Chinese enumeration of years, which was introduced by a buddhist missionary in A. D. 602 1). After this the years, as well a the months and the days, are counted by sexagenary periods, and named after the known sexagenary cycle, which itself consists of a cycle of ten and one of twelve signs.

The cycle of ten series is called from the five elements: Wood, Fire, Earth, Metal and Water (Japanese Ki, Fi, Tsŭtsi, Kane, Midzŭ), which, each taken double, are distinguished as masculine and femine, or, after the Japanese conception, as the elder and as the younger brother (\mathcal{R}^{z} , Ye and \mathcal{R}^{r} , To).

The names of the ten-series cycle are:

1. 甲专x, Kinóye.	6. 已学, r, Tsŭtsĭ nóto.
2. Z +, Kinóto.	7. 庚ゥノェ, Kannóye.
3. 丙 ヴェ、Finóye.	8. 辛ウノト, Kannoto.
4. 丁片, Finóto.	9. 壬美 , x, Midzunbye.
5. PF 7 . Tsŭtsi no ve.	10. 空ミノト、Midzunóto.

The twelve-series cycle has relation to the division of the zodiac into twelve equal parts, and bears the names of the Chinese zodiac, for which Japanese names of animals are used, as:

1. 子 [→] , Ne Mouse.	7. 午点, M'ma Horse.
2. 丑党, Usǐ Bull.	8. 未芝, Fitsúzi Goat.
3. 寅 ḥ, Tora Tiger.	9. 申节, Sarii Ape.
4. III, U Hare.	10. 西京, Torí Cock.
5. 辰多, Tats' (pron. Taats) Dragon.	11. 戌氧, ǐnú Hound.
6. 巳², Mi Serpent.	12. 亥 ¹ , <i>I</i> Swine.

If both series are let proceed side by side, till both are run out, then the sixty-series cycle is obtained, of which the first year is called 甲子年 or Kinó-ye neno tosi, and the sixtieth 类女年, or Midewnóto ino tosi. The first year of the cycle now current answer to 1864.

¹⁾ See Japan's Bezüge mit der Koreischen Halbinsel und mit Schina. Nach Japanischen Quellen von J. HOFFMANN. 1839. Page 126.

SYNOPSIS OF THE SEXAGENARY CYCLE.

1		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
			乙丰	丙芸	丁に	戊紫	已学	庚クシュ	辛か	壬至	癸岁
1	子子	1		13		25		37		49	
2	丑艺		2		14		26		38		50
3	寅;	51		3		15		27		39	
4	卯,		52		4		16	n gh	28		40
5	辰多	41		53		5		17		29	
6	已至		42		54		6		18		30
7	午台	31		43		55		7		19	7,00
8	未彭		32		44		56		8		20
9	申	21		33		45		57		9	
10	西市		22		34		46		58		10
11	戌纟	11		23		35		47	*	59	
12	亥~		12		24		36		48		60
6 7 8 9 10 11	長 巳 午 未 申 西 戊	31 21	32	33	34	55	56	57	8 58	19	2

2. Enumeration of years by years of governments.

In the earliest times, was added to the cyclical enumeration of years, the calculation after the years of government of the Sovereign (anciently $\bigwedge = \Xi_{\mathcal{F}}$, Nin woo, = King of men, called afterwards Mikado). According to the rule adopted, the first year of the reign of a Mikado is always reckoned to have begun with the year following the death of his predecessor. The Japanese Newyear's day, on which zin Mu, the founder of the Mikado-dynasty, ascended the throne, was the 19th of Febr. (after the Julian style) of the year 660 B. C. ¹).

¹⁾ After the calculation of the Professor of Astronomy, F. KAISER at eight o clock in the morning of the said day, there was a New Moon at Miyako.

The second year of king zin mu is called 神ジ武 天豆皇多壬デェ戌亥(IX 11) 二二年刊.

§ 40. Enumeration of years by year-names.

In 645 A. D. the reckoning by years of government was superseded by a reckoning by year-names, Nen goo (年刊號方可号的).

Just as in China, these are appointed by the Sovereign, so are they in Japan by the Mikado, and after the lapse of a larger or smaller number of years changed by him, this being one of the prerogatives of his crown. The adoption of his year-name pleads for the recognition of his sovereignty 1).

The 68 Chinese words, from which the Japanese year-names are chosen, are:

○ 天豆元ご乾の建の延ろ萬の神の雲の文で寛念養が 老の人事中が詳ら正言承の應の資の保の領の康の事等 弘の慶年貞を靈と泰名平で祖子大名化の字の嘉か喜。 徳の古事景を護の鳳の朱を鳥を知り壽を亨を鑑す録の 確の古事景を護の鳳の朱を鳥を知り壽を亨を鑑す録の 確の古事景を護の鳳の朱を鳥を知り壽を亨を鑑す録の 確の安したこ勝言目言が、福の齊や同じ銅り白の雉で 永を明る至と治や長を觀念歴を改す典書

The successive year-names of the current century are:

 享责和", Kiyoo-wa
 辛元 1801.
 安乙政年, An-sei
 甲元 1854.

 文乙化久, Bun-kwa
 甲元 1804.
 萬乙延壬, Man-en
 庚元 1860.

 文乙政年, Bun-sei
 戊元 1818.
 文乙八孝, Bun-kiu
 辛元 1861.

 天豆保杏, Ten-foo
 庚元 1830.
 元乙治學, Gen-dzi
 甲元 1864.

 (Tem-poo)
 慶々應孝, Kei-oo
 丑元 1865.

 弘子化久, Koo-kwa
 甲元 1844.
 明久治學, Mei-dzi
 辰元 1868.

 嘉力永子, Ka-yei
 戊元 1848.
 一也八
 1875.

Addition to the edition of 1876. Introduction of the Western Calendar in Japan. The first of Januar 1873 (according to the time calculation of Greenwich) the Japanese Government has adopted the European Calendar with his twelf months,

Therefore the correctness of the Japanese chronology, may not be called in question, as is done by some bookmakers.

¹⁾ The change of the year-names seems, in latter times, not to have been known early enough, as reckoning has been continued with one year-name, when another had taken its place.

his weeks and sundays and fixed as the beginning of their era the year 660 B. C., which is the foundation-year of the Mikado-dynasty. The first of Januar 1873 was thus the first day of the first month of the Japanese year 2533 (two thousand five hundred and thirty three). The dating of a certain notarial Act: 日本貳千五百三十三年第一月十五日, is equalized there with 日本明治八年一月十五日, and agrees with our 15th Januar 1873, thus the Japanese still continue making use of the Nen-go (年號).

§ 41. Division of the solar year.

The course of the sun and the solar year are divided into twelve equal parts (months), called after the zodiac, beginning with the arc of the Mouse, on half of which the winter solstice falls. If the twelve arcs are bisected, the 24 periods of 15 days 5 hours and $14\frac{1}{2}$ minutes are obtained, by which the husbandman regulates his labour. These 24 divisions, called \$\tilde{\pi}\stack{\sqrt{

(. "	>		16.0	The.	
一立多	春艺,	Ris-šun 3 Febr.	一直ジ	秋岁,	Ris-siu 7 Aug.
}		Beginning of the spring	13.	2	Beginning of the autumn.
一雨ゥ	水子,	<i>U-sŭi.</i> 19 Febr.	虚言	暑影,	Siyo-siyo 23 Aug.
		Rain water.		Table	Local heat.
「整ヤ	勃5,	Kiyoo-tsits 5 March.	白分	震口,	Fákŭ-ro 8 Sept.
1	<u></u>	Awakening of the insects.	1	10	White dew.
毒宝	分で、	šun-bun 20 March.	秋之	分で.	Siu-bun 23 Sept.
(TY)	13 21	Middle of the spring.	(100)	13 21	Middle of autumn.
(注せ	田区	Sei-mei 5 April.	「筆カ	喬口	Kan-ro 8 Oct.
) 1H1	ツノイ・	Clear.	1200	路,	Cold dew.
きルコ	再为		·	10× 力	
(叙ク	143	Kokŭ-u 20 April.	(相ウ	一件 少,	Soo-koo 23 Oct. Fall of hoar-frost.
(. "	F +1		(. n	to b	
正为	是",	Rik-ka 5 May.	ILY	今岁,	Rit-too 7 Nov.
}		Beginning of the summer.	1		Beginning of the winter.
小等	滿乏,	Seo-man 20 May.	小马	雪多,	Seo-sets 22 Nov.
12		Little plenty.			Little snow.
「主ば	種学,	Boo-siu 5 June.	一大等	雪等,	Dai-sets 7 Dec.
}	a lada /	Transplanting of the rice.	1		Great snow.
夏ゲ	至ジ.	Ge-zi 21 June.	人人	至ジ,	Too-zi 22 Dec.
(2		Height of the summer.		Harry A	Height of the winter.
(小生	县之.	Seo-siyo 6 July.	115	筆力.	Seo-kan 6 Jan.
),3,0	13 3 7	Little heat.	1,3,0	1500	Little frost.
1-5	見シ	Dai-siyo 23 July.	1一女	筆力	Dai-kan 20 Jan.
()\r	有目,	Great heat.	八十	ズン	Great frost.
		Ordan Heans			Older Host.

The civil year begins with Ris-šun (beginning of the spring). Ris-šun yori fatsi ziyu nitsi me, or the 80th day from the beginning of the spring is our

23th of April. Time is very commonly determined after the two equinoctial feasts Bi-gan (彼岸方), which last seven days each, the principal feast, that takes place on the fourth day, falling on the day of the equinox.

§ 42. Enumeration of months.

Months are reckoned in answer to the question Iku-tsaki (幾万月季), or Nan-getsu, how many months?

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Japanese.
            Chinese.
          一年月岁1), Itsi-gets or 一步个为月岁 Ik-ka-gets, one month.
Fĭtó-tsŭki.
Fătá-tsăki. 二=月5Ni-gets » 二= 个#月5Ni-ka-gets, 2 months.
Mi-tsüki. 三サ月芬San-gets » 三サ个* 月芬San-ka-gets, 3 »
Yo-tsŭki. 四シ月芬Si-gets » 四シヘカ月芬Si-ka-gets, 4 » Itsú-tsŭki. 五ゴ月芬Go-gets » 五ゴヘカ月芬Go-ka-gets, 5 »
Mú-tsŭkí. 六号月芬Rok-gets » 六号个为月芬Rok-ka-gets, 6 »
Naná-tsukí. 七字月芬Sitsí-gets » 七字个 月芬Sitsí-ka-gets, 7 »
Ya-tsŭki.
       八字月等Fatsi-gets » 八字个为月等Hak-ka-gets. 8 »
Kokóno-tsŭki. 九º月写Ku-gets » 九º个*月写Ku-ku-gets, 9 »
To-tsŭkí.
      十芝月芬Žiu-gets » 十芝个 为月芬Žik-ka-gets, 10
      十芝一工月写Žiu-itsi-gets》十芝一了个为月写Žiu-ik-ka-g., 11》
      十三二 月万 Žiu-ni-gets » 十三二 个 为 月 5 Žiu-ni-ka-a., 12 »
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To the question Nan-gwats (何之月為), at Yédo Nan ngats, which month? (of the year) the names following answer:

```
正美月炎, Siyoo-gwats, first month. 七季月炎, Sitsi-gwats, seventh month. (at Yédo Soo ngátsú). 八字月, Fatsi-gwats, eighth > 二=月, Ni-gwats, second > 九º月, Ku-gwats, ninth > 一至月, San-gwats, third > 十至月, Ziu-(Džiu)-gwats, tenth > 一至月, Si-gwats, fourth > 十至一年月, Žiu-itsi-gwats, eleventh month. 十至月, Rokŭ-gwats, sixth > 十至二年月, Žiu-ni-gwats, twelfth >
```

These names are good for the intercourse of every day life; in chronological writings and in almanacs the months are also named after the sexagenary cycle.

The intercalary month. As the civil year of the Japanese is a lunar year connected with the solar year, the months continually begin with the new moon

¹⁾ Itsi-gets, = a whole mouth.

and have 29 or 30 days alternately. Thus to the common lunar year belong 354 or 355 days. To keep the four seasons even with the revolution of the sun, every two or three years an intercalary month (*Uruu-dzňki*) is added, which obtains the name of the moon, which it follows, preceded by the word *Uruu* (潤之). The intercalary month following the second month is thus called 潤之二三月景, *Uruu nigwats*, = supernumerary second month.

§ 43. Enumeration of the days.

The natural day, from the rising to the setting of the sun, is called in Jap. \mathfrak{L} , Fi, Hi; the night \mathfrak{I} , Yo; the midday Firu; the midnight Yoru. The compound Firu-yoru, = day and night, means the civil day; it is equivalent to the Chinese \mathfrak{I} , \mathfrak{I} , Tsiu-ya, and, just as it, applied to the astronomical day also.

In connection with the year and month, the civil day is called Jap. Ka, Chin. $\Pi = \emptyset$, Nitsi (or Zitsŭ); both are used in counting the days.

1. After the Chinese manner they count, with or without the numerative 箇 ** or 个, ka, to the question: 幾分。引用 **, Iku-ka, how many days?

一小筒^力日享, Ik-ka nitsi, 1 day.

二= 筒 为 日 =, Ni-ka nitsi, 2 days.

三世簡为日季, San-ka nitsi, 3 days.

四シ箭 为日享, Si-ka nitsi, 4 days etc.

after the reckoning with the numerative $\stackrel{\star}{\bowtie}$ † , ka (page 150):

三サージ三サ四シ箇カ日ネノ間景, Sanziu san-si-ka nitsino aida, within 33 to 34 days.

If the numerative 首, ka, is left out, the Si-nitsi (4 days), because it also means dying-day, is superseded by the Japanese Yok-ka; for 14 days is said Ziyu-yok-ka, for 24 days Ni-ziyu yok-ka, for 34 days San-ziyu yok-ka etc.

2. The Japanese manner of counting, which extends only to the first ten days, and to the 20th and 30th, refers to the days of a month, when the month is expressly named previously; this not being the case, the counting must then be considered to begin from another given date, which however is not included in the calculation.

The days of the month, — it generally begins with the new moon, — are called, after the question: $Idz\check{u}-ka$ ($\Pi \not\rightarrow \Pi$), = which day? or $Idz\check{u}reno$ fi-ka?

- 1. 朔罕日季, Tsŭi-tatsi.
- 2. 二引 日 ^力, Futsŭ-ká.
- 3. 三 E 日 カ, Mi-ká.
- 4. 四 引 日 n, Yok-ká.
- 5. 五寸日 *, Its'-ká.
- 6. 大豆 日 b, Muyu-ká, vulgo Mui-ká.
- 7. 七克日 th, Nanu-ká, » Nanó-ká.
- 8. 八节日 n, Yoo-ká.
- 9. 九 ; 日 ^力, Kökönó-ká.
- 10. 十号 日 ^力, Too-ká.
- 11. + = I H =, Žiyu-itsi-nitsi.
- 12. 十芝二= 日章, Žīyu-ni-nitsi.
- 13. 十三世 日幸, Žīyu-san-nitsi.
- 14. 十学四录日 n, Žīyu-yok-ka.
- 15. 十岁五 日 章, Žīyu-go-nitsi.

- 16. 十艺大节日章, Žǐyu-roku-nitsi.
- 17. 十学七学日章, Žiyu-sitsí-nitsi.
- 18. 十岁八7日章, Žiyu-fatsi-nitsi.
- 19. 十芝九ヶ日章, Živu-gu-nitsi.
- 20. 二 ^ 十 " 日 ", Fáts'-(Háts'-)ka.
- 21. 开享一手日享, Ni-žlyu-itsi-nitsi.
- 22. 升 二= 日 =, Ni-žíyu-ni-nitsi.
- 23. 升 三节日章, Ni-žiyu-san-nitsi.
- 24. 升 四引日, Ni-žiyu-yokká.
- 25. 升 五 日 章, Ni-žiyu-go-nitsi.
- 26. 升 大号日章, Ni-žiyu-rok'-nitsi.
- 27. 升 七学日章, Ni-žiyu-sitsi-nitsi.
- 28. 升 八字日章, Ni-žiyu-fatsi-nitsi.
- 29. 升 九7日章, Ni-žiyu-ku-nitsi.
- 30. 州· 克 日 方, Mi-so-ka, of San-Nyu-n.

Tsŭi-tatsi, properly Tsŭki-tatsi, signifies the moon's rising; the first day is called also Tsuki-gasira, head or beginning of the moon. The first day of the Ka (| †) means daylight; Fi, as Chin. | 7, Nitsi, means sun and day.

Still to be noticed, are the expressions:

脏步夜*, Sákū-ya, last night.

昨节日学, Sákŭ-zits', yesterday.

胜步天艺, Sáku-ten,

昨节朝艺, Sákŭ-tšoo, yesterday mor-

昨ち今こ, Sákŭ-kon, yesterd. and to day. Asatte, the day after to morrow.

再引昨岁日岁, Is-saku-zits, the day before yesterday.

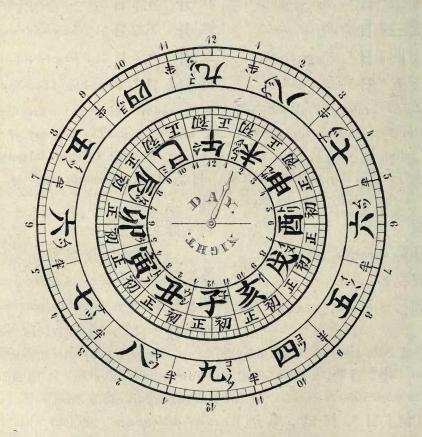
今三日章, Kon-nitsi, to day.

明克日享, Miyoo-nitsi, to morrow.

明立後 日子, Miyoogo nitsi, or

Ik-ká (幾月日 b) de deki-másuká, in how many days can it be done? Ni-fiyákű nitsi utside deki-másű, in two hundred days it can be done. - Sorecea idzuka (何子日 "。何 時。早 晚) madeni deki-másuka? till (ou) what day can it be ready? Ku-gwatsu fatsu-ka madeni deki-mašoo, on the eighth day of the ninth moon it will be ready. (Shopping-Dialogues, page 9.)

§ 44. Notation of hours.



This dial shows the two methods of marking the hours in use in Japan.

I. According to one method, the original Chinese astronomical, exhibited on the inside of the dial, is, as is seen, the civil day divided into twelve equal portions of time (時景, Töki, times), which are named after the zodiac, as 子节時景, Neno döki, Mouse-time, 丑岁時景, Usino döki, Bull-time, etc. At Yédo they say Kok instead of Toki. The Toki is divided into two halves; the first is called 初考, Siyo, = first beginning, the second, 正芳, Sei, = the true or proper. Each half, being equivalent to an hour according to our reckoning, has four subordinate divisions, called 刻芳, Kok or not ches, each of 15 分子, Bun (= 15 minutes), and the Bun has 60 秋芳, Meo (60 seconds). This cycle begins with the 子芳時景, Neno döki or Neno koku, the middle of which (正芳) falls at midnight; thus its beginning falls 60 min. before, its end 60 min. after midnight.

子子/時草 Nenó dokí; Mouse-time. 初至siyo, = 11 o'clock in the evening. 正等 sei, = 12 o'clock midnight. 丑之, 時辈 Usǐnó děkí, Bull-time. 初至 siyo, = 1 o'clock in the morning. IF \$ sei, = 2 o'clock 宙与/ 時草 Toránó dokí, Tiger-time. 初学 siyo, = 3 o'clock in the morning. 正学 sei, = 4 o'clock 切ック時 Unó dŏkí, Hare-time. 初至 siyo, = 5 o'clock in the morning. IF 3 sei, = 6 o'clock 辰多, 時其 Tatsă nó dokí, Dragon-time. 初章 styo, = 7 o'clock in the morning. 正学 sei, = 8 o'clock 巳 = / 時 # Minó dokí, Serpent-time. 初当 styo, = 9 o'clock in the morning. IF \$ sei, = 10 o'clock

午台/時岸 M'mánó dokí, Horse-time. न्या दे styo, = 11 o'clock in the morning. IF 3 sei, = 12 o'clock noon. 未表/時辈 Fitsúzinó doki, Goat-time. 初 = siyo, = 1 o'clock in the afternoon. IE \ sei, = 2 o'clock 申北/時辈 Sárunó doki, Ape-time. 初学 siyo, = 3 o'clock in the afternoon. IE \$ sei, = 4 o'clock 西方/ 時辈 Torinó děkí, Cock-time. 初 = styo, = 5 o'clock in the afternoon. IE 3 sei, = 6 o'clock > 戊女/ 時辈 Inund dokl, Dog-time. 初学 styo, = 7 o'clock in the evening. 正等 sei, = 8 o'clock 亥イノ時辈 Ind doki, Swine-time. 初学 styo, = 9 o'clock in the evening. IF 5 sei, = 10 o'clock

Our 11 hours 48 min. 2 sec. before midnight is expressed by 子手初言

三步刻号三步分子二章秒号, Neno siyo san-kokŭ san-bun ni-meo, i. e. $3 \times 15 + 3 \text{ min.} + 2 \text{ sec.}$ from the beginning of the Mouse-time. Our 12 o'clock midnight is 子子正字, Neno sei; our 12 o'clock 15 min. after midnight 子子正字初字刻号, Nenó sei siyo kokŭ.

2. The second method, the Japanese proper, supersedes the names of the zodiac with numbers, by which the hour is made known by strokes on the bell or drum. The civil day retains the division into 12, or properly 2×6 times (\mathbf{H}_{+}^{\perp} , $T\delta ki$); the $T\delta ki$ however is subject to the decimal division into $10 \ \mathbb{R}^{3}$, Koki (notches), which are also called $\mathcal{H} \subset Bun$ (tenths), the Bun into $10 \ \mathbb{R}^{3}$ \mathbb{R}^{3} . The Koki or Bun is now = 12 min. The numbers which have been added to the successive twice six Tokis, are from midnight till noon 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, and the same from noon till midnight; these numbers are obtained, when the number, which should properly belong to a $T\delta ki$, is subtracted from the number 10; thus 10-1=9. The numbers 1, 2 and 3 are not included in the hour-numbers, as 1, 2 and 3 strokes on the drum or clock belong to the signals of the military and convent service, and a confusion of the two signals has to be prevented.

The newest information respecting this notation of hours does not quite agree with the notices of it formerly obtained, and people in Japan itself, it seems, do not reckon more consistently. Therefore we confine ourselves to the clocks at Yédo. There, at 12 o'clock at noon, the clock strikes 9 '), and the Japanese calls this time Firu kökönótsű dökí, = noon, time of the nine number, or in short, Kökönótsű-dökí, or Könönótsű, or even M'máno kókű. From 12 to 2 o'clock according to our reckoning of time he counts 10 Bun and calls our 1 o'clock in the afternoon Firugo kökönótsu han dökí, = afternoon 9½ time, or. in short, Firu kökönótsu han; our 2 o'clock Firugo yatsu-doki, or Firugo yatsu, or also Fitsúzino kokű; our 3 o'clock Firugo yau han, etc., till after the end of the fourth Toki, at midnight the clock strikes nine again, and beginning with Yoru kökönótsu dökí, the other six Tokis continue till noon. In consequence of this, for the Japanese Tokis the following definitions of time are obtained.

¹⁾ First a stroke is heard, about a minute afterwards a second and immediately after that a third, being the warning. A minute later the strokes of the hour follow, each stroke with a pause of 10 or 12 seconds, except the last two, which follow quickly on each other and show that the clock has finished striking.

夜元, FORU or FO, at night.

九岁,時草, Kökönótsu-dökí, 9th time, = 12 o'clock midnight.

九 羊心, Kökönótsŭ-han, 9½,
= 1 o'clock after midnight.

八多 時業, Yátsű-dŏkí, 8th time, = 2 o'clock after midnight.

八字 半字, Yqu-han, 8½,
= 3 o'clock after midnight.

明子, AKE, in the morning.

七章 時草, Nănátsŭ-dŏki, 7th time, =4 o'clock in the morning.

七 半分, Nănátsŭ-han, 7½,
= 5 o'clock in the morning.
明天, AKE, in the morning.

大乡 時草, Mütsú-dökí, 6th time. = 6 o'clock in the morning.

→ 半章, Mǔtsú-han, 6½, = 7 o'clock in the morning. 朝了, ASA, in the morning.

五学時集, Itsútsŭ-dŏkí, 5th time,

= 8 o'clock in the morning.

1. \(\perp\), Itsútsŭ-han, $5\frac{1}{3}$,

= 9 o'clock in the morning. 官心前三, FIRU MAYE, in the fore noon.

四多 時草, Yótsŭ-dŏki, 4th time,

= 10 o'clock in the morning.

 星光, FIRU, at noon.

ルラッ時業, Kökönótsu-döki, 9th time, = 12 o'clock at noon.

九 半公, Kökönótsű-han, 9},
=1 o'clockin the afternoon.

星だ後ず, FIRU-GO, in the afternoon.

八字 時草, Yátsŭ-dökt, 8th time, =2 o'clockin the afternoon.

八字 单字, Yau-han, 8½, =30'clockin the afternoon.

夕元, YUU, in the evening.

七岁 時草, Nănátsŭ-dŏki, 7th time, =40'clockin the afternoon.

七 单分, Nănáteu-han, 71, =50'clock in the afternoon.

暮2, KURE, in the evening.

六分 時草, Matsú-dŏkl, 6th time, = 6 o'clock in the evening.

六 半分, Mütsü-han, 61,
= 7 o'clock in the evening.

夜光, YORU, or FO, at night.

五章 時草, Itsútsň-dokí, 5th time, = 8 o'clock in the evening.

五 单分, Itsútsii-han, 51,
= 9 o'clock in the evening.

四章 時景, Yótsu-dŏkí, 4th time, = 10 o'clock in the evening.

四章 华登, Yótsü-han, 41,
= 11 o'clock in the evening

In agreement with the preceding definitions are the notices of time, occurring. in the Shopping-Dialogues page 17, after the Nagasaki original, page 42, where is to be read: 九之》 半公時集日 七节時集日 大学 大学 二、Kökönótsu han

děkí yori nănátsň made ŭtsíni, »between one and four o'clock." — 八字半ジ 時 貞 寰 = , Yqu-han děki goroni, »about three o'clock."

On the contrary, not in agreement with it are the notices, occuring in R. BROWN'S Colloquial Japanese, Grammar, page XLVIII, where Neno kokonotsŭ doki is made equivalent to 10 o'clock in the afternoon till 12 o'clock midnight, and also the other Tokis begin 60 minutes earlier, than according to our notice.

The measurement of the Tokis fixed according to our hours, is, nevertheless, alone of value for an equinoctial day, and change (they become longer or shorter) in proportion as day and night in the different seasons are of unequal length. Thus each of the six Tokis from the longest day, if this day including the morning and evening twilight be reckoned at 17 hrs. 58 min. (notices are found which differ from it) has 2 hrs. 58 min. The Japanese almanacs contain, every 15 days, the definition of the changeable length of day and night, and the time-pieces are regulated accordingly, therefore they are so adopted, that the hour-ciphers are on loose plates, which are shifted, whilst the division of the hour-circle into Kokŭ or Bun, as also the cyclical division of the zodiac is fixed. The changing of the hours is called Tokiwo utsusŭ.

MEASURES, WEIGHTS AND COINS.

The Japanese measures and weights, as well as the coinage are for a great deal reckoned after the Chinese decimal system, with which, as a rule, the Chinese names are used, preceded by the Chinese numerals, both modified by the Japanese pronunciation.

In consequence of the modifications, which since 1850 the Government at Yédo has introduced in the measures and money, the definitions here given differ from those given by us formerly and will, probably, sooner or later undergo modifications again, when people, in Japan itself, have agreed about the principle of the measures, viz. about the Japanese foot and its proportion to the French mètre or Netherlands ell.

§ 45. Measures of length, Sasinome.

尺葉, šáků, foot (一式 尺葉, Is-šáků, one foot), the iron foot (Kanesasi, vulgo Kane-šáků), used by work-people, generally bent to a square and therefore called the bent foot (曲葉 尺葉 Kiyok-šáků), the unit of the Japanese measures, formerly (1831) was found by nice comparison with a standard-

mètre to be = 0,303 mètre or 0',11",11" of an English foot, since 1850 fixed by the Government at Yédo at 0,30175 mètre or 30,175 centimètre, the mètre being reckoned at 3,28889 Japanese feet. At the observatory at Yédo the Netherlands ell or French mètre is reckoned at 3,308 Japanese feet (Kanežáku) 1), whereas the Japanese Department of Marine has adopted 3,289248 Japanese feet for it 2), and a manual published at Nagasaki 3) gives 3,31 Japanese feet as the measure of the Netherlands ell. When, in 1864, the manufacture of some comparative measures was ordered of A. VAN EMDEN, by the Nederlandsche Handelmaatschappij," the Japanese foot was fixed at 0,3035 Netherlands ell.

For piece-goods, except woolen stuffs, a whalebone foot (, Ku-zira-šáků) is used, being = 1,25 iron feet.

Divisions of the Šákŭ:

Multiples of the Šákŭ.

開き、間き、Ken (一多間さ、Ik-ken), as measure of distance = 6 Šiku (1,8105 mètres); as measure for piece-goods 6,5 Šáku.

大学, žoo (一手大学, Itsi-žoo), = 10 尺学 Šáků (3,0175 mètres). 町で, 丁葉, Tšgo, Tšoo, street (一手町葉, It-tšoo), = 60 聞き Ken (108,63 mètres).

里", Ri, Japanese mile; 一千里", Itsi-ri, one mile, = 36 丁菜, Tioo

¹⁾ From a communication by OONO YASABUROO, instrument-maker to the observatory at Yedo.

²⁾ Introduction to the Japanese translation, published at Yédo in 1854, of J. N. CALTEN, Leidfreed by het onderrigt in de Zee-artillerie. Delft, 1832. The title of the work is 消止 和 依全 搭Kai soo bo-siyuts zen syo, or "the book on Marine artillery."

³⁾ 芸で町 パップリン "Japanese Translation of the English and Dutch with pronunciation, Numbers. First part, N°. 2. Nagasaki, October, 1860." Page 120, 121.

or streets, = 3910,68 mètres, if the Japanese foot is reckoned at 0,30175 mètres.

According to the Treaty between Japan and America, concluded in 1858, Art. 7, the Japanese Ri is = 4275 yards (the yard at 0,91438 Neth. ell), thus = 3908,9745 N. ells, whereas it is said to amount to 33 $\text{ HI}_{\chi}^{\frac{4}{7}}$ 48 HI_{χ} 1 P_{χ} 5 Pr_{χ} .

In the Japanese-Russian Treaty of 19 Aug. 1858, Art. 8, on the contrary the Japanese Ri is made equivalent to 3 wersts 332 saschen, which gives to one Ri 3908,68192 Neth. ells.

§ 46. Superficial measures.

步⁷, Pu (一年步⁷) or Tsǔbó (一片坪², Fǐtó tsǔbó), = 一間四方, i. e. a square Ken, or 方六尺, i. e. 6 square feet (3,27791025 square mètres).

献^{*}。畝^{*}。皎^{*}、Se (一片 献^{*}、Fitó se), a rectangle of 6 步 Pu length and 5 Pu breadth, = 30 square Pu.

段多, Tan (一少段多, It-tan), a plane of 20 Pu length and 15 Pu breadth, = 300 square Pu. It-tan is the regular plane of a rice-field.

町葉, Tšao, Tšoo (一季 町葉 四 方, It-tšoo yomo), a plane of 60 Pu length and 50 Pu breadth, = 3000 square Pu.

§ 47. Measures of capacity (Masumé) for dry and liquid wares.

升黃, šoo, šao (一式 升黃, Is-šoo), unity of the measures of capacity, formerly distinguished by Europeans with the Malay name Gantang, is 0,49 Jap. feet long and broad and 0,27 Jap. feet deep, containing 0,064827 Jap. cubic feet, = 1,893365719029 cubic decimètres, or 1 litre, 8 decilitres, 9 centilitres etc.

Subdivisions of the Šoo.

合艺式, Goo, pron. ngoo (一手合式, Itsi goo),= 10 升美 Šoo.

与美, formerly 龠美, Siyaku, pron. Šákŭ (一丁 与美, Is-šákŭ), = roo 升美 Šoo.

伍工 勺克, Go sǐyákǔ, a measure of 150 升克 Šoo, or 1 合工

オキ, formerly 抄 and 撮キ, Sai (一引オキ, Is-sai), = 1000 升美 Šoo. Multiples of the Šoo.

伍工升美, Go šoo, a measure of 5 升美 Šoo, = 9,46682595145 cubic decimètres.

俵芸, Pioo, or Tawara (一多俵芸, Ip-pioo or Fitó-tawára); a sack or bale (rice), at present contains 米ス三サルト五ゴ升素 or 3 To 5 Šoo rice.

斗 b, To, formerly 强 b (一章 斗 b, It-to), as vessel Tomásů, = 10 升量Šoo.

石产, Gókǔ (pron. ngókǔ), formerly 解子(一千石子, Itsi gókǔ), = 100 升美 Šoo, or 189,3365719029 litres.

§ 48. Weights, Hakarime.

1. オキ, Sai (一ラオキ, Is-sai), = 15 与 Šak'. ラデ, vulgo タデ, Sak' (一ララデ, Is-sak'), = 15 合于 Goo.

合言, Goo (一至合言, Itsi goo), = 10 斤艺 Kin.

斤章, Kin (一章斤章, Ik-kin), the Japanese pound, called by Europeans Catty (ct.), weighs according to former notices 1) 0,6 kilo, according to the latest definition 2), 0,597 kilo. They reckon, at Yédo:

五十十元 斤克, Go žiu kin, = 50 catties (ct. 50), or half a picol (pl. 0,5). 百万斤克, Hiak'-kin, = 100 catties or a picol.

2. Silverweight.

Unity: Mon-me, pron. Momme, from 文章 Mon, = farthing, and 目 Me, = eye, means characteristic, i. e. weight of a farthing. The signs used for Mon-me are 久美。 文章、《美文· 《美文· 八章、 见意, abbreviated forms of the Chinese 经意见 Sen, = farthing. In stead of Mon-me, in connection with some numbers, only 目 *, Me is used. The Europeans have therefore adopted the name Mace, Dutch

¹⁾ PH FR. VON SIEBOLD, Nippon-Archief, Division IV.

²⁾ Ban-go siyoo in, see page 167, note 3.

³⁾ タ即+壹錢之重+

Maas. One Mace $(-1 \, \cancel{2})$, $Itsi \, monme$, or 壹月目^{*}, Itsi-me, or 銀艺, 壹月錢艺, $Gin \, is-sen$), weighs 3,74799 grammes and has, as $\frac{1}{10}$ Tael, if the, Tael is counted to be equal to f1,60 Neth. cour., a value in silver of f0,16 N. c.

The Mon-me is divided into

10 分之, Fun, vulgo condrijn, conderein, cent.

100 厘 , Rin, vulgo cassie, cash, mokje.

1000 手手, Moo.

10000 弗茨, Hots, vulgo wassie.

Itsi mon-me ni fun, = 1,2 Mon-me, or 1 Mon-me 2 condrijn. — Ni mon-me san-bun, 2,3 Mon-me. — San-mon-me si-fun go-rin roku moo, = 3,456 Mon-me, or 3 mace, 4 condrijn, 5 cent (or cash) 6.

五 \mathcal{L} 友 \mathcal{L}_{λ} , Go-mon-me, = 5 mace or half a tael.

十岁友美, Žiu-mon-me, = 10 Mon-me or 10 mace, the weight, which, in silver, makes the immaginary coin Tael, Dutch Tail, = 37,4799 grammes, value in silver f1,60 Neth. cour., being according to the Japanese text of Art. 12, alinea d of the Additional Articles to the Netherlands-Japanese Treaty of 30 January 1856, 6,25 久美 = f1,00 Neth. cour. 1).

With Mon-me they count further: Žiu-itsi mon-me, Žiu-ni mon-me, Žiu-ku mon-me (19 mon-me), and in the tens (20, 30 etc.), and in the hundreds, thousands, ten of thousands, etc. supersede Mon-me by $\exists \land Me$; thus $\exists = + \stackrel{?}{z}$ $\exists \land$, Normall me, 20 Mon-me. $\exists \uparrow \square \lor + \stackrel{?}{z} \exists \land$, San-si-ziyu me, 30 to 40 Mon-me. $\uparrow \square \lor + \stackrel{?}{z} - \not \square \lor + \stackrel{?}{z} \lor$

百岁目^{*}, Hiákú me, 100 Me or Mon-me, = 10 taels or 374,799 grammes, or f 16 Neth. cour.

三世 貫多, 五百号目, San-gwan go hiáku mé, 3500 me or 350 taels.

拾岁 貫多、目*, žik kám-mé, 10 rists or 10000 me, = 1000 »

百号 貫多 目^メ, Hiak kam-me, 100 rists or 100000 me, = 10000

千岁 貫多 目[×], Sen ngam-me, 1000 rists or 10000000 me, = 100000 »

萬多 貫多、目^メ、Mán ngam-me, 10000 rists, = 1000000 »

¹⁾ In the official Dutch translation instead of it we find: "De zilveren Spaansche mat of pilaar-mat wordt gerekend tegen de waarde van f 2,50. De Mexicaansche dollar tegen f 2,55 Ned. cour."

The Yédo Pound (江本戶方壹分斤表, Yédo no ik-kin), being = 16 taels or 百六十錢, 160 Mon-me or Me, or Sen, weighs 160×3,74799 grammes, = 0,5996784 Neth. pound, for which in the above quoted Ban-go syoo-in about 0,597 N. pound" has been given.

壹年字ジ, Itsi-zi, ¼ 銭 Sen or Mon-me, is = 二 分乙五 厘ッNi-fun go rin weight.

§ 49. Iron, copper and bronze coins.

The unit is 文章, Mon (壹章文章, Itsi mon), the smallest exchange coin, in circulation 錢喜 Sen (= Chin. Tsién), Japanese also Zeni, and called by the Europeans cash, pitje or duit. The Mon has a value in silver of one 厘望, Rin, and 100 pieces (百岁文章, Hiákā mon) are reckoned at one Mon-me or mace of silver. The exchange however varies, being reckoned in the towns of the Taikun only 96, and in the countries of princes at one time more and, at another less.

The cents with a square hole are strung upon straw-ropes to the number nominally of a hundred, representing the value of one Mon-me or mace of silver. Ten such strings joined in one bunch, are called 一步實意文意, Ik-kwan-mon (at Yédo Ik-kam-mon) or one string of cents, and are worth one tael or 10 Mon-me of silver. 二二百章文意, Nikwan-mon, two taels; 三章文意, San gwan-mon, three taels.

The copper coins, which generally bear for superscription a year-name besides the word 通寶 $Ts\hat{u}$ -boo, = money, generally have the value of 1 Mon; nevertheless there are larger also, of the value of 4 and of 5 Mon (四°文章錢隻. \mathbf{L}^x 文章錢隻) and of 2×4 or 8 Mon (二=四°文章錢隻, Ni si mon sen).

The new »hundred Mon-coin," 當百錢, Too hiáhit sen, of the name-value of one Mon-me (f 0,16 Neth. cour.), was first cast in the 6th year Ten-boo (1835) at Yédo, with the superscription 天保通寶 Ten-boo Tsuu-boo.

§ 50. Silver coins.

The unit of the silver coins is the 雨菜 Riyoo, pronounced by some as drygo. 銀芝 壹字 雨菜 ~ 四º 久菜 三步 分乙之, i. e. one Riyoo of silver is = 4 Mon-me or mace 3 Fu or condrin, thus 68 cents Neth. cour. 10 Riyoo of silver, according to the old coinage represented by an oval silver lump (Ita-gane), which has been called 校子 Mai (vulgo by the Dutch, schuitje, = little boat), must have 43 Mon-me (= 1 tael 4 mace) silver-weight.

The oblong coin with the superscription — 分銀 Itsi bū gin, first cast in

1837, has been found to have a value of f 0,805 Neth. cour., is nevertheless worth 33 Dollar-cents or 84_{155}^{15} cents N. c., and according to the temporary Dollar exchange more or less also. The weight of the pieces is unequal; there are some of 8,61 and others of 8,81 grammes.

The smaller square coin of silver with the superscription — 朱 銀 Is-šu gin, of which 4 go to an *Itsi bu gin*, first cast 1854, is worth $8\frac{1}{4}$ Dollarcent, full 21 cents N. c.

§ 51. Gold coins (under the Taikun government).

The unit is the 雨菜 Riyoo. 金芝 壹季 雨菜, Kin itsi riyoo, or one Riyoo of gold, is represented by the 小 华 Koban, which in virtue of its stamp is current without being weighed. According to the coinage then in force the Riyoo of gold or the Koban was worth 60 Mon-me of silver, or f 9,60 N. c., and divided into halves, fourths, eighths and sixteenths.

An oblong gold, but properly silver and lightly gilt coin with the superscription \implies Ni pu, first cast in 1818 and declared worth in silver 30 Mon-me (f 4,80 N. c.) represents the half Koban.

The $\frac{1}{4}$ Koban is an oblong coin with the superscription $\longrightarrow \mathcal{H}$ Itsi pu, for which it is customary to write $\longrightarrow \mathcal{H}$. Its value is 15 Mon-me or $1\frac{1}{2}$ taels (f 2,40 N. c.).

The $\frac{1}{8}$ Koban is represented by an oblong coin of silver and gilt, with the superscription \implies Ni šu, for which in general Nisi is said; the newest cast in 1859, are worth $16\frac{1}{2}$ dollarcents or 42 cents N. c.

The $\frac{1}{10}$ Koban, also a small silver-gilt coin, has the superscription — \bigstar Is-šiu, which is called Is-s $\check{\imath}$.

Addition to the edition of 1876. Recently after the legitime heir of the old Mikado-dynasty has resumed the reins of his empire his government has adopted the gold-standard of which the unit is a Yen 夏芝 vulg. 严芝 being, according to the statement of Mr. stankey jevons¹), only three per mille less in value than the American dollar. The gold-coinage consists of pieces of twenty, ten, five, two and one Yen. The inscription of a two-yen-piece in my possession is 大日本明治三年二夏 Dai-Nippon Mei-dzi San-nen Ni-yen, = Japan. 1870. 2 dollars. The new fractional money of Japan consists of fifty, twenty, ten and 5 Sen (養姜) pieces in silver, the Sen corresponding to a dollar cent and in pieces of copper of 2, 1, ½ and To Sen or one rin 厘點.

¹⁾ Money and the Mechanism of exchange - by Prof. w. STANLEY JEVONS. London 1875.

CHAPTER V.

ADVERBS.

§ 52. The adverbs in Japanese which, as such, always precede the word (verb, adjective, or adverb) that they qualify, are, so far as their origin is concerned, to be distinguished as:

I. Adverbs proper.

- 1. Primitive adverbs, such as: Ma, truly, perfectly; Ito, very.
- 2. Adverbs ending in kŭ (in the spoken language simply u), formed from adjectives in ki (p. 106), as Hayákň, early; Osókň, late.
 - II. Improper adverbs or adverbial expressions.
- 1. Nouns with or without the modal case ni or de, included among which the adjectives in ki (p. 106, b), ka (p. 116 § 13) and yaka (p. 117 § 14), provided they are used as substantives concrete.
- 2. Verbs in the gerund, i. e. in the modal case, characterized by to as: Sadamete, definitely; Kessité, certainly; Kakite (kaite), in writing.
- If, for convenience, we distribute the Japanese adverbs and adverbial expressions in groups according to their signification, we shall get as:
 - § 53. Adverbs of quality, to the question: how?
- 1. Adverbs in ku, derived from adjectives in ki (see p. 106, § 9, B. 2), as:

Yókŭ, in the spoken language You, Yóo, well. (See p. 112. II.) 宜ラシクリ Yorósiku, Yorósiu, well, good. 惡スク Waruu, bad, ill. Wáruku, 凍や力, Hayákŭ, Hayáu, Hayóo, quickly, 運サック, Osókű, Osóu, Osóo, slowly. 5. 難沒2, » Kátakŭ Kátau, Kátoo, hardly, with difficulty. 馬×27, » Yásŭkŭ, » Yásuu, easily. 季クシッ, » Kŭvástkŭ, Kuvásiu, neatly, exactly. 8. 2. Adverbs in ka, with the terminational ni (see p. 116, § 13): Sídzŭkáni, 🎁 🔭 , calmly, in stillness. 9.

Sidzŭkáni, 評美二, calmly, in stillness. 9.
Tsŭmábirakáni 詳美ラカニ, clearly and distinctly. 10.

Sumiyakáni, it i , quickly, swiftly.

Tasǐkáni, 慥冬n=, certainly.

Tamasakani, 難 逅, by chance, fortuitously, accidentally.

Dan-danni, 段多 7 } =, by degrees, gradually.

Zen-zenni, 漸ぎ マ \ =, by degrees.

Soro-soro, Soro-soro to, 徐公 7 \ . 辿, by degrees, gradually.

Yara-yara, slowly. Yara-yara yukŭ, to go slowly, saunter, lounge.

Mǔ-sáto, 無為差界, Musá-musáto without forethought, in confusion, in opposition to Kǔvásǐkǔ, exactly.

§ 54. Adverbs of degree, in answer to the question: in what degree? The expressions cited in § 23 and 24 p. 130: Ma, quite; Itsi-dan, wholly; Ikanimo, in all respects; Mo, still more; Oókini, very; Sūkósi, little; Nao, once more so, so much the; Iyá, ĭyó, again so; Másŭ-másu, more and more; Fanafada, very; Mottomo, utmost; Ito, very; Itátte, utmost, highest.

Besides these:

Tkura, Nani-fodo, 何兰程本, how much? in what degree?

Dore-dake, Dore-fodo, how much?

Dono-kurai ooki, 何;位素多本, how much?

Yo-fodo, 餘 = 程本; Amári, 餘音, too. (See p. 136 § 28.)

Mina, 皆幸, together. — Săbéte, 總及寺。都, Tonto, in all.

Osi-nábete, 押支並元, altogether. Oó kini, very.

24.

15.

Koto-gotokň, 悉テテトク, all over, entirely.

25.

Nokorázu, 不交美, without surplus, without exception. (See p. 59.)

Mattaku, 全多22, wholly, perfectly.

Ippaini, 一, 香草=, full, abundantly. — Ippanni, 一, 盤芝, full (to the brim).

Is-šoni, —, 裕美=, together successively, altogether.

29.

Kátsŭ-te, 勝力手, wholly, entirely. With a subsequent negation, by no means, not at all, e. g.: Kátsúte wakaranai, it is by no means intelligible, Kátsúte mairu mai, I shall not go at all. 30.

Kátsŭ-gátsŭ, 目 为 又 l', wholly.

Kátsŭ-mata, 且多亦爱。且多又爱, so much the more.

Yo-keini, 餘 = 計 ?=, in a greater degree, more.

Iyásikumó, 荷くシクモ。愉, so much the more.

Sul-bun, 隨至分乙, proportionably, pretty, tolerably.

35.

Ziyu-bunni, 十堂 分ご=, fully, quite.

Itsi-bunva, 一年分了, partly. Wadzukani, 僅テカニ, scarcely.

Mabarani, 疎景 =, sparsely, in a scattered manner, here and there, partially, thinly. Sŭkósi, 43, not much, little.

Oyósó, pron. öyósso, 🎢 🤻 , in sum, together; very nearly, about.

Tákŭsánni (at Yédo), 汉尺多山 =, richly, abundantly, in multitude.

Tai-soo, 大多壯步, excessively. Tai-soo ooku, far above measure.

Tai-gai, 大冬縣孝, Tai-tei, 大冬抵茅, in general, more or less.

Oo-kata, 大某方象,

Sakoburu, 頃るアル, pretty, tolerably, for three fourths of the full measure. 45. Sŭkoburu fisási, it is pretty long ago.

Yoffodo, 3 " * F, contracted from Yoi-fodo, pretty.

Tsiyqu-do, pron. Tsoo-do, 調菜度片, not f * 片, proportionately, reasonbly, just. Tsiyau-do yoi, it is just good.

Fotondo, FFF, almost, nearly, scarcely, hardly. Soreva fotondo tarqu, it is hardly enough. Moppara, \$5, 85, onely, merely.

Fodo-fodo, Naka-naka, # 7 1, almost.

Sukunákumó oókůmó náku, 少多+ n モ 多末 n モ + n, neither less nor more. 50.

Tsito, Tsitto, 微作。些分下。少, a little. Tsitomo, as little as possible, with a subsequent negation, not in the least.

Yau-yau- (yoo-yoo-) sité, scarcely, hardly; almost.

52.

Bakári, 許克, merely, only. Kore bakari, only this.

Fu-sokuni, 不,足岁=, not enough.

Bétsŭni, ∰ ;, in particular, particularly.

55.

§ 55. Adverbs of circumstance.

Mű-yákŭni 無 益芳=, vainly. — Műdáni, 虚贫=, in vain.

56.

Munásiku, 虚キシク, in vain.

Ayamátte, 謬ママッテ, by mistake.

Ukegatte, 諾克ガッラ, willingly.

Kononde, 好ランデ (contracted from Konomite), gladly, willingly, readily. 60.

Tasinde (= Tasimite), 暗美元, gladly. - Nengoroni, 怨美口=, gladly.

Iya-nagaramó, against the grain, reluctantly.

Tomoni, 俱皇。共, with, together, alike.

Itsŭ ni, Fitótsŭ ni, —; =, together.

64.

Onázǐku, 同学37, in the spoken language ŏnázǐu, together, at the same time.

Tada, 只久。唯, only, alone, but. Tada san ka nitsi nomi, or Tada san ka nitsi bakári, only three days.

66.

Saye, #z°+~, originally park, enclosure for cattle; used adverbially it limits the idea exclusively to what has been mentioned immediately before and answers to but, as it is as much as the Lat. modo only. — Sono na saye siru, to know by name only. — Ki-den to saye mausu, say only: »Sir." — Sakewo nomi sayesuru mono, some one, who does nothing but drink spirits. — Sakewo nomi saye surébá, yevu, if one does nothing but drink spirits, he gets drunken.

In connection with a subsequent negation Saye is equivalent to not even, Lat. nec quidem, e.g.: Mma saye nakari, there are not even horses. — Sono na saye siranu, not even to know by name. — Zi saye mi-siránu mono, anyone who does not even know the letters.

Dani, \varkappa =, cognate to Saye, as an adverb, has the word to which it exclusively limits the idea, before it with or without inflection, e. g.: Ima dani nanori si-tamave, assume but for as yet a name. — Ima sibási dani ovase nan, now it will only last a short time.

Sŭrá, \nearrow , even, German. sogar, indicates that an unexpected predicate is emphatically given to the subject of a sentence, e. g.: Kisáki sura kavi-kowo kuvase tamavu, even the queen has silkworms fed. — Kare sura korewo siránu, he even does not known this.

Kata-gata, 隻, single, alone.

70.

Suku-náku-tomo, 🏂 + 7 + 7, at least. Sukungu sitémo san ka getsu, at least three months. — Sa-naku-tomo, at least.

Nárŭ-dake, 成た丈多, if possible.

Ze-hi, 是世非已, so or not so, in any case; necessary. Ze-hi itási-mašoo, I shall do it in any case.

Don bo-don, 動き不*動き, either active or not active, = in any case. 74. To-mo kákň-mo, トモカクモ, To-mo kau-mo, トモカクモ, however, in any case. Also To-kaku, [発片角刻, if possible, synonym to Náru-dake. — To-kaku itsi-yauni náru-besi, if possible it should happen in one and the same way.

Fu-ini, 不 意至, suddenly, at once.

76.

Tama-tama, 偶克, unexpectedly, by chance.

Sai-siyo ni vá, 最节初至二八, firstly.

Dai-itsi ni vá, 第3一年=n,

Dai-ni ni vá, 第字二==n, secondly.

Itsŭ ni vá, 一寸= n, partly, on the one hand. — Matá, 又克, also. 81.

Mata itsŭ ni vá, 復義一事二, on the other hand. Itsŭ ni vá makoto, máta itsŭ ni vá itsuvári, on one hand truth, on the other falsehood. 82.

Nákabáva, 4 7, half. Nákabáva..., nákabáva..., partly..., partly...

Sarani, 更美 =, again, anew. Kasanete, again.

Sono fokáni, 其为外节=, further, farther.

Sono ayeni, 其为上之=, besides; moreover.

86.

§ 56. Our adverbs of place and space, such as of, by, for, in, after, on etc. are generally expressed in Japanese by connectives expressive of relation, which, when they are accompanied with another definition. have the latter before them (see Introduction p. 44, § 15, B. 1.); e. g.: ye or he, = wards; Kotsira-ye, hitherwards; yori, = of, out; Kotsira yori, from here. Since compounds with adverbs of place, belonging to this group, have been already treated at pages 81, 82, 83, we confine ourselves here to a mere citation.

Doko ni, where? Doko ye, whither? Doko yori, whence? Doko nimo, wherever. 87.

Idzūkunzo, Dotsira, where? — Asŏko ni, somewhere. — Atsira, anywhere. 88. Kásĭkó ni, there. — Koko ni, Kotsira, here.

Kono tokóroni, here. - Sono tokóroni, there.

Yosoni, elsewhere. — Yosoye, to elsewhere. — Yoso kara, from elsewhere.

Ta-siyo, pron. Ta-šo, 他々處言, elsewhere.

92.

Besides these, for the definition of place and space, come under notice:

Amánekŭ, 徧ステゥ, everywhere. Siyo-siyo, pron, šo-šo, 處言 マ \, everywhere. Tsikáků, 近まゥ, near.

Tooku, 遠よっ, far; Yen-fooni 遠云方分=, far.

95.

Is-šoni, — $\mathfrak{F}_{\mathfrak{s}}$, at or to one and the same place. — Is-šoni yukŭ, to go with, to accompany.

Nakani, or Tsiu, $\def{p}_{\pi}^{\dagger} =$, in the midst, amidst, amongst. 97.

Utsíni, Uráni, 內掌=, within. — Fokáni, Sotoni, 外章=, without.

Mayeni, Sakini, 前三=, before. — Usironi, Atoni, Notsini, 後4=, behind.

Uyéni, 上堂=, above. — Sǐtáni, 下蒙=, beneath.

100.

Sŏbáni, Katani, Katawarani, 🏚 💢 =, near, at the side, beside.

Migini, 右章=, to the right. — Fidárini, 左炎, =, to the left.

Mavárini, 但言, round, around.

Guru-guru, around. - Gururito, round about.

Mŭkáini, 向分と=, against, opposite. — Ai-tai, 相こ對字, opposite. 1

Yokoni, Yoko samani, 横景=, across. — Nana-meni, 斜 t ,=, aslant.

Sudzi-mŭkávini, スチムカヒ=, vulgar. Suzi-kaini, almost opposite. 107.

§ 57. Adverbs of time, to the question: when? how long?

Itsŭzo, 何分時少, when? [zo, an emphatic suffix.]

108.

Itsŭ-ka, 何分 日 , what day of the month? See p. 161.

Itsǔ mo, 校功元。恒, whenever, ever. — Itsǔ de mo, whenever, always, ever; with a negative verb, never. Itsu made mo, always.

110.

Ima-made, 今至近季, hitherto, heretofore.

Ima-madeva, contracted imáda, in the spoken language usually Mada, 近, hitherto, still, Lat. adhuc; in connection with negation included in the subsequent verb, not yet, 未享.

Tadá-ima, 只冬今日。即今。向來, just now.

114.

Maye-kata, 前三方多, Maë-kata yori, beforehand. — Madzu, 先多, first, beforehand. I-raiva, 以來者, since.

Hayaki, 速文, 早, Hayau, Hayoo, 1. soon, very soon; 2. early.

Mo-háya, Mo-hayau, contracted Moo, already. — Moo O kairi-de gozarimásüká, do you go again already?

Osóku, 晩ずっ, late.

Arŭ tokini, 一時, once, at a certain time.

Tsīká-goro, 近节日音。近來, lately. — Tsīká-dzīká-ni, shortly, speedily.

Mukási, 昔分之 古, of old, formerly, of yore. Mukási yori, of yore.

Inisi hé, 往至昔义, of old time, formerly.

Tsuini, $\aleph_{=}^{\vee}$, at the end, finally, at last; ever; with a negative verb, never.

Sikirini, 頻彰 n =, every moment, without ceasing.

124.

Otte, 追方面方, afterwards, consequently; late, henceforth, = sono notsi.

Otts'ké, オッ、ケ。刻下, forthwith, immediately, directly, = suguni, ai-no nai.

Suguni, 直多=, directly, straight.

Zikini, 直掌=, directly, forthwith.

Sibaráku, The zo, in short, shortly, quickly.

Yau-yaku, Yoo-yaku; 漸美力, by degrees.

130.

Tatsi-matsi, 立多待到忽, at once, directly; suddenly.

Yagate, 頓克而ラ, suddenly.

Soku-zini, 即为時期=, directly.

Fisásiku, Misá-bisá, long ago. Fisásii áto, long ago.

Sai-zen, 最节前芒, just now.

135.

Kore-kara, hereafter, thereupon.

Ik-kóo, — ∮ 南 Ż, henceforth, in connection with a subsequent negation, no more.

Sǔdéni, 既孝 = 己, already.

Kĭuni, 急声=, quickly, hastily.

139.

Tsiyoto, Tšiótto (チョット), vulgo Tšóito, 卒 歩 度ト, once, for a moment.

fart, just hear! - Tsibito O matsi nasare, wait a moment!

Sono toki, 當了時上, then, at that time.

141.

Sono notsi, 其为後年, thereafter.

142.

Notsi-hodo, 後年程本, by and by. — Notsi-notsi, later.

Kono i-go, 此引以「後」, after this.

Kono-goro, 間引日間, there, then.

145.

Kono hodo, 比了程本, shortly, lately.

Kono aida, 此引間不知以引前不知, shortly.

Sakini, 昨業者=。「以ട前, before, the time that has immediately preceded the present, just now. Mo săkósi sakini, a short time ago. 148.

Saki-goro, 先‡ 項音, lately.

Saki-hodo, 先辈刻草, just now, presently.

150.

Definite notices of time like to-day, yesterday, to-morrow etc. are expressed by nouns with or without a previous adjective definition, e. g.:

Kon-nitsi, 今こ日章, Kon-nitsiwá; 今ヶ日プ, Keo, Kioo, this day, to-day.

Kesa, 今朝#, this morning.

152.

Sákŭ-zits, 昨节日学, Kinou, キノフ (contr. of Sakino fi. 前芋日亡), yesterday.

Sákŭ-gétsŭ, 睢节月芬, last month.

Sáku-nen, 昨岁年刊, last year.

155.

Asŭ, Asŭta (Asta), 明元日岁, to morrow. — Asŭ-made, till to-morrow.

Miyoo-nitsi, 明蒙 日章, to-morrow. — Miyoo-nitsino firu, to-morrow noon.

Miyoo (nitsino) áso, to-morrow morning. — Miyoo-ban, 明章, 晚堂, to-morrow evening.

Miyoo-gétsŭ, 明章, 月氨, next month.

Miyoo-nen, 明 年艺, next year.

160.

Miyoo-go-nitsi, 明後节日章, the day after to-morrow; also Asatte, アサッテ.

Akeno tosi, Akuru tosi, 明子, 年长, next year.

Akuru fi, 明元日 E, to-morrow.

Rai-nen, 來享年季, the year still to come, the next year.

Rai-gétsǔ, 來早月氨, next month.

165.

Firuni, 畫だ=, by day.

Ya-bunni, 夜ャ分ご=, Ya-tsiu, 夜ャ中ま, at night.

167.

For adverbial definitions, to the question: how often? are used:

1. the repeating numbers cited in § 32, p. 143: Fitó-tabi or Itsi-do, once; Fitá-tabi or Ni-do, twice; Fitá-tabi mi-tabi, twice, thrice, continually, etc.

2. Mareni, 希之=, seldom.

168.

Suku náki tokiva, 少多++ 時丰,, seldom.

Oóki tokiva, 多末 時丰n, often.

170.

Ori-bri or yori-yori, 時情 ? }, now and then.

Ori-fuzi, 折青節至。時節, from time to time, now and then.

Fu-tosite, 非帝, sometimes.

Sǐbá-sībá, 數於 〉、often. — Setsŭ-setsŭ, 節ま マ 〉、often.

Tabi-tabi, 度をマー, at every turn.

175.

Tsune ni, 常業=。恒, generally, always. — Tsune-dzune, continually.

Obítădásĭku, 彩なスマシフ, manifold, often.

177.

§ 58. Adverbs of manner, indicating the form of thought or speech, in which the speaker represents the idea expressed in the predicate.

1. Affirmative.

Héi, ~1, with its variations: héhi, hi, vulgo hái, ha, yes.

178.

Sa-yoo, 左 * 樣美, contracted Soo, so, thus, considered more polite than Héi. — Soo mášoo, it will be so.

Sikáto, 睫光, certainly, truly.

180.

Tásīkani, 造多力=, certainly, truly.

Makotoni, Zitsuni, 学實業=, in truth, truly, forsooth, indeed. — Masani, 正業=, indeed.

Geni, or Geni-geni, 更堂 7 1, evidently, doubtlessly.

Késsǐté, 决分而学, surely; with subsequent negation: by no means, not at all. Ari-teini, 有了体节=, solidly, to the purpose.

Kittó, 急步度 +, certainly.

Fit-zen, 必为然苦, certainly. Fit-dziyoo, 必为定美, certainly, definitely.

Itsi-dziyoo, 一手定だっ, definitely.

Ka-nárazu, 必辛ラス, certainly, doubtlessly, without doubt.

Motsi-ron, Mu-ron, Ron-náku, Ron-ngu, 勿幸論こ, = do not reason! = without contradiction; not to be contradicted.

Sappari, # > x 1, in all respects; with subsequent negation: by no means.

Sappari.... sezu, to do by no means.

Tau-zen, Too-zen, 當多然艺, properly.

Isasaka, In + +, in short.

193.

Sasŭka, Sasŭkani, 追, notwithstanding.

2. Negative.

Iiye, < - x, vulgo iiya, no. Iiya-iiya, no, no.

194.

Remark. The negative: not, expressed in Japanese by n, as a rule, is included in the inflection of the verbs, by which a peculiar negative conjugation arises.

Fu-sinni, 不声 審記=, uncertainly, doubtfully.

195.

Fu-dó-sǐté, 不 圖 片 シテ, suddenly, by chance.

3. Optative.

Doozo, 何肯本, though, than, Pray! Doozo, kikareyo, hear, if you please, hear though!

Negavákŭvá, Ming, though (contracted from Negai, wish, and Ivákuvá, so as they say), so as one wishes. (See Shopping-Dialogues p. 11.)

4. Supposing.

Makotorásĭkŭ, probably. — Ta-bun, 多々分ご, perhaps. 199.

Tokini yottevá, Kotoni yottará, perhaps, according to circumstances.

Zi-gi ni yori, 時⁵ 宣誓 寄青, or Zi-gi ni yotte or yottará, if time be favorable, according to circumstances; under favorable circumstances. 201.

Utágavűrákűva, 疑対フラクハ, probably.

202.

Zon-bunnó sǐ-dai, 存ご分ご, 大シ第孚, as I think; also Zon-bunni sǐta-gátte. — Zon-bunno sǐ-dai siyo-mótsǔ ari-másuka, are there books also?

§ 59. Adverbs connecting propositions, such as nevertheless, however, since they are conjunctional adverbs, are treated in the Chapter VIII on the Conjunctions.

ALPHABETICAL SYNOPSIS OF THE ADVERBS CITED.

The numbers correspond with those placed after the adverbs treated in § 53-59.

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CHAPTER VI.

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WORDS EXPRESSIVE OF RELATION.

(POSTPOSITIONS.)

§ 60. Our prepositions which show the relation, in which the chief idea of a sentence stands to other objects or ideas, are superseded in Japanese by postpositions. We call them words expressive of relation.

Chief among these words are the inflections (see Chapter I, p. 61), viz:

~, ve, he, or I, ye, e, = wards, to. Dative and Terminative (see p. 68).

=, ni, = with relation to, in, to (see p. 68).

h, to, = to (see p. 70).

=, ni; F, te, Local, Modal and Instrumental (see pp. 68,

= ₹, nite; ₹, de (pron. nde), \ 70).

ヨリ, yori; カラ, kara, = out of, from. Ablative (see p. 71).

§ 61. All other relations are expressed either by:

1. nouns which, as such, are declinable and have the further attributive definition, as genitive, before them, as Yama uyé or Yamano wyé, the topmost of a mountain; Yama uyéni, on the top of a mountain; or

2. verbs, which being, either in their radical form, or in the gerund in \mathcal{F} , te, in proportion as they govern the accusative, the modal, or the dative have their object with the inflectional termination \mathcal{F} , wo, or =, m, or \sim , ve, before

them, indifferently, whether this object is a noun-substantive or a verb used substantively.

- § 62. Nouns, used as expressive of relation, are:
- 1. Uvé, uyé, 上之。 差, 1) above, upon (with reference to a place).

Tsǔkáno ŭvėni kiwo uyuru, to plant a tree upon the grave. — Tsǔkáno uveno ki, a tree upon the grave. — Aru ŭyé ni mata fitotsu, above which there is still one. — Kono ŭyéwa deki-masénŭ, = what is above that, does not happen, = more I can not give for it 1). — Sono uyewa nai (or ari-masénŭ), there is nothing above that 2).

2) upon, after (with reference to time).

Gin-mi (or Tadási) no ŭvé fatto wo motte bassu (吟き味き (or 料象)) 上之法分度 トョ以まず 器分丸), upon inquiry punish according to law³). — Unziyau nou-saino uvévá (運き上資 納み適等) 上之八), upon payment of the duty⁴). — Sina-mono wo uke-totta ŭyéde (dai-kinwo) age-mašoo, = after having received the goods I shall pay (the price)⁵).

Chinese compounds with L ziyau, žoo, upon.

山土上菜, upon mountains. — 雲之上菜, upon clouds. — 座"上菜, upon the throne. — 以「上菜; upwards, prior to a time, = sore yori mave. — San nen i-ziyau, prior to three years ago.

2. Sĭtá, Tž, beneath, under, below.

Sitá-ni sĭtá-ni, down! down! = kneel! — Sitayori waki-idzuru midzu, water springing up from beneath. — Šákŭ no sĭtá, what is under a foot measure, the divisions of a foot 6). Watákŭsiva anátayori sĭtáde gŏzáru, = I am beneath you, I am less thou you.

Chinese compounds with Thorac

天之下^{\dagger}。字^{\dagger}下^{\dagger}, Ten-ka, U-ke, what is under the heavens, under the firmament, the earth. — 地^{\dagger}下 † , under (in) the earth. — 山 † 下 † , San-ke, the foot of a mountain. — 以 † 下 † , = Sono ato, after, since. — San nen i-ka, three years since.

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 38.

³⁾ Treaty f. 1858. Art. V. al. 2.

⁵⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 13.

²⁾ Ibid. p. 29.

⁴⁾ Ibid. III. 6.

⁶⁾ Ibid. p. 29.

3. Mave, Maye, vulgo Mai, 前文 元 (of ma, eye, and ve, side, direction), before, local or temporary.

Matsu-maye, = before the pine-trees. — Yei-ziwo mŭnéno maveni kakavete niu-you su, she holds the suckling to the breast and suckles it. — Itsu-ka nen mave ni, a year previous 1). — Kaviko idzúru mayeni, before the silkworm comes out. — Go nen yori mave, = from the fifth year forward, i. e. before the fifth year.

Chinese compounds with T, zen, before.

面之前至, before the front of. — 門手前至, before the door. — 以 前至, previous to. — Kono fi-giri aruiva sono i-zen nite mo, at this date or even earlier 2).

4. Notsi, 後年, (from no, back, whence nóku, retreat, and tsi, place), behind, after, with a definition of time, refers to a time which is behind, with reference to the present, future.

Kaze okiru notsí, after the rising of the wind. — Kazega fukite notsí, after the wind has blown. — Sono notsí, thereafter. — Ima yori oyóso ziyu fatsi ka gétsű no notsí yori fítótsu minatowo firakŭ bési, after the lapse of 18 months from now a harbour shall be opened 3). — 自 5 今 3 以 7 後 7, from now for the future.

- 5. Omote, 面葉。表, the face, the countenance, the fore-side, before.
- 6. Urá, 裏克裡, the internal, the inside of a garment; the reverse of a coin; the opposite.

Iyéno ŭrá, the inner side of a house. — Urámi wonno ŭrá nari, disgust is the reverse of inclination.

7. Usiro, 後望, after.

Yamawo usironisi, kavawo omotenisu, (the village) has mountains for background, a river for fore-ground, = it has mountains behind and a river before it. — Also the inside of a garment, as reverse, is called usiro.

8. Saki, 先辈, 前, point, with reference to time, beforehand, past.

Sakino tosi, a former year. — Sakini, earlier, before. — Go nen bakári saki yori va, only since the last five years. — 内中 大事, O saki! you before! you first! after you!

9. Ato, 趾子, 跡, footstep; behind.

Fitono atoni tsuite yuku, go behind any one. - Sono ato afterwards.

¹⁾ Treaty Art. X. al. 1.

10. Utsi, 內拿中. within.

Much in use also, are Chinese compounds with 內 孝。 ‡, dai or nai: Kai-dai (海孝內孝), what is within the seas, the continent. — Kókū-dai (國子內孝), within the borders of a country. — Kókū-daino dai-itsino gákū-sǐya, the first scholar of the empire. — Kono deu (deo) va Nippon kókŭ-daive furé-watásŭ bési, this article shall be made known throughout the Japanese empire 6). — Bu-nai (帝子內文), the inmost, interior. — Nipponno bu-naiwo riyokau-su, to travel over the interior of Japan 7). — Ka-nai (家方內文), what is within the house, the family.

11. Foka, Hoka, 夕春, besides; except, without.

Kono föká hokű-kóku kisini öité fitótsu minatowo firákű bési, besides on the north coast a harbour shall be opened *). — Yákű-siyono fökáve uru-békarázű, except to the government may not be sold *). — Kei-seino föká onna; women except wry castles (prostitutes). — Towo fökáyori todzuru, to shut a door from without. — Dai-ku sono föká šóku-nin wa kane-žákűwó motsíi-masu, carpenters and other workmen use the iron-foot. — Tan-mono to ara-mono sono foka arimasű, there are piece-goods, and raw materials and so forth.

desputar, on helitar authous - Than of our officient

¹⁾ Treaty. Art. VIII. al. 1.

²⁾ Ibid. X, 1.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 9.

⁴⁾ Ibid. p. 4.

⁵⁾ Ibid. p. 13.

⁶⁾ Treaty. Art. II. al. 17.

⁷⁾ Ibid. Art. I. al. 3, 5.

⁸⁾ Ibid. II. 2

⁹⁾ Ibid. II. 18.

Chinese compounds with \$15, gwai, outside, without, out of:

門 5 外 3, Mon-gwai, without the gate. — 口 3 外 3, Koo-gwai, out of the mouth, out of the mouth of a river or harbor.

- 12. Soto, \$17, originally the back door, at present generally: without. Sotó-mo for Soto-omo, the back- or winter-side of a mountain. - Sato no soto ni, without the village.
- 13. Műkávi, Műkái, 南京 京, vulgo also Műkau, Mukoo, as substantive, the opposite quarter, the direction opposite anything.

Karega sămi-kava waga-iyé no mākái ni áru, his dwelling is opposite my house. — Mukauno kisive fitowo watasi, to put people over to the opposite side (of a river).

14. Avida, Aida, 間長, 元, the interval, space between things, between; space between two points of time, while.

Aidano fima, pause, leisure, opportunity for anything. - Kono aida, between. — Sono a'ida, meanwhile. — Yamano aidani midzii drii wo tani-gava to ivii, the appearance of water between mountains is called a valley-brook — Oyóso ik-ka nenno aida, for the time of one year 1). - Tada siyau-baiwo nasu aidani nomi, tou-riu-suru kotowo u-bési, only while they carry on trade, may they hold residence (there) 2).

Chinese compounds with # 2, 7, kan, gen:

田ご聞立, between rice-fields. — 石草間立= 生草木, to grow between rocks. — 人三間艺, Nin-gen, among men; mankind.

15. Naka, # , the middle, in the midst of, amidst; among.

Tano nakano 'yé, a hut in the middle of the field. - Riyau sanno nakano riu-suí (雨光山サ,中方,流光水子) streaming water just between two mountains. - Yo-naka, the middle of the night, midnight. - Knedno nakade náků kera, crickets that chirp in (between, among) the grass.

Chinese compounds with # \$, tsiu, in the midst:

Săi-tsiuni (木多中方=) sumă mono, beings which live in fresh water. -海幸中步,物步, Kai-tsiuno mono, something that is in the sea, a production of the sea. - Kai-tsiuni irite avábiwo toru, to dive into the sea and fetch up pearl-mussels. — 地 + 中 + =, Tsi-tsiuni, in the earth. — 土 中 +, Do-tsiu,

¹⁾ Treaty. Art. IV. al. 3. 2) 1bid. 11. 13.

in the ground. — 道多中女, Dau-tsiu, = mid-way, half-way, on the way. — 雲之中女, Un-tsiu, in clouds.

16. Soba, 侧头。傍 (from $s\acute{o}v\breve{u}$, come near and ba, place), the neighbourhood, next, at the side of, by.

Fino sobani koi, come next (or by) the fire!

17. Kata, 方友。 今邊友, side, near; with reference to time, as much as about, against.

Figási-kata, Nisi-kata, Kita-kata, Minami-gata, the east-, west-, north-, south-side. — Kita-katano kazé, wind from the north. — Yo-ake-kata, = the side, on which the night goes open, i. e. about the dawn of the day. — Sono fino yuvu-katani, against the fall of the evening. — Sore yori kono kata, = from there to this side, i. e. since that time.

Chinese compounds: 海ネ邊ご, Kai-ben, on (near the) sea. — Kai-benno min, people that live on (at) sea. — 葦こハ水ネ邊ご= 生ジェ, Asiva sŭi-benni sǐyau zu, the reed grows on the water.

The spoken language often supersedes Kata with the Chinese Fóo (Hóo), 方分。 本, side, quarter. — Doko ni O íde nasárňka? wither are you going? ... san no hooni (or hóo ye), to Mr. N's. — Anáta no hóo ni, at or to your side, by or to you 1). — Sono fóo, his side, you. See p. 84.

18. Fotori, 邊本, round, round about.

Ikeno fotorino tsutsumi, a dike round a fish pond.

19. Mavari, 同点。 廻。 居, circumference, round about, round.

Yasiki-mavarini, within the compass of dwellings.

Chinese expression. 周シ屋1, Siu-i, round about. — 其ノ留り場パノ周シ屋1=門を培養ヲ設奏ズ, round about their dwelling place people place neither gate nor fence 2).

20. To, H, with, Lat. cum, indicates the express coupling of two or more objects; it is a declinable suffix and, so far, a word expressive of relation.

Dare-to onázikoto (点 计 能多同类), = identicalness — with which? — Yebisŭ-to wa-bókŭ sǐtá, peace has been made with the barbarians. — Kimi-to tomoni suru, to hold with his master, to be attached to him. — Hana, tori, = flowers, birds. — Hana-to toriwo yekaku, = to paint birds with (and) flowers. —

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 16.

Hana tori-to wo yekaku, to paint flowers and also birds. — Sisi, lion; Torá, tiger. — Sisi-to toráwa, as for the tiger with the lion; or also: as for the lion and the tiger, provided the principal accent be placed on *tiger." — Kane-zīyáku-to ku-zira-zīyáku wa doo-kawari másuka? = as for the whalebone and the iron foot, what difference is there? 1). — Atsi, there; Kotsi, here; Atsi kotsi-to, there and also here.

and ..., as well, as ... also ..., Lat. et.. et, que.. que.. — Hana-to tori-to, both flowers and birds. — Olanda kókŭ-wauto Dai Nippon Tai-kunto riyau-kókŭ no konsin kátsŭ siyau-baino tsinámiwo firókŭ-sen kotowó hóssite, the King of Holland and the Tai-kun of Japan wishing to extend the relations of friendship and commerce of both countries etc. 2). — Nippon-to San-kan-tono atsŭkaino koto, negotiations of (between) Japan and the Three states. — Hana-to tori-towo yekáku, to paint flowers as well as birds. — Yuku-to kaveru-toni matowo íru, in going to and fro to shoot at the mark. — Faravuni Nippon to gwai-kokŭ to no kwa-helwo motsiirŭ koto samadake nási 3), = there is no obstacle to using either Japanese or foreign money in payments. — The characteristic of the coupling is necessary here, as without that it does not attract notice.

Remark. If, as in the expression: a valley with or without water the presence or absence of one object near the other is intended, then the verbs árú, present and náki (see p. 108, nº. 30), not present, are used, thus: Midzű áru tani, a valley with water; Midzű náki tani, a valley without water.

21. Tonari, $\underset{ij}{\not\models}$ (from to, door, family, and narabi, row), neighbourhood; next, close to.

Yákŭ-siyo no tonari ni, next the government house. — Kin-ziyo (kinžo), 近步所学, a place near, neighbourhood.

22. Si-dai, 大少第年, rank, following, in proportion to.

Negai-si-dai, according to wish, in proportion as it is wished 4).

23. Toóri, 通素, passage; along.

Waradano feri toórini wítarň kaiko, silkworms lying along the edge of the straw-tray. — Fama toórino měrá mina..., all the villages along the strand. —

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 31.

³⁾ Treaty. Art. IV. al. 2.

²⁾ Treaty, at the beginning.

⁴⁾ Ibid. IV. 3.

道多理",通量,dau-rino tobrini, according to right. — 別章 册型,通量。, following a separate writing 1). — Waga kokóroyeno tobrini, after (in) my opinion.

24. Tamé, 爲 🛠, purpose, aim, end, the destination of a thing. Taméni, for, for the service of, on behalf of, for the sake of, on account of.

Fitono tameni, for, on account of others. — Waga-tameni, for my sake. — Simo kamino tameni su, the less is for the service of the greater. — Tate-mono no tameni kari-uru ikkano ba-siyo, a place hired for building 2). — Kono okitewo katakŭ-sen tameni, for the maintenance of this article 3). — Uru tameni, for sale.

25. Kavari, 替点, the barter. Kavarini, in exchange for, instead of, for. — Kono fitono kavarini, for (instead of) this man.

26. Made, 近季。 迨。 迄, the aim towards which a movement is directed; to, into, till, until, with reference to place or time, opposed to yori, from.

Firato yori Nagasaki máde sanziyu fatsi ri ari, from Firato to Nagasaki it is 38 ri. — Itsu made watákusi mataneba naranŭka? till when (how long) must I wait? — Asu made, till to-morrow. — Ten-si yori mótte siyo-zinni itárŭ made, = from the emperor himself till one comes (itárŭ made) to the common man 4). — I-fúkŭ, ya-gu, tabino rui made ge-sarŭ, clothes, bedding, even to shoes, are distributed. — Kökónótsu han doki yori nanátsu made utsíni, = within one till four o'clock, between one and four o'clock 5). — Yok-ka madeni deki-másŭ, by the fourth day (of the month) it will be ready 6).

§ 63. Verbs in the gerund, used as words expressive of relation, are A. With a previous accusative, 7, wo:

1. Motte, 以表, using, by means, with, the gerund of Motsi, to seize, hold, use.

The object that is seized, or taken with the hand, is either the object direct of an action later to be mentioned, or the means of carrying it out.

It is object direct in sentences as:

將對詩 = 其 浪 俱 和 Niwo motte namini tsutquru koto nakáre, i. e. literally: Taking the poem let it not be abandoned to the waves! = let not the poem be abandoned to the waves.

¹⁾ Treaty. Art. III. al. 1.

²⁾ Ibid. II. 8.

³⁾ Ibid. II. 6.

⁴⁾ Dai Gaku, § 6.

⁵⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 17.

⁶⁾ Ibid. p. 10-

The object of Motte is used as the means of carrying out an action in sentences as:

以美人美术人类, Fitówo motte fitówo osámu, to treat mankind as mankind. — Irovawo motte rui wo wakátsu, to divide the classes according to the Irova.

2. Tovorite, Toórite, contracted Toótte, 通券, going through or along..., the gerund of Tovóri, go through, pass.

Monwo toótte, going through the gate. — Fino nakawo toótte, through the midst of the fire. — Mitsi-suziwo toótte yúků, go along a way.

3. Tsŭtářte, vulgo Ts'tatte, the gerund of Tsŭtái, go along.

Kai-ganwo tsătáite itsi ri bakári yukéba, if one goes a ri along the coast.

4. Fete, ₩ ; through, along, during, the gerund of Fe, Furu, to go away, to go along.

Sono fa fuyuwo fete sibomazu, the foliage does not fade in the winter.

5. Nozókité, Nozóité, 🏋 👼, setting behind, excepted, except, the gerund of Nozók)i, u (contracted from notsini oki, to set behind).

Nippon siyo kwa-feiva, tou-zenwo nozóku, yu-syuts-su bési (日ラ本芝講学 賃名幣ネハ銅片錢芝ョ除名輸ュ出業スペシ), all Japanese money, except copper money, may be circulated 1).

B. Verbs, used as worths expressive of relation, with a previous local or dative, =, ni:

1. .. ni oĭté, in, at, strengthened local form, of ni (in, at) and oĭté, or woïté, (於美, 子), = establishing, Fr. en établissant, the gerund of oki, 丽美, to place; establish, erect. When merely ni and when ni oĭté is used, will appear from the following examples. The expression: >The Dutchmen staying in Japan, = the Dutchmen in Japan," is rendered by Nipponni árŭ Oranda-zin²); in the expression: >this document shall be exchanged at Nagasaki," on the other hand the local is expressed by ni oĭté, and the translation runs: Kono fon-siyowo Nagasakini oĭté tori-kayésŭ-bési²). In the first case the definition of place where? is governed by the áru or oru, dwell, immediately following; in the second case the definition of place, where?, because not dependent on the verb, exchange, it is, by the addition of oɪté, made an adverbial phrase. — This remark agrees

¹⁾ Treaty v. 1858. Art. IV, al. 4.

²⁾ Ibid. VII. 1.

³⁾ Ibid, after the Japanese text Art. XI, al. 1; after the Dutch text Art. X, al. 4.

with all the definitions of place, occurring in the Japanese text of the document cited.

The object of *ŏité* may also be an action, one is engaged in; e.g.: Fqu-sókŭwó ŏkásŭni ŏitevá (法分則分录化表 大力), by violating the Regulations 1).

The derivative from oki, viz $\delta k \acute{e}ru$, = to be fixed or placed, preceded by a local in ni, answers to the expression: the position with relation to; e. g.:

而 物型 君 Kun-sino mononi ŏkérŭ, korewo ai-sĭte zin-sezu, = rela-弗 、 也 子 シ tion of the philosopher to the creatures: he loves them, 仁 ジ 愛子 之 is however not humañe towards them. Hia Meng, Cap. 之 が VII, § 61.

2. Yorite, Yotte, 依意。 答。 據。 因, = having its point of departure and thus also its point of support in, from, in consequence of, on the ground of, the gerund of yori, yoru, to get out from. Compare p. 71, 72.

Korera navo siro ni yorite, teki ni kudárazu, those yet relying on a castle, do not submit to the enemy. — Koreni yotte, in consequence of that, therefore. — Tsi-kárani yotte, in proportion to his strength. — Tokini yottevá, in proportion to time. — Ironi yotte nedanga kawari másu, as the colors are different there is a difference in price 2). — Negaini yotte 3), on entreaty. — Aruni yotte, because there is.

3. Tsukite, vulg. Tsuĭte, 付業。業。就, concerning, the gerund of Tsuki, concern, come to.

Funé kisini tsuku, the ship touches the coast. — Koreni tsuki, or tsuite, or tsuiteva, concerning that, what concerns this.

The attributive form is Tsuiteno, e. g. 宗多旨 = 付美, 爭告論品, Siuzini tsuiteno soo-ron, dispute concerning (about) religion 4).

Remark. To Tooteva also, for which the written forms: Tottewa and Tattewa 5) have crept in, the meaning of: concerning, quand à, have been given, without reference to the limitation of its use. As gerund of Tov)i, u (間方), to ask, Tooteva means: if one ask, to the question; and the expression: Ooseva mottomo naredomo, waga-mini tooteva, kanai-gátai, thus

¹⁾ Treaty. Art. V. al. 4.

²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 34.

³⁾ Treaty. Art. VIII. al. 1

⁴⁾ Ibid. VII. 4.

⁵⁾ collado. p. 57. Rodriguez. p. 86.

means: the command is indeed reasonable, but if one ask me, it is not easy to be carried out.

4. Itarite, vulg. Itatte, \mathfrak{F}_{7} , \mathfrak{F}_{7} , = coming to, respecting; with definitions of time; against, towards, the gerund of *Itári*.

Taikunni itáttevá, does it come to the Taikun, what concerns the Taikun. — Fáruni itáttevá, towards the spring.

5. Tai-sǐté, 對常之方, standing opposite, towards, the gerund of Tai-si, to be opposite, being the further definition, opposite to which, characterized by ni or ve, sometimes also by to. Compare p. 68.

Oranda-zinve tai-si fouwo ökáseru Nippon-zinva, Japanese, who have transgressed the law, towards Dutchmen. — Nippon-zinni tai-si fouwo okasitaru Oranda-zinva, Dutchmen, who have transgressed the law, towards Japanese 1).

6. Mükávite, Mükáite, also Mükávute, Mükóotte, 南京京, 南京京, against, the gerund of Mukavi, to be pointed against something.

Fitoni măkáite (or măkóotte) ku-ron-zuru, to contend against some one.

Mükárite, Mukátte, 🛱 🕏 7, the gerund of Mükári. be turned against something; e.g. Kazéni műkátte hásiru, to run against the wind.

Mŭkité, Mŭité, 南東京, against, the gerund of Muki, to turn against. — Riyque bgu ni muité, towards both sides.

7. Sitagaute, Sitagote, 從 发 元 元, according to, complying with, the gerund of Sitagari, Sitagari, to submit, to yield, to follow.

Sitagátte, (K_{π}) , according to, the gerund of Sitagari, to be subordinate. — (Ni motsuno) atavini sitagatte un-ziyauwo osámu besi, according to the value (of the goods) shall customs be paid 2). — Ki-ini sitagatte ((K_{π})), according to the noble (i. e. your) pleasure.

ALPHABETICAL SYNOPSIS OF THE WORDS EXPRESSIVE OF RELATION TREATED.

Aida = Avida § 62. 14.	$De = Nite \dots § 60.$	Go = Notsi § 62. 4.
Ato, behind 62. 9.	Fete, through . § 63. A. 4.	Gwai = Foka 62. 11.
Avida, between . 62.14.	Foká, without . § 62. 11.	$He = Ve \dots 60.$
	Fotori, round about 62. 18.	
Dai = Utsi 62. 10.	$Ge = Sitá \dots 62$: 2.	Itárite = Itátte . § 63. B. 4.

¹⁾ Treaty. Art. 5. al. 1, 2. Digitized by Microsoft ®

Itátte, to, concerning,	Muité=Mukité . § 63. B. 6.	$Tsiu = Naka \dots \S 62.15.$		
respecting § 63. B. 4.	Mŭkité, against 63. B. 6.	To, to, with: . 60.		
$Ka = Sita \dots \S 62. 2.$	Mŭkoo = Mŭkau § 62. 13.	To, with, together,		
$Kan = Aida \dots 62.14.$	Mŭkóote, against § 63. B.6.	and 62. 20.		
Kara, out 60.	$Nai = Utsi \dots \S 62. 10.$	Touari, next 62.21.		
Kata, next, to;	Naka, in the midst of 62. 15.	Toótte = Tovorite § 63. A. 2.		
against, about 62.17.	Ni, at, in 60.	Tooteva 63. B. 3.		
Kavari, for, in-	Nite, in, with . 60.	Toóri, along § 62. 23.		
stead of 62.25.	Notsi, behind, after 62. 4.	Tovorite, through § 63. A. 2.		
$Ke = Sit\acute{a} \dots 62. 2.$	Nozóite=Nozókite§ 63. A.5.	Tsuĭte = T sukĭte 63. B. 3.		
Máde, to 62.26.	Nozókite, except 63. A. 5.	Tsukite, concerning		
$Mai = Mave \dots 62. 3.$	Otté, in : 63. B. 1.	§ 63. B. 3.		
Mavari, round	Omote, before § 62. 5.	Tsŭtáĭte, along . 63. A. 3.		
about 62.19.	Saki, before hand 62.8.	Ts'tatte = Tsŭtaı̃te 63. A. 3.		
Mave, Maye, before 62. 3.	Si-dai, following 62. 22.	. Urá, inwards § 62. 6.		
Motte, by means	Sita, beneath. 62. 2.	Usiro, behind 62. 7.		
of, with § 63. A. 1.	Sitagátte, accord. to 63. B. 7.	Utsí, within 62.10.		
Mŭkái = Mukavi § 62. 13.	i = Mukavi § 62. 13. Stagaute, » 63.B.7.			
Mŭkáite = Mŭkávite	Sitagoote, » 63.B.7.	<i>Uyé</i> , up 62. 1.		
§ 63. B. 6.	Siu-i, round about §62.19.	Ve, wards, to . 60.		
Mŭkávi, contrary § 62. 13.	Soba, next 62.16.	Yori, out, from 60.		
Mükávite, against § 63. B. 6.	Soto, without 62.12.	Yorite, on the		
Mŭkárite, against 63. B. 6.	Tai-site, towards § 63.B.5.	ground of § 63. B. 2.		
Mŭkátte=Mukárite 63. B. 6.	Tamé, for, on ac-	Yotte = yorite 63. B. 2.		
Mŭkaŭ = Mŭkávi § 62. 13.	count of § 62. 24.	Zen = Mave § 62. 3.		
Mukavute, against §63. B.6.	Te, in, with 60.	$Ziyau = Uye' \dots 62.1.$		

CHAPTER VII.

THE VERB.

Man begreift nichts, dessen Entstehung man nicht einsicht.

In the treatment of this chapter, the question, which presents itself most prominently, is, what are the conjugational forms of the Japanese verb, and what do they mean. Included in it is the answer to the question, how are the conjugational forms of the Western languages expressed in the Japanese.

§ 64. The Voices of the Japanese verb are:

Intransitive.

Transitive, Factive or Causative.

Passive, but in the form of an Active.

Negative, since the verbal terminations contain in themselves a negative element, n.

§ 65. The Moods are: the indefinite Root-form; the Imperative which, at the same time, is the basis of the Optative; the indicative Closing form; the Substantive-form (Infinitive), at once Attributive form (Participle), and a derivative Adverbial form (see § 107). — The Root and the Substantive forms are declinable, and by declension express the mood definitive of time and cause (Subjunctive) and the Conditional etc.

§ 66. The Tenses are root-tenses (Present, Preterit, Future, 現意在学, Gen-zai; 過名去音, Kwa-ko; 末章來意, Mi-rai), and derivative tenses. A root-tense is indefinite (aorist), when the action with reference to the speaker is present, past, or future, and is not, with reference to a given period of time, represented as perfect or imperfect. The Japanese verb pays attention to this distinction, and also expresses the beginning, the continuance and the ending, as well as the repetition of an action by peculiar forms.

§ 67. Person and number are not noticed in the verb, whereas the grammatical distinction of three persons (I, thou, he) as well as that of singular and plural, have remained foreign to the language. (See pp. 73 and 53).

Instead of a grammatical distinction, a qualifying one steps in, noticeable by the choice of the verb, by which the speaker distinguishes his own being or acting from that of another person, but particularly noticeable, because he adds the augmentative prefix On or O, which plays so important a part in the domain of the pronouns (see p. 75), to the verb also, as soon as the action that it expresses, proceeds from a person, to whom he bears respect, or is a condition imputed to that person. The want of a grammatical distinction of three persons is fully made good by the manner in which a courtly speaker qualifies his own being or acting and that of another.

The way in which courtesy expresses itself in the verbs, is further explained in an Appendix to this chapter. § 111. p. 311.

§ 68. The verbal root. Every verbal root (the essential part or the root of a verb) terminates either in e or i (compare the Latin doce and audi). These terminations are the verbal element proper, which is subject to transformation or declension. Whereas we, by means of the European letters are able to disengage these elements from the verbal root and treat them separately, the Japanese syllabic system of writing represents them as bound to the final consonant of the verbal root.

As the element i undergoing a strengthening, in certain cases becomes a or o, whereas the element e, in the same cases remains unchanged, this leads naturally to a division of the verbs into two conjugations: a nondeflecting one in e, and a deflecting one in i, called by some a regular conjugation in e and an irregular one in i.

There is a group of about forty verbs derived by a nondeflecting element i, which in respect of their transformation are ranked under the nondeflecting conjugation in e. They are enumerated and explained in § 99.

The verbal root or the root-form answers logically, but not formally, to our Infinitive. Ake, to open; Kaki, to write; Yuki, to go.

A verb is in the indefinite root-form, when it is the first member of a compound verb, as well as in the coördinate connection of propositions which has the peculiarity, that only the last of the propositions linked together expresses the definition of time and manner, whereas in the preceding sentences the verb is left in the indefinite root form (compare p. 46).

The dictionaries of Japanese origin do not point out the root-form. But as a knowledge of it is necessary to being able to conjugate a verb, we, here, as in our Dictionary, place the root-form on the foreground.

The root-form is equivalent to a substantive, it is declinable by means of suffixes (see § 7) and can be preceded by a genitive.

Akeni, to the opening, to open. Dative and Terminative; Supine.

Akeniva, = Akenba, = Akeba, while one opens. Local, Modal.

Akete, by opening. Instrumental, Modal.

On this principle forms are obtained, which answer to some of our moods.

§ 69. The imperative mood, Ge-dzino kotoba (下知ノ詞). The Imperative terminates in the accented o.

In the nondeflecting verbs the root is at once imperative: Aké, open! — in the deflecting the termination i changes into e: Káki, to write; Kaké, write! Kuvi, to eat; Kuvé, Kuyé, eat! Ini, to go away, Ine, go away!

This form may ce strengthened by suffixing the exclamation ya, ai, yo (see p. 62), for which in the eastern countries ro is in use 1). Akéyo or Akéro, open! Yukéyo or Yukéro, go! Seyo or Sero, do!

Instead of eyo the conversational language of Si-kok uses et also, thus Akhi for Akhi yo, open! Sei for Seyo, do! Yóku Oide nasarei, for nasare, = well may your arrival happen, i. e. be welcome! — Ki, come, has Koyo, Koi, in Sikok Kei²), come! — From Mi, to see, and Kiki, to hear, appear also in the old-Japanese Miso and Kiki so (\mathbb{R}^{2} \mathbb{H}^{2} , \mathbb{H}^{2}) as imperatives.

¹⁾ Wagun siwori, under Ro.

²⁾ Ibid , under Ko.

The termination \neq , tsi (= ti) changes into \neq te; from Matsi, to watch; Utsi, to beat, becomes Mate, Mateyo, watch! Ute, Uteyo, beat!

The imperative thus obtained is with respect to its form the vocative of the verbal root (see p. 62). The categorical imperative, used only to inferiors. is avoided in polite conversation and superseded by more elegant expressions.

The imperative, followed by kasi or gana, has the force of our optative. O tde nasarei kasi, oh that you came!

§ 70. Closing form of the verb.

If a verb closes the sentence in the quality of verb predicate, i. e. as finite verb, then the termination e or i of the root form passes over to the mute u. From Ake is $Ak\check{u}$, one opens; from Yuki, $Yuk\check{u}$, one goes. Logically this form answers to our indicative present. The historian uses it for the past also, which he, in his relation, represents as an event taking place before his eyes. (Praesens Historicum).

In the application of this rule the following phenomena present themselves: The terminations ai, ei, ii, oi, ui pass into

solve into au, eu, iu, ou, uu, which in the spoken language resolve into ao, ĕo, iu or iyu, ou, uu. Compare pp. 12, 13.

Ai becomes au, it suits; Ei, eu ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$ or $\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$), one gets drunken; Ii ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$), iyu ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$), one says; Oi, oyu ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$), one grows old; Kui ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}$), Kuyu ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}$) one regrets; e' ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$), to get. u ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}$), one gets; Iye', iyu ($\mathbb{Z}\mathcal{P}\mathcal{P}$), it heals. The terminations:

ke, \mathcal{F} , and ki, \mathcal{F} , become ku, \mathcal{F} .

ge, \mathcal{F} , and gi, \mathcal{F} , become gu, \mathcal{F} .

se, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} si, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} su, \mathcal{F} .

te, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} tsi, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} tsu, \mathcal{F} .

de, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} dzi, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} dzu, \mathcal{F} ne, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} ni, \mathcal{F} nu, \mathcal{F} ve, \mathcal{F} , \mathcal{F} vi, \mathcal{F} vu, \mathcal{F}

The terminations アヒ、ヱヒ、ィヒ、オヒ、カヒ (avi, evi, ivi, ovi, uvi), for which the spoken language uses ai, ei, ii, oi, ui¹), pass into アフ、ヱフ、ィフ、オフ、サフ (avu, evu, ivu, ovu, uvu), in the spoken language au (qo), eu (ĕo), iu, ou, uu. See pp. 12, 13.

キラフ (Kirávň, one shuns) and チガフ, (Negávň one wishes) sound in the

¹⁾ Compare p. 16, line 7.

street language of Yédo Kira-u, Nega-u, but in the mouth of a polite person Kirao and Negao 1).

The difference between qu and qu, for which Léon pages uses qu and qu, mostly remains unnoticed in the spoken language, and both forms are then expressed by qu, for the sake of etymology, however, a distinction of the two is highly desirable.

To the deflecting verbs of this class belong:

Avi, vulg. Ai, to like; Ivavi, to pray; Kanavi, to be sufficient; Kanávu, it is sufficient; Samŭrávi, pron. Soorái, wait on; サムラフ, Samŭrávi, pron. Sooroo, vulg. soro (侯岩 //), one waits on, is at the service of 3).

Evi, vulg. ei, to get drunken, エフ or エラ, one gets drunken.

Ivi, vulg. ii, say; 17, ivu or 12, iyu, one says.

Omóvi, vulg. ŏmói, think; ŏmóvŭ or ŏmou, one thinks.

Yuvi, vulg. yui, bind; yúvu or yuu, one binds.

Ari, tari and nari (to be), remain, when they close the sentence as verb predicate, unchanged. See § 96.

§ 71. The substantive and attributive form.

Used as noun substantive (Infinitive) and attributive (by way of participle). the nondeflecting verbs supersede their termination e with eru or uru, i with iru, and the deflecting their i with u.

Ake, to open, becomes Akuru or Akeru.

Mi, to see, » Miru.

Yuki, to go, » Yuku.

The terminations eru, iru, oru have more or less continuative force, Akeru, Akuru and Miru being equivalent to Ake-te-oru, Mite-iru or Mite-óru, see § 78.

The form uru of Ak'uru belongs to the written language and in Kiusiu to the spoken language also; 'eru, less in use, is confined to the spoken language 4).

¹⁾ From an oral communication by the native of Yédo, KITAROO. 2) See p. 13, note.

³⁾ On account of the important part, which Soro plays as auxiliary verb in the epistolary style, it will be treated still more particularly hereafter (§ 102).

⁴⁾ From an oral communication by TSUDA SIN ITSIROO.

As noun substantive, the verb is, like every substantive declinable, e. g.

Toókini yukuvá, going into the distance. — Kun-sino mitsí tatóyěvá tookini yúkugá götósř, the way of a philosopher is, to use an instance, as a going into the distance. — Terawó mírŭni yukŭ, to go to see a temple. — Ki árŭwó mótte, on account of the presence of trees, because there are trees. — Age-masu kara, after presentation. — Sĭkáruni yotte, = on account of its being thus; since it is so. — Yuku yoriva yukánuga masi, it is better not to go than to go. — Se, to do; Sŭru, the doing; Sŭrŭnivá, in the doing. — Mi, to see, Miru, the seeing; Mĭrŭnivá, as one sees. — San fao yóri mírŭni (or mírŭnivá) yámano sŭgáta onázikóto nari, on looking out from three sides, the form of the mountain appears to be the same. Compare § 73, page 206. Remark.

Kawakitáru, the become dry, is substantive in Fa nó kawakitárŭ wo mómŭ, = what has become dry of the leaves one rubs; on the other hand in; Kawa-kitárŭ fawo te nite mómŭ, = one rubs the foliage become dry, it is attributive.

All the relations, which in a noun are expressed by the forms of declension, may, thus, by the same means, be attributed to a proposition, just as it may be desired to characterise it as subjective, objective or adverbial.

The substantive form with ka as suffix is the form of the question direct. Arŭ ka? or Ari-másŭ ka? is there? Ari or Ari-másŭ, there is!

The verbal substantive becomes attributive by its mere subordination to a noun following. Akuru-koto, the deed of opening, the opening. — Yuku-mono, the going something, that which goes.

§ 72. Gerund.

1. The inflectional termination \mathcal{F} , te, or \mathcal{F} , de, which in substantives indicates the local, modal or instrumental relation, added to the verbal root forms a gerund, which characterises the action expressed by this verb as a subordinate local, modal or instrumental definition of another action succeeding it.

Ake te, by, on or at opening, Fr. en ouvrant. — Mite, on seeing. — Yukite, on going. — Oyóbi, to come to. — Kŭrè-gătáni oyóbite wagiyêni kahêriki, = when it came to the evening twilight, or, in short, at evening, one returned home. — Tewo agèté fitówo manêki-yóbŭ, raising his hand (he) winks and calls people to himself.

- 2. Modifications introduced into the original form of the gerund by the spoken language:
- a. The polysyllabic verbs ending in the deflecting ki or gi, mostly drop the k and g; kite or gite becomes ite. Thence:

Yaite for Yakite, from Yaki, 炸, to burn, trans.

Taite » Takite, » Taki, 焚筝, to burn, intrans.

Kiite » Kikite, » Kiki, 間 , to hear.

Oité » Okite, » Oki, 置幸, to place.

Suité » Sŭkite, » Sŭki, 好辛, to like.

Tsŭité » Tsukite, » Tsuki, 付業, to come to.

Kaide » Kagide, » Kagi, 學文, smell, trans.

Soite » Sogite, » Sogi, 粉菜, split.

Toite » Togite, » Togi, F; grind.

The nondeflecting Dé-ki, iru ($\mathbf{H}^{\vec{r}}$ \mathbf{X}^{\dagger}), to come out of, proceed, happen (see § 99. N°. 3), has Dékité.

b. In verbs in tsi and ri, tsite (チラ) and rite (リラ) change into tte, that is written ッラ but not pronounced tsuté or tste. Thence:

Tatte, タグテ, for Tátsité, from Tatsi, to rise, to stand up.

Matte, マグラ, » Mátsite, » Matsi, to watch, to wait.

Motte, モグテ, » Mótsite, » Motsi, to hand, to take.

Atte, アグテ, » Arite, » Ari, to exist, to be.

Otte, オクラ, » Orite, » Ori, 1. to dwell; 2. to break.

Natte, †97, » Narite, » Nari, 1. to be; 2. to sound. intr.

Yotte, 397, » Yorite, » Yori, to go out from.

Kahette, カヘッテ, » Kahérité, » Kahéri, to turn back.

Musítte, ムングラ, » Musírite, » Musíri, to pluck.

Tsŭnótte, ") / ", " Tsŭnórité, " Tsŭnóri, to be steady, steadfast.

Here, after the suppression of the weak termination i an assimilation of ts (originally t) and of r with the t succeeding takes place.

c. In deflecting verbs the forms bite, L'F, and mité, EF, dropping the weak i, in prononciation change into nde. Thence:

```
from Erámi, to select.
          ヱランデ, for Erámi-te,
Eránde,
                                        Ayumi, to walk.
          アユンデ, » Ayúmi-te,
Ayunde,
                                         Yomi, to read.
Yonde,
          ヨンデ,
                   » Yomi-te,
                                        Nomi, to drink.
Nonde,
          ノンデ,
                    » Nomi-te,
                                        Nomikomi, to conceive, to under-
Nomikonde, ノミコンデ, » Nomikomi-te, »
                     » Momi-te,
                                        Momi, to rub.
                                                               stand.
Monde,
          モンデ,
                                     >>
          ス、ンデ,
                    » Susumi-te,
                                        Sŭsŭmi, to advance, to go fowards.
Susunde,
                                     >
                   » Músŭbĭ-te,
                                        Musŭbi, to tie.
Musunde.
          ムスンデ、
                                     >
          ヨンデ, » Yobi-te,
                                        Yobi, to call.
Yonde,
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The nondeflecting in mi and bi retain mite, bite. Horóbi, to ruin, v. i., Horóbite. See § 99. Nº. 24.

As the old manner of writing used Δ instead of ν , thus $\Delta \not\equiv$ instead of $\nu \not\equiv$, and Δ also passed for $\not\equiv$, for the terminations ande, onde, unde, the forms aude, oude, unde, were obtained; which in the pronunciation pass into *gode* (oode), oode, unde; thence: Ergode or Erande, Yoode for Yonde, Ayunde for Ayunde.

d. In the deflecting verbs in $\mathcal{I}\mathcal{L}$, avi, $\mathcal{I}\mathcal{L}$, ovi, (in the spoken language ai, oi) the substantive form is really $\mathcal{I}\mathcal{I}$, $\mathcal{I}\mathcal{I}$, pron. ao, ao, ao, to which the termination to is added.

Avi, pron. Ai, to meet, becomes $\it TTF$, ávité, in the spoken language goto, oote.

Narávi, pron. Narái, to learn, becomes ナラフテ, Narávité, in the spoken language Naráote, Naroote.

Simávi, pron. Simái, to cease, becomes シマフテ, Simávité, in the spoken language Simáote, Simóote.

Warávi, pron. Warái, to laugh, becomes 9375, Waráväté, in the spoken language Waráoté, Waróoté.

Farávi (Harái), to sweep away, remove, becomes ハラフラ, Fargote (Haroote), in the street language of Yédo Harátte also 1).

Omóvi, pron. Omói, to think, becomes オモフラ, Omóväté, in the spoken language ŏmóoté.

Núvi, pron. Nui, to sew, becomes ヌフテ, Nuvuté, in the spoken language Nuute, Nûte.

¹⁾ See R. BROWN, Colloquial Japanese, X.

But if it be admitted, that after dropping the weak i, the remaining semi-vowel v equivalent to u, with the preceding a or o passes into ao or a
Instances of the use of the gerund.

Kasiráwó ĭdásĭté mírŭ, to stick out the head and look. — Idásĭ, to produce, the causative form of the disused ĭdí, to appear. — Kŭdáwó mótté tenwó úkägáo (クダラ モグラ ラカッツ), to observe the heavens with a tube, i. e. not to have a broad view. — Mótte, from Motsi, deflecting verb, to catch hold of with the hand, to use anything. — Oyósŏ fĭtónó sao-foowó úkagáuvá, kasirawó motté siyu tó sŭ, he who pays attention to another's appearance, considers the head as the principal; literally: taking the head, he makes (it) the chief or the principal.

Isolated by va the gerund becomes an adverbial phrase definitive of time, to va being equivalent to ébá. See § 73. Examples:

Hitóno kimi to nátte va, zin ni órŭ 1), if he becomes another's lord, he dwells in (his position is that of) humanity. — Natte = Narite, from Nari, = to be, and, when an appositive definition with to precedes, = to become. See § 100. III. — Fibári takáku tóndé amèní itári bu-mei-su; kŭtábirétěvá, tobi-săgárité kŭsá-mūrá năkání irŭ, the lark, soaring high, goes to the skies, dances and sings; if he is tired, then he descends and goes into his grass dwelling. — Tonde, gerund trom Tobi, to soar. — Kŭtábiréte vá, = by fatigue, the gerund isolated by va, from Kŭtábire, to grow tired. — Tobi-sagári, literally: fly-descend, i. e. fly downwards. — Iri, írŭ, go in, with the local, where? one goes in.

Instead of the isolated gerund $N\acute{a}ttev\acute{a}$ (by the being, or becoming) often occurs the expression $N\acute{a}tte$ sik\acute{a}usité, = becoming, so, etc.

§ 73. The verbal root in the Local for the forming of adverbial phrases definitive of time (Conjunctive or Subjunctive form).

The predicate verb of subordinate adverbial sentences, which describe a time really present, or supposed as present, in the past, and which in our languages are connected with the principal proposition by conjunctions such as when, since, as, in the Japanese is placed in the Local in ni, followed by the isolating

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, III. 3.

particle n va. Thus is obtained ni + va as termination, which fuses into n, ba (= nva, nba). The subordinate precedes the principal proposition.

This termination in the nondeflecting verbs in e and i is joined to the root form, thus Akebá, on opening, as or when he opens; Nedz)i, iru, to twist, Nedzíbá, as one twists; Moísi, to use, Motsilbá, as one uses; Sii, to die, Silbá, as one dies.

In the deflecting verbs the verbal element i first undergoes a strengthening of sound, and changes into e, by which eba is obtained in the same manner; Yuki, to go, Yukebá (vulg. Yukiya) on going, as or when one goes, or when one went.

Hóssi, 微类, to long for, Hosseba. Tatsi (= Tati), to arise, Tateba. Matsí (= Mati), watch, Mateba. Tatóvi, serve for example, Tatóvebá, for Nari, to be, Narébá. instance.

Ivi, to say, Ivebá. Yomi, to read, Yomebá. Ari, to be, Arébá. Nákeri, not to have been, Nákěrěbá.

Examples of the use of this form.

Satoowó mazebá tsya-yu adzīwái amáku náru, = by the mixture with sugar the tea becomes sweet of taste. Maz)e, uru, mix in. — Miwó osáműrű yűenwó sirébá, sunavátsi fitówo osáműrű yűen wó sirű, if one knows the means to govern oneself, then one knows the means to govern others. Sir)i, u, to know. — Titsi si-seru toki sao-siki wó su-beki tsikára nákěrěbá, waga-mi wó urite sao-reiwó itonámu, at the time of his father's death not having the means to bury him, he (the son) sold himself and performed the funeral rites.

Remark. In nondeflecting verbs in e and i, instead of the form eba, here explained the substantive form of the verb with the isolated local termination niva, vulgo niwa is also used. — Motome, to strive for, to seek; Motomuru, the seeking; Motomuruniva, in the seeking, as one seeks. See § 71.

§ 74. The concessive form.

The concessive adverbial phrase, which we connect with the principal proposition by means of conjunctional adverbs such as though, although, however, but, is characterized in Japanese by the strong accended form-word mo or tomo (= Lat. quoque) and precedes the principal proposition.

Opposed to Ama-gumó áritévá (pron. attewa), amega furu, = while rain-clouds are present, rain falls, and Ama-gumo areba, amega furu, = as rain-clouds are present, it rains, is: Ama-gumo arité-mó, (áttemó), furázu, = also in the presence of rain-clouds it does not rain, that is: although there are rain-clouds, it does not rain.

Consequently the following forms are opposite to each other.

The verb as substantive.

Akuru vá, the act of opening.

Tatsuru va, the act of erecting.

Miruva, the seeing.

Yukuva, the going.

Akuruniva, on opening.

Tatsuruniva, on erecting.

Miruniva, on seeing

Yukuniva, on going.

Akurumo, or Akurutomo, the act of opening being granted.

Tatsurumo, or Tatsurutomo, though erecting.

Mirumo, or Mirutomo, also (or even) the seeing.

Yukumo, or Yukutomo, also (or even) the going.

Akurunimo, even on opening.

Tatsurunimo, even on erecting.

Mirunimo, even on seeing.

Yukunimo, even in going.

Gerund.

Akétéva, on opening, as one opens.

Tatte vá, by erecting, as one erects.

Mitevá, on seeing.

Yukitevá (pron. Yuitévá), by going.

Akétémo, though opening, or even if one opens.

Tattemo, though erecting.

Mitemo, even if one sees.

Yukite (yuite)-mo, though going.

Time-defining local.

Akeba, contracted from Ake-ni-va, as one opens.

Tateba, contracted from Tate-ni-va, as one is erecting.

Yukéba, contracted from Yuké-ni-va, as one is going.

Tatsure ba, contract. from Tatsure-ni-va, as one is erecting.

Akedomo, contracted from Ake-ni-tomo,
Akendomo, though one opens.

Tatedomo, contracted from Tate-ni-tomo, Tatendomo, though one is erecting.

Yukedomo, contract. from Yuke-ni-tomo, Yukendomo, though one goes.

Tatsure domo, contracted from Tatsureni-tomo, though one is erecting.

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From this analysis it is evident why it is necessary at one time to say and to write va and tomo, and at another ba and domo. Just as the impure b in ba is a fusion of n + v, so the impure d in domo is a fusion of n + t. The Japanese themselves seem not to appreciate this distinction and forget to characterize (va) and (va) by adding the Nigóri-mark (va) as (va), (va) and (va) by adding the (va) and (va) as (va) and
Instead of domo, Yèdòmó (イヘドモ・イエドモ) is also used. This is the concessive form of conjugation of Ivi or Ii (イヒ・イン), to say, to be called, and therefore means: though one says, though it be called. This verb is preceded by the definition, how or what one calls something, as opposition with the suffix to²); e.g. Kuni ari, sono nawo Nippón to ívu, there is a kingdom, its name is called Nippon. — Sorewa nanito iu ka, how is that called? — If the apposition is a verb, then this stands in the substantive- or in the root-form: Akuru to ivu, Yuku to ivu, it is said that one opens, it is said that people go. — Akuru to ièdòmó, Yuku tó ièdòmó thus means: though it is said that one opens, or that one is going, expressions which answer to: although one opens, or might open, although one is going. — Ari to ièdòmó, even granting the existence, although there is.

§ 75. The form of the Future (未 來 元, Mi-rai).

There are different expressions, that signify that an action or state which is still in perspective, is objective to the willing, being able, having permission or being obliged. Here the derivative form, which expresses the effort, the inclination or tendency to realize what the verb points out, comes first under notice. As it at the same time includes the uncertainty, if anything is happening, has happened or will happen, it has been called *Futurum dubium*. For convenience's sake we retain this name, even were that of modus dubitativus better fitted.

With regard to the form we distinguish the simple and the periphrastic future.

I. The simple future of Yamáto-language has for characteristic the terminations me and mu, which in nondeflecting verbs in e or i are immediately added to the root, in the deflecting in i, however, only after this i by a strengthening of sound has been changed into a (or sometimes for vocal harmony into o). The termination mu, according to the oldest writing \mathcal{H}^{\triangle} or $\mathcal{A}^{\triangle 3}$) and pronounced m, has been in later times superseded by \mathcal{V} , n, and in the spoken language by \mathcal{V} , n. In measure this $\mathcal{V}(n)$ counts as a syllable.

¹⁾ See p. 9. 2) See p. 70. V. 3) As in the chronicle Nippon-ki and in the oldest poems.

Ake, to open, future Akemŭ ($7 \not\sim L$), Aken ($7 \not\sim V$), in the spoken language Akĕu ($7 \not\sim P$), passing to ákĕó.

Mi, to see, future $Mim\ddot{u}$ ($\geq \lambda$), Min ($\geq \nu$), in the spoken language Miu. Yuki, to go, future $Yukam\ddot{u}$ ($\mathcal{I}\mathcal{B}\lambda$), Yukan, in the spoken language Yukau ($\mathcal{I}\mathcal{B}\lambda$), passing to $Y\ddot{u}kqo$, vulg. Yukoo also.

Remark. The Japanese writing of the forms of the spoken language varies: to express the pronunciation of $7 \not\sim 9$, $2 \not\sim 9$, some write $7 \not\sim 7$, $2 \not\sim 7$, and others $7 \not\sim 7$, $2 \not\sim 7$, and even $7 \not\sim 7 \rightarrow 9$, and instead of $7 \not\sim 9$ (aroo, shall be, from Ari, to be), $7 \not\sim 7$, $7 \rightarrow 9$, $7 \rightarrow 7$, and even $7 \rightarrow 9$ is written.

S)i, u, to do; future $Sam \ddot{u}$, San, in the spoken language Soo, at Yédo šoo, expressed by \tilde{z} .

Mas)i, u, to be present; future Masamú, Masan, in the spoken language Masao, Masoo, at Yédo Mašoo (Eng. Mashoö).

Matsi, \forall +, wait; future Matamu, Matan, in the spoken language Matqu, Matqo, Matoo.

Avi, pron. Ai, to fit; future Avamu, Avan, in the spoken language Avau, Avoo, Awoo.

Negávi, pron. Negái, to wish; future Negavanu, Negavan, in the spoken language Negavau, Negavao, or Negawoo.

Sămi, to nestle, sit up; future Sămámă, Sămán, in the spoken language X >>, Sumão, for which the written form X >> also appears.

Ni, to be (see § 100. I); future Namu, Nan.

Ari, to be (see § 96); future $Arám \check{u}$, Aran, in the spoken language Arau, Arao, Aroo.

The termination mu, as characteristic of the Future, is according to my idea the regular indicative closing form and the substantive form of a verb mi, that expresses a striving to be or to do something. $Ar\acute{a}m\breve{u}$, = Aran, the derivative of Ari, consequently indicates a striving after existence and what is called the dubious future, is according to its form, a present. The nondeflecting verb Motom)e, u, uru (\maltese), generally considered as equivalent to **to acquire," but which, as the regularly formed derivation from Mots)i, i ($\ddot{\uparrow}$), = to hold, really has the meaning of strive to hold, shows the nature of Me, mu in its full power. In the same way: Akari, red light, glow; lighten, to glow; Akaram)i, u, strive to glow, in particular, the gradually becoming red and ripe of fruit.

In my opinion, there is also a connection between the form me, mu treated here, and the verbal derivative forms mi, mu, which from a number of adjective root-words cited on p. 107 forms a deflecting intransitive verb, that expresses the becoming such, as the root word indicates and is equivalent to a Latin inchoative verb in -sco, for instance:

Sirómi, albescere to grow white. Siro, white; Kurómi, nigrescere, to grow black. Kuro, black; Kurámi, to grow dark. Kura, dark; Takámi, to grow high. Taka, high; Firámi, to grow flat. Fira, flat, Firómi, to grow broad. Firo, roomy, broad; Katámi, to grow hard. Kata, hard; Nukúmi, to grow warm. Nuku, warm; Marómi, to grow round. Maro, round; Aómi, to grow green. Ao, green; Kubómi, to grow hollow. Kubo, hollow; Nagámi, to grow long. Naga, long; Yásumi, to grow easy or quiet. Yásŭ, easy, quiet; Sigémi, to grow tight. Sige, tight; Aratámi; to grow new. Arata, new; Arámi, to grow wild. Ara, wild;

If we put in the place of mi nondeflecting me, mu, muru, then the intransitive verbs cited here become transitive or properly factive: Sirom)e, u, uru, to make grow white, = to whiten; Kuróm)e, u, uru, to make grow black, to blacken; Nukum)e, u, uru, to warm, to incubate; Yásūm)e, u, uru, to make rest, whence Yasūme-zi (X Z Z), = rest-word, an expletive particle, like mo, which causes a rest, but does not rest, itself. The difference between mi and me is frequently overlooked by the Japanese themselves.

We return to the Future. According to Japanese philologers the termination en or an of the Future signifying uncertainty, appears particularly in connection with a previous interrogative, i. e. in interrogative sentences, whereas the termination me is used, when the sentence has a definite subject, which is frequently strengthened by a successive Koso (= this here); a difference I have not found actually confirmed,

Examples of the use of the forms cited.

高宝坂 のエグハ古言。 見ラズ。愛願

Yezova fŭrúki kotoba ni miyetarazu. Yemisino ten-go naran, the name of Yezo does not appear in the old language. It may be a corruption of Yemisi.

Tamino rin-kókŭ yori ohokaran kotowo nozómu koto nasi¹), there is no prospect, that the population (here) will become more numerous than that of neighbouring states.

Ohokár)i, u, contin. form of Ohoki or Ooki, much. Nozóm)i, u, to hope on... Nasi, there is not.

上差, 八美 恐克 Sono fisásiŭ sǐté tagavan kotowo osóru²), he feared that it 也了 而,其? (the doctrine) might degenerate in time.

Ivaku: Kau-rai tsuini forobimă sirusi ka 3), behold, he said, a sign that Corea will at last perish.

Forobi, nondeflecting verb, to perish. See § 99. 24.

Imá saránto ŏmóvŭ, △4) Ima sarquto omói-másŭ, now I think of going. 今 欲 去.

Niva-toriva suman to su, △ Niva-toriga sumau to suru (雞 微 大), the court-bird (the cock) is about to go to his roost. Sumav)i, u, to roost.

Nisiyé wataran (△ wataravu) to su (將西度), I shall go westwards.

Idzŭréno tokóro ni ká tewo kudasan (何 處 下 手), where shall I lay down my hands? = \triangle Dokowo tekakárini siyau-(šo-)zo? = which part shall I take for handle? i. e. where shall I seize it? S)i, u, to do; future \S , Šô.

△ ドレカラ ハジメラ ブ, Dorekara fazimeo zo? where shall I begin? — △ Do tsutsiye nigeyou zo? whither shall I flee? (Zo, an emphatic suffix).

Nanika aran (何有), what may there be? = \triangle Nanno si-nikui kotoga arau zo? what may there be, that you do not gladly do? = \triangle Nanino naránu to ívu kotoga arou zo? = what should there be, that you blame?

Ani korewo nasanya? what, should I do this?

△ Naniwo O meni kake-mašoo ka? what shall (or may) I show you? — Sake wo age-mašoo ka? shall, or may I offer you something to drink?

¹⁾ Meng-tsze, I. Book I. 3.

²⁾ Tschung-yung.

³⁾ Nippon-ki:

⁴⁾ The sign △ indicates that the words and expressions, to which it is attached, belong to the spoken language.

A Kitano hoo ni kuro-gumo ga ats' matte orimas' kára, Yedo no hoo wá imá amega f'tte ori-masoo 1), as in the north black clouds are heaped up, it will be raining at Yédo now. — If the definition of time imá (now) is superseded by sáki ya (last night), then the after sentence takes the signification of: it will have rained at Yédo last night. - A Sákŭ-ban ittaroo, he will have gone yesterday evening.

The certain Future of the written language.

The adverb Masáni, = indeed, certainly (正。將), in connection with a future followed by to su, gives the expression the meaning that something will certainly happen or is at hand. (§ 103). — Masáni sarán tó sũ, will certainly go.

子 天豆 道幸

Ten-kano mitsi naki koto fisási. Ten masáni Fuu-siwo motte bókŭ-táku to sen tó sŭ 2), it is long that the motive constitute to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sen to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to sa), no is long and the same to
itself, then there are certainly signs that give notice of it.

- II. The periphrastic Future.
- A. The periphrastic Future of the written language is formed
- 1. by grafting アラン, aran or アラメ, arame (= shall be) on the substantive form of a verb, by which aran by aphaeresis becomes ran. E. g.:

Mi, Miru, to see; Miru-ran, = the seeing will be, videns erit.

Kik)i, u, to hear; Kiku-ran, = the hearing will be.

Iv)i, u, or Ii, Iu, to say; Iu-ran, = the saying will be.

As the Japanese find these words expressed in the old rebus writing by 見た 覽之。 聞き 覽之 or 聞き 焉之。 云ヶ 覽之, they consider ran as a particle standing alone. Rodriguez also, on p. 66 line 27, cites ran and, on line 8, uran as particles of the future.

¹⁾ R. BROWN, Collog. Jap. XII.

²⁾ Lun yu III. 24. See J. LEGGE, Chinese classics, Vol. I. pag. 28.

³⁾ Tschung-yung, XXIV.

- 2. By suffixing naramu, = naran, or narame (= will be) to the substantive form of a verb. Miru-naran, Kiku-naran, Iu-naran, = will see, hear, say. A.. va B.. narito iveru narame, people will (narame) have said (iveru) that A is equal to B.
- 3. In combination with negative verbs by suffixing aranan a euphonic modification of ari + nan, = shall or may be, to the substantive form of the negative verb. $Kas umi\ tatazumo\ aranan$, = also the not rising of fog will happen. See § 84.
- 4. By grafting su, suru, fut. suran (= to do) on the form of the Future, by which the s passes into the impure ns = z. Mi-tari, have seen; Mi-taran, I shall have seen. Mitaran-zu, = visurus est, Mitaran-zuran, = visurus erit.
- 5. By grafting the auxiliary verb mas)i, u, (= to dwell, reside, see § 101) on the form of the Future of deflecting verbs, .. amu, .. an, by which .. am' + masi or .. an + masi passes into .. amasi, e. g.:

Ni, to be, becomes Namasi ((也 ‡ 猿玄), contracted from Nan + masi.

Ari, to exist, becomes Aramasi.

Nari, to be, becomes Naramasi (ナラマシ。也 * 焉ラ矣マ止シ).

Kūvá-sĭkári, to be fair, neat, excellent (page 120), becomes Kūvá-sĭkáramási. Siri, noscere, becomes Siramásī, sciturum esse.

Mavusi (pron. Maosi), to mention, becomes Mavusamasi, Moosamasi.

Iv)i, u, to say, becomes Ivamasi (云八倍3).

Tamav)i, u, to grant, to bestow or confer on, becomes Tamavamasi.

Sak)i, u, to unclose itself, to open, becomes Sakamasi.

Hitomo naki " Yadono sakurava " saru tosino " Haruso sakamasi, the plumtree of the inn, though there was nobody, would nevertheless open in the spring of last year. The definition of time: sáru tosi, = last year, also transfers masi to the preterit.

If we compare the periphrastic Future Iva-masi with the periphrastic Present Ivi-masi (see § 101. 2. a), it will appear, that the difference of the two forms is not in masi, but that it is in the verb connected with it, in the one case being the Future, and in the other the root-form. Thus when the native, on old authority, seeks for the force of the Future Ivamasi in the termination si, and characterises it as the $Mi-raino\ si\ (‡^2 ‡^2 / <math>!$!), i. e. the si of the Future, he errs. His $Mi-raino\ si$ does not exist²).

¹⁾ Hiyaku-nin, No. 73.

²⁾ This has reference also to the Mi-raino si, adopted in RODRIGUEZ Étémens. p. 66 line 8 and line 16 - 22,

In the rebus-writing this Masi is expressed by $\mathbb{H}^{\prec} > \mathbb{V}$ and the derivative form Masik)i, u, by $\mathbb{H}^{\prec} > \mathbb{K}^{\downarrow}$; forms to which the Japanese philologist himself attributes the force of $\mathbb{K}^{\circlearrowleft}$, Hossi, = will, and $\mathbb{H}^{\circlearrowleft}$, Besi, = may, and which are to be distinguished from Mazi ($\mathbb{H}^{\prec} > \mathbb{V}$, see § 95. 2. 2)).

B. The periphrastic Future of the spoken language.

It is formed 1. by grafting (zi) zu (X), zuru, zureba, on the form of the Future, proper to the spoken language, zi, zu etc. being the euphonic modification of si, su, suru, sureba, = to do. — アケラズ, Akeo-zu, aperiturus est. Miu-zu, visurus est. Yukoo-zu, iturus est.

2. By mašoo or aroo, the Future of masi and ari, = to be, the first suffixed to the root, the second to the gerund of a verb. — Kaki-mašoo, I shall write. Kakite (or Kaite) aroo, I shall write.

Remark. 1. Let us now just review the nine » particles for the Future" quoted by RODRIGUEZ Élém. pag. 66 lines 7 and 8.

Be)ki, si, = may, is a verb. See § 101.

Nan, the Future of Ni, 1. to go away, 2. to be in... See § 84.

Nuran, the Future of Nuri. See § 84.

Tsuran, a variation of Nuran. See § 85.

Taran, the Future of Tari, to be continually. See § 78.

Taran)zu, zuru, Future zuran, from Tari. See § 78.

Ten, = Tariken. See § 82.

Si, the Mirainosi, based on a misunderstanding. See p. 213. § 75. II. 5.

Baya is a fusion of m or n, the characteristic letter of the Future, and haya, an exclamation, which, as an expression of complaint (Nagekino kotoba), answering to our »Alas," suffixed to a Future, indicates that what is at hand is execrated (Baya negavi-sutsuru kokorono teniva nari). — Kanasiki mono to narabaya! Alas he will become a pitiful man!

Consequently Motome-baya, Se-baya, Mi-baya signify, he will, alas! strive for.., he will, alas! do, or see. The same may be said of Yoma-baya, from Yomi, to read; Narawa-baya, from Naravi, to learn; Nara-baya (not Naruwa-baya), from Nari, to be or to become.

Remark. 2. The Future is used as a softened Imperative. Thus the poet says: Yakazu tomo || kusava moye-nan || Kasuka-no va || Tada faruno fi ni || maka-setaranan, even if it be not burned off, the grass will grow luxuriantly, therefore

only leave the field of Kasuka to the vernal sun. Makasetari, he has left it to. Makasetaranan, he shall or may have left it to, is used, according to the Wagun Siwori, for the Imperative Makasetareyo. Just so in the colloquial: O ide nasareo for O ide nasarei, may your arrival happen, please come.

Remark 3. For so far as they point to something future, the verbs which express the permission or liberty, the power or the obligation to do anything, come under notice here. They are Be)si, ki, ku, I may; Ata)vi, vi, I am able, can, and 當多然意思り, Too-sen tari, it ought to be, it must be, it shall be.

Further illustration of them is given in § 104.

THE SUPPOSITIVE FORM.

§ 76. The terminations eba or iba of nondeflecting, and aba of deflecting verbs are the characteristics of the suppositive adverbial proposition, which, as a rule, precedes the principal proposition. They are, in my opinion, a fusion of the form of the future en or in and an with the local termination ni and the isolating va. From Aken-ni-va comes Akeba, $\mathcal{F}\mathcal{F}^{\prime\prime}$, pronounced as Akenba, on being about to open or as one will open; from Min-ni-va, Miba, $\geq \mathcal{F}$, (Minba), on being about to see; from Yukan-ni-va, Yukaba, $\mathcal{I}\mathcal{F}^{\prime\prime}$, on being about to go; from Naran-ni-va, Naraba, $\mathcal{F}\mathcal{F}^{\prime\prime}$, in the spoken language even fusing into Nara, $\mathcal{F}\mathcal{F}$, on being about to be, might it be.

In the deflecting verbs, clearly noticeable is the difference between the subjunctive Yukeba and suppositive Yukaba; not so in the nondeflecting verbs, since Ake-ni-va and Aken-ni-va both fuse into Akeba. For the definite indication of the suppositive character the help of the adverbial Mosikuva, vulgo Mosi, = albeit, in case of, is called in, and it is placed at the beginning of the suppositive proposition. — Mosi to wo akeba, might one open the door.

In the ordinary style of speaking the form Nara is used not only for Narába, but for Nareba also, thus with the signification of »if it is," and »as it is," as appears from the examples following:

△ Sore nara (or Sore de wa) kai mašoo, as it is so (= then) I will buy it 2). —

¹⁾ The points, which characterise the impure ba (1) are commonly left out by careless writers.

²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 4.

Firu-mayeniwa mairi-ye masenă, before noon I cannot come. — Sore nara, firu-goni, then (the answer is), in the afternoon 1). — Nokorázu O-kai nasáră nara, ŏnázi nedan dé age-mašoo, if you buy all, I will sell them for the same price 2). — Yásui (= Yasuki) nara, tori-mášoo, as (if) it is cheap, I will take it 3).

The future in the Local and isolated by va (Aken-ni-va, on being about to open, if one shall open) mutates with the substantive form in the Local isolated by va (Akuru-ni-va, on opening), as appears from the passage following, taken from the introduction to a Japanese-Chinese Dictionary:

Fitó to iu zi wo motomenniva, Fino bu no kigiyoo-mon no sita wo miru besi.

Fána to íu zi wo motomuru niva, Fa no bu no sei-styóku mon no síta wo miru besi.

If one will seek for the word Fito (man), then one ought to look for it in the division Fi, under the class: breathing beings.

If one seeks for the word Fana (flower), one ought to look for in the division Fa, under the class: plants.

That the unfused forms Aken-ni-va and Yukan-ni-va appear in the written and spoken language as Terminatives as well, equivalent to the Latin ad aperiendum, ad eundum, cannot surprise us, since the local termination ni is also used as characteristic of the Terminative. (See § 7. IV. b. g.)

Remark. When in the Proeve eener Japansche Spraakkunst of 1857, p. 146, I first explained the origin of the subjunctive and the suppositive form, I raised the question whether or not the Japanese themselves were clearly conscious of it, seeing that they so frequently confound the two forms. Mr. R. BEOWN, who has adopted my theory, at p. VII gives the following as answer to it: "Japanese Teachers know nothing of the rational of these formations and constantly affirm that the conjunctive is the same in sense as the conditional, and that Yukaba and Yukeba have the same signification; but Mr. HOFFMANN has ably and clearly demonstrated the distinction as above given. Indeed it is remarkable how many obscure points in the structure of Japanese words have been elucidated by

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 17.

³⁾ Ibid p. 37.

^{2) 1}bid. p. 36.

one who has derived all his knowledge of Japanese from the study of books." - I admit the last, provided "Japanese books" be understood. Before that time I had not had the opportunity of intercourse with Japanese, which I enjoyed afterwards, in 1862.

THE CONTINUATIVE VERBAL FORM.

§ 77. The deflecting derivative forms ari, iri, ori, uri, as I have shown formerly 1), are continuative forms of the verbal element i (§ 68), and express the continuance of movement or being in a condition or in an action. The choice of them was originally, and still is under the influence of a vocal harmony, which requires that the vowels of the subordinate syllables be accommodated to that of the principal syllable.

Ari, Iri and Ori occur as substantive verbs with the signification of 1) to be or exist (有), and 2) dwell, stay (在。居。留), and have i, = to go, and i or #, wi, = seat, as root. These three verbs will subsequently be treated, further in §§ 96, 97, 98.

Examples of the derivation of continuative verbs. Here is to be remarked, that the forms between [] have not hitherto occurred to me, yet they must be supposed as basis of the derivative forms.

Aki, light.

Káki, hook; to hook, v. i.

Sak)i, u, unclose itself, to open, v. i.

[Ag)i, u; rise.

[Sag)i, u, droop, hang down.]

Mas)i, u, augment, v. i.

 $\ldots zi (= n + si)$, not to be.

Miz)i, u, not to see.

Kak)e, u, uru, fasten, Kakár)i, u, be hanging. hang, v. tr.

Ag)e, u, uru, raise.

Sag)e, u, uru, cause to droop.

Akár)i, u, shine, beam.

Sakar)i, u, be in blossom or bloom.

Agar)i, u, be rising, ascending.

Sagar)i, u, to be drooping.

Masar)i, u, to be superior.

 $\dots zar)i$, u, continually not to be.

Mizar)i, u, not to be seeing.

¹⁾ Proeve eener Jap. Spraakkunst, 1857. § 37, 41,

Araz)i, u, not to exist.

[Sadam)i, u, to be determined.]

[Fazim)i, u, to begin, v. i.]

Tsidzim)i, u, wrinkle; erimp.

Firom)i, u, to widen, v. i.

Tsum)i, u, to accumulate,
v. intr.

Ok)i, u, rise.

Ok)i(=Iki),u, breath; flame. Nok)i, u, recede.

Nob)i, u, stretch, to become longer or taller.

Máts)i, u, wait, trans.

Ne, sleep. Nem)i, u, to be sleepy.

Sadam)e, u, uru, to determine.

Fazim)e, u, uru, begin, v. tr.

Tsidzim)e, u, uru, to crimp, v. tr.

Firom)e, u, uru, to widen, tr.

Tsum)e, u, uru, amass,
v. tr.

Nok)e, u, uru, to put back, to bequeath.

Nob)e, u, uru, stretch, to make longer or taller.

Arazar)i, u, not to be existing.

Sadamar)i, u, being determined.

Fazimar)i, u, to be beginning.

Tsidzimar)i, u, to be crimped.

Firomar)i, u, to be widened.

Tsumór)i, u, to be amassed.

 $\delta k \delta r$)i, u, to be rising, the rise.

 $\delta k \delta r i$, u, to be flamming. $Nok \delta r i$, u, to be remaining.

 $Nob\acute{o}r)i$, u, to be growing higher, to ascend, as smoke. *

Mátsŭr)i, u, to be waiting: **

Nemur)i, u, to be sleep-ing.

It is obvious that to this category the derivative adjectives in karŭ and gáru also belong. See p. 113. § 10.

§ 78. .. te ari, .. te ori, .. te íri.

I. The continuative verbs Ari, Ori, Iri (= exist, dwell), in connection with a preceding gerund, form a continuative verb, to which the idea of a perfectum praesens also is attached. — Akete-ari, Mite-ari, Yukite-ari, (he) is in the act of opening, he is seeing, is going, = aperiens est, videns est, iens est. — Mátsǐté-írǔ (pron. Mátte-írǔ, or Matsǐte-órǔ, he is in the waiting, Sǐté-orǔ, = he dwells in the doing, he is doing.

^{*} Thence: Yamani (not Yamawo) nobóri, to ascend a mountain.

^{**} Kamiwo mátsŭru, attend upon a god, make him a feast. Mátsŭri (not matsûri), the attendance, the feast.

In the choice of Ari, Ori or Iri, in the case before us, the vocal harmony, or rather the easy cadence, is noticeable, which had influence on one dialect more than another. In writings which pass for pure Japanese te-ari is found exclusively. If the assertion of a Japanese scholar 1) is just, which I may not doubt, the dialect of Yédo uses by preference, iri, seldom ari, whereas that of Miyako generally uses ori. Tabéte-ori, to eat; Nomite- (Nomde-, Nonde-) ori, to drink; Sirite-ori, to know. Besides, the dialect of Nagasaki has ori. When the same writer at one time uses te-ari, then again te-ori, he seems to pay attention either to the difference of signification which exists between ari and ori, or to the ease of the cadence. — Kotode aru, the fact is. — Sobáni aru fito, some one who is near to the door. — Inisihéno kotowo konónde ori fito, some one who is fond of antiquities.

Ari, Ori and Iri are inflected as deflecting verbs. See § 96, 97, 98.

Examples:

タ モ 桃 代 Dai-kinwo faravu sets'mo dou-you taru besi³), = also at the time of paying the price, it shall be just so (it shall be done in the same way).

¹⁾ Mr. TSUDA SIN ITSIROO.

²⁾ A native of Yédo also told me: ;,Otóko wa Ori-masu to mousi masi; kodomo onna wa Ari-masu to mousi-másu," i. e. The men say Ori-masu, women and children, Ari-másu.

³⁾ Franco-Japanese Treaty of the 9 Oct. 1858, Art. VIII, al. 4.

尊え 徳方 高寺 為者 Tókň sei-zin tari, tattóki koto Ten-si tari, as to virtue he is a 天之 聖寺 saint, as to worthiness he is a son of heaven (emperor). エチン 人ジ

The spoken language changes this tari into dža, ジャ, by some written デャ (Engl. orthogr. ja, Fr. gia) Kore sai-siyo ziya (dža) = Kore sai-siyo tari or nari, 是在所, this is my home. Korega makotoni sen-nin ziya, this is really a genius. Soo ziya, nai, is it thus or not? Ii ziya, naika, is it good or not? Fataraku mono ka, is he an active man? Fataraku mono dziya!, he is an active man 1).

FORMS OF THE PAST TENSE.

The form-words of the past tense are auxiliary verbs of time, by means of which derivative verbs are formed.

§ 79...tari, ..taru, in the spoken language ta, contracted from te-ari. It, in connection with a verbal root, expresses continuance in the condition or action, which, by the radical form of the precedent verb, is named as something just becoming. »E-tari" and »I have gotten" are both what is called the completed present tense.

The spoken language shortens tari and tárň to ta, which ta has also been admitted into the familiar written language. Opposite to Ta yá sono vá farňbítári, field or garden have become old, is, in the spoken language: Ta yá sono gá fărňbítá; opposite to Fűrňbítáru ta yá sono, field or garden become old, is, in the spoken language: Fűrňbítá ta yá sono.

Since it is the form of the gerund in te or de on which, after dropping the e, ari (or in the spoken language a) is grafted, the rules given (§ 72) for the gerund are of application to the perfectum praesens also, in other words: the e of the gerund is, in the spoken language, simply superseded by a.

Akete	becomes	Aketá.	Yonde (= Yomite) b	eco	mes Yonda, read.
Mite	*		Nargote (Naravute)		
Yuite (= Yukite)	»	Yuita.	Atte (= Arite)	>>	Atta, been there.
Mas'te (= Masite) »	Mas'ta, = been.	Maitte (= Mairite)	»	Maitta, has come

¹⁾ Compare RODRIGUEZ Élem. p. 84.

Whether the perfectum praesens formed by tari have an active or a passive, a transitive or an intransitive signification, depends on the precedent root-word.

Fǔné kisi ni tsūku, the ship comes to the shore, it lands; tsūkitárǐ, has come to shore. — Kisi ni tsūkitáru fūné, a ship that has come to shore. — Fūné wò kisi ni tsūkėtárǐ, one has brought the ship to shore. — Kisi ni tsūketárǔ fūné, a ship, that one has brought to shore. — Sina-mono wó mótsi watári, to import goods. — Motsi watári táru sina-mono, goods which one has imported.

Instances of the use of the Perfectum praesens.

Koy)e, uru, to become thick, fat, corpulent. M'me ameni koyu, the plum becomes thick from the rain. M'mé koyétári, the plum has become thick. Ameni koyurŭ m'mé, plums, that become thick from the rain. Koyétárŭ m'mé, plums, that have become thick. — Tsuyu kuvá ni tsükitári, dew has attached itself to the mulberry leaf. Tsuyu (or Tsuyuno) tsŭkitárŭ kŭvá, leaves to which dew has attached itself. — Kai-fenwo isi-kabewo tsukite tsiyau-kawo tsurane tari, along the sea-shore one has built up a wall of stones and placed the houses of the place in a row. - Mitsi wo satóritárů fitó, some one who has understood the way (the doctrine). — Amananó kăní yóri kitáru fitó fitáini tsuno ari, funéni nórité Yetzi-zennó Fino-ŭráni tsŭki-tári; yŭeni kono tokórowó Tsŭnó-ka to nádzŭku, men come from the country of Amana, have had horns upon the forehead and sailing in a ship reached Fino-ura in Yetsizen; that is why people call that place; Tsunóka (hornshill). — Ame no yamitárŭ ása, in the spoken language; yanda asa, a morning when the rain has ceased. — Watáksá O tanomini maitta, I have come to beg you. — 承事知 チンマンタ, Šoo-tsi si-mas'tú, I have understood it, I shall not fail.

Remark. The perfectum praesens in tari, formed from transitive verbs, as Ake, to open: Tsug)i, u, to pour in; Ir)e, uru, to make to go in, remains transitive even though expressions, as Tova aketari, Tsiyava tsugitari, Fiva iretari, because they are found translated: the door has been opened, the tea has been poured, the fire has been put in 1), seem to plead for the passive signification. Opposite to the subject, isolated by va, door, tea, or fire, stands as predicate: one has opened, poured, put in.

¹⁾ Japanese and Dutch Dictionary, by the Prince of Nakats.

§ 80. The form-word ...óri, ...éru, éreba, deflecting, when in deflecting verbs it takes the place of their verbal element i, expresses the continuance in the past, or the praeteritum praesens. — $M\acute{as}$)i, u, to be; $Mas\acute{e}ri$, has been.

Er)i, u [to be distinguished from Er)i, u, that as a substantive verb means to choose] is a variation of ar)i, u (see § 96), and, just as ari, is indicated in old-Japanese by f. Eri is the closing form, eru the form of the substantive or attributively used noun; erame, eramu, = eran, the form of the Future. Examples: $F\'{a}na\ sib\'{o}m\~{u}$, the flower fades; $Fana\ sibomeri$, the flower has faded; $Sibom\'{e}ru\ f\'{a}na$, a flower which has faded. — Um)i, u, to bear; Umeri, to have born. — $Kisakino\ umeru\ ko$, the son that the Queen has born; $Kisakino\ umeran\ ko$, the son that the Queen shall have born.

Remark. The eru used substantively, or attributively is, particularly with the nondeflecting verbs in e, superseded by esi (§ 81), etaru (§ 78) or erisi (thus Akési, Aketaru or Akerisi), because the form Akéru already exists as a variation of Akuru, thus, as participium praesentis.

If it be admitted that, behind eri as I suppose, the form Keri (§ 82) is hidden, and thus that Maséri, by ellipsis has arisen from Másikéri, with the meaning of which it is equivalent, then its signification is clearly explained by the origin of the form.

Application of this rule.

..ki becomes ker)i, u.

Kiki, to hear;Kikéri, 閩*有名.Sǐki, to spread;Sǐkéri, 敷之有名.Yuki, to go;Yukéri, 行立有名.Iki, to live;Ikéri, 生了有名.Saki, to open, v. int. Sakéri, 唉#有名.Kaki, to write;Kakéri, 書为有名.

.. si becomes ser)i, u.

Nasi, to make be; Naséri, 成⁺有音. Yadósi, to lodge; Yádoséri, 館言有音. Nokósi, to make stay behind, to post-pone; Nókoséri, 遺言有音. Terási, to make shine; Teraséri, 照言有音.

Remark. The seri noticed here is arisen from si, the termination of factive verbs, and eri; it is to be distinguished from the derivative form ser)i, u which is a fusion of the Kwa-konosi and eri.

..tsi (= ti) becomes ter)i, u.

Tátsi, to stand up; Tatéri, 立 有 有. Kátsi, to overcome; Katéri, 勝 有 青. Mátsi, to watch; Matéri, 待《有京. Utsi, to strike, beat; Utéri, 打》有京. Mótsi, to take; Motéri, 持年有京. Fanátsi, to let loose; Fánatéri, 放子有京.

.. vi becomes ver)i, u.

Omóvi, to think; Omovéri, 思葉、η. Avi, to meet; Avéri, 逢てη. Sĭtagávi, to comply, to suit;

ply, to suit; Tovi, to ask; Tovéri, 間上, Sitagavéri, 從著二,Naravi, to learn; Naravéri,習与二, .. mi becomes mer)i, u 1):

Sămi, to reside; Suméri, 住菜n. | Săsămi, to advance; Sidzumi, to sink; Sidzuméri, 沙大多大可。

Susuméri, 進スメリ.

Kumi, to bail out; Kuméri, 波文n. Sibomi, to fade; Siboméri, 萎菜メリ Umi, to bear; Uméri, 產中有音. Tsăbómi, to bud; Tsăboméri, 含菜有音.

.. ri bacomes rer)i, u.

Tsiri, 散青, to scatter; intr.; Tsiréri. | Furi, 降青, to fall down, Furéri.

Nari, 成青, to become; Naréri. Komóri, 籠 ਵ, , to stick in, int. Komoréri. Tsumóri, 積素, to accumulate; Tsumoréri. Masári, 盆菜ŋ, to exceed, Masaréri.

Examples of the use of the forms .. er)i, u,

[Tsŭdzŭk)i, u, to succeed]. — Tovi-ya akinávi-ya fitó sŭdsini tate-tsŭdzŭkéri. Sáredó tokóro dokóro ni ŭrá-mátsimo ari, the custom-houses and shops (of Simonoseki) succeed one another in one line. Although there are back-streets also.

 $[M\acute{a}s)i, u, \text{ to be}; Mas\acute{e}ri, \text{ has been}]. - N \dots fimé no kamiva NN \dots nusino$ kami ya-firo-wani ni narite, miavi-maseri, as regards the goddess N., the god NN. having changed into a crocodile eight fathoms long, has paired with her. — Amaterásu kamiva fidárino mi me-wo aravi-tamávi-si tokini nári maséru kami nari, the heaven-illuminating god is a god, that came into existence (nári-maséru), when (both the creators) had washed their left eyes. — Kova tsug ni nári-maséru (or tsugni narerisi) kami nari, this is a god that has become a staff.

¹⁾ To be distinguished from the auxiliary yerb, Meri, explained in § 108.

Kakar)i, u, to be suspended. 神変代 = 天ト地トノ間を = 縣セレル橋で, Kami-yoni ame to tsutsito no avidani kakareru fasi, the bridge (rainbow) which in the ages, when gods allone existed, was suspended between Heaven and Earth.

[Okás)i, u, violate.] — Oranda-zin ve tai-si fouwó ŏkáserŭ Nippon-zinva, Japanese, who against Dutchmen have violated the law. — Nippon-zinni tai-si fouwo okasi-táru Oranda-zinva, Dutchmen, who against Japanese have violated the law 1).

[Tamav)i, u, to condescend, to grant, German geruhen, applied to princely persons]. — Mikotono faki-tamaveru hou-ken, the costly sword that the prince has or had girded on.

[Sir)i, u, to get to know; Siréri, he knows. — Mitsino okonavarezaru ware korewo sireri, that the way is not practised, this I have gotten to know (this I know).

[Itár)i, u, come to (the point any one will reach); Itáréru, the having got at, having reached]. — Sono itareruni oyónde, getting at it, having reached it, = reaching the non plus ultra. — Tsiu you sore itareru kana! oh that one had reached the middle way!

[Nokór)i, u, to be left]. — Nokórŭ mono, something that is left. — Nokoréru mono or Nokori-si mono, something that has remained over.

§ 81. The form-words ..ki (\ddagger) or ..si (\triangleright), grafted on the verbal root in e or i, in the narrative style and in poetry characterise the simple perfect absolute, and, like the Aorist Indic. of the Greek, express the action as completed at a fixed time and without continuance or repetition. Ki is the indicative closing-form (= he was); si, which passes under the name of $Kwa-ko\,no\,si$ and is to be distinguished from the $Gen-zaino\,si$ (page 107), the form in which the verb appears as noun substantive or even as attributive (as participle, = been); keme, kémű, ken, the future (= shall or may have been).

Ake-ki, Mi-ki, Yuki-ki, Ari-ki, = aperuit, vidit, ivit, fuit, he opened, he saw, he went, he was there.

Ake-si, Mi-si, Yuki-si, Ari-si, to have opened it, to have seen it, having gone etc., or, attributive, the having opened, the having seen, etc.

¹⁾ The Treaty between the Netherlands and Japan. 1858. Art. V, al. 1, 2.

Ake-ken, Mi-ken, Yuki-ken, Ari-ken, = aperuerit, viderit, iverit, fuerit, = he will have opened, have seen, he will have gone, have been.

The action defined by the Kwa-ko no si is one, perfect or completed, with relation to the period, that is defined by the predicate verb which closes the sentence. With relation to a present, the time indicated by si is thus a simple preterit; with relation to a preterit it becomes, logically, our plusquamperfectum, with relation to a future on the other hand our futurum exactum.

Remark. The elements ki and si are verbs which signify coming and going and with the precedent verbal root, on which they are grafted, form compound verbs. Ari-ki and Ari-si thus mean the arrival and the departure of existence; forms which express the idea of having been. Compare the expression: Nous venons de le dire 1).

In the pure Japanese style the ki of the past tense is found explained by \mathbf{x} ($l\hat{a}i$, = to come), or also by \mathbf{x} , e. g. Kaheri-ki, \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{x} , he returned, and it mutates with nu and tsu (see § 84, 85).

As substantive verb with the meaning of come, Ki has the forms of Ku, Kuru, Kite etc., whereas Si with the meaning of go away occurs in Sin)i, u, uru, die; Siv)i, iru, to be dead; whence Sivi-ne, dead rice (Oryza sterilis); Me-sivi, dead to the eyes, = blind; Mimi-sivi, dead to the ears, = deaf. Derived from Si, is the continuative form Sar)i, u, to go away.

Ken, old-Japanese Kémű (= shall have been), is indicated in writing by Kan, and — by Japanese scholars themselves — explained as a word that *brings the past into doubt' 2).

Examples of the use of Ki as closing form:

¹⁾ Here, is to be remarked what is mentioned by The Notitia linguae Sinicae of Premare, by J. G. BRIDGMAN, page 54, about kiu.

²⁾ ケンハ 過久去コラ 疑系フノ辞記 Wa-gun Siwori, under Ken.

a) Examples of the use of the form in si as noun substantive:

Ko-zinno iveri-simo samo arinu besi, also what the ancients have said (of it), must have been of this nature. — Iveri, continuative past form of Ivi, Ii, to say. — Samo, = Sikámo, so, in this manner.

As noun substantive the form in si is declinable, thus:

- 1. Ari-siva, the having been, or what has been. Ari-simo, also what has been (subjective substantive proposition). Nokorisi kaviko no siyau (世美) asiku nari simo kono yǎe naran, this may be the reason why the silkworms remaining have become bad of nature.
 - 2. Ari-sini, 3. Ari-siniva, 4. Ari-site, while there has been.
 - 5. Ari-si yori kono kata, since there has been.
 - 6. Ari-si-yué, Ari-si-kara, 7. Ari-sini yorite or yotte, while, or as there has been.
- 8. Ari-sikaba (= Ari-si-sikaba), whereas or since there has been. Motome-sikaba, Yomi-sikaba, Narai-sikaba, Mi-sikaba¹), as one has sought for, read, learned, seen. Ari-sika-tomo, though there has been.
 - 9. Ari-si nari, = it has been there.
- 10. Ari-si koto ari, Ari-si to ari, = it is fact (koto) that there has been. Ari-si to kaya, it may be that there has been.
 - b) Examples of the use of the form in si as noun adjective:

Nokori-si kaviko, the remaining silkworms. — Sari-si Fotóke, the departed Buddha. Sar)i, u, to go away. — Kono tanewo motome-si fitó mare nari, people who have procured this seed, are rare. — Kan-ki wo sinogi si (or sinogi taru) reino koto, the manner in which people have kept off the frost. — N...ga norisi füné, the ship in which N... had sailed. — Ame furazu II fi-no kasanareba, II take-si ta mo, II maki-si fatake mo II asa gotoni sibomi kare-yuku, = when there is a repetition of not rainy days, then not only the burned field, but also the sown plough-land fades, and dries up every morning — it becomes more faded and drier every day. — Sikáruni Tenno kakoni ya ariken, he will thus have stood under Heaven's protection.

The Kwa-kono si shows itself also in both the words Figási, pron. Fingási

¹⁾ By this, is what RODRIGUEZ page 66 line 7 from bottom says explained: "Le conjonctif a encore une forme particulière à la longue écrite, c'est sikaba, que l'on ajoute aux radicaux de tous les verbes, comme motome sikaba, yomi sikaba, narai sikaba."

and Nisi, = East and West, Fingási being a contraction of Fino-műkái-si kata, = the side on which the sun has come to meet, and Nisi an abbreviation of Fino ini-si kata, the side to which the sun has gone away.

§ 82. ..ker)i, u (= ki + eri, = has been), the deflecting continuative form of ki (= was), characterises the perfect present tense. Forms of inflection, the same as those of eri, thus:

Keri, Kesi, closing-form, = has been.

Kérň, form of the verb, used as substantive and adjective, = the having been, or having been; ... Keru nari, has been.

Kerebá, as, when, since it has been.

Keredomo or Kerutomo, although it has been.

Keran, commonly Ken, shall have been. — Keraba, if it has been.

Keráku, adverbial form, = as has been, e. g. Ii-keraku, as it has been said. Keraz)i, u, negative, = has not been.

Ari, there is; Ari-ki, there was; Ari-keri, there has been.

Ideographically keri, keru is expressed by 來了, phonetically by 梟, the name of a bird; that cries gérǐ géri and therefore is called Keri in Japan. 梟了則 stands for Kereba.

The adjectives in ki and siki (pp. 105—107 and 109), which form a continuative present in $k\acute{a}ri$, instead of kari assume keri for the form of the praesens perfectum.

Distinguish: *Urésisá kagiri nasi*, = the joy is boundless; — *kagiri nakári*, = is continually boundless; — *kagiri nakeri* or *nakesi*, = was boundless; — *kagiri nakari-keri*, = has been continually boundless.

Since this distinction is confirmed by the Japanese spoken and written language, as will be seen by the following examples, we hesitate to agree with the opinion of those 1), who declare *kari* and *keri* to be identical. Nevertheless, we leave the spoken language of Yédo full right to use *keri*, where *kari* is meant.

¹⁾ R. BROWN, Grammar, XXIII. § 20.

Examples of the use of these forms.

[Yásňki, light, easy]. — Nippon sei vá tsůdzůká náků ki-teu suru koto yásu-kári kéri, the unmolested return of the Japanese army was easy.

[Nari (Nare), to become]. — Sono rei-kon ke site kaviko-to nari keru to kaya, her soul transforming will have become a silkworm.

[Siróki, white]. — Sei-nei Ten-wau mumare nagaranisite mi kusi sirokari ke reba, Siragano Ten wau to nadzuke tatematsuru, as Emperor Seinei's hair was white at his birth, they have called him Emperor White-hair.

[Tsiisaki, small]. — Mayu tsiisakereba, ito fosokusu, if the silk-cocoon was too small, the thread is too fine.

[Asiki, bad]. — Kore yori te-ire asikereba, notsini iro-irono yamavi to nari, as from that point, the treatment (of the silkworm) was bad, afterwards it gets to different diseases (different diseases arise).

[Yorósĭki, good]. — Ano kodzŭkaino tsŭtómega yorósĭkerebá, watákŭsiwa nagákŭ tsŭkáe-mašoo tó ŏmói-másŭ¹), = that servant's services having been good, I think I shall keep him.

Nanu-ka tatsu-besi to ari-kereba, mina-mina yorokobi isami-keri, as we were to depart on the seventh day, every one was full of joy and courage.

§ 83...tari-ki, ...tari-si, fut ...tari-ken; ...te-ki, ...te-si, fut ...ten. By grafting the form-word ki, si, keri on the continuative form tari (§ 79) the forms tari-ki, = he was being; tari-ken, = he shall have been; tari-keri, = he has been, are obtained.

The poet supersedes tari-ki, tari-si, tari-ken with te-ki, te-si, ten, also Omóvi-tesi and Tsikávi-tesi are considered to be equivalent to Omovi-tarisi (having thought) and Tsikávi-tárisi (having sworn)²).

Wasuraruru ^{||} miwoba omovázu; ^{||} tsikavi tesi Fitono inotsino ^{||} osikumo aru kana! ³).

I do not think of myself as being forgotten; oh! the charmingness of the life of the man who has sworn (love) to me, exists still!

§ 84. [.. ni], nu, future nan; [nuri], nuru, nureba, future nuran.

Ni, a deflecting auxiliary verb of time, come, by aphaeresis, from ini, inu

¹⁾ R. BROWN'S, Japanese Colloquial No. 589.

²⁾ Wa-gun Siwori, unter Tesi.

³⁾ Hiyaku-nin, No. 38.

= to go away (往。去), and expressed in the old written language, by 去 (to go or pass away), grafted on the root of a verb, by which its termination e fuses with inu into énu, and the termination i, with inu into inu, implies the passing away of a condition or of an action, i. e. the action coming to an end. Whereas Ake denotes the »opening" as an action first beginning, and Akete-oru »continuance in the opening," Ake-taru »to have opened: Akénu proper to the old written language, denotes »the ending of the opening." Sidzumi, to sink; Sidzuminu, it sinks away, it goes away into the depth. Fate, disappear; Fi iri faténu, the sun sets (and) disappears. Iri, to go in, appears here as coördinated, in the indefinite root-form (see § 68). The rule on coördination excludes the use of the root-forms ni and nuri; since, however, they form the basis of further derivatives, they must be first brought under notice here.

SYNOPSIS OF INFLECTED FORMS OF THE AUXILIARY VERB NI, Nu, = TO PASS OR GO AWAY.

A SUBSTITUTE VAND		transmitted and test	described by	A WHEN SHE
	Aorist of the Present.	Continuative Preterit.	Aorist of Preterit.	Continuative Preterit.
Rootform	[Ni.]	[Nuri.]	Unathrill's	Ni-keri 去來, has gone away.
Closing-form	Nu, 去以	dans mallistia	Niki.	Ni-keri, Ni-kesi.
Noun substantive or	ne life-if version	Nuru, 去忍,	Ni-si, 既去,	Ni-keru, having
attributive.	ist as also Salarga	passing away.	gone away.	gone away.
Gerund	Ni-te,	Nurete.	ministry the file	Attition to the state of the
	去=而 7.	Miss gold staries	danierak pusnik	explit hir grant.
Local	West of the second	Nureba, on pas-	all and a least in	March Hotels
	Water State and	sing away.	Singular (U	人。这一人
Preterit	Ni-tar)i, u.	Future.	moves set ou	gand, in desired
	Namu, +4,	Nuramu,	Ni-ken, shall	Ni-keran,
	Nan, tv,	Nuran,	have gone away.	Ni-kerasi,
	将去,	shall be going.	Mary Tree State State	去來, shall
	shall go.	Charles of Course	and the same	have gone away.
Conditional form	Naba, 也則	Nuraba, if the		Nikeraba.
	if it go.	passing away	all to united a	the wide wood
		shall be.	4-1	

The auxiliary verb Ni, Nu, Nuru (to go away) is distinguished from the substantive verb Ni (to be) in-as-much as the latter has the appositive definition what something is, before it in the form of a noun. (See § 100. I.).

Remark. 1. Attention must be paid to the three forms of the future nan, nuran and niken. From their derivation, as it appears in the synopsis, the logical result is, that they must have the signification there noticed: and this conclusion is confirmed by the definition which the Wagun Siwori gives of the three forms.

- 1. Nanva mi-raiwo kakete ivu kotoba nari, i. e. Nan is a word used with a view to the future.
- 2. Ranva gen-zaiwo utagavuno kotoba nari, i. e. Ran (= Aran) is a word which brings the present into doubt (should it be?).
- 3. Kenva kwa-kowo utagavuno kotoba nari, i. e. Ken is a word which brings the past into doubt (should it have been?).

Remark 2. Since r + n by assimilation becomes nn, Owari-nu (= it ends) passes into Owannu, $\forall \forall \forall \forall \forall \forall i$, being the auxiliary verb nu ($\not\preceq^{\forall}$) with a view to this example, called Owannuno Nu or the Nu of Owannu.

Instead of Ari-nan (there shall or may be), in the dialect of Yamato Ara-nan also occurs for euphony.

Examples of the use of the auxiliary verb ni, nu.

[Nu.] Fatova tákani ŏwărete Sjakson-no fudokóro-ni tóbi-iri nu, the dove, pursued by the falcon, flew into S'akya's lap. — Soreyori Sadove tsuki-nu. Mata zyun fuu arazareba, ni zyu fi-meyo tou-riu-su, thence they came to the island of Sado. As again there was no favorable wind, they stayed there till after the 20th day. — Umi-nite kazeni aterare, kwan-gun riwo usinavüte, Zin-muno mi iroje san nin (何) 三兄皇 三世人 () tokóro dokóro nite use-tamavinu, as they were overtaken by wind at sea, and the government's troops lost the advantage, Zin-mu's three elder brothers were lost at different places. — Kami-agari-si masi-nu, he (the prince) has gone on high (died). Agari, going up; Si, do. — Ko-zinno iverisimo samo ari-nu besi, also what the ancients have said, will have been so.

[Nuru.] Yau-sanwo set-šoo (武文 生文) no waza kokóroye-nuru fito mo arinu besi, it may be that there were people, who considered the breeding of silkworms a murderous occupation. — Fisásiku kai-dei ni fanberi-nuru aida, »during my long stay at the botton of the sea," the beginning of a speech by the sea-god, when he showed himself before the other gods.

[Nan.] Midzŭkara matsurovi-sĭtagavi-namu, or: Midzŭkára mátsuróvi-námŭ (自奏 服瓷 矣力), one will come under subjection of oneself¹). The poet, instead of Matsi-nan, he will wait, uses Matanan also.

[Naba.] M'mava fikare-naba, asiki mitsinimo iri-nu best, if the horse is led, it may have turned into even a bad road.

[Nureba.] Fide-yorimo Tsiyau-zen südéni yabure-nureba, sadamete Dai-Min yori sukuván-kotowó omónhakárĭte, Fide-yori considering that, when Tschao-siën should at last have been brought under subjection, help would certainly come from China.....

[Nuran.] Fürüki ivaya iku-yo fe-nuran? the old stone house, how many ages may it still last? 古意樂世界經. From the Chinese translation annexed, it appears that by fe-nuran the future (may last) is intended, whereas by fe-niken the fut. exactum (shall or may have lasted) would be indicated.

The poet, instead of nu, uses yuku ($77\frac{7}{2}$), = goes, probably to fill up his verse, e. g. $M\acute{a}kisi$ fatákemó sibomi kare yuku, even the corn land, where one has sown, goes to fade (and) to dry up.

§ 85. ..tsŭ, tsŭtsŭ ($\mathcal{P} \circ \mathcal{P} \circ$); ..tsur)i, u, eba, future an, an auxiliary verb of time proper to the Yamato dialect and the narrative style, and as such, grafted on the root, as well as on the future form of a verb, it expresses the going away of an action, or of a condition, and characterises the past time absolute. Tsu, tsuru passes as a variation of nu, $nuru^2$) (§ 84). As predicate closing-form of a proposition tsu (or mostly dzu, \mathcal{P}) is in use by preference, in the dialect of the districts from Owari to Yédo 3).

Tsŭtsŭ, as a doubling of tsu, implies the repetition (iterative form), omóvĭ-tsŭtsŭ being made equivalent to omóvĭtsŭ-omóvĭtsŭ, = I thought and thought. Tsuri, continuative, = has been; tsuru, = having been; tsŭrán (tsŭrámŭ), = shall have been.

In the old rebus-writing tsuru lurks under the character 綴, which means tsudzuru, = to sew to; Mi-tsuru, to have seen, is denoted by 見綴; Kikitsuru, to have heard, by 閩 綴.—Most common are the expressions 云之》,

¹⁾ Nippon-ki.

²⁾ Tsuru is also considered as a modification of te-aru. — "Te-aru, te are" wo tsudzumete "tsuru, tsure" to ivu, i. e. contracting Te-aru and te-are, one says tsuru, tsure. Wagun Siwori under Tsuru.

³⁾ Wa-gun Siwori, under Tsu. Vol. 16. p. 1. recto.

Iitsŭ, said; 見こ也ッ, Mitsŭ, seen; 聞きッ, Kikitsŭ, heard; 思きッ, ŏmóvǐtsŭ, thought; 暗えッ, Kurásǐtsŭ, become dark.

Examples of the use of these forms.

坐き 御き 聴え 〇
はず」 虚さ 治さ 水 Kova kegare wo nikumi-tamavu mi-tama ni yorite nári
masitsŭ, this (goddess) has arisen, as an emanation from the spirit detesting uncleanness.

Remark. In the same author, instead of nari-masitsu (= has arisen), nari-maseri, nari-maseru nari, and nareru nari alternately occur. (Compare § 80).

Inúru tosi NN. ni tovaresi koro, kasikono fuu-dowo kiki tsu, when, last year inquiry was made of NN., I heard of the manners and customs of that country. — Kono Kamino mi sudzi simoni sirúsitsu or also siruséri, = as to the pedigree of this Kami, one has made mention of (it) below 1). — Dasa yosasi tokoroni yuite, Ten-wauno sono tsumawo tsukavasitsuru kotowo kikite, tasukéwo motomento omóvu 2), when Dasa, going to the place of his destination, heard, that the Emperor had had his wife sent to him, he begun to think of seeking help (for her). —

Fototógisu " náki tsúru kátawó " nágamúreba, Táda áriákenó " tsukizó nokórerú 3).

If I look towards the side, where the cuckoo has called, Then, there only the moon has remained shining by clear daylight.

> Nokoréru fánava II kevu mo tsiri tsutsu, Waremo ukitaru II yowo sugusi tsutsu.

The remaining flower, has been strewed to day (leaf for leaf). Oh I too have passed the floating time of life (step by step).

Fuzino taká-není 11 yuki vá furi tsutsu.

On the high top of the Fuzi it has snowed (repeatedly).

Remark. In writing, tsutsu is frequently expressed by $\not\models$, a sign used for $Nag\acute{a}ra$, = in the midst of, while (Chapter VIII. III. 2). Probably some identify this tsutsu, with the dzutsu, = at a time, treated in § 35, p. 145.

¹⁾ Sudzi, the object of the transitive sirusi, to mention, is, by inversion, placed before the verb.

²⁾ Nippon-ki, 14, 12. 3) 百人一首 Hiyaku-nin issu, No. 81.

§ 86. SYNOPSIS OF THE INFLECTED FORMS.

Mary Short Hill	Nondeflecting conjugation.		Deflecting conjugation.
	ROOT-FORM, declinable.		
	AKE, open.	MI, see.	YUKI, go.
Imperative = Vocative	Ake, open.		Yuke, go!
	Akeyo, »	Miyo, see.	Yukeyo, »
	Akei, »		Yukei, »
	Akero, »	Miro,	Yukero, »
Terminative	Akeni, to opening, to open.	Mini, to seeing, to see.	Yukini, to going, to go.
Instrumental, Modal	Akete, by opening,	Mite, by seeing, seeing.	Yukite (Yuite), by
(Gerund).	opening.		going, going.
Isolated	Aketeva, as one	Miteva, as one	Yukite va, as one
	Aketewa, opens.	Mitewa, sees.	Yukitewa, goes.
Concessive	Aketemó, though one	Mitemó, though one	Yukitemó, though one
	opens.	sees.	goes.
With suffixes definitive	Aketekara,)	Mitekara,	Yukitekara,) after
of time.	Aketekara, after the yori, opening.	» yori, » notsi,	» yori, the notsi, going.
	Akeba (= Ake + ni +	A THE RESIDENCE OF THE COURT OF THE PARTY OF	Yukeba (= Yuke + ni
	va), as one opens.		+va), as one goes.
Concessive	Akedomo (= Ake+ni		Yukedomo (= Yuke+
	+ tomo), though one	en Particular	ni + tomo), though
with the	opens.	and (done and) and	one goes.
	INDICATIVE CLOSING-FORM.		
	Aku, one opens.	Miru, one sees.	Yuku, one goes.
	SUBSTANTIVE AND ATTRIBUTIVE FORM.		
	Akeru or Akuru, 1. the	Miru, 1. the seeing, 2.	Yuku, 1. the going, 2.
	opening, 2. opening.	seeing.	going.
	Akeru vá, the opening,	Miru vá, the seeing, that	Yuku vá, the going, that
og or more go	Akeru vá, sthat o.opens	one sees.	one goes.
	» mó, though opening.	Mirumó, though seeing.	Yukumó, though going.
Terminative	Akuruni, to the opening.	Miruni, to the seeing,	Yukuni, to the going,
and and the form	to open.	to see.	to go.

	Nondeflecting conjugation.		Deflecting conjugation.
Local, isolated	Akuruniva, on the	Miruniva, on the see-	Yukuni va, on the going,
	opening, as one opens.	ing, as one sees.	as one goes.
	Akureba, as one opens.	Mireba, as, or if one	
		sees.	
Concessive	Akurédomó, though	Mirédomó, though one	
	one open.	see.	
	Akuru tó ĭédomó,	$ ext{Miru}$ to $ ext{i}eta ext{dom}\delta, though$	Yuku to ĭédomó,
	though one opens.	one sees.	though one goes.
	Akeki, he opened.	Miki, he saw.	Yukiki, he went.
Attribut. and declina-	Akesi.	Mi si.	Yukisi, Yukesi.
blc substantive form.			
Continuative	Akeker)i, u, has	Miker)i, u, has seen.	Yukiker)i, u, has gone.
	opened.		Yuker)i, u, eba.
Future	Akeken, shall have	Miken, shall have seen.	Yuken, shall have gone.
	opened.		
	Aketar)i, u,	Mitar)i, u,	Yukitar)i, u,
	△ Aketa, has opened.	△ Mita, has seen.	△ Yukita, Yuita, has
			gone.
		FUTURE.	
		TOTOLII.	
	Akemu (old Jap.)	Mi mu.	Yuka mu.
	Aken, shall open.	Min, shall see.	Yukan, shall go.
	△ Akeo, shall open.	△ Miu, also Miyoo.	△ Yukao, △ Yukoo.
	Aken to s)i, u, to be	Min to s)i, u, to be	Yukan to s)i, u, to be
	about to open.	about to see.	about to go.
	Aken to te, syncope of	Mintote, syncope of	Yukan to te, syncope
	Aken to sité, being	Min to site, being	of Yukan to site,
	about to open.	about to see.	being about to go.
Conditional	Akeba (=Aken+ni+	The said the design tribe	Yukaba (=Yukan+ni
	va), on being about	A LINE OF THE OWNER OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY.	+va), on being about
	to open, if one open		to go, if one go.

CAUSATIVE OR FACTIVE VERBS IN Si OR Se.

§ 87. The causative verbs, which denote a causing to take place or a carrying out of the action, such as our raise (make rise), drench (make drink), are formed by means of the deflecting verb si, su, future san $(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n})$, = to do. In nondeflecting verbs in e or i this si is suffixed to the root, by which the derivative forms esi or isi (or sometimes instead of isi, osi and usi) arise, whereas in deflecting verbs their termination i at the same time passes into a (or sometimes, for vocal harmony, into o, see § 76), by which the derivative forms asi or osi are obtained; e. g. Yukii, to go; Yukasi, make go. Nokii, to go back; Nokosi, to make go back. — The verbs, which have ori or uri as continuative form (see § 88), have osi or usi as their causative form. In § 103 Si, to do, is treated as a substantive verb.

Sometimes nondeflecting se, suru, future sen, takes the place of S)i, u. Se passes for a syncope of sim)e: uru, future en, \diamondsuit \gt , = have do. See § 88. Ivase, have say, Kikase, have hear, are at least in the Manyo siu, explained by \diamondsuit \diamondsuit \gt and \diamondsuit \diamondsuit \diamondsuit \gt .

The following may serve as examples of the derivation of causative verbs:

- 1. Kay)e, eru, 歸文, to return, v. i.; Kayes)i, u, to make turn back, to return, v. tr. In Yédo: Kairu, Kaisu.
- 2. M)i, iru, 見², to see; Mis)e, eru, uru, to make see, to show.
- 3. N)i, iru, (V) =, to resemble; Nis)e, eru, uru, to make resemble, to imitate.
- 4. Yuk)i, u, $\mathcal{T}^{\frac{2}{3}}$, to go; Yukas)i, u, to make go.
- 5. Ugok)i, u, $\mathfrak{B}^{\mathbb{Z}}_{+}$, to move, v. i.; Ugokas)i, u, to move, v. tr. to make move.
- 7. Yásǔm)i, u, 休養, to rest, v. i.; Yasǔmás)i, u; also e, uru, to rest, v. tr.; contracted Yasunz)i, u.
- 8. Si, 去シ, to go away; Sas)i, u, 使t。 差ま, to make go away, to send, to dispatch (a messenger).
- 9. S)i, u, Sas)e, uru, to make do. Ne-sase, to make sleep.
- 10. Kudz)i, uru, 崩炎, to fall, descend. Kūdás)i, u, to make fall, to precipitate, Kudári, 行家, go from above to v. tr. below; a line of Japanese writing.

11. Av)i, u, 合飞, to unite, v. i.;

12. Tob)i, u, 飛片, to soar, fly;

13. Asob)i, u, 遊之, to play, to ramble.

14. Ni, to be; Nar)i, u, to be continually.

15. Nas)i, u, to make;

16. Nar)i, u, 11, to sound, v. i.;

17. Ter)i, u, 照 7, shine;

18. Dzi^{1}), $H^{\mathcal{F}}$, = idz)i, u, to come

19. Ni, 荷=, burden, load. Nor)i, u, to be a burden; to ride, go in a carriage;

20. K)i, uru, 來*, to come,

21. Ok)i, iru, 起某, to get up, to rise;

22. Nok)i, u, 退氧, to go back, to recede, retreat;

23. Ots)i, iru, uru, 茲本, to fall;

24. Ov)i, uru, 牛丸, to wax, grow;

25. Ov)i; u (O)i, u), 預支, to bear (on the back);

26. Uruv)i, u, 潤元, to get moist;

27. Or)i, iru, 降青, to descend;

28. Or)i, u, 居才, to dwell;

29. Kor)i, u, 疑言, to clot; Korós)i, u, to kill;

hausted or consumed;

Avas)i, u; e, uru, to unite, v. tr.

Tobas)i, u, to make soar or fly:

Asobas)i, u, to make ramble, to amuse, to please.

Nas)i, u, 成意, to make be, to produce.

Nasas)i, u, to make produce.

Narás)i, u, to make sound.

Terás)i, u, to make shine, to illuminate.

Das(i, u, or idás)i, u, to make go out off.- Fŭnewo ĭdásŭ, to make a ship start.

Nos)e, uru, 乘台, to make ride, to carry, to convey.

Kos)i, u, to make come.

 $Ok\delta s$)i, u, to raise.

Nokós)i, u, to make go back; 遺言, to leave behind.

Otós)i, u, to make fall, to fell.

Ovós)i, u, 生育, to make wax or grow.

Ovós)e, uru, or Oós)e, uru, 仰景, obsol. オフセ, to burden; a charge.

Uruvos)i, u, to moisten, quicken.

Orós)i, u, Th, to make descend (ikariwo, to throw out the anchor).

Orás)i, u, 為居, to make dwell.

Korós)i, u, to make clot; to kill, 殺臭. Korosás)i, u, to make kill.

30. I, to go away. Yor)i, u, to be going Yos)e, uru, 答表, to make go away, to

31. Tsāk)i, iru, uru, 盡業, to get ex- Tsākús)i, u, 悉美, to exhaust, to con-

Remark. If we do not, as Japanese etymologists 2), reduce Nasi (= to cause

¹⁾ The root \$\phi\$ is preserved in the family name \$\beta \cdot \beta \beta \beta^\varphi \beta^\varphi, \text{ Fi zi yama,} = sunrise mountain. The change of # into D is very common.

²⁾ Wagun Siwori, under Nasi.

to be, to give existence to anything) to Na (27), = name, but derive it from Ni, = to be, the soundness of such a derivation is pleaded for, not only by the analogy of the Latin factivum facio, which comes from fio, or the Sanscrit $bh\hat{a}$ -vayâmi derived from $bh\hat{a}$, to be; but the Japanese causative verbs themselves concur in supporting it. Thus we are of opinion also, that Asobasi (= to please) is a causative form, whereas the Japanese philologists 1) see in it a contraction of Asobi+masi (27 27 27), = to be pleasing oneself; an opinion with which we could agree, if the passive form Asobasare, = be pleased, an ordinary expression of politeness, did not make us suppose a causative Asobasi (= to please), as a logical necessity.

The causative verbs derived from intransitive verbs have the object, which is made active, in the accusative before them. *Tsăkiva sirowo terásu*, the moon makes the castle shine, enlightens it.

Examples of the use of the forms.

Tsitsi korewo nasi, ko korewo nóbu²), the father originates it, the son continues it. — Kimi takawo tobásň, the prince lets the falcon fly. — Is-sekiwo motte korewo tsňkuri nasi-tári, one has made this out of one stone. — Tomiva ókuwo ňrňvósi, tókňva miwo ňrňvósň³), riches moisten (quicken) the house, virtue, the person. — Zin-sňyavá saiwo mótte miwo ŏkósi, fu-zin-sňyava miwo motte saiwo ŏkósň⁴), the humane man uses his fortune to exalt himself, the inhumane man his person to push his fortune higher. — Midare, sidzňmarazaruwo yasúnzi otósu, he quiets and subdues those, who behave disorderly and unquietly. — Sekň-siwo yasúnzňň ga gotósi⁵), it is as if one quieted a suckling. — Kimini tsňkáyuru tokiva sňnavátsi ňnótsiwó tsňkúsu, when (I my) prince serve, then it is with all my life. — Kotobawo tsňkúsu, to exhaust his language, i. e. say all that is to be said. —

¹⁾ Wagun Siwori, under Asobasu. Yamato Kotoba, II. 42, r.

²⁾ Tschung yung 13.

³⁾ Dai Gaku. VI. 2.

⁴⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 20.

⁵⁾ Ibid. IX. 2.

⁶⁾ Ibid. IV. 1.

CAUSATIVE VERBS IN Sime.

(下ゲ知ギスル言言, Ge-dzi-suru kotoba.)

§ 88. The causative verbs in sime denote that an order, or in a less commanding tone, inducement is given to do an action or realise a condition. They are formed according to the same rule as the causative verbs in si, i. e. the causative si or se is superseded by the verb Sim)e, u, uru, ureba, gerund Simete (contracted site), future Simen, to charge, 令炎。 令炎.

Ake, to open;

Tairag)e, uru, to subdue;

Ake-sime, to make open.

Tairage-simé, to order to subdue, to make subdue.

...s)e, uru, do (termination of verbalized ...se-sime, to charge to do, contrive that Chinese words);

Nasas)i, u, to have made;

Ye-sas)i, u, to cause to get;

Ari, there is;

Nakari, there is not;

Mátsŭri, wait upon, to worship;

one does, have done.

Nasa-sime, to order one to have made. Ye-sasime, to contrive to have gotten.

Ará-sime, to order that there be.

Nakará-sime, to order that there be not. Mátsŭrá-sime, to order to worship.

When Sime unites with the causative verbs in si a sincope takes place: from Kavési+simé comes Kavésime, to have sent back; from Yukási+simé, Yukasimé, to order to let (him) go.

Examples of the use of the forms.

Kuniwo tairage-sĭmŭ, he orders the country to be subdued. — Tsŭkaviwo kavesimu, he orders the ambassador to be sent back. — Kava-kami korewo mite, itsukúsiki onna narito omóvi, tádzŭsávete is-syuku (一多宿美化) se-simu, Kavakami, seeing him, he thinks that he is a beautiful maiden, leads him by the hand, and charges him to stay the night. — Yase-kiwo nivakáni sei-teu- (成学長克) se-simén to te: koyásiwo tsűyóku-sű bekarázu, to make lean trees grow quickly, one may not manure too strongly.

-達を一身まし欲さ 他々者できたない。

Onóregá miwo tassento hossŭrebá Mádzŭ ta-ninwo tasse-sime yó. Will you advance yourselves, First let others help themselves forward. Fitóni yeki (ﷺ) ará-sĭmúrŭ wó sen-itsi (耳) tó su, to manage that there be much advantage for others, I consider the only object. — Kŭvanókiwo kiru koto năkărá-sĭme, order that the chopping of mulberry-trees do not take place! — Kamiwo mátsŭri, to worship a Kami; Kamiwo matsŭrá-sĭmu, he gives order to worship the Kami. — Tor)i, u, to take; Torá-sĭme, to have it taken. — Sore takava karini motsivite, toriwó torá-sĭmuru tori nari, the falcon is a bird, that is used for the chase, and (by which) people have birds caught. — Fakári, to consider; Fákará-sĭme, to charge to consider. — Kŭmáosowo útsŭ kotowo fakara-sĭme¹) tamavu, the Emperor has it taken into consideration to beat the (hostile) Kumáoso.

Ni, to be; Nas)i, u, to make be; to produce; Nasási, make produce; Nasásime, charge to have made. He, who orders, charges a second person to have something done by a third. That then is the reason, why Nasásime plays so important a part in the courtly style; it is the same as if it were said that a prince gives order, to take measures that something be done. — Kákiteiwo nasásimeri tó ári, it is (said) that the Emperor N. has given order, that the wrestling games be held. — Tsurugiwo sadzükete, Ten-kwawwo korosásimento su, handing him a sword, he will have the Emperor murdered.

Remark 1. The object, which precedes the verb in sime in the Accusative, Dative or Local, is, as appears from the examples quoted, the object of the action ordered, not the person who is ordered. If the latter is admitted into the sentence then the old style allows him, as a remote definition, to precede in the Accusative, e.g. Sükunewo fakárŭ kotowo okónavásĭmü, (the prince) orders Sukune to hold council. The new style uses the turn of phrase: »by ordering Sukune he has council held," and supersedes sĭmete (ordering) by the syncopated form síte; thus Sükunewo sǐte (= sǐmete) fakaru-kotowo okonavásĭmu. — Ten-wau Nunaki Iri-fimewó sǐté N.N. kamiwo mátsurásĭmu, the Emperor charges the Lady Nunaki and has the god N.N. solemnly whorshiped.

祭节 之)。
L記言 人芸文使学 Ten-kano fitówo site.. sai-sini tsukavu matsurásimu 2), the 天文 people of the realm are let pay their respects at the feasts.
下ゥ

¹⁾ Not fakarisime, as in the original state.

書字 為文 小夢 Seu-zin wó sǐté, kokŭ-ka wo osămé-sǐmŭrebá, sai-kai nărăbi 並是 國ラ 人ご ttárŭ¹), if one let a man of mean character govern the 空気 家 フラ ではなび country and people, calamity and misfortune rise to the top.

Tšoo žu (長克克) no moto-wi wo ye-sasimen tame, to manage that one gets the foundation of a long life. — N... wo tsukavasite Idzumono Oho-yásironí ŏsámuru tokórono kan-takárawo tadasásimu, (the Emperor) sends N... and lets the Kami-treasure be inspected, which is kept in the Great chapel of Idzumo. — Tamini takavesi uyuru kotowo osivésimu, he (the Emperor Shin-nung) lets the people be taught ploughing and planting.

Remark 2. Site, = siméte, is also superseded by mei-zite (命う ジラ) or rei-site (令う シラ), = giving order to..., with a precedent Dative. — M.. to ivu Dai-siyau-ni méi-zité N..wo ütásimu, giving order to the general named M.. he lets N.. be beaten (battle be given him). — 庶言 民意 = 令うシラ ガピコラ カハシメ タマフ, (the prince) giving order to the people, lets silkworms be bred.

THE PASSIVE FORM.

§ 89. The Japanese language expresses the idea of » to be rewarded" by an active form, which answers to » get reward" and by means of the nondeflecting verb e ($\mbox{\ensuremath{\protection}}^{\times}$, = to get, appropriate) forms derivative verbs, which signify the appropriating of an action coming from without. The Japanese passive verbs, thus, in nature and form, are derivative active verbs; therefore mention can be made only of the manner in which they are derived, but, by no means of passive forms of inflection, for e follows the nondeflecting conjugation.

According to their derivation the passive verbs are arranged in three classes: I. 1. All deflecting transitive verbs in i can become passive, when their verbal element i is superseded by e, u, eru, uru, e. g.:

Yaki, \forall \dagger , to burn; trans.Yaké, \forall \forall , to be burned, to burn oneself.Kiki, \dagger \cdot , to hear;Kiké, \dagger \forall , to be heard, to sound.Saki, \dagger \dagger , to tear;Saké, \dagger \dagger , to be torn.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 23.

Yomi, ヨミ, to read; Yome, ヨメ, to be read.

Umi, ウミ, to bear, bring forth; Ume, ウメ, to be produced or born.

Ari, アリ, to exist; Are, アレ, to become.

Nari, ナリ, to be; Nare, ナレ, to become.

Ori, オリ, to break, v. tr. Ore, オレ, to break, intr.

Uri, ウリ, to sell; Ure, ウレ, to be sold, to be for sale.

Tsüküri, ラクリ, to make; Tsüküre, ラクレ, to be made.

2. The nondeflecting transitive verbs in i, chiefly monosyllabic, attach e to their root-vowel, either with or, according to the dialect of Yédo, without interposition of the y. The writing has \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , \mathcal{I} , forms, which are frequently confounded with \sim , \mathcal{I} , $\sim \nu$, \mathcal{I} ν .

Remark. If a nondeflecting verb followed by the verb e (= to get) remains in its radical form in i, the e retains its inherent signification of get; it is equivalent, however, to the expression: get something done, i. e. the being able to realize; thus Mairi-yenu (or in the spoken language Mairi-yemasenu 行言 得エマセス)1), I cannot come.

II. Some deflecting verbs in i have aye or oye for their passive form, being the verb e suffixed to the root in i, after the i, by strengthening has become a or, on account of vocal harmony, has become o. This form comes from the old Japanese, and is considered particularly elegant.

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, page 17.

Ivi, イヒ, to say; to be called; Iváye, イハエ, or Ivaë, to be said or named. 所謂.

Siri, シリ, to know; Siráye¹), シラエ, to become or be known. 所知.

Ari, アリ, to exist; Ardye, アラエ, to become existing. 所有.

Kiki, キ , to hear; Kikóye, キコエ, to be object of hearing. 所聞.

Thence Koyé, the sound, voice.

Omóvi,オモヒ (ŏmói), to think; Omóvoyé, オモホエ (ŏmóoye), to be thought of or cogitable. 所思.

Inflection, regular: Kikoy)e, u, uru, ete, etari etc., eba, future uran (= uru + aran), thus Kikoyuran, to avoid Kikoyen, which too much resembles the negative Kikoyenü, not to be heard. — Kikoyeken (所聞泉矣), it will have become loud.

Remark. The substantive forms Iváyŭrŭ, Siráyŭrŭ, Kikóyŭrŭ, Omóvoyŭrŭ, mean that which has been said, called, heard, thought, Aráyŭrŭ, that which has gotten existence, that which appears, and exists. Used attributively, they are equivalent to our passive participle of the past time. Siráyeru mono is, what has been brought to knowledge — Kono mi fasirano kamivá iváyŭrŭ Saveno kami nári, these three Kamis are the so called Leading-gods. — Ano tera no kanega kokomade kikóyu (in the spoken language kikóye-másů), the bell of that temple is to be heard here. — Aráyuru mono, fitó, Hotóke, the things, people, Buddhas that exist, = all the things, people etc.

The forms quoted, Iváyŭrŭ, Siráyŭrŭ, Aráyŭrŭ agree perfectly with the Chinese expressions: 所謂 Sò wéi, 所知 Sò tšî, 所有 Sò yeù.

III. The most usual derivation of passive verbs is effected by means of the nondeflecting verb Ar)e, u, eru, uru, ete etc., = to become, which is suffixed to the substantive form of a transitive verb, by which its weak termination u is elided; thus:

Ake, to open; Akérŭ, opening; passive $Ak\acute{e}r\breve{u} + \acute{a}re = Aker\acute{a}re$, to be opened.

Mi. to see; $Mir\ddot{u}$, seeing; » $Mir\ddot{u} + \acute{a}re = Mir\acute{a}re$, to be seen.

Fiki, to draw; Fikŭ, drawing; » Fikŭ + áre = Fikáre, to be drawn.

¹⁾ The etymological dictionary Wagun Siwori, vol. 37 p. 2 recto splits siraye into si and raye, declares raye as a lengthening of re, and siraye as a lengthening of sire. What the lengthening means, the author does not say.

According to this rule the passive verbs following are formed.

Nondeflecting.

Ag)e, eru, to hoist, raise, lift;

Wak)e, eru, to share;

Tat)e, eru, to erect;

At)e, eru, to touch, hit;

Sadam)e, eru, to define;

Sim)e, eru, to charge, to let;

Ir)e, eru, to receive;

I, Iru, to shoot;

Agerar)e, u, uru etc., to be hoisted.

Wakerar)e, u, to be shared.

Taterar)e, u, to be erected.

Aterar)e, u, to be touched.

Sadamerar)e, u, to be defined.

Simerar)e, u, to be charged.

Irerar)e, u, to be received.

Irar)e, u, to be shot.

Deflecting.

I, u, verbal element, to be;

N)i, u, to be;

Ar)e, u, uru, to get existence, to become.

Nar)e, u, to become.

Nag)i, u, to throw anything forward Nagar)e, u, to stream. Kava, fata na-

at its full length. — Kusá wo nagu, gárŭ, the river, the banner streams. to mow grass.

Nuk)i, u, to draw out;

Kog(i), u, to burn, scorch;

Nas)i, u, to cause to be, to produce; Nasar)e, u, to be produced.

Idás)i, or Das)i, u, to bring to light, Idasar)e, u, to be produced.

Nukar)e, u, to be drawn out.

Kogar)e, u, to be burnt.

produce;

Kŭdás)i, u, to drop; trans. to let fall; Kudasar)e, u, to be dropped, to descend.

Os)i, u, to press;

Korós)i, u, to cause to clot; to kill;

Watás)i, u, to set over; trans.

Fanas)i, u, to loosen; trans.

Otos)i, u, to make fall; to fell;

Fanats)i (tsi = ti), u, to loosen;

Uts)i, u, to beat;

Mots)i, u, to catch hold of;

Iv)i, u, (Ii, Iu), to say; to be called; $Iv\acute{a}r)e, u,$ to be called.

Ov)i, u, to pursue;

Osar)e, u, to be pressed.

Korosar)e, u, to be killed.

Watasar)e, u, to be set over.

Fanasar)e, u, to be loosened.

Otosar)e, u, to be felled.

Fanatár)e, u, to be loosened; to be

banished.

Utár)e, u, to be beaten.

Motár)e, u, to be held.

Ovár)e, u, to be pursued.

Káv)i, u (Kai, Kau), to change, barter; Kavár)e, u, to be or may be changed.

Kŭv)i, u, to eat; Usinav)i, u, to lose;

Okonáv)i, u, to act, treat, perform,

commit;

Yob)i, u, to call,

Musub)i, u, to knot, to tie;

Yom)i, u, to read; Um)i, u, to bear; Nom)i, u, to drink;

Ur)i, u, to sell; Kir)i, u, to chop, to cut;

Sir)i, u, to know;

 $Kuv\acute{a}r)e$, u, to be eaten, to be eatable.

Usinavár)e, u, to be lost.

Okŏnavár)e, u, to be treated, performed or committed.

Yobar)e, u, to be called.

Musubó (not bá) r)e, u, to be tied, to be knotted together.

Yomár)e, u, to be read.

Umár)e, u, to be born.

Nomár)e, u, to be drunk, to be drinkable.

Urár)e, u, to be sold, to be for sale.

Kirár)e, u, to be cut.

Sirár)e, u, to be known.

Remark 1. Has the Japanese passive verb a potential force? Implicit, yes, but not explicit! Just as our expression: "vegetables that are eaten," includes the idea, that they are eatable, so the Japanese verb, especially its attributive form, may, in the idea of the speaker, have a potential force, and Kuvareru imo, = a turnip being eaten, may mean that it is an eatable one. Compare the Sanscrit Amitâb'a, = immensa vita, unmeasured and unmeasurable life.

Thus when the proposition: »Cloths imported from foreign countries, can be sold cheaper than those made in Japan" 1), translated into the Japanese spoken language is: Nipponde ts'kuremas'ta tam-mono yori, gai-kókű kara watarimas'ta tam-mono wa yasűku űráre-mas' 2), it declares, that cloths, which have come from foreign countries, are sold cheaper, than cloths which are made in Japan, and the Japanese text has a fact in view, that includes the possibility, whereas the English »can be sold" speaks of the possibility merely. »Not understanding any thing" the Japanese says: Wakári-masénű, = I don't understand it; not being able to understand it, he says Wakári deki-masénű.

Remark 2. The language of courtesy, which gives to the predicate verb the passive form, although logic requires the active (in treating the forms of courtesy,

¹⁾ R. BROWN, Colloquial Japanese, p. 8. No. 60.

²⁾ Why not rather: Gai-kokŭ kara watari-mas'ta tam-mono wa Nippon de tsŭkuremas'ta tam-mono yori yasŭka ŭráre-mas'.

we shall discuss this question further), gives a passive form to intransitive verbs also. Verbs of that character resemble the Greek Middle voice, or even the Latin Deponent Verbs; names, however, with which we shall not embarras the Japanese.

To the passive verbs derived from intransitive verbs belong, e. g.:

I, iri, iru (居 **), to dwell, stay; passive Irar)e, uru.
Mair)i, u (多素), to enter; Mairar)e.
Aruk)i, u (步ん行*), to step; Arŭkar)e.
Ner)i, u (寝素), to sleep; Nerar)e.

Wak)i, u (分享), to become divided; Wakar)e, uru, to be divided.

Remark 3. Our method of deriving the passive form, first made known in 1857, and afterwards (1863) adopted by Mr. R. BROWN, does not agree with the original Japanese method, according to which for ages a verb Raruru (i. e. Rar)e, u, uru), has been imagined and been inserted in the dictionaries of the country, as equivalent to the Chinese verb $\Re p$.

ON THE GOVERNMENT OF THE PASSIVE VERB.

- § 90. 1. The object, which suffers an action, is subject (Nominative), and the verb passive, its predicate, e. g. Mídzŭ ŭgókasárŭ, the water is brought into motion.
- 2. The verb passive is considered impersonal and the object undergoing the action, remains as object to the action, in the Accusative, thus Midzuwó ugókasáru. Compare § 112.
- 3. The verb passive stands in its substantive form and has its complement, as a genitive, before it: Midzuno ugókasáruru, the becoming moved (the movement) of the water, or even that of the water, which is moved, which gets movement.
- 4. The object, from which the action proceeds, precedes as complement, characterized by the termination ni, or by ... no tămeni, = in behalf of, for the sake of If no object is mentioned, the passive form may also include the idea of the Greek verb. medium, or the Latin v. reflexivum.
- 5. The definition of the material, from which any thing derives its existence or origin, assumes the genitive or even the ablative form in yori or kara.

Examples of the use of the passive forms.

Mídzuvá figásiyé nagárň, the river flows eastwards. — Sŏnŏné de wá ŭrė-

masenů, for this price it is not sold 1). — Watákůsi kono siná wo sono nédán de wá ŭri masénŭ, I do not sell these goods for that price. — Káviko ŭmáre-tari, the silkworm is hatched. — Umáretarň or ŭmaresi kavíko, silkworms hatched. — Sirusaretaru mono, things made known. — Kono mitsi sakánni okonávaréru tó miyétári, it seems that this way is much practised; Okona)vi, vulg. i, to practise; exercise; Mi, miru, to see; Miye, to appear, seem. — Wau-ziva idaki torite, manukaretari, the prince is taken into the arms and saved (from the fire). Manuk)i, u, to draw out. — Aságávo asani umárete yubeni sísü, = the morning-face (the flower of the winds) is born in the morning and dies in the evening. — Umáre from ŭmi, to bear. — Fitówo moto-kuniye tsŭkávasaru, = the man is sent to his own country. - Mikowo tsŭkávasaru besi to sata ari, it is reported that the prince will be sent. — Ziyau mon (城茅 門玉) wo seme yaburáruru toki, tou-siya (刀片車衫) nite fŭságu nari, when the gate of a castle is broken by assault, it is shut by means of a scythed chariot. Yabŭr)i, u, to break. — Mŭkásiva takawo migini sŭesaresi to nari, it is a fact, that formerly the falcon trained to sport was made perch on the right hand. Su)e, uru, to roost; Sues)i, u, to make roost; Sugsar)e, u, to be set up, placed high. - Toga-ninno kubiwo kiru, to cut a criminal's throat; Kubiwo kiraretaru (or kirareta) mono, one whose throat is cut.

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, page 4.

送 為 云 Kono fitó kanarázu onino taméni madovasarento ivaku, it is said that, that man will certainly be misled by the devil.

- 惠 魅 是 Madov)i, u, to err, to wander; Madovás)i, u, to make err;

- 鬼 人 Madovasar)e, u, to be brought so far, that one errs or wanders. —

Sivo-nawano kori naréru sima, an island caused by the clotting of sea-foam. — Kova Fino-kamino tsino nareru nari, this (spirit) is produced out of the blood of the Fire-god.

THE NEGATIVE FORM OF THE JAPANESE VERB.

§ 91. I. Theory of the Derivation.

In the negative sentence, the Japanese language attaches the negative to the predicate word. It denies that an action or state exists; but it does not deny the existence of the subject or object, while the action or state, in which both are concerned, is existing as positive, as in: »no one comes; he hears nothing." Therefore it unites the negative element, n, with the verbal element i or si (see § 98 and 103) and thereby gets the forms n + i = NI and n + si = ZI, $\prod S$, pronounced as ndzi or dzi; two root-forms, of which the former is proper to the spoken, the latter to the written language.

These terminations, in nondeflecting affirmative verbs, are immediately added to the root (Ake-zi, $\mathcal{F} \not\supset \mathcal{F}$, Mi-zi, $\geq \mathcal{F}$), whereas in deflecting ones in i, this i at once mutates into a (Yuki, to go, $Yuk\acute{a}zi$, $\mathcal{F} \not\supseteq \stackrel{*}{\not\sqsubseteq} \mathcal{F}$, not to go). Ni and zi follow the deflecting conjugation, while the closing form \mathcal{F} nu and \mathcal{F} zu, at once serve for the substantive and the attributive form. The Nigorimark, so necessary to distinguish $\mathcal{I} \not\supset \mathcal{F}$ from $\mathcal{I} \not\supset \mathcal{F}$ (to make go), is frequently omitted 1).

¹⁾ For instance, in the official publication of the Treaties concluded with Foreign powers.

The root-form ni, which we are obliged to adopt as the basis of the negative conjugation, is not in use and, in poetry, appears to be superseded by ne.

EXAMPLES OF THE FORMATION OF NEGATIVE VERBS.

	Negative.		
	Written.	Spoken.	
Ak)e, uru, to open.	Akez)i, u, アケ)ジ, ズ.	[Akéni], Akénu, アケヌ.	
M)i, iru, to see.	Miz)i, u, き) ジ, ズ.	Minu, EX.	
Muku)i, yu, yuru (nondeft.),	Mukuiz)i, u, ムクイ) ジ, ズ.	Mukuinu, 4917.	
to requite.	not to requite.		
Yuk)i, u, to go.	Yukáz)i, u, ユカ)ジ, ズ.	Yukánu, ユカヌ.	
Sik)i, u, so to be.	Sǐkáz)i, u, シカ)ジ,ズ1).		
Nas)i, u, to cause to be.	Nasáz)i, u, ナサ)ジ, ズ.	Nasánu, ナサヌ.	
Tats)i, u, to arise.	Tatáz)i, u, タハ)ジ, ズ.	Tatánu, タッヌ.	
Av)i, u, to meet.	Aváz)i, u, アハ)ジ, ズ.	Avánu, アハヌ.	
Sorov)i, u, become equal.	Sorováz)i, u, ソロハ)ジ, ズ.	Sorovánu, ソロハヌ.	
Soorav)i, u, to serve.	Sooraváz)i, u, サウラハジ.	Sooravánu, サウラハヌ.	
△ Sor)ai, o, »		Soravánu, 7317.	
Nukum)i, u, to warm, v.i.	Nukumáz)i, u, ヌクマ) ジ,ズ	Nukumánu, ヌクマヌ.	
Nukum)e,uru, towarm,v.tr.	Nukumez)i,u,ヌクメ)ジ,ズ	Nukumenu, ヌクメヌ.	
Ar)i, u, to exist, be.	Aráz)i, u, アラ)ジ, ズ.	Aránu, 737.	

In the same manner, every affirmative verb, whether it be active or passive, may assume the negative form; there are, however, a few verbs which depart from the general rule of derivation, to wit:

Ki, Kuru (nondefl.), to come;

Dek)i, iru (nondefl.), to be achieved;

Mits)i, uru (nondefl.), to be filled;

Más)i, u, (not Mas)e, uru), to be;

Mi-mas)i, u, to be seeing, to see;

Kónu, at Yédo Kánu, not to come.

Dekinŭ, vulg. Dekénŭ.

Miténu (for Mitsínŭ), not to be filled.

Masénu, not to be; — thus also:

Mi-masénŭ, not to see.

リレ不ジ若が.

II. INFLECTION OF THE NEGATIVE VERBS.

Synopsis of the negative forms of inflection, compared with the affirmative. YUK)i, -u (deflecting), go; YUKAZ)i, -u, not to go.

	Affirmative.	Negative.	
Siliple Erus		Written.	Spoken.
	YUK)	YUKA)	YUKA)
Root-form	-i, go.	-zi, ユカジ, not to go.	-ni, -ne.
Gerund	-ite, going.	-zite, not going.	-nite, not used.
by elision	Yuite.	Yukaide, ユカイデ	Yukaide. (*)
Closing-form .	-u, goes.	-zu, ユカズ, goes not.	-nu, ユカヌ.
Subst.and attr.	-u, the going.	-zu.	-nu.
Subst., isolated	-uva, △ -uwa.	-zuva, △ -zuwa.	Alman of the second
" declined	-uni, -univa, on	-zuni,-zuniva,-zunba, on	consist of her surface of
Section in	going, in order to go.	not going, for not going.	nigranistani menganati Passa
Gerund	-ute, by going.	-zunde, ユカズンデ,	-nude, ユカヌデ.
	All Land	ユカズデ,contr.from	-nde, ユカンデ (†).
Samuel .	got and device of	-zunite, by not going.	Yukade, ユカデ.
Billiagie or	(for a) section.	-zu-site.	-nu ni óĭtewá, on not going.
Causal- and	-eba, as one goes.	-zeba, ユガゼバ, as one	-neba, ユカチバ.
modal-form.		goes not.	ame of the history
Concessive	-utomó, also the	-zumó, -zutomo.	and the first the terms
	going.		· 19 11 美国国际
All the	-é-domó,though one	ig the large we	-né-domó, also
	goes.	THE STATE OF THE S	Yukádemó.
	-u to rédomo.	-zu to ĭédomo.	-nuto iédomo.
Suppositive	-ábá, contract. from	-zumba.	-ndevá, ユカンデハ,
form.	-an ni va, if one goes.	-zunba,ユカズンバ,contr.	Yukadevá, ユカデハ.
Sec. Marie		from -zu ni va, if one	-nunaraba (Yédo).
W Water	State of the Lorent	goes not.	

^(*) Akezite and Mizite, derived from the nondeflecting Ake and Mi, likewise, in the dialect of Miyako, pass into Akéide, アケイデ, not opening, and Miide, とイデ not seeing.

^(†) Just so: Toránu+te passes into トラデ, Toráde, pron. Torande, not taking.

Omovanu+te (不思而) passes into オモハデ, ŏmŏváde, pr. ŏmŏvánde, not thinking.

Aránu+te (弗而) » アラデ, Aráde, pron. Arande, not existing.

Sa(=sǐka)ranu+te (不然而) » サラデ, Saráde, pron. Sarande, not being as...

Senu+te (不為而) » セデ, Sede, pron. Se-nde, not doing.

Omóvoyénu+te » オモユデ, Omóvoyéde, pron. ŏmóvoyénde, not being thought.

CONTINUATIVE FORMS OF THE NEGATIVE VERB.

§ 92. 1. The written language supersedes the termination zi by zar)i, u, which is considered a fusion of zu + ari.

Akezi, not to open, becomes Akezári, アケザリ, not to be opening.

Mizi, not to see, » Mizári, E # 9, not to be seeing.

Yukázi, not to go, » Yukazári, ユカザリ, not to be going.

Masázi, not to excel, » Masazári, < # 1, not to be the better.

Sǐkázi, not to be so, as » Sǐkazári, シガザリ, continually not to be so.

The forms for the moods and tenses are the same as those of ari; thus: zar)i, u, uni, eba, edomo; Future an; Condit. aba; Preterit zari)ki, si, keri, keru, keruni, kereba, keredomo; Future keran, ken; Condit. keraba.

- 2. The written language attaches ar)i, u, to the negative gerund zi-de and opposes to the affirmative form Ake-te-ari, to be opening (§ 78) the negative form Ake-zi-de ari, which, in the spoken language, passes into Akeide ar)i, u, to be in the not opening.
- 3. The spoken language uses its negative gerund ...nu-de in connection with ar)i, u.

Akénŭ-de ari, アケズデアリ, commonly pronounced as Akende ar'.

Mină-de ari, EXFTI, » » Minde ar'.

Yukanu-de ari, ユカヌデアリ, » » Yukande ar'.

From this derivation arise the very common Preterit Minu-de arita, pron. Minde atta, has not been seeing, and the Future Minu-de aran, \triangle Min-de aroo, will not be seeing.

4. The poet supersedes the negative termination nu with naki, \triangle nai, naku (= without, see page 108); thence Ave-naku = Avenu, without daring; Omovanaku 1), = Omovanu, without thinking.

¹⁾ Might not these be forms, connected with § 107. 2.?

The dialect of Yédo alike, and that by preference, uses nai (= nasi, naki, without) and the thence derived continuative form Nakári and Nakeri, as negative auxiliary verb, and supersedes Akénü, Minu and Yukánu with the forms Akenai, Ake-nakár)i, u; -Mi-nai, Mi-nakár)i, u; -Yuka-nai, Yuka-nakár)i, u, = tobe without opening, without seeing, without going. Thence \(\Delta Yukanaide \) for Yukázŭni, without going. With the derivative form nakari the negative verb follows the affirmative conjugation, as appears from the examples following:

Ake-nakárebá, as one is without opening. Mi-nakattárabá, if one has not seen.

- » nakaraba, if one is without opening. Deki-nakareba, as it does not issue or proceed.
 - » nakereba, as it was without success.
 - » nakaraba, if it is successless.
 - » nakeraba, if it was successless.

Mi-nakátta, he was without seeing.

kara, as he was without seeing.

Simava-nakatta kara, as or after one has not finished; from Simavi (vulg. Simai), to finish.

Tsŭké-nakatta, one has not applied; from Tsuke, to apply.

De-nakatta, he did not come out; from De, deru, to go out.

Toba-nakatta, did not fly; from Tobi, to soar, to fly.

The written language opposes to the forms Tsüke-nakatta and Toba-nakatta the forms: Tsŭkeru koto nakatta and Tobu koto nakatta, i. e. the beginning and the flying did not happen. Compare Sore fătá-tăbi kitáră koto nasă, it does not happen (nasi), that he appears for the second time.

FORM OF THE FORBIDDING IMPERATIVE.

§ 93. 1. The Forbidding Imperative consists of the substantive form of the affirmative verb, followed by the forbidding na (= Lat. ne) or more emphatically nayo 1). Compare § 69.

Akeru, the opening; Akeruná or Akeru nayo, don't open!

Saru, the doing; Sŭruná, don't do!

Wasúrŭrŭ, forgetting; Wasúrŭrŭná, don't forget!

Tatáku, striking; Tatáků ná, don't strike! Nasárŭ ná, don't make! Nasára, making;

Kikuna, don't hear; Miruna, don't see! Kiku, hear; Miru, see;

Suna (勿爲), do not! Su, doing, from Si;

¹⁾ ナヨ 令ヤスル辞アンワスル、ナヨ. Wagun Siwori. - Compare § 96.

- 2. If the idea of continuance is associated with the forbidding, then, instead of na or nayó, Nakáre, ナカレ (勿。毋), the imperative mood of Nakári, = not to be (§ 92.4), is used. The action which is characterized by nakáre as one that may not be, precedes as subject proposition characterized by koto (= thing); thus: Utagqu-koto nakáre (勿疑), let the doubting not be!, for: not doubt!
- 3. The forbidding proposition begins with Na (= Lat. ne), the predicate verb being in its affirmative root-form, followed by so (compare § 69).

Na iviso, say not. 勿謂。莫謂.—Na yurusiso, grant not! 莫聽.—Na atasi tokóroni i so, go not elsewhere.—Na motomeso, n'acquérez pas¹).—Ná nakárisó, pron. Na nakássó, not without! = it must be! — Nakár)i, u, to be without.....

4. The forbidding becomes a wish (optative), when so is superseded by kasi (= Lat. quaeso). — Na ivi kasi, may he not say!

Politeness does not allow a person bluntly to use the imperative to his equals or superiors. Instead of Miruna, see not, expressions such as Mi-nasárŭná, or Mi-nasáre-másŭná, = let there not be seen, are used. — Kamaina, = let it not come under notice, is superseded by O kamai kudasárŭna²); forms, to which we shall return in our illustration of the language of courtesy. Appendix to Chapter VII.

FORMS OF THE NEGATIVE PRETERIT.

§ 94. 1. The negative termination nu becomes nanda, ナンダ.

Akénŭ, not to open; Akenanda, not to have opened.

Dénu, not to go out, Denanda, not to have gone out.

Saménă, not to awake; Samenanda, not to have awake.

Minu, not to see; Minanda, not to have seen.

Yukánu, not to go; Yukananda, not to have gone.

Masénu, not to be; Masenanda, or, in the vulgar language of

Yédo, Masinanda, not to have been.

Mi-masenu, not to see; Mi-masenanda, not to have seen.

Tsŭre-datsite modorananda, they have not come back together (不同歸). Modori, to come back.—Finwo sirananda, he has not learned to know poverty (不知資). Siri, to learn to know.

2. The spoken language of Yédo uses the forms Ake-nakátta, Mi-nakátta,

¹⁾ RODRIGUEZ, pag 56.

²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 21.

Yuka-nakátta, = was without opening, without seeing, without going, derived from Ake-nakári, Mi-nakári and Yuka-nakári. See § 93. 4.

3. The written language employs ..zari)ki, si, keri etc., the preterit of the negative continuative form zari (§ 92. 1). — Osikarazari si ĭnótsi¹), the life which was not agreeable. — Osiki, agreeable.

FORMS OF THE NEGATIVE FUTURE.

- § 95. 1. The spoken language, which employs the continuative forms Akénŭ-de-ari, Minŭ-de-ari, Yukánŭ-de-ari, cited in § 92. 3., makes use of the future of ari, thus arau (アララ) or aroo, and says: Akénŭ-de-arau, Minŭ-de-arau, Yu-kánŭ-de-arau, he will not be opening, seeing, going.
- 2. 1) The written language employs ..zaran, #32, the future of the continuative zari (§ 92. 1), or, instead of zaran, ..zu to nan, ..zu mo aranan (compare § 75. II, 3), and forms from

Akezari the future Akezaran, or Akezu to nan, not to be about to open.

Mizari » » Mizaran, or Mizu to nan, not to be about to see.

Yukazari » » Yukazaran or Yukazu to nan, not to be about to go.

2) The written language, moreover, has a negative future in ..mazi, $\forall \mathcal{E}$, from which by elision of the z, the vulgar form mai, $\forall \mathcal{I}$, has arisen (comp. Yukazide and Yukaide, § 91. II).

Ake-mazi, vulgo Ake-mai, shall not open.

Mi-mazi, » Mi-mai, » » see.

Yuku-mazi, » Yukŭ-mai, » » go.

Aru-mazi, » Aru-mai, » » be.

From these examples it is evident that, in nondeflecting verbs, mazi is joined to the root, and in deflecting verbs, to the attributive form.

Since the power to indicate the future, is not to be sought in zi, but must lie in ma, I consider this the substantive ma, which significs room, space, used also with regard to time, as it appears from the expression: Ikari wo orósu ma mo nákū-sīté, kazéni makásete yuku, = as there is not even (mo) time (or opportunity) to cast out the anchor, they abandon themselves to the wind and pass on. — The action now, for which there is no time or opportunity, as it appears from the example, is something that is not yet happening, or has not yet hap-

¹⁾ Hiyaku-nin, No. 50.

pened (Mi-rai), but no real future. — With regard to the negative form zi joined to ma — it may be considered as an elliptical form of nasi $(n+si=nzi, zi, \gt)$, or what is more probable, a fusion of the negative element n with the derivative form siki, siku, sisi or si (§ 16) $(n+siki=ziki, \gt)$) — it only denies, that time or opportunity for something exists, and consequently mazi too, is properly a present. The Japanese custom of passing masi for mazi must therefore be disapproved of 1).

Inflectional forms of Mazi, vulg. Mai, are: the adverbial form $m\acute{a}zik \check{u}v\acute{a}$, vulg. $maik \check{u}v\acute{a}$, and the modal mazikini, vulgo maikini, maini, no opportunity being; mai toki, if, or as, there is no opportunity; mai tomo, even if there is no opportunity. Tenses and moods are expressed by the auxiliary verbs nari, to be, and keri, have been. Mazikinari ($\triangle Maina$); Maziki nar)eba; -edomo, -edo; -aba ($\triangle Maziki$ nar)eba; -aba; aba ab

Examples of the use of the negative forms.

When, as it will appear from some of the passages following, not only the subject, but the object also, or even the appositive definition of a negative verb, is isolated by va, \triangle wa or mo, it is intended to bring out the negation with more emphasis.

[Root-form.] Ame tsütsí firákesi yori kono kata imáno tóki fodó dai-fei-nárü koto arázi; nisiva Kikai Yaküno simayóri figási Osiyuno Sotoga-fáma made gaoreino yükí-todókazáru tokóromó nási, since the development of heaven and earth a state of peace so general as at present, has not existed. To the West, from the Yaku-island, which belongs to the region of ghosts, to the farthest shore of the Eastern Osiyu, there is not even one place, to which the authority of the Government does not reach.

Firákesi, preterit of Firáke, to open itself, to unfold. — Arázi, negative root-form, == not exist, used here because, the connection of the sense is coördinative. — Todókazáru, attributive negative form of Todok)i, u, == reach to.

Sŏnŏ moto midárěté, sül osamáru mŏnŏvá ărazi; sono atsúŭsŭrŭ tokóro no mono ŭtsúŭ-sĭte, sikýusĭte sono ŭtsú-sŭrŭ tokóro no mono átsŭki koto imáda koré ărazu (Dai Gaku, § 7), = something (mŏnŏvá), of which the top is regulated, while

¹⁾ Mr. HEPBURN, in his excellent Japanese English Dictionary 2e edition p. 197, on defining "ji, ž, , as a future negative affix to verbs expressing doubt or uncertainty, "Kitaru mazi, vulgo mai, will not come", differs from our analysis of mazi. The Japanese themselves however do the same.

the root is in disorder, does not exist; neither, is that, which has been made thick, thin, or that which has been made thin, thick. —

> Yahe mugura || sigereru yadono || sabisikini Fito koso miyene " akiva ki-nikeri 1).

In the solitary cell, where the plant Mugura has sprung up luxuriantly, nobody is to be seen; — Autumn has come.

Miyene, the negative root-form of Miye, to appear. - Aki, autumn; light

[Closing-form.] Ki-sin no tókŭ-tárŭ koto, sore sakán nárŭ ká! Korewo mite mizu; korewo kiite kikazu; mononí tei-síté nokósű bekarazu?), »how abundantly do spiritual beings display the powers that belong to them. We look for them, but do not see them; we listen to, but do not hear them; yet they enter into all things, and there is nothing without them." Legge. Chinese Classics. Vol. I. p. 261.

Mite and Kitle, gerund of Mi, to see, and Kiki, to hear, for which in another edition of the text the concessive forms Miredomo and Kikedomo, are used. - Bekarázu = may not, from the adjective Beki (page 109, No. 73).

出手 門を場べ O Sono kiyo-riu-bano siu-ini mon siyouwo maukezu. 大子 電子 月 は J Ide-iri zi-zai-ni-su besi 3), around this abode shall 自ジラ 居寺 neither gate nor fence be placed. In going out 在ザズ 富山 and coming in, people shall be free.

勞多約多御工山間 Yama-nakani kuro-kino go-siyowo tsukuri, ken-yakuwo 用等 并 motsivi, tamiwo rau-se-simezu 4), in the building of a palace of barked timber in the mountains (the prince) 作为黑岩 considers economy, and does not permit the people to drudge.

[Substantive form.]

O Wauno wau tarazaruva se-záru nari, atavazáruni 能系也有王多 王子 arázu 5), the king's not exercising the Imperial sway, 大力 is because he does not do it, not because he is not 不元為セスル able to do it.

Tarazáru, = the not being, the negative substantive form of tari, = te ari, § 78. II. - Atarazaru, the not being able, from Atávi.

¹⁾ A hermit's farewell, No. 47 of Hiyaku-nin issu. - Yahe mugura is Galium strigosum THUNB.

³⁾ Netherl.-Jap. Treaty of 1858. Art. II al. 10. 2) Tschung-yung or the Mean, XVI. 1.

⁴⁾ Nippon o dai itsiran, Vol. II. 1. r. 39th king. 5) Meng-tsze, Book I, Pt. I. § 7.

Mitsino okonavárezaru, ware koréwo sĭréri. Tsĭ-sĭyáva koréni sugu; gu-sĭyava oyobázŭ¹), that the path (of the Mean) is not walked in (literally: the not being walked in of the path), this I know. The knowing ones go beyond it, and the stupid do not come up to it.

Okonavarezaru, not being practised, from Okonav)i, u, to practise. — Sug)i, u, iru, uru, nondeflecting v. to overstep, go beyond. — Oyobázu or Oyobánu, not to reach, from Oyob)i, u.

Sira-notova urusi nite nurazu-site, fi nite mo kogazaruwo ivu nari, concerning the so called pale arrow shafts, people understand by them, such as are not daubed with varnish, nor burnt with fire.

Nur)i, u, to daub. - Kog)i, u, to burn.

Sinserarezaru wo omonbakarazu (不億不信), what is incredible is not taken into consideration.

Sin-s)e, uru, to believe. - Omonbakar)i, u, to ponder.

△ Watákŭsi karega sono kotowo ŏsórezu ni suru nowo mi-tái mono de atta, I should like to see him do that business, undaunted.

至 其 Osor)e, eru, nondeflecting, to fear.

[Attributive.] Onoréni sikazáru monowó tomotó sŭrŭ kóto nakáre, make not a person, who is not your equal, your mate.

Sikazáru, continuative form of Sikázu, and this from Sik)i, u, to equal.

Kono riwo sirazaru fito, someone who does not know this law.

Mata sirazáru tokóro ari, there is what one does not yet know. — Mata yókň-sezáru tokóro ari²), there is what one does not yet do well.

Sir)i, u, to know. — Yoku-s)e', uru, to do good. — Sezi, not to do; thence Sezar)i, u.

Yurano towo || wataru funa-bito || kadziwo tave!

Yukuyemo siranu || kovino mitsi kana 3).

Skipper, sailing over the mouth by Yura, let loose the helm! Oh! it is the way of love, that does not know whither it goes!

△ Meni miyénű, kutsini ivarenu fodo ki-meo (奇 * 妙冷) na koto, a matter so uncommon, that it is not to be seen by eyes, nor to be spoken by any mouth.

△ Fitoni sirarenu yauni suru, so to act that it be not remarked by others. [Gerund.] Takava ŭeni sokonezu-sĭté, akuni sokonuru mono nari, = the hawking-

¹⁾ Tschung-yung. IV.

²⁾ Ibid. XII.

³⁾ Hyaku-nin, No. 46.

falcon is something (mono) that suffers no harm by hunger, but is spoiled by surfeiting:

△ Faravázŭ-sĭté tori-age másŭ-mai, without paying I shall not receive (the goods.) - A Nedanga kavarazu sité, while no change in price takes place.

Kun-si yowo nogarete, sirarezu-sité, kŭízu 1), the superior man, retired from the world and unacknowledged, is not grieved at it.

Nog)i, u, to push back; Nogár)e, eru, being drawn back. - Sir)i, u, to learn to know; Sirar)e, uru, to be known; Sirarezu, not to be known. - Kui, nondeflecting verb, to be grieved at.

[Time-defining Local.] Kokóro ărăzărebá, míte mízu, kíite kikázu, kuráute, sono adzīváiwó sīrázu2), when the mind is not present, we look and do not see; we hear and do not understand; we eat and do not know the taste of what we eat. Compare Legge, Chinese Classics. Vol. I. p. 232.

Kun-si iru to sité, zi-tóku-sezáru koto nasi. Ziyau-ini arite (átte), simowo sinogázu. Ka-ini artte, kamiwo fikázu. Onoréwó tadásiu-stté, fitóni motomezareba, sunavatsi urami nasi; Kami Tenwo uramizu. Simo fitowo togamezu. Karuga yuéni Kun-siva yasukini wíte motte méiwó mátsu 3). It does not occur that (koto nasi) the superior man having once entered on a fixed position, does not continue to be himself. Is he in a high situation, he does not contemn his inferiors. Is he in a low situation, he does not try to pull down his superiors. Rectifying himself and seeking for nothing from others, he has no dissatisfaction. Since he is not averse to Heaven, which is above him, and does not abuse the people, who are below him, so is the superior man always contented and abides his destiny.

Zi-toku, self-preservation. — Zi-tóku | sezdru koto, = the not remaining what one is, is the subject to nasi (is not). - Sinogazu, from Sinog)i, u, to turn off. - Fikázu, not draw or drag, from Fik)i, u. -Motomezareba, the time-defining local of Motomezari, not to seek for, and this from Motom)e, wru,

Manabazaru koto ari, korewo manande yoku-sezareba, 弗共有了。弗共有了 okázu. Tovazaru koto ari, korewo tovute sirazaroba, 知多、弗艾 能表 弗艾 okázu 4), if it happens that he has not learned some-弗术 間片、弗太 學弄 thing, and when he learns it, does not become 描录 描录 master of it, he (the superior man) does not discontinue it. Is it that he has not examined something, and might he not after the examination understand it, he does not give it up.

[Concessive]. Mi-karino toki fakarázu mo taka wo tobásu, at the time of the princely hawking the falcon is let fly even without design.

⁴⁾ Ibid., XX. 20. 3) Tschung-yung. XIV. 2) Dai Gaku. VII. 2. 1) Tschung-yung. XI.

Fakarázumó = fakarázu-sitémó from fakár)i, u, to consider, to design.

Nippon nite irisi zenniva arazaredomo, mare narázu, = although (this coin) is not a coin cast in Japan, it is not rare.

Irisi, preterit of Ir)i, u, to cast, to found.

Kokóro makotoni korewo motómebá (of mo-duty), then even though she do not hit it, she will be not far from it. There never

has been (a girl), who first learned to bring up a child, and then married afterwards. Atarázu, not to hit, not to answer to, from Atari. Tookarázi, root-form, to be not far off, from Tooki (p 108).

Nippon tsuu-you kin-gin to gwai-koku no kin-ginva motsi-yuku koto kurusikarazu to ĭédomo, Nippon tou-sen to kwa-heini kosirayezaru kin-ginva motsiyuku bekarazu 2), Japanese current gold and silver and foreign gold and silver, the export (of it) has no diffi-

culty; but Japanese copper money and uncoined (not made into coin) gold and silver may not be exported.

Siyau-bai-itásŭ koto kurusikarázŭ tomo (or to iédomó), Nippon kin-sino sinamonová siyau-bai-ĭtásŭ bekarázŭ 3), = even if trade has no difficulty, concerning articles which are forbidden in Japan, in them no trade may be driven.

Nandziga sei- (都 3) sǐtémo, sei-sezǔ tomo, kareva yahari korewo suru de arau, if you forbid it or forbid it not he will yet do it.

Mata sarádemó, even if it is not so. Sári, contracted from Sĭkári (page 109 Nº. 71); to be so.

[Future.] Otoko asokoni tsuru tokiva uwo wo ézu to nan 4), a boy, if he angles at that place, will get no fish.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, IX, 2.

²⁾ Franco-Japanese Treaty of the 9 Oct. 1858, Art. XIV, al. 4.

³⁾ Ibid., Art VIII, al. 1.

⁴⁾ Nippon o dai itsi-ran, Vol. I, p. 11.

破ぎ者が 大 ル ル Nandzino kuni waga-kunino tăméni yabăraren koto fisásikí ni árŭ-mazi, it will not last long, before your country will 人 八 八 二 所 三 高 る be subdued by mine.

Yuku-sǔyé kaváru-mazito sei-gon (誓言言) wo tatsuru koto, the taking of an oath, that in future no change shall take place.

| 損じて | ラ ラ ラ | 一方 | Kavi-kata no ku-den wo obóye, hon-foo wo mótte | すず 方方 | 大変 | 大変 | 大変 | 大変 | 大変 | 大変 | 本恋 ロッ tion with regard to the feeding (of the silk-歌学仕 | 育多法学傳述 worm) and rear it according to my prescriptions, it will then probably not happen that one suffers harm.

On-ki-dzŭkái-nasárŭ maziku soro, there is (soro) no occasion for your care, i. e. don't care about it; don't trouble yourself. — \triangle Káku-bétsŭ tai-zi-tá kotoni mo náru-mai, it will be no matter of extraordinary importance.

大多事ジタフ, Tai-zi-ta koto, a matter of importance. タ, an abbreviation of タル. If we take ダ instead of タ, we have to do with a fusion of テアル. Compare page 67, line 3.

[Suppositive]. Kino ue tomarite orizaruniva (or orizaru kuse araba), when (the falcon) stays on a tree, and does not come off (or: when he has the bad habit of not coming off).

Fokowo orizunba (or orizaruniva), itsu-mademo, yewo kawázu-site, hanaháda uyásu bési, if (the falcon) does not come off his perch, one must, without baiting, let him suffer terrible hunger,

Iyéwo tsugi, tokuwo tsugi, te-wazawo tsugu rui narade va, motsivizu, if the expressions are not such as: to propagate a family, to propagate the good, to continue some trade, then (the character , equivalent to tsugi) is not used.

Naradeva, ナラデハ, the isolated gerund of Naránu, not to be, used as suppositive form.

Mosi fitówo osorete midziwo nomazunba, in case (the falcon) shunning men, does not drink the water.

The negation of a negation involves a strengthened assertion; e.g. Gau rei (异类 会势) no yŭki-todókazáru tokóromó nasi, there is not one place, to which the authority of the Government does not reach. See page 254.

¹⁾ Yo-san-fi-rok, l'art d'élever les vers à soie au Japon par OUEKAKI MORIKOUNI, annoté et publié par MATTHIEU BONAFOUS. Ouvrage traduit du texte Japonais par J. J. HOFFMANN. Paris 1818. § 22.

Sirazunbá aru-bekarázű (不可不知也) for Sirázunivá arŭ bekarázu, i. e. in the not knowing — one may not be, = one ought to know.

Fagemi tsătomezumba aru-bekarazu waza nari, it is an occupation in which one may not be without zeal and diligence, i. e. in which zeal and diligence are of the most importance.

Faru akiva yasezunba aru bekarázu, in spring and in autumn (the hawking-falcon) must be lean. — Yas)e, uru, to become lean.

In the oral language the use is very common of the time-defining local ...ne ba, followed by naranu (not to be), to express the »necessity." Sayauni itasaneba naranu (in the Yédo street-dialect; Sayooni si-nakeri ya narane), one must act so. — Seneba naranu, it must happen. — Seneba naranu koto, the necessity. — Ide-tatsi seneba naranu de atta, he was constrained to depart. — Fitóva Tenyori ukuru tokorono negumiwo ari-gatákaraneba naranu, man must be thankful for the benefits he receives from Heaven. — Ari-gataki, adj., thankful.

VERBS EXPRESSING THE BEING, THE BECOMING AND THE CAUSING TO BE.

§ 96. Ar)i, u, deflecting continuative verb, derived from I (= expire, go away), signifies being continually in a departing movement, to exist, to be 1). Its inflectional forms are: Ari, the root- and, by exception 2), the predicate closing-form (= there is); $Ar\ddot{u}$, the substantive form, which is also used attributively. Comp. § 11. — $Ar\ddot{u}$ te, $Ar\ddot{u}$ teva, pron. Atte, Attewa, gerund, being, or as one is. — Areba, there or as one is; — Aredomo, although there is; — Aran, $\triangle Arau$, Aroo (?>>> ? u>), future, there will be; Aran koto kakuno gotosi (有如此), be it so! (the termination of an oath). — $Ar\dot{a}ba$ (= Aran + ni + va), conditional, if there is, might there be.

Preterit.

Ariki; there was. Aritar)i, u, \triangle Attari, Attaru, Atta, has Arisi, substantive and attributive form. been. Arisi-yué, whilst there was.

¹⁾ The Japanese themselves seem not to know, that they have continuative verbs, nor that there is a connection between i and ari. They see, as it appears from the Wa-gun Siwori, in Aru a mere modification of $\not\vdash \uparrow_{h,h}$, Naru, = to become, Lat. fieri

²⁾ By this exception they prevent a confusion of the closing form of Ari with that of Are (= to become), which is Ari likewise.

Arisikaba, whilst there was.

Attareba, as there has been.

Attaredomo, though there has been.

Ariken, there shall or may have been. Attaroo, there will have been. Ariker)i, u, contin. (see § 82), have been. Attaraba, if there has been.

Negative.

Aráz)i, u, \(\Delta Aránu, \) not to be, \(\Sigma 91; \) Arazár)i, u, contin., not to be.

1. Ari has the definition, what exists, as subject, the definition where a thing exists, as Local terminating in ni, before it.

Fitó ari, man is; Arŭ fǐtó, any one being. — Itsini fǐtó ári (市有人), there are people on the market-place; Fǐtó itsini ari (人在市), people are on the market-place. — Kin-kwa-san kai-tsiuni ári, the Kin-kwa-san (gold-flower mountain) is in the sea. — Sono kunini itsŭtsŭno tanátsŭ-mono ari, in that country the five sorts of grain are met with. — Ninva kudamono no saneno ŭtsíni árŭ mono nari, the pith is something being in the middle of the kernel of fruit. — Saivaini ari, being in prosperity, having luck. — Bin-kuni ari, being in poverty and need. — Dai-Gákŭno mitsí vá méi-tókŭwo akīrákáni súrŭni árī; tamiwo arátāni súrŭni ári; si-senni todomárŭni ari¹), the way of the Great Study consists in illustrating illustrious virtue, it consists in renovating the people (in bringing it back to its primitive state!); it consists in resting in the highest excellence.

2. The definition where a thing is, followed by the subject, that exists, also occurs without the characteristic of the Local.

終岁事录本意物等 Mono hon-batsŭ ari; waza siu-si ari²), things have _始之有了末分重有了 root and top; affairs have end and beginning. Conceived as subject, Mono and Waza stand for Monova and Wazava, and the literal translation should be: As to things, there is a root and a top etc. Conceived as local both definitions stand for Mononiva and Wazaniva.

- 3. The spoken language characterises the definition, in what a thing exists, = what it is, by de, de-ar', at Yedo da. Sorewa yoki sake de ar', or sake da. this is good wine.
- 4. If this definition is an action or a state, expressed by a verb, it is put in the Modal characterized by the termination te or de (see § 72). Akete ari, to be in the opening, to open.
 - 5. If it is a quality, expressed by an adjective in ki, as Takaki, high (see

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, § 1.

- § 9. B. 1), the spoken language uses the adverbial form in ku. Tsŭkiga takakŭ aru, the high-standing (the culminating) of the moon.
- 6. By fusion of the adverbial form ku with ari, kar)i, u, is produced. Takakár)i, u, continually to be high. Compare § 10, § 82.
- 7. If the definition consisting of a subject and ari (Fito ari, people are) precedes a substantive as attributive (or relative) quality, the subject of aru becomes a genitive definition, and as such generally characterized by no or ga. — Fitó no aru itsi, a market-place on which are people. — Irono (or iroga) aru kŭmó, colors having (colored) clouds. — Yoki nivói aru ki, wood, that has a good smell.
- ... to ari, an elliptical expression for ... to ivu ari, or ... to omovu ari, the saying or the opinion is that Nanukani tatsu-besi to arikeri, the meaning, intention, saying was, that we should start on the ninth day.

Especially, Chinese substantives are made adjectives by the addition of no aru or gaaru; ga+aru in the spoken language passes into garu. — Sai-tsi (大 智), understanding; Sai-tsino aru fitó, an intelligent man. — Yekki (悦季 喜[‡]), mirth; Yekkiga aru koto or Yekkigaru koto, a merry business. Compare § 10. page 114, Remark.

8. The negative Arazi, u, = not to exist, just as the affirmative Ari, has the definition, in which a thing does not exist, i. e. what it is not, in the Local in ni before it, mostly, for the sake of emphasis, still isolated by va. — Reini arázŭ (非禮), it is not polite; Reiniva arázŭ, polite — it is not. — Sikanva (= Sikaniva) arázŭ (不然), so it is not.

of Kamis of the elder and younger brothers of the Kami named the Great Land-Lord.

9. The Passive Ar)e, u, eru, = to become, come into existense, is more particularly proper to the written language. — Kova kegarewô motsi ŭsinávu kami nari, Mi fanawo aravi-tamavu tokini are-masi-tsu, this (the goddess of the falling stars) is a Kami, who takes and looses dirt. She was (masi-tsu) produced (are), when (the gods of creation) cleansed their noses. — Ore is called Ara-kane (= Arekane), as being considered metal in its primitive state (生金).

Remark. Gö-zár)ĭ, u. The courtly epistolary style and the spoken language,

instead of simple Ari, make use of the more ample Go-zárǐ or Go-zárǐ-másǔ, sounding, in a quick pronunciation, as Gŏzái, or Gŏzái-más², in writing expressed by 御章 本情, Go-za-ari, which is equivalent to the expression: »to have the honor to be." Courtesy employs this word even where it is — not suited. Like Ari, it has the complement of what a thing consists, i. e. what it is, if a substantive, in the Local in de, if an adjective in ki, in the adverbial form in ku (or u, page 106) before it. — Soreva nanide gozaru? what is this? — Nandokide gozari-masūka? what o'clock is it? — Hirude gozari-másū, it is noon. — \triangle Anáta de wá gozari-masēnū; watākūsi zi-sinni itási-másīta, = it is not you; I did it myself. — Go ki-gen yorósīu gozari-masū ka? your disposition is it well? is it well with you? = how do you do? — Ai-kavárū gimo gozari-masēnū, so as ever, literally: there is no change at all.

§ 97. Or)i, u, deflecting continuative verb, derived from i (1) or wi (#), = seat, to sit, means dwell, reside; having reference to a living being, that can remove itself. It is preceded by the definition of place, where anything dwells, as also of the condition or of the action, in which anything is, as Local or gerund with the termination ni or de (sometimes te). In definitions of place the spoken language makes use of ni or de indifferently.

Conjugation, regular: Root, Ori (居。留). Closing-form, subst. and attrib. form órŭ, pron. or', he dwells, the dwelling. — Or)eba, edomo, aba, as, although, if he dwells. — Ori)ki, si, keri etc. has dwelled. — Gerund. Orite (オリテ), pron. Otte, which in writing is expressed by オラテ, dwelling; thence the Preterit Oritar)i, u, \triangle Otta (オララ). — Orázu, \triangle Oránu, not to dwell; — Orás)i, u, 為居, to make to dwell, to place; — Orásim)e, u, eru, 今居, to order to place. — Samūráiwo sironi orásimū, order is given to place soldiers in the castle. — Passive form, used in speaking, Orár)e, u, eru. — Sökóni oraré, = »hic sedeatur," for pray sit down, in speaking to one superior.

Examples of the use of Ori.

Utsíni orů, or ori-másů, he is within, is at home. — Fino sobani órů, he stays at the side of the fire. — Sinra nisino kunini orisi yori, since the (people of) Sinra has dwelt in the western parts. — Kun-si koreni órů 1), the superior man

¹⁾ Techung-yung. X.

stays there in (in virtue, as in his element). — Orŭ ni ôité sono ôru tokôrowo sírŭ 1), when (a bird some where) nestles, it knows the place where it is at home. — Hitóno kimito náttevá, zinni ori, hítóno sin to náttevá, kếi ni ori, kuni-támi tó mazivárebá, sinni ôră 2), when he (the noble man) becomes the lord of others, he rests in humanity; when he becomes the minister of others, he rests in reverence (towards the prince); if he has to do with the people of the country, then he dwells in uprightness. — Here we have a succession of three propositions of which only the last has the predicate closing-form orň, whereas in bot the preceding the indefinite root-form ori is used.

Tabe, to eat; Tabete orŭ, to be eating. — Tabes)i, u, make eat, feed; Tabesite órŭ, to be feeding. — Nom)i, u, to drink; Nonde órŭ, to be drinking. — Siri, to know; Sirite ori-másŭ, to be knowing. — Fanawo mite zasĭte órŭ (章 坐 文), he sits beholding flowers. — Karega ima-yauni kimono kite órŭ, he is dressed in the fashion. — Mottewa ore-domo fitoni misénŭ, although he has it with him, he does not let others see it.

The causative Os)i, u, (神動), pron. ossŭ, which being derived from the root I (居力), has the original signification of to seat, make stay some where, includes the idea of our print, e. g. Mókŭni inwó osŭ, to print a mark in wood; Kamini katátsiwo osŭ, to print a figure on or in paper; Kuráiwo osŭ, to maintain the throne. Employed as a substantive, it refers to something that presses, and characterises the word Nézŭmi-osi the mousetrap as something that presses the mouse, and makes it stay.

The root i or wi (\cancel{E}_{1} , **), seat, occurs in compounds as: Tori-wi or Tori-i, = bird-seat, the name of certain doors, which are at the entrance to Japanese temples. — $K\ddot{u}r\dot{a}$ -i ($\cancel{C}_{\#}$), from $K\ddot{u}r\dot{a}$, saddle, thus a seat raised as a saddle, a throne. — Nawi or Nai, the old-Jap. name of earthquake; from na, = dis-,

or A Tsikara nao natte oru, to have become powerless.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, 111. 2.

and i. - I-su, = seat-nest, the chair on which one sits with the legs crosswise. — I-toko, seat. — I-ziri, bed. — Iyé ($\triangle ie$), in Eastern Japan iya, contracted $y\acute{a}$, the house. — I-tsi, = seat-way, the market-place.

NONDEELECTING VERBS IN I.

§ 99. As these, with respect to their conjugation, are connected with the verb I, uru, to be, they are placed here 1).

The conjugation of the nondeflecting v	verbs	in i.
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	Aorist.	Continuative present.	Preterit. pres.	Future.	Continuative Fut.
Root-form	i.	[iri, uri, yuri	.] itari, ∆ ita.	in, A ia.	[inzi.]
				en	
Imperative	i-yo,			- de populari	
	i-sai.			Salar Indiana	
Closing-form	u.	iru, uru, yuru	. litari, △ ita.		inzu, a iūzu.
Subst.and Attr.		iru, uru, yuru	. itaru, △ ita.		Δ iûzuru.
Gerund	ite.	irite, ite.	itarite.		
Local		ireba, ureba, yureb	a. itareba.	the state of	△ iûzureba.
as, when.					
Concessive		ire- ure- yure	- itare-domo.	as despixon	
although.		domo. domo. domo).	Section 19	
Suppositive		anne el saugalla	itarába.	in-va, △ iba	
if.		A STATE OF THE STATE OF		Δiû-narába.	

Causative: isi, osi, asi, usi.

Negative; iz)i, u, Ainu, onu.

Synopsis of nondeflecting verbs in i.

I. Intransitives.

- 1. Si)i, yu, iru or yuru (强策。之、羌、羌), to force, compel. Siite, by force. —? From si, to do, and i, iru, to be.
- 2. Sii, シス; Siyu, シュ; Siiru or Siyuru; gerund Siite; supposit. Siiba; to be gone; to be dead, from si (去シ), to go away (not from 死シ, to die), and #; # ル. Some also write シヒ, Sivi. Causat. Siis)i, u, 私文, to dispatch, send out of the world. Compounds with Sii are: Me-sii, 盲シ, = to be eye-dead or blind;

¹⁾ What RODRIGUEZ in his Elémens § 38 says about these verbs, is not of that nature to make a treatment of this subject unnecessary here.

- Mesiitárú, \triangle Mesiita, has become blind. Mimi-si)i, $\mathbb{R}^{\frac{2}{5}}$, yu, iru, or yuru, ite, = to be ear-dead or deaf.
- 3. K)i, **π*, to come. Imperat. iyo, oyo, oi, in Sikok ei; Gerund ite; Fut. en, old-Jap. όπἄ, on, Δοο, οοzu, οοzuru; Negat. όπᾶ, at Yédo anu.
- 4. I-ki, 去 1 來 $^{+}$, = go and come; to breathe, live (生). Ik)iru; Ike-iru, 在生, to be living; Fut. \triangle Ik)iû; Causat. \triangle Ik)i, u, to make live, to enliven.
- 5. De-ki, $\coprod_{\vec{r}}$ \mathcal{R}^{\dagger} , = to come out of, to procede, to be produced, to be achieved; Lat. procedere. Deki, iru, ite; Fut. \triangle iû; Negat. inŭ, vulg. énŭ. Caus. Dekas)i, u, to produce; thence Dekas' mono, a product. A variation of Deki is ĭdéki.
- 6. Tsŭki, 盡業. to come to the end, to consume, v.i., to get exhausted or consumed. Tsŭk)i, iru; Negat. inu, not to become exhausted; Causat. Tsŭkús)i, u, to exhaust, to consume; Pass. Tsŭkar)e, uru, to be in a state of exhaustion. It is to be distinguished from deflecting Tsŭk)i, u, 老業。即, to come to.
- 7. Oki, 走车, to rise, to get up, se lever. Ok)iru, uru, ite, ita; Fut. △ iû; Causat. ós)ĭ, u, to make rise, to raise, to establish.
- - 9. Fi, 乾 c, dry. Fîru, to dry, v. n. to ebb. Sivo no fîru toki, at low water.
- 10. Ni, () =, to be like, to resemble. N) iru, ite, ite ari = itari; Negat. izu, not to be like; Causat. is)e, u, uru, eru, to make to like; to imitate. Nise-mono, imitation.
- 12. ŏtsi, 落孝, to fall down. ŏts)i, ite, itar)i, u, \triangle ita; Closing-form Ots)u or i-másŭ; Attributive iru, also uru, (ŏtsórŭ isĭ, a falling stone); Fut. in, \triangle iu; Condit. iba; Negat. izu. Causat. Otós)i, u, to make fall; to fell.
 - 13. Mitsi, 滿幸, to be filled. Mits)u, uru, ite. Negat. Miténu.
 - 14. Kutsi, 枯旱, to rot; v. i. to wither. Kuts)iru, uru, ite.
- 15. ŏdzi, $\uparrow \leftarrow \updownarrow$, to be afraid. ŏdz)u, iru, also uru. Causat. Odós)i, u, to make any one afraid.
- 16. Fadzi, 長冷。 氏心, to blush, to be ashamed. Fadz)i, u, uru, ite; Imperat. iyó; Adverb. ǔrákǔvá; Adj. Fadzǔkásǐki, timid. Causat. Fadzǔkásǐm)e, uru, to make blush, to shame.
 - 17. Karab)i, 枯草, iru, i-nuru, to dry, v. i. Kara, halm; Kar)e, uru, to dry up.

- 18. Kabi, a nould. Kabiru, to grow mouldy: metaphorically: to be grieved.
- 19. Sab)i, uru, to rust; metaphorically: to be solitary and still.
- 20. Wab)i, iru, also uru, ite etc. intercession, to intercede, to excuse.
- 21. Nob)i, iru, ite, Æ, ‡, to stretch, to be extended. Nobór)i, u, to be stretching, v. i., to go aloft, to ascend. Kevurino nobóruwo mirŭ, to see the ascending of smoke. Fino nobóri, the rise of the sun. Yamani nobóri, to go aloft on a mountain, to ascend a mountain. Fact. Nobós)e, uru, to make stretch, or ascend. Tsukaiwo Miyakoye nobosete, despatching messengers up to Miyako. Yaki-monowo kurumani nobósu, to work up pottery on the potter's wheel. Nob)e, uru, v. tr., to stretch, to extend, to raise.
- 22. Kobi, 媚云, to flatter. Kob)i, iru, uru, ite; Imperat. iyo; Fut. in, △ iû. Fitoni kobiru, to flatter men.
- 23. Korob)i, u, uru, corruption, decay, to pass toward destruction. Causat. ás)i, u, to cause to decay.
- 24. Fokorob)i, u, uru, 光光之 v, to tear, to burst, intr., to rip as a seam, open as a flower bud.
- 25. Forobi, $\Box_{\mathcal{L}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$, $\partial_{\mathcal{L}}$, to become destroyed, to perish. Forobi, u, i-nu; Fut. inu, in, $\triangle i$ u. Causat. δs)i, u, to destroy. Forobosár)e, uru, to be ruined or destroyed.
- 26. Fotob)i (not Fitobi), iru, uru, 液, to soften, v. i. Causat. Fotobasi, u, to make soft.
 - 27. Furub)i, iru, uru, 古 🛴, to get old, to grow old (old, opposed to new).

II. Transitives.

- 28. K)i, iru, ite, Fut. in, A iû, 著[‡], to put on (a dress).
- 29. Kovi, $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} A$ Koi, longing for. Kov)i, u, iru, uru, to long after, to love. Causat. Kovos)i, u, to cause to love, to attract one's love; Kovoski, charming, amiable.
- 30. Mótsii, 用葉。 葉, to use, to employ. Motsi)i, u, iru, or yuru (ユル); itar)i, u (井タリ). Fut. Motsi)in; Condit. iba; Negat. izu or inu (スズ用葉), izar)i, u; Pass. irare, to be used, to serve, v. i. We consider Motsi)i, uru the continuative form of Mots)i, u, (特葉), to take hold of, seize, use, of which te Gerund Motte (以菜) is equivalent to the word expressive of relation, with. Some, although incorrectly, also write モナヒ。モナフ etc. The predicate closing-form モナユ generally passes for a passive (to be used, to be of use to) perhaps from

the analogy of the form with the derivative Iyu (to get a shot), from I (to shoot). See § 89. 2.

On account of the important part, which this verb plays, some instances of its use follow here.

Koréwo suru monová tóků, koréwo mótsi-uru monová sidzůká narébá, sůnăvátsi sai tsůnéni tárů 1), if those which produce them, are quick, and those which use them are slow, riches will ever be sufficient. — Sono riyau-tanwo torite (\$\triangle\$ totte), sono tsiuwo tamini motsivu 2), he takes hold of the two extremes (of good and bad) and employs the Mean of them in his government of the people. — Gu niste midzůkára motsiuru kotowo konómu 3), being ignorant he is fond of using his own self (his own judgement). — Omae korewo nanini motsiiruka? or, more politely: Anáta korewo nanini O motsii nasárůka? for what purpose do you use this?

- 31. I, 射#。弋, shooting Iru, Ite, to shoot at, to hit. Matowo iru, to shoot at a mark. Toriwo iru, to shoot birds. Yumi-iru, to shoot with a bow. Passive, Iye, Iyu, to be shot. Iyu sisi (所 射 笑), = shot meat, venison.
- 32. Mukui, 報意, 1. reflecting; 2. retaliation, retribution. Muku)i, yu, yuru, to retaliate, to retribute; Negat. izu, izari, not to retribute. The recent ortho報う知う 有意 graphy ムクヒ。ムクフ is erroneous. Inuva onwo siri, ata wo mukuu, the dog knows favor and retaliates wrong.
- 33. Ab)i, iru (not uru), 浴光, = to shoot with bath-water, to splash, to squirt, to cast water up or out. Yu-abiru, to sprinkle anything with warm water, to wash it. Midzuwo abiru, 浴光, to squirt cold water. Since, as appears from this expression, Abiru has the word water for its object direct, it cannot mean to wash oneself or to bathe.
- 34. M)i, iru, $\not =$, to see. Imperat. *iyo*; Gerund *ite*; Pret. *itari*, \triangle *ita*; Fut. *in*, \triangle *iû*; Negat. *izu*, \triangle *inu*. Pass. *iye*, *iyu*, to appear; *irare*, to become visible. Compounded with mi, to see, are:
- 35. Urá-m)i, ite, u, uru, \mathfrak{A}_{ξ} , to see backwards, to be disgusted with... Fut. $im \check{u}$, in, $\Delta i\hat{u}$; Negat. izu.
 - 36. Kangám)i, iru, 鑑光 & 鑒。監, to look in the glass; to consider.
 - 37. Kaheri-m)i, iru, $\widehat{\mathbf{q}}_{\widehat{\mathbf{q}}}^{\underline{\nu}} \varepsilon$, to look back.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 19.

²⁾ Tschung-yung VI.

THE FOREGOING NONDEFLECTING VERBS IN I, ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.

Abi . No. 33.						
Deki 5.	Fotobi 26.	Kangámi. 36.	Korobi 23.	Motsii 30.	Ori 11.	Tsuki 6.
Fadzi 16.	Furubi 27.	Karabi 17.	Kovi 29.	Mukui 32.	Otsi 12.	Urami 35.
Fi 9.	I 31.	Kaherimi 37.	Kutsi 14.	Ni 10.	Sabi 19.	Wabi 20.
Fokorobi. 24.	Iki 4.	Ki 3. 28.	Mi 34.	Nobi 21.	Sii 1. 2.	

§ 100. I. Ni, 為 =。矣 =, = to be, is; Gerund Nite, Fut. Nan, is equivalent to our copula, to be, when in connection with a precedent substantive it implies, that that substantive is a definition, which is ascribed to the subject of the proposition. Derived from the Local termination ni and from i (= to be, exist, § 96) the verb Ni means really an existence or being in...

It is peculiar to the written language, and except the root-form, which is of use in coördination of propositions, only the Gerund Nite and the Future Nan (= will be) and Nanmeri or Nameri (= will have been) are to be met with, whereas for the further conjugation the continuative Nar)i, u, is used (§ 100. II).

Examples:

[Root-form.] Kinto ívű fitóva takämini, Ninto ívű fitóvá tsuriwo yókűsu 1), one Kin is (or was) an architect, one Nin knows (or knew) how to use the angle.

[Gerund.] Taneva mi-wake-gataki mono nite, ku-den oosi²), the seed (of silk-worms) is a difficult object to judge of, and there are many oral traditions respecting it.

[Future.] The forms .. ni nan and .. to nan, the first preceded by a substantive, the second, by the substantive form of a verb, have a potential force, ni-nan being a coupling of ni, to be, and nan, the Future of ni, nuru (§ 84), whereas to nan stands for koto nan, or, as some will, for tomo nan also. Compare p. 253. § 95. 2. 1). — Kono orikara mohaya mina mina utavi tavamure mote itonámů koto ni nan 3), from this time all (the work) shall be a matter (koto) which shall be done singing and playing. — Ezu to nan, they will not get. See page 259 line 1. — Kevino Dai Miyoo-zinva kono Ten-wauwo agame-mátsůru to nan 4), with regard to the great illustrious spirit of Kevi, this emperor will have been honored (as

Das Buch von Tausend Wörtern, aus dem Schinesischen, mit Berücksichtigung der Koreischen und Japanischen Uebersetzung ins Deutsche übertragen von Dr. J. HOFFMANN. 1840. N°. 925-928.

²⁾ Yoo-san fi-rok. § 5.

³⁾ Ibid.

⁴⁾ Nippon o dai itsiran. I. 10.

such). — Kono siu () ni omó-muki-keru to nan¹), he will have been converted to this sect. A mere emphatic suffix (= zo) is nan in expressions as kaze no otoni nan ari-keru, it has been the sound of the wind. On to kaya. See Addenda N°. V.

Remark. In RODRIGUES' Étém. § 54 lines 16, 17 the verb Ni here treated is mentioned with the words: "De, nite, site, Étant. — Ces trois mots s'emploient quelqefois au lieu du verbe substantif." — Site is the gerund of S)i, u, uru, to do. See § 103.

- II. Nar)i, u, $(\biguplus i)$, deflecting continuative verb, derived from Ni (= to be, § 100. I). It is immediately preceded by the definition, of what the subject consists, or what it is. Inflectional forms, the same as of Ari (§ 96): $N\'{a}ri$ is the root- and, though by exception, the closing-form also; $N\'{a}r\~{u}$, $\triangle Na$ (§ 12), the substantive form, which is also used as attributive. Gerund $N\'{a}r\~{u}$, $\triangle Natte$; Causat. Nareba; Fut. Naran, $\triangle Naroo$; Condit. $Nar\'{a}ba$, in the spoken language generally abbreviated to Nara (see § 76).
- 1. Nari is used as closing-form in: Tókŭ vá moto nári; Saivá sử é nari 2), virtue is the foundation; fortune the top. Fino fĭkári akiráka nári, the sunlight is clear.
- 2. Naru is substantive in: Katátsino madoka náruwá Tenni atári, anáno keta (or kaku) náruwá Tsini narqu, = that the shape (of the Chinese copper money) is round, answers to the heaven, that its opening is square, is an imitation of the earth. Ame náruva in-yauno ki nári (雨えせた者 陰り陽子之 氣 * 也方), that which is rain (= the rain) is an emanation of the tellural and solar principle.
- 3. Naru is attributive in: Mata ki-náru mayuwo tsŭkúrŭ káiko ári, there are also silkworms, which make yellow cocoons.
- 4. The attributive form Naru, $\triangle Na$, serves to derive adjectives from substantives and adverbs. (See § 12, page 115). Iyéno katavara naru hayási, a wood at the side of the house.
- The Gerund Narite, △ Nátte, is generally superseded by Nite and Ni-sité,
 (§ 100, I), probably to prevent a confusion with Narite, = giving sound, or with Narite, = Narete, = becoming, Kokóro-báse makoto nari. Kokóro-báse ma-

¹⁾ Nippon o dai itsiran. VII. 46 recto.

²⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 7.

kotoni sĭté, sĭkáu-sĭté notsí kokóro tadási¹), the will is truth. The will being true, the heart is then rectified.

- 6. The negative Naráz)i, u (北京丘), = not to be, is avoided and, as a rule, superseded by the analytical form ni-arázů or ni-aránů. Waga kotoni arázu, it is not my business. (See page 162. 8).
- 7. Nari, with its inflectional forms, particularly its closing-form, is in the written language, used periphrastically also, to lengthen or round off a period, and is preceded by the predicate verb proper in its substantive form. The spoken language of Yédo uses Mas)i, u for the same object (see § 101). Examples: Kono toki va kaiko ŭmáre-idzúru nári, = it is at that time that the silkworm comes out. Ide, Idzuru, to come out. Káiko samŭsá ni tavezu, si-suru nari, the silkworm cannot bear frost, it dies. Kūsáwo kūvásu naraba, if one gives grass for food. Anáta no hoo ni so-bokŭga arimásŭ nara, sore mó kai-mášoo ²), if you have sapan-wood, I will buy it too. Yásŭi nara, tori-mášoo ³), if it is cheap, I will take it. O kai nasaru nara, if you buy.

III. Nar)e, u, eru, uru ($\not D$), = to become, Lat. fieri, the passive of Ni, = to be (§ 100. I). As there is a homonymous Nar)e, u, eru, which being formed from another root Ni, means to be boiled, become tame, the form Nare, when it means to become, is not employed, but now generally represented by the active form Nar)i, u, and the immediately precedent, appositive definition, what or how any thing becomes, has to show by its inflectional termination to, ni or the adverbial ku (§ 9, page 111), that Nari is not used with the active signification of to be, but supersedes Nare, = to become, in stead of which Narar)e, u, eru, the passive of Nari, (to be) also is met with.

Observations concerning the use of Nari, as substitute for Nare, = to become.

1. The apposition, what any thing becomes, when it is some thing concrete, characterized by the suffix to.

Ame kórite yükí to nárů, the rain, congealing, becomes snow. — Ten-Tsino sekiin 4) atataka-náru tokiva ameto nari, samůki tokiva yukito naru (or náru nari) 5),
the accumulated tellural matter of the heavens and earth, when it is warm, be-

¹⁾ Dai Gaku. § 5.
2) Shopping-Dialogues, p. 40.
3) Ibid. p. 37.
4) 天文地,積丰陰江.
5) Kasira-gaki kin-moo dzu-i. I. 7. recto.

comes rain, when it is cold, it becomes snow. — Since they are coördinate, the former of the two propositions closes with the root-form (ame to) nari, the latter with the closing-form (yuki to) naru. So, likewise, in: Kumova san-sénno ki nari. Tsi-ki nobórite (nobótte) kumóto nári, Ten-ki kudárité ameto nárů nari¹), clouds are the exhalation of mountains and rivers. The exhalation of the earth rising becomes clouds, the exhalation of the heavens descending becomes rain, or, literally: is becoming rain. — Motsiiru tokinbá, nezůmi mo torá to nari; motsiizáru tokinbá, torámo nezůmi to naru, if one make use of it (if one attach value to it), even the mouse becomes a tiger; if one attach no value to it, then even the tiger becomes a mouse. — Fitóno kimito nátte vá, zinni órů²), if (a noble man) becomes a prince over others, he has humanity for foundation. — Kava wakarete fůtátsu to naru, the river divides into two branches. — Kore naravasi to nári-taru nari, this has become a custom.

2. The apposition, what something becomes, characterized by ni; a construction peculiar to the classic language.

Kunitsu kami om'na (onna-) ni narite (化[†] 為[†] 而[†]) mitsini mukaveri³), the god of that district became an old woman and came to meet (him) on the way. — Kova torini narerisi kami nari (此者於鳥所成之神也), this is a god changed into a bird. Narerisi, the attributive form of the preterit of Nari, (compare § 80 line 16). — Kova Fino kamino mi-kabaneni nari-maseru nari, this (kami) has become the corpse of the god of fire. If ni were superseded by no (thus kabaneno), an existence from the corpse would be meant, for the same writer says of another kami: Kova Fino kamino tsino nareru nari (血之所化也), this is a production from (has arisen from) the blood of the fire-god. — Nami kazémo tawoyakaní narite..., also waves and wind becoming softer... — Ken-go (堅之面) ni naru koto, becoming sound.

3. If the apposition, what something becomes, is an adjective in ki (§ 9. B. page 105), it stands in its adverbial form in ku.

Kara-kane fürúkŭ narite sono iro akaku naru nari, the Chinese metal (an alloy of copper and silver) growing old, his color becomes red. — Aritaru mono no náků naritaru koto, the annihilation of a thing that has been.

¹⁾ Kasira-gaki kin-moo dzu-i. I. 6. verso.

²⁾ Dai Gaku. III. 3.

³⁾ Nippon-ki. 14. 13 recto.

4. The material from which any thing becomes, is put in the Ablative or Genitive, characterized by yori or by no.

Midzuyori naru mono, something that arises from water. — Fino kamino tsino naréru nari, it has arisen from the blood of the god of fire, = it is an emanation from the blood....

5. The definition, by what a thing becomes, if it is a verb, is put in its root-form before Nari.

Kono simava sivo-awano kori-naréru nari 此鳴者ハ潮系沫を之ノ凝す成と也 this island is a clotting of the sea-foam.

6. Nari, employed impersonally (without a subject, as in Germ. es wird), and preceded only by an appositive definition what it is to be, characterized by ni or to.

Ni-gwats' ni nareba, = when it becomes (comes to) the second month. — Sidzukani naru, it grows calm. — Mayuni (or Mayuto) nareba, itowo torásĭmŭ, as cocoons become formed, one has the thread taken from them. — Notsíni iro-irono yamáito nárŭ, or naru-nari, afterwards arise all sorts of illness.

IV. 1. Nás)i, u, deflecting causative verb, = to cause to be; to make (生。成。為。化。作), from Ni, = to be (§ 100. I).

Fu-senwo nasŭ 1), to produce evil. — Fitóno zin-saiwo násŭ, originate cleverness in others, make others grow clever. — Koréwo násŭ bési, this must be done. — Koréwo násŭ koto nakáre, do this not! (§ 93. 2.). — Tenno naséru wasawai, calamities which heaven has caused. — A. wo B. to nasu, to make B. from A.

- 2. Nasáz)i, u; Nasazár)i, u, negat. not cause to be, not produce. Koreva nasazárŭ besĭ, = as to this, one ought not to do it, this may not be done.
 - 3. Nasás)i, u, causat., to make produce.
- 4. Nasásim)e, uru, cause that one makes be, give order that one makes, to bring about.
- 5. Nasár)e, u, uru, become produced or done, to happen. Imperative Nasáre, let there become done, sounding in the popular language of Nagasaki Nahári, Nahai and Naherri too 2).

The use, which courtesy makes of the passive Nasar)e, u, uru, will be illustrated in the Appendix to this Chapter § 112, page 312.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku. VI. 2.

²⁾ Observation by the late Mr. R. S. DE SAINT AULAIRE, interpreter for the Japanese language.

§ 101. Mas)i, u, (坐き), deflecting v., to abide, reside, originally *más)i, u, from *ma, abbreviated ma (間づ), = space, spot, or with reference to time, while, interval and s)i, u, to be active, do. Gerund Mas**te, by elision Maite also; Pret. Maser)i, u, Mas**k)i, eri, u; Mas**ta, Mas**ta; Fut. Masan, △ Masoo, pronounced as Mašoo (see page 209, line 12). Negat. △ Masénü, instead of Masánü (see page 248). In the epistolary style Masi is superseded by Moos)i, u, マラス, マラス, マラス, マラス, サス, マラス,

1. In the elevated style Masi supersedes the commoner Ar)i, u, to exist, and Or)i, u, dwell, and just as it, is preceded by the definition of place, where something is, in the Local. E. g. $Kova\ Oki\ tsu\ miyani\ másŭ\ kami\ nari$), this is a kami dwelling in the chapel of Oki.

- 2. Masi is used as an auxiliary verb, when an eminent subject is spoken of, and is preceded by the verb with which it is connected in the root-form (a) Present or b) Future), or also c) in the Gerund. Examples:
- a) Ama-terásŭ Kami, = the Kami enlightening all around, is also called Ama-terási-māsŭ Kami.

[..ni-másň.] A. va B. Kamino mi fava ni-másň, A. is the mother of the Kami B. 2. (Ni, Nite, to be, see § 100. I.) — Tamayori-fiméno mikotova Kamo no mi oyano Kami ni-másň 3), Her Highness Lady Tamayori is the Kami of the ancestors of Kamo.

[..nari-másŭ.] Konomi fasira no Kami va mina fitóri-gami nari-másĭte, mi-mi-wo kákŭsi-tamávĭki 4), these three gods were gods standing alone, and kept themselves hidden. — Kono fiméno gami vá N.. Kamini mi-ávi-maséri, this goddess has matched herself with the god N.. (See § 80). —

世 所 声 為シ 此 ラ Kono simavá yeto sěté umi-maseru nari, this island — the gods) have produced (it) as an after birth. — Maseru, the attributive form of Maseri, the preterit of Masi. (See § 80).

[.. masi-másŭ, = to be being.] Ten wau N.. no miyani masi-másŭ, the emperor is residing in the palace N.. — Buts zinva fitóno negavini yotte ka-go-(加力 護力 si-mási-masedomó, sonomi (其身) kavi-katani orosoka nareba, ikagava sen? 5) although Buddha and the spirits assist, complying with the wish of men: if, in

¹⁾ Kami-yono mi-sudzi.

²⁾ Ibid.

³⁾ Ibid.

⁴⁾ Ibid.

⁵⁾ Yoo-san fi-rok. H. 11 recto.

the rearing (of the silkworm) one is negligent, what will it avail? — Siyuk-ke (出美家^方, pron. šukke) no nozómi masi-masi-keredomo, tsitsi yurusi tamavázu, he wished to quit the paternal house (i. e. to become a monk), but the father did not grant it him.

- b) [..amasi.] By grafting masi on the form of the Future, ..am, ..an, by which amasi is gotten, a periphrastic future is formed. Sin)i, uru, to go away; Inótsi sinamasi 1), life will perish. See § 75. 5.
- c) Masi in connection with a gerund, used as well in the elevated style as in the polite conversational. Kono Kamiva Susano wo no mikoto tsikára wo avasete masi-tamavu nari²), this Kami wrestles with the moon-god Susano wo no mikoto, literally: he is (masi) measuring his strength etc. A Korewa yaburete imásŭ ³), this is torn. Fitó maruni ikŭra faitte imásŭ ká ¹), in a bale, how much goes in it? Fa-ir)i, u (), to enter.

There is no verb of which the polite spoken language makes a more frequent use, than *Masi*, and as it, grafted on the root-form of verb, generally has to express the inflectional forms, whereas the verb itself to which it is added remains unchanged, in its root-form, a knowledge of the conjugation of this auxiliary verb will be found without any other. The forms, which are in use in the spoken language, are limited to;

Másu, △ Mas', is, being.
Másŭka? is it?
Másŭna? is it not?
Mase, imperat. be!
Masite, △ Maste, gerund.
Masita, △ Masta, has been.

Maseba, as it is.

Masedomo, although it is.

Masiyoo, △ Mašoo, it will be.

Masu-nara, if it is.

Masénu, △ Maseng, it is not.

The forms maszru, maszreba, maszredomo, quoted by Mr. R. BROWN, Grammar XXIV, for mass, maseba, masedomo, I have neither found in any original Japanese writing, nor observed in conversations with Japanese. To what dialect do these forms belong?

From the Shopping-Dialogues, published by us, which particularly come under notice as a faithful representation of the polite language of Yédo, it is obvious that Masi is used as the final word of a proposition indifferently whether the speaker or the person spoken to or something else, is the subject of it. Thus it may,

¹⁾ Wagun Siwori, under Sinu,

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 24.

²⁾ Kami-yono mi-sudzi.

⁴⁾ Ibid. p. 34.

without the speaker's attaching any importance to it, be used only to round off the proposition, and express our »please" just as little as »have the honor."

Examples of the use of *Masi* in the spoken language, borrowed from the *Shopping-Dialogues*.

Kono fitowa dare de ari-masŭ ka, = this man — who is he? Watákŭsino tsuki-yai de ari-masŭ, he is my bosom-friend. Anáta no O na wa nani to ii-masŭ ká? your name — what is it called? Watákusino na wa ... to ii-másŭ, my name is called ... (S.-D. 19).

Sinawo miru-kotowa deki-másŭ ka? The seeing of your goods — can that take place? (deki-másŭ na? cannot it take place?) Deki-másŭ, it can take place. (S.-D. 23).

Anátawa too-šo no fitó de ari-masŭ ka? Are you an inhabitant of this place? Watákusiwá too-šo no mono de ari-masu, I am someone of this place. (S.-D. 20).

Kono nedanwa ikŭra si-másŭ ká? the price of it — to how much does it (amount)? (S.-D. 34).

Šoo-tsi si-masita, I have understood you. (S.-D. 41).

Miyoo-nitsi Go hen-too itási-mašoo, to morrow I will give you an answer. (S.-D. 39).

Watákŭsiwa korewo zonzi-masénŭ. I do not know it. (S.-D. 26). Firu-mayeniwa mairi-ye-masénŭ, before noon I cannot come. (S.-D. 17). Rok-kinni atari-másŭna? Is not that about six pounds? (S.-D. 8) 1).

Watáksa hanaháda Go dža-ma (声 差彰魔琴) de gozari-masén'ká? Am I not your disturber? Don't I disturb you? the ordinary question of anyone who unasked pays a visit.

§ 102. Samurav)i, u (侍ょう , 條。何侯), also Savurav)i, u, △ Sorai; closing-form Soro, 派名。 ひ名,= to be, is; in old-Jap. 佐 守養, Sa-moravi, from save, at the side, by, and moravi, guard. As noun Samurai (△ Sôrai) answers to our »guarde" and is the old general name for people on duty at the court of a prince.

Used as an auxiliary verb in the written language, particularly in the epistolary style, it qualifies the being as a serving being and humiliates the speaker. If, therefore, in a proposition, of which the predicate verb is *Soro*, no subject is named, the unnamed, who speaks or acts, is the speaker not the person spoken

¹⁾ Page 29 of the original edition: A new familiar phrases. Nagasaki 1859.

to, and we assign to those propositions the I or We as subject. With regard to the use of Soro the following is to be noticed:

- 1. The definition, what a thing is, when it is a noun, precedes in the Local, characterized by ni or nite, \triangle de (not do).
- 2. The definition, how a thing is, expressed by an adjective in ki, is placed in its adverbial form in ku. Kākuno gŏtóku soro (如方 斯多侯之), it is so²). Mausi agu-beku³) soro (可方申之上及侯之), = it is possible that I mention, = I shall make mention of it. Naku soro, = Nasi, there is not. Go-za soro (南草 座 "侯之), = △ Gozari-másň, it is (See § 96, p. 263, line 4). Sa-yoo nite go-za naku soro, it is not so.
- 3. Soro, as an auxiliary verb, expressive of humility, grafted on the rootform of a verb, is appropriate to the familiar, as well as the official form of

writing. — Fino sobani ori-sôrô, »I am by the fire" 4). 発力 希望 大ラ — Yorósiku On agári-sooráē, eat heartily 5), literally: (株子 側型 may your rise be good! — Kyoo-go mamórŭ-beki ka deo ai-tate-soro tame, to appoint the articles to be kept in future. — Bu-sata itási-soro tokóroni, while 立多 ケカ 後ェ I make no mention of it. — Deo-yákůwo tori-kivame (株子 可辛 soro, one draws up a treaty. — Sasi-yurusi-soro, I agree to.

4. In negations as Agezu-soro, I do not raise, — Motomezu-soro, I do not try to acquire, — Ivazu-soro, I do not say, in deviation from the rule, zu is used instead of zi, the root-form. If soro be grafted on the negative form of the spoken language, the forms Agénü+soro, Motoménü+soro, Ivánü+soro, are obtained, which forms may fuse into PFT a Agezoro, Motomezoro, Ivazoro, and are to be easily distinguished from the affirmative forms Age-soro, Motome-soro, Ivi-soro. Thus if in Rodriguez Élém. page 71 line 10, it is said with regard to the negative form: »cependant on dit aussi motome soro, wazou (sic) soro," then motome-zoro, ivazoro are meant.

¹⁾ Here the example cited in RODRIGUEZ Élém. page 71 line 12: "Christam nite soro," christianus sum, comes under notice.

²⁾ See page 109 nº. 70.

³⁾ Beki, see page 109 nº. 73.

⁴⁾ Nieuw verzameld Japansch en Hollandsch woordenb. door den vorst van Nakats. 1810. V. 55 recto.

⁵⁾ Ibid. II. 40 verso.

SYNOPSIS OF THE CONJUGATIONAL FORMS OF SAMURAI; Δ SOORAI, SORAI, TO BE.

	Present.			Preterit.	
Root-form	Sôrai,	△ Sorai,	Sôraisi. △ S	oraisi.	
47 PA 19-19	サウライ.	731.	S	ôraini.	
Closing-form	Sôrô,	» Soro,	Sôrai-ki. S	ôrainu. Sôra	itsu.
	サウラウ.	ソロ.	and the same of	△ Sore	tsu, ソロク
Subst.and Attr.	Sôrô,	» Soro.	Sôraisi. S	lôrainuru. Sôra	itsuru.
	Sôrô koto,	» Soro koto.	Sôrai si koto	. \triangle Sore	tsuru.
Gerund	Sôraite,	» Sorote,			
Six Cond I	い而.	小而.			
Local-, Causal-	Sôrayeba,	» Soroyeba.	Sôrai-sikaba	a. Sôra	i tsureba.
and Mod-form	候之水.		Sôrai-sini.	△ Soro	tsureba.
es Visitinges	Sôrôni,	» Soro ni woit	tewa	Sôra	i tsuruni.
and not probe		» Soro tokoro	oni.	△ Soro	tsuruni.
Concessive	Sôrayedomo	, » Soroyedom	o. Sôraisito iyo	edomo. Sôra	ai tsure domo
	Sôrôtoiyedo	mo » Soro to yuto	omo. Sôrai si kado	mo. Soro	tsuredomo
Lautone	Sôrô tomo,	» Soro tomo.			
	Sôrayeba to	te.			
Imperative	Sôraye.				
F. St. William 752	Sôraye. Sôraye kasi	, » Soroye kasi	. Sôrai si mone	o wo.	
Early Total	A DOLLAR TO U		. Sôrai si mone	0 WO.	Fut. preterit.
Optative	Sôraye kasi		Periphrastic Future.	o wo. Sôrô beku	Fut. preterit.
Optative	Sôraye kasi		Periphrastic Future.		
Optative	Sôraye kasi . Future. Sôravan		Periphrastic Future.		
Optative	Sôraye kasi, Future. Sôravan サウチハン	[Soravanzi, Soro	Periphrastic Future.		
Optative	Sôraye kasi, Future. Sôravan サウチハン	[Soravanzi, Soro	Periphrastic Future. ovanzi.] △ Sorôzu	Sôrô beku	
Optative	Sôraye kasi, Future. Sôravan サウチハン	[Soravanzi, Soro	Periphrastic Future. ovanzi.] △ Sorôzu	Sôrô beku Soro besi	
Optative Root-form	Sôraye kasi Future. Sôravan サラシハン △ Sorovan	[Soravanzi, Soro	Periphrastic Future. ovanzi.] △ Sorôzu	Sôrô beku Soro besi Soro beku-	
Optative Root-form	Sôraye kasi Future. Sôravan サラシハン △ Sorovan	[Soravanzi, Soro Sôravanzu サウラハンズ	Periphrastic Future. ovanzi.] \(\triangle \text{Sorôzu} \)	Sôrô beku Soro besi Soro beku- soro	
Optative Root-form	Sôraye kasi, Future. Sôravan サウラハン △ Sorovan	[Soravanzi, Soro Sôravanzu サウラハンズ	Periphrastic Future. ovanzi.] \(\triangle \text{Sorôzu} \)	Sôrô beku Soro besi Soro beku- soro	
Optative Root-form	Sôraye kasi, Future. Sôravan サウラハン △ Sorovan	[Soravanzi, Soro Sôravanzu サウラハンズ Soravanzuru	Periphrastic Future. Dvanzi.] A Sorôzu A Sorovan zuru A Sorôzuru	Sôrô beku Soro beku- soro Soro beki	
Imperative Optative Root-form Closing-form Subst.and Attr.	Future. Sôravan サウラハン △ Sorovan Sorovan koto	[Soravanzi, Soro Sôravanzu サウラハンズ Soravanzuru	Periphrastic Future. Dvanzi.] A Sorôzu A Sorôzu Sorôzuru A Sorôzuru	Sôrô beku Soro beku- soro Soro beki- koto	

te jella je	Future.	Periph	rastic Future.	Fut. preterit
Concessive		Soravan zurumo	∆ Sorô zurumo	Soro beke-
		Soravan zuredomo	\triangle Sorovan zuredomo	redomo
		and the second	\triangle Sorô zuredomo	
Conditional	Sôravaba △ Soro-	AND THE RESIDENCE		
www.mis	vaba			i sale ningh
	Sôravan ni woitewa			witante
men in	△ Sôrô ni woitewa	dest in misself		and the same
Optative	Soravan monowo		大力とはよりなる情報	A A SECTION
	△ Sorovan monowo	The Sweet Holden		i coall

NEGATIVE CONJUGATION.

	Present.	Future.
Root-form	[Sôravazi], not to be.	
Closing-form	Sôravazu 1), A Sorovazu, it is not.	Sôro maziku soro, will not be.
		Sôrô koto maziku soro.
Subst.and Attr.	Sôravazu, \(\triangle \text{Sorovazu}, \) the not being,	
	not being.	
Substant., iso-	Sôravazuva, the not being.	
lated.		
Gerund	Sôravade, \(\triangle \text{Sorovade.} \)	
	Sôravazusite, not being.	
Time defining	Sôravaneba, when it is not.	
Local.		
Concessive	Sôravane domo, though it is not.	Sôrô mai keredomo, though it
		might not have been.
Conditional	Sôravazunba } if it is not.	
	Sôravazuba) " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "	I SOUR DETAIL SIM
	Maziku sôravaba.	Maziku sôravaba, if it should
		not be.

¹⁾ The regular negative form of the deflecting verb Sóravi is Sóravazu. But the spoken language uses for it, Sórovazu, and Sorovazu which are more easily pronounced, on account of the rule, that the vowels of the subordinate syllables adapt themselves to that of the principal syllable.

§ 103. S)i, u, uru, (為シスス, vulg. 仕), to do. As we have already elucidated this verb, so far as it is used in the formation of causative verbs, in § 87, it is here noticed only in its other relations.

- I. The root-form Si occurs in compound nouns,
- 1. as chief word, indicating the person, who is employed with something, in which case it is equivalent to our termination er of tiler, potter etc. Kǎvǎrá-si, = a brick-maker; Mono-si, = Lat. opifex, maker; I-mono-si, metal founder; Kǎsu-si, medicine-maker, physician; Nu-si (contracted from Nuru-si), japanner, Si being generally explained by 角形シ, master; or
- 2. as definitive member before the chief word, as in Si-goto, occupation, where it is generally indicated phonetically by 仕之, and even by 支之, with the signification of which characters the pure Japanese root, Si, has nothing to do. Thus Si-goto is met with under the form of 仕之事子. Soreva idzūre ga si-waza ka? (夫、誰,仕之業异,), whose business is this? 仕之樣子,Si-yoo, manner of doing; 仕之法分,Si-hoo, manner of acting. Si-kata, 仕之方发,manner of handling, also 仕之形发,form of doing, gestures; $Teniteno\ si$ -kata, gesticulations with the hands. Si-te, 仕之手之,= work-hand, the hand, the person that accomplishes a thing.
- 3. The root-form Si further occurs in compound verbs as an adverbial prefix, to imply that the action expressed by the verb, is done, as a definite act, and, in itself, includes all the activity of the subject. Examples:

Funéwo das)i, u, to clear a ship (compare page 236 n°. 18). — Funéno dasi-ba, = the place for the clearing of ships. — 其〉船子/仕シ出る場べノ港デノ名[†], Sono funé no si-dasi-bano mináto no na, the name of the port at which this ship is, or has been, actually cleared. — Ir)e, uru, to take in, to take up; Si-ire, 仕入, the taking in, as exercising a calling, the buying in, purchase of merchandise. — 仕シ居司, Si-or)i, u, to be busy; Mono-si-or)i, u, to keep oneself busy with one thing or another. — Nippon ni oĭte yebumi no si-mairi (仕シ参司) va sūdeni fai- (廢口) seri¹), in Japan coming up to the image-trampling has been already abolished.

仕シ 打字, Si-útsi, the deed. 仕シ 拂裳, Si-farái, the payment.

¹⁾ Franco-Japanese Treaty of the 9 Oct. 1858, Art. IV, al. 2.

仕シ 立等, Si-tate, erection, making. 仕シ 遂庁, Si-tóge, perfect accomplish. 仕シ 直支, Si-naosi, polish.

II. Acting as verb, S)i, u is nondeflecting. On account of the important part it plays, it is advisable that the explanation of its use should be preceded by a

SYNOPSIS OF THE CONJUGATIONAL FORMS.

	Nondeflecting.	Deflecti	ng.
		Continuative.	
Root-form	SI, 爲 >, to do.	[Sur)i, u, not in use.]	Si, form-word of causative
Imperative	Seyo, Sero, Sei, Sesai, do.		verbs, as Nasi, to make
Closing-form	Su.	Sŭru.	be; seyo, imperative;
Subst. and Attr.		Suru, doing.	, closing-form.
Terminative		Suruni, to doing.	
Local		Suruni, by doing.	A WELLER
		Suruni va.	
	Seba.	Sure ba.	seba.
Concessive		Suredomo, \ if one	
		Sure domo, if one do.	
Gerund	Sĭté.		sité, doing.
	×	PRETERIT.	
Closing-form	Seri, did.	Sĭ-tari, △ Sita, has done.	sĭtar)i, u, △sĭta,
		The second of the last	has done.
Substant. and	Seru, the having done.	Sĭ-taru, △ Sita.	
Attributive.			
	Sesi.	A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR	
	Sesini, when one did.	THE RESERVE OF THE PARTY OF THE	100
	Sesinari, has done.	my or the track has	No company
	Sesikaba, as he did.	The state of the state of	all the Standard or the
	this thickness a linear	FUTURE.	
	Sen, YV, shall do;	△ Seôz)u, uru, シヤウ)ズ, ズル.	
	△ Seô, 為美.	ズル.	su-be)ki, ku, si,
	Senzu.	to the stands of the	(p. 109 nº. 73. § 104).
		NEGATIVE.	
Root-form	Sezi, & &, not to do.	Sezari, contin.	M. Marie San Control

	Nondeflecting.	Deflect	ing.
Closing, Subst.	Sezu, △ Senu.	Sezaru.	They are the
and Attrib.			
Gerund	Sezusĭte, △ Sede,	allong attack to the work	
	、不予為せ.		AST CASE // STANK
	THE RESERVE THE PARTY OF	CAUSATIVE.	
			sas)e, 户 為+,
	a Fill of the same		have donesas)u,
			sas)ete, etari, △ eta,
			Fut. en, △ eô. Con-
			tin. uru, ureba, ure-
			domo. Neg. Sasenu.
	Se-sim)e (使美), u, uru,		sasim)e, nondeflect.,
	charge to do; Ger. Se-	The state of the s	let do, have done.
	sı̃mete, contr. Sesı́te;		
	Fut. Sesimen.		
		PASSIVE.	
	Serar)e, u, uru, nondeft.		sar)e, u, uru, be-
	become done.		come done.
			saserar)e, u, uru,
			冷寫, order is
			given to do.
	Serarezu, A Serarenu,		
	negative, not to be done.		

Compounds with Si.

1. S)i, u, uru (to do) is used to derive verbs from Japanese nouns; e. g.:

Kari, hunting; Kari-s)i, u, uru, to practise hunting; Firano farani kari-su,
people hunt on the plain of Firano. — Tada fi-kŭréni karisuru koto, hunting
alone in the evening. — Yome-iri, = the entrance as a (married) woman, marriage.

Onnava, — imáda yome-iri-sezaruwo dzyo (女子) to ivi, sădeni yome-iri-si taru
wo fu (村子) to ivu. Yome-iri-sitemó fu-bo yonde musumé to ivă¹), = as to the
woman, she who has not yet made her entrance as wife, is called dzyo (maid),

¹⁾ Kasira-gaki kin-moo dzu-i. IV. 2. r.

she who has already made her entrance as wife, is called fu. Also if she has been married, her parents say, calling her musume (daughter). — In the same way, by means of si, verbs are derived from:

Yome-tori, to take to wife. — Kami-agari, the rising as Kami, the decease of a prince. - Katsi-watári, a ford. - Kavawo katsi-watári-suru, the fording of a river. — A Mumano kasiraga figási-su, the horse's head faces the east. — Ono-ono nisiya figasi-su, each turns either to the west or to the east, every one does this or that. - Kono katani mukaite tane-maki sezu, = towards that side the sowing is not done. - Mainai serarézň, he is not bribed. - Kono nedanwa îkŭra si-másŭ ka (or ari-másŭ ka, or kakári-másŭ ka)? 1), what is the price of it? - Go žu me si-másŭ, it is five taels. - Sono kata wa doo si-másŭ ka? 2), its form - how is it?

2. a. Chinese words also are verbalized by means of si (11); their number is legion. Examples:

來ラシ Rai-si, to come. 來之朝京, Rai-teo-si, to come to court. 對多少, Tai-si, to be opposite to. 拜沿头 Fai-si, to greet, salute. 腐パシ Fai-si, to abolish. 労ラシ Rau-si, to weary. 合とシ Rei-si, to order. 死シシ Si-si, to die. 餌ジシ Zi-si, to allure with bait (餌 $^{\circ}$). — Zi-serar)e, u, uru, allured with bait (bribed).

在节留学》, Zai-riu-si, to keep abode. 居事留以上, Kiyo-riu-si, » » 住予シ, Dziu-si, to dwell. 在节在节》,Dziu-sai-si,

4 " Za-si, to sit. 通グシ Tsuu-si, to go through...

旅引行为シ, Rio-koo-si, to travel.

用录意了, You-i-si, to provide...

用录心之之, You-sin-si, to be attentive.

敵主シ Teki-si, to be hostile.

着ない Tšakŭ-si, to arrive.

着 岸 5 , Tšáku-gan-si, to land.

達多シ Tas-si, to make known.

Tes-si, to penetrate; un-徹すシ derstand.

Gas-si, to fit, agree. 合がシ

熱すシ Nes-si, to be hot.

失シシ Sis-si, to lose.

Bos-si, to sink.

b. Of the thus verbalised Chinese words some, by way of exception, have, z)i, u, uru (E, X, X w) instead of s)i, u, uru. The impure z resulting from preceding n, occurs in:

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, page 3. 34.

²⁾ Ibid. p. 11.

接了ジ, An-zi, to remark (to distinguish from 安しジ, An-zi to bring to rest.)

散步, San-zi, to scatter.

御『覽克』, Go-ran-zi, to please to see. 轉克』, Ten-zi, 1. to make revolve;

2. to transform.

合多戦さら、Kassén-zi, to be hand to hand (tekito, with the enemy).

吟ぎジ, Gin-zi, to sing.

相关:, Son-zi, to suffer damage. Son-zas)i, u, to injure.

命学》,Mei-zi, to give order.

感力 $_{\mathcal{S}}$, Kan-zi, to affect, stir, excite the feelings.

南代之, Ken-zi, to offer.

現だジ, Gen-zi, to appear.

减气沙, Gen-zi, to lessen, to diminish.

存ごシ, Zon-zi, 1. to maintain;

2. vulgo, to think.

ந்திற்ற, Ron-zi, to discourse.

相节論是シ, Soo-ron-zi, to converse.

生美少, Šoo-zi, to come forth, grow; to produce.

载分少, Foo-zi, to reward.

應灵ジ, Oo-zi, to answer to.

Examples of the use of Chinese-Japanese verbs in si.

Ken-bun (見き聞き) suru kotowo kakitomeru, to note down what one sees and hears. If suru be superseded by seru, it means to note down what one has seen and heard (remarked). — Fino tooki tšikákiwo ron-zu, = people speak of the far and near (of the distance) of the sun from the earth. — △ 本 知 ナンマシス, Šoo-tsi-si-mas'ta, I have understood! = very well. — △ 左 次 秋 · シマシャウ, Soo-si-mašoo, I shall do it, = I shall satisfy your desire. — Fisásiku süe-okite fanasazareba, ási tsukárete yamaiwo siyau (生文)zu, if the hunting falcon be kept long perched, and not let fly abroad, his feet get exhausted by weariness, and he grows sick. — Sore takava tsűnéni nessuru (執文ル), yűeni sei-midzuwo konómu mono nari, the falcon, because he is continually hot, is very fond of fresh water. — 庶文民之 今 シンテ カヒコラ カハシメ タマフ, charging all people (the emperor) has silkworms bred. — Füransi-kókűno fitó Nipponni kio-riu-(居責留場) seva (read seba), sono fitó-bitówo Nipponni ötté nengoroni átsűkávu besi¹), if the French remain in Japan, that people (they) will be treated well.

Remark. If the accomplishing of a thing, instead of the being occupied with it, is to be expressed, then itas)i, \mathbf{u} (\mathbf{x}), to accomplish, is used instead of si, both in Japanese and Chinese words. Itasi has arisen by syncope from itarasi, which is the causative form of itar)i, u (\mathbf{x}), = has gone (whither he would go) and as such signifies the accomplishment of an action. For the

¹⁾ Franco-Japanese Treaty of 1858. Art. I. al. 2. Ibid. IX. 2. XV. 1, 2.

rest, the spoken language seems to use *itási also, merely for euphony, as being more harmonious than the simple si. Examples:

○日本人佛蘭西 ハゴシテ出奔ィタシ カッギン カータン カータン カータン カータン カータン

Nippon-zin Fransi-zin yorino šaku-zaiwo faravázŭsité šuppon itásitárŭ tokiva, Nippon yakunin gin-mi itási, farái-kata itasásu besi¹), when Japanese, without having paid their debts to Frenchmen, have taken flight, the Japanese authorities shall make inquiry and make them pay.

pay.

A 商 Šoo-bai-itasu koto kurusikarázu 2), trade it not unwelcome, —

苦 賣 it will not be thwarted.

 \triangle Miyoo-nitsi Go hen-too itási-mašoo 3), to morrow I shall give you an answer. — \triangle Go soo-dan tasi- (tasi = ĭtási) mašoo, I shall speak with you about it. — \triangle Sayoo itási mašoo, I shall do so. — \triangle O-itoma itasi-mašoo, I shall take leave of you 4).

III. ON THE GOVERNMENT OF S)i, u, uru, TO DO.

When this verb has an object direct, in the accusative, before it, it is transitive, but when not, it is intransitive.

1. [.. wo su.] The definition: what a person does, stands, as object direct, in the accusative. Examples:

Kare va nani wo sitaru ka? what has he done? — Ware kore wo sezu (吾こ中、 東本 文章 矣)5), I do not do this, = this is not my business. — Zin wo suru mono (為え仁草者5), one who practises humanity. — Tedzükára kůwa wo torite (totte) ko-gaiwo si-tamavu, = with her own hands (the princess) plucks the mulberry leaf, and practises the nourishment of children (the breeding of silkworms).

¹⁾ Franco-Jap. Treaty. Art. XVIII. al. 1.

²⁾ Ibid. VIII. 1.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 39.

⁴⁾ Ibid. p. 41.

⁵⁾ Tschung-yung. XI.

⁶⁾ The z in nzi — I have observed it myself, — is so softly pronounced, that one thinks he hears nyi instead of nzi therefore even RODRIGUEZ in Étém. § 29 has adopted the written-form ii.

Examples:

a. Si, with an intransitive signification. — I-nakárani site (or nite) itási tsu besi (可坐而致也), one may do it while sitting. — Fa, roku-sai ni sǐté karu, the leaf, being in the sixth year, dries up. — Zai-wi ku-nen nisĭté (or nite) Ten-wau fou-zu, = being in the ninth year of his reign, the Emperor dies. — Nomi yotsu kado nisšté, suë togaru, the fruit is quadrangular, and pointed at the top. - Kono simava mi fitotsu nisité omo yotsu ari, omo gotoni na ari, this island (Sikok, or the four countries) is one and has four faces; these have each a name. — Tatsi-tokóroni sěté mátsi tsu bési, 可立而待也, standing on the point of departure he must wait. — Saki, the point. Sakin'zuru tokin'va (= sakini suru tokiniva) fitówo sei-su, when one is at the point (is the chief), one leads the others (先 則 制 人). — A Fito fakoni nangin irini si-masŭ ka? 1), how many pounds shall I put in a chest? Fyak-kin irini nasáre, put a hundred pounds in. - Roono katawa doo si-masaka? the shape of the wax - how is it? - Atsukavini sureba, musi tsiisaku sité, mayumo tsiisakiwo tsukuru 2), by overfeeding, the (silk)worm will remain small and also make small cocoons. — Sika va mamano gotóku ni sité seo () nari, the stag is much like a horse and is smaller. - Yama-inu va iro ki ni sité, fou siroku, wo nagasi 3), the wild dog, being yellow of color has white cheeks and a long tail.

b. Si, with a transitive signification. - Makoto, truth. Sono kokóro basewó makotonisu, he makes his meaning truth. — Tókāwo akirákani su, he lets virtue shine. — Motowo fokáni síté, súewo útsí-ni surebá, tamiwo arasovásiméte, úbávu koto wó fodokósa 4), if one excludes the root (virtue) and includes the top (fortune), one teaches the people strife, and rapacity. — Futokóro, bosom, heart. Korewo futokóroni si-tsubesi, one ought to take this to heart. — Omote, face, front side. Nisiva gavawo omoteni su, on the west one has a river in front. — Tairáka, level, smooth. Ten-ka wo tairaka ni sŭrŭ koto va sono kuni wo osámuru ni ári 5) (平天下在治其國), the making the whole empire peaceful and happy depends on the government of his state. - Meateni suru, to set for aim. -Te-honni suru, set for example. — Dai-setsu (大切) ni suru, to consider im-

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 11.

²⁾ The inversion: mayumo tsiisaki instead of tsiisaki mayumo serves to bring ont tsiisaki (small) with emphasis.

³⁾ Kasira-gaki. XII. 5 r. 4) Dai Gaku. X. 8.

⁵⁾ Ibid., X. 1.

portant. — Atataka ni suru, to warm. — Komaka ni suru, to make fine. — Tsumabiraka ni suru, to make clear. — Karo, light (of weight); Karonzi, to consider lightly, despise. — Omo, heavy, weighty; Omonzi, to consider weighty. To be distinguished from Karokusi, Omokusi, to make light, to make weighty. — Sora, empty; Soranzi, to learn by heart. — Ama, mead, sugar juice; Amani su, or aman'zu, to think zweet. — Fakowa soyeni site kudasare 1), please to give the chest into the bargain. — Oki-tokei wo fitótsű soyeni si-mašoo 2), I will give a time-piece into the bargain.

3. [..ku su, ..u su.] If the definition of quality is an adjective in ki (§ 9), e. g. Nagaki, lang, its adverbial form in ku (or merely u) is used to unite with s)i, u, uru, and the so formed compound (Nagaku-si), as long as there is no object direct, expresses the mere carrying out of the idea of the adverb, and, as it appears from the examples quoted, is equivalent to the predicative closing-form Nagasi, = is long; if however an object direct is involved, then the verb s)i, u has its transitive signification (the causative form se-su = se-simu seems to lurk behind it). In the example quoted at page 269: Tsuriwo yókŭ-su, he handles the angle well, yoku is a modal definition of the transitively used s)i, u, to do, handle.

a. With an intransitive signification .. ku s)i, u, uru appear in propositions as:
Wo nagáku sǐté tooku tobu koto atavázu s), he (a certain bird) has a long tail
and cannot fly far. — Da va ... kubi nagákǔ sǐté, ási takasi, the camel has a
long neck and high legs. — Sono ke un-kau (温度) 早度) ni sǐte, kitsüne no ke
yori mo atataka nari; nátsūvá suzusi 4), his hair is warm and close, and warmer
even than the hair of the fox; in summer it is cool. — [Tsīkáki, near.] A.. va
B.. ve tsīkákǔsīte C.. to koto-nari, A.. comes near B.. and differs from C.. —
[Usuki, thin. Karoki, light.] △ Kutsībīru usūvu-sīte, kotoba karóu-su, if the lips are
thin (if the tong is smooth), the word weighs light. — [Araki, rough, wild;
Arakǔ su, act wildly, behave wildly.] Ten-wau ūmáre-tsuki aráku-sīte fitowo korósu
kotowo konómǔ, the emperor, fierce by nature, was fond of killing men. — [Gotóki,
like.] Kaku no gotoku sureba, when people are acting in this way. — [Yasŭki,
easy.] Nokorázu O kai nasáru nará, yasūku-sīte age-mašoo 5), if you buy the whole

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 12.

³⁾ Kasira-gaki XIII. 11. r.

⁵⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 36.

³⁾ Ibid. p. 39.

⁴⁾ Ibid. XII. 9. r.

stock, I will let you have it cheap. — [Naki, not existing. Naku su (ムナラス。 ナプス pron. naosu), 1. to be wanting, to fail, 2. to think paltry (of no value).] 1. Yakusu koto nakusite, Kamino tásüké ari, medical treatment failing there is God's help. 2. △ Fitó wo nandomo nausu, he considers others as of no value.

b. With a transitive signification .. ku s)i, u, uru is found in propositions as: [Takaki, high.] Me-atewo takaku suru, = to exalt one's aim, not to give up one's intention. — [Fikiki, low, humble.] Mewo fikiku site utsubukite miru, to cast the eyes downward and look below. — [Tadásški, right, upright.] Sono mi wo osamento hóssuru monova mádzů sono kokóro wo tadásiu-su Sono kokóro wo tadasiusen to hóssuru mono va mádzu sono kokórobase wo makóto ni su 1), who ever will govern himself, first makes his heart right. He who will make his heart right, first aims at truth. — [Mattaki, whole; mattaku- (mattau, mattou, \triangle mattoo) su, to make whole, to perfect.] Zinwo suru to va sono kokórono tóků wo mattou suru yuën nari (為仁者所以全其心之德也), the practice of humanity is the means to perfect the heart. — [Toki, quick, ready.] Kore wo toku su, he does it quickly. — [Atsūki, hot.] Atsuku or Atsuu suru, to make hot. — [Suzusiki, cool.] To wo firaki suzusiku su besi, you may open the door and let in the coolness. — [Fitósiki, = one-ish, of one sort.] Koku ka wo fitósiu su, he makes the country and people conforming to one mode. — [Onáziki, identical.] Tomo ni tsiu-kókŭ wo onáziu sézu, not having the middle kingdom in common. Tsiri wo onáziku sénu, not having the dust in common, not staying at the same place with anyone. — [Fukáki, deep; Katáki, hard, fast.] Ne wo fukausi, fozowo katáku suru kŭsá nari, = it is a plant, that shoots its roots deep, and makes its stalk hard.

4. [to su.] The appositive definition, what a thing is made, whether in fact or in imagination merely, is characterized by the particle to, = to, (see page 70. V). If an object direct is mentioned in the proposition, the apposition has reference to the object and si has the transitive signification of make (to), take for, consider as; on the other hand if no direct object is mentioned in the proposition, the apposition has reference to the subject, and si has the intransitive signification of: to be actually.

a. Appositions referring to the subject we have in sentences, like:

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, IV, 4.

Fito to site kau nakivá (or naki monova) tsiku-šauni kótonárazu, he who is a human being and is destitute of filial love, does not differ from the brute; or: he who as a human being is devoid of etc. — Avadsino simavá ena to site umi maseru nari, the island of Avadsi arose (at the creation of the Japanese archipelago) as an afterbirth. — Fosi otsúru to ivuva fosini arázu. Fitono meni fosi to suru nomi, concerning the assertion, that stars fall, they are not stars. Only for the eyes of men do they appear as stars.

b. Appositions referring to the object we have in sentences as:

Onoreni sikazáru monowó tomotó suru koto nakáre, it may not be that (you) make any one, who is not as your self (who is your inferior), (to) your fellow. — Kono fauwo dai-itsito subesi, this rule must be considered as the first (the principal). — Fauto su (文章 大学 h), make (to) a rule, consider as a rule. = Te-fonni su; meateni su.

Remark. 1. The object that is taken for anything, is found as object still governed by a separate active verb, which most frequently gives the way in which it is made. — Tenwau ... fimewo tatete kisagi to si-tamavu, the emperor appoints Lady ... and makes her (to) consort. = the emperor takes Lady ... for consort.

Remark. 2. Much used is the formula: A.. wo motte B.. to su, he makes A.. to B.., considers A.. as B.., has A.. to B. — Waukiwo motte tsitsi to si, Buwauwo motte ko to su'), he has Wang-ki for father and Wu-wang for son. — Kuniva ri wo motte ri to sézü; giwo motte ri to su'), a government does not make advantage pass as advantage; it considers justice as advantage. Or: a government does not find its advantage in advantage; it finds its advantage in justice. — Rito suruni giwo mottesu'), to use justice as being advantageous. — Yen-sinwo miruniva, sono siyu to suru tokóro wo mottesu'), to judge of a foreign minister, people take as stand him 读述 读述 whom he makes his host (him in whose house he stays).

Remark. 3. By the omission of site, instead of .. to site, we meet with to alone. — Yuru yuru, loitering, hesitating, by degrees. — Yuru yuru ayumi, to go step for step (slowly). — Yuru yuru to suru, slowly, by degrees to do. — Yuru yuru

¹⁾ Tschung-yung. XVIII.

²⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 22.

³⁾ Ibid. IV. 5.

⁴⁾ Meng-tsze, Lib. II. Cap. III. § 45.

to site (or Yuru yuru to) fappoo (八方) ve firogu, it spreads gradually in all directions.

5. If the appositive definition, what any thing is made (to), and that in imagination, is a verb with or without complement, it is put in the closing-form followed by to s)i, u, uru etc.

Kakuru koto nasi, there is no want. — 為之 無美 如 7, Kakuru koto nasi to su, people think, that nothing is wanting. — △ Kore yori néwa nai, there is nothing that surpasses that. Kore yori néwa nai to su, people consider, that nothing surpasses it. — Itari, come to.. Itareri, is come to.. Ware itareri to su, I think to have come to the extreme, to have reached the topmost. — Faru-akiva kagewo tattomi, fuyuva finatawo yosi to su, in the warm season (spring—autumn) the shadow is prized; in winter the sunshine is thought the best. — Tada fikureni kari-suruwo yosi to suru nari, people think it for the best, to hunt only in the evening.

6. [en-, in-, an-to su.] The definition expressed by a verb with or without complement, to what purpose a person is occupied, is put in the Future followed by to s)i, u, uru; whence the forms: ..en to su, ..in to su, ..an to su $(\triangle e\hat{o}$ -, iu-, oo to su), = he is busy about.., he is about to.., he tries to..; Lat. in eo est ut, id agit ut. These forms are equivalent to the Lat. verbum meditativum (moriturio), and, as it, express an effort towards something.

Kassenni yŭkánto su, he is about to go to battle. — Yebisŭ domo no ni fiwo fanátte mikotowo yaki-korosanto suru toki, mikoto no faki-tamaveru fou-ken midsu-kara nukete, moye-kitaru kusawo nagi-faravu, when the savages setting the field on fire tried to burn the prince, the sword which the prince had girded on, unsheathed itself and mowed the burning grass away.

7. [.. to sité, = .. to te.] Instead of the gerund to site the syncopated to te is often met with. Comp. § 130. 48. Examples:

Kono aidani, Fayatomo sedo to 1) te, sivo fayási, between them (between the two banks) there is the strait of Hayatomo, and the stream is rapid. — Kono foká Koorai taka, Yezo-taka, Riu-kiu-taka to te, kuni-gunini ari, moreover there are, since the falcon of Corea, that of Yezo, that of Liu-kiu are met with, (falcons) in every country. — Kono sekiwo Fotokeni nitari to te, Buts-zau-séki tomo ivű, people

¹⁾ In our opinion, to estimate to, rightly as it is here used, what has been said at page 70, V, respecting Fito to va, must be observed.

call that rock, because they think that it resembles a Buddha, the Buddha-image-rock. — Inéwo tsumide (△ tsunde), siro to site ... tatakavu, he heaps up rice-balls to a fort and fights. — Yase-kiwo niwakani sei-teu- (成文表文) se-simento to koyasiwo tsuyoku-su bekarázu, to make meagre trunks of trees grow, they may not be too strongly manured. —

人シュ 日ラ 吳ェ Go kokuno wauva Nipponwo semen to te su-manno nin 數至 數ス 本式 図ラ ziyuwo watásu, the king of the country U, intending to make war on Japan, sends a force of many tens

§ 104. Bési, may, can, shall; Béki, adjective, Béki, adverb possibly, expressed in Chinese by 可。當。應。須。合。好。請。

I. Derivation and signification.

Be (~), after the old form of writing ムベ, mǔbé (pronounced as mbé), also ウベ, ǔbé and ウメ, ǔmé (pronounced as mmé), is in Japanese dictionaries, called a word of assent 1) and made equal to the Chinese 首 i².

If, although this definition of the idea is practically sufficient, an investigation of the origin of Be, is still required, it must be sought in the exclamation m, which, as our hem, implies that a person understands something, and in he, = our yes. The original form, m-he, according to the rule of euphony passes, in pronunciation, into mbe, expressed in writing by \sim , for which we write be, whereas in the month of a Yédo gentleman it sounds clearly as mbe.

The old form $L \sim$, $M \tilde{u} b e$, occurs as a substantive with the signification of consent still, in expressions as $M \tilde{u} b e' nari$ ($\mathbf{H} \stackrel{\wedge}{\sim}_{T} \eta$), it is granted, = one has the liberty to do, one may do; $M \tilde{u} b e' nar \acute{a} z \check{u}$, it is not allowed, it may not be; whereas \sim (be), occurs as a substantive in the every day expression Su-be nari, it is possible, Su-be nasi, it is impossible.

The forms derived from the root Be: the predicative bést, the attributive adjective, béki, and the adverb, békü, thus include the idea of may, and of can, i. e. no external cause preventing the doing of a thing. A command to do

¹⁾ 古ハ 諾ヲウメウベトカケリ, i. e.: Formerly the Chinese word 諾 (= consent) was translated with Ube or Ume.

^{2) 🛱} i "Suitable, proper, fit, becoming; ought, should." MEDHURST, Chinese and English Dictionary.

something is not included in it, and we do injustice to the politeness of the Japanese, if we give to this word the signification of our »one must, you must, you shall." The idea of consent on the one side does not include that of obligation on the other (must), and can, at its strongest, only contain an inducement.

II. Be belongs to the root-words treated in § 9. I. B., of which the so called adjectives in ki are derived. In accordance with the rule given there, Besi and Beki in the old-Japanese and in the popular language are superseded by the syncopated form Bei (\overrightarrow{H}) and the adverb Beku by Beo (\overrightarrow{H}), \overrightarrow{r} 0 \overrightarrow{r} 1 \overrightarrow{r} 2, and that particularly in the countries east of the Fakone-pass, whereas in Sinano Mei (\overrightarrow{H}) is said, instead of Bei1).

With regard to the inflectional forms, they cannot be better elucidated than by a systematic synopsis. The writer confines himself to those forms, which have actually come under his notice, and with regard to such as, according to the rule, may yet exist, he refers the reader to the Synopsis of the Inflectional forms of Nasi, § 106.

INFLECTIONAL FORMS OF BESI, MAY, CAN.

Aorist.	Contin. present. Preterit.
Root-form Be, can. Békŭ-si, ma	y. Běkári, arisen from Běkéri, arisen from
the said the first and strains	Beku + ari, is Beku + eri. has
To some with the first the state of the state of the	being able. been able.
Closing-form. Best, A Bei, Mei, Beku-su.	Běkári, Benari. Bekéri.
it can.	The Property of the State of
Subst. and At-Beki, A Bei, Mei, Bekusuru.	Bekáru. Bekési, Bekérŭ.
tributive. possible.	
Subst., isolated Beki va.	Bekáruvá.
Gerund Békű-sĭté, con	ntr.
Bete.	
Local	Bekáre ba. Bekére bá, when he
as, when, there.	could.

¹⁾ Wa-gun Siwori, under Mei. Vol. 17. p. 1. recto.

	Aorist.	Contin. Pres. Preterit.
Concessive		Bekaredomo. Bekéredomo.
although.		
Adverbial		Bekaraku.
		FUTURE.
1		Bekar)an, A ao, Beken, it shall ha-
		oo. ve been possible
		Bera (可べ焉ラ).
		Beranari, it shall be
		possible (可也).
Conditional	Béku ni, Beku ni	Bekárabá, if it be Bekenba, if it
if.	va, Bekunba,	possible. might be possible.
	Bekumba.	
		NEGATIVE.
	Be-nasi, old-Jap.	Bekará)zu, ∆ nu.
	may not.	
	Sube-nasi, = it is	Su-bekarázu, it is
	not to be done.	not possible.
		U-bekarázu, it is not
		to be obtained.

III. ON THE GOVERNMENT OF Besi.

The verb, which, preceding Besi, expresses what one may, can, shall or will (do) is put, either in its root, or its attributive form. In nondeflecting verbs both forms are used, in deflecting verbs in i, only the attributive form in u or, instead of it, in the root, in i with nu or tsu as termination. Examples with nondeflecting verbs:

Ake-besi, one can, may open. — Mi-besi, one can, may see. — Fiyori yokiwo mite, tanéwo age-besi. Savo-nadoni tsuri, fikage-nite kavakásŭ-besi, if you see, that the weather is fair, you may take out the seed (of the silkworms that have been put in water), suspend it on sticks and dry it in the sun. — \triangle Wakerare, be divided; Wakerárŭrŭ-beki, divisible. — \triangle Mi-wakerare, to be distinguished at sight; Mi-wakeráruru-besi, it is to be distinguished at sight. — \triangle Aravare, to be visible; Aravaruru-beki koto, visibility. — E, Ete (or Ye, Yete), U, Urŭ (get) becomes U-beki instead of Ur'beki; $\Rightarrow \sim + + J$, Ubeki mono, something one can

get, something obtainable. — Sesime, have it done; Sésimu-bési instead of Sesimur'besi, one can have done. — Tasüke, help, save; Tasuku-besi instead of Tasukur'besi. — In a legend S'âkya speaks to the falcon: Nandzi kono fatowo tásüku-bési, spare this dove. — The falcon answers: Ware kono fatowo tásükébá, ware uvéte si-su-besi, if I spare the dove, I shall die of hunger.

Examples with deflecting verbs:

Nari, to be. Kono sima kanarazu Okino-sima naru-besi, this island will undoubtedly be that of Oki. — Si, to do. Subeki (可為), feasible. Su-beki koto ari, there is a possibility of doing (this). — Onna kono tewazawo su-besi, women ought to do such work. — Korewa onnano su-beki tewaza nari, that is a work which women can or ought to do. Su-beki (being able, or about to do) is here conceived in an active sense, whereas the genitive onnano precedes as attributive definition. — Tomoni ivu-besi (可與言), people may speak with one another. — Nivakáni fusegu-beki yaumo nakereba, Kavatsiye nige-yuku, as in the hurry it was impossible to offer resistance, they fled to Kavatsi. — Koreva nasazáru bési, with regard to this, it may remain undone. — Kore va nasaru bekarazu, with regard to this, one may not do it. The former allows, that something may not happen, the latter forbids that it happen. — Tsumabiraka ni su-bekarázu (不可能), I cannot make it clear.

The terminations nu and tsu occur in deflecting verbs, e. g. Ari, to be; Ari-nu-bési, it may or can be. — Iri-nu bési ($_{\sim}$ $_{\sim}$ $_{\sim}$ $_{\sim}$), one may go in. — $It\acute{a}rinu$ - $b\acute{e}si$ ($_{\sim}$ $_{\sim}$ $_{\sim}$), one may or shall come to. — $(Ivi\ (Ii)$, to be called; Ivi-tsu- $b\acute{e}si$, it may or can be called. — Tana- $kok\acute{o}roni$ $megur\acute{a}si$ -tsu- $b\acute{e}si$, one can make it run round on the palm of the hand.

I refer both terminations not to the closing-forms tsu and nu, treated in § 84 and 85, but to $\underset{\sim}{\mathbb{H}} \times nu$ (a variation of no) and $\underset{\sim}{\mathbb{H}} \times tsu$, which, as characteristics of the attributive relation, are derived from the old language. See page 67.

IV. 1. The ability to do any thing is expressed by Yókŭs)i, u, uru, to do good; 能灵。耐。克。巧。Negative Yokusé)zu, A Yokusénu. From the expression: Uru kotowo yókŭsu, = I am able to get, it appears that the definition what one is able for, precedes as object in the Accusative.

Also used adverbially Yóku expresses the ability to do anything, e. g. Omon-bǎkátte sǐkausǐte notsí yóku u, by reflection is one able consequently to attain (his object). 原而后能得. Dai Gaku. I. 2.

Tădă zin-zin yókă fitówo ai-si, yókă fitówo nikimă koto wo su 1), the humane man alone is able to love others, to hate others. — Sei-zin to iédomo, mata yoku-sezaru to-kóro ari 2), even if he were a saint, there would still be something that he could not do.

2. The inability to do a thing is expressed by Ataváz)i, u (不意意), = Lat. non valet, = Uru koto atavázu, = the acquisition is not brought about. Atávi, of which Atavázu is the negative form, is composed of Ate, = equivalent, and av)i, u, = to fit, or, after the Wagun Siwori, from Atekavi (當了易意), = to take the place of a thing, as an exchange, and means, substantively used, the value (直复) of a thing; thus, as a verb, to be of value, to be worth (Lat. valere). The Japanese language considers the treatment, and not the person treating, as that which is not of value, or cannot be brought about.

音と、非文能系已至矣、Ware yamu koto atavázu³)、= that I (halting half-way) should rest, is not brought about, = I can not rest. — Kenwo míte agúru koto atavázu, agéte sakínzűrű koto atavazárűvá mél nári. Fu-senwo míte sirizókűrű koto atavázu, sirizókěté tóoságűrű koto atavazárűva ayamátsi nari⁴), to see an excellent man and not be able to raise him; to raise him and not be able to promote him, is fate. To see a good-for-nothing and not be able to remove him, to remove him and not be able to put him away, that is a mistake. — Kore wo motsiite tsukusu koto atavazaru mono aran⁵), = that this (principle) be 上書文本文章 exhausted by the application, will be something impossible. — 不文能系文章 被差,Tsuiye naki koto atavázu, it is not possible, that (a thing) do not perish.

V. To dare, is expressed by Ahéte, Aete (\dot{R}_{\uparrow}) , the gerund of Ahe or Av)e, u, uru, = to answer to... — Ahéte atarázu (\dot{R}_{\uparrow}) , the dares not attempt it. — Ahéte kotowari-ivu, he dares judge of it. — Ahéte kotowari-ivánu, he dares not judge of it. — Tarazáru tokoro areba, ahéte tsütomezunba arázu 6), = if there is any thing that does not suffice (if he comes short of), he (the man of character) does not dare not exert himself, — he dares not be negligent.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 15.

⁴⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 16. 5) Ts

²⁾ Tschung-yung. XII. 2.

⁵⁾ Tschung-yung.

³⁾ Ibid. X1. 2.

⁶⁾ Ibid. XIII. 4.

Remark. The negative Ahézu or Ahénu (不敢), joined to the root of a precedent verb, means the not accomplishing of an action; it is made equivalent to Fatasazu (入不果菜), not to accomplish. — Omoi-, Ivi-, Tori-, Nagare-ahézu or ahénu, mean: not continue meaning, saying, taking, flowing.

Nippon sei-fu yori ... füne-bune ni ... yaku-nin norikumasuru koto toosen taru besi 1), it will be proper that on the part of the Japanese government custom-house officers be placed on the ships; or, after the official

translation: the Japanese government shall have the right ... to place.

§ 105. The desiderative verbs.

I. Desiderative verbs are formed by grafting on the root of the verb, the word expressive of quality Ta, = desirous. Belonging to the adjectives in ki (see page 109 no. 69), Ta (ideographically expressed by (x), phonetically by (x)), has all the inflectional forms common to them, thus Taki, the substantive and attributive form, = desirous; Tasi, predicate, = is desirous; Taku, adv. — The spoken language, which according to § 9 II. suppresses the k and the s, supersedes Taki and Tasi by Tai (x), for which x is improperly written), and Taki by x, Tau, Too, for which inadepts also write x.

Mi-taki (\triangle Mi-tái), desirous to see; Mi-tási (\triangle Mitái), he desires to see; Mi-tákǐ (\triangle Mi-tau, Mi-tao, Mi-too), adv. — 微多見 2 。見 2 度多。—Mi-takuba, if he whishes to see. — Mi-taku (or Mi-too) mo nai 2), he will not even see.

From the adverbial form Taku or Too, by means of the verb Si, u, uru, to do (§ 103), is derived Táku-si or Too-si, to desire; gerund Tákuste or Too-sit,

¹⁾ Regulations by which the Dutch trade in Japan shall be carried on. Art. II.

²⁾ This is the "tomo nai, je ne veux pas," occurring in RODR. Élém. pag. 54 § 56 line 4.

in the spoken language passing by elision into $Tak\check{u}$ -té or Too-te, = desiring; Takutewa or Tootewa, the gerund isolated by wa, = if one desires; $Takutem\acute{o}$ or Tootemo, though he wishes.

The adv. Taku or Too is further used in compositions like Taku- or Too-goza-ri-masŭ, is desiring; Taku- or Too-omou, or omoi-masŭ, = is desirous thinking, = desires, Taku-omoote iru, Taku-omoote ori-masŭ, roundabout polite form for: I desire; Tákŭ-zon-zi-másŭ, = I am desirous; Mairi-taku-zonzi-másŭ, I will go.

II. Continuative forms.

1) If according to § 10, to the adv. $T\acute{a}ku$ or Too we join the verb Ari, = to exist, we obtain the continuative form $Taku + \acute{a}ri$ or $Too + \acute{a}ri$, which in pronunciation, and in writing also, passes over to Takari, $\cancel{3}\cancel{7}\cancel{7}$, = continually to be desirous. Inflection, the same as of Ari (§ 96).

Pres. Mi-takŭ ari, Mi-too ari, Mitakar)i, u, is desiring to see.

Gerund. Mi-taku-arite, Mi-taku-átte, Mi-too-átte, Mi-takarite, A Mi-takatte.

Concess. Mi-takuwa aredomo, also Mi-tai-keredomo, though he desires to see.

Condit. Mi-taku-ba, Mi-takereba, Mi-tai-naraba, if he desires to see.

Future Mi-takaroo, he may desire to see.

Pret. Mi-too atta, Mi-takatta, he was disiring to see.

Mi-takatta keredomo, though he has desired to see.

Fut. Perf. Mi-takattaroo, he may have desired to see.

Derivative verbs of this stamp are:

Kiki-taki, desirous to hear. 閏 * 度氧. Yuki-taki, desirous to go.

Si-taki (支) 度氧), desirous to do, = ready. — Si-taku- (si-tau)-suru, to be ready.

Itási-taki, (太教章 致复), desirous to bring about.

Manabi-taki, desirous to learn.

Nomi-taki, desirous to drink.

Mede-taki, desirous to love, in love.

Ure-taki, desirous to mourn, = sympathetic.

Nemu-taki, desirous te sleep, sleepy. —

△ Nému-tai, I will sleep. — Nemutaku nasi (△ Nemu-tau nai), I am
not sleepy. — Ware mata nemu-taku
mo nai (vulgo nemu-tau mo nai),
also I am not sleepy. — Nemu-tasa,
sleepiness. — Wa-taküsi, = selfish;
the I.

§ 106. The leaving off of an action is expressed.

I. by the deflecting transitive verb Mak)i, u. From Ake, to open, Mi to see, Yuki, to go, are derived by means of Maki: Ake-maki, Mi-maki, Yuka-maki, to leave off opening, to leave off seeing, not to go farther. From the examples

given it appears, that, just as in the forming of the continuative, factive and passive forms, the weak i of the deflecting verb undergoes a strengthening. Mak)i, u means to roll up; thence the substantive, Maki, a roll, or Maki-mono, a thing that is rolled. A roll of writing, that has been used, is rolled up again. Thence, improperly: $Sitawo\ maku$, to roll up the tongue, i. e. cease speaking, grow speechless. — $Itonaki\ kotowo\ makite\ ziwo\ ŭtávu$, he lays the stringless harp aside and sings a verse.

A quite different signification is given to this word by Mr. Hepburn, Jap. Engl. Dict. 1872. "Maku or Mashi (470 45) an ancient and now obsolete affix to verbs, for which the final n is now substituted, as Mi-makuno hossiki, = minto hossuru, or coll. mitai, desire to see."

II. Yam)i, u ([], intr., to become quiet, to come to rest, Lat. quiescere; to leave off ... — Kaiko kŭváwo kuvi-yamu, the silkworm leaves off eating. — Kŭváwo furi-yame, leave off strowing food on the floor (to feed the silkworm). — Yami, as we see, with the root of a precedent verb forms a compound verb.

III. Sǐmav)i, u, \triangle Sima)i, u, 了意, phonetically expressed by 住之舞き, in my opinion, a distortion of Sǔmávi, to retire to rest, perch as bird, thence improperly to have done with a thing, to leave off. It belongs more especially to the spoken language, and generally has the complement of the action one leaves off, in the gerund in te or de, sometimes also in the verbal root, before it.

Si-gotowo site simái-mašoo, I shall finish my work. — Watáküsiwa sono siyo(šo) motsűwo moháya yomi-simavűta (\$\triangle\$ simoota\$), I have read this book throughout. — Kareva kunde simoota, he has left off eating, = he has eaten. — Kunde
simaute aroo, he will have eaten. — Waki-simauta sake, sufficiently fermented
beer. — Imada waki-simavázu ni oru sake, beer that has not sufficiently fermented.
— Kunde simaé, nonde simaé, leave off eating and drinking. — Uri-naraute simau,
to sell out. — O ya-siyókü O simai nasare mase, may your supper be ended! =
take your supper at my house! the action being represented as finished!).

¹⁾ Compare what A. RÉMUSAT in Élém. de la Gramm. Chinoise § 352 says concerning T liao.

Simavás)i, u, causat., to make leave off ... — Watáküsini mádzoiúte-simavaseyo, let me first have done speaking.

Simavar)e, u, uru, pass., to be finished. — Kaki-simavaretaru šoo-kan, a written (finished) letter.

§ 107. The adverbial form of a verb, as characteristic of modal propositions, like: as one thinks, as one says, is ..á-sĭku, ..á-sĭku vá, = ..á-ku, ..á-kuvá.

Of the verbals derived by means of siki, = ..like, treated at large in § 16, 2), page 121, some by changing siki into siku assume an adverbial character. From Omóvi, to think, to mean, is obtained Omovásikŭ, = probably, as one thinks or means. This is the axiom. As nevertheless the si of siku, is suppressed, for shortness, ..a-siku passes into ..á-ku; from Omovásiku is formed Omováku and with addition of the isolating va, Omovákŭvá, = as one means. The same is good of:

Iv)i, u, to say, to be called; Sini ivaku ($\sharp \stackrel{>}{\Longrightarrow} = \Xi_{\stackrel{>}{\nearrow}}$), = as it is said in the odes, according to the odes.

Nori-tamáv)i, or No-tamáv)i, u, to bid, enjoin, command; Si no nori-tamaváku (\mathcal{F}^{\geq}) $\exists (\Xi \land \mathscr{P})$, = according to the master's sentence, as the master says.

 $Neg\acute{av}$)i, u, to wish; $\triangle Negaw\acute{a}kuba$, sa-yoo yorosii, = as I wish, it is good so, = so it should be according to my wish.

Magus)i, u, to say; Magusáku, as people say. — Fós)i, u, now Fóss)i, u, to desire; Fosáku (\ref{height} \ref{height}), as people desire, as people will.

Iveri, has said; Iverákuva, as people have said.

Ivikeri, has said; Ivikerasi, it is as if people had said (compare § 18); Ivikeraku (云足來多久), as people have said. — Sen-zi (宣言旨) ni ivike-rákŭva, as it has been said in a proclamation by the Mikado.

Osor)e, uru, old-Jap. also Osori, to fear; Osorákůva (た ラッハ), as it is to be feared, as I fear; a polite way of expressing doubt.

Nari, to be; Naráků (= Narásíku), = as it is, preceded by a verb in the substantive form, e. g. Kiku-naráku, as one learns. — Miru-naráku, as people see. — Ivu-naráku, as people say. — Utagavu-naráku, contracted Utagavu-ráků, probably. Naráku is declared to be a contraction of Nari (to be) and Kaku (= Síkáku, adv. so, compare § 17) 1), and, while it is said that Naraku must

¹⁾ 也方斯多/ 畧 ン. See 助語審象, Nio-go sin-zoo or Explanation of the auxiliary verbs. 111, 51 v

or 聞き道言 etc.

Remark. The derivative form siki, elucidated in § 16, predicate sisi, contracted si, which in connection with ari (to be) passes into ará-siki and ra-siki (§ 18), is also joined to verbs to express doubt 1). Consequently Keri (= has been, § 82) passes into Kerási, it is as if it had been; Ki-ni-keri (= is come, § 84) into Ki-ni-kerasi, it is as if it were come. — Akiva ki-ni-keri²), the autumn is come. — Fáru sugite " nátsu ki-ni-kerasi 3), the spring is passing away and it seems as if the summer were (already) coming.

§ 108. .., meri, = it is as if, it seems, an old-Japanese derivative form, which, as it is said, resembles Nari (= is) but expresses some doubt 4). It follows the indicative closing-form of a verb.

Yebisŭ no kamino koto yo ni samazamani ivu-meri 5), with respect to the history of the God Yebis', people speak about it in the world, as it seems, in different ways.

> Tsigiri okisi 11 sasemo ga tsuyuwo! 11 inotsi nite Avare! kotosino II akimo inu-meri 6).

Oh dew of the sprig, that is planted with promises! In my life, Alas! the autumn of this year, as it seems, passes away (without seeing the promise made to me performed). — Inu, from In)i, u, uru, to go away (§ 84), not a negative form of I, to be.

As belonging to this category are cited: 7)

Akénu-meri (明 去), it seems to become day.

Nagáru-meri (流), Faténu-meri (消去), it is as if it flows away, as if it perishes.

This form is to be distinguished from Tsŭbóm-éri, Nasásĭm-éri, being the pret. pres. of Tsŭbómi, to bud, and Nasásĭme, to order to be made (see § 80), as also from ... nameri or ... nanmeri, shall have been, Future Perfect. of Ni, to be (see § 100. I.).

¹⁾ Sukósi utagavu kotoba nari. Wagun-Siwori, under Rasi.

²⁾ Hiyaku-nin, No. 47.

⁴⁾ ナリト 似 = テ 少 景 疑 タ ヒノ 意 ニアリト イヘリ. Wagun-Siwori, under Meri.
5) Nimaze. II. 16 recto.
6) Hiyaku-nin, N°. 75.
7) Wa-gun Siwori.

§ 109. Nási, Náki, Náku, in the ordinary manner of speaking and writing, by the suppression of the s and k (see § 9, II. page 112), Nai, Nai, Nai, Nau (+), pronounced as Nao, whence the written form Noo, Nô and Nô), means not to exist (), not to be present, to be not at hand, in opposition to Ar)i, u (, § 95), = to exist.

A general sketch in § 20, when treating of the derivative adjectives in naki, has already made us acquainted with this word. Here it requires to be elucidated in further particulars, concerning which all the dictionaries generally leave the student in the lurch.

I. The root Na, of which the sound n is the negative element (compare $\S 91, I$), occurs,

1. as prefix, like our un, in compounds as: Na-yami, = unrest; Na-koto, nothingness; Na-wi ($\uparrow \#$), Na-i ($\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow$), = un-seat, i. e. earthquake; Na-mi, the un-real, the nothing; whence Aru-fitowo nami-su, = Nai-ga sironi su (\maltese), to esteem any one as nothing.

2. as the forbidding not, followed by an imperative, that closes with so. — Na-motoméso, seek not! — Na-si so, also Na-si zo (M), do not! — Na-iviso, say not! — Na-nakareso, = $\triangle Na$ -nakasso 1), let it is not be wanting! = it must be there.

3. In the spoken language na suffixed to the substantive form of an affirmative verb is the forbidding not, Lat. ne.

Ageruna, raise not!

Kikuna (聞き奈[†]), hear not!

Miruna, see not!

Iuna (イラナ), say not!

Aruna, be not!
Suruna, do not!
Ageraruruna, let it not be raised!
Yomaruruna, let it not be read!

This imperative is strengthened by the subsequent yo. — Miru-nayo, you shall not see. — Wasururu-nayo, you shall not forget.

4. Na suffixed to the substantive form of a verb, occurs as characteristic of a negative question. — Man gindewa hyáku nítsi kakari masŭna? for (the delivery) of ten thousand pounds are not a hundred days needful? — Rinimo iro-iro arimasu soo na? there are also different sorts of miles, — is it not so? Shopping-Dialogues p. 31.

¹⁾ Compare RODR. 56, line 12.

- II. Nasi, A Nai, predicate: there is not.
- 1. Ato nasi, there is no trace. Kizu nasi, there is no hurt. Urami nasi, there is no disgust. I nasi, there is no meaning. Yeki nasi, there is no advantage in it. \triangle Zeniga¹) arŭ ká? naiká? are there cents or are there not? = Is there money, or not? En-rio nasini hanásu koto, to speak without forethought, not to care about what one says.
- 2. To bring it out with emphasis, the subject of Nasi is isolated, either by va, \triangle wa, or by mo, = also, even. \triangle Fu-sókuwa nai, there is no want. \triangle Fitó koto mó nai, = there is not even a single affair, = there is absolutely nothing on hand.
- 3. [..koto nasi.] If the subject, the existence of which is denied by Nasi, is a substantive proposition, it is characterized by koto, affair. Fitóri kore wo násu-koto nasi (無獨成之), = that a person does this alone, does not exist, no one accomplishes it alone. Takava kureni sorete, mioo-tšoo (明季朝夏) tadzune yobu tokivu, fitówo mite, osóre tonde tsikádzükü koto nasi, if the falcon has flown away in the evening, and one seeks and calls him the next morning, he becomes shy at the sight of people, flies around, and it does not happen (nasi), that he approaches. Tsikádzükü koto nasi may for rounding off the period, stand for Tsikadzukánu, not approach. Sari todomaru koto nasi (△..koto ga nai), 無去住, he goes not, he stays not. Sikareba kaiko va suzusiki ni masi-(貴國) taru kotova nasi, = that however the silkworm has grown in cool weather, this does not exist. △ Nánno kotomó nai (無事), there is absolutely nothing at hand. △ Nánno ii-bunmó nai, there is nothing to say.

[..tokóro nasi.] Ki-suru tokoro nasi (無所歸), there is no support.— \triangle Nokóru tokórowa nai, there is no more room, = every place is taken. — \triangle Fito ni waruu yuwaruru (= iváruru) tokórowá nai, there is nothing, about which ill is spoken by others.

¹⁾ For ga, see page 64.

- 4. If the definition that this or that is wanting, is predicate to a precedent subject, it is, for the sake of clearness, willingly isolated by va, △ wa, thus separated from the predicate. Iwau gasima fitó nasi, the »brimstone island" is without people, has no inhabitants. Kono yumivá tsikára nási, this bow is without strength, is powerless.
- 5. The appositive definition, what a thing is not, is put in the Local, characterized by one of the terminations ni, de, ni wa or de wa. $\triangle Ri$ fat ni wa nai, it is not sagacity, it is stupid. \triangle Sono yau ni nai, it is not so. \triangle ... no yau ni nai, it is not so as ... \triangle Kore fodo ni nai, it is not so much. \triangle Waga mama ni wa nai, it is not capricious. \triangle Na-koto de wa nai, it is no nothingness, it is even of importance. \triangle Waga koto de nai, it is not my business; it does not concern me; I have nothing to do with it. \triangle Waga-tomo de nai, it is not we. \triangle Sorewa sayau de wa naika? is it not so? \triangle Sau (or Sou) de wa nai, it is not so. (不如是。不然就识了多). \triangle Doko de mó sou denai to ivu kotowa nai, it is nowhere said, that it is not so, literally: it does not occur anywhere that people say that it is not so. \triangle Kau de wa nai, it is not so. \triangle Sou sita koto de wa nai, it is not a business of that nature. \triangle Minu de wa nai (非不見), one may not overlook; one may indeed look to. \triangle Iwanu de wa nai (非不見), one must speak about it.
- 6. [..ku nai.] The definition denied by $\triangle Nai$, in the easy manner of writing, also precedes as an adverb. $\triangle Kono \ syok-móts' \ umaku \ nai$, that meat is not tasty. $Umaku \ nai \ syok-mots$, distasteful meat.

Remark. The predicate Nasi is in compound words used as an attributive also, e. g. Na-nasi-yubi, the nameless (the fourth) fluger, i. e. the finger, whose predicate definition: na-nasi is at the same time its adhering attribute 1).

III. Naki, △Nai (メイ, vulg. ナヒ also), = ..less, the adjective form.

1. Used as a noun substantive, it means: nothing, and answers to Nakimono and Naki-koto, i. e. a thing or a matter that does not exist. — Nakini suru, to consider as nothing, to cipher away. — Fitó wo nai ga (vulg. ナビザ) siron suru (茂人), to consider others of no value. — Korewo nasumo yüvenakini arázu, = also that people make this, is not a »cause-lessness," i. e. it is not without reason that this is done.

¹⁾ See Addenda no. IV.

- 2. The attributive Naki, △ Nai, = paltry, in the original signification of not existing. Naki-fito, a person not existing, not present, i. e. a defunct. Naki-mono, vulgo Nai-mono, a thing not existing, a nothing. Arŭ fitóno naki-kotowo kiku, to hear of one's not being (his being dead). Naki-ato (亡 動), a trace effaced.
- 3. As attributive adjective (= without, Lat. absque, sine) Naki, \triangle Nai has the definition, what there is not, as a genitive before it, either with or without the genitive termination no or ga.

 \triangle Tsuiye-naki koto atavázu, continuance is impossible, = an end must come. — Tsikára-naki yumi, a powerless bow, a bow without strength. — Tsikara-naki koto, power-less-ness. — Ato-naki nari, it is a thing without trace = it has disappeared, = Ato nasi, there is no trace of it. — Kiwamari no naki koto nari, it is a matter without limitation. — Kiwamari no aru koto nari, it is a matter that has limitation. — \triangle Mino oki-dokoro no nai mono, a person without a place in which he can settle, a wretch. — \triangle Tsigai no nai yau ni wa naranu, it is not of that nature that there should be no difference. — \triangle Fei-sei no kokórogakega nai, without a life's exertion or care. — \triangle Tanomini suru mono ga nai, without anything or anybody in which one has support. — \triangle Kokóro ni mono ga nai, having no evil in the heart, = Urami naki, without disfavor.

Remark. To ga nai of the last three examples, what is said at page 64 respecting ga is applicable.

- IV. The adverbial form Naku (+2), = without, by the dropping of the k in the easy manner of writing passes to +2 Nau, for which +2 Navu also is written, sounding in pronunciation as Nau, Nao, for which noo, nô or no have chiefly been written. See § 9. II. Nani-to naku, idzu to naku, = without anything whatever, = nothing at all.
- 1. The form Naku is used, as if it were the uninflected verbal root, in coördinate propositions. See § 9. B. 2. Kake-mo naku, amari-mo nasi, there is nothing too little, nothing too much. 无久无餘.
- 2. Among Poets Naku supersedes the termination ..nu of the negative verb.
 Ave-naku, = Avénu, not to dare. Maka-naku, = Makanu, not to roll up
 (§ 106). Omova-naku, = Omovánu, not to think. See § 92. 4.
- 3. Nakuva, \triangle Nakuwa, the adverbial form isolated by va, \triangle wa, is used as predicate verb in adverbial propositions, with the meaning of as or if there is not, failing of. Iki-taru kizi nakuva, si-taru kizi wo toru-besi, failing of a living pheasant, one may take a dead one (to feed the falcon).

4. Nakunba, Nakumba. The local Nakunba contracted from Nakuni, and isolated by va, means in case of not existing, if there is not. — Mádzusikúsité fetsűrávu koto náku, tonde ogoru koto nakumba, ikan? if one, being poor, is without flattery, and being rich, is without pride, how then? (what do you think of it?) Compare RODR. 56.

This Local form may even close a suppositive proposition, but is therefore no modus conditionalis.

- 5. A Náku te wa, = Nao te wa, contracted from Nákusitéwa. See below V, 1, Nákúsi.
- 6. Náku to mo, = Náku to řédomó or Náku to iú to mo, though it is said that there is not, granted that there is not, = even if there is not.
 - V. VERBS COMPOUNDED WITH Naku.

As such come under notice: Nákŭ-si, Nákŭ-se, Nakári, Nakarásime, Nakeri and Nákŭ-nári. Explanation.

1. Náků-s)i, u, uru, not to be, to be wanting, a coupling of Naku and si, = to do (see § 103. III. 3), antithesis to Ar)i, u, to be present. The spoken language, which makes from Naků-si, Nau-si, $(+ \Rightarrow \vee)$, Nao-si, changes the gerund Náků-site, by syncope into Naute, Noote, and Náků-siteva into Naute wá, Noote wá 1), = by or through want of, or: as there is not. Examples:

Ya-tsiu va Nippon yákŭ-sĭo yori yurúsi naku-sĭté, ni-orósu-bekarázu ²), at night, without permission of the Japanese officers, no goods may be unloaded.

— Nippon yákŭ-nin tatsi-avi nákŭsĭté ³), without there being Japanese officers present. — Zin-sinno rei siru-koto arazáru-koto náku-sĭte (or nau-sĭte), sĭkáu-sĭté Ten-kano mono ri arazáru koto nasi ⁴), the spiritual part of the human heart is not without knowledge, and so also are the things on earth not without natural laws. — Kotoba nákŭ-sĭte kaheri-tamavu, without (saying) a word (the king) goes away again. — \(\Delta Kane ga nau-sĭte \) (or Kane ga nakute wa) kánawánŭ, without money no success. — \(\Delta \) Anohĭtowa ori-ori kami-irewo ná-

¹⁾ In RODRIGUEZ Élém. p. 55 line 3 below, Nowetawa should stand instead of Notewa, - our Naotewa.

Art. II. al. 3 of the Regulations by which the trade in Japan shall be carried on, belonging to the
 Treaty of 1859.
 Franco-Japanese Treaty of 1858, Art. VIII, al. 4.
 Dai Gaku, V. 2.

kusŭ (or nakusare-masŭ), he is always losing (read wanting) his pocket-book''. Nákŭ-s)e, uru, \triangle Nao-se ($+ \nearrow + ?$), contracted from Nákŭ-sĭm)e, u, uru, = to despise.

 \triangle Fitówo nantomo noosuru ($+ 7 \times \nu$) mono, = a person, who does not respect others for anything, who respects others for nothing.

2. Nakar)i, u, continuative, not present, a fusion of Naku and ari, follows the inflection of Ari. See § 92. 4. — Urésisa kagiri nakari keri, the joy has been boundless. — Kono zeni, men-kiyo nakarisiga ŭtsinite, faya iritaru mono imano yoni nawo nokoreri, of this coin there are now still several copies (mono) remaining, which, while there was no permission, were prematurely struck off.

As a form of the forbidding Imperative, Nakáre comes particularly under notice. See § 93. 2. — Tsiu-ziyo mitsiwo sárů koto tóo karázu. Koréwo ŏnŏréni

が 本文 施力 スズ 地方 never deviates far from the way (from the moral law). If a person does not wish that (this or that) be applied to him, he may not apply it to others! Tschung-yung. XIII. 3.—

The Chinese word 諸, tšū, is to be considered as a contraction of 之於 tšî-yū, = towards, and may here not be translated by コレヲ.

Derived from Nakári is Nákarásím)e, u, uru, = to command that there be not, i. e. forbid. See § 88. — Kuvanokiwo kiru-koto nákarásímu, = order is given that the chopping of the mulberry-trees do not happen, = it is forbidden to chop the mulberry-trees.

3. Nakeri, Pret. pres. there has not been, follows the inflection of .. eri, esi (§ 80. § 92. 4). — Nivakáni fusegu-beki yaumo nakereba, .. Kavatsiye nige-yuku, as in the hurry there was no opportunity for defence, they fled towards Kavatsi.

Remark. The spoken language of Yédo seems to use Nakéreba for Nakáreba, thence » Sívó- (síó-) kega nakerebá (or nakutewá) adziwai ganai, it is not good without salt".

4. Náku-nar)i, u, \triangle Nao-nari, Noo-nari, to become nothing, to come to nothing, to be consumed. See § 100. III. (民。没。死). — Tsikára naku-naru, to become powerless. — Tsikára náku-narite iru, = \triangle Tsikára nao nátte iru, to have become powerless. — Sakeva náku-narita, = \triangle Sakewa nao-natta, the wine is consumed. — \triangle Urevino yuméga naku-narita, the unpleasant dream has disappeared. — Aritaru monono náku-naritaru koto, the plerishing of a thing, that has existed.

SYNOPSIS OF THE INFLECTIONAL FORMS AND DERIVATIVES OF NA)SI, KI, KU, NOT TO BE.

	Forms of	Substantive.	Adverbial form.	Derivative verb.
	the Predicate verb.	and Attributive form.	Advertial form.	Derivative vero.
Root-form	NA = not.	Naki, △ Nai,	Naku, △ Nau, ‡	Naku-si, △ Nau-
		less.	(Δ Noo, Nò)	si, to want, fail
			without.	of.
Closing-form.	Nasi, △ Nai			Naku-su, △ Nau-
F = 500	there is not.			su, there is wan-
				ting.
Substant.form,	Nasi, △ Nai	Naki, △ Nai		Naku-suru,
declinable.	Nasivá, A Naiwa	Nakivá, △ Naiwá	△ Nakuwa	△ Nau-suru
	that there is not.	what there is not,		
	△ Nai ka?	theless.		
	is there not?	△ Nai koto		
Local, defini-	Nasini, △ Naini		Nakuniva, =	
tive of time	Nasini- △Naini-		Nakunba,	Jan Ballanda
and manner.	óĭtawá, óĭtewá,		△ Nakumba.	
	while there is not.			
Gerund				Nakŭ-sĭte, =
				△ Nakŭ te
				△ Naote
	CALE OF THE STATE	and the state of		△Nòte
			diameter and	△ Nakŭ te wá
			T Simple	△ Nò tewá
			- physiolic pro-	by want of
Concessive	Nasito- △ Naito-		Naku tomo,	Man A Later
. though.	ryédomo, ryédomo		though there is	8
	Nasito- A Naito-		wanting.	
	iutomo, iutomo			
	△ Naitomo			
Conditional.		△ Nai-naraba	1	TO THE REAL PROPERTY.
if.		△ Nai-nará	dnaz v	SHOW SE WILLIAM
Imperative.	. Na! Nayo! be it not	!	The state of	droin/a

Continuative.

	Present.	Pret. pres.	Preterit.		
Root-form	Nakari.	Nakari tari,	Nakari-si,	Nakéri, △ Nai-	
		△ Nakarita, Na-	there has not been.	keri, there was	
		katta, ナカッタ.		not.	
		Nakari-keri, there			
Closing form .	Nakari, there is not.	has not been.	Nakari-ki; there	Nakéri, there was	
			has not been.	not.	
Substant.form	Nakáru.	Nakaritaru,	Nakari-si.	Nakési.	
	Nakaruwa.	△ Nakattato.	Nakari-si nari.		
Attributive	Nakaru.		Nakari-si.	Nakési, Nakéru.	
Local, defini-	Nakaru ni.	Nakaritaruni	Nakari-sini.	Nakeru ni.	
tive of time.	Nakaruni őĭtewa.	△ Nakari ta ni,			
		△ Nakattani.			
Gerund	Nakarite, △ Na-				
	kátte.		A STATE OF THE STATE OF		
Causal form .	Nakareba.	\triangle Nakattareba.	The same of the sa	Nakereba, as	
				there was not.	
Concessive	Nakarédomo.	\triangle Nakattaredomo.		Nakeredomo,	
	Nakarutomo.			though it was not.	
	A AVE			Nakeru to mo.	
	FUTURE.				
	Nakar)an, ame,				
	△ Nakarao				
	(Nakaroo, Nakarò).				
	Nakaran z)u, uru,		Total State S		
	△ Nakarò z)u, uru.		Single in 1 to		
Conditional					
A X E D			deficient of		
	IMPERATIVE.				
	Nakare.	and and			
	Nakare kasi.				
	Nakare gana.				

NEGATIVE.

Nakaránu, it must be there.

Nakerana naranu, 不可無, it must have been.

Nakini arazu, Nakinarázu, it is not without...

Na nakasso, it may not be wanting.

REMARKS ON THE COMPOUND VERBS.

§ 110. The subordinate definition, which precedes a verb with which it is compounded, may be a substantive or a verb.

I. The substantive may be its object direct, or indirect. See § 3. II. 1 and 2.

It is the object direct in Ama-govi, Tsi-govi, to long for rain, for milk; it is the object indirect in Ama-kŭdari, descending from the sky.

II. 1. The verb, preceding another verb as subordinate qualifying definition, remains in its root-form. The chief word of the compound governs the accidental object. Korós)i, u, to kill; $Fitówo\ i-korósi$, útsi-korósi, sási-korósi to shoot a person dead, to strike dead, to stab dead.

To the qualifying definitions belong verbs like Os)i, u, $\sharp \sharp \sharp$, to press, to do with emphasis; Osi-yar)i, u, throw away; Osi-ir)i, u, to intrude.

Uts)i, u, 打旱, to strike, with a blow, or suddenly; útsi-or)i, iru, to pounce, as a bird of prey (§ 99. I. nº. 11); Sirowo útsi-i)de, dzuru, to make a sally.

Sasi, 差艾, send away; Ok)i, u, place; Sasi-oki, set aside, put away; Fitowo sasi-tsukavas)i, u, to dispatch any one.

Mes)i, u, $A \geq 0$, invite, call up, qualifies the action as one which takes place by higher command; Mesi-tor)i, u, to take by order, to arrest a person; M...ye fitówo tsukavasi, N... wo mesi-kavesi-tamavu, (the prince) sends people to M... and has N... brought back.

Avi, Ai, 相子, together, Lat. con; Ai-katar)i, u, speak together; Ai-gisu, consult together.

2. The definition of the particular direction of an action incorporated in a compound verb (as in flying upwards or downwards), is not expressed in Japanese, as in other languages, by a prefix or a preposition, but as the principal part of the expression, by a verb, that is preceded by the mention of the action as a subordinate definition. Leaving the indication of such compound verbs to the dictionaries, we here confine ourselves, for the sake of brevity, to a few examples.

Ag)e, uru, LZ, trans., expresses the moving upwards, Sag)e, uru, TZ, trans.,

the movement downwards. — Tori-age, to take up, to raise. — Sasi-age, Saságe, to present. — Motsi-age, to bring up. — Fiki-age, to draw up. — Mausi-age, to mention (a thing to a superior). — Fiki-sage, or Fiki-orósi, to draw down. — Agari, Sagari, contin., intr. — Tobi-agar)i, u, to fly upwards. — Tobi-sagari, u, to fly downwards.

Nobór)i, u, to go upwards, Kudár)i, u, to go downwards. — Fase-nobóri, to run upwards. — Nagare-kudari, to flow downwards.

Ir)i, u, 入, to go into, Ide, Idzuru, 出, to come out. — Osi-iru, intrude. — Faye-iru, to grow inwards. — Otsi-iru, to fall into... — Faye-idzuru, to sprout out. — Ir)e, uru, trans.; Otósi-ire, to make a thing fall in.. — Idás)i, u, causat. — Tori-ĭdás)i, u, to take out of.

Kom)i, u, 込意, intr., to go inwards. Kom)e, uru, tr., to bring in. — Komas)i, u, to make go inwards. — Fino teri-komu, the shining in of the sun. — Nomi-komu, to swallow. — Kugiwo (Kusabiwo) útsi-komu, to drive in a nail.

Utsus)i, u, \mathbb{Z}_{2}^{*} , to remove. — Fakobi-utsusu, to transport. — Kaki-utsusu, to write over again, to copy.

Kaher)i, u, $\bigoplus_{i=1}^{n}$, to turn back, Kahes)i, u, to make turn back. Tobi-kaheru, to fly back. — Tori-kayesu, to take back.

Mav)i, u, 舞喜, to move in a circle. — Mi-mavi, to look around.

Mavar)i, u, continually to go round. — Nagare-mavaru, to flow round.

Mavas)i, u, to make go round. — Fiki-mavasu, to draw a thing round-about. — Tori-mavasu, to turn round.

Tsuk)i, u, 著業, intr., = on, to. — $Kisini\ tsuku$, to come ashore. — \triangle Fune ga okani nagare-tsuku, the ship drifts ashore.

Tovor)i, u, △ Toór)i, u, 通 , to go through, to pass. — Fino nakawo tovoru, to go through the midst of the fire. — Nagare-tovoru, to flow through.

Tovos)i, u, \triangle Toós)i, u, to make go through, — Ovi-toósu, to drive through. — Ovi-toósaretaru, driven through. — Matowo i-toósu, to shoot through a target.

Watár)i, u, 渡泉, to pass, to go from one side to the other. — Kavawo watári, to cross a river. — Kavawo katsi-watári, to wade through a river. — Tobi-watari, to fly over.

Watás)i, u, to make pass over, to carry over. — Yaku-šoye fitowo fiki-watásu, to transport people to the office.

Tsir)i, u, t, intr., to spread, scatter; Tsirás)i, u, caus., spread, scatter. — Fou-bouye nige-tsiru, they fled to all sides. — Tobi-tsiru, to spatter abroad. — Ovi-tsirasu, to scatter.

APPENDIX.

DISTINCTIVE VERBS AND VERBAL FORMS EXPRESSIVE OF COURTESY.

§ 111. Courtesy in language and writing is, in Japan, not confined to the priveleged classes of society; cast ages ago in distinct forms and, we may add, stamped by the law, it has penetrated to the lowest grades of society and spread over social intercourse a gloss of reciprocal respect, which is indeed not to be found among any other people on the globe.

Besides, courtesy in language and writing is not the consequence of recent development: even the oldest Japanese historical book, the *Yamáto-bumi* of the eighth century (see page 36) is characterized by a courteousness of expression which, the not unfrequent insignificance of the contents considered, cannot be acquitted of extravagance.

So long as courtesy governs the oral and written intercourse of a people, the appreciation of its forms belongs to the study of the language, and since we have treated it in the chapter on the Pronouns, we are obliged to fix the attention on the verbs and verbal forms also with which courtesy gives gloss to its language.

The chief features of the Japanese courtesy are:

- 1. The polite speaker distinguishes the conditions and actions of persons beyond him by the honorary prefix (n) * (n) or (n) See page 75.
- 2. He does not say or require, that another person, whom he places above himself, should do any thing himself, but says or requires only, that the action be done, i. e. he places the passive form as predicate to the subject, that really performs the action.
- 3. He considers not only persons of higher station, but even his own equals as being in a higher position, and with the actions of others connects the idea of descent, whereas to his own he gives that of ascent.
- 4. He is scrupulous in the choice of synonimous verbs, in proportion as he wishes to express the same idea in a more or less exalted style. Letter-writers teach him to distinguish the degrees.

§ 112. To satisfy the demand, which represents the person beyond the speaker not as acting himself and thus as not immediately coming in contact with persons of lower station, the active form of the predicate verb is, as it has been said, simply superseded by the passive form, without — and here is the peculiarity of the expression, — introducing any modification in the construction of the original active proposition (compare § 90. 2). Examples:

Karuno Oho-kimiwo dai-sini sadameraru 1) (instead of sadámu, or sadame-tamavu), (the emperor) declares the Great-prince Karuno hereditary prince. — Zin-mu Ten-wau arutoki takaki okani nobórite, kono kunino katatsi akitsumusini nitárŭwo mite, fazimete Akitsu-simato nadzukeraru (instead of nadzuku), = Emperor Zin-mu, once climbing a height, seeing that this country (Japan) resembles the light-insect (the dragon-fly), first gave it the name of Light-island. — L. va M. ni N. no kwanwo sadzukeraresi (instead of sadzukesi) to ari, people say, that L. has given the office of an N. to M. — Naniwo iwasare-masita ka? what have you said? Iwasare from Iwasi, make say, and this from Ivi, to say.

Much in use are the honorary passive forms: 1. Serare, 2. Saserare, 3. Nasare, Nasare-mas)i, u, 4. Nasaserare, 5. Arasare, 6. Irare, 7. Irasare, 8. Iraserare. Explanation:

- 1. Serar)e, uru, pass. of S)e, uru, to do, to effect. Yamato-Take sibaraku tou-riu-seraru²) (instead of tou-riu-su), Yamato-Take stays there some time. Kei-ko Ten-wau Siganite fou-gyo- (前李 御事) seraru (instead of fou-gyo-su or fou-gyo-si tamavu), Emperor Kei-ko dies at Siga. N. no Oho-kimi kau-zi- (完美) seraru, Great-prince N. dies. M. wo kiri-korosi, N. wo ru-zai- (流水 東南) seraru³), (the king) sabres M. down, and banishes N. If, instead of seraru, sési-méráru, were used, it would mean, that the king gives order to kill and to banish.
- 2. Saserar)e, uru, = it is effected that one does; from Sas)e, uru, to make do. The action runs, as it were, over three wheels, by which a person of high station causes an inferior to have a thing done. Go-beo (何可可) ni mayuwo ken-zi-saseraru (or ken-zi-sase-tamavu), the prince has cocoons offered in the ancestral temple.
- 3. Násar)é, uru, 改党, to be done, from Nasi, make exist, and this from Ni, to be (see § 100). Naniwo nasaruka? what does your honor?

¹⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran. II. 8 verso.

In the familiar style of speaking and writing as an auxiliary verb grafted on the root of another verb, it makes known, that the action which is done, proceeds from the person spoken to, or even merely from another person than the speaker. Examples from the spoken language:

Sayoo nará, O tsüké násare! if it is so, give it me! — Kosikakeni O kake nasare! may Your sitting on a chair happen, = take a seat. O kake nasare, sit down. — Korewo O kasi- (O tsüké) nasare, lend (give) me this. — Korewo Goran nasare, please look at this. — Yoku O yásümi násaré! vulgo O yásümina! may Your good rest happen! = good rest! — Dokoni O sümai nasarüka? where do You live? — O kai nasaretemo, O yame nasaretemo, kono üyéwa deki-masenü, you may buy it or not, there ends the matter. — Nokorazu O kai násarü nará, yasükü-sité age-mašoo, if you buy the whole stock, I will sell it cheap. — Roo wo O kai-nasaránüka? dont you buy wax?

Nasare-mas)i, u, the same as Nasare, only more round-about, vulgo Nasari-masu also (see § 101). — \triangle Naniwo nasare (vulg. nasari)-masu? what are you doing? — Go an-sin nasare-mase, depend on it. — Watakusino mausu kotowa O wakari nasare-masika? do you understand what I say? — Sa-yauni nasare-masika? will you do so? O kamai nasare-masik na! take no pains! — Sikósimo O kamai nasare-masik na, don't trouble yourself about; don't care for it. — Kono mitsiwo O ide nasare-mase, go this way. — Idzureye O ide nasare-masi? whither are you going? — Idzure yori O ide nasare-masita? whence do you come? — Douzo O fairi nasare-mase, if you please, walk in.

- 4. Nasaserar)e, uru, 改艺 点 to taken that a thing is done or made; the passive of Nasase, have made, and this the causative form of Nasi, to make. The action or the effect here runs over four wheels.
- 5. Arasar)e, uru, pass. of Arasi, to have be, and this from Ari, to be. △ Dore ga O sukide arasare-masŭ ka? what is there of your desire? what do you like?

Arasorar)e, uru, vulgo for Iraserare. — \triangle O ko-sama ikaga de araserare-masu, how is your son? — Sosite okusama wa ikaga de araserare-masu? and how is your lady?

- 6. Irar)e, uru, to be placed in the condition of dwelling, pass. of I, Iru (居心), to dwell, be somewhere, stay (see § 98). Anata iraruru tokóro wo zon-zi-masénu, I do not know your dwelling-place.
 - 7. Irasar)e, uru, pass. of Irási, make dwell, thus to be placed in the condition

of making dwell, = to be (somewhere). — Mo sŭkosi irasare-mase (low language irašai masi), stay a little longer. — Yoku irasare-masita, you are well placed, = you are welcome. — Sate, fisabisa ikagade irasare masu, come on, how have you been this long time. — Ikagade irasare- (vulgo irašai-) masu? how do you do?

8. Iraserar)e, uru, to be placed in the state of dwelling, ≡ to be. — △ Go ka-nai sama wa ikaga de iraserare (vulg. irasšai) masū? how are your family? — △ Kūwa fen- (火分邊公) ni iraserare-mase, be near the fire (come near the fire). — Itsi bet i rai (一年則分以1來之) ikaga de iraserare-masīta? since our last separation, how have you been?

§ 113. I. Tama)vi, vu, △ Tamai, Tam)au, oo, 閲覧。 為, to bestow, grant, give, when the giver belongs to a higher sphere. Although the Japanese themselves reduce this word to Tama, 玉裳, = jewel, we take it for a compound of the old Tabi, = to give, and Avi, 合足, to meet. Thence; Monowo motte fitó ni tamavu¹), literally: to confer something on a person. 下房 ラ 諸学臣シニタマフ²), Rokuwo šo-sin ni tamavu, (the king Zin-mu) grants incomes to his servants.

As an auxiliary verb grafted on the root of another verb, it characterizes the action as proceeding from a higher person, whether divine or princely. It is expressed by $\Re \frac{\pi}{2}$ and phonetically by $\frac{\pi}{2}$, answers somewhat to the "please" or "have the goodness" used by courtesy, German geruhen, is however, at least in tales, rightly left out by the translator.

Examples:

Tedzňkara kňvá wo torite ko-gaviwo si-tamavu, (the princess) plucks mulberry leaves with her own hand, and feeds silkworms. — Sono notsi Tauyori takawo ken-ze sikába, Mi-kariwo moyovasare, sio-teowo torásime-tamavu, when afterwards falcons has been brought as presents from China, (the Japanese prince) caused hawking to come more into fashion; and had all birds caught. Mayov)i, u, to come into fashion. Tor)i, u, to take. — N. tatsimatsi mňnásiku naru; N. dies suddenly. — Iku-fodo mo náků kano fímé mňnásiku naráse-tamavu, immediately after, that lady (a princess) dies.

¹⁾ Nippon-ki.

²⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran.

For further examples see page 230 line 11 from the bottom. — p. 239 l. 8 from the top. — p. 274 l. 20. — p. 290 l. 9 from the bottom.

II. Tamavár)i, u, \(\Delta \) Tamauri, Tamôr)i, u, the continuative form of Tamavi, which however supplies the place of the passive form Tamavare, = to be granted, not in use (compare Nari as substitute for Nare, \\$ 100. III), and, like Tamavi, also as an auxiliary, is joined to the root, or to the gerund of a verb.

* Kore Tenno tamaváru nari, 是天所致也, this is a present from Heaven. — Ko-zi-kini Izanagino mikoto yori Amaterasu Ohon kamive mi kubi-tama wo tamavarisi koto wo iveri, in the book of antiquity it is mentioned, that by (the god) Izanagi a necklace was presented to the goddess of the sun. — Korewo mesite go ini dziyo- (五字位章叙章) serare, ... no na wo tamavari, (the king) inviting him, raises him to the fifth rank and confers on him the name of .. — Nuno san-byáku-tan wo Háku-sai kok-wau NN. ni tamavari (以), ya zyu-man fon wo ... ni tamavu, (the Jap. prince) gives three hundred pieces of silk to NN., king of Petsi, and presents (his minister) a hundred thousand arrows.

Uke-tamavar)i, u, \triangle Uke-tamôri (承。奉), to have the honor to receive (from a superior), or to hear. — Tsiyôkŭwo uke-tamavari³) (承勒), to receive the king's orders. — \triangle Go i-ken (御 章 意 見 之) wo uke-tamvatta or tamotta, I have had the honor to receive your advice. — \triangle Sakŭ-ya yukiga furi-masita to uke-tamavari-masita, I have had the honor to hear, that it has snowed during the night. — Go sa-u (御 章 左 * 右 *) uke-tamavari-tákŭ zonzi-másit, I wish to have the honor to hear, how you do. — Ka-roo (家 * 老 2) fünéwo idasite tamavari-keri, we (skippers are speaking) enjoy the honor, that the secretary (of the governor) has our ships cleared. — \triangle Midzuwo nomasete tamôre, = have the goodness to let me drink fresh water.

¹⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran, I, 10.

²⁾ Wa-gun Siwori, under Tamaou.

^{3) &}quot; " " I, 16.

§ 114. By Mátsŭr)i, u the speaker expresses the most profound respect for the object, be it a person or a thing, that he speaks of or to. As continuative form of Matsi (待享), = to wait (compare page 218), Mátsŭri (祭录。草。禪) means continual waiting, solemn attendance, to show respectful homage. Thence Tenwo mátsŭri, Tsiwo mátsŭri, 元记录先享, Senwo mátsŭri, Kamiwo mátsŭri, »people do homage to heaven, to earth, to ancestors, to Kamis," by celebrating feasts to their honor, Mátsŭri, being the feast itself.

As qualifying auxiliary joined to the root of a verb, $M\acute{a}ts \ddot{u}ri$ unites with it the idea of reverential homage. One says: $F \ddot{u}t\acute{a}rino\ kimini\ ts \ddot{u}kavuru\ (\triangle\ tsuk\^oru)$ koto atavázu, serving two masters is impracticable. — More respect is shown by the expression: $Kimi\ ni\ ts \ddot{u}kavu\ (\triangle\ ts \ddot{u}k\^o)\ m\acute{a}ts \ddot{u}ru\ koto\ 1$, to serve my prince with respect. — $\check{Z\^o}$ -teini $ts \ddot{u}ko$ -máts $\ddot{u}ru$, to serve the Most High reverentially 2).

When the excessively polite speaker says to his equals: O tomo tsäkamatsuri-mašoo, I will accompany you, or O itoma tsäkamatsuri-másä, I take leave of you, we may put down such politeness to his own account. The rule requires Tsäkai- or Tsäkae-mátsäri, yet this, for ease in pronunciation, passes into Tsäkô- (アカフ) or Tsäká-mátsäri. Tsäká-matsäri soro (仕人).

Tate-mátsŭri, 奉, to offer respectfully and solemnly, from Tate, set upright.

Kono toki ama-bito farákano uwowo Ten-wauni tate-matsuri si koto ari ³), it appears that, then, the divers solemnly presented a redbellied fish to the Emperor. — Deva-kuni yori kavikowo kavu monowo tate-matsuru ⁴), from the country of Deva persons, who breed silkworms, are solemnly presented (to the emperor). — Tsusima yori sirokane wo tate-mátsŭru ⁵), from the island of Tsusima silver is presented (to the emperor). — Hakŭsaino tate-matsureru te-fitó, artificers, whom Hakusai had presented (to the king of Japan).

Tate-mátsuri is joined to the root of a verb, as a qualifying auxiliary, to characterize the action as respectful, solemn.

Onna (声名)wo Yamáto Takeno Mikototo mausi-tatematsuru (申多本學 マッル) besi 6), your name I must respectfully call Yamáto Take no Mikoto (compare

i) Tschung-yung XIII.

²⁾ Yamato nen dai. I. 21 v,

⁵⁾ Ibid. II. 29 r.

²⁾ Ibid. XIX.

⁴⁾ Ibid. III. 4 r.

⁶⁾ Ibid. I. 22.

p. 228 line 8). — Ten-wauwo ŭmáni tasŭke-nose-tate-mátsuri, Kavatsive nige-yuku 1), they respectfully help the emperor to mount a horse and escape to Kavatsi.

It is in earnest, not in irony, when the historian says: Makowa no miko ukagavi kitárite Ten-wau wo korósi-tate-mátsaru 2), prince Makowa, steals in and respectfully kills the emperor.

Tate-matsurar)e, uru, the honorary passive, honoring, in the eye of the speaker, also him who respectfully offers or presents. If in the preceding example tate-mátsŭrárŭ were used, instead of tate-mátsŭru, the speaker would show his respect towards the murderer.

The states and occupations to the qualification of which courtesy pays particular attention, and the expressions of which, to be properly appreciated, must be understood also, are: 1. Being, existence; 2. Doing; 3. Seeing, Showing; 4. Saying; 5. Giving; 6. Going and Coming. — Explanation:

§ 115. BEING.

1. The spoken language, which leaves the use of Nari, to be, to the booklanguage, instead of it uses 1. Masi (§ 101); 2. Ari (§ 96); Ari-masi (§ 101); 3. Ori, Ori-masi (§ 97); 4. Gozari, Gozari-masi (p. 263 Rem.); 5. Soro (§ 102); 6. Fanberi and 7. Moosi.

6. Fanber)i, u, Famber)i, u, ハンベリ。ハベリ, of old ハムヘリ, means wait upon (侍。陪), stay or be somewhere (在), it is expressed in the epistolary style by 侯 (wait upon), and declared as equivalent to Samuravi, Sorai (§ 102).

A. B. sa-uni fanberite (左 * 右 = 侍 ジリラ) mátsŭri-koto wo tori-okonávu, (the Ministers) A. and B. taking the places right and left (of the sovereign), carry on the affairs of government. — Yumiva Zin-dai yori fanberi, the bow has existed from the time of the gods. Compare page 230 line 3 from the bottom.

In the former signification, as definitive or as defined part of a compound verb also, it qualifies the action as submissive, respectful: Mausi-uke is to receive respectfully; Uke-mausi on receiving to show oneself submissive. The

¹⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran.

root Mqu seems to be the same as occurs in Mqu-ki, uru (來朝), to come to court in solemn procession, Mesi-mquko- (not ka) simu (召來), to send for a person to court, and in Mairi, to make a solemn entry. Japanese philologers think that this Mausi, »placed after the root of a verb, frequently passes into Masi" (§ 101) 1).

Yamáto Takeno Mikoto Ise Dai-zin-Guu yori fou-kenwo mausi-ukete, Surugá no kuni made yuki-tamavu ²), prince Yamáto Take receives respectfully from the temple of the Great Spirit at Ise the precious sword and departs to the country of Suruga. — △ Kaki-tome-mausu bekiya (書留可申), if I shall take a note of it? — Sa-yau naraba O wakare moosi- (= masi) masu, as it is so, I take respectful leave of you; the ordinary expression for our: Farewell! — Ori wo motte On tsikadzūkini nari-mousi-taku-zon-zite, tada ima-made yen-in mausi soro, wishing for an opportunity humbly to come in contact with you, I have only delayed it till now. — △ O fanási-mousi-soro fītó wo mi-mousi soro, I see the man of whom you speak.

§ 116. Doing is expressed by

- 1. S)i, u, uru, to do (§ 103), Si-mas)i, u, to be doing (§ 101).
- 2. Itás)i, u, Itási-más)i, u, to accomplish (p. 284 Rem.), more stately than Si.
- 3. Asobas)i, u, the causative form 3) of Asob)i, u (遊之), to play, to be amused (Saru yedani asobu, the ape is playing among the branches), and further the honorary passive Asobasar)e, uru (改世 遊之), to take pleasure in any occupation, are used both for the qualification of what persons of rank do. See page 237 line 5.

△ Go ki-gen yoku asobasi-soro, His Honor's disposition (cast of mind) is good. —
Korewo obosimesi asobasi-soro, Your Honor means this. — Kono fooye On-ide asobir 出手 此方 basaru beku soro, literally: may your outgoing be to this 侯之 可方 方堂 side, for. please come to my house. — O noki asobasare!

读书 古艺 please to go back (or out of the way)!

¹⁾ MASU go-bini tsŭkete ivuva ofoku MAUSUno riyaku nari. — Wa-gun Siwori, under Masu.

²⁾ Yamato nen dai. I. 22. v.

³⁾ According to the Wa-gun Siwori, Asobasu is a contraction of 此灵处灵, Asobi-masu. — "Inisiye yori," so it adds, "Ki-nin kotowo nasaruruwo kaku iveri," it is an old custom to designate by this word the doing of noble persons.

- § 117. SEEING and SHOWING.
- 1. Mi, Mite, Miru (§ 99 nº. 34), to see. Sinawo miru kotowa deki-masuka? can I see your goods? ¹). Watdküsiwa kásükáni fünéwo mi-masu, I see ships in the distance. Do they say for it really in Yédo Watakusiwa kas'kani funega mie-masu or mieru? i. e. I the ship comes in view.
- 2. Mis)e, eru, to show. Bun-kowo O mise! 2), let me see a desk, or in the more round-about language of Miyako: Bun-kowo Go ken (何) 見 之) se kudasare mase.
- 3. Fai- (Hai-) ken, 拜? 見き, to look on with respect, with interest. Korewo fai-ken itási-masu, or fai-ken tsŭkamátsŭri-soro, I have the honor to see it
- 5. O me ni kakar)i, u, = to appear before His or Your Honor's eyes. Miyoonitsi O meni kakari-mašoo 4), = to morrow I shall come under your notice, I shall let myself be seen by you, I shall call upon you. Tadaima fazimete O meni kakari mašīta 5), it is for the first time that I come under your notice, = it is for the first time that I have the honor to see you.
 - 6. Go-ran (御 草 賣之), the glance of a noble person.

Go-ran-z)i, u, uru, to honor with a glance. — Ten-wauno on fava sou-ziyau wo ik-ken Go-ran-(一步見之神" 覽之) zite, kokóro yoku, waravi-tamavu), the mother of the emperor, at the first glance upon the prior, becomes glad of heart and smiles.

In the familiar style of speaking and writing the speaker applies Go-ran to his equals, to show them respect. — Korewo Go-ran-zerare, or Go-ran nasare, please look at this. — Naniwo Go-ran nasárň ka? 7), what are you looking at, what do you wish to see? the shopkeeper asks his customer. — Nanide gozari-masň ka? itte Go-ran nasare, go and see what it is.

- § 118. saying. The idea of saying is expressed by
- 1. Iv)i, u, I)i, u (), Ii-mas)i, u. Anatano O nawa nanito ii-masuka? what is your name? Watakusino nawa ... to ii-masu *), my name is ...

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 23.

²⁾ Ibid. p. 2.

³⁾ Ibid. p. 1.

⁴⁾ Ibid. p. 18.

⁵⁾ R. BROWN, Coll. No. 1048.

⁶⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran. II. 15 v.

⁷⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 1.

⁸⁾ Ibid. p. 19.

- 2. Nori-tamav)i, u, to order, when speaking of the master (see § 107, p. 299 l. 15).
- 3. Osíy)e, u, uru, 数量。 , pron. ŏssíy)e, ň, ňrň, to teach, to communicate a thing (fitoni kotowo) to a person by teaching, places him who makes the communication above him, who receives it. Wareni (not warewo) osíyeyo (数量,数量), = teach me or communicate to me, sounds modest; Anátani osíye-másu, = I teach you or communicate to you, is considered presumptious. Tamini takahési uyuru kotowo osiyesǐmu¹), (emperor Schin-nung) has the people taught ploughing and sowing.
- 4. Oós)e, uru, 仲类, to charge (fitowo kotoni, a person with anything), see § 87 n°. 25. Thence the passive Obserar)e, uru, 波克伊美, to be charged, instructed. To a superior one says: \triangle Anatawa sono toorini ooserare-mas'taka? have you spoken so? to an inferior: Omae sono toorini ittaka? Oose-tsäk)e, uru (仲付), speak to, to address.. Thence the honorary passive Obse-tsäkerar)e, uru, 设价付.— Nipponye to-kaiwomo oose-tsukeraruru aida, as or since (s. § 129, n°. 46) We (the sovereign speaks) have given orders to sail to Japan. \triangle Tonosama korewo oose-tsukerareta, the master has said this to us, or charged us with it.
- 5. Kikas)e, eru, = Kikasime, to make people hear, from Kiki, to hear. Ano O katani O kiki nasaré, learn from him, ask him. Kikasime, old-Jap. Kikame! 令太 聞表, let me hear! tell me! speaking to a nobleman. Watakusini O kikase nasare! let me hear! tell me. Watakusini O kikase nasaru koto ga dekimásűka? can you tell it me? Fitóno kokóroyeni naru koto wo ii kikaseru koto, to tell that which tends to the interest of others.

Kikó-sǐm)e, uru, 使美聞去, to let hear.

Kikosimes)i, u, 聞責召之, to let hear, inform.

6. Maus)í, u, マラシ, △ Moos)i, u, to speak respectfully to one's superior, to mention, declare; expressed ideographically by 云。曰。申。白。認。啓。告。奏。言.²). It has the definition of what is said as an Accusative, and, if it is a Substantive objective phrase, this with the particle to before it, whereas the more distant object, to whom or where one mentions, as Dative or Local

precedes. — Tsubusani sono kotowo mausi-soro, I mention this minutely. — Žooteini mausu, 二古文上文元节之, to speak to God. — Buts'ni mausite mausáku¹), 白佛言, = as he speaking to Buddha says. — Mausi-tamavakuva, 秦文言之人人之); as (the prince to the emperor) says. — Nagáku Nipponno yatsűko to narite, midzűki-monowo sadzuku besi to maosu, he declares that he will always be the servant of Japan, and pay tribute. — △ Sorewa Nippon dewa nanito moosi-masűka?³), what is this called in Japan?

If Mausi is used as a root, on which another verb is grafted, it is expressed thereby, that the action is confined to the speaking or saying, e.g. Sadame, to define; Mausi-sadame, = ivi-sadame, to define with words; Age, to raise; Mausi-ag)e, uru, 申上, = to say towards above, to communicate to a superior; Moosi-ire, 申入, proposition to one's equal. — Nandziye (or Nandzini) šo-kanwo motte moosi-ire-soro, I have the honor to inform you by letter. — Yaku-ninye mausi-tassu-besi, notice shall be given of it to the officers.

If Mausi is grafted on the root of a verb it stands for Mas)i, u, extstyle extst

§ 119. GIVING.

1. As from courtesy the speaker places the person addressed above him, even if he is his equal, he qualifies his own giving as an upward movement, and the giving of another as a downward one: he uses Ag)e, uru, to reach upwards, in opposition to the honorary passive Kudasar)e, uru, to be let down from on high, to descend (page 243 line 22), and since from this distinction it appears who gives, the speaker or the person spoken to, the express mention of a pronoun in connection with these and similar verbs is superfluous, as the following examples show:

△ Dai-kinwo age-másŭ kara, uke-tori-gakiwo kŭdásare 4), after I have paid you the price give me a receipt. — Dai-kinwa agerarênŭ (or agerare-masénŭ 5), = the price will not be reached upward to you by me, = I will not pay the price. — Dai-kinwa tadâima kŭdasáruka? 6), will you give me the money for the goods immediately? — Tadâima kŭdasaru kotowa deki-masenuka? 7), cannot you give (it)

¹⁾ Mausaku, see § 107. 2) Nippon-ki. Vol. VII. 14 r. 3) R. BROWN, Coll. No 366.

⁴⁾ Shopping-dialogues, p. 14. 5) Ibid. p. 13. 6) Ibid. p. 13. 7) Ibid. p. 13. Digitized by Microsoft ®

me immediately? — Anata-sama yori kudasareta kane itsi-pu mo tsukaiva itási-masenŭ, of the money given by Your Honor — it is a Japanese grisette who writes it — I have not yet spent one bu.

2. Saság)e, uru, (from Sasi, to show, and Age, to raise), 旅。 華。 擎, holding a thing up, to present to a person in a higher station.

Sinrano tsŭkai N.N. kitatte mitsŭkiwo saságŭ 1), N.N., ambassador of Sinra comes and solemnly offers presents (to the emperor). — Tanbano kuni yori kŭróki kitsŭnewo saságu 2), a black fox from the country of Tanba is offered (to the emperor).

3. Kudasare, joined to the root or to the gerund of a verb, characterizes the action as one proceeding from the person spoken to. It sounds more courtly than Nasare (§ 100. IV. 5).

O kai kudasare (vulgo kudasai), or kudasare-mase, or O kai nasare! please to buy. — The chapman: San-byakume de kudasare! 三步百美 日本田子下菜。3), please to pay 30 taels! The buyer: Ni-byakume de agemasoo, I will give you 20 taels. — Doozo mioo-nitsi O ide (油井田子) kudasare! please to come to-morrow! — Tsikadzukini O nari (油井田子) kudasare! please to approach him, = allow me to present him to you. — O kamai kudasaruna 5), take no pains. — Mo sŭkósi ne-masite kudasare 6), please to set the price somewhat higher. — Gok' yasŭku-site kudasaru nará, nokorázu kai-mašoo 7), if you give it as cheap as possible, I will buy all.

Remark. For Kudar)i, u see § 87 No. 10.

4. Tsŭk)e, uru, $\frak{+}\frak{7}$, to add to, expresses the idea of giving, without any boast. In \triangle O tsŭké nasare! please give it me! Tsŭke has reference to the speaker and the honorary passive Nasare to the person spoken to.

5. Torásim)e, uru, also Torás)e, uru. That the expression: »to give order to take" places the person ordered beneath the one who orders is self-evident. —

Fyak-kwanni zin, gi rei, tsi, sinno fudawo torasimete mono wo tamavä s), the emperor orders the assembled officers to take tablets, on which one of the words humanity, justice etc. is written and thereby bestows gifts.

賜多札及義*

¹⁾ Yamato nen-dai. III. 3 v.

²⁾ Ibid. III. 4 r.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 38.

⁴⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 19.

⁵⁾ Ibid. p. 21.

⁶⁾ Ibid. p. 38.

⁷⁾ Ibid. p. 36.

⁸⁾ Yamato nen-dai. III. 6 v.

6. Yar)i, u, T, to cast, throw, send (fitoni monowo, to send a thing to some one); it humbles the receiver. — Tsukaiwo O yari nasare, please send me a message. — Kono mononi kane itsipu yare! give that person one bu!

§ 120. Going and coming are expressed by

1. Mair)i, u, solemn entry, to enter (a palace or temple) in solemn procession. 多。意. 礼. 入。多人。多种. From Mai, Mau, to walk in procession, to hold a stately procession, and ir)i, u, to enter. The definition: whither one goes or where one enters, precedes, characterized by ye, ve or ni.

Ten-mu unadzuite O-maeve mairu¹), prince Ten-mu, yielding, waits upon His Highness (the Mikado). — Kau-raimo . . Go tsin (神学陳文) ni mairite fei-fukŭ su (平分伏文)²), also they of Corea come into the imperial camp and submit themselves.

In the familiar style of speaking and writing Mairi is used instead of Kitari, to come, if one's own coming to the person spoken to is meant, even if one is on an equality with him. If the pronoun of the first person is wanting, by Mairi it is indicated that the speaker means his own coming to the person spoken to. — \(\Delta \) Watáksa sinawo mini (or kai-mononi) maitta (宋), I have come to you to look at (or to buy) goods. — \(\Delta \) Watáksa kono fitówo tsurete maitta, I have brought this man with me. (Shopping-Dial. 18). — \(\Delta \) Firu-maye niwa mairi ye- (元) masénű, I cannot come before noon. (Sh.-Dial. 17).

- 2. Mairar)e, uru, if it occurs, is used by the speaker, instead of Mairi, by way of an honorary passive, from respect towards the person who comes.
- 3. Mairas)e, uru, cause to enter solemnly, cause a thing to enter solemnly, i. e. to send a thing to a person in a high station, to offer a thing solemnly. 進。上。獻. The giver humbles himself, and raises the receiver.
- 4. Mairasar)e, uru vulg. Marase, (passive of Mairasi), to be admitted with solemnity. An excellent example from ROR. § 105: S. Joan Baptista Jesu Christoni Baptisma wo sadzuke-mairasareta or Sadzuke-tatematsurareta, S. J. B. was solemnly admitted to the administration of baptism to J. C. Here by Mairi the giver of the baptism is placed beneath the recipient, whereas the passive form mairasareta expresses the respect of the speaker towards the giver.
 - 5. Ide, Idzuru (H 1/2), to come out of, to appear, and

¹⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran. II. page 4 r.

²⁾ Famato nen-dai. 1. 26 v.

6. Agár)i, u (上京), to come up, rise, are applied only to a person beyond the speaker. The former points to the beginning, the latter to the duration of the action. Fino ide is sun-rise, O ide (油井 出土), the rising, the appearing of persons beyond the speaker, His or Your coming. — O ide nasaru (中 出 成), = Your or His rise takes place, i. e. you or he comes. — Yokǔ O ide nasare, or nasare-mase, or, abbreviated, Yoku O ide! = be welcome! — O ide nasarei kasi! oh that he came! — Dokoni O ide nasaruka? whither are you going? — A Kono mitsiwo O ide nasare-mase, go this way. — Idzuku ye (or Idzuku yori) O ide nasare-masu? whither are you going (or whence are you coming)? — Watákusi to isšoni (一手声音=) O ide nasare-mase, go with me.

O ide also takes the place of the auxiliary verb Ari, Ori or Iri (§ 96, 97, 98), in connection with a precedent gerund. — Tasikáni sirité (štte) O ide nasare-másūka?¹), do you, or does he know it certainly? — O kiwo tsūkėte, mite O ide nasare!²), fix your attention on it and see! — Atsirani matte O ide nasare!³), wait there! — Akariwo motte O ide nasare, bring a light. — O agári (本本 上京) nasare, i. e. may your coming take place, says a merchant for: come in! (Sh-Dialogues 1).

Taken in an ample sense, by another's coming the speaker understands a meeting, a concession to the speaker's wish, e. g.: Sakewo age-mašoo ka? may I offer you sake? — Ari gátoo, no I thank you. — Nazeni O agari nasaránŭ ká? = why do you not rise? for: why don't you concede, — why do you refuse? (Shopping-Dialogues 21).

Agarasar)e, u, uru, to be raised, from Agarasi, to make rise, and this from Agari, to rise. The passive form, for honor's sake used in deference instead of Agari; also Agaraserar)e, uru.

7. Makar)i, u, evidently a continuative verb and as I think derived from Mak)i, u, = to leave off (§ 106), means a continual leaving off of work, i. e. to have furlough (Hd. Urlaub) or vacation, to be out of service for a time; to go on furlough 4). It was formerly used for people in service, who left the capital to go elsewhere for a time, on a visit. It is expressed by 罷。退。往。去。辞。问。至。就, and must be distinguished from Makar)e, eru, to be sent away, the pass. of Mak)i, u.

¹⁾ R. BROWN, Coll. Jap. No. 14.

²⁾ Ibid. No. 34.

³⁾ Ibid. No. 36.

⁴⁾ MAKARU to va koto sumite sono ba wo sirizoku koto nari.

日分 读述 Yamáto fime mikotoni makari-mousi-tamavite ivaku¹), (prince 如 Yamáto take) paying a visit to (the priestess) Yamáto fime cat Ise) says...— A Watakusiwa omaeno katani makarau, or makari-mašoo, I shall come and visit you.

When the chapman says: Sono ne de wa makári-masénű, = for that price I will not come to you, he declares that he is not willing to sell for that price. — Aru tokóroni makári-aru, to be somewhere on leave, to be somewhere; to be there for a time, but not definitely. — Bu-zini makári ari-masæ, = he finds himself for a time at ease, it is well with him. — That Makari is, at the same time used for *to die" will, our derivation considered, not appear strange.

Placed before another verb it seems to unite with it the idea » of furlough, on a visit only for a time." — Mioo-nitsi makári idzu besi, possibly I may just call on you to morrow. — Makari therefore indicates discretion, politeness.

8. Tsǐká-dzūk)i, u, $\text{Tr}_{\frac{1}{2},\pm}$, to come into the neighbourhood. — Fiiru tomosiini tsiká-dzuku, the night moth comes in contact with the lamp-light. Thence Tsǐká-dzūki, an acquaintance, one known. — O tsǐkádzūkini nari-masū, I become your acquaintance, I make acquaintance with you. — O tsǐkádzūkini nari-masīte yoro-kobi-másū, it is agreeable to me to have become acquainted with you.

The going out of the Mikado is called Mi-yuki-s)i, u, uru, or 行業幸多Giao-gao-s)i, u, uru, or Giao-gao-ari, = to spread happiness in going; on the other hand the going out of the Tai-kun was expressed by 御*成节 o nari.

Ten-wau N. kunini giqu-gqu-su²), the emperor repairs to the country of N. — Ten-tsi Ten-wqu aru-toki yama-sinaye giqu-gqu arite, kaheri tamavázü. Tenni no-bori tamavu ni ya?³), the emperor Ten-tsi once went into the mountains and did not return. Should he have gone to Heaven?

¹⁾ Nippon-ki VII. 16. r.

²⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran. 11. 10. r.

³⁾ Ibid. II. 4 v.

CHAPTER VIII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 121. As the relation indicated by conjunctions, in which propositions stand to one another, is either a coördination or a subordination, Grammar distinguishes coördinative and subordinative conjunctions. Consequently we arrange the Japanese conjunctions as follows:

A. COÖRDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

I. Copulative conj.

- 1. Mo, ..mó, ..mó.
- 2. Mata, .. mo mata.
- 3. Katsu, Katsu va.
- 4. Oyobi.
- 5. Narabi ni.
- 6. Kanete.

II. Disjunctive conj.

- 7. Arŭiva.
- 8. Matava.
- 9. ..ka, ..ka.
- 10. ..ya, ..ya.
 - .. yara, yaran.

III. Adversative conj.

- 11. Mottomo. Stera.
- 12. Nagára, Na (Nga), Ga-
- Sĭkasi-nagára, Sĭkasi.
 Sava-ive.
- 14. Sari- (San-) nagára.
- 15. Yavari.

IV. Conclusive conj.

- 16. Kono-yŭéni. Sore-kara. Koreni yotte.
- 17. Sorede, Soredewa, Soowa.
- 18. Sostte, Sogote.
- 19. Sáte.
- 20. Sunavatsi.

V. Explanatory conj.

- 21. Kedási.
- 22. Tadási.
- 23. Anzuru ni.

B. SUBORDINATIVE CONJ., GOVERNING THE ADVERBIAL PROPOSITION THAT PRECEDES.

I. Conjunctions of place and time.

24. Tokóro, Bašo.	27. Setsu.	31. Ma-ma.	35. Notsí.
25. Tokóro ni,	28. Migiri.	32. Avida. Aida.	36. Yori.
△ Tokóro de.	29. Utsí, Hodo.	33. Uyé.	37. Kara, noni.
26. Toki.	30. Ma.	34. Mave, Mayé.	38. Made.

II. Conjunctions of quality and manner.

a. Comparative,

b. Proportional conj.

39. Toórini. 40. Yauni, Gani. 41. Gotó)si, ki, ku.

42. Fodo, Fodoni.

III. Conjunctions of causality,

a. used in the notice of an actual cause.

43. Yuéni. 44. Kara. 45. Niyotte, Aida, Tsuki, Tsuite.

b. Conjunctions used in the notice of a possible, i. e. a future and thus an uncertain cause (Conditional conjunctions).

46. Naraba, Nara, in connection with Mosikuvá, Mosiva, Mosi.

IV. Conjunctions of the purpose.

47. Taméni. 48. Tote.

V. Conjunctions of concession.

49mo.	52 ĭédomó.	55.	Sikamo.
50tomo.	53. Sikaredomo, Saredomo.	56.	Somo-somo.
51domo.	54. Soredemo.	57.	Mamayo.

The relative comparative of propositions. 58. .. yoriva musiro.

Explanation.

A. COÖRDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

I. Copulative or coordinative conjunctions.

§ 122. 1. ..mo, f, adverbial suffix, = too, also, Lat. que, quoque, characterizes the word which precedes, either subject or object of the proposition, as added to, or made equivalent, to another subject or object already mentioned.

Kore, this: Koremó, this too, even this. Korewo, this, him; Korewomó, him too. As suffix to an interrogative pronoun it contains all that is included in the interrogative, as individuals together. — Dare, = who? (Lat. quis?) — Daremó, = whoever (Lat. quisque). See page 102.

It characterizes the concessive proposition. See § 131 n°. 50.

..mó, ..mó, = both.. and.., as well.. as also.., not alone or not only, but also.. — Kazé mó nami mó sidzŭmarázu, = both wind and waves do not abate, = neither wind nor waves become still. —

Avugi (△ Oogi) va, Ziyun tsukuri-tamávu to mó mata Bu-wau tsukuri-tamávu tó mó iveri¹), = concerning the fan, it is said that (to) Schun has made it, as also that (to) Wù-wang has made it.

2. Mata, 又克, 木克, = twig, something that is double; as adverbial conjunction = too, and, moreover (sono ǔyé), likewise, or also, unites both coördinate names, and equivalent propositions, and refers to the word or proposition, that follows it. — Anátano kinǔ-mono mata momen-mono it-tanno naga fabawa ikǔra ari-másǔká? 2), what is the length (and) breath of one piece of your silk- and cotton-goods? — Ke-oriwa kane-žak mata kenwo motsii-másǔ 3), for woolen goods the iron foot is used as also the ken (an ell of 6 feet).

Mata (亦刻) refers to the predicate in propositions like:

Manánde tokini korewo narau mata yorókobasikarázuya? 4), to learn a thing (and) practise it continually, is this not agreeable too? ..mó mata, = likewise. If the subject as well as the predicate of a proposition is made equivalent to the subject and predicate of a precedent proposition, the sameness of the subject is expressed by the suffix mo, and that of the predicate by the adv. mata (本); thence the formula ..mo mata.

Kono fătá fasirano kamimo mata... mi-miwo kákăsi tamáiki, also (mo) both these gods kept themselves likewise (matá) concealed. Compare page 225.

At the beginning of a proposition Mata points to the equality of its contents with that expressed in the preceding proposition. — Mata (X) anátano fooni sa-too ari-másŭ nará, sorewo kai-mašoo⁵), = and if you have sugar, I will buy it.

¹⁾ Kasira-gaki. VIII. 2. r.

²⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 33.

³⁾ Ibid. p. 28.

⁴⁾ Lun-yu, Cap. 1.

^{5) &}quot; " p. 40

3. Kátsů, H. 3, isolated by va or wa also Kátsůvá, Kátsůvá, = and also, moreover, Lat. quoque, continuative conj., characterizes the proposition or the part of the proposition that follows it, as an addition to the precedent clause.

銀三親シ且多商学賣学, Kon-sin katsu šoo-bai¹), friendship and trade. 有引 耻学 且多格象, Fadzi arite kátsǔ ǐtáru²), people grow ashamed and come to perfection.

Kátsǔ matá, 且亦, moreover also, than so much the more.

Kátsŭ-kátsŭ, = moreover and moreover, all and all.

4. Oyóbi, 及意, = reach to, as conj. to and with, inclusive, unites two objects removed from each other, comprising the series of similar things between them. It is a synonym of ..ni itáru made or ..yuki-tsükite, = coming to.., and of Mademó. (See § 62. nº. 26).

The stipulation that Japan shall appoint consuls and commercial agents abroad, is expressed in the Treaty of 1858, Art. I al. 4, by:

諸当取り締ずり役を人立及を貿が易幸の處当置を役を人立の任意べた

5. Narabini, $\frac{1}{2}$, besides, also, from Narab)i, u, to place oneself next, joins substantives and propositions. — Morokosi narabini Ban-goni dzuu-suru mono, a person versed in the Chinese as also in foreign languages. — Nippon no kome narabini Nippon no mugi 3), Japanese rice and Japanese wheat.

At the beginning of a proposition Narabini is met with e.g. in Art. VII al. 2 of the said Treaty, containing the stipulation: »And these buildings shall not be injured," after the building of churches is conceded in the previous proposition.

6. Kanete, 兼孝而[¬]。兼²/_¬, at the same time, gerund of Kane, to take with or together, to comprehend, comprise, embrace, characterizes an apposition. — N.N., Bungono kami kanete Nagasaki Go-Bu-gioo, N.N., prince of Bungo and governor of Nagasaki.

II. Disjunctive conjunctions,

between propositions that reciprocally exclude or may supersede each other.

§ 123. 7. Arŭiva, Arŭiwa, 🏂 🎝 , contr. of dru tvu va, = as someone says 4), separates, with the signification of or, or also, substantives and propositions

¹⁾ Netherl.-Jap. Treaty of 1858, in the beginning. 2) Lun-yn, II. 3. 3) Treaty. 11. 19.

⁴⁾ アルイハ有人,略ナルベン又一た謂こ,義z. Wa-gun Sivori, under Arniva.

which may take the place of each other. — Kono figiri arŭiva sono i-zen nitemo 1), at this date or earlier.

Aruiva repeated has the power of exclusion. — Aruiva kono figiri, aruiva sono i-zen, either at this date, or earlier.

- 7. Matava, Matawa, the mata isolated by va, = or also, then well. The »or" in »consul or consular agent" is expressed in the Treaty Art. I. al. 2 by 又爱, matava. 日夢本堂貴 官意又爱,委《任意》役多人意,Nippon ki-kwan matava i-ninno yaku-nin²), Japanese officers of rank or also commissioners. Anáta wa Egeres mata va Oran-mo-ziwo O kaki ka?, do you write English or Dutch?
- 9. .. ka, 默力。耶。乎, as suffix and pronounced with emphasis, original characteristic of the direct question; e. g.: Fitóká? a man? Arāka? is there? Ari! there is!

In alternative propositions repeated as a suffix, ...ka, ...ka, takes the place of our disjunctive either..., or..., Germ. entweder..., oder...— Yamaka? Kumoka? toókŭ-site siru-koto nasi, = whether mountain? or cloud? being far off I cannot know it. — Soreka aránŭka? (是耶事耶), it is so, it is not so? — △ Soreka, koreka koi to iye! tell that or this (one or the other) to come! 4).

Remark. In my opinion, ka gets its disjunctive power from its original quality of an interrogative particle. Sore and kore are thus characterized by ka as undetermined points of interrogation. Besides the alternative question: is it so or not? is expressed by two coördinate questions, of which one as well as the other closes with the interrogative particle ka, thus Sa-yoo de ári-másāka? Sa-yoode ari-masēnāka? = is it so? is it not so? The question: Is it silk or woolen stuff? sounds in the spoken language: Kinu-monode ári-másāka? ke-oride ári-másāka? b = is it silk stuff? is it woolen stuff? If this alternative question is put, without any modification, dependent on the subsequent to bmóu (= to think that), or of to tovu (= ask if), the expression is obtained: to think that, or ask if it is silk or woolen stuff. Thus, when b answers to our dis-

¹⁾ Treaty. XI. 1.

²⁾ Ibid. IX. 6.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 14. The original has O kaki ka for O kaki-másű ka.

⁴⁾ Compare COLLADO, p. 59 line 7 from the bottom. "Pedro ca Iuan ca coi to iye, die quod veniat Petrus vel Joannes."

⁵⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 16.

junctive either.., or.., it is because the questions themselves are disjunctive or alternative.

Since Oókata means »for the most part, in general" (see page 175 nº. 44), Oókata sayoo de gozári-mašoo, oókata sayoo de gozári-másŭ-mai of course also means »In general it may be so, in general it may not be so," for which we are used to say: »It may be so, in general, or it may not." Consequently the disjunctive character in those two propositions is not expressed by Oókata, but by the mere antithesis of the propositions themselves ¹).

10. ..ya, \forall , disjunctive but not exclusive suffix 2), = or, and, Lat. vel, sive, et; — Taya sonova fărubitári, garden or (and) field has become old, in the spoken language: Taya sonoga fărubita. — Dzu-kinyá kásawo nuku, to take off kerchief or (and) hat. — Sībayá ŏdórowo motte sekiwo tsŭkúru, to make mats of underwood or thorns. — Fanásīyá waráu koye, noises of talking and laughing.

Also ya is, just as ka, properly the closing particle of a question, it may be simple or disjunctive, and as that about which a question is put, is uncertain, this particle is also called ivayuru utagainoya, i. e. the so called ya of uncertainty. — Ano fitowá kitárűyá? is he coming? — Sīkárűyá, inayá? is it so or not? — Mikado fei-anni másűyá? inayá? 3), = is the Mikado at his ease or not? = how does the Mikado?

Asa yuvuni || oyani kau-kau (孝孝行孝) || suru fitowá Kamiya Fotokeno || megumi aru besi.

He who early and late does his duty towards his parents, Shall have the grace of the gods and of Buddha.

Yara, properly Yaran, = Ya + aran, = if there shall be? — ... samaga kurude arau yara, watákusiva utagaute órŭ, I doubt if Mr. N. will come. — Idzureno koto yara sirarezu, it is not known what matter it is. — \triangle Fitó yara tsiku-šoo yara siranu*), whether it is a man or a brute — I do not know.

III. Adversative conjunctions.

§ 124. 11. Mottomo (improperly expressed by 尤美元), though, although, adversative or properly concessive conjunction, originally Mottemo

¹⁾ Compare R. BROWN, Coll. Jap. L.V. line 5 from the bottom.

²⁾ 言言之/間変也な、Wagun Siwori, under Ya.

³⁾ Nippon-li, XXVI. 9.

⁴⁾ Borrowed from collabo, pag. 60.

 $(\begin{subarray}{c} \begin{subarray}{c} \be$

Gun-yoono šo-buts va Nippon yakŭ-šono foká ve urŭ-be-引き 尤葉 彼う 軍ジ karázŭ. Mottomo gwai-koku-zin tagaino tori-fikiva sasi-メタラ 所当 用ラ kamai-arŭ koto nasi¹), munitions of war may be sold 構造 國ラ 外書 諸当 to the Japanese government exclusively. That fo-では関係では、一般の one another will not, however be noticed. — By Motte as it appears from this example, the contents of the previous proposition are resumed whereas the suffix mo stamps them as

conceded. That the proposition following Mottomo contains an antithesis, is the logical consequence of the concessive character of the previous proposition. Compare § 74. The Japanese are accustomed not to distinguish the conjunction Mottomo from the adverb Mottomo, according to the old manner of writing properly Mótomó and ideographically expressed by 最 or 尤, = »utmost, by eminence" (see page 134) and also express the conjunction Mottomo by the character £, by which it has become a stumbling-block for many a translator. As a proof it is necessary to cite the official Dutch translation of the above mentioned article: » Oorlogsbehoeften zullen alleen aan de Japansche regeering verkocht worden EN om dezelve aan vreemde natiën te verkoopen is buiten deze bepaling." — Of another article 2) also, in which the description of the tedious manner of examining goods is followed by: 尤取調方格多外召時一日ョ 費サベルベシ, i. e. the examination, however, shall take place without any extraordinary waste of time, the Dutch translation drawn up by Japanese interpreters has "EN" (and) instead of however, whence it appears that they, misled by the Chinese character, have misconceived the force of the conjunction Mottomo.

Remark. The Mottomo occurring in Go mottomode ari-másň (大学 工作 $7 \approx 7$ 3), You are right) of the everyday colloquial language, is evidently the adverb used as a substantive, and the phrase, which is elliptical, means: what you have said is incontestable. This expression is, by the by, also con-

¹⁾ Treaty. II. 18.

²⁾ Art. III. al. 5 of the Ki-soku or Tariff belonging to the Treaty of the 18 Aug. 1859.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 13.

nected with a particular shrewd hero of antiquity, one Mr. Mottomo (尤), who had applied to himself the name of 道多理", Doo-ri, i. e. right, reason 1). We leave this as we find it.

12. Nagára, vulg. Gatera, abbrev. Ga, = in the midst of, whilst, properly a word expressive of relation, arisen by syncope from Naka gara, which for the sake of euphony has taken the place of Naka kara ($\begin{align*} \begin{align*} \begin{alig$

If the subsequent proposition is an antithesis to the antecedent, Nagára is 文章 文章 equivalent to: nevertheless, yet, e. g. So-fukuwo ki-nagára matexiri-kotowo kiki-tamavŭ²), though he wears mourning, yet he attends to affairs of government. — Kono kuni Dai-Minni tsudzuki-nagára, kisa arázŭ, this country, though it borders on China, has (nevertheless) no elephants. Arisi-ga, = Arisi-nagara, though there was...

The antithesis is more emphatically expressed by Nagáramó.

The spoken language, which contents itself with putting Ná in the place of Nárň-dáke (if possible), also retains simply ga (at Yédo nga) of Nagára, to which the force of but has been justly attributed 3). It is put, like Nagára, at the end of the concessive proposition. — Ano O katava kokórozasiva yorósiu gozari-mas'ta ga, matsigai-mas'ta 4), though his intention was good, yet he has made a mistake.

¹⁾ Wagun Siwori, under Mottomo.

³⁾ R. BROWN, Coll. Jap. LV. LXII. 2.

⁵⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p 23.

²⁾ Nippon o-dai itsi-ran. II. 1 v.

⁴⁾ Ibid. p. 41. No. 313.

finatamo yosi1), in the breeding (of silkworms) on tubs, shadow is good, but too much cold injurious, however as soon as (the silkworms) are brought out of doors and fed there, sunshine also is good.

14. Sári-nagára or Sán-nagára (然 # ナガラ。 雖然, vulgo 乍然), by syncope for Sikári-nagára, = since it is so, is put at the beginning of a proposition, which contains an antithesis, and therefore is equivalent to: although it is so, notwithstanding, nevertheless. The antithesis is more decidedly expressed by Sari-nagára mó or Sĭkásĭ-nagára mó. — San-nagára is phonetically, but not ideographically, indicated by E*.

15. Yavari, 猶言, 然。即, however, yet, nevertheless, still. — △ Nandziga sei-sitemo, sei-sezu tomo, kare va yavari sorewo suru de arau, whether you forbid him or not, he will do it nevertheless.

IV. Conclusive conjunctions,

preceding the proposition, which expresses a consequence.

§ 225. 16. The adverbial expressions formed with .. yuéni, .. kara and .. ni yotte: Kono yŭéni, Karuga yŭéni, Sore yŭéni, or also simply with Yŭéni, therefore.

Sore-kara, △ Soreda kara, Soosita kara vulgo Soosite kara, thence, then. Koreni yótte, Soreni yótte, therefore. Sikáruni yótte, or Sáruni yótte, since it is so, therefore.

Further elucidation follows in § 129, No. 43, 44, 45.

17. △Sore de, 夫とデ, Sore de wa, so, thus, then, = ni yótte. — △ Watákŭsi dai-zi na koto wo tássu, sore de O kike! I communicate an affair of importance, thus listen! — \(\Delta Soredew\alpha kai-ma\section 0^2 \), then (as it is so) I will buy it.

△ Soo wa, a contraction of Sikákuva, Sikauwa, so, or in the opinion of Japanese, of 左* 樣子, Sa-yau-wa.

た^ッ程¹ワマカリマセヌ, Šoowá makári-masénă 3), so I cannot consent to it, so it is not to be done. (For Makári compare page 325, line 5.)

18. Soo-site, vulgo So-site, 且皇, also 卒以而孝, Sosste written, contr. from Sikau-site, = since it is so, thus, then. See Shopping-Dial. page 15. Comp. △ Soo si-mašoo, I shal do it.

¹⁾ Yama-mayu kai-foo fi-den. I. 1.

^{2,} Shopping-Dialogues, p. 10. 3) Ibid. p. 3.

- 19. Sate, Sate va, so, thus, a fusion of Sikárite, Sikatte, = (this) being so, according to some, also of 左 * 核 * 仕 * 而 * Sau (Soo) site, which as far as the meaning goes, comes to the same thing, placed at the beginning of a proposition, expresses a consequence, even if the idea, from which the consequence flows, is not expressed as in: »So then the day approaches, on which" etc. Sate is expressed by 叔, sometimes also by 㑇.
- 20. Sunavatsi, modified for vocal harmony from Sunávo-tsi (正直路), = the right way; adverbially: right, directly (Germ. geradenwegs), conjunctively: consequently, is placed at the beginning of the subsequent proposition, which expresses the consequence. It is also used with the power of videlicet, to wit. 則芳, 即。乃。迺。便。即一便.

to wit. 則子。即。乃。迺。便。即一便.

则子,即。乃。迺。便。即一便.

Sen-kou-sǔrǔ tokóro wó sirébá, sǔnavátsi mitsi ni tsǐkási¹), if one knows what precedes and what follows (if one knows the cause and effect), then one is near the path of wisdom. — 安了政节 五二年至即子,千至八字百岁五二十至八字年表,the Vth year of Ansei, consequently (or viz) the year 1858²).

V. Explanatory conjunctions.

§ 226. 21. Kedási, = namely, for, though, Lat. nam, at the beginning of a sentence, which explains the proposition preceding, mostly giving a reason. — Yun-dzŭkawo nigirito ívu. Kedási tana-kokóroni nigiruno tokóro nari, the hilt of a bow is called nigiri (hilt), it is the place at which it is held with the hand though.

The shade of doubt ascribed to Kedási by some philological Japanese is with justice, not admitted by others.

- 22. Tadási, 但美, = properly, devoid of other definitions, forsooth, is placed at the beginning of a proposition, which explains a preceding assertion by a particular circumstance and generally confines it to that. It is to be distinguished from the adv. Tada, = only (see p. 176 n°. 66). Yau-ginni hiyaku mai, tadási gulden nari, European silver two hundred Mai, i. e. guilders.
- 23. Anzuruni, 按了元 $\nu_{=}$, = in my opinion; Remark, precedes that, which the writer has to remark on the saying or another.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku, § 3. 2) Neth. Jap. Treaty. Art. XI. al. 5.

B. SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS, THAT GOVERN ADVERBIAL PROPOSITIONS.

I. Conjunctions of place and time.

§ 127. 24. Tokóro, f_{12}^{-1} , or Ba-šo, = place, it answers to our adverbial conjunction of place where (see page 97). — \triangle » Anátano sinuru tokóro de watá-küsimo mata asökoni sini-mašoo, where thou diest, I too will die" 1). — Mina mina nige-sarisi tokóronivá (or ba-šonivá) fitóri tatte-oru, alone to remain standing, where all have fled. — Kavi-tatento omóvu tokórono do-ma²), a patch of ground, where people think of breeding (silkworms).

25. Tokóroni, \(\triangle \) Tokóro de, characterizes the attributive proposition by which it is preceded, also as an adverbial definition of time, and is equivalent to: whilst, as. \(- \) Mina mina yöróköbú tokóroni, sono yo nivakáni oo-kaze fükú-kitári-keri, whilst everyone (on board) was full of gladness, in that night a storm suddenly arose, \(= \) every one was glad, as a storm arose etc. \(- \) Sīkárū tokóroni, as it is so, it being such.

26. Toki, 時‡, time; Tokivá, Tokini, Tokinivá = Tokinvá, at the time of, when. — Mono-kuu tokini monogatári sézu, at the time of eating (when one is eating) one does not talk. — Finó kasá árŭ tokivá, fidéri; tsŭkíno kasá árŭ tokivá, san nitsino ŭtsí ame-furu to iéri, people say that the weather becomes dry, when there is a sun-hood (a circle round the sun), and that it rains within three days, when there is a moon-hood. — Sono tate-mono wo ... sǐyu-fo nado suru koto aran tokiniva, Nippon yáku-nin korewo ken-bun sŭru koto tau-zen taru bési³), when it shall happen that people repair buildings... etc., Japanese officers will have to look after them. — Sorewo sŭruná; sayooni náru tokiva semerareruzo, do not do that! if it happen so, then you will be blamed, = do not do it, otherwise you will be etc. — △Yedo e yukimasĭta toki Rokŭ-go gawani midzŭ ga masimasĭta 4), when I went to Yédo, the water in the river Rokugo was high.

27. Sétsǔ, 質 \$\foralle{1}\$, division of time. (See page 158). — Tadási idzureno kaze nitemo kiravú nari; mottomo no-gaino sétsǔ va kurusikarazu 5), properly one must avoid every wind; at the time of the breeding (of wild silkworms) in the open fields however, it does not matter.

¹⁾ R. BROWN. Coll. Jap. LVII.

²⁾ Yama-mayu fi-den. III. 1.

³⁾ Neth.-Jap. Treaty. II. 7.

^{4) &}quot; " " LVI. 5) "

^{5) ,, ,,} I.

The rest of the words expressive of relation, which define time are used in the same way as *Toki*, i. e. they are preceded by the proposition governed by them in its attributive form. If they occur with a gerund preceding, they then belong, adverbially, to the subsequent principal proposition.

- 28. Migiri, \overline{A} , = street-cutting 1), paving with flag-stones, also the stones of a staircase; fig. step, space of time. Synonym of Sétsu (nº. 27). Funé no tsiyáku-kanno migirini, on the arrival of the ship.
- 29. Utsí, 内 ‡, Utsíwa, Utsíni, within; while. See page 188. A Yédoni ori-masita ŭtsíni, [on-siro no] kwa-zi ga ari-masita ¹), there was a conflagration [in the palace], whilst I was at Yédo.
- 30. Ma, 間マ, 1. space, interval; 2. opportunity. Ikari vo orósu ma mo nakŭ-site, kazeni makasete yuku, not even having had time to drop the anchor, they drifted before the wind.
- 31. Ma-ma, $\beta \beta \gamma \gamma$, Ma-mani, 1. at every place, wherever; 2. on every occasion, as often as, every time that. Repetition of Ma (see page 54), synonym of Aida-aida. Ko-tsi matava siya-tsiwo forite (fotte), ma-mani ki-sekiwo uru koto ari, at the digging up of old soils, or ground on which temples have stood, rare stones are frequently discovered. Kanewo útsă ma-mani, as often as the bell is struck. Monowo tóră ma-mani, as often as any thing is taken.

Tabi-tabini, 度多 V \ = , Tabi-gotoni, 每 度, Gotoni, 每 点,

Yawo fanátsu tabi-gotoni (or Yano tobu gotoni) koyé wo tatsuru, to call out at every shot of an arrow (or so often as an arrow flies).

- 32. Aida, 間元, while. See page 189.
- 33. Uyé, 上党, above, upon, on. See page 186.
- 34. Mave, Maye, Maye, Nave, vulgo Mai, before. See p. 187. » Watákusi no kaeru maeni site simae, get it done before I come back" 3). A » Watákusi wa mairanu maini sigoto wo sité simai-mašoo, I shall finish my business before I return" 4), properly: I don't come; I first shall have done my business.

¹⁾ Mi-giri, contracted from Mitsino kiri, way-cutting, or as some say, from Mins-kiri, = water-cutting, because the row of flag-stones laid at short distances from one another to step on in rainy weather is called Migiri. — Wa-gun Siwori, under Migiri.

²⁾ R. BROWN, Coll. Jap. LVI.

- 35. Notsi, 後年, after. See page 187.
- 36. Yori, [j], since. Ame tsŭtsi fĭrákesi yori kono kata, since heaven and earth have developed themselves. \triangle Mairi-mastta (vulgo mastte) yori, áno tokórowa firake-mastta 1), that place has been opened, since they came.
- 37. Kara, 自孝, after, see page 72. Watakŭsi-niwa yomenu kara, tsuu-zi-katani tanonde, naosi-te morai-masŭ, I cannot read it and thus is lightly in the page 72. Watakŭsi-niwa yomenu kara, tsuu-zi-katani tanonde, naosi-te morai-masŭ, I cannot read it and thus I shall request the interpreter to translate it. △ Age-másŭ kara uke-tori-gakiwo kudasáre, after delivery by me, please give a receipt. Vulgo also with a gerund preceding. △ Tabéte (for tabeta) kara yuki-masĭta²), he went, after he had eaten.

38. Made, 近季, to, till. See page 192.

II. Conjunctions of quality and manner.

§ 128. a. Comparative conjunctions, equivalent to: like, just as, so as. 39. Toórini, 通点, i, = in the way, on the passage of... (see page 191), according to, in the way that, properly a word expressive of relation. — 例片之/通点=, Reino toórini, according to the law. — Anátano osíyuru toórini itási-másita, I have acted according to your direction (as you prescribed).

- 40. Yauni, △Yooni, ♣ =, obsol. Gani, in the manner of, in the way that, so that, as if 3). Omóvu yau, the meaning. Fitó no săku yauni sură, to do as others would gladly have it. Kaviko kăvá ni fanarenă yauni su-besi, people must go to work so, that the silkworm be not removed from its food. △ » Fitó-bitó no osoreru yoo ni okonai-masita, he behaved so, that people were afraid of him" 4).
- 41. Gotó)si, ki, ku, 岩子。 如; to be like... (see page 109 nº. 7), is equivalent to »to be as if," when it, used without a subject, has a proposition before it, as complement. Akŭwó konómŭ monová wazávaiwo mănēkŭ; tatoveba fibíkinó otóni ōó-suru ga gŏtósi, whoever loves evil, draws upon himself adversity; it is, to use a comparison, as if the echo answered the sound. Mosi sa-yauni yomu-beku naraba, in case one must read so. Mosi sa-yauni yomu-bekiga gotókŭ naraba, if one ought to read so (which the speaker doubts).

¹⁾ R BROWN, Coll. Jap. LVII.

³⁾ Comp. page 85. Dono yau etc. and 131.

²⁾ Ibid. LVI.

⁴⁾ R. RROWN, LVII.

b. Proportional conjunctions, which express a proportion as: in proportion to, how, — so much the.

42. Fodo (△ Hodo), Fodoni, 是常, = in proportion to, for so far as, so much as, so much that. Comp. page 131. — Tsikarano oyóbu fodoni, for so far as my strength reaches. — △ Watákusi va kiu-sókű-si-tai fodoni tsűkarete oru, I am so tired, that I long for rest. — ..va .. to ivu fodono kotoba nari, .. is a word that says so much, as .. — Fisásiki fodo ooi (△ Hisásii hodo ooi), = much in proportion to the long lasting, i. e. the longer, the better. — △ Ooi hodo yoi¹), the more, the better. — Fisási-kereba fisásiki fodo oói, the longer, the more. — Hayákerebá hayáki fodo yoi, the sooner, the better. — Areva nomeba, nomű fodo kavakiga tsűyóku nárű, the more he drinks, the more thirsty he is. Warera kono simani arisi fodo, as long as we were on this island.

saru fodoni, 爾尤程常=, arisen by syncope from Sikáru fodoni, = for so far as it is so, is placed at the beginning of a sentence. Sari-fodoni is also met with.

III. Conjunctions of causality.

§ 129. a. Conjunctions of propositions, which notice an actual, past or present cause.

43. Yué, $\bigstar_{\mathbb{Z}}$, now commonly written \mathcal{I}_{\sim} , = cause; Yuéni, for reason of, because, as, whereas, while, with an attributive definition preceding, which is sometimes qualified as a genitive by ga. — Sore Nippon-gókuva Tsiu-kwanó tsiyori figásini atárŭ yŭéni Nit-tóutó ivũ, the country of Japan, as it from the middle kingdom (China) lies towards the east, it bears the name there of the (country) to the east of the sun. — Ten-kani keda-mono oóku, den-fatawó sokonávu yŭeni fitóni kariwó osíve-tamáviki, as many animals were upon the earth and did damage to the lands, he (a certain prince) taught the people hunting. — Ten-kani midzŭ oósi yŭeni, as rivers are on the earth in great numbers. — Mű-kásiva kinuni monowo kakisi yűéni, kami to ivu zi ito-fenwo kakeru²), formerly people wrote on silk; thence the character indicating paper (A) is combined with that indicating silk (*). — Yáma takakigá yűeni táttokarázu; ki árűvó mótte táttositó sű, on account of its height, a mountain does not deserve honor; that it bears trees, that makes it deserving of honor. — Fító kovetárugá yűeni tátto-

tsi arŭwó mótte táttosi tó sŭ, a person is not respectable on account of acquired bulk; having understanding, that makes him respectable.

Compounds with Yuéni, placed as illative conjunctions at the beginning of a proposition:

Kono yǔéni, 是ラ故堂, = therefore. — Kono yǔéni kun-sivá mádzu tókǔni tsǔtsǔsímǔ¹), therefore the philosopher applies himself particularly to virtue. — △Sore yǔéni, 夫と故堂, = for such reasons, therefore.

Kárů gá yůé ni, by apheresis for Sikárů gá yůeni, = on account of its being so, since it is so, therefore, thence, Lat. ergo, is placed at the beginning of a proposition, which contains the consequence of a series of propositions preceding. — Kárů gá yǔeni kuni wó osámůrů kotová ĭhé wo totonouru ni ári²), therefore the management of a country depends upon the management of his own house.

44. Kara, 由党。首, = from, Lat. ex (see page 71), as an illative conjunction peculiar to the spoken language of Yédo, it characterizes the proposition it governs as the cause, from which the subsequent proposition flows. The verb dependent on Kara is used as a substantive. — Te-hon-girega ári-másŭkara, korewo Go-ran nasare³), as patterns are at hand, please see them. — △Kon-nitsiwa yohodo ósói kara, mǐyau-nitsi kaheri-masǐyoo⁴), as it is late to day, I shall return to morrow. Osói stands for Osóki of the written language. — Fosiwa tai-soo toói kara, tsiisáku miye-másŭ⁵), the stars seem small, becauee they are more or less distant. Kara is also used with the signification of after, especially when it is preceded by a gerund. — Kan-ben-si masĭyoo kara, watákusinó sinamo O kai ku-dasáre⁶), = after you shall have thought of it, please buy my goods. — △ Tabete kara yuki-masĭta †), after having eaten, he went. Fünewa iwa ni atatte kara, sidzumi masĭta, the ship sunk after it struck on a rock.

Compounds with Kara, placed as illative conjunctions at the beginning of a proposition:

Sore kara, 自夫, vulgo Soreda kara, thence.

△ Soo site (properly Soo-sita) kara, thence, then.

△ Soo site, So site, 且, then.

¹⁾ Dai Gaku. X. 6.

²⁾ Ibid. IX. 5.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 23.

⁴⁾ Ibid. p. 41.

⁵⁾ R. BROWN, LVII.

^{6) &}quot; p. 39. 7) R. BROWN, LVI.
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Compounds with ...ni yôtte, as illative conjunctions placed at the beginning of a proposition:

Kore ni yótte, Sore ni yótte, therefore, Lat. igitur.

Sĭkarŭ ni yotte, or Sarŭ ni yotte, as it is so, for such reasons, therefore, consequently.

Remark. .. ni yôtte is, in the official style, superseded by the words expressive of relation Aida, = between, while (§ 62 no. 14), and Tsuki, Tsukite, Tsuite, = respecting (§ 63. B. 3). At least, places have come under our notice, in which both words must have causal force. Compare page 320, line 14.

b. Conjunctions of adverbial propositions, which indicate a future, possible cause (Conditional conjunctions).

We may not pass them over in silence, because they are suggested by others although they do not really exist. We have alone to do with a time-defining local, and thus if, with a view to the spoken language, we confine ourselves to Nari, to be, with the form Naran-tokini, = when it shall be, for which also simply Naru-tokini, = when it is, is used, or, instead of it, with the suppositive form explained in § 76, thus, to stick to Nari, with

46. Naraba, \triangle Nara, = if it shall be; it is preceded by a substantive or by a verb in the substantive form. — \triangle Sa-yoo nará, or Sore nara, kai-mašoo³), if it is so, then I shall buy it. If the speaker intends to say: as it is so, then he takes Nara for a contraction of Nareba. — Firy mayenivá mairi-ye-masénu. —

¹⁾ Ko-si kei-dzu. I. p. 4 r.

²⁾ Kasira-gaki. IV. 4 r.

³⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 4.

»Sore nará, firugo ni."¹). I can't come before noon. — »In the afternoon then." — △ Nokorázu O kai nasáru nará, onázi nedande age-mašoo²), if you will take all, I will sell them at (♂) the same price. — △ Nokorázu fei-kin nedande O kainasare. — »Yasui nará, tori-mašoo"³), = Buy all the pieces at one and the same price. — »If it is cheap, I will take it.".

If the mere possibility or probability of the statement is insisted on, then, in addition to Naraba, use is made of the adverb:

Mósĭkŭvá, or simply Mosiva, Mosi, = in case of, if. 苟。如。若. = 万三一年 Man-itsi, one against a thousand. Its place is at the beginning, or even after the subject of a subordinate proposition, whereas the predicate verb of that statement, if it is not attributively connected with toki (as Naru-toki), is put in the suppositive form (Naraba) or occurs as the gerund. Mosi sikárŭ toki va, in case it is so; 若多元, Mosi sikárabá, if it might be so; Mosi sikárite, in case it is so.

As Sikuva is evidently the adverbial form of Siki, = ..ish, ..like, isolated by va (see page 109 n°. 71), only mo of Mo-sikňvá, remains as the nucleus of this compound. If this mo is a variation of the ma (直,), = actually, explained at page 130, Mó-siki vá is equivalent to the Latin veri-similiter; if it is an abbreviation of ŏmói, = thought, then Mósĕ-kŭvá means probably, likely, peut-être. — Inu ka neko ka? dog? or cat? Inu ka? mosikuva neko ka? a dog? or perhaps a cat? — Ni-nusi mosi kore wo inamu toki va 4), in case the owner of the goods refuses such. — Mosi ta no kóku-zin so-seino takawo gen-suru toki va, Oranda-zin mo dou-yau ni siyo-seraru bési 5), if the amount of the import duty be lowered for another nation, the Dutchmen shall be placed on a like footing. — Mosi gi-deu-(deo)si gátaki tokivá, sono zi-genwo ... sei-funi mestte styotsi-sesimu bési 6), if such may be difficult to determine, this question shall be brought to the knowledge of the government and (by it) be settled. — Niigata minato, mosi sono minatowo aki-gataki koto arava (read araba), Nippon nisino kata nite betsuni fitotsuno minato narabini mărawo ... aku-bési 7), the port of Niigata — in case a difficulty might arise about opening this port, a harbor and town shall be opened elsewhere on the West-side of Nippon. — Mosi siyau-zen

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 17.

²⁾ Ibid., p. 36.

³⁾ Ibid. p. 37.

⁴⁾ Neth.-Jap. Treaty. III. al. 3.

⁵⁾ Ibid. III. al. 7.

⁶⁾ Ibid. II. al. 9.

⁷⁾ French-Jap. Treaty. III. al. 5.

san kin i-ziyawo motsi-watarabá¹), in case a merchant vessel might import more than three pounds (of opium). — Mosi yo-gi naki si-sai arĭte, kono ki-gen tsiu fon-siyo tori-kayesi sumazu domo, deu-yákuno omóműkiva kono ki-gen yori tori-okonávu-bési²), if there might be some trifling matter, which cannot be avoided, the spirit of the Treaty shall be acted upon, even if the ratification of the document (containing the Treaty) within the fixed term shall not have taken place.

IV. Conjunctions of the purpose.

§ 130. 47. Taméni, \$\frac{1}{200} = \text{, of } Tamé, purpose, aim, end, for, on behalf of, is properly a word expressive of relation (see page 292 n°. 24), and has, when it is used as a conjunction, the verb in its substantive form with or without ga, as suffix of the genitive, before it. \$-Ki-s\delta \tilde{u}\$ wo siyun-siu-sesimuruga taméni \dots siyo-riki-su besi 3), in order to have the rules followed, aid will be given. \$-Uru taméni\$, for sale. \$-Tsutsi suna yeni fukaranu tamé, kazéwo kiravu bési, take care to shelter the place from wind, to the end that earth and sand be not blown on the food (of the silkworms).

The verb dependent on Taméni is put in the future with or without the genitive termination ga, when the attainment of the object is considered as still belonging to the future. — Kono okitewo katákusen taméni, in order to carry out this clause, there shall etc. — Kagamiva sügátano yosi-asiwo mirumo, kokórono kiyoku-tsiyókuwo tadási aratamenga tamé nari, = with regard to the mirror, its object is not alone to see if the countenance is beautiful or ugly, but also to rectify and reform the wrong and the right (i. e. the moral nature) of the heart.

48. Tote, the syncopated to site, of to, = to, and site, the gerund of s)i, u, uru, to do.

Preceded by a verb in the future, ... to su means to be active to carry out the object, which still belongs to the future. (Compare § 103, 6. 7. page 290). Motomen to su is thus = acquisiturus est, he is about to get; Motomen to site or Motomen to te, = being about to get, i. e. for the purpose of getting. — Siu-fu to ivu mono fu-zino güsüriwo motomentote Nipponve watariki, a certain Siu-fu came to Japan to search for a remedy against death.

¹⁾ Neth.-Jap. Treaty. III. al. 5.

²⁾ Ibid. XI. al. 2.

³⁾ Ibid. VIII. al. 2.

The spoken language supersedes Motomen by Motomeô (see page 209), thence the expressions: Motomeô to suru tokoroni, on the point of acquiring; Motomeô to suru mono, some one who is on the point of acquiring; Motomeô to te, that he may acquire.

V. Concessive conjunctions.

§ 131. 49. Mo, \mathcal{F}_{+} , = also, properly an adverbial postposition (see § 122), when it is put after the predicate verb of a subordinate causal proposition, it characterizes it, as one granting that something is real or possible, whilst the statement thus conceded is limited or revoked by a proposition immediately following it (adversative proposition). The verb dependent on mo, as it has been already noticed in § 74, is put in the substantive form with the local termination ni or also in the gerund.

Akuruni mo, Miruni mo, Yukuni mo.

Aketemo, Mitewo, Yukite (\triangle Yuite) mo.

 \triangle Ika-yauni násĭtemó, however it be made. — \triangle O kai nasaretemo, O yame nasaretemo, kono ŭyéwa deki-masénu¹), you may buy it or not; I cannot go further. I don't care; take it or leave it.

50. ..tomo, E, also, with a verb preceding in its substantive form. Akurutomo, Miru-tomo, Yuku-tomo. — Idzŭréno kátayórĭ mairu-tomó²), it does not matter from which side he may come.

51. ..domó, $k \in 1$, = ndomó, contr. from ni, Local, and tomó. Comp. page 207. Opposed to $Akeba \ 7 \ne ni$, the fusion of Akeniva, is $Akedomo \ 7 \ne ni$, likewise a fusion of Akenitomo, and opposed to Arebá is Aredomó, = though there is. From Aranedomo, = though there is not, and Saranedomo, = though it is not so, come Arademo and Sarademo. Compare 258.

52. .. ĭédŏmó, = though it is said, though it is called, though..., with a previous appositive definition characterized by to. See page 208.

応え、雖元 応え、雖元 たえ、雖元 Tómǔ tó řédomó, mádzǔsiki wo wásǔrúru koto nakare!

Táttosi tó řédomó, íyásīki wo wásǔrúru koto nakare.

Though you are rich, do not forget the poor!

Though you are honorable, do not forget low people!

¹⁾ Shopping-Dialogues, p. 39.

²⁾ French-Jap. Treaty. III. 13

- 53. Sikare domo, \Re , syncopated Sare domo, = though it is so, the concessive form of Sikar)i, u, = to be so, root si (see page 109 no. 71).
- 54. Soredemo, = also then, the modal of Sore, = such, followed by mo, antithesis of the conclusive Soredewa (see page 334 no. 17).
- 55. Sǐkāmó, m ½, = but; abbreviation of Sǐkarédomo. Fitó no gen-sei naru, sǐkamó koréni tagaute, tsuu-sezárasīmū²), to oppose men, although they are accomplished and wise, and not allow their advancement.
- 56. Somo-somo, 初 ³), 亦然, = or, explained by the Japanese themselves as concessive ⁴), concedes the antecedent statement, however introduces an adversative clause. It means properly »so as so as," is a fusion of Sikámo, and this of Sikákümo (just as Sosite of Sikákü sité, see page 334 nº. 18) and stands with the adversative force of Tadási (see page 335 nº. 22) or of Sikási (see page 333 nº. 13). Some Japanese etymologists think Somo-somo an abbreviation of Soremo soremo, others of Satemo satemo, which, so far as the meaning goes, approaches our derivation.

In the beginning of a speech it serves to announce that which is to be said, as an opposition of other opinions. In this quality it is stamped as an introductory word (發分声之)辞之, Fat-gono kotoba), and will approach most nearly to an expression like: »However it may be"5).

¹⁾ Neth.-Jap. Treaty. II. al. 6.

²⁾ Das Gaku. X. 14.

⁵⁾ The sense we assign to Somo-somo does not agree with that attributed to it in GOSCHKEWITSCH Yaponsko-Russkii Slowar.

⁶⁾ Lun-yu. I § 10.

57. Mamayo, — in case it occurs with the meaning attributed to it of *encore que, quoique" 2) — for in Japanese writtings I have never yet met with this word, it must, to have a concessive force, be reduced to the form of Ma-mamo (see page 337 no. 31) modified for the sake of euphony, and thus mean *however often," being equivalent to Toki-tokimo or Tabi-tabimo. The expression: *However often he tries it, he does not succeed in it," would thus be equivalent to Kokoro-miru mamayo deki-masénű.

Remark. The suffix mo gives to all the conjunctions definitive of place and time, or properly words expressive of relation, cited in § 127, a concessive force, i. e. it characterizes the antecedent proposition, which the word expressive of relation governs, as concessive, while the subsequent proposition comes out with an adversative force ³).

The relative comparative of propositions.

§ 132. 58. Musiro, $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}$, = in preference, rather, Lat. potius, as an adverb, it is put at the beginning of a subsequent proposition, to the contents of which preference is given above that expressed in the antecedent proposition. As starting point of the comparison the antecedent statement is characterized by yoriva. Next to »Yuku yoriva yukánŭ ga másu, = it is better not to go than to go," cited in Remark. p. 131, is Yuku (or Yukan, Future) yoriva musiro yukunayō! = rather do not go, than go! Whereas the state or action, to which the preference is given may be represented as one commanded or future, the state or action of the antecedent proposition may be a present, or likewise a future one, as appears from the following saying of Kung-tsze (Lun-yu, Cap. III, Pă-yǐ, § 4), of which we give three Japanese translations, which lie before us.

¹⁾ Tschung-ynng, X. 1, 2.

²⁾ RODRIGUEZ § 83.

³⁾ According to Goschkewitsch Yap.-Russ. slowar, Mamayo signifies Wprotschem (besides).

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»As to festive ceremonies, be rather sparing than extravagant; as to mourning, be rather grieved than pay attention to observances."

In the translation 1 and 2 the subsequent proposition is taken as Imperative, in 3 as a wish, in the Future, whereas in 1 the antecedent proposition is conceived as Present, in 2 and 3 as Future.

In Mr. J. LEGGE'S excellent version of the Chinese text this passage runs: »In festive ceremonies, it is better to be sparing than extravagant; in the ceremonies of mourning, it is

better that there be deep sorrow than a minute attention to observances."

Remark. 1. Japanese etymologists see in Musico a variation of Mosi (); an explanation that does not preposses us in its favor. Should not Musico much rather be equivalent to the syncopated form of Masu-sico (), and thus mean »more price" or »higher value" 2). Used as an adverb, a word with this signification, at least more than any other, would be equivalent to our »by preference." With regard to the so called auxiliary word ro, the Wa-gun Siwori teaches us, that in the eastern Japan it supersedes the termination wo. In Japanese Dictionaries the signification of \triangle Sou-si-tai and Kau-si-tai, i. e. to desire to do so or so (see § 105), is given to Musico and (núng, willingly); it is plain that the writer aims at the optative proposition, which is introduced by Musico.

Remark 2. The spoken language supersedes Musiro with Naka-nakani, = almost, rather, and Nengoroni, = willingly, rather; and makes use of other expedients too. — Si-sen yoriwa naka-nakani nokorazu sute-oken, I will rather give up all, than die. — Watakusiwa yuku yori yuki-masénu fooga yorosii to zon-zi-másu 3), I think, that it is better not to go, than go. I would rather not go. — » Fitowo gai-suru yoriwa fitóni gai-seraruruga mási to omói-nasare! Suffer wrong rather than do it" 4); literally: think, that it is better to be injured by others, than to injure others!

¹⁾ Wa-gun Siwori, under Musiro.

³⁾ R. BROWN, Coll. Jap. No. 419.

²⁾ Compare Naiga siro, worth nothing. § 109. I. 1.

⁴⁾ Ibid. No. 873.

ALPHABETICAL SYNOPSIS OF THE CONJUNCTIONS TREATED. § 121—132.

Aida No. 32.	Mata No. 2.	Sárŭ niyotte Nº. 16.	Taméni No. 47.
Anzuruni 23.	Matava 8.	Sáte 19.	Toki 26.
Aruíva 7.	Mave, Maye . 34.	Sátevá 19.	Tokini 26.
Bašo 24.	Mai 34.	Sazo 44.	Tokiniva 26.
domo 51.	Migiri 28.	Setsŭ 27.	Tokinva 26.
Fodo 42.	mo 1.	Sĭkámó 55.	Tokóro 24.
Fodom 42.	mo, mo . 1.	Sĭkaredomo 53.	Tokóro de 24.
$\dots ga \dots 12.$	mo mata 2.	Sĭkáruniyotte . 16.	Tokóroni 24.
gatera 12.	Mosi 46.	Sĭkási 13.	to mo 50.
Gotóni 21.	Mosikŭva 46.	Sĭkási-nagára . 13.	Toórini 39.
Gotó)si, ki, ku. 41.	Mottomo 11.	Sikási-nagáramo14.	to te 48.
Hodoni42.	Musiro 58.	Somo-somo 56.	tsuite 44.
ię́domó 52.	Nagára 12.	Soo-sitákara . 16.	Utsí 29.
ka,ka 9.	nara 46.	Soo-site kara 16.	Utsíni 29.
<i>Kanete</i> 6.	narabá 46.	Soowa 17.	Utsíwa 29.
Kara. 16, 37, 44.	Narabini 5.	Sore da kara. 16,44.	ŭyé 33.
Kárŭga yŭgni. 43.	., nga 12.	Sore de 17.	$\dots ya, \dots ya \dots 10.$
Katsu 3.	ni yórite 16, 45.	Soredemo54.	yara 10.
Katsuva 3.	ni yote . 16, 45.	Soredewa 17.	$\dots yaran. \dots 10.$
Kedási 21.	ni yotte. 16, 45.	Sore-kara . 16, 44.	Yauni 40.
Kono yugni 43.	Notsí 45.	Soreni yotte 16.	Yavári 15.
Koreni yotte . 16.	Oyóbi 4.	Sosite 18	Yooni 40.
$Ma \dots 3.$	Sán-nagára 14.	Sosite kara. 16, 44.	Yori : 36.
Made 33.	Saredomo 53.	Sŭnavatsi 20.	Yotte 16.
Ma- ma 31.	Sárĭ-nagára 14.	Tabi-gotoni 31.	Yué 43.
Ma-mani 31.	Sárĭ-nagára mó. 14.	Tabi-tabini 31.	Yugni 16, 43.
Ma-mayo 57.	Sárŭ-fodoni 42.	Tadási 22.	ti le mie minis I

ADDENDA.

I. [Page 11]. ON ARBITRARY GRAMMATICAL SIGNS IN JAPANESE BOOKS.

(After the Japanese Encyclopedia wa-kan san-zai dzu-e, Vol. 15. 17 verso).

A single complete sentence, a period is called \circlearrowleft , Ku, chin. $Ki\acute{u}$; clauses and sentences, which we are used to separate with commas are called \rightleftharpoons , Tou, chin. $Te\acute{u}$.

The sign, which like our full-stop., indicates the close of a period is the or • placed at the side, to the right of the last character.

The same sign placed between two characters, but more or less to the right of the supposed diameter of the writing-column, supplies the place of our comma.

A point ' to the right of a character (the ') is used to mark it, to fix the attention on it. This mark corresponds to our underlining of a word—the spacing in print.

In Japanese school-books a tube-shaped mark and a pin-shaped are used at the side of, or between the Chinese characters. The former, the Kuda-siyu-biki (阵分失之号) or tube-shaped red stroke is placed on the left of Yearnames (【太, Dai-hei), on the right of the names of functionaries (大人) and 臣

as a coupling-sign between the characters of the names of books.

The latter, the Hari-siyu-biki or pin-shaped red stroke, appears on the left

of the names of things, on the right of those of places and as a couplingsign between names of persons of antiquity.

To couple Chinese characters, the Chinese sign (Kuèn) is inserted as a coupling-sign. If these characters are to be read according to the Chinese pronunciation (Koyé), the coupling-sign has its place on the right of the characters, or even between them, but somewhat to the right of the diameter of

On the contrary, if the translation (Yomi) of these characters is required or given, the coupling-sign is then placed to the left of the characters, or if it is inserted between them, to the left of the diameter of the writing-column.

If, with such combinations transposition-signs (Kayéri-ten) are used besides, they unite with the coupling-stroke (+ = see page 32, 33). The distinction whether the coupling-stroke is to the right or to the left of the supposed diameter of the writing-column is for the reader of a Chinese text that is to be translated into Japanese, of much importance, as it makes known to him, where he has to use the Koyé, and where the Japanese word (Yomi).

There are books for the use of schools, in which this difference is carefully attended to, whereas in other works not a single coupling-sign is to be found. The difference between the coupling-sign placed on the right, or on the left, of the supposed diameter has not been, to my knowledge, noticed by any student of the Japanese language, nor was it discovered by myself till late (1871). When, in 1864, I published the Chinese text of the »Grand Study" (大學, Tá-hið) with an interlinear Japanese translation, I was unacquainted with it and the coupling-signs have not always been placed in accordance with the rule here treated. Whoever could suppose, that a mark, apparently so insignificant, should have an underpart to play of so much importance.

ON QUOTATION.

The quotation in Japanese writing is indicated by a rectangular hook placed above the words quoted. If the writer inserts the quotation in the midst of what he is relating, he closes the quotation with to (See § 7, V) which is used instead of .. to ivu, = says that. (Compare § 74 pag. 208.) If the sentence closes with a quotation, then to is omitted.

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Kimi waravi » Ima saran to hossu" to, tatsi-wakarekeri, the gentleman laughed: »I will now go away" (said he), arose and went away.

II. [Page 21 line 12.] ON ACCENT.

The accent in Japanese words is made by a slight elevation of the tone upon the accented syllable; as a general rule, in words of two syllables it falls on the first; in words of three syllables on the penult; in words of four syllables on the anti-penult. But the accent always falls upon the syllable that has a double or prolonged vowel sound; as $Ik\bar{o}$ (Ikoo), $Yosas\bar{o}$, Ii-kakeru, Ii-tsu-keru, $Y\bar{u}$ -mesi (Yuu-mesi). In words of two and like syllables, the accent varies; thus $H\acute{a}na$, a flower, has the accent on the first syllable; and in $Han\acute{a}$, the nose, it falls upon the last. In $Has\acute{a}$, a bridge, the accent is on the final syllable, and in $H\acute{a}si$, chop-sticks, it falls upon the first." J. C. HEPBURN, Japanese-English dictionary, 1872. p. XV.

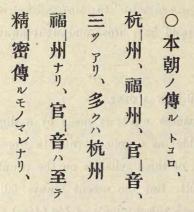
Additional remark. In polysyllabic words the accent falls on the penult, Ihetáka; is it an ŭ, then it falls on the anti-penult, Masátsŭne. In words of three syllables the accent falls on the penult, if it belong, but being short on the first, f. i. Kótabi, Tótsägň, Yásusi, Yábūri. In words of two syllables the accent falls on the first, if the last syllable is not long. If both are long, it is not pointed out, but in this case the first and principal rule is admitted. In doóri the accent falls on the penult.

III. [Page 30, 31.] on CHINESE DIALECTS.

The three dialects, those of Hán, U and T'áng, mentioned and elucidated at

pp. 30 and 31, are, according to a statement, since come to our knowledge, from a Japanese scholar 1), the dialect of Hang-chow (村 州), Capital of the province $Ch\check{e}-keang$, that of $F\check{u}h-chow$ (福 州), Capital of $F\check{u}h-k\check{e}en$, and the Official language (首 音, Kwan-yin), by others, also called Kwan-hwa, or the Mandarin. A correct instruction in the Official language is extremely rare, the more so, as both the other dialects are generally in use.

As this statement furnishes a satisfactory answer to the question concerning the presumed historical value of the Chinese dialects extant in Japan, we consider ourselves required to quote the original expressions of this statement also.



IV. [Page 107, 3 a.] REMARK ON -si.

The predicative -si of the adjectives in -ki, if their root is monosyllabic, is also attributive used in compounds, if the quality expressed by them is to be considered as from the beginning in the object existent.

Ne-naki-kusa, is a herb which the speaker finds, and declares to be rootless, whereas Ne-nasi-kusa is a herb which is generally stamped rootless. — The same distinction is to be observed in compounds, as:

Na-nasi-yubi, the nameless finger, the ring-finger. — Me-nasi-tsigo, the eyeless child, viz. the child who plays blindman's buff. Ne-nasi-goto, a rootless word, a false rumour. Tosi-fito (利力), as a personal name.

¹⁾ 四章解環, Si-sei kai-kwan, = a round to clucidate the four tones, by Kau-mon Sen-sei, 1804; reprinted in 1858. Preface, p. 1 verso.

V. [Page 250, § 92. 1 after line 10.] Remark. If zar)i, u, is preceded by a substantive in the Local, or by an adverb in ku, it stands as a substantive affirmative verb, and is a fusion of the emphatic particle zo and ar)i, u. Thus Fánani zarikeri stands for Fánani zo arikeri, = a flower has it been; Sáműku zarikeri, for Sáműkuzo arikeri, = cold has it been.

VI. [Page 270.] REMARK ON .. to kaya.

To the term to nan, (it may be that), approaches to kaya, an expression, by which no categorical certainty on the part of the speaker, but a mere private opinion of his own is introduced.

To kaya has a substantive, or a verb in its substantive form before it.

Aru-tokaya, Ari-si to kaya, Aran-to kaya, it may happen, it may have happened, it may be, that it will happen. Also here to is used elliptically for.... to ivu with which a quotation is designated, whereas the origin of kaya, the exponent of a facultative utterance, is to be traced in the interrogative particles ka ya () may it (can it) or not, viz., it may be that....

Saka-dzukiwo toreba, sake wo omovuto kaya. In grasping a wine cup, one may as well think about wine. Motsi wo torite kuvi-keru to kaya. It may be, that he took this cakes and has eaten them. Takava Morokosi Go Teino toki yori siyau-(資業) seri to kaya. Hawks for hunting have been presented, as it seems, since the period of the Five Emperors of China.

Ogami-tamavite utsusi-tamavi-keru to kaya. Adoring, as it may be said, he copied (the godly being who made his appearance before him). — An other writer, who mentions the same fact, says categorically, Utsusi-tamaveri, he has copied.

VII. [Page 276, 315, 320.] REMARK ON Masi.

Bu-sa-ta ($\mathfrak{M}^{\mathcal{P}}$ $\mathfrak{P}^{\mathcal{P}}$ $\mathfrak{R}^{\mathcal{P}}$) mausita, = Silence has been, viz. I preserved silence, I have been slack (or negligent) in writing and visiting = Bu-sa-ta itási

másita. O tanomi mausi masu, there is a request to You, = O tanomi masi-masu. Deki-masu (出來), = Deki-mausi soro, it shall happen, it goes, it is coming to an end (it will be finished, or be ready). Masi-besi, = Maosi-beku soro, it may be. O hanasi mausi-masita fito wo mi-masi, I see the man of whom you spoke, = O hanasi mausi soro fito wo mi-masi soro.

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Page 157 line 8 fr. bottom. For: | 也八 Read: | 八年.
Page 158 line 7 fr. bottom. For: 1873 Read: 1875.

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