アストン日本語口語文典
（3本対校）その一

渡边修

まえがき
1. 先に日本語口語文典の初版を影印で示した。いま、初版と第2版と第3版とを対校比較する。
2. 先に述べたように、初版を増補して所を書きなおし、第2版をつくったのであるが、その
組織は同じで、ともに全14章である。しかし、その章段は、初版（1869）が§§ 81, pp. 40 であ
るのに、第2版（1871）は§§ 108, pp. 84に増増している。第3版（1873）は第2版と同じく§§
108であるがpp. 92となっているのは、活字を幾分大きめにし、章段を整頓してそのかわりめに余
白を多くしたからであって、その内容は細部に至るまで第2版と同一である。
3. したがってここでは、第3版の本文をあげて、これを基準とし、その章節を適宜区切って番号
を付し、第1版と第2版をそれにくらべて異同を注記することとする。
　§のところには第1版について、
　§§のところには第2版について記す。
4. 因みに第4版（1888）は形式も内容も一新し、21 cm × 14 cmの大本となり、本文は15章§§ 195,
第16章には例文を集め、一語ごとの英訳をのせ、Indexを付録して、全部でpp. 212となっている
。巻頭の部分（Chap. 1）を例にとれば、第1版も第2版も第3版ともにその内容が同じであ
るが、第4版ではそれが拡充されて全く新しく書きかえられている。その部分を末尾に付録し
ておく。第3版のそれと比較すれば、よくそのことがわかるであろう。
5. もともと、この3本は、もとの形で復製して出し、第4版は日本語訳として刊行する手本であっ
た。しかし広田栄太郎教授の急逝によって事は頓座したままになっている。近ごろこれを訳出す
る試みがあるとは聞いている。
A SHORT GRAMMAR
OF THE
JAPANESE SPOKEN LANGUAGE

BY
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THIRD EDITION.

LONDON:
TRÜBNER AND CO., LUDGATE HILL.

INTERPRETER, H.B.M. CONSULAR SERVICE,
JAPAN.

SECOND EDITION.

NAGASAKI:
PRINTED AND PUBLISHED BY F. WALSH.
1869.

BELFAST:
F.D. FINLAY AND SON, STEAM-POWER PRINTERS, VICTORIA ASTREET.
1871.
PREFACE.

This book is intended for the use of merchants and others who wish to acquire a colloquial knowledge of the Japanese language.

The student should also provide himself with Dr. Harkness's Japanese Dictionary, and some of the numerous phrase-books which have been published will be found useful.

Few Japanese books are written in the colloquial idiom, the grammar of which is very different from that of the written language. The Shingaku Bungo, and the Kose Bungo, popular discourses on morals in the spoken dialect of the central provinces of Japan, may be recommended to the student.

One of these sermons, with the English pronunciation, a translation, notes, and vocabulary, is about to be published in England by Mr. John O'Neill. Such a work cannot fail to be useful to students of the spoken language.

末尾に加えて but they all require to be used with caution.

第3版と同じく削除
different to
第3版と同じく different from

この項なし

The present edition has been much enlarged, and in great part re-written.
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*Order of Words in Sentence...*
A SHORT GRAMMAR
OF THE
JAPANESE SPOKEN LANGUAGE.

CHAPTER I. THE ALPHABET.—PRONUNCIATION.

§ 1. The Japanese alphabet consists of forty-seven letters or syllables, viz. i, 20, ha, ni, ho, ka, to, chi, ri, mi, ra, wa, wa, ka, ya, ta, ya, sa, ke, me, mi, ri, hi, ya, hi, mo, se, su, to which may be added an final. The following modifications of some of these syllables increases the number to seventy-two: h and f sometimes become b or p; t may become d; ts, dz, s, z; sh and ch, j; and k, y. This change is called in Japanese the niyori.

§ 2. a is pronounced like a in father.

\[
\begin{align*}
\sigma & = o \\
\sigma & = e \\
\sigma & = e \\
\sigma & = o
\end{align*}
\]

I and u are frequently almost inaudible. In such cases

modifications of these syllables

第3版に同じく modifications of some of these syllables

is, ds :

初版に同じ

often almost inaudible.

第3版に同じく frequently almost inaudible.
Noun.—Gender.

they have been written し, う. Thus, しら, below, is pronounced very nearly さら; たつ, a dragon, almost たつ. Long or double vowels are distinguished by a line drawn above them thus, 顕, お, う. The distinction between き and じ, ぞ and そ, ず and ず, must be carefully attended to, as the meaning often depends upon it. きやき, for instance, means an ambassador, while きやき, means the loins. さつ means suitable, but さつ, outside.

§ 3. The consonants are pronounced as in English, except r, k, f, n, d, t and g, which differ somewhat from the corresponding English sounds. The true pronunciation of these letters must be learnt from a Japanese.

In the case of double consonants, both must be sounded. Thus なめ, shampooer, must be pronounced differently from なめ, a fisherwoman; かた, bought, from かた, side.

CHAPTER II. THE NOUN.

§ 4. In Japanese nouns have no inflections to distinguish masculine from feminine or neuter, singular from plural, or one case from another, but they are preceded or followed by particles which serve these and other purposes.

§ 5. Gender.—With the exception of a few common words such as さん, son; さん, daughter; ちち, father; ひ, mother, no distinction is made between the masculine and feminine. Thus, おは is either bull

In such cases they are written し, お. An, on and お become お (long), and ず, ぞ. 以下

In such cases 以下第3版に全く同じ. ただしたつ, a dragon.

§ 3. The consonants are pronounced as in English, except ร, ฆ, ข, น, อ, ฉ, and ง, which differ somewhat from the corresponding English sounds. The true pronunciation of these letters must be learnt from a native. Care should be taken in pronunciation to distinguish long from short vowels, and single from double consonants.

§ 4. In Japanese, nouns have no inflections to distinguish singular from plural, masculine from feminine or neuter, or one case from another, but they are preceded 以下同じ

In Japanese, 以下第3版に全く同じ

§ 5. Prefixes.—O and ご are prefixed to nouns as honorific particles. In speaking to a person with deference, you say, お to your head; ご to your honorable head; お to your horse; ご to your disease. O is used with Japanese nouns, ご with those of Chinese origin.

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or cow; *nina* is either horse or mare.

When necessary the gender may be denoted by prefixing *o* or *un* for the masculine and *me* or *uen* for the feminine. Thus: *o ushi* is a bull; *me ushi*, a cow; *o korô*, a cock; *me korô*, a hen.

§ 6. As a general rule the plural is not distinguished from the singular, but a plural idea can be expressed whenever necessary by the addition of *ra*, *gata*, *dome*, *tachi*, or other particles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>Yabunin gata</em></th>
<th>Officials.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Nenbun hana</em></td>
<td>Cools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Kodomo ra</em></td>
<td>Children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Nihon shoun</em></td>
<td>Cat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Gata* and *tachi* have an honorific sense; *dome* is a humble form of expression.

Some nouns have a kind of plural formed by a repetition of the noun. But these forms correspond rather to the noun preceded by "every" than to the ordinary plural. Thus: *shina* is an article, *shina jina* all sorts of articles; *kuni*, a country, *kuni guni* every country; *tokoro*, a place, *tokoro i tokoro* different places. The first letter of the second half of these forms almost invariably takes the *nai*.

§ 7. *Wa* is a distinctive or separative particle. It has the force of isolating or singling out one object from among a number, or of opposing one thing to

---

Gender is sometimes expressed by prefixing *o* for the masculine and *me* for the feminine. Ex. *o ushi*, a bull; *me ushi*, a cow.

§ 6. As a general rule, the plural cannot be distinguished from the singular, but a plural idea is sometimes expressed by the addition of the particles *ra*, *gata*, or *dome*. Ex. *Kodomo*, children; *Yabunin gata*, officials; *Watabishidomo*, we.

§ 6. As a general rule, the plural cannot be distinguished from the singular, but a plural idea is sometimes expressed by the addition of the particles *ra*, *gata*, or *dome*. Ex. *Kodomo*, children; *Yabunin gata*, officials; *Watabishidomo*, we.
another. In English the same idea is usually expressed, not by a separate word but, by means of a greater emphasis on the noun. Wa has frequently very little meaning, and its presence or absence is often immaterial. The force of wa is well marked in the following phrases:

*Ashi no wa ren wa.* What about the boy of Ashi?
*Shiro no wa shiro.* So far as whiteness goes, it is white.

The French *qu'on* has very nearly the same force as *wa.*

**Examples of wa.**

*Tokaido no misboss we hontetsu tu in.* The Tokaido cables are called hontetsu.
*Are wa renni kore wa yonjutsu.* That is bad; this is good.
*Watakusho wa ki ni wa jikan ga wa ni.* In my country there are no earthquakes.
*Kore de wa honrai.* This won't do.
*Kono sekai wa tokai ka?* Is this the dear?

§ 8. **No** is the usual sign of the possessive case.

**Examples.**

*Hito no ashi.* A man's leg.
*Hako no kagi.* The key of the box.
Ga, Ni, Wo.

Onge no kijisame. Your clothes.
Nante shima no arisame. The price of this article.

Ga is also a possessive particle, as in the following examples:

Watakiishi ga fune. My boat.
Dare ga kutani? i.e. Whose sword.

Ga often follows nouns in the nominative case.

Examples.
Kane ga aru ka? Is there any money?
Hana ga tobiko nata. His nose became high, i.e., he gave himself airs.
Ino ga kine ga aru kara. Because I have some urgent business.

§ 9. Ni means to, in, or at.

Examples.
Fune ni Yobohama ni kuru. The ship comes to Yobohama.
Kana shi ni fune ga takusan aru. There are a great many ships in this harbour.
Smith ni Nagasaki ni ara. Mr. Smith lives at Nagasaki.

§ 10. Wo is the sign of the objective case.

Examples.
Kowasu wa mashi wo. The Coolie eats rice.

§ 6 の第２項として
Ga is sometimes an indefinite article. Ex. Kane ga aru ka? Is there any money? It is sometimes the sign of the possessive case. Ex. Watakiishi ga fune, my boat; dare ga katana? whose sword? The exact meaning and application of ga are difficult to define. It has been called the sign of the nominative case, and this is so far true that it is never found with an objective, but as seen above, it may be the sign of the possessive.

§ 6 の第４項として
Ino ga kine ga aru kara. Because I have some urgent business.

§ 6 の第５項として
Kowasu wa mashi wo. The Coolie eats rice.
De, De aru.

Daiku wo dōi wo tsukuru. The carpenter makes a table.

The objective case governed by a preposition does not take  wo, and even before a verb it is often omitted.

§ 11. De means, with, by, by means of, at; as in the following examples:

Zakā de ita wo nasjā
To wipe the boards with a cloth

Oka de iku.
To go by land.

Kasane de tune wo okure.
To send money by means of a bill of exchange.

Yedo de shinjūru.
To die at Yedo.

When two nouns are joined together by the verb to be (aru, arimasu, gosarimasu) the latter affixes de.

Examples.

Watsuki wa bukysa de gosurimashī.
I am the blacksmith.

Koso'awoki wa tamba de aru.
This insect is a dragon fly.

De aru is in the vulgar Yedo dialect contracted into da, and de tara, into ja.

Examples.

Uwo da. It is a lie.

I ja mai ka? Is it not good? i.e., are you not satisfied?
§ 12. *Ka* asks a question.

**Examples.**

*Ochi wa nani ka?*  Is it a large ship?
*Ochō wa nani ka?*  Is it a male or a female?
*Watashi ha?*  Is it I?

*Mo* means also, too; and when repeated with two nouns, both.

*Ka* mo tenka wo a kai
*wa na hitori.*  Roy this very too.

*Tenka mo nobu me.*  Both dogs and cats.

*Engawa no Nippara wa.*  Both England and Japan.

De mo means even.

*Nippara jiu de wo uisu wa.*  Even a Japanese understands that.

*Kari* and *yori* mean from.

**Examples.**

*Kari yari hari*  From to-day.
*Kari yari hari*  From to-morrow.

*Made* means to, until.

**Examples.**

*Made*  Made.

*Made*  Till to-morrow.

*Made*  From Yokohama to Yedo.

*Made*  How far is it to Hachōji.

1st—Formed from two nouns. Ex. Kaza-ya, a windmill, from kaze, wind, and ya, wheel; hanazono, a flower-garden, from hana, a flower, and no, a garden.

2nd—Formed from the root of an adjective and a noun. Ex. Akage, copper, from akai, root of akai, red, and ke, metal.

3rd—Formed from a noun and the root of a verb. Ex. Monokiri, a learned man, from mono, a thing, and kiri, root of kire, to know.

4th—From the root of a verb and a noun. Ex. Urishima, a thing for sale, from ura, root of ura, to sell, and mono, a thing.

The first letter of the second part of a compound noun generally takes the ōjūri. (See § 1.) Thus the i in hana in one of the above examples is changed into ō in the compound akage.

The final vowel of the first part of a compound is often modified, the most common change being from e to a. Thus from kake, Japanese spirits, and te, hand, is formed saketaka, a tip, drink money; from shiro, the root of shirō, white, and ka, hair, is formed shirage, grey hairs.

§ 7. Examples of Compound Nouns: —

hanazono, a flower-garden, from hana, a flower, and no, a garden. なし

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Ex. Norimono, a travelling chair, from nari, root of nori, to ride, and mono, a thing.

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CHAPTER III. THE PRONOUN.

§ 14. Watashī, I (plural watashī dōmo, we) is the ordinary word for the pronoun of the first person. Ore (plural oresu) is less respectful, and is the word mostly used by coolies, etc., to each other. Watashi and oshi are also in use among the lower classes.

Example.

Watashī wa saishō no yaku. I am a Customhouse officer.
Ore wa ite. I'll go too.

Tenrō is a respectful word for 'I,' much used by the lower classes of Yedo in addressing their superiors. It is also used as a pronoun of the second person. See the following section.

§ 15. The personal pronoun of the second person is different according to the rank of the person addressed. Anata (plural anata gata) is used when speaking to superiors or equals, or in fact, to any one who has a claim to be addressed with civility; omāe (plural omāe gata) is familiar and condescending, and is the word used in addressing servants, workmen, the members of one's own family, etc. Omāe san is almost the

§ 8. Watashī, I, is the ordinary word for the pronoun of the first person. Watashi, oshi, and ore are also used, but are less common.

§ 9. The personal pronoun of the second person is different according to the rank of the person addressed. Anata is used when speaking to superiors or equals, in fact to any one who has a claim to be addressed with ordinary civility; omāe is familiar and condescending, and is the word used to servants, workmen, the members of one's own family, etc. Omāe san is almost the same as anata, but is
Personal Pronouns.

same as anata, but more familiar, and is used chiefly by women. Kisama and temae are used in addressing coolies and other persons of the lowest class in a contemptuous way. Kimi is much used among soldiers and students; sensei in addressing men of learning; a servant says danma or danma-sama (not anata) in addressing his master.

Examples.

Anata ni a kawaki midörei There is something I want to tell you.
Onnëru koko ni mette ore. I'll wait here.
Kisama wa are wa nö ni What do you mean, Sir, by
kante, ñö nö? coming into my house?
Danma wa o mëna no shite zu Your horse is ready, Sir.
yorobito yosiezu.

§ 10. The pronoun of the third person is are (plural arera). Are has no gender. It is often replaced by the more polite form ano kito, that man or that woman: ano o kito, that gentleman, or ano onna, that woman. These words add goto to form the plural.

Examples.

Are wa no Yedö ni tekkunsan
shitero. He (she or it) has probably arrived in Yedo by this time.

Ano kito wa sekaius de ge
zarinari. He is a detective.

Ano o kito He has no kondo Isn't he a Flego merchant.
je nei ka?
§ 17. The grammar of the words used as personal pronouns is the same as that of nouns, and they affix the particles given in § 5 to 12, in the same way as nouns.

The use of personal pronouns is much more limited in Japanese than in English. They are not employed except in cases where their omission would cause ambiguity, or where there is an emphasis upon them. Thus, 'I am going to Yedo to-morrow,' will be Miōnichi Yedo e mažirain, except where it is doubtful whether the speaker refers to himself or another person, when watashiki is added. If there is an emphasis on the pronoun, as in the phrase, 'I don't know what you may do, but I shall go to Yedo to-morrow,' it must not be omitted.

The indiscriminate use of pronouns is a very common fault committed by Europeans in speaking Japanese.

Possessive Pronouns are in Japanese nothing more than personal pronouns, with the addition of the possessive particles no or ga.

Examples:

Ama kito no isse no yake ha. His house is a long way off.
Watashiki ga yedo tomaizuru. My finger is sore.
Onna no kateia wa iware? What are your wages?

§ 11. The words used as personal pronouns are really nouns, and may affix the particles given in § 6. Ex. Watashiki no kanji, my account; watashiki ni kudasare, please give (to) me; onaite no oide nasare, do you come too; omine to are, you and he; anoki no bōki, his cap. The same form is used for both singular and plural, and for masculine, feminine, and neuter. The plural forms watashikidomo, anagata, omagata, arera, are comparatively little used.

Generally speaking, the use of personal pronouns is much more limited in Japanese than in English. Thus, 'I am going to Yedo to-morrow,' will be simply Miōnichi Yedo e mažiraim, except some ambiguity is caused by the omission of watashiki. If there is an emphasis on the pronouns, as in the following phrase, 'I don't know what you may do, but I shall go to Yedo to-morrow,' they must not be omitted in Japanese. The indiscriminate use of pronouns is a very common fault. In the examples in this book, it has often been necessary to introduce pronouns in the English, where there are none in the Japanese phrases.

§ 12. Possessive Pronouns are in Japanese nothing more than personal pronouns, with the addition of the possessive particles, no, ga. Ex. Watashino, my; anatomo, your.

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§ 18. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

**Kore** this (noun). **Kono** this (adjective).

*Kore* corresponds to the French *ce*; *Kono* to *ce, cette*, etc.

**Examples.**

*Kore wa ano seido wa?* What is this?
*Kore wa toppa de gosanmasu.* This is a gun.
*Kore wa hana?* How much is this?
*Kono hi.* This tree.
*Kono toki.* This watch.
*Kono u hata.* This gentleman.

**Sore** that (noun). **Sono** that (adjective).

There is the same distinction between *sore* and *sone* that there is between *kore* and *kono*. *Sore* stands alone, *sono* is joined to nouns.

**Examples.**

*Sore wa hana wa to ost de gosanmasu.* That is a sad thing.
*Doko de sono kare wa u hata wo kaimashite wa?* Where did you buy that saddle?

**Are** that (noun). **Aro** that (adjective).

**Examples.**

*Are wa matsutake wa?* What is that?
*Aro daite ka kita wa?* Has that carpenter come?
Dare, Dare.

Are and *are, *as and *aw* must not be used indiscriminately.

*Are, *as* is the demonstrative pronoun of the second person; *are, *aw* of the third person. *Are, *aw* refer to something present before the speaker's eyes; *as, *aw* to something a little way off, or not in sight. *Are, *aw* refer to the immediate subject of conversation; *are, *aw* to something else. *As* means, for instance, means "that horse" i.e., the horse you are riding, or which you have bought, or of which we are speaking. *Aw* means "that world," means "the other world."

A Japanese often begins a sentence with an *as* which has no meaning whatever, and which merely serves to draw the attention of the person addressed.

§ 19. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.—*Dare* who, always takes the same terminations as nouns. A more polite word for "who" is *donata*.

Examples.

*Dare da?* Who is it? Who goes there?
*Dare no maw nos dare?* Whose blanket?
*Dare ni kane no yate?* To whom did he give the money?
*Dare ga so iimasita?* Who said so?
*Donata de gozaimasu?* Who is there?

*Dare*, which also takes the same terminations as nouns.

*Kore, sore, and are, are really nouns, and follow the same rules as nouns.*

*This part is written in Japanese.*

Interrogative Pronouns.—*Dare* who, is used only of persons. It is a noun. Ex. *Dare da*, who is it? *Dare no maw*, whose blanket? *Dare ni kane no yata*, to whom did he give the money? *Dare ga so iimasita*, who said so?

*This part is written in Japanese.*

*Dare*, which is also a noun. Ex. *Kore* suikea *filtration* gozaimasu, *dore* yoroshiku gozaimasu,
Indefinite Pronouns.

Examples.

Dono wa yaritori yozarimashita? Which is good? i.e., which do you prefer?

Which or what, followed by a noun, is dono.

Examples.

Dono fisu? Which ship?

Dono gurai yaritori yozarimashita? What quantity is good? i.e., how much do you require?

Nani, 'what,' is said of inanimate objects only.

Examples.

Nanda (for nani de aru) What is it? or, what is the matter?

Nani mono wa karete ite? What is this thing?

Nani yuran wa nani wo ite? What is that man-of-war called?

Nani chi ni kite imasu ka? What have you come to do? i.e., what has brought you here?

Nani mou nani wo kite kaiteimasu? What (numerus)! lend the horse here at once (lit., at once the horse leading comes).

§20. Indefinite Pronouns.—By the addition of the particles ka, mo, demo, interrogative pronouns become indefinite pronouns.

Dare ka, somebody.

here are two water melons, which is good? i.e. which do you prefer? For which, what, followed by a noun, dono is used. Ex. Dono fisu, which ship? Dono gurai yoritori yozarimashita, what quantity is good? i.e. how much do you require?

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Nanda (for nani de aru)? What is it? or, what is the matter? What do you want?
Dare mo, Dare mo.

Examples.
Dare ka data ni wa te aru. Somebody is waiting below.
Dare mo, anybody, is generally used with a negative verb.

Example.
Dare mo shinarer. Nobody knows.
Dare de mo means, any one whatever.

Example.
Dare de mo gosha de gyuu- meter. Any body whatever is good, i.e., any body whatever will do.

Dore mo, any one, dare de mo, any one whatever, are used in a similar way to dare mo and dare de mo.
Nani mo, something, anything.

Examples.
Kono bako no sake ni nani ka? Is there anything in this box?
Koji ni nani ka e yari masu. Give something to the beggar.
Nani mo, anything at all, is used with negative verbs.

Example.
Nani mo wa yurete. There is nothing at all.
Nani de mo, anything whatever.

Example.
Kono sameme wa nani de mo. This girl eats anything whatever.

Dare mo, any one, dare de mo, any one whatever, are used in a similar way to dare mo and dare de mo.

Kono fukuro no naka ni nani ka haitte iru ka, is there anything in this box?
Nani mo, anything at all, is used chiefly with negative verbs.
Nani. *Nani*.

*Nani* は, usually contracted into *nani*, something or another, any.

Example.

*Nani arimasu ka!* Have you not some diverting news to tell me?

This is the way a Japanese generally puts the question, *'what is the news?'

§ 21. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.—*Jibun*, 'self,' is the commonest reflexive pronoun in the Japanese spoken language. It is sometimes replaced by *jibeun*.

Examples.

*Jibun de ok Incorporated doing*  Because I can't do it by myself: help me.

*Jibun no onegai.* It is his own fault (lit. he is bad).

Tagai no yo ni kate kara jibun A letter is of no use: go and
vi ite o hanashi asaere, talk to the man himself.

Jibun no toshi wo sèteru, hito Throwing away his own life, he added others.

we tania saenaka. Observe the force of *hito* in this sentence.

For 'each other,' *'one another,* the Japanese use the adverb *tagaimi* which means 'mutually.'

Examples.

*Tagaimi mile orimashita.* They looked at one another.

*Tagaimi tsukuru.* They assist each other.

§ 22. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.—The Japanese language has no relative pronouns. To express the same idea,
Relative Pronouns.

the verb of the relative clause is put before the word to which the relative pronoun refers. In the case of passive verbs a similar construction is found in English.

Thus for 'the man who was murdered,' we may say, 'the murdered man,' which corresponds exactly to the Japanese phrase, horoi reta kito.

Examples.

Anata ga urimashita jōkai.
Sakujitsū kita kobune.
Hayaku noshu fune.
Nihon go wakaran kito.

The steamer which you sold.
The sailing vessel which we bought yesterday.
A ship which sails fast, or a fast sailing ship.
A man who does not understand Japanese.

to which the verb of the relative pronoun refers.
a similar idiom occurs in English.

第 3 条と同じ

The steamer which you sold.
The sailing vessel which we bought yesterday.
A ship which sails fast, or a fast sailing ship.
A man who does not understand Japanese.
§ 23. The Japanese language has two series of numerals, one consisting of original Japanese words, the other borrowed from the Chinese. The Japanese series extends no farther than the number ten, after which Chinese numerals only are used.

§ 24. List of Numerals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JAPANESE</th>
<th>CHINESE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hitori.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Fūtatsu.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mita.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Yotei.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hachī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mutsu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Nanatsu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Yotei.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Kōkomatsu.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Tsu.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Ni-ju.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Numeral.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Japanese</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>San-ju</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 100      | Hihih
| 200      | Ni hihih
| 300      | San hihih |
| 600      | Na pihih |
| 800      | Na pihih |
| 1,000    | San |
| 10,000   | Man |

Larger numbers are expressed by multiples of man. Ex. 160,000, jū go man; a million, hihih man.
Consecutive numerals follow the same order as in English. Ex. 1868, san na pihih rokū jū kachi.

§ 25. The following rules are to be observed in the use of numerals:—

1. The only case in which the Chinese numerals under eleven are employed is before uncompounded or monosyllabic nouns of Chinese origin. Ex. Tu go kini, fifteen catties; rokū nin, six men; na pihih (for kachi hihihi), eight hundred. The letter changes which take place will be best understood from the numerous examples in § 26 and elsewhere.

2. The Japanese numerals are used (so far as they extend) before nouns of Japanese origin. In this case they lose the final syllable tei.
Auxiliary Numerals.

Examples.

Yī só ni,              Two boxes.
Mi tu tō,              Three parcels.
Yī hō,              Four saké casks.

3. The possessive particle no is sometimes introduced between the numeral and the noun. Ex. Pōkot asa no mō, two things.

4. The numeral is very often placed after the noun.

Examples.

Yōka ju,              Two mountains.
Māya go,              Four oranges.

§ 26 Auxiliary Numerals.—It is comparatively seldom the numeral is joined immediately to the noun. What may be called Auxiliary Numerals are much in use. They correspond to the English phrases, 'six herd of cattle,' 'four brace of partridges,' 'two pair of shoes.'

Examples.

Kō mi ichi mō.             One sheet of paper.
Mōkāna no mō (for ichi mō). One pair of shoes.
Nōmō ju ichi mō.             Eleven merchants (lit. merchants—eleven men).

Most of these auxiliary numerals are of Chinese origin, and fall under Rule 1, of the preceding section. A few are Japanese words, and fall under Rule 2. Ex. Kura hō to mō, one godown. They
Auxiliary Numerals.

are commonly placed after the noun, but the construction described in Rule 3, is also admissible. Ex. San mia no abiuola, three merchants.

These numerals are in daily use, and a knowledge of some of them is absolutely necessary.

The most common are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOR ANIMALS</th>
<th>FOR MEN</th>
<th>FOR BIRDS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hiki</td>
<td>Nin</td>
<td>Wa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Ip piki.</td>
<td>Ichii nin or hitori.</td>
<td>Ichii wa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Shi hiki.</td>
<td>Yotari or go nin.</td>
<td>Shi wa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Go hiki.</td>
<td>Go nin.</td>
<td>Go wa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>&amp;c.</td>
<td>&amp;c.</td>
<td>&amp;c.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FOR LONG AND ROUND ARTICLES, SUCH AS PENCILS, TRENDS, ETC.

Hon.

| 1. Ip hon. | 2. Ni hon. | 3. San hon. | 4. Shi hon. |

They are always placed after the noun.

第 3 版と同じ
Auxiliary Numerals.

For broad, flat objects, such as barrels, sheets of paper, clothing, etc.

1. Ichī mai. 2. Ni mai. 3. Sān mai. 4. Yo mai.

For houses, for ships, classes of wine, cups of tea, etc.


§ 27. Ordinal Numbers.—The ordinals are formed by prefixing the word dai or affixing bun to the Chinese numerals.

1st. Dai ichī or Ichī bun.
2nd. Dai ni " Ni bun.
3rd. Dai san " Sam bun.
4th. Dai shi " Yo bun.
5th. Dai go " Go bun.
&c. &c.

§ 21. Ordinal Numbers.—
Dai san or San bun.

第3版と同じ
Fractions.

The ordinals precede the noun. The possessive particle no is introduced between the ordinal and the noun.

Examples.

Dai ichi no yoku.  The first, or highest office.
Ni bun no furo.  The second ship.

Dai ichi, ichi bun, mean literally 'number one.'

§ 28. Fractions.—Fractional quantities are expressed in the following manner: 21-100ths is kisoku bun no ni ju ichi, (lit. of one hundred parts twenty one.) The no is commonly omitted, and ku substituted for bun. Thus for one-third the speaker has a choice between sam bun no ichi and sam ku ichi. When there is no denominator expressed, it is understood that tenths are meant.

Examples.

Henki ku.  Eight tenths.
Shichi ku sam ku ni unete n.  Divide it into seven tenths here.

One half is ku, or bun bun. One third and one fourth are sometimes nimiku ichi, and yotane ichi. These forms have been sanctioned by usage, but as a general rule Japanese and Chinese numerals cannot be combined in this way.
Numerals.

§ 29. Examples of Numerals.

Swan kono iban?  HER: iyo na
koto ga negii mo zu? One is one bun, but if you
bon o kari: wakareba ni bun
ni shu ni iroha na. buy there, I will make
ni shu ni iroha na. them two buns and a half.

Tere tatemoto ni kada na i
koto ni koto na. There are one hundred (dollars, tenpens or other flat
koto ni koto na. objects) in each pack.

Sure wa funa takki na: This is a ...: How many
koto de...? In the
Mina de kada? six.

Sa: how many are there altogether?

Kanichi dora wa do na kita ha! There are seven.

Kanichi dora wa do na kita
ha! Have you heard what the
rate of exchange is to-day?

Yes, it is 110 rios for 100
dollars.

Kare yori vani ri kada aru? How many is it from here?

Shichi kachi ri kada wa gosarimassen. It is not more than seven or
eight ri.

Ni van ba, Two or three buns.
Shii go wakar. Four or five days.
A GRAMMAR
OF
THE
JAPANESE SPOKEN LANGUAGE.

CHAPTER I.
THE SYLLABARY—PRONUNCIATION.

§1. In Japanese, every syllable is supposed to end in a vowel, and generally does so, e.g. sa-yō de go-za-ri-ma-sū.
The exceptions occur mostly in foreign words, or are owing to contractions. There being no final consonants, the number of syllables is necessarily small, and is reckoned by the Japanese at forty-seven according to one arrangement, and by another, at fifty. There are, however, modifications of some of them, by which the number is increased to seventy-five.

There are in Japanese no means of writing separate letters as in European languages, and each syllable is therefore represented by a single character, a final, which has a character to itself, being an exception. But u is supposed to represent an older un.

The following table shows the syllables of the Japanese language arranged according to what is called the Go-ji-ou, or fifty sounds.

<table>
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<th>a</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>u</th>
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<td>yu</td>
<td>ye</td>
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<td>yo</td>
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<td>wa</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>ye</td>
<td>ye</td>
<td>wo</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
PRONUNCIATION.

It will be seen that there are a number of irregularities and repetitions in the above Table. These are owing to the circumstance that there are certain sounds which a Japanese cannot, or at any rate, does not pronounce. For si, he says shi, for hu, fu, for ji, we, sou and wu, i, u and ye, and so on. These irregularities play an important part in the conjugation of verbs, and ought therefore to be carefully noted.

§ 2. a is pronounced like a in fat, father.

e 'ay in say.

i 'ee in meet.

o 'o in more.

u 'oo in fool.

and u are frequently almost inaudible. In such cases they have been written i, u. Thus, shita, ‘below,’ is pronounced very nearly shita, shita, ‘a dragon,’ almost tetsu. Long or double vowels are distinguished by a line drawn above them thus, i, o, u, a. The distinction between e and i, a and o, u, and u, must be carefully attended to, as the meaning often depends upon it. Kosho means ‘the loins,’ while koshii means ‘the ambassador,’ while koshi means ‘the loins.’ SETO means ‘suitable,’ but soto, ‘outside,’ koku, ‘the atmosphere,’ knki, ‘the stem of a plant.’

§ 3. The consonants are pronounced as in English, except r, h, f, n, d, t, s, and g, which differ somewhat from the corresponding English sounds. The true pronunciation of these letters must be learnt from a Japanese, but the following hints may be found useful.

R before i is the most difficult of Japanese sounds for a European to reproduce correctly. It is then pronounced nearly like d, except that the tip of the tongue touches the roof of the mouth farther back. Some Japanese make it nearly j in this position. Before other vowels the Japanese r more resembles the English sound. There is never anything in Japanese like the rough pronunciation given this letter in French and Italian. R is often omitted before i in the words gosaimase, nasaimase, for gosaimasu, nasaimasu.

H and f are considered the same letter in Japanese and their pronunciation is not very different. The under lip does not touch the teeth in pronouncing f; it only approaches them as in pronouncing wh in which. In the vulgar Tokio dialect the syllable hi is indistinguishable from shi.

In pronouncing the Japanese d and t the tip of the tongue is pressed forward against the teeth instead of only touching the gum as in English. Little or no distinction is made by most Japanese between dau and su.

G at the beginning of a word is pronounced like the English g hard; in any other position like the German (not the English) ng in ‘finger.’

In the syllable yu the y is in most words silent, or nearly so, and is often omitted in Romized Japanese.

In the case of double consonants, both must be sounded.

Thus ammu, ‘a shampooer,’ must be pronounced differently from anna, a ‘fisherwoman; katla, ‘bought,’ from kata, ‘side.’

§ 4. The nigori.

The syllables ga, gi, gu, ge, go, sa, ji, su, ze, se, so etc., printed in small italic type in the above table, all begin with soft consonants and are considered by the Japanese not as different syllables but simply as modifications of the syllables beginning with hard consonants in the lines immediately above them. This distinction is indicated in writing by a small mark, which is often omitted. Ka for instance with a diacritic mark is read gu, shi, ji and so on.

The formation of compounds and derivatives is often accompanied by the modification of a hard into the corresponding soft consonant, so that it is important to take note of this change, which, with the mark by which it is indicated, is called in Japanese nigori, or ‘impurity.’