What is the Difference between *Ga* and *Wa* in Japanese?: The Interface of Syntax, Semantics and Pragmatics Part I

Yasukuni Takano

0. Introduction

Both professors and learners of Japanese have often been bewildered with questions such as "what is the difference between *ga* and *wa* in Japanese?" Instead of asking this bewildering question, a more realistic question I should like to address at the outset would be something like this. "Is this question a question that can be answered in any intelligible manner? And my answer to this question is; "Yes, it is, to a certain extent." However, it seems to require theoretical elaboration and reasoning to answer this question to the effect that both professors and learners would feel comfortable with their native intuitions about various types of functions associated with either *ga* or *wa* . That is, it is necessary for us to scientifically account for these various types of functions from syntactic, semantic and pragmatic perspectives since both *ga* and *wa* have several different types of functions syntactically, semantically and pragmatically, as it has also been argued by a number of linguists for a long time.

I wish to eventually propose a ground scheme to scientifically account for various types of functions associated with *ga* and *wa* in this series of papers. The ground scheme I have in my mind is, in part, based on the recent developments advanced in European and Asian countries.

In this first part of the series, however, I wish to answer this bewildering question step by step making use of dialogues that are exchanged between a professor of Japanese Linguistics and his students with recourse to concrete examples. That is, the students of Japanese Linguistics ask a series of questions concerning the difference between *ga* and *wa* that shows up in concrete examples and the professor answers their questions in such a manner that will

be intelligible for all of us to get convinced with our intuitions about *ga* and *wa* .

In particular, the present paper evolves around a series of questions and answers that are exchanged by the students and their professor of Japanese Linguistics concerning familiar example sentences of the following sort.

A: Watashi *ga* yuushoku wo tsukur-imashita.
B: Watashi *wa* yuushoku wo tsukur-imashita.

Native speakers of Japanese would probably feel that the sentence given in "A" is uttered with some kind of function associated with the particle *ga* that is apparently different from that of *wa* given in "B." However, the fact of the matter is that they may not be quite certain as to how the functions of these two particles are different.

It is my primary goal, then, to explicate such a case by means of shedding light on the interface of syntax, semantics and pragmatics and find out exactly in what manner these examples are uttered in this first part of the series.

The organization of the present paper is as follows. A brief outline of the functions associated with *ga* and *wa* will be introduced and reviewed along with concrete examples in section 1. Section 2 deals with the ways to find out some differences associated with *ga* and *wa* by actually referring to concrete examples. And this will be done by means of facilitating dialogues that are exchanged between a professor and his students of Japanese Linguistics. The final section deals with a summary and a brief introduction of what will be discussed in the next sequel to this paper.

1. The Functions Associated with *Ga* and *Wa*

It was argued in the series of papers in Takano (2003a, 2003b, 2005, 2006, 2008a, 2008b, 2009) that there are several different types of functions associated with either the particle *ga* or the particle *wa,* and that all these different types of functions should be scientifically accounted for having recourse to three levels of grammatical primitives, which are reproduced here

as （a）, （b）and （c）below for our expository purpose.

> （a）Grammatical Relations （level of syntax）
> （b）Surface Cases （level of semantics）
> （c）Functional Particles （level of pragmatics）

As for the major functions of *ga,* there are two types, namely, *ga* as a subject marker which is assumed to play its role in terms of "grammatical relations" and *ga* as a focus marker which is assumed to play its role in terms of "functional particles" （or "pragmatic functions"）. In addition to these two major functions of *ga,* it was also argued that there are four minor types of functions associated with *ga,* namely, *ga* as an object case marker, *ga* as a genitive case marker, *ga* as a conjunctive case marker, and *ga* as an emphatic case marker, all of which are assumed to play their roles in terms of "surfaces cases." In other words, the particle *ga* should be accounted for in terms of three different levels of grammatical primitives mentioned above.

As for the functions of *wa,* it was also argued that there are five different types, namely, *wa* as a topic marker, *wa* as a generic noun marker, *wa* as a contrastive marker, *wa* as an emphatic marker, and *wa* as a conditional clause marker, all of which are assumed to play their roles in terms of "pragmatic functions."

In order for us to be assured of all the functions associated with *ga* and *wa* , let us briefly review each one of these functions having recourse to concrete examples in the following subsections.

1.1. *Ga* as a subject marker

It was argued in Takano （2003a, 2003b, 2006）that there are five clausal structures in which *ga* as a subject marker may appear. These five clausal structures are exemplified in （1）a-e below.[1]

（1）a. Ima　ame　*ga*　　futte-i-masu.
　　　Now　rain　SUBJ　fall-PROG-PRES

It is raining now. <u>Or</u> *Rain is falling now.*

b. Tanaka-san *ga*   kat-ta   kuruma
    Ms.   SUBJ buy-PAST   car
The car that Ms. Tanaka bought

c. Yamada-san *ga*   ki-ta   node,   nigiyaka ni nari-mashita.
    Mr. SUBJ come-PAST because merry-become-PAST
(The atmosphere) became merry because Mr. Yamada came.

d. Bara *ga*   saku   no wa   gogatsu-desu.
    Roses SUBJ bloom CLEFT   May-be-PRES
It is in May that roses bloom.

e. Hara   *ga*   her-u.
    Stomach SUBJ get empty-PRES
Stomach gets empty. <u>Or</u> *(Someone) gets hungry.*

(1)a is a typical example sentence often referred to as a "genshoobun" (a type of sentence that is uttered by the speaker for the purpose of describing (or reporting) a phenomenon, and this terminology is due to Mio (1948)). (1)b shows that it is an example of relative clause and the subject of this relative clause is marked with *ga*. (1)c is an example of subordinate clause and the subject of this subordinate clause is marked with *ga*. (1)d is an example of cleft construction and the subject of this cleft clause is marked with *ga*. Finally, (1)e shows an example of idiomatic expression which consists of a subject and its predicate and the subject, of course, is marked with *ga* .

1.2. *Ga* as a focus marker

A typical example of *ga* as a focus marker is provided below, where the subject phrase is assumed to have been focalized. (Note also that various types of grammatical constituents including clauses can be focalized. More examples

of this type will be provided in section 2 below.）

（2）Hatoyama Yukio *ga*　　Nihon no shushoo-desu.
　　　　　　　　　　　　FOC　Japan's prime minister-be-PRES
　　　It is Yukio Hatoyama who is the prime minister of Japan.

1.3. *Ga* as surface case markers

　　　　There are four minor functions associated with *ga,* namely, *ga* as an object case marker, *ga* as a conjunctive case marker, *ga* as a genitive case marker, and *ga* as an emphatic case marker, all of which are assumed to play their roles in terms of "surface cases." Thus, observe the following four different types of *ga* .

（3）a. Akira　　wa　　　sukeeto　*ga*　　joozu-desu.
　　　　　　　TOP　　skate　　　OBJ　　good-be-PRES
　　　Akira is good at skating.

　　　b. Kinoo　　　eiga　　wo　　mimashita *ga,*
　　　　　Yesterday movie OBJ　　see-PAST　CONJUNCT
　　　　　totemo　　omoshiro-katta-desu.
　　　　　very　　　interesting-be-PAST
　　　　　I saw the movie yesterday, AND it was very interesting.

　　　c. Wa*ga* kuni　　　　　　　Or　　Kimi*ga* yo
　　　　　Our GEN country　　　　　　　Your GEN time
　　　　　Our country　　　　　　　*Your time*

　　　d. Benkyooshi-nakatta *ga*　　yueni　shingaku wo　akirame-ta.
　　　　　Study　did　not　　　EMPH because go on　　OBJ give up-PAST
　　　　　JUST because I did not study (hard), I gave up going on to a higher school.

1.4. *Wa* as a topic marker

It is a well known fact that *wa* is a topic marker which marks various types of grammatical constituents including nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, allative, comitative, factive, instrumental, locative and comparative phrases, and even clauses in Japanese.

Some of the typical examples are provided below. (Note that the topicalized phrases are *CAPITALIZED* in the English translations below.)

(4) a. Akira *wa*　Reiko ni　purezento wo　age-ta. [Nominative]
　　　　　TOP　　　DAT present　OBJ give-PAST
　　　AKIRA gave a present to Reiko.

　　b. Purezento *wa*　Akira ga　Reiko ni　age-ta. [Accusative]
　　　Present　TOP　　　SUBJ　　　DAT give-PAST
　　　As for the PRESENT, Akira gave (it) to Reiko.

　　c. Reiko ni　*wa*　Akira ga　　purezento wo　age-ta. [Dative]
　　　　　DAT TOP　　　SUBJ present　　OBJ give-PAST
　　　Akira gave a present TO REIKO.

　　d. Kyoto de *wa*　gionmatsuri ga　　ar-imasu. [Locative]
　　　　　　in TOP Gion Festival SUBJ exist-PRES
　　　There is Gion Festival IN KYOTO.

　　e. Nagasaki kara *wa*　ano basu ga Fukuoka ni ik-imasu. [Ablative]
　　　　　　from TOP that bus　SUBJ　　　to go-PRERS
　　　That bus (over there) goes to Fukuoka FROM NAGASAKI.

　　f. Sakura ga　　saku　no *wa*　sangatsu-desu. [Cleft]
　　　Cherry SUBJ bloom CLEFT　March-be-PRES
　　　It is in March THAT CHERRY BLOSSOMS BLOOM.

1.5. *Wa* as a contrastive marker

It has also been argued by a number of linguists (Mikami; 1963, Kuroda; 1965, Kuno; 1973, Noda; 1997, among others) that *wa* of contrast marks various types of grammatical constituents.

There seem to be two types of contrastive constructions in Japanese. The first type is found in conjoined sentences where a grammatical constituent in the first sentence is explicitly contrasted with the same type of grammatical constituent in the second conjoined sentence. The second type of contrastive construction is found in a simplex sentence where a grammatical constituent (or any number of grammatical constituents) is implicitly and pragmatically contrasted with the same type of constituent that is not present in the given sentence.

One example for the first type and two examples for the send type of contrastive *wa* are provided below.

(5) a. Yasai　　　*wa*　　tabe-masu ga, niku *wa*　　tabe-masen.
　　　Vegetables CONT eat-PRES but meat CONT eat-NOT-PRES
　　　(I) eat VEGETABLES, but (I) do not eat MEAT.

　　b. Kodomo　wa　　manga　　*wa*　　　yoku　yom-imasu.
　　　Children　TOP　magazine CONT　a lot　read-PRES
　　　Children read MANGA MAGAZINES a lot.
　　　Cf. *[MANGA is contrasted with TEXTBOOKS, for instance.]*

　　c. Watashi wa　kinoo　　*wa*　　uchi de *wa*　　tabako　*wa*
　　　I　　　　TOP yesterday CONT　home　at　CONT cigarette CONT
　　　　suw-ana-katta.
　　　　somoke-NOT-PAST
　　　I did not smoke CIGARETTES AT HOME YESTERDAY.

1.6. *Wa* as a generic noun marker

Kuno (1973) reports that a group of nouns referred to as "generic" are

marked with *wa* without recourse to any discourse context. He also reports that those nouns can be marked with *wa* as a topic marker, provided that they are once registered in the present discourse context.

The author of this paper also believes that his observation is basically correct. However, it is this author's strong belief that this *wa* has an independent function which should be distinguished from other functions of *wa* and further that it should be considered as a special case of topic marker.

One typical example of *wa* as a generic noun marker is provided below, which does not seem to require any discourse context.

⑹ Ningen *wa*   kangaeru ashi-da.
　Man　GENER　thinking　reed-be-PRES
　A MAN is a thinking reed.

1.7. *Wa* as an emphatic marker

It was suggested in Takano (2003a, 2003b) and even argued in Takano (2005) that there are three distinctive subtypes of functions associated with wa as an emphatic marker. These three distinctive subtypes are 1) a marker for syntactic emphasis, 2) a marker for predicative emphasis, and 3) a marker for quantificational emphasis. Typical examples of the three subtypes of wa as an emphatic marker are provide below.

⑺a. Aisazu ni　*wa*　i-rare-na-i.
　　Love-NEG　EMPH　stop-POTEN-NEG-PRES
　　(I) JUST cannot stop loving (you).

　b. Haha　wa　musuko no　shashin wo mite *wa*　namidashi-ta.
　　Mother TOP　son　GEN picture OBJ see EMPH cry-PAST
　　Mother cried EACH TIME AFTER she saw her son's picture.

　c. Wii wa　ni-man en　　*wa*　su-ru.
　　Wii TOP　twenty thousand yen EMPH cost-PRES

A "Wii" costs AT LEAST twenty thousand yen.

It should be noted that all of the example sentences provided in (7) above can stand as grammatical even if the emphatic marker *wa* is omitted, but that they cannot be interpreted as having a sense of emphasis associated with them. In the meantime, some kind of extra meaning is added to each sentence when *wa* is present as shown in (7)a-c. Hence the terminology *wa* as an emphatic marker is due for these three subtypes of example sentences.

1.8. *Wa* as a conditional clause marker

It was also reported in Takano (2006) that there is even a different type of *wa* that does not seem to fall into any types we have seen above (i.e., 1.4-1.7). This type is tentatively termed as *wa* as a conditional clause marker. One typical example of this type is provided in (8) below.

(8) Soko de　　asonde *wa*　　abuna-i　　　　yo.
　　There around play　COND　dangerous-PRES　I am telling you
　　If you play around there, it is dangerous, I am telling you.

I would like to cap the present discussion on the various types of functions associated with the particles *ga* and *wa* here.

Now that I am in a position to briefly introduce a grammatical scheme which is supposed to account for all cases of the functions delineated above.

Basically, I adopted the grammatical scheme proposed by Hasegawa (2009), which is supposed to account for the clausal structure of Japanese. However, some revisions are especially made in order to account for Japanese examples provided in Takano (2009), which takes the form of the following type.[2]

(9) [ForceP [TopicP [ContrastP [FocusP [EmphaticP [Proposition.....]]]]]]

(Yasukuni Takano 2009: p.71)

The clausal structure given in (9) should be interpreted in such a way that the phrases such as "TopicP," "ContrastP," "FocusP" and "EmphaticP" are supposed to occupy the positions that are pragmatically connected to their appropriate discourse contexts and that the phrases "FinP," "TP," and "VP" are replaced with "Proposition" for the sake of simplification in this series of papers.

2. A Dialogic Approach to *Ga* and *Wa*

In this section, I would like to lay out a dialogic approach to search the difference between *ga* and *wa* that can be observed in concrete examples. In order for me to pursue this goal, a series of dialogues are exchanged between a professor of Japanese Linguistics and his students.

Thus, a special class of Japanese Linguistics commences in the following manner.

Professor: Today, we would like to discuss some differences that might be observed by the uses of *ga* and *wa* in example sentences like these. (The professor writes two example sentences on the blackboard for his students. Note also that the word-for-word translations and the English translation (*italicized*) below are not actually provided for the students.)

(10) a. Watashi *ga*   yuushoku wo   tsukuri-mashita.
　　　 I   FOC   dinner   OBJ   prepare-PAST
　　　 It is I who prepared the dinner for us.

　　 b. Watashi *wa*   yuushoku   wo   tsukuri-mashita.
　　　 I   CONT   dinner   OBJ make-PAST
　　　 I prepared the dinner for us.

What do you think about the difference between *ga* and *wa* in example sentences like these?

Student A: I am not quite sure if I could answer your question in short, professor.

Professor: It may be a difficult question to answer in brief as you have just pointed out. But it is very important for us to think about possible discourse contexts where these two sentences might have been uttered, first. That is, in what sort of discourse context can you imagine that the sentence (1)a might have been uttered?

Student B: I think that (1)a is likely to be uttered in a discourse context where there are a group of people (, let me say 5 or 6,) in a place like a private house for dinner and someone in that group might have wanted to know who prepared the dinner for them.

Professor: You are getting to the point imagining such a discourse context. You are probably imagining (that) one of the people in that group answered the question "who prepared the dinner?" to his or her listener(s) with a focus on "Watashi (I)" in that sentence so that the person who asked that question would like to know exactly who prepared the dinner for them.

Student B: Yes, professor. I can now describe exactly what sort of information the sentence (1)a is meant to convey to the person who asked the question in that group.

Professor: You are certainly right in that respect. But many Japanese linguists in the past regarded this kind of *ga* as having the function of "exhaustive-listing" (cf. Mikami (1963), Kuroda (1965), Kuno (1973), Noda (1996), among others).

Student A: I heard about the terminology "exhaustive-listing." But, what does that grammatical terminology exactly mean, Professor?

Professor: Well, that is a good question. Let me explain, first, that this terminology was originally created by a Japanese linguist called Akira Mikami in 1963. But the fact of the matter is that he originally created this terminology in Japanese and termed it as *ga* of "haita," whose English translation was given later by another Japanese linguist called Kuroda in 1965. Since then, this terminology has been succeeded to many Japanese linguists up to the present. Putting aside the history of this terminology, Kuno (1973), for instance, explains the semantics of this terminology citing an example of the following sort.

(11) John *ga*   gakusei-desu.
　　　　　　E-L   student-be-PRES
　　John and only John is a student. It is John who is a student.
　　　　　　　　　　　　Kuno (1973: p.60)

He claims that the sentence (11) is highly likely to be uttered to answer the question "who is a student?" and that the semantic interpretation for the phrase "John *ga*" is "*only John*" which is supposed to exhaust the list of other people around *John* in that discourse context.

Student B: I think I understand what Kuno wanted to claim now, but is this terminology widespread among the linguists in the world?

Professor: You raised another interesting question. I consider the terminology "exhaustive-listing" to be very unique to Japanese, myself, and it even sounds idiosyncratic since I have never been aware of such terminology being used in other languages in the world. On the contrary, the terminology "focus" has been used in many Indo-European languages including English, Italian, French, and Spanish, for instance. So it is my conjecture, and even strong

suggestion, that the terminology "focus" should be adopted into Japanese linguistics in place of "exhaustive-listing" so that we could claim that languages in the world share universal functions such as "focus."

Student A: I am very much convinced with the reasoning you offered for us concerning the function of *ga* that appears in sentences like (1)a, professor. I feel more comfortable with the function of *ga* that appears in sentences like (1)a. So I think I learned that it is quite important for us to take into account all possibilities of discourse contexts where any sentence might be uttered.

Professor: You are absolutely right this time. It is indeed important for us to take into account possible discourse contexts that are available for any given sentences. We can think of many other example sentences that contain the function of "focus." In fact, they seem to abound in Japanese. So consider several more examples of this type. (The professor starts writing some of these examples on the blackboard again commenting on each one of the example sentences.)

(12) Ano otoko *ga* tokuni urusa-i yo.
That guy FOC especially annoying-be-PRES I am telling you
It is THAT GUY (over there) who is especially annoying, I am telling you.

Professor: This is a very similar example to (2) in that the subject noun phrase is marked with *ga* that is supposed to have the function, "focus." A possible discourse context we could imagine for this kind of sentence would be something like this. In the present discourse, the speaker wanted to tell his listener(s) with the focus on "Ano otoko (that guy over there)" (pointing to him, for instance). When the sentence is actually uttered, the speaker is supposed to put a strong

accent on the *ga.* I also assume that a strong stress is placed on "That" as in "That guy over there" in English to express the same idea. Now, let me move on to talk about the example given in (13)a below.

(13) a. Soodan   *wa*   Tanaka-san ni   *ga*   shi-yasu-i.
　　　　 Consulting TOP   with FOC easy-to-do-PRES
　　　　 As for the consulting, it is WITH Mr.TANAKA that is easy
　　　　 (for me) to do.

Professor: I assume that the basic sentence structure of (13)a would be the one given in (13)b below.

(13) b. (Watashi ga) Tanaka-san ni   soodan   *ga*   shi-yasu-i (koto)
　　　　 I   with consulting ACC easy-to do (fact)
　　　　 (The fact that) it is easy for me to consult with Mr. Tanaka.

I also assume that the sentence (13)a has gone through two major movements in the sense of Rizzi (1997), namely, "topicalization" and "focalization." And the process of these movements can be informally shown in (13)b-d below.

(13) b. (Watashi ga)   Tanaka-san ni   soodan   ga   shiyasu-i (koto)
　　　　 (The fact that) it is easy for me to consult with Mr. Tanaka.
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　↓ by topicalization

(13) c. [Soodan$_i$ *wa* [Tanaka-san ni   t$_i$ shiyasu-i.]]
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　↓ by focalization

(13) d. [Soodan$_i$ *wa* [Tanaka-san ni$_j$ *ga* [t$_j$ t$_i$ shiyasu-i.]]]

I believe that both "Soodan *(consulting)*" and "Tanaka-san ni *(with*

Mr. Tanaka) in (13)d are pragmatically connected to the appropriate discourse context. That is, "Soodan *(consulting)*" is marked with *wa* of topic and "Tanaka-san ni *(with Mr. Tanaka)* is marked with *ga* of focus.

(14) Kore kara *ga*   honkakuteki ni samuku nar-imasu.
This from FOC   really   cold-become-PRES
It is FROM THIS MOMENT ON that it really gets cold.

Professor: In the structure given in (14), I assume that the phrase marked with an ablative case "Kore kara *(from this moment on)*" has been focalized. Next, consider the example sentence given in (15) below.

(15) Juu-go peeji made   *ga*   shukudai-desu.
Page 15   as far as FOC homework-be-PRES
It is AS FAR AS PAGE 15 that is (assigned as) your homework.

In (15) above, the phrase marked with an allative case "Juu-go peeji made *(as far as page 15)*" has been focalized. Now, consider the next example sentence.

(16) Banana *ga*   taberu no ni   ichiban   benri-da (to omou yo).
Bananas FOC to-eat   most   convenient-be-PRES
It is BANANAS that are the most convenient (food for us) to eat.

Professor: In (16), the phrase marked with an object case "Banana *(bananas)*" has been focalized. In the structure of (17) below, the clause "Ai ga aru ka nai ka *(whether you love someone or not)*" has been focalized.

(17) Ai   ga   aru ka nai ka   *ga*   mondai-da.
Love SUBJ exist Q not exist Q FOC question-be-PRES

WHETHER YOU LOVE SOMEONE OR NOT, (that) is the question.

Professor: It appears to be the case that the *ga* in all of the examples we discussed so far has the function of "focus" and that it marks various types of grammatical constituents. That is, it marks a nominative phrase (Ano otoko *(that guy)*) as shown in (12), a dative phrase (Tanaka-san ni *(to (with) Mr. Tanaka)*) as shown in (13), an ablative phrase (Kore kara *(from this moment)*) as shown in (14), an Allative phrase (Juu-go peeji made *(as far as page 15)*) as shown in (15), an accusative phrase (Banana *(Bananas)*) as shown in (16), and even a clause (Ai ga aru ka nai ka *(whether you love someone or not)*) as shown in (17).

Student D: Is the word "focus" a semantic function? Or is it a syntactic function? Or, is it even a pragmatic function, professor?

Professor: I believe that it is one of the pragmatic functions, which is certainly connected to some sort of discourse context. A piece of evidence for this to be pragmatic comes from the fact that this *ga* is uttered with a high (or rising) accent on it. Now, let me move on to account for the function of *wa* given in (10)b. Can any of you imagine any discourse context where this sentence might have been uttered, first?

Student D: A discourse context I can imagine for that sentence right now is that the speaker is uttering this sentence to his or her listener(s) with a presupposition that "watashi *(I)*," (in contrast with other members of the group,) performed the action represented by the rest of the sentence (i.e., *prepared the dinner*).

Professor: I think you are getting to the point. However, the discourse context you tried to provide us here is not quite sufficient for us to recognize the relationship between the present discourse context

where the speaker uttered that sentence to his or her listener(s), and the previous discourse context where the speaker actually performed his role of action, namely, *prepared the dinner.*

Student D: Do you mean that it is necessary for us to imagine the relationship between the two different kinds of discourse contexts? That is, one discourse context for which the speaker performed his or her role in the past and the present discourse context for which the speaker is uttering the sentence to his or her listener(s), and further that these two kinds of discourse contexts must somehow be imagined so that the message by the speaker is conveyed meaningfully to his or her listener(s) in the present discourse context where (10) b has been uttered?

Professor: You explained almost all of what I wanted to say to you all here. The speaker perhaps prepared the dinner for a group of people including himself in the past, where other people played different roles other than preparing the dinner and as for the speaker himself, he uttered that sentence to convey what he actually did in that event to his listener(s). We also have to pay a special attention to how communication takes place among the speakers and their listeners. That is, we assume that any message uttered by the speaker, in principle, contains a certain type of function. Remember that the function of "focus" associated with "watashi *(I)*" in (10)a has been conveyed by the speaker to his or her listener(s) as we all know now.

Student B: What type of function do you say the *wa* in (10)b is meant to convey to the listener(s), professor?

Professor: I assume that the function of "contrast" should be assigned to this *wa.* In addition, the word "watashi *(I)*" should be interpreted in

such a manner that it is implicitly contrasted with other members of the group.

Student E: So you are saying that the *ga* in (10)a has the function of focus and the *wa* in (10)b, the function of contrast. I wonder how you represent the difference associated with the *ga* for (10)a and the *wa* for (10)b in formal linguistics?

Professor: We make use of the clausal structure provided in (9). So the example sentence (10)a takes the clausal structure given in (18) below, where irrelevant phrases are omitted for the purpose of avoiding unnecessary theoretical complications.

(18) [ForceP [FocusP Watashi$_i$ *ga*

[Proposition t$_i$ yuushoku wo tsukur-imashita]]]

And the example sentence (10)b takes the clausal structure given in (19) below.

(19) [ForceP [ContrastP Watashi$_i$ *wa*

[Proposition t$_i$ yuushoku wo tsukur-imashita]]]

Professor: Now, can any of you tell me the difference between *ga* and *wa* in the pair of sentences like the following?

(20)a. Watashi *ga* Suzuki desu.
  b. Watashi *wa* Suzuki desu.

Student D: I think (that) the ga in (20)a should be interpreted as having the function of "focus," while the *wa* in (20)b should be interpreted as having the function of "topic." We can imagine a discourse context for which the speaker of (20)a presupposes that his or her

listeners already know the name Suzuki but they may not know which person is Suzuki yet. As for the *wa* in (20)b, we can imagine a discourse context for which the speaker presupposes that his or her listeners want to know only the name of the speaker, since "Watashi *(I)*" is an entity that has already been known or recognized to the listeners.

Professor:　Your explanation is almost perfect to me and all of you here seem to have understood, at least, three types of functions today, namely, *ga* of focus, *wa* of contrast and wa of topic. Well, it also seems to be the case that time is just running out for today and our class is dismissed.

3. Summary

In section 1, I argued that there are basically three distinctive types of functions associated with the particle *ga,* namely, *ga* as a subject marker which is assumed to play its role in terms of "grammatical relations," *ga* as a focus marker which is assumed to play its role in terms of "functional particles (or pragmatic functions)," and *ga* as surface case markers with four different subtypes which are assumed to play their roles in terms of "surface cases." I also argued that there are five different types of functions associated with the particle *wa,* namely, *wa* as a topic marker, *wa* as a contrastive marker, *wa* as a generic noun marker, *wa* as an emphatic marker, *wa* as a conditional clause marker, all of which are assumed to play their roles in terms of "pragmatic functions."

In section 2, I tried to find out the difference between *ga* and *wa* in concrete examples that are shown as (10)a and (10)b by means of a series of dialogues exchanged between a professor of Japanese Linguistics and his students and found out that this *ga* has the function of "focus" and the *wa,* the function of "contrast," both of which are assumed to play their roles in terms of pragmatic functions and that both particles should be interpreted as being connected to their appropriate discourse contexts. In addition to these two types

of functions, we also talked about *wa* of topic.

In the next sequel to this paper, I will discuss the difference between *ga* and *wa* that might appear in pairs of sentences like those given in C and D or E and F below.

C: Ichiro *ga*   hoomuran wo   ut-ta   yo.
D: Ichiro *wa*   hoomuran wo   ut-ta   yo.

E: Jishin *ga*   totsuzen   yatte-ku-ru.
F: Jishin *wa*   totsuzen   yatte-ku-ru.

I will attempt to find out some differences that are associated with the particles *ga* and *wa* in the pairs of sentences just shown above and other types of examples, on the basis of the present framework proposed in this first series of paper.

Notes

1)　　It was actually argued in Takano (2003a) that there are six different types of clausal structures (in stead of five types) in which *ga* as a subject marker may appear. However, the first such type should be excluded from the present discussion for the reason that this author, in the process of deepening his research, judged it to be classified into a different type of function, namely, *ga* as a focus marker. One of the concrete examples for *ga* as a focus marker would be the *ga* which appears in examples such as "Dare ga ki-masu ka *(Who will come?)* ," where the interrogative word "Dare (Who)" has been marked with this *ga* which is assumed to have the function of focus.

2)　　It should first be noted here that there was an error in the clausal structure Takano (2009) proposed. That is, the correct category I should have proposed there is "Proposition" in stead of "PropositionP." I would like to make this correction in (9) in the main text. It should also be noted that the grammatical scheme which was proposed by Hasegawa (2009) is the following type.

(i) [$_{ForceP}$ [$_{TopicP}$ [$_{FocusP}$ [$_{FinP}$ [$_{TP}$ [$_{VP}$.....]]]]]]

(Nobuko Hasegawa 2009: p.8)

The clausal structure given in (9) in the main text is, therefore, a simplified and revised version of (i) above. That is, this author believes that *wa* for a topic, contrast, generic, emphatic and conditional clause marker and *ga* for a focus marker are the pragmatic functions which are supposed to be connected to their appropriate discourse contexts. See Takano (2009) for detailed discussion on the account of these clausal structures. The clausal structure proposed in (9), however, will eventually take the form of the following type,

(ii) [$_{ForceP}$ [$_{TopicP}$ [$_{ContrastP}$ [$_{FocusP}$ [$_{EmphaticP}$ [$_{FinP}$ [$_{TP}$ [$_{VP}$.....]]]]]]]]

where the simplified version of the grammatical category "Proposition" should be replaced with "FinP," "TP" and "VP." It is also assumed here in this series of papers that *wa* as a conditional clause marker occupies the same position as the phrase "TopicP." So the formal structure of the example given in (8), for instance, would look like the one given in (iii) below.

(iii) [ForceP　[ConditionP　Soko de asonde]]　*wa*　　[Proposition　abuna-i yo]]]
COND

If you play around there, it is dangerous, I am telling you.

The phrase "ConditionP" is assumed to occupy the position right under the topmost phrase "ForceP."

List of Abbreviations

COND = Conditional（clause marker［wa］）
CONJUCT = Conjunctive（marker［ga］）
CONT = Contrastive（marker［wa］）
DAT = Dative（case marker［ni］）
E-L = Exhaustive- Listing
EMPH = Emphatic marker［wa］）
FOC = Focus（marker［ga］）
GENER = Generic（noun marker［wa］）
NEG = Negative
OBJ = Object（marker［wo］）, in terms of grammatical relations
OBJ = Object（marker［ga］）, in terms of surface cases
POTEN = Potential
PRES = Present（tense）
SUBJ = Subject（marker［ga］）, in terms of grammatical relations
TOP = Topic（marker［wa］）

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(Professor, International Student Center)

Apology to all contributors of this journal

I would like to make use of this space to apologize to all of the contributors of this journal for what happened to the article *"Functional Particles and the Clausal Structure of Japanese: Toward a Universal Account of Clausal structures"* that I wrote in the volume 17 last year. That is to say that I ended up writing several pages longer than I was supposed to write in that volume. Even though one of the rules for this journal states that the length of an article or a research report should be less than 26 pages, where I actually ended up writing 34 pages.

The reason why this error took place in that volume was simply because I miscalculated the number of pages on the manuscript, which actually appeared in 21 pages. But I realized, after the article was first printed for proofreading, that there was not enough time for me to divide the paper into two parts. I am awfully sorry for those contributors who actually received unpleasant feelings and bad influences from the error I made in that volume. I promise all of the contributors of this journal to learn from this stupid lesson and to be more careful.