

“Wa” of Condition: Is it a New Type?

Yasukuni Takano

0. Introductory Remarks

Many Japanese people are familiar with the line “Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da (*If you insist saying that, then all is over*),” excerpted from one of the most famous Japanese movies “Otoko wa tsurai-yo (*Men are tough*),” which made a breaking world record in the “Guinness Book” by producing forty eight series under the same title.

The author of this paper became very much interested in identifying and clarifying the puzzle of such expression in this paper since this expression tells us a lot about the mystery of “wa” that somehow seems to have escaped our special attention, at least to the best knowledge of this author, in the past literature. That is, the “iccha” part in the first part of the expression, “Sore wo iccha (*If you insist saying that*),” is supposed to be re-analyzed as a contracted form which has presumably been derived from its formal counterpart “itte wa (*insist saying*).” If this is on the right track, then the expression “iccha” apparently contains the particle “wa” in its formal counterpart. In light of this line of argument, a question immediately arises as to what type of “wa” it is supposed to be: Is it “wa of topic”? Or is it “wa of emphasis”?

In this paper, I will argue that this special use of “wa” should presumably be a new type and classified as a fifth type. That is, it was reported in Takano (2003a and 2003b) that the particle “wa” in Japanese is classified into four distinctive types; namely, “wa of topic,” “wa of generic,” “wa of contrast” and “wa of emphasis.” However, the “wa” in question does not seem to fall into any of the four distinctive types reported in Takano (2003a and 2003b). The reason that this “wa” should presumably be classified as a new and fifth type is attributed to the peculiarity of its syntactic and

semantic distributions. And I wish to elucidate this mystery in due course.

The organization of this paper is as follows: In section 1, I will try to identify what the expression in question actually is by making an analogy to similar types of examples which are relatively productive in Japanese.

In section 2, I will argue that this “wa” should be classified as a new and fifth type by showing that it does not fit in any of the four types reported in Takano (2003a and 2003b) from both syntactic and semantic perspectives.

In section 3, I wish to propose a revised hypothesis on “wa” by incorporating the new fact that this “wa” is a new and fifth type.

In section 4, I wish to recapitulate typical examples of the five different types of “wa” in order to assure that the proposed hypothesis is reasonable and sustainable as a new hypothesis.

Concluding remarks are provided to cap this paper in the last section.

1. Identifying the Mysterious “Wa”

Let us hasten to talk about how the expression “Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da (*If you insist saying that, then all is over*)” should be re-analyzed first.

(1) Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da.

That OBJ say over-be-PRES

If you insist saying that, then all is over.

It is necessary for us to elucidate this matter in such a way that the expression “Sore wo iccha (*If you insist saying,*)” is actually derived from its formal counterpart “Sore wo itte wa,” where the “iccha” part is re-analyzed as consisting of two grammatical parts; the verbal part “itte” (i. e., the gerund form or simply the -te form) and the particle “wa.”

In order to see this is indeed the case, observe the following examples, where the verbal parts and “wa” are actually contracted. Note that the examples in (2)a-(5)a contain the contracted forms, while examples in (2)b-(5)b are made up from their formal counterparts in the following exam-

ples. Note also that the symbol “ ϕ ” is used to indicate that it is a null category and the symbol “*” at the beginning of a sentence is used to indicate that the sentence is ungrammatical.¹⁾

- (2)a. Sore wo tabecha, karada ni doku-da.
That OBJ eat body for poisonous-be-PRES
If you eat that, then it is poisonous for your body. Or
If you eat that, then it is bad for your health.
- b. Sore wo **tabete wa**, karada ni doku-da.
eat ?
- c. *Sore wo tabete ϕ , karada ni doku-da.
- (3)a. Ima soko-ni iccha, mazui-daroo.
Now there go awkward-probably-be-PRES
If you go there now, it is probably awkward (or unwise).
- b. Ima soko-ni **itte wa**, mazui-daroo.
go ?
- c. *Ima soko-ni itte ϕ , mazui-daroo.
- (4)a. Denki wo keshicha, nanimo deki-na-i.
Electricity OBJ turn off anything do-POTEN-NEG-PRES
If you turn off the electricity (or light), then I cannot do anything.
- b. Denki wo **keshite wa**, nanimo deki-na-i.
turn off ?
- c. *Denki wo keshite ϕ , nanimo deki-na-i.
- (5)a. Soko-de asonja, abuna-i-yo.
There play dangerous be-PRES I am telling you
If you play (around) there, it is dangerous, (I am telling you).
- b. Soko-de **asonde wa**, abuna-i-yo.
play ?
- c. *Soko-de asonde ϕ , abuna-i-yo.

As is evident from the above examples, the contracted forms (i.e., “tabecha” in (2) a, “iccha” in (3) a, “keshicha” in (4) a, and “asonja” in (5) a) are actually derived from their formal counterparts (i.e., “tabete wa” in (2) b, “itte wa” in (3) b, “keshite wa” in (4) b, and “asonde wa” in (5) b respectively), where all of the formal expressions contain the particle “wa.” If the reader agrees that this line of argument is in fact correct, then the aforementioned expression “Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da (*If you insist saying that, then all is over*)” in (1) above is actually derived from its formal expression “Sore wo itte wa, oshimai-da.”

Note also that all of the c examples (i.e., (2) c, (3) c, (4) c, and (5) c), where the particle “wa” is omitted, are ungrammatical. This in turn suggests that any expression without the particle “wa” in this type of examples should also end up being ungrammatical. This is indeed borne out to be the case even for the example in (1) above, as the following example shows.

- (1) a. Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da.
 That OBJ say over-be-PRES
If you insist saying that, then all is over.
- b. Sore wo **itte wa**, oshimai-da.
say ?
- c. *Sore wo itte ϕ , oshimai-da.

Let us tentatively speculate this special use of “wa” as “wa of condition” since all of the examples in (1) through (5) above entail conditional constructions. This point can further be justified by the following examples where the form of a verb is changed into a genuine conditional form without losing their semantic connotations.²⁾

- (1)' Sore wo it-**tara**, oshimai-da.
 That OBJ say **COND** over-be-PRES
If you insist saying that, then all is over.

- (2)' Sore wo tabe-**tara**, karada ni doku-da.
That OBJ eat **COND** body for poisonous-be-PRES
If you eat that, then it is poisonous for your body. Or
If you eat that, then it is bad for your health.
- (3)' Ima soko-ni it-**tara**, mazui-daroo.
Now there go **COND** awkward-probably-be-PRES
If you go there now, it is probably awkward (or unwise).
- (4)' Denki wo keshi-**tara**, nanimo deki-na-i.
Electricity OBJ turn off **COND** anything do-POTEN-NEG-PRES
If you turn off the electricity (or light), then I cannot do anything.
- (5)' Soko-de ason-**dara**, abuna-i-yo.
There play **COND** dangerous-PRES I am telling you
If you play (around) there, it is dangerous, (I am telling you).

At this point, we wonder whether the expression “Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da (*If you insist saying that, then all is over*)” may have actually been derived from “Sore wo it-**tara**, oshimai-da,” instead of “Sore wo **itte wa**, oshimai-da.” However, this possibility cannot be entertained for a good reason. That is, the contracted form (either “-cha” or “-ja”) in the “-tara” (or conditional) constructions ends up being ungrammatical as the following examples exemplify.³⁾

- (6)a. Yama ni nobottara, umi ga mi-e-masu.
Mountain climb **COND** ocean OBJ see-POTEN-PRES
If you climb the mountain, you will be able to see the ocean.
- b. *Yama ni **noboccha**, umi ga mi-e-masu.
- (7)a. Kurasu ni ittara, daremo i-nakat-ta.
Class to go **COND** nobody be-NEG-PAST

When I went to (my) class, nobody was (there).

- b. *Kurasu ni **iccha**, daremo i-nakatta.
- (8)a. Kusuri wo nondara, nemuku nat-ta.
 Medicine OBJ take COND sleepy become-PAST
 After I took (some) medicine, I became sleepy.
- b. *Kusuri wo **nonja**, nemuku nat-ta.
- (9)a. Nemu-kattara, netemo ii-n-desu-yo.
 Feel sleepy COND sleep may I am telling you
If you feel sleepy, you may (go to) sleep.
- b. *Nemukucha, netemo ii-n-desu-yo.
- (10)a. Dokode kiitara, ii-deshoo ka.
 Where ask COND good-be Q
Where should I ask?
- b. *Dokode **kiicha**, iideshoo ka.
- (11)a. Shigoto ga sundara, kaette kudasai.
 Job OBJ finish COND go home please
If you are finished with your job, please go home.
- b. *Shigoto ga **sunja**, kaette kudasai.
- (12)a. Shigoto ga sundara, kaeri-mashoo.
 Job OBJ finish COND go home shall we
Let's go home when we are finished with our job.
- b. *Shigoto ga **sunja**, kaeri-mashoo.

For this reason, it is concluded that the “iccha” part in “Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da (*If you insist saying that, then all is over*)” consists of two grammatical forms: the gerund and the particle “wa.”

2. A Tentative Solution to The Puzzle

The question we should like to address from this outset is what type of particle this “wa” is supposed to be. It is tentatively conjectured that this type of “wa” seems to be a new type which has escaped our special attention in the past literature since the author knows of no work analyzing this special use of “wa” inclusively and/or extensively in the past literature.

In Takano (2003a and 2003b), it was reported that the particle “wa” in Japanese is classified into four distinctive types; namely, “wa of topic,” “wa of generic,” “wa of contrast” and “wa of emphasis.” Does this special use of “wa” belong to any one of the aforementioned four types? The answer seems to point to the direction that it does not fall into any of the above four distinctive types since it is indeed peculiar in its syntactic and semantic distributions.

In order to see that this “wa” does not belong to any of the four distinctive types, we would like to examine, at least, two types of “wa,” namely, “wa of topic” and “wa of emphasis” here since it is obvious that this “wa” does not belong to neither “wa of generic” nor “wa of contrast.”

The first type of “wa,” which is “wa of topic,” marks various types of grammatical phrases and clauses as the following examples exemplify. (The topic phrases are capitalized in the English translation in the following and subsequent examples.)

- (13) a. Hiroshi ga Ken ni Hanako wo shookaishi-ta (koto)
 SUBJ DAT OBJ introduce-PAST (fact)
 (*The fact that*) *Hiroshi introduced Hanako to Ken.*
- b. Hiroshi wa Ken ni Hanako wo shookaishi-mashita
 TOP DAT OBJ introduce-PAST
 HIROSHI *introduced Hanako to Ken.*
- c. Hanako wa Hiroshi ga Ken ni shookaishi-mashita.
 TOP SUBJ DAT introduce-PAST
 *Hiroshi introduced **HANAKO** to Ken.*

- d. Ken ni wa Hiroshi ga Hanako wo shookaishi-mashita.
 DAT TOP SUBJ OBJ introduce-PAST
*Hiroshi introduced Hanako **TO KEN**.*

It is observed in the above examples that the subject phrase in (13)b, the object phrase in (13)c and the dative phrase in (13)d are marked by the topic marker “wa.”

“Kara (*from*)” phrases and “ni (*to*)” phrases can also be marked by this topic marker. Thus, observe the following examples.

- (14)a. Sono basu ga Nagasaki kara Miyazaki ni iku (koto)
 That bus SUBJ from to go (fact)
 (*The fact that*) *the bus goes to Miyazaki from Nagasaki.*
- b. Nagasaki kara wa sono basu ga Miyazaki ni iki-masu.
 from TOP SUBJ to go-PRES
*The bus goes to Miyazaki **FROM NAGASAKI**.*
- c. Miyazaki ni wa sono basu ga Nagasaki kara iku.
 TOP SUBJ from go-PRES
*The bus goes **TO MIYAZAKI** from Nagasaki.*

“Made (*as far as*)” phrases can also be marked by the topic marker.

- (15)a. Kyoto made densha de iki-masu.
 as far as train by go-PRES
 (*I go as far as (to) Kyoto by train.*
- b. Kyoto made wa densha de iki-masu.
 as far as TOP
 (*I go **AS FAR AS KYOTO** by train.*

“De (*in*)” phrases and “to (*with*)” phrases can be marked by the topic marker “wa” as well.

(16) a. Sapporo de yukimatsuri ga ari-masu.
 in snow festival SUBJ be-PRES
 There is a snow festival in Sapporo

b. Sapporo de wa yukimatsuri ga ari-masu.
TOP

*There is a snow festival **IN SAPPORO**.*

(17) a. Yamada-san to senshuu ai-mashita.
 Mr. with last week meet-PAST

(I) met with Mr. Yamada last week.

b. Yamada-san to wa senshuu ai-mashita.
TOP

*(I) met **WITH MR. YAMADA** last week.*

There is yet another type of sentence pattern of which the subject position is obligatorily topicalized. Such sentence pattern contains a wh-word in its predicate position.

(18) a. Anata wa shoorai **nani** ni nari-tai-desu ka.
 You **TOP** future what become-want-be-PRES Q
*What do **YOU** wish to be (become) in the future?*

b. (Watashi wa) bengoshi ni nari-tai-desu.
 I **TOP** lawyer become-want-be-PRES
(I) wish to be (become) a lawyer.

c. *Anata ga shoorai nani ni nari-tai-desu ka.

(19) a. White-san wa (ima) **doko** ni sun-de-i-masu ka.
 Mr. White **TOP** (now) where live-PROG-PRES Q
*Where does **MR. WHITE** live now?*

b. White-san wa Bunkyo-machi ni sun-de-i-masu.
 Mr. White **TOP** Bunkyo-machi in live-PROG-PRES
***MR. WHITE** lives in Bunkyo-machi.*

c. *White-san ga (ima) doko ni sun-de-i-masu ka.

(20) a. Ginkoo wa nan-ji made ai-te-i-masu ka.

Bank TOP what time until open-PROG-PRES Q

Until what time is the bank open? Or

*How late is **THE BANK** open?*

b. (Ginkoo wa) yo-ji made ai-te-i-masu.

Bank TOP 4 o'clock until open-PROG-PRES

*(**THE BANK**) is open until 4 o'clock. Or*

*(**IT**) is open until 4 o'clock.*

c. *Ginkoo ga nan-ji made ai-te-i-masu ka.

Finally, even clauses can be marked by “wa of topic” as the following examples show.⁴⁾

(21) a. Sakura ga saku no wa sangatsu-desu.

SUBJ bloom NOM TOP March-be-PRES

*(It) is (in) March **THAT CHERRY BLOSSOMS BLOOM.***

b. *Sakura ga saku no ϕ sangatsu-desu.

(22) a. Kinoo yasun-da no wa byooki-datta kara-desu.

Yesterday was absent NOM TOP sick-be-PAST because-be-PRES

*(**THE REASON**) **THAT I DID NOT COME (HERE) YESTERDAY** was because I was sick.*

b. *Kinoo yasun-da no ϕ byooki-datta kara-desu.

It has been observed in the above that “wa of topic” marks various types of phrases and even clauses in Japanese. It is quite important to note here that all of these topic phrases and clauses carry some kind of emphatic (or most important) information as a part of the sentences in their discourse contexts. The question we should like to ask at this point is whether “wa” in “Sore wo itte wa” can be considered as a topic marker. The

immediate answer to this question simply points to the negative for several reasons.

First, note that “wa” in this type of construction follows the gerund form (or the -te form) of a verb, which seems to be quite peculiar since “wa of topic” has been analyzed to mark various types of phrases and clauses (but not the gerund form) as we have already seen above. (At a later point in this section, we discuss the possibility of whether this “wa” may belong to “wa of emphasis” since one of the emphatic “wa” follows the gerund form of a verb.)

Second, the construction without the presence of “wa” ends up being ungrammatical just as indicated in the c examples above. This in turn means that “wa” in this type of construction is obligatory. Note that “wa of topic” is optional for a number of phrases as has been observed above, even though it is obligatory for subject and object phrases and clauses. This means that the presence of “wa” in this type of construction plays a quite important (or indispensable) role syntactically.

Finally, “wa” in this type of construction seems to function as a conditional marker (i.e., an “if someone does something, then such and such happens” type of construction). In other words, the presence of this “wa” syntactically and semantically entails a conditional statement in its construction.

Returning to a discussion of whether this “wa” may belong to “wa of emphasis,” which is extensively discussed in Takano (2005), we would like to review the cited work here to examine this possibility.

“Wa of emphasis” is sub-classified into the following three types; namely, a marker for syntactic emphasis, a marker for predicative emphasis, and a marker for quantificational emphasis, where only one example for each type is provided for the sake of simplicity. (See Takano (2005) for more examples for each type.)

- (23) Monogoto wa omou yoo ni wa ik-anai-mono-da.
 Things TOP wish in the manner **EMPH** go-NEG-just-be-PRES

Things would not go JUST as (one) wishes (them) to go.

- (24) Heiwa wo inotte wa shitsuboo ni akekureru hito
 Peace OBJ pray **EMPH** disappointment in spend person
*The person who JUST keeps praying for peace and ends up spending
 (his days) in despair*

- (25) Sono hooseki wa hyakuman-en wa su-ru.
 That jewelry TOP million-en **EMPH** cost-PRES
That jewelry costs AT LEAST a million-yen.

“Wa” in the example (23) is termed as a marker for syntactic emphasis since it marks a clause and other syntactic categories including adverbial phrases and predicative phrases (see particularly Takano (2005) for more examples of this type).

“Wa” in the example (24) is termed as a marker for predicative emphasis since the verb phrase “Heiwa wo inotte (*to pray for peace*)” is emphasized to the effect that the action of the verb expresses “repetition.”

“Wa” in the example (25) is so termed as a marker for quantificational emphasis since the quantificational word is emphasized to the effect that it adds an extra meaning pragmatically.

The sense of emphasis associated with “wa” in (23) is indicated by the word “*JUST*,” in (24) by the same word “*JUST*,” and in (25) by the word “*AT LEAST*” respectively in the English translations above.

The main reason why “wa” in these examples is termed as “wa of emphasis” is due to the fact that all of the above examples can stand grammatical even without the presence of “wa” and the sense of emphasis simply disappears from these examples that clearly used to show with the presence of “wa” as the following examples attest.

- (26) Monogoto wa omou yoo ni ϕ ik-anai-mono-da.
 Things TOP wish in the manner go-NEG-just-be-PRES

Things would not go as (one) wishes (them) to go.

- (27) Heiwa wo inotte ϕ shitsuboo ni akekureru hito
 Peace OBJ pray disappointment in spend person
The person who keeps praying for peace and ends up spending (his days) in despair

- (28) Sono hooseki wa hyakuman-en ϕ su-ru.
 That jewelry TOP million-en cost-PRES
 That jewelry costs a million-yen.

The question we should like to address here is whether the “wa” in the examples (1) through (5) at the beginning of this paper may belong to “wa of emphasis.” The answer seems clear to all of us. That is, the “wa” in question does not belong to “wa of emphasis” for several reasons.

First and most importantly, this “wa” does not have any sense of emphasis that “wa of emphasis” entails.

Second, even though the “wa” in question marks the gerund form (or the -te form) of a verb, which is exactly the same as the second sub-type of emphatic “wa,” it does not entail any semantic effect of “repetition.”

Third, the “wa” in question entails a function of creating a conditional construction instead and this point is quite new to us.

Finally, the “wa” in question is obligatory in its construction, while “wa of emphasis” is optional in their constructions.

All of the above reasons lead us to conclude that the “wa” in question does not belong to any of the four types of “wa” discussed in Takano (200a and 2003b, and 2005) and should presumably be a new and fifth type. Let us tentatively refer to the new and fifth type as “wa of condition.”

In the next section, I wish to propose a revised hypothesis on “wa” that should include this new type, namely, “wa of condition” along with the other four types.

3. A Revised Hypothesis on “wa”

Let us begin this section by reviewing the hypothesis concerning the functions of “ga” and “wa” proposed in Takano (2003a and 2003b). The hypothesis by its nature was proposed in the following fashion.

Hypothesis on “ga” and “wa” (p.2 in Takano (2003a))

- (a) The basic function of “ga” is to mark a subject of a sentence. “Ga” of focus is another function which marks a phrase (or phrases) including a subject phrase in a certain type of sentence patterns. It may also mark a clause of a complex sentence.
- (b) The basic function of “wa,” on the other hand, is to mark a topic of a sentence. “Wa of generic” and “wa of contrast” are special cases of this function. And one other type of function should be recognized, which is termed as “wa of emphasis.”

It is necessary for us to make a revision on the part of the “wa” hypothesis in such a way that the new and fifth type of “wa” is incorporated into the previous hypothesis. We would now like to propose a revised hypothesis on “wa” as follows.

Revised Hypothesis on “wa”

- (b) Basically, there are five different types of functions associated with the particle “wa”; “wa of topic,” “wa of generic,” “wa of contrast,” “wa of emphasis” and “wa of condition.” The basic function of “wa” is to mark a topic of a sentence. “Wa of generic” and “wa of contrast” are special cases of “wa of topic.”

By the revised hypothesis (b) above, it is predicted to cover all the examples we have been discussing in this paper, which are reproduced below with necessary information supplied for them (along, of course, with all other examples adduced in Takano (2003a and 2003b and 2005).

- (29) a. Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da.
That OBJ say over-be-PRES
If you insist saying that, then all is over.
- b. Sore wo **itte wa**, oshimai-da.
say COND
- c. *Sore wo itte ϕ , oshimai-da.
- (30) a. Sore wo tabecha, karada ni doku-da.
That OBJ eat body for poisonous-be-PRES
If you eat that, then it is poisonous for your body. Or
If you eat that, then it is bad for your health.
- b. Sore wo **tabete wa**, karada ni doku-da.
eat COND
- c. *Sore wo tabete ϕ , karada ni doku-da.
- (31) a. Ima soko-ni iccha, mazui-daroo.
Now there go awkward-probably-be-PRES
If you go there now, it is probably awkward (or unwise).
- b. Ima soko-ni **itte wa**, mazui-daroo.
go COND
- c. *Ima soko-ni itte ϕ , mazui-daroo.
- (32) a. Denki wo keshicha, nanimo deki-na-i.
Electricity OBJ turn off anything do-POTEN-NEG-PRES
If you turn off the electricity (or the light), then I cannot do anything.
- b. Denki wo **keshite wa**, nanimo deki-na-i.
turn off COND
- c. *Denki wo keshite ϕ , nanimo deki-na-i.
- (33) a. Soko-de asonja, abunai-yo.
There play dangerous be-PRES I am telling you

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

b. Soko-de **asonde wa**, abunai-yo.

play COND

c. *Soko-de asonde ϕ , abunai-yo.

4. Typical Examples of the Five Types of “Wa”

In order to make the distinctions among the five different types of “wa” clear, I would like to recapitulate typical examples for our expository purpose in this section. These typical examples are “wa of topic,” “wa of generic,” “wa of contrast,” “wa of emphasis” and “wa of condition,” and are shown below in that order.

Typical examples for “wa of topic” include the following, where the topicalized phrase is indicated by its “case” in the parentheses at the end of the sentence. Note also that the topicalized phrase is capitalized in the English translation in the following examples.

(34)a. Akira **wa** Tom ni Reiko wo shookaishi-ta. (Nominative)

TOP DAT OBJ introduce-PAST

AKIRA introduced Reiko to Tom.

b. Reiko **wa** Akira ga Tom ni shookaishi-ta. (Accusative)

TOP SUBJ DAT

Akira introduced REIKO to Tom.

c. Tom ni **wa** Akira ga Reiko wo shookaishi-ta. (Dative)

TOP SUBJ OBJ

Akira introduced Reiko TO TOM.

d. Nagasaki kara **wa** sono basu ga Miyazaki ni ik-u.

from **TOP** that bus SUBJ to go-PRES

That bus goes to Miyazaki FROM NAGASAKI. (Ablative)

e. Fukuoka made **wa** densha de ikima-su. (Allative)

as far as **TOP** train by go-PRES

(I) go TO FUKUOKA by train.

- f. Kyoto de wa Gion-matsuri ga arima-su. (Locative)
 in **TOP** Gion Festival SUBJ exist-PRES
There is Gion Festival IN KYOTO.
- g. Yamada-san to wa kinoo shokuji wo shimashi-ta.
 with **TOP** yesterday meal OBJ do-PAST
(I) had a meal WITH MR. YAMADA yesterday. (Comitative)
- h. Niku-ryoori yori wa sakana-ryoori no hoo ga i-i.
 Meat-cuisine than **TOP** fish-cuisine more SUBJ be good-PRES
(I) prefer fish (cuisine) TO MEAT (CUISINE). (Comparative)
- i. Konyakusha wa ima dokoni sunde-i-masu ka.
 Fiance **TOP** now where live-PROG-PRES Q
Where does (YOUR) FIANCE live now? (Nominative)
- j. Otoko wa tsura-i yo. (Nominative)
 Men **TOP** tough be-PRES ASSERT
MEN are tough.

“Wa of generic” marks the nouns that are linguistically referred to as generic nouns. Generic nouns are those nouns that encompass a relation to or a characteristic of a whole group or class. Several examples of “wa of generic” follow.

- (35) a. Ningen wa kangaeru ashi-da.
 Human beings **GENER** thinking reed-be-PRES
A MAN is a thinking reed.
- b. Koomori wa honyuudoobutsu-da.
 Bat **GENER** mammals
BATS are mammals.
- c. Inu wa ningen no ii-tomodachi-da.
 Dog **GENER** human beings GEN good friends-be-PRES
DOGS are good friends of human beings.
- d. Nihonjin wa kinben-da.
 Japanese **GENER** deligent-be-PRES

JAPANESE are diligent.

- e. Otoko wa tsura-i mono-da.
 Men **TOP** tough be-PRES ASSERT
(It is generally the case that) MEN are tough.

“Wa of contrast” generally marks the two nouns that are compared one other in a given compound sentence construction. Syntactically, the two compound sentences are, in many cases, connected by the particle “ga (but).” (But an exceptional case to this is included as (36)f below.) Thus observe some of the examples below.

- (36)a. Kaze wa fuite-i-ru ga, ame wa futte-i-na-i.
 Wind **CONT** blow-PROG-PRES but rain **CONT** fall-PROG-PRES
(It is BLOWING, but (it) is not RAINING.)
- b. Sakana wa yoku tabe-masu ga, niku wa amari tabe-masen.
 Fish **CONT** often eat-PRES but meat **CONT** that eat-NEG-PRES
(I) eat FISH often, but (I) do not eat MEAT that much.
- c. Nihongo de wa i-e-masu ga, eigo de wa i-e-masen.
 Japanese in **CONT** say-POTEN but English in **CONT** say-POTEN-NEG
(I) can say (it) IN JAPANESE, but (I) cannot say (it) IN ENGLISH.
- d. Suzuki-san to wa yoku hanashimasu ga,
 Mr. Suzuki with **CONT** often talk but
 Nakamura-san to wa amari hanashi-masen.
 Mr. Nakamura with **CONT** that talk-NEG-PRES
*(I) talk WITH MR. SUZUKI often,
 but (I) do not talk WITH MR. NAKAMURA that often.*
- e. Kyoo wa shi-masen ga, ashita wa suru-tsumori-desu.
 Today **CONT** do-NEG but tomorrow **CONT** do-intend-PRES
(I) do not do (it) TODAY, but (I) intend to do (it) TOMORROW.

- f. Otoko wa (onna ni kuraberu to) tsura-i.
 Men **CONT** (women compared with) tough-be-PRES
MEN are tough(er) (compared with women).

“Wa of emphasis” marks various types of grammatical categories including adverbs, clauses, verbs and quantifiers, and basically exhibits three types of emphatic (or semantic) effects which are provided below as (36), (37) and (38) respectively. See Takano (2005) for more in details for “wa of emphasis.”

Typical examples of the first type of emphatic effect include the following, where the clause is emphasized in a given sentence.

- (36) a. Monogoto wa omou yooni wa ik-ana-i-mono-da.
 Things TOP wish in the manner **EMPH**
 proceed-NEG-just-be-PRES
Things would not go JUST AS (ONE) WISHES (THEM) TO GO.
- b. Kanarazushimo kanemochi ga shiawase-da to wa i-e-na-i.
 Always rich SUBJ happy-be that **EMPH**
 say-POTEN-NEG-PRES
(One) JUST cannot say THAT THE RICH ARE ALWAYS HAPPY.
- c. Aisa-zu ni wa i-rare-na-i.
 Love-NEG **EMPH** stop-POTEN-NEG-PRES
(I) JUST CANNOT STOP LOVING (YOU).

Some typical examples of the second type of emphatic effect (where the verb phrases exhibit “repetition”) are provided below.

- (37) a. Tabete wa ne, tabete wa ne no seikatsu
 Eat **EMPH** sleep eat **EMPH** sleep GEN life
A (kind of a habitual life-style) JUST EATING AND SLEEPING

- b. Heiwa wo inotte wa shitsuboo ni akekuru hito
 Peace OBJ pray **EMPH** disappointment in spend person
*The person who JUST KEEPS PRAYING FOR PEACE AND
 ENDS UP SPENDING (HIS DAYS) IN DESPAIR.*
- c. Sake wo nonde wa tanin ni booryoku wo furu-u otoko
 Sake OBJ drink **EMPH** others to violence OBJ use-PRES man
*The man who uses violence on others EACH TIME AFTER he
 has sake.*

Some examples of the third and last type of emphatic effect (where the quantificational words add extra meanings) are provided below.

- (38) a. Porusche wa nana-hyakuman-en wa su-ru.
 Porsche TOP seven million-en **EMPH** cost-PRES
A Porsche costs AT LEAST SEVEN MILLION YEN.
- b. Sono shigoto wa ichiji-kan wa kakar-ana-i.
 That work TOP one hour **EMPH** take-NEG-PRES
*That work does not take NO LONGER THAN ONE HOUR (to
 get through).*
- c. Zenbu wa tabe-rare-na-i.
 All **EMPH** eat-POTEN-NEG-PRES
(I) JUST cannot eat (it = the food) ALL.

Examples of the last type of “wa,” which is termed as “wa of condition” and which is the main topic of this paper are reproduced here as (39), (40), (41), (42) and (43) below.

- (39) a. Sore wo **itte wa**, oshimai-da.
say COND
- b. Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da.
 That OBJ say over-be-PRES
If you insist saying that, then all is over.

(40)a. Sore wo **tabete wa**, karada ni doku-da.

eat COND

b. Sore wo tabecha, karada ni doku-da.

That OBJ eat body for poisonous-be-PRES

If you eat that, then it is poisonous for your body. Or

If you eat that, then it is bad for your health.

(41)a. Ima soko-ni **itte wa**, mazui-daroo.

go COND

b. Ima soko-ni iccha, mazui-daroo.

Now there go awkward-probably-be-PRES

If you go there now, it is probably awkward (or unwise).

(42)a. Denki wo **keshite wa**, nanimo deki-na-i.

turn off COND

b. Denki wo keshicha, nanimo deki-na-i.

Electricity OBJ turn off anything do-POTEN-NEG-PRES

If you turn off the electricity (or light), then I cannot do anything.

(43)a. Soko-de **asonde wa**, abuna-i-yo.

play COND

b. Soko-de asonja, abuna-i-yo.

There play dangerous-PRES I am telling you

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

5. Concluding Remarks

In this paper, I have argued that the “iccha” part in “Sore wo iccha, oshimai-da (*If you insist saying that, then all is over*)” is made up from the two grammatical parts, namely, the gerund form of the verb “itte (*to say*)” and the particle “wa” and that this “wa” should be termed as “wa of condition” since the sentence pattern in question exhibits a conditional construction.

It is also proposed that this type of “wa” is a new type that should be incorporated into the hypothesis on “wa” proposed in Takano (2003a and 2003b), along with the proposal made in Takano (2005). As a result, we have reached the conclusion that there are five different types of “wa”: namely, “wa of topic,” “wa of generic,” “wa of contrast,” “wa of emphasis” and “wa of condition.” And this result is expressed in the form of a revised hypothesis.

The author of this paper sincerely hopes that the revised hypothesis on “wa” can be sustainable as an attractive working hypothesis.

Finally, the interested reader is especially referred to Takano (2003b) for a discussion of a proposed account for the present grammatical framework and any comments are greatly appreciated by this author.

List of Abbreviations

- ASSERT = Assertion
 CONT = Contrastive (marker [wa])
 COND = Conditional (marker [wa])
 DAT = Dative (case marker [ni])
 EMPH = Emphatic (marker [wa])
 GEN = Genitive case
 GENER = Generic (noun marker [wa])
 NEG = Negative (form)
 OBJ = Object (marker [wo])
 PAST = Past (form)
 POTEN = Potential (form)
 PRES = Present (form)
 PROG = Progressive (form)
 SUBJ = Subject (marker [ga])
 TOP = Topic (marker [wa])

Notes

- 1) It should be noted here that the contraction in this type of construction,

where the combination of the two grammatical categories, i.e., the gerund form (or the -te form) and the particle “wa” is contracted, takes place in the two phonologically different ways. One such manner is the “-cha” pattern and the other is the “-ja” pattern. The “-cha” pattern takes place when the preceding gerund form ends with “-te,” while the “-ja” pattern takes place when the preceding gerund form ends with “-de.” Thus, the examples in (1) through (4) illustrate the former pattern, while the example in (5) illustrates the latter pattern.

2) The observation that the “iccha” part is made up from the gerund form “itte (*to say*)” and the particle “wa” is further supported by the following example where the gerund form and the particle “wa” are actually contracted.

(i) a. Sorosoro **kaeranakucha**.

Soon go home must

(*Well,*) *I have to go home (pretty) soon.*

b. Sorosoro **kaeranakute wa** (naranai)

c. *Sorosoro kaeranakute ϕ (naranai).

In (i)b above, “kaeranakute” is the negative gerund form of the verb “kaeru (*to go home*)” and it is followed by the particle “wa.” The point I am trying to get across here is that the gerund form and the particle “wa” can be in fact contracted. This in turn gives a further support for the proposed analysis in the main discussion. More examples of the above type are provided below.

(ii) a. Ato moo sukoshi-da. **Ganbaranakucha**.

More just little be-PRES Do my best have to

(*There is*) *a little more to go. I have to do my best.*

b. Ato moo sukoshi-da. **Ganbaranakute wa** (naranai)

c. *Ato moo sukoshi-da. **Ganbaranakute** ϕ (naranai).

- (iii) a. **Benkyooshinakucha**, shiken ni ochiru yo.
 Study-NEG-COND examination fail-PRES I am telling you
If you do not study (hard), you will fail in your exam.
- b. **Benkyooshinakute wa**, shiken ni ochiru yo.
- c. ***Benkyooshinakute** ϕ , shiken ni ochiru yo.

3) Note, however, that some contracted forms are allowed to show up in the different types of -tara conditional constructions as shown below.

- (i) a. Sore wo tsukattara, dame desu yo.
 That OBJ use COND no good be I am telling you
You may not use that (I am telling you). Or
It would be no good if you used that.
- b. Sore wo **tsukaccha**, dame desu yo.
- (ii) a. Netara, doo desu ka.
 Sleep COND how be Q
Why don't you go to bed? Or How would it be if you went to bed?
- b. ?**Necha**, doo desu ka.

This fact suggests that there exist various types of “-tara” conditional constructions in Japanese. See Takano (2000a and/or 2000b) for various types of “-tara” conditional forms.

4) “No wa” as a unit in this type of Japanese construction is generally analyzed as a “cleft” marker. However, if we try to re-analyze the two words as separate morphemes, “no” is linguistically referred to as a nominalizer, and “wa,” as a topic marker. This re-analysis makes a good sense since “wa” in such construction functions as a topic of the following main clause. Note also the fact that this topic structure ends up being ungrammatical without “wa” as indicated in the b examples.

References

1. Kuno, S. 1973. *The structure of the Japanese Language*, The Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
2. Kuroda, S.-Y. 1965. *Generative Grammatical Studies in the Japanese Language*, Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, MIT, Cambridge, Massachusetts.
3. 野田尚史. 1996. 「は」と「が」、くろしお出版.
4. Shibatani, M. 1977. "Grammatical Relations and Surface Cases," *Language* 53: 789-809.
5. _____. 1978. "Mikami Akira and the Notion of 'Subject' in Japanese Grammar," In Hinds and Howard (1978).
6. Takano, Y. 2000b. "A Dichotomous Approach to Basic Japanese Grammar": *The Predicates and Some Other Aspects*, Seizansha Publishing Company.
7. _____. 2003a. "Ga" and "Wa": Part I, *Journal of the International Student Center*, Nagasaki University.
8. _____. 2003b. "Ga" and "Wa": Part II, *Journal of the International Student Center*, Nagasaki University.
9. _____. 2005. "Wa of Emphasis," *Journal of the International Student Center*, Nagasaki University.

(Professor, International Student Center)