Japanese grammar notes

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This note is a more well-organized version of this note. It's a reading note of Akiyama and Akiyama (2012), Tsutsui and Makino (1989), as well as lots of books and articles listed in the reference. The methodology followed is in this note about how descriptive grammars work, i.e. "largely generatively informed but surface-oriented and flat-tree in the appearance".

There is basically nothing new in the note. Sometimes you will find word-by-word copying of the books and papers in the reference.

Boxes in this note should *not* be considered as paragraphs: they are just there to show my opinion towards certain theoretical aspects or language-specific argumentation or learning advices. The paragraph after a box is to be considered as next to the paragraph before the box.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 The Japanese language and its history

1.2 Previous studies

Japanese is a relatively well-documented language, with a native grammar study tradition.

1.3 Language and culture

Chapter 2

Overview of Japanese grammar

2.1 Phonology and the writing system

Japanese is roughly a mora-timing language, though with some deviation from the prototypical ones. Japanese has a rather trivial inventory of 5 vowel phonemes (§ 3.1) and 15 consonant phonemes (§ 3.2), which can be combined into around 50 moras, and there are three types of special moras – the syllable-final nasal, vowel lengthening, and consonant germination (§ 3.3.1).

The above features results in a native writing system, which includes two sets of mora-based syllabaries called kanas (§ 3.6.3) and Japanese Chinese characters, the kanji (§ 3.6.4). The spelling system used in this note is a romanization system (§ 3.6.2).

2.2 Parts of speech

2.2.1 Lexical words: nouns and verbs, and everything else

Japanese has a clear noun-verb distinction. This can be found by looking at the morphology: nouns are subject to case marking, which is basically adding a particle to the NP which can be dropped especially in casual speech, while verbs always appear as one of the stem forms plus agglutinative endings.

The following things should be recorded about a verb: its conjugation class (§ 8.4), the argument structure (chap. 9), which may also affect how the arguments are marked, TODO: unaccusative and unergative

There are two adjective classes: the verbal adjectives (or *i*-adjectives) and the nominal adjectives (or *na*-adjectives), with different syntactic distribution (verbal adjectives may fill the predicate slot on their own; nominal adjectives never do so) and morphological appearances (verbal adjectives are more like verbs).

One rare property of modern Japanese is the verb class and the verbal adjective class are already closed classes: they rarely accept new members (though not entirely impossible). What makes Japanese rarer is despite being closed, the verbal adjective class is large.

The vocabulary of Japanese can be divided into three parts according to the etymology: the native words, Sino-Japanese words, and recently borrowed words. This distinction is sometimes of grammatical significance (TODO: politeness).

2.2.2 Function items

I specifically use the term *fucntion items* instead of *function words* in the title of this section, because the word-or-morpheme-or-phrase problem is especially serious in Japanese morphosyntax (TODO: ref: school grammar, education grammar). In functional items, we have particles in NPs (chap. 6), SFPs in matrix clauses (§ 10.2), particles used for clause linking (§ 11.1), and TODO: 助动词.

Theoretical aspect 2.1: So-called category of functional items

Though particles are in the grammar and do not really carry category labels like "noun" or "verb" and it actually makes no sense to discuss the categories of them, the traditional practice to list all particles and classify them is practically desirable, as it provides a quick way to navigate across grammatical systems.

Japanese lacks the prototypically pronoun class: so-called pronouns are customized referential nouns like 'that girl', and thus the pronoun class is not closed and strictly speaking is not a part of the grammar. The article class is also not attested.

2.3 Noun phrases

In Japanese NPs, gender and number are not marked. The case is marked by an NP-final particle (§ 6.1). The information structure also receive explicit marking by particles, including the topic marker *wa*, and in some cases the nominative marker *ga* has the reading of focus marker (§ 10.1).

2.4 The verb and the clause

2.5 Constituent order

Japanese has a strict modifier-first constituent order, and here the term *modifier* includes arguments in a clause ("modifiers of the verb or the verbal adjective"), and even NPs with respect to case particles.

Theoretical aspect 2.2: the notion of head and modifier

This notion of head and modifier is CGEL-like, and is probably related to a strong head-final tendency in the linearization: if a so-called modifier is introduced as a specifier in a functional projection with a root as the core, then obviously the root and the functional heads are realized into one unit (for example a verb complex) and the "modifier" precedes the unit to ensure the (functional) head-final rule, and therefore in the surface-oriented analysis, we also get a modifier-head constituent order (where *head* means lexical heads). If there is no core root, then trivially the "modifier" is realized in a position before the spellout of functional heads, and the latter is regarded as somehow a head in the CGEL sense, and again we get a modifier-head constituent order, if we understand things like case particles as heads, which is the CGEL approach but not the BLT approach.

Despite the strict modifier-head constituent order, in the clause, the order of core and peripheral arguments and adverbials is relatively flexible, which usually reflects the information structure. Relevant mechanisms include topicalization and the ordering between *wa*-NPs and *ga*-NPs (§ 10.1.4, TODO: ref), scrambling (TODO: ref), TODO: others

2.6 Clause combining

2.7 Remarkable features

2.7.1 Politeness

Some languages, like Chinese, have a hierarchy of politeness coded in the lexicon. In Japanese this kind of lexical politeness also exists, but some components of the grammar are also about politeness (§ 5.1, § 8.6, TODO). Some parts of the grammar do not involve any category about politeness, but using them is shunned if the speaker wants to be polite (§ 4.1.1, TODO).

2.7.2 Gender of speaker in speech

Japanese doesn't give any place to grammatical gender. However, the gender of the *speaker* is important: there is one dialect for men, and another for women. Grammar points involving gender of the speaker include TODO

2.8 The structure of this note

Theoretical aspect 2.3: The organization in reference grammars

The structure of this note and the contents of chapters follow the examples set by Friesen (2017), Jacques (2021), Grimm (2021), the famous CGEL (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002), and of course Dixon's three volumes of BLT. The nominal chapters (TODO: ref), The notion of verb complex (chap. 8) is also found in Friesen (2017).

Chapter 3

Phonology and the writing system

3.1 Vowels

3.2 Consonants

3.3 Phonotactics

3.3.1 The scheme of moras

Japanese is usually analyzed as a mora-timing language: each mora occupies one rhythmic unit. This isn't strictly true: moras with devoiced vowels may be shorter (TODO: ref), and so is geminated consonants (see below). The allowed types of moras include V, CV, jV, CjV, R, N, and Q.

Here the symbol j is the glide /j/, which may appear after a non-glide consonant and before a vowel, and the sequence of the three phonemes is still one mora. The appearance of j is called 拗音 *yōon* in Japanese. The glide is only compatible with /a/, /u/ and /o/. The symbol N is a moraic nasal: it constitutes a single mora, called 撥音 *hatsuon* and never appears at the initial of a word. Thus, except for CjV, Japanese doesn't allow multiple consonants, and except for (C)VN, Japanese syllables are always open.

The symbol R means a chroneme, which prolongs the last vowel, called 長音 *chōon*. It's compatible with any vowels. Q means geminating the following consonant. It's called 促音 *sokuon*, and may be realized as "pause for a mora" before the consonant. The two abstract phonemes represent adjustment of vowel and consonant lengths, which are all distinctive in Japanese phonology.

3.4 Accent

3.5 Sound change

3.6 The writing system

3.6.1 Overview

The mora-based phonology of Japanese results in two syllabaries used to write Japanese, called *kanas* 仮名. There are two kinds of kana in contemporary use: one is hiragana 平仮名, the other is katakana 片仮名. Hiragana is used to write grammatical items (like inflectional endings and particles) and a subset of words with native etymology, while katakana is used for newly borrowed words. Ideophones are traditionally written in katakana, though sometimes they are written in hiragana for a softened, adorable appearance.

There exists several romanization systems for Japanese, which are called *rōmaji* ローマ字 'Roman letters'. The Hepburn romanization is designed for non-native speakers, which roughly

reflects the actually contemporary pronunciation. There are other systems of romanization, which are discussed in § 3.6.2.

3.6.2 Differences between romanizations

Since I (and intended readers) of this note are all non-native speakers, it's a good idea to first introduce the romanization systems, and for the same reason, the system used in this note is the revised Hepburn romanization, which tells us more about the phonological structure of Japanese in the eyes of an outsider.

All systems of romanization use the same set of letters to represent the five vowels: *a*, *i*, *u*, *e*, and *o*. The letters for the consonants are also largely the same. Consonants without any flavor of the glide j are represented by *k*, *g*, *s*, *z*, *t*, *d*, *n*, *h*, *b*, *p*, *m*, *r*, and *w*.

3.6.3 Table of kanas

Below is a table enumerating all hiraganas and their romaji correspondence (TODO: which kind of romaji?), called *gojūon* 五十音 'fifty sounds':

Table 3.1: The *gojūon* 五十音

	a	i	u	e	o
∅	あ *a*	い *i*	う *u*	え *e*	お *o*
k	か *ka*	き *ki*	く *ku*	け *ke*	こ *ko*
g	が *ga*	ぎ *gi*	ぐ *gu*	げ *ge*	ご *go*
s	さ *sa*	し *si*	す *su*	せ *se*	そ *so*
z	ざ	じ	ず	ぜ	ぞ
t	た	ち	つ	て	と
d	だ	ぢ	づ	で	ど
n	な	に	ぬ	ね	の
h	は	ひ	ふ	へ	ほ
b	ば	び	ぶ	べ	ぼ
p	ぱ	ぴ	ぷ	ぺ	ぽ
m	ま	み	む	め	も
y	や		ゆ		よ
r	ら	り	る	れ	ろ
w	わ	ゐ		ゑ	を

Certain phonological rules can already be observed in the kana-romaji correspondence in the above table.

Learning note 3.1: Remembering kanas

Hiraganas can be remembered by recalling the spelling of grammatical items. The dictionary form ending of verbal adjectives is い. The genitive case particle is の. The *te*-form of verbs ends in て. The verb politeness marker ます *masu* appears frequently. TODO

3.6.4 The Kanji

3.6.5 Spelling conventions

3.6.6 Symbols and punctuation

TODO: punctuations, like 、 and 。

Chapter 4

Nominal categories

Theoretical aspect 4.1: How to enumerate nominal classes

The organization of nominal categories is the same as Friesen (2017, chap. 3, chap. 4).

4.1 Pronouns

4.1.1 Personal pronouns

4.1.2 Demonstratives

4.2 Numerals

Chapter 5

Nominal morphology

5.1 Honorifics

5.1.1 Prefixes for objects

For Sino-Japanese nouns, the prefix *go-* is used to add politeness. For native nouns, the prefix *o-* is used instead. TODO: how to write in kanji?

5.1.2 Suffixes of people

TODO: a table

5.2 Nominal derivations

Chapter 6

Particles in noun phrases

There are several systems of particles after NPs: case particles 格助詞 (§ 6.1), and adverbial particles 副助詞 (§ 6.2 – the name is actually misleading, see the relevant section).

Theoretical aspect 6.1: List of particles as a lookup table

I learn from Jacques (2021) and organize all NP-final particles into one chapter for quick lookup of the distributions of case, adverbial types, etc.

The systems are not completely compatible (§ 6.3). For example, a well known generalization is structural case markers – the nominative *ga* and the accusative *o* – are erased when NPs are topicalized, while inherent case markers may be kept.

6.1 Case particles

Here is a list of case particles:

- Nominative: *ga*, appearing in certain circumstances as the focus marker (§ 10.1).
- Accusative: *o*
- Dative: *ni*: time and location
- Genitive: *no*
- Lative: *e*, used for destination direction (like in "to some place")
- Ablative: *kara*, used for source direction (like in "from some place")
- Instrumental/Locative: *de*

6.1.1 The accusative case *o*

6.1.1.1 The object

The accusative case is usually used to mark the object. Note, however, that the semantically O argument may also be marked by *ga* and promoted to the initial of the clause, and thus there is no syntactic object in the clause (§ 10.1.3).

6.1.1.2 The path

The path argument ('walk through/along/in ...') is marked as accusative.

6.1.2 The possessive marker *no*

6.2 Adverbial particles, or miscellaneous

The so-called adverbial particle class is a catch-all class for all particles appearing in the NP but hard to classify. They don't necessarily appear on peripheral arguments: *dake*, for example, can appear on an object (§ 6.2.1), and *hodo* can appear on a copular complement.

6.2.1 *Dake*

6.2.2 *Hodo*

6.2.2.1 Approximation

The particle *hodo* may be attached to a countable NP, and takes the reading of *about*. The NP may be a copular complement:

(1) 1000円ほどです

Sen en hodo desu
1000 yen HODO

'(It) is about 1,000 yen.'

6.3 Compatibility

Chapter 7

The structure of noun phrases

Chapter 8

The verb complex

Theoretical aspect 8.1: The notion of verb complex

In this note I use the term *verb complex* to denote the BLT verb phrase, i.e. what fills the BLT predicate slot, i.e. the realization of the verbal functional hierarchy – from vPto CP. Periphrastic conjugation – things similar to the English *is doing my project* – is also included as a part of the verb complex.

8.1 Introduction

Japanese is typologically agglutinative: the morphemes have relatively clear boundaries, each morpheme representing a grammatical category. Still, there are two important factors in Japanese that deviate away from the perfect agglutinative prototype. The first is there is still some degree of fusion, in which historically analyzable morphemes arguably already form a single fused morpheme (§ 8.6, TODO). The second is most components in the verb complex – both the lexical head and most functional morphemes – either have *internal* morphology or alter the form of suffixes following them, depending on how you analyze it (Box 8.2), and this is related to the analysis of basic forms of the verb (§ 8.4).

As is said before, Japanese is strongly modifier-first, and hence productive functional morphemes in the verb complex are predominantly after the main verb (§ 8.2, TODO: periphrastic conjugation). Prefixes are highly limited – they are mainly used in derivations and honorifics (§ 8.3). In the verb complex, the lexical verb always comes the first, followed by a chain of auxiliaries, due to the modifier-head constituent order.

The so-called "auxiliaries" I just mentioned include pure inflectional suffixes and auxiliary verbs: the latter may be seem as head verbs or parts of periphrastic conjugation forms depending on their stage of grammaticalization, but in either way they appear after the main verb because they are "heads" in the sense of "head-final" typological parameter of Japanese (Box 2.2).

The distinction between inflectional suffixes and auxiliary verbs – or in other words, the distinction between canonical and periphrastic conjugations – is subtle: they are both after the lexical word, intervening between them and the lexical word is disallowed, they have similar internal morphology, etc. The main criterion used to motivate a distinction between the two seems to be that the latter have lexical uses, while the former don't. This may be the reason that the School Grammar directly calls them directly as "verbs" (§ 8.7.1). In this note I call suffixes and auxiliary verbs *auxiliaries* for convenience.

Theoretical aspect 8.2: About internal morphology of conjugation suffixes

Note that since they are both spellout of functional heads, the fact that auxiliary verbs and suffixes have almost no differences shouldn't surprise anyone. The real problem is the inner morphology of auxiliaries obviously has no correspondence in the syntactic tree. It's therefore a morphophonological phenomenon, not a morphosyntactic one. This is a mismatch between syntax and phonetic forms, and it's usually analyzed as a result of morphophonological readjustments. The English *have been being assaulted* would be

generated by the following vocabulary insertion

$$[\text{have-en}]_{\text{PRES, PERF}}\ [\text{be-ing}]_{\text{PROG}}\ [\text{be-en}]_{\text{PASS}}\ \text{assault}$$

plus phonetic readjustment rules of "affix lowering". The same can happen in Japanese, in an exactly the same manner, except now higher functional heads are on the right and the affix like *-ing* or *-en* which is responsible for the inner structure of auxiliaries is now passed from right to left. This makes things even easier, because now the end of each conjugation suffix is directly connected to the "affix" of the higher position conjugation suffix. Indeed, this seems to be the origin of the so-called irrealis form, which is completely unmotivated semantically (TODO: ref).

There is another way to analyze English auxiliaries. For English *have been being done*, we may posit the following rules. The auxiliary verb *being* is the default spellout of the progressive aspect: if *-ing* is close to a verb stem, then it goes after that verb stem, but in *being done*, the verb stem has already been incorporated into *done*, so *-ing* is spelt out as *being*. Similarly we have *been*, which is the default spellout of the so-called Asp_{en} head (Ramchand and Svenonius, 2014). Thus, the "stems" of auxiliary verbs in the English verb phrase are actually inserted later as a last resort. This works for English, but not for Japanese without necessary amendments: now it's the "stems" of auxiliaries that contains grammatical information, and now the continuative ending *-i* is inserted as a last resort, if we deem the "stem" of an auxiliary can't appear in the final output.

The two analyses have their own pros and cons. For the analysis of the continuative form – which literally appears almost all of the case before a pure conjugation suffix (i.e. "auxiliary verb" in the School Grammar) – the best approach is of course to say it comes from the last resort insertion, somehow as the default form. For the so-called irrealis form, the morphophonological readjustment is of course the best analysis. The rest of the forms are also to be discussed case by case (TODO: ref).

For a surface-oriented phenomenological analysis, we may say things like "an auxiliary selects a continuative form or a *te*-form", and we may also say "an auxiliary actually has a separable part *i* that moves to the component before it", and we may also say "an auxiliary triggers insertion of a vowel before it". The first wording is the most phenomenological, and the second and the third correspond to the above two approaches.

That being said, a suffix-auxiliary verb distinction – essentially a morphological v.s. periphrastic distinction – can still be observed, based on comparison between one-clause constructions and clause combining constructions: what is obviously the first while still having a form resembling the latter is considered periphrastic.

Take the marking of aspect as an example: the plain aspect is marked by nothing, and with the indicative mood (TODO: ref, and whether this concept holds water) and the plain aspect, the auxiliaries (we are not sure about their nature yet, so let's use the vague name *auxiliary*) are added in a templatic manner, shown in Fig. 8.1(a) (§ 8.2). In a complement clause construction taking a *te*-form (TODO: ref), visualized as Fig. 8.1(b), things are different: now the verb complex of the complement clause ends in *te*, and the main verb of the matrix clause has its own list of auxiliaries with the same rigid order. Now consider the progressive aspect (TODO: ref): in the progressive aspect, the templatic chain of auxiliaries after the main verb ends with *te*, and then comes the *iru* (TODO: ref), followed by its own chain of auxiliaries which marks the tense, polarity and politeness. Its form is close to Fig. 8.1(b), though we know the *-te i-* segment is actually the spellout of the progressive aspect head (see Box 8.2 again). Thus, we say the progressive aspect is marked by periphrastic conjugation while the plain aspect is not, and we say in the auxiliary chain found in Fig. 8.1(a-c) is made by suffixes: there is a template of the chain, each slot of which holds one suffix, while the main verb-like ??? position in Fig. 8.1(c) is filled by an auxiliary verb. In Fig. 8.1(b), there are two verb complexes: one is in the subordinated clause, and the other is in the matrix clause. In Fig. 8.1(c) there is only one verb complex, but there are two suffix chains.

Auxiliary verbs, like the *iru* in the progressive aspect, are *not* discussed in § 8.2: the latter only deals with templatic auxiliaries, i.e. suffixes.

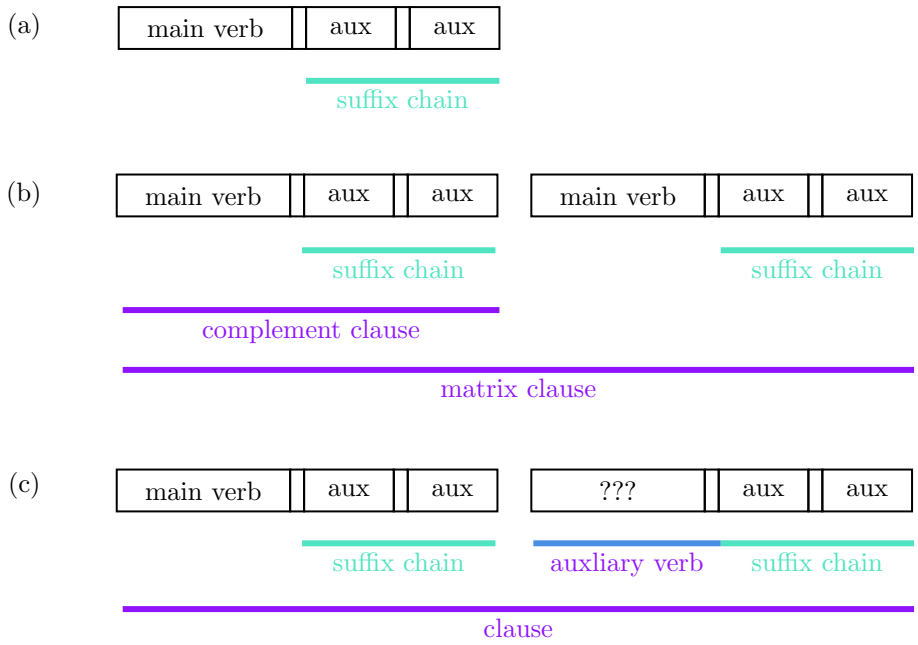

Figure 8.1: Several schemes of verb complexes. (a) Templatic morphology (b) Complement clause (c) Periphrastic conjugation

Previous researches, mainly the system of the School Grammar and the Education Grammar, often use seemingly incompatible though translatable terminologies to describe the verb complex (§ 8.7). Knowing both grammar systems is important for Japanese learners, because (of course) dictionaries are edited by native speakers of Japanese and they use the School Grammar system to carry out their work.

Learning note 8.3: How to conjugate a verb

First have a look at § 8.4 to , then

8.2 The suffix chain

When an inflectional suffix is added, if the previous form ends in a consonant, an *i* is inserted after the consonant. This results in the so-called continuative form (§ 8.4.2.1).

8.3 Prefixes

8.4 Internal conjugation

8.4.1 Overview of conjugation classes

According to whether the final sound of the stem is a vowel or consonant, Regular Japanese verbs can be divided into **c-stem verbs** and **v-stem verbs**. C-stem verbs are also called 五段動詞 or **group-1 verbs**, because changing the conjugation ending means the final mora may appear in every column of the kana chart (Table 3.1), and v-stem verbs are also called 一段動詞 or **group-2 verbs**, because the last or the second but last mora is always in the same column with the last mora in the dictionary form, which is the present, positive, plain form of the verb (§ 8.6.1).

一段動詞 can be further divided into 上一段動詞 or *iru*-verbs or **group-2a verbs** and 下一段動詞 or *eru*-verbs or **group-2b verbs**: the final vowel of *iru*-verbs is *i*, and *-ru* is actually the conjugation ending of the terminal form, and similarly the final vowel of *eru*-verbs is *e*.

There are two important irregular verbs: *suru* 'to do' and *kuru* 'to come'. Since the verb category of Japanese is closed, the two verbs are highly productive as light verbs when new

verbal meanings are required. They, together with their semi-conventionalized compound with NPs, are collectively called **group-3 verbs**.

Auxiliary verbs also follow the same pattern, and this is even true for morphosyntactically inflectional suffixes: the latter are definitely suffixes in any morphosyntactic sense (TODO: ref), but have the same internal morphological patterns with lexical verbs. This makes the traditional School Grammar include them into the category of "auxiliary verbs" (§ 8.7.1). It's rather weird to talk about "stems" of inflectional suffixes, but for coherence of morphophonological description, we will still use the terms *c-stem* and *v-stem* for inflectional suffixes.

8.4.2 The basic forms

Now I list the

8.4.2.1 Continuative form

The continuative form is the default form for anything that conjugates and is not at the end of a suffix chain (§ 8.2), and hence the name. Apart from that, the continuative form is also used in norminalization and non-finite clauses (TODO: ref). The continuative form is also the historical origin of the *te*-form (§ 8.4.2.2).

8.4.2.2 The *te*-form or the so-called gerund

8.5 Valency changing devices

8.6 The tense, polarity and politeness complex

In this note, the categories of tense, politeness and polarity are deemed as realized by a single, fused ending without analyzable inner structure. This is adequate for descriptive usage, since nothing is able to "fine tuning" the inner structure of the tense, politeness and polarity marking.

8.6.1 The conjugation pattern

8.6.2 Historical notes

8.7 Notes about previous studies

8.7.1 The School Grammar and "auxiliary verbs"

Here is a little terminological confusion: in the School Grammar inflectional suffixes, sometimes also auxiliary verbs, are called 助動詞 'auxiliary verb', while auxiliary verbs are called 補助動詞 'helping verbs'. The confusion of the two is easily understood, because both of them appear after the main verb and are attached closely to the main verb and have internal morphology (§ 8.4.1). The fact that the accepted writing system for Japanese doesn't distinguish words (§ 3.6.6) – whatever this term means – also contributes to native speakers' decision to call suffixes (and sometimes auxiliary verbs) "auxiliary verbs", and then they have to invent another name for more prototypical auxiliary verbs.

Chapter 9

Arguments of verbs

9.1 'I hit the wall . . . ': prototypical transitive and intransitive verbs

9.2 'I think, I feel':

Chapter 10

Clausal constituent order and information packaging

10.1 Topic and subject

The difference between the so-called topic marker *wa* and the subject marker *ga* is a long problem in Japanese grammar. This section provides a tentative summary of the function of each.

10.1.1 The function of *wa*

The meaning of NP-*wa* can be summarized as 'as for NP, I know ... (the rest I'm not talking about)'. Thus *wa* is a canonical marker of topic, and the NP it's attached to must be somehow a "known object".

When two clauses containing *wa* are conjoined together, we get the meaning of 'as for ..., I know ...; (but) as for ..., ...', and this naturally has a contrastive meaning, as in (TODO). Note that though it's possible that the *wa*-NPs in the two clauses are different, because the above construction is contrasting two clauses, not two NPs.

(1) TODO: example of contrastive

10.1.2 The function of nominative *ga*, with or without *wa*

10.1.3 Multiple *ga*

10.1.4 Summary of constructions

10.2 Sentence final particles

SFPs are useful in oral communication. This section is based on Akiyama and Akiyama (2012, § 6.4).

10.2.1 *Ka*

The SFP *ka* is the interrogative marker. It marks both open and closed questions. To make a question open, just introduce interrogative pro-forms.

10.2.2 *Ne*

The SFP *ne* invites the listener to confirm a claim: '..., don't you think so?' We have the following examples:

(2) Atsui desu ne
hot NE
'It's hot, isn't it?'

10.2.3 *Yo*

The SFP *yo* is used to make a very strong assertion.

Chapter 11

Subordination

As is often the case, there are fewer information packaging devices in subordinated clauses. TODO: topicalization,

Theoretical aspect 11.1: Matrix clauses and subordinated clauses

From a generative perspective, both a matrix clause (which is actually a sentence in the sense of BLT, though it can still be embedded as an argument of a verb like 'say') and a subordinated clause are CPs. The structural differences between the two are mainly about the lack of certain functional projections in the subordinated clause. Speaking of so-called Force projection(s), the subordinated clause usually only contains the marking of imperative, declarative, etc., without specification of detailed speech act, which may be marked by SFPs in Japanese (and Chinese). Since topicalization is also a CP process, we can expect it's more restricted in subordinated clauses.

11.1 Clauses linked by particles

TODO: Compatibility with SFPs This section is a more annotated version of Akiyama and Akiyama (2012, § 6.3).

11.1.1 *Ga*

11.1.1.1 The concessive construction

The particle *ga* may be attached to the end of a clause and has the reading of 'despite the circumstance'.

A conventionalized construction in oral speech is to avoid the main clause and end the utterance with *ga*. In this way, it's a marginal SFP.

(1) Ikitakatta desu ga . . .

11.1.1.2 Neutral linking

We can also just use *ga* as 'and'.

11.1.2 *Kara*

11.1.2.1 The causal construction

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