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Great Clarendon Street, Oxford OX2 6DP
Oxford University Press is a department of the University of Oxford
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Oxford New York

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Published in the United States by Oxford University Press Inc., New York

Oxford University Press 2003
 First published 2003

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British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data Data available

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data Data available

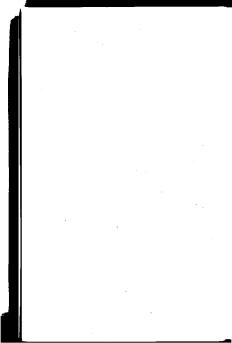
ISBN 0-19-860382-7

10987654321

Typeset by Graphicraft Limited, Hong Kong Printed in Great Britain by Clays Ltd. Bungay, Suffolk

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Preface |

The Japanese Crammar and Verbs is part of a series of Oxford grammars of modern languages, It includes information on a wide number of structures likely to be encountered in the first few years of studying Japanese at school or college and contains everything that is essential up to A level. For those living and working in Japan, it presents commonly seen and heard material. It is designed to serve both as a source of information in itself, and as a supplementary reference for users of textbooks which may not cover grammar topics adequately.

The book is largely organized according to parts of speech. This is not an approach often taken in textbooks and it has been adopted here to try to present a picture of Japanese grammar overall. Japanese parts of speech are discussed in their own

chapter (see pp. 1-4).

I About the example sentences

The issue of style in Japanese grammar is crucial. In this book the examples are presented in a mixture of styles to reflect formal and informal spoken and written usage. If you are uncertain about the styles of Japanese you should look at the chapter on style (p. 10).

To allow the book to be as widely usable as possible, a romainzed form of Japanese example sentences has been given. As learning the kana scripts as quickly as possible will aid the learner's pronunciation (and because the rows and lines of the kana chart are important in making/explaining certain 'forms'), there are kana chart as appendices.

The example sentences are given in two Japanese versions. The first version presents a normal, Japanese version without spaces, in a mixture of kanji (Chinese characters) and kana. Numerals are not given in kanji as this is unnatural in horizontal text. Whether or not kanji should be used to write a particular word is sometimes a matter of personal choice or of a sense of 'balance' between kanji and kana in a sentence, but the examples try to reflect current usage. Some words are mostly in kana although the kanji forms may also be common, e.g. $<\delta$ and $<\delta$. Examers need to grow used to varied orthography at an early stage.

The second Japanese version is a romanized one with spaces between 'words' although this should not be taken to imply that the Japanese can or should be separated in this way. The romanization is given simply as an aid to learners and is very much secondary to the 'real' Japanese version. The system used for romanization is modified Hepburn. The Japanese examples have been kept as natural as possible while the English translations, while trying to sound natural. have sometimes been made slightly literal where this may help the user understand a structure in use

Jonathan Bunt

Acknowledgements |

Many people have contributed to the writing of this book. The Series Adviser (Dr Richard Ingham) and Academic Adviser (Dr Phillip Harries) made helpful and constructive comments and suggestions. Lynne Strugnell was heroic, cheerful, and clear-sighted in editing the text into its final form and getting this project to completion. The author would like to especially thank the Trustees of The Great Britain Sasakwar Poundation and Mike Barrett, the Chief Executive, whose support enabled him to take leave from teaching in order to complete this book.

The author would also like to thank: Suzuko Anai at the University of Essex; my friend and colleague Yukiko Shaw; Norko Kajihara, Atsumi Griffiths, Minako Oshima, and Motoi Kitamura at the Japan Centre North West; and friends and colleagues in the British Association for Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language (RATI). Special thanks are due to the author's wife Atsuko (第子), and sons George (報治), and Harry (治野). Thanks are also due to those students at the University of Salford, Manchester Metropolitan University, and Manchester University who tried out sections of the book.

The editors at OUP were extremely helpful and thanks go to Della Thompson and Vivian Marr for their support.

The author's sincere hope is that users of this book will sometimes say (sincerely) なるほどas well as まじ?

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Parts of speech

Japanese and English are considerably different in structure as well as vocabulary. For example, meanings expressed with verbs in English may use adjectives in Japanese, and words that do not change form in English may do so in Japanese (and vice versa). The English sentence '1 want aca' features a pronoun ('1'), a verb ('want'), and a direct object noun ('car') with an indefinite article ('a'), but the Japanese translation **%** L\forall N as no pronoun, no article, and 'car' is the subject of an adjective.

The grammatical terms for Japanese parts of speech vary a great deal in textbooks, dictionaries, grammars, and more scholarly works. The system for parts of speech used in this book is basically that taught in Japanese schools (sometimes called Hashimoto grammar), or Kokuog grammar) but with modifications to include terminology widely used in teaching Japanese as a foreign language (see, for example, the discussion of stems in the chapter on verbs, pp. 21–24).

Japanese classification recognizes as parts of speech certain dependent words such as ~ます and ~ない which cannot appear in sentences as words in their own right, but only when they are attached to other 'words'.

Japanese classification also makes a distinction between words that change their forms (to indicate, for example, past tense or negation) and those that do not. The term 'conjugate' is used to describe changes in the form of verbs and adjectives.

Information about the part of speech of a Japanese word can usually be found in a Japanese dictionary designed for native speakers of Japanese (こくごじてん・電路等典). Textbooks and dictionaries for non-Japanese learners do not usually use the Kokugo categories for parts of speech. The English names given here are for guidance only.

I A list of Japanese parts of speech

Independent words

part of speech	examples	characteristics
どうし・動詞	たべる	dictionary forms* end
(verb)*	よむ	with a sound from the
ĺ	はなす	う line of the kana
	あう	chart; conjugate
けいようし・形容詞	あたらしい	end with a sound from
or	おおきい	the (\ line of the kana
イ けいようし・イ	たかい	chart; conjugate
形容詞		
(-i adjective)		
けいようどうし・	きれい (だ)	end with だ or related
形容動詞	きれい (な)	form (including な in
or	げんき (だ)	front of a following
ナ けいようし・ナ	げんき(だ)	noun); viewed as
形容詞	しずか (だ)	conjugating part of
(-na adjective)	しずか(な)	speech, as だ
		conjugate
めいし・名詞	さかな	can be joined to other
(noun)	ほん	nouns with particle の;
	せんせい	do not change form
すうし・数詞	ひとつ	expressions for
(counter)	ひとり	counting; do not
	ふたり	change form
	さんぼん	
	ろっかい	
ふくし・副嗣	ちょっと	used in front of verbs
(adverb)	よく	or adjectives, or to
	なかなか	introduce certain
	もし	phrases; do not
	1	change form

part of speech	examples	characteristics
れんたいし・連体詞	この・こんな	only used in front of
(no English	その・そんな	nouns; do not change
equivalent)	あの・あんな	form
most words classified	いろんな	
as 連体詞 are dealt	various	
with in the chapters	おおきな blg	
onこ・そ・あ・ど	ちいさな	
and adjectives;	small	
others (apart from	わが our	
the last three listed)	いわゆる what's	
are relatively	known as	
uncommon	あらゆる every	
	kind of	
せつぞくし・	けれど(も)	link sentences; do not
接続詞	し	change form
(conjunction**)	~ば	
	~たら	
	なら	
かんどうし・感動詞	はい	sometimes express
(exclamation)	いいえ	emotion; do not
かんとうし・間投詞	あのう	change form
(interjection)	あら	

^{*} The dictionary form of the verb is taken to be the basic 'word'.

** There are some 'conjunctions' which are considered noun and particle combinations in Japanese grammar (e.g. あとて, それでは), and others which are usually taught to foreign learners as 'forms' of the verb or adjective, or as particles (へたら、〜ば).

Dependent words

These cannot appear on their own, but are used as endings or attachments to other words.

じょどうし・助動詞 (auxiliary***)	~ます ~ない ~ (ら) れる ~ (さ) せる ~だ・です ~らしい	
じょし・助詞 (particle)	は が を に で	added to nouns etc. to show grammatical roles and relationships within sentences; do not change form

*** Sometimes called auxiliary verbs. Many U_L ∈ B → L are dealt with as 'forms' of the verb or adjective (see the section Suffixes and forms below). In this book, the term 'auxiliary' is used in certain explanations, and where possible € · です is referred to without defining its part of speech.

I Suffixes and forms

In this book, dependent, conjugating auxiliaries such as $\sim \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{f}$, $\sim \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{t}$ and $\sim \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{f}$ and $\sim \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{f}$ and $\sim \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{f}$ and they are treated in most textbooks for foreign learners. \mathcal{R} (and related forms including $\mathcal{T}^{\mathbf{r}}$) is dealt with a separate chapter (see \mathcal{R} : $\mathcal{T}^{\mathbf{r}}$) because of its importance, and is referred to throughout as \mathcal{R} : $\mathcal{T}^{\mathbf{r}}$. Conjunctive particles such as $\sim \mathcal{K} \cdot \mathcal{E}$ and $\sim \mathcal{L}^{\mathbf{r}}$ are described in the chapters on verbs (p, 20) and conjunctive particles (p, 120)

For descriptions of parts of speech in English, see the glossary (pp. 243-53).

Topic, comment, and predicate

The terms 'topic' and' comment' are common in the teaching of Japanese grammar. The topic is what is being spoken or written about. Japanese sentences often begin by stating a topic, about which a comment is then made. The comment can be information or a question. The most common topic marker is the particle || |

topic	comment	meaning
あつみさんは	がくせいです	Atsumi is a student
えきは	どこですか	Where is the station?
にほんごは	むずかしいですか	Is Japanese difficult?

The topic and the grammatical subject may be identical. In the sentence 'Atsumii a satuden' above, 'Atsumi' is the grammatical subject in terms of the sentence structure, but it is marked as a topic with the particle It in the context of focussing the conversation on 'Atsumi' and giving information about her. Topic is about focussing attention, and subject more a matter of structural relationships between elements of a single sentence. The particle It's 'hides' the subject particle It's when a subject is highlighted as a topic (see particles).

The predicate is the part of a sentence that gives information about the grammatical subject. It should be remembered that the subject is sometimes also a topic, in which case the subject marker \mathcal{T} is hidden. Verbs, adjectives, and nouns followed by \mathcal{E}^* \mathcal{T}^* can form predicates in Japanese.

English	own family	other person's family
	('my ')	('your ,')
husband	おっと・夫 or しゅじん・主人	ごしゅじん・ご主人
50n	むすこ・息子	(お) むすこさん
daughter	むすめ・娘	(お) むすめさん
sister (older)	あね・姉	おねえさん・お姉さん
sister (younger)	いもうと・妹	いもうとうさん・ 妹さん
brother (older)	あに・兄	おにいさん・お兄さん
brother (younger)	おとうと・弟	おとうとさん・弟さん
uncle	おじ (さん)	おじさん
aunt	おば (さん)	おばさん
grandfather	(お) じいさん	おじいさん・ お祖父さん
grandmother	(お) ばあさん	おばあさん・ お祖母さん
family	(うちの) かぞく・ (家の) 家族	ごかぞく・ご家族

The informal (and distinctly male) words おやじ and おふくろ for one's own parents might be translated with the colloquial 'my old man' and 'my old dear'.

The use of in-group and out-group words makes clear whose family is being referred to without the need tor possessive markers such as the English 'my', 'your', etc. Note, however, that relatives and older siblings (but not younger ones) are usually addressed directly with the words for other people's family members, as these are more polite. Older family members also refer to themselves with the polite words when speaking directly to younger members. (In English, a comparable usage tends to be restricted to situations dealing with very small children, e.g. 'Let Murpmy kiss it better.' Natural English translations of these terms are likely to be 'you', 'l', etc.. or the person's name:

- お父さんはどう思いますか
 - Otosan wa do omoimasu ka What do you think. Dad?
- お姉さんと話したいんですが Onesan to hanashitain desu ga Id like to talk to you (= older eleter)
- お父さん買ってやるよ
 - Otosan katte yaru yo I (= Daddy) will buy it for you
- お母さんはお兄さんに大丈夫だといったのに Okasan wa oniisan ni daijōbu da to itla noni You (Mum) told him (= older brother) it was OK
- 安部さんこんにちは、お母さんはお元気でしょうか Abe san, konnichiwa. Okâsan wa o-genki deshô ka Hella. Mrs Abe. le your mother well?

Note that some of the words in the chart can be used in a general sense, and not only for family members, e.g. おじさん can mean 'man'. and おくさん can mean 'lady':

- 奥さん! 小包です。印鑑お願いします Okusan! Kotsuzumi desu. Inkan onegai shimasu I have a package for you, madam. Please sign for it
- お姉さん!お水ください
 Onësan! O-mizu kudasai
 Waitrees! Some water please
- あの小父さんに聞いてみましょうか Ano ojlsan ni kite mimashö ka Let's ask that man over there

Style

Issues of style affect the form of Japanese verbs, adjectives, and \mathcal{E} • \mathbf{CT} . Most of the comments here are concerned with verbs. More details can be found in the chapters on adjectives (p. 96) and \mathcal{E} • \mathbf{CT} (p. 15).

Japanese has a range of polite, humble, and respectful ways of speaking which are collectively called keige (& &) speaking which are collectively called keige (& &) speaking which are respect language' or 'honorifics'. The politic style with ~ & f is a part of keige. Learners usually begin to study verb with the ~ & f is form, and its usage is covered in the chapter on verbs (p. 20). The issue of keigo as a system is discussed separately (p. 213).

To understand how Japanese verbs work, it is essential to know the plain style forms as well as the polite style forms. Plain forms can be made regularly from the dictionary form, which is so called as it is the form under which verbs are listed in most Japanese dictionaries. For example, the verb '10 go' is probably most familiar to learners as いきます. but this form is not usually found in dictionaries, as it is derived from the dictionary form U.Y. Both U.Y and U.Y きます mean '10 go', and they are to some extent intercrhangeable, but U.Y is in the plain style and U.Y きます is in the polite style.

To help learners still unfamiliar with the dictionary form, there is a chart of endings of verbs as an appendix, with suggestions for changing them to find the dictionary form (p. 258).

Within the plain style, or **futsūtai (普通体)**, and the polite style, or **ketiai (敬木)**, there are a range of 'forms'. The polite style forms are collectively called **desu-masu-kei** (デス・マス形), and the plain style forms are collectively called **futsūkei (普通形)**. The following chart shows the plain and polite style forms of the verb \ 'v æ ze ze 'to go'.

_	polite style	plain style
поп-past	いきます	11<
past	いきました	いった
negative	いきません	いかない
past negative	いきませんでした	いかなかった

In the following examples, the first Japanese sentence in each pair is in the polite style and the second is in the plain style:

Takan Leat preaktaet

Only the ending of a sentence needs to be in the polite form to give the whole sentence the tone of the polite style. Any verbs or adjectives used within a complex sentence are in plain forms, regardless of the context and choice of style at the end (modifiers). If there seem to be two polite forms of a verb in a single sentence, it is probable that there are two sentences joined with a conjunction (p. 129). In the following sentence there are four verbs, and although the overall style of speech is polite, note that it is only the final verb which has a ~ ½ ff ending:

夏休みに毎年ヨーロッパへ行く人が年々増えているそうですが、オーストラリアへ行くひとの方が多いと旅行会社の情報で分かりました

Natsu-yasumi ni maitoshi Yōroppa e iku hito ga nennen fuete iru sō desu ga Ōsutoraria e iku hito no hō ga ōi to ryokōgaisha no iōhō de wakarimashita

We know from information from travel firms that the number of people who go to Europe every year for their summer holidays is increasing year by year, although greater numbers are still going to Australia

I Uses of the polite style and the plain style

The choice of polite style or plain style depends on the situation. The polite style is used primarily in the spoken language, and the plain style is used in informal spoken language, in most books and magazines, and in newspaper articles.

Although the polite style is primarily found in spoken language, it also carries over into writing where the writer is speaking to the reader (e.g. emails, letters, postcards, lectures, radio and TV news, etc.) or quoting someone's words. The use of the polite style in writing is also widespread for stylistic reasons.

The polite style features the auxiliary $\sim \$\$$ on sentencefinal verbs, together with adjectives and nouns marked with ``7\$ when used as predicates (p.5). In the plain style, ``R is used instead of ``7\$ (``R '``7\$), and `V adjectives do not need `R '``7\$. (For adjectives with ``7\$, see the chapter on adjectives, pp. 96-111.) It is usual to keep a conversation or piece of writing consistently in one style.

I Polite, plain, and written styles of Japanese

In addition to the plain and polite styles discussed above, there is also a written style which has a small but consistent variation in the forms of だ・です. Each of the styles is briefly described and illustrated with examples below.

'desu-masu' style (デス・マス欝)

This style is used mostly in spoken language or in letters, and features polite style verb forms and \mathfrak{T}^{\bullet} (including \mathfrak{T}^{\bullet} following \mathfrak{V} adjectives). Keigo, or respect language, comes within this category (see p. 213):

- ロンドンは首都ですからさすがに美しいです Rondon wa shuto desu kara sasuga ni utsukushii desu You would expect London to be beautiful as it is a capital city
- 前略。母さんの誕生日に、帰れなくて申しわけありませんでした。仕事が忙しくて、どうしても都合がつかなかったのです

Zenryaku. Okāsan no tanjōbi ni kaerenakute **mõshiwake arimasen deshita**. Shigoto ga isogashikute dõshite mo **tsugõ ga tsukanakatta no desu**

in haste! Mum, **"m sorry** that I couldn't come home for your birthday, I was under pressure at work and just **couldn't manage** it

'da' style (ダ調)

This style is used in informal style, spoken or written, and features plain forms of verbs, κ , and ν adjectives without τ :

- 今日も暴いわ
 - Kyō wa atsui ne It's hot today, eh?
- (横は来通また中国へ行く。最近出張が多い。お前はどう? Boku wa raishū mata Chūgoku e lku. Saikin shutchö ga ōi. O-mae wa dō?

I'm going to China again next week. I've had lote of business trips recently! How about you?

'de-aru' style (デアル調)

This style is used for writing in factual, newspaper style, and features plain forms of verbs, and である in place of だ or です:

- 東京は4年連続高物価世界一位である Tökyō wa yo-nen renzoku kōbukka sekkai-ichi-i de aru Tokyo has been the world's most expensive city for four years
- Tokyo has been the world's most expensive city for four years running
- この点について現段階では詳しいことは分からないが、それぞれの地点で、音声的な事情が複雑である。また、年齢などによる差もあろう。さらに多くの情報を集める必要がある。

ກວງ Kono ten ni tsulte gendankai de wa kuwashii koto wa wakaranai ga sorezore no jiten de onseiteki-na jijo ga fukuzatsu **de aru.** Mata nenrei nado ni lyoru sa mo **aro**. Sara ni oku no joho o atsumeru hitsuvo ga **aru**

At this stage, the point is not clearly understood. The phonetic data in each location is complicated. There is also a probable difference according to age. It is necessary to gather further data

だ・です is often treated as an equivalent of the English verb 'to be', and it is usually translated as 'is/are', but this important element is not a verb at all. It functions principally as the ending required by A adjectives and nouns forming predicates (see p. 5). だ is one of a class of words called jodoshi (助動詞) in Japanese, sometimes referred to as 'auxiliaries' in English (see auxiliary suffixes). For the use of だ・です with adjectives, see the chapter on adjectives (p. 96).

l Conjugation of だ・です

minim marile

Like most other auxiliaries。だ・です conjugates (changes the ending to show, for example, negation or past tense). The plain and polite forms of だ・です are shown in the chart below. Because of issues of style (see p. 10 and p. 213), there are numerous possible forms: malika anda

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,oin	plant style	point style	style
positive	だ	です	である
negative	ではない or じゃない	ではないですor じゃないですor ではありませんor じゃありません	ではない
past	だった	でした	であった
past negative	or	ではなかったです or じゃなかったです or ではありませんでした or じゃありませんでした	
tentative	だろう	でしょう	であろう

There is also the very polite version でございます. For ございます, see keigo (p. 213).

£ produces the following forms when nouns, clauses, or conjunctive particles are added (see **conjunctive particles**). Some examples are given below:

form	plain style	polite style	literary style
~7	₹	で	であって
~たら	だったら	でしたら	であったら
~なら~ば	なら (ば)	なら (ば)	であるなら or であれば
attributive	な	な	な

For more on な, see below and the section on adjectives (p. 96):

- このシャツは長袖でおしゃれなカフスがついています Kono shatsu wa nagasode de o-share-na kafusu ga tsuite imasu Thie shirt is long-elecced and hae stylish cuffs
- 日本語は特有な言語であって、近隣諸国の言語とあまり似ていません
 Nihongo wa tokuyû na gengo de atte kinrinshokoku no gengo to amari nite imasen
 - aman nite imasen

 Japanese is a very distinctive language, and does not much resemble the languages of neighbouring countries
- 来週の土曜日が暇だったら一緒に映画を見に行こうよ Raishū no doyōbi ga hima dattara issho ni eiga o mi ni ikō yo If you are free next Saturday, let's go and see a film together
- 来週の土曜日お暇でしたら、一緒にお食事でもどうですか Raishû no doyôbi o-hima deshitara issho ni o-shokuji demo do desu ka
 - If you are free next Saturday, would you like to have dinner or something?
- 好きなら好きとはっきり言って
 Suki nara suki to hakkiri itte
 If you like it, say so clearly

The classical form なり is sometimes found as a predicate:

時は金なり

Toki wa kane nari Time is money

I Uses of だ・です

After nouns and α adjectives, κ is used to mark the ending of a sentence or clause. It can be in the plain form or polite form, and shows tense and negation:

試験は明日です

Shiken wa ashita desu The exam is tomorrow

幸子は先生だ

Yukiko wa sensei da Yukiko is a teacher

これは僕のくつじゃない

Kore wa boku no kutsu ja nai These aren't my shoes

1980年の夏でした
 Sen kyū-hyaku hachi-jū-nen no natsu deshita

It was the summer of 1980

Sometimes だ is omitted if the sentence can stand alone, as in a newspaper headline:

 緊迫化で自治停止(だ) Kinpakuka de lichiteishi (da)

Self-rule (is) suspended as tension grows

だ is sometimes omitted in conversation, especially in questions and answers:

and answers:

• 十曜日眠?

Doyöbi hima? Are you free on Saturday?

うん。暇よ

Un. Hima yo Yes, I'm free

明日雨

Ashita ame Rain tomorrow

 私は日本人。あなたはイギリス人 Watashi wa Nihonjin. Anata wa Igirisujin Lam Japanese. You are English π is the form of π : τ used to join a noun to the nominalizer σ , or compound particles with σ (see p. 206 and pp. 166–167):

 僕が書いた本なのにお金はもらえなかった Boku ga kaita hon na no ni o-kane wa moraenakatta

Although I wrote the book, I couldn't receive (any) money for it to must be used when a noun follows a to adjective (hence the name). For examples and discussion, see the chapter on adjectives (p. 96).

Iじゃ and では with negatives

じゃ is the contracted form of では, and is used in the various negative forms of だ・です. じゃ is found more often in spoken language, and では is more common in the written form, although it is also encountered in speech:

- 私は学生じゃない
 Watashi wa gakusei ja nai
 Lam not a student
- 彼らは警察じゃなかった Karera wa keisatsu ia nakatta They were not policemen
- 反対ではありませんが疑問があります
 Hantai dewa arimasen ga, gimon ga arimasu
 Lam not against it. but l still have reservations

I Uses of だろう・でしょう

This tentative form of \mathcal{K} is used to indicate conjecture, although it is not always necessary or appropriate to translate it into English with 'probably'. It follows the plain forms of verbs, adjectives, and nouns:

- 真弓ちゃんは小学生でしょう Mayumi chan wa shōgakusei deshō Mayumi is an elementary student. ien't ehe?
- Mayumi is an elementary student, ien tener

 明日雨が降るだろう
- Ashita ame ga furu darō It will probably rain tomorrow

 イギリスで外食するのは高いでしょう Igirisu de gaishoku suru no wa takai deshō Eating out in England is expensive, len't it?

An adverb of conjecture, such as たぶん 'maybe', 'perhaps', is sometimes used with だろう・でしょう (see adverbs):

田村先生は多分来ないでしょう
 Tamura sensei wa tabun konai deshō
 Ms Tamura probably isn't coming

だろう・でしょう can be used in questions as a polite equivalent of だ・です:

ホールさんでしょうか

Höru-san deshô ka Are you Ms Hail?

 日本人は土曜日も学校へ行くのでしょうか Nihonjin wa doyobi mo gakko e iku no deshô ka In Japan, do they go to school on Saturdays too?

だろう・でしょう is commonly used to seek agreement with a statement. This is similar in function to the tag question in English:

- お母さんは日本人でしょう
 Okasan wa Nihonjin desho Your mum's Japanese, isn't she?
- 雨だったら試合がないでしょう
 Ame dattara, shiai ga nai deshō if it rains, there won't be a match, will there?

だろう・でしょう is also discussed in the chapter on auxiliary suffixes (see p. 181).

| Verbs

I What is a verb?

A verb is a word which expresses an action or a process:

I watched TV last night The door opened

A verb can also describe a state of affairs:

The horse is standing in the field All the cups are broken

I Properties of Japanese verbs

English verbs change their endings according to the person doing the action ('1go', 'she goes'), but this is not the case with Japanese verbs. Neither do they need a pronoun ('T. 'you', 'he', etc.) to show the grammatical subject. The subject of the sentence is usually clear from the context. This means that many of the examples given below have pronouns such as 'I' or 'she' in the English translations but not in the Japanese (see pronouns).

The main verb comes at the end of a Japanese sentence, although both verbs and verb phrases are also used in clauses within complex sentences. In this latter use they are often referred to as 'modifiers' because the verb or clause modifies the following noun or noun phrase (see p. 209).

I Verh forms

Japanese verbs are usually spoken of as having 'forms', e.g. '一まず form' and '一ない form', in fact, 一まず and 一ない acuillaries which are attached to particular stems of verbs, and are called jodoshi (助助剤) in Japanese. This book refers to 'forms' of verbs, in line with most textbooks, but also uses the term

'auxiliary' as an English equivalent of jodôshi. Auxiliaries are very important in Japanese, and they are considered in their own chapter (see p. 181).

All verbs have dictionary forms ending in one of the syllables from the \ni line of the kana chart (see p. 255). The possible endings are $\sim \ni$, $\sim \triangleleft$, $\sim \triangleleft$, $\sim \triangleleft$, $\sim \lozenge$.

I Verb stems

Japanese verbs have a series of stems to which suffixes are added. The following chart gives the stems together with their names, examples, and the most common suffixes attached to them.

The verbs used as examples are the ごだん verbs あう 'to meet', まつ 'to wait', かく 'to write', とる 'to take', lt なす 'to speak', the いちだん verbs みる 'to see', 'to watch', たべる 'to eat', and the irregular verbs する 'to do' and くる 'to come'.

Chart of verb stems with common suffix elements

Japanese and English names (where commonly used) for stem	example	dictionary form	common structures based on this stem include
conjunctive	かき~	かく	~たい
(pre-ます) stem	あい~	あう	~たい
	¥5~	まつ	〜ます (〜ません, 〜ました etc.)
れんようけい・連用形	とり~	とる	
	はなし~	はなす	(see
	4~	みる	Conjunctive
	たべ~	たべる	form)
	し~	する	
	き~	くる	l.
~ない stem	かか~	かく	~ない
	あわ~	あう	~ない form

Japanese and English	example	dictionary	
names (where		form	structures
commonly used)	İ		based on this
for stem		-	stem include
みぜんけい・未然形	また~	まつ	(さ) せる
	と ら~		(see causative)
	はなさ~	はなす	(6) ha
	み~	みる	(see passive)
	たべ~	たべる	
	し∼	する	
	<u>-~</u>	くる	
dictionary form	かく	かく	でしょう・
じしょけい・辞書形 also called	あう	あう	だろう
aiso caned しゅうしけい・終止形			~そう
ON JOHN - METERS	ļ		~よう
れんたいけい・連体形			~ธิ์โเ
TOTAL PERMIT	まつ	まつ	~みたい
The reason for having	23	೬ ನ	
alternative names is that]	(see じょどうし
the dictionary form			p. 181)
can be sentence final			
(= しゅうしけい) or		1	Also used to modify nouns
form part of a modifying			mounty nouns
clause and join to a	ļ		(see modifiers
following main clause (= れんたいけい), Both			p. 209)
forms are the same in			,,
modern Japanese,	1	i i	
soじしょけい is the			
preferred term.	,		
	はなす	はなす	(see Uses of the
	みる	みる	dictionary form)
	たべる	たべる	
	する	する	
	くる	< 3	

Japanese and English names (where	example	dictionary form	structures
commonly used) for stem			based on this stem include
かていけい・仮定形	かけ~	かく	~1£
D'CVII) VI BACID	あえ~	あう	(conditional) (see Conjunctive particles)
	まて~	まつ	
	とれ~	とる	
	はなせ~	はなす	
	みれ~	みる	
	たべれ~	たべる	
	すれ~	する	
	<1~	くる	
すいりょうけい・	かこ~	かく	
推量形	あお~	あう	~3
	まと~	まつ	(see volitional
	とろ~	೬ ಎ	form)
	はなそ~	はなす	
	<i>み</i> ~	みる	~よう
	たべ~	たべる	
	しよ~	する	
_	こよ~	< &	
めいれいけい・命令形	かけ	かく	
imperative	あえ	あう	(see Imperative
	まて	まつ	form)
	Łħ	とる	
	はなせ	はなす	
	みろ	みる	
	たべろ	たべる	
	しろ	する	
	こい	くる	

Japanese and English names (where	example	dictionary form	common structures
commonly used) for stem			based on this stem include .
~てけい・テ形	かいて	かく	~ください
~T form	あって	あう	~いる
	まって	まつ	~ある
	とって	ఉ	~#s<
	はなして		~ください
	みて	みる	~しまう
	たべて	たべる	~*1111
			(see ~て form)
	して	する	
	きて	くる	
~たけい・夕形	かいた	かく	
~た form	あった	あう	~ことがある
	まった	まつ	~ほうがいい
	とった	೬ಽ	~あと
	はなした	はなす	
	みた	みる	(see ~た form)
	たべた	たべる	
	した	する	
	A 40	12	

I Verb conjugation groups

Japanese verbs can be divided into two main groups according to how they conjugate (change the endings to indicate, for example, a negative or a past meaning). These groups are known as ichidan (一段) verbs and godan (五段) verbs. There are also two slightly irregular verbs which do not fit into these groups, ** 45 and < 5.*

いちだん verbs in the dictionary form end in a kana from the いっえ line of the kana chart, followed by ~る. The possible

Verbs with other endings in the dictionary form are classified as ごだん verbs, except for the two irregular verbs する and くる.

The majority of verbs can be identified as either $1 \lor 5 \not \subset h$. A verb s wheir dictionary form ending, but note that there are some $\not\subset h$. Verbs ending in -eru or -iru, i.e. a kana from the λ or V lines of the kana chart followed by δ . A list of some of the most common of these is given after the basic conjugation charts. The best way to be certain of the conjugation of an unknown verb ending in -eru or -irus is to look in a good learner's dictionary (such as the Oxford Starter Japanese Dictionary) where the conjugation group of a verb is given.

ごだん verhs

The verbs in this group are sometimes called '-u verbs' in English, as the final -u of the romanized dictionary form is dropped before other enfinals are added. Other English terms found in text books are 'vowel stem verbs' and 'group one verbs'. The Japanese term godan (五郎), meaning 'five-step', refers to the fact that the final kana of the dictionary form changes to another from the same row of the kana chart when making different forms, and these changes involve all five vowels. This is shown below with the verbs

よむ・読む 'to read' and はなす・話す 'to speak':

終む	続まない	読みます	読める	読もう
yo m u	yo ma nai	yo mi masu	yo me ru	yo mō
話す	話さない	話します	話せる	話そう
hanasu	hanasanai	hanashimasu	hanaseru	hanasi

Conjugation chart for こだん verbs

Note that the inclusion of a form in the chart does not necessarily mean that it is in common use, and some verbs may be rarely used in certain forms:

form	to meet	to write	to lend	to wait	to iump	to read	to take
dictionary	あう・	かく・	not.	#2·	25	Lt.	とる
dictionary	会う	*	買す	待つ	飛ぶ	既む	C 20
		かき	かし	まち	J. 75	よみ	الاع
~ます	あい ます	かぎ ます	ます	ます	ます	ます	ます
1							
conjunctive (pre-ます) stem	あい	かき	かし	まち	とび	よみ	20
~たい	あい	かき	かし	まち	とび	よみ	20
	たい	たい	たい	たい	たい	たい	たい
~ない	あわ	かか	かさ	また	とば	よま	25
	ない	ない	ない	ない	ない	ない	ない
~T	あって	かいて	かして	まって	とんで	よんで	とって
~た	あった	かいた	かした	まった	とんだ・	よんだ	とった
~たら	あっ	かい	かし	まっ	とん	よん	とっ
	たら	たら	たら	たら	だら	だら	たら
~たり	あっ	かい	かし	まっ	とん	よん	とっ
	たり	たり	たり	たり	だり	だり	たり
~ば	あえば	かけば	かせば	まてば	とべば	よめば	とれば
potential	あえる	かける	かせる	まてる	とべる	よめる	とれる
passive	あわ	かか	かさ	また	실종	よま	26
-	れる	れる	れる	れる	れる	れる	れる
çausative	あわ	かか	かさ	また	とば	よま	25
	せる	せる	せる	せる	せる	せる	せる
causative-	あわせ	かかせ	not	またせ	とばせ	よませ	Ł6t
passíve	られる	られる	used	られる	られる	られる	られる
volitional	あおう	かこう	かそう	まとう	とぼう	よもう	とろう
imperative	あえ	かけ	かせ	まて	とべ	よめ	Łħ
negative imperative	あうな	かくな	かすな	まつな	とぶな	よむな	とるな

Note that when a $\mathbb{Z} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{N}$ werb becomes potential or passive, it has an -eru ending. These forms are treated as new $\mathbb{Z} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{N}$ verbs and are conjugated into negative forms, conditional forms, etc., according to the pattern for $1 \mathbb{N} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{N}$ verbs (see the sections on the passive pp. 70-73 and potential pp. 66-70):

meaning	dictionary form (ごだん)	passive (いちだん)	potential (いちだん)
to buy	かう・買う	かわれる	かえる
to go	いく・行く	いかれる	いける
to read	よむ・統む	よまれる	よめる
to speak	はなす・話す	はなされる	はなせる
to return	かえる 帰る	かえられる	かえれる

いちだん verbs

The verbs in this group are often called '-ru verbs' in English, as the final ~る of the dictionary form is dropped before other endings are added. Other terms are 'consonant stem verbs' and 'group two verbs'. In Japanese they are called ichidan (一段) verbs, meaning' one step', referring to the fact that there is just one change needed to make other forms, with the final kana of the dictionary form being replaced by the suffix. This means that there is a consistent verb stem in all forms. This is illustrated below with the verbs たべる・食べる 'to eat' and みる・見る 'to see', 'to watch':

食べる	食べない	食べます	食べられる	食べよ:
taberu	tabenai	tabernasu	taberareru	tabeyő
見る	見ない	見ます	見られる	見よう
miru	minai	mimasu	mirareru	miyð

Conjugation chart for いちだん verbs

All いちだん verbs have a dictionary form ending -eru or -iru, i.e. a kana from the えってい lines of the kana chart followed by る. Note that there are a few ごだん verbs which also have this ending (see below):

form	'to go out'	'to get up'	
dictionary form	でかける・出かける	おきる・起きる	
~ます form	でかけます	おきます	
conjunctive	でかけ	おき	
(pre-ます) form		I	

form	'to go out'	'to get up'
~たい	でかけたい	おきたい
~ない form	でかけない	おきない
~て torm	でかけて	おきて
~た form	でかけた	おきた
~たら	でかけたら	おきたら
~たり	でかけたり	おきたり
~ば	でかければ	おきれば
potential	でかけられる	おきれる
passive	でかけられる	おきられる
causative	でかけさせる	おきらせる
causative-passive	でかけさせられる	おきらせられる
volitional	でかけよう	おきよう
imperative	でかけろ	おきろ
negative imperative	でかけるな	おきるな

Irregular verbs する and くる

The verbs \$73, with a basic meaning of 'to do', and <5 * \$3, 'to come' are slightly irregular and do not fit the pattern of \55 to come' are slightly irregular and do not fit the pattern of \55 to come' are slightly irregularities in other verbs, and these are noted in the verb charts.) Verbs formed from a noun plus \$75, of which there are a great many, behave in the same way as \$5 tiself. For more on this, see the section on \$75 at the nof of this chapter.

Conjugation chart for くる・来る and する

dictionary form	くる・来る	する
~ます form	きます	します
conjunctive (pre-ます) form	ŧ	i
~たい	きたい	したい
~ない form	こない	しない

dictionary form	くる・来る	する
~₹ form	きて	して
~た form	きた	した
~たら	きたら	したら
~たり	きたり	したり
~(\$	くれば	すれば
volitional	こよう	しよう
imperative	こい	しろorせよ
negative imperative	くるな	するな
potential	こられる	できる
passive	こられる・これる	される
causative	こさせる	させる
causative-passive	こさせられる	させられる

ごだん verbs which look like いちだん verbs

The following common verbs end in -iru or -eru but are $\subset \mathcal{EK}$ verbs, and conjugate regularly according to their group. [There are other verbs like this, and to be certain of a verb's type a good dictionary should be consulted.)

いる・暑る	to be necessary
かえる・帰る	to go home, to return
かぎる・限る	to be limited
きる・切る	to cut
しる・知る	to know
はいる・入る	to enter
はしる・走る	to run
しゃべる	to speak, to chatter
ける	to kick
すべる・滑る	to slip, to ski
まいる・参る	to come, to go, to visit

Different verbs with the same dictionary forms

There are a few common verbs which belong to different conjugations but which have the same dictionary forms. The use of kanji characters helps to distinguish them in writing:

dictionary form	ごだん	meaning	いちだん	meaning
きる	切る	to cut	着る	to wear, to put on
かえる	帰る	to return home	替える 換える 代える 変える	to change
いる	要る	to be necessary	(居る)	to exist
へる	減る	to decrease	経る	to pass (time)
しめる	湿る	to be damp	閉める	to close (the window etc.)
ねる	練る	to knead	寝る	to go to bed

I The ~ます form

The use of the auxiliary -\$ π \$ is a feature of **keigo** (see p 213), and makes the level of speech polite. For a discussion of politeness levels and the use of \sim \$ π \$ versus plain forms, see the chapter on style (p. 10). The \sim \$ π \$ form is made up of the conjunctive (pre-\$\$\pi\$\$) stem and the auxiliary \sim \$ π \$\$, which can be made negative, past, past negative, etc.

Making the ~ます form of ごだん verbs

To make the $\sim \$\$ f$ form of $\subset \mathcal{K}h$ verbs, the final kana of the dictionary form changes from the ~ 5 line of the kana chart to the ~ 1 line, and the auxiliary $\sim \$ f$ is then added:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana			~ます form	
あう・会う	to meet	う	う→い		あいます	
もらう	to receive	3	>	(1	もらいます	
かく・書く	to write	1	→	ŧ	かきます	
いそぐ・急ぐ	to hurry	<	-	ž	いそぎます	
かす・貸す	to lend	す	→	し	かします	
はなす・話す	to speak	Ŧ	→	L	はなします	
まつ・待つ	to wait	2	→	5	まちます	
しぬ・死ぬ	to die	180	→	E	しにます	
とぶ・飛ぶ	to fly	ぶ	→	び	とびます	
よむ・銃む	to read	ŧ	→	4	よみます	
<u>ده</u>	to take	る	→	ij	とります	
がんばる	to do one's best	3		ij	がんばります	

Making the ~ます form of いちだん verbs

The final ~る of the dictionary form is dropped, and the auxiliary ~ます is added:

dictionary form	meaning	with ~る dropped	~ます form
みる・見る	to see, to watch	み~	みます
おきる・起きる	to get up	おき~	おきます
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべ~	たべます
おしえる・教える	to teach, to tell	おしえ~	おしえます

Making the ∼ます form of する and くる

The ~ます form of する is します. The ~ます form of くる is きます.

Conjugation of 〜ます

The conjugation chart of ~ます is given below:

form	ending	example	meaning
non-past	~ます	いきます	will go
past	~ました	いきました	went
negative	~ません	いきません	won't go
past negative	~ませんでした	いきませんでした	didn't go
volitional	~ましょう	いきましょう	let's go

There is also a \sim τ form of \sim st, with the ending \sim st t, but this is relatively rare. It is used to connect sentences in formal spoken situations:

- すばらしいお土産をいただきまして、誠にありがとうございました
 - Subarashii omiyage o **itadakimashite**, makoto ni arigatō gozaimashita

Lam sincarely grateful for the marvellous present I have received Other forms of 〜ます may be encountered on rare occasions, but the only common one not in the chart above is いらっしゃいませい the expression frequently used by staff in shops and businesses to greet customers.

Use of ~ます

The ~ ***ます** form is generally used in conversation rather than writing (except in the case of letters, where **keigo** including ~ ***st** is common). It is used at the end of sentences only, and not it modifying clauses (see n. 209).

The auxiliary ~ます makes sentences polite in style (see **style**), and so is very common in everyday conversational exchanges between adults who are not familiar with each other:

- すみません。電話は近くにありますか
 - Sumimasen, Denwa wa chikaku ni **arimasu** ka Excuse me, **ie there** a phone nearby?
- どこからきましたか
 - Doko kara kimashita ka Where do you come from?
- オーストラリアからきました Ösutoraria kara kimashita l'm/l come from Australia

I don't watch much TV

- 妹に手紙を書きました
 - imõto ni tegami o **kakimashita** I wrote a letter to my sieter
- ~ましょう is an equivalent of the volitional form (see below), and is used with the meaning 'Let's
 - 一緒に行きましょう
 - Issho ni **ikimashō** Let's go together
 - じゃ、そろそろ帰りましょう
 - Ja, sorosoro kaerimasho Right! Let's go home
 - ~ましょう can be followed by the question particle か to seek agreement with a proposal:
 - お茶を入れましょうか
 - O-cha o iremashō ka Shall i make tea?
 - ~ません with the question particle か is a polite way of offering something or extending an invitation:
 - コーヒーを飲みませんか

Köhii o nomimasen ka Would you like a coffee?

 一緒に行きませんか Issho di ikimasen ka

Issho ni ikimasen ka Shall we go together?

I The ~たい form

This is an auxiliary that is attached to the conjunctive (pre- $\pm \tau$) stem, and gives the meaning of 'want to'. It is used to make statements about the speaker or writer. $\sim \pm V$ is a sentence final form, and so does not need $C^* \tau$ in the plain style, although it is followed by $C^* \tau$ in the policie style (see p. 10):

- 来年日本に行きたいです
 - Rainen Nihon ni ikital desu I want to go to Japan next year
- それは楽しかったね。また行きたい

Sore wa tanoshikatta ne. Mata ikital

That was fun. I want to ao again!

The particle marking the desired object is usually $\not\!m$, but $\not\!e$ is also found, especially where the feeling is very strong and an effort has to be made in order to bring about the desire:

 今晩ラーメンが食べたいなあ Konban rämen ga tabetai nä

Tonight I want to eat ramen

大学で生物学を勉強したい
 Daigaku de seibutsugaku o benkyō shitai

I want to study biology at university

Conjugation of ~たい

たい conjugates in the same way as い adjectives to form negative, past, and past negative sentences, etc.:

form	meaning	ending	ехатріе
plain	want to	~たい	いきたい
negative	don't want to	~たくない	いきたくない
past	wanted to	~たかった	いきたかった
past negative	didn't want to	~たくなかった	いきたくなかった

 あの映画がずっと見たかった Ano eiga ga zutto mitakatta I have wanted to see that film for ages

 七面鳥はもう食べたくない Shichimencho wa mo tabetaku nai I don't want to eat turkey any more

Uses of ~たい

~たい is used to talk about what the speaker or writer wants to do:

- 寿司が食べたいです
 - Sushi ga tabetal desu | I want to eat suchi
 - 行きたくない |kitakunai | don't want to go



Although statements with ~ 1 may refer only to the speaker or writer, this form can be used to ask questions or make suppositions about other people:

- 疲れている様子だね。すぐ寝たいでしょう? Tsukarete iru võsu da ne. Sugu netai deshõ You look tired. I expect you want to go straight to bed, don't you?
- 裏多村先生は大学院に戻りたいですか Kitamura sensei wa daigakuin ni modoritai desu ka Do you (Kitamura) want to go back to graduate school?
- ~たい can be used about people other than the speaker if there

is a phrase suggesting report, supposition, or appearance, such as 'I heard that' or 'apparently': 早く食べたいでしょう

- Hayaku tabetai deshō
 - You want to eat early, I suppose? 彼女も行きたいって
- Kanojo mo ikitai tte
 - She says that she wants to go, too 権沢君もロンドンで勉強したいそうです。
 - Umezawa kun mo Rondon de benkvô shitai sô desu I heard that Umezawa wants to study in London, too
 - ~たい cannot be used to make questions meaning 'Do you want to . . . ?' It can occur with a following でしょう, or the question particle to, or be said with rising intonation, but in these cases it is asking for confirmation. For example, a mother looking at her child yawning might say もう ねたい? 'You (obviously) want to go to bed, don't you?', but this is essentially a statement based on the evidence, rather than a question.

~たがる

- ~たがる is a combination of the auxiliaries ~たい and ~がる (see the section on adjectives of emotion, pp. 102-104).
- It is used to show that someone other than the speaker wants to do something:
- 山田さんは自分の過去について触れたがらない Yamada san wa jibun no kako ni tsujte furetagaranai Yamada doesn't want his past brought up

- 子供がずっと前から君に会いたがっているから遊びにきてね Kodomo ga zutto mae kara kimi ni altagatte inu kara asobi ni kite ne The children have been wanting to meet you for ages, so please come and visit
 - ~がる conjugates as a ごだん verb.

I The conjunctive (pre-ます) form/stem

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem of ごだん verbs is made by changing the final kana from one in the う line of the kana chart to one in the い line. With いちだん verbs, it is made by removing the final る:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana	
ごだん verbs			
いく・行く	togo	< → ±	いき
はいる・入る	to enter	る → り	はいり
よむ・読む	to read	む→み	よみ
まつ・待つ	to wait	o → ち	まち
いちだん verbs] — —	
たべる・食べる	to eat	remove final 3	たべ
みる・見る	to see, to watch	remove final 3	み

The conjunctive stem of $\mathbf{73}$ is $\mathbf{6}$, and the conjunctive stem of $\mathbf{63}$ is $\mathbf{53}$

Uses of the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem

This stem is used for adding ~ \$ 1 and other auxiliaries.

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem with に+verb of motion

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem can be used with the particle に and a verb of motion to express 'go and . . . ', 'come in order to . . . ', etc.:

- 今晩映画を見に行きたいです Konban eiga o **mi ni ikitai** desu [**want to go and see** a film toniaht
 - 明日、友達が遊びに来る Ashita, tomodachi ga asobi ni kuru A friend is coming to visit tomorrow
 - ちょっとパンを買いに行ってくる Chotto pan o kai ni itte kuru I'm just going to buy some bread

The conjunctive (pre- ます) stem to join sentences

This form can be used in written language as an equivalent of the $\sim T$ form when joining sentences to show a sequence of events, or a reason or cause. Notice that the names of individuals are given without the suffix $\not\equiv A$ in this style:

- 江藤はタバコに火を点け、昨日のことを考えた Etô wa tabako ni hi o tsuke, kinô no koto o kangaeta Eto lit a cigarette and thought about the events of the previous day
- 斎藤は札幌へ行き、田川に会った Saitō wa Sapporo e iki, Tagawa ni atta Sato went to Sapporo and met Tagawa

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem with なさい

なさい is a polite imperative meaning '(please) do . . . ', and is commonly used in classrooms and other semi-formal situations:

- ちょっと静かにしなさい
 Chotto shizuka ni shi nasai Please be quietl
- なさい is sometimes abbreviated to α , but care should be taken not to confuse this with the negative imperative (see pp. 83-85):
- ちょっと静かにしな Chotto shizuka ni shi na Please be quiet!

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem with ~かた・~方

A compound noun meaning 'way of . . . ing' is created by adding the ending ~かた・~方:

書き方

kakikata way of writing

- 説明書に使い方が詳しく書いてあります
 Setsumeisho ni tsukaikata ga kuwashiku kaite arimasu Instructions for use are given in detail in the Instruction manual
 - この漢字の読み方を忘れてしまった Kono kanji no yomikata o wasurete shimatta Lhave foraotten the way of reading this kanji

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem with ~にくい and ~やすい

The endings ~ にくい (or less commonly ~つらい) and ~やすい mean 'difficult to ...' and 'easy to ...' respectively:

- バント先生の字が読みにくいです Banto sensei no ji ga yominikui desu
 - Mr Bunt's handwriting is difficult to read
- この車は運転しやすい

Kono kuruma wa **unten shiyasui** Thie car i**s easy to drive**The conjunctive (pre: **\$\frac{1}**) stems of certain verbs can also be used as nouns (see p. 122), for forming compound verbs (see ps. 85-87), and in keigo (see ps. 213).

For the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem plus ~そうだ, see pp. 182-183. For conjunctive (pre-ます) stem plus ~ながら, see pp. 136-137.

! The ~て form

This is essentially a conjunctive form which allows the addition of other verbs, phrases, or sentences. The structures thus produced give a range of meanings which generally show a time or aspect relationship (see glossary) between what is expressed by the verb and the predicate (see p. 5) or clause that follows it. There are numerous uses of the form, and various structures based on it. Although usually taught as part of the conjugation of verbs, it is best resarded as a conjunctive particle (see p. 129).

Making the ~て form of ごだん verbs

The method of making the $\sim T$ form depends on the final kana of the dictionary form. There are four groups: verbs ending in $\sim \mathfrak{I}$, $\sim \mathfrak{I}$, verbs ending in $\sim \mathfrak{I}$, $\sim \mathfrak{K}$, $\sim \mathfrak{K}$, verbs ending in $\sim \mathfrak{I}$, and verbs ending in $\sim \mathfrak{I}$, $\sim \mathfrak{K}$.

Yerbs ending in ~う, ~つ, ~る

The final kana of the dictionary form is dropped, and $\supset \mathcal{T}$ is added:

dictionary form	meaning	~T form
あう・会う	to meet	あって
おもう・思う	to think	おもって
まつ・待つ	to wait	まって
もつ・持つ	to hold, to have	もって
とる・取る・撮る	to take	とって
のる・乗る	to ride, to travel (on/by)	のって

The verbs とう・問う 'to ask', 'to enquire' and こう・関う・乞う 'to entreat', 'to beg' have the ~て forms とうて and こうて respectively. The ~て forms of these verbs are relatively uncommon.

Verbs ending in ~む, ~ぶ, ~ぬ

The final kana of the dictionary form is dropped, and \mathcal{KC} is added:

dictionary form	meaning	~T form
よむ・読む	to read	よんで
ほほえむ・(微笑む)	to smile	ほほえんで
とぶ・飛ぶ	to fly	とんで
よろこぶ・喜ぶ	to rejoice, to be delighted	よろこんで
しぬ・死ぬ	to die	しんで

Verbs ending in ~す

The final f of the dictionary form is dropped, and UT is added:

dictionary form	meaning	~⊤ form
かす・貸す	to lend	かして
はなす・話す	to speak	はなして

Verbs ending in ~<, ~<

A final < of the dictionary form is dropped, and いて is added.
A final < is replaced by いで:

dictionary form	meaning	~~ form
かく・書く	to write	かいて
はたらく・働く	to work	はたらいて
いそぐ・急ぐ	to hurry	いそいで
かく・嗅ぐ	to smell, to sniff	かいで

An important exception is the verb いく・行く 'to go', which has the irregular ~て form いって.

Making the ~ て form of いちだん verbs

The final \sim 8 of the dictionary form is replaced with τ :

dictionary form	meaning	~ ₹ form
みる・見る	to see, to watch	aт
おきる・起きる	to get up	おきて
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべて
つける・点ける	to turn on, to light	つけて

~て forms of する and くる

The ~て form of する is して. The ~て form of くる is きて.

Uses of the \sim τ form

 $\sim\!\tau$ joins sentences and clauses, so linking the verb with a following word, clause, or sentence. Use of $\sim\!\tau$ shows an

aspectual relationship (see **giossary**) with what follows, usually indicating prior completion, but the meaning depends on the context. English translations of sentences with ~て forms can warry greatly, as shown below.

To show a sequence of actions

More than one ~ T form can be used within one sentence to show a sequence of events or actions:

- ・ 7 時に起きて、シャワーを浴びて、朝ご飯をたべました Shichi-ji ni okite, shawā o abite, asagohan o tabemashita 「got up at seven, had a shower and ate breakfast
- 彼は車を止めて、地図を出した

Kare wa kuruma o tomete, chizu o dashita He stopped the car and act out the man

To show a reason or cause

The first part of the sentence with $a \sim T$ form can show a reason or cause for what follows in the second part of the sentence:

- 盛岡さんは交通事故にあって、足に怪我をした Morioka san wa kōtsūjiko ni atte, ashi ni kega o shita Me Morioka had a traffic accident and injured her lea
- 毎日外で働いて、風邪をひいてしまった Mainichi soto de hataraite, kaze o hiite shimatta l was working outeide every day and ended up catching a cold

To show circumstances

The $\sim T$ form can be used to show the circumstances of an action, or the means of doing something:

- 彼女と手をつないで歩きました Kanojo to te o tsunaide arukimashita I walked holding hands with my girlfriend
- お客を使ってご飯を食べました
 O-hashi o tsukatte gohan o tabemashita
 Late the meal using chopsticke

To show manner of an action

The ~T form can show the manner in which something is done:

- 会社から歩いて帰りました Kaisha kara aruite kaerimashita came home from the office on foot/I walked home
- 仕事のあと急いで帰りました Shiggto no ato isolde kaerimashita After work I hurried home
- 慌てて財布を捜しました Awatete saifu wo sacashimashita I frantically searched for my wallet



To mark contrast

The ~ T form can be used to highlight a contrast with the following part of the sentence:

偉はイギリスに帰って、彼女はフランスに残った。 Boku wa Igirisu ni kaette, kanojo wa Furansu ni nokotta I returned to England but my girlfriend stayed in France

The ~ て form + いる

is completed:

The ~T form with いる can have various meanings, depending on the type of verb with which it used. With verbs describing actions that continue or can be repeated, the ~て form plus いる shows continuous or babitual action-

- 治護君は友達と電話で話しています Haruki kun wa tomodachi to denwa de hanashite imasu
- Haruki is talking to a friend on the phone あそこで新聞を読んでいる人は鈴木さんです Asoko de shinbun o yonde iru hito wa Suzuki san desu The person over there reading the paper is Suzuki
- 毎朝ジョギング(を)しています Maiasa iogingu (o) shite imasu I ioa every mornina
- 子供達は外で遊んでいる Kodomotachi wa soto de asonde iru

The children are playing outside However, with verbs which describe momentary actions that cannot be repeated, the ~T form plus (13 shows that the action

- 外の自動販売機が壊れている Soto no jidöhanbaiki ga kowarete Iru The vendina machine outside le broken
- 映画はもう終わっているはずです
 Eiga wa mō owatte iru hazu desu
 The film should have finiehed by now
- 手紙が落ちている

Tegami ga ochite iru

· The letter has fallen down (and is on the floor)

With verbs describing states and processes, the $\sim \tau$ form with $\iota \iota \delta$ shows that the state continues:

- 彼が今どこに居るか知っていますか Kare ga ima doko ni iru ka shitte imasu ka Do you know where he is now?
- ジョナサンが太っている
 Jonasan ga futotte iru
 Jonathan has put on weight (= is fat)
- 姉はお風呂に入っている
 Ane wa o-furo ni haitte iru My sister is in the bath
- 機原さんはニューヨークに住んでいます Kajiwara san wa Nyū Yöku ni sunde imasu Mr Kajiwara is living in New York

With positive predicates, ~て with いる shows completion:

・ 映画はもう終っている

- - Ki ga taorete iru The tree kas fallen over
- もう電車が着いている

Mô densha ga tsuite iru The train has already arrived

In negative predicates, ~T plus WIW shows actions not yet undertaken or completed:

- まだ食べていない
 - Mada tabete inai | I haven't eaten yet
- 明日がテストなのにまだ勉強していません
 Ashita ga tesuto na no ni mada benkyō shite imasen
 There is a test tomorrow but I haven't done any studying yet

 まだ目を通していない書類はこっちです Mada me o töshite inal shorui wa kotchi desu

These are the documents that I have not yet looked through

The adverb まだ '(not) yet' can sometimes be omitted:

使っていない切手はトレーに戻してください
 Tsukatte inal kitte wa torë ni modoshite kurtasai

Please return unused stamps to the tray With some verbs, especially those indicating change and movement, the $\sim \tau \nu \delta$ form can be interpreted as both

novement, in a continuous action and a state, but the context (and use of adverbs) will usually determine which is appropriate:

• もしもし。すみませんが、今食べているところなんですよ。

 もしもし。すみませんが、今食べているところなんですよ。 後でかけ直します
 Moshi moshi, Sumimasen ga, ima tabete iru tokoro nan desu yo.

Ato de kakenaoshimasu Heilo? Sorry, but we're eating now. I'll call you back latter

- Hellor Sorry, put we're eating now. Itt call you back later
 もう朝ご飯を食べています
- Mô asagohan o tabete imasu l've already had breakfast 手紙が落ちている
 - Tegami ga ochite iru

The letter had fallen down (onto the floor)

・ 最近株の値段が落ちている

Saikin kabu no nedan ga ochite iru
The prices of shares have been falling recently

Both continuous actions and states can be talked about in the past, using ~ていた・~ていました.

- 丘の上から子供達を見ていた Oka no ue kara kodomotachi o mite ita
- I was watching the children from the top of the hill

 日本に戻ったら桜の花が散っていた

Nihon ni modottara sakura no hana ga **chitte Ita** When I returned to Japan, the cherry bloesom **had fallen** When ~ている is part of a modifying clause, it often stays as

When ~ている is part of a modifying clause, it often stays as ~ている even with a past reference, as the tense of the whole sentence is shown by the final verb:

- 東京に住んでいるときは毎日外食をしていました Tokyo ni sunde iru toki wa mainichi gaishoku o shite imashita When I lived in Tokyo. I ate out every day
- 母はパリに住んでいるときよく美術館に行きました Haha wa Pari ni sunde iru toki yoku bijutsukan ni ikimashita When my mother was living in Paris, she often went to art museums

However, in situations where the emphasis is on the past in contrast to the present, ~ていた is possible:

 アメリカに住んでいたときゴルフをよくやった Amerika ni sunde ita toki gorufu o yoku yatta When I lived in America I often played golf (but I don't now)

The verb いる which follows the ~て form can be replaced by ある (humble) or いらっしゃる (honorific), depending on the speech level and style (see p. 213 and p. 10):

- 斎藤です。留守にしておりますので伝言をどうぞ Saltő desu. Rusu ni shíte orimasu node dengon o dözo This is Salto. I am out. so please leave a mossage
- This is Saito. I am out, so please leave a message

 鈴木先生はこの辺に住んでいらっしゃいますか
 Suzuki sensei wa kon hen ni sunde irasshaimasu ka
 Do you live around here, Professor Suzuki?

Verbs which are usually or rarely used in the $\sim \tau$ $^{\circ}$ $^{\circ}$ form

Some verbs with implied continuous meanings tend to be used mostly in the $\sim \tau$ form with U.S. Among the most common of these are:

++. 4+.

9 C. 1±C	-	3 V C (1/2)	to live (in)
けっこんする・ 結婚する	→	けっこんしている	to be married
もつ・持つ	\rightarrow	もっている	to hold, to hav
しる・知る	\rightarrow	しっている	to know
うる・売る	→	うっている	to sell
はたらく・働く	\rightarrow	はたらいている	ta work

つとめる・勤める → つとめている to work おぼえる・覚える → おぼえている to remember

- 彼が何を言ったか覚えていますか Kare na nani o itta ka obcete imasu ka
- Do you remember what he said?
- ミラーさんは結婚しています

Miră san wa kekkon shite imasu Me Miller is married

The verb しる・知る 'to know' is used in the ~で form with いる when positive, but not when negative:

- 佐藤先生の電話番号を知っていますか Satő sensei no denwa bangō o shitte imasu ka Do you know Professor Sato's phone number?
 - いいえ、知りません。事務所で聞いてください lie shirimasen .limusho de kite kudasai. No, I don't (know it). Please ask at the office

If a question with 65 mentions previously unknown information, then the answer needs to be in the past negative form, and not the ~ て form with いる:

- 彼が 薫ちゃんと 付き合っているのを 知っていましたか Kare na Kaoru chan to tsukiatte iru no o shitte imashita ka Did you know that he's apina out with Kaoru?
- いいえ、知りませんでした lie, shirimasen deshita No. I didn't know

The verbs ある 'to exist', 'to be', 'to have', いる 'to exist', 'to be', and いる・要る 'to need' are not used in the ~で form with いる.

Potential forms (see potential form) are not used with ~ている. However, できる in the sense of 'to be completed'. 'to be ready', can be used with ~ている:

ご飯が出来でいる Gohan ga dekite iru Dinner is ready

Verbs of motion in the ~で form + いる When いる follows the ~ て form of いく、くる, or かえる. it shows that a state is continuing, and is often translated into English with 'has gone', 'has come', 'has returned':

- 主人は会社に行っています Shujin wa kaisha ni **itte imasu** My husband **has gone** to work
- 主人はもう家に帰っている Shujin wa mō ie ni kaette iru

My husband has already come home

In the sentence below, the in-laws have come (and are still here):

 妻の家族が来ていて大変忙しいです Tsuma no kazoku ga kite ite taihen isogashii desu My wife's family are here so we are very busy!

The \sim τ form + verbs of giving and receiving

The verbs *Bif 5* 'l give', < *th 5* '(someone) gives me', *th 5* 'receive', and other verbs of similar meaning are used with the ~ T form when there is some sense of a benefit being given or received by the action taking place (*see pp. 94–95*).

In the following sentences, the verb is translated as 'tell' in both cases, but the Japanese equivalents differ. Japanese requires a 'verb of benefit to be used, especially when both the giver and the receiver of the action are in polite face-to-face discussion (first example), or where the speaker feels that she or he has benefited in some way (second example).

- アンヤの新しい住所を教えてあげる Anya no atarashii jūsho o oshleta ageru | will tell you Ania's new address
- アンヤの新しい住所を教えてくれるといいました Anya no atarashii jūsho o oshiete kureru to iimashita He said he would tell me Anja's new address

In the same way, the verb 655 'to receive' is used following a $\sim T$ form to show that the speaker or writer has benefited by someone's action. This usage is often translated in English as 'get (someone) to . . . , or 'have someone do . . . '

学生に連絡先を書いてもらう
 Gakusei ni renrakusaki o kalte morau
 Get the students to write down their contact details

- 時間が心配ならもっと早く来でもらいましょう Jikan ga shinpai nara motto hayaku kite moraimashō ff you're worried about time, let's get them to come earlier
- 田中さんに手紙の日本語をチェックしてもらう Tanaka san ni tegami no Nihongo o chekku shite morau I'll get Me Tanaka to check the Japanese in my letter

Notice that the last sentence above may not be acceptable if Ms Tanaka is of higher status (such as the speaker's boss), or if she is actually present, in which case the verb is likely to be the more polite \(\tau\tilde{\tilde{L}}\tilde{\tilde{L}} \) (see pp. 94–95 and p. 213):

 田中さんに手紙の日本語をチェックしていただく Tanaka san ni tegami no Nihongo o chekku shite itadaku l'il get Me Tanaka to check the Japanese In (my) letter

The following examples show other situations where the action of the verb is seen as beneficial to the speaker or listener, and so the ~T form is followed by a verb of giving or receiving:

- ベンを忘れてしまいました。貸してくれませんか Pen o wasurete shimaimashita. Kashite kuremasen ka I have foraotten my pen. Could you lend me one?
- 妻が今日珍しく弁当を作ってくれた
 Tsuma ga kyō mezurashiku bentō o tsukutte kureta
 Most unusually, my wife made me a boxed lunch today
- 辞書が2冊あるから一冊貸してあげる Jisho ga ni-satsu aru kara is-satsu kashite ageru
- | 've got two dictionaries. I'll lend you ons • ちょっと来て、面白いものを見せてあげる

Chotto kite, omoshiroi mono o **misete ageru**Come here a moment and Fil **show you** something interesting

When showing benefit with the verbs of giving and receiving, the

benefit is not limited only to the speaker or listener directly, but can also refer to the relevant in-group and out-group (see p. 7):

- 先生が鈍の日本語を挙めてくれた

* 先生が殊の日本語を書めてくれた Sensei ga imōto no Nihongo o **homete kureta** The teacher **praised my elster's** Japanese



- 妹がバスでおばあちゃんに席を譲ってあげました Imōto ga basu de obāchan ni seki o yuzutte agemashita My sister qave her seat to an old lady on the bus
- 君のお陰で我が社の売上が上がった。よくやってくれた Kimi no o-kage de wagasha no urlage ga agatta. Yoku yatte kureta
 - Thanks to you, our company sales have increased. You have done well for us

The \sim τ form + verbs of motion to describe processes

There is a special use of the verbs $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ and $\subseteq \mathcal{A}$ after a verb in the $\sim \mathsf{T}$ form to describe processes. The addition of $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ to become, shows that an action or change is continuing:

- あの大学は年々と大きくなっていく Ano daigaku wa nennen to ökiku natte iku That university gete bigger year by year
- 経済状態が深刻になっていった Keizaijotai ga shinkoku ni natte itta The economic situation continued to grow graver

Similarly, the use of $< \delta$ following a $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form shows that a process has continued from a point in the past up to the present moment. Notice that the past form $\delta \mathcal{L}$ does not necessarily mean the whole sentence is past tense:

- 経済状態が深刻になってきた
 - Keizai jotai ga shinkoku ni natte kita The economic situation has become grave
- デ形の作り方がやっと分かってきた
 Te-kei no tsukurikata ga yatto wakatte kita
 I finally understand how to make the ~ て form

There is also a use of $\sim \tau$ with $< \delta$ to show that an action has just started:

 試合が始まろうとした時に雨が降ってきた Shiai ga hajimarō to shita toki ni ame ga futte kita Just as the match was about to start it began to rain

subject	predicate	
あつみさんは	がくせいです	Atsumi is a student
あめが	ふっています	It is raining
すしは	おいしいです	Sushi is delicious
にほんごが	むずかしい	Japanese is difficult

The difference between a word or phrase marked with (3) (topic) and one marked with (3) (subject) can sometimes be a subtle or contextual one. The first sentence below is a topic with a comment, and the second is a general statement:

寿司はおいしい

Sushi wa oishii Sushi: it's delicious

寿司がおいしい Sushi aa oishii Sushi is delicious

In these sentences, the topic particle II directs attention forward to the predicate ('ii's delicious'), and the subject particle II's emphasizes what precedes it ('sushi'). This distinction is not always easy (nor indeed necessary) to convey in an English translation.

(3 is often used when introducing a topic which the listener is assumed to know about in some way, and points forward to new information being offered or asked about that topic:

田中さんは学生です

Tanaka san wa gakusei desu You know Tanaka – well he's a student.

田中さんは学生ですか

Tanaka san wa gakusei desu ka

That auy Tanaka: is he a student?

Other ways of marking the topic include Ab and $\neg T$ (see particles). For further information and other uses of Ab, refer to the sections on Ab and Ab in the chapter on particles.

In-group and out-group

In Japanese society, groups of people such as families or workplace colleagues form clear communities, and this is reflected in the language used to refer to people inside and outside the group. There is often a degree of mutual identification with other members of the group relative to outsides: In formal situations, for example, a member of a group may refer to those outside the group using more poilte language, and humble language may be used about one's own family or group relative to those outside it (see keigo p. 213, vertso of giving and receiving p. 94, ~ Torm+ vertso of giving and receiving p. 47).

I Family members

The concept of in-group and out-group has a marked effect on terms describing family relationships. Words used to refer to the speaker's family are different from those used to refer to the listener's family (when the listener is not another member of the same family) and the families of third parties. The alternatives are eiven in the chart below.

English	own family ('my')	other person's family ('your')
mother	はは・母	おかあさん・お母さん
father	ちち・父	おとうさん・お父さん
mum	おふくろ	-
dad	おやじ	-
parents	おやor りょうしん	(ご) りょうしん・ (ご) 両親
wife	つま・妻 or かない・家内	おくさん・臭さん

The combination やってくる 'to appear', 'to show up' is very common, but is idiomatic:

ちょうどそのとき竜也がやってきた
 Chödo sono toki Tatsuva da vatte kita

Just at that moment Tatsuva appeared

The combination やっていく is also an idiom, and means 'get along (well) with . . . ':

新しい会社で新しい仲間とうまくやっていきたいと思っている

Atarashii kaisha nakama to umaku **yatte ikitai** (o omotte iru I'm determined to **get along** well with my new colleagues at the new company

The ~ て form + しまう

The basic meaning of the verb しまう is 'to put away', as in the following example:

朝起きたら布団を押入れにしまう

Asa okitara futon o oshiire ni shimau

When we get up in the morning, we put the futons away in the cubboard

However, when it follows a $\sim \tau$ form, $U \sharp \mathfrak{I}$ is used to indicate the completion of an action:

- レボートを書いてしまいましたか Repôto o kaite shimalmashita ka Have you finiehed writing your cessay?
- nave you finished writing your essays

 con小説を全部読んでしまいました

Kono shōsetsu o zenbu yonde shimaimashita I've finiehed reading this novel

 文子さんはもう行ってしまった Avako san wa mö itte shimatta Avako has already left

The use of a \sim T form plus \cup \$\mathbf{x}\$ can also show that the speaker perceives the event negatively. This is similar to the colloquial English 'gone and ...' as in 'You haven't gone and told him, have you?' or 'He's gone and drunk the whole bottle'. Whether to interpret \sim T \cup \$\mathbf{x}\$ as showing completion or negative judgement, depends on the context:

- 今日の会議が1時からだとすっかり忘れてしまった Kyō no kaigi ga ichi-ji kara da lo sukkari wasurete shimatta i completely foract that today's meeting was from 1 o'clock!
- ごめんね。彼にもう言ってしまった
 Gomen ne. Kare ni mô itte shimatta

Sorry. I've already told him (and I shouldn't have)

In the spoken language, $\sim 5 + 5$ as a contracted form of $\sim T \cup \$5$ is very common. Verbs with a $\sim T$ form of $\sim h \cdot T$ have the contracted form U + 5:

全部食べちゃう

Zenbu tabechau I will eat it all

ビールをたくさん飲んじゃった
 Biiru wo takusan noniatta
 I drank loade of beer

The ~ て form + みる

The use of the verb 35 'to see' after a \sim 7 form is equivalent to the English 'try to . . . and see what happens':

これを食べてみてください

Kore o tabete mite kudasai Please taste this and see

- 宿題を新しいコンピュータで打ってみた Shukudai o atarashii konpyūta de utte mita I tried ueing the computer to do my homework
- 一度だけでもいいから中国へ行ってみたい Ichido dake demo ii kara Chūgoku e itte mital Even if it's only once, I want to go to China and see what the life

The ~ て form + ある

The basic meaning of the verb $\delta \delta$ is 'to exist'. The use of a $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form with $\delta \delta$ shows that something was affected by an action, and it still exists in that state. This structure occurs mostly with transitive verbs (see pp.87-91), but notice that the particle used is δt to show a subject, rather than $\delta \epsilon$ to mark a direct object:

窓が開けてある

Mado ga akete aru The window is open

宿題が黒板に書いてある

Shukudai ga kokuban ni **kaite aru**The homework is written on the blackboard

~てある often occurs with the adverb もう 'already':

- 夕飯をもう作ってある
 - Yühan wo mõ tsukutte aru | have already made dinner

The particle & in the sentence above shows that the emphasis is on the person who made dinner. The particle **b** could also be used, in which case the emphasis would be on dinner being ready:

夕飯がもう作ってある

Yühan ga mõ tsukutte aru Dinner's already made

The agent (the person who does the action) is not usually explicitly stated, but implied by the context.

The ~て form +おく

The basic meaning of the verb $\$< \cdot \equiv <$ is 'to put'. The $\sim \tau$ form with \$< shows that an action is done to prepare something for future use:

- ビールを冷やしておきます
 - Biiru o hiyashite okimasu i will chill the beer
- 僕の名前の漢字を書いておきます
 Boku no namae no kanji o kaite okimasu
- ||| write down my name in kanji (for you)
 | 明日の試験のために勉強しておかなければならない
 - ・明日の試験のために配像しておかなければならない Ashita no shiken no tame ni **benkyō shite okanakereba naranai** I **must study** in order to be ready for the exam tomorrow
- 荷物をドアの近くに置いておいてください Nimotsu o doa no chikaku ni oite olte kudasai Please put the bags by the door

Compare the following pairs of sentences which show the difference between ~ てある and ~ ておく

- 第の誕生日のプレゼントが買ってあります Otôto no tanjōbi no purezento ga katte arimasu I have bought my brother's birthday present
- 地図をかいておいてあげますよ
 Chizu o kaite oite agemasu yo
 i'li draw a map for you (to take along)
- もう地図がかいてありますよ
 Mô chizu ga kaite arimasu vo The map is ready

~て form + から

 $b\bar{b}$ after a $\sim \bar{c}$ form shows that the action of the verb is completed before a subsequent event or action begins:

- 食事が終ってから話しましょう
 Shokuji ga owatte kara hanashimashō
 Let'e talk about it after we finieh the meal
- ・帰国してから就職活動に入りました
 Kikoku shite kara shūshoku katsudō ni hairimashita
 After I returned home (to my own country), I started looking for a job
 - ~てform+は+いけない・ならない・だめ(だ)

This structure expresses negative obligation 'must not . . .':

たばこを吸ってはいけない

- Tabako o sutte wa ikenai You mustn't smoke

 1 人だけで行ってはだめだよ
 Hitori dake de itte wa dame da vo
 - Hitori dake de **itte wa dame da** y You **mustn't go** on your own!

See also ~なくてはいけない and なければならない・なければ いけない under ~ない below.

~て form + は

This is often used when making suggestions 'how about . . . ?':

 それなら同時に2つ頼んではどうですか Sore nara dōji ni futatsu tanonde wa dō desu ka in that case, why not order two at the same time? The どうですか can be implied and omitted:

今日はだめだな。では明日行っては?
Kyó wa dame da na. Dewa ashita itte wa
Well, it's no good today, then. OK, how about going tomorrow?

~て form+も

The addition of \bullet to a \sim τ form gives a structure meaning 'even if . . . ':

- がんばっても1日ではできないよ
 Ganbatte mo ichinichi de wa dekinal yo
 Even If I really work at it, I can't do it in one day
- フェリー代を払ってもフランスでワインを買うほうが安い Ferii dai o haratte mo Furansu de wain o kau hō ga yasuí Even after paying for the ferry, wine is cheaper in France

The addition of LVL gives a structure used to ask or grant permission:

- 電話を使ってもいいですか
- Denwa o tsukatte mo il desu ka May I use the phone?
- どうぞ食べてもいいよ Dözo tabete mo ii yo You may start sating

For (なく) て followed by も, see below under なくても.
For more on も, see the chapter on particles (pp. 167-169).

I The ~ない form

This is the negative form, and is made by adding the auxiliary $-\frac{1}{2}$ (1) to a verb stem. $-\frac{1}{2}$ (1) is a conjugating part of speech, i.e. it alters its endings to show negatives and other forms. (For more information on auxiliaries, see p, 181.)

Making the ~ない form of ごだん verbs

The final kana of the dictionary form of ごだん verbs changes from the ~う line to the ~あ line before adding ~ない、Verbs ending in ~う jo in their dictionary form change this to ~わ (rather than ~あ). There is one very important irregularity: the verb ある has the ~ない form of ない (rather than あらない). The following chart shows the changes, with examples:

dictionary form	meaning to meet	change in final kana			~ない form
あう・会う		う →		ħ	あわない
も らう	to receive	3	→	ゎ	もらわない
かく・書く	to write	<	→	か	かかない
いそぐ・急ぐ	to hurry	マ	→	が	いそがない
かす・貸す	to lend	す	→	ð.	かさない
はなす・話す	to speak	す	→	t	はなさない
まつ・待つ	to wait	2	→	た	またない
しぬ・死ぬ	to die	10		な	しなない
とぶ・飛ぶ	to fly	35	→	Ιđ	とばない
よむ・読む	to read	t	→	ま	よまない
とる・取る・撮る	to take	る	\rightarrow	6	とらない
がんばる	to do one's best	る	→	6	がんばらない
ある	to exist, to be, to have	(irr	egul	ar)	ない

Making the ~ない form of いちだん verbs

The final \sim 5 of the dictionary form of N5 t λ verbs is replaced with \sim 5 N:

dictionary form	meaning	~ない form
みる・見る	to see, to watch	みない
おきる・起きる	to get up	おきない
たべる・食べる	toeat	たべない
つける・付ける・点ける	to attach, to turn on, to light	つけない

Conjugation of ~ない

~ない conjugates by dropping the final い before adding endings to mark the past tense and other forms, such as ~たら and ~ば:

何も言わなかった

Nani mo lwanakatta I didn't say anything

- パスが後10分になかったらタクシーで行きましょう Basu ga ato jup-pun konakattara takushii de ikimashō If the bus dosen't come in 10 minutes, let's get a taxi
- 明日手紙が来なければ電話します Ashita tegami ga konakereba denwa shimasu If the letter doesn't come tomorrow, I will telephone

For more on ~if and ~£5, see conjunctive particles.

~ず as an alternative to ~ない

The ending $\sim f$ instead of $\sim \hbar V$ is an older form of negative that is still quite commonly used:

週末は家に帰らず、ずっと会社にいました
 Shūmatsu wa ie ni kaerazu zutto kaisha ni imashita

Shumatsu wa ie ni kaerazu zutto kaisha ni imashita

He was in the office the whole weekend, without going home at all The formation of the negative of ${\bf y}$ in this way is irregular, being ${\bf t}$ ${\bf y}$:

 クリスマスデコレーションをせず、25日を迎えました Kurisumasu dekorëshon o sezu ni-jů-go-nichi o mukaemashita We had Christmas Day without putting up any decorations

The ending ~ ず is commonly followed by に to mean without ... ing. For examples, see the section on ~ないで below.

Uses of the ~ to L \ form

This form is used for negative sentences in the plain style (see p. 10):

- 私はアルコールを飲まない
 - Watashi wa arukoru o nomanai I don't drink alcohol
- ズボンとジャケットが合わない Zubon to jaketto ga awanai

The trousers and jacket don't match

Like the dictionary form, the $\sim t$ \(\text{t}\) form can also be used in a modifying clause in complex sentences (see p. 209):

 毎日ピアノをちゃんと練習しない人は上手にならない Mainichi piano wo chanto renshū shinal hito wa jozu ni naranal People who don't practise the piano properly every day will not improve! 分からないときは僕に聞いてください Wakaranai toki wa boku ni kiite kudasai

Please ask me when you don't understand (something)

Constructions using ~ 72 (.)

~なくて

The form $\sim t < T$ can be used as a negative equivalent of the ~ て form (see ~ て form). The ~ なくて ending shows a cause or reason, often shown in English translations with 'because' or 'as':

- ギリスではやっぱり雪車が変かくて困りました。 lgirisu dewa yappari densha ga konakute komarimashita I was in trouble because the train didn't come - as you'd expect. in England!
- 食べ物がたくて、大変だった Tabemono da nakute, taihen datta There was a problem because there was no food

~なくても

The addition of も to ~なくて gives a structure meaning 'even if ... is not', 'even without . . . ':

- 原田さんが来なくてもしょうがない、会議を始めましょう Harada san ga konakute mo shō ga nai, kaigi o hajimemashō Even if Harada isn't here, that's too bad! Let's start the meetina
- 研がなくてもよく切れる包丁です Toganakute mo voku kireru höchö desu. This knife will cut well even if you don't sharpen it

~なくではいけない

The form ~なくてはいけない indicates that something is compulsory:

写真を撮りたければ前もってきかなくではいけない Shashin o toritakereba maemotte kikanakute wa ikenai lf you want to take photos, you must ask in advance

The ~なくてはいけない element is often compressed to ~なく 5 ₱ in informal spoken language:

行かなくちゃ

lkanakucha I must go

~なくてもいい and ~なくてよかった

- ~なくてもいい is a structure used to express 'don't have to . . .',
 'it isn't necessary to . . .'.' it's OK without . . .':
 - 忙しいなら行かなくてもいいです Isogashii nara Ikanakute mo ii desu
 - You don't have to go if you're busy

 ・ 嫌いなものがあったら、食べなくてもいいです

This is sometimes abbreviated to ~なくていい in the spoken language:

食べなくていい

Tabenakute ii You don't have to eat it

As a question with ですか (polite style), ~なくてもいい means 'Is it all right not to . . . ?', and can be translated as 'Do I have to . . . ?':

- 明月行かなくてもいいですか。
 - Ashita ikanakute mo ii desu ka Is it OK not to ao tomorrow?/Do i have to ao tomorrow?

This use can also be marked in informal speech by intonation rather than a question particle:

- 行かなくていい?
 Itemplate iii Delbaute as?
- Ikanakute ii? Do I have to go?

~なくてよかった

The phrase ~なくてよかった is a structure used to express the meaning 'I am glad that . . . didn't . . . ':

- 雨が降らなくてよかった Ame ga furanakute yokatta l'm alad it didn't rain
- あの飛行機に乗らなくてよかったね。ハイジャックされた んだって

Ano hikoki ni noranakute yokatta ne. Haijakku sareta n da tte Pm glad we didn't take that plane. They're saying it was hijacked!

なければならない and なければいけない

When the conditional ~なければ is followed by the negative form dなる 'to become', or いける 'to go well', the phrase has the meaning of 'must' or 'have to'. There is no difference in meaning between the two, but なる tends to be used more in writing. なる and いける can be in the nolite style or the plain style.

- 明後日出張で東京まで行かなければなりません
 Asatte shutcho de Tokyo mado ikanakereba narimasen
 I have to go to Tokyo on a business trip the day after tomorrow
- 6時までに終わらなければならない Roku-ji made ni owaranakereba naranai We muet be finjehed by 6 o'clock
- この間借りた本を返さなければいけません Kono aida karita hon o kaesanakereba ikemasen I must give back the book | borrowed the other day

The ~なければならない element is often compressed to ~なきゃ in informal spoken language, and followed by further information:

 もう6時だ。行かなきゃ間に合わない Mö roku-ji da, Ikanakya ma ni awanai It's already 6 o'clock! I must go or I'll be late

~なければ+よかった

This structure means 'I wish I hadn't . . .' or 'If only . . . hadn't happened':

新しいコンピュータがすぐダメになった。買わなければよかった
 Alarashii konovüta ga sugu dame ni natta. Kawanakereba

yokatta (My) new computer quickly broke down. I wish I hadn't bought it!

~ないで

This expression, which is related to $\sim \tau$, can mean 'without . . . ing':

 何も食べないで家へ帰りました Nani mo tabenalde ie e kaerimashita I went home without eating anything 漢字を使わないで住所を書きます

Kanji o **tsukawanaide** jūsho o kakimasu I will write the address without using kanji

The ~ないで ending can be followed by expressions of request:

心配しないでください
 Shinpai shinaide kudasai

asai Please don't worry

まだ見ないでください

Mada minaide kudasai Don't look yet

危ないところへ行かないでほしい

Abunai tokoro e ikanaide hoshii
I don't want you to go anywhere dangerous

This usage is so common that the remainder of the sentence can often be omitted, and implied by the context:

食べないで

Tabenal de Don't eat (it)!

忘れないで

Wasurenai de Don't forget!

A more formal alternative to ~ないで is the old literary negative

~ず with the particle に: ・ 忘れずに

あれりに Wasurezu ni Don't forast!

田中が何も考えずに床からたばこを拾った
 Tanaka ga nani mo kangaezu ni yuka kara tabako o hirotta
 Without thinking, Janaka picked up the digarettes from the floor

i The ~た form

The $\sim \mathcal{K}$ form shows completion, and that actions occurred in the past. The formation is as for the $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form, but with a final $\sim \mathcal{K}$ rather than $\sim \mathcal{T}$, and $\sim \mathcal{K}$ rather than $\sim \mathcal{T}$ (see $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form).

Making the ~た form of ごだん verbs

The formation of the \sim th form depends on the final kana of the dictionary form. There are four groups: verbs ending in \sim 5,

う、~る, verbs ending in ~む、~ぶ、~ぬ, verbs ending in , and verbs ending in ~く, ~く.

Verbs ending in ~う, ~つ, ~る

The final kana of the dictionary form is dropped, and った is added:

dictionary form	meaning	final kana dropped	~t form
あう・会う	to meet	あ~	あった
おもう・思う	to think	おも~	おもった
まつ・待つ	to wait	ま~	まった
もつ・持つ	to hold, to have	₺~	もった
とる・取る・撮る	to take	Ł~	とった
のる・乗る	to ride, to travel (on, by)	o~	のった

The verbs とう・問う 'to ask', 'to enquire', and こう・請う・ 乞う 'to entreat', 'to beg' have ~た forms of とうた and こうた, respectively. The ~た forms of these verbs are relatively uncommon.

Verbs ending in 〜む,〜ぶ,〜ぬ

The final kana of the dictionary form is dropped, and $k_i \approx added$:

dictionary form	meaning	final kana dropped	~た form
よむ・読む	to read	£~	よんだ
ほほえむ・微笑む	to smile	ほほえ~	ほほえんだ
と系・ぶろ	to fly	と~	とんだ
よろこぶ・喜ぶ	to rejoice, to be delighted	よろこ~	よろこんだ
しぬ・死ぬ	to die	し~	しんだ

Verbs ending in ~す

The final す of the dictionary form is dropped, and した is added:

dictionary form	meaning	final kana dropped	∼た form
かす・貸す	to lend	か~	かした
はなす・話す	to speak	はな~	はなした

Verbs ending in ~< , ~<

The final < of the dictionary form is dropped, and いた is added. A final < is replaced by いだ:

dictionary form	meaning	final kana dropped	~# form
かく・書く	to write	か~	かいた
はたらく・働く	to work	はたら~	はたらいた
いそぐ・急ぐ	to hurry	いそ~	いそいだ
かぐ・嗅ぐ	to smell, to sniff	<i>t</i> n~	かいだ

The only irregularity is that the verb いく 'to go' has the ~た form いった (and not いいた).

Making the ~た form of いちだん verbs

The final δ of the dictionary form is dropped, and \hbar is added:

dictionary form	meaning	る dropped	~t= form
おきる・起きる	to get up	おき~	おきた
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべ~	たべた

Uses of the ~ /t form

The ~ 1/2 form is used for past sentences in the plain style, and shows that an action has been completed:

昨日映画を見た

Kino eiga o **mita** I saw a film yesterday

Isobe san wa daigaku o sotsugyô shite gaimushō ni haitta Isobe graduated from university and joined the foreign ministry

 天野さんは転職し H て銀行員になった Amano san wa tenshoku shife ginköin ni natta Amano shoraad isha and bearne a lank slad

Amano changed jobs and became a bank clerk
ジョナサンとあっちゃんが92年に結婚した

 ンョアサンとめつらゃんが92年に結婚した Jonasan to At-chan ga kyū-jū-ni-nen ni kekkon shita Jonathan and Atsuko married in 1992

・ 遠藤さんは仕事を辞めて小説を書いた Endo san wa shigoto o yamete shōsetsu o **kaita** Endo gave up work and **wrote** a novel

夕飯ができた Yūhan ga dekita Supper is ready!

The $\sim t_{\rm c}$ form can be used within complex sentences as part of a modifying clause (see p. 209):

- 大学で勉強した統計学がやっと役に立った Daigaku de benkyō shita tōkeigaku ga yatto yaku ni tatta The statistics course I studied at university finally came in useful.
- ズコブ映画監督は日本で見た能を作品に取り入れた Zukobu eiga kantoku wa **Nihon de mita nō** o sakuhin ni toriireta The film director Zhukov incorporated the **Noh Theatre he had** seen in Japan into his work

The ~た form is also used for the instant when something is

確かこのポケットに財布を入れたんだけど...。 あぁ! あった!

Tashika kono poketto ni saifu o ireta n da kedo . . . Ah, atta! I was surs I out the wallet in this pocket . . . Ah, here it isi

速く、速くドアが閉まるぞ。やった! Hayaku, hayaku doa ga shimaru zo. **Yatta!**

Quickly, quickly! The door's about to shut! We made it!

~た+から

When m $\mathfrak S$ follows the \sim t form, it makes the situation described by the verb the reason or cause for what follows. (Care should be taken not to confuse this with \sim t + t t t discussed above):

 食堂が閉まったから近くのレストランで食べましょう Shokudō ga shimatta kara chikaku no resutoran de tabemashō The dinina hall lis closed, so let's eat at a restaurant nearby

~た+ほうがいい

This idiom, based on the ~ the form, is used for making suggestions and giving advice:

- 今晩勉強したほうがいいよ。明日試験があるから Konban benkyō **shita hō ga ii** yo. Ashita shiken ga aru kara
- Konban benkyő **shita hō ga ii** yo. Ashita shiken ga aru kara You had better etudy tonight as there's an exam tomorrow ・機械の調子が悪い。止めたほうがいい
- Kikai no chòshi ga warui. **Tometa hō ga ii**The machine is not working properly, **t's best to switch it off**歌舞伎を見られるいいチャンスだから思い切って行ったばうがいい
 - Kabuki o mirareru ii chansu dakara omoikitte itta hõ ga ii It's a good chance to see Kabuki (theatre) so we really should go

~た and ~ている to express completion

Both 〜た and 〜ている can be used to indicate completed actions. The first example below emphasizes the state of 'being in bed', and the second example emphasizes the completed action of 'having gone to bed'.

- かおるはもう寝ている
 Kaoru wa mô nete iru Kaoru's already gone to bed
- かおるは10時に寝た Kaoru wa iū-ii ni neta Kaoru went to bed at 10

With verbs which describe actions, ~ている usually indicates. continuing action:

健太は今ご飯を食べている
 Kenta wa ima gohan o tabete iru Kenta ie satina

However, in some cases a verb describing an action can express

both continuing action and completion with ~ている:

- 健太はもうご飯を食べている
 - Kenta wa mô gohan o tabete iru
 - Kenta has already eaten/Kenta is already eating
 - あそこの家はクリスマスツリーを飾っている

Asoko no ie wa kurisumasu tsurii o **kazatte iru**That family **have decorated** the Christmas tree/That family **are**

decorating the Christmas tree

See the section on the \sim τ form + N δ above for more examples.

~たり,~たり+する

alternate:

A common construction based on the ~た form is with ~たり, ~たり plus する. This is used to give representative actions from a wider selection, and carries the sense of '... and so on'. There are usually at least two different actions mentioned:

- 昨日ビデオを見たり、テニスをしたりしました
 - Kinō bideo o **mitari**, tenisu o **shitari shimashita** Yesterday **i watched** videos, **played** tennis and **so on**
- 週末ジャックは大抵ファミコンをしたり、雑誌を読んだり している。
 - Shūmatsu Jakku wa taitei famikon o **shitari**, zasshi o **yondari** shite iru
 - At weekends, Jack usually **plays** on the computer and **reads** magazines, **stc**.

However, sometimes there can be just a single instance of

雑誌を読んだりして彼女の帰りを待っていた

Zasshi o yondari shite kanojo no kaeri o matte ita
I read magazinee and so on while I waited for her to come home
This structure is also used with actions of opposite meaning which

- 泣いたり、わらったりしました
 Naltari warattari shimashita | | was laughing and crying
 - realian warakan shiinashka hwae laughing and bryin

ドアを開けたり、閉めたりしないでください Doa o aketari shimetari shinaide kudasai Stop opening and closing the door

~たら

This is a conjunctive particle that is used to join sentences, and add the meaning 'if' or 'when' to the first clause. It is formed by adding 6 to the ~ to form of a verb:

明日博美ちゃんに会ったら、これを渡してください Ashita Hiromi chan ni attara kore o watashite kudasai. If/When you see Hiromi tomorrow, please give her this For more information on ~たら, refer to the section on

conjunctive particles (p. 129).

~げ

at is a conjunctive particle used to join sentences and make the first a condition. It can often be translated with 'if', ~ II is also used in certain idiomatic constructions such as ~なければ (ならない) and ~ばよかった (see ~ない and conjunctive particles). It is formed by changing the final kana of the dictionary form to the \bar{x} , line of the kana chart, e.g. $\bar{x} \to h$, or $f \to tt$. and then adding (#:

~If form dictionary form meaning change in final kana はなす・話す 4 せょば はなせば to talk まつ・待つ てナば 主てば to wait

The use of ~ ld is dealt with in the section on conjunctive particles (p. 129).

I The potential form

Potential verbs show that someone can do something or that something is possible.

Making the potential form of ごだん verbs

The potential form of こだん verbs is made by changing the last kana of the dictionary form from the う line to the え line of the kana chart and adding る:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana	potential form
かう・買う	to buy	ラ → え	かえる
いく・行く	togo	< → <i>t</i>	いける
よむ・銃む	to read	ti → ø	よめる
とる・取る	to take	る → れ	とれる

Making the potential form of いちだん verbs

The potential form of いちだん verbs is made by removing the last kana of the dictionary form, and adding 〜られる. In spoken Sapanese. 〜られる is often contracted to 〜れる:

dictionary form	meaning	final kana dropped	potential form
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべ~	たべられる
かりる・借りる	tolend	かり~	かりられる

Conjugation of potential verbs

A verb in the potential form becomes a new verb in its own right, with ~ ない・た、~まず, conditional, and ~ て forms, etc. Potential verbs conjugate regularly as いちたん verbs. The chart below shows some of the possible variations in the potential verb かえる - 買える to be able to buy, which has been formed from

the verb かう・買う 'to buy':

form	Example	meaning
negative	かえない	can't buy
~ます	かえます	can buy
past	かえた	could buy
past negative	かえなかった	couldn't buy
~⊤	かえて	could buy, and

The potential forms of する and くる

The potential of する is できる. The potential of くる is こられる (often contracted to これる in spoken Japanese). できる can be used with certain nouns, such as the names of languages, sports, musical instruments, etc., to indicate ability:

- ピアノができます
- Piano ga dekimasu | can play the piano
- カーカムさんは日本語ができる Kākamu san wa Nihongo ga dekiru Mr Kirkham can epeak Japanese

Verbs that do not have potential forms

The following verbs are not generally used in the potential form:

わかる・分かる to understand しる・知る to know ある to exist, to have, to be

いる・要る to be necessary いる・(居る) to exist, to be

Intransitive verbs describing states, such as those listed in the chart of transitive and intransitive verbs (see pp. 87–91), are not generally used in the potential form.

Uses of the potential form

Potential verbs show that a person etc. can do something, or that something is possible:

- 香港でコンピュータが安く買えます
 Honkon de konpyūla ga yasuku kaemasu
 Computers can be bought cheaply in Hong Kong
- 自分の名前を片仮名で書けめますか Jibun no namae o katakana de kakemasu ka Can you write your name in katakana?

The negative of a potential verb shows that someone can't do something, or that something is not possible:

おばあさんは病気で来られない
 Oběsan wa byčki de korarenai
 Grandma can't come because she's ill

- いいえ、漢字が読めないんですよ
- tie, kanji ga yomenai n desu yo No, I can't read kanji
- それは信じられない

Sore wa shinjirarenal That's unbelievable/I can't believe it!

Although a direct object is usually indicated by the particle \mathcal{E} , with potential verbs the particle \mathcal{D} is generally used (see particles). Compare the following sentences:

- ジョナサンは納豆が食べられますか
 Jonasan wa nattô ga laberaremasu ka
 Can you eat natto (fermented beans), Jonathan?
- Can you eat natto (termented beans), Jonatha
 毎朝和食を食べます
- Maiasa washoku o tabemasu

leat **Japanese food** every morning

The potential of みる・見る and きく・聞く・聴く

The potential forms of みる and きく are みられる and きける. These forms imply that an effort needs to be made to see or hear something:

- ロンドンで日本の映画も見られます Rondon de Nihon no eiga mo mitraremasu In London, you can even eee Japanese films
- 日本にいてもBBC ニュースが聞ける
- Nihon ni ite mo bii bii shii nyūsu ga **kikeru** Even (if you are) in Japan you **can haar** the BBC news
- 3513 is used to talk about the occurrence of phenomena or discumstances:
- 「さけ・鮭」という言葉はアイヌ語からきたと見られる 'Sake' to lu kotoba wa Airugo kara kita to mirareru The word 'sake' (= 'salmon') ie seen as having come from the Airu language

The form ~とみられている indicates a provisional judgement:

 火事の原因はたばこの吸殻だと見られている Kaji no genin wa tabako no suigara da to mirarete iru A cigarette end seeme to have been the cause of the fire The intransitive verbs みえる 'be visible' and きこえる 'be audible' suggest that something can be seen or heard without any effort, or that this is inevitable in a certain situation (see np. 87-91):

- 皆さん、黒板の字が見えますか Minasan, kokuban no ji ga miemasu ka Can everyone see the writing on the blackboard?
- もうちょっと大きい声で話してください。よく聞こえません Mô chotto őkii koe de hanashite kudasai. Yoku kikoemasen
- Mō chotto ōkii koe de hanashite kudasai. Yoku **kikoemasen** Please speak more loudly. I **can't hear** you very well • もうちょっと近づくと聞こえるはずだ

Mô chotto chikazuku to **kikoeru** hazu da If we go a bit closer, we should **be able to hear**

There is also a way of expressing possibility with ことができる following the dictionary form of a verb. For more on this, see the section on こと (see p. 126 and p. 206).

I The passive form

In a sentence with an active verb, the subject performs an action, but when the verb is passive, the subject of the sentence has some kind of action performed on it.

active verb: The dog ate the sausage.
passive verb: The sausage was eaten by the dog.

Making the passive form

The passive is formed with the auxiliary (ら) れる. All ごだん verbs change the final kana of the dictionary form to the あ line, and then add れる. (Verbs ending in う change it to わ and add れる.) いちだん verbs drop the final る and then add られる:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana	passive form
ごだん verbs			
とる・取る	to take	S → S	とられる
いう・言う	to say	う → わ	いわれる
かく・書く	to write	< → b	かかれる
いちだん verbs		 	_
たべる・食べる	to sat	3 → S	たべられる
しる・知る	to know	る → ら	しられる

The passive of する is される, and the passive of くる is こられる.

Uses of the passive form

The passive can be a counterpart of an active sentence, and therefore similar to the English active and passive sentences below:

- 安部さんは山田さんをぶちました Abe san wa Yamada san o buchimashita Mr Abe hit Mr Yamadal
 - 山田さんは安部さんにぶたれました Yamada san wa Abe san ni **butaremashita** MrYamada **was hit** by Mr Abel

In the active sentence, Mr Yamada is the direct object, marked with $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, but becomes the subject, marked by $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, in the passive sentence. Mr Abe is the subject, marked by $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$, in the active sentence, but becomes the agent in the passive sentence, marked with $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$.

The agent does not need to be mentioned if it is not important:

- 東大寺は751年に建てられた
- Tödai-ji wa nana-hyaku go-jū-ichi-nen ni **taterareta** Todai Temple **was built** in 751AD

Where the agent is shown in passive sentences, it can be marked with either C or $CL \supset C$ without a significant difference in meaning, although the latter is more formal. If a passive is used

to say who wrote books, films, music, etc., then $c \sharp \tau$ is required, although the passive is not used in this way as much as it is in English:

- このすばらしいセレナーデはモーツァルトによって作曲された
 - Kono subarashii serenāde wa Mõtsuaruto ni yotte sakkyoku sarela

This wonderful serenade was composed by Mozart

The particle \$\psi \in 6\$ can also be used as an equivalent of 'by' when an item, request, etc. comes from the agent:

警察から捜査の協力をたのまれた

Keisatsu kara sösa no kvörvoku o tanomareta

My cooperation in the investigation was requested by the police

Things made of/from . . .

The passive is not generally used to describe what things are made from. Instead, the particle \mathcal{T} is used where the material does not change in form, but where the material does change in form, but where the material does change in form, cluber $\mathcal{D} \hookrightarrow \mathcal{T}$ can be used. Notice that the choice of kanji for the verb $2 < \delta$ in the following examples reflects this:

R八は竹で作る

Shakuhachi wa **take de** Isukuru Shakuhachi (Japanese flutes) are made **of wood**

適は米から待ろ

海は木がり迫る Sake wa **kome kara** tsukuru — Sake ia made **from rice**

The indirect passive

The passive in Japanese can be used to suggest that something is perceived negatively, a use that has no real equivalent in English. This indirect passive use is sometimes called the 'adversative' 'suffering' passive. The direct object of the active sentence is not converted into a subject, but retains the particle & and is used with a passive verb. The agent is marked with the particle &:

- スリに財布を盗まれました
 - Suri ni saifu o nusumaremashita My wallet was stolen by a pickpocket

子供にコンピューターを壊された

Kodomo ni konpyütä o kowasareta

Kodomo ni konpyütä o kowasareti The children broke my computer

The agent can sometimes be omitted if the context makes it clear. In the following example, it is not stated exactly who trod on my feet, although it was clearly fellow passengers:

像は雷車で三回も足を踏まれた

Boku wa densha de san-kai mo ashi o fumareta

たいへん 'it's terrible', or こまった 'I'm troubled':

When I was on the train, my feet were trodden on three times!

The negative perception of an event expressed with an indirect passive is sometimes clear from the use of expressions such as

母に入院されて困った

Haha ni nyūin sarete komatta It was awful when my mother went into hospital

In many cases, the reason for the negative nuance can be deduced easily from the circumstances:

こんな忙しいのに部下に休まれた

Konna isogashii no ni buka ni yasumareta

Although we're so busy, my staff took time off (and so I had more work!)

- 雨に降られた
 - Ame ni furareta | I got wet in the rain!
- 彼女とキスしているところをおふくろに見られたよ Kanojo to kisu shite iru tokoro o ofukuro ni mirareta yo

I was kissing my girlfriend and my mum saw usl

In the following example, the English is close to the feel of the Japanese passive:

3年前に妻に逃げられた

San-nen mae ni Isuma ni nigerareta My wife ran out on me three years agol

The passive is also used to express respect (see p. 213).

I The causative form

The causative form indicates permission or compulsion. The name 'causative' comes from the fact that someone or something 'causes' something to be done, and verbs in this form are sometimes translated as 'make (someone) do (something)' or 'get (someone) to do (something)'. It is made by adding the auxiliary (2) #\$ to a verb stem.

Making the causative form of ごだん verbs

For ごだん verbs, the final kana of the dictionary form changes to the あ line, and せる is added:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana	causative form
あう・会う	to meet	う → わ	あわせる
いく・行く	togo	< → th	いかせる
はなす・略す	to speak	ਭ → ਣ	はなさせる

Making the causative form of いちだん verbs

For いちだん verbs, the final る of the dictionary form is replaced by させる:

dictionary form	meaning	remove last kana	causative form
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべ~	たべさせる
みる・見る	to see, to watch	<i>み</i> ~	みさせる
かりる・借りる	to borrow	かり~	かりさせる

Making the causative form of する and くる

The causative of する is させる. The causative of くる is こさせる.

Conjugation of the causative form

these causative verbs conjugate regularly as いちだん verbs. This julustrated in the following chart with いく 'to go' and たべる abo eat' as examples:

	dictionary form	negative	~ます form	~tc form	past negative	~⊤ form
ごだん verbs	~せる	~せ ない	~ (ます)	~せた	~せな かった	~#T
example	いかせる	いかせ ない	いかせ ます	いか せた	いかせな かった	いか せて
いちだん verbs	~させる	~させ ない	~させ (ます)	~さ せた	~させな かった	~さ せて
example	たべさ せる	たべざ せない	たべさ せます	たべさ せた	たべさせ なかった	たべさ せて

Uses of the causative form

The use of the causative to show compulsion relates to the relative status of the people involved. Generally it is used by older people about those who are younger, and by people in senior positions about their juniors:

- 子供をお使いに行かせました
 - Kodomo o o-tsukai ni ikasemashita I made the kide go on an errand
 - たくさんミスがあって済みませんでした。以後部下に慎重 にチェックをさせます
 - Takusan misu ga atte sumimasen deshita. Igo buka ni shinchō ni chekku sasemasu
 - I am sorry about all the errors. I **will get** (my) staff **to check** carefully from now on

in the following example, the relationship is general rather than personal:

- 園がどういう政策で新卒業生を就職させるのでしょうか
- Kuni ga dő iu seisaku de shin-sotsugyősei o **shūshoku saseru** no deshő ka
- What kind of policies should the state use to **get** new graduates into employment?

In some circumstances it is better to avoid the causative because of its connotations of relative status or authority. The $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form with a verb of giving or receiving is often more appropriate:

 彼女に手紙の日本語を見てもらう Kanojo ni tegami no Nihongo o mite morau
 will get my girlfriend to check the Japanese in the letter

Permission with the causative

Although the basic meaning is 'make (someone) do (something)', the causative can also express the granting of permission:

- 皿洗いは僕にさせてください
 Sara arai wa boku ni sasete kudasai
 Let me do the washing up
- 子供にハリー・ボッターを読ませた
 Kodomo ni Harii Pottă o yomaseta
 I made/let my kide read the "Harry Potter" novel
- 父はパーティに行かせてくれなかった Chichi wa pătii ni ikasete kurenakatta Dad didn't let me qo to the party

Sometimes the use of words and phrases such as むりやり 'against someone's will', or すきなだけ 'as much as one likes', can clarify whether a causative implies compulsion or permission:

- 子供に無理やり食べさせた
 - Kodomo ni muriyari tabesaseta I forced the children to eat
- 子供に好きなだけ食べさせた Kodomo ni suki na dake tabesaseta ilet the children eat as much as they wanted

Use of particles with causative verbs

In sentences with a transitive verb, the particle (C) is used to mark the person being made to do something:

 子供にピアノの練習をさせる Kodomo nl piano no renshū o saseru i will make the children do (their) plano practice A direct object (marked with を) may not be present, but simply implied:

- ゴミを捨てた人々に(散らばっている紙を)拾わせる
 - Gomi o suteta hitobito ni (chirabatte iru kami o) hirowaseru i wili make the people who dropped the litter clean it (the ecattered paper) up

With intransitive verbs, the person being made to do something can be marked with を or に

父は僕に犬を散歩させた

Chichi wa boku ni inu o sanpo saseta

Dad got me to walk the dog

部長は鈴木君を会議に行かせた Buchô wa **Suzuki kun o** kaloi ni ikaseta

The senior manager got Suzuki to go to the meeting

IC is used, the action taken by the person affected must be omething that they themselves intended, e.g. 'I' intended to take be dog for a walk anyway, but Suzuki probably didn't intend to go the meeting.

If there is a direct object with & in the same clause, the person affected must be marked by C:

先生が学生に「サラダ記念日」を読ませた

Sensei ga **gakusei ni** 'Sarada Kinenbi' o yomaseta The teacher made **the etudente** read 'Salad Anniversary'

Causative + いただく

The ~て form of a causative verb followed by the verb いただく to receive (a favour)' is commonly used as a polite request or permission. The form ~いただけませんか is used to seek permission directly, and ~いただきたい (んです) is for more indirect use:

- 来调の金曜日休ませていただけませんか
- Raishū no kinyōbi yasumasete itadakemasen ka Could you allow me to have next Friday ae a holiday?

 英語圏のお客様が多いので英語で話させていただきたい Eigoken no o-kyakusama ga ði node Eigo de hanasasete itadakitai

As there are many guests from the English-speaking world, I would like to address you in English

~す as an alternative to ~せる

There is another pattern for forming a causative which may be encountered, using ~さす instead of させる for いちだん verbs and する, and changing the last kana of the dictionary form to the あ line and adding す for ごだん verbs:

- 6 時までにこどもを食べさしてください Roku-ji made ni kodomo o **tabesashite kudasai** Please get the children to eat by eix o'clock
- 息子を大学に行かすつもりだ Musuko o daigaku ni ikasu tsumori da Lintend to have my daughter go to university

I The causative-passive form

The causative-passive shows that someone or something was made to do something, and can suggest that this is or was disagreeable (see pp. 72-73). It can often be translated as 'be made to . . .'

Making the causative-passive form

The causative-passive is formed by the addition of the passive auxiliary (ら) れる to the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem of a causative verb:

dictionary form	causative	conjunctive (pre-ます) stem of causative	causative- passive
いく・行く	いかせる	いかせ	いかせられる
たべる・ 食べる	たべさせる	たべさせ	たべさせ られる

Conjugation of causative-passives

The conjugation of the causative-passive is shown in the chart below, using LVC 'to go' and ECC ' to eat' as examples (some forms may be relatively uncommon):

	dictionary form	negative	∼±'f form	~た form	past negative	∼⊤ form
いちだん	~せ	~せら	~せられ	~せら	~せられな	∼せら
verbs	られる	れない	(ます)	れた	かった	れて
example	いかせ	いかせら	いかせ	いかせ	いかせられ	いかせら
	られる	れない	られます	られた	なかった	れて
こだん	~させ	~させら	~させられ	~させ	~させられ	~させ
earths	られる	れない	(ます)	られた	なかった	られて
example	たべさせ られる	たべさせ られない	たべさせら れます		たべさせら れなかった	

The causative-passive of する is させられる. The causativepassive of くる is こらせられる.

Uses of the causative-passive

The causative-passive is used to show that someone is made to do something. The unpleasant nature of being made to do things is causally evident:

- 子供のとき、いつも帰ったらすぐ宿題をさせられた Kodomo no toki itsumo kaettara sugu shukudai o saserareta When! was a child, I was always made to do my homework as soon as I act home
- 私は2時間も待たせられた Watashi wa ni-jikan mo mataserareta Iwae made to wait for two full hours!
- 母に部屋を片付けさせられる
 Haha ni heya o katazukesaserareru
 I will be made to clean my room by my mother

(僕は貧血気味だったので毎日母にほうれん草を食べさせられた。

Boku ha hinketsugimi datta node mainichi haha ni hörensö o tabesaserareta

I was slightly anaemic, so my mother **made me eat** spinach every day

The causative-passive is not used if the speaker feels there is some benefit in being made to do something. (In the example above, the speaker's dislike of spinach is more significant than its benefit.) In such a case, a verb of receiving is added to the \sim τ form of the causative verb (see m.42-49):

 病院で看護婦の清水さんに歩かせてもらった Byön de kangofu no Shimizu san ni arukasete moratta At the hospital, nurse Shimizu aot me to walk

I The volitional form

The volitional form is primarily used to propose an action, or to suggest doing something together with one or more others, and in this sense it is often translated as 'Let's . . .' It is also used in situations relating to decisions.

Making the volitional form of ごだん verbs

The volitional form of ごだん verbs is made by changing the last kana of the dictionary form to the お line of the kana chart, and adding う:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana			volitional form		
いう・言う	to say	13	-	ä	+	3	いおう
いく・行く	to go	1	→	Ξ	+	3	いこう
はなす・話す	to speak	+	→	₹	+	3	はなそう
まつ・待つ	to wait	10	→	یے	+	3	まとう
よむ・銃む	to read	Ü	→	₺	+	う	よもう
とる・取る	to take	3	→	ろ	+	3	とろう

Making the volitional form of いちだん verbs

The volitional form of いちだん verbs is made by removing the last kana of the dictionary form and adding & 5:

dictionary form	meaning	final kana dropped	volitional form	
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべ~	たべよう	
ねる・寝る	to go to bed, to sleep	ね~	ねよう	
おきる・起きる	to get up	おき~	おきよう	
みる・見る	to see, to watch	おき~	みよう	

Making the volitional form of する and くる

The volitional of する is しよう. The volitional of くる is こよう.

Uses of the volitional form

The volitional form shows the speaker's proposed intention:

- 駅前に摩茶店がある。あそこで会おう
- Ekimae ni kissaten ga aru. Asoko de ao
- There's a coffee shop in front of the station. Let's meet there
- もう行こう
- Mő ikő Let's ao The addition of the particle to can add to the nuance of suggestion:
- もう行こうか
- Mň ikň ka Shall we go?
- This can sometimes be an offer of help (see pp. 47-49):
- 読んであげようか Yonde agevõ ka Shall I read it to you?
- The polite-style equivalent of the volitional is ~ましょう, and this is very common, especially for offers (see the section on the
- ~寒す form above):
- じゃ. なんについて妖しましょうか Ja nan ni tsuite hanashimashō ka
 - Well, what shall we talk about?

では頂きましょうか

Dewa itadakimashô ka Right, shall we (start to) eat?

The volitional is often used with ~ と おもう・と思う, literally 'I think I'll . . . '. It can sometimes be translated into English as 'have decided':

来年の夏日本へ行こうと思います

Rainen no natsu Nihon e **Ikō to omoimasu** I have decided to do to Japan next year

have decided to go to Japan riext year 今年一生懸命勉強しようと思っている

Kotoshi isshokenmei **benkyō shiyō to omotte iru** I've decided to study hard this year

フランスへ行こうと思っていたけど結局どこへも行かなかった

Furansu e **ikô to omotte ita** kedo kekkyoku doko e mo ikahakatta ! had/intended to go to France, but in the end | didn't go anywhere

When the intention of the speaker is less fixed, the particle か can be used before とおもう:

来年の夏日本へ行こうかと思います

Rainen no natsu Nihon e ikō ka to omolmasu

l am wondering whether to go to Japan next summer

The volitional form can be used with the question particle \dot{m} , or just marked with rising intonation, when seeking agreement (see p. 33):

- 12時過ぎだ。もう寝ようか
- Jūni-ji sugi da. Mō neyō ka 🌐 It's after 12, 5hall we go to bed?
- 1 2 時過ぎだよ。もう寝よう Jūni-ji sugi da yo, Mô neyo It's after 12, Let's go to bed!

When used with ~ & f a, the volitional form shows that an unsuccessful attempt was made, or that something happened just as the attempt was being made:

 読もうとしたが難しすぎて読めなかった Yomō to shita ga muzukashisugite yomenakatta I tried to read it but it was too difficult (< | couldn't) 彼女にキスしようとすると兄が部屋に入ってきた
 Kanojo ni **kisu shiyō to suru** to ani ga heya ni haitte kita
 | waa **fust about to kiss** her when my brother came into the room

I The imperative and negative imperative

Imperatives are forms used for giving commands.

Making the imperative form of ごだん verbs

The imperative of こだん verbs is formed by changing the final kana of the dictionary form to the え line of the kana chart:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana	imperative form
いう・言う	tosay	う → え	いえ
いく・行く	to go	< → If .	いけ
はなす・話す	to speak	ਭ → ਢ	はなせ
まつ・待つ	to wait	⊃ → ₹	まて
よむ・読む	to read	む→め	よめ
とる・取る	to take	る → れ	Łħ

Making the imperative form of いちだん verbs

The imperative of いちだん verbs is formed by changing the final る to ろ:

dictionary form	meaning	Imperative form
たべる・食べる	to eat	たべろ
ねる・寝る	to go to bed, to sleep	ねろ
おきる・起きる	to get up	おきろ
みる・見る	to see, to watch	33

Making the imperative form of する and くる

The imperative of する is either しろ or the less common せよ. The imperative of くる is こい.

Making the negative imperative

The negative imperative is formed in the same way for all verbs: the dictionary form is followed by &. (Note that there is also a structure using the pre-ます form + な which is used for requests and commands, See p. 37.)

dictionary form	meaning	negative imperative form
たべる・食べる	to est	たべろな
はなす・話す	to speak	はなすな

Uses of the imperative and negative imperative

The imperative can sound very rough and angry, so requests and instructions are normally given using other forms, such as $\sim \zeta +$ ください (see above). The imperative is restricted to giving orders in urgent situations, or where there is a clear hierarchy, e.g. when a parent speaks to a child:

- 早く起きろ
- Hayaku okiro Hurry up and aet up!

こっち (へ) こい Kotchi (e) koi Come here!

The imperative of がんばる 'to do one's best' is often used to shout encouragement, e.g. to a team at sports matches:

頑張れ Gambare Go for it!

The negative imperative is used for urgent instructions and exhortations on signs and posters:

触るな。危ない

Sawaru na. Abunai Pon't touch! Danger

焦るな。安全運転のルールを守れ Aseru na! Anzen unten no rūru o mamore Don't hurry. Drive according to the safety rules? There are other, less abrupt-sounding structures, such as the pre ます form + なさい, which are used for giving orders in most situations (see p. 37).

1 Compound verbs

A number of Japanese verbs are made up of elements from two verbs. The first is usually the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem. Some examples are given below:

moru + agaru = moriagaru

to pile up to go up to swell up, to rise

働く + 過ぎる = 働きすぎる

hataraku + sugiru = hatarakisugiru

to work to be excessive to overwork

取る + 消す = 取り消す toru + kesu = torikesu

totake to extinguish to cancel

There are a number of verbs that can regularly be added to conjunctive forms to give new compound verbs. Verbs showing movement in particular directions ('upwards', 'downwards', 'inwards', etc.) are very common:

とりあげる・取り上げる ひきおろす・引き下ろす かきいれる・書き入れる

to accept (a plan, etc.) to pull downwards/to unseat to fill in (a form, etc.)

The following list shows some of the elements most commonly used in compounds, some of which have several meanings:

ending	meaning	example	meaning of example
~あう・	to be in	はなしあう・	to speak
~合う	accord with	話し合う	together
おわる・ 終る	ta finish	よみおわる・ 読み終わる	to finish reading
かえす・ 返す	to return (something)	くりかえす・ 繰り返す	to repeat
かえる・ 換える	to change	いいかえる・ 言いかえる	to rephrase
かかる	(several meanings)	よりかかる · 寄りかかる	to lean on, to be supported
かける	(several meanings)	はなしかける・ 話しかける	to speak to, to call out to
きれる・ 切る	to be cut	たべきれない・ 食べきれない	to be unable to eat completely
こむ・混む	to crowd in	はいりこむ・ 入りこむ	to enter
すぎる・ 過ぎる	to exceed	たべすぎる・ 食べすぎる	to eat too much
そこなう、 損なう	to fail	のりそこなう・ 乗りそこなう	to miss (a train or bus)
だす・出す	to start	あめが ふりだした・ 雨が降り出した	it started to rain
つける・ 付ける	to attach	とりつける・ 取り付ける	to attach
つづける・ 続ける	to continue	はなしつづける・ 話しつづける	to keep on speaking
なおす・ 直す	to repair, to mend	やりなおす	to redo
なれる・ (馴れる)	to be used to	ききなれる・ 聞きなれる	to be used to hearing
はじめる・ 始める	to start	たべはじめる・ 食べはじめる	to start to eat

ending	meaning	example	meaning of example
まわる・ 回る	to rotate	あるきまわる・ 歩き回る	to walk around
もどす・ 戻す	to return (something)	とりもどす・ 取り戻す	to put back
わすれる・ 忘れる	to forget	ききわすれる・ きき忘れる	to forget to as

I Transitive and intransitive verbs

A transitive verb is one which has a direct object ('I finished the book'), while an intransitive verb does not have a direct object ("The lecture finished').

The English verb 'to open' can be used both transitively and imransitively in the same form, but Japanese requires the transitive verb あける (開ける) for the first example below and the intransitive verb あく (開く) for the second. Notice that the direct object of the transitive verb as marked with the particle を、while the intransitive verb has a subject marked with the particle を (see pp. 154–156):

- 窓を開けました
 - Made o akemashita | opened the window
- ドアがゆっくりと聞きました
- Doa ga yukkuri to akimashita The door opened slowly

The situation is similar with 'to begin':

- 食事を始めましょう
 - Shokuji o hajimemashō Let's begin the meal
- 映画が8時に始まります

Eiga ga hachi-ji ni hajimarimasu The film begine at 8 o'clock Both transitive and intransitive verbs can sometimes appear without the particles € or ff where context makes the meaning clear. They may also have the particles [⊈ or ⊕ which suppress € or ff (see particles):

- 皆さんおそろいのようですのでそろそろ始めましょうか Mina san osoroi no yo desu no de sorosoro hajimemashō ka it looks like we are all here, so shall (we) beain?
- 私は外国の切手も集めています
 Watashi wa gaikoku no kitte mo atsumete imasu | collect foreign stamps as well
- 心臓は止まっているが、細胞はまだ生きている Shinzō wa tomatte iru ga saibō wa mada ikite iru The heart has stopped, but the cells are still alive
- セール前だから値段はまだ下がらないよ
 Sēru mae dakara nedan wa mada sagaranai yo
 It'e before the sales, so the prices won't drop yet

Common transitive and intransitive verb pairs

Some of the most common pairs of transitive and intransitive verbs are given in the chart below:

transitive	English equivalent	intransitive	English equivalent
あける・ 開ける	to open	あく・開く	to open
あげる・ 上げる	to raise	あがる・ 上がる	to rise
あつめる・ 集める	to sollect	あつまる・ 集まる	to collect, to gather
いれる・ 入れる	to put in	はいる・ 入る	to enter, to come in
うる・売る	to sell	うれる・ 売れる	to be sold
おこす・ 起こす	to wake (someone) up	おきる・ 起きる	to wake up
おとす・ 落とす	to drop	おちる・ 落ちる	to drop, to fall
おろす	to let (someone) out, to drop off (transport)	おりる	to get off (transport)

transitive	English equivalent	intransitive	English equivalent
おる・折る	to break, to enap	おれる 折れる	to break, to snap
かえる・ 変える・ 代える・ 換える・ 替える	to change	かわる・ 変わる・ 代わる・ 換わる 替わる	to change
かける	to phone, to hang (something) up	かかる	to be phoned, to be hung up
(片付ける)	to tidy up		to be tidled up
	to listen to	聞こえる	to hear
きる・切る	to cut	きれる・ 切れる	to be cut
こぼす	to spill	こぼれる	to be spilt
こわす・ 壊す	to break	こわれる・ 壊れる	to break
さげる・ 下げる	to lower to clear (the table), to withdraw (money)	さがる・ 下がる	to come down, to step back
する	to do, to make	なる	to become, to happen
そだてる・ 育てる	to bring up	そだつ・ 育つ	to be brought up
だす・出す	to take out (and other meanings)	でる・出る	to go out (and other meanings)
たすける・ 助ける	to help. to save	たすかる・ 助かる	to be helped, to be saved
ちかづける・ 近づける	to bring/draw (something) close	ちかづく・ 近づく	to approach
	ある・折る・ ある・ ある・ ある・ ある・ ある・ ある・ ある・ ある・ ある るる	equivalent ある・折る to break, to enap かえる・ かえる・ かえる・ かえる・ かえる・ かえる・ かえる・ かえる・	### ### ### ### #### #### ###########

		,	
transitive	English	intransitive	English
	equivalent	l .	equivalent
つける・	to attach,	つく・付く	to be attached,
付ける	to light	つく・点く	to be lit
つける・	*		
点ける			
つづける	to continue	つづく・	to continue
続ける		続く	
とどける・	to deliver	£ 2 < ·	to be delivered.
届ける		届く	to arrive
とめる・	to stop	とまる・	to stop
止める	,	止まる	
ながす・	to flush	ながれる・	to flow
流す		流れる	
のこす・	to leave	のこる・	to remain
残す		残る	
のせる・	to give (someone)	のる・乗る	to ride in/on
乗せる	a ride		
はじめる・	to start	はじまる・	tostart
始める		始まる	
ぶつける	to hit	ぶつかる	to be hit
	(accidentally)		(accidentally)
ふやす・	to increase	ふえる・	to increase
増やす		増える	
へらす・	to decrease	へる・	to decrease
減らす	[減る	
みつける・	to find,	みつかる・	to be found, to
見つける	to discover	見つかる	be discovered
みる・見る	to watch	みえる・	to be visible,
		見える	to seem
わかす・	to boil (water)	わく・沸く	to boil
沸かす	1		
わる・割る	to break,	われる・	to break,
	to crack	割れる	to crack
			

- ・探していたものがようやく見つかった Sagashite ita mono ga yōyaku **mitsukatta** The thing I was looking for has finally **turned up**
- この猫を見つけた人はすぐに電話をください Kono neko o mitsuketa hito wa sugu ni denwa o kudasai Whoever finds this kitten should telephone us straight away
- 果てしなく森が続く Hateshinaku mori ga tsuzuku
- Hateshinaku mori ga **tsuzuku** The forest continued endlessly
- 今年もテニスのレッスンを続けます Kotoshi mo lenisu no resson o tauzukernasu I will continue tennie lessone this year

I Meanings and uses of する

The meaning of the verb する is often given as 'to do', but English translations of sentences with する can vary widely. The basic meaning is that something, or someone, causes a state or an action to occur.

Noun+する

A large number of nouns referring to actions, such as $+ y \rightarrow -$ soccer, $y = \pm y \ne$ [logging], $+ \lambda e \pm z$ study!, and $+ \lambda e \rightarrow$ steephone!, can be made into verbs by the addition of $\pm 2e$. Many of the verbs so derived use the particle $\pm e$ to mark the noun as the direct object.

- 学校が終ったら僕と聡はサッカーをする Gakkō ga owattara boku to Satoshi wa sakkō o suru Satoshi and I play soccer after school
- 毎朝ジョギングを します Maiasa jogingu o shimasu [will jog every morning
- 清君は宿題をしています Kiyoshi kun wa shukudai o shite imasu Kiyoshi ie doing hie homework

However, in some cases the verb does not have a direct object marked with &, and can appear as a single unit of noun + \$f\$ 3:

 6時にピーターに電話しました Roku-ji ni Pita ni denwa shimashita

Roku-ji ni Piitä ni **denwa shimashita** At 6 o'clock i **called** Peter

 3時間以上運転するといつも疲れてしまいます San-jikan ijō unten suru to itsumo tsukarete shimaimasu l alwaye get tired if l drive for more than three houre

If there is some modifying element in front of the noun, then & must be used (see p. 206):

試験の勉強をする

shiken no benkyō o suru study for an exam (= do some etudy for an exam)

ご飯の準備をする

gohan no junbi o suru

prepare a meat (= do some preparation for a meal) Certain verbs such as あいする・愛する 'to love', せっとくする・

散得する 'to persuade', and りかいする・理解する 'to understand' are never used with を between the noun and する. For more on uses of the particle を, see the relevant section in the chapter on particles (p. 149).

Adjective + する

δ is often used to mean 'to make' with adjectives. The adjectives are in the adverbial forms (see pp. 106-107 and 119-120), with V adjectives ending in $\sim \zeta$ and δ adjectives followed by ζ :

- 部屋をきれいにした Heya wo kirei ni shita
- made the room tidy/i tidled the room

 テストをもっと難しくしましょう
 - Tesuto wo motto muzukashiku shimashö Let's make the test more difficult!
- 部屋を暖かくした Heya o atatakaku shita I turned the heating up (warmed the room)

'To wear', 'to put on'

₱ & is used with words for fashion accessories such as jewellery and watches to mean 'to put on', 'to wear' (note that there are other verbs which also translate as 'to wear' for use with items of clothing):

- 父は珍しくネクタイをした Chichi wa mezurashiku nekutal o shita Unueually, dad wore a tie
- ・ 腕時計はしません。

Udedokei wa shimasen | don't wear a watch

する with sound symbolism

A number of Japanese adverbs imitate sounds, or symbolize nonaudible actions and states by according them particular sounds or groups of sounds. There is no real equivalent of this in English except sound imitation ('woof woof' etc.) and sound association, e.g. the 'cr' in words like 'crisp', 'crunch', 'crack', 'crack', etc. Many of these adverbs can be used with # 5 (see adverbs):

- どきどきする dokidoki suru to be anxious/afraid
- ぼうっとする
 - bötto suru 💢 to daydream
 - いらいらしている iraira shite iru to be irritated

'Ta decide'

する following に can show a decision:

- 君は何にしますか
 - Kimi wa nan ni shimasu ka What are you going to order?

私は天ぷら定食にします Watashi wa tenpura teishoku **ni shimasu**

i'm going to have the tempura set meal
■ 夏休みはフランスに行くことにしました

Natsu-yasumi wa Furansu ni iku koto ni shimashita We decided to go to France for our summer holiday アルコールを飲まないことにした Aruköru o nomanai koto nl shita Ldecided not to drink alcohol

For more on 2 2 12 \$ 5. see pp. 211-212.

'To taste', 'to smell', etc.

Sensations' such as taste and smell can be indicated by \$5:

- ガスの臭いがする
 Gasu no nioi ga suru l smell gas
- Gasu no **nioł ga suru** lamall gas • グレープフルーツの味がした
- Gurëpufurütsu no aji ga shita It taeted of grapefruit
 ・ 昨日はここにあった気がする
 Kinô wa koko ni atla ki ga sura I hawa a feeling that it was here vesterday

'In cost'

The cost of items can be expressed with \$5:

 のカメラは8万円する Kono kamera wa hachiman-en suru Thia camera costs 80,000 yen

I Verbs of giving and receiving

The use of certain verbs of giving and receiving depends on who is giving and who is receiving. The basic verb for 'to give' is $\delta 1/\delta \sim 1/\delta 7$ when the speaker is giving to someone else, and $< 1/\delta \sim 1/\delta 7$ when the speaker is giving to someone else, and $< 1/\delta \sim 1/\delta 7$ when someone else is giving to the speaker. The words for 1 and '(10) me 2 are given in the English translations below, but equivalents are not needed in Japanese as the choice of verb shows who is giving:

- ・ 母に本を上げます
 - Haha ni hon o **agemasu** I will **aive** a book to my mother
- 母が本をくれました Haha ga hon o kuremashita
- My mother gave me a book

The use of these verbs can be extended to refer to the in-group and out-group. For example, in the sentence below the speaker describes the event from his sister's viewpoint, with < 1.5 (see p. 7):

田辺さんが妹に本をくれました

Tanabe-san ga imoto ni hon o kuremashita Mre Tanabe gave my sister a book

The particle marking the indirect object with あげる and くれる

この絵を廉取さんに上げたい

Kono e o Takatori san ni agetai

I'd like to give this picture to Ms Takatori

The verb 'to receive' is $\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{d}$, and the indirect object can be expressed with either the particle $\mathbb C$ or the particle $\mathfrak{b}\mathfrak{b}$ (see particles):

- 父に乾をもらいました
 - Chichi ni kaban o moraimashita
 - I received a bag from my father
 - 誕生日に父から車をもらいました

Tanjōbi ni **chichi kara** kuruma o moraimashita On my birthday I received a car **from my father**

There are other verbs for 'give' and 'receive' which are more polite or humble in style (see **keigo** p. 213).

The verb やる (which usually means 'to do') means 'to give' when the recipient is of lower status than the giver,

e.g. human to animal, or father to child:

犬に餌をやった?

Inu ni esa o yatta? Have you given the dog his food?

 大学入試に受かったら10万円やるぞ Daigaku nyūshi ni ukattara jū-man-en varu zo

If you pase the university entrance exam, I'll give you 100,000 yeal.

For more information of verbs of giving and receiving, see ~ T

form + verbs of giving and receiving, pp. 47-49.

| Adjectives

I What is an adjective?

An adjective is a word such as 'big', 'quiet', or 'easy' which adds extra information about a noun. Both Japanese and English adjectives can come before the noun (an honest politician', 'heavy books', 'the black cat'), but both can also appear at the end of sentence or phrase, separated from the nouns they describe ('The flowers are beautiful.')

I Types of adjective

Japanese adjectives belong to one of two groups: い adjectives and な adjectives.

(\ adjectives

The adjectives in this group, known as **keiyōshi** (形容詞), are often called 'V adjectives' in English as their dictionary form always ends with the hiragana V. Adjectives of this type end in -ai, -ii, -ui, or -oi. There are no V adjectives ending -ei.

Plain and polite styles of () adjectives

When V adjectives occur at the end of a sentence, they can be followed by 'T's to make the style more polite, especially when there are sentence-ending particles such as £ or 12, or the sentence is joined to another by a conjunction. The final 'T's is omitted in the plain style (see keiga and style):

にほんの えいがは おもしろいですね(polite style) にほんの えいがは おもしろいね(plain style) Japanese films are interesting, aren't they?

きのうみた えいがは おもしろかったです (polite style) きのうみた えいがは おもしろかった (plain style) The film I saw yesterday was Interesting (A adjectives do not change their form or need **Cf** when used in front of a noun:

- これは新しい車です
- na desu This is a new car
- Kore wa **atarashii kuruma** desu **奥村さんは優しい人です**
 - Okumura san wa yasashii hito desu Me Okumura ie a kind person

Changes in the form of () adjectives

Like verbs, \(\) adjectives change their endings (or 'conjugate')
\(\) to indicate, for example, a negative ('not hot') or past meaning
\(\) ('was hot'). The stem, or part of the word before the final \(\)\,
\(\) does not change:

- イギリスの夏はそんなに暑くない
 - Igirisu no natsu wa sonna ni **atsukunai** Enalish summers are not so hot
- 昨日は暴かった

Kinő wa atsukatta Yesterday wae hot

The conjugation of $\mathbb N$ adjectives is shown in the table below in the plain style. For details on the use of $\sim \mathcal K \, \mathcal L \, \sim \mathcal U \, \sim \mathcal L \,$

form	U adjective	meaning
dictionary form	おいしい	delicious
negative	おいしくない	not delicious
past	おいしかった	was delicious
past negative	おいしくなかった	wasn't delicious
~<~	おいしくて	delicious and (joins two or more adjectives)
~なくて	おいしくなくて	not delicious and
~<	おいしく	deliciously
~たら	おいしかったら	when/if delicious
~なかったら	おいしくなかったら	when/if not delicious
~13	おいしければ	if it is delicious
~なければ	おいしくなければ	if it isn't delicious

±1.1 as atternative form of 1.11.1

The common adjective LNLY 'good' has the alternative form & LY.

with no difference in meaning. The various forms of LVLV are all derived from よい、e.g. よくない、よかった、よかったら、

天気はよかったですか Tenki wa yokatta desu ka Was the weather good?

Adjectives ending ~て+も

This structure means 'even if it is (not) . . . ':

おいしくてもそんなにたくさん食べてはいけない Olshikute mo sonna ni takusan tabete wa ikenali

Even if it's tasty, you shouldn't eat so much of it! 朝はそんなに暑くなくても日焼け止めを持っていこう

Asa wa sonna ni atsuku nakute mo hiyakedome o motte iko Even if it's not so hat in the morning, we'll take the sunscreen! コーヒーは暮くても冷たくてもいいです

Kõhii wa atsukute mo tsumetakute mo ii desu. I don't mind if the coffee is hot or sold

The equivalent for な adjectives is でも (see だ・です). For more on ~ T and ~ A C T with th and with LNL see the sections on ~ て and ~ ない (なくて) in the chapter on verbs.

いadjectives with ~すぎる

The verb すぎる (過ぎる) 'to exceed' can be added to the stem of an () adjective to give the meaning 'too . . . ': 寿司が食べたいけど高すぎる

Sushi ga tabetai kedo taka-sugiru want to eat such but it's too expensive

大きすぎるから入れない

Ōki-sugiru kara hairenai It's too bla so it won't ao in

な adjectives

The second group of adjectives are the **keiyōdōshi** (花容動詞), commonly called '本 adjectives' in English as they need the addition of a final 在 when used in front of the nouns they describe. They are often listed in glossaries and vocabularies with £ in brackets.e.e.:

しんせつ (な) kind しずか (な) quiet

When t adjectives occur at the end of a sentence they do not need t, but they do need t \cdot t to complete the sentence (see t \cdot t t). Compare the following pairs of sentences:

- ショウ先生は親切です
 Sho sensel wa Shinsetsu desu
 Shaw sensel le kind
 - ショウ先生は親切な人です
 Shō sensei wa shinsetsu-na hito desu
 Shaw sensei is a kind person
 - 街が静かでした Machi wa shizuka deshita The town was quiet
 - Machi wa shizuka deshita The town wae qui ・静かな街を歩くのが好きです Shizuka-na machi o aruku no ga suki desu I like walkina the quiet (streets of the) town

Changes in だ・です with な adjectives

Unlike い adjectives, な adjectives do not change their form to show past tense, negative meaning, etc. Instead it is the following auxiliary だ・です which conjugates (see p. 15 and p. 181):

form	ts adjective	meaning
predicative (used after noun)	しずか (だ)	quiet
attributive (used in front of noun)	しずかな	quiet
negative	しずかじゃない	not quiet
past	しずかだった	was quiet

form	13. adjective	meaning
past negative	しずかじゃなかった	wasn't quiet
~< 7	しずかで	quiet and (joins two or more adjectives)
~なくて	しずかじゃなくて	not quiet and
adverbial	しずかに	quietly
~たら	しずかだったら	when/if quiet
~なかったら	しずかじゃなかったら	when/if not quiet
~14	しずかなら (ば) しずかであれば	if it is quiet
~なければ	しずかでなければ	if it isn't quiet

Plain and polite styles of な adjectives

With な adjectives, it is the form of the following だ・です that shows the style of the sentence (see p. 10):

The town is quiet

まちは しずかでした (polite style) まちは しずかだった (plain style)

The town was quiet

な adjectives which end in い

There are some words which end in () even though they are # adjectives, not U adjectives, Such words all end in -ei. The most common are:

famous

ゆうめい (な)・有名(な) Compare the following pair of sentences:

鎌倉の大仏は有名です Kamakura no Daibutsu wa vürnei desu

The areat Buddha at Kamakura is famous

銀座のデパートで有名な女優をみました

Ginza no depăto de yûmei-na joyû o mimashita

I saw a famous actress at a Ginza department store

L\ adjectives with alternative な forms

There are a few い adjectives which have alternative forms in front of a nown. These forms have a final な in place of い, although they are not な adjectives. The most common of these alternative forms are おおきな and ちいきな

大きなテレビだ

Öki-na terebi da That's a bia TV

 子供のとき田舎の小さな村に住んでいた Kodomo no toki inaka no chiisa-na mura ni sunde ita When I was a child I lived in a small village in the country

I Using two or more adjectives together

When something is described with more than one adjective, there are changes to the ending of the first one used. When this is an \mathcal{N} adjective, the \mathcal{N} is dropped and \mathcal{N} is added:

このレストランは安くておいしい

Kono resutoran wa yasukute oishii This restaurant is cheap and acod

・大きくて古い家 **Ökikute** furui je **a bia** old hou

Ökikute furui ie a big, old house 彼女は頭がよくて面白いひとです

Kanojo wa atama ga **yokute** omoshiroi hito desu She's a clever, funny person

When a な adjective comes first, it is followed by で, a form of だ・です (see v. 15):

先生は静かでやさしい

Sensei wa shizuka de yasashii The teacher is quiet and kind

バーは賑やかで煙たい
 Bă wa nigivaka de kemutai
 The bar is buey and smoky

A few な adjectives which refer to types of things rather than qualities, such as さまざま 'all kinds of' and いろいろ 'various', do not make these changes in front of other adjectives:

- 様々な若い人が話し合えるチャンスです Samazama-na wakai hito ga hanashiaeru chansu desu ltö a chance for all kinde of young people to be able to mest and chat.
- 色々な珍しい食べ物を出してくれた Irotro-na mezurashii tabemono o dashite kureta They served me various unusual foods

When the two adjectives are in contrast, e.g. 'expensive but inferior', 'kind but stupid', then they are not used in the way described above, but instead are joined with a conjunction such as 55' but'.

 あのレストランはやすいが、全然いおいしくないと思う Ano resutoran wa yasui ga zenzen oishiku nai to omou That restaurant is cheap but I don't think the food is good

l Describing feelings

ほしい・欲しい

There is a group of () adjectives referring to emotions which can be used freely to express the emotions of the speaker or writer, but not the feelings of third parties. The most common members of this group of adjectives are:

うれしい・纏しい alad かなしい・哀しい ead さびしい・寂しい lonely いたい・寒い painful こわい・怖い frightening, frightened おそろしい・恐ろしい friahtenina なつかしい・懐かしい nostalaic, reminiscent of くるしい・苦しい painful, distressina

desirina, wantina

Describing the emotions of other people

Other people's emotions are often described in terms of assumptions based on hearsay, or appearance, or some

other evidence, and so are qualified with phrases such as "She looks . . . ', 'He sounds . . . ', 'He said that . . . ':

"She looks ...', 'He sounds ...', 'He said that ...':

・ 犬が死んで衰しかったでしょう

Inu ga shinde **kanashikatta deshō** You must have been very sad when the dog died

松雌さんは纏しそうだ。

松雄さんは帰じてりた Matsuo san wa ureshi-sō da Matsuo looks deliahted

● 彼女は悲しいらしい

Kanojo wa kanashii rashii She's apparently (extremely) sad

Adjectives of emotion can normally be used freely in questions:

● 頭が痛いか Atama ga itai ka

Does your head hurt?/Do you have a headache?

犬が恐いですか

inu ga kowai desu ka Are you frightened of dogs?

Describing emotions with \sim がる

Other people's emotions can sometimes be described directly if the suffix $\sim t^{1/2}$ is added to the stem of the adjective:

かまれたら子供が犬を怖がる

Kamaretara kodonio ga inu o kowagaru

The children will be frightened of dogs if they get bitten

Adjectives used with 〜がる tend to be in the 〜て+いる form when describing a current situation:

子供が犬を怖がっている

Kodemo ga inu o **kowagatte iru**The children are friahtened of doas

ジョナサンは新しいパソコンを欲しがっている Jonasan wa atarashii pasokon o **hoshigatte iru**

Jonathan wants a new computer

The な adjective いや 'unpleasant' takes the ~がる ending to make the common verb いやがる 'to loathe'. 'to be rejuctant to':

 田中家の息子は学校を嫌がっている Tanaka-ke no musuko wa gakko o lyagatte iru The Tanakas' son hatee school / The Tanakas' boy le reluctant to ao to) school

Describing emotions with the \sim tau form

For events in the past, the ~£ form of an adjective of emotion is sometimes used even of third parties:

 正義の浮気で真弓ちゃんはとても悲しかった Masayoshi no uwaki de Mayumi chan wa totemo kanashikatta Mayumi wae deeply saddened by Masayoshi's Infidelity

Use of ほしい

This adjective of emotion, meaning 'desiring', 'wanting', has a special use when it follows the $\sim T$ form of a verb ($\sec p$, 38). In this case it means that the speaker wants someone to do (or not do) something:

- 明日またこの時間にきて欲しい Ashita mata kono jikan ni kite hoshil
- i want you to come again at the same time tomorrow

 触らないで欲しい

Sawaranaide hoshii I don't want you to touch if

I Comparative and superlative

Japanese adjectives do not have special forms for comparative or superlative, unlike some English adjectives ('hotter', 'deeper', 'coldest', 'highest'). Instead they add extra words.

The comparative

To say that something is, for example, 'bigger' or 'more expensive' than something else, the item to which it is compared is marked with the particle & y, and the adjective itself does not change:

 東京はロンドンより大きいです Tökyö wa Rondon yori ökii desu Tokyo is blager than London 寿司より安いものを食べましょう

Sushi yori yasul mono o tabemashō

Let's eat something cheaper than suchi

富士山よりきれいな山がない

Fujisan yori kirei-na yama ga nai There's no mountain more beautiful than Mt Full

日本類はドイツ類より簡単だ

Nihongo wa **Doitsugo vori kantan** da Japanese is simpler than German

Questions giving two choices

In questions where two choices are offered, such as 'Which is more expensive, London or Tokyo?', the choices are marked with the particle と, and the question word どちら (or どっち in informal speech) is used:

東京と、ロンドンと、どちらが高いですか

Tokyo to Rondon to dochira ga takai desu ka Which is more expensive, Tokyo or London?

日本語と、スペイン語と、どっちが おもしろい?

Nihongo to Supelngo to dotchi ga omoshiroi? Which is more interesting, Japanese or Spanish?

The answer is given by adding のほうが to the chosen alternative. plus the appropriate adjective:

東京のほうが高いです

Tokyo no hō ga takai desu Tokyo is the more expensive

日本語のほうがおもしろい

Nihongo no hō ga omoshiroi Japanese is the more interesting (language)

Comparisons with くらい, ほど, and もっと

Comparisons such as 'as cold as ice' can be expressed with < 511 (or < 51), meaning 'extent', 'level', following the noun with which is being used for comparison. In negative constructions (e.g. 'not as hot as last summer'), the particle # is used:

ロンドンは東京ぐらい高い

Rondon wa Tökvö gurai takai

London is as expensive as Tokyol

 ロンドンの物価は東京ほど高くない Rondon no bukka wa Tökyō hodo takaku nai London prices are not as high as Tokyo (prices)!

The adverb to 2 'more' can also be used to show comparison:

 ロンドンは高かったが、東京はもっと高いですよ Rondon wa takakatta ga Tókyō wa motto takai desu yo London waa expensive but Tokyō Is (even) more expensive!

The superlative

The superlative is the form of the adjective which expresses the highest degree, such as 'biggest', 'most beautiful', 'most expensive'. The Japanese equivalent of 'most' is いちばん (一書), literally 'number one', and is placed in front of the adjective:

世界で一番高い車は何ですか

Sekai de ichi-ban takai kuruma wa nan desu ka What is the most expensive car in the world?

 日本の1番有名な山は富士山です Nihon no Ichl-ban yūmei-na yama wa Fujisan desu The moet famous mountain in Japan is Mt Fuji

Questions giving three choices

In questions where three or more choices are offered, these choices are marked with the particle \succeq , and the question word Eth is used:

 日本語と、スペイン語と、ロシア語と、どれが難しいですか Nihongo to Supeingo to Roshiago to dore ga muzukashii desu ka
 Which is most difficult, Japanese, Russian, or Spanish?

I Advertial use of adjectives

Adjectives can be used in front of a verb to describe a state resulting from an action or a process. In such cases, the \sim < form of V adjectives is used, and \mathbb{C} is added to X adjectives. This use is adverbial and is discussed in more detail in the chapter on adverbs (see p). 119-1201:

塩を入れるともっとおいしくなりますよ Shio o ireru to motto oishiku narimasu vo

It will taste even better if you put some salt in

6時過ぎは象に塞くなる

Roku-li sugi wa kyū ni samuku naru

After 6 o'clock it suddenly acte cold

事故の後は大変でしたが元気になりました

Jiko no ato wa taihen deshita ga genki ni narimashita

It was hard after the accident but I've aot better

この靴を履くともっときれいに見える Kono kutsu o haku to motto kirei ni mieru

It will look even prettier if you wear these shoes (with it)

もうちょっと大きく書いてください

Mň chotto **čkiku kaite** kodasai Please write a little larger

Adjectives with irregular forms

なじ・同じ

e な adjective おなじ, meaning 'the same', is slightly irregular. the end of a sentence it requires だ・です, but it does not need when it appears in front of a noun:

娘の名前が同じだ

Musume no namae qa onali da

My daughter's name is the same (as yours)

イギリスと日本はその面で同じだ

Igirisu to Nihon wa sono men de onaji da In that respect the UK and Japan are the same

費は僕と同じ大学だ

Kimi wa boku to onaji daigaku da You and I are at the same university

同じ人が三回も来ました

Onaji hito ga san-kai mo kimashita The same person came three times

The form おなじく is used to combine sentences:

渡辺さんは佐藤さんと同じく留学生だ
 Webson common Sets com to consilluration

Watanabe san wa **Satō san to onajiku** ryūgakusei da Watanabe is an exchange student, **the same as Sato (is)**

ちかく・近く、とおく・遠く、and おおく・多く

The three W adjectives $5 \, m_{\rm W}$, $2 \, m_{\rm W}$ and $3 \, m_{\rm W}$ are not commonly used before nouns. Instead, the alternative noun forms ending in $\sim \zeta$ are used. The particle σ is needed to join them to the following nouns:

- 近くのスーパー
 - chikaku no sūpā a nearby supermarket
- 遠くの町 tôku no machi a distant town
- 多くの人 ōku no hito

many people

However, the ~ () adjective tends to be used if there is also another element included in the description:

- 家から速いスーパーまで行かないとワインを買えないんだ Uchi kara tôl sūpā made ikanai to wain o kaenai n da Unlesø we go to al supermarket a long way from home, we can't buy wine
- レストランが多いところに行きましょう

Resutoran ga ŏi tokoro ni įkimashō Let's go to a place where there are lote of restaurante

Note that when $\+ \pm 51$ 'distant' and $\+ 5 \+ 1$ 'close' are used to refer to time rather than physical distance, the $\+ < 0$ forms are not used:

• 強い昔

tõi mukashi a long, long time ago

 近い将来がんで死ぬ人が減るだろう Chikal shōral gan de shinu hito ga heru darö Perhaps in the near future, the number of people dying of cancer will accrease

すくない・少ない and すこし・少し

The adjective すくない 'few', 'a little' cannot be used before a houn. Instead, すこし 'small amount' is used. As すこし is a noun, t needs the particle の to join it to the following noun:

- 英語がとても上手な日本人が少ない
 - Eigo ga totemo iôzu-na nihonjin ga sukunai
- The number of Japanese people with good English is small
- 少しのアルコールで額が直ぐ赤くなる
- Sukoshi no arukoru de kao ga sugu akaku naru My face aeta red with juat a little alcohol

l Noun forms from adjectives

ome い adjectives have noun forms that are made by removing he final い and adding さ or み:

₩ adjective	meaning	noun	meaning
おおきい	big	おおきさ	size
おもい	heavy	おもさ	weight
あまい	sweet	あまみ	sweetness

For more information, see nouns p. 122,

Other types of adjectival expression

As well as IV and \$\mathcal{X}\$ adjectives, there are other ways to describe the qualities and nature of things which would require an adjective in an English equivalent. These are dealt with in more detail in the section on modifiers, but examples of the two main ways are given here.

Nouns joined by the particle σ

A noun or noun phrase followed by the particle \mathcal{O} can be used to describe the noun which follows it:

- 日本の重
 - Nihon no kuruma a Japanese car

日本語の教科書 Nihongo no kyōkasho a Japanese language textbook

外国の選手も東京マラソンに参加しています

Galkoku no senshu mo Tčkvč marason ni sanka shite imasu Foreign athletes are taking part in the Tokyo Marathon too

Plain form of verbs

Verb expressions in plain forms such as ~た、~ない、and ~ている, etc., can describe a noun and function as modifiers (see p. 209):

食べられない物 taberarenai mono

inedible things

関いている窓

alte iru mado an open window

笑っている子供

waratte iru kodomo laughing children

べたべたした手

betabeta shita te sticky hands ◆ 会議の後ジョナサンはがっかりした顔で帰ってきた

Kaigi no ato Jonasan wa gakkari shita kao de kaette kita After the meeting Jonathan returned looking downcast

Adverbs

I What is an adverb?

An advert is used to give extra information about verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. In English, adverbs often end in 'ly', e.g. 'he walked slowly', 'extremely happy'. There are also other forms, e.g. 'walk last', 'very happy', 'quite often'. For further information, see glossary.

I Position of adverbs

Unlike English, Japanese adverbs always come before the word or phrase to which they apply:

とでも あつい very hot よく いきます often go ゆっくり あるきます walk slowly

I Types of adverb

Japanese adverbs can be subdivided into groups describing time, quantity and degree, and manner. Adverbs are also used to introduce a judgement, statement, or opinion.

Adverbs of time

Adverbs of time include such words as さいきん 'recently', あさ 'fin the) morning', and よく 'often', as well as other words for time of day, the seasons, and days of the week, etc. Many of these words (including さいきん and あさ) are actually nouns used as adverbs:

朝6時に記きます

Asa roku-ji ni okimasu I get up at 6 in the morning

- 最近子供でさえ携帯電路を持っていますよ
 Saikin kodomo desae keitai denwa o motte imasu yo
 Recently even children have mobile phones
- 先生は東京へよくいらっしゃいますか Sensei wa Tôkyō e yoku irasshaimasu ka (Teacher!) Do you often ao to Tokyo?

Use of IC with adverbs of time

Clock times used adverbially require the particle (\subset ('in', 'on', 'at'):

8時半に会いましょう

Hachi-ji han ni aimashō Let's meet at 8:30

The particle to can be used with adverbs which indicate fixed times, although it is often omitted:

- 木曜日 (に) 会職があります Mokuyōbi (ni) kaigi ga arimasu On Thureday I have a meeting
- 第2 土曜日(に)行きません
 Dai-ni doyōbi (ni) ikimasen
 Idon't ao on the second Saturday (of the month)

Words of relative time (i.e. those where the time is relative to when the statement is made), such as $\Pi \stackrel{\bullet}{\circ}$ (this morning' and $\stackrel{\bullet}{\circ} \mathcal{O}$) (yesterday', do not generally take the particle Γ C when they are used as adverte:

来週フランスへ行きます

Raishû Furansu e ikimasu i'm going to France next week

 昨日おばあちゃんから電話がかかってきた Kinā obāchan kara denwa ga kakatte kita Gran called me yesterday

 今朝また朝寝坊をしてしまった Kesa mata asanebō o shite shimatta I overslept again this mornina

Words with the prefix \$11~ 'every' are also adverbs of relative time and so do not take [C-

- 毎朝ジョギングをしている
 - Malasa joggingu o shite iru lioa every mornina
- 毎晩お酒を飲むのはいけないよ Maiban o-sake o nomu no wa ikenai vo

You really shouldn't drink every night!

For more on time expressions, see numbers, counting, time, dates n. 191.

Adverbs of quantity and degree

Adverbs of quantity and degree include とても 'very', すこし 'a little', and たくさん 'many', 'a lot of':

- とても難しい
 - totemo muzukashii verv difficult
- 人がたくさんいます
- Hito ga takusan imasu There are lote of people まだお表罰が少しありますよ Mada o-sushi da sukoshi arimasu vo

There's still a little sushi left

Please speak more slowly

Adverbs of manner

- Adverbs of manner, which show the way in which an action is carried out, include ゆっくり 'slowly', and すっかり 'completely':
- もうちょっとゆっくり話してください Mō chotto vukkuri hanashite kudasai
- 買い物に行くのをすっかり忘れました Kaimono ni iku no o sukkari wasuremashita I completely forgot to do the shopping!

Other types of adverb

Other adverbs are used to introduce the speaker's judgement or opinion (どうも 'somehow or other', もちろん 'of course'), a request by the speaker (\$ \bullet \'if, in that case'), or to emphasize a request or hope (ぜひ):

- もし車で行くならあの大きいダンボルを持っていってくれませんか
 Moshi kuruma de iku nara ôkii danboru o motte itte kuremasen ka lf voture aoina by car could you take the bia box for me?
- このごろどうも様子がおかしい
 Kono goro dômo vôsu ga okashii
- Kono goro **dōmo** yōsu ga okashii Recently his appearance has been **somehow** strange
- もちろん彼は彼女が本当のことを言ったと思わなかった Mochiron kare wa kanojo ga hontô no koto o itta to omowanakatta Of source he didn't think that she had told the truth
- 是非遊びに来て下さい
 Zehl asobi ni kite kudasal You wallo

You really must come and visit

I Adverbs requiring a negative predicate

Some adverbs can only be used with a negative predicate (see p. 5.) The most common of these are given below:

かならずしも・必ずしも '(not) necessarily'

 外国人は必ずしも英語ができるとは限らない Gaikokujin wa kanarazushimo elgo ga dekiru to kagiranal It doeen's necessarily follow that all foreigners speak English

さっぱり '(not) at all'

さっぱり分かりません
 Sappari wakarimasen | Join't understand at all

ぜんぜん・全然 '(not) at all', '(none) at all'

 頑張ったけど全然できなかった Ganbatta kedo zenzen dekinakatta I tried hard but I couldn't do it at all

In colloquial speech, $\#h \, \#h$ is sometimes used with a positive predicate:

全然大丈夫だ
 Zenzen daijōbu da lt's perfectly OK

Also note that ぜんぜん can be used with words with a strong negative meaning within a positive predicate:

この時計は全然だめです

Kono tokei wa zenzen dame desu This watch has completely had it!

なかなか

ステル・ル There is no straightforward translation for なかなか but it suggests Hifficulty and lack of success:

三回もやってみたけどなかなか出来ません

Sankai mo yatte mita kedo **nakanaka dekimasen** I'ye tried it three times but liu**st can't** do it.

にどと・二度と (not) again', 'never'

ここには2度と来ないよ Koko ni wa **2-do to** ko**nai** yo lam **never** comina here againi

。 めったに 'rarely'. 'seldom'

めったに本を読まない
Mettani hon o yomanai | rarely read books

ろくに 'unsatisfactorily', 'inadequately'

ろくに弟と話す時間がなかった

Rokuni otöto to hanasu jikan ga nakatta I didn't even have time to talk to my brother

Adverbs requiring a positive predicate

A few adverbs can only be used in a sentence with a positive predicate (*see p. 5*). These include かならず・必ず 'without fail, definitely', and ぎりぎり 'barely':

・ 必ずら時前に養てください

Kanarazu 6-ji mae ni kite kudasai

Please be sure to arrive before 6 o'clock

駅まで進がとても込んでいたがぎりぎり終電に間に合った Eki made michi ga totemo konde ita ga **girlgiri** jüden ni maniatta The street to the station was so crowded I was **barely** in time for the last train

I Adverbs which change meaning with positive and negative predicates

Some adverbs have different meanings depending on whether the sentence has a positive or negative predicate. For example, $\sharp \mathcal{K}$ means 'still' with a positive predicate, but 'not yet' with a negative predicate:

まだ食べています
 Mada tabete imasu | am still eating

• まだ食べていない

Mada tabete inai | I haven't caten yet

Other common adverbs with these changes in meaning are given below:

adverb	meaning with positive forms	meaning with negative forms
あまり	so (much/greatly) that	not very
いっさい・一切	all, everything	not at ail
ぜんぜん・全然	completely	not at all
どうも	very much	not very much, in some way or other (implies inadequacy)
とても	very	can't, not at all
なかなか	quite, very, considerably	handly, just can't (implies little success in spite of effort)
べつに・別に	separately	not especially
ほとんど	almost all, mostly	hardly any, almost none
まだ	still	not yet
もう	already	not any more, not any longer
しばらく	for a long time	not for a long time

compare the following pairs of sentences which show the differences in usage:

あまり

- あまりに寂しくて泣いてしまいました Amari ni sabishikute naite shimaimashita I felt so lonely that I cried
 - この本はあまりおもしろくないです Kono hon wa **amari** omoshiro**kunai** desu This book is**n't very** interesting

ほとんど

- これらの学生はほとんど東南アジアからです
 - Korera no gakusei wa **hotondo** Tōnan Ajia kara desu **Almost** all these students are from South-East Asia
 - アイヌ語を話せるひとはほとんどいません Ainu-go o hanaseru hito wa **hotondo imasen** There are **hardiy any** people who can speak the Ainu language

もう

- ・ ● 子供達はもう寝ています
 - Kodomotachi wa mō nete imasu The children have already gone to bed
 - ピアノがもう弾けません
 - Piano ga mô hikemasen | can't play the plano any more

I Adverbs used with conditional forms

Some adverbs, such as \bullet L and $\hbar \varepsilon \not \in \Lambda$ meaning if. occur with conditional forms (e.g. $\sim \hbar \cdot \delta$), or with structures with conditional meanings (e.g. $\sim \tau \cdot \delta$) (see **verbs** and **conjunctive particles**). The adverbs introduce the conditions which follow them:

 もし田中さんに会ったらこの手紙を渡してください Moshi Tanaka san ni attara kono tegami o watashite kudasai If you meet Mrs Tanaka, please give her this letter requests

 たとえ車で行っても、遅くなりますよ Tatoe kuruma de itte mo, osoku narimasu vo

Even if I go by car, I'll still be late

I Adverbs used with tentative expressions or

Some adverbs expressing probability are used with tentative expressions such as でしょう. Amongst these are あるいは 'or'. たぶん 'perhaps, maybe', and きっと 'definitely':

多分こないでしょう
 Tabun konai deshō Maybe she's not comina

来年きっと合格するでしょう
 Rainen kitto gökaku suru deshò

He will definitely pass (the exam) next year, (don't you agree?)

I Words which symbolize the sound or manner of an action

Japanese has numerous words which imitate sounds, or describe the way something is done, or symbolize psychological states and feelings by their sound. Many words of this type can be used as adverbs to describe the manner in which something happens. They are often joined to the following verb or predicate by the particle £:

. • 犬がワンワンと鳴いていた

Inu ga wanwan to naite ita The doa was barkina ('woof woof')

ドッスンと落ちた

Dossun to ochita It dropped with a crash

• 枝がパッキンと折れた

Ela ga pakkin to oreta The branch snapped with a crack

父はかっと怒った
 Chichi wa katto okotta
 Dad flew into a temper

- - Kaba ga kuchi o gabatto aketa
 - The hippopotamus opened its mouth wide

There are also many adverbs of this type which do not require & to join with the following verb or predicate:

- 彼は日本語をべらべらしゃべれる
- Kare wa Nihongo o perapera shabereru
- He can speak Japanese fluently

 彼女が僕の手をしっかり握った
- Kanojo ga boku no te o **shikkari** nigitta.

 She aripped my hand **firmly**
 - 電車の中に通勤客がぎっしり詰まっていた。

Densha no naka ni tsūkinkyaku ga gisshiri tsumatte ita

The commuters were jam-packed inside the train

自分が一体どこにいるかさっぱり分からなかった Jibun ga ittai doko ni iru ka **sappari** wakaranakatta

- I had **absolutely** no idea where I was
- ゆっくり読んでください
 Yukkuri vonde kudasai Please read it slowiy

I Adverbials derived from adjectives

In phrases such as lk → A
A
B
A
C **read quickly* , the words 'quickly' and 'quietly' describe the manner of eating and reading. Japanese adverbials of this type are derived from adjectives, and in this way they are similar to the fights. It is written in words such as 'quickly' and 'easily'. Some examples are given below, but they are strictly part of the 'q conjugation and use of adjectives (see pt. 106–107).

い adjectives change the final い to <:</p>

- みんな、こっちへ早く来なさい
 - Minna kotchi e hayaku kinasai Come here quickly, everyonel
- 明日また遅く来るでしょう Ashita mata osoku kuru deshō

He'll probably come late again tomorrow

Note that ちかく・近く 'close' and とおく・遠く 'far' are nouns and take the particle に when used adverbially. These words and their uses are discussed in more detail in the chapter on adjectives ($see\ p.\ 108$):

- 家族は近くに住んでいます
 - Kazoku wa chikaku ni sunde imasu My family live nearby

な adjectives add the particle に:

- 彼女は積極的にボランティアをやっています Kanojo wa sektyokuteki ni borantia o yatte imasu She does her voluntary work enthusiastically
 お和父ちゃんは毎朗示気に運動している
- Ojiichan wa maiasa **genki ni** undô shite iru Grandad does his exercises energetically every morning

I Other adverbs and adverbials

Certain common expressions are adverbial, and among these are さんねんながら 'regrettably', もしかすると, もしかしたら 'probably, perhaps' (with a tentative ending), and ただいま 'T'm backt, just now':

- 残念ながら、今日はダメです Zannennagara, kyð wa dame desu Unfortunately, it's impossible today
- もしかすると、雨が降るかもしれません Moshikasuruto, ame ga furu kamo shiremasen Perhape it's going to rain
- Husband: 只今! Wife: お帰りなさい Tadaima I'm home! O-kaeri nasai Welcome back

I Comparative and superlative of adverbs

The comparative of adverbs is similar to the comparative of adjectives (see p. 104).

Comparative of adverbs

In English, the comparative of an adverb is formed with the word 'more' or with the addition of the suffix '-er':

Could you speak more quietly, please?

She studies harder than I do

With Japanese, the item to which the comparison is being made s marked with LU, and the adverb itself doesn't change:

彼女は私よりよく練習します

Kanojo wa watashi yori yoku renshū shimasu

She practises more often than I do

この機会のお陰でホームベーキングは前より簡単にできる Kono kikai no o-kage de hōmu bēkingu wa **mae yori kantan ni** dekini

Home baking can be done **more easily than before**, thanks to this machine

some adverbs and adverbials of degree can also be used to modify adverbs to show comparisons:

もっと優しくしてください Motto vasashiku shite kudasai

Please be more gentle

もうちょっと早く起きてほしい Mo chotto hayaku okite hoshii

want you to get up earlier

Superlative of adverbs

The superlative of adjectives in English is formed with the word most' or with the addition of the suffix '-est':

She speaks Japanese the most fluently of all of us.

The Japanese equivalent of 'most' is いちばん・一番, literally 'number one', which is placed in front of the adverb:

- 我が家では弟は一番早く布団から起きだします Waga uchi dewa otôto wa ichiban hayaku futon kara okidashimasu
 - in our family, my little brother always gets up earliest in the morning.
 - 一番楽にお金を稼ぐ方法はなんでしょう? Ichiban raku ni o-kane o kasegu hōhō wa nan deshō I wonder what is the easiest way of carring money?

Nouns

i What is a noun?

A noun is a word which names people ('child', 'teacher'), or places ('station', 'Tokyo'), or things ('apple', 'bus'). The names of abstract qualities and emotions are also nouns ('beauty', 'happiness').

I Characteristics of Japanese nouns

Unlike many other languages, Japanese nouns do not have grammatical gender (masculine, feminine, neuter), and do not decline, i.e. change their forms to express grammatical relationships. The grammatical role of a noun in a sentence is determined by the particle which follows it (see p. 149). Nouns require ₹ * ₹\$ to from a predicate (see p. 5):

田中さんは日本人です
 Tanaka san wa nihoniin desu

Mr Tanaka is (a) Japanese

I Plural nouns

Japanese does not generally have a plural form for nouns. In English, a final -s distinguishes book from 'books', but in Japanese the noun (#Ar can mean both 'book' and 'books'. This means that it is sometimes unclear whether a Japanese noun should be translated as an English singular or plural, and in such cases only the context can help determine which is appropriate:

本はどこですか

Hon wa doko desu ka

Where is the book?/Where are the books?

すみません。赤い本を渡してちょうだい

Sumimasen. Akai hon o watashite chōdai

Would you pass me the red book, please?

本棚に本がたくさんある

Hondana ni hon oa takusan aru

There are lots of books in the bookcase

plural meaning can also be identified by using a number and a nunter (see p. 191).

Plural suffixes

A very few nouns, all of which refer to people, can be shown to be plural by adding the suffixes ~ \$5 and ~ 5, although these words can have a plural meaning even without the suffixes. Note that the suffix ~ 5 can be impolite and is best avoided, except in the word かれら 'they', 'them':

わたしたち

we. us がくせいたち students, the students children the children

こどもたち せんせいたち

teachers かれら they, them

やつら they, them (impolite) The suffix ~たち is often used when referring back to a noun

microphone the students stood up

already mentioned. In such situations, English often uses 'the', as with 'the students' in the example below: 学生が800人いました。僕がマイクに近寄ると学生達は立

ちました Gakusei ga happyaku-nin imashita. Boku ga maiku nj chikayoru

to gakuseitachi wa tachimashita There were 800 students there. When I approached the

Plural by duplication

There are a few Japanese nouns where plural meanings are formed by repeating a singular noun:

ひとびと・人々 people しまじま・島々 jelands ところどころ・所々 here an

ところどころ・所々 here and there たびたび・度々 many times, often

I Nouns formed from adjectives

In English, a suffix can often be added to adjectives to form nouns, e.g. 'wide \rightarrow width', 'weak \rightarrow weakness', and the same is true of Japanese.

~さ

The suffix ~ 2 can be added to the stem of some adjectives to give noun meanings:

adjective	meaning	derived noun	meaning
おおきい・大きい	big	おおきさ	size
おもい・重い	heavy	おもさ	weight
ひろい・広い	wide	ひろさ	width, scale
かなしい・悲しい	sad	かなしさ	sadness

~み

There are also a few nouns formed by adding the suffix ~ & to an adjective stem:

	meaning	derived noun	meaning
あまい・甘い	sweet	あまみ	eweetness
くるしい・苦しい	painful	くるしみ	pain, anguish

Colours

Some nouns for colours are the same as the adjectives but minus the final W:

あか・赤 réd くろ・黒 black あお・青 areen/blue

あら、育 green/blue きいろ・苗色 vallow Some colours only have a noun form (むらさき・葉 'purple', あどり・練 'green'), and these are often used with the suffix いろ 'colour'. They are joined to the following word withの

 緑色のセーター midori-iro no sētā a green sweater

Nouns formed from verbs

Sometimes the conjunctive (preます) stem of a verb can be used as a noun. The following examples all derive from verbs, and there are many others (see conjunctive (pre-masu) form):

```
かえる to return → かえり・傷り return, homecoming

さく to face → むき・向き direction

むづく to continue → つづき・後き continuation

おわる to finish → おわり・終り conclusion, finish

このむ to like, to prefer → このみ・好み tasto, preference

おちむ to hishink → ちちみ・強み・shinkina
```

I Nouns with special functions

A small number of nouns can have a structural function in certain cases. There are some examples below to show how the meanings for the nouns change in this use, but for more information, refer to the section on nominalization (see p. 206).

೬≋

This is used after the plain forms of verbs and adjectives, with expressions of time:

```
アメリカへ いったとき when I went to America
たべるとき when I eat I/when eating
あついとき when it's hot
わかいとき when I was young
```

子供のときよく恐竜の絵を描きました Kodomo no toki yoku kyöryü no e o kakimashita When I was a child, I often drew pictures of dinosaurs

22

Japanese uses こと 'abstract thing' after the plain forms of verbs to form a noun phrase, and this can often be translated into English with an '-ing' ending (e.g. 'watching', 'going'):

テレビを見ることが好きです Terebi o miru koto ga suki desu I like watching TV

学校へ行かないことはよくないよ Gakkō e ikanai koto wa voku nai vo

Not going to school is a bad thing (to do)

When ∠ と comes after the ~た form of a verb, it has the special use of referring to a past experience (see p. 60 and p. 206):

馬に乗ったことがありますか Uma ni notta koto ga arimasu ka Have you ever ridden a horse?

ところ Although the noun ところ means 'place', it can be used after the plain forms of verbs to refer to an event which is just about to happen or has just happened. In this use it refers to a point in time:

- 出かけるところです I'm just about to go out Dekakeru tokoro desu
- 夕飯を食べたところです Yühan o tabeta tokoro desu I have just eaten
- With a ~ている structure, ところ emphasizes being 'in the middle of . . . ' something:
- いま電話しているところだからちょっと待ってわ。 Ima denwa shite iru tokoro dakara chotto matte ne Just a minute - I'm on the phone

とおり・通り

私が言う通りにしなさい

Watashi ga **iu tōri** ni shi nasai Please do as I tell you

僕がいった通りだ

Boku ga itta töri da ít's just as I said

説明書の通りに組み立てる

Assemble as per the instructions

まず

* is used after the plain forms of verbs or adjectives to show at there is a likelihood or expectation of something happening:

もうすぐ着くはずです

Mô sugu tsuku hazu desu They should be here shortly

■ 田中さんは明日来ないはずです

Tanaka san wa ashita konai hazu desu

I'm fairly sure that Tanaka won't be coming tomorrow

ため

shows the purpose or result of an action. It can follow the

日本へ行くのが勉強するためです

Nihon e iku no wa benkyō suru tame desu

The reason for going to Japan is to study

これは印刷をするための機械です

Kore wa insatsu o suru tame no kikai desu This is a machine for printina

ため can also be used after another noun when joined by the particle の

台風のため、木が倒れた

Taifū no tame, ki ga tagreta

A tree was brought down as a result of the typhoon

- 病気のため欠席しました Byōki no tame kesseki shimashita I did not attend, owing to illness
 - For ために, see pp. 144-145.

よう

To talk about how something seems to be, $\& \Im$ 'appearance' is used, following the plain forms of verbs and adjectives:

- 世界的に日本語が話せる人が増えているようだ Sekai-teki ni Nirongo ga hanaseru hito ga fuete iru yō da it seeme that the number of people worldwide who can speak Japanese is Ingressina
- 日本語で話しかけたが、分からないようだった Nitrongo de hanashikaketa ga wakaranai yô datta i spoke to her in Japanese but ehe didn't eeem to understand
 For ように、see pp. 146-147.

l Nouns with the polite prefixes お and ご

The style of a sentence can be changed to a more formal or polite register by using the prefixes $\ddagger 3$ or \checkmark with certain nouns. For more on this subject, refer to the chapter on **keigo** (p. 213).

Nouns used as adverbs

Some Japanese nouns can also be used as adverbs (see p. 111). This is most common with nouns referring to relative time such as おした 'morrow', and せんしゅう 'last week' etc., and with nouns of quantity such as たくさん 'a lot (of)'. The following sentences show the word あした used first as a noun, and then as an adverb.

- 明日の授業は隣りの教室です Ashita no jugyo wa tonari no kyoshitsu desu Tomorrow's clase will be in the room next door.
- 申し訳ないですが明日来られません Moshiwake nai desu ga ashita koraremasen I'm very sorry, but (I) can't come tomorrow

conjunctions and conjunctive particles

What is a conjunction?

Conjunctions link words, phrases, or clauses. English conjunctions include 'and', 'but', and 'however', and some appear in pairs ('neither . . . nor . . . '). Subordinating conjunctions such as 'that', 'in order to', 'if', and 'because' link main and subordinate clauses.

Japanese equivalents of English conjunctions 'and', 'both', 'or', and 'neither' are particles (for \mathcal{L} meaning' and', ' \mathcal{P} , \mathcal{P} , and \mathcal{N} , 'see particles). Some of the conjunctions given below can 'aslao be described as noun and particle combinations. Others are conjunctive particles, which are often considered as forms of verbs and adjectives. In addition, all of the $\nabla \mathcal{L}$ form group of endings, 'eg. $\nabla \mathcal{L}$, ' $\nabla \mathcal{L}$, ' \mathcal{L} , ' \mathcal

Conjunctive particles

There are several particles which are conjunctions in terms of their function, but which are usually described in textbooks as either forms of verbs (or adjectives), or as particles. Two of them, $\sim \mathcal{K} \mathcal{E}$ and $\sim l \mathcal{I}$, cause changes in the form of the verb or adjective to which they are attached. They are included in the charts of forms for verbs and adjectives.

~たら

→ E consists of the → E form of the verb or adjective followed by B. It joins clauses together and shows that one action begins before another action. In the following sentence, going to Japan precedes the visit to Kyoto: 日本へ行ったら京都に行きたい Nihon e ittara Kyōto ni ikitai

When /if i go to Japan, I want to go to Kyoto

The English translation of this sentence can be with 'when' or if,' depending on whether or not a trip to Japan is being planned. A wide range of relative time relationships can be expressed with $\sim \mathcal{E}. \mathbf{5}$, and there may be a choice as to the use of 'if' or 'when' for indeed some other obtasing' in English.

- 食べ終ったら電話します Tabeowattara denwa shimasu I will cali you when I finish satina
- こんど日本へ行ったら温泉に行こう Kondo Nihon e ittara onsen ni ikō
- Next time we go to Japan, let's go to an onsen (hot spring)
- 彼が帰っていたら電気が点いているはずだ Kare ga kaette itara denki ga tsuite iru hazu da If he is (has come) home, the lighte should be on

Note that よかったら, from いい-よい 'good', means 'if you like':

the よかったら、もっと食べてください

Yokattara, motto tabete kudasai Please cat some more if you like

~たら in questions and suggestions

There is a common use of $\sim \hbar \in \mathfrak{h}$ in 'what should I do?' questions and in making suggestions in response, as illustrated by the following examples:

- 日本語をもっと早く学習するにはどうしたらいいですか Nihongo o motto hayaku gakushū suru ni wa do shitara ii desu ka What should I do to learn Japanese faster?
- 日本のテレビドラマを見たらどうですか Nihon no terebi dorama o mitara dō desu ka How about watching Japanese TV dramas?

~たら with negative clauses

The addition of ~たら to negatives of verbs and ~い adjectives changes the ~ない ending to ~なかったら:

Wakaranakattara Nihonjin no tomodachi ni kiite kudasai When/If you don't understand, please ask a Japanese friend

この電車に乗らなかったら田中さんに会えませんよ

Kono densha ni **noranakattara** Tanaka san ni aemasen yo

l**f we don't get on** this train, we won't *be able* to meet Tanaka あまりおもしろくなかったら、帰りましょう Amari **omoshiroku nakattara** kaerimashō

If it's not very interesting, let's go home! 裏くなかったら外で食べる

Samuku nakattara soto de taberu If it's not cold we'll est outeide

~15

If is a conjunction which expresses a condition, and is sometimes referred to as 'the conditional form' or 'the ∼l' af form' of \(\) Adjectives and verbs. If he addition of ∼l' af requires a change in the final kana of the verb or \(\) Adjective. Adjectives change the inal ~\(\) \(\

#ictionary meaning final ~ \\
form dropped
さむい・寒い cold さむ~ さむければ
やさしい gentle, kind やさし~ やさしければ

Verbs change the final kana of the dictionary form to the え line of the kana chart:

dictionary form	meaning	change in final kana	+~13
おこる・起こる	to occur	る → れ	おこれば
よむ・銃む	to read	む → め	よめば
いく・行く	to go	< → け	いけば
はなす・話す	to speak	す → せ	はなせば
まつ・待つ	to wait	つ → て	まてば

dictionary form	meaning change in + final kana	+~1\$	
あう・会う	to meet	う→え	あえば
いそく・急ぐ	to hurry	⟨ → If	いそげは
たべる・食べる	to eat	る → れ	たべれは
みる・見る	to see, to watch	る → れ	みれば
する	to do	る → れ	すれば
くる・来る	to come	る → れ	くれば

Uses of ~ば

Uses or ~i\$

The two clauses linked with ~i\$ show a relationship where the first action or situation must occur in order for the second statement or action to be true. In the following sentence, a car must be used in order to complete the journey in 90 minutes:

- 車で行けば 90 分かかる
 Kuruma de ikeba kyū-jup-pun kakaru
 - I**f you go** by car, it takes 90 minutes

In the examples below, the CDs must be cheap before the speaker will consider buying any, and it must be raining before a decision is made to cancel the match:

- CD は安ければ買います Shiidii wa yasukereba kaimasu If CDs are cheap, I'll buy some
- 南が降れば試合が中止になる Arne ga fureba shiai ga chūshi ni naru If it raine, the match will be cancelled

If the ~ If clause holds true, then the other event becomes true:

明日晴れればハイキングに行きましょう

Ashita harereba haikingu ni ikimashö If It's fine tomorrow, let's go hiking

~(I with negative conditions

The addition of ~ば to negatives of verbs and い adjectives changes the ~ない ending to ~なければ and the condition established with ~ば becomes negative:

meaning	~ない form	~なければ
,		
cold	さむくない	さむくなければ
gentle, kind	やさしくない	やさしくなければ
to occur	おこらない	おこらなければ
to read	よまない	よまなければ
to go	いかない	いかなければ
to est	たべない	たべなければ
to see, to watch	みない	みなければ
to do	しない	しなければ
to come	こない	こなければ
	cold gentle, kind to occur to read to go to eat to see, to watch	cold Stocking Petucking Petucking Petucking Petucking Control Research Control Petucking Control Petucking Control Petucking Control Petucking Pet

CDは安くなければ買いません

Shiidii wa yasukunakereba kaimasen

- if CDs aren't cheap, i won't buy any

 佐藤さんが来なければ3人で試合をやるしかない
- Salo san ga **konakereba** san-nin de shiai o yaru shika nai If Sato **doeen't come**, there's nothing for it but to play the match with three people
- 明日手紙が来なければ電話します

Ashita tegami ga konakereba denwa shimasu

If the letter doesn't come tomorrow, I'll telephone

See also the section on theない form in the chapter on verbs where idiomatic uses of 〜なければ are discussed, and ほど in the chapter on particles for 〜ば〜ほど.

~ばよかった

This is an idiomatic structure meaning 'I wish that . . . ':

もっと勉強すればよかった

Motto Benkyō sureba vokatta | I wish I'd studied more

Comparison of ~ば and ~たら

Sometimes there will be little or no difference in meaning between sentences joined with ~ 15 and sentences joined with ~ 25 . In the two sentences below there is only a slight difference in nuance: the first (~ 15) indicates that the air conditioning should be used only at times when the weather is bot, and the second (~ 25) shows a time relationship where hot weather precedes putting on the air conditioning:

- 暑ければエアコンを点けてください Atsukereba eakon o tsukete kudasai
 - If it's hot, please turn on the air conditioning
- 暑かったらエアコンを点けてください
 Atsukattara eakon o tsukete kudasai

If it's hot please turn on the air conditionina

The second half of the sentence can be a request (as above) or a statement:

- 授業が早く終れば電話します Jugyō ga hayaku owareba denwa shimasu lf the clase finiehee carly. | will rina
- 授業が早く終ったら電話電話します Jugyō ga hayaku owattara denwa shirnasu If the class finishes carly. | will ring

However where there is a request, suggestion, or command in the main clause and the subordinate clause is volitional (something the subject decides to do). $\sim E \cdot S$ is used:

 今度マンチェスターへ来たら電話してください Kondo Manchesutāe kitara denwa shite kudasai Please ring me when you next come to Manchester

Where the subject of both clauses is the same and the main clause is past tense then $\sim \hbar \cdot \beta$ is used for the preceding event where the time relationship to what follows is central:

 空港に着いたらパスポートがないとすぐ気づいた Kökö ni tsultara pasupöto ga nai to sugu Kidzuita When I arrived at the airport I realized straight away that I didn't have my passport However, if the main clause is an intentional action by the subject, then rather than showing 'when . . . ' by ~たら, the two clauses are combined with a ~て form meaning 'and':

空港に着いてすぐ電話した

Kûkô ni tsuite sugu denwa shita

l arrived at the airport and phoned straight away

1

The use of \succeq shows a natural and inevitable link between what happens in the first clause and what follows in the next. This means that English translations may feature 'and', 'if', or 'when':

- このボタンを押すと機械が動き始める Kono botan o osu to kikal ga ugokihajimeru
 - Push this button and the machine starts/If you push this button, the machine starts
- 確になるとお化けが出てくる
 - Yoru ni naru to obake ga dete kuru Ghosts come out when it gets dark

is also used when an event has occurred or a discovery been made unexpectedly because of something described in the first clause:

ドアを開けると知らない男の人が立っていた

Doa o akeru to shiranai otoko no hito ga tatte ita I opened the door and found a stranger standing there

公園へ行くと友達がいた

Kōen e iku to tomodachi ga ita

When I went to the park, I ran into a friend

~なら

なら is often described as a noun equivalent of the ~たら and ~ば forms of verbs and adjectives. なら is part of the conjugation of だ・です. Its function is to confirm a condition, and it is often explained as meaning 'ii... is the case, then ...', as in the following examples:

街まで行くのなら郵便局にも行ってくれる?

Machi made Iku no nara yübinkyöku ni mo itte kureru?

If you're going to town, could you go to the post office for me?

 あまり時間がないならいい Amari jikan qa nai nara ji

If you haven't got much time, then it's OK (not to go to the post office)

〜なら is used after the plain forms of verbs and adjectives, and also after nouns and な adjectives. With noun and な adjective sentences, there is no need for だ・です or な, as なら is itself a conjugated form of だ・です:

寿司ならとろが一番だ

Sushi nara toro ga ichi-ban da If you want sushi, then 'toro' is the besti

元気なら行ける

元気なら行ける Genki nara ikeru - If I feel well enough, i'll be able to go

With verbs and ω adjectives, the use of the particle ω is optional:

- カメラを買う(の)ならビックカメラへ行きましょう Kamera o kau (no) nara Bikku Kamera e ikimasho If you want to buy a camera, let's go to the Bikku Camera store
 - 出かける(の)なら卵も買ってきてください Dekakeru (no) nara tamago mo katte kite kudasai If you are going out, please buy (me) some egge
 - 寒い(の)なら暖房を入れましょう Samui (no) nara danbō o iremashō if you are sold, let'e out the heating on

~なら is often used in conversations to confirm information, as in the phrase じゃ それなら 'Well, if that's the case

I Other types of conjunction

~ながら

The basic meaning of ~ たがら is 'while . . . ing', and it shows that two things are happening at the same time. It follows the conjunctive (pre-まず) form of the verb (see p. 36):

- 食べながらテレビを見ました Tabenagara terebi o mimashita ! watched TV while eating
- 傘をさしながら自転車に乗るのは危ない Kasa o sashinagara jitensha ni noru no wa abunai It's danaerous to ride a bicycle with an umbrella upl

~まま

まま is a noun which is often used as a conjunction, following either the ~ 2 form or ~ 2 U/ form of a verb. It shows that the state described is left as it is, remaining unchanged at the time of an action. The implication is that this is wrong or inappropriate. When it follows a negative verb. the meaning is 'without, . ing'.

- 電気を点けたまま寝た
- 勘定を払わないまま店をでた Kanjō o harawanai mama mise o deta illeft the restaurant without pavina the bill

1

Ushows that the clause it follows is one of a number of possible statements. In the example below, U implies that a lack of money so only one of numerous reasons why life is hard at the moment:

- お金がないし、生活は大変だ
 - O-kane ga nai shi, seikatsu wa taihen da I don't have any money, and life is tough

The sentence below indicates that there are various reasons to consider Japanese grammar as not being difficult:

- 日本語は複数形がないし、文法が難しくないですよ
 Nihongo wa fukusiikei oa nai shi, bunpo ga muzukashiku nai
 - desu yo Japanese **has no plural forms (and so on), so** the grammar's not difficult

L can be used several times to list reasons in support of a statement or suggestion, and so conveys a strong overtone of amongst other things':

- 子供が疲れているし、腹が減ったし、もう帰りましょう Kodomo ga tsukarete iru shi, hara ga hetta shi, mô kaerimashô The kida are tirea, and they're hungry (and éo on), so let's go home
- 佐藤さんはまじめだし、経験があるし、この仕事にぴった りだ Salo san wa majime da shi, keiken ga aru shi, kono shigoto ni pittari da Sato ie steady enough, hée got experience, and so on. Hé's

それから

perfect for this job

それから is used for 'and then . . . ', 'after that', 'furthermore', and also as a question to ask for more information:

- 東京に3日いてそれから京都へ行きます
 Tokyo ni mikka ite **sore ƙara** Kyoto e likimasu
 We will be in Tokyo for three days, and then ao to Swoto
- This?
 Sore kara? And?/And then?/And what?
- ・ それから何をしましたか Sore kara nani o shimashita ka What did you do after that?

それで

それで shows a reason or cause, and so can often be translated as 'therefore', 'so', 'that's why':

 きのうまで韓国へ出張で行っていた。それでいなかったんだ Kinō made Kankoku e shutchō de itte ita. Sore de inakatta n da i was in Korea on a businese trip until yesterday. That's why I wash't around

それでは

This is a version of *tht* T used at the beginning of a sentence to refer back to something which has been mentioned previously, and to highlight it as a topic ('then, in which case...'):

期日は無理か、それではあさってにしよう

Ashita wa muri ka. Sore de wa asatte ni shivñ

So tomorrow's impossible? Then let's do it the day after

It is also commonly used to bring classes to a close, or otherwise signal a conclusion, similar to the English 'well, then!':

それではまた来選

Sore de wa mata raishi)

Well, then, I'll see you again next week

チれではチスチス失礼します Sore de wa sorosoro shitsurei shimasu Well. I must be apina

それとも

それとも is used to present alternatives, and means 'or':

日本語は難しいですか。それともやさしいですか Nihongo wa muzukashii desu ka. Sore tomo yasashii desu ka Is Japanese difficult? Or is it easy?

それなら

This refers back to what has just been said, and means 'if that's the case, then . . . ':

- **嵌者の野明があるんですか、それなら授業に休んでもいいよ** Isha ng shōmei ga aru n desu ka. Sore nara iĝgyō ni vasunde mo ii vo
 - You've not a doctor's note? In that case, you don't have to come to the lesson

Mae no kare ga iku n desu ka. Sore nara zettai ikanai My ex-boyfriend's going? In that case, there's no way I'm going! そして

そして joins sentences with the meaning 'and' or 'and then'; 日本語はやさしいです。そして面白いです

前の彼が行くんですか、それなら絶対に行かない

Nihongo wa yasashii desu. Soshite omoshiroi desu Japanese is easy, and it's interestina

 6 時に着きました。そして主人に電話しました Roku-ji ni tsukimashita. Soshite shujin ni denwa shimashita | arrived at 6 o'clock. Then | called my husband

すると

This links sentences to show what happened next, and can be translated as 'whereupon...', 'then...' It can also introduce a conclusion based on the previous sentence, in the sense of 'in which case.

- 去年会社に入った。すると妙実にであった Kyonen kaisha ni haitta. Suru to Taemi ni deatta I Joined the company last year. Then I met Taemi
- 彼は子供のときフランスに住んでいたんでしょ?するとフランス語ができるでしょう

Kare wa kodomo no toki Furansu ni sunde ita n desho. **Suru to** Furansugo ga dekiru deshō He lived in France when he was a child? In **that case**, he can

He lived in France when he was a child? In that case, he ca probably speak French

が

が connects two clauses with the meaning 'but' or 'although':

- 母は日本人ですが私は日本語があまり話せません Haha wa Nihonjin desu ga, Nihongo ga amari hanasemasen Although my mum is Japanese, I can't epeak much Japanese
 - 井上さんは明日いますが、あさってから出張です Inoue san wa ashita imasu ga, asatte kara shutchō desu Mrs Inoue will be here tomorrow, but from the next day she's away on a business trip

It is very common to use \hat{m} at the end of a sentence to soften the tone. This is especially true when favours are being asked or refused, or information and permission sought, in this use, the second clause is left unexpressed and must be inferred:

- すみませんが Sumimasen ga Excuse me. but...
- 明日の晩友達のパーティに行きたいが Ashita no ban tomodachi no pății ni ikitai ga Tomorrow night l'd like to go a friend's party (may i?)

ちょっとお伺いしたいんですが Chotto o-ukagai shitai n desu ga

I'd like to ask (for some information, please)

それはそうですが

p\$

Sore wa so desu qa Well, yes, that's right, but ...

a well, yes, that's right, but...

けれども, けれど, けど, だけど

These conjunctions and some other variations are spoken language equivalents of が, meaning 'but', 'although'. けど is very informal. They are sometimes used at the beginning of a sentence or clause to qualify something previously said:

- このアパートは駅に近くて便利だ。けれどもうるさい Kono apāto wa eki ni chikakute bend da. Keredomo urusai
 This apartment is convenient as it's close to the station.
 However, it's noisy!
- 明日行きたいけれど、明後日テストがある。どうしよう? Ashita ikiai kerado, asatte tesuto ga aru. Dō shiyō I'd like to go tomorrow, but there's a test the day after! What should ido?
 - あいつは馬鹿だ。けど人はいいよね Aitsu wa baka da. **Kedo** hito wa ii vo ne
 - He's a bit of an idiot, but he's friendly パブへ行きたい。だけど、お金がない
 - アンヘイでとい。これと、お金かない Pabu e ikitai. **Dakedo**, o-kane ga nai I want to go to the pub, **but l** don't have any money

のに

のに has two uses. One use is to show purpose. This usage is related to the particle に used for purpose (see p. 161), and to the conjunctive (pre・ます) form + に (see below and pp. 36–37):

このコンピュータはウィンドウズ2000日本語版が入っているので日本語でレポートを善くのに使えます Kono konpytia wa Uindozu ni sen Nihongo-ban ga haitle iru node Nihongo de repôto o **kaku no ni** tsukaemasu

This computer has the Japanese version of Windows (*propr.*) 2000, so it can be used **for writing** reports in Japanese

電子辞書は勉強するのに役立つ

Denshi-jisho wa **benkyō suru no ni** yakudatsu

Electronic dictionaries are useful for studying

The second use of the OIC structure is to link an action of event with an unexpected outcome:

早く行ったのに間に合わなかった

Hayaku itta **no ni** ma ni awanakatta I**n spite** of going early, I wasn't in time

Sometimes the second element is left unstated, in which case the $\mathcal{O}(C)$ ending has the nuance of a complaint, such as 'in spite of the fact that . . .' or 'even though . . .':

せっかく夕飯を作ったのに

Sekkaku yûhan o tsukutta **no ni** E**ven though** I made dinner specially (you didn't comel)

~ても

The \sim T form of a verb or adjective followed by 6 shows that the second element is not what might be expected from the first element, and so is similar to the English 'although', 'even if . . . ':

- 夜遅くても電話してください Yoru osokute mo denwa shite kudasai
- Even if it's late at night, please call me ・ 頭が降っても行きます
- Ame ga futte mo ikimasu 『Il go even if it rains あなたが悪くなくても、謝ってくれませんか Anata na waruku nakuté mo, ayamatte kuremasen ka

Even if you are not in the wrong, could you please say sorry? See also the sections on uses of the $\sim T$ form in the chapters on verbs (p. 38) and adjectives (p. 98). Nouns and Δ adjectives are followed by T b (see below).

でも

 $m {\it T}$ 6 is an equivalent of the \sim $m {\it T}$ form + $m {\it b}$ (see p. 54), but used with nouns:

子供でもできる

Kodomo demo dekiru Even a child can do it

日曜日でも、あの店は開いています

Nichivôbi demo, ano mise wa aite imasu

That store is open even on Sundays

There is also a common use of でも to mark an example in a auggestion:

コートーでもいかがですか?

Kôhli demo ikaga desu ka

~から

Would you like a coffee or something?

~から marks a clause as giving a reason for what follows:

- **開後日試験ですから、勉強しなければならない**
 - Asatte shiken desu kara, benkvő shinakereba naranai I have to study, because there's an exam the day after tomorrow
 - 僕はもう読んだから、貸してあげる
 - Boku wa mô vonda kara, kashite ageru I've already read it, so I'll lend (it) to you
 - 夜は寒くなるから、ジャケットを忘れないでください
- Yoru wa samuku naru kara, jaketto o wasurenaide kudasai It acts cold at night, so don't forget your jacket
- 電車が遅れているから、まだ家に着いていないだろう Densha ga okurete iru kara, mada ie ni tsuite inai darō Because the trains are late, he's probably not reached home yet The order of clauses can be reversed:
- 心配しないでください。お医者さんもうすぐ来るから Shinnai shinaide kudasai. O-isha san mō sugu kuru kara Don't worry (because) the doctor will be here soon

There is also a particle から (see p. 170).

ので

Following the plain or polite forms of verbs and adjectives. ~ので indicates a reason or cause;

安くなりましたので買いましょうか Yasuku narimashita no de, kaimashō ka It's been reduced, so shall we buy it?

- もう食べたので何も要らない
 - Mô tabeta no de nani mo iranai
- I've already eaten, so I don't need anything
- ~ので is linked to preceding nouns and な adjectives with な:
- 今日は雨なので明日にしよう Kvō wa ame na no de ashita ni shivō
 - As it's raining today, let's do it tomorrow
 - ここは有名なので記念写真を握ります

Koko wa **vûmei na no de** kinen-shashin o torimasu This is a well-known spot, so I'll take a souvenir photograph

Both ~ので and ~から can mark a reason or cause, but ~ので differs from ~b in that it is not used for responding to 'Why . . . ?' questions, and does not follow ~だろう・でしょう.

†-₩

ため is a noun that can be used to join two clauses to express cause or reason (see pp. 127-128):

- ほかに意見がないため会議が早めに終った Hoka ni iken ga nai tame kaigi ga hayame ni owatta There were no other opinions, so the meeting finished early
- 明日から出張へ行くため、今日この仕事を終わらせなけれ ばらない Ashita kara shutcho e iku tame, kvo kono shigoto o

owarasenakereba naranai I'm aoing on a business trip tomorrow, so I must get this work

- finished today 交通事故のため今朝は渋滞した Kõtsu jiko no tame kesa wa jütai shita
- We were delayed (in a traffic jam) this morning because of an accident

ために

This shows the target of an action, and so is often translated as 'for (the purpose of)', ために follows nouns and the plain or polite forms of verbs. When following a noun, it requires the particle の:

来年日本へ行くために貯金しています

Rainen Nihon e iku tame ni chokin shite imasu

i am saving money in order to go to Japan next year

- 今の仕事はあまり好きじゃないが、家族のために頑張っている
- lma no shigoto wa amari suki ja nai ga, kazoku no tame ni
- ganbatte iru
 I don't like my current job, but I am doing my best for the family's

ために can also show cause or reason:

台風のために木がたくさん倒れている

Taifû no tame ni ki ga takusan taorete iru Many tirses have fallen because of the typhoon

For orders, requests, and judgements of probability, から or ので must be used instead of ために to show cause or reason:

試験問題を配りますので静かにしなさい

Shiken mondai o **kubarimasu no de** shizuka ni shi nasai **I am going to hand** out the exam question paper, **so** please be quiet.

Conjunctive (pre-ます) form/stem + に

The use of this structure to describe purpose is also discussed in the section on uses of the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem in the chapter on verbs (see pp. 36–37).

With (= + verb of motion

The conjunctive (pre-ます) stem can be used with the particle に and a verb of motion to give an expression meaning 'go and ...', 'come in order to ...', etc.:

今晩映画を見に行きたいです

Konban eiga o **mi ni ikitai** desu I want to **qo and** (= i**n order to**) **eee** a film tonight

 明日、友達が遊びに来る Ashita, tomodachi ga asobi ni kuru: A friend is coming to visit tomorrow

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 ちょっとパンを買いに行ってくる Chotto pan o kai ni itte kuru l'm just aoina to buy some bread

To ioin clauses

This form can be used in formal (usually written) language as an equivalent of the $\sim T$ form when joining clauses to show a sequence of events, or a reason or cause:

- 江藤はタバコに火を点け、昨日のことを考えた Eto wa tabako ni hi o tsuke, kinô no koto o kangaeta Eto lit a cigarette and thought about the events of the previous day
- 斎藤は札幌へ行き、田川に会った Saitō wa Sapporo e Iki, Tagawa ni atta Sato went to Sapporo and met Tagawa
- ~ように

This structure is used to show that the action in the main clause must occur for the action in the subordinate clause to come about. It is commonly used with negatives:

- 間違わないようによく見てください Machigawanai yō ni yoku mite kudasai Watch carefully so that you don't make a mistake
- 荷物を忘れないようにご注意ください Nimotsu o wasurenai yō ni go-chūl kudasai Please take care not to forget your bags

It can also be used with positives:

- 江尻さんに明日来るように言っておいてください Ejiri san ni ashita kuru yō ni itte oite kudasai Please tell Ms Ejiri to come tomorrow
- ように is common with なる to mean that something becomes possible:
- やっと日本の新聞が大体読めるようになりました Yatto nihon no shinbun ga daitai yomeru yō ni narimashita At last lam more or less able to read a Japanese newspaper

仲間岡士と自由に話せるようになりたい

Nakama döshi to liyü ni hanaseru yö ni narital I want to be able to speak easily with my colleagues

ようにする

とうに with する shows action to be taken so that something does

does not occur:

学生がこの部屋に入らないようにしてください Gakusei ga kono heva ni hairanai vo ni shite kudasai

Please make sure that the students do not enter this room

ようにしている

his structure indicates that an action is habitually taken:

- 毎朝30分日本語の勉強をするようにしています
- Majasa sanjuo-oun nihongo no benkvō o suru vō ni shite imasu I (make it a point to) study Japanese for 30 minutes every mornina

Noun phrase + ように

to is a noun (see **nouns**) and is joined to preceding noun phrases rith Φ.

- 日本人のように話せるけど、実はタイ人ですよ
 - Nihoniln no vo ni hanaseru kedo jitsu wa taijin desu yo He speaks like a Japanese but actually he is Thai
 - いつものように校長先生に挨拶した I are sted the head teacher as usual
 - Itsumo no yō ni köchō sensei ni aisatsu shita

Conjunctions of time

The following nouns are used as conjunctions to show a time relationship between two clauses. All of these follow plain forms of verbs. まえ、とき、and あいた can be used with negatives as well as positives.

- ~あと、~あとで'after'
- あと follows a ~た form:

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- 映画を見た後、食事に行きます
 Eiga o mita ato, shokuji ni lkimasu
 After we've seen the film, we'll go for dinner
- ~まえ,~まえに'before'
- 大学へ行く前、ミルクを飲みます Daigaku e Iku mae, miruku o nomimasu I drink milk before I leave for university
- ~とき、~ときに 'while, when'

 子供のときに本をたくさん驚んでもらった
- Kodomo no toki ni hon o takusan yonde moratta When I was a kid. I had lots of books read to me
- ~あいだ,~あいだに'while, during'
- 冬休みの間にスキーが上手になりました Fuyu-yasumi no aida ni sukii ga jōzu ni narimashita I got quita good at skiing over the winter holiday
 - ~まで、~までに 'by, until'
 - 6 時まで勉強しました Roku-ii made benkvö shimashita
 - | studied until 6 o'clock

 「用曜日までに宿題をしなければなりません
 - **Getsuyöbi made ni** shukudai o shinakereba narimasen I have to do the homework **by Monday**
 - ~うちに 'during', 'while' (with a positive), 'before', 'while' (with a negative)
 - 暖かいうちに食べましょう
 Atatakai uchi ni tabemashō
 - Let's eat them while they are still warm ・ 大学へ行っているうちに運転免許を取ります
 - Dalgaku e itte iru uchi ni unten menkyo o torimasu I'll take my driving test when I am (away) at university
 - 雨が降らないうちに片付けた Ame ga furanai uchi ni katazuketa We tidied up before it rained

Particles

What is a particle?

Particles are attached to nouns and other words or phrases to show their grammatical function and role within the sentence or phrase (e.g. topic, subject, direct or indirect object, etc.). They do not occur as independent words. Particles always come after the word, phrase, or clause to which they relate.

The particles $\sim \hbar E S$ and $\sim 4 II$, which are sometimes seen as 'forms' of verbs and adjectives, are treated as a separate section in the chapter on conjunctive particles (see pp. 129–135).

1は

 \Box is used to mark the topic of a sentence, and to express contrast. In this use, \Box is pronounced the same as \Box .

は to mark the topic

 スミスさんはアメリカ人ですか Sumisu san wa Amerikajin deşu ka Is Mr Smith American?

Once a topic is established, it can be left out of subsequent comments, answers, or questions about that topic:

いいえ、カナダ人です

lie, Kanadajin desu No, (he's) Canadian

A new topic will be signalled by a new marked word or phrase:

 スミスさんはカナダ人です。ラパポートさんは? Sumisu san wa Kanadajin desu. Rapapôto san wa? Mr Smith is Canadian, How about Me Rapaport? ラパポートさんも、レグロンさんもアカナダ人ですよ Rapapōto san mo, Reguron san mo Kanadajin desu yo Ms Rappaport and Mr Legrand are Canadian too

The part of the sentence following the topic is the predicate. The predicate can identify the topic, or explain it, or comment on it, or enquire about it (see p. 5). In the translations in brackets below, the topic particle it can be thought of as the colon, pointing forward to the predicate, i.e. the statement or question following the colon:

- 松原はサラリーマンです
 - Matsubara wa sarariiman desu

Matsubara i**s a 'salaryman'** (Matsubara: he's a white-collar worker)

松原は英語が上手だ

Matsubara wa Elgo ga jōzu da

Matsubara's English is good (Matsubara: his English is good)

松原はめがねをかけている人です

Matsubara wa megane o kakete iru hito desu

Matsubara le the person wearing glasses (Matsubara: he's the one wearing glasses)

There is no real equivalent in English for the topic particle. However, translating t t with 'as for' can give a sense of how it is used, and show why the following two sentences, which have the same $\sim t t \sim \pi \epsilon$ structure, are very different in English. The context of the first is a discussion of neonle's whereabours, and the second

- is ordering food in a restaurant:

 ・ 関部さんは京都です
 - Abe san wa Kvoto desu As for Abe, he's in Kvoto
- 僕はうなぎだ

Boku wa unagi da As for me, I'll have the est

In conversational Japanese, a verb in the predicate following it can be replaced by Æ: Tf if the meaning of the verb is implied by the context, as in the example above. The predicate is commonly omitted altogether when it is an obvious question, such as 'What is ...?' or 'How about...?'

お名前は?

(What is) your name?

O-namae wa?

明日は? Ashita wa? (How about) tomorrow?

cannot be used in a subordinate clause, and is replaced by #:

地震は私が結婚した年に記きました

・地震は私が結婚した年に起きました - Jishin wa **watashi ga kekkon shita toshi** ni okimashita

The earthquake occurred the year I got married 京野さんが薫めてくれた本は何でしたか

京野さんか薦めてくれた本は何でしたか

Kyōno san ga susumete kureta hon wa nan deshita ka What was the book that Mr Kyono recommended?

は cannot be used with interrogatives such as どこ 'where', だれ who', and なに 'what', Instead, が is used:

誰が電話しましたか

Dare ga denwa shimashita ka

Who telephoned?

は also marks a previously identified and understood topic about which further information is to be added or a question asked: (は) と「が」の違いか。それは時間がかかるのでまた明日話

しましょう
Wa' to 'ga' no chigai ka. **Sore wa** jikan ga kakaru node mata

"Wa' to 'ga' no chigai ka. **Sore wa** jikan ga kakaru node mati ashita hanashimashō

The difference between 'wa' and 'ga'? That will take some time, so let's talk about it tomorrow

t is commonly used in this way with こ・そ・あ・ど words to efer back to previously mentioned topics. For more information, see the section on extended use of こ・そ・あ・ど words (n. 190).

(‡ can also be used to change the focus of a sentence so that it is viewed from a different perspective. Compare the following sentences which show the change of focus on the key element ('photos') as a topic:

観光客が写真を撮りました

Kankōkyaku ga **shashin o** torimashita A tourist took **photos**

この写真は観光客が撮りました

Kono shashin wa kankökyaku ga torimashita These photos were taken by a tourist

T**hese photos** were taken by a tourist

は to show contrast

ta can show a contrast between two elements. In this use, more than one instance of ta in a single sentence is possible. The items to be contrasted are both marked with ta:

 今日は行きませんが明日は行きます Kvö wa ikimasen ga ashita wa ikimasu

I am not agina today, but I am agina tomorrow

The contrast can be implied, in which case only one element is present and marked:

. ● 日本語は難しくない

Nihongo wa muzukashiku nai

Japanese isn't difficult (but other languages are)

 込んでいるから図書館では勉強できません Konde iru kara toshokan dewa benkyō dekimasen Because it's crowded, I can't study in the Ilbrary (but I can study elsewhere)

t in negative sentences

The use of 12 in negative sentences is related to the function of contrast. In the following sentence, the implication is that, although the English-kanji dictionary is not available, there are other dictionaries which are:

- oner dictionaries which are.
- 漢英辞典はありません
 - Kaneijiten wa arimasen | don't have an English-kanii dictionary

This can be explicitly stated using the $\sim 12 \sim 12$ of contrast

described above:

 漢英辞典はありません。漢和辞典はあります

Kaneijiten wa arimasen. Kanwajiten wa arimasu I don't have an English-kanji dictionary, (but) I do have a Japanese-kanji dictionary This function of contrast is apparent in the use of (# between a ~T form and a strong negative:

たばこを吸ってはいけない

Tahako o sutte wa ikenaj You must not emoke

The negative sense of words like だめ and こまる, which indicate

- indesirable outcomes, allows the same structure:

 彼女に仕事について話しては困る。まだ何も決まっていない
 Kanojo nj shigoto nj tsuite hanashite wa komaru. Maga nani
- mo kimatle inai . It could cause problems **if you were to talk to her about the job.** Nothina has been decided yet

with other particles

は combines with other particles if these are being used with a noun or phrase which is to be the topic, or to be contrasted. This results in double particles such as には、では、とは、へは、からは、etc.:

- ここではたばこを吸わないでください
 Koko de wa tabako o suwanaide kudasai
 - Please don't smoke (in) here
- 庭には、二羽 薄がいる Niwa ni wa niwa niwatori ga iru
- There are two chickens in the garden

 大とはもう一緒に仕事したくない

Otto to wa mô issho ni shigoto shitaku nai I don't want to work together with my husband again!

However, the addition of (\sharp) to a word or phrase marked with & or m causes the & or m to be dropped:

- 田中さんがやるというのはどうですか
 Tanaka san ga yaru to iu no wa dô desu ka
 How about Mr Tanaka doina it?
- いや。田中はだめだ。山田にやらせよう
 iya. Tanaka wa dame da. Yamada ni yaraseyō
 No. Not Tanaka. Let's aet Yamada to do it
- こちらに名前を書いてください Kochira ni namae o kaite kudasai Please write your name here

名前は性・名の順で書いてください

Namae wa sei-mei no jun de kaite kudasai

Please write your name with the surname first, then your first name

When **b** is added to a word or phrase indicating the topic, it replaces **b** (see **b** below):

私も 行きます。

Watashi mo ikimasu I'm going, too

しが

 \mathfrak{M} links the subject with the predicate (see p, s), but as many Japanese predicates describe states in a way that English equivalents do not, the most common uses of \mathfrak{M} are listed below.

 \mathcal{M} can often be replaced by $|\mathcal{A}|$, either for contrast or to focus on the subject as a topic. This means that the choice of $|\mathcal{A}|$ or \mathcal{M} in a particular case can be complicated by questions of context and the speaker's intent.

To introduce a new subject

A new subject is often marked with が, but then with は thereafter, as in the typical むかしばなし 'fairy tale' opening below. Note that the distinction is marked in English by the change from 'a' to 'the'.

* 昔々、近辺に漁館が一人で体んでいました。漁師はくいと

釣竿をとても大事にしました Mukashi mukashi, hamabe ni **ryōshi ga** hitori de sunde imashita. **Ryōshi wa** gui to tsurizao o totemo daiji ni shimashita

Once upon a time there was a fisherman living alone by the sea. The fisherman took great care of his tackle and rod

Subsequent references to the fisherman will be a mixture of $t \ddagger$ and t # according to whether he is a subject or topic.

To mark the subject of a sentence

indicates the subject of a sentence:

お金がありません
 O-kane ga arimesen Lhav

sen I have no **money**/There ien't any **money**

窓が開いている

Mado ga aite iru The window is open

子どもが三人います

Kodomo ga san-nin imasu There are three children

With potential verbs and verbs of ability

is used with the subject of potential verbs (see **potential form**): ロンア語ができますか

Roshlago ga dekimasu ka Can you speak Russian?

魚が食べられない Sakana qa taberarenai | Loan't eat fish

が is used in the same way with other verbs showing ability, such

漢字が少し分かります

Kanii ga sukoshi wakarimasu I understand a few kanji

With verbs of perception

is used to mark the subject of verbs of perception, such as those meaning 'see', 'hear', 'taste', and 'smell':

あの音が聞こえますか

Ano oto ga kikoemasu ka Can you hear that noise?

飛行機から富士山が見えた Hikōki kara **Fujisan ga** mieta — I saw **Mt Fuji** from the plane

mikoki kara **rujisan ga** miela i saw **mt ruji** from the plar 角の味がする

無の味かする Sakana no aji ga suru

It tastes of fish

醤油の匂いがする

Shoyu no nioi ga suru It smells of soy sauce

With objects of desire and need

が marks the object of desire with ~たい and ほしい, and the object of need with いる and ひつよう:

庭の広い家が欲しい

Niwa no hirol le ga hoshii | want a house with a large garden

南アメリカへ行くなら予防注射が要る

Minami Amerika e iku nara vobochūsha ga iru If you are going to South America you will need inoculations

See also the discussion of ~たい in the chapter on verbs (~たい)

が marks the object of like or dislike with すき and きらい, and the name of the skill with じょうず and へた:

日本の食べ物が好きです

Nihon no tabemono ga suki desu l like Japanese food ポールさん、日本語がとても上手です。

Pōru san, Nihongo ga totemo jōzu desu

With adjectives of like/dislike and skill

Paul, your Japanese is very good

With two different subjects が is used in subordinate clauses in place of は (see は above), or when the subject of the two clauses is different:

僕が電話したとき夏美はもういなかった

Boku qa denwa shita toki Natsumi wa mō inakatta When I telephoned her, Natsumi had already left

弟が日本に来たら日光に連れて行きたい Otôto ga Nihon ni kitara Nikkō ni tsurete ikitai When my brother comes to Japan, I'd like to take him to Nikko

With question words

が is used with question words such as だれ, いつ, etc. (cannot be used);

- 離が来ましたか
- Dare oa kimashita ka Who came? 夏休みに行くでしょう。いつがいい?
- Natsu vasumi ni iku deshō. Itsu qa ii? We're going in the summer holiday, aren't we? When will be good?

There is also a conjunction \$5 (see pp. 140-141).

1を

To mark a direct object

★ marks the direct object of a transitive verb (see pp. 87-91):

- 審は毎朝ご飯を食べる
- 家は毎朝ご飯を食べる
 Uchi wa maiasa gohan o taberu
 - o taberu We eat rice every morning
- 母は台所でテレビを見ます
 Haha wa daidokoro de terebi o mimasu

Mum watches TV in the kitchen Te mark the area in which movement occurs

₹ marks the point from which movement begins:

- 大学前でバスを降ります
 Daigaku mae de basu o orimasu
- Get off the bus in front of the university
- 僕は駅を出て、喫茶店の方へ歩いた Boku wa eki o dete, kissaten no hô e aruita I came out of the station and walked towards the coffee shop

The point from which movement begins can be abstract:

- 今年の6月大学を卒業しました Kotoshi no roku-gatsu daigaku o sotsugyō shimashita
- I graduated from university in June this year

 also marks the space through which movement occurs:
- also marks the space through which movement occ
- 次の信号を右に曲がってください
 Tsugi no shingo o migi ni magatte kudasai
 - Please turn right at the next traffic light
 - 仕事の帰りは下町の狭い道を通る
 - 仕事の帰りは下町の狭い週を通る Shigoto no kaeri wa **shitamachi no semai michi o** tōru
- On my way home from work I go through the narrow streets of the downtown area

With the names of occupations

を is used with the names of occupations and する to describe the ob someone does:

 川北さんはニューヨークで弁護士をしている Kawakita san wa Nyū Yöku de bengoshi o shite iru Kawakita Is a lawyer in New York

See also the sections on passive and causative forms of the verb (pp. 70-73 and pp. 74-80).



To show the location of an action

To marks the place where an action occurs:

 僕は毎日図書館で勉強している Boku wa mainichi toshokan de benkyō shite iru

| study every day at the library

Note that when the place is where something exists, and not where there is an action, it is marked with [□ (see below).

To show the means of doing something

♥ is also used to mark the means of doing something, or the instrument used:

- 電車で大学に通っています
 - Densha de dalgaku ni kayotte imasu I commute to university by train
- お箸でご飯を食べる
- o-hashi de gohan o taberu eat with chopsticks

 日本では千円弱で外食ができる
 - Nihon dewa sen-en jaku de gaishoku ga dekiru In Japan you can eat out for less than 1,000 yen

With superlatives

T' is used with superlatives to show the limit of a group from which a selection is made:

 このクラスで一番日本語ができる子はリンさんです Kono kurasu de ichiban Nihongo ga dekiru ko wa Rin san desu The person in this class whose Japanese is the best is Lynne

To show the end of a time period

r shows when a period of time finishes:

会議は3時で終わる

Kaigi wa san-ii de owaru The meeting will end at 3 o'clock

おじさんが50歳で引張しました Oiisan da go-jus-sai de intai shimashita My uncle retired at 50

To show reason

Another use of T is to show cause, although this is actually the conjunctive ($\sim \tau$) form of \mathcal{E} (see p. 15) rather than the particle:

製子は原邪で学校を休んだ Michiko wa kaze de gakkō o yasunda Michiko was off school with a cold

HE

To mark points in time

marks points in time which can be expressed in numbers, such s time and date, and also days of the week:

6時に記きる

roku-ji ni okiru aet up at 6 o'clock

火曜日に行きます Kayōbi ni ikimasu I'll go on Tuesday

Vords of relative time (i.e. those where the time is relative to then the statement is made), such as 'today', 'tomorrow',

next week', are not marked with C:

あさってピアノの調律師が来る Asatte piano no chôritsushi na kuru

The piano tuner is coming the day after tomorrow

Use of IC is optional with seasons:

今年の秋(に)結婚するつもりです Kotoshi no aki (ni) kekkon suru tsumori desu We intend to get married this autumn

C marks the intervals at which something occurs:

年に一回実家に帰ります

Nen ni ik-kai jikka ni kaerimasu

I go home (to my parents' home) once a year

[C is used with the verbs 112 and \$5 to mark the place where something exists:

駅の前にスーパーがあります

Eki no mae ni sūpā ga arimasu

There is a supermarket in front of the etation
・ 子どもは際にいる

Kodomo wa niwa ni iru The children are in the garden To mark location

C marks location words:

テーブルの下にあります

・ アーフルの下にあります
Teburu no **shita ni** arimasu — It'e **under** the table

ボケットの中に千円札が二枚ありました

Poketto no naka ni sen-en-satsu ga ni-mai arimashita In my pocket there were two thousand-yen notes

 \mathbb{C} marks the location for verbs describing states (the location of an action is marked with \mathbb{C}):

彼らはテーブルに座っている

Kerera wa tëburu ni suwatte iru They are sittina at the table

They are sitting at the table

• 兄は大阪に住んでいます

Hama san wa san-jú-nen **onaji kaisha ni** tsutometa Mr Hama worked **for the eame company f**or 30 years

IC marks the place towards which movement occurs (see also △):

 横浜に行く Yokohama ni iku ao to Yokohama

* 家に帰ります

uchi ni kaerimasu go home

also marks the place into which movement occurs:

大が部屋に入った

Inu ga heya ni haitta A dog came into the room

冷蔵庫に入れてください

Reizōko ni irete kudasai Please put it in the fridge

To show purpose

When used with the conjunctive (pre-ます) form of a verb, and certain nouns, に shows purpose:

- 私たちはカナダから勉強に来ました Watashitachi wa Kanada kara benkyō ni kimashita We came from Canada (in order) to study
- 今日の帰りちょっと飲みに行かない? Kyō no kaeri chotto nomi ni ikanai? Will you come for a drink on the way home?
- ・ ・ ちょっと卵を買いに行ってくる ・ Chotto tamago o **kai ni** itte kuru
 - 『m just going out **to buy** eggs ・ 私は寿司にします Wateshi wa **sushi ni** shimasu 『li have the **sushi** if [Ve decided to order the **sushi**]

To mark an indirect object

to marks the indirect object ('to', 'for') with verbs of giving and receiving, or where an action is performed for someone's benefit:

 姉に本を上げました Ane ni hon o agemashita I gave my s

l gave **my sister** a book

経緯を先生に話した kisatsu o sensel ni hanashita

I explained the background circumstances to the teacher

高雄は毎週お母さんに手紙を書いています。

Takao wa maishū **okāsan ni** tegami o kaite imasu Takao writes **to hie mother** every week

- ジャックはアルバイトで今井先生の子どもに英語を教える Jakku wa arubaito de Imai sensei no kodomo ni eigo o oshieru Jack will have a part-time job teaching English to Imai sensei's children
- 父は家族のために頑張っている
 Chichi wa kazoku no tame ni gambatte iru
 My father is doing his best for the sake of the family

With verbs which imply receiving something, the source is marked with (2) (but see also 20 b) below)

- 母にズボンをもらいました
 - Haha ni zubon o moralmashita I got some trousers from my mum
- 皆さんに素敵なお土産をいただいてありがとうございます Minasan ni suteki-na omiyage o itadaite arigatō gozaimasu I am very grateful for the wonderful present I have received from you all
- ショウ先生に習った日本語が役に立ちました
 Shō sensei ni naratta Nihongo ga yaku ni tachimashita
 The Japanese I learned from Shaw sensei was very useful
- 宿題ができたら日本人の友達に見てもらった Shukudai ga dekitara Nihonjin no tomodachi ni mite moratta When my homework wae finiehed, I got a Japanese friend to look at it
- 日本に留学したとき白石先生に大変お世話になりました Nihon ni ryūgaku shita toki Shiraishi sensei ni taihen o-sewa ni narimashita

Professor Shiraishi kindly looked after me when I was studying in Japan

With passive and causative verbs

C shows the agent who performs the action in passive, causative, and causative-passive sentences (see pp. 70-80):

- 先生に怒られました

- 子供たちに部屋を片づけさせた Kodomotachi ni heva o katazukesaseta
- I made the children tidy the room
- **※ 父に勉強させられた**
- の Chichi ni benkvo saserareta
 - I was made to study by my father

with conjunctive (pre-ます) form and なる to form honorifics に is used with the conjunctive (pre-ます) form + なる to create

an honorific form for certain verbs:

- この証は天皇陛下がお書き二なりました
- Kono shō wa tenno heika ga o-kaki ni narimashita
 This certificate was written by the emperor himself

For more information and examples, see the section on keigo

(p. 213).

with なる to indicate change

に with the verb なる 'to become' indicates change:

- 卒業して小学校の先生になりたい
 - Sotsugyō shite **shōgakkō no sensel ni** naritai After aradustina I want to be a **primary teacher**

to make adverbial forms

t is also used with t adjectives to make adverbial forms **(see** pp. 106~107, 120):

- 静かにしなさい
- Shizuka ni shi nasai Please be quiet
- ゆっくり休んだので元気になりました Yukkuri yasunda no de **genki ni** parimashita
 - I had a good rest, so I feel fully recovered

Note also the expression しけんに うかる・試験に受かる 'to pass an exam'.

See also the section on よう (に) in the chapter on conjunctive particles (pp. 146–147), and the section on こと (にする and になる) in the chapters on nominalizers

(pp. 206–208, 211–212) and verbs (pp. 93–94).

12

The particle & connects nouns to mean 'and':

- リトルさんは日本語と韓国語とロシア語が話せます Ritoru san wa Nihongo to Kankokugo to Roshiago ga
- hanasemasu Mr Little can speak Japanese, Korean, and Russian

ご飯とみそ汁 gohan to miso shiru rice, and miso sour

The use of \succeq means that the list is exhaustive. In a menu, for example, the above would mean 'rice with miso soup, and nothing

else'. (Compare this with the use of * described below.) The interpretation 'and' can be extended to mark reciprocity. This can often translate as 'with':

友達と行きました

Tomodachi to ikimashita | I went with a friend

先週家族と映画を見に行った Senshū kazoku to eiga o mi ni itta

Last week | went with my family to see a movie

E is used in this sense where there is a mutual or reciprocal

element, such as with the verbs 'to marry', 'to talk (with)'. 'to be the same as/different from': 私は日本人と結婚しています

Watashi wa Nihonlin to kekkon shite imasu I'm married to a Japanese (and he is married to me)

仕事は前と同じだ Shigoto wa mae to onaii da

The job is the same as before 昨日の険母と話しました

King on han haha to hanashimashita

Last night I spoke with mum (and she spoke with me) ¿ is also used to mark a quotation, and with verbs indicating

asking, speaking, and thinking (especially いう 'to say' and おもう 'to think'):

臭さんによろしくと言いました

Okusan ni voroshiku to iimashita

- She sent her regards to you (She said Give my regards to your wife)
- 部品は明日届くと聞いた
 Ruhin wa ashita todoku **to kiita**
- | Bunin wa ashita todoku to kiita | heard the parts will arrive tomorrow
- 日本の大学で勉強したいと思います
 Nihon no daigaku de benkyö shitai to omoimasu
 I think l'd like to study at a Japanese university

と is used idiomatically in the expression という to identify or give more information about the noun which follows, and is often translated as 'called':

- これは日本語で何と言いますか Kore wa Nihongo de nan to iimasu ka What do you call this in Japanese?
- 前橋という市を聞いたことがありますか Maebashi to iu shi o kiita koto ga arimasu ka
- Have you heard of a city called Macbashi?

 大郷さんという人から電話がありました
 Osato san to iu hito kara derwa ga arimashila
 There was a phone call from someone called Osato

E marks manner with adverbs, especially in sound symbolism (see v. 118):

- 外で突然犬がワンワンとほえはじあました Soto de totsuzen inu ga wanwan to hoehajimemashita Suddenly the doa beaan to bark 'woof woof' outside
- 行くか行かないかはっきりと決めなさい Iku ka ikanai ka hakkiri to kime nasai Decide definitely whether or not you are going

Note that there is also a conjunction $\succeq (see p. 135)$ which has a different use.

10

The particle \mathcal{O} is used to show a relationship between nouns or noun phrases where the first element modifies the second (see p. 209). In English translations, the modifying element usually comes first, but in some cases can also be second:

ともだちの おかあさん

my friend's mother/the mother of my friend

The addition of \mathcal{O} can have a function similar to that of the apostrophe plus 's' in English:

- これは恵子の辞書です
- Kore wa **Keiko no** jisho desu This is **Keiko's** dictionary

 ・ 田中さんのお家は右側にあります
- * 田中さんのお家は石橋にあります
 Tanaka san no o-uchi wa migigawa ni arimasu
 Me Tanaka's home is on the right

However, the English equivalents will vary and not always have the apostrophe:

- 日本語の辞書
 - Nihongo no jisho a Japanese dictionary
- 3時の授業
- san-ji no jugyō the 3 o'clock class ・ 中国からの留学生が増えています
 - Chūgoku kara no ryūgakusei ga fuete imasu
 - Exchange students from China are increasing in number

The addition of \mathcal{O} to a word indicating a person shows possession, and is often equivalent to the English 'my', 'her', 'my sister's', etc.:

- ・ 父の友達
- chichi no tomodachi a friend of my father
- 私の車はあそこです
 Watashi no kuruma wa asoko desu
 My car is over there

This usage is wider than the English equivalent:

マンチェスター大学のバントです

- Manchesută daigaku no Banto desu
 - My name is Bunt, from Manchester University

- 6 () 藤の女の人
 - roku-ius-sai no onna no hito

a woman of 60

リモコンはテレビの上にある。

Rimokon wa **terebi no** ue ni aru The remote control is on top of the TV

he noun following O can sometimes be omitted if it is clear on the context, and so is similar to the English 'mine', 'yours',

これは像のです

Kore wa boku no desu This is mine

At the end of a sentence. O indicates a question fusually to confirm and add detail to known information), and is a stylistic marker for female speech:

- 何時に行くの?
 - Nan-ii ni iku no What time are you agina?
- O can be used instead of M with subjects in modifying clauses:
- アニーの買ってくれたワインはとてもおいしかった Anii no katte kureta wain wa toterno oishikatta
 - The wine that Annie bought (for us) was really delicious

is also a nominalizer (see p. 206) and a pronoun (p. 239).

- 🗜 🔨 indicates motion towards a goal or a person. It is generally interchangeable with (C:
 - いつ日本へ行きますか
 - Itsu Nihon e ikimasu ka When are you going to Japan? 弟へ撃生日のカードを送らなかった
 - Ototo e tanjobi no kádo o okuranakatta I didn't send a birthday card to my brother

1 \$

to marks equivalence in the sense of 'also', 'both . . . and . . . ':

彼女はピアノもギターも弾ける
Kanojo wa **piano mo gitā mo** hikeru
She can play **both the plano and the quitar**

The equivalent element is often implied from the context:

私も行きたい

Watashi mo ikitai I want to go too

日本でも環境汚染がひどかった

Nihon demo kankyō osen ga hidokatta In Japan as well, the environmental pollution was appalling

to also marks emphasis and is added to interrogatives to produce

words such as the following:

いつも any time, all the time

だれも nobady

なにも nothing

どこも anywhere, nowhere

あの家のカーテンはいつも閉まっています

Ano ie no kâten wa **itsumo** shimatte imasu The curtains in that house are **always** shut

 私がうそをついたことを難も知りません Watashi ga uso o tsuita koto o daremo shirimasen

Nobody knows that I lied

 何回も何回もお願いしたけれどダメでした Nan-kai mo nan-kai mo n-negai shita keredo dame da

Nan-kal mo nan-kal mo o-negai shita keredo dame di I've asked again and again, but it's no good

With words indicating extent and amount, **6** can mean 'even . . .' or 'not even . . .', depending on whether the predicate is positive or negative:

新聞も読める

Shinbun mo yomeru I can even read a newepaper

新聞も詰めない

Shinbun mo yomenai | can't even read a newspaper

 千円もしません Sen-en mo shimasen

sen-en mo snimasen It doesn't even cost 1,000 yen/It costs less than 1,000 yen

千円もします Sen-en mo shimasu

It costs as much as 1,000 yen

The use of \bullet with the \sim τ form is described in the relevant sections on verbs and adjectives. See also $\tau \bullet$ below.

か

to is used at the end of sentences to mark questions (these can be the the properties):

- いつ日本へ行きますか
 - (tsu Nihon e ikimasu ka When are you going to Japan?
- お手洗いはどこですか
 O-tearai wa doko desu ka Where is the toilet?
- 飯田さんは明日来ないか lida san wa ashita konai ka
- So lida isn't coming tomorrow then!
- is also used within sentences to indicate uncertainty, or to mark alternatives:
 - 来年オランダへ行けるかどうか分かりません Rainen Oranda e **ikeru ka dō ka** wakarimasen
- Idon't know if I can go to Holland (or not) next yearスペイン語かイタリア語かもう一つの科目を選ぶ
- Supeingo ka Itariago ka mō hitotsu no kamoku o erabu I am going to choose one more subject. Spanish or Italian?

だって

this is だ plus a contracted form of という. See below under って.

って

This is a contracted form of the particle \not and the verb (\cancel{N}) . It can indicate either a topic (first example) or report (second example):

辞書ってどこ? Jisho tte doko? Where is the dictionary? さっきの電話は大渕だった。もう着いたって Sakki no denwa wa Ōbuchi datta. Mô tsuita tte That phone call just now was from Obuchi. He sald he'd arrived

から

The basic meaning of から is 'from':

授業は10時からです

Jugyō wa j**ü-ji kara** desu Classes are from 10 o'clock

大学は駅から違いですか Daigaku wa eki kara toj desu ka

Is the university far from the station?

から can also mark the source in giving and receiving, in place of IT:

兄からジャケットをもらいました Ani kara jaketto o moraimashita

l got a jacket from my brother

母から手紙が届きました Haha kara tegami oa todokimashita

A letter came from mum ト原さんとの結婚を弟さんから聞いた

Liebara san to no kekkon o **otôtosan kara** kiita I heard about you getting married to Mr Hehara from your brother

から is used to mean 'from' with named organizations (where the use of (C is ungrammatical):

日本の政府から奨学金をもらった

Nihon no selfu kara shōqakukin o moratta I received a scholarship from the Japanese government (There is also a conjunction から whose possible English

equivalents include 'because' and 'after', See p. 143.)

まで

*T is used to mark a limit (of time, space, etc.):

プルバイトは夜 6 時から 1 0 時までです Arubaito wa voru roku-ii kara i**ŭ-ii made** desu

. My part-time job is from 6 to 10 p.m.

駅まで一緒に行きましょう

Let's go as far as the station together

Let's go as far as the station together :大学に入るまで毎日3時間ピアノの練習をした

Dalgaku ni hairu made mainichi san-jikan piano no renshū o

shita

Up until I was at university, I practised the piano for 3 hours

every day

まで can also be used to show the most extreme extent to which an action might lead:

駐車違反だけで強制送還まではしないでしょう

Chushaihan dake de **kyöseisökan made** wa shinai deshō Surely they wouldn't go **so far as deporting me** for a parking offence?

When まで is followed by the particle に, it emphasizes the point at which the time period finishes, e.g. when giving a deadline:

 レボートは来週の木曜日までに提出してください
 Repōto wa raishū no mokuyōbi made ni no teishutsu shite kudasai

Please hand in the essay by Thursday next week

1より

្នុំ ្ម / 9 is the particle of comparison, and means 'than' or 'rather than':

- 事立は大阪より寒いです
 - Tokyo wa **Ösaka yori** samui desu Tokyo is colder than **Osaka**
 - 日本語はフランス語よりやさしい Nihongo wa Furansugo yori yasashii Japanese is casier than French
 - 1人で行くより2人で行くのがいい **Hitori de iku yori** futari de iku no ga ii It's better to go together **than (to go) alone**

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より is also used to mean 'from' in relation to a point in space or time, similar to から:

6番線に電車がまいりますので黄色い線より内側に下がってください。

Roku-ban-sen ni densha ga mairimasu no de **kiiroi sen yori** uchigawa ni sagatte kudasai
A train is arriving at platform 6, so please step back **behind** the **vellow** line

・ これより先危ないですから気をつけてください Kore yori saki abunai desu kara ki o tsukete kudasai

From this point on it's dangerous, so please be careful

・ 使のアパートは信号より手前にあります

Boku no apāto wa shingō vori lemae ni airmasu

My apartment is just before the traffic lights ${\bf L}$ ${\bf U}$ can mark the time or place of starting as a formal equivalent

見今より演奏が始まります

只今より演奏が始まります
 Tadalma vori enso ca haiimarimasu

Tadalma yori ensö ga hajimari. The recital will **now** commence

In this usage it is sometimes used to sign off letters:

• 沢井明上り

* 近井明より Sawai Akira yori from/sincerely, Akira Sawai

しでも

 \mathcal{T} $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is an equivalent of the $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form of verbs and adjectives, with $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ (see p.54). It is used to mark emphasis ('even'), or hypothetical situations ('even if . . . '):

・子供でもできる Kodomo demo dekiru Even a child can do it

 ${\cal T}$ ${\bf \dot b}$ is also used to introduce a disagreement, or add a condition to something previously said:

でも人によって違うでしょう
 Demo hito ni yotte chigau deshō
 However, it's probably different from person to person

くらいorぐらい

This indicates an approximate amount or extent:

- 駅はここから歩いて30分ぐらいです
- Eki wa koko kara aruite **san-jup-pun gurai** desu. The station is **about 30 minutes** walk from here
- 大学でどのくらい日本語を勉強しましたか
- 大子でこのくらい日本語を超速しましたが Baigaku de **dono kurai** Nihongo o benkyō shimashita ka
- How much Japanese did you study in university?
- ₹51\ is used in comparisons to mean 'as . . . as . . . ':
- ・ 部長のゴルフはプロぐらいト手です
- Buchō no gorufu wa **puro gural** iōzu desu
- The manager's golf is as good as that of a professionall
- \$60 is only used with periods of time, and not with points in
- ime, in which case the noun 23 is used as a suffix:
- 6時ごろ
 - roku-ji **goro about** 6 o'clock
- 何時ごろ帰りますか
- Nan-ji goro kaerimasu ka About what time will you come home?
- See also numbers and counting p. 204.

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its particle sets a limit ('to the extent of . . . ', 'as far as . . . ') or hows an approximate amount:

- ペンが持てないほど手が痛い
- Pen ga motenai hodo te ga itai
- My hand hurts so much that I can't hold a pen

 2 0 0 人ほど収察できる職義室がある
- 200人ほど収容できる調義室がある
 Ni-hyaku-nin hodo shūyō dekiru kögishitsu ga aru
 There's a lecture theatre that can hold up to 200 people

 ${\tt I\!\!\! B}\,{\tt E}$ is commonly used in comparisons with the meaning 'not as (much) as . . . ' when the predicate is negative:

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私はスティーブほどビールが飲めません Watashi wa Sutiibu hodo biiru ga nomemasen

can't drink as much beer as Steve 日本は高い。でも人が言うほどじゃない。 Nihon wa takai. Demo hito ga lu hodo ja nai

Japan is expensive but not as much as people say The idiomatic construction ~ II ~ II F means 'the more th

more . . . ': 大きければ大きいほどいい

The bigger, the better Õkikereba õkii hodo ii 漢字は書けば書くほど、よく身につく Kanji wa kakeba kaku hodo yoku mi ni tsuku

The more you write kanji, the more you remember them

1ばかり.ばっかり

ばかり shows a limit of amount, and is often translated as 'only'

'just'. It can mean 'not only . . . but also . . . ' with a negative:

今年はいいことばかりあった Kotoshi wa ii koto bakari atta

This year only good things happened

好きなものばかり食べては行けません Suki-na mono bakari tabete wa ikemasen

happened:

It's not good to eat just the things you like 本ばかり禁んでいないで外で遊びなさい Hon bakari yonde inaide soto de asobi nasai Don't just read books - play outside! ばかり is used with the ~た form to show that something has just

日本から帰ったばかりだ Nihon kara **kaetta bakari** da I have only just returned from Japan

It is also used with a negative nuance to mean 'nothing but . . . ': 天野君は勉強しない。遊んでばかりいる

Amano kun wa benkyō shinai. Asonde bakari iru Amano isn't studying. He does nothing but mess around men emphasizing a reason, ばかり is used to mean 'simply rause . . . ':

私は外国人と結婚したばかりに父に勘当された

Watashi wa gaikokulin to kekkon shita bakari ni chichi ni kando

sareta My father discounsed me just because I married a foreigner

だけ

ピけ shows a limited quantity ('only', 'just'):

彼女だけ弁当を持ってきました Kanolo dake bento o motte kimashita

Only she brought a packed lunch

この CD は5百円だけでした

Kono shiidii wa go-hyaku-en dake deshita

This CD was only 500 yen

掛 is used with ではなく to express 'not only . . . but also . . . ':

ティーブは日本語だけではなく韓国語もロシア語も話せるよ Sutiibu wa Nihongo dake dewa naku Kankokugo mo Roshiago mo hanaseru vo

Steve speaks not only Japanese but also Korean and Russian はis also used in the expressions おすきなだけ 'as much as you 態ke', and できるだけ 'as much as possible':

お春司をお好きなだけ食べてください

O-sushi o o-suki-na dake tabete kudasai Please eat as much sushi as you like

できるだけ早く来てください Dekiru dake hayaku kite kudasai

Please come as early as possible

さえ

さえ is used for emphasis to mean '(not) even':

上野先生さえ知らない字でした Ueno sensel sae shiranai ii deshita

It was a kanii character that not even Professor Ueno knew

 干円さえあったらあの本が買えたんだ
 Sen-en sae attara ano hon ga kaeta n da lf l'd had even just 1,000 yen l could have bought the book

ししか

This particle is always used with a negative predicate, and shows limit in the sense of 'merely', 'no more than':

- ニューヨークには 2日しか いませんでした
 Nyū Yōku niwa futsuka shika imasen deshita
- We were only in New York for two days
 1000円しかない

Sen-en shika nai I have only got 1,000 yen

Used with verbs, $L \mathcal{D}$ is used to mean 'there is nothing to do

にそ

This adds emphasis, but English translations will vary considerably:

 来年こそ合格したい Rainen koso gökaku shitai

NEXT year I want to pass (the exam)i

 だからこそ怒っている Dakara koso okotte iru THAT's why I am angry!

こそ is used in the expression こちらこそ meaning 'Not at all' when responding to thanks:

どうも ありがとう ございました
 Dōmo arigatō gozaimashita Thank you very much

・ こちらこそ Kochira koso Not at all!

1など

etc.

など indicates that the given example is only one item from a list, and so has a meaning similar to 'and so on', 'etc.':

- 日本語はロシア語などスラブ言語族とは違います Nihongo wa Roshiago nado Surabu gengozoku towa chigaimasu Japanese ie different from Glavonic languages such as Russian
- お茶など一杯どうですか
 O-cha nado ip-pai dó desu ka
 Would you like tea or comethina?

12

は is used to express emphasis or agreement with someone, and is also used to seek confirmation. This is in some ways similar to 1ag questions in English (e.g., 'sin' it!', 'aren' tyou?', 'don't they?', etc.'). The function of ね is to mark information as already known to the listener. In written dialogue, ね is also found written as max and 和本.

量いですわ

Atsui desu ne It'e hot, Isn't It

そうですね

Sō desu ne Yes, you're right!

日本語は上手だね

Nihongo wa jozu da ne Your Japanese is very good!

高かったね

Takakatta ne It was expensive, wasn't it?

いいですね

li desu **ne** That's good/I'm pleased to hear it

日曜の試合は2時からですね Nichiyō no shiai wa ni-ji kara desu **ne**

The match on Sunday is from 2 o'clock, right?

The match on Sunaay is from 2,0 clock, right 吉田さんは明日来るでしょうかね

Yoshida san wa ashita kuru deshō ka ne I suppose Yoshida's comina tomorrow?

The use of to can also add emphasis, or soften the tone of requests and commands:

- ちょっと待ってわ
- Chotto matta ne . lust a moment
- 生れないでわ Don't foraet, sh! Wasurenaide na

はな

This is a more masculine version of 2, and should not to be confused with the negative imperative (see p. 84):

面倒なことになったな Mendō-na koto ni natta na That's a raint

そうだよな That's right (ien't it)?

ı×

Sō da na

is used to soften statements in male speech:

健は出来るだけやるさ Boku wa dekiru dake yaru sa |'Il do as much as I can

ルよ

& is a sentence-ending particle used to mark information new to the listener (familiar information is marked with ta). This draws attention to whatever is marked:

早く起きなさい。 8 時過ぎですよ Havaku oki nasai, Hachi-ji sugi desu yo Get up quickly. It's after 8 o'clock

ジョージさんは アメリカ人ですね Jőji san wa Amerikajin desu ne George is an American, isn't he?

違います。ブラジル人ですよ Chiqaimasu. Buraiirujin desu vo No he isn't, he's Brazilian

also softens commands and rebukes:

だめですよ

Dame desu yo Don't do that!/Stop it!/Noi

もうちょっと気をつけてよ

をフラようとなどフルミス Mochotto ki o tsukete vo Be more carefull

*

is a more emphatic and male version of \$\dag{z}\$:

あまり池に近づくと落ちるぞ Amari ike ni chikazuku to ochiru zo If vou aet too close to the pond, vou'll fall in

かなあ

This is used to show uncertainty, and is often translated as

- 木村貸は彼女にもう一度雲新したかなあ。
- Kimura kun wa kanojo ni mô ichido denwa shita **kanā** I wonder if Kimura called hie airlfriend again

is also written かなぁ:

- 今日の夕飯はなにかなぁ
 - Kyō no yū han wa nani **kanā** I **wonder** what's for dinner toniaht

かしら

- かしら is a distinctly female-speaker version of かな:
- 亜紀ちゃんは彼にもう一度電話したかしら
 Aki chan wa kare ni mo ichido denwa shita kashira
 - I wonder if Aki called her boyfriend again

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1b

わ is used by women to express emotion and soften the tone:

- 難しいわ
 Muzukashii wa lt's difficult
- また行きたいですわ Mata ikitał desu wa l'd like to ao aasin

1かい

This is a masculine version of the question particle か:

• もうお終いかい

Mo o-shimai kai Finished already?

Mo o-shimai kali Finishea sireadyi

Auxiliary suffixes

(What is an auxiliary?

In English, auxiliaries are verbs such as 'be', 'do', and 'will', which are used with other verbs to show changes in function or meaning. For example, 'do' can be used to express questions 'Do you understand?'), and 'will' can be used to express a future me, '(She will understand when she's older').

Japanese auxiliaries, or jodoshi (助助詞), cannot exist as independent words, but instead are used as endings attached to certain stems of verbs or adjectives. They often have modal meanings expressing likelihood or obligation, comparable to Eneilsh 'may'. 'must'. etc.

I Types of auxiliary

lany Japanese auxiliaries are used in ways that are often thought flas 'forms' of verbs and adjectives. These include \mathbb{R}^T , here \mathbb{R}^T , which are usually treated as suffixes. The most important of these is \mathbb{R}^T , which is given a chapter of \mathbb{R}^T , and \mathbb{R}^T , \mathbb{R}^T ,

あしい

b LV is added to the plain forms of verbs and adjectives, ind conjugates like an V adjective, with the meaning 'seems'. There are other structures with similar meanings – see L \mathcal{F} (\mathcal{E}) below. It is generally used to show that formation the speaker has heard or seen leads him to believe at something is (or is not) the case with a very high degree 'certainty. In this use, \mathcal{F} \mathcal{F} by follows plain forms:

日本の国立大学の入学試験は難しいらしいです
 Nihop po kolkustov doigoku po poligoku philoso wa poligoku philosopia.

Nihon no kokuritsu daigaku no nyūgaku shiken wa **muzukashi**i rashii desu

Apparently Japanese national university entrance examinations are difficult

豊田先生は明日来ないらしい

Toyoda sensei wa ashita konai rashii

そんなばかなことをするのは先生らしくない。

・ 連絡工事が珍しく予定題り終るらしい Dōrokōji gā mezurashiku yolei-dōri **owaru rashii** The roadworks are apparently soins to finish on

The roadworks are **apparently going to finish** on time, for a change

 早く帰ったほうがいいよ、奥さんが怒っているらしい Hayaku kaetta hó ga ii yo. Okusan ga okotte iru rashii You'd better go home quick. Your wife seems to be angry!
 The use of らしい with a noun indicates the conformity of

The use of δ C() with a noun indicates the conformity of someone or something to a type, as in the English 'teacher-like' or 'typical teacher':

Sonna baka-na kolo o suru no wa **sensel rashiku nai** Doing something that stupid is **not fitting for a teache**r

ナンシーさんの日本語は上手だが日本人らしい日本語じゃない
 Nanshii san no Nithongo wa jozu da ga, Nihonjin rashii Nithongo

ja nai Nancy's Japanese is good, but it is not **like a native speaker's** Japanese

そう (だ)

 $\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{I}}(\mathcal{K})$ is used in two ways. With the plain forms of verbs and adjectives, and $\mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{I}}$ it indicates information based on hearsay:

彼は再婚するそうです

Kare wa salkon suru sodesu l've heard that he's remarrying

来年度の試験には面接試験もあるそうだ

Rainendo no shiken ni wa mensetsu shiken mo **aru sō da** I hear that there is going to be an oral test in next year's examination

入院する直前まで元気だったそうです

Nyūin suru chokuzen made **genki datta sõ desu** T**hey say that he was well** until just before he was admitted to

∳ hospital ■ 網日雨だそうです

Ashita ame da sō desu

Apparently it's going to rain tomorrow

he second use of \mathcal{F} \supset (\mathcal{K}) is to indicate a judgement based on what is seen, with the meaning "It looks like". In this case it is used thit the pre- \mathcal{K} \supset forms of verbs and with adjective stems. We decive stop the final \mathcal{K} 1 and \mathcal{K} 2 adjectives lose the final \mathcal{K} 3.

雨が降りそうだ。早く布団をしまったほうがいい Ame ga **furi-sō da** Hayaku fulon o shimatta bō ga ii

It looks like it's going to rain. You'd better bring the futon inside quick

- 自分で作ったか。おいしそうだ Jibun de tsukutta ka. Oishi-sō da You made them yourself? They look delicious
- 彼は落ちそうだから見てはいられない Kare wa ochi-sō dakara mile wa irarenai He looke like he's going to fall - I can't bear to watch
 - ・子供は元気そうでよかった
- Kodomo wa **genki-sō** de yokatta
 I'm alad the children are looking well
- I'm glad the children are looking t
- 部品の質が悪そうだ Buhin no shitsu ga waru-sō da
- The quality of the parts looks poor

The adjective いい 'good' has the form よさそう(だ):

明日の天気がよさそうです Ashita no tenki pa vosa-sō desu

The weather tomorrow looks good

みたい (だ)

This is added to the plain forms of verbs and adjectives to mean 'seems', 'apparently':

- 川村さんは明日来るみたいです
 Kawamura san wa ashita kuru mitai desu
 tooke like Me Kawamura wili come Comprow
- 日本の物価は高いみたいだ Nihon no bukka wa takai mital da Prices in Japan esem hiah
- 違うバンドが同じタイトールを使ったみたいだ
 Chigab bando ga onaji telitoru o tsukatta mital da
 Annanutho different band ban usad tha sana annanutho different band ban usad tha sana annanutho different band bandana annanutho different bandana

Apparently a different band has used the same song title In informal speech the final E is sometimes omitted:

彼がもう読み終わったみたい
 Kare ga mô yoml-owatta mitai

It looks like he's finished reading already

まい

まい is added to the plain forms of verbs and adjectives to give the negative meaning 'ought not'. It is a negative equivalent of the votitional form of the verb (e.g. いこう、しよう). It is relatively uncommon except in formal writing:

 このテロリズムが第3次世界大戦に発展することはあるまい Kono terorizumu ga dai-san-ji sekai taisen ni hatten suru koto wa aru mai

and nea This act of terroris**m ought not (to be** allowed) to develop into a third world war

It is also used to show that the speaker doesn't want to do something:

2度と行くまい

Ni-dő to iku mai I have no intention of going again

だろう・でしょう

だろう is used after the plain forms of verbs, and adjectives to give the meanings' probably', 'ought to', 'should'. (Note that だろう is a part of \mathcal{E} similar to the volitionat form of verbs, but is not an exact equivalent as it is not used for the meaning 'Ler's . . . ') (see p. 33 and p. 15):

- 所長は明日たぶん来ないだろう
 - Shōchō wa ashita tabun **konai darō**The director is **probably not comina** tomorrow
- 義明はお兄さんと一緒ですから大丈夫だろう Yoshiakl wa oniisan to isshō desu kara daijōbu darō Yoshiaki is with his bia brother, so they should be OK

The polite form of だろう is でしょう:

- 今夜雨が降るでしょう
 - Konya ame ga furu deshō It will probably rain tonight
- もうこの人は助からないでしょう Mö kong hito o tasukaranai deshō
- He probably can't be saved now
- でしょう can be used for seeking agreement in ways similar to the particle ね (see pp. 177–178):
- 日本は高いでしょう?
 - Nihon wa takai deshō Japan's expensive, isn't iti

べき(だ)

This follows the dictionary form of a verb to add the meaning "must", 'should', or 'ought to':

- 明日行くべきです
 - Ashita iku beki desu i must go tomorrow
- 職場では男女が平等に扱われるべきだ
 - Shokuba de wa danjo ga byōdō ni **azukawareru beki da** ['In the workplace men and women **should be treated** cqually

The こ・そ・あ・ど group of words

This chapter deals with words indicating location and their corresponding question words. When referring to location, English distinguishes between the two categories of the area near the speaker ('this', 'here'), and any area not near the speaker ('this', 'here'), and panese there are three categories: words beginning with $\mathbb{L} \sim$ indicate the area near the speaker, $\mathcal{H} \sim$ words indicate the area near the listener, and $\mathcal{B} \sim$ words refer to the area which is distant from both the speaker and the listener. As English does not distinguish the three ways, translations into English of words in the $\mathcal{H} \sim$ and $\mathcal{B} \sim$ groups are often the same

Question words equivalent to the English 'wh-?' (e.g. 'which?', 'where?') begin with £~.

The words forming this group belong to various parts of speech, but they are best treated together as they form a distinct group. Some words of this type with following particles are used as conjunctions (see p. 129).

I 'This', 'that', and 'which?'

In English, the words 'this' and 'that' can act both as pronouns (standing alone) and as determiners (indicating a particular noun):

This is expensive

This car is expensive

In Japanese, there are different forms. When used without a following noun, the forms are これ 'this/these', それ 'that/those', and あれ 'that/those over there':

これは何ですか

Kore wa nan desu ka What is this?

いい靴だよね。それは新しいですか

li kutsu da yo ne. **Sore** wa atarashii desu ka Nice shoes. Are **they** new?

あれば富士山が

Are wa Fujisan da That's Mt Fuji over there

When used with a following noun, the forms are この〜, その〜, あの〜:

この言葉の意味が分かりません

Kono kotoba no imi ga wakarimasen
I don't understand the meaning of this word

あの高いビルは何ですか

Ano takai biru wa nan desu ka

What is that tall building over there?

the question word どちら (or in conversation どっち) meaning which?' is used to distinguish between two choices. (See below for other meanings of どちら.) If there are more than two choices, どれ is used.

テニスかパレーボールか、どっちが好き?

Tenisu ka borēboru ka, dotchi ga suki?

Which do you prefer tennis or volleyball?

Kono chokorêto no naka de **dore** ga suki desu ka

Which of these chocolates do you like?

With a following noun, the word for 'which?' is $\angle O$:

どの本ですか

Dono hon desu ka Which book is it?

事務局長さんはどの人ですか

Jimukyoku-san wa dono hito desu ka Which one is the personnel manager?

'Here', 'there', and 'where?'

The words for 'here', 'there', and 'over there' are ここ, そこ, and あチニ・

車の鍵はここにありますよ

Kuruma no kagi wa koko ni arimasu The car keye are herel

駅はあそこですか

Eki wa asoko desu ka la the station over there?

The word for 'where?' is どこ, or the more polite どちら:

すみませんが地下鉄の入り口はどこですか

Sumimasen ga chikatetsu no iriguchi wa **doko** desu ka Excuse mel **Where** is the entrance to the subway?

お国はどちらですか
 O-kuni wa dochira desu ka

Where (which country) are you from?

こちら, そちら, あちら, どちら

This is another set of こ・モ・あ・ど words, meaning 'this direction', 'that direction', 'which direction?':

こちらへ来てください

Kochira e kite kudasai Please come this way/here

These words are also used as polite equivalents of ここ, そこ, あぞこ, and どこ:

お客様の部屋はこちらです

O-kyaku sama no heya wa **kochira** desu **Here** lé your room, Sir/Madam

These forms can be used to refer politely to people, for example on the phone:

すみません。佐藤ですが、そちらに息子がお邪魔していますでしょうか

Sumimasen. Satō desu ga **sochira** ni musuko ga o-jama shite imasu deshō ka Excuse me, it's Satō. Is my son **with you** at the moment?

どちら様ですか

Dochira sama desu ka Who is it, please?
The abbreviated forms こっち, そっち, あっち, どっち are used in informal speech:

◆ 彼女は来遇こっちへ来る

Kanojo wa raishū **kotchi** e kuru — She is coming **here** next week ・ どっちがいい?

Dotchi ga ii? Which (of the two) is better/do you want?

I 'This kind', 'that kind', and 'what kind?'

"The phrases このような〜、そのような〜、etc. are commonly contracted to こんな、そんな、あんな、どんな to mean 'this/that/what kind of?':

彼はどんな人ですか

-41

- Kare wa donna hito desu ka What kind of person is he?
- 日本語はそんなに難しくない
 Nihongo wa sonna ni muzukashiku nai

Japanese is not that difficult

こんな暑い夏はもう耐えられない

Konna atsui natsu wa mô taerarenai Loan't bear this kind of hot summer any more

I 'In this way', 'in that way', and 'in which way?'

The words こう・そう・ああ・どう 'this/that/which way?' are used with verbs (notably する) to show the manner in which something is done:

- そう食べてはいけない
 - Sô tabete wa ikenai You shouldn't eat like that/that way
- こうすれば少し楽になる Kō sureba sukoshi raku ni naru

If you do it this way it will be slightly easier

- そうしよう
 - Sō shiyō! Let's do that
- どうしたんですか
 Dō shita n' desu ka
 - What's happened?/Is anything the matter?
- どうでしたか Do deshita ka Well?/I
- Dō deshita ka Well?/How was it?
 ・ どうでもいい
- Dō demo ii Whatever/I don't care which
 ・ どうにか なるよ
 - **Dô** ni ka naru yo It will be all right/**Somehow or other** it will be OK

The forms こういう, そういう, ああいう, どういう are commonly used to modify nouns and noun phrases, meaning 'this/thiat/what kind of?' (see modifiers);

- これはどういう意味ですか Kore wa do iu imi desu ka What does this mean?
- 毎週60時間以上働いている。こういう生活はもうだめだ Maishū roku-iū iikan iiō hataraite iru. Kô lu seikatsu wa mô dame da

I am working more than 60 hours every week, I can't take this kind of lifestyle! For use of どうして, see the chapter on interrogatives (p. 224).

I Use of そ and あ to refer back

Words beginning with そ and あ (and occasionally こ) are used to refer back to previously mentioned topics and phrases:

- 30歳で大阪の実家に戻った。そのとき初めて政田さんに 出会った
 - San-iū-sai de Ōsaka no iikka ni modotta. Sono toki haiimete Masada san ni deatta
- At the age of thirty I went back to the family home in Osaka. It was at that time that | first met Masuda
- お祖父さんがかぶを置いました。それはあまくておいしい かぶでした Oiiisan qa kabu o kaimashita. Sore wa amakute oishii kabu deshita

Grandfather bought a turnip. It was a sweet, delicious turnip Words in the & group tend to refer to some information shared

- between speaker and listener: 一緒に活間山に登ったときのことが営えている?あれは前
 - 白かったね Issho ni Asamayama ni nobotta toki no koto ga oboete iru? Are wa omoshirokatta ne

You remember when we climbed Mt Asama together? That was funl

Numbers, counters, time, dates

Japanese numerals are generally written in kanji in vertical text, and in numerals (1, 2, 3, etc.) in horizontal text.

| Cardinal numbers

Cardinal numbers are those which are used when counting ('one', 'two', 'three'):

number	pronunciation and kanji
O	ゼロorれい・零
1	いち・ー
2	に・ニ
3	さん・三
0 1 2 2 3 4 5 6	しorよん・四
5	ご・五
ō	ろく・六
7	しちorなな・七
4.	はち・八
9	きゅうorく・九
10	じゅう・ナ
11	じゅういち・十一
12	じゅうに・十二
13	じゅうさん・十三
14	じゅうし or じゅうよん・十四
15	じゅうご・十五
16	じゅうろく・十六
17	じゅうしち or じゅうなな・十七

number	pronunciation and kanji
18	じゅうはち・十八
19	じゅうきゅう or じゅうく・十九
20	にじゅう・二十 or 二〇
21	にじゅういち・二十一
22	にじゅうに・二十二
23	にじゅうさん・二十三
24	にじゅうよん or にじゅうし・二十四
25	にじゅうご・二十五
26	にじゅうろく・二十六
27	にじゅうしち or にじゅうなな・二十七
28	にじゅうはち・二十八
29	にじゅうきゅう or にじゅうく・二十九
30	さんじゅう・三十 or 三〇
31	さんじゅういち・三一
40	よんじゅう・四十 or 四〇
50	ごじゅう・五十 or 五〇
60	ろくじゅう・六十 or 六〇
70	ななじゅう・七十 or 七〇
80	はちじゅう・八十 or 八〇
90	きゅうじゅう・九十 or 九〇
100	ひゃく・百
200	にひゃく・二首 or 2百
300	さんびゃく・三百 or 3百
400	よんひゃく・四百 or 4百
500	ごひゃく・五百 or 5 百
600	ろっぴゃく・六百 or 6百
700	ななひゃく・七百 or 7百
800	はっぴゃく・八百 or 8百
900	きゅうひゃく・九百 or 9百
1,000	せん・千
2,000	にせん・二千 or 2 千

ember	pronunciation and kanji
000	さんぜん・三千m3千
0 00	よんせん・四千 or 4千
000	ごせん・五千 or 5 千
000	ろくせん・六手 or 6 千
0 00	ななせん・七千 or 7千
000	はっせん・八千 or 8千
,0 00	きゅうせん・九千 or 9 千
0,000	いちまん・一万 or 1 万
1,000	いちまんせん or いちまんいっせん
0,000	にまん・二万 or 2 万
0,000	よんまん・四万 or 4万
0,000	ななまん・七万 or 7万
0,000	きゅうまん・九万 or 9万
00,000	じゅうまん・十万 or 10万
,000,000	ひゃくまん・百万 or 100万
0,000,000	いっせんまん・一千万 or 1 千万
00,000,000	いちおく・一億 or 1 億
,000,000,000,000	いっちょう・一兆or 1兆

Numbers are expressed from greatest to least:

603 ろっぴゃくさん 1,800 せんはっぴゃく

12,813 いちまんにせんはっぴゃくじゅうさん

この車は639万円です

Kono kuruma wa **rop-pyaku san-jū-kyū-man** en desu This car is **six million, three hundred and ninety thousand** van

l Counting objects, people, animals

Counting objects

When counting inanimate objects, there is a different set of numbers from 1 to 9 which incorporate the counter \mathcal{D} . (Although there is an alternative number 10, it is not used for counting items and so appears in brackets below.) After 10, the system of $U \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} U \mathcal{D}$. $U \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} U$ is used. The $\mathcal{L} \mathcal{D}$ After 10 the system of $U \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} U \mathcal{D}$. $U \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} U$ is used for numbers over 10 which include 4, e.g. $U \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} \mathcal{D} \mathcal{D}$.

number of items	Kanji and pronunciation
1	ひとつ・一つ・1つ
2	ふたつ・二つ・2つ
3	みっつ・三つ・3つ
4	よっつ・四つ・4つ
5	いつつ・五つ・5つ
6	むっつ・六つ・6つ
7	ななつ・七つ・7つ
8	やっつ・八つ・8つ
9	ここのつ・九つ・9つ
10	(とお・+)
11, etc.	じゅういち, etc.

- これを1つください Kore o hitotsu kudasai
- Can I have one of these, please?
- りんごがななつあります
 - Ringo ga **nanatsu** arimasu There are seven apples

Counters

Various words can be used in English to attach to a number when counting things ('one slice of bread', 'two bars of soap', 'three bunches of flowers'). In Japanese, the system is even more developed, with a system of suffixes or 'counters' added to the numbers. (Where there is no special counter for a given object, the system of hittost. futates, etc. is used,) Counters are mostly

th the いち, に, さん set of numbers. The more common given below.

et of common counters

gregular formations are shown with an underline.

pronunciation and other information
いちまい, にまい, さんまい, よんま
い, ごまい, ろくまい, ななまい,
はちまい, きゅうまい, じゅうまい,
なんまい?
いっこ,にこ,さんこ,よんこ,ごこ,
ろっこ, ななこ, はっこ, きゅうこ,
じゅうこ, なんこ?
いっぴき, にひき, さんぴき, よん
ひき, こひき, ろっぴき, ななひき,
きゅうひき, じゅっぴき, なんぴき?
いっさつ、にさつ、さんさつ、よん
さつ, ごさつ, ろくさつ, なんさつ,
<u>はっさつ</u> , きゅうさつ, じゅうさつ,
なんさつ?
いちだい、にだい、さんだい、よんだ
い, ごだい, ろくだい,ななだい,
はちだい, きゅうだい, じゅだい,
なんだい?
<u>いっぽん,</u> にほん, <u>さんぽん</u> , よん
ほん, ごほん, ろっぽん,ななほん,
<u>はっぽん,</u> きゅうほん, <u>じゅっぽん</u> ,
なんぼん?
いっかげつ、にかげつ、さんかげつ、
よんかげつ, ごかげつ, ろっかげつ,
ななかげつ, <u>はっかげつ</u> , きゅうかげ
つ, <u>じゅっかげつ</u> ,なんかげつ

counter	pronunciation and other information
さい・才・蔵 for age (of people and animals)	<u>いっさい</u> , にさい, さんさい, よさい, ごさい, ろくさい, ななさい, <u>はっさい</u> , きゅうさい, <u>じゅっさい</u> , NB 20 years old = <u>はたち</u> , なんさい?
けん・軒 for buildings	いっけん, にけん, さんけん, よんけん, こけん, ろっけん, ななけん, <u>さっけん</u> , ななけん, <u>はっけん</u> , きゅうけん, じゅうけん なんけん?
はい・杯 for cups or glasses full, e.g. of water, beer, juice	いっぱい, にはい, さんぱい, よんはい, ごはい, ろっぱい, ななはい, きゅうはい, <u>じゅっぱい</u> , なんぱい?
かい・回 for number of times (once, twice, etc.)	いっかい, にかい, さんかい, よんかい, ごかい, <u>ろっかい</u> , ななかい, <u>はっかい</u> , きゅうかい, <u>じゅっかい</u> , なんかい?
かい・階 for floors of a building	いっかい, にかい, さんがい, よんかい, ごかい, ろっかい, ななかい, はっかい, きゅうかい, じゅっかい, なんがい?
じ・時 for hours (clock time)	いちじ, にじ, さんじ, <u>よじ</u> , ごじ, ろくじ, しちじ, はちじ, <u>くじ</u> , じゅうじ, なんじ?
ふん・分 for minutes	<u>いっぷん</u> , にふん , <u>さんぷん, よんぶん, こふん, ろっぷん,</u> ななふん, <u>はっぷん</u> , きゅうふん, <u>じゅっぷん</u> or <u>じっぷん</u> , まんぷん?
びょう・秒 for seconds	いちびょう, にびょう, さんびょう, よんびょう, ごびょう, ろくびょう, ななびょう, はちびょう, きゅうびょう, なんびょう?
にん・人 for people	ひとり、ふたり、さんにん、 <u>よにん</u> 、 ごにん、ろくにん、しちにん or ななにん、はちにん、きゅうにん、 じゅうにん、なんにん?

counter	pronunciation and other information
うう・通	いちつう, につう, さんつう, よん
for letters, items of mail	つう, ごつう, ろくつう, ななつう,
	はちつう, きゅつう, じゅうつう,
	なんつう?

直2台 kuruma ni-dai

two cars

屬6匹

uma rop-piki aly horses

ハンバーガー三個とコーヒー二杯おねがいします Hanbadá san-ko to köbii ni-hai onegai shimasu

Three hamburgers and two coffees, please

the number and counter are usually placed after the noun (and its particle) if one is present:

私がりんごを3個買いました

Watashi ga ringo o san-ko kaimashita I bought three apples

The number and counter can also be joined to the noun with O

引き出しに7枚の切手がある

Hikidashi ni nana-mal no kitte ga aru There are seven stamps in the drawer

Other counters in common use include those used for

measurement such as センチ 'centimetre', メートル 'metre'.

キロ 'kilogram' or 'kilometre', and リットル 'litre', and foreign currency such as ドル, 'dollar', ポンド, 'pound', etc. Japan uses he metric system of measurement, although some traditional measures are still in use. Floor area in Japanese homes is measured

n 'mats' with the counter じょう・春. Sometimes single items are counted with the ひと~

1 パックいくつ入りですか

Itemative for 'one'.

Hito-pakku ikutsu iri desu ka

How many are there in one pack?

I Ordinal numbers and 'number 1'

Ordinal numbers are used to talk about the order of things (e.g. 'first', 'second', 'tenth' in English). In Japanese, the suffix b · 1 is added to the number and counter combination ひとつ、ふたつ、

etc. to mean 'the first (one)', 'the second (one)', etc.;

郵便局は一つ目の信号を右に曲がります Yūbinkyoku wa hitotsu-me no shingo o migi ni magarimasu For the post office, you turn right at the first (set of) lights

二つ目の事件についてさきに話しましょう Futatsu-me no liken ni tsuite hanashimashō Let's discuss the second incident

b is also added to cardinal number + counter combinations:

いっかいめ・一回目 いちばんめ・一番目

にはいめ、二杯目

the first time the first (for number and ばん, see below) the second cup

さんぼんめ・三本目 the third bottle ひとりめ・一人目 the first person

ふたりめ・二人目 the second person 一回目の出張は大変だった。交通事故に巻き込まれた

Ik-kai-me no shutchō wa taihen datta. Kōtsūiikō nì makikomareta My first business trip was terrible. I was involved in a car accident

また靴が取られた。田中君が3人目の被害者だ Mata kutsu ga torareta. Tanaka kun ga san-nin-me no higaisha da

Shoes have been stolen again! Tanaka is the third victim! 僕がアルコールに慣れていないから二杯目を飲みんで気持 ち悪くなった Boku ga arukoru ni narete inai kara ni-hai-me o nonde kimochi.

waruku natta Because Lam unused to alcohol. I felt ill after drinking the second alass

the prefix だい・繁 is sometimes added:

山田さんを推薦します。第一に責任感がありますから Yamada san o suisen shimasu. **Dai-ichi ni** sekininkan ga arimasu kara

I recommend Mrs Yamada. Firstly, because she is very responsible 第3番目の理由は気温が高すぎるということです

Dai-san-ban-me no riyū wa kion ga takasugiru koto desu The third reason is that the air temperature is too high

 第6回目のBATJ会議はロンドンで行われます Dai-rok-kai-me no BATJ kaigi wa Rondon de okonawaremasu The 6th BATJ conference will be held in London

To say 'in third place' etc., the counter い・位 is added to the number. This is often prefixed withだい・第, e.g. when innouncing results of a competition, without any change in meaning:

第6位に佐伯雄太君

Dai-roku-i ni Saeki Yūta kun In sixth place, Yūta Saeki
The suffix ばん・番 is added to a numeral to give the meaning

'number one', 'number two', etc.:

- 次の大阪行きは三番線からです
 - Tsugi no Osaka-yuki wa **san-ban-sen** kara desu The next train for Osaka is from **platform number three**
 - 6番窓口へ行ってください
 - Roku-ban madoguchi e itte kudasai Picase ao to window/counter number six
 - can be prefixed by £1\ without any difference in meaning:
 - ★毎年の抱負は第一番に遅刻しないこと。第二番に、宿題をきちんとやること
 - Kotoshi no höfu wa dal-ichi-ban ni chikoku shinai koto, dal-niban ni shukudai o kichinto yaru koto
 - My resolutions for this year are: first, to not be late; second, to do my homework properly

Time

me is given from the largest to the smallest unit:

◆ 7時28分

shichi-ji ni-jū-hap-pun twenty-eight minutes past seven

2分13秒

ni-fun jū-san-pun two minutes and thirteen seconds

The half hour can be represented with はん・学 'half' added after the counter for 'o'clock':

 1 1 時半 jū-ichi-ji han half past eleven

Minutes between half past the hour and just before the next hour can be expressed by adding まえ、前 'before' to the number of minutes:

6時10分前

roku-ji jūp-pun mae (= 5.50) ten to six

Approximate points in time are represented by the suffix ごろ:

• 10時ごろ

jū-ji goro about ten o'clock

The words ごぜん(午前)'a.m.' and ごご(午後)'p.m.' are placed in front of the time:

午前6時10分

gozen roku-ji jūp-pun mae (= 5.50 a.m.) ten to six in the mornina

• 午後4時

gogo yoji (= 4.00 p.m.) four o'clock in the afternoon

Railway timetables etc. use the 24-hour clock:

- この電車は15時36分発東京行きです

Kono densha wa jû-go-ji san-jû-rop-pun hatsu Tokyo yuki desu Thie train ie the 15:36 (departure) for Tokyo

Points in time are marked with particle に:

6時に会いましょう

Roku-ji ni aimashō l.et's meet at 6 o'clock

For more on the particle \mathbb{Q} with points in time, see the chapter on particles (p. 159).

Periods of time

The suffix かん・間 is added to hours, days, and weeks to indicate a period of time. It is sometimes added to months and years, although it is not always used, as 10 年 itself, for example, can mean 'a 10-year period':

2時間

ni-ji-kan two hours

• 3日間

mikka-kan three days

• 10年(間)

jū-nen-kan ten years

歌声riods of months are given with the number followed by かげ っカ月 This suffix is often written as ヶ月, but note that the tharacter ヶ is an abbreviation of the kanji 箇 (pronounced か),

3ヶ月

san-ka-getsu three months

私は事意大学に6ヶ月留学しました。

Watashi wa Tōkyō Daigaku ni **rok-ka-getsu** ryūgaku shimashita I was an exchange student at Tokyo University for **six months**

i Dates

Years

Years are expressed with the number followed by the counter ねん・年 'year':

• 1965年

sen kyū-hyaku roku-jū-go-nen 1965

- 2000年 ni-sen-nen
 - ni-sen-nen 2000

BC is expressed with 西層紀元前・せいれききげんぜん + number + 年・ねん:

- 西暦紀元前453年
 - seireki kigenzen yon-hyaku go-jū-san-nen

Japanese era system

Japan has its own system of counting years, based on the number of years of the current emperor's reign. The correspondence to Western calendar dates is shown below. Two era names in a single year show that the imperial succession changed during that year:

Japanese era	Western calenda
めいじいちねん・明治1年	1868
めいじよんじゅうごねん・明治45年 and	1912
たいしょういちねん・大正1年	1
たいしょうごねん・大正15年	1926
and	
しょうわいちねん・昭和1年	l
しょうわにねん・昭和2年	1927
しょうわろくじゅうさんねん・昭和63年	1988
へいせいいちねん・平成1年	1989
へいせいじゅうにねん・平成12年	2000

• 昭和39年

Shōwa san-iū-kvū-nen vear 39 of Showa (= 1964)

Dates of birth and other significant events are usually given with the name of the era, especially in official documents;

- 生年月日は昭和58年3月2日です Seinengappi wa Shôwa go-jū-hachi-nen san-gatsu futsuka desu
 - My date of birth is March 2nd, Showa 58 (= 1983)
- 家の長男は平成7年生まれです
 Uchi no chonan wa Heisei nana-nen umare desu
- My older son was born in Heisel 7 (≈ 1995)

 昭和 2 0 年に世界で始めて原子博弾が広島に落とされました

 Shōwa ni-jū-nen ni sekai de hajimete genshibakudan ga
 Hiroshima ni dnsaremashia
 - The first atomic bomb was dropped in Shōwa 20 (=1945) on Himshima

Months

The names of months of the year consist of the number followed by the counter がつ・月. The し and しち alternatives are used for April and July:

3月・さんがつ	Marc
4月・しがつ	April
7月・1.ちがつ	lake

7月・しちがつ July 11月・じゅういちがつ Novembe

or describing duration i.e. 'for 6 months', see the section on seriods of time above.

Cates of the month

The dates of the month are shown below:

1	ついたち・1日
2	ふつか・2日
3	みっか・3日
4	よっか・4日
5	いつか・5日
6	むいか・6日
7	なのか・7日
8	ようか・8日
9	ここのか・9日
9 10	とおか・10日

After 10, the pronunciation follows that of the cardinal numbers with the suffix にち・日. The しち and く alternatives are used for 7 and 9:

17日・じゅうしちにち

29日・にじゅうくにち 31日・さんじゅういちにち

nere are three exceptions:

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14日・じゅうよっか 20日・はつか 24日・にじゅうよっか

February 4th 1983

Dates are given from the largest to the smallest unit:

 1 月26日 jū-ichi-gatsu ni-jū-roku-nichi November 26th

 1983年2月4日 sen kvű-hvaku hachi-jű-san-nen ni-gatsu vok-ka

l Fractions, decimals, and percentages

Fractions are expressed with 分 'part' as follows: はんぶん・半分 half さんぶんのいち・三分のー one-third ごぶんのに・五分のに two-fifths

Decimals are expressed with てん・点:

3.6 san ten ap

5.75 go ten nana-go
Percentages are expressed with パセント:
60% roku-iū pasento

I Approximate numbers

くらい ぐらい is added to an amount to mean 'approximate.

3 0 分ぐらい

san-jūp-pun gurai about thirty minutes

何人ぐらい来ると思いますか

Nan-nin gural kuru to omoimasu ka About how many people do you thin

About how many people do you think are coming? It is common to use the adverb だいたい 'more or less' with

It is common to use the adverb だいたい 'more or less' wit ぐらい:

だいたい 6 人ぐらい

daitai roku-nin gurai about six people

Mernatively, the quantity is prefixed with やく・約 or およそ:

約30人

nin approximately thirty people

yaku san-jū-nin およそ3個

oyoso san-ko

about three (pieces)

'One each' and 'each one'

The addition of ずつ to a number of items means '...each':

- 数学と英語のテストは1時間ずつです Sūgaku to Eigo no tesuto wa **ichi-likan z**u
- Sügaku to Eigo no tesuto wa **ichi-jikan zutsu** desu The mathe and English teste are **one hour each**
 - 机の上に紙6枚ずつ置いてください
- Tsukue no ue ni kami **roku-mai zutsu** oite kudasai Please put **eix please of paper each** on the deske

the prefix element かく・各 'each', 'every' can be added to some nouns, e.g. かくクラス・各クラス 'every class', かっこく・各国 'each country', etc. An English translation with 'all' or 'every' may be appropriate:

各国の首相が環境サミットに参加しました Kak-koku no shushō ga kankyō samitto ni sanka shimashita The prime minitetres of each of the countries took part in the environment summit.

Nominalization: the nominalizer \mathcal{O} and the noun $\exists \, \succeq$

The addition of the noun $\mathcal{L} \succeq \sigma$ the nominalizer \mathcal{D} to a sentence or clause transforms the whole of that sentence or clause into a noun phrase. (Other nouns can also be used to form noun phrases: see below in the section 'Modifiers and relative clauses'.) This resulting noun phrase can then be used as a subject, direct object, etc. in the same way as other noun phrases. In the following example, the nominalizer \mathcal{D} added to the verb phrase \mathcal{E} \mathcal{D} \mathcal{D} \mathcal{D} cach fish produces a noun phrase:

魚を釣るのが好きです
 Sakana o tsuru no ga suki desu liike fishing

The addition of the noun こと, literally '(abstract) thing', to the phrase えいがをみる 'watch films' produces a noun phrase 'watching films'.

watching films*:

* 私の趣味は映画を見ることです

Watashi no Shurii wa eiga o miru koto desu

My hobby is watching films

The noun $\subset \succeq$ used in this way and the nominalizer O both follow
the plain forms of verbs and adjectives. When a nominalized
phase is based on a noun or a A adjective, it is linked to the
nominalizer O (or the noun performing a similar function)
with A:

 1 6歳なのを隠して、成人映画を見に行った Jū-roku-sai na no o kakushite, seijin eiga o mi ni lita Hiding (the fact) that I wae 16, I went to see an sduit film The noun phrase can then be marked as the subject, topic, topic, etc. with the appropriate particle. In the sentence above, the noun phrase 1 6 & & Dong state of the control of the contr

 マイクが始めて日本人に出会ったのは高校の2年だった Maiku ga hajímete Nihonjin ni deatta no wa kôkô no ni-nen data

The first time Mike met a Japanese person was in the second year of high school

Differences between the use of σ and \lnot \succeq

the nominalizer の and the noun こと are largely interchangeable, acept when the nominalized phrase is the predicate in a はった sentence (ending with だ・です). In this case.

by $\exists \mathcal{E}$ is correct. In the sentence below, the first use of $\exists \mathcal{E}$

難しいこと/のはその違いを簡単に説明することだ

Muzukashii koto/no wa sono chigai o kantan ni setsumel suru koto da

The difficulty is to explain this difference simply

eceptions that are immediate and concrete, or emotionally and apathetically involving, tend to be marked with の, and abstract jess empathetic elements are marked with ことの is rather more formal. In the following example, only こと is acceptable:

見ることは信じること Miru koto wa shiniiru koto

Seeing is believing

I the next two examples, the second sentence is more formal and se emotionally involving than the first, although the translation as to show this by changing the vocabulary, where the Japanese hances the style:

いくら読んでも経験するのはやっぱり違う

Ikura yonde mo **keiken suru no** wa yappari chigau No matter how much you've read about it, it's obviously different when you **experience it** yourself! いくら読んでも経験することはやはり違いますよね Ikura yonde mo keiken suru koto wa yahari chigaimasu yo ne No matter how much you may have read about it, it's somewhat different when you experience it personally!

Iのだ・のです・んだ・んです

The のだ sentence ending (and the polite style equivalent のです) is a nominalized sentence plus だ. The contracted form is んだ. or the polite style んです. のだ is used for explanations and connects a statement with a situation in a way that implies 'the fact is that...' or 'the explanation is that...'. or the explanation is that...'.

- 遅くなってすみません。電車が遅れたんです Osoku natte sumimasen. Densha ga okureta n desu Sorry to be latel The train was delayed
- クリスマスの前デパートは込んでいるんです Kurisumasu no mae depāto wa konde iru n desu Before Christmas the stores are crowded
- きのうは仕事を休みました。 風邪を引いたんです Kind wa shigoto o yasumimashita. Kaze o hiita n desu Yesterday I took the day off work as I had a cold

 \mathcal{OK} can be used to mark a realization or assumption:

- 今日は患者に言わないほうがいいんだ Kyō wa kanja ni iwanai hō ga ji n da
 - (So) it's best not to tell the patient today

Off: adds an emotive or emphatic element where the speaker is attempting to emphasize shared knowledge or an assumption from the context. This can sometimes be translated with tag questions ('isn't it',' 'don't you',' etc.). In the next example, the speaker is perhaps looking at Mrs Kawamura's bookshelf and noting all the French books.

 川村さんはフランス語が分かるんですか Kawamura san wa Furansugo ga wakaru n desu ka So you understand French, do you, Mrs Kawamura?

A response would be likely to use an explanatory んです:

 はい、大学でフランス語を勉強したんです Hai, daigaku de Furansugo o benkyō shita n desu Yes, (that's because) I studied French at university

のだ is common in questions to confirm assumptions based on visible evidence:

どうしてまだここにいるんですか。何かあったんですか Doshite mada koko ni Iru n desu ka Nan ka atta n desu ka Why are you still here? Has something happened?/Is something wrona?

どうしたんですか

Do shita n desu ka What's the matter?/What's happened?

Use of this structure can sometimes imply doubt:

本当にいいんですか Hontō ni **li n desu ka ls i**t really *OK*? Are you sure It's *OK*?

学生なんですか

Gakusei na n desu ka Are you really a student?

the phrase んですが is used to signal a request: 日本語で手紙を書いたんですが、ちょっと見てくれませんか

Nihongo de tegami o **kaita n desu ga**, chotto mite kuremasen ka **I've written** a letter in Japanese - would you check it for me?

following phrase can be omitted when the context makes the tended request clear:

もしもし。ちょっと伺いたいんですが Moshi moshi. Chotto **ukagaitai n desu ga**

Hello. I'd like some information, please (literally I'd like to ask, but $\dots)$

Modifiers and relative clauses

modifier is a word, sentence, or clause that describes or nodifies' a following noun or pronoun, as in the English esterday's newspaper', the most difficult one', or pretty student'. Japanese adjectives and nouns with Ø can be modifiers: ⇒ \$4.1.Z\u00e4.

omoshiroi hito a funny person

 きれいな学生 kirei-na gakusei

a pretty student

きのうの新聞

kino no shinbun yesterday's newspaper

Japanese does not have relative pronouns ('that', 'which', 'who', etc.), and so English relative clauses such as 'the woman who is standing over there' or 'the textbooks that I used in university are conveyed in Japanese by taking the nouns 'woman' and 'book' and modifying them with a descriptive phrase. This modifying phrase always precedes the modified element and is in the plain style. Verbs and adjectives in the plain style (see p. 10) or clauses with plain style forms (such as ~2£1), ~2., the dictionary form, etc.) can be used as modifiers. Literal translations of such phrases would be, for example, 'the over-there-standing woman' and 'the in-university-used book'.

- あそこに立っている女の人は金田さんです Asoko ni tatte iru onna no hito wa Kaneda san desu The woman who is standing over there is Ms Kaneda
- 大学で使った教科書はそのあと全然使わない Daigaku de tsukatta kyökasho wa sono alo zerzen isukawanan The textbooks that I used in univereity! never used afterwards More than one modifier may be used in a complex sentence, and it is necessary to relate them to the correct noun phrase or head to understand; the owner!! morning to the full princips continent.

is necessary to relate them to the correct noun phrase of 'head': understand the overall meaning, in the following sentence, the head おとこのこたち 'boys' is modified by both the adjective both' young and the verb phrase meaning 'have previously shown no interest in languages':

 このマンガがおもしろいという理由で、今まで言語になに も興味を示さなかった若い男の子達が日本語を勉強し始め たという話しもあるそうだ

Kono manga ga omoshiro i to iu riyû de, ima made gengo ni nani no kyömi o shimesanakatta wakal oloko no ko tacht iga kilongo o berkoy shihajimeta bu i hanashi no aru so da Apparently, young boys who've preriously shown no interest in languages have started to study Japanese because they find this comic strip fun

topic particle (\mathcal{I} cannot be used in a relative clause, and is laced by \mathcal{M} , or \mathcal{O} (see particles).

と in idiomatic structures

日本語を話すことができますか

Nihongo o hanasu koto ga dekimasu ka Can you epeak Japanese?

can you opeak capanese

For more on this, see the chapter on verbs (p. 126).

A verb in the ~た form and followed by ことがある is a way

A verb in the ~だ torm and tollowed by ことかめる is a wa of talking about past experience, as in 'Have you ever . . . ?' and ''I have never . . . ':

- 日本へ行ったことがありますか
- Nihon e itta koto ga arimasu ka Have vou ever been to Japan?
- 一回だけ馬に乗ったことがある lk-kai dake uma ni notta koto ga aru
- I have ridden a horse just once

 教室以外で日本人と話したことがない
- Kyōshitsu igai de Nihonjin to hanashita koto ga nai

Outside the classroom I've never spoken to anyone Japanese
The dictionary form followed by ことがある means that

- formething may happen on occasion: この仕事は電話で日本人のお客さんと話すことがあります
- Kono shigoto wa denwa de Nihonjin no okyaku san to hanasu koto ga arimasu
- In this job you will speak to Japaness customers on the telephone The use of ことにする following plain forms means 'to decide on':
- あの会社に入ることにしました Ang kaisha ni hairu koto ni shimashita
 - I decided to loin the company/take the job

毎日30分触後することにした
 Mainichi san-jup-pun benkyō suru koto ni shita
 I decided to study/I studied for 30 minutes a day

I decided to study/I studied for 30 minutes a day
The use of ことになる following plain forms means that
something has come about or been decided on:

something has come about, or been decided on:
 オーストラリアへ行くことになりました
 Osutoraria e lku koto ni narimashita

It was decided/has been decided that I go to Australia ・ 妻が入院したので炊事することになった Tsuma ga nyūin shita no de **suiji suru koto ni natta**

Isuma ga nyun shila no de suiji suru koto ni naffa Because my wife went into hospital I did the cooking Another use of the isclose to its original meaning of 'an abstract

Another use of こと ts close to its original meaning of 'an abstrathing', as in the following example where it translates as 'things about...' or simply 'about':

日本の歴史のことはよく知っていますか

Nihon no rekishi no koto wa yoku shitle imasu ka Do you know lot≤ about Japanese history? こと can also be used where the normal word order is reversed for emphasis:

emphasis: • そのとき心配したのは娘が一人になることだ Sono toki shinpai shita no wa **musume ga hitori ni naru koto** da What i worried about at the time was **my daughter ending** up alone

こと is also used to highlight parts of lists of orders, points, and rules, etc.:

新年納鲁。第一、たばこを吸わないこと

 新年初負。第一、たばこを吸わないこと Shinnenhōfu, Dai-ichi, tabako o suwanai koto New Year's resolutione: 1. not smoking

Keigo

(What is keigo?

Speakers of all languages tend to adapt the level of politeness and formality of their speech to their audience. For example, an English speaker might say 'I'm sorry to bother you, but would you mind telling me the time, please?' to a complete stranger, but 'What's the time?' to a close friend. In Japanese, respectful anguage, or 'honorific and humble language,' is known as keigo ((m)), and is a major feature of the language, Keigo reflects (distinctions in social position or roles (see p. 7) by changes in language, especially verbs.

Types of keigo

300me way to show respect is to use special forms of verbs or special falternative verbs when speaking to or about a person to whom politeness should be shown. Use of these verbs, known as sonkeigo (厚破館), meaning 'respectful words', gives elevated states to the person. In the first sentence below, the speaker uses \ \vec{v}\vec

備はよく東京へ行きます

Boku wa yoku Tôkyô e ikimasu | loften go to Tokyo

先生はよく東京へいらっしゃいます Sensei wa yoku Tōkyō e irasshaimasu The teacher often agee to Tokyo

knother way to show respect is to use alternative 'humble' berbs or special forms of verbs to refer to oneself, thereby devating the status of the other person by contrast. These berbs are known as keniogo (誠語語), meaning 'humble words', In the following sentence, the speaker uses まいります for 'go' to refer to himself:

 ご招待をいただいてありがとうございます。明日参ります Go-shōtai o itadaite arigatō gozalmasu. Ashita mairimasu Thank you very much for the invitation. I will ao tomorrow

Both respectful and humble verbs can be used not only when referring to a person directly but also when talking about matters connected with that person:

- 先生のご家族も神戸にいらっしゃいますか
 Sensel no go-kazoku mo Köbe ni Irasshaimasu ka
- Are your family in Kobe as well? ・佐伯様のお家にはご本がたくさんございます Saeki san no o-uchi ni wa **go-hon** ga takusan **gozaimasu**

There are lots of books in your house, Mr Saeki The third subdivision of keigo is teineigo (T π 88), meaning 'poilte words'. This refers to respect or politeness shown through the use of $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ verb endings ($\sim \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\sim \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\sim \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\sim \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\sim \frac{\pi}{2}$ \sim

I Formation of honorific and humble verbs

Some verbs have completely separate honorific or humble equivalents, but the majority of verbs change their form.

Regular honorific verb form

see the chapter on style (p. 10).

The honorific form is created by adding the prefix お to the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem of the verb, followed by になる:

,		
∼ます form	pre ~ます form	honorific form
よみます・読みます to read	よみ・読み	およみになる・ お読みになる
かえります・帰ります to return, go home	かえり・帰り	おかえりになる・ お帰りになる

ここにおかけになりませんか

Koko ni o-kake ni narimasen ka Won't you sit down here?

「こころ」をお読みになりましたか

"Kokoro' o o-yomi ni narimashita ka Have you read 'Kokoro'?" fin the case of verbs made up of a noun and する, the prefix 名 or ご is added to the noun, e.g. ごかんないする 'to show (someone) the way', and おべんきょうする 'to study'. (For information on the abolice of お or こ, see Use of prefix お and こ with nouns below.) Sometimes なさる。 the honorific alternative for する, may be

t Sometimes なきる, the honorific alternative for する, may b jused:

先生はどちらでお勉強なさいましたか Sensei wa dochira de o-benkyō nasaimashita ka

Where did you study?

Regular humble verb form

the regular humble form of verbs, used when the speaker or a member of his or her in-group is the subject, is formed with the prefix 為 and the conjunctive (pre-ます) stem of the verb, followed by する, e.g. おあいする 'to meet', and おまちする to wait'.

お願いします

O-negai shimasu

Please/If you'd be so kind (literally '! ask a favour')

Householder • どうぞお上がりくださ

Dözo o-agari kudasai Please come in

Visitor

お邪魔します
 O-jama shimasu

Thank you (literally 'I will interrupt')

Where a verb is made up of a noun plus $\dagger \delta$, the prefix δ or $\mathcal Z$ is added to the noun, followed by $\iota \mathcal K \in \mathfrak I$, which is the humble alternative for $\dagger \delta$. (For the use of δ and $\mathcal Z$ prefixes with nouns, see Use of prefix δ and $\mathcal Z$ with nouns below.)

- ご案内いたします
- Go-annai itashimasu I will show you the way
- 後ほどお電話いたします

Nochi hodo o-denwa itashimasu 1 will telephone later

Alternative honorific and humble verbs

There are a number of common verbs that have completely different keigo alternatives, rather than adding a prefix.

ordinary verb	honorific alternative verb	humble alternative verb
あげる to give	くださる・下さる	さしあげる 差し上げる
ある to exist, to be, to have	ござる or おありです	ござる
あう・会う to meet	おめにかかる・ お目にかかる	-
いく・行く to go	いらっしゃる or おいでになる・ お出でになる	まいる・参る
いる to exist, to be	いらっしゃる or おいでになる	おる
いう・言う to say	おっしゃる・仰る	もうす・申す or もうしあげる・ 申し上げる
かりる・借りる to borrow	-	はいしゃくする・ 拝借する
きく・聞く to ask	おききになる・ お聞きになる	うかがう・伺う

honorific alternative	humble alternative
	-
お召しになる	
いらっしゃるor	まいる・参る
おいでになる or	or
おこしになるor	おじゃまする・
おみえになる	お邪魔する
ごぞんじです・	ぞんじる・存じる
ご存知です	
なさる	いたす
めしあがる・	いただく
召し上がる	
-	おじゃまする・
	お邪魔する
-	うかがう・伺う
めしあがる・	いただく
召し上がる	
ごらんになる・	はいけんする・
ご覧になる	拝見する
-	おめにかける・
	お目にかける
-	いただく
	l l
	verb おめしになる・ お出しになる・ お出しになる・ いうっしゃるの おいでになるの おこしになるの おこしになる。 こぞんじです・ ごぞんです・ ごぞんです・ できる・ めしあがる・ 日し上がる・ 日し上がる・ ごらんになる・ ごらんになる・ ご覧になる・

The following examples provide illustrations of the use of these special verbs.

Respectful:

 原田様のことをご存知ですか Haruda sama no koto o go-zonji desu ka Do vou know Mr Haruda?

- 先生はもう召し上がりましたか Sensei wa mō meshlagarimashita ka Have you aiready eaten, Professor?
- 娘さんは毎日ピアノの練習をなさいますか Musumesan wa mainichi piano no renshū o nasaimasu ka Does your daughter practise the piano every day?
- クラス代表が市長に花束を差し上げます Kurasu daiftyō ga shichō ni hanataba o sashiagemasu The class representative will give the mayor the bouquet
- 小池雅夫様、小池雅夫様。いらっしゃいましたらフロントまでお越しになってください Koike Masso sama, Kinke Masso sama, Irasshaimashitara furonto made o-koshi ni natte kudasai
 Mr Masao Koike. if Mr Masao Koike ie here, please could he come to the recoption desk

Humble:

- 高橋伸と申します
 - 一両信仰と申します Takahashi Shin to **möshimasu** My name is Shin Takahashi
 - すみませんちょっと伺いたいんですが Sumimasen, chotto ukagaitai n desu ga
 - Excuse me, but I'd like to enquire (about something)

 ・ 切符を拝見いたします
 - Kippu o haiken itashimasu Tickets, please! (literally I'll look at your tickets)
 - 田中さんは存じておりますが、山田さんはお目にかかって おりません Tanaka san wa zonjite orimasu ga, Yamada san wa o-me ni kakate orimasen
 - I know Mr Tanaka but I haven't met Mr Yamada

Irregular forms of keigo verbs

The following verbs have some irregularities in the ~#\$ form and imperative. Forms other than those given here are made regularly from the dictionary form:

dictionary form	~ます form	imperative form
Nらっしゃる to come	いらっしゃいます	いらっしゃい
くださる・下さる to give	くださいます	ください
なさる to do	なさいます	なさい
ござる to be, to have	ございます	(not used)
おっしゃる・仰る to say	おっしゃいます	おっしゃい

The 〜て form plus いる in keigo

When the verb いる follows a ~て form, it can be replaced with its keigo alternatives, the respectful いらっしゃいます or the humble おります:

- 栗原様は東大で勉強していらっしゃいますか
 Kurihara sama wa Todai de benkvô shite irasshaimasu ka
 - Kurinara sama wa 10dai de **benkyo shite irasshaimasu** ka Are you **studying** at Tokyo University, Mrs Kurihara?
- すみません ただいま 奥村はちょっと席をはずしており■ ます
- Sumimasen, tadaima Okumura wa chotto seki o hazushite orimasu

I'm sorry but Ms Okumura is away from her desk at the moment for the formation and uses of the $\sim \mathcal{T}$ form, see the chapter on verbs (p.38).

i Use of plain forms, ~ます forms, respectful forms, and humble forms

Plain forms

Plain forms (e.g. いく、いかない、いった) are used to refer to oneself and others in conversations with family and peers. Typical situations are:

- between classmates
- between work colleagues of similar age and status
- senior to junior staff
- older to younger people

~ます forms

~ます forms (e.g. いきます, いきません, いきました) are used to refer to oneself and others in slightly more formal interaction with people who are not close friends or family. Typical situations are:

- a class presentation
 a letter to a pen pai
 - a chat between casual acquaintances

Respectful forms

Respectful forms (e.g. いらっしゃいます, めしあがります) are used to refer to someone of a high social status in highly formal or professional situations, e.g.:

- a student to lecturer or teacher in formal situations (e.g. when asking for something)
 - a formal letter
- ~ talking to an older person
- staff to senior management
 staff in shops and restaurants to customers

Humble forms

Humble forms (e.g. まいります, はいけんします, おもちいたします) are used to refer to oneself and one's in-group in highly formal or professional situations, e.g.:

- student to lecturer or teacher in formal situations.
- a formal letter
- talking to an older person at a formal event
- staff in shops and restaurants to customers

For more on these issues see the chapter on style (p. 10).

4 Use of the passive form to show respect

saive verb forms can be used to show formality and respect: 事務さんはよく東京の本部へ行かれますか

Senmu san wa voku Tôkvô no honbu e ikaremasu ka Do you (the Managing Director) often ao to the Tokyo head office?

きょう名古屋大学のハリソン先生が譲渡をされました

Kvō Nagova Daigaku no Harison sensei ga kōen o saremashita Today a lecture was given by Professor Harrison of Nagoya University

二年B組を担当してくださった藤井先生が、先週日曜、無限 に女のお子さんを出産されました

Ni-nen B-gumi o tantō shite kudasatta Fujii sensei ga senshū nich/vöbi buii ni onna no o-ko-san o shussan saremashita Me Fujii, who was in charge of class 2B, gave birth safely to a baby airl last Sunday

お父様はよく出張でアメリカへ行かれるのですか

Otôsama wa voku shutchô de Amerika e ikareru no deshô ka Does your father often go to America on business?

For more information on the passive, see the chapter on verbs (p. 70).

I Nouns and adjectives in keigo

Use of prefixes お and ご with nouns

Nouns can be prefixed with \$ or \$\tilde{\chi}\$ to indicate the speaker's respect for the person addressed. This pattern is also used to sound generally polite or elegant. The choice of prefix depends mainly on the origin of the word. The prefix \subset is used with kanji compounds of Sino Japanese origin, and #3 with words of native Japanese origin:

おうち・お家 おこさん・お子さん

おてがみ・お手紙 ごしゅじん・ご主人 ごきょうりょく・ご協力 ごかぞく・ご家族

(your) house, (your) home (your) child

(your) letter

(vour) husband (your) cooperation

(vour) family

There are a few common Sino-Japanese words which are prefixed with お instead of ご:

おでんわ・お童話 telephone, telephone call おへんじ・お返車 reply (to a letter), response おせわ・お世話 care, looking after おべんきょう・お勧強 study, studyina

In some cases the polite forms have become so common as to have largely replaced the basic word in everyday conversation. especially in women's speech. Some examples are given below:

basic noun	meaning	everyday polite noun
ちゃ・茶	tea	おちゃ
みず・水	drinking water	おみず
いわい・祝い	celebration	おいわい・お祝い
であらい・手洗い	toilet	おてあらい・お手洗い
かね・金	money	おかね・お金
まつり・祭り	feetival	おまつり・お祭り
こめ・米	uncooked rice	おこめ・お米
きゃく・客	customer	おきゃくさん・お客さん

Some words have only the polite forms:

おみやげ(お十歳)

'a aift souvenir' ごちそう(ご馳走) 'a treat', 'a feast' ごはん(ご飯) 'cooked rice', 'a meal'

Note that the plain word for a meal めし (版) is distinctly male usage.

Use of お and ご with adjectives

Keigo forms of adjectives, used to indicate respect for the person addressed, or to sound generally polite or elegant, are mostly confined to the addition of a prefix \$5 or \$\mathcal{z}\$ and, very formally, the replacement of だ・です with でござる:

お元気ですか

O-genki desu ka How are you? (literally Are you well?) お忙しい時にお願いして申し訳ありませんでした

O-isogashii toki ni o-negai shite mõshiwake arimasen deshita I am sorry to trouble you with this when you are so busy

お早いですね

O-hayai desu ne You're early

Other keigo forms of adjectives are used in certain set expressions:

ありがたい 'grateful' ありがとうございます はやい 'early'

thank you

おはようございます めでたい 'auspicious'

good morning, hello

おめでとうございます congratulations

l Alternative vocabulary choice in keigo

Some words have polite alternatives, rather than adding a prefix:

basic word	meaning	polite version
ひと・人	person	かた・方
どう	how?	いかが
2 2	where?	どちら
だれ	who?	どなた
~さん	Mr, Mrs, Ms	~さま・~様
トイレ	toilet	おてあらい・お手洗い

あの方はどなたですか

Ano kata wa donata desu ka Who is that person?

お茶はいかがですか

O-cha wa ikaga desu ka How about some tea?

Interrogatives

Question words such as $\&E_1$, $\&E_5$, $\&E_1$, $\&E_1$, $\&E_1$, $\&E_2$, and $\&E_3$ behave grammatically as nouns, but they must always take the particle $\&E_3$ when they are the subject of a sentence, and never $\&E_3$. (See the discussion of $\&E_3$ and $\&E_3$ in the chapter on particles.)

Question words are sometimes omitted when the question is only implied, with the sentence left incomplete:

お名前は?

O-namae wa? (What is) your name?

Question words can also be omitted when there are several questions with the same pattern:

 これはいくらですか。2000円ですか。じゃ、それは? Kore wa ikura desu ka. Ni-sen-en? Ja, sore wa? How much is this one? ¥2,000? And that one?

I Word order

The word order for a simple question in Japanese is exactly the same as for a statement, but with the addition of the question particle \rlap/m at the end (see p. 169). Note that it is not necessary to have a question mark when \rlap/m is present;

- 池田さんは学生です
- Ikeda san wa gakusei desu Me Ikeda ie a student
- 他田さんは学生ですか
 - Ikeda san wa gakusei desu ka la Malkeda ia a student?
- リンさんは日本語が話せます Rin san wa Nihongo ga hanasemasu Ms Lin can speak Japanese
- リンさんは日本語が話せますか Rin san wa Nihongo ga hanasemasu ka Can Ma Lin Speak Japanese?

In the plain style, the particle \hat{D} is omitted and the intonation rises. This is often shown in writing by the use of a question mark:

リンさんは日本語が話せる?

Rin san wa Nihongo ga hanaseru? Can Me Lin epeak Japanese?

There are other particles, such as O, which can form questions (see particles).

I Tag questions

Tag questions in English are in the form of a statement, with a tag such as 'doesn't it?', 'isn't she?', 'didn't they?' at the end. In Japanese, ね and だろう・でしょう can be used at the end of statements with a similar effect:

- 今日は暑いですね
- Kyō wa atsui desu **ne** It's hot,today, **ien't it?**
- 若葉さんはも来週来るでしょう
 Wakaba san wa raishii mo kuru deshō

You are coming next week as well, aren't you. Ms Wakaba?
For more information on ね, see the chapter on particles
(pp. 177-178). For more on だろう・でしょう, see the chapters
on だ・です (p. 15) and auxiliaries (p. 181).

l Asking about things

The word for 'what?' is A.C.:

- 明日何をしますか
- Ashita nani o shimasu ka What are you going to do tomorrow?
- what are you going to ao tomorro ● 軟に何がありますか
- Kaban ni **nani** ga arimasu ka What's in the bag?

However, this often becomes $\Delta \mathcal{N}$ in compounds, e.g. $\Delta \mathcal{N}$ what time?', $\Delta \mathcal{N}$ what time?' In some compounds with counters, it can be translated as 'how many?' or 'which?' (see numbers and counting);

なんさつ・何冊 how many books/magazines? なんにん・何人 how many people? なんがい・何階 which floor?

 $\pi\lambda$ is also used in front of sounds from the \hbar , κ , and κ rows of the kana chart:

それは何ですか

Sore wa nan desu ka What is that?

何の本ですか
 Nan no hon desu ka

What kind of book is it?

l Asking about people

To ask about a person's identity ('who?'), use だれ:

 あそこにたっている人は誰ですか Asoko ni tatte iru hito wa dare desu ka Who is that person standing over there?

To ask who something belongs to, use だれの:

これは誰の辞書ですか
 Kore wa dare no iisho desu ka

esu ka Whose dictionary is this?

どなた is used as a polite equivalent of だれ:

 失礼ですが、どなたですか Shitsurei desu ga, donata desu ka

Excuse me, but who are you?

The suffix \sim \forall \sharp is often attached when speaking politely on the telephone:

 もしもし。どなた様ですか Moshi moshi. Donata sama desu ka Hello? Who is this, please?

I Asking about quantity and number

To ask 'how many?', use いくつ:

 卵がいくつありますか Tamago ga lkutsu arimasu ka How many eggs are there?

ask about the approximate number, the suffix < 61 or C611 is added:

卵がいくつぐらいありますか

Tamago ga ikutsu gurai arimasu ka About how many ease are there?

Note that LICD is also used as a polite alternative to the usual なんさい、meaning 'how old?' with reference to people's age, in which case it is usually prefixed with 3:

おいくつですか

O-ikutsu desu ka

How old are you? To ask 'how much?' with regard to time and quantity, use どのくらい or どのぐらい:

時間は後どのくらいですか Jikan wa ato dono kurai desu ka

How much time is left?

どのくらい かかりますか Dono kurai kakarimasu ka

How long will it take?/How much will it cost?

I Asking about price

To ask 'how much (money)?', use いくら:

この茶碗はいくらですか Kono chawan wa Ikura desu ka

How much is this bowl? To ask the approximate price, the suffix < 610 or < 610 is added:

日本への往復の切符はいくらぐらいかかりますか Nihon e no ôfuku no kipou wa **ikura gurai** kakarimasu ka About how much does a return ticket to Japan cost?

I Asking about reason

To ask the reason for something ('why?'), use なぜ:

なぜ日本語を勉強していますか Naze Nihongo o benkvő shite imasu ka Why are you studying Japanese?

A less formal equivalent of なぜ is どうして:

 川場さんはどうして来ませんでしたか Kawaha san wa doshite kimasen deshita ka

Kawaba san wa doshite kimasen deshi Why didn't Mr Kawaba come?

As E5UT can be translated as both 'why?' and 'how?', the meaning is sometimes ambiguous:

どうして日本語を勉強していますか

Döshite Nihongo o benkyo shite imasu ka How/why are you studying Japanese?

なんで can also mean both 'why?' and 'how?':

 何で日本語を勉強していますか Nande Nihongo o benkyo shite imasu ka Howkibu oro you ditu bina Jananase?

How/why are you studying Japanese?

• 何で日本へ行きますか

Nande Nihon e Ikimasu ka How/why are you going to Japan?
If the meaning intended is 'how?', then the unambiguous どうやって can be used (see below).

I Asking about manner or means

どうやって is used to mean 'how?', 'in what manner?':

どうやって日本へ行きますか

Do yatte Nihon e ikimasu ka How are you going to Japan? Other ways of asking 'in what way?', 'how?' are with どのように and どういうふうに:

- 学生の生活はこの十年間どのようにかわりましたか Gakusai no seikatsu wa kono jū-nen-kan dono yō ni kawarimashita ka
- In what way has student life changed in the last ten years?

 Fういう際に返事さればいいか分からなかった
- Po iu fū ni henji sureba ii ka wekaranekatta Ijust didn't know how to respond
- $\mathcal{E}_{\mathfrak{I}}$ can also be used by itself to mean 'how':

どうでしたか Dō deshita ka How was it?

For more information on 25, see p. 186 and following pages.

I Asking about time

is used to ask 'when?' about the time of an action or event:

 いつ貫い物に行きますか Itsu kaimono ni ikimasu ka When are you going shopping?

To ask about approximate time, the suffix ≤ 3 is added:

いつごろ東京に帰りますか

Itsu goro Tōkyō ni kaerimasu ka **About when** are you returning to Tokyo?

I Asking about location

 \mathcal{E} is used to ask where something is, or where someone is going:

どこへ行きますか

Doko e ikimasu ka Where are you going?

どちら can also be used as a polite alternative to どこ

どちらへいらっしゃいますか

Dochira e irasshaimasu ka Where are you going? For more information, see p. 186 and following pages.

Asking 'Which?'

どちら, or the more informal contraction どっち, is used to ask 'which' when there are two alternatives:

 テニスかパレーボールか、どっちが好き? Tenisu ka barēböru ka dotchi ga suki? Which do you prefer, tennis or volleyball?

If there are more than two choices, then $\not\in \mathbb{A}$ is used, or $\not\in \mathcal{O}$ if there is a following noun:

230 l Interrogatives

 このチョコレートの中でどれが好きですか Kono chokorëto no naka de dore ga suki desu ka Which of these chocolates do you like?

Which or

 どの本ですか Dono hon desu ka Which book is it?

The word どんな can be used to mean both 'which' and 'what kind

1 ne word こんな can be used to mean both which and what kin of:

・ 能谷さんはどんな人ですか

Kumagaya san wa **donna hito** desu ka **Which person** is Kumagaya?/**What kind of person** is Kumagaya? For more information, see p. 186 and following pages.

I Asking 'How . . . ?'

To say 'how tall?', 'how hot?', etc., the adjective can be preceded by どのくらい or どのぐらい:

* どのくらい高いでしょうか

Dono kurai takai deshô ka How expensive is it?

Perspective and pronouns

What is a pronoun?

A pronoun is a word that is used instead of the name of the person or thing concerned, i.e. in place of a noun or noun phrase. In the following examples, the pronouns' she', 'it', and 'them' are used instead of 'Keiko', 'the camera shop', and 'the keys', as well as the possessive pronoun 'her' (instead of 'Keiko').

Keiko said she doesn't like her new teacher

You know the camera shop on the corner by the station? It's closed The keys weren't where Heft **them**

I Absence of pronouns in Japanese

In Japanese, the information conveyed in English by pronouns (both personal and possessive) can often be conveyed by other means, and it is generally unnecessary to use the equivalents of 'I', 'you', 'she', etc. For example, here is a message left on a telephone answering machine.

もしもし、木村です。昨日駅でご主人に会いました。新し い電話番号を教えてくれました。非常に疲れている様子で すよ。仕事は大変でしょう。ところで新しいアパートはど

うですか

Moshi moshi, Kimura desu. Kinō eki de **go-shujin** ni almashita. Alarashii denwa bangō o **oshiete kuremashita**. Hijō ni tsukarete iru yōsu desu yo. Shigoto wa taihen deshō. Tokorode atarashii aoāto wa dō desu ka

Hello, it's Kimura. I met your husband yesterday at the station.

He told ms your new phone number. He seemed really tired. His

work must be tough! Anyway, how is your new apartment?

The vocabulary item $U \oplus U \& V \pm A$ 'husband' has the polite prefix \mathbb{Z} , and so means 'your husband' (see pp.221-229). The use of the verb $C + A \mathbb{Z}$ [we (ne)' as an addition to $A \mathbb{Z} + A \mathbb{Z}$ The (lied) and so gives an overall meaning of 'told me' (see pp.94-95). It is therefore clear from these pointers and the context who is being referred to, but where the English translation requires the use of the pronouns 'your', 'me', 'he', and 'his', these are not present in the Jannaese as senarate

words. Equivalents to many English pronouns do exist in Japanese, but pronouns are not a separate part of speech (see p. 1). English pronouns such as 'I', 'you', and 'her' are often not represented at all in Jananese.

新しい重があります

I have a new car

It was very expensive

 すみません。ペンはありますか Sumimasen, Pen wa arimasu ka

Excuse me. Have you got a pen? Family words do not require pronouns:

- お母さんはお元気ですか
 - Okasan wa o-genki desu ka is your mother well?/How's your mother?
- is your mother well?/How's your mother

 Rは大学生です
- Ani wa daigakusei desu
- My older brother is a university student

Context is very important for deciding which English pronoun to use when translating a Japanese verb. For example, the following Japanese sentence can mean 'I am going to London on Saturday', 'We are going to London on Saturday', and 'She is going to London on Saturday', depending on the context:

どようび ロンドンへ いきます・土曜日ロンドンへ行きます

The speaker is assumed to be referring to himself or herself unless the context indicates otherwise. If the statement is part of a discussion about family holidays, for example, then the English translation of いきます would be 'we will go'. If the conversation is about Mary's whereabouts next weekend, then the English translation would more likely be 'she is going'.

translation would more likely be 'she is going'.

The next two sentences are identical in form and have no

pronouns, so only the context indicates the intended meaning:

 大阪に行くことになっているんですか

Ösaka ni iku koto ni natte iru n desu ka Are you going to be posted to Osaka?

大阪に行くことになっているんですか Ōsaka ni iku koto ni natte iru n desu ka

Am I going to be going to be posted to Osaka?

Once a noun or noun phrase has been established as the topic under discussion, shown by a particle such std. it remains the topic until a new one is introduced, and so does not need to be mentioned specifically each time something is said about that topic:

兄は大学生です。電子工学を勉強しています。

Ani wa daigakusei desu. Denshi kōgaku o benkyō shile imasu My (older) brother is a university student. **He** is studying electrical engineerina

This can happen in English in exchanges such as 'What's Jim doing tonight?' 'Going to the theatre', where it is understood that 'Jim' is the one going to the theatre, as he is the topic under discussion (gee the section on 14 in the chapter on particles, pp. 149–154).

Japanese people prefer to use names, family relationship with or job titles rather than words for 'you', 'he', 'she', and 'they'. Within the family, it is common for people to refer to themselves with words meaning 'mum', 'dad', 'big sister', etc., and to address older shilings (but not younger) with the equivalent of 'big brother' and 'big sister' (see pp. 7-8).

I Japanese equivalents of English personal pronouns

The most common Japanese nouns with meanings similar to English personal pronouns are listed below.

I-わたし・私

There are various equivalents of 'I'. The most common is かたし, but other words include 指く、優 used by young male speakers in informal situations). おれ・僧 (used by male speakers in informal situations), あたし (used by female speakers in informal situations), かたし (used in very formal situations). Within the family, people often refer to themselves by using their family role or other relationship words. For example, a father might say to his children おとうさん いきます。お父さん行きます。 Father is going' where the English translation would be 'lam going'. There is a similar usage in English (e.g. 'Stop crying now, minumy's here'), but it is much more widespread in Japanese and is not restricted to use with small children (see Pp. 7-8)

you-あなた

Although the word #AF.C. can be translated as 'you' (singular), it is not used in the same way as the English, and can sound rule if used incorrectly as it is overfamiliar. It is often used by women to address their husbands, and in this context is similar to 'darling' or 'dear' in English. It is use is therefore best avoided. Instead, the person's name or job title can be used where the context does not allow 'you' to be omitted allowgether.

- 池田さんも行きますか
 - Ikeda san mo ikimasu ka Are you going too, Mr Ikeda?
- 課長、このレポートに目を通してください Kachô, kono repôto ni me o tôsnite kudasai
- Please could you look over this report (section manager)?
- 運転手、何時に着くと思いますか
 - Untenshu san, nan-ji ni tsuku to omoimasu ka What time do you think we'll arrive (driver)?

Other words for 'you' include きみ・君 (used by a male to a junior, close friend, griffriend, or wife), おまえ (used by senior males to juniors), and あんた (used informally, mostly by senior males to juniors).

These words for 'you' can be given a plural meaning by a display in the plural suffix たち・連. The expression みなさん・ 替さん (or みんなさん in informal speech in meaning 'everybody' is often used to address a group (for an example of usage, see じぶん below).

he-かれ、彼

This is less commonly used than in English. かれ can also mean 'boyfriend'.

she-かのじょ・彼女

This is less commonly used than in English. かのじょ can also mean 'girlfriend'.

t.

tt
 There is no real equivalent of 'it'. If the topic is clearly understood,

then there is no need to use a pronoun:

新しい車があります。とても高かったです
Atarashii kuruma ga arimasu. Totemo takakatta desu

Japanese may also use one of the words for 'this/that' such as それ (see こ・そ・あ・ど for details). There is no equivalent of the English use of 'it' with adjectives ('It is difficult') or when referring to the weather ('It is rainine').

 明日までにこの仕事を終えるのは無理です Ashita made ni kono shigoto o ceru no wa muri desu It is impossible to finish this job by tomorrow

lt's cold

I have a new car, It was very expensive

- 雨が降っています
 Ame ga futte imasu It ie raining
- ・寒いです Samuidesu It's

we - わたしたち・私たち

The most common equivalent of 'we' is わたしたち, but other words include われわれ・我々 (formal) and わたくしども・ 私ども (very formal).

they

The word か礼 'be' can be followed by the plural suffix & to mean 'they.' When referring to things rather than people, the appropriate noun is generally used if the context does not make the topic clear, as Japanese nouns do not have separate singular and plural forms (Ly 元 素) for example, can mean 'house' o' houses').

- A few ooms referring to people can have the plural suffix $K \to -\frac{1}{2}$ added to specifically mark them as plural, although this is not obligatory, and a plural meaning is also possible without the suffix. Words with the suffix $\sim K \to a re$ often used to refer to specific groups under discussion where there is a degree of empathy or politeness, e.g. 'the children' rather than a general category 'children'.
- 子供達はどこにいますか Kodomotachi wa doko ni imasu ka Whare are the children?

The following words are commonly used with ~ £5:

こどもたち・子供達 the children the teachers the (school) students the (university) Students the staff (of a company) the staff (of a company)

l Possessive pronouns

車が盗まれた

Kuruma ga nusumareta My car was stolen

Where a noun with O is used to indicate possession, the following houn can sometimes be omitted if it is clear from the context, and so is similar to the English 'mine'. 'vours', etc.:

これは僕のです Kore wa boku no desu

This is mine

As discussed above, family words and certain verbs of giving and receiving have restrictions on their use, and so the possessive imarker is not needed as much as in English as it is obvious thom the family word or verb used (see the sections on verbs of giving and receiving in the chapter on verbs, pp. 94–95 and 47–49, and the section on family words in the chapter on in-group and out-group):

兄は大学生です Ani wa daigakusei desu

My older brother is a university student

I Demonstrative pronouns

The Japanese equivalent of 'this' is $\subset \Lambda$, and 'that' is represented by either $\notin \Lambda$ or $\delta \Lambda$. Something close to the is speaker is $\subset \Lambda$, something close to the listener is $\notin \Lambda$, and something distant from both listener and speaker is $\delta \Lambda$ (see $\subset \cdot \in \Lambda$ $\in \mathcal{E}$).

If a noun follows the demonstrative word (e.g. 'this book', 'that pen', which pen', 'etc.), then the Japanese equivalents are この、その、あの、 and どの (see the section on 'this' and 'that' in the chapter on demonstrative words (こ・そ・あ・ど)).

I Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns such as 'which', 'that', and 'who' (as in 'the exam that I took yesterday', 'the man who is standing over there', etc.) do not exist in Japanese, and relative clauses are created by other means (see the section on modifiers, $p.\ 209$).

I Interrogative pronouns

For information on the interrogative pronouns 'who?', 'what?', and 'which?', see the chapter on interrogatives, p. 224.

I Reflexive pronouns

The word じしん・自身 'self' can be attached to words such as わたし and かれ, and also to names, as in the following examples. Note the addition of the polite prefix \mathcal{L} in the second example (see p. 221):

example (*see p. 221*): • 私自身知らなかった

Watashi jishin shiranakatta I myself didn't know

 タンさんご自身はお金で苦労されましたか Tan san go-jishin wa okane de kurō saremashita ka

Did you yourself suffer financially, Mr Tan?

The noun USA \bullet **(B5)** is similar to the 'self' in such words as 'myself' and 'herself'. It can also be used with the particle $\mathcal O$ to mean 'his own', 'their own', etc. The English translation depends on the context:

 皆さん自分の荷物を持っていってください Minasan jibun no nimotsu o motte itte kudasai Could everybody take their own luggage, please

 サムは自分がたばこを吸うのに子供に「タバコを吸うな」 といつも言います
 Samu wa jibun qa tabako o sū no nj kodomo ni 'tabako o sū na'

Samu wa jibun ga tabako o su na ni kodomo ni tabako o su na to itsumo iimasu.

Even though he emokes himeelf, Sam always says 'Don't emokel' ta the children.

 宝くじに当たったのが自分だとは信じられなかった Takarakuji ni atatta no ga jibun da towa shinjirarenakatta Louldn't believe that I was the person who won the lottery!

 私はテープを3回聞いても自分の声だと分からなかった Watashi wa tēpu o san-kai kilte mo jibun no koe da to wakaranakalta

wakaranakatta Even though I heard the tape three times, I didn't realize it was **my own** voice!

I The pronoun 'one'

The pronoun \mathcal{O} can be used in a way similar to the English one' in phrases such as 'the big one', 'the other one', etc. ee p. 206):

青いかばんは高いです。赤いのは安いです

Aoi kaban wa takai desu. Akai no wa yasui desu The blue bag is expensive. The red one is cheap.

here is no equivalent for the English pronoun 'one' as in 'one

Punctuation and script terms

Some of the most commonly used Japanese punctuation marks and terms used about the script are listed below. The names given are commonly used in the classroom.

まる

This is the Japanese full stop to end a sentence.

てん

This is a mark to show a pause and is commonly used when sentences are joined with a conjunction or conjunctive particle:

These square brackets are used to mark quotations and direct speech. For examples see under \not in the section on particles.

ぎもんてん ?

The question mark is common when representing speech to show a question marked by intonation:

明日暇?

Ashita hima
Are you free tomorrow?

The use of the small つ to show the doubling of the following consonant as in がっこう 'school' is commonly referred to as ちいさいつ and the effect produced as そくおん (役替). Words with this feature are listed in a dictionary as if spelled with a full size つ.

Small kana characters written above or beside kanji to show the pronunciation are called ふりがな or ルビ:

各漢字に振り仮名を振ってください

Kaku-kanji ni furigana o futte kudasai

Please write furlgana for each kanji

When a kanji character is used to write the stem of a word there is often a 'tail' of hiragana characters (especially with verbs and adjectives where there are inflectional endings such as へかったin あたらしかった・新しかった of 〜ます in いきます・行きます etc.). Kana which follow a kanji character are called okurigana (送り仮名) and their correct user is very important in writing well.



Glossary of grammatical terms

This section explains the grammatical terms used in this book. The list includes Lapanese terms but examples are mostly given with reference to English. An analysis of Japanese parts of speech appears as a separate chapter and sometimes the glossary refers to a particular chapter or chapter and the grammar. Words in hold letters have their own entities in the glossary.

Active: In a sentence with an active verb, the subject of the verb performs the action, e.g. Sam (subject) identified (verb) the suspert (as opposed to the passive construction The suspert was identified by Sam, where the suspect is the subject but is not doing the identifying).

Cf. Passive

Adjective: A word used to describe or add extra information to a noun or noun phrase, e.g. difficult in 'a difficult job', beautiful in 'she is beautiful and 'a beautiful way to cook salmon'

Adverb: A word used to describe or add extra information to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, e.g. skunky, extremely, and qukkly in 'to walk slowly', 'extremely' difficult', 'come quickly'. Some Japanese adverbs introduce particular types of sentences. See the chapter on adverbs.

Adverbial: Used or functioning as an adverb.

Agent: The person who or thing which carries out an action, e.g.

Mike in 'The letter was written by Mike'.

Animate: Denoting something that is alive, such as a person or animal, Cf. Inanimate.

Arabic numerals: The symbols 1, 2, 3, etc. used for writing numbers.

Article: The words the (definite article) and a or an (indefinite article) used before a noun.

Japanese does not have articles.

Aspect: A grammatical category of the verb that expresses the nature of an action or process, viewing it either as continuous or habitual (imperfective aspect), or as completed (perfective aspect).

Aspectual relationship: A relationship between things in terms of aspect.

Attributive: An attributive adjective is one used in front of the noun it describes, e.g. expensive in in expensive meal!. One type of adjective in Japanese (na-adjective) has a distinctive form when used in this way. Cf. Predicative.

Auxiliary: In Japanese, there are conjugating suffixes called jodoshi (助動詞) and the word 'auxiliary' is used in this book as an equivalent of that term. See the chapter on parts of speech. Cf. Jodoshi

Auxiliary suffix: = Auxiliary.

Auxiliary verb: A verb used in forming compound structures from other verbs, e.g. do in 'Do you know Michael?' and have in 'I have been there before'.

Cardinal Number: The sequence of numbers 1, 2, 3, etc. Cl. Ordinal number.

Case: The function of a noun within the clause or sentence (e.g. whether it is the subject or object etc.), of the form of the noun expressing this. Japanese nouns express case by adding particles rather than by changing form.

Causative: see Causative form, Causative-passive.

Causative form: An English term for the Japanese 'shlekikei' (教教形). This is where the auxiliary(さ) せる is added to a verb to give meanings relating to compulsion or permission.

Causative-passive: The addition of the auxiliary (さ) れる to a verb already having the causative auxiliary (さ) せる. to give the dea of being made to do something.

Chinese Characters: An English translation of the Japanese word kanji. Cf. Kana.

Clause: A sentence, or part of a sentence, consisting of a subject and a verb, e.g. Mike snores, or a structure containing some verbal forms, participles, or infinitives, but no subject, e.g. "White waiting for a bus! fell asleep' or 'I asked her to call a faxt'. Japanese clauses do not have to contain verbs as other parts of speech can also form medicates.

Colloquial: Informal spoken or written language.

Comment: The part of a sentence that gives information about the topic. Cf. Topic.

Comparative: The form of the adjective or adverb used when companing two or more nouns proncouns. In English, this is usually done by putting more or to be adjective or adverb or by adding —ro to the base form. Japanese adjectives and adverbs do not have different comparative forms. See the chapters on adjectives and adverbs.

Complex sentence: A sentence made up of more than one clause.

Compound: A word or phrase made by putting two or more existing forms together. Compound hour: A noun made up

Compound houn: A noun made up of two or more distinct parts, e.g. windscreen-wipers, watermelon. Compound verb: A Japanese verb

made up of two or more parts e.g. のりかえる 'change trains' from the verbs のる 'to ride' and かえる 'to change' the first verb is a conjunctive stem.

onditional: A conditional sentence is one in which the statement contained in the main clause can only be fulfilled if the condition stated in the subordinate clause is also fulfilled, e.g. If it is fine tomorrow, we'll go to the seaside or I would go to lapan (f I had lots of I mould go to lapan (f I had lots of I money. This condition is usually introduced by (f in English. Japanese has a variety of structures with similar functions. See the chapters on verbs, particles, and conjuctions and conjunctive particles, and see Conditional form.

Conditional form: A form of a word that indicates it is a condition in a sentience or clause and expresses what would happen (or would have happened) under certain conditions. English normally uses if with a form of would to express this notion. Japanese can use several structures to make equivalents. The most common are ~ F. p. ~ I.d. f. F. and b.

Conjugate: Change the form of a verb according to its subject, e.g. '1 go' but '5he goes', or to indicate, or to search, or to search, or to example, a negative or a past meaning, e.g. 'He didn't go', 'He went'. Japanese verbs and adjectives conjugate, as do some auxiliaries. See the chapters on verbs, adjectives, and parts of speech.

Conjugation: The process of conjugating a verb (and some other parts of speech in Japanese). Also, = Conjugation group.

Conjugation group: Each of the patterns of conjugation changes in verbs. Cf. Godan and Ichidan.

Conjunction: Either (i) a word like and or but which is used to join words or simple sentences together, or (ii) a word like when, although, if, where, which is used to join clauses or sentences, thus forming a complex sentence. Conjunctive particle: A particle whose function is to join two clauses or sentences together.

Conjunctive (pre-masu) form:

Conjunctive (pre-masu) stem.
Conjunctive (pre-masu) stem: An
English equivalent for the Japanese
term renybleci (独那形) = the
stem of a verb (hat precedes the
jodostin ~ xx 7 (among others),
e.g. Use from Use xx.

Consonant stem verb: An English term for godan verbs. Cf. Vowel stem verb.

Continuous: Referring to the fact that an action or state is/was currently happening or existing. English often uses the verb be with the present participle ending ing to express this notion, e.g. 'He is/was waiting'.

Contracted form: A form which is a shorter alternative, e.g. haven't is a contracted form of have not. Counter: An Epglish term for the

Japanese part of speech called sūshi (教育) = a sutifix added to numbers in Japanese when counting objects, people, or animals according to the category of thing being counted, e.g. nin (人) for people, satsu (冊) for books and magazines. See the chapter on numbers and

'Ba' style: = Plain style.
'Be-aru' style: = Written style.

counting.

Declension: The process of declining a noun. Also, each of the patterns of declension changes in nouns.

Decline: In some languages, change in the form (usually the ending) of nouns to show case relationships.

- Definite article: The word the in English. Japanese does not have articles. Cf. Indefinite article.
- Demonstrative: A word indicating the person or thing referred to, e.g. this, that, these, those.
- "Desu-masu" style: The polite style of writing and speaking which uses the auxiliaries ~ます(on verbs) and ~です (with nouns and adjectives). Cf. Plain style and Written style.
- Dictionary form: The basic form of a Japanese verb (or adjective). Direct object: See Object.
- Ending: The concluding part of a word or sentence, especially one conveying grammatical information such as tense, case, or number (singular or plural), e.g. wished, books.
- Exclamation: A word or phrase conveying a reaction such as surprise, shock, disapproval, indignation, or armsement. In English it is usually followed by an exclamation mark: Excellent!; What nice weather! Cf. Interfection.
 - Finite verb: A verb which has a specific tense (present, past, etc.), number (singular or plural), and person (1, you, etc.), e.g. rings in 'She rings the doctor'.
 - Form: One of the possible ways in which a word may appear, e.g. go, goes, went, gone.
- Gender: The sex of a person or animal (male or female) or, (in some languages) a classification of nouns (masculine, feminine, etc.). This latter sense is not found in Japanese.

- Godan: Verbs whose vowel changes when endings are added. Examples include はなず、いく、まつ. See the chapter on verbs.
- Group one verb: a godan verb.

 Group two verb: an ichidan verb.
- Hiragana: The Japanese script used to write many everyday words and the endings of verbs and adjectives whose stem is written in kanji. The hiragana chart is given at the back of the book. Cf. Katakana, Kanii. and Römaii.
- Honorific: (Of a word form or verb) elevating the listener/reader relative to the speaker/writer. See the chapter on keigo.
- Honorifics: Certain words and forms which elevate the listener/reader relative to the speaker/writer. This term is sometimes used for sonkerien.
- Humble (Of a word form, verb, or language) elevating the listner/ reader relative to the speaker/ writer by its muance of humility. e.g. まいる and いたす. See the chapter on keigo.
- I-adjective: An English term for the Japanese part of speech called a keiyōshi (形容詞).
- Ichidan: Verbs whose vowel does not change when endings are added. Dictionary forms of these verbs always end in an 光 line kana + る (eru), or an い line kana + る (in). Examples include たべる。 でる、おきる、みる、See the chapter on verbs.
- Idiom: A conventionally accepted way of expressing an idea, especially one where the meaning cannot be predicted from the

- meanings of the separate words, e.g. Raining cats and dogs.
- Imperative: A form or structure used to express an order, command, prohibition, or exhortation, e.g. Come here!, Don't smoke!, Have fun!
- Inanimate: Not alive. Cf. Animate.

 Indefinite article: The words a and an in English. Japanese does not have articles. Cf. Definite article.
- Indirect object: See Object.
- Indirect passive: A passive verb used in a Japanese sentence to indicate the speaker's negative perception of an experience. See the section on the passive in the chapter on verbs.
- In-group: The speaker's own family or colleagues, Cf. Out-group.
- Interjection: A word used usually in isolation to express sudden emotion, e.g. alas, oops, and no. Cf. Exclamation.
- Interrogative: A question or a word used to make a question, e.g. who, what, where, why, when, etc. Interrogative pronoun: A pronoun
 - used to form a question, e.g. which in 'Which do you want?' Intonation: The sound shape of a
 - word or phrase that can convey meaning, e.g. the rise in pitch at the end of an English question such as Shall we go?
 - Intransitive verb: A verb not taking a direct object, e.g. slept in 'He slept well'. See the section on transitive and intransitive verbs in the chapter on verbs. Cf. Transitive verb.

- Irregular: A word or form of a word that does not fit a standard pattern of changes to its forms.
- Jodoshi: An auxiliary which is attached to a word or sentence and alters or augments its meaning. Most endings on verbs and adjectives in Japanese are jodoshi. See the chapters on parts of speech and auxiliary suffixes.
- Kana: The Japanese syllabic scripts hiragana and katakana. Cf. Kanji and Römaji.
- Kana chart: The script chart that provides Japanese with its 'alphabetical' order and which plays a part in the conjugation patterns of some words. The kana charts are given at the back of the book.
- Kanji: The romanized form of the Japanese word 漢字. Kanji are Chinese characters used in writing Japanese. Cf. Hiragana, Katakana, and Romaji.
- Katakana: The Japanese script used primarily for writing foreign names and places and words of foreign (Western) origin. The katakana chart is given at the back of the book. Cf. Hiragana, Kanji, and Rômaii.
- KeigD: The romanized form of the Japanese word 敬語. Keigo is a system of showing differences in status between individuals, and of being polite by changing the form of words.
- Keiyōdòshi: The Japanese part of speech called 形容動詞 is usually referred to in English as a na-adjective.

- Keiyōshi: The Japanese part of speech called 形容詞 is usually referred to in English as an i-adjective.
- Kenjago: A subdivision of keigo which shows the speaker's humility and thus exalts the listener by contrast. Cf. Sonkeigo
- Literary style: A style of writing that features である in place of だ・ です. See the chapters on style and だ・です.
- Main clause: In a sentence with more than one clause, the clause which is not subordinate to any of the others, e.g. Peter stopped in 'When it got too dark to see where he was going, Peter stopped'. A main clause can stand alone as a sentence.
- Main verb: The verb contained in a main clause as opposed to one in a relative clause
 - Modifier: A word or clause placed in front of a neum or noum phrase to describe it, e.g. *Camedwelling animals such as these are commonly blind.* Modification is very important in Apanese as this is how relative clauses are constructed. See the section on modifiers in the chapter on nominalization.
 - **Modify**: Describe a following noun of noun phrase.
 - Na-adjective: An English term for the Japanese part of speech called a keiyōdōshi (形容動詞). See the chapters on adjectives and parts of speech.
 - Negation: Making something negative.

- Negative: A sentence or a form of a word that asserts that something is not the case, for example by using nor in English.
- Negative condition: A condition which is negative, e.g. 'If there is not enough we will have to go to the shop'.
- Negative imperative: An order to not do something, or a form/structure with that meaning, e.g. 'Don't open the door!'

 Negative predicate: A predicate
- with a negative form or meaning, e.g. was not very good in "The party was not very good". Nominalization: Converting a clause
 - into a noun phrase by adding a noun or Ø. See the chapter on nominalization.
- Nominalizer: A word the addition of which changes a clause into a noun phrase. See the chapter on nominalization.
- Nour: A word used to identify a person, an animal, an object, an idea, or an emotion (e.g. girl, horse, book, beatity, sodness). It can also be the tame of a specific individual, place, or institution (e.g. John, London, Inland Revenue).
- Noun phrase: A word or group of words functioning as a noun, e.g. my mother's little dog in 'My mother's little dog is quite delightful'.
- Object: The word or group of words which is immediately affected by the action indicated by the verb. In the English sentence 'The child broke the toy', the word child is the subject, broke is the verb, and the

- tov is the object. There may be two kinds of object in a sentence. a direct object and an indirect object. In the example above, the toy is a direct object. However, in the sentence 'He gave the child a toy', he is the subject, gave is the verb, the child is the indirect object, and a toy is the direct object. Unlike English, the objects and subject in Japanese sentences are marked with narticles and word order is less important. See the chapter on particles, especially the sections on 25 and 12. Cf. Subject.
- Ordinal number: The sequence of numbers 1st, 2st, 3st, etc. Cf. Cardinal number.
- Out-group: People who are not close to the speaker, e.g. not family members or colleagues. Cf. In-group.
- migroup.

 Particle: A marker placed after an element in a Japanere sentence, principally to show a grammatical sentence, so that the proposition such as form, at large the prepositions such as to, from, at, by, etc. There is also a group of particles which come at the end of sentences and whose function is to give expressive muances of meaning and distinguish male and female specific. Some particles can also join clauses or sentences community in the proposition of - Part of speech: The grammatical type of a word, e.g. noun, verb, adjective, etc. Por Japanese parts of speech (which are slightly different from those in English), see the chapter on parts of speech.

- Passive: In English, the form of the verb used when the subject undergoes (rather than performs) the action, e.g. "The student was nominated for an award." In Japanese, the passive has additional uses. See the section on the passive in the chapter on verbs.
 - Passive form: In Japanese, a verb which has the auxiliary (ら) れる added to it to express the passive.
 - Past: A form which indicates that an event or state has already occurred, e.g. went in 'Mike went to London'.
 - Personal pronoun: A word that stands in for a name of a person or thing, often to avoid repetition, e.g.. He in "That's Mike. He is a student', Japanese does not use pronous in the same way as English and people's names are preferred to words like ha and she. See the chapter on perspective and pronouns.
 - Perspective: A person's viewpoint.
 This is important in Japanese
 as words and sentences can be
 different from different
 viewpoints, e.g. give is either < At
 & (gives me) or Bif5 (1 give).
 See the chapter onperspective
 and pronouns, and the section
 on verbs of giving and receiving
 in the chapter on verbs.
 - Phrase: A group of words which function together in a clause. See Noun phrase and Verb phrase.
 - Plain style: The style of Japanese used informally which does not feature the use of the polite auxiliaries ~です and ~ます.

- Plain (style) form: A form of a conjugating word such as a verb or an adjective which does not feature the polite auxiliaries ~でするれ〜まま、This means in particular the dictionary form, ない form, at い form, ad た form.
- Plural: A word or form referring to more than one person or object, e.g. children, books, we, are. Japanese words do not generally have different singular and plural forms. See the chapter on nouns. Cf. Singular.
- Polite language: Words and structures appropriate for use between adults who are not familiar with one another, or who are in formal situations.
- Polite prefix: An element added to the beginning of a word to make it more politic when it refers to someone other than the speaker, e.g. go in the word go-shujin {ご主人) 'your husband'.
- Polite style: The style of speech (or writing) that uses the auxiliaries マます and マです
- Polite (style) form: A form of a word that is used when speaking or writing in the polite style.
- Positive predicate: A predicate with a positive form or meaning, e.g. was very good in "The party was very good". Cf. Negative predicate.
- Possessive pronoun: A pronoun expressing ownership, e.g. my, mune, your(s), her(s), etc. Those preceding a noun (my, your, her, etc.) are sometimes termed possessive determiners or (in more traditional grammars) possessive adjectives (e.g. 'my book',

- Potential form: The form of Japanese verbs having to do with possibility and ability.
- Potential verb: A verb in the potential form or a verb whose meaning is dominantly potential such as できる or わかる.
- Predicate: The part of a clause that contains a verb and states something about the subject, e.g. closed the door softhy in 'Many closed the door softhy many closed the chapter on topic, comment, and medicates
- Predicative: A predicative adjective is one used after the noun it describes, e.g. expensive in 'The meal was expensive'. Cf. Attributive.

 Prefix: An element added to the
- beginning of a word, usually to change its meaning, e.g. misunderstood, reconsider. Cf. Suffix.

 Pre-mass form: The stem of a verb that precedes the auxiliary ます. This is also referred to as the
- conjunctive stem.

 Preposition: A word such as under, beside, across, in, which is usually followed by a noun or pronoun in English. There is no equivalent part of speech in Japanese, but Japanese has particles (placed after the noun) which often act in
- a similar way. See the chapter on particles.

 Prenoull: (i) = Personal pronoun; (ii) any of the other types of pronoun, e.g. demonstrative, interrogative, possessive, reflexive, and relative pronoun.

Question particle: A particle used to mark a question. The most common Japanese question particle is D.

Reflexive prosoun: A pronoun that is the object of the verb but that is the object of the verb but that refers hack to the subject of the clause and denotes the same individual, e.g. herself in:

'She blamed herself for the misunderstanding', Japanese does not have reflexive pronouns as such, See the chapter on perspective and tronouns.

Relative clause: In English, a clause introduced by a relative pronoun. Japanese forms relative clauses by modification and does not have relative pronouns. See the section on modifiers in the chapter on nominalization.

Relative pronoun: In English, a pronoun (who, whose, which, or that) used to introduce a subordinate clause and referring back to a person or thing in the preceding clause, e.g., "Yanaka toost the camera that/which he bought", 'That is the man whose department of the wastelling you about'. Renyōkiej: The Japanese term for the

conjunctive (pre-masu) form.

Report: The reporting of what someone has said, using an introductory reporting verb and a subordinate clause, e.g. He said that he was hungry.

Respectful form: A changed form of a word to make it appropriate for use in sonkeigo. Cf. Keigo.

Respectful verb: A verb used in sonkeigo, e.g. いらっしゃる, めしあがる. Cf. Keigo.

Respect language: An English translation of the Japanese term sonkeigo. Cf. Keigo. Romaji: The Japanese word ローマ字 meaning roman alphabet (a, b, c, etc.). Cf. Kanji, Hiragana, and Katakana

Romanization: The process or system of writing Japanese in the roman alphabet, or the resulting text.

Sentence: In English, a structure with at least one finite verb, and consisting of one or more clauses, e.g. 'John laughed', 'John sat down and waited', 'While waiting for the bus, John saw an accident'. Japanese can have sentences without verbs.

Singular: A word or form referring to just one person or object, e.g. child, I, is, laughs. Japanese nouns do not generally have different singular and plural forms - see the chapter on nouns. Cf. Plural.

Sonkeigo: A style of keigo which elevates the person referred to and is thus polite, e.g. irasshaimasu in 先生はよく東京へいらっしゃ います。Cf. Keniōgo.

Sound symbolism: The

representation of actions, states, and moods by particular combinations of sounds. English has onomatopoela, e.g. crash, bang, and thad, but Japanese has a much richer system which has no English equivalent.

Stem: The unchanging part of a word to which endings are added.

Style: The conventions governing ways in which language is used in particular situations, e.g. formal and informal, or written and snoken.

Subject: The word or group of words which causes the action indicated by the verb. In the sentence 'John fed the cat', John is the subject of the verb fed. Unlike English,

Japanese does not need to have a subject expressed in a sentence when the context makes it clear. Cf. Object

Subject particls: In Japanese, the particle used to mark the subject is \vec{m} , although a grammatical subject can also be marked as a topic. See the chapter on particles.

Subordinate clause: A clause that cannot normally stand alone without a main clause and is often introduced by a conjunction, e.g. when it rang in 'She answered the phone when it rang'. Cf. Main clause.

Suffix: An element that is added to the end of a word or stem to change its meaning or grammatical form. e.g. understandable, kindness, wished, faster. Cf. Profix

Superlative: The form of the adjective or adverb used to express the highest or lowest degree. In English, this is usually done by putting most or least before the adjective or adverb, or by adding early to the base form. Japanese adjectives and adverbs do not have different superlative forms. See the chapters on adjectives and adverbs.

Syllable: A word or part of a word that contains one vowel sound, often with one or more vowels before or after it. In Japanese, each kana symbol represents one syllable, so しんぶん (newspaper) has four syllables.

Tag question: A question ending with a verb followed by a pronoun, e.g. didn't you?, haven't me? Teineigo: The romanized form of the Japanese word 丁事語 which means a polite style of speaking and writing and features the 一まず auxiliary and Verbs and でき、See the chapter on keigo.

Tf. 5.ee the chapter on keepo.

Tunner The tense of a vert expresses whether the action takes place in the past, present, of future. Japanese verbs have only a post and a non-past, and the tense of the past of

Tentative expression: An expression indicating uncertainty, such as one ending in かもしれないor でしょう.

Tentative form: A form such as でしょう or だろう which indicates uncertainty or provisional

judgement.

Topic: The part of the sentence which shows what is to be discussed or commented on. See the chapter on

topic, comment, and predicate.

Topic marker: A word such as the topic particle fd, marking a topic.

Topic particle: The particle (\$\frac{1}{4}.)

Transitive verb: A verb taking a direct object, e.g. read in 'She was reading a book'. See the section on transitive and intransitive verbs in the chapter on verbs. Cf. intransitive verb.

Verb: A word that describes an action, a process, or a state of

affairs (e.g. run, buy, freeze, exist). The verb is at the end of a basic Japanese sentence, but some Japanese sentences can be made without verbs because predicates can be made with other types of words. Japanese verbs do not change form for I, you, he, etc.

Verb of motion: A verb which describes movement, e.g. come, go, return.

Vorb phrase: Either (i) a phrase
consisting of a single-word verb,
or of a group of verb forms
functioning in the same way as a
single-word verb, e.g. went, has
been going, was forgotten, ran off,
or (ii) = Predicate.

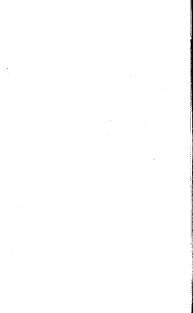
Volitional: Referring to someone's intention, or to actions which are within their subject's control.

Volitional form: The form of a

Japanese verb that expresses
intention, e.g. いこう from いく。

and たべよう from たべる. Vowel stem verb: An English term for ichidan verbs. Cf. Consonant stem verb

Written style: The style of Japanese used for prose where plain forms of verbs are used and the auxiliary だ・です becomes である. See the chanter on style.



Appendices

Hiragana chart

	-								
'a' li	ne	'i' lir	e	'u' li	ne	'e' li	ne	'o' li	ine
ð	a	ţ,	i	ラ	u	え	e	ä	0
zh.	ka	ŧ	ki	<	ku	(f	ke	E	ko
が	ga	ž	gi	<	gu	(f	ge	12	go
ž	sa	L	shi	ŧ	su	ŧ	se	ŧ	80
ŧ	za	ľ	ji	ず	zu	T#	ze	₹	20
t	ta	5	chi	5	tsu	₹	te	Ł	to
だ	da	ぢ	ji	ゴ	zu	₹	de	Ë	do
な	na	10	ni	80	nu	ħ	ne	Ø	no
は	ha	ひ	hí	۵	fu	^	he	(ā	ho
ば	ba	び	bi	న	bu	~	be	120	bo
(ď	pa	υ¢.	pi	5	pu	~	pe	揺	ро
東	ma	4	mi	Ü	mu	N)	me	*	mo
Þ	ya			ΙØ	yu			よ	yo
ů	ra	Ŋ	ri	5	nı	n	re	3	ro
Þ	wa							*	0
		$\overline{}$		1					

l Consonant plus small や, ゆ, or よ

きゃ	kya	έφ	kyu	きょ	kyo
ž۴	gya	ぎゅ	gyu	ぎょ	gyo
しゃ	sha	Lup	shu	€±	sho
じゃ	ja	じゅ	ju	U.s.	jo
5+	cha	59	chu	ちょ	Cho
にゃ	nya	にゅ	пуи	によ	nyo
びゃ	hya	ひゅ	hyu	ኒ (C	hyo
びゃ	bya	びゆ	byu	びょ	byo
びゃ	pya	びゅ	pyu	υr	руо
IJ#	tya	IJup	ryu	IJŁ	Tya

I Small \supset

A small つ has an effect similar to doubling the following consonant. For example in the word ちょっと, the と following the small つ is pronounced in a similar manner to the double t in 'hot toddy'.

....

(\$\preceq\$ is read 'ha' when it is part of a word, but when used as the subject marker particle it is pronounced 'wa'. Similarly, ^is pronounced 'be' when it is part of a word but 'e' when it is used as a particle showing the direction of travel. Note that \$\preceq\$ (\$\preceq\$) is only used to write the particle.

l Katakana chart

lは、へ、andを

'a' li	ine	'i' li:	ne	'u' l	ine	'e' li	ine	o'li	ne
7	a	7	i	2	u	Ī	e	*	0
ħ	ka	+	ki	2	ku	7	ke	7	ko
Ħ	ga	#	gi	7	gu	7	ge	3	go
y	sa	シ	shi	ス	\$u	t	se	7	so
f	za	ジ	jì	X	Zu	ť	ze	7	zo
9	ta	Ŧ	chi	ッ	tsu	7	te	1	to
9	da	ヂ	jí	ッ	zu	7	de	۴	do
ナ	na	=	ni	7	nu	*	ne	1	no
Λ	ha	t	hi	7	fu	^	he	*	ho
К	ba	Ľ	bi	7	bu	1	be	*	bo
Ν	pa	2	pi	7	pu	1	pe	*	po
₹	ma	3	mi	4	mu	1	me	ŧ	mo
ヤ	ya			그	yu	1		3	yo
ラ	ra	ij	ri	ル	ru	レ	re	6	ro
7	wa			\neg				7	n

I Consonant plus small ヤ,ユ, or ヨ

##	kya	‡ 1	kyu	* 3	kyo
¥+	gya	# 2	gyu	* 3	gyo
シャ	sha	シュ	shu	ショ	sho
ジャ	ja	ジュ	ju	- V3	jo
チャ	cha	チュ	chu	F3	cho
=+	пуа	===	nyu	==	пуо
ヒャ	hya	ta	byu	٤з	hyo
ビャ	bya	ピュ	byu	Ľ₃	byo
Ľ٠	pya	ピュ	руи	Ľ3	руо
リヤ	rya	リュ	гуц	ÚВ	ryo

In katakana, long vowels are usually written by putting $a = ((\sharp 5))$ after the sound as in the case of $\exists - \vdash \vdash \neg$ (coffee) or $\vdash \vdash \neg \not \vdash \neg$ (heater).

There are other possible katakana combinations (such as 71 in //-71 'party') not shown in the charts, which are used to represent foreign (non-Japanese) words and names.

I Finding the dictionary form

changing some commonly found endings,

Japanese verbs and adjectives conjugate and can sometimes end up in long chains of auxiliarities (see parts of speech). The restillary words may seem very unfamiliar. This problem is compounded by the fact that Japanese is normally written with the words not spearated. Where words are separated less in tettholosis for foreignesy, the auxiliaries tops yill be attached to the stem. "5° and particles may be attached no rooms, and webs may directly follow a tettholosis for foreignesy, the auxiliaries tops will be attached to the stem." 5° and particles may be attached no rooms, and webs may directly follow a tettholosis for foreignesy, the auxiliaries to rooms, and web may directly follow a tettholosis for foreigness, the auxiliaries to room and the stem of the stem o

ending	how to change it back to a form you can look up	Example from	Example to
~かった	temove ending and add	さむかった	4113
~くない	remove ending and add	おおきくない	おおきい
~くなかった	remove ending and add	おいしくなかった	おいしい
~た ~て	remove ending and add	たべた たべて	たべる
∼った ∼った	remove ending and add & or 3	あった あって	ある・あう
∼んだ ∼んで	remove ending and add to or to on there is only one verb with the latter ending	よんだ あそんだ あそんで しんで	よむ あそぶ しあ
∼いた ∼いて	remove ending and #dd <	きいた きいて	* <
~いだ ~いだ	remove ending and add	およいだ およいで	713
∼した ∼して	remove ending and add	はなした	はなす

ending	how to change it back	Example from	Example to
	to a form you can look up		
~たい	remove ending and add S or change the last syllable before the ending from 'i' to '-u' i.e. U to S or € to < etc.	みたい やりたい あいたい ききたい	みる やる あう きく
~たくない	as above	みたくない	33
~ます	remove ending and add & or change the last syllable before the ending from '-i' to '-u' i.e. 9 to & or * to < etc.	たべます おきます とります ききます	たべる おきる とる きく
~ません	as above	とりません	೬る
~ました	as above	ききました	* <
~ましょう	as above	いきましょう	いく
~ない	remove ending and add & or change the last syllable before the ending from '-a' to '-u' i.e. ら to & or か to < etc.	たべない おわらない いかない	たべる おわる いく
~なかった	as above	とらなかった みなかった	とるみる
~6	always follows either 〜た or 〜だ so find the appropriate form of that ending in the chart	きいたら	å<
initial word	look up the initial word	べんきょうすれば	べんきょう
followed by to a. Loan,	and then the relevant part of \$3\$ in the section on \$7\$ in the chapter on verbs. Note that the elements in front of these forms are usually nouns written with Chinese characters	けんきゅうした	けんきゅう

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ending	how to change it back to a form you can look up	Example from	Example to
~なければ なりません	as for ~ない or ~くない	かかなければ なりません	かく
~なければな らなかった	as for ~ない or ~くない	いかなければ ならなかった	e><
~ければ	remove ending and add	たかければ	たかい
〜えば or other endings with -eba such as 〜せば or 〜てば	remove the (\$\mathbf{I}\) and add \$\mathref{\sigma}\) or remove the (\$\mathref{I}\) and change the preceding '-e' to '-u' i.e. \$\mathref{U}\) to \$\mathref{T}\)	Enhid Sehid dhed	とる みせる はなす
~<~	remove ending and add	あたらしくて	あたらしい

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