

# **Basic Japanese**

A Grammar and Workbook

**Shoko Hamano and  
Takae Tsujioka**



Grammar Workbooks

# BASIC JAPANESE

*Basic Japanese: A Grammar and Workbook* comprises an accessible reference grammar and related exercises in a single volume.

This book presents 25 grammar units, covering the core material which students would expect to encounter in their first year of learning Japanese.

Divided into two parts, the first outlines fundamental components of Japanese including the writing system, pronunciation, word order, particles and conjugation patterns, while the second builds on this foundation by introducing basic grammatical patterns organized by the task they achieve. Grammar points are followed by contextualized examples and exercises which allow students to reinforce and consolidate their learning.

Key features include:

- clear, accessible format
- many useful language examples
- transliteration of all examples
- jargon-free explanations of grammar
- abundant exercises with full answer key
- subject index.

*Basic Japanese* is suitable both for class use and independent study, making it an ideal grammar reference and practice resource for both beginners and students with some knowledge of the language.

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# BASIC JAPANESE: A GRAMMAR AND WORKBOOK

Shoko Hamano and Takae Tsujioka

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# PREFACE

As teachers with a combined teaching experience of over 30 years, we have always tried to take the students' perspective into account and highlight the functional aspect of the language as much as possible. At the same time, as trained linguists, we have always recognized the importance of providing accurate and consistent explanations of grammar for adult learners.

This book is the result of these two motives. It explains the essential grammar of Japanese in an accessible yet linguistically accurate manner. The organization of the book also mirrors these considerations. The book is divided into two parts, focused on linguistic structure and function, respectively. We have also tried to carefully balance structure and function in each part.

Part 1 gives beginning students basic building blocks of grammar, outlining fundamental components of Japanese, such as pronunciation, the writing system, word order, particles, and conjugation patterns. Here, we have also tried to take practicality into consideration. For example, when explaining verbal conjugation patterns, we have adopted the traditional orthography-based method rather than the phonology-based method, because most students prefer to learn Japanese verbs without having to analyze them down to consonants and vowels. On the other hand, we have incorporated ideas that are not widely found in traditional textbooks, such as meaning-based classification of verbs and adjectives, when such concepts can explain a wide range of grammatical patterns more consistently and efficiently.

Part 2 similarly strikes a balance between structure and function. The introductory paragraph lays out the targeted tasks in a concise and friendly manner. The basic grammatical patterns are organized around these functional tasks. Here, readers can learn a group of related patterns side by side and learn about their subtle differences in usage so that they can not only understand the grammatical forms but also use them in a socially and culturally appropriate manner. Readers will find the ample cross references between the units useful.

Throughout the book, as much as possible, we have selected contextually related examples for each unit. That is, instead of introducing natural but disparate examples, we have aimed at weaving functionally related sentences and vocabulary into coherent pictures. It is hoped that this organization will not only facilitate the understanding of the grammatical patterns but also make it easier for readers to remember the examples as a group and be able to put them into use in real life.

We hope that this book will be used by independent learners as well as by students in formal classes. For this reason, all the examples are transliterated.

Exercises at the end of each unit will check readers' comprehension and solidify their understanding. Although most of the vocabulary used in the exercises is recycled from the text section, a small dictionary may become useful from time to time. The answer keys to the exercises are provided at the end of the book.

The book also features two useful appendices: a summary of the sound patterns of numeral quantifiers and a list of time words, along with a glossary of grammatical terms and a detailed index of patterns and forms in alphabetical order.

We would like to thank our three Routledge editors, Annamarie Kino, Sonja van Leeuwen, and Samantha Vale Noya, as well as anonymous reviewers, for their valuable comments. We would like to thank our colleague, Wakana Kikuchi, for her charming illustrations. We also thank Peter Van Blargan for painstakingly reading the manuscript at its early stage, and copyeditor Cheryl Huty for her extremely careful handling of the complex manuscript. Any remaining errors are of course ours.

Finally, we would like to thank our families for their continuous support.

### *Note on notations*

When marking the grammatical acceptability of sentences written in the Japanese script, we follow the Japanese tradition of using ○ (*maru*) for grammatical sentences and × (*batsu*) for ungrammatical sentences. For transliterated parts, we resort to the standard linguistic convention of marking ungrammatical sentences with “\*”. The items that appear in the glossary are marked in small capitals when they appear in the text for the first time.

# PART 1

Basic building blocks

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# UNIT 1

## Pronunciation

Compared to some other world languages, Japanese has fewer sounds, and simpler sound combinations. However, to attain native-like pronunciation, you need to master not only individual sounds but also the rhythm. This unit summarizes some basic points concerning Japanese pronunciation.

### Vowels and consonants

The Japanese language consists roughly of the following sounds.

Vowels:        /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /o/

Consonants: /k/, /s/, /t/, /n/, /h/, /m/, /y/, /r/, /w/, /g/, /z/, /d/, /b/, /p/

In general, Japanese vowels are similar to their Spanish or Italian counterparts. The following should give you a basic idea.

- /a/ is pronounced similar to “a” in “father” in American English
- /i/ is pronounced similar to “ee” in “feet” but shorter
- /u/ is pronounced similar to “oo” in “soon” without lip-rounding
- /e/ is pronounced similar to “e” in “bed”
- /o/ is pronounced similar to “o” in “old” but shorter

Most consonants are pronounced similarly to their English counterparts, but you will need to be careful with the following:

- /r/ is typically produced as a tap against the area behind the teeth

A consonant combines with one of the five vowels to produce short syllables, as in /ka/, /ki/, /ku/, /ke/, and /ko/. The possible combinations are presented below in the traditional order that mirrors the writing system. (See Unit 2 for more details.) Pay special attention to those highlighted in bold because they do not sound like the other syllables in the same column.



[Consonant + vowel combinations]

	<i>k</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>w</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>sa</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>ha</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ya</i>	<i>ra</i>	<i>wa</i>
<i>i</i>	<i>ki</i>	<b><i>shi</i></b>	<b><i>chi</i></b>	<i>ni</i>	<i>hi</i>	<i>mi</i>		<i>ri</i>	
<i>u</i>	<i>ku</i>	<i>su</i>	<b><i>tsu</i></b>	<i>nu</i>	<b><i>fu</i></b>	<i>mu</i>	<i>yu</i>	<i>ru</i>	
<i>e</i>	<i>ke</i>	<i>se</i>	<i>te</i>	<i>ne</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>me</i>		<i>re</i>	
<i>o</i>	<i>ko</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>to</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>ho</i>	<i>mo</i>	<i>yo</i>	<i>ro</i>	<b><i>o</i></b>

	<i>g</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>ga</i>	<i>za</i>	<i>da</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>pa</i>
<i>i</i>	<i>gi</i>	<b><i>ji</i></b>	<b><i>ji</i></b>	<i>bi</i>	<i>pi</i>
<i>u</i>	<i>gu</i>	<b><i>zu</i></b>	<b><i>zu</i></b>	<i>bu</i>	<i>pu</i>
<i>e</i>	<i>ge</i>	<i>ze</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>pe</i>
<i>o</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>zo</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>bo</i>	<i>po</i>

Each consonant can also be followed by a semi-vowel /y/ and a vowel, as in /kya/, /kyu/, and /kyo/.

[Consonant + /y/ + vowel combinations]

	<i>ky-</i>	<i>sy-</i>	<i>ty-</i>	<i>ny-</i>	<i>hy-</i>	<i>my-</i>	<i>ry-</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>kya</i>	<i>sha</i>	<i>cha</i>	<i>nya</i>	<i>hya</i>	<i>mya</i>	<i>rya</i>
<i>u</i>	<i>kyu</i>	<i>shu</i>	<i>chu</i>	<i>nyu</i>	<i>hyu</i>	<i>myu</i>	<i>ryu</i>
<i>o</i>	<i>kyo</i>	<i>sho</i>	<i>cho</i>	<i>nyo</i>	<i>hyo</i>	<i>myo</i>	<i>ryo</i>

	<i>gy-</i>	<i>zy-</i>	<i>by-</i>	<i>py-</i>
<i>a</i>	<i>gya</i>	<i>ja</i>	<i>bya</i>	<i>pya</i>
<i>u</i>	<i>gyu</i>	<i>ju</i>	<i>byu</i>	<i>pyu</i>
<i>o</i>	<i>gyo</i>	<i>jo</i>	<i>byo</i>	<i>pyo</i>

## Syllables

Japanese syllables are limited to the following basic types. (C and V stand for a consonant and a vowel, and C after V stands for either /n/ or the first half of the double consonants. Parentheses indicate that the sound is optional.)

Short syllables: (C)(y)V

Long syllables: (C)(y)VV, (C)(y)VC

Some examples of short syllables are: *e*, *ki*, *ha*, and *yu*, as well as *kya*, *ryu*, and *nyo*. Some examples of long syllables are: *ee*, *kyuu*, *an*, *fun*, *too*, *yon*, and *chan*, and the bold part of ***kakko***, ***assari***, ***mittsu***, and ***rippa***.

You should not stretch short syllables such as *ki*, *yu*, *mi*, and *so* as in the English words “key,” “you,” “me,” and “so.” Instead, keep them short. This goes for CyV syllables such as *kya* and *nyu* as well.

Words of foreign origin are adjusted so that each syllable conforms to the permissible syllable structure in Japanese. For instance, the English word “present” becomes *purezento* because syllables like *pre* and *sent* do not exist in Japanese. To break up impermissible syllables, an *u* is typically inserted. However, after syllable-final *ch*, an *i* is inserted, and after syllable-final *t* and *d*, an *o* is inserted.

free	→	<i>furii</i>	tent	→	<i>tento</i>
search	→	<i>saachi</i>	band	→	<i>bando</i>

## Mora

The **MORA** is the basic rhythmic unit in Japanese. A short syllable like *u* or *ka* consists of one mora. A long syllable like *un* or *kaa* consists of two moras. Here, the mora break is indicated by a dot, and the number of moras in each word is given in the parentheses.

か	<i>ka</i>	(1)	“mosquito”
あめ	<i>a.me</i>	(2)	“rain”
きっぷ	<i>ki.p.pu</i>	(3)	“ticket”
きょうかい	<i>kyo.o.ka.i</i>	(4)	“church”

Make sure to distinguish between forms like *ha.ta* “flag” and *ha.ta.ta* “pasted.” They are different words, with the first consisting of two moras, and the second of three moras. Also make sure to distinguish between words like *ta.n.i* “unit” (3 moras) and *ta.ni* “valley” (2 moras), and *ho.n.no.o* “instinct” (4 moras) and *ho.no.o* “flame” (3 moras). (See Unit 2 for the orthographic conventions that address such contrasts.) You may not convert syllable-final *n* to syllable-initial *n* or shorten *n.n* to *n*.

## Exercise 1.1

Insert the appropriate vowels to produce Japanese readings.

- 1 “desk” → *des\_k\_*
- 2 “San Francisco” → *san f\_ranshis\_ko*
- 3 “peach” → *piich\_*
- 4 “accent” → *ak\_sent\_*
- 5 “dot com” → *dott\_kom\_*

## Exercise 1.2

Count how many moras each of the following words contains.

- 1 *michi* “road”
- 2 *koori* “ice”
- 3 *kyaku* “guest”
- 4 *koppu* “cup”
- 5 *annai* “guide”
- 6 *makudonarudo* “McDonald”

# UNIT 2

## Writing system

Japanese sentences are written by combining three types of script: *kanji* (Chinese characters), *hiragana*, and *katakana*.

イギリスから来ました。 “I came from the UK.”  
*igirisu kara kimashita*

You can more or less tell the difference between the three scripts from their visual impressions. Most *kanji* look as if they could fill squares, *hiragana* resemble cursive letters, and *katakana* appear to consist of a small number of straight lines. In the above sentence, 来 is written in *kanji*, から and ました in *hiragana*, and イギリス in *katakana*.

In addition to these traditional script types, you will also encounter numerous uses of *roomaji* (Roman alphabet) in daily life. Thus, the same word may be represented in four different ways. Here are four separate representations of the name “Tanaka.”

*Kanji:* 田中  
*Hiragana:* たなか  
*Katakana:* タナカ  
*Roomaji:* Tanaka

In this unit, we will study the characteristics and use of *kanji*, *hiragana*, and *katakana*.

### ***Kanji***

In order to read Japanese proficiently, one must be able to recognize a group of about 2,000 Chinese characters, known as *kanji* in Japanese. *Kanji* are logographic, and each *kanji* has its own meaning. They are commonly used to write content words such as nouns and initial parts of verbs and adjectives. (See Unit 3 for categories of words.)

米	<i>kome</i>	“rice”	[noun]
食べる	<i>taberu</i>	“eat”	[verb]
高い	<i>takai</i>	“expensive”	[adjective]

Most *kanji* have more than one way of reading, and often more than one *on*-reading or *kun*-reading. In the *on*-reading, *kanji* are read with pronunciations deriving from their original Chinese pronunciations. In the *kun*-reading, *kanji* are read with the sound values of corresponding Japanese words. For example, the character 安 is read in two different ways, as follows:

安 “peace”:	安心 “relief”	<i>anshin</i>	[ <i>on</i> -reading]
	安い “cheap”	<i>yasui</i>	[ <i>kun</i> -reading]

In order to assist you with *kanji* reading, we will provide romanization for all the examples in this book.

## Hiragana and katakana

Unlike *kanji*, *hiragana* and *katakana* are syllabaries: they represent sound units rather than meanings. Therefore, you can use them to write out almost anything, whether you want to do so for aesthetic reasons or otherwise.

However, in actual practice, *hiragana* are largely limited to endings of verbs and adjectives, and grammatical elements such as **PARTICLES** (see Unit 5).

食べる	<i>taberu</i>	“eat”	[verb ending]
高い	<i>takai</i>	“expensive”	[adjective ending]
私が行く。	<i>watashi ga iku</i>	“I will go.”	[subject particle]

*Katakana* are mostly used to represent words of foreign origin (other than those coming from Chinese and hence written in *kanji*). They are also used to give a lively impression to onomatopoeic words.

ハンバーガー	<i>hanbaagaa</i>	“hamburger”
フランス	<i>furansu</i>	“France”
ゴロゴロ	<i>gorogoro</i>	“(rumbling sound)”
トントン	<i>tonton</i>	“(knocking sound)”

There are 46 basic *hiragana* letters and corresponding *katakana* letters. As you can see in the following chart, a *hiragana* or *katakana* letter generally stands for a vowel or the combination of a vowel and a consonant (with the exception of *n*).

## [Hiragana &amp; katakana chart]

	<i>a</i>	<i>ka</i>	<i>sa</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>na</i>	<i>ha</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ya</i>	<i>ra</i>	<i>wa</i>	<i>n</i>
<i>a</i>	あ ア <i>a</i>	か カ <i>ka</i>	さ サ <i>sa</i>	た タ <i>ta</i>	な ナ <i>na</i>	は ハ <i>ha</i>	ま マ <i>ma</i>	や ヤ <i>ya</i>	ら ラ <i>ra</i>	わ ワ <i>wa</i>	ん ン <i>n</i>
<i>i</i>	い イ <i>i</i>	き キ <i>ki</i>	し シ <i>shi</i>	ち チ <i>chi</i>	に ニ <i>ni</i>	ひ ヒ <i>hi</i>	み ミ <i>mi</i>	い イ <i>i</i>	り リ <i>ri</i>	い イ <i>i</i>	
<i>u</i>	う ウ <i>u</i>	く ク <i>ku</i>	す ス <i>su</i>	つ ツ <i>tsu</i>	ぬ ヌ <i>nu</i>	ふ フ <i>fu</i>	む ム <i>mu</i>	ゆ ユ <i>yu</i>	る ル <i>ru</i>	う ウ <i>u</i>	
<i>e</i>	え エ <i>e</i>	け ケ <i>ke</i>	せ セ <i>se</i>	て テ <i>te</i>	ね ネ <i>ne</i>	へ ヘ <i>he</i>	め メ <i>me</i>	え エ <i>e</i>	れ レ <i>re</i>	え エ <i>e</i>	
<i>o</i>	お オ <i>o</i>	こ コ <i>ko</i>	そ ソ <i>so</i>	と ト <i>to</i>	の ノ <i>no</i>	ほ ホ <i>ho</i>	も モ <i>mo</i>	よ ヨ <i>yo</i>	ろ ロ <i>ro</i>	を ヲ <i>o</i>	

In this chart, the letters are organized along the axes of columns and rows. For instance, in the *a*-column, you find the letters for the five vowels in the order of *a*, *i*, *u*, *e*, *o*. And in the *ka*-column, you find the letters for the five *k*-initial syllables from *ka* to *ko*.

The *a*-row, on the other hand, contains the letters for the syllables ending with the vowel *a*, the *i*-row, the letters for the syllables ending with the vowel *i*, and so on. To find the letter for the syllable *nu*, for instance, go to the intersection of the *na*-column and the *u*-row. ん is the *hiragana*, and ヌ is the *katakana* for *nu*. When used as a grammatical particle, は and へ are exceptionally read as *wa* and *e*. The letter を, pronounced the same as お, is used only as a grammatical particle. (See Unit 5 for more on particles.)

The columns and rows are important grammatically because **CONJUGATIONS** of verbs often involve the alternation between syllables from different rows in the same column, as in the case of 読む *yomu* “(will) read” versus 読まない *yomanai* “(will) not read.” (See Unit 6 for more on the basic conjugation patterns and Unit 16 for the **POTENTIAL FORMS** of verbs.)

Adding a diacritic (two dots ◌̂ or a small circle ◌° on the upper right corner) to some of the above letters yields the additional letters shown in the following chart. Here, the distinction between the letters じ/ジ and ぢ/ヂ reflects a historical contrast no longer maintained in most areas of Japan. In modern Japanese, they are pronounced identically as *ji* when read separately. However, they may be pronounced slightly differently depending on the context. The same is true of ず/ズ and づ/ヅ.

[Hiragana & katakana with diacritics]

	<i>ga</i>	<i>za</i>	<i>da</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>pa</i>
<i>a</i>	が ガ <i>ga</i>	ざ ザ <i>za</i>	だ ダ <i>da</i>	ば バ <i>ba</i>	ぱ パ <i>pa</i>
<i>i</i>	ぎ ギ <i>gi</i>	じ ジ <i>ji</i>	ぢ ヂ <i>ji</i>	び ビ <i>bi</i>	ぴ ピ <i>pi</i>
<i>u</i>	ぐ グ <i>gu</i>	ず ズ <i>zu</i>	づ ヅ <i>zu</i>	ぶ ブ <i>bu</i>	ぷ プ <i>pu</i>
<i>e</i>	げ ゲ <i>ge</i>	ぜ ゼ <i>ze</i>	で デ <i>de</i>	べ ベ <i>be</i>	ぺ ペ <i>pe</i>
<i>o</i>	ご ゴ <i>go</i>	ぞ ゾ <i>zo</i>	ど ド <i>do</i>	ぼ ボ <i>bo</i>	ぽ ポ <i>po</i>

*Special orthographic conventions*

*Hiragana* and *katakana* were created when Japanese had simpler syllable structures than today. A number of orthographic conventions have since developed to cope with newer and more complex sound combinations.

First, short but complex syllables like *kya* and *nyo* are transcribed with two letters, one *i*-row letter and *ya*, *yu*, or *yo*, as shown in the following chart. To distinguish these from sequences of syllables such as *kiya* and *niyo*, write the second letter smaller.

[Hiragana & katakana combinations with small *ya*, *yu*, and *yo*]

	<i>kya</i>	<i>sha</i>	<i>cha</i>	<i>nya</i>	<i>hya</i>	<i>mya</i>	<i>rya</i>
<i>a</i>	きゃ キャ <i>kya</i>	しゃ シャ <i>sha</i>	ちゃ チャ <i>cha</i>	にゃ ニャ <i>nya</i>	ひゃ ヒャ <i>hya</i>	みゃ ミャ <i>mya</i>	りゃ リャ <i>rya</i>
<i>u</i>	きゅ キュ <i>kyu</i>	しゅ シュ <i>shu</i>	ちゅ チュ <i>chu</i>	にゅ ニュ <i>nyu</i>	ひゅ ヒュ <i>hyu</i>	みゅ ミュ <i>myu</i>	りゅ リュ <i>ryu</i>
<i>o</i>	きょ キョ <i>kyo</i>	しょ ショ <i>sho</i>	ちょ チョ <i>cho</i>	にょ ニョ <i>nyo</i>	ひょ ヒョ <i>hyo</i>	みょ ミョ <i>myo</i>	りょ リョ <i>ryo</i>

	<i>gya</i>	<i>ja</i>	<i>bya</i>	<i>pya</i>
<i>a</i>	ぎゃ ギャ <i>gya</i>	じゃ ジャ <i>ja</i>	びゃ ビャ <i>bya</i>	ぴゃ ピャ <i>pya</i>
<i>u</i>	ぎゅ ギュ <i>gyu</i>	じゅ ジュ <i>ju</i>	びゅ ビュ <i>byu</i>	ぴゅ ピュ <i>pyu</i>
<i>o</i>	ぎょ ギョ <i>gyo</i>	じょ ジョ <i>jo</i>	びょ ビョ <i>byo</i>	ぴょ ピョ <i>pyo</i>

Second, the following rules apply to long syllables ending with consonants.

### [Rules for long syllables ending with consonants]

- Use ん or ン for syllable-final *n*.
- Use small つ or ツ for syllable-final *p*, *t*, *s*, and *k*.

The following chart shows some examples.

### [Examples of syllable-final consonants]

	Example	<i>Hiragana</i>	<i>Katakana</i>
Syllable-final <i>n</i>	<i>anta</i> →	あんた	アンタ
	<i>pan</i> →	ぱん	パン
Syllable-final <i>p</i>	<i>ippa</i> →	いっぱ	イッパ
Syllable-final <i>t</i>	<i>itte</i> →	いって	イッテ
Syllable-final <i>s</i>	<i>isso</i> →	いっそ	イッソ
Syllable-final <i>k</i>	<i>ikka</i> →	いっか	イッカ

Because a unique letter exists for syllable-final *n*, the crucial distinction between syllable-final *n* and syllable-initial *n* in words like *ta.n.i* “unit” and *ta.ni* “valley” (see Unit 1) is clear in *hiragana* (or *katakana*). The former is spelled たんい, and the latter たに. When romanizing such words, we will distinguish between them by following the common practice of using an apostrophe for the former, as in *tan'i*.

Finally, syllables containing long vowels are handled in the following manner.



[Rules for syllables containing long vowels]

- Represent vowel length with a vowel if in *hiragana*, and with a line if in *katakana*.
- If in *hiragana*, use う for the second half of oo. Use い for the second half of ee. (There are a handful of exceptions to these stipulations, as in とおい *tooi* “distant” and おねえさん *oneesan* “elder sister”.)

[Examples of long vowels]

	Example		Hiragana	Katakana
Second half of long o	too	→	と う	ト ー
Second half of long e	tee	→	て い	テ ー

Dealing with recent loan words

The influx of a large number of loan words poses a further challenge to the native writing system. The following conventions reflect an attempt to approximate foreign sounds more accurately.

[Innovative use of katakana]

ファ (fax, fund)	フィ (fit)	フェ (festival)	フォ (fox)
ウィ (wig)	ウェ (wet)	ウォ (walk)	
ティ (party)			
ディ (dinner)			
チェ (check)			
シェ (shell)			
ジェ (jet)			

Here are some examples of their use.

フィットネス	<i>fittonesu</i>	“fitness”
スウェーデン	<i>suweeden</i>	“Sweden”
パーティー	<i>paatii</i>	“party”

Punctuation

Punctuation is not well developed in Japanese. This is partly because limiting *hiragana* to grammatical endings and particles and using *kanji* and *katakana* at the beginning of phrases can signal grammatical boundaries

and substitute for punctuation. The only obligatory punctuation marker is the small circle appearing at the end of a sentence.

食べる。 *taberu* “I will eat.”

In addition, you can optionally mark major phrase boundaries for readability.

家に帰って、食べる。 “I will go home and eat.”  
*uchi ni kaette, taberu*

The question mark is used in casual writing in order to indicate the question intonation and to distinguish a question from a statement. (See Unit 7 for more on questions.)

食べる？ *taberu* “Will you eat?”

Pay attention not to insert a space between a word and a grammatical particle or inbetween words. In fact, you can omit spaces all together.

家に帰る。 *uchi ni kaeru* “I will go home.”

## Exercise 2.1

Following the order of the syllables used in the charts above, fill the spaces below.

- 1 あいうえ\_\_
- 2 かきく\_\_こ
- 3 さ\_\_す\_\_そ
- 4 \_\_ちつ\_\_
- 5 は\_\_
- 6 \_\_り\_\_
- 7 あかさた\_\_
- 8 いき\_\_ちに
- 9 う\_\_す\_\_ぬ
- 10 え\_\_せて\_\_
- 11 \_\_こそと\_\_
- 12 きや\_\_きよ
- 13 \_\_にゆによ
- 14 しやしゅ\_\_
- 15 ぎやぎゅ\_\_

## Exercise 2.2

Rewrite the following in *hiragana*.

- 1 *kodomo* “child”
- 2 *hayashi* “woods”
- 3 *sakana* “fish”
- 4 *matsuri* “festival”
- 5 *warau* “laugh”
- 6 *onna* “woman”
- 7 *itta* “went”
- 8 *hyaku* “hundred”
- 9 *toshokan* “library”
- 10 *tookyoo* “Tokyo”

## Exercise 2.3

Try to guess which kitchen/food items the following *katakana* words stand for.

- 1 テーブル
- 2 ナイフ
- 3 スプーン
- 4 フォーク
- 5 ナプキン
- 6 チーズ
- 7 ハンバーガー
- 8 バター
- 9 パイナップル
- 10 アイスクリーム

## Exercise 2.4

For each of the countries 1–8, choose a city located in it from a–h.

- |          |            |
|----------|------------|
| 1 ブラジル   | a ジャカルタ    |
| 2 フランス   | b ロンドン     |
| 3 エジプト   | c パリ       |
| 4 イギリス   | d マドリッド    |
| 5 イタリア   | e ヘルシンキ    |
| 6 フィンランド | f ローマ      |
| 7 インドネシア | g カイロ      |
| 8 スペイン   | h リオデジャネイロ |

## Exercise 2.5

Rewrite the following in *katakana*.

- 1 *doa* “door”
- 2 *tesuto* “test”
- 3 *keeki* “cake”
- 4 *deeto* “date”
- 5 *seetaa* “sweater”
- 6 *jamu* “jam”
- 7 *hottodoggu* “hot dog”
- 8 *koohii* “coffee”
- 9 *konpyuutaa* “computer”
- 10 *nyuuyooku* “New York”
- 11 *yooroppa* “Europe”
- 12 *paatii* “party”

# UNIT 3

## Parts of speech

Japanese, like English, has grammatical categories of words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and **ADVERBS** (see also Unit 2). They are often called **PARTS OF SPEECH**. This unit will provide an overview of Japanese parts of speech. Along the way, we will highlight some notable differences between Japanese and English grammatical categories.

### Major categories

The following table is a summary of the major grammatical categories. Their short names, Japanese names, and some examples are also given.

[Major grammatical categories]

	Abbreviation	Japanese name	Examples
Noun	[N]	名詞 <i>meeshi</i>	本 <i>hon</i> “book” 山 <i>yama</i> “mountain” 愛 <i>ai</i> “love”
Verb	[V]	動詞 <i>dooshi</i>	読む <i>yomu</i> “read” 話す <i>hanasu</i> “speak” 食べる <i>taberu</i> “eat”
Verbal Noun	[VN]	動名詞 <i>doomeeshi</i>	勉強 <i>benkyoo</i> “study” 買い物 <i>kaimono</i> “shopping” ファックス <i>fakkusu</i> “fax”
<i>I</i> -adjective	[A]	形容詞 <i>keeyooshi</i>	大きい <i>ookii</i> “big” かわいい <i>kawaii</i> “cute” 痛い <i>itai</i> “painful”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	[NA]	形容動詞 <i>keeyoodooshi</i>	きれいな <i>kiree na</i> “beautiful” 静かな <i>shizuka na</i> “quiet” 好きな <i>suki na</i> “be fond of”
Adverb	[Adv]	副詞 <i>fukushi</i>	ゆっくり <i>yukkuri</i> “slowly” たくさん <i>takusan</i> “a lot” よく <i>yoku</i> “often” あまり (... ない) <i>amari</i> (... <i>nai</i> ) “(not) so much”

There are also words that do not fall into the above categories. We will discuss them later. In the following section, we will first look at each of the major categories.

## Nouns

Nouns describe things, people, places, times, abstract concepts, and the like. Here are some examples.

Things:	テーブル 飛行機	<i>teeburu</i> <i>hikooki</i>	“table” “airplane”
People:	子供 先生	<i>kodomo</i> <i>sensee</i>	“child” “teacher”
Places:	日本 トイレ	<i>nihon</i> <i>toire</i>	“Japan” “toilet”
Times:	夏 夜	<i>natsu</i> <i>yoru</i>	“summer” “night”
Concepts:	愛 インターネット	<i>ai</i> <i>intaanetto</i>	“love” “Internet”

A noun can function as the **SUBJECT** or the **OBJECT** of a **PREDICATE**. In the following example, *hanashimasu* “speak” is the predicate, *rii-san* “Mr. Lee” and *nihongo* “Japanese” are the subject and the object respectively.

リーさんは日本語を話します。 “Mr. Lee speaks Japanese.”  
*rii-san wa nihongo o hanashimasu*

Here, the subject is marked by the **TOPIC** marker *wa*, and the object by the object marker *o*. Markers such as *wa* and *o* are called particles (see Unit 5).

Nouns can also become predicates when followed by the **COPULA VERB** *da* or its **POLITE** form *desu* (see Unit 6).

専攻は日本語だ。 “My major is Japanese.”  
*senkoo wa nihongo da*

専攻は日本語です。 “My major is Japanese.”  
*senkoo wa nihongo desu*

In addition, if a noun is followed by the possessive particle *no*, it can modify another noun. In the following example, *nihongo* “Japanese” modifies *kurasu* “class,” and *no* appears between them.

リーさんは毎日日本語のクラスへ行きます。  
*rii-san wa mainichi nihongo no kurasu e ikimasu*  
 “Mr. Lee goes to his Japanese class every day.”

Note that no definite or indefinite articles (like English “a” and “the”) exist in Japanese, and nouns are used in their bare forms.

## Verbs

A verb’s primary function is to act as a predicate describing an action, such as *yomu* “read” and *taberu* “eat.”

毎日、新聞を**読みます**。 “I read the newspaper every day.”  
*mainichi, shinbun o yomimasu*

昨日、寿司を**食べました**。 “Yesterday, I ate sushi.”  
*kinoo, sushi o tabemashita*

However, there are also verbs that describe a state or a change of state.

あそこに富士山が**見えます**。 “Mt. Fuji is visible over there.”  
*asoko ni fujisan ga miemasu*

コンピューターが**こわれました**。 “The computer broke down.”  
*konpyuutaa ga koware mashita*

You will later see that the classification of verbs into meaning-based groups such as **ACTION VERBS**, **STATIVE VERBS**, and **CHANGE-OF-STATE VERBS** is relevant to various grammatical operations (see Units 5, 15, and 16).

English verbs inflect for tense (e.g., “I **eat** spaghetti”, “I **ate** spaghetti”) and, to a limited extent, for number and person (e.g., “I **am** a student”, “You **are** a student”, “S/he **is** a student”). Japanese verbs conjugate for tense, polarity (i.e., affirmative or negative), and politeness. In addition, what would be expressed as a separate **AUXILIARY VERB** in English is often realized in Japanese as a **SUFFIX** attached to a predicate. Therefore, a single Japanese verb takes many more forms than a corresponding English verb. We will introduce the basic conjugation patterns in Unit 6, and other forms in due course.

## Verbal nouns

Japanese has a class of words that are called **VERBAL NOUNS (VN)** or **SURU-VERBS**. VNs behave like nouns on their own, but like verbs when accompanied by *suru* “do.” In the following sentence, *nihongo* “Japanese” modifies *benkyoo* “study.” Thus, *benkyoo* is a noun in this sentence.

日本語の勉強は楽しいです。 “Japanese study is fun.”  
*nihongo no benkyoo wa tanoshii desu*

In contrast, *benkyoo-shimashita* “studied” in the following sentence functions as a verb and takes *nihongo* as a direct object.

日本語を勉強しました。 “I studied Japanese.”  
*nihongo o benkyoo-shimashita*

There are a large number of VNs of Chinese origin (**SINO-JAPANESE**) and Western origin. In addition, there are many native VNs.

**Sino-Japanese VNs:** 研究(する) *kenkyuu(-suru)* “research”, 勉強(する) *benkyoo(-suru)* “study”, 専攻(する) *senkoo(-suru)* “major”, 電話(する) *denwa(-suru)* “telephone”

**Western-origin VNs:** テスト(する) *tesuto(-suru)* “test”, コピー(する) *kopii(-suru)* “copy”, ファックス(する) *fakkusu(-suru)* “fax”

**Native VNs:** 買い物(する) *kaimono(-suru)* “shopping”, 手入れ(する) *teire(-suru)* “maintenance”, 立ち読み(する) *tachiyomi(-suru)* “reading while standing”

### *i*-adjectives and *na*-adjectives

Adjectives typically describe states, such as conditions or properties of things and people. In Japanese, there are two classes of adjectives known as **I-ADJECTIVES** and **NA-ADJECTIVES**. These names are given because the dictionary form of an *i*-adjective ends in *i*, while that of a *na*-adjective ends in *na*.

<i>i</i> -adjectives			<i>na</i> -adjectives		
大きい	<i>ookii</i>	“big”	きれいな	<i>kiree na</i>	“beautiful”
寒い	<i>samui</i>	“cold”	便利な	<i>benri na</i>	“convenient”
かわいい	<i>kawaii</i>	“cute”	静かな	<i>shizuka na</i>	“quiet”

Pay special attention to *kiree na*. Although its base ends in *i*, it is a *na*-adjective.

Adjectives can be used either as a predicate or as a modifier of a noun.

日本語はおもしろい。 “Japanese is interesting.”  
*nihongo wa omoshiroi*

おもしろい話を聞きました。 “I heard an interesting story.”  
*omoshiroi hanashi o kikimashita*



Just like verbs, *i*-adjectives and *na*-adjectives conjugate for tense, polarity (i.e., affirmative or negative), and politeness. (See Unit 6 for more details.) This characteristic of Japanese adjectives is not shared with English adjectives. On the other hand, Japanese does not have **COMPARATIVE** or **SUPERLATIVE** forms of adjectives, such as *taller* and *tallest* (see Unit 18).

## Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (underlined below).  
Adverbs do not conjugate.

ゆっくり言って下さい。 “Please say it slowly.”  
*yukkuri itte kudasai*

日本語はとてもおもしろいです。 “Japanese is very interesting.”  
*nihongo wa **totemo** omoshiroi desu*

かなりよく分かります。 “I understand quite well.”  
*kanari yoku wakarimasu*

Adverbs carry out many different functions, such as describing manner, degree, quantity, **TENSE**, **ASPECT**, or a speaker’s attitude.

Manner:	ゆっくり はっきり どンドン	<i>yukkuri</i> <i>hakkiri</i> <i>dondon</i>	“slowly” “clearly” “rapidly”
Degree:	たいへん かなり よく あまり (... ない) ぜんぜん (... ない)	<i>taihen</i> <i>kanari</i> <i>yoku</i> <i>amari</i> (... <i>nai</i> ) <i>zenzen</i> (... <i>nai</i> )	“to a great extent” “quite, considerably” “often, well” “(not) so much” “(not) at all”
Quantity:	たくさん すこし ほとんど	<i>takusan</i> <i>sukoshi</i> <i>hotondo</i>	“a lot” “a little” “almost all”
Time:	もうすぐ これから あとで	<i>moosugu</i> <i>korekara</i> <i>atode</i>	“soon” “from now on” “later”
Aspect:	まだ もう やっと	<i>mada</i> <i>moo</i> <i>yatto</i>	“still, not yet” “already, yet” “finally”
Attitude:	ぜひ どうぞ きっと	<i>zehi</i> <i>doozo</i> <i>kitto</i>	“without fail” “please” “surely”

Certain adverbs such as *amari* (...*nai*) “(not) so much” and *zenzen* (...*nai*) “(not) at all” usually occur with negative predicates as in the following examples. (See also Units 14 and 17.)

あまり食べません。 “I don’t eat very much.”

*amari tabemasen*

ぜんぜん分かりません。 “I don’t understand at all.”

*zenzen wakarimasen*

## Word formation

In English, a SUFFIX can change words from one grammatical category to another: e.g., beauty [N] → beautiful [A], kind [A] → kindness [N], slow [A] → slowly [Adv]. A similar process occurs in Japanese. Here are some examples.

痛い [A]	→	痛がる [V]
<i>itai</i>		<i>itagaru</i>
“painful”		“complain of pain”

便利な [NA]	→	便利さ [N]
<i>benri na</i>		<i>benrisa</i>
“convenient”		“convenience”

English has many COMPOUND WORDS such as “greenhouse” or “highway” that consist of two words or more. Japanese also has numerous compound words. Some have meanings that are easily predictable based on the component words, but others do not.

古い [A]	+	本 [N]	→	古本 [N]
<i>furui</i>		<i>hon</i>		<i>furuhon</i>
“old”		“book”		“secondhand book”

話す [V]	+	合う [V]	→	話し合う [V]
<i>hanasu</i>		<i>au</i>		<i>hanashiau</i>
“talk”		“match”		“discuss”

Sino-Japanese words are especially productive in compounding.

中国人 [N]	+	学生 [N]	→	中国人学生 [N]
<i>chuugokujin</i>		<i>gakusee</i>		<i>chuugokujin-gakusee</i>
“Chinese person”		“student”		“Chinese student”

携帯 [VN]	+	電話 [N]	→	携帯電話 [N]
<i>keetai</i>		<i>denwa</i>		<i>keetai-denwa</i>
“carry”		“telephone”		“cell phone”

Some undergo the process of **SEQUENTIAL VOICING**. That is, when two words form a compound, the initial, voiceless consonant of the second word often becomes voiced. In this process, /t/ and /d/, /s/ and /z/, /k/ and /g/, and /h/ and /b/ form pairs.

出る [V] + 口 [N] → 出口 [N]  
*deru*            *kuchi*            *deguchi*  
“exit”            “mouth”            “exit”

青い [A] + 白い [A] → 青白い [A]  
*aoi*            *shiroi*            *aojiroi*  
“blue”            “white”            “pale”

Other categories

The following categories have a relatively small and closed membership.

[Other grammatical categories]

	Abbreviation	Japanese name	Examples
Prenominal	[PreN]	連体詞 <i>rentaishi</i>	ある <i>aru</i> “a certain” いろいろな <i>ironna</i> “various” 大きな <i>ookina</i> “big”
Particle (see Unit 5)	[Part]	助詞 <i>joshi</i>	は <i>wa</i> , も <i>mo</i> , が <i>ga</i> , の <i>no</i> , を <i>o</i> , へ <i>e</i> , に <i>ni</i> , と <i>to</i> , から <i>kara</i> , まで <i>made</i> , で <i>de</i> , けど <i>kedo</i>
Connective	[Con]	接続詞 <i>setsuzokushi</i>	しかし <i>shikashi</i> “but” それで <i>sorede</i> “therefore” それに <i>soreni</i> “furthermore”
Demonstrative (see Unit 8)	[Dem]	指示詞 <i>shijishi</i>	これ <i>kore</i> “this” それ <i>sore</i> “that” あれ <i>are</i> “that one over there”
Pronoun (see Units 10 and 11)	[Pro]	代名詞 <i>daimeeshi</i>	私 <i>watashi</i> “I” あなた <i>anata</i> “you” かれ <i>kare</i> “he” ...の ... <i>no</i> “...one”
Exclamative	[Excl]	感嘆詞 <i>kantanshi</i>	ああ <i>aa</i> , へえ <i>hee</i> , あの <i>ano</i> , こら <i>kora</i> , ねえ <i>nee</i> , ありがとう <i>arigatoo</i> , さようなら <i>sayoonara</i>

**PRENOMINALS**, like adjectives, act as modifiers of nouns. However, unlike adjectives, they can never serve as a predicate. The Japanese words *ookii* and *ookina* both correspond to the English adjective “big,” but only *ookii* is used both predicatively and prenominally. In contrast, *ookina* is a prenominal and cannot appear as a predicate. To the relief of learners, there are only a handful of cases like this: *ookina/ookii* “big,” *chiisana/chiisai* “small,” and *okashina/okashii* “funny.” The prenominal members of these pairs have more emotional nuances than their adjective counterparts.

**PARTICLES** appear typically after a noun or another particle to mark the function of the preceding part (see Unit 5).

**CONNECTIVES** connect independent sentences. Their functions are sometimes similar to connective particles (see Unit 5). Unlike connective particles, which are attached to the preceding elements, connectives form separate words.

**DEMONSTRATIVES** locate things or people in terms of their distance from the speaker and the listener. The distance may be physical or psychological. Unlike the English system, which makes a two-way distinction, the Japanese demonstrative system makes a three-way distinction (see Unit 8).

**PRONOUNS** substitute for nouns. Japanese **PERSONAL PRONOUNS** such as *watashi* “I” and *anata* “you” are differentiated according to the person (first, second, or third), the **NUMBER** (singular or plural), and social factors (see Unit 10). They behave like regular nouns and may be dropped quite freely (see Unit 4). The pronoun *no* “one” is more grammatically constrained. For instance, it cannot occur on its own, always requiring a modifier as in *takai no* “expensive one.” (See Unit 11 for more detail on *no*.)

**EXCLAMATIVES** express the speaker’s attitude or emotion in one word. Interjections, greetings, and formulaic expressions such as apologies form exclamatives.

Lastly, here is a word of caution.

*Roses are roses, but...* do not assume that English words will find their Japanese counterparts classified in exactly the same manner. For example, the English word “healthy” and its antonym “sick” are both adjectives, but their Japanese counterparts do not fall into a single category: *genki na* “healthy” is a *na*-adjective, but *byooki* “sickness” is a noun and requires *no* to modify a noun, as in *byooki no hito* “sick person.”

## Exercise 3.1

Identify the parts of speech of the words in bold.

- 鈴木さんは**イギリス**へ行きました。  
*suzuki-san wa **igirisu** e ikimashita*  
 “Mr. Suzuki went to the UK.”

- 2 二階のトイレは小さい。  
*nikai no toire wa **chiisai***  
“The bathroom on the second floor is small.”
- 3 テーブルの上に大きいいりんごがあります。  
*teeburu no ue ni **ookii** ringo ga arimasu*  
“There is a big apple on the table.”
- 4 夜はとても静かです。  
*yoru wa **totemo** shizuka desu*  
“Nighttime is very quiet.”
- 5 富士山が見えます。  
*fujisan ga **miemasu***  
“Mt. Fuji is visible.” (= You can see Mt. Fuji.)

### Exercise 3.2

For each of the following word groups, identify the word that does not belong to the same part of speech as the others.

- 1 書く *kaku* “write”/見る *miru* “see”/よく *yoku* “often”/行く *iku* “go”
- 2 静かな *shizuka na* “quiet”/小さな *chiisana* “small”/きれいな *kiree na* “pretty”/好きな *suki na* “be fond of”
- 3 ありがとう *arigatoo* “thanks”/たくさん *takusan* “a lot”/はっきり *hakkiri* “clearly”/まだ *mada* “still, not yet”
- 4 八月 *hachigatsu* “August”/先生 *sensee* “teacher”/トイレ *toire* “toilet”/白い *shiroi* “white”
- 5 コピーする *kopii-suru* “copy”/イタリア *itaria* “Italy”/レストラン *resutoran* “restaurant”/文化 *bunka* “culture”

### Exercise 3.3

Guess the meanings of the following compound words from the meanings of their parts.

- 1 日本経済 *nihon-keezai* [日本 *nihon* “Japan” + 経済 *keezai* “economy”]
- 2 留学生 *ryuugakusee* [留学 *ryuugaku* “study abroad” + 学生 *gakusee* “student”]
- 3 地下鉄 *chikatetsu* [地下 *chika* “underground” + 鉄道 *tetsudoo* “railway”]
- 4 子犬 *koinu* [子 *ko* “child” + 犬 *inu* “dog”]

### Exercise 3.4

Consider the meaning of the following verbs, and mark the action verbs with [AV] and the stative verbs with [SV].

- |         |                        |              |
|---------|------------------------|--------------|
| 1 来ます   | <i>kimasu</i>          | “come”       |
| 2 見えます  | <i>miemasu</i>         | “is visible” |
| 3 飲みます  | <i>nomimasu</i>        | “drink”      |
| 4 聞こえます | <i>kikoemasu</i>       | “is audible” |
| 5 勉強します | <i>benkyoo-shimasu</i> | “study”      |
| 6 要ります  | <i>irimasu</i>         | “need”       |

### Exercise 3.5

Mark the *i*-adjectives with [A], and the *na*-adjectives with [NA].

- |           |                       |                      |
|-----------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1 かわいいです  | <i>kawaii desu</i>    | “cute”               |
| 2 静かです    | <i>shizuka desu</i>   | “quiet”              |
| 3 おいしいです  | <i>oishii desu</i>    | “delicious”          |
| 4 忙しいです   | <i>isogashii desu</i> | “busy”               |
| 5 きれいです   | <i>kiree desu</i>     | “beautiful, clean”   |
| 6 おもしろいです | <i>omoshiroi desu</i> | “interesting, funny” |

### Exercise 3.6

Identify the parts of speech of the words in bold.

- 東京**から**小包が来ました。  
*tookyoo **kara** kozutsumi ga kimashita*  
“A package came from Tokyo.”
- あれ**は何ですか。  
***are** wa nan desu ka*  
“What’s that?”
- ああ**、なるほど。  
***aa**, naruhodo*  
“Oh I see, it makes sense.”
- 今日は寒いです。**それに**、雨です。  
*kyoo wa samui desu. **soreni**, ame desu*  
“Today is cold. Besides, it’s rainy.”

# UNIT 4

## Word order and sentence structure

In English, word order often determines grammatical roles of phrases (e.g., subject or object) or sentence types (e.g., statement or question). This is not the case in Japanese. Word order is usually more flexible in Japanese than in English, although there are still restrictions. This unit will provide an overview of the basic rules concerning word order in Japanese.

### Basic word order

In Japanese, the predicate always appears at the end of a sentence. The predicate typically describes what the subject is or does. There are three kinds of predicate in Japanese: verb, adjective, and noun with the copula verb.

Subject	Predicate
佐藤さんが	来ました。(V) “Ms. Sato came.”
<i>satoo-san ga</i>	<i>kimashita</i>
佐藤さんは	親切です。(NA) “Ms. Sato is kind.”
<i>satoo-san wa</i>	<i>shinsetsu desu</i>
佐藤さんは	弁護士です。(N) “Ms. Sato is a lawyer.”
<i>satoo-san wa</i>	<i>bengoshi desu</i>

For the explanation of particles such as *wa* and *ga*, see Unit 5. For conjugation patterns of predicates, see Unit 6.

While every sentence has a predicate and a subject (though the latter may not be explicit, as we will see below), whether there is an object or an **INDIRECT OBJECT** depends on the predicate type.

If the predicate takes both a subject and a direct object, as in the case of **TRANSITIVE VERBS** and **TRANSITIVE ADJECTIVES**, the most neutral order is subject-object-predicate. Which particles to use depends on the type of predicate (see Unit 5), but the order remains the same.

Subject	Object	Predicate (V)
---------	--------	---------------

伊藤さんが ピザを 食べました。

*itoo-san ga piza o tabemashita*

“Mr. Ito ate pizza.”

Subject	Object	Predicate (NA)
---------	--------	----------------

伊藤さんは ピザが 好きです。

*itoo-san wa piza ga suki desu*

“Mr. Ito likes pizza.”

For sentences containing the subject as well as both direct and indirect objects, the following is considered the neutral order.

Subject	Indirect object	Direct object	Predicate (V)
---------	-----------------	---------------	---------------

伊藤さんが 山田さんに Eメールを 出しました。

*itoo-san ga yamada-san ni ii-meeru o dashimashita*

“Mr. Ito sent an email to Ms. Yamada.”

Other phrases that add extra information appear most naturally between the subject and the direct/indirect object.

伊藤さんが大学から山田さんにEメールを出しました。

*itoo-san ga daigaku kara yamada-san ni ii-meeru o dashimashita*

“Mr. Ito sent an email to Ms. Yamada from the university.”

The exception is time words, which are often placed at the beginning of a sentence.

昨日、伊藤さんが山田さんと渋谷でピザを食べました。

*kinoo, itoo-san ga yamada-san to shibuya de piza o tabemashita*

“Yesterday, Mr. Ito ate pizza with Ms. Yamada in Shibuya.”

However, none of the above-mentioned “neutral” orders is absolute. Aside from the need for the predicate to appear at the end of a sentence, word order in Japanese is quite flexible, as we will see next.

## Flexibility

Unlike English, Japanese commonly allows reordering of phrases, as long as the predicate remains at the end of the sentence. The following sentence also means “Mr. Ito ate pizza.”



ピザを伊藤さんが食べました。  
*piza o itoo-san ga tabemashita*  
 “Mr. Ito ate pizza.”

This is because the particles, rather than the word order, indicate which phrase is the subject and which phrase is the object (see Unit 5).

This is true with longer sentences as well. The phrases before the predicate, highlighted in bold below, can appear in any order.

昨日/伊藤さんが/山田さんと/渋谷で/ピザを食べました。  
*kinoo/itoo-san ga/yamada-san to/shibuya de/piza o tabemashita*  
 “Yesterday, Mr. Ito ate pizza with Ms. Yamada in Shibuya.”

However, reordering of phrases causes a subtle change in meaning. A phrase that appears later tends to be interpreted as a focus of contrast. For example, a *wa*-marked topic phrase which is not the focus of contrast is usually placed at the beginning of a sentence. (See Unit 5 for more on the functions of *wa*. See Unit 13 for how word order changes meaning in the expressions of existence.)

伊藤さんはピザを食べました。 [*wa* = topic]  
*itoo-san wa piza o tabemashita*  
 “As for Mr. Ito, he ate pizza.”

If a *wa*-marked phrase appears elsewhere, it receives a contrastive reading.

ピザを伊藤さんは食べました。 [*wa* = contrastive]  
*piza o itoo-san wa tabemashita*  
 “Mr. Ito, but not other people, ate pizza.”

## Omission

Except for the predicate, any phrase may be omitted if it can be understood from the context.

(昨日)(伊藤さんが)(山田さんと)(渋谷で)(ピザを)食べました。  
*(kinoo)(itoo-san ga)(yamada-san to)(shibuya de)(piza o) tabemashita*  
 “Yesterday, Mr. Ito ate pizza with Ms. Yamada in Shibuya.”

If the topic/subject is omitted without contextual information linking it to something else, it is understood to be the speaker.

ピザを食べました。 “I ate pizza.”  
*piza o tabemashita*

Likewise, the omitted topic/subject of a question is usually understood to be the listener.

ピザを食べますか。 “Will you eat pizza?”  
*piza o tabemasu ka*

English requires pronouns in the preceding cases. In Japanese, on the other hand, there is a strong preference to omit pronouns such as *watashi* “I” and *anata* “you” (see also Unit 3). In order to sound natural, avoid repeating pronouns.

(私は)(私の)友だちとピザを食べました。  
(~~watashi~~ wa)(~~watashi~~ no) *tomodachi to piza o tabemashita*  
“I ate pizza with my friend.”

## Uniform word order for statements and questions

Word order in English varies according to whether a sentence is a statement, a YES-NO QUESTION, or a WH-QUESTION.

Mr. Ito will eat pizza. [statement]  
Will Mr. Ito eat pizza? [yes-no question]  
What will Mr. Ito eat? [wh-question]

In contrast, Japanese word order does not vary according to sentence types. The subject, object, and verb of the Japanese sentences corresponding to these English sentences can appear in the same order. (See Unit 7 for more on questions.)

伊藤さんはピザを食べます。 [statement]  
*itoo-san wa piza o tabemasu*

伊藤さんはピザを食べますか。 [yes-no question]  
*itoo-san wa piza o tabemasu ka*

伊藤さんは何を食べますか。 [wh-question]  
*itoo-san wa nani o tabemasu ka*

## Placement of noun modifiers

When creating a **NOUN PHRASE** (a unit consisting of modifiers and a noun), you must always place the modifier before the modified noun. (See Unit 12 for how this is reflected in expressions of time.) A modifier noun must appear with the possessive particle *no*, and a modifier *na*-adjective with *na*. A modifying *i*-adjective or verb must appear in the **PLAIN** style (see Unit 6).

N:	[野菜の]ピザ	[ <i>yasai no</i> ] <i>piza</i>	“vegetable pizza”
NA:	[ヘルシーな]ピザ	[ <i>herushii na</i> ] <i>piza</i>	“healthy pizza”
A:	[大きい]ピザ	[ <i>ookii</i> ] <i>piza</i>	“large pizza”
V:	[違う]ピザ	[ <i>chigau</i> ] <i>piza</i>	“different pizza”

## Placement of dependent clauses

As we have seen, a sentence contains at least one subject and one predicate. However, there are sentences that contain more than one subject and one predicate. In such a sentence, the extra subject(s) and predicate(s) form sentence-like units dependent on some other units in the sentence. These sentence-like units are referred to as **DEPENDENT CLAUSES** as opposed to the main sentence, also referred to as the **MAIN CLAUSE**.

There are three types of dependent clauses: (i) noun-modifying clauses, (ii) sentence-modifying clauses, and (iii) nominalized or noun-like clauses. In the following sections, we will see their placement patterns in Japanese in comparison to English patterns.

### Noun-modifying clauses

In English, noun-modifying clauses appear after the noun they modify. In contrast, Japanese noun-modifying clauses appear before the noun they modify. Thus, Japanese noun-modifying clauses follow the general pattern of noun modifiers we saw in the previous section.

[僕が作った]ピザ	“the pizza [that <b>I made</b> ]”
[ <i>boku ga tsukutta</i> ] <i>piza</i>	
[伊藤さんが好きな]ピザ	“the pizza [that <b>Mr. Ito likes</b> ]”
[ <i>itoo-san ga suki na</i> ] <i>piza</i>	
[ピザが好きな]伊藤さん	“Mr. Ito [who <b>likes pizza</b> ]”
[ <i>piza ga suki na</i> ] <i>itoo-san</i>	

You can combine noun-modifying clauses with the other types of modifiers. Remember to keep the modified noun at the end of the noun phrase.

僕が作ったヘルシーな野菜のピザ  
*boku ga tsukutta herushii na yasai no pizza*  
 “the healthy vegetable pizza that I made”

Such long noun phrases may appear anywhere that short noun phrases may appear.

僕が作ったヘルシーな野菜のピザはおいしかったです。  
*boku ga tsukutta herushii na yasai no pizza wa oishikatta desu*  
 “The healthy vegetable pizza that I made was delicious.”

(See Unit 18 for the use of noun-modifying clauses in comparative expressions.)

### Sentence-modifying clauses

In English, sentence-modifying clauses may precede or follow the main clause they modify. However, the Japanese counterparts always precede the main clause. (See Units 10 and 23 for more on sentence-modifying clauses.)

[**Even though I was on a diet**], I ate pizza.  
 I ate pizza [**even though I was on a diet**].  
 [ダイエット中だけど]、ピザを食べました。(See Units 5 and 12.)  
*[daietto-chuu dakedo], pizza o tabemashita*

### Nominalized clauses

Just as in English, Japanese nominalized clauses appear in various positions depending on their grammatical roles. (See Unit 11 for more on the nominalized clauses. See Units 14, 16, 18, and 22 for their uses in various contexts.)

I like [**eating pizza**].  
 私は[ピザを食べるの]が好きです。  
*watashi wa [pizza o taberu no] ga suki desu*  
 [**Eating pizza every day**] is unhealthy.  
 [毎日ピザを食べるの]は体に悪いです。  
*[mainichi pizza o taberu no] wa karada ni warui desu*

## Exercise 4.1

Identify the predicate of the sentence.

- 1 リーさんは日本語を話します。  
*rii-san wa nihongo o hanashimasu*  
“Mr. Lee speaks Japanese.”
- 2 毎日、新聞を読みます。  
*mainichi, shinbun o yomimasu*  
“I read the newspaper every day.”
- 3 あの映画はおもしろかったです。  
*ano eega wa omoshirokatta desu*  
“That movie was interesting.”
- 4 ジョーンズさんはイギリス人です。  
*joonzu-san wa igirisujin desu*  
“Mr. Jones is British.”

## Exercise 4.2

Identify the subject of the predicate marked in bold.

- 1 私は**アメリカ人**です。  
*watashi wa **amerikajin** desu*  
“I am American.”
- 2 山田さんが家へ**来ました**。  
*yamada-san ga uchi e **kimashita***  
“Ms. Yamada came to my house.”
- 3 昨日、山田さんはクラスに**来ませんでした**。  
*kinoo, yamada-san wa kurasu ni **kimasen deshita***  
“Yesterday, Ms. Yamada didn’t come to class.”
- 4 ケーキは私が**買いました**。  
*keeki wa watashi ga **kaimashita***  
“As for the cake, I bought it.”

## Exercise 4.3

If the implied subject of the predicate (marked in bold) is likely to be the speaker, insert “I” in the translation; if it is likely to be the listener, insert “you.”

- 1 伊藤さんとテニスをしました。  
*itoo-san to tennis o **shimashita***  
“\_\_\_\_\_ played tennis with Mr. Ito.”
- 2 明日、学部の忘年会へ行きますか。  
*ashita, gakubu no boonenkai e **ikimasu** ka*  
“Will \_\_\_\_\_ go to the departmental end-of-year party?”
- 3 先生、すみません。宿題を忘れました。  
*sensee, sumimasen. shukudai o **wasuremashita***  
“Professor, I am sorry. \_\_\_\_\_ forgot the homework.”
- 4 ピザがあったから、食べました。  
*piza ga atta kara, **tabemashita***  
“Because there was a pizza, \_\_\_\_\_ ate it.”

## Exercise 4.4

Identify the subject of the predicate marked in bold.

- 1 伊藤さんが食べたケーキは大きかったです。  
*itoo-san ga tabeta keeki wa **ookikatta desu***  
“The cake Mr. Ito ate was big.”
- 2 伊藤さんが**食べた**ケーキは大きかったです。  
*itoo-san ga **tabeta** keeki wa ookikatta desu*  
“The cake Mr. Ito ate was big.”
- 3 伊藤さんはケーキが**好きだ**と思います。  
*itoo-san wa keeki ga **suki da** to omoimasu*  
“I think that Mr. Ito likes cake.”
- 4 伊藤さんはケーキが**好きだ**と思います。  
*itoo-san wa keeki ga suki da to **omoimasu***  
“I think that Mr. Ito likes cake.”

## Exercise 4.5

Translate the following conversations into English.

- 1 A: 伊藤さん、明日、大学へ来ますか。  
*itoo-san, ashita, daigaku e kimasu ka*  
B: はい、来ます。  
*hai, kimasu*

- 2 A: 友だちが日本へ来ます。  
*tomodachi ga nihon e kimasu*  
 B: いつ (“when”) 来ますか。  
*itsu kimasu ka*

## Exercise 4.6

Rearrange the words to form a sentence that corresponds to the English sentence in brackets.

- 1 います・犬が・かわいい  
*imasu • inu ga • kawaii*  
 “is” “dog” “cute”  
 [There is a cute dog.]
- 2 です・専攻は・美術・私の  
*desu • senkoo wa • bijutsu • watashi no*  
 “is” “major” “art” “my”  
 [My major is art.]
- 3 とても・冬は・京都の・寒いです  
*totemo • fuyu wa • kyoto no • samui desu*  
 “very” “winter” “Kyoto’s” “is cold”  
 [Winter in Kyoto is very cold.]
- 4 伊藤さんが・親切でした・弁護士は・話した  
*itoo-san ga • shinsetsu deshita • bengoshi wa • hanashita*  
 “Mr. Ito” “was kind” “lawyer” “talked”  
 [The lawyer Mr. Ito talked to was kind.]

# UNIT 5

## Basic particles

Particles attach to a noun phrase or clause and carry out various functions. They are grouped into the following five types: structure particles, meaning-oriented particles, **DISCOURSE** particles, connective particles, and conversation particles.

You do not need to learn the terminology, but it is a good idea to be aware of the differences between these groups. Some particles are multi-functional and appear in more than one group.

### Structure particles: *ga*, *o*, *ni*, and *no*

Structure particles mark the grammatical roles of noun phrases, such as subject, direct object, and indirect object.

Here, the structure particles are marked in bold.

Subject	Predicate
田中さん <b>が</b>	来ました。
<i>tanaka-san</i> <b><i>ga</i></b>	<i>kimashita</i>
“Mr. Tanaka came.”	

Subject	Object	Predicate
田中さん <b>が</b>	ピザ <b>を</b>	食べました。
<i>tanaka-san</i> <b><i>ga</i></b>	<i>piza</i> <b><i>o</i></b>	<i>tabemashita</i>
“Mr. Tanaka ate pizza.”		

Subject	Object	Indirect Object	Predicate
田中さん <b>が</b>	山田さん <b>を</b>	木村さん <b>に</b>	紹介しました。
<i>tanaka-san</i> <b><i>ga</i></b>	<i>yamada-san</i> <b><i>o</i></b>	<i>kimura-san</i> <b><i>ni</i></b>	<i>shookai-shimashita</i>
“Mr. Tanaka introduced Ms. Yamada to Mr. Kimura.”			

As long as particles are moved with the noun phrases they mark, word order in Japanese is fairly flexible (see Unit 4). However, if you switch just



the particles, you will end up with unintended meanings. Compare the following sentences with the previous two examples.

田中さん**を**ピザ**が**食べました。 → ！？

*tanaka-san o pizza ga tabemashita*

“The pizza ate Mr. Tanaka.”

田中さん**を**山田さん**に**木村さん**が**紹介しました。

*tanaka-san o yamada-san ni kimura-san ga shookai-shimashita*

“Mr. Kimura introduced Mr. Tanaka to Ms. Yamada.”

Again, this is because particles determine grammatical roles of noun phrases in Japanese. The general pattern is that *ga* marks the subject, *o* marks the object, and *ni* marks the indirect object.

There is an exception to this rule. The particle *ga* also marks the object of a **STATIVE PREDICATE** (see also Units 3, 14, 15, 16, and 22). The term stative predicate refers to adjectives, noun predicates, and a group of verbs known as stative verbs. Stative predicates describe stable or sustained conditions. A small number of adjectives and stative verbs take an object. When they do, the object is marked with *ga*, as shown below. (See the later section on discourse particles for an explanation of why the subject is marked with *wa*.)

#### <Adjectives>

(私は)家**が**ほしいです。 “I want a house.”

*(watashi wa) uchi ga hoshii desu*

(私は)日本語**が**好きです。 “I like Japanese.”

*(watashi wa) nihongo ga suki desu*

(私は)虫**が**嫌いです。 “I hate bugs.”

*(watashi wa) mushi ga kirai desu*

#### <Stative verbs>

(私は)英語**が**分かります。 “I understand English.”

*(watashi wa) eigo ga wakarimasu*

(私は)車**が**要ります。 “I need a car.”

*(watashi wa) kuruma ga irimasu*

(私は)翻訳**が**できます。 “I can do translations.”

*(watashi wa) hon'yaku ga dekimasu*

Finally, *no* is attached to a noun phrase that modifies another noun. Used in this way, *no* is often called the possessive particle, but the relationship between the two noun phrases that *no* mediates goes far beyond that of “possessor and possessed.” Here are some examples.

私のかばん “my bag”

*watashi no kaban*

ダイヤのネックレス “diamond necklace”

*daiya no nekkuresu*

東京の高橋さん “Ms. Takahashi in/from Tokyo”

*tookyoo no takahashi-san*

夏休みの宿題 “summer (break) homework”

*natsuyasumi no shukudai*

男の先生 “male teacher”

*otoko no sensee*

日本語の勉強 “Japanese language study”

*nihongo no benkyoo*

There can be more than one *no* within a noun phrase.

日本語の勉強の時間

*nihongo no benkyoo no jikan*

“time for studying Japanese”

## Meaning-oriented particles: *ni*, *e*, *de*, *kara*, *made*, and *to*

Meaning-oriented particles are similar to English **PREPOSITIONS**, except that they appear after a noun phrase. There are many particles in this group. Here, we will study the following six particles: *ni*, *e*, *de*, *kara*, *made*, and *to*.

*Ni* is used with verbs of movement to mark the arrival or contact point.

大学に着きました。

[arrival point]

*daigaku ni tsukimashita*

“I arrived at the university.”

いすに座りました。

[contact point]

*isu ni suwarimashita*

“I sat on a chair.”

The *ni* that indicates arrival may be substituted by *e* (written in *hiragana* as え), because *e* marks the target of a directional movement.

大学へ着きました。 [target of directional movement]

*daigaku e tsukimashita*

“I arrived at the university.”

*Ni* also marks the location of a stable entity. When used in this way, *ni* may not be substituted by *e*. (See also Unit 13.)

大学にいます。 [location of a stable entity]

*daigaku ni imasu*

“I am at the university.”

大学に図書館があります。

*daigaku ni toshokan ga arimasu*

“There is a library at the university.”

In contrast, *de* marks the location of an action or an event.

図書館で勉強します。 [location of an action]

*toshokan de benkyoo-shimasu*

“I study at the library.”

図書館でクラスがあります。 [location of an event]

*toshokan de kurasu ga arimasu*

“There is a class in the library.”

*Ni* is also used to mark a cooperative participant in an interpersonal transaction (see also Unit 24).

山本さんに聞きました。 [interactive participant]

*yamamoto-san ni kikimashita*

“I asked Mr. Yamamoto.”

Finally, *ni* also marks a specific point in time, while the particles *kara* “from” and *made* “until” respectively mark the starting and finishing point (see Unit 12).

七時に学校に行きます。 [specific point in time]

*shichiji ni gakkoo ni ikimasu*

“I go to school at 7.”

九時から五時まで仕事をします。 [starting/finishing point]

*kuji kara goji made shigoto o shimasu*

“I work from 9 to 5.”

*De* is also used to mark a cause, means, or material.

雪で電車が遅れました。 [cause]

*yuki de densha ga okuremashita*

“Due to snow, the train got delayed.”

タクシーで行きます。 [means]

*takushii de ikimasu*

“I will go by taxi.”

いちごでジャムを作りました。 [material]  
*ichigo de jamu o tsukurimashita*  
“I made jam with strawberries.”

The particle *to* marks a partner in an action.

高橋さんとテニスをしました。 [partner]  
*takahashi-san to tennis o shimashita*  
“I played tennis with Ms. Takahashi.”

*To* also marks the basis of comparison. (See Unit 18.)

## Discourse particles: *wa* and *mo*

### Overview

Discourse particles *wa* (written in *hiragana* as は) and *mo* do not have English counterparts, but they play important roles in Japanese grammar. They express the speaker's point of view as to how a discourse is constructed. For example, in the following sentences, the first *wa* introduces the topic, *mo* introduces what the speaker considers as an addition to the topic, and the second *wa* marks a point of contrast.

私はスペイン人です。ホセさんもスペイン人です。ロサさんは、ポルトガル人です。  
*watashi wa supeinjin desu. hose-san mo supeinjin desu. rosa-san wa porutogarujin desu*  
“I am Spanish. Jose is also Spanish. But Rosa is Portuguese.”

In the following, we will turn to a more detailed discussion of the functions of *wa* and *mo*.

### Topic-marking function of *wa*

In order to facilitate communication, it is not sufficient to produce separate sentences. A speaker needs to organize the flow of information and construct a coherent discourse. To achieve this, a new sentence may be anchored to something previously mentioned. In English, this function is partially performed by pronouns.

Do you remember **John**? **He** is the guy who used to date Mary.

In this example, the pronoun *he* provides a smooth transition between the first and the second sentences by identifying the link between them. The

relevance of the second sentence to the first thus already established, the listener's attention immediately focuses on the new information.

Japanese does not use pronouns in this manner. Instead, Japanese uses the topic particle *wa* to similar effect. In the following examples, the connections between the items in bold are reaffirmed by the particle *wa*. This makes the passages coherent.

昨日、家に**山本さん**が来ました。いっしょに晩ご飯を食べました。**山本さん**は元気でした。

*kinoo, uchi ni **yamamoto-san ga** kimashita. issho ni bangohan o tabemashita. **yamamoto-san wa** genki deshita*

“Mr. Yamamoto came to my house yesterday. We ate dinner together. He was well.”

昨日、家で**ピザ**を焼きました。**ピザ**はちょっとこげましたが、おいしかったです。

*Kinoo, uchi de **piza o** yakimashita. **Piza wa** chotto kogemashita ga oishikatta desu.*

“Yesterday, I made a pizza at home. It got burned a little, but it was delicious.”

The linking may be with something in the context. For instance, in English, the first or the second person pronoun, unlike the third person pronouns, can appear without any previous mention.

**I** don't want to go to school today! **You** can't make me go!

This is because the speaker or listener is in the immediate context of the discourse. Similarly, the Japanese first person pronoun *watashi* often appears with *wa*. Such use of *wa* allows a speaker to avoid the impression of bringing something up abruptly out of context.

昨日、**私**は大学へ行きませんでした。

*kinoo, **watashi wa** daigaku e ikimasen deshita.*

“Yesterday, I didn't go to the university.”

The subject of a predicate that describes an individual's typically permanent condition tends to be marked with *wa*. This is also to avoid the impression of abruptly introducing new information out of context.

高橋さん**は**親切です。 “Ms. Takahashi is kind.”

*takahashi-san **wa** shinsetsu desu*

リーさん**は**英語が分かります。 “Mr. Lee understands English.”

*rii-san **wa** eigo ga wakarimasu*

By contrast, a sentence without a topic phrase gives the impression that the speaker is breaking some news.

昨日、大学へ行きませんでした。  
*kinoo, daigaku e ikimasen deshita*  
 “Yesterday, (surprise) I didn’t go to the university.”

リーさんが英語が分かります。  
*rii-san ga eego ga wakarimasu*  
 “MR. LEE understands English!”

Do not use *wa* for a wh-question word and its corresponding part in the answer. (See Unit 7 for more on questions.) This is because what is being questioned is unknown, and therefore cannot be linked to any previous information.

A: 誰がピザを焼きましたか。 “Who baked the pizza?”  
*dare ga piza o yakimashita ka*

B: 私が焼きました。 “I did.”  
*watashi ga yakimashita*

Even the subject of a predicate that describes an individual’s typically permanent condition will not be marked with *wa* if its identity is in question.

A: 誰が英語が分かりますか。 “Who understands English?”  
*dare ga eego ga wakarimasu ka*

B: リーさんが分かります。 “Mr. Lee does.”  
*rii-san ga wakarimasu*

### Contrastive use of *wa*

The second function of *wa* is to mark a **CONTRASTIVE FOCUS**. This is accomplished in one of the following ways (see also Unit 9):

- (i) You use *wa* in a position other than the sentence initial position (not counting a location/time setting phrase such as *tookyoo de* “in Tokyo” and *kinoo* “yesterday”).

ピザを鈴木さんは食べました。  
*piza o suzuki-san wa tabemashita*  
 “MR. SUZUKI ate pizza (other people didn’t).”

- (ii) You pronounce the *wa* phrase with prominence.

鈴木さん**は**ピザを食べました。

*suzuki-san wa piza o tabemashita*

“MR. SUZUKI ate pizza (other people didn’t).”

- (iii) You compare multiple *wa* phrases explicitly.

鈴木さん**は**ピザを食べましたが、リーさん**は**食べませんでした。

*suzuki-san wa piza o tabemashita ga, rii-san wa tabemasen deshita*

“MR. SUZUKI ate pizza, but MR. LEE didn’t.”

## Functions of *mo*

*Mo* introduces an additional entity to which a previously mentioned statement can be applied. The rough English equivalent of *mo* is “also,” but unlike “also,” *mo* directly attaches to a noun phrase. In examples (a) and (b) below, *mo* is unambiguously attached to the subject and the object respectively.

[Previous statement]

鈴木さんがピザを食べました。

*suzuki-san ga piza o tabemashita*

“Mr. Suzuki ate pizza.”

- (a) 渡辺さん**も**(ピザを)食べました。

*watanabe-san mo (piza o) tabemashita*

“Ms. Watanabe also ate (pizza).”

- (b) (鈴木さんは)ホットドッグ**も**食べました。

*(suzuki-san wa) hottodoggu mo tabemashita*

“(Mr. Suzuki) also ate a hotdog.”

*Mo* does not attach directly to a noun phrase within a noun predicate. Given a statement of the type “A is X,” you can add the statement “B too is X” to it as in (a) below. However, if you want to say “A is also Y,” you can only use the formal alternative *de mo arimasu* as in (b).

[Previous statement]

マット・デイモンは俳優です。

*matto daemon wa haiyuu desu*

“Matt Damon is an actor.”

- (a) ベン・アフレック**も**俳優です。

*ben afurekku mo haiyuu desu*

“Ben Affleck is an actor, too.”

- (b) (マット・デイモンは)映画監督でもあります。  
(*matto demon wa*) *eega-kantoku de mo arimasu*  
“(Matt Damon) is also a movie director.”

## Double particles

*Wa* and *mo* can directly attach to a noun phrase replacing *ga* and *o*.

渡辺さんはサラダも食べました。  
*watanabe-san wa sarada mo tabemashita*  
“Ms. Watanabe ate salad, too (in addition to something else).”

*Wa* and *mo* can follow most other particles, resulting in double particles.

中村さんと話しました。山田さんとも話しました。  
*nakamura-san to hanashimashita. yamada-san to mo hanashimashita*  
“I spoke with Mr. Nakamura. I also spoke with Ms. Yamada.”  
家では勉強できません。図書館でも勉強できません。  
*uchi de wa benkyoo dekimasen. toshokan de mo benkyoo dekimasen*  
“I cannot study at home. I cannot study in the library, either.”

Directional *ni* and *e*, as well as the location particle *ni* are optional when *wa* or *mo* follows them.

東京へ行きました。大阪(へ/に)も行きました。  
*tookyoo e ikimashita. oosaka (e/ni) mo ikimashita*  
“I went to Tokyo. I went to Osaka, too.”  
東京(に)は、たくさん人がいます。  
*tookyoo (ni) wa, takusan hito ga imasu*  
“There are many people in Tokyo.”

## Connective particles: *to*, *ka*, *ya*, *toka*, *ga*, *keredomo*, and *kara*

There are two sets of connective particles in Japanese: those that occur between nouns and those that connect sentences or introduce dependent clauses.

### Between nouns: *to*, *ka*, *ya*, and *toka*

The particle *to* connects two noun phrases, as does the English word “and.” *To* is added to every connected noun phrase except for the last.



夏休みは、ヨーロッパと日本とブラジルへ行きます。  
*natsuyasumi wa, yooroppa to nihon to burajiru e ikimasu*  
 “In the summer vacation, I will go to Europe, Japan, and Brazil.”

Do not use *to* in order to connect sentences. Connective words such as *sorekara* “then” are used for this purpose. *To* is not used to connect predicates either. Instead, **TE-FORMS** are used to string predicates together. (See Unit 6 for how to form *te*-forms.)

*Ka* connects two noun phrases, as does the English word “or.”

夏休みは、ヨーロッパか日本かブラジルへ行きます。  
*natsuyasumi wa, yooroppa ka nihon ka burajiru e ikimasu*  
 “In the summer vacation, I will go to Europe, Japan, or Brazil.”

Use *ya* when you want to refer to a class of objects with representative samples.

中国や韓国の食べ物が好きです。  
*chugoku ya kankoku no tabemono ga suki desu*  
 “I like food from countries such as China and South Korea.”

Use *toka* if you want to list examples.

夏休みは、ヨーロッパとか日本へ行きます。  
*natsuyasumi wa, yooroppa toka nihon e ikimasu*  
 “In the summer vacation, I will go to Europe, Japan, etc.”

### Between clauses: *ga*, *keredomo*, and *kara*

The connective particle *ga* connects two contrasting sentences as does the English word “but.” However, *ga* is attached to the end of the first sentence.

[きれいです]が、[高いです]。  
*[kiree desu] ga, [takai desu]*  
 “It is beautiful, but it is expensive.”

*Keredomo* has the same meaning as *ga* and introduces a dependent clause (see Unit 4). It tends to be shortened as *keredo* or *kedo* in colloquial speech. As we saw in Unit 4, the dependent clause precedes the main clause.

[きれいです]{けれども/けれど/けど}、高いです。  
*[kiree desu {keredomo/keredo/kedo}], takai desu*  
 “It is beautiful, but it is expensive.”

*Kara* also introduces a dependent clause, as does the English word “because.” The dependent clause that expresses a reason precedes the main clause in Japanese. (See more on *kara* and similar expressions in Unit 23.)

[きれいですから]、高いです。  
[kiree desu **kara**], takai desu  
“Because it is beautiful, it is expensive.”

## Conversation particles: *ne* and *yo*

Conversation particles appear at the end of sentences to express the speaker’s attitude toward the listener. They are usually limited to conversation, although they may be used in writing if there is a specific audience in mind (e.g., a personal letter).

*Ne* is used to confirm shared information (with rising intonation), ask for agreement, or express empathy. Its functions are similar to those of English tag-questions.

明日ですね。↗ “It’s tomorrow, isn’t it?”  
*ashita desu ne*

だいじょうぶですね。↗ “It’s OK, isn’t it?”  
*daijoobu desu ne*

When it is used for empathy, the vowel tends to be lengthened as in *nee*.

きれいですねえ！ “It’s beautiful, isn’t it?”  
*kiree desu nee*

*Yo* indicates the speaker’s confidence and assertiveness in what s/he is saying. It is often used when the speaker assumes that s/he is offering a new piece of information to the listener. For example, the following is uttered when the speaker has read the book, but the listener has not.

この本は、おもしろいですよ。  
“This book is interesting.” (I am telling you.)  
*kono hon wa, omoshiroi desu yo*

*Yo* is also frequently used to offer reassurance in response to solicitation of confirmation or agreement.

A: 明日ですね。↗  
*ashita desu ne*  
“It’s tomorrow, isn’t it?”

B: そうですよ。  
*soo desu yo*  
 “That’s right.” (I assure you.)

A: だいじょうぶですね。↗  
*daijoobu desu ne*  
 “It’s OK, isn’t it?”

B: だいじょうぶですよ。  
*daijoobu desu yo*  
 “It’s OK.” (I assure you.)

*Yo* and *ne* may be used together if the speaker wants to make an assertion, but also wants to soften it by seeking agreement. The order of *yo* and *ne* is fixed.

この本は、おもしろいですよね。  
*kono hon wa, omoshiroi desu yo ne*  
 “This book is interesting, right?”

(See Unit 7 for the question particle *ka*.)

## Exercise 5.1

Choose the appropriate particle.

- 日本語{が/を}勉強しました。  
*nihongo {ga/o} benkyoo-shimashita*  
 “I studied Japanese.”
- 日本語{が/を}好きです。  
*nihongo {ga/o} suki desu*  
 “I like Japanese.”
- 大学{に/で}コンサートがあります。  
*daigaku {ni/de} konsaato ga arimasu*  
 “There is a concert on campus.”
- 大学{に/で}コンサートホールがあります。  
*daigaku {ni/de} konsaato hooru ga arimasu*  
 “There is a concert hall on campus.”
- タクシー{と/で}行きました。  
*takushii {to/de} ikimashita*  
 “I went by taxi.”

- 6 小林さん{と/で}行きました。  
*kobayashi-san {to/de} ikimashita*  
 “I went with Ms. Kobayashi.”

## Exercise 5.2

Fill in the blank with the appropriate particle. Do not use the discourse particles *wa* or *mo*.

- 1 喫茶店( )コーヒー( )飲みました。  
*kissaten ( ) koohii ( ) nomimashita*  
 “I had coffee at a coffee shop.”
- 2 私はスペイン語( )分かります。  
*watashi wa supeingo ( ) wakarimasu*  
 “I understand Spanish.”
- 3 去年、友だち( )パリ( )行きました。  
*kyonen, tomodachi ( ) pari ( ) ikimashita*  
 “Last year, I went to Paris with my friend.”
- 4 今日( )宿題が終わりました。  
*kyoo ( ) shukudai ga owarimashita*  
 “Today’s homework is done.”
- 5 車( )東京( )行きました。  
*kuruma ( ) tookyoo ( ) ikimashita*  
 “I went to Tokyo by car.”
- 6 パイナップル( )ケーキ( )作りました。  
*painappuru ( ) keeki ( ) tsukurimashita*  
 “I made a cake with pineapple.”

## Exercise 5.3

Choose between *wa* and *ga*.

- 1 A: あの人の{は/が}誰ですか。  
*ano hito {wa/ga} dare desu ka*  
 “Who is that person?”
- B: 佐藤さんです。  
*satoo-san desu*  
 “That’s Ms. Sato.”

- 2 A: どの人{は/が}スミスさんですか。  
*dono hito {wa/ga} sumisu-san desu ka*  
 “Which person is Mr. Smith?”
- B: 黒いジャケットの人ですよ。  
*kuroi jaketto no hito desu yo*  
 “He is the person in the black jacket.”
- 3 A: 何色のセーター{は/が}ほしいですか。  
*naniiro no seetaa {wa/ga} hoshii desu ka*  
 “What color sweater would you like?”
- B: 赤{は/が}いいです。  
*aka {wa/ga} ii desu*  
 “Red is good.”

## Exercise 5.4

Choose between *wa* and *mo*, paying attention to the discourse structure. Relevant discourse elements have intentionally been omitted from the English translations.

- 1 私{は/も}大学生です。小林さん{は/も}大学生です。リーさん{は/も}大学院生です。  
*watashi {wa/mo} daigakusee desu. kobayashi-san {wa/mo} daigakusee desu. rii-san {wa/mo} daigakuinsee desu*  
 “I am a college student. Ms. Kobayashi is a college student. Mr. Lee is a graduate student.”
- 2 私は毎朝コーヒーを飲みます。紅茶{は/も}あまり飲みません。でも、オレンジジュース{は/も}時々飲みます。  
*watashi wa maiasa koohii o nomimasu. koocha {wa/mo} amari nomimasen. demo, orenjijuusu {wa/mo} tokidoki nomimasu*  
 “I drink coffee every morning. I don’t drink tea very much. But I sometimes drink orange juice.”
- 3 加藤さん{は/も}日本人です。ベックさん{は/も}韓国人です。チャンさん{は/も}中国人です。  
*katoo-san {wa/mo} nihonjin desu. bekku-san {wa/mo} kankokujin desu. chan-san {wa/mo} chuugokujin desu*  
 “Ms. Kato is Japanese. Mr. Baek is Korean. Ms. Chung is Chinese.”

## Exercise 5.5

Fill in each of the two blanks with a particle.

- 1 こちらはリーさんです。リーさん( )( )よくテニスをします。  
*kochira wa rii-san desu. rii-san ( )( ) yoku tenisu o shimasu*  
 “This is Mr. Lee. With him, I play tennis often.”
- 2 渡辺さんにEメールしましたが、山田さん( )( )しませんでした。  
*watanabe-san ni ii-meeru-shimashita ga, yamada-san ( )( ) shimasen deshita*  
 “I emailed Ms. Watanabe, but didn’t email Ms. Yamada.”
- 3 ニューヨークへ行きましたが、ワシントン( )( )行きませんでした。  
*nyuuyooku e ikimashita ga, washinton ( )( ) ikimasen deshita*  
 “I went to New York, but didn’t go to Washington, D.C.”
- 4 先月ニューヨークとボストンに行きました。ニューヨーク( )( )ミュージカルを見ました。  
*sengetsu, nyuuyooku to bosuton ni ikimashita. nyuuyooku ( )( ) myuu-jikaru o mimashita*  
 “I went to New York and Boston last month. In New York, I saw a musical.”

## Exercise 5.6

Consider the meaning of each sentence carefully, and choose the appropriate connective particle.

- 1 今日、くつ{と/とか/か}ジャケットを買いました。  
*kyoo, kutsu {to/toka/ka} jaketto o kaimashita*  
 “I bought things like shoes and jackets today.”
- 2 バス{と/とか/か}電車で行きましょう。  
*basu {to/toka/ka} densha de ikimashoo*  
 “Let’s go by bus or train.”
- 3 家は駅から遠いです{から/けど}不便です。  
*uchi wa eki kara tooi desu {kara/kedo} fuben desu*  
 “Because my house is far from the station, it is inconvenient.”
- 4 食事はおいしかったです{から/けど}高かったです。  
*shokuji wa oishikatta desu {kara/kedo} takakatta desu*  
 “The meal was good but expensive.”

## Exercise 5.7

Select the appropriate conversation particle. If no particle is necessary, select Ø.

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>1 A: ペンがありませんか。<br/> <i>pen ga arimasen ka</i><br/>           “Isn’t there a pen?”</p>                      | <p>B: あります{よ/ね/Ø}。<br/> <i>arimasu {yo/ne/Ø}</i><br/>           “(Yes,) there is.”</p> |
| <p>2 A: 今日はいい天気ですねえ。<br/> <i>kyoo wa ii tenki desu nee</i><br/>           “Today is a nice day, isn’t it?”</p> | <p>B: そうです{よ/ね/Ø}。<br/> <i>soo desu {yo/ne/Ø}</i><br/>           “Yes, indeed.”</p>    |
| <p>3 A: お名前は。<br/> <i>onamae wa</i><br/>           “What’s your name?”</p>                                     | <p>B: 佐藤です{よ/ね/Ø}。<br/> <i>satoo desu {yo/ne/Ø}</i><br/>           “It’s Sato.”</p>    |

# UNIT 6

## Conjugation patterns of predicates

The predicate typically describes what the subject does or what the subject is, and appears at the end of a sentence. While the subject can be omitted, every Japanese sentence must have a predicate.

(よしこは) 来なかった。 “Yoshiko/she didn’t come.”  
(yoshiko wa) *konakatta*

There are three types of predicates in Japanese: nouns accompanied by the copula verb *da*, adjectives, and verbs. A predicate conjugates according to whether it is: (i) plain or polite, (ii) non-past or past, and (iii) affirmative or negative. Thus, each Japanese predicate has eight basic conjugation forms.

### Basic conjugation of noun + *da*

As you learned in Unit 3, Japanese nouns can become predicates when combined with the copula verb. Here is the conjugation pattern of noun predicates.

#### [Noun + copula *da*]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	学生だ <i>gakusee da</i> “am/are/is a student”	学生じゃない <sup>§</sup> <i>gakusee ja nai</i> “am/are/is not a student”
	Past	学生だった <i>gakusee datta</i> “was/were a student”	学生じゃなかった <i>gakusee ja nakatta</i> “was/were not a student”



		Affirmative	Negative
Polite	Non-past	学生です <i>gakusee desu</i> “am/are/is a student [polite]”	学生じゃないです† <i>gakusee ja nai desu</i> 学生じゃありません <i>gakusee ja arimasen</i> “am/are/is not a student [polite]”
	Past	学生でした <i>gakusee deshita</i> “was/were a student [polite]”	学生じゃなかったです <i>gakusee ja nakatta desu</i> 学生じゃありませんでした <i>gakusee ja arimasen deshita</i> “was/were not a student [polite]”

§ *ja nai* is a shortened form of *de wa nai*. † The polite negatives have alternative forms.

私は韓国人です。 [polite]  
*watashi wa kankokujin desu*  
“I am Korean.”

昨日は休みじゃなかった。 [plain]  
*kinoo wa yasumi ja nakatta*  
“Yesterday was not my day off.”

Basic conjugation of adjectives

Japanese has two classes of adjectives: *na*-adjectives and *i*-adjectives. The conjugation pattern of a *na*-adjective is exactly the same as a noun.

[*Na*-adjective]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	静かだ <i>shizuka da</i> “am/are/is quiet”	静かじゃない <i>shizuka ja nai</i> “am/are/is not quiet”
	Past	静かだった <i>shizuka datta</i> “was/were quiet”	静かじゃなかった <i>shizuka ja nakatta</i> “was/were not quiet”
Polite	Non-past	静かです <i>shizuka desu</i> “am/are/is quiet [polite]”	静かじゃないです <i>shizuka ja nai desu</i> 静かじゃありません <i>shizuka ja arimasen</i> “am/are/is not quiet [polite]”
	Past	静かでした <i>shizuka deshita</i> “was/were quiet [polite]”	静かじゃなかったです <i>shizuka ja nakatta desu</i> 静かじゃありませんでした <i>shizuka ja arimasen deshita</i> “was/were not quiet [polite]”

水はきれいじゃなかったです。 [polite]  
*mizu wa kiree ja nakatta desu*  
 “The water was not clean.”

テストは簡単だった。 [plain]  
*tesuto wa kantan datta*  
 “The exam was easy.”

The other class of adjectives, *i*-adjectives, has a different conjugation pattern. Therefore, it is important to learn to which class each adjective belongs.

### [I-adjective]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	大きい <i>ookii</i> “am/are/is big”	大きくない <i>ookiku nai</i> “am/are/is not big”
	Past	大きかった <i>ookikatta</i> “was/were big”	大きくなかった <i>ookiku nakatta</i> “was/were not big”
Polite	Non-past	大きいです <i>ookii desu</i> “am/are/is big [polite]”	大きくないです <i>ookiku nai desu</i> 大きくありません <i>ookiku arimasen</i> “am/are/is not big [polite]”
	Past	大きかったです <i>ookikatta desu</i> “was/were big [polite]”	大きくなかったです <i>ookiku nakatta desu</i> 大きくありませんでした <i>ookiku arimasen deshita</i> “was/were not big [polite]”

最近、忙しいです。 [polite]  
*saikin, isogashii desu*  
 “I have been busy lately.”

昨日は暖かくなかった。 [plain]  
*kinoo wa atatakaku nakatta*  
 “It wasn’t warm yesterday.”

## Basic conjugation of verbs

Japanese verbs are classified into three types according to their conjugation pattern: *godan dooshi* “FIVE-ROW VERBS”, *ichidan dooshi* “ONE-ROW VERBS”,

and irregular verbs. (See Unit 2 for the explanation of “rows”.) One commonly used classification system refers to the three types as Type I, Type II, and Type III. Alternatively, five-row verbs and one-row verbs may be referred to as “*ru*-verbs” and “*u*-verbs,” or “consonant verbs” and “vowel verbs.” However, in this book, we will adopt the translation of the traditional Japanese terminology, “five-row verbs” and “one-row verbs.” We will start with one-row verbs, which exhibit the simplest conjugation pattern.

One-row verbs (*ru*-verbs)

The following table shows the conjugation pattern of one-row verbs, with *taberu* “eat” as an example. Note that the translations of the non-past forms below contain “will” in the parentheses. This is because the non-past forms of Japanese action verbs (see Unit 3) such as *taberu* “eat” usually describe future actions or present habits.

[One-row verb]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	食べる <i>taberu</i> “(will) eat”	食べない <i>tabenai</i> “(will) not eat”
	Past	食べた <i>tabeta</i> “ate”	食べなかった <i>tabenakatta</i> “did not eat”
Polite	Non-past	食べます <i>tabemasu</i> “(will) eat [polite]”	食べません <i>tabemasen</i> “(will) not eat [polite]”
	Past	食べました <i>tabemashita</i> “ate [polite]”	食べませんでした <i>tabemasen deshita</i> “did not eat [polite]”

The basic rules for deriving these forms are as follows:

- (i) The plain non-past affirmative form is the dictionary form.
- (ii) Delete *-ru* from the dictionary form.
- (iii) Attach *-nai* to (ii) to make the plain non-past negative form.
- (iv) Attach *-ta* to (ii) to make the plain past affirmative form.
- (v) Attach *-nakatta* to (ii) to make the plain past negative form.
- (vi) Attach *-masu*, *-masen*, *-mashita*, and *-masen deshita* to (ii) to form the polite counterparts of (i), (iii), (iv), and (v).

One-row verbs appear uniformly with an *i*-row or *e*-row syllable before the conjugational suffixes, as shown below. This is why they are called one-row verbs.

おきない	<i>okinai</i>	“do(es) not wake up”
おきます	<i>okimasu</i>	“(will) wake up [polite]”
おきる	<i>okiru</i>	“(will) wake up”
おきろ	<i>okiro</i>	“Wake up!”
おきよう	<i>okiyou</i>	“Let’s get up!”
食べない	<i>tabenai</i>	“do(es) not eat”
食べます	<i>tabemasu</i>	“(will) eat [polite]”
食べる	<i>taberu</i>	“(will) eat”
食べろ	<i>tabero</i>	“Eat!”
食べよう	<i>tabeyoo</i>	“Let’s eat!”

Here are a couple of example sentences.

明日、映画を**見**ます。 [polite]  
*ashita, eega o mimasu*  
 “I will see a movie tomorrow.”

九時まで**起**きなかった。 [plain]  
*kuji made okinakatta*  
 “I didn’t wake up until 9.”

### Five-row verbs (u-verbs)

In contrast to one-row verbs, five-row verbs appear with one of the five syllable types (*a*-, *i*-, *u*-, *e*-, or *o*-row syllable):

読 <b>ま</b> ない	<i>yomanai</i>	“do(es) not read”
読 <b>み</b> ます	<i>yomimasu</i>	“read [polite]”
読 <b>む</b>	<i>yomu</i>	“read”
読 <b>め</b>	<i>yome</i>	“Read!”
読 <b>も</b> う	<i>yomoo</i>	“Let’s read!”

The basic conjugation of five-row verbs involves the first three syllable types (*a*-, *i*-, and *u*-row). Here is the conjugation pattern, with *kaku* “write” as an example. The bold endings are the same as those of the one-row verb conjugations.

6 [Five-row verb]

Conjugation  
patterns of  
predicates

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	書く <i>kaku</i> “(will) write”	書かない <i>kakanai</i> “(will) not write”
	Past	書いた <i>kaita</i> “wrote”	書かなかった <i>kakanakatta</i> “did not write”
Polite	Non-past	書きます <i>kakimasu</i> “(will) write [polite]”	書きません <i>kakimasen</i> “(will) not write [polite]”
	Past	書きました <i>kakimashita</i> “wrote [polite]”	書きませんでした <i>kakimasen deshita</i> “did not write [polite]”

The basic rules for deriving these forms are as follows:

- (i) Dictionary forms of five-row verbs end in an *u*-row syllable: *kaku* “write,” *hanasu* “speak,” *wakaru* “understand,” etc.
- (ii) Before plain negative endings *-nai/-nakatta*, the *u*-row syllables of dictionary forms change into *a*-row syllables. If the dictionary form ends in the syllable *u* (う), use *wa*. *Aru* “exist” is an exception to these patterns.

<b>u-row → a-row</b>	読む “read” → 読まない 読まなかった
(Regular negative)	<i>yomu</i> <i>yomanai</i> <i>yomanakatta</i>
<b>u → wa</b>	言う “say” → 言わない 言わなかった
(う ending case)	<i>iu</i> <i>iwantai</i> <i>iwanakatta</i>
Exception:	ある “exist” → ない            なかった
	<i>aru</i> <i>nai</i> <i>nakatta</i>

- (iii) How to produce the plain past affirmative form depends on the last syllable of the dictionary form. The verb *iku* “go” is an exception.

<b>-ul/-tsul/-ru → -tta</b>	言う/待つ/帰る → 言った/待った/帰った
	<i>iu/matsu/kaeru</i> <i>itta/matta/kaetta</i>
	“say”/“wait”/“return”    “said”/“waited”/“returned”
<b>-mul/-bul/-nu → -nda</b>	読む/呼ぶ/死ぬ → 読んだ/呼んだ/死んだ
	<i>yomu/yobu/shinu</i> <i>yonda/yonda/shinda</i>
	“read”/“call”/“die”        “read”/“called”/“died”

-su → -shita	話す <i>hanasu</i>	→	話した <i>hanashita</i>
	“speak”		“spoke”

-ku → -ita	書く <i>kaku</i>	→	書いた <i>kaita</i>
	“write”		“wrote”

-gu → -ida	泳ぐ <i>oyogu</i>	→	泳いだ <i>oyoida</i>
	“swim”		“swam”

Exception:	行く <i>iku</i>	→	行った <i>itta</i>
	“go”		“went”

- (iv) Before polite endings *-masu*, *-mashita*, *-masen*, and *-masen deshita*, the *u*-row syllables of dictionary forms change into *i*-row syllables. This rule applies to all five-row verbs.

u-row → i-row	読む <i>yomu</i>	→	読みます <i>yomimasu</i>
	“read”		“read”

Here are some example sentences.

毎週金曜日、プールで泳ぎます。 [polite]  
*maishuu kinyoobi, puuru de oyogimasu*  
 “I swim in the pool every Friday.”

質問が分からなかった。 [plain]  
*shitsumon ga wakaranakatta*  
 “I didn’t understand the question.”

One-row and five-row verbs exhibit different conjugation patterns throughout Japanese grammar. Therefore, it is important to firmly learn from the beginning which verb belongs to which class. If you have already been exposed to many polite forms, here is one way to tell between a one-row verb and a five-row verb when you learn their dictionary forms.

### One-row or five-row?

If the dictionary form of a verb ends in anything other than *ru* (る), it is a five-row verb without exception.

違う、待つ、読む、呼ぶ、行く、泳ぐ、出す → Five-row  
*chigau, matsu, yomu, yobu, iku, oyogu, dasu*  
 “differ”, “wait”, “read”, “call”, “go”, “swim”, “take out, send”

If the dictionary form of a verb ends in *ru* (る), look at the dictionary form and the polite form of the verb. Delete *ru* from the dictionary form and delete *masu* from the polite counterpart. If you are left with an identical form, it is a one-row verb. If not, it is a five-row verb.

食べる: “eat”	食べる <i>taberu</i>	and	食べます <i>tabemasu</i>	same!	→ One-row
帰る: “return”	帰る <i>kaeru</i>	but	帰ります <i>kaerimasu</i>	different!	→ Five-row

Irregular verbs

There are two irregular verbs: *kuru* “come” and *suru* “do.” The reading for the *kanji* 来 changes between *ku*, *ko*, and *ki*.

[Irregular verb]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	来る <i>kuru</i> “(will) come”	来ない <i>konai</i> “(will) not come”
	Past	来た <i>kita</i> “came”	来なかった <i>konakatta</i> “did not come”
Polite	Non-past	来ます <i>imasu</i> “(will) come [polite]”	来ません <i>imasen</i> “(will) not come [polite]”
	Past	来ました <i>imashita</i> “came [polite]”	来ませんでした <i>imasen deshita</i> “did not come [polite]”

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	する <i>suru</i> “(will) do”	しない <i>shinai</i> “(will) not do”
	Past	した <i>shita</i> “did”	しなかった <i>shinakatta</i> “did not do”
Polite	Non-past	します <i>shimasu</i> “(will) do [polite]”	しません <i>shimasen</i> “(will) not do [polite]”
	Past	しました <i>shimashita</i> “did [polite]”	しませんでした <i>shimasen deshita</i> “did not do [polite]”

友だちとテニスをしました。 [polite]  
*tomodachi to tennis o **shimashita***  
 “I played tennis with a friend.”

よしこは来なかった。 [plain]  
*yoshiko wa **konakatta***  
 “Yoshiko didn’t come.”

In the case of *suru*-verbs (see Unit 3) such as *benkyoo-suru* “study,” conjugate the *suru* part in the same manner.

## Stem forms

The non-changing part in the adjectival conjugation and the form to which the polite ending *-masu* attaches in the verbal conjugation are known as the **STEM FORMS**.

<b>Na-adjective</b>	静か (ずか) “quiet” <i>shizuka (na)</i>	
<b>I-adjective</b>	大き (く) “big” <i>ooki (i)</i>	
<b>Verb</b>	読み (ます) “read” <i>yomi (masu)</i>	し (ます) “do” <i>shi (masu)</i>

Many grammatical contexts require stem forms (see Units 10, 15, 19, 20, and 22).

## Te-forms

All predicates can appear as a *te*-form. A *te*-form generally connects close attributes or closely related events (see also Unit 5).

あの映画は長くて、つまらなかったです。 [similar attributes]  
*ano eega wa **nagakute**, tsumaranakatta desu*  
 “That movie was long and boring.”

家に帰って、晩ご飯を食べました。 [sequence of events]  
*uchi ni **kaette**, bangohan o tabemashita*  
 “I went home and had dinner.”

布団をかぶって、寝ました。 [manner and action]  
*futon o **kabutte**, nemashita*  
 “I slept with a quilt pulled over my head.”



Since a *te*-form does not contain any tense information on its own, its tense interpretation usually depends on the tense of the predicate at the end of the sentence and on the context (see Unit 23 for more details).

The *te*-form of a noun + copula *da* is [noun + *de*].

<b>Noun + copula</b>	学生だ “is a student”	→	学生で
<i>da</i> → <i>de</i>	<i>gakusee da</i>		<i>gakusee de</i>

The *te*-form of a *na*-adjective is formed by dropping *na* and adding *de*.

<b>Na-adjective</b>	静かな “quiet”	→	静かで
<i>na</i> → <i>de</i>	<i>shizuka na</i>		<i>shizuka de</i>

The *te*-form of an *i*-adjective is formed by dropping *i* and adding *kute*.

<b>I-adjective</b>	大きい “big”	→	大きくて
<i>-i</i> → <i>-kute</i>	<i>ookii</i>		<i>ookikute</i>

The *te*-form of a one-row verb is formed by dropping *ru* from the dictionary form and adding *te*.

<b>One-row verb</b>	見る “see”	→	見て
<i>-ru</i> → <i>-te</i>	<i>miru</i>		<i>mite</i>

The *te*-form of a five-row verb is formed in a parallel manner to the plain past tense affirmative form. Simply replace *ta* with *te*, and *da* with *de*.

#### Five-row verb

<i>-u/-tsu/-ru</i> → <i>-tte</i>	言う/待つ/帰る → 言って/待って/帰って <i>iu/matsu/kaeru</i> → <i>itte/matte/kaette</i> “say”/“wait”/“return”
<i>-mu/-bu/-nu</i> → <i>-nde</i>	読む/呼ぶ/死ぬ → 読んで/呼んで/死んで <i>yomu/yobu/shinu</i> → <i>yonde/yonde/shinde</i> “read”/“call”/“die”
<i>-su</i> → <i>-shite</i>	話す → 話して <i>hanasu</i> → <i>hanashite</i> “speak”
<i>-ku</i> → <i>-ite</i>	書く → 書いて <i>kaku</i> → <i>kaite</i> “write”

-gu → -ide
------------

 泳ぐ  
*oyogu*  
 “swim”

 → 泳いで  
*oyoide*

Exception:

 行く  
*iku*  
 “go”

 → 行つて  
*itte*

The *te*-forms of the irregular verbs are as follows:

**Irregular verb** 来る *kuru* “come” → 来て *kite*  
 する *suru* “do” → して *shite*

Among its many other uses, the verbal positive *te*-form combines with the verb *iru* “stay” to convey the meaning of progressive action, either current or in the past.

本を読んでいます。  
*hon o yonde imasu*  
 “I am reading a book.”

本を読んでいた。  
*hon o yonde imashita*  
 “I was reading a book.”

The conjugation of *-te iru* forms follows the pattern of the one-row verb *iru*.

### [Conjugation of *-te iru*]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	読んでいる <i>yonde iru</i> “is reading”	読んでいない <i>yonde inai</i> “is not reading”
	Past	読んでいた <i>yonde ita</i> “was reading”	読んでいなかった <i>yonde inakatta</i> “was not reading”
Polite	Non-past	読んでいます <i>yonde imasu</i> “is reading [polite]”	読んでいません <i>yonde imasen</i> “is not reading [polite]”
	Past	読んでいました <i>yonde imashita</i> “was reading [polite]”	読んでいませんでした <i>yonde imasen deshita</i> “was not reading [polite]”

## Negative *te*-forms

Generally, negative *te*-forms are formed by substituting the final *i* of plain non-past negative forms with *kute*. (This pattern with the *te*-form formation of *i*-adjectives seen previously.)

<b>Noun + copula</b>	学生じゃない	<i>gakusee ja nai</i>
<b>-i → -kute</b>	→ 学生じゃなくて	<i>gakusee ja nakute</i>
<b>Na-adjective</b>	静かじゃない	<i>shizuka ja nai</i>
<b>-i → -kute</b>	→ 静かじゃなくて	<i>shizuka ja nakute</i>
<b>I-adjective</b>	大きくない	<i>ookiku nai</i>
<b>-i → -kute</b>	→ 大きくなって	<i>ookiku nakute</i>
<b>Verb</b>	見ない	<i>minai</i>
<b>-i → -kute</b>	→ 見なくて	<i>minakute</i>

For verbs, there is another version, in which *de* is added to a plain non-past negative form. We will refer to it as the “verbal negative *te*-form” to distinguish it from the above “adjectival” pattern.

<b>Verb</b>	見ない	<i>minai</i>
<b>neg. + -de</b>	→ 見ないで	<i>minaide</i>

The verbal negative *te*-form is often used in the sense of “without . . . -ing,” as in the following.

シャワーを**あびないで**、寝ました。  
*shawaa o abinaide, nemashita*  
 “I went to bed without taking a shower.”

The verbal negative *te*-form is also used in negative requests (see Unit 20). Generally speaking, the verbal negative *te*-form is not interchangeable with the adjectival negative *te*-form.

### Exercise 6.1

Conjugate the following adjectives into their opposite forms (affirmative to negative, negative to affirmative). Keep the tense and the politeness level constant. See Exercise 3.5 for some hints.

- 1 かわいいです  
*kawaii desu*
- 2 静かじゃなかったです  
*shizuka ja nakatta desu*
- 3 おいしくない  
*oishiku nai*
- 4 忙しかったです  
*isogashikatta desu*
- 5 きれいだった  
*kiree datta*
- 6 おもしろかったです  
*omoshirokatta desu*

## Exercise 6.2

Sort the following verbs into one-row verbs, five-row verbs, and irregular verbs.

会う	<i>au</i>	“meet”
作る	<i>tsukuru</i>	“make”
寝る	<i>neru</i>	“sleep”
行く	<i>iku</i>	“go”
読む	<i>yomu</i>	“read”
覚える	<i>oboeru</i>	“remember”
書く	<i>kaku</i>	“write”
要る	<i>iru</i>	“need”
話す	<i>hanasu</i>	“talk”
分かる	<i>wakaru</i>	“understand”
起きる	<i>okiru</i>	“wake up”
いる	<i>iru</i>	“be”
電話する	<i>denwa-suru</i>	“phone”
入る	<i>hairu</i>	“enter”
遊ぶ	<i>asobu</i>	“play”
考える	<i>kangaeru</i>	“think”
開ける	<i>akeru</i>	“open”
来る	<i>kuru</i>	“come”

## Exercise 6.3

Conjugate 出す/出します *dasu/dashimasu* “take out, send” and 出る/出ます *deru/demasu* “exit, come out” in eight ways.

## Exercise 6.4

Fill in the blank with the polite appropriate form of the verb in the parentheses. The English translations have intentionally been omitted. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 A: 昨日テニスを\_\_\_\_\_か。(する)  
*kinoo tennisu o \_\_\_\_\_ ka (suru)*  
 B: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*
- 2 A: 先週は\_\_\_\_\_か。(忙しい)  
*senshuu wa \_\_\_\_\_ ka (isogashii)*  
 B: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*
- 3 A: すしが\_\_\_\_\_か。(好きな)  
*sushi ga \_\_\_\_\_ ka (suki na)*  
 B: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*
- 4 中国語は\_\_\_\_\_が、英語は分かります。(分かる)  
*chuugokugo wa \_\_\_\_\_ ga, eego wa wakarimasu (wakaru)*

## Exercise 6.5

Change the following sentences into their plain counterparts. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 先週の月曜日、両親が日本に来ました。  
*senshuu no getsuyoobi, ryooshin ga nihon ni kimashita*
- 2 朝から大雨でした。  
*asa kara ooame deshita*
- 3 私はクラスがありませんでした。  
*watashi wa kurasu ga arimasen deshita*
- 4 十二時に空港へ行きました。  
*juuniji ni kuukoo e ikimashita*

- 5 フライトが遅れて、大変でした。  
*furaito ga okurete, taihen deshita*
- 6 両親は三時まで着きませんでした。  
*ryooshin wa sanji made tsukimasen deshita*

## Exercise 6.6

Combine the following pairs of sentences using *te*-forms. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 東京大学の一年生です *tookyoo-daigaku no ichinensee desu* + 専門は経済です *senmon wa keezai desu*
- 2 背が高いです *se ga takai desu* + きれいです *kiree desu*
- 3 毎朝、ジョギングをします *maiasa, joggingu o shimasu* + シャワーをあびます *shawaa o abimasu*
- 4 昨日、図書館に行きました *kinoo, toshokan ni ikimashita* + 勉強しました *benkyoo-shimashita*
- 5 本を読みました *hon o yomimashita* + レポートを書きました *repooto o kakimashita*

# UNIT 7

## Questions and question words

While word order plays a crucial role in the formation of questions in English, in Japanese, word order is irrelevant in this respect (see also Unit 4). In this unit, we will study how to form questions in Japanese.

### Yes-no questions

Yes-no questions are questions that can be answered with “yes” or “no.”

A: Will you go to the party?

B: Yes, I will./No, I will not.

A Japanese yes-no question is formed by attaching the question particle *ka* to the end of a corresponding statement.

パーティーに行きます。 [statement]

*paatii ni ikimasu*

“I will go to the party.”

パーティーに行きますか。 [yes-no question]

*paatii ni ikimasu ka*

“Will you go to the party?”

The answer takes the form of *hai/ee* “yes” or *iie* “no,” followed by the affirmative or negative form of the predicate respectively.

A: パーティーに行きますか。

*paatii ni ikimasu ka*

“Will you go to the party?”

B1: はい/ええ、行きます。

*hai/ee, ikimasu*

“Yes, I will.”

B2: いいえ、行きません。

*iie, ikimasen*

“No, I will not.”

In casual speech, *ka* is usually dropped, and only a rising intonation distinguishes a question from its statement counterpart. In writing, the question mark may be used (see Unit 2). To answer the question, use *un* “yes” or *uun* “no.”

A: パーティー(に)行く? ↗  
*paatii (ni) iku*  
 “Will you go to the party?”

B1: うん、行く。  
*un, iku*  
 “Yes, I will.”

B2: ううん、行かない。  
*uun, ikanai*  
 “No, I will not.”

*Hai/ee/un* and *iie/uun* are different from their English counterparts on one significant point. *Hai* signals “I agree with you.” Whether the previous statement is affirmative or negative, by uttering *hai* you agree with the content of what has been said. As a result, *hai* may appear to correspond to “no” when it follows a negative statement. To avoid the confusion, just remember that *hai* is an agreement marker.

A: 吉田さんは、いませんね。  
*yoshida-san wa, imasen ne*  
 “Mr. Yoshida is not here, right?”

B: はい、いません。  
*hai, imasen*  
 “I agree. He is not here.”

Similarly, *iie* signals “I disagree with you.” Whether the previous statement is affirmative or negative, by uttering *iie* you disagree with the content of what has been said. Thus, *iie* may appear to correspond to “yes” when it follows a negative statement. Again, just remember that *iie* is a disagreement marker.

A: 明日は、テストがないですね。  
*ashita wa, tesuto ga nai desu ne*  
 “There will not be a test tomorrow, right?”

B: いいえ、ありますよ。  
*iie, arimasu yo*  
 “I disagree. There will be a test.”



## Wh-questions

Wh-questions are those that include question words such as “what,” “which,” “when,” “who,” “where,” “why,” and “how.” Here are some examples of Japanese question words.

誰	<i>dare</i>	“who”
何	<i>nani</i>	“what”
どれ	<i>dore</i>	“which one”
どこ	<i>doko</i>	“where”
どちら	<i>dochira</i>	“which (of the two)”
どう	<i>doo</i>	“how”
いくら	<i>ikura</i>	“how much (money)”
どのぐらい	<i>donogurai</i>	“how long, how much”
いつ	<i>itsu</i>	“when”
どうして	<i>dooshite</i>	“why”

English question words always appear at the beginning of a question.

**Where** did Mr. Yoshida go?

However, Japanese question words can remain in their original position.

吉田さんはどこへ行きましたか。 “Where did Mr. Yoshida go?”  
*yoshida-san wa doko e ikimashita ka*

Particles used in questions are usually the same as those used in the corresponding answers. Avoid using *wa* for a wh-question word and its corresponding part in the answer (see also Unit 5).

A: 何を食べましたか。 “What did you eat?”  
*nani o tabemashita ka*

B: スパゲッティーを食べました。 “I ate spaghetti.”  
*supagettii o tabemashita*

A: どこで食べましたか。 “Where did you eat?”  
*doko de tabemashita ka*

B: 喫茶店で食べました。 “I ate at a café.”  
*kissaten de tabemashita*

A: これは誰のかばんですか。 “Whose bag is this?”  
*kore wa dare no kaban desu ka*

B: 私のかばんです。 “It’s my bag.”  
*watashi no kaban desu*

*Nani* “what” is pronounced as *nan* when combined with a COUNTER (see Unit 9).

何人来ますか。 “How many people will come?”  
*nannin kimasu ka*

*Nani* also tends to be pronounced as *nan* when followed by /t/, /d/, or /n/.

これは何ですか。 “What is this?”  
*kore wa nan desu ka*

Here are some more useful expressions containing question words.

- A: あれはどう読みますか。 “How do you read that?”  
*are wa doo yomimasu ka*
- B: 「しぶや」ですよ。 “It’s ‘Shibuya’.”  
*shibuya desu yo*
- A: 成田行きはどれですか。 “Which is the one bound for Narita?”  
*narita-iki wa dore desu ka*
- B: 八番ですよ。 “It’s Number 8.”  
*hachiban desu yo*
- A: どのぐらいかかりますか。 “How long will it take?”  
*donogurai kakarimasu ka*
- B: 二十分ぐらいです。 “About 20 minutes.”  
*nijuppun-gurai desu*
- A: 切符はいくらですか。 “How much is the ticket?”  
*kippu wa ikura desu ka*
- B: 千五百円です。 “It’s 1,500 yen.”  
*sengohyakuen desu*
- A: 次のバスはいつ出ますか。 “When will the next bus depart?”  
*tsugi no basu wa itsu demasu ka*
- B: 十時ですよ。 “10 o’clock.”  
*juuji desu yo*
- A: お手洗いはどこですか。 “Where is the bathroom?”  
*otearai wa doko desu ka*
- B: 二階ですよ。 “It’s on the second floor.”  
*nikai desu yo*

## Exercise 7.1

Choose between *hai* and *iie*. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 A: 昼ご飯を食べましたか。  
*hirugohan o tabemashita ka*  
B: {はい/いいえ}、食べました。  
*{hai/iie}, tabemashita*
- 2 A: 明日のパーティーに来ますか。  
*ashita no paatii ni kimasu ka*  
B: {はい/いいえ}、行きますよ。  
*{hai/iie}, ikimasu yo*
- 3 A: えんぴつはありませんね。  
*enpitsu wa arimasen ne*  
B: {はい/いいえ}、ありますよ、どうぞ。  
*{hai/iie}, arimasu yo, doozo*
- 4 A: 明日はテストじゃないですね。  
*ashita wa tesuto ja nai desu ne*  
B: {はい/いいえ}、テストじゃありません。  
*{hai/iie}, tesuto ja arimasen*

## Exercise 7.2

Fill in the blank with the appropriate question word to complete the dialogue. You can check the meaning of each question in the answer key.

- 1 A: 黒いセーターは \_\_\_\_\_ ですか。  
*kuroi seetaa wa \_\_\_\_\_ desu ka*  
B: 千五百円です。  
*sengohyakuen desu*  
“It’s 1,500 yen.”
- 2 A: 郵便局は \_\_\_\_\_ ですか。  
*yuubinkyoku wa \_\_\_\_\_ desu ka*  
B: あそこですよ。  
*asoko desu yo*  
“It’s over there.”
- 3 A: \_\_\_\_\_ で買いましたか。  
\_\_\_\_\_ *de kaimashita ka*

- B: 駅前のスーパーで買いました。  
*ekimae no suupaa de kaimashita*  
 “I bought it at the supermarket in front of the station.”
- 4 A: これは\_\_\_\_\_のかばんですか。  
*kore wa \_\_\_\_\_ no kaban desu ka*
- B: 佐々木先生のです。  
*sasaki-sensee no desu*  
 “It’s Professor Sasaki’s.”
- 5 A: 昨日、\_\_\_\_\_をしましたか。  
*kinoo, \_\_\_\_\_ o shimashita ka*
- B: 友だちと映画を見ました。  
*tomodachi to eega o mimashita*  
 “I saw a movie with my friend.”

### Exercise 7.3

Choose the appropriate responses to the following questions from options a–e. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 お名前は何ですか。  
*onamae wa nan desu ka*
- 2 どこから来ましたか  
*doko kara kimashita ka*
- 3 いつ日本に来ましたか。  
*itsu nihon ni kimashita ka*
- 4 どうして日本に来ましたか。  
*dooshite nihon ni kimashita ka*
- 5 オーストラリアでどのぐらい日本語を勉強しましたか。  
*oosutoraria de donogurai nihongo o benkyoo-shimashita ka*
- a 2005年です。  
*nisengonen desu*
- b 仕事 (“work”) で来ました。  
*shigoto de kimashita*
- c 一年ぐらい (“about a year”) です。  
*ichinen-gurai desu*
- d ロバートです。  
*robaato desu*
- e オーストラリアのシドニーです。  
*oosutoraria no shidonii desu*

## Exercise 7.4

Formulate appropriate questions for the following situations, using the words and phrases listed.

成田空港	<i>narita-kuukoo</i>	“Narita Airport”
...行き	<i>...-iki</i>	“bound for”
チケット売場	<i>chiketto-uriba</i>	“ticket booth”
次のバス	<i>tsugi no basu</i>	“next bus”

- 1 You would like to know which bus goes to Narita Airport.
- 2 You would like to know where the ticket booth is.
- 3 You would like to know how much the ticket costs.
- 4 You would like to know when the next bus is.
- 5 You would like to know how long it takes.

# UNIT 8

## Demonstrative pronouns

English speakers choose between the demonstratives “this” and “that,” or “these” and “those,” based on an object’s relative distance from their own position. On the other hand, Japanese speakers take into account not only their own position but also the listener’s. Japanese demonstratives are consequently divided into three types, *ko*-, *so*-, and *a*-series. They are shown with corresponding interrogative forms below.

### [Demonstrative pronouns]

	Speaker’s territory	Listener’s territory	In neither’s territory	Interrogative
Object	これ <i>kore</i> “this one”	それ <i>sore</i> “that one”	あれ <i>are</i> “that one”	どれ <i>dore</i> “which one”
Reference	この <i>kono</i> “this N”	その <i>sono</i> “that N”	あの <i>ano</i> “that N”	どの <i>dono</i> “which N”
Category	こんな <i>konna</i> “this kind of N”	そんな <i>sonna</i> “that kind of N”	あんな <i>anna</i> “that kind of N”	どんな <i>donna</i> “what kind of N”
Location	ここ <i>koko</i> “here”	そこ <i>soko</i> “there”	あそこ <i>asoko</i> “there”	どこ <i>doko</i> “where”
Direction/ Option [polite]	こちら <i>kochira</i> “this direction”	そちら <i>sochira</i> “that direction”	あちら <i>achira</i> “that direction”	どちら <i>dochira</i> “which direction”
Direction/ Option [casual]	こっち <i>kotchi</i> “this direction”	そっち <i>sotchi</i> “that direction”	あっち <i>atchi</i> “that direction”	どっち <i>dotchi</i> “which direction”
Manner	こう <i>koo</i> “this way”	そう <i>soo</i> “that way”	ああ <i>aa</i> “that way”	どう <i>doo</i> “what way”

## Basic distinctions

In the concrete context, *ko*-series forms are used to refer to objects or situations near the speaker. *So*- is used for objects just outside the reach of the speaker or near the listener. *A*- is for objects in an area far from both the speaker and listener. *Do*- is for the unknown.

For instance, *kore* “this one,” *sore* “that one,” *are* “that one,” and *dore* “which one” are used in the following manner between a customer (A) and a store clerk (B).

(A points at something closer to A.)

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| A: これを下さい。<br><i>kore o kudasai</i><br>“This one, please.” | B: それは百五十円です。<br><i>sore wa hyakugojuuen desu</i><br>“That one is 150 yen.” |
|--|---|

(A points at something closer to B.)

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| A: それを下さい。<br><i>sore o kudasai</i><br>“That one, please.” | B: これですね。<br><i>kore desu ne</i><br>“This one, right?” |
|--|--|

(A points at something equally far from A and B.)

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| A: あれを下さい。<br><i>are o kudasai</i><br>“That one, please.” | B: どれですか。<br><i>dore desu ka</i><br>“Which one do you mean?” |
|---|--|

Unlike the English demonstratives “this” and “that,” which can modify a noun, the Japanese demonstratives *kore*, *sore*, *are*, and *dore* cannot be used as modifiers. Use *kono*, *sono*, *ano*, and *donno* to modify a noun.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| A: どのテレビがいい？<br><i>donno terebi ga ii?</i><br>“Which TV would you like?” | B: このテレビは？<br><i>kono terebi wa</i><br>“How about this TV?” |
|--|---|

*Konna*, *sonna*, *anna*, and *donna* also modify nouns. They add the sense of type or similarity.

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| A: どんな映画が好きですか。<br><i>donna eega ga suki desu ka</i><br>“What kind of movie do you like?” | B: 私はコメディが好きです。<br><i>watashi wa komedii ga suki desu</i><br>“I like comedies.” |
|---|---|

かっこいい車だなあ。こんな車がほしいなあ。  
*kakkoii kuruma da naa. **konna** kuruma ga hoshii naa*  
 “Cool car! I want a car like this.”

Other forms divide the field in the same way. *Koko, soko, asoko*, and *doko* refer to specific locations. They can be used alone or as noun modifiers with *no*.

- A: お手洗いはどこですか。      B: そこですよ。  
*otearai wa **doko** desu ka*      ***soko** desu yo*  
 “Where is the bathroom?”      “It’s right there.”
- A: どこで食べましょうか。 (See Unit 19 for *-mashoo* forms.)  
***doko** de tabemashoo ka*  
 “Where should we eat?”
- B: あそこのベンチで食べましょう。  
***asoko no benchi** de tabemashoo*  
 “Let’s eat (sitting) on that bench over there.”

*Kochira, sochira, achira*, and *dochira* indicate directions.

- A: 出口はどちらですか。      B: あちらです。  
*deguchi wa **dochira** desu ka*      ***achira** desu*  
 “Which way is the exit?”      “That way.”

They can also stand for options.

こちらとそちらと、どちらがいいですか。  
***kochira to sochira to, dochira** ga ii desu ka*  
 “Between this and that, which would be better?”

*Kotchi, sotchi, atchi*, and *dotchi* are the casual alternatives to *kochira, sochira, achira*, and *dochira*. (See Unit 10 for speech level differences. See Unit 18 for more on expressions of comparison.)

こっちとそっちと、どっちがいい？  
***kotchi to sotchi to, dotchi** ga ii*  
 “Between this and that, which is better?”

Finally, *koo, soo, aa*, and *doo* are adverbs that describe manner.

- A: この漢字はどう書きますか。  
*kono kanji wa **doo** kakimasu ka*  
 “How do you write this kanji?”



B: こうですよ。

*koo desu yo*

“This way.”

A: アメリカ人ですか。

*amerikajin desu ka*

“Are you an American?”

B: はい、そうです。

*hai, soo desu*

“Yes, that’s right.” (= Yes, I am.)

A: 日本はどうですか。

*nihon wa doo desu ka*

“How is Japan?”

B: とても楽しいです。

*totemo tanoshii desu*

“I am having a lot of fun.”

## Extended use of *kochira*, *sochira*, *achira*, and *dochira*

You can use *kochira*, *sochira*, *achira*, and *dochira* to indicate general areas.

(on the phone)

こちらでは雪です。そちらではどうですか。

*kochira de wa yuki desu. sochira de wa doo desu ka*

“It is snowing here. How is it in your area?”

*Kochira*, *sochira*, *achira*, and *dochira* are preferred as polite expressions to *koko*, *soko*, *asoko*, and *doko*. This is because they are less exact and fit the general politeness strategy in Japanese, in which indirect expressions are considered more polite than direct expressions.

(a maître d’ at a restaurant says . . .)

あちらの席へどうぞ。

*achira no seki e doozo*

“To the seat over there, please.”

どちらでお聞きになりましたか。

*dochira de okiki ni narimashita ka*

“Where did you hear (about it)?”

Do not use *kore*, *sore*, *are*, and *dore* to refer to real people. *Kore*, *sore*, *are*, and *dore* are used primarily to refer to objects. It is considered impolite to use them for people (see Unit 10).

## Abstract reference

The *ko*-, *so*-, and *a*-series can also be used to refer to objects introduced in discourse, or to abstract ideas. For instance, you can use *so*-series forms to refer to something just mentioned by you or someone else.

A: アメ横には行きましたか。  
*ameyoko ni wa ikimashita ka*  
“Have you been to Ameyoko?”

B: いいえ、**それ**はどこですか。  
*iie, **sore** wa doko desu ka*  
“No, where is it?”

代官山と**その**近くはおしゃれなカフェが多いです。  
*daikanyama to **sono** chikaku wa oshare na kafe ga ooi desu*  
“There are many trendy cafés in Daikanyama and its vicinity.”

In addition, you can use *ko*-series forms to indicate your enthusiastic attitude toward something you have just mentioned.

毎日勉強する。**これ**が一番大事。  
*mainichi benkyoo-suru. **kore** ga ichiban daiji*  
“You study every day. This is most important.”

朝がつらい。**こんな**人は、野菜ジュースを飲みましょう。  
*asa ga tsurai. **konna** hito wa, yasai juusu o nomimashoo*  
“(Suppose) you feel the morning is tough. This type of person should drink vegetable juice.”

Replacing these *ko*-series forms with *so*-series forms gives the impression that the speaker is keeping a psychological distance from the idea.

Be particularly careful about the use of *a*-series forms in abstract contexts. They refer to things that the speaker presumes to have shared with the listener. For instance, if you have recently discussed a new book with a friend, the next time you meet her, you can just say the following.

あの本、読んだ？  
***ano** hon, yonda*  
“Did you read that book?”

Likewise, in the next example, the second speaker can use an *a*-series form because he already knows the mentioned individual.

A: 昨日、空港で小林さんに会いましたよ。  
*kinoo, kuukoo de kobayashi-san ni aimashita yo*  
“Yesterday I saw Ms. Kobayashi at the airport.”

- B: そうですか。あの人、今東京ですよ。  
*soo desu ka. ano hito, ima tookyoo desu yo ne*  
 “Is that right? She is in Tokyo now, isn’t she?”

The following table summarizes the abstract uses of demonstrative expressions.

**[Summary of the abstract uses of *ko-*, *so-*, *a-*]**

こ <i>ko-</i>	→ To refer back to something you have just mentioned, to which you feel close.
そ <i>so-</i>	→ To objectively refer back to something just introduced.
あ <i>a-</i>	→ To emphasize that you and the listener share an experience or knowledge about something.

### Exercise 8.1

Insert appropriate forms.

- A: これ、どう？  
*kore, doo*  
 “How about this?”

B: ううん、\_\_\_\_\_ は、ちょっと。  
*uun, \_\_\_\_\_ wa, chotto*  
 “Um, I am hesitant about that.”

A: じゃあ、\_\_\_\_\_ は？  
*jaa, \_\_\_\_\_ wa*  
 “Well then, how about that (far away)?”
- A: \_\_\_\_\_ セーターがいい？  
*\_\_\_\_\_ seetaa ga ii*  
 “Which sweater do you like?”

B: \_\_\_\_\_ がいい。  
*\_\_\_\_\_ ga ii*  
 “I like this.”
- A: \_\_\_\_\_ 家に住みたいですか。  
*\_\_\_\_\_ uchi ni sumitai desu ka*  
 “What type of house would you like to live in?”

B: スペイン風の白い家に住みたいです。  
*supeinfui no shiroi uchi ni sumitai desu*  
 “I would like to live in a Spanish-style white house.”
- A: \_\_\_\_\_ は、吉田さんです。  
*\_\_\_\_\_ wa, yoshida-san desu*  
 “This is Mr. Yoshida.”

B: はじめまして。  
*hajimemashite*  
 “Nice to meet you.”

## Exercise 8.2

Look at the pictures 1-4, and fill in the blanks in the corresponding dialogues with the most appropriate word from *kore*, *sore*, and *are*.



- 1 customer: すみません。( )を見せて下さい。  
*sumimasen. ( ) o misete kudasai*
- 2 clerk: ( )ですね?  
 ( ) *desu ne*  
 customer: はい、( )です。  
*hai, ( ) desu*
- 3 clerk: ( )は、人気商品 (“popular item”) ですよ。  
 ( ) *wa, ninki-shoohin desu yo*  
 customer: かわいいですね。  
*kawaii desu ne*
- 4 customer: えっと、( )はいくらですか。  
*etto, ( ) wa ikura desu ka*  
 clerk: ( )は今セールで、五千円です。  
 ( ) *wa ima seeru de, gosen'en desu*

## Exercise 8.3

Choose the better option.

- 1 A: 有楽町のゴジラを見ましたか。  
*yuurakuchoo no gojira o mimashita ka*  
 “Have you seen Godzilla in Yurakucho?”  
 B: {それ/あれ}、何ですか。  
*{sore/are}, nan desu ka*  
 “What is that?”

- 2 A: 有楽町のゴジラを見ましたか。  
*yuurakuchoo no gojira o mimashita ka*  
 “Have you seen Godzilla in Yurakucho?”  
 B: ええ、{それ/あれ}、おもしろいですね。  
*ee, {sore/are}, omoshiroi desu ne*  
 “Yes. It’s amusing, isn’t it?”
- 3 (A and B talked about something earlier. A is concerned about how it turned out.)  
 A: {それ/あれ}、どうでしたか。  
*{sore/are}, doo deshita ka*  
 “How did it turn out?”  
 B: ああ、{それ/あれ}は、だいじょうぶでしたよ。  
*aa, {sore/are}wa daijoobu deshita yo*  
 “Oh, that turned out all right.”
- 4 昨日、イタリアンレストランへ行きました。{そこ/あそこ}でスパゲッティを食べました。  
*kinoo, italian resutoran e ikimashita. {soko/asoko} de supagettii o tabemashita*  
 “I went to an Italian restaurant yesterday. I had spaghetti there.”

## Exercise 8.4

Considering the situation given in the parentheses, choose the best option. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 (pointing at a person)  
 A: {ここ/そこ/あそこ}にいる人、中村さんじゃない？  
*{koko/soko/asoko} ni iru hito, nakamura-san ja nai*  
 B: え？どこ？あ、{これ/それ/あれ}はちがうよ  
*e, doko, a, {kore/sore/are} wa chigau yo*
- 2 (on the phone)  
 A: 今、どこ？  
*ima, doko*  
 B: 東京。{こっち/そっち/あっち}には、六時に着くよ。  
*tookyoo. {kotchi/sotchi/atchi} ni wa, rokuji ni tsuku yo*
- 3 (in a restaurant)  
 A: すてきな店ね。よく{ここ/そこ/あそこ}、来るの。  
*suteki na mise ne. yoku {koko/soko/asoko}, kuru no*  
 B: うん。{この/その/あの}店はおいしいよ。  
*un. {kono/sonolano} mise wa oishii yo*

# UNIT 9

## Number and quantity

Expressions of quantity in Japanese are more complex than comparable expressions in English. In this unit, we will study how to count and describe quantity and how to express the speaker's attitude toward quantity, as well as how to use relative quantity expressions such as “many” and “few.”

### Basic numbers

Japanese has two numeral systems: the Sino-Japanese and the native. The numbers in the Sino-Japanese system, shown here, are the most basic numbers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
一	二	三	四	五	六	七	八	九	十
<i>ichi</i>	<i>ni</i>	<i>san</i>	<i>shi</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>roku</i>	<i>shichi</i>	<i>hachi</i>	<i>kyuu</i>	<i>juu</i>

In actual usage, *shi* and *shichi*, the Sino-Japanese words for four and seven, alternate with the native words, *yon* and *nana*. For instance, when counting upward, the Sino-Japanese options are preferred, but when counting downward, the native options are preferred.

いち、に(い)、さん、し(い)、ご(お)、ろく、しち、はち、きゅう、  
じゅう

*ichi, ni(i), san, shi(i), go(o), roku, shichi, hachi, kyuu, juu*

じゅう、きゅう、はち、**なな**、ろく、ご(お)、**よん**、さん、に(い)、  
いち、ゼロ

*juu, kyuu, hachi, nana, roku, go(o), yon, san, ni(i), ichi, zero*

When numbers are strung together like this, short numbers are often pronounced with long vowels to preserve the rhythm.

All the numbers between 10 and 99 are expressed as combinations of these ten basic numbers. For instance, 11 (*juuichi*) is analyzed as “ten plus

one,” 12 (*juuni*) as “ten plus two,” 20 (*nijuu*) as “two times ten,” and 46 (*yonjuuroku*) as “four times ten plus six.”

Here are larger units in the Sino-Japanese numeral system.

100	百	<i>hyaku</i>
1,000	千	<i>sen</i>
10,000	万	<i>man</i>
100,000,000	億	<i>oku</i>
1,000,000,000,000	兆	<i>choo</i>

20,000 (*niman*) is “two times 10,000,” not “twenty times 1,000.” Similarly, 200,000 (*nijuuman*) is “twenty times 10,000.” A large number like 220,020,002 is read as follows.

<u>220020002</u>		
<b>200000000</b>	二億	<i>nioku</i>
<b>20000000</b>	二千	<i>nisen</i>
<b>20000</b>	二万	<i>niman</i>
<b>2</b>	二	<i>ni</i>
	二億二千二万二	<i>nioku-nisen-niman-ni</i>

These numbers generally follow the sound patterns explained in Appendix A. The number *sanzen* “3,000” is an exception.

A non-whole number is represented by a sequence of whole numbers separated by *ten* “point.” Short numbers are always stretched to preserve the rhythm. *Ree* is an alternative expression for *zero*.

0.23	れい・てん・にい・さん	<i>ree.ten.nii.san</i>
5.55	ごお・てん・ごお・ごお	<i>goo.ten.goo.goo</i>

## Counters and quantifiers

English speakers use counters like “spoonful of” and “pair of” to count certain types of objects. However, bare numbers will suffice for many other objects, as in “**one** car” and “**two** apples.” By contrast, bare numbers in Japanese are used mostly for mathematical purposes. To count objects in daily life, you need to use numeral expressions such as the following.

miscellaneous objects	一つ、二つ、三つ <i>hitotsu, futatsu, mittsu</i>
people	一人、二人、三人 <i>hitori, futari, sannin</i>

flat things	一枚、二枚、三枚 <i>ichimai, nimai, sanmai</i>
long things	一本、二本、三本 <i>ippon, nihon, sanbon</i>
books, magazines	一冊、二冊、三冊 <i>issatsu, nisatsu, sansatsu</i>
cupfuls, glassfuls	一杯、二杯、三杯 <i>ippai, nihai, sanbai</i>
dresses, coats	一着、二着、三着 <i>itchaku, nichaku, sanchaku</i>
shoes, socks	一足、二足、三足 <i>issoku, nisoku, sansoku</i>
small animals	一匹、二匹、三匹 <i>ippiki, nihiki, sanbiki</i>
vehicles, machines	一台、二台、三台 <i>ichidai, nidai, sandai</i>
stores, houses	一軒、二軒、三軒 <i>ikken, niken, sanken</i>

These numeral expressions, known as **NUMERAL QUANTIFIERS**, consist of a number and a counter. For instance, *ichimai* “one sheet” consists of *ichi* “one” and *-mai*, the counter for flat objects. As you may have noticed, the forms of the counters are not constant. Nor are the forms of the numbers constant. They change depending on the context. See Appendix A for details.

## Positions of quantifiers

Quantifiers may appear in many different positions in Japanese. Here we study two basic patterns: (i) a quantifier, without a particle, appearing after the noun phrase it quantifies; and (ii) a quantifier followed by the particle *no* appearing before a noun.

### *Post-nominal pattern*

The first pattern, the **POST-NOMINAL** pattern, is used when reporting the tally or emphasizing the number as newsworthy information. Quantifiers in the post-nominal pattern generally quantify either the grammatical subject or object.



あそこに店員が二人います。

*asoko ni ten'in ga futari imasu*

“There are two store clerks over there.”

伊藤さんはセーターを三枚買いました。

*itoo-san wa seetaa o sanmai kaimashita*

“Mr. Ito bought three sweaters.”

State first what kind of thing is counted, and add the quantity afterwards.

Location	Subject	Quantity	Verb
あそこに	店員が	二人	います。
<i>asoko ni</i>	<i>ten'in ga</i>	<i>futari</i>	<i>imasu</i>
“over there”	“store clerk”	“two (people)”	“exist”
Subject	Object	Quantity	Verb
伊藤さんは	セーターを	三枚	買いました。
<i>itoo-san wa</i>	<i>seetaa o</i>	<i>sanmai</i>	<i>kaimashita</i>
“Mr. Ito”	“sweater”	“three (flat)”	“bought”

The usual position of a quantifier is right after the phrase that it quantifies. However, the quantifier may be stranded in its original position when the word order is rearranged.

店員があそこに二人います。

*ten'in ga asoko ni futari imasu*

“There are two store clerks over there.”

セーターを伊藤さんは 三枚買いました。

*seetaa o itoo-san wa sanmai kaimashita*

“Mr. Ito bought three sweaters.”

The post-nominal pattern is also used to ask about quantity. Form a question word by combining *nan* “what,” a variant form of *nani* (see Unit 7), and a counter.

A: グレーのスーツが何着ありますか。

*guree no suutsu ga nanchaku arimasu ka*

“How many grey suits are there?”

B: 四着あります。

*yonchaku arimasu*

“There are four.”

A: スーツを何着注文しましたか。

*suutsu o nanchaku chuumon-shimashita ka*

“How many suits did you order?”

B: 二着注文しました。  
*nichaku chuumon-shimashita*  
 “I ordered two.”

In the answers, the noun phrase is omitted and the quantifier alone is followed by the predicate.

To indicate quantities of more than one item, start with multiple sentences, each describing the quantity of one item.

[セーターが三枚]あります。[シャツが二枚]あります。  
*[seetaa ga sanmai] arimasu. [shatsu ga nimai] arimasu*  
 “There are three sweaters. There are two shirts.”

Connect them by the particle *to*, and delete the verb(s) except for the last one.

[セーターが三枚]ありますと[シャツが二枚]あります。  
*[seetaa ga sanmai] ~~arimasu~~ to [shatsu ga nimai] arimasu*

This produces the following sentence.

[セーターが三枚]と[シャツが二枚]あります。  
*[seetaa ga sanmai] to [shatsu ga nimai] arimasu*  
 “There are three sweaters and two shirts.”

Here are some more examples.

棚の上に[かばんが五つ]と[ぼうしが四つ]ありました。  
*tana no ue ni [kaban ga itsutsu] to [booshi ga yottsu] arimashita*  
 “There were five bags and four hats on the shelf.”

[黒いくつを一足]と[茶色のくつを二足]買いました。  
*[kuroi kutsu o issoku] to [chairo no kutsu o nisoku] kaimashita*  
 “I bought one pair of black shoes and two pairs of brown shoes.”

### *Pre-nominal pattern*

In the second, **PRE-NOMINAL**, pattern, a quantifier with the particle *no* appears as a modifier of a noun. While the post-nominal pattern places the focus on the numbers, the pre-nominal pattern, like other modifier types, is used to describe a group of objects so that it can be vividly pictured or identified.

三人の客が来ました。

*sannin no kyaku ga kimashita*

“(A group of) three customers came.”

ショーウィンドーの二着のスーツをためしました。

*shoo uindoo no nichaku no suutsu o tameshimashita*

“I tried on the two suits (displayed) in the show window.”

昨日、この二本のネクタイを買いました。

*kinoo, kono nihon no nekutai o kaimashita*

“Yesterday, I bought these two ties.”

The identification function of the pre-nominal pattern is particularly clear in the following example, in which the pre-nominal pattern is used to refer to a group previously mentioned in the discourse.

店に客が三人いました。(その) 三人の客は外国人でした。

*mise ni kyaku ga sannin imashita. (sono) sannin no kyaku wa gaikokujin deshita*

“There were three customers in the store. The three customers were foreigners.”

The pre-nominal pattern can be simplified, and the quantifier can appear independently, if the omitted noun is easy to recover from the context.

ショーウィンドーの二着をためしました。

*shoo uindoo no nichaku o tameshimashita*

“I tried on the two (displayed) in the show window.”

店に客が三人いました。(その) 三人は外国人でした。

*mise ni kyaku ga sannin imashita. (sono) sannin wa gaikokujin deshita*

“There were three customers in the store. The three were foreigners.”

白いくつしたを五足下さい。あ、この二足はきたないです。

*shiroi kutsushita o gosoku kudasai. a, kono nisoku wa kitanai desu*

“Please give me five pairs of white socks. Oh, these two are dirty.”

Unlike the post-nominal pattern, the pre-nominal pattern can appear freely in positions other than the grammatical subject or object.

三軒の店で買い物をしました。

*sanken no mise de kaimono o shimashita*

“I shopped at three stores.”

## Approximation of quantity

We now turn to methods to approximate quantity.

### Naming consecutive numbers

One method to approximate quantity is to name a couple of consecutive numbers.

セーターが二、三枚ほしいです。 “I want two or three sweaters.”  
*seetaa ga nisanmai hoshii desu*

五、六軒の店に行きました。 “I went to five or six shops.”  
*gorokken no mise ni ikimashita*

### Kurai/gurai “approximately”

Another method is to add the word *kurai* to a quantifier. It may also be pronounced as *gurai* without a change in meaning.

スーツを五着くらいためした。 “I tried on about five suits.”  
*suutsu o gochaku-kurai tameshita*

三時間ぐらい店にいた。 “I was at the store for about three hours.”  
*sanjikan-gurai mise ni ita*

A similar expression *goro* is used to approximate a point in time. (See Unit 12 for more on the difference between *kurai/gurai* and *goro*.)

三時ごろに店に行った。 “I went to the store around 3 o’clock.”  
*sanji goro ni mise ni itta*

## Expressing the speaker’s attitude toward quantity

Certain particles can be added to a quantifier to express the speaker’s attitude or expectations toward the quantity. (See also Unit 17.)

### Wa “at least”

As we studied in Unit 5, the particle *wa* can be used to highlight a contrast.

これはためした。 “I tried THIS (if not the other).”  
*kore wa tameshita*

Attaching *wa* to a quantifier produces the contrastive sense “not less, if not more”; in other words, “at least.” In the following example, the number “three” is a conservative estimate.

三種類はためした。 “I tried at least three kinds.”  
*sanshurui wa tameshita*

### Mo “as much as”/“(not) even”

The particle *mo* generally indicates addition.

これもためした。 “I tried this, too.”  
*kore mo tameshita*

The combination of *mo* and a negative ending can have the meaning “not even.”

好きな食べ物も食べなかった。 “I didn’t eat even my favorite food.”  
*suki na tabemomo mo tabenakatta*

The particle *mo* attached to a quantifier also generates the additive sense “more than the normal amount.” The following example suggests that the speaker regards the number “three” as large in this context.

三種類もためした。 “I tried three kinds (not just one or two).”  
*sanshurui mo tameshita*

When a small number in this pattern, particularly the number “one”, combines with a negative ending, the resultant meaning is “not even.”

一種類もためさなかった。 “I did not try even one kind.”  
*isshurui mo tamesanakatta*

### Shika + [negative] “nothing but”

The particle *shika*, in combination with a negative ending, means “nothing but” and indicates that the action is anomalous.

食品売り場しか見なかった。 “I saw nothing but the food section.”  
*shokuhin-uriba shika minakatta* (= I only saw the food section.)

Similarly, *shika* with a quantity expression means that the amount is less than expected. The following example suggests that the speaker views the number “two” to be exceptionally small.

二つしか食べなかった。 “I ate nothing but two.”  
*futatsu shika tabenakatta* (= I only ate two.)

## Dake “only”

The particle *dake* means “selectively.” Unlike *shika*, it is used either with a positive or negative ending and does not convey the sense that the action is conceived of as anomalous.

サラダだけ食べた。 “I ate only salad.”  
*sarada dake tabeta*

サラダだけ食べなかった。 “I left just salad uneaten.”  
*sarada dake tabenakatta*

It is used in a similar manner with quantity expressions. The following sentences suggest that the speaker regards the number “two” to be small, but they are neutral with respect to the issue of deviation from the norm.

二つだけ食べた。 “I just ate two.”  
*futatsu dake tabeta*

二つだけ食べなかった。 “I left just two uneaten.”  
*futatsu dake tabenakatta*

## Relative quantity

Various non-numerical expressions can be used to express concepts of relative quantity, such as “many,” “few,” and “more.” We will note a few caveats for their usage.

### Takusan “a lot”

*Takusan* “a lot” is a **QUANTITY ADVERB**. It can modify a verb, but not an adjective.

たくさん食べる。 “I eat a lot.”  
*takusan taberu*

× たくさんおいしい。 (intended: “It is very delicious.”)  
*takusan oishii*

Do not confuse *takusan* with the **INTENSIFYING ADVERB** *totemo* “very.” *Totemo* can modify a typical adjective for quality, but not a typical verb.

とてもおいしい。 “It is very delicious.”

*totemo oishii*

× とても食べる。 (intended: “I eat a lot.”)

*totemo taberu*

### Sukoshi/chotto “a little”

The adverb *sukoshi* “a little” and its colloquial counterpart *chotto* modify verbs and adjectives describing measurable events or conditions.

{少し/ちょっと}食べた。 “I ate a little.”

{*sukoshi/chotto*} *tabeta*

{少し/ちょっと}高い。 “It is a little expensive.”

{*sukoshi/chotto*} *takai*

### Ooi “many” and sukunai “few”

*Ooi* “many” and *sukunai* “few” are **QUANTITY ADJECTIVES**. Unlike their English counterparts, they cannot modify nouns. They can only appear as predicates.

客が多い。 “There are a lot of customers.”

*kyaku ga ooi*

品物が少ない。 “The goods are few.”

*shinamono ga sukunai*

× 多い客 (intended: “many customers”)

*ooi kyaku*

× 少ない品物 (intended: “few goods”)

*sukunai shinamono*

### Motto vs. moo vs. ato “more”

Although the adverbs *motto*, *moo*, and *ato* may all be translated into English as “more,” their usages differ from one another.

*Motto* is a **QUANTITY ADVERB** in and of itself. It amplifies the degree of some action or state. It may stand on its own or appear with other expressions of relative quantity, but not with numeral quantifiers. (See also Unit 9.)

もっと食べる。 “I will eat more.”

*motto taberu*

もっとたくさん食べる。 “I will eat a lot more.”

*motto takusan taberu*

今日は、もっと多い。 “There are many more today.”

*kyoo wa, motto ooi*

In contrast, *moo* must be placed before a numeral quantifier to form a quantity adverb.

クッキーをもう二つ食べる。 “I will eat two more cookies.”

*kukkii o moo futatsu taberu*

Among the expressions of relative quantity, only *sukoshi/chotto* may be preceded by *moo*.

もうちょっと食べる。 “I will eat a little more.”

*moo chotto taberu*

*Ato* is similar to *moo*, but it has an added meaning that the amount is the final ration.

あと二つ食べる。 “I will eat two more (and no more).”

*ato futatsu taberu*

## Exercise 9.1

Read the following numbers in Japanese.

- 1 11
- 2 222
- 3 3,333
- 4 44,444
- 5 12,345
- 6 67,890
- 7 50,000,000
- 8 120,000,000
- 9 5.25
- 10 0.98



## Exercise 9.2

Rewrite the following expressions using Western numerals.

- |   |                               |               |
|---|-------------------------------|---------------|
| 1 | <i>goman-gosen-gohyaku</i>    | ごまんごせんごひゃく    |
| 2 | <i>nisen-gohyaku-kyuujuu</i>  | にせんごひゃくきゅうじゅう |
| 3 | <i>hassenhachiman</i>         | はっせんはちまん      |
| 4 | <i>nanahyakunanajuuman</i>    | ななひゃくななじゅうまん  |
| 5 | <i>rokujuurokuman-rokusen</i> | ろくじゅうろくまんろくせん |

## Exercise 9.3

Choose the most appropriate quantifier for each sentence. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 犬を{二本/二枚/二冊/二匹/二台/二杯/二人}見ました。  
*inu o {nihon/nimai/nisatsu/nihiki/nidai/nihai/futari} mimashita*
- トラックが{三本/三枚/三冊/三匹/三台/三杯/三人}来ました。  
*torakku ga {sanbon/sanmai/sansatsu/sanbiki/sandai/sanbai/sannin} kimashita*
- 辞書が{四本/四枚/四冊/四匹/四台/四杯/四人}あります。  
*jisho ga {yonhon/yonmai/yonsatsu/yonhiki/yondai/yonhai/yonin} arimasu*
- フォークが{五本/五枚/五冊/五匹/五台/五杯/五人}要ります。  
*fooku ga {gohon/gomai/gosatsu/gohiki/godai/gohai/gonin} irimasu*
- 子どもが{八本/八枚/八冊/八匹/八台/八杯/八人}います。  
*kodomo ga {happon/hachimai/hassatsu/happiki/hachidai/happai/hachinin} imasu*

## Exercise 9.4

Suppose you are helping your friends plan a party. Ask them the following in Japanese:

- how many people are coming
- how many pizzas you need
- how many bottles of beer you should buy
- how many forks they have

## Exercise 9.5

Select the appropriate expression. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 A: 車が何台ありますか。  
*kuruma ga nandai arimasu ka*  
B: 五台です。  
*godai desu*  
A: えっ、五台{は/も}！？  
*e, godai {wa/mo}*
- 2 A: 毎日、何時間ぐらい日本語を勉強しますか。  
*mainichi, nanjikan-gurai nihongo o benkyoo-shimasu ka*  
B: 一時間{は/も}します。  
*ichijikan {wa/mo} shimasu*
- 3 A: ペンがもう一本ありますか。  
*pen ga moo ippon arimasu ka*  
B: いいえ、一本{しか/だけ}です。  
*ii, ippon {shika/dake} desu*
- 4 A: シャツを何枚買いましたか。  
*shatsu o nanmai kaimashita ka*  
B: 一枚{しか/だけ}買いませんでした。  
*ichimai {shika/dake} kaimasen deshita*
- 5 A: {もっと/もう}食べてください。  
*{motto/moo} tabete kudasai*  
B: じゃあ、{もっと/もう}一ついただきます。  
*jaa, {motto/moo} hitotsu itadakimasu*
- 6 {たくさん/とても}飲んだから、今日は二日酔いです。  
*{takusan/totemo} nonda kara, kyoo wa futsuka-yoi desu*

## Exercise 9.6

Translate the following sentences into Japanese.

- 1 Please give me one more pen.
- 2 Those two teachers were very kind.
- 3 The customer bought one suit and two neckties.
- 4 I shopped at four or five stores.

# UNIT 10

## Social dimensions of grammar and vocabulary

Compared to English polite expressions, Japanese polite expressions form a more easily recognizable body of specialized grammatical forms and vocabulary items. First of all, there is the distinction between **HONORIFIC**, descriptive, and **HUMBLE** lexical items. Second, there is the grammatical distinction between the polite and the plain sentence styles. In this unit, we will study the relationship between such linguistic distinctions and the Japanese system of social classification.

### Family terms

We first look at Japanese family terms as one manifestation of the Japanese system of social classification. There are two types of family terms in Japanese: honorific and descriptive terms. The following table lists most of the commonly used terms.

[Honorific vs. descriptive family terms]

	Honorific terms	Descriptive terms
“parents”	ご両親 <i>goryooshin</i>	両親 <i>ryooshin</i>
“mother”	お母さん <i>okaasan</i>	母 <i>haha</i>
“father”	お父さん <i>otoosan</i>	父 <i>chichi</i>
“elder sister”	お姉さん <i>oneesan</i>	姉 <i>ane</i>
“elder brother”	お兄さん <i>oniisan</i>	兄 <i>ani</i>
“grandmother”	おばあさん <i>obaasan</i>	そば <i>sobo</i>

	Honorific terms	Descriptive terms
“grandfather”	おじいさん <i>ojiisan</i>	そふ <i>sofu</i>
“aunt”	おばさん <i>obasan</i>	おば <i>oba</i>
“uncle”	おじさん <i>ojisan</i>	おじ <i>oji</i>
“son”	息子さん <i>musukosan</i>	息子 <i>musuko</i>
“daughter”	娘さん <i>musumesan</i>	娘 <i>musume</i>
“child”	お子さん <i>okosan</i>	子ども <i>kodomo</i>
“grandchild”	お孫さん <i>omagosan</i>	孫 <i>mago</i>

Determining which term to use depends on where you are talking, with whom you are talking, and about whom you are talking. With respect to the classification of people for this purpose, the two most significant principles are the in-out and senior-junior principles. First, people are divided between the speaker’s family and outside individuals. Second, people are divided between those who are “higher” than the speaker and those who are equal to or “lower” than the speaker. We will study each of these principles next.

### *In-out principle and rules*

A Japanese speaker is supposed to treat socially distant people more deferentially than those socially closer to him/her. For example, speaking outside his/her own family, honorific family terms are used to refer to the members of other people’s families, while descriptive terms are used to refer to the members of one’s own family.

#### **[In-out rules]**

	Describing others’ kin	Describing one’s own kin
Irrespective of age	<b>Use honorific terms</b> e.g., おばあさん <i>obaasan</i> “grandmother”	<b>Use descriptive terms</b> e.g., そば <i>sobo</i> “grandmother”

The following example shows how the terms for parents are differentiated in a formal context.

- A: ご両親はお元気ですか。  
*goryooshin wa ogenki desu ka*  
 “How are your parents?”
- B: はい、おかげさまで、父も母も元気にしております。  
*hai, okagesama de, chichi mo haha mo genki ni shite orimasu*  
 “Both my father and mother are doing fine, thank you.”

### *Senior-junior principle and rules*

Intersecting with the in-out principle is the senior-junior principle, which requires that the older generation be treated more deferentially than the younger generation.

This principle manifests itself most clearly within one’s own family. In the absence of the need to make an in-out distinction, the senior-junior principle dominates, and honorific kinship terms are used to address or refer to older family members.

- お兄さん、これ、お兄さんの？  
*oniisan, kore, oniisan no*  
 “(Elder) Brother, is this yours?”

In contrast, no kinship term, honorific or descriptive, is used to refer to or to address a younger member of one’s own family. Instead, a personal name must be used when referring to a younger family member.

- ひろしはどこに行った？  
*hiroshi wa doko ni itta*  
 “Where did Hiroshi go?”

In addition, when addressing a younger family member, either a personal name or a personal pronoun is used.

- よしこ、これ、おまえのノート？  
*yoshiko, kore, omae no nooto*  
 “Yoshiko, is this your notebook?”

A personal pronoun may not be used for elder members (see the section on personal pronouns below for more on this topic). The following table summarizes these rules.

## [Senior-junior rules within the family]

	Describing one's own kin	Addressing one's own kin
Senior	<b>Use honorific terms</b> e.g., お兄さん <i>oniisan</i> “elder brother”	<b>Use honorific terms</b> e.g., お兄さん <i>oniisan</i> “elder brother”
Junior	<b>Use personal names</b> e.g., よしこ <i>yoshiko</i> “Yoshiko”	<b>Use personal names or pronouns</b> e.g., よしこ / おまえ <i>yoshiko/omae</i> “Yoshiko”/“you”

## Polite and plain sentence styles

Japanese family terms preserve the traditional social classification most faithfully, but other parts of the language also reflect the system.

A Japanese speaker selects sentence endings based on whom he/she is addressing. Just as honorific kinship terms are directed toward outsiders or senior persons, so are the polite endings *desu* and *masu* (see Unit 6). For instance, when talking to a stranger, a public audience, or your teacher or boss, you should use the polite style, with polite endings.

すみません。時間ですから、始めます。  
*sumimasen. jikan desu kara, hajimemasu*  
 “Excuse me. It’s time, so we are beginning.”

Additionally, use the polite style when writing letters.

お元気ですか。こちらはもう夏です。  
*ogenki desu ka. kochira wa moo natsu desu*  
 “How are you doing? It is already summer here.”

Most modern families tend to be casual when speaking among family members, but in conservative families, adult members may speak to their parents using the polite style.

お父さん、車が来ました。  
*otoosan, kuruma ga kimashita*  
 “Father, the car has come.”

Plain forms are used when you do not need to be polite to the addressee. This might be because you are talking in private, relaxed settings or because

you are talking to small children. Plain forms in casual settings like these are often followed by conversation particles, such as *yo* and *ne* (see Unit 5).

時間だから、行くよ。  
*jikan da kara, iku yo*  
“It’s time, so I’m leaving.”

Instant messages and text messages tend to be treated as an extension of casual speech, so the casual style is more common in them.

どうした？何してる？今晚、飲もうよ。  
*doo shita. nani shite ru. konban nomoo yo*  
“What’s up? What are you doing? Let’s have a drink tonight.”

The plain forms used in writing are not necessarily an indication of the casualness of the occasion. You should use the plain endings when there is no real audience to whom you need to be polite, as in taking notes or writing a diary, writing scientific reports or formal, factual articles. Novels are also normally written in the plain style because their artistic merit is not based on how polite the writers are to the readers. In such cases, the plain endings are not followed by conversation particles.

## Honorific, unmarked (descriptive), and humble verbs

The choice between the polite and the casual style is based primarily on to whom you are talking. You can also be sensitive to whom you are talking about and show that sensitivity by selecting a proper lexical verb from the honorific, unmarked, or humble options.

Honorific verbs describe the action of the respected individual. As in the following, the subject of an honorific verb is a senior person, such as your teacher.

先生はご両親といらっしゃいました。 [honorific]  
*sensee wa goryooshin to irasshaimashita*  
“My teacher has come with his parents.”

In contrast, humble verbs are used to describe the actions of the speaker or his/her family members. In the following example, the subject of the humble verb *mairu* is the speaker.

私も両親と参りました。 [humble]  
*watashi mo ryooshin to mairimashita*  
“I have also come with my parents.”

Here is a list of honorific, humble, and corresponding unmarked versions of some verbs. (See Unit 24 for honorific and humble forms of giving and receiving verbs.)

**[Lexical honorific, humble, and unmarked verbs]**

	Honorific	Humble	Unmarked
“go”	いらっしゃる <sup>§</sup> <i>irassharu</i>	参る <i>mairu</i>	行く <i>iku</i>
“come”			来る <i>kuru</i>
“stay”		おる <i>oru</i>	いる <i>iru</i>
“eat”	召し上がる <i>meshiagaru</i>	頂く <i>itadaku</i>	食べる <i>taberu</i>
“drink”			飲む <i>nomu</i>
“receive”			もらう <i>morau</i>
“ask, listen”		伺う <i>ukagau</i>	聞く <i>kiku</i>
“inquire, visit”			たずねる <i>tazuneru</i>
“do”	なさる <sup>§</sup> <i>nasaru</i>	いたす <i>itasu</i>	する <i>suru</i>
“say”	おっしゃる <sup>§</sup> <i>ossharu</i>	申す <i>moosu</i>	言う <i>iu</i>
“look”	ごらんになる <i>goran ni naru</i>	拝見する <i>haiken-suru</i>	見る <i>miru</i>
“wear”	お召しになる <i>omeshi ni naru</i>		着る <i>kiru</i>

<sup>§</sup> The /r/ sound drops from the *masu* forms of these verbs (e.g., *irassharimasu*).

A lexical honorific counterpart does not exist for every unmarked verb. However, you can use the honorific construction to produce an honorific form from an unmarked verb. To do so, wrap the stem form (the part before *masu*) (see Unit 6) of an unmarked verb with *o... ni naru*. The subject of the resulting verb is the respected individual.



**[Subject honorific construction]**

*o* + VERB STEM + *ni naru*

e.g., おすわりになる (cf. すわります *suwarimasu* “sit”)

*osuwari ni naru*

Generally, the verbs that have lexical honorific counterparts do not undergo this process, except for *taberu* “eat” and *nomu* “drink,” which have the alternative honorific forms *otabe ni naru* and *onomi ni naru*.

In addition, when you provide some service to a respected individual, you can use the following non-subject honorific construction. Wrap the stem form of an unmarked verb with *o...suru*. In this case, the subject of the resulting verb is the speaker or his/her family members.

**[Non-subject honorific construction]**

*o* + VERB STEM + *suru*

e.g., おてつだいする (cf. てつだいます *tetsudaimasu* “assist”)

*otetsudai suru*

It should be noted that this construction is more limited than the subject honorific construction in that it is used only when the actions are beneficial to respected individuals. Thus, the following sounds odd without a special context.

× 私がお座りします。  
*watashi ga o suwari shimasu*  
“I will sit (for you).”

Just as with the choice of proper kinship terms, the distinction between proper verbs is more strictly applied in a formal context and in the presence of outsiders. Thus, in a very formal context, one would use *goran ni naru* “look” for describing an outside individual’s action, while using its humble counterpart *haiken-suru* “look” for an inside member’s action. (See Unit 20 for honorific requests.)

A: どうぞ、ごらんになってください。 [honorific]  
*doozo, goran ni natte kudasai*  
“Please have a look.”

B: では、拝見します。 [humble]  
*dewa haiken-shimasu*  
“Well, then, I will have a look.”

- A: お母さんもうごらんになりましたか。 [honorific]  
*okaasan mo goran ni narimashita ka*  
 “Did your mother have a look at it, too?”
- B: はい、もう拝見しました。 [humble]  
*hai, moo haiken-shimashita*  
 “Yes, she already did.”

Also, in a traditional family where hierarchical awareness is strong, an adult member may use honorific verbs to describe the action of an older member while using humble verbs to describe his/her own action. Thus, *meshiagaru* “eat” is used for the father, and *itadaku* “eat” for the speaker in the following example.

お父さん、召し上がりませんか。私も頂きますから。  
*otoosan, meshiagarimasen ka. watashi mo itadakimasu kara*  
 “Father, would you like to eat? I will also eat.”

However, in modern families, unmarked forms tend to be used freely for all family members. In the following, *taberu* “eat” is used for both the father and the speaker.

お父さん、食べない？私も食べるけど。  
*otoosan, tabenai. watashi mo taberu kedo*  
 “Father, won’t you eat? I will also eat.”

The prescriptive patterns are observed increasingly less faithfully. Even in a very formal context, you do not need to speak about an honored guest exclusively with honorific verbs. However, using a few honorific verbs in a formal context will elevate your social status as much as wearing a formal suit. So, in a reception for an honored guest, you might want to ask questions such as the following.

いつお着きになりましたか。  
*itsu otsuki ni narimashita ka*  
 “When did you arrive?”

いつお帰りになりますか。  
*itsu okaeri ni narimasu ka*  
 “When will you return?”

## Combining politeness and respect

The two types of politeness explained in the preceding sections combine to yield six expressions for what would be expressed by just one verb in English.

[The verb *suru* “do” in six ways: politeness and respect]

	No respected audience present	Talking to respected audience
Talking about a respected person	なさった <i>nasatta</i>	なさいました <i>nasaimashita</i>
Talking about a friend or oneself	した <i>shita</i>	しました <i>shimashita</i>
Talking about oneself humbly	いたした <i>itashita</i>	いたしました <i>itashimashita</i>

Personal pronouns

Japanese personal pronouns (see Unit 3) require social sensitivity to be used properly. First of all, there are many forms meaning “I” and “you.” You need to choose an appropriate form depending on who you are, and in what context you are speaking.

*Watashi* is the most neutral first person singular form. It is used by both male and female adults in semi-formal contexts. *Watakushi* is a more formal counterpart. *Atashi* is used by women, and *boku* by men in less formal contexts. *Ore* is the most masculine form.

There are many commonly used second person singular forms. Among them, *anata*, *anta*, *kimi*, and *omae* are more or less acceptable depending on the circumstances. For instance, *anata* may be used by a teacher talking to a student, and a wife to her husband. *Anta* may be used by a woman talking to her younger sibling or to her husband. *Kimi* may be used by a male teacher talking to a student, and a husband to his wife. *Omae* may be used by a husband talking to his wife, and a male student to his friend.

Determining which second person pronoun to use is a very complex problem and beyond the scope of an introductory book such as this. More importantly at this point, remember that you can use second person pronouns only with people who are equal to you or lower than you in social ranking. This is because second person pronouns are considered too direct, and therefore face-threatening, or too intimate. To people who are older or higher in ranking, use names, kinship terms, or titles.

お母さん、お母さんのくつは、どれ？

*okaasan, okaasan no kutsu wa dore*

“Mom, which are your shoes?” (literally: “Mom, which are Mom’s shoes?”)

先生は、何時にいらっしゃいますか。

*sensee wa, nanji ni irasshaimasu ka*

“When will you come, Professor?” (literally: “When will Professor come?”)

Likewise, avoid using the third person pronouns *kare* “he” and *kanojo* “she” when describing people who are higher in ranking. These terms carry the secondary meaning of “sweetheart,” as shown in the following example.

私の彼も三年生です。

*watashi no kare mo sannensee desu*

“My boyfriend is also a third-year student.”

The demonstrative pronouns *kore* and *kochira* (see Unit 8) also need to be used carefully. Use *kochira* in order to refer to someone politely. You can use *kore* only to refer to junior individuals, such as your younger siblings and children, or people in a photo who are not present.

こちらは、山口さんです。

*kochira wa, yamaguchi-san desu*

“This is Ms. Yamaguchi.”

これは、僕の妹です。

*kore wa, boku no imooto desu*

“This is my younger sister.”

## Grammatical factors in the use of polite and plain forms

So far, we have learned that social factors determine the use of polite and plain forms in the sentence-final position. However, in the middle of a complex sentence, grammatical factors play dominant roles in the selection of the predicate style. In this final section, we will briefly describe this dimension of the polite-plain distinction.

First, if you choose a plain form for the sentence-final predicate, you must also choose a plain form for all the other predicates.

きれいだが、高いから、買わない。

*kiree da ga, takai kara, kawanai*

“It is beautiful, but because it is expensive, I won’t buy it.”

When the sentence-final predicate is in the polite form, the form of the preceding predicates depends on how cohesively they are integrated

into the total sentence. If you use the connective particle *ga* “but” (see Unit 5), which connects two independent sentences, you must also use a polite form for the predicate before *ga*.

きれいですが、高いです。

*kiree desu ga, takai desu*

“It is beautiful, but it is expensive.”

In contrast, if you use *keredo(mo)/kedo* “although” (see Unit 5), which, like the English word “although,” introduces a dependent clause (see Unit 4), you have the option of using either a polite or plain form.

きれい{です/だ}けれども、高いです。

*kiree {desu/da} keredomo, takai desu*

“Although it is beautiful, it is expensive.”

This is the same for *kara*, which is similar to the English word “because” (see also Units 5 and 23).

きれい{です/だ}から、高いです。

*kiree {desu/da} kara, takai desu*

“Because it is beautiful, it is expensive.”

Finally, regardless of the style of the sentence-final predicate, the predicate in a noun-modifying clause cannot carry a polite ending. Therefore, as we saw in Unit 4: (i) a modifier noun appears with the possessive particle *no*, (ii) a modifier *na*-adjective appears with *na*, and (iii) a modifying *i*-adjective or verb appears in the plain form.

N: [原産地が南アフリカの] ダイヤモンドは高いです。  
[gensanchi ga minami afurika **no**] daiyamondo wa takai desu  
“A diamond with its origin in South Africa is expensive.”

NA: [色がきれいな] ダイヤモンドは高いです。  
[iro ga **kiree na**] daiyamondo wa takai desu  
“A diamond with an attractive color is expensive.”

A: [カットがいい] ダイヤモンドは高いです。  
[katto ga **ii**] daiyamondo wa takai desu  
“A diamond with a high-quality cut is expensive.”

V: [加藤さんが買った] ダイヤモンドは高いです。  
[katoo-san ga **katta**] daiyamondo wa takai desu  
“The diamond that Ms. Kato bought is expensive.”

## Grammatical factors in the use of honorific and humble forms

Certain verbs such as *ageru* “give outward” and *morau* “receive inward” (see Unit 24) are **SPEAKER-CENTERED** in that they incorporate the speaker’s perspective into their meanings. For such verbs, humble forms exist, but not honorific forms. Likewise, speaker-centered constructions are incompatible with honorific expressions. See Unit 15 for *-tai* “want to . . .” for more details.

### Exercise 10.1

Choose the appropriate term to fit the intended meaning of each sentence.

- 1 昨日{お母さん/母}から電話がありました。  
*kinoo {okaasan/haha} kara denwa ga arimashita*  
 “I received a phone call from your mother yesterday.”
- 2 {お父さん/父}にもよろしく。  
*{otoosan/chichi} ni mo yoroshiku*  
 “Best regards to your father, too.”
- 3 {おばさん/おば}も同じ学校を出ました。  
*{obasan/oba} mo onaji gakkoo o demashita*  
 “My aunt also graduated from the same school.”
- 4 {おまごさん/まご}は、おいくつですか。  
*{omagosan/mago} wa oikutsu desu ka*  
 “How old is your grandchild?”
- 5 {娘さん/娘}が一人おります。  
*{musumesan/musume} ga hitori orimasu*  
 “I have a daughter.”

### Exercise 10.2

Choose the socially appropriate form for each of the following situations.

- 1 (speaking to your teacher)  
 明日、{休みます/休む}。  
*ashita {yasumimasu/yasumu}*  
 “I will be absent tomorrow.”

- 2 (writing a letter to your host family)  
みなさん、{お元気ですか。/元気?}  
*minasan {ogenki desu ka/genki?}*  
“Is everyone doing OK?”
- 3 (speaking at a job interview)  
去年の夏、日本に{行きました/行った}。  
*kyonen no natsu, nihon ni {ikimashita/itta}*  
“I went to Japan last summer.”
- 4 (speaking to a dog)  
こら、何{食べました/食べた}!  
*kora, nani {tabemashita/tabeta}*  
“Hey, what did you eat!”

### Exercise 10.3

Choose the verb that is compatible with the subject.

- 1 先生が{いらっしゃいました/参りました}。  
*sensee ga {irasshaimashita/mairimashita}*  
“The teacher has come.”
- 2 母も{召し上がりました/頂きました}。  
*haha mo {meshiagarimashita/itadakimashita}*  
“My mother also ate it.”
- 3 先生が{ごらんになりました/拝見しました}。  
*sensee ga {goran ni narimashita/haiken-shimashita}*  
“The teacher looked at it.”
- 4 お客様がそう{おっしゃいました/申しました}。  
*okyakusan ga soo {osshaimashita/mooshimashita}*  
“The customer said so.”
- 5 私がそう{なさいました/いたしました}。  
*watashi ga soo {nasaimashita/itashimashita}*  
“I did it that way.”

### Exercise 10.4

Produce the honorific, polite forms from the following polite forms.

- 1 分かります *wakarimasu* “understand”  
2 読みます *yomimasu* “read”

- 3 帰ります *kaerimasu* “return”  
 4 書きます *kakimasu* “write”

## Exercise 10.5

Produce the honorific, polite forms from the following unmarked forms.

- 1 買う *kau* “buy”  
 2 立つ *tatsu* “stand”  
 3 話す *hanasu* “talk”  
 4 座る *suwaru* “sit down”

## Exercise 10.6

Choose all the forms that can be used within a family.

- 1 (speaking to an elder sister named “Yoshiko”)  
 {お姉さん/あなた/姉/よしこ}のグラスはどれ?  
 {oneesan/anata/ane/yoshiko} *no gurasu wa dore*  
 “Which is your glass?”
- 2 (speaking to a younger sister named “Sayuri”)  
 {妹さん/あなた/妹/さゆり}のグラスはどれ?  
 {imootosan/anata/imooto/sayuri} *no gurasu wa dore*  
 “Which is your glass?”

## Exercise 10.7

Explain why it is difficult to say “Which is your glass?” to a stranger at a cocktail party in Japan.

## Exercise 10.8

Choose the appropriate form(s). There may be more than one.

- 1 時間{だ/です}から、行くよ。  
*jikan {da/desu} kara, iku yo*  
 “It’s time, so I am leaving.”
- 2 静か{だ/な/です}所が好きです。  
*shizuka {da/na/desu} tokoro ga suki desu*  
 “I like quiet places.”



- 3 日本語は{分かる/分かります}が、中国語は分かりません。  
*nihongo wa {wakaru/wakarimasu} ga, chuugokugo wa wakarimasen*  
“I understand Japanese, but I don’t understand Chinese.”
- 4 昨日{見た/見ました}映画はおもしろかったです。  
*kinoo {mita/mimashita} eega wa omoshirokatta desu*  
“The movie I watched yesterday was fun.”
- 5 {おもしろい/おもしろいです}仕事はたくさんあります。  
*{omoshiroi/omoshiroi desu} shigoto wa takusan arimasu*  
“There are a lot of interesting jobs.”
- 6 仕事がたくさん{ある/あります}から、テレビは見ません。  
*shigoto ga takusan {aru/arimasu} kara, terebi wa mimasen*  
“Because I have a lot of work, I won’t watch TV.”

# UNIT 11

## Concreteness and abstractness in grammar

Certain nouns, such as “books” and “cars,” describe concrete objects, while others, such as “love” and “peace,” describe abstract concepts. This distinction between concrete and abstract entities is observed in many areas of Japanese grammar. In this unit we will discuss the use of two very frequently used expressions: *no* and *koto*.

### Pronominal uses of *no* and *koto*

English pronouns, such as “one” and “what,” can substitute for nouns in certain grammatical positions, provided their identities are recoverable from the context.

the **one** that I bought (cf. the **picture** that I bought)  
**what** I didn’t know (cf. **the details** I didn’t know)

The Japanese pronoun *no* and the abstract noun *koto* have functions similar to “one” and “what.”

#### *Pronoun no*

Like “one” in English, the pronoun *no* stands for a concrete object. For instance, at a ticket counter, you might request an earlier train in the following manner.

もっと早い**の**はありませんか。  
*motto hayai no wa arimasen ka*  
“Isn’t there an earlier one?”

This sentence is equivalent to the following sentence.

もっと早い**列車**はありませんか。  
*motto hayai ressha wa arimasen ka*  
“Isn’t there an earlier train?”

The types of modifiers that can precede *no* and regular nouns are essentially the same. Using *ressha* as an example, the first of the following tables summarizes the types of modifiers that can precede a noun. The second table summarizes the types of modifiers that can precede the pronoun *no*. (See Unit 4 for the forms of modifiers.)

[Noun modifiers]

Plain-style verb	着く <i>tsuku</i>	列車 <i>ressha</i>	“the train that arrives”
<i>I</i> -adjective	遅い <i>osoi</i>		“the late train”
Demonstrative	こんな <i>konna</i>		“this type of train”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	便利な <i>benri na</i>		“the convenient train”
Noun + Particle	大阪への <i>oosaka e no</i>		“the train (that travels) to Osaka”
Noun	八時の <i>hachiji no</i>		“the train at 8 o’clock”

[Modifiers for the pronoun *no*]

Plain-style verb	着く <i>tsuku</i>	の <i>no</i>	“the one that arrives”
<i>I</i> -adjective	遅い <i>osoi</i>		“the late one”
Demonstrative	こんな <i>konna</i>		“this type of thing”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	便利な <i>benri na</i>		“the convenient one”
Noun + Particle	大阪への <i>oosaka e no</i>	の <i>no</i>	“the one (that travels) to Osaka”
Noun	八時の <i>hachiji no</i>		“the one at 8 o’clock”

The only difference between the two is that the pronoun *no* cannot appear after the possessive particle *no*. For instance, you cannot use *\*hachiji no no* in the sense of “the one at 8 o’clock.” Use just one *no* and say *hachiji no*.

Just like a regular noun phrase, phrases ending with the pronoun *no* can appear in different grammatical positions, accompanied by different particles.

名古屋まで止まらないのがいいです。  
*nagoya made tomaranai no ga ii desu*  
“I prefer the one that does not stop before Nagoya.”

この地図は小さいですね。もっと大きいのをお願いします。  
*kono chizu wa chiisai desu ne. motto ookii no o onegai-shimasu*  
 “This map is small. Please give me a larger one.”

五時の新幹線には間に合わないので、六時のにります。  
*goji no shinkansen ni wa ma ni awanai node, rokuji no ni norimasu*  
 “I won’t make it to the 5 o’clock bullet train, so I will take the 6 o’clock one.”

The pronoun *no* carries with it the sense that the object that it replaces is somewhat small or easy to dominate. It cannot replace a noun representing a person (unless you want to belittle him or her). Nor can you use it for an area or time where an event takes place.

となりに座った{人/×の}と話しました。  
*tonari ni suwatta {hito/\*no} to hanashimashita*  
 “I talked to the person who sat next to me.”

切符を予約する{所/×の}へ行った。  
*kippu o yoyaku-suru {tokoro/\*no} e itta*  
 “I went to the place where one reserves a ticket.”

次の電車が出る{時間/×の}を教えてください。  
*tsugi no densha ga deru {jikan/\*no} o oshiete kudasai*  
 “Please tell me the time when the next train leaves.”

### Abstract noun *koto*

The noun *koto* “matter” is an abstract counterpart of the pronoun *no*. While the pronoun *no* stands for a concrete object, such as a train or a map, the noun *koto* stands for an abstract idea or significant fact. It often appears with verbs such as *kiku* “hear,” *wakaru* “learn,” *shiraberu* “investigate,” and *okoru* “happen.”

大変なことが起こりました。  
*taihen na koto ga okorimashita*  
 “Something serious happened.”

警察が事故のことを調べました。  
*keesatsu ga jiko no koto o shirabemashita*  
 “The police investigated the accident.”

車掌は、ホームから見たことを説明しました。  
*shashoo wa, hoomu kara mita koto o setsumee-shimashita*  
 “The conductor explained what he saw from the platform.”

こんなことが分かりました。  
*konna koto ga wakarimashita*  
“I found out something like this.”

The following table summarizes the types of forms that can appear before *koto*. The modifiers before *koto* follow the noun modification pattern (see Unit 4).

[Modifiers for *koto*]

Plain-style verb	調べた <i>shirabeta</i>	こと <i>koto</i>	“the information that I checked”
<i>I</i> -adjective	難しい <i>muzukashii</i>		“a difficult thing”
Demonstrative	こんな <i>konna</i>		“a fact like this”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	変な <i>hen na</i>		“a strange fact”
Noun + particle	駅で <i>eki de no</i>		“things at the station”
Noun	事故の <i>jiko no</i>		“information about the accident”

Nominalizers *no* and *koto*

**NOMINALIZERS** turn a sentence into something like a noun. In English, “(for . . . ) to,” “-ing,” and “that” are three major nominalizers. In the following example, the sentence “she is able to catch the train” is turned into noun-like units, known as nominalized clauses. (See Unit 4 for different kinds of clauses.)

- (for her) to be able to catch the train
- (her) being able to catch the train
- that she is able to catch the train

Using these clauses, you can create more complex sentences to express more complex thoughts.

We did not expect [to be able to catch the train].  
[Her being able to catch the train] was crucial.  
It was surprising [that she was able to catch the train].

In Japanese, *no* and *koto* also have similar nominalizing functions. (See also Units 4, 14, 16, 18, and 23.) The basic concrete-abstract contrast between *no* and *koto* is carried over to their nominalizer uses. *No* nominalizes clauses describing **personally experienced events** or **familiar, concrete knowledge**, while *koto* nominalizes those representing **ability/possibility, remote experience, or abstract ideas**.

### Nominalizer *no*

The following sentences exemplify those containing the concrete nominalizer *no*. Just like a regular noun phrase, a *no*-clause can appear in different grammatical positions, accompanied by different particles.

妹が同じ電車に乗るのを見た。

*imooto ga onaji densha ni noru no o mita*

“I saw my younger sister get on the same train.”

時刻表が古いのは困る。

*jikokuhyoo ga furui no wa komaru*

“It is a nuisance for the time schedule to be old.”

待合室がきれいなのがうれしい。

*machiaishitsu ga kiree na no ga ureshii*

“I am pleased that the waiting room is clean.”

駅前でデパートなのも知らなかった。

*ekimae ga depaato na no mo shiranakatta*

“I didn’t even know that outside the station is a department store.”

The following table summarizes the forms of predicates before *no*. They generally follow the patterns of noun modifiers (see Unit 4), except that a noun appears with *na* before the nominalizer *no*.

### [Forms of predicates before the nominalizer *no*]

Plain-style verb	乗る <i>noru</i>	の <i>no</i>	“getting on”
<i>I</i> -adjective	古い <i>furui</i>		“the fact that it is old”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	きれいな <i>kiree na</i>		“the fact that it is clean”
Noun	デパートな <i>depaato na</i>		“the fact that it is a department store”

## Nominalizer koto

The following sentence exemplifies the use of the abstract nominalizer *koto* for the description of a possibility.

三時の電車に乗ることができる。(see also Unit 16)

*sanji no densha ni noru koto ga dekiru*

“I can catch the 3 o’clock train.”

The difference between *no* and *koto* is that *no* is used for personally experienced, observable events or familiar, concrete knowledge, while *koto* is used for possibility, general experience, or abstract ideas.

For example, while *koto* is used to describe general abilities, *no* is preferred in the description of an actual, observable performance.

中国語を話すこと(×の)ができる。

*chuugokugo o hanasu koto (\*no) ga dekiru*

“I am able to speak Chinese.”

中国語を話すのが上手だ。(see also Unit 16)

*chuugokugo o hanasu no ga joozu da*

“He is good at speaking Chinese.”

Likewise, to describe a personal experience, *no* is used.

妹が同じ電車に乗るの(×こと)を見た。

*imooto ga onaji densha ni noru no (\*koto) o mita*

“I saw my younger sister get on the same train.”

列車が遅れるの(×こと)は困る。

*ressha ga okureru no (\*koto) wa komaru*

“For trains to get delayed is a nuisance.”

However, this distinction between *no* and *koto* is not always clear-cut. For sentences describing knowledge, both *no* and *koto* can be used. The one with *koto* sounds like an official announcement or significant discovery.

事故があった{の/こと}を知った。

*jiko ga atta {no/koto} o shitta*

“I {learned/discovered} that there was an accident.”

Just like those preceding *no*, the forms of predicates before *koto* generally follow the patterns of noun modifiers. Again, a slight adjustment is necessary if the predicate ends with a noun + *da*. Use *da to iu* “to the effect that” instead of just *da* for nouns.

## [Forms of predicates before the nominalizer *koto*]

Direct-style verb	乗る <i>noru</i>	こと <i>koto</i>	“getting on”
<i>I</i> -adjective	古い <i>furui</i>		“the fact that it is old”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	きれいな <i>kiree na</i>		“the fact that it is clean”
Noun	デパートだという <i>depaato da to iu</i>		“the fact that it is a department store”

## Apparent exception to the constraint on the pronoun *no*

We learned that the pronoun *no* cannot replace a noun representing a person or a place/time where an event takes place. There are apparent exceptions to this constraint, as in the following:

あそこにいるのが車掌さんだ。  
*asoko ni iru no ga shashoo-san da*  
“It is the conductor who is over there.”

電車が着くのは、三番線です。  
*densha ga tsuku no wa, sanbansen desu*  
“It is Track 3 where the train is arriving.”

電車が着いたのは、三時だった。  
*densha ga tsuita no wa, sanji datta*  
“It was 3 o'clock when the train arrived.”

These sentences involve the special focus construction [...*no wa/ga* ... *da*] “it is ... that ...,” in which the part that is focused on is moved to the position before *da*.

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">車掌さん</div> がいる。	→	いるのが <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">車掌さん</div> だ。
<i>shashoo-san ga iru</i>		<i>iru no ga shashoo-san da</i>
“The conductor is there.”		“It is the conductor who is there.”

In spite of its similarity to the pronominal *no*, the *no* in this construction is not the pronoun *no*. It is restricted to the subject position, and the predicates before it appear in the same pattern as those before the nominalizer *no*.



[Forms of predicates before *no* in the special focus construction]

Plain-style verb	乗る <i>noru</i>	... の{は/が} ... だ/です ... <i>no</i> { <i>wa/ga</i> } ... <i>da/desu</i>
<i>I</i> -adjective	古い <i>furui</i>	
<i>Na</i> -adjective	きれいな <i>kiree na</i>	
Noun	駅な <i>eki na</i>	

Special ending *n(o) da*

The nominalizer *no* is frequently followed by the copula verb *da* at the end of sentences. This combination *n(o) da* (*no* is usually pronounced as *n*) generally adds an explanatory tone to what is being said and has a variety of functions, such as showing enthusiasm and soliciting sympathy. See Units 15, 21, 23, and 25 for more details.

- A: どうしたんですか。  
*doo shita n desu ka*  
“What happened?”
- B: ころんだんです。  
*koronda n desu*  
“I fell.”

Exercise 11.1

Following the example, ask for the preferred item. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

(Example)

これはちょっと大きいです。もっと小さいのありませんか。  
*kore wa chotto ookii desu. motto chiisai no arimasen ka*  
“This is a little big. Do you have a smaller one?”

- 1 これはちょっと古いです。\_\_\_\_\_。  
*kore wa chotto furui desu*
- 2 これはちょっときたないです。\_\_\_\_\_。  
*kore wa chotto kitanai desu*
- 3 これはちょっとつまらないです。\_\_\_\_\_。  
*kore wa chotto tsumaranai desu*

- 4 これはちょっと長いです。\_\_\_\_\_。  
*kore wa chotto nagai desu*

## Exercise 11.2

Change the predicate in the parentheses into the appropriate form.

- 漢字を\_\_\_\_\_ (覚えます) のが大変です。  
*kanji o \_\_\_\_\_ (oboemasu) no ga taihen desu*  
 “It is hard to memorize kanji.”
- リサさんが\_\_\_\_\_ (カナダ人です) のが分かった。  
*risa-san ga \_\_\_\_\_ (kanadajin desu) no ga wakatta*  
 “I learned that Lisa is Canadian.”
- 道が\_\_\_\_\_ (せまいです) のが困ります。  
*michi ga \_\_\_\_\_ (semai desu) no ga komarimasu*  
 “It is a nuisance that the road is narrow.”
- 切符を\_\_\_\_\_ (予約します) ことができる。  
*kippu o \_\_\_\_\_ (yoyaku-shimasu) koto ga dekiru*  
 “It is possible to reserve a ticket.”
- 成田エクスプレスが\_\_\_\_\_ (便利です) ことを知った。  
*narita-ekusupuresu ga \_\_\_\_\_ (benri desu) koto o shitta*  
 “I discovered that the Narita Express is convenient.”

## Exercise 11.3

Fill in the parentheses with either *no* or *koto*.

- 橋本さんが来る( )を見ました。  
*hashimoto-san ga kuru ( ) o mimashita*  
 “I saw Mr. Hashimoto come over.”
- へんな( ), 言わないで下さい。  
*hen na ( ), iwanaide kudasai*  
 “Please don’t say foolish things.”
- ちょっとこれは大きいです。もっと小さい( )ありませんか。  
*chotto kore wa ookii desu. motto chiisai ( ) arimasen ka*  
 “This one is a little big. Is there a smaller one?”
- 高橋さんは、ロシア語を話す( )ができます。  
*takahashi-san wa, roshiago o hanasu ( ) ga dekimasu*  
 “Ms. Takahashi can speak Russian.”

## Exercise 11.4

Following the example, rewrite each sentence using the focus construction so that the underlined part appears before *desu*.

(Example)

橋本さんが来ました。	→	来たのは、橋本さんです。
<i>hashimoto-san ga kimashita</i>		<i>kita <b>no</b> wa, hashimoto-san desu</i>
“Mr. Hashimoto came.”		“It is Mr. Hashimoto that came.”

- 1 あの車が一番速いです。  
*ano kuruma ga ichiban hayai desu*  
“That car is the fastest.”
- 2 父は社長です。  
*chichi wa shachoo desu*  
“My father is the company president.”
- 3 私がこのケーキを作りました。  
*watashi ga kono keeki o tsukurimashita*  
“I made this cake.”
- 4 母が先生と会いました。  
*haha ga sensee to aimashita*  
“My mother met the teacher.”

# PART 2

## Grammar by tasks

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# UNIT 12

## Describing time

Keeping track of time is so important in our lives that most of us cannot imagine going around without some kind of device indicating the current time. We use such devices, for instance, to remember when a dental appointment is (point in time) or to figure out how long we were in a dentist's office (length of duration). In this unit, we will study various ways to describe time in Japanese.

### Point vs. duration

First, we need to distinguish between two time concepts: a point in time and a length of duration.

The question *itsu* “when” elicits a point in time as the answer.

A: いつ日本に来ましたか。

*itsu nihon ni kimashita ka*

“When did you come to Japan?”

B: 2008年/二月十四日/先週/おとといです。

*nisenhachinen/nigatsu juuyokka/senshuu/ototoi desu*

“2008/February 14/last week/the day before yesterday.”

The question *donokurai/donogurai* “how long” elicits a length of duration.

A: どのぐらい日本にいますか。

*donogurai nihon ni imasu ka*

“How long will you be in Japan?”

B: 一年(間)/三か月(間)/六週間/十日(間)です。

*ichinen(kan)/sankagetsu(kan)/rokushuukan/tooka(kan) desu*

“One year/three months/six weeks/ten days.”

Many words relating to time are combinations of numbers and counters. Some of them stand for a point in time, others for a length of duration (see Appendix B).

## Order of time words

In Japanese, a point in time is specified beginning with the broadest time unit and ending with the narrowest time unit. This naturally follows from the basic modification pattern in Japanese (see Unit 4). A newspaper article might report the time of an incident as:

2009年六月十二日金曜日午後七時三十分  
*nisenkyuunen rokugatsu juuninichi kinyoobi gogo shichiji sanjuppun*  
 “7:30pm on Friday, June 12, 2009”

Note that this phrase begins with the year and ends with the minute. Of course, the use of such a fully specified time expression is uncommon. You are more likely to hear shorter expressions, such as the following examples, which have the possessive particle *no* connecting the parts. However, the principle is the same. Begin with the broadest time unit.

六月十二日の金曜日	金曜日の七時三十分
<i>rokugatsu juuninichi no kinyoobi</i>	<i>kinyoobi no shichiji sanjuppun</i>
“Friday, June 12”	“7:30 on Friday”

## Particles used with time words

Time words are often followed by a particle. In this section, we will study how to use *ni*, *goro*, *kara*, *made*, and *made ni* with time words.

### Ni “at/in/on”

One of the functions of the particle *ni* is to pinpoint a time when an event occurs (see Unit 5 for various functions of *ni*). It is attached to an expression representing a point in time and often emphasizes exactness.

九時に	<i>kuji ni</i>	“at 9 o’clock”
六月に	<i>rokugatsu ni</i>	“in June”
二十日に	<i>hatsuka ni</i>	“on the 20 <sup>th</sup> ”
2010年に	<i>nisenjuunen ni</i>	“in 2010”
クリスマスに	<i>kurisumasu ni</i>	“at Christmas”
水曜日に	<i>suiyoobi ni</i>	“on Wednesday”

*Ni* can be dropped from such expressions if there is less of an emphasis on exactness.

週末(に)	<i>shuumatsu (ni)</i>	“over the weekend”
春(に)	<i>haru (ni)</i>	“in spring”

Here are some example sentences.

九時にインタビューがあります。

*kuji ni intabyuu ga arimasu*

“I have an interview at 9 o’clock.”

四月二十日(に)、レポートの発表をします。

*shigatsu hatsuka (ni), repooto no happyoo o shimasu*

“I will present my class paper on April 20.”

However, time expressions such as the following are not used with the particle *ni*.

今日	<i>kyoo</i>	“today”
先週	<i>senshuu</i>	“last week”
来月	<i>raigetsu</i>	“next month”
再来年	<i>sarainen</i>	“the year after next”
最近	<i>saikin</i>	“lately”
このごろ	<i>konogoro</i>	“these days”

See the following examples. The comma is optional.

昨日(×に)、ジムへ行きました。 “I went to the gym yesterday.”

*kinoo (\*ni), jimu e ikimashita*

最近(×に)、とても忙しいです。 “I have been very busy lately.”

*saikin(\*ni), totemo isogashii desu*

These expressions share the property of being defined relative to the time of the utterance. In other words, they cannot be pinpointed as exact points on a time scale. This is why they cannot be combined with *ni*. (Their English counterparts have the characteristic of being incompatible with a preposition for the same reason.)

### Goro “around, about”

The word *goro* expresses an approximate point in time by attaching to a word that otherwise expresses an exact point in time. The particle *ni* may optionally follow *goro*, adding the sense that the event occurs in a narrow time frame. *Ni* never precedes *goro*.

九時ごろ(に) “around 9 o’clock”

*kuji goro (ni)*

*Goro* does not attach to a word such as *shuumatsu* “weekend” or *asa* “morning,” which already means an approximate point in time.



- × 週末ごろ *shuumatsu goro* (intended: “around the weekend”)
- × 朝ごろ *asa goro* (intended: “around the morning”)

*Hiru* is compatible with *goro* in the sense of “12pm/noon” but not in the sense of “afternoon.”

昼ごろでかけます。 “I will go out around noon.”  
*hiru goro de kakemasu*

Note that *goro* is never used to approximate a length of time. Its use is limited to approximation of a point in time. Use *kurai/gurai* (see also Unit 9) if you want to approximate a length of time.

- A: 何時間寝ましたか。  
*nanjikan nemashita ka*  
 “How many hours of sleep did you get?”
- B: 九時間ぐらい寝ました。  
*kujikan-gurai nemashita*  
 “I slept for about nine hours.”

The use of *kurai/gurai* has expanded from approximation of a length to include that of a point. However, unlike *goro*, *kurai/gurai* must always be accompanied by *ni* to approximate a point.

- A: 何時に寝ましたか。  
*nanji ni nemashita ka*  
 “Around what time did you go to bed?”
- B: 九時ぐらいに寝ました。  
*kuji-gurai ni nemashita*  
 “I went to bed at around 9 o’clock.”

### Kara/made “from/until”

As introduced in Unit 5, the particle *kara* means “from” and the particle *made* means “until.” They are used together or independently to indicate the beginning and the end of an event. When you use them together, keep to the order of *kara . . . made*.

日本語のクラスは月曜日から木曜日までです。  
*nihongo no kurasu wa getsuyoobi kara mokuyoobi made desu*  
 “The Japanese class is from Monday through Thursday.”

テストは午前九時から始まります。  
*tesuto wa gozen kuji kara hajimarimasu*  
 “The test is from 9am.”

夏休みは八月末までです。

*natsuyasumi wa hachigatsu sue made desu*

“My summer vacation lasts until the end of August.”

Incidentally, *kara* and *made* are not limited to time expressions. They indicate a range in general.

A: 名古屋から神戸まで新幹線でどのぐらいかかりますか。

*nagoya kara koobe made shinkansen de donogurai kakarimasu ka*

“How long does it take from Nagoya to Kobe by bullet train?”

B: 一時間ぐらいです。

*ichijikan-gurai desu*

“About an hour.”

A: いくらぐらいかかりますか。

*ikura-gurai kakarimasu ka*

“How much does it cost?”

B: 一万五千円から二万円ぐらいです。

*ichiman gosen'en kara niman'en-gurai desu*

“From 15,000 to 20,000 yen, approximately.”

## Made ni “by”

*Made ni*, the combination of the particles *made* and *ni*, marks the time limit by which a certain action is to be completed. It is equivalent to the English words “by” or “before.”

明日までにレポートを出します。

*ashita made ni repooto o dashimasu*

“I will submit my report by tomorrow.”

四時までもどります。

*yoji made ni modorimasu*

“I will come back before 4 o'clock.”

## Sentence patterns ordering events on a time scale

Some sentence patterns are used to order events on a time scale. Here we will study five such patterns.

### A-te kara B “B after A”

The sentence pattern *A-te kara B* connects a sequence of events A and B, with A immediately preceding the main event B.

昼ご飯を食べてから、アルバイトへ行きます。

*hirugohan o tabete kara, arubaito e ikimasu*

“I will go to work at my part-time job after eating lunch.”

ジョギングをしてから、シャワーをあびました。

*jogingu o shite kara, shawaa o abimashita*

“After jogging, I took a shower.”

Pay attention to the verb form before *kara*. If a tensed form is used before *kara*, it is a different construction and stands for a reason.

ジョギングをしたから、シャワーをあびました。

*jogingu o shita kara, shawaa o abimashita*

“Because I went jogging, I took a shower.”

### A ato de B “B after A”

*Ato*, a noun literally meaning “space behind,” is also used in the sense of “time after.” Just like any noun, it can be modified by either another noun or a modifying clause. If a modifier noun is used, the connecting particle *no* must appear between the modifier noun and *ato*.

[昼ご飯の]後で、

*hirugohan no ato de*

“After lunch, . . .”

If a modifying clause is used, it must always be in the plain past form regardless of the main clause tense.

[昼ご飯を食べた]後で、

*hirugohan o tabeta ato de*

“After we eat/ate lunch, . . .”

[昼ご飯を食べた]後で、映画を見ます。

*hirugohan o tabeta ato de, eega o mimasu*

“After we eat lunch, we will see a movie.”

[昼ご飯を食べた]後で、映画を見ました。

*hirugohan o tabeta ato de, eega o mimashita*

“After we ate lunch, we saw a movie.”

Here are some more examples.

授業の後で、昼ご飯を食べました。

*jugyoo no ato de, hirugohan o tabemashita*

“I had lunch after the class.”

夏休みが終わった後で、ヨーロッパへ帰ります。  
*natsuyasumi ga owatta ato de, yooroppa e kaerimasu*  
 “After the summer break is over, I will go back to Europe.”

Like *A-te kara B*, the pattern *A ato de B* describes a sequence of events where the subordinate event A is followed by the main event B. However, while *A-te kara* refers to the span of time immediately after A, *A ato de* refers to some span of time after A. Hence, while *-te kara* can be used in the sense of “since,” *ato de* cannot.

日本に来てから、三年です。  
*nihon ni kite kara, sannen desu*  
 “It has been three years since I came to Japan.”

× 日本に来た後で、三年です。  
*nihon ni kita ato de, sannen desu*  
 (literally: “It has been three years after I came to Japan.”)

### *A mae ni B “B before A”*

*Mae*, a noun literally meaning “space in front,” is also used in the sense of “time before” and can be modified by a noun or a sentence. The modifier noun must be followed by the particle *no*.

[晩ご飯の]前に、  
*bangohan no mae ni*  
 “Before dinner,…”

The modifying clause must always be in the plain non-past form regardless of the main clause tense.

[晩ご飯を食べる]前に、  
*bangohan o taberu mae ni*  
 “Before we eat/ate dinner,…”

[晩ご飯を食べる] 前に、勉強します。  
*bangohan o taberu mae ni, benkyoo-shimasu*  
 “I will study before eating dinner.”

[晩ご飯を食べる] 前に、勉強しました。  
*bangohan o taberu mae ni, benkyoo-shimashita*  
 “I studied before eating dinner.”

You can specify how long in advance of the modifier event the main event takes place by adding a duration word before *mae*.

テストが始まる**三十分前**にもう一度ノートを見ました。

*tesuto ga hajimaru sanjuppun mae ni moo ichido nooto o mimashita*  
 “I checked my notebook once more 30 minutes before the test started.”

パリに行く**一ヵ月前**に、卒業式がありました。

*pari ni iku ikkagetsu mae ni, sotsugyooshiki ga arimashita*  
 “The graduation ceremony was a month before I went to Paris.”

### -chuu “in the middle of”

The suffix *-chuu* “in the middle of (some event)” attaches to a verbal noun (see Unit 3) that denotes an event with some duration.

電話中	<i>denwa-chuu</i>	“on the phone”
会議中	<i>kaigi-chuu</i>	“in the middle of a meeting”
勉強中	<i>benkyoo-chuu</i>	“in the middle of studying”
仕事中	<i>shigoto-chuu</i>	“at work”
授業中	<i>jugyoo-chuu</i>	“in the middle of a class”
外出中	<i>gaishutsu-chuu</i>	“out (of an office/home, etc.)”
食事中	<i>shokuji-chuu</i>	“in the middle of a meal”
使用中	<i>shiyoo-chuu</i>	“in use”
テスト中	<i>tesuto-chuu</i>	“in the middle of an exam”
ダイエット中	<i>daietto-chuu</i>	“on a diet”
ダウンロード中	<i>daunroodo-chuu</i>	“in the middle of a download”

Here are some example sentences.

斉藤先生は今、**授業中**です。 “Professor Saito is in class right now.”  
*saitoo-sensee wa ima, jugyoo-chuu desu*

**食事**中はテレビを見ません。 “I don’t watch TV during meals.”  
*shokuji-chuu wa terebi o mimasen*

二時まで**テスト中**です。 “The exam is going on until 2 o’clock.”  
*niji made tesuto-chuu desu*

### A toki (ni), B “when A, B”

*Toki*, a noun literally meaning “time,” can be used with a modifier clause in the sense of “when” or “at the time when.” Since *toki* is a noun, its modifiers follow the basic noun modification patterns (see Unit 4).

N:	[学生 <b>の</b> ]時に、	<i>gakusee no toki ni</i>	“While a student...”
A:	[忙しい]時に、	<i>isogashii toki ni</i>	“When I am busy...”
NA:	[大変 <b>な</b> ]時に、	<i>taihen na toki ni</i>	“When it is hard...”
V:	[本を読む]時に、	<i>hon o yomu toki ni</i>	“When I read a book...”

Some example sentences follow.

姉は**高校生**の時に留学しました。

*ane wa **kookoossee no toki ni** ryuugaku-shimashita*

“My elder sister studied abroad when she was a high school student.”

テストの時に辞書が要りますか。

*tesuto no toki ni jisho ga irimasu ka*

“Will we need a dictionary when we take the test?”

黒板を見る時にめがねを使います。

*kokuban o miru toki ni megane o tsukaimasu*

“I use glasses when I look at the blackboard.”

## Exercise 12.1

Choose between *itsu* and *donogurai*. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 A: 家から大学まで{いつ/どのぐらい}かかりましたか。  
*uchi kara daigaku made {itsu/donogurai} kakarimashita ka*  
B: 四十五分でした。  
*yonjuugofun deshita*
- 2 A: 誕生日は{いつ/どのぐらい}ですか。  
*tanjoobi wa {itsu/donogurai} desu ka*  
B: 五月三日です。  
*gogatsu mikka desu*
- 3 A: 毎晩{いつ/どのぐらい}寝ますか  
*maiban {itsu/donogurai} nemasu ka*  
B: 六時間ぐらいです。  
*rokujikan-gurai desu*
- 4 A: {いつ/どのぐらい}日本に来ましたか。  
*{itsu/donogurai} nihon ni kimashita ka*  
B: 三年前です。  
*sannen mae desu*
- 5 A: {いつ/どのぐらい}分かりますか。  
*{itsu/donogurai} wakarimasu ka*  
B: あさってです。  
*asatte desu*

## Exercise 12.2

Rearrange the order of the words to specify a time. You can check the meaning of each expression in the answer key.

- 1 {十一時・午後・明日}  
*juuichiji · gogo · ashita*
- 2 {土曜日・二日・十時・五月・二十分}  
*doyoobi · futsuka · juuji · gogatsu · nijuppun*
- 3 {二十五日・五十分・三時・十二月・午前}  
*nijuugonichi · gojuppun · sanji · juunigatsu · gozen*

### Exercise 12.3

Choose between *ni* and  $\emptyset$ .

- 1 五月{に/ $\emptyset$ }バンクーバーで国際会議があります。  
*gogatsu {ni/ $\emptyset$ } bankuubaa de kokusai-kaigi ga arimasu*  
“There is an international conference in Vancouver in May.”
- 2 昨日{に/ $\emptyset$ }図書館へ行きました。  
*kinoo {ni/ $\emptyset$ } toshokan e ikimashita*  
“I went to the library yesterday.”
- 3 最近{に/ $\emptyset$ }どうですか。  
*saikin {ni/ $\emptyset$ } doo desu ka*  
“How has it been going lately?”
- 4 七時ぐらい{に/ $\emptyset$ }起きました。  
*shichiji-gurai {ni/ $\emptyset$ } okimashita*  
“I woke up at about 7 o'clock.”
- 5 冬休み{に/ $\emptyset$ }何をしますか。  
*fuyuyasumi {ni/ $\emptyset$ } nani o shimasu ka*  
“What do you do during the winter break?”

### Exercise 12.4

Choose between *goro* and *kurai/gurai*. If both are possible, indicate that.

- 1 A: 何時間かかりましたか。  
*nanjikan kakarimashita ka*  
“How many hours did it take?”  
B: 二時間{ごろ/ぐらい}です。  
*nijikan {goro/gurai} desu*  
“About two hours.”
- 2 A: いつごろ着きましたか。  
*itsu goro tsukimashita ka*  
“Around what time did you arrive?”

- B: 今朝十時{ごろ/ぐらい}着きました。  
*kesa juuji {goro/gurai} tsukimashita*  
 “I arrived around 10 o'clock this morning.”
- 3 A: コンサートは何時からですか。  
*konsaato wa nanji kara desu ka*  
 “What time does the concert start?”
- B: 八時{ごろ/ぐらい}に始まります。  
*hachiji {goro/gurai} ni hajimarimasu*  
 “It starts around 8 o'clock.”
- 4 A: これ{ごろ/ぐらい}でいいですか。  
*kore {goro/gurai} de ii desu ka*  
 “Is this enough?”
- B: はい、いいですよ。  
*hai, ii desu yo*  
 “Yes, that's enough.”

## Exercise 12.5

Choose between *made* and *made ni*. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 この宿題は、明後日{まで/までに}出してください。  
*kono shukudai wa, asatte {made/made ni} dashite kudasai*
- 2 毎晩九時ごろ{まで/までに}研究室にいます。  
*maiban kuji goro {made/made ni} kenkyuushitsu ni imasu*
- 3 毎朝、午前八時{まで/までに}大学へ来ます。  
*maiasa, gozen hachiji {made/made ni} daigaku e kimasu*

## Exercise 12.6

Fill in the blanks with appropriate question words to complete the dialogues. Provide the appropriate particles if necessary. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 A: \_\_\_\_\_ イギリスに来ましたか。  
 \_\_\_\_\_ *igirisu ni kimashita ka*
- B: 十二年前です。  
*juuninen mae desu*
- 2 A: \_\_\_\_\_ 京都にいますか。  
 \_\_\_\_\_ *kyoto ni imasu ka*



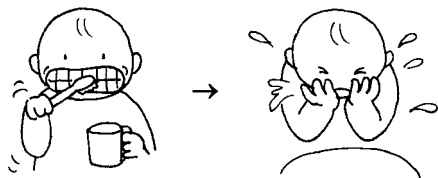
B: おととしの三月から京都にいます。  
*ototoshi no sangatsu kara kyoto ni imasu*

3 A: 先生、テストは何時から \_\_\_\_\_ ですか。  
*sensee, tesuto wa nanji kara \_\_\_\_\_ desu ka*

B: 二時から四時までです。  
*niji kara yoji made desu*

## Exercise 12.7

Express the sequence of events shown in the illustration using the three patterns.



歯をみがく *ha o migaku* “brush one’s teeth”  
 顔を洗う *kao o arau* “wash one’s face”

- 1 \_\_\_\_\_ から *kara* \_\_\_\_\_。
- 2 \_\_\_\_\_ 前に *mae ni* \_\_\_\_\_。
- 3 \_\_\_\_\_ 後で *ato de* \_\_\_\_\_。

## Exercise 12.8

Fill in the blank with the appropriate *hiragana*. If none is required, write Ø.

- 1 子ども( )時、数学が嫌いでした。  
*kodomo ( ) toki, suugaku ga kirai deshita*  
 “I hated math when I was a child.”
- 2 忙しい( )時には、昼ご飯を食べません。  
*isogashii ( ) toki ni wa, hirugohan o tabemasen*  
 “When I am busy, I don’t eat lunch.”
- 3 日本に留学した( )時、ホームステイをしました。  
*nihon ni ryuugaku-shita ( ) toki, hoomusutee o shimashita*  
 “I lived with a host family when I studied in Japan.”
- 4 宿題が大変( )時は、十二時ごろまで寝ません。  
*shukudai ga taihen ( ) toki wa, juuniji goro made nemasen*  
 “When I have lots of homework, I don’t go to bed until around 12 o’clock.”

# UNIT 13

## Asking the whereabouts

Finding one's way around in unfamiliar places, especially in a foreign country, could be challenging. You might find yourself constantly seeking assistance from others. In this unit, we will study methods to ask for, as well as explain, the locations of things and people.

### Verbs of existence: *aru* and *iru*

The simplest way to ask or describe the location of something is to use the [A *wa* B *da*] structure. Here, A (the subject) stands for the thing, and B (the noun predicate) for the location.

- A: バス停はどこですか。  
*basutee wa doko desu ka*  
“Where is the bus stop?”
- B: (バス停は)あそこです。  
*(basutee wa) asoko desu*  
“The bus stop is over there.”

However, this simple [A *wa* B *da*] structure is not always sufficient. For example, the following sentence may be read as “Osaka is classified as part of Western Japan” or “Osaka represents everything Western Japan is,” both of which differ from describing Osaka’s physical location.

- 大阪は西日本です。  
*oosaka wa nishi-nihon desu*  
(literally: “Osaka is Western Japan.”)

In order to clearly indicate that Osaka **is located in** Western Japan, use the verb of existence *aru* “exist.” The location phrase is followed by the particle *ni*, which marks the location of a stable entity (see Unit 5).

大阪は西日本にあります。  
*oosaka wa nishi-nihon ni arimasu*  
“Osaka is in Western Japan.”  
(literally: “Osaka exists in Western Japan.”)

Note that you cannot use the particle *ni* with the copula verb.

× 大阪は西日本にです。  
*oosaka wa nishi-nihon ni desu*  
(intended: “Osaka is in Western Japan.”)

The verb *aru* is only one of the two verbs of existence in Japanese. It is used to indicate the existence of inanimate or immobile objects (e.g., landmarks, plants, and trees, etc.). The other verb, *iru*, is used for animate objects (e.g., people and animals). Compare the following two examples:

バス停はあそこにあります。 [inanimate]  
*basutee wa asoko ni arimasu*  
“The bus stop is over there.”

運転手さんは外にいます。 [animate]  
*untenshu-san wa soto ni imasu*  
“The driver is outside.”

Here, the polite form of the verb *aru* is used with an inanimate object, “bus stop,” whereas the verb *iru* is used with an animate entity, “driver.”

These verbs of existence appear most naturally with the particles *ga* and *ni*. The subject is marked with the particle *ga*, and its location is marked with the particle *ni* (see Unit 5). This is schematically shown in the following table.

[Unmarked particles with verbs of existence]

	Subject	Location	Verb “exist”
Inanimate	...が <i>ga</i>	...に <i>ni</i>	あります <i>arimasu</i>
Animate			います <i>imasu</i>

In Unit 4 we learned that, while word order is fairly flexible in Japanese, reordering of phrases causes a subtle change in meaning. That is, a phrase that appears later in a sentence tends to be interpreted as a focus of contrast. This also applies to sentences containing a verb of existence. The following two word orders yield different focuses.

# Focus!

- (i) 

Subject	Location	Verb of Existence
---------	----------	-------------------
- (ii) 

Location	Subject	Verb of Existence
----------	---------	-------------------

Order (i) is used when the speaker is concerned about where something or someone is, whereas order (ii) is used when the speaker is concerned about what or who exists in a certain location.

For instance, if you believe that a certain thing or person is nearby and you want to find out its location, use order (i).

- A: バス停はどこにありますか。  
*basu-tee wa doko ni arimasu ka*  
“Where is the bus stop?”
- B: (バス停は)あそこにあります。  
*(basu-tee wa) asoko ni arimasu*  
“It’s over there.”
- A: 運転手さんはどこにいますか。  
*untenshu-san wa doko ni imasu ka*  
“Where is the driver?”
- B: (運転手さんは)外にいます。  
*(untenshu-san wa) soto ni imasu*  
“He is outside.”

In this pattern, the thing or person is marked with *wa* and is introduced first. With the existence of something or someone already presupposed, its location is the primary focus.

On the other hand, if you are concerned with what or who is in a certain location, use order (ii).

- A: この通りに(は)何がありますか。  
*kono toori ni (wa) nani ga arimasu ka*  
“What is on this street?”
- B: (この通りには)デパートや映画館があります。  
*(kono toori ni wa) depaato ya eegakan ga arimasu*  
“There is a department store, a movie theater, and so on.”
- A: 公園に(は)誰がいましたか。  
*kooen ni (wa) dare ga imashita ka*  
“Who was in the park?”
- B: (公園には)子どもたちがいました。  
*(kooen ni wa) kodomotachi ga imashita*  
“There were children.”

In this case, you first mention the location and then ask or describe what/who is there. The topic particle *wa* is optional in the questions. However, using it adds a sense of contrast (e.g., in THIS street, as opposed to others). The two types of questions are summarized below.

[Questions concerning “where”]

	Subject	Location	Verb “exist”	Q
Inanimate	…は <i>wa</i>	どこに <i>doko ni</i>	あります <i>arimasu</i>	か <i>ka</i>
Animate			います <i>imasu</i>	

[Questions concerning “what/who”]

	Location	Subject	Verb “exist”	Q
Inanimate	…に(は) <i>ni (wa)</i>	何が <i>nani ga</i>	あります <i>arimasu</i>	か <i>ka</i>
Animate		誰が <i>dare ga</i>	います <i>imasu</i>	

Using order (ii), you can also pose a yes-no question to indirectly ask for the location.

- A: このへんにバス停が{ありますか/ありません}か。  
*kono hen ni basutee ga {arimasu/arimasen} ka*  
“Is there a bus stop around here?”
- B: はい、ありますよ。あそこにあります。  
*hai, arimasu yo. asoko ni arimasu*  
“Yes, there is. There is one over there.”
- A: こちらに運転手さんが{います/いません}か。  
*kochira ni untenshu-san ga {imasu/imasen} ka*  
“Is there a driver here?”
- B: いいえ、いません。外にいます。  
*iie, imasen. soto ni imasu*  
“No, there isn’t, (but) there is one outside.”

Here, Speaker A is trying to find out if there is a bus stop or a driver nearby. The affirmative and negative endings *-masu ka* and *-masen ka* can be used interchangeably in this case.

## Events

It should be noted that when the verb *aru* is used to indicate the existence of events, such as a party or meeting, the location is expressed with *de*, not *ni* (see also Unit 5).

週末、友達の家で誕生日パーティーがありました。

*shuumatsu, tomodachi no uchi de tanjoobi paatii ga arimashita*

“There was a birthday party at my friend’s house over the weekend.”

来月、京都で国際会議があります。

*raigetsu, kyooto de kokusai-kaigi ga arimasu*

“There will be an international conference in Kyoto next month.”

Some other event nouns of this type are: クラス *kurasu* “class,” 授業 *jugyoo* “lecture,” コンサート *konsaato* “concert,” イベント *ibento* “event,” ピクニック *pikunikku* “picnic,” バスケットの試合 *basuketto no shiai* “basketball game,” 面接 *mensetsu* “interview,” テスト *tesuto* “exam,” etc.

## Spatial expressions

We will next turn to methods used to elaborate on location phrases. The location of something or someone may be described relative to another object or person.

A: この辺に郵便局がありませんか。

*kono hen ni yuubinkyoku ga arimasen ka*

“Is there a post office around here?”

B1: あそこにあります。 “There is one over there.”

*asoko ni arimasu*

B2: 銀行の近くに 있습니다。 “There is one near the bank.”

*ginkoo no chikaku ni arimasu*

B3: 銀行の手前にあります。 “There is one before the bank.”

*ginkoo no temae ni arimasu*

In B1, the location of the post office is described from the speaker’s point of view (*asoko* “over there”). In B2, it is described in relation to a landmark (*ginkoo no chikaku* “near the bank”). Finally in B3, it is described both from the speaker’s point of view and in relation to a landmark (*ginkoo no temae* “before [you get to] the bank”).

The particle *no* connects a referent such as *ginkoo* “bank” and a spatial term such as *chikaku* “near.” This is because Japanese spatial terms are nouns. The locational particle *ni* follows the whole noun phrase.

Landmark/referent	の	Spatial term	に...
	<i>no</i>		<i>ni</i>

A list of common spatial terms is given in the following table (shown with the particle *no*).

[Spatial terms]

...の上 <i>no ue</i>	“on (top of) ...”	...の下 <i>no shita</i>	“under ...”
...の右 <i>no migi</i>	“on the right of ...”	...の左 <i>no hidari</i>	“on the left of ...”
...の前 <i>no mae</i>	“in front of ...”	...の後ろ <i>no ushiro</i>	“behind ...”
...の中 <i>no naka</i>	“inside ...”	...の外 <i>no soto</i>	“outside ...”
...の先 <i>no saki</i>	“ahead of ...”	...の手前 <i>no temae</i>	“before ...”
...の近く <i>no chikaku</i>	“near ...”	...の隣 <i>no tonari</i>	“next to ...”
...の向こう <i>no mukoo</i>	“on the other side of ...”	...の向かい <i>no mukai</i>	“across from ...”
AとBの間 <i>A to B no aida</i>	“between A and B”		

Here are some example sentences.

警官がビルの前にいます。  
*keekan ga biru no mae ni imasu*  
“There is a policeman in front of the building.”

この道の向こうにガソリンスタンドがあります。  
*kono michi no mukoo ni gasorin-sutando ga arimasu*  
“There is a gas station on the other side of this road.”

パン屋は肉屋と花屋の間にあります。  
*pan'ya wa nikuya to hanaya no aida ni arimasu*  
“The bakery is between the butcher shop and the flower shop.”

In English, when successive spatial references are used, you begin with the referent closest to the object in question and “pan out” or “zoom out.” In the following sentence, the focus shifts from the dog to the dumpster, then to the flower shop, and finally to the intersection.

The dog was **inside the dumpster behind the flower shop near the intersection.**

[dog] → dumpster → flower shop → intersection

In Japanese, the order is the opposite. You need to begin with the outermost or farthest referent and “zoom in.”

犬は交差点の近くの花屋の後ろのゴミ箱の中にいました。

*inu wa koosaten no chikaku no hanaya no ushiro no gomibako no naka ni imashita*

intersection → flower shop → dumpster → [dog]

When multiple spatial expressions are stacked like this, they are connected by the particle *no* because they are all part of an extended noun phrase.

## Use of *tokoro*

Some nouns such as *kyooshitsu* “classroom” inherently signify locations and can be directly followed by *ni*.

教室に机があります。

*kyooshitsu ni tsukue ga arimasu*

“There are desks in the classroom.”

The same goes for place names (e.g., *tookyoo* “Tokyo”), institutions or buildings that are immobile or difficult to move (e.g., *uchi* “house,” *daigaku* “college,” and *depaato* “department store”), and things that are considered to have receiving surfaces (e.g., *tsukue* “desk,” *isu* “chair,” *hondana* “bookcase,” and *sara* “dish”).

If an object is considered to lack a receiving surface, add *tokoro*, a word that literally means “place,” to form a location noun phrase.

× 窓に机があります。

*mado ni tsukue ga arimasu*

(intended: “There are desks at the window.”)

○ 窓のところに机があります。

*mado no tokoro ni tsukue ga arimasu*

“There are desks at the window.”

Whether something is considered to have a receiving surface is relative to what is being received. For example, *kabe* “wall” can be thought of as a receptacle for a clock but not people, because you do not usually hang people on the wall.



壁に時計があります。 “There is a clock on the wall.”

*kabe ni tokee ga arimasu*

壁のところに子どもがいます。 “There are children at the wall.”

*kabe no tokoro ni kodomo ga imasu*

### Exercise 13.1

Fill in the blank with the polite form of *aru* or *iru*. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 公園に男の子が\_\_\_\_\_。  
*kooen ni otokonoko ga \_\_\_\_\_*
- 辞書はかばんの中に\_\_\_\_\_。  
*jisho wa kaban no naka ni \_\_\_\_\_*
- 家の前に猫が\_\_\_\_\_。  
*uchi no mae ni neko ga \_\_\_\_\_*
- 銀行は、どこに\_\_\_\_\_か。  
*ginkoo wa, doko ni \_\_\_\_\_ ka*

### Exercise 13.2

Fill in the blank with the appropriate particle. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- この近く( )銀行がありませんか。  
*kono chikaku ( ) ginkoo ga arimasen ka*
- 郵便局はあの交差点( )先にありますよ。  
*yuubinkyoku wa ano koosaten ( ) saki ni arimasu yo*
- 昨日、駅前( )コンサートがありました。  
*kinoo, ekimae ( ) konsaato ga arimashita*
- あの建物の中に何( )ありますか。  
*ano tatemono no naka ni nani ( ) arimasu ka*

### Exercise 13.3

Translate the following sentences into English.

- 山本さんはあそこのドアのところにいますよ。  
*yamamoto-san wa asoko no doa no tokoro ni imasu yo*

- 2 大学の図書館の一階に喫茶店があります。  
*daigaku no toshokan no ikkai ni kissaten ga arimasu*
- 3 銀行は、あの赤い看板の手前にあります。  
*ginkoo wa, ano akai kanban no temae ni arimasu*
- 4 図書館はこの道の先の公園の向こうにあります。  
*toshokan wa kono michi no saki no kooen no mukoo ni arimasu*

## Exercise 13.4

Answer the questions based on the following directory of Narita Airport Terminal 1. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 5F 見学デッキ、レストラン・ショップ  
 4F 国際線出発ロビー、レストラン・ショップ  
 3F 出国審査  
 2F 入国審査  
 1F 国際線到着ロビー、国内線チェックインカウンター  
 B1F JR・京成 成田空港駅

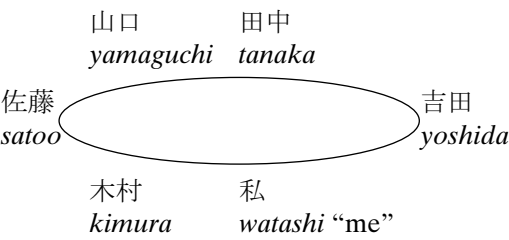
- 1 レストランは何階にありますか。  
*resutoran wa nankai ni arimasu ka*
- 2 国内線のチェックインカウンターはどこですか。  
*kokunaisen no chekkuin-kauntaa wa doko desu ka*
- 3 JRの駅はどこにありますか。  
*jeeaaruu no eki wa doko ni arimasu ka*
- 4 五階には何がありますか。  
*gokai ni wa nani ga arimasu ka*

## Exercise 13.5

Fill in the blanks in the passage according to the seating chart. You can check the meaning of the passage in the answer key.

私の右に( )さんがいます。私の前には( )さんがいます。吉田さんの向かい、( )さんです。佐藤さんの左は( )さんです。その前は( )さんです。

watashi no migi ni (     )-san ga imasu. watashi no mae ni wa (     )-san  
ga imasu. yoshida-san no mukai wa, (     )-san desu. satoo-san no hidari  
wa (     )-san desu. sono mae wa (     )-san desu



# UNIT 14

## Expressing likes and dislikes

We all love to discuss what we like and dislike: from our favorite flavors of ice cream to the bugs we hate. Hobbies also provide great conversation topics. Talking and asking about favorite activities are good ways to build personal relationships and make friends. In this unit, we will study Japanese methods of expressing likes and dislikes for things and activities.

### Talking about favorite things

English speakers favor verbs over adjectives for the expression of likes and dislikes. For instance, between the verb “like” and the adjective “be fond of,” the verb “like” is used more commonly in conversation.

I like sweets.

I am fond of the strawberry flavor.

Furthermore, English speakers often use the verb “love” to emphasize the degree of fondness.

I **love** the strawberry flavor!

Although Japanese speakers also use both verbs and adjectives to express likes and dislikes, they use the verb options less frequently. First of all, the Japanese verb *aisuru* “love” or its *-te iru* form *aishite iru* “love” is limited to formal expression of deep affection for someone or something precious.

彼は子どもを愛した。

*kare wa kodomo o aishita*

“He dearly loved his children.”

(私は)祖国を愛しています。

*(watashi wa) sokoku o aishite imasu*

“I love my country.”

The verb *konomu* “like, prefer, appreciate” is also quite formal.

山本さんはあまい物を好みます。

*yamamoto-san wa amai mono o konomimasu*

“Mr. Yamamoto is fond of sweets.”

渡辺さんはまじめな人を好みます。

*watanabe-san wa majime na hito o konomimasu*

“Ms. Watanabe prefers serious individuals.”

Compared to these verb options, the *na*-adjective *suki na* “be fond of” is by far the more commonly used.

小林さんはストロベリー味が好きです。

*kobayashi-san wa sutoroberii-aji ga suki desu*

“Ms. Kobayashi likes/loves the strawberry flavor.”

鈴木さんは山田さんが好きです。

*suzuki-san wa yamada-san ga suki desu*

“Mr. Suzuki likes/loves Ms. Yamada.”

Likewise, the *na*-adjective *kirai na* “dislike” and the negative form of *suki na* are more common than the verb options as expressions of dislikes.

私はあまい物嫌い/好きじゃありません。

*watashi wa amai mono ga {kirai desu/suki ja arimasen}*

“I don’t like sweets.”

Note that these adjective options are stative constructions, and the object is marked with *ga* instead of *o*. (See also Units 5, 15, 16, and 22 for other stative constructions.)

To inquire about other people’s taste in something, simply use a question word (see Unit 7) as the object of *suki na* or *kirai na*.

どの色が好きですか。

*dono iro ga suki desu ka*

“Which color do you like?”

何料理が好きですか。

*nani-ryoori ga suki desu ka*

“What kind of cuisine do you like?”

どのタレントが好きですか。

*dono tarento ga suki desu ka*

“Which celebrity do you like?”

Alternatively, use the noun modification form *suki na* in the topic phrase and follow it with a question word.

好きな色はどれですか。  
*suki na iro wa dore desu ka*  
“Which is your favorite color?”

好きな料理は何ですか。  
*suki na ryoori wa nan desu ka*  
“What is your favorite cuisine?”

好きなタレントは誰ですか。  
*suki na tarento wa dare desu ka*  
“Who is your favorite celebrity?”

## Talking about favorite activities

In order to discuss or talk about favorite activities, use a nominalized clause with *no* (see Units 4 and 11) as the **object** of the *na*-adjective *suki na* “be fond of” or *kirai na* “dislike.” (See also Units 16, 18, and 22 for other uses of nominalized clauses.)

田中さんはケーキを焼くのが好きです。  
*tanaka-san wa keeki o yaku no ga suki desu*  
“Mr. Tanaka likes baking cakes.”

私は掃除をするのが嫌いです。  
*watashi wa sooji o suru no ga kirai desu*  
“I hate cleaning.”

In order to inquire about favorite activities, use the following question.

何をするのが好きですか。  
*nani o suru no ga suki desu ka*  
“What activity do you like to do?”

Incidentally, do not use *nani ga suki* and *nani o suru no ga suki* in the sense of the English expressions “What would you like?” and “What would you like to do?” For these, use *nani ga ii* (literally: “What is good?”) and *nani o shitai* “What do you want to do?” (see Unit 15).

## Degrees of likes and dislikes

To say you like something or doing something very much, add the intensifying adverb *totemo* “very much” or use the compound adjectives *daisuki na* “love”/*daikirai na* “hate.”

私はカラオケ(をするの)がとても{好き/嫌い}です。  
*watashi wa karaoke (o suru no) ga **totemo** {suki/kirai} desu*  
 “I love/hate karaoke very much.”

私はカラオケ(をするの)が{大好き/大嫌い}です。  
*watashi wa karaoke (o suru no) ga {**daisuki/daikirai**} desu*  
 “I love/hate karaoke.”

However, the intensifying adverb *totemo* “very much” should not be used together with the compound adjectives *daisuki na* “love”/*daikirai na* “hate.”

× 私はカラオケ(をするの)がとても{大好き/大嫌い}です。  
*watashi wa karaoke (o suru no) ga **totemo** {daisuki/daikirai} desu*  
 (intended: “I love/hate karaoke very much.”)

Also, do not use the intensifying adverb *totemo* “very much” to say “I don’t like . . . very much.” For this purpose, use the adverb *amari* “(not) so much” (see Unit 3) or *sonna ni* “to that extent” with the negative form of the adjective *suki na* “be fond of.”

私は生魚が{あまり/そんなに}好きじゃありません。  
*watashi wa nama-zakana ga {**amari/sonna ni**} **suki ja arimasen***  
 “I don’t like raw fish very much.”

If you feel favorable toward something, but not to the extent that you love it, use the above adverbs with the negative form of *kirai na* “dislike.”

私は洗濯するのが{あまり/そんなに}嫌いじゃありません。  
*watashi wa sentaku-suru no ga {**amari/sonna ni**} **kirai ja arimasen***  
 “I don’t hate doing laundry so much.”

*Amari* may be pronounced as *anmari* in conversation. (See also Unit 17 for the use of *amari* as a frequency expression.)

## Exercise 14.1

Explain Ms. Takahashi's likes and dislikes. They are marked as follows: she loves it (ㇿㇿ), she likes it (ㇿ), she doesn't like it (ㇿ), and she hates it (ㇿㇿ).

犬 *inu* “dog” (ㇿㇿ)                      ねずみ *nezumi* “mouse” (ㇿㇿ)  
 たまねぎ *tamanegi* “onion” (ㇿ)      ケーキ *keeki* “cake” (ㇿ)

## Exercise 14.2

Explain Mr. Matsumoto's likes and dislikes. His likes and dislikes are marked in the same way as in 14.1.

- 1 reading books (ㇿ)
- 2 doing dishes (ㇿㇿ)
- 3 skiing (ㇿ)
- 4 talking with friends (ㇿㇿ)
- 5 going to parties (ㇿ)

## Exercise 14.3

Formulate questions about personal taste in the following categories using the two methods studied in this unit.

- 1 books
- 2 sports
- 3 cars
- 4 movies

## Exercise 14.4

Insert the appropriate verbs in the blanks to complete the following description of four friends. You can check the translation of the passage in the answer key.

山口さんは、歌を歌うのがとても好きです。でも、人の前で\_\_\_\_のは、嫌いです。\_\_\_\_のは好きですが、からい物は、嫌いです。井上さんは、カラオケに\_\_\_\_のが好きです。それから、おいしい物を\_\_\_\_のが好きですが、作るのは好きじゃありません。木村さんは、井上さんと違います。おいしい物を\_\_\_\_のが好きです。歌を歌うのはあまり好きじ



やありませんが、友だちの歌を\_\_\_\_のは、とても好きです。林さんは、インド料理が好きです。作るのも\_\_\_\_のも好きです。あまい物は、あまり好きじゃありません。

yamaguchi-san wa, uta o utau no ga totemo suki desu. demo, hito no mae de \_\_\_\_ no wa, kirai desu. \_\_\_\_ no wa suki desu ga, karai mono wa, kirai desu. inoue-san wa, karaoke ni \_\_\_\_ no ga suki desu. sore kara, oishii mono o \_\_\_\_ no ga suki desu ga, tsukuru no wa suki ja arimasen. kimura-san wa, inoue-san to chigaimasu. oishii mono o \_\_\_\_ no ga suki desu. uta o utau no wa amari suki ja arimasen ga, tomodachi no uta o \_\_\_\_ no wa, totemo suki desu. hayashi-san wa indo-ryoori ga suki desu. tsukuru no mo \_\_\_\_ no mo suki desu. amai mono wa, amari suki ja arimasen.

# UNIT 15

## Expressing desires

The English verb “want” can be used to express desire for things and actions. Moreover, you can use this same verb to describe your own desire as well as others’.

I **want** a house.                      My friend **wants** a house.  
I **want** to buy a house.          My friend **wants** to buy a house.

In contrast, Japanese grammar distinguishes between these four types. In this unit, we will study various methods to express desire in Japanese.

### Expressing one’s own desire for material objects

If you want some material objects that are hard to acquire, use the *i*-adjective *hoshii* “wish for.” Since *hoshii* is a type of stative predicate, the grammatical object is marked by *ga* (see Unit 5).

(私は)家<sup>が</sup>ほしいです。 “I want a house.”  
(*watashi wa*) *uchi ga hoshii desu*

もっと便利な電話<sup>が</sup>ほしい。 “I want a more convenient phone.”  
*motto benri na denwa ga hoshii*

### Expressing one’s own desire to take some action

The adjective *hoshii* is used only for describing desire for material objects. In order to express your desire to take some action, use the combination of a verb stem (the form used before *-masu*; see Unit 6) and the adjectival ending *-tai*, which we will call the *V-tai* pattern.

[Forming the V-tai pattern]

VERB STEM		
行きます	+ たい	→ 行きたい
<i>ikimasu</i>	<i>-tai</i>	<i>ikitai</i>
“go”	“want to”	“want to go”

大学を出てから、日本に行きたいです。  
*daigaku o dete kara, nihon ni ikitai desu*  
“After I graduate from college, I would like to go to Japan.”

三十才までに結婚したい。  
*sanjussai made ni kekkon-shitai*  
“I want to get married before the age of 30.”

The ending *-tai* is adjectival. Therefore, *ikitai* as a whole conjugates as an adjective.

[Conjugating the V-tai pattern]

行きたい(です) <i>ikitai (desu)</i> “I want to go.”	行きたくない(です) <i>ikitaku nai (desu)</i> “I don’t want to go.”
行きたかった(です) <i>ikitakatta (desu)</i> “I wanted to go.”	行きたくなかった(です) <i>ikitaku nakatta (desu)</i> “I didn’t want to go.”

If the stem is a transitive verb, you can use the particle *o* or *ga* for the direct object. The *ga* option is possible because the V-tai construction as a whole is adjectival and stative. (See also Units 3, 14, 16, and 22 for other stative constructions.) The *ga* option emphasizes the speaker’s strong emotion, while the *o* option emphasizes his/her active intent.

[Particles for the object of V-tai]

私はいろいろな外国語{を/が}勉強したい。 <i>watashi wa iroiro na gaikokugo {o/ga} benkyoo-shitai</i> “I want to study various foreign languages.”
--

You should note that the V-tai pattern is a speaker-centered expression and cannot be used to describe other people’s desires (see Units 10 and 24 for other consequences of this). The only exception is when you are asking a question to a friend or a younger person.

大学を出てから、何をしたい？

*daigaku o dete kara, nani o shitai*

“What do you want to do after you graduate from college?”

どんな仕事を見つけないですか。

*donna shigoto o mitsuketai desu ka*

“What type of job would you like to find?”

These questions are not to be used in invitations. See Unit 19 for how to extend invitations.

Directing a question containing the V-*tai* pattern toward a senior or respected individual is considered impolite because such a question taps into their internal feelings. Use the regular honorific pattern (see Unit 10) for them instead.

○ コピー機、お使いになりますか。

*kopiiki, otsukai ni narimasu ka*

“Will you use the copy machine?”

× コピー機、お使いになりたいですか。

*kopiiki, otsukai ni naritai desu ka*

(intended: “Would you like to use the copy machine?”)

A V-*tai* form is often followed by the ending *n(o) da* (see Unit 11). This combination is used to emphasize one's enthusiasm.

国連で仕事をしたいんです。

*kokuren de shigoto o shitai n desu*

“I want to work for the United Nations.”

いい仕事を見つけないのです。

*ii shigoto o mitsuketai no desu*

“I want to find a good job.”

The combination is also used when one needs to solicit the sympathy of the addressee, as when asking for information or seeking permission. (See Unit 21 for more on the latter case.) It appears in the opening phase of such an exchange to provide background information. The connective particle *kedo* or *ga* (see Unit 5) follows it.

ちょっと質問したいんだ<sup>けど</sup>、今、時間ある？

*chotto shitsumon-shitai n da kedo, ima jikan aru*

“I want to ask you a question. Do you have time now?”

日本で働きたいのです<sup>が</sup>、どんな仕事がありますか。

*nihon de hatarakitai no desu ga, donna shigoto ga arimasu ka*

“I would like to work in Japan; what types of jobs are there?”

These sentences have the following structure.

[Seeking information by expressing desire]

Desire	Soliciting sympathy	Connective particle	Seeking information
ちょっと質問したい <i>chotto shitsumon-shitai</i>	んだ <i>n da</i>	けど <i>kedo</i>	時間ある？ <i>jikan aru</i>
日本で働きたい <i>nihon de hatarakitai</i>	のです <i>no desu</i>	が <i>ga</i>	どんな仕事があり ますか <i>donna shigoto ga arimasu ka</i>

Expressing others' desires

Whether it is a desire for material objects or a desire to take some action, you need to describe a third party's desire with more complex patterns, as if to reflect the difficulty of accessing the internal feelings of distant people. This means that you need to use additional structures for them. The requirement is even stronger when you describe the desire of a senior or respected individual.

One such structure used to describe a third party's desire is the verbal ending *-garu*. This ending attaches to an adjectival stem and creates a verb meaning "behave in a manner indicative of a strong feeling." The following is an example of *-garu* used with the adjective *hoshii* "wish for" to describe a third person's desire for material objects.

弟は塩からい物をほしがる。あまい物はほしがらない。  
*otooto wa shiokarai mono o hoshigaru. amai mono wa hoshigaranai*  
"My younger brother (repeatedly) asks for salty food. He does not want sweet things."

You can also use *-garu* with a *V-tai* form to describe a third person's desire to take some action.

弟はおもちゃ屋に行きたがる。  
*otooto wa omochaya ni ikitagaru*  
"My younger brother (repeatedly) asks to go to the toy store."

[Forming the *-garu* pattern]

ADJECTIVE STEM		
ほし <del>い</del> + がる	→	ほしが <del>る</del>
<i>hoshii</i> - <i>garu</i>		<i>hoshigaru</i>
“want” behave as if		“behave as if s/he wants it”
ADJECTIVE STEM		
行きたい + がる	→	行きたがる
<i>ikitai</i> - <i>garu</i>		<i>ikitagaru</i>
“want to go” behave as if		“behave as if s/he wants to go”

The *-garu* pattern as a whole conjugates as a five-row verb (*u*-verb).

[Conjugating the *-garu* pattern]

ほしが <del>る</del> <i>hoshigaru</i> “He asks for/wants it.”	ほしが <del>らない</del> <i>hoshigaranai</i> “He doesn’t ask for/want it.”
ほしが <del>った</del> <i>hoshigatta</i> “He asked for/wanted it.”	ほしが <del>らなかった</del> <i>hoshigaranakatta</i> “He didn’t ask for/want it.”

行きた <del>がる</del> <i>ikitagaru</i> “He appears to want to go.”	行きた <del>がらない</del> <i>ikitagaranai</i> “He doesn’t appear to want to go.”
行きた <del>がった</del> <i>ikitagatta</i> “He appeared to want to go.”	行きた <del>がらなかった</del> <i>ikitagaranakatta</i> “He didn’t appear to want to go.”

Because *-garu* creates an action verb, the grammatical object is marked by *o*.

弟はもっと仕事をほしがった。  
*otooto wa motto shigoto o hoshigatta*  
 “My younger brother asked for more work.”

You can use the progressive ending *-te iru* (see Unit 6) to add the sense of a semi-stable condition.

弟はもっと仕事をほしがっている。

*ototo wa motto shigoto o hoshigatte iru*

“My younger brother is asking for more work.”

兄は外国に行きたがっています。

*ani wa gaikoku ni ikitagatte imasu*

“My elder brother is eager to go to foreign countries.”

## Exercise 15.1

Following the example, form the expression of desire.

(Example)

やめます → やめたいです

*yamemasu yametai desu*

“I will quit.” “I want to quit.”

- 1 作ります *tsukurimasu* “make”
- 2 寝ます *nemasu* “sleep”
- 3 帰ります *kaerimasu* “return”

## Exercise 15.2

Using *-tai (n) desu ka* and one of the verbs in the box, complete the following questions that might be asked of a study abroad applicant. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

いる *iru*, する *suru*,  
行く *iku*, 勉強する *benkyoo-suru*

- 1 日本でどこに\_\_\_\_\_。  
*nihon de doko ni* \_\_\_\_\_
- 2 日本の大学で何を\_\_\_\_\_。  
*nihon no daigaku de nani o* \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 日本で何を\_\_\_\_\_。  
*nihon de nani o* \_\_\_\_\_
- 4 日本にいつまで\_\_\_\_\_。  
*nihon ni itsu made* \_\_\_\_\_

### Exercise 15.3

Conjugate each form into three other forms.

ほしい <i>hoshii</i> “want”	

考えたい <i>kangaetai</i> “want to give it thought”	

見たがる <i>mitagaru</i> “be eager to see it”	

### Exercise 15.4

Choose between *ga* and *o*. If both are possible, indicate that.

- 私は車{を/が}買いたい。  
*watashi wa kuruma {o/ga} kaitai.*  
“I want a car.”
- 私は小さい車{を/が}ほしい。  
*watashi wa chiisai kuruma {o/ga} hoshii.*  
“I want a small car.”
- 弟も車{を/が}買いたがっている。  
*otooto mo kuruma {o/ga} kaitagatte iru.*  
“My younger brother also wants to buy a car.”



**Exercise 15.5**

Fill in the blank with a polite-style form and produce an appropriate sentence for each situation.

- 1 (You want to eat sushi.)

私は、\_\_\_\_\_。

*watashi wa, \_\_\_\_\_*

- 2 (Your younger sister obviously wants to eat a hamburger.)

妹は、\_\_\_\_\_。

*imooto wa, \_\_\_\_\_*

- 3 (You want to know what your professor wants to eat.)

先生は、\_\_\_\_\_か。

*sensee wa, \_\_\_\_\_ka*

**Exercise 15.6**

Translate the following sentences into Japanese using the plain style.

- 1 I want to graduate from college by next year.
- 2 Then, I want to go to Japan.
- 3 I want to find a good job in Japan.
- 4 Then, I want to get married in Japan.

# UNIT 16

## Talking about ability

There are various situations where it is appropriate to communicate what you are or are not able to do, from casually talking about your specialty (e.g., “I can eat five hotdogs at one sitting”) to promoting your skills at a job interview (e.g., “I can speak Japanese”). In many languages, expressions of ability can also be used to discuss possibility, that is, whether a particular circumstance enables one to do something (e.g., “I can come back tomorrow”). This unit will cover such expressions in Japanese.

### Potential forms of verbs: *-eru*, *-rareru*

In English, in order to talk about the ability to do something, one uses the auxiliary verb “can” or the adjective “able” in “be able to.” In either case, the verb itself remains unchanged (e.g., “I can **swim** / I could **swim** / I am able to **swim**”). In contrast, to achieve the same effect in Japanese, one must change verbs into potential forms, which conjugate like regular verbs.

Potential forms enable us to say that someone is capable of doing something or that some action is possible.

阿部さんは英語が話せます。

*abe-san wa eego ga hanasemasu*

“Mr. Abe can speak English.”

履歴書は、英語でも書けます。

*rirekisho wa, eego de mo kakemasu*

“It is possible/permitted to write a resume in English.”

To make the potential form of a five-row verb (also known as an *u*-verb), substitute its last syllable with the corresponding *e*-row syllable (see Unit 2) and add *ru*.

<Five-row verbs>

言う	<i>iu</i>	→	言える	<i>ieru</i>	“can say (it)”
書く	<i>kaku</i>	→	書ける	<i>kakeru</i>	“can write”
泳ぐ	<i>oyogu</i>	→	泳げる	<i>oyogeru</i>	“can swim”
話す	<i>hanasu</i>	→	話せる	<i>hanaseru</i>	“can talk”
待つ	<i>matsu</i>	→	待てる	<i>materu</i>	“can wait”
死ぬ	<i>shinu</i>	→	死ねる	<i>shineru</i>	“can die”
飲む	<i>nomu</i>	→	飲める	<i>nomeru</i>	“can drink”
帰る	<i>kaeru</i>	→	帰れる	<i>kaereru</i>	“can go home”

For one-row verbs (*ru*-verbs), delete *ru* from the dictionary form and add the ending *-rareru*.

<One-row verbs>

食べる	<i>taberu</i>	→	食べられる	<i>taberareru</i>	“can eat”
見る	<i>miru</i>	→	見られる	<i>mirareru</i>	“can look”

In addition, one-row verbs have shorter, colloquial counterparts that lack *ra*.

<One-row verbs: Shorter version>

食べる	<i>taberu</i>	→	食べれる	<i>tabereru</i>	“can eat”
見る	<i>miru</i>	→	見れる	<i>mireru</i>	“can look”

The potential counterparts of irregular verbs *suru* “do” and *kuru* “come” are *dekiru* and *korareru*, respectively.

<Irregular verbs>

する	<i>suru</i>	→	できる	<i>dekiru</i>	“can do”
来る	<i>kuru</i>	→	来られる	<i>korareru</i>	“can come”

The resulting potential verbs all conjugate as one-row verbs (see Unit 6).

[Conjugation patterns of potential verbs]

		Affirmative	Negative
Plain	Non-past	言える <i>ieru</i> “can say”	言えない <i>ienai</i> “cannot say”
	Past	言えた <i>ieta</i> “was able to say”	言えなかった <i>ienakatta</i> “was not able to say”

		Affirmative	Negative
Polite	Non-past	言えます <i>iemasu</i> “can say [polite]”	言えません <i>iemasen</i> “cannot say [polite]”
	Past	言えました <i>iemashita</i> “was able to say [polite]”	言えませんでした <i>iemasen deshita</i> “was not able to say [polite]”

The object of a transitive verb, which is otherwise marked by the particle *o*, may also be marked with the particle *ga* if the verb appears in the potential form. The only difference between the two is that the version with *o* has a slightly stronger sense of volition. This is similar to the situation with the V-*tai* pattern that we studied in Unit 15, which also allows both *ga* and *o*.

阿部さんは英語を話せます。  
*abe-san wa eego o hanasemasu*  
“Mr. Abe can speak English.”

阿部さんは英語が話せます。  
*abe-san wa eego ga hanasemasu*  
“Mr. Abe can speak English.”

However, *dekiru* “can do” only allows the *ga* marking. This is because *dekiru* is a lexical stative verb, not a derived form of *suru*.

森さんはテニスができます。  
*mori-san wa tennisu ga dekimasu*  
“Mr. Mori can play tennis.”

In colloquial speech, the *o* marking with *dekiru* may be used, but it is considered non-standard.

## Using complex sentences: ... *koto ga dekiru*

Instead of using the potential forms of verbs, you may also use ... *koto ga dekiru* to describe one’s ability to do something. Here, *koto* nominalizes the preceding clause (see Unit 11 for more detail). The nominalized clause appears as the *ga*-marked object of the potential verb *dekiru* “can do.” You may use this form interchangeably with the potential form, resulting in only a subtle difference: ... *koto ga dekiru* sounds slightly more formal.

履歴書は、英語でも書くことができます。

*rirekisho wa, eego de mo kaku koto ga dekimasu*

“It is possible/permitted to write a resume in English.”

阿部さんは英語を話すことができます。

*abe-san wa eego o hanasu koto ga dekimasu*

“Mr. Abe can speak English.”

If you use this pattern, use the same particles as the ones used in the corresponding non-potential expressions.

## Verbs that do not occur as potential expressions

Both potential verbs and the ...*koto ga dekiru* construction must have a **VOLITIONAL SUBJECT** that can potentially control the action (even though the subject may remain implicit). For this reason, verbs that lack a volitional subject are excluded from potential expressions. This includes the stative verbs and the change-of-state verbs that occur with a non-volitional subject. (See Unit 3 for the classification of verbs.)

The following lexical stative verbs neither have potential forms nor appear in the ...*koto ga dekiru* construction.

わかる	<i>wakaru</i>	“understand”
見える	<i>mieru</i>	“be visible”
聞こえる	<i>kikoeru</i>	“be audible”
要る	<i>iru</i>	“need”
ある	<i>aru</i>	“be/exist (inanimate)”

However, the verb *iru* “be/exist (animate),” if used in the sense of “stay,” thereby describing an action, can appear in the potential constructions.

いつまでいられる？

*itsu made irareru*

“How long can you stay?”

いつまでいることができますか。

*itsu made iru koto ga dekimasu ka*

“How long can you stay?”

Verbs that describe a change of state of a **NON-VOLITIONAL SUBJECT** are also excluded from potential expressions.

こわれる	<i>kowareru</i>	“(vase, etc.) break”
つく	<i>tsuku</i>	“(light, etc.) turn on”
開く	<i>aku</i>	“(door, etc.) open”
落ちる	<i>ochiru</i>	“(leaves, etc.) fall”

In the case of verbs such as *hairu* “enter,” which can occur with either a volitional or non-volitional subject, potential expressions are available only when there is a volitional subject. This explains the contrast between the following sentences.

その会社に入**れる**と思いますか。  
*sono kaisha ni haireru to omoimasu ka*  
“Do you think I can join that company?”

その履歴書、封筒に入**る**(×入**れる**)？  
*sono rirekisho, fuutoo ni hairu (\*haireru)*  
“Will that resume fit in the envelope?”

The lexical stative verbs *mieru* “be visible” and *kikoeru* “be audible” listed above need special attention. While these verbs do not have potential counterparts, they are used in certain contexts where English speakers would expect potential forms.

(私には)細かい字/黒板が見え**ません**。  
*(watashi ni wa) komakai ji/kokuban ga miemasen*  
(lit.) “To me, tiny letters/the blackboard are/is not visible.”  
“I cannot see tiny letters/the blackboard.”

(私には)高い音/先生の話がよく聞こえ**ません**。  
*(watashi ni wa) takai oto/sensee no hanashi ga yoku kikoemasen*  
(lit.) “To me, high-pitched sound/the professor’s talk is not audible.”  
“I cannot hear the high-pitched sound/the professor’s talk, well.”

However, unlike true potential forms, these verbs are limited to cases where something is spontaneously perceived visually or aurally. In order to talk about the ability or possibility of active engagement in the activities of listening or viewing, use the potential verb *kikeru* “can listen” or *mirareru* “can look.”

私は一人でホラー映画が見られ**ません**。  
*watashi wa hitori de horaa eega ga miraremasen*  
“I cannot watch horror movies alone.”

これは、オンラインで聞け**ますか**。  
*kore wa, onrain de kikemasu ka*  
“Can you listen to this online?”

## Describing the quality of performance: . . . *no ga joozu da/heta da*

When talking about one's ability, you may also want to describe how well one can do something. To describe the quality of performance, use the *na*-adjectives *joozu na* "be good at" or *heta na* "be poor at" with a nominalized clause as its **object**. Here, the nominalizer *no* is usually preferred to *koto*. (See Unit 11 for the difference between *no* and *koto*. See Units 14, 18, and 22 for more uses of nominalized clauses.) Note that the unmarked particle for the object of stative predicates is *ga* (see Unit 5).

阿部さんは英語を話すの[が]上手です。  
*abe-san wa eego o hanasu no ga joozu desu*  
 "Mr. Abe is good at speaking English."

私はテニスをするの[が]下手です。  
*watashi wa tenisu o suru no ga heta desu*  
 "I am bad at playing tennis."

A simple noun may substitute for the nominalized clause when the associated action can be determined easily.

阿部さんは英語が上手です。  
*abe-san wa eego ga joozu desu*  
 "Mr. Abe is good at (speaking) English."

私はテニスが下手です。  
*watashi wa tenisu ga heta desu*  
 "I am bad at (playing) tennis."

However, be careful about the use of the adjective *joozu na* "be good at." Japanese people tend to place a high value on modesty and rarely describe their own performance with *joozu na*. If you need to talk about your own strengths, use *tokui na* "be skillful at" instead, because it can express confidence without sounding overly boastful.

私はスペイン語が得意です。  
*watashi wa supeingo ga tokui desu*  
 "I am skillful at (speaking) Spanish."

## Exercise 16.1

Change the following verbs into the non-past plain potential forms.

会う *au* “meet,” 作る *tsukuru* “make,” 寝る *neru* “sleep,” 行く *iku* “go,”  
見る *miru* “see,” 読む *yomu* “read,” 覚える *oboeru* “memorize,” 書く *kaku*  
“write,” 話す *hanasu* “speak,” 帰る *kaeru* “return,” 起きる *okiru* “wake  
up,” いる *iru* “stay,” 入る *hairu* “enter,” 遊ぶ *asobu* “play,” 考える *kangaeru*  
“think,” 開ける *akeru* “open,” 来る *kuru* “come,” する *suru* “do”

## Exercise 16.2

Change the verb in the parentheses into the potential form. Make sure to provide the appropriate conjugation form. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 タラさんは日本語と中国語を\_\_\_\_\_。(話す)  
*tara-san wa nihongo to chuugokugo o \_\_\_\_\_ (hanasu)*
- 2 新聞は漢字が多くて、まだ\_\_\_\_\_。(読む)  
*shinbun wa kanji ga ookute, mada \_\_\_\_\_ (yomu)*
- 3 松本さんはお酒がぜんぜん\_\_\_\_\_。(飲む)  
*matsumoto-san wa osake ga zenzen \_\_\_\_\_ (nomu)*
- 4 昨日は忙しくて、パーティーに\_\_\_\_\_。(行く)  
*kinoo wa isogashikute, paatii ni \_\_\_\_\_ (iku)*
- 5 大阪で、井上さんに\_\_\_\_\_, よかったです。(会う)  
*oosaka de, inoue-san ni \_\_\_\_\_, yokatta desu (au)*

## Exercise 16.3

Choose the appropriate verb.

- 1 ニューヨークでは色んなミュージカルが{見られる/見える}。  
*nyuuyooku de wa ironna myuujikaru ga {mirareru/mieru}*  
“We can see various musicals in New York.”
- 2 コンタクトレンズを入れたからよく{見られる/見える}。  
*kontakuto renzu o ireta kara yoku {mirareru/mieru}*  
“I can see well because I put on contact lenses.”
- 3 見て、あそこに富士山が{見られる/見える}。  
*mite, asoko ni fujisan ga {mirareru/mieru}*  
“Look, we can see Mt. Fuji over there.”



- 4 オンラインでただで音楽を{聞ける/聞こえる}。  
*onrain de tada de ongaku o {kikeru/kikoeru}*  
 “We can listen to free music online.”
- 5 もしもし、井上さん、{聞こえ/聞け}ますか。  
*moshimoshi, inoue-san, {kikoe/kike} masu ka*  
 “Hello, Ms. Inoue, can you hear me?”
- 6 7時のショーはもういっぱい{入り/入れ}ません。  
*shichiji no shoo moo ippai de {hairi/haire} masen*  
 “The 7 o’clock show is sold out, and you cannot get in.”
- 7 このかばんはもういっぱい{入り/入れ}ません。  
*kono kaban wa moo ippai de {hairi/haire} masen*  
 “This bag is full, and nothing else will go in.”

## Exercise 16.4

Read the following job advertisement and decide which of the three candidates is most suitable for the job.

アシスタント募集！ *ashistanto boshuu*

- 日本語と英語が両方話せる方。  
*nihongo to eego ga ryooohoo hanaseru kata*
- 英語でビジネスレターが書ける方。  
*eego de bijinesu retaa ga kakeru kata*
- パソコンが得意な方。  
*pasokon ga tokui na kata*
- 週五日働くことができる方。  
*shuu itsuka hataraku koto ga dekiru kata*

**John**, a native speaker of English, lives in Japan, but he does not speak Japanese. He has business experience and works well with computers. He is looking for a full-time job.

**Angela**, a native speaker of English, is also fluent in Japanese. She has two years of work experience at a trading company in the US and has basic computer skills. She is looking for a full-time job.

**Naoko**, a native speaker of Japanese, has lived in the UK for ten years. She doesn’t have any business experience but is an excellent programmer. She is looking for a part-time job as she can only work 2–3 days a week.

# UNIT 17

## Describing frequency

Before putting an umbrella in your suitcase you will probably want to know how often it rains at your vacation destination. If you buy medicine, you will need to check how often you should take it. In this unit, we will study some of the common frequency expressions in Japanese, which are useful in such situations.

### Frequency adverbs

The simplest way to convey information about how frequently something happens is to use a **FREQUENCY ADVERB**. Here are some adverbs that are used to express differing degrees of frequency.

#### [Adverbs of frequency]

いつも	<i>itsumo</i>	“always”
たいてい	<i>taitee</i>	“usually”
よく	<i>yoku</i>	“frequently”
ときどき	<i>tokidoki</i>	“sometimes”
たまに	<i>tamani</i>	“occasionally”

When a frequency adverb is added to a sentence it typically follows the topic, although other orders are also possible.

午後からよく雨が降ります。

*gogo kara **yoku** ame ga furimasu*

“It frequently rains beginning in the afternoon.”

二月には時々雪が降ります。

*nigatsu ni wa **tokidoki** yuki ga furimasu*

“In February it sometimes snows.”

たまに雷が聞こえます。

***tamani** kaminari ga kikoemasu*

“Occasionally we hear thunder.”

There are also adverbs that describe the degree of infrequency.

[Adverbs of infrequency]

あまり(...ない)	<i>amari (...nai)</i>	“not very often”
めったに(...ない)	<i>mettani (...nai)</i>	“rarely, hardly ever”
ぜんぜん(...ない)	<i>zenzen (...nai)</i>	“not at all, never”

These Japanese adverbs of infrequency always require the predicate to be in the negative form (see also Units 3 and 14). As mentioned previously, *amari* may be pronounced as *anmari* in conversation.

この三か月ぜんぜん雨が降らなかった。  
*kono sankagetsu zenzen ame ga furanakatta*  
“It has not rained at all for the past three months.”

去年はあんまり雪が降りませんでした。  
*kyonen wa anmari yuki ga furimasen deshita*  
“It didn’t snow very often last year.”

ここではめったに雷を聞きません。  
*koko de wa mettani kaminari o kikimasen*  
“We rarely hear thunder here.”

Because the English counterparts of these expressions do not necessarily require explicit negative forms, you may be tempted to drop them. Make sure not to do so.

The adverb *hotondo* “almost entirely” can also be used as an adverb of infrequency.

朝はほとんど晴れません。  
*asa wa hotondo haremase*  
“It hardly ever clears up in the morning.”

In addition, it can modify another adverb that expresses the concept of universality, such as *mainichi* “everyday” and *itsumo* “always.”

ほとんど毎日朝は曇りです。  
*hotondo mainichi asa wa kumori desu*  
“It is cloudy in the morning almost every day.”

でも午後はほとんどいつも晴れです。  
*demo gogo wa hotondo itsumo hare desu*  
“However, it is almost always sunny in the afternoon.”

## Frequency over a period of time

You can also describe frequency by indicating the number of occurrences within a given time frame. This is typically used for recurring events.

The specified period of time is followed by the particle *ni*. The number of occurrences is often expressed with the counter *-do* “time(s)” or *-kai* “time(s),” but other counters are also used.

### [Number of occurrences within a period of time]

Frame	Particle	Number of times	Predicate
一日 <i>ichinichi</i>	に <i>ni</i>	三回 <i>sankai</i>	飲みます <i>nomimasu</i>

この薬は一日に三回飲んでください。

*kono kusuri wa ichinichi ni sankai nonde kudasai*

“Please take this medicine three times a day.”

林さんは二か月に一回病院に行きます。

*hayashi-san wa nikagetsu ni ikkai byoojin ni ikimasu*

“Mr. Hayashi goes to the clinic once every two months.”

私は一年に二度歯医者に行きます。

*watashi wa ichinen ni nido haisha ni ikimasu*

“I see a dentist twice a year.”

You may add *kurai/gurai* “approximately” or *hodo* “extent” to approximate the frequency that something happens.

母は一週間に三日ぐらい仕事に行きます。

*haha wa isshuukan ni mikka-gurai shigoto ni ikimasu*

“My mother goes to work about three days a week.”

私は二週間に一回ほど家の掃除をします。

*watashi wa nishuukan ni ikkai hodo uchi no sooji o shimasu*

“I clean the house about once every two weeks.”

The particle *mo*, which signals the speaker’s perception that the quantity is large, follows frequency expressions, as do *wa* “at least,” *dake* “only” and *shika* “nothing but” (see Unit 9).

一週間に十本も映画を見るのは無理です。

*isshuukan ni juppon mo eega o miru no wa muri desu*

“It’s impossible to watch TEN movies a week.”

一日に一回はEメールをチェックします。  
*ichinichi ni ikkai wa ii-meeru o chekku-shimasu*  
 “I check my email at least once a day.”

一か月に一回だけ外食します。  
*ikkagetsu ni ikkai dake gaishoku-shimasu*  
 “I eat out only once a month.”

一年に一回しか家族に会えません。  
*ichinen ni ikkai shika kazoku ni aemasen*  
 “I can only see my family once a year.”

## Inquiring about frequency

In order to ask if something happens frequently, use *yoku* “often.”

A: よく映画を見ますか。  
*yoku eega o mimasu ka*  
 “Do you often watch a movie?”

B: ええ、よく見ます。  
*ee, yoku mimasu*  
 “Yes, I do.”

A: ロンドンはよく雪が降りますか。  
*rondon wa yoku yuki ga furimasu ka*  
 “Does it often snow in London?”

B: あまり降りません。  
*amari furimasen*  
 “It doesn’t snow much.”

In order to ask how often some event takes place, use the question word *donokurai/donogurai yoku* “how often.”

A: どのぐらいよく映画を見ますか。  
*donogurai yoku eega o mimasu ka*  
 “How often do you watch a movie?”

B: めったに見ません。  
*mettani mimasen*  
 “Hardly ever.”

You may omit the adverb *yoku*, but if you do so, there may be ambiguity between the quantity and the frequency reading. This is because *donokurai/donogurai* by itself can mean “how much.”

- A: ロンドンではどのくらい雪が降りますか。  
*rondon de wa donokurai yuki ga furimasu ka*  
 “How frequently/much does it snow in London?”
- B: 一年に数回だけです。 / 多くても十センチぐらいです。  
*ichinen ni suukai dake desu / ookute mo jussenchi-gurai desu*  
 “Just a few times a year.” / “At most 10 centimeters.”

In order to find out the frequency of an event in a given period of time, replace the number of occurrences with question words such as *nankai* or *nando* “how many times.”

**[Number of occurrences within a period of time: Q&A]**

	Frame	Particle	Number of times	Predicate	Question particle
Q:	一日 <i>ichinichi</i>	に <i>ni</i>	何回 <i>nankai</i>	飲みます <i>nomimasu</i>	か <i>ka</i>
A:	一日 <i>ichinichi</i>	に <i>ni</i>	二回 <i>nikai</i>	飲みます <i>nomimasu</i>	

As shown above, such questions can be answered just by replacing the question word with an appropriate number and dropping the question particle. They can also be answered simply by stating the number of occurrences.

- A: 一週間に何回、ジムに行きますか。  
*isshuukan ni nankai, jimu ni ikimasu ka*  
 “How many times a week do you go to the gym?”
- B: 三回です。  
*sankai desu*  
 “Three times.”
- A: 一年に何度、旅行しますか。  
*ichinen ni nando, ryokoo-shimasu ka*  
 “How many times a year do you travel?”
- B: 二度ぐらいです。  
*nido-gurai desu*  
 “About twice.”

## Exercise 17.1

Based on the following statements from two students from the same university, suggest where they are most likely to meet. Explain why you think so.

- A: 私は毎日大学のジムに行きます。ジムでは、よく友だちとバスケットボールをします。たまにラケットボールもします。プールがありますが、プールではめったに泳ぎません。

*watashi wa mainichi daigaku no jimu ni ikimasu. jimu de wa, yoku tomodachi to basukettobooru o shimasu. tamani rakettobooru mo shimasu. puuru ga arimasu ga, puuru de wa mettani oyogimasen*

- B: 私は一週間に五度は大学のジムに行きます。たいていプールで泳ぎます。それから、よく友だちとバスケットボールをします。ラケットボールは、ぜんぜんしません。

*watashi wa isshuukan ni godo wa daigaku no jimu ni ikimasu. taitee puuru de oyogimasu. sorekara, yoku tomodachi to basukettobooru o shimasu. rakettobooru wa zenzen shimasen*

## Exercise 17.2

Translate the following sentences into Japanese.

- 1 I rarely eat out.
- 2 I sometimes eat sushi.
- 3 I give my mother a call frequently.
- 4 My father never cleans the house.

## Exercise 17.3

Answer the following questions in Japanese according to the cue given in the parentheses. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 よくスキーをしますか。(not very often)  
*yoku sukii o shimasu ka*
- 2 よく映画を見ますか。(once or twice a month)  
*yoku eega o mimasu ka*
- 3 どのぐらいよく外食しますか。(about three times a week)  
*donogurai yoku gaishoku-shimasu ka*

- 4 一年に何度歯医者に行きますか。(only once)  
*ichinen ni nando haisha ni ikimasu ka*
- 5 一年に何日休みがありますか。(ten days)  
*ichinen ni nannichi yasumi ga arimasu ka*

## Exercise 17.4

You are going to interview a prolific Japanese writer who is supposed to be famous for incorporating food into her stories. Create questions to elicit the following information from her.

- 1 how many times a year she travels overseas
- 2 how many books she writes a year
- 3 how many books she reads each month
- 4 how many cups of coffee she drinks per day
- 5 how many times a month she eats out
- 6 how many times a week she goes to the supermarket



# UNIT 18

## Comparison

When deliberating on where to go for a vacation, which class of transport to take, and so on, English speakers would resort to comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, such as “closer,” “cheaper,” and “easiest” to characterize various options. Japanese adjectives do not have comparable forms. In this unit, we will study how the meaning of comparison is conveyed in Japanese without special adjective forms.

### Comparing two options

When explicitly comparing two options, start with the comparative pattern *A yori B (no) hoo* “the option B, rather than A.”

#### [Comparative pattern]

A より B(の)方	“B rather than A”
A <i>yori</i> B ( <i>no</i> ) <i>hoo</i>	

The options A and B may be expressed as noun phrases or noun-modifying clauses (see Units 4 and 10), as in the following.

バスより地下鉄の方 [noun phrases]

*basu yori chikatetsu no hoo*

“the subway rather than the bus”

バスで行くより地下鉄で行く方 [noun-modifying clauses]

*basu de iku yori chikatetsu de iku hoo*

“going by subway rather than going by bus”

When option B is a noun phrase, the possessive particle *no* must be used, but not if it is a noun-modifying clause.

Here is how the comparative pattern is used in sentences.

バスより地下鉄の方が便利です。

*basu yori chikatetsu no hoo ga benri desu*

“The subway is more convenient than the bus.”

バスで行くより地下鉄で行く方が簡単です。

*basu de iku yori chikatetsu de iku hoo ga kantan desu*

“Going by subway is easier than going by bus.”

The particle following *hoo* depends on the grammatical role of the phrase B (*no*) *hoo* (subject, object, etc.) relative to the predicate that follows.

新幹線より飛行機の方をよく使います。

*shinkansen yori hikooki no hoo o yoku tsukaimasu*

“I use planes more often than the bullet train.”

車より電車の方で旅行したいです。

*kuruma yori densha no hoo de ryokoo-shitai desu*

“I want to travel by train rather than by car.”

The phrases A *yor*i and B (*no*) *hoo* can be switched around without a change in meaning so long as the particle marking the function of B (*no*) *hoo* is moved with it.

地下鉄の方がバスより便利です。

*chikatetsu no hoo ga basu yori benri desu*

“The bus is more convenient than the subway.”

However, when the particle following *hoo* is not *ga*, the order A *yor*i B (*no*) *hoo* is preferred.

It is not always necessary to explicitly compare two options. Given an appropriate context, either A *yor*i or B (*no*) *hoo* can be dropped.

A: 地下鉄によく乗りますか。

*chikatetsu ni yoku norimasu ka*

“Do you take the subway often?”

B: ええ、バスより(地下鉄に)よく乗ります。

*ee, basu yori (chikatetsu ni) yoku nomimasu*

“Yes, I take it more often than the bus.”

A: 地下鉄で行きましようか。

*chikatetsu de ikimashoo ka*

“Shall we go by subway?”

B: バスで行く方が(地下鉄で行くより)早いですよ。  
*basu de iku hoo ga (chikatetsu de iku yori) hayai desu yo*  
 “Going by bus is faster (than going by subway).”

(See Unit 20 for the use of *hoo* in the specialized recommendation form.)

## Comparative Q&A with two options

To ask a question explicitly mentioning two compared options, use the following format.

### [Comparative question involving two options]

AとBと、どちら(の)方...  
*A to B to, dochira no hoo*  
 “Between A and B, which is more ...?”

In this case, the options A and B must be expressed as noun phrases. If you want to compare two activities, use **nominalized clauses** with *no* (see Units 4 and 11). For example, you can ask questions such as the following (see Unit 14 for the expressions of likes and dislikes).

コーヒーと紅茶と、どちらの方が好きですか。  
*koohii to koocha to, dochira no hoo ga suki desu ka*  
 “Which do you like better, coffee or black tea?”

野球を見るのと野球をするのと、どちらの方が好きですか。  
*yakyuu o miru no to yakyuu o suru no to, dochira no hoo ga suki desu ka*  
 “Which do you like better, watching baseball or playing baseball?”

In casual speech, *dotchi* is used instead of *dochira* (see Unit 8).

コーヒーと紅茶と、どっちの方が好き？  
*koohii to koocha to, dotchi no hoo ga suki*  
 “Which do you like better, coffee or black tea?”

If you like both of the compared options, you can use either of the following two expressions.

両方、好きです。 “I like them both.” [㊦=㊦]  
*ryoohoo, suki desu*

どちらも好きです。 “I like either one.” [㊦=㊦]  
*dochira mo suki desu*

If you do not like either of the compared options, you can answer with the negative counterpart of the last example.

どちらも好きじゃありません。 [㊥=㊥]

*dochira mo suki ja arimasen*

“I don’t like either one.”

You can also repeat the options in your reply, using the ...*mo* ...*mo* pattern, as in the following.

コーヒーも紅茶も好きです。 [㊥=㊥]

*koohii mo koocha mo suki desu*

“I like both coffee and black tea.”

野球を見るのもするのも好きじゃありません。 [㊥=㊥]

*yakyuu o miru no mo suru no mo suki ja arimasen*

“I do not like watching baseball or playing it.”

If you like one option better than the other (while you may or may not like the other option), then reply by using the comparative pattern we studied in the previous section.

紅茶の方が(コーヒーより)好きです。 [㊥>㊥/㊥]

*koocha no hoo ga (koohii yori) suki desu*

“I like tea better than coffee.”

Use a noun-modifying clause rather than a nominalized clause before *hoo* to avoid too many *no*’s.

○ 野球をする方が(見るより)好きです。 [㊥>㊥/㊥]

*yakyuu o suru hoo ga (miru yori) suki desu*

“I like playing baseball more (than watching it).”

× 野球をするのの方が(見るのより)好きです。

*yakyuu o suru no no hoo ga (miru no yori) suki desu*

If you like both of the compared options but want to emphasize that you prefer one even more, use the following pattern with the quantity adverb *motto* (see Unit 9).

コーヒーも好きですが、紅茶の方がもっと好きです。 [㊥<㊥㊥]

*koohii mo suki desu ga, koocha no hoo ga motto suki desu*

“I like coffee but I like black tea even more.”

野球を見るのも好きですが、する方がもっと好きです。 [㊥<㊥㊥]

*yakyuu o miru no mo suki desu ga, suru hoo ga motto suki desu*

“I like watching baseball but I like playing it even more.”

## Comparing three or more options

If you want to single out one of three or more items, use *ichiban* “number one.” In the following, the superlative item is immediately followed by the word *ichiban*.

鈴木さんが一番英語が上手です。

***suzuki-san ga ichiban eego ga joozu desu***

“Mr. Suzuki is the best at English (among his peers).”

鈴木さんは英語が一番上手です。

***suzuki-san wa eego ga ichiban joozu desu***

“Mr. Suzuki is best at English (among the languages he speaks).”

By using the spatial word *naka* “inside” in an abstract sense, you can specify the group in which you are making the comparison.

クラス(の中)で、鈴木さんが一番英語が上手です。

***kurasu (no naka) de, suzuki-san ga ichiban eego ga joozu desu***

“Mr. Suzuki is the best in the class at English.”

鈴木さんは英語と中国語と韓国語(の中)で、英語が一番上手です。

***suzuki-san wa eego to chuugokugo to kankokugo (no naka) de, eego ga ichiban joozu desu***

“Of English, Chinese, and Korean, Mr. Suzuki is best at English.”

Use *konon/sonolano naka de* if you are pointing at a group of objects.

この中で、これが一番いいです。

***kono naka de, kore ga ichiban ii desu***

“Among these, this is the best.”

If you want to compare three or more kinds of activities rather than some concrete items, use nominalized clauses. (See Units 14, 16, and 22 for other uses of nominalized clauses.)

日本語の勉強で、漢字を覚えるのが一番大変です。

***nihongo no benkyoo de, kanji o oboeru no ga ichiban taihen desu***

“In the study of Japanese, remembering kanji is the hardest.”

## Superlative Q&A

The following are examples of questions that you can ask someone in order to compare three or more options. The structures of these examples are highlighted in the table that follows.

クラスの中で**誰が一番**日本語が上手ですか。

*kurasu no naka de dare ga ichiban nihongo ga joozu desu ka*

“In the class, who is the best at Japanese?”

この中で**どれを一番**食べたいですか。

*kono naka de dore o ichiban tabetai desu ka*

“Among these, which would you like to eat the most?”

日本でどこに**一番**行きたいですか。

*nihon de doko ni ichiban ikitai desu ka*

“Where do you most want to visit in Japan?”

### [Superlative questions involving more than three options]

Scope	Question word	Particle	“best”	Predicate + か
クラスの中で <i>kurasu no naka de</i> “in the class”	誰 <i>dare</i> “who”	が <i>ga</i>	一番 <i>ichiban</i>	上手ですか <i>joozu desu ka</i> “be good at”
この中で <i>kono naka de</i> “among these”	どれ <i>dore</i> “which”	を <i>o</i>		食べたいですか <i>tabetai desu ka</i> “want to eat”
日本で <i>nihon de</i> “in Japan”	どこ <i>doko</i> “where”	に <i>ni</i>		行きたいですか <i>ikitai desu ka</i> “want to go”

As shown in the table, which question word to use depends on what is being compared, and which particle follows the question word depends on the predicate. (See Unit 7 for more on how to use question words.)

For comparison of things, both *nani* “what” and *dore* “which” can be used if a broad category is given as the scope. However, if a list is provided as the scope, *dore* must be used.

くだものの中で{何/どれ}が一番好きですか。

*kudamono no naka de {nani/dore} ga ichiban suki desu ka*

“What/which fruit do you like the most?”

りんごとみかんとなしの中で{×何/○どれ}が一番好きですか。

*ringo to mikan to nashi no naka de {×nani/○dore} ga ichiban suki desu ka*

“Of apples, oranges, and pears, which do you like the most?”

You can answer in the following manner if you like all of the options:

全部、好きです。 “I like them all.”

*zenbu, suki desu*

どれも好きです。 “I like all of them.”  
*dore mo suki desu*

If you do not like any of them, use the following negative sentence.

どれも好きじゃありません。 “I don’t like any of them.”  
*dore mo suki ja arimasen*

Again, the question word *dore* in the above examples may need to be substituted with *dare*, *doko*, and so on, depending on what you are comparing.

For superlative questions comparing activities, use nominalized clauses that contain a question word.

A: ひまな時、何をするのが一番好きですか。  
*hima na toki, nani o suru no ga ichiban suki desu ka*  
 “When you have free time, what do you like doing the most?”

B: 本を読むのが一番好きです。  
*hon o yomu no ga ichiban suki desu*  
 “I like reading books the most.”

A: 東京で、どこに泊まるのが一番便利ですか。  
*tookyoo de, doko ni tomaru no ga ichiban benri desu ka*  
 “In Tokyo, where is the most convenient (place) to stay?”

B: 渋谷に泊まるのが一番便利です。  
*shibuya ni tomaru no ga ichiban benri desu*  
 “Staying in Shibuya is the most convenient.”

## Same or different?: ... *to onaji da*

We can also compare things by identity. That is, we can say that two things are identical, similar, or different. To say that A is identical to B, use *A wa B to onaji da*. The particle *to* marks the basis of comparison.

私の車はこれと同じです。  
*watashi no kuruma wa kore to onaji desu*  
 “My car is the same (type) as this one.”

The word *onaji* is grammatically unique. As part of a predicate, *onaji* appears with the copula verb *da* and conjugates in the same way as a noun predicate (see Unit 6).

私の車はこれと同じでした。  
*watashi no kuruma wa kore to onaji deshita*  
 “My car was the same (type) as this.”

私の車はこれと同じで、ハイブリッドです。  
*watashi no kuruma wa kore to **onaji de**, haiburiddo desu*  
 “My car is the same (type) as this one and is a hybrid.”

However, unlike regular nouns, when *onaji* modifies a noun, the particle *no* is dropped.

これと同じ車を見ました。  
*kore to **onaji kuruma o** mimashita*  
 “I saw a car identical to this.”

To say that A is different from B, use the verb *chigau*. Note that *chigau* is a five-row verb. Here again, the particle *to* introduces the basis of comparison.

私の車はこれと違います。  
*watashi no kuruma wa kore **to chigaimasu***  
 “My car {is different from/is not} this one.”

If used before a noun, *chigau* appears in the plain form in accordance with the regular noun modification pattern.

これと違う車を見ました。  
*kore to **chigau** kuruma o mimashita*  
 “I saw a car different from this one.”

## Exercise 18.1

Following the example below, complete the dialogues. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

(Example)

- A: 肉と魚とどちらの方が好きですか。  
*niku to sakana to dochira no hoo ga suki desu ka*  
 B: 魚より肉の方が好きです。(肉 *niku* > 魚 *sakana*)  
*sakana yori niku no hoo ga suki desu*

- 1 A: バスと電車とどちらの方が便利ですか。  
*basu to densha to dochira no hoo ga benri desu ka*  
 B: \_\_\_\_\_。(バス *basu* < 電車 *densha*)
- 2 A: 土曜日と日曜日とどちらの方がひまですか。  
*doyoobi to nichiyooobi to dochira no hoo ga hima desu ka*  
 B: \_\_\_\_\_。(土曜日 *doyoobi* > 日曜日 *nichiyooobi*)



3 A: 電話するのと会って話すのと、どちらの方がいい？

*denwa-suru no to atte hanasu no to, dotchi no hoo ga ii*

B: \_\_\_\_\_. (電話する *denwa-suru* < 会って話す *atte hanasu*)

## Exercise 18.2

Following the example, ask comparative questions. Pay close attention to the particles. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

(Example)

新幹線 vs. 飛行機 (よく使う)  
*shinkansen* vs. *hikooki* *yoku tsukau*

→ 新幹線と飛行機とどちらの方をよく使いますか。

*shinkansen to hikooki to dochira no hoo o yoku tsukaimasu ka*

- 1 いぬ vs. ねこ (頭がいい)  
*inu* vs. *neko* *atama ga ii*
- 2 すし vs. てんぷら (よく食べる)  
*sushi* vs. *tempura* *yoku taberu*
- 3 デパート vs. スーパー (よく行く)  
*depaato* vs. *suupaa* *yoku iku*
- 4 はし vs. フォーク (よく使う)  
*hashi* vs. *fooku* *yoku tsukau*
- 5 本を読む vs. 映画を見る (好きだ)  
*hon o yomu* vs. *eega o miru* *suki da*

## Exercise 18.3

The examples below show how to form statements such as “I like both items” and “I go to both places.” Formulate similar statements using the words given. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

(Example)

ピザ、ホットドッグ (好きだ)  
*piza, hottodoggu* *suki da*

→ ピザもホットドッグも好きです。

*piza mo hottodoggu mo suki desu*

東京、横浜 (よく行く)  
*tookyoo, yokohama yoku iku*

→ 東京へも横浜へもよく行きます。  
*tookyoo e mo yokohama e mo yoku ikimasu*

- 1 愛、お金 (大切だ)  
*ai, okane taisetsu da*
- 2 ビール、ワイン (飲まない)  
*biiru, wain nomanai*
- 3 図書館、家 (勉強する)  
*toshokan, uchi benkyoo-suru*

## Exercise 18.4

Following the example, formulate superlative statements. Pay attention to the particles. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

(Example)

日本食:すし (好きだ)  
*nihonshoku: sushi suki da*

→ 日本食(の中)で、すしが一番好きです。  
*nihonshoku (no naka) de, sushi ga ichiban suki desu*

- 1 動物:犬 (好きだ)  
*doobutsu: inu suki da*
- 2 スポーツ:サッカー (よく見る)  
*supootsu: sakkaa yoku miru*
- 3 クラス:田中さん (数学ができる)  
*kurasu: tanaka-san suugaku ga dekiru*
- 4 世界の国:スペイン (行きたい)  
*sekai no kuni: supein ikitai*

## Exercise 18.5

Following the example, formulate superlative questions. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

(Example)

くだもの (好きだ)  
*kudamono suki da*

→ くだものの中で何が一番好きですか。  
*kudamono no naka de nani ga ichiban suki desu ka*

りんご、かき、なし (好きだ)  
*ringo, kaki, nashi suki da*

→ りんごとかきとなしの中でどれが一番好きですか。  
*ringo to kaki to nashi no naka de dore ga ichiban suki desu ka*

- |                                   |                   |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1 テレビ番組                           | (よく見る)            |
| <i>terebi-bangumi</i>             | <i>yoku miru</i>  |
| 2 スキー、スケート、スノーボード                 | (よくする)            |
| <i>sukii, sukeeto, sunooboodo</i> | <i>yoku suru</i>  |
| 3 アフリカ、アジア、ヨーロッパ                  | (行きたい)            |
| <i>afurika, ajia, yooroppa</i>    | <i>ikitai</i>     |
| 4 映画スター                           | (ハンサムだ)           |
| <i>eega-sutaa</i>                 | <i>hansamu da</i> |

## Exercise 18.6

Answer the following questions. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 世界で一番高い山はどれですか。  
*sekai de ichiban takai yama wa dore desu ka*
- 日本料理 (“Japanese cuisine”) の中で何が一番有名ですか。  
*nihon-ryoori no naka de nani ga ichiban yuumee desu ka*
- アメリカとカナダとどちらの方が大きいですか。  
*amerika to kanada to dochira no hoo ga ookii desu ka*

# UNIT 19

## Invitations and proposals for joint actions

An English speaker might politely invite someone to the movies by saying, “Would you like to go to the movies?” Or they might resort to a more direct method and say, “Let’s go see a movie!” And if the answer is positive, they will probably ask more specific questions such as, “Where should we go?” and “What time should we go?” In this unit, we will study how Japanese speakers formulate such invitations and proposals to negotiate joint actions.

### Invitations: *-masen ka*

An invitation often takes the form of a negative question with rising intonation in Japanese. In English, invitations often involve expressions for desire such as “want” and “would like,” but their closest Japanese counterpart *V-tai* form (see Unit 15) is not used for this purpose.

In polite speech, you can use the polite negative *-masen* form of the verb followed by the question particle *ka*.

- A: 映画を見ませんか。  
*eega o mimasen ka*  
“Would you like to see a movie?”
- B: すみません、今日はちょっと。  
*sumimasen, kyoo wa chotto*  
“I am sorry, today is ... (not good).”
- A: パーティーに来ませんか。  
*paatii ni kimasen ka*  
“Would you like to come to a party?”
- B: ええ、ぜひ。  
*ee, zehi*  
“Sure, I’d love to.”

In casual speech, you can use the plain negative *-nai* form of a verb.

A: 映画を見ない？

*eega o minai*

“Wanna see a movie?”

B: ごめん、明日試験だから。

*gomen, ashita shiken da kara*

“Sorry, I have a test tomorrow.”

A: 家に来ない？

*uchi ni konai*

“Wanna come over?”

B: うん、行く！

*un, iku*

“Yeah, I will!”

You can use these forms either to invite someone to join you in an activity (e.g., playing a game together) or to invite someone to perform an action on their own (e.g., coming over to your house). In the latter situation, you can also use the request form *...te kudasai* (see Unit 20).

パーティーに来て下さい。

*paatii ni kite kudasai*

“Please come to the party.”

ケーキを召し上がって下さい。

*keeki o meshiagatte kudasai*

“Please have a piece of cake.”

## Suggestions for an action involving the listener: **-mashoo**

To urge someone to join you in an action politely, use the VOLITIONAL FORM of *-masu*, *-mashoo*. Like the ending *-masu*, *-mashoo* attaches to a verb stem (see Unit 6). You can also use it to accept the suggestion.

A: ピザを食べましょう。

*piza o tabemashoo*

“Let’s have pizza.”

B: はい、そうしましょう。

*hai, soo shimashoo*

“OK, let’s do that.”

In casual speech, plain volitional forms are used.

A: ピザを**食べ**よう。  
*piza o **tabeyoo***  
“Let’s have pizza.”

B: うん、**そう**しよう。  
*un, **soo shiyoo***  
“OK, let’s do that.”

To create the volitional forms of five-row verbs, change the last syllable of the dictionary form to the corresponding *o*-row syllable (in bold below) and lengthen the vowel.

### [Volitional forms of five-row verbs]

言う <i>iu</i>	→	言 <b>お</b> う <i><b>ioo</b></i>	“Let’s say (it)!”
書く <i>kaku</i>	→	書 <b>こ</b> う <i><b>kakoo</b></i>	“Let’s write!”
泳ぐ <i>oyogu</i>	→	泳 <b>ご</b> う <i><b>oyogoo</b></i>	“Let’s swim!”
話す <i>hanasu</i>	→	話 <b>そ</b> う <i><b>hanasoo</b></i>	“Let’s talk!”
待つ <i>matsu</i>	→	待 <b>と</b> う <i><b>matoo</b></i>	“Let’s wait!”
死ぬ <i>shinu</i>	→	死 <b>の</b> う <i><b>shinoo</b></i>	“Let’s die!”
飲む <i>nomu</i>	→	飲 <b>も</b> う <i><b>nomoo</b></i>	“Let’s drink!”
帰る <i>kaeru</i>	→	帰 <b>ろ</b> う <i><b>kaeroo</b></i>	“Let’s go home!”

For one-row verbs, delete *ru* from the dictionary form and add *-yoo* (よう).

### [Volitional forms of one-row verbs]

食べる <i>taberu</i>	→	食べ <b>よう</b> <i><b>tabeyoo</b></i>	“Let’s eat!”
見る <i>miru</i>	→	見 <b>よう</b> <i><b>miyoo</b></i>	“Let’s look!”
寝る <i>neru</i>	→	寝 <b>よう</b> <i><b>neyoo</b></i>	“Let’s sleep!”

The volitional forms of the irregular verbs *suru* “do” and *kuru* “come” are *shiyoo* and *koyoo*, respectively.

### [Volitional forms of irregular verbs]

する <i>suru</i>	→	し <b>よう</b> <i><b>shiyoo</b></i>	“Let’s do (it)!”
来る <i>kuru</i>	→	来 <b>よう</b> <i><b>koyoo</b></i>	“Let’s come!”

Unlike the English construction “let’s...,” volitional forms do not carry the expectation that the listener will take part in the action. One can

also use them to propose one's own action so long as the proposed action has clear consequences (usually beneficial) to the listener.

A: 誰かできますか。  
*dareka dekimasu ka*  
“Can someone do it?”

B: 私がしましょう。  
*watashi ga shimashoo*  
“I will do it.”

何か買って来よう。  
*nanika katte koyoo*  
“I will go buy something (for you).”

## Seeking consent and opinions: *-mashoo ka*

A yes-no question that contains a volitional form seeks the listener's consent to a proposed action. Once again, these forms do not carry the expectation that the listener will take part in the action. One can also use them if the proposed action is beneficial to the listener.

そろそろ帰りましょうか。 [polite]  
*sorosoro kaerimashoo ka*  
“Shall we go home now?”

そろそろ帰ろうか。 [casual]  
*sorosoro kaeroo ka*  
“Shall we go home now?”

コーヒーを買って来ましょうか。 [polite]  
*koohii o katte kimashoo ka*  
“Should/Shall I go buy coffee (for you)?”

コーヒーを買って来ようか。 [casual]  
*koohii o katte koyoo ka*  
“Should/Shall I go buy coffee (for you)?”

Make sure not to use these forms in inappropriate contexts. They are typically used in situations where the speaker and the listener jointly deliberate on some course of action. Thus, it can imply that the speaker presumes that the listener will agree to deliberate. Such presumption could be considered rude depending on the context. For example, when you ask someone out for a first date, you can use *-masen ka*, but it is probably better to avoid using *-mashoo ka*.

明日、映画を見ませんか。

*ashita, eega o mimasen ka*

“Would you like to see a movie tomorrow?”

On the other hand, if you are already on a date and are simply trying to decide what to do next, the following patterns are both appropriate:

映画を見ませんか。

*eega o mimasen ka*

“Would you like to see a movie?”

映画を見ましょうか。

*eega o mimashoo ka*

“Shall we see a movie?”

You can use wh-questions containing a volitional form to solicit the listener’s opinion when jointly deciding a course of action.

どこへ{行きましょう/行こう}か。 [polite/casual]

*doko e {ikimashoo/ikoo} ka*

“Where shall we go?”

何を{しまししょう/しよう}か。 [polite/casual]

*nani o {shimashoo/shiyoo} ka*

“What shall we do?”

どこで{食べましょう/食べよう}か。 [polite/casual]

*doko de {tabemashoo/tabeyoo} ka*

“Where shall we eat?”

You can reply to such questions in the following manner.

海へ{行きましょう/行こう}。 [polite/casual]

*umi e {ikimashoo/ikoo}*

“Let’s go to the beach.”

海は{どうですか/どう?}。 [polite/casual]

*umi wa {doo desu ka/doo}*

“How about the beach?”

海へ{行きませんか/行かない?}。 [polite/casual]

*umi e {ikimasen ka/ikanai}*

“How about going to the beach?”



## Exercise 19.1

Following the example, invite someone to do the listed activities using both polite and casual styles.

(Example)

“eat sushi” →

高橋さん、すしを食べませんか。 [polite]  
*takahashi-san, sushi o tabemasen ka*

ひろちゃん、すし、食べない？ [casual]  
*hiro-chan, sushi, tabenai*

- 1 映画を見る “see a movie”  
*eega o miru*
- 2 喫茶店でコーヒーを飲む “drink coffee at a café”  
*kissaten de koohii o nomu*
- 3 レストランで晩ご飯を食べる “eat dinner at a restaurant”  
*resutoran de bangohan o taberu*
- 4 サッカーの試合を見る “watch a soccer game”  
*sakkaa no shiai o miru*
- 5 テニスをする “play tennis”  
*tenisu o suru*

## Exercise 19.2

Following the example, ask if you should do the following activities together. Use both polite and casual styles.

(Example)

“eat sushi” →

高橋さん、すしを食べましょうか。 [polite]  
*takahashi-san, sushi o tabemashoo ka*

ひろちゃん、すし(を)、食べようか。 [casual]  
*hiro-chan, sushi (o), tabeyoo ka*

- 1 座る *suwaru* “sit”
- 2 家に帰る *uchi ni kaeru* “go home”
- 3 タクシーに乗る *takushii ni noru* “take a taxi”
- 4 もう少し待つ *moo sukoshi matsu* “wait a little longer”

## Exercise 19.3

Following the example, ask if you should do the following activities for the listener. Use both polite and casual styles.

(Example)

“turn on the TV” →

高橋さん、テレビをつけましょうか。 [polite]

*takahashi-san, terebi o tsukemashoo ka*

ひろちゃん、テレビ(を)、つけようか。 [casual]

*hiro-chan, terebi (o), tsukeyoo ka*

- 1 窓を開ける *mado o akeru* “open the window”
- 2 ピザを注文する *piza o chuumon-suru* “order pizza”
- 3 タクシーを呼ぶ *takushii o yobu* “call a taxi”
- 4 ケーキを切る *keeki o kiru* “cut the cake”

## Exercise 19.4

Choose the appropriate forms to complete the conversation between A and B in the most natural way. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

A: 明日、一緒に映画を{見ません/見ましょう}か。  
*ashita, isshoni eega o {mimasen/mimashoo} ka*

B: いいですよ。どこで{見ません/見ましょう}か。  
*ii desu yo. doko de {mimasen/mimashoo} ka*

A: 渋谷へ{行きます/行きましょう}。  
*shibuya e {ikimasu/ikimashoo}*

B: では、三時にハチ公前で{会います/会いません}か。  
*de wa, sanji ni hachikoo-mae de {aimasu/aimasen} ka*

A: いいですね。そう{します/しましょう}。  
*ii desu ne. soo {shimasu/shimashoo}*

## Exercise 19.5

Change the dialogue in Exercise 19.4 to casual speech.

# UNIT 20

## Offering advice, making requests, and giving instructions

If someone is not feeling well, you may want to advise, recommend, request or instruct him to get some rest. If a member of your host family wants to improve her English, you will probably want to give some practical pieces of advice. In this unit, we will study how to perform such tasks in Japanese in accordance with the roles we are expected to play.

### Personal advice: *-tara doo (desu ka)*

When solicited for personal advice, you can respond with *-tara doo desu ka* “How about . . . ?” With *-tara* introducing a **CONDITIONAL** clause, this literally means “How about if you . . . ?”

もっと早く寝たらどうですか。  
*motto hayaku netara doo desu ka*  
“How about going to bed earlier?”

毎日運動したらどうですか。  
*mainichi undoo-shitara doo desu ka*  
“How about taking some exercise every day?”

The *-tara* part also turns up as *-dara* because it is a composite of the plain past ending of a verb and *-ra*. (See Unit 6 for how to produce plain past forms of verbs.) Because of its origin, the *tara* part retains the sense of “completion” (see below), but the entire phrase does not have a past tense meaning.

### [Advice with *-tara*]

Plain past form	“if”	“how is it?”	
食べた <i>tabeta</i> “ate”	ら <i>ra</i>	どうですか <i>doo desu ka</i>	“How about eating?”
飲んだ <i>nonda</i> “drank”			“How about drinking?”

For casual counterparts, drop *desu ka*. You can also drop *doo*.

もっと早く寝たら(どう)?

*motto hayaku netara (doo)*

“How about going to bed earlier?”

毎日運動したら(どう)?

*mainichi undoo-shitara (doo)*

“How about taking some exercise every day?”

Because of the latent meaning of completion associated with the *-tara* part, advice with *-tara doo desu ka* can imply that the suggested action should already have been taken. You can soften this implication by changing *doo desu ka* to **ESTIMATION FORMS** such as *doo deshoo ka* “how would it be” or *ii kamo shiremasen* “it might be good.”

薬を飲んだらどうでしょうか。

*kusuri o nondara doo deshoo ka*

“How would it be if you took medicine?”

薬を飲んだらいいかもしれません。

*kusuri o nondara ii kamo shiremasen*

“It might be good if you took some medicine.”

Here are the plain counterparts of these expressions.

薬を飲んだらどうだろう(か)。

*kusuri o nondara doo daroo (ka)*

“How would it be if you took medicine?”

薬を飲んだらいいかも(しれない)。

*kusuri o nondara ii kamo (shirenai)*

“It may be good if you take medicine.”

However, the following is more often used in casual speech.

薬を飲んだらどうかな。

*kusuri o nondara doo ka na*

“I wonder if it would be good if you took some medicine.”

So far, you have learned how to give advice. Conversely, you can solicit advice using *-tara ii desu ka* “would it be good if . . .” in combination with a variety of question words. Again, drop *desu ka* for casual counterparts.

どうしたらいい(ですか)。 “What should I do?”

*doo shitara ii (desu ka)*

何を食べたらいい(ですか)。 “What should I eat?”  
*nani o tabetara ii (desu ka)*

誰に聞いたらいい(ですか)。 “Who should I ask?”  
*dare ni kiitara ii (desu ka)*

Strong recommendation: *-hoo ga ii (desu)*

To add a tone of conviction or authority to your advice, use the pattern *-hoo ga ii desu* “it is better (for you) to . . .” This is a specialized form of the comparative construction we studied in Unit 18. For affirmative advice (“it is better to . . .”), use the plain **past** form of a verb, but for negative advice (“it is better not to . . .”), use the plain **non-past** negative form of a verb. (See Unit 6 for how to conjugate verbs.)

	Plain form	“it is better”
Affirmative advice	<b>Past form</b> 食べた <i>tabeta</i> “ate”	方がいいです(よ) <i>hoo ga ii desu (yo)</i>
Negative advice	<b>Non-past form</b> 食べない <i>tabenai</i> “not eat”	

カルシウムをとった方がいいです(よ)。  
*karushiumu o totta hoo ga ii desu (yo)*  
“You should take calcium.”

煙草を吸わない方がいいです。  
*tabako o suwanai hoo ga ii desu*  
“You should not smoke.”

This recommendation pattern is stronger than *-tara doo desu ka* and is often accompanied by the sentence-final particle *yo*, which signals the speaker’s intention to persuade.

For casual counterparts, drop *desu*.

カルシウムをとった方がいい(よ)。  
*karushiumu o totta hoo ga ii (yo)*  
“You should take calcium.”

煙草を吸わない方がいい。  
*tabako o suwanai hoo ga ii*  
“You should not smoke.”

## Requests: -te (*kudasai*), -naide (*kudasai*)

To make a request in the affirmative, use the *te*-form of a verb followed by *kudasai*, a form of the honorific verb *kudasaru* “to give.” To make a negative request, use the verbal negative *te*-form, the plain negative *-nai* form of a verb followed by *de* (see Unit 6). The primary function of request forms is to give instructions. (See Unit 6 for how to make the *te*-form of verbs.)

水をたくさん飲んで下さい。 “Please drink a lot of water.”  
*mizu o takusan nonde kudasai*

今日は運転しないで下さい。 “Please don’t drive today.”  
*kyoo wa unten-shinaide kudasai*

To be more persuasive, you can add *doozo* “please” or *zahi* “by all means/without fail.”

どうぞリラックスして下さい。 “Please relax.”  
*doozo rirakkusu-shite kudasai*

この本をぜひ読んで下さい。 “Please DO read this book.”  
*kono hon o zehi yonde kudasai*

*Kudasai* is dropped in casual speech.

ゆっくり食べて。 “Eat slowly.”  
*yukkuri tabete*

急いで食べないで。 “Don’t eat in a rush.”  
*isoide tabenaide*

## Honorific requests

You can also produce request forms from the honorific verbs we studied in Unit 10, using their *te*-forms (affirmative or negative) and *kudasai*.

いらっしゃる “go, come, be”: いらっしゃって下さい  
*irassharu irasshatte kudasai*

いらっしゃらないで下さい  
*irassharanaide kudasai*

なさる “do”: なさって下さい  
*nasaru nasatte kudasai*

なさらないで下さい  
*nasaranaide kudasai*

Likewise, you can turn the honorific verb pattern *o* [verb stem] *ni naru* (see Unit 10) into a request pattern. Thus, a nurse may politely instruct a patient in the following manner:

説明をよくお読みになって下さい。

*setsumee o yoku oyomi ni natte kudasai*

“Please read the instructions carefully.”

古い薬は、お使いにならないで下さい。

*furui kusuri wa, otsukai ni naranaide kudasai*

“Please don’t use old medicine.”

The affirmative option can be shortened by dropping *ni natte*.

説明をよくお読み下さい。

*setsumee o yoku oyomi kudasai*

“Please read the instructions carefully.”

The following irregular honorific verbs that have *ni natte* in their *te*-forms also have shorter forms without *ni natte*.

ご覧になる “look, see”: ご覧になって下さい

*goran ni naru*

*goran ni natte kudasai*

→ ご覧下さい

*goran kudasai*

おいでになる “come”: おいでになって下さい

*oide ni naru*

*oide ni natte kudasai*

→ おいで下さい

*oide kudasai*

Since the primary function of all request forms ending with *kudasai* is to give instructions, you should not use them when asking for a special favor from people such as your boss, teacher, or physician. If you want to ask for a favor from such people, add the polite ending *-masen ka* “won’t you?” to *kudasai*.

診断書を書いて下さいませんか。

*shindansho o kaite kudasaimasen ka*

“Would you please write a medical certificate?”

However, honorific request forms are acceptable when you invite your superiors to do something for their own benefit (see also Unit 19).

これは、お礼です。召し上がって下さい。

*kore wa, oree desu. meshiagatte kudasai*

“This is a token of gratitude. Please enjoy (eating) it.”

## Exercise 20.1

Produce the conditional forms of the following verbs.

- 1 会う *au* “meet”
- 2 作る *tsukuru* “make”
- 3 寝る *neru* “sleep”
- 4 行く *iku* “go”
- 5 読む *yomu* “read”
- 6 書く *kaku* “write”
- 7 覚える *oboeru* “remember”
- 8 電話する *denwa-suru* “phone”
- 9 話す *hanasu* “talk”
- 10 起きる *okiru* “wake up”
- 11 入る *hairu* “enter”
- 12 遊ぶ *asobu* “play”
- 13 考える *kangaeru* “think”
- 14 来る *kuru* “come”

## Exercise 20.2

Suppose your roommate is sick and is not taking good care of himself. Using conditional forms, advise him to perform the following activities.

- 1 drink some tea
- 2 check his temperature (熱をはかる *netsu o hakaru*)
- 3 take some medicine
- 4 go to bed
- 5 go to a hospital/clinic

## Exercise 20.3

Using conditional forms, formulate questions to ask your Japanese teacher in the following situations.

- 1 You don't know up to which page to read.
- 2 You don't know which kanji to memorize.
- 3 You don't know what to study.



## Exercise 20.4

Suppose you are at a clinic. After examining you, the doctor tells you the following. Check the things you should do on the list. You can check the meaning of the entire passage in the answer key.

この薬を一日三回飲んで下さい。からい物は食べないで下さい。あたたかい飲み物をたくさん飲んで下さい。オレンジジュースは飲まない方がいいですが、ビタミンCはとって下さい。お酒も飲まない方がいいですよ。それから、今日はお風呂に入らないで下さい。

*kono kusuri o ichinichi sankai nonde kudasai. karai mono wa tabenaide kudasai. atatakai nomimono o takusan nonde kudasai. orenji juusu wa nomanai hoo ga ii desu ga, bitamin shii wa totte kudasai. osake mo nomanai hoo ga ii desu yo. sorekara, kyoo wa ofuro ni hairanaide kudasai*

- ☐ drink warm liquid
- ☐ eat spicy food
- ☐ drink orange juice
- ☐ drink alcohol
- ☐ take a bath today
- ☐ take medicine
- ☐ take vitamin C

## Exercise 20.5

Fill in the blanks to complete the tasks.

- 1 invite your teacher to a party  
「先生、パーティーに\_\_\_\_\_か。」
- 2 ask your teacher to write a letter of recommendation  
「先生、推薦状 (*suisenjoo*) を\_\_\_\_\_か。」
- 3 ask your teacher to call you tomorrow  
「先生、明日、お電話\_\_\_\_\_か。」
- 4 offer your teacher a piece of cake  
「先生、どうぞケーキを\_\_\_\_\_ください。」
- 5 politely ask your teacher to repeat what s/he said  
「先生、もう一度\_\_\_\_\_か。」

# UNIT 21

## Seeking, granting, and denying permission, and describing obligations

Suppose you visit a temple and find a service going on in the main building where a famous statue of Buddha is on display. You would probably ask the gatekeeper if you are allowed to enter. The gatekeeper might grant or deny permission, or might tell you that you must wait. In this unit, we will study basic methods to seek, grant, or deny permission, as well as how to state rules in Japanese.

### Seeking permission with short forms

If what you want permission for is clear from the context, a simple question of whether it is OK may suffice as a strategy for seeking permission. For instance, in the case of the temple situation, you could point to the doorway and say:

いいですか。 “Is it OK (if I enter)?”  
*ii desu ka*

Depending on how polite you need to be, you can adjust the level of politeness. The following sentences are organized from the more casual to the more formal. The form *deshoo* is an estimation form (see also Unit 20). When used to seek permission, it increases the politeness level like the English word “would.”

いい? “(Is it) OK?”  
*ii*

いいですか。 “Is it OK?”  
*ii desu ka*

いいでしょうか。 “Would it be OK?”  
*ii deshoo ka*

よろしいですか。 “Is it all right?”  
*yoroshii desu ka*

よろしいでしょうか。 “Would it be all right?”  
*yoroshii deshoo ka*

Using expressions of desire to seek permission

Of course, what you want permission for will not always be clear from the context. You can make it explicit by expressing your desire to take some action using the *V-tai* pattern studied in Unit 15. For instance, you might ask your co-worker if taking a day off will cause trouble for him/her.

月曜日休みたいんだけど、いい？  
*getsuyoobi yasumitai n da kedo, ii*  
“I want to take a day off on Monday. (Is it) OK?”

The structure of this sentence and a polite counterpart are presented in the following table. (See Unit 15 for a similar pattern used when seeking information.)

[Seeking permission by expressing desire]

Desire	Soliciting sympathy	Connective particle	Seeking approval
月曜日休みたい <i>getsuyoobi yasumitai</i>	んだ <i>n da</i>	けど <i>kedo</i>	いい？ <i>ii</i>
月曜日休みたい <i>getsuyoobi yasumitai</i>	のです <i>no desu</i>	が <i>ga</i>	いいですか。 <i>ii desu ka</i>

The first part of this sentence is a statement of the speaker’s desire to perform an action. The ending *n(o) da* (see Unit 11) solicits sympathy in this case (see also Units 15 and 23). The connective particle *kedo* or *ga* presents this as background information. The last part seeks approval for the action.

You can change the level of politeness without changing the basic meaning. Here are some possible variations, from the more casual to the more formal. Use the last one to seek permission from your employer.

月曜日休みたいんだけど、いい？  
*getsuyoobi yasumitai n da kedo, ii*  
月曜日休みたいんだけど、いいですか。  
*getsuyoobi yasumitai n da kedo, ii desu ka*  
月曜日休みたいんですけど、いいですか。  
*getsuyoobi yasumitai n desu kedo, ii desu ka*

月曜日休みたいんですけど、いいでしょうか。

*getsuyoobi yasumitai n desu kedo, ii deshoo ka*

月曜日休みたいんですが、よろしいでしょうか。

*getsuyoobi yasumitai n desu ga, yoroshii deshoo ka*

In careful, enunciated speech, the vowel *o* in the ending *n(o) da* may be pronounced. This contributes an added formality.

月曜日休みたいのんですが、よろしいでしょうか。

*getsuyoobi yasumitai **no** desu ga, yoroshii deshoo ka*

“I would like to take a day off on Monday. Would that be all right?”

Here are a couple of additional examples of the strategy.

ちょっとコピー機を使いたいんだけど、今いい？

*chotto kopiiki o tsukaitai n da kedo, ima ii*

“I want to use the copy machine for a while. Is now OK?”

明日は、四時までに会社を出たいのですが、よろしいでしょうか。

*ashita wa, yoji made ni kaisha o detai no desu ga, yoroshii deshoo ka*

“I would like to leave the office by 4 o'clock tomorrow. Would it be all right?”

## Using *te*-forms to seek approval

If you use the previous pattern, you can only seek permission for your own actions because the *V-tai* pattern is speaker-centered (see also Units 10, 15, and 24), and only expresses the speaker's desire to take some action. In order to seek approval for a wider range of situations, use *te*-forms. The following chart summarizes how various types of affirmative *te*-forms are used for this purpose.

### [Seeking approval with *te*-forms]

Affirmative <i>te</i> -form			Seeking approval	
Verb	休んで <i>yasunde</i>	(も) ( <i>mo</i> )	いい？/ いいですか。 <i>ii/ii desu ka</i>	‘Is it OK to take a break?’
<i>I</i> -adjective	遅くて <i>osokute</i>			‘Is it OK to be late?’
<i>Na</i> -adjective	簡単に <i>kantan de</i>			‘Is it OK if it is imple?’
Noun + copula	十時で <i>juuji de</i>			‘Is it OK if it is at 10?’

The particle *mo* is optional, but the pattern with *mo* is considered more polite than the variation without *mo*. This is because *mo* implies the availability of options other than the one proposed. Implying a range of options reduces the sense that one demands a singular course of action, and thus functions as a politeness strategy.

Here are a couple of examples that might be useful.

英語で説明して(も)いいですか。  
*eego de setsumee-shite (mo) ii desu ka*  
“Can I explain in English?”

支払いはクレジットカードで(も)いいですか。  
*shiharai wa kurejitto-kaado de (mo) ii desu ka*  
“Can I pay by credit card?”

The *te*-form in this construction does not have to be an affirmative one. You can also use negative *te*-forms in order to seek exemption.

[Seeking exemption]

Negative <i>te</i> -form			Seeking approval	
Verb	行かなくて <i>ikanakute</i>	(も) ( <i>mo</i> )	いい?/ いいですか。 <i>ii/ii desu ka</i>	‘Is it OK not to go?’
I-adjective	早くなくて <i>hayaku nakute</i>			‘Is it OK to not be early?’
Na-adjective	簡単{で/じゃ}なくて <i>kantan {de/ja} nakute</i>			‘Is it OK if it is not simple?’
Noun + copula	十時{で/じゃ}なくて <i>juuji {de/ja} nakute</i>			‘Is it OK if it is not at 10?’

Just as when you seek positive permission, you will hear both variations with and without the particle *mo*.

この書類は、サインしなくて(も)いいですか。  
*kono shorui wa, sain-shinakute (mo) ii desu ka*  
“Is it OK if I do not sign this document?”

会議は、明日じゃなくて(も)いいですか。  
*kaigi wa, ashita ja nakute (mo) ii desu ka*  
“Is it OK if the meeting is not tomorrow?”

## Giving permission

Once the request is made, you can give consent or permission in one of the following ways.

いいよ。 “Sure.”

*ii yo*

いいですよ。 “Please (go ahead).”

*ii desu yo*

よろしいですよ。 “Please do.”

*yoroshii desu yo*

Avoid using the estimation forms such as *-deshoo* and *-daroo* when giving approval because you need to sound reassuring when granting approval. Although they act as a politeness strategy when you seek approval, using them when you give approval can give an arrogant impression quite contrary to its effect in questions.

× いいでしょう。 “That will do.”

*ii deshoo*

This simple method of granting approval is an appropriate response to any of the approval-seeking questions we studied in the previous section, some of which are listed here.

ここに荷物を置きたいんですけど、いいでしょうか。

*koko ni nimotsu o okitai n desu kedo, ii deshoo ka*

“I would like to put my luggage here. Would that be OK?”

そこでもいいですか。

*soko de mo ii desu ka*

“Is it OK if it’s there?”

私の荷物を動かさなくてもよろしいでしょうか？

*watashi no nimotsu o ugokasanakute mo yoroshii deshoo ka*

“Would it be OK if I don’t move my luggage?”

When granting permission, you can of course repeat the target of approval. The politeness strategy of using *mo* can also be used.

A: 窓を開けて(も)いい？

*mado o akete (mo) ii*

“Can I open the window?”

B: もちろん、開けて(も)いいよ。

*mochiron akete (mo) ii yo*

“Of course you can open it.”

A: ブラインドをおろさなくて(も)いい？

*buraindo o orosanakute (mo) ii*

“Is it OK if I don’t lower the blind?”

B: うん、おろさなくて(も)いいよ。

*un, orosanakute (mo) ii yo*

“Yeah, it’s OK not to lower it.”

You can also use *doozo* instead.

A: カーテンをしめて(も)いいですか？

*kaaten o shimete (mo) ii desu ka*

“May I close the curtain?”

B: はい、どうぞ。

*hai, doozo*

“Yes, please do.”

## Denying approval

In order to flatly deny approval, use *dame* “no good” or *ikenai* “it won’t do,” as in the following.

A: 写真、とりたいんですけど、いいですか？

*shashin, toritai n desu kedo, ii desu ka*

“I want to take a photo. Is that OK?”

B: いいえ、だめです。

*iie, dame desu*

“No, you can’t.”

A: 中に入ってもいいですか。

*naka ni haitte mo ii desu ka*

“May I go inside?”

B: いいえ、まだいけません。

*iie, mada ikemasen*

“No, not yet.”

You can also use the combination of [affirmative *te*-form + *wa*] to spell out what is being denied.

- A: 中に入ってもいいですか。  
*naka ni haitte mo ii desu ka*  
 “May I come inside?”
- B: いいえ、まだ入ってはいけません。  
*iie, mada **haitte wa** ikemasen*  
 “No, you may not come in yet.”

The following table summarizes the pattern for denying approval.

### [Prohibition]

Affirmative <i>Te</i> -form			Denying approval	
Verb	休んで <i>yasunde</i>	は <i>wa</i>	いけない <i>ikenai</i>	‘It is not allowed to take a break.’
<i>I</i> -adjective	遅くて <i>osokute</i>			‘It is not allowed to be late.’
<i>Na</i> -adjective	簡単に <i>kantan de</i>			‘It cannot be simple.’
Noun + copula	十時で <i>juuji de</i>			‘It cannot be at 10 o’clock.’

The sequence *de wa* contracts to *ja*, and *-te wa* to *-cha*, in casual speech.

### [Prohibition: contracted forms]

Contracted form		Denying approval	
Verb	休んじゃ <i>yasunja</i>	いけない <i>ikenai</i>	‘It is not allowed to take a break.’
<i>I</i> -adjective	遅くちや <i>osokucha</i>		‘It is not allowed to be late.’
<i>Na</i> -adjective	簡単じゃ <i>kantan ja</i>		‘It cannot be simple.’
Noun + copula	十時じゃ <i>juuji ja</i>		‘It cannot be at 10 o’clock.’

Use this type of flat prohibition sparingly and with caution. Japanese speakers prefer less direct methods of denying approval in order to avoid



mutual embarrassment. You have a greater chance of hearing the following exchange than hearing flat refusals.

A: これ、使ってもいいですか。  
*kore, tsukatte mo ii desu ka*  
“May I use this?”

B: あの、すみません、ちょっと。  
*ano, sumimasen, chotto*  
“Well, I am sorry, ah...”

Describing obligations

We have seen that prohibition requires an affirmative *te*-form + *wa ikenai*. The pattern for describing obligations is very similar to the pattern for prohibition. Just use a **negative *te*-form** + *wa ikenai*. This pattern literally means “it will not do if you do not do (something),” which in effect means “you must do (something).”

[Obligation]

Negative <i>te</i> -form		Denying approval	
待たなくて <i>matanakute</i>	は <i>wa</i>	いけない <i>ikenai</i>	“You must wait.”

十時まで外で待たなくてははいけません。  
*juuji made soto de matanakute wa ikemasen*  
“We must wait outside until 10 o’clock.”

入場料を払わなくてははいけません。  
*nyuujooryoo o harawanakute wa ikemasen*  
“We must pay the entrance fee.”

Explaining rules

We can apply the prohibition and obligation patterns to the formulation of rules and regulations.

図書館で大きな声で話してはいけない。  
*toshokan de ookina koe de hanashite wa ikenai*  
“You may not talk in a loud voice in the library.”

学校では携帯を**使**っては**い**けない。  
*gakkoo de wa keetai o tsukatte wa ikenai*  
 “You may not use a cell phone at school.”

制服を**着**なくては**い**けない。  
*seefuku o kinakute wa ikenai*  
 “You must wear a uniform.”

教室のそうじをしなくては**い**けない。  
*kyooshitsu no sooji o shinakute wa ikenai*  
 “You must clean the classroom.”

You can also provide a very strong guideline using the obligation pattern.

- A: 先生、明日宿題を出してもいいですか。  
*sensee, ashita shukudai o dashite mo ii desu ka*  
 “Professor, is it OK if I turn in the homework tomorrow?”
- B: いえ、今日中に出さなくては**い**けません。  
*ie, kyoojuu ni dasanakute wa ikemasen*  
 “No. You must turn it in today.”
- A: 先生、全部覚えなくてもいいですか。  
*sensee, zenbu oboenakute mo ii desu ka*  
 “Professor, is it OK if I don’t memorize everything?”
- B: いえ、全部覚えなくては**い**けません。  
*ie, zenbu oboenakute wa ikemasen*  
 “No. You must memorize everything.”

However, in casual conversation, this pattern is often considered too forceful and may be avoided. The alternative approach is to frame the response as advice using *-hoo ga ii* (see Unit 20).

- A: 全部覚えなくてもいいかな。  
*zenbu oboenakute mo ii ka na*  
 “I wonder if it is OK if I don’t memorize them all.”
- B: ううん、全部**覚え**た方が**い**いよ。  
*uun, zenbu oboeta hoo ga ii yo*  
 “No. You should memorize them all.”
- A: 携帯を使ってもいいかな。  
*keitai o tsukatte mo ii ka na*  
 “I wonder if it is OK to use a cell phone.”
- B: ううん、**使**わ**な**い方が**い**いよ。  
*uun, tsukawanai hoo ga ii yo*  
 “No. You should not use it.”

The combination *-kute wa* often contracts to *-kucha* and further to *-kya* in conversation. The verb *ikenai* can be omitted.

[Variations of contraction]

しなくて <i>shinakute</i>		は <i>wa</i>	(いけない) <i>(ikenai)</i>	“You must do it.”
しなく <i>shinaku</i>	ちゃ <i>cha</i>			
しな <i>shina</i>	きや <i>kya</i>			

The contracted forms, *-nakucha* and *-nakya*, are very casual and do not carry the authoritative tone of the longer forms.

A: 全部しなくてもいい？  
*zenbu shinakute mo ii*  
“Is it OK if I don’t do it all?”

B: ううん、しなくちゃ/しなきや。  
*uun, shinakucha/shinakya*  
“No. You must do it all.”

Exercise 21.1

Using *-tai n desu kedo, yoroshii deshoo ka*, formulate sentences to seek permission from a managerial person to do the following actions.

- 1 You want to park your car in the back.
- 2 You want to wait inside.
- 3 You want to take a photo.
- 4 You want to use your cell phone.

Exercise 21.2

Using the *-te mo ii* pattern, formulate sentences to seek permission from your roommate to do the following actions.

- 1 You want to close the window.
- 2 You want to turn off the TV.
- 3 You want to throw away some old newspapers.
- 4 You want to use your roommate’s vacuum cleaner.

## Exercise 21.3

Suppose that you are giving an English test in a Japanese high school class. Following the example, respond appropriately to your students.

(Example)

A: 先生、始めてもいいですか。  
*sensee, hajimete mo ii desu ka*  
 “Teacher, may I start?”

B: いいえ、始めてはいけません。  
*iiie, hajimete wa ikemasen*  
 “No, you may not start.”

- 1 S: 先生、中を見てもいいですか。  
*sensee, naka o mite mo ii desu ka*  
 T: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*
- 2 S: 先生、辞書を使ってもいいですか。  
*sensee, jisho o tsukatte mo ii desu ka*  
 T: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*
- 3 S: 先生、赤いペンで書いてもいいですか。  
*sensee, akai pen de kaite mo ii desu ka*  
 T: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*
- 4 S: 先生、外に行ってもいいですか。  
*sensee, soto ni itte mo ii desu ka*  
 T: いいえ、\_\_\_\_\_。  
*iiie, \_\_\_\_\_*

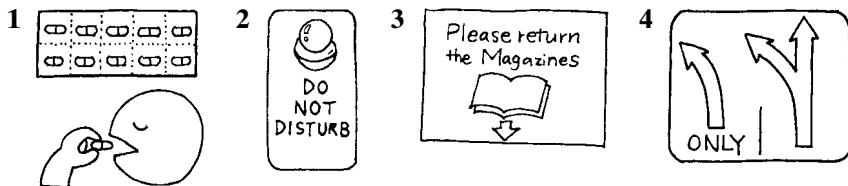
## Exercise 21.4

Explain the following to-do list using *-nakute wa ikenai*.

- ☐ go to dental appointment at 3 o'clock
- ☐ go to supermarket
- ☐ buy bread and eggs
- ☐ call mother
- ☐ write birthday card

## Exercise 21.5

Select the appropriate explanation for each picture or sign from options a-e. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.



- a 左の車線は、ま、すぐ行かなくてはいけない。  
*hidari no shasen wa, massugu ikanakute wa ikenai*
- b 読んだ雑誌はここにかえさなくてはいけない。  
*yonda zasshi wa koko ni kaesanakute wa ikenai*
- c この薬は、十日間、飲まなくてはいけない。  
*kono kusuri wa, tookakan, nomanakute wa ikenai*
- d ドアをノックしてはいけない。  
*doa o nokku-shite wa ikenai*
- e 左の車線は、まっすぐ行ってはいけない。  
*hidari no shasen wa, massugu itte wa ikenai*

## Exercise 21.6

Insert the appropriate expressions so that each sentence describes a rule or regulation. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 図書館の中で食べ物を食べて\_\_\_\_。  
*toshokan no naka de tabemono o tabete \_\_\_\_\_*
- 2 飛行機が出る時には、ラップトップを使って\_\_\_\_が、途中では使っ  
て\_\_\_\_。  
*hikooki ga deru toki ni wa, rapputoppu o tsukatte \_\_\_\_\_ ga, tochuu de  
wa tsukatte \_\_\_\_\_*
- 3 飛行機の中では、お酒は飲んで\_\_\_\_が、たばこを吸って\_\_\_\_。  
*hikooki no naka de wa, osake wa nonde \_\_\_\_\_ ga, tabako o sutte  
\_\_\_\_\_*
- 4 アメリカのスーパーではワインやビールは売ってもいいが、ウイスキー  
は売って\_\_\_\_。だから、ウイスキーは酒屋で買わ\_\_\_\_。  
*amerika no suupaa de wa wain ya biiru wa utte mo ii ga, uisukii wa utte  
\_\_\_\_\_. dakara, uisukii wa, sakaya de kawa \_\_\_\_\_*

# UNIT 22

## Expressing ease and difficulty

If you have a pen that is easy to write with, it does not however make the task of writing a masterpiece any easier. The Japanese language distinguishes between these two concepts of ease/difficulty: one employing **COMPOUND ADJECTIVES** and the other employing **LEXICAL ADJECTIVES**. Understanding the subtle differences between the two is important, because they are not always interchangeable.

### Ease and difficulty as inherent properties of items

If the ease or difficulty is perceived as an intrinsic property of a thing, a person, or a situation, as in the case of the pen that is easy to write with, use a compound adjective consisting of a verb stem and the suffix *-nikui* or *-yasui*.

使う *tsukau* “use”:

使いにくい *tsukai + nikui* “hard to use”

使いやすい *tsukai + yasui* “easy to use”

食べる *taberu* “eat”:

食べにくい *tabe + nikui* “hard to eat”

食べやすい *tabe + yasui* “easy to eat”

The compound adjective [V-stem + *nikui*] is used to describe an item that is felt to possess certain characteristics that interfere with the action denoted by the verb. Conversely, the compound adjective [V-stem + *yasui*] is used when something about an item is felt to facilitate the action denoted by the verb. The judgment is direct and intuitive.

このキーボードは小さくて使いにくいです。

*kono kiiboodo wa chiisakute tsukainikui desu*

“This keyboard is small and difficult to use.”

後ろの席は**座りやすい**けど、ドアが**開けにくい**。  
*ushiro no seki wa suwariyasui kedo, doa ga akenikui*  
“The back seat is easy to sit on, but the doors are hard to open.”

These compound adjectives conjugate like *i*-adjectives. (See Unit 6 for the conjugation patterns of *i*-adjectives.)

[Conjugation patterns of V-stem + *nikui*]

使いにくい(です) <i>tsukainikui (desu)</i> “It is hard to use.”	使いにくい <b>くない</b> (です) <i>tsukainikuku nai (desu)</i> “It is not hard to use.”
使いにく <b>かった</b> (です) <i>tsukainikukatta (desu)</i> “It was hard to use.”	使いにく <b>くなかった</b> (です) <i>tsukainikuku nakatta (desu)</i> “It was not hard to use.”

[Conjugation patterns of V-stem + *yasui*]

食べやすい(です) <i>tabeyasui (desu)</i> “It is easy to eat.”	食べやす <b>くない</b> (です) <i>tabeyasuku nai (desu)</i> “It is not easy to eat.”
食べやす <b>かった</b> (です) <i>tabeyasukatta (desu)</i> “It was easy to eat.”	食べやす <b>くなかった</b> (です) <i>tabeyasuku nakatta (desu)</i> “It was not easy to eat.”

Compound adjectives formed with *-nikui/-yasui* can be used in any grammatical contexts where regular *i*-adjectives can appear.

使いやす**さ**はこの辞書が一番です。 (see Unit 3)  
*tsukaiyasusa wa kono jisho ga ichiban desu*  
“As for ease of use, this dictionary is the best.”

東京から一番行きやす**い**スキー場はどこですか。 (see Unit 4)  
*tookyoo kara ichiban ikiyasui sukijoo wa doko desu ka*  
“Where is the ski resort that is easiest to get to from Tokyo?”

その説明は分**かり**にくくて、問題です。 (see Unit 23)  
*sono setsumee wa wakaririkukute, mondai desu*  
“That explanation is difficult to understand and problematic.”

Sometimes, such compound adjectives describe general conditions, rather than the condition of a physical item.

ひどい雨で、前が見にくくて、運転しにくい。

*hidoi ame de, mae ga minikukute, unten-shinikui*

“With heavy rain, the visibility is bad, and it is hard to drive.”

These constructions may also be used to describe general tendencies.

夏の風邪はなおりにくい。

*natsu no kaze wa naorinikui*

“Summer colds are difficult to get rid of.”

## Objective judgment of the likelihood of successful accomplishment

When you want to focus on the likelihood of individuals successfully accomplishing or achieving something, use a nominalized clause with *no* (see Units 4 and 11) as the **subject** of lexical adjective predicates such as *muzukashii* “difficult,” *yasashii* “easy,” and *kantan na* “simple.” (See Units 14, 16, and 18 for other uses of nominalized clauses.) The unmarked particle for the subject of stative predicates is *wa* (see Unit 5).

スペイン語を話すのは、やさしいです。

*supeingo o hanasu no wa, yasashii desu*

“It is easy (for one) to speak Spanish.”

言うのは簡単ですが、するのは難しいです。

*iu no wa kantan desu ga, suru no wa muzukashii desu*

“It is easy (for one) to say something, but it is difficult to do it.”

Compare how this construction is used with how the *-nikui/-yasui* construction is used, and sometimes you will find a very sharp contrast, as in the following.

うそは言いにくい。

*uso wa iinikui*

“Lies are (intrinsically) difficult to tell.”

うそを言うのは難しい。

*uso o iu no wa muzukashii*

“It is difficult to tell a lie (successfully).”

The first example is framed as a description of the intrinsic property of lies in general. Consequently, it is interpreted as describing the moral difficulty the speaker feels. By contrast, the second example describes the



difficulty of telling a lie successfully. It says nothing about the moral attitude of the speaker and is understood merely as an objective statement.

Here is another pair of examples showing a sharp contrast.

斉藤先生は話しやすい。

*saitoo-sensee wa hanashiyasui*

“Professor Saito is easy to talk to.” (He is friendly, compassionate, etc.)

斉藤先生と話すのは簡単だ。

*saitoo-sensee to hanasu no wa kantan da*

“It is easy to talk to Professor Saito.” (He is always available.)

The first example is a subjective description of Professor Saito’s personal characteristics, while the second example is an objective conclusion about his physical availability.

Some sentences become completely ungrammatical if framed with the wrong option. For instance, the second sentence here is ungrammatical, because catching a cold is not something you strive to achieve.

○ 子供は風邪を引きやすい。

*kodomo wa kaze o hikiyasui*

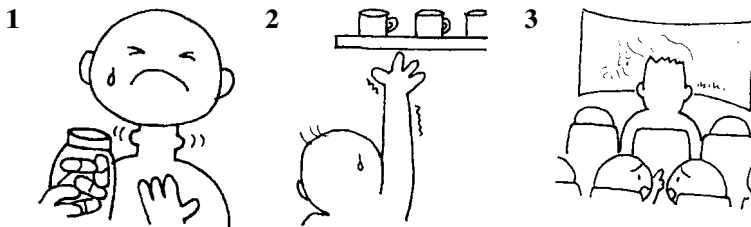
“Children are prone to catching colds.”

× 子供は風邪を引くのがやさしい。

*kodomo wa kaze o hiku no ga yasashii*

## Exercise 22.1

Describe the following pictures using [V-stem + *nikui*] forms.



## Exercise 22.2

Fill in the blank with the appropriate [V-stem + *yasui*] form based on the cue. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 このベッドは大きいから\_\_\_\_\_。(sleep)  
*kono beddo wa ookii kara \_\_\_\_\_*
- 2 この本は難しくないから\_\_\_\_\_。(read)  
*kono hon wa muzukashiku nai kara \_\_\_\_\_*
- 3 この車はちょうどいいサイズだから\_\_\_\_\_。(drive)  
*kono kuruma wa choodo ii saizu da kara \_\_\_\_\_*

### Exercise 22.3

Describe the inherent ease/difficulty of the following items, using appropriate verbs.

- 1 a sandwich with lots of fillings
- 2 a heavy box without a handle
- 3 a dictionary with a good index
- 4 a narrow doorway

### Exercise 22.4

Read the following passage about a cell phone and decide who should buy this product. You can check the meaning of the passage in the answer key.

この機種は値段が手頃で買いやすいです。軽くて持ちやすいですが、画面が小さいからテキストが読みにくいでしょう。カメラ機能は使いやすいです。

*kono kishu wa nedan ga tegoro de kaiyasui desu. karukute mochiyasui desu ga, gamen ga chiisai kara tekisuto ga yominikui deshoo. kamera kinoo wa tsukaiyasui desu*

- 1 Young people who don't have a lot of money. ☐
- 2 People who want to take pictures with their cell phones. ☐
- 3 Elderly people who have difficulty reading small fonts. ☐
- 4 People who want a cell phone that is easy to carry around. ☐

### Exercise 22.5

Explain how difficult or easy it would be to achieve each of the following goals.

- 1 memorizing 100 kanji a day
- 2 reserving (予約する *yoyaku-suru*) a plane ticket online

- 3 winning a gold medal (金メダルをとる *kin-medaru o toru*) at the Olympics
- 4 finding a Japanese restaurant in New York

### Exercise 22.6

Translate the following into Japanese. Think carefully about whether the ease/difficulty is associated with some inherent characteristics or whether it is based on an objective judgment of the potential success rate.

- 1 This knife cuts easily.
- 2 A good restaurant is hard to find.
- 3 This coffee cup is easy to hold.

# UNIT 23

## Explaining causes and reasons

Cause and reason are similar but different concepts. A causal relationship refers to a perceived natural link between two events. On the other hand, reasoning is a process where an individual tries to make a connection between two events. In daily life, a speaker often gives causes when describing his/her physical conditions or trying to provide excuses for failing to complete some task. Reasons are primarily given in order to defend beliefs, feelings, conclusions, and actions. In this unit, we will study a few methods to state causes and reasons in Japanese.

### Stating the cause with *te*-forms

To present causes, you can use *te*-forms. As we saw in Unit 6, *te*-forms generally connect close attributes or closely related events. The close linkage can be that of cause and effect, as in the following.

のどが痛くて、話したくない。

*nodo ga itakute, hanashitaku nai*

“I have a sore throat and (so) I don’t want to talk.”

お腹が痛くて、トイレに行った。

*onaka ga itakute, toire ni itta*

“My stomach hurt and (so) I went to the bathroom.”

In this pattern, the first event, which is introduced by a *te*-form, is interpreted as the cause, and the second as the effect. Such a sense of causal relationship depends on the perceived natural link between the two events.

Note that the same *te*-form, *itakute*, was interpreted as a present condition in the first example and as a past condition in the second. This is because a *te*-form carries no tense information and its tense interpretation depends on the context. In the following sentence, *kaze o hiite* is interpreted as a past event even though there is no past tense marker in the sentence.

かぜをひいて、のどが痛い。  
*kaze o hiite, nodo ga itai*  
“I caught a cold and (so) I have a sore throat.”

Giving the rationale with *kara*

In the previous section, we saw that the *te*-form can introduce a cause. However, the *te*-form pattern is awkward when the speaker provides his/her own reasons or rationales.

× その薬は古くて、飲まないでください。  
*sono kusuri wa furukute, nomanaide kudasai*  
(intended: “The medicine is old and (so) please do not take it.”)

In order to provide a reason or rationale, use the connective particle *kara* (see Units 4, 5, and 10) instead, as in the following:

その薬は古いから、飲まないでください。  
*sono kusuri wa furui kara, nomanaide kudasai*  
“Because the medicine is old, please do not take it.”

その薬は効かないから、やめた。  
*sono kusuri wa kikanai kara, yameta*  
“Because the medicine was not effective, I discontinued (using) it.”

Provide the reason before the conclusion, and insert *kara* between the two, making sure to attach it to the reason.

When speaking in the plain style, you must use a plain ending for both the reason and the conclusion. On the other hand, if you speak in the polite style and use a polite ending for the conclusion, you can use either a plain or polite ending for the reason. The following table summarizes these stipulations. (See also Unit 10.)

[Use of polite and plain forms with *kara*]

Reason	Conclusion	
効かないから <i>kikanai kara</i>	やめる <i>yameru</i>	“Because it is not effective, I will discontinue using it.”
	やめます <i>yamemasu</i>	
効きませんか <i>kikimasen kara</i>		

And here are some more examples.

せきがなおらないから、病院に行きます。

*seki ga naoranai kara, byōin ni ikimasu*

“Because the cough won’t go away, I am going to the hospital.”

かぜをひいたから、のどが痛い。

*kaze o hiita kara nodo ga itai*

“Because I caught a cold, I have a sore throat.”

アレルギーがあるから、鼻がよくつまります。

*arerugii ga aru kara, hana ga yoku tsumarimasu*

“Because I have an allergy, my nose often gets blocked.”

## Appending the reason with *kara da*

In English you can provide the reason at the beginning or at the end of a sentence.

I applied eye drops, **because my eyes were red**.

**Because my eyes were red**, I applied eye drops.

In contrast, the reason always appears first within a single Japanese sentence.

目が赤かったから、目薬をさした。

*me ga akakatta kara, megusuri o sashita*

“Because my eyes were red, I applied eye drops.”

This is due to the following basic contrast between English and Japanese: English sentence-modifying clauses may follow or precede the main clause that they modify, while their Japanese counterparts must always precede it (see Unit 4).

If you want to add a reason after the effect or consequence, you must provide it as a separate sentence. In this case, the copula verb *da* follows *kara*, though it might be dropped in very casual speech. (See Unit 6 for the various forms of *da*.)

目薬をさしました。目が赤かったからです。 [speaking politely]

*megusuri o sashimashita. me ga akakatta kara desu*

“I applied eye drops. That’s because my eyes were red.”

目薬をさした。目が赤かったからだ。 [writing assertively]

*megusuri o sashita. me ga akakatta kara da*

“I applied eye drops. That’s because my eyes were red.”

目薬をさした。目が赤かった**から**。 [speaking casually]  
*megusuri o sashita. me ga akakatta kara*  
 “I applied eye drops. (That’s) because my eyes were red.”

*Kara da* and its variations are often used in response to questions containing *dooshite* “why.”

A: どうして目薬をさしたんですか。  
*dooshite megusuri o sashita n desu ka*  
 “Why did you apply the eye drops?”

B: 目が赤かった**から**です。  
*me ga akakatta kara desu*  
 “That’s because my eyes were red.”

## Giving and soliciting explanations with *n(o) da*

The ending *n(o) da* (see Unit 11) also allows you to add an explanation in the form of a separate sentence. *No* in this construction is the nominalizer *no*, which is generally used for personally observed events or situations. This has a functional consequence. The ending *n(o) da* provides an explanation of an **observed** situation. For instance, you may be walking with a toothbrush in your hand. A neighbor might give you an inquisitive look. You can use *n(o) da* to explain the situation in the following manner.

歯医者に行った**んです**。 [speaking politely]  
*haisha ni itta n desu*  
 “I have been to the dentist, you see.”

If speaking casually with your friend, you can also say the following:

歯医者に行った**んだ**。 [speaking casually]  
*haisha ni itta n da*  
 “I have been to the dentist, you see.”

You can also delete *da*. However, because you cannot end a sentence with *n* alone, you must use *no* in this case.

歯医者に行った**の**。 [speaking casually, feminine]  
*haisha ni itta no*  
 “I have been to the dentist, you see.”

This last option is considered more feminine than the *n da* option.

Yes-no question counterparts of such sentences mean that the inquiry is based on the speaker's personal observation of the situation. Speakers usually use them to seek confirmation of their assumption and to implicitly ask for further details.

歯医者に行ったんですか。 [yes-no question]

*haisha ni itta n desu ka*

"Is it that you have been to the dentist?"

The responses often meet such expectations with additional information.

A: 歯医者に行ったんですか。

*haisha ni itta n desu ka*

"Is it that you have been to the dentist?"

B: ええ、昨日から歯が痛くて...

*ee, kinoo kara ha ga itakute*

"Yes, my tooth has been hurting since yesterday..."

Wh-questions with *n(o) da* convey that the speaker is very concerned or curious.

どこが痛いんですか。

[wh-question]

*doko ga itai n desu ka*

"Which part hurts?"

いつから痛いんですか。

[wh-question]

*itsu kara itai n desu ka*

"Since when has it been hurting?"

Use the same pattern to answer them.

A: どこが痛いんですか。

*doko ga itai n desu ka*

"Which part hurts?"

B: 首が痛いんです。

*kubi ga itai n desu*

"My neck hurts."

A: いつから痛いんですか。

*itsu kara itai n desu ka*

"Since when has it been hurting?"

B: 二日前から痛いんです。

*futsuka mae kara itai n desu*

"I have had the pain since two days ago."



The ending *n(o) da* is functionally similar to *kara da* “that’s because . . .,” but it is preferred to *kara da* when giving an excuse to accompany an apology (see Unit 25 for apologies). For example, if you are asked by a teacher why you failed to complete your homework, you should use the first of the following two sentences.

- すみません。気持ちが悪かったんです。  
*sumimasen. kimochi ga warukatta n desu*  
“I am sorry. I felt sick, you see.”
- × すみません。気持ちが悪かったからです。  
*sumimasen. kimochi ga warukatta kara desu*  
“I am sorry. That’s because I felt sick.”

First, this is because *n(o) da* is devoid of the tone of rationalization that *kara da* produces. Second, by directing the listener’s attention to the observable situation, the speaker can hope to successfully evoke the listener’s sympathy. (See Units 15 and 21 for the use of *n(o) da* for similar purposes.)

However, here is a word of caution. Avoid a sentence such as the following, which contains both *n(o) da* and *kara*.

気持ちが悪かったんですから。  
*kimochi ga warukatta n desu kara*  
“Because I felt sick (as you should know).”

The ending *n(o) da* (observable situation) combined with *kara* (rationalization) means that the circumstance is so compelling that the consequence is self-explanatory. By using the combination, you may end up unintentionally implying that you are irritated.

## Forms preceding *kara da* and *n(o) da*

Generally speaking, *kara da* and *n(o) da* follow a predicate in its plain form. However, in front of *n(o) da*, the non-past form of a *na*-adjective or noun ends in *na* (instead of the expected *da*). The following table summarizes the patterns.

## [Forms of predicates before *kara da* and *n(o) da*]

Verb	効く <i>kiku</i>	からだ <i>kara da</i>	“That’s because it is effective.”
<i>I</i> -adjective	強い <i>tsuyoi</i>		“That’s because it is strong.”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	安全だ <i>anzen da</i>		“That’s because it is safe.”
Noun	かぜだ <i>kaze da</i>		“That’s because it is a common cold.”

Verb	効く <i>kiku</i>	のだ <i>no da</i>	“It is effective, as you can see.”
<i>I</i> -adjective	強い <i>tsuyoi</i>		“It is strong, as you can see.”
<i>Na</i> -adjective	安全な <i>anzen na</i>		“It is safe, as you can see.”
Noun	かぜな <i>kaze na</i>		“It is a common cold, as you can see.”

## Giving personal reasons with *no de*

The *te*-form of *n(o) da*, *n(o) de*, is also used to introduce the reason before the conclusion within a single sentence.

のどが痛いので、話したくない。

*nodo ga itai no de, hanashitaku nai*

“Because my throat hurts, I don’t want to talk.”

今日、テストだったんで、昨日は寝なかった。

*kyoo, tesuto datta n de, kinoo wa nenakatta*

“Because I had a test today, I didn’t sleep yesterday.”

Functionally, *no de* is similar to *kara*. The same sentences can be rephrased in the following manner.

のどが痛いから、話したくない。

*nodo ga itai kara, hanashitaku nai*

“Because my throat hurts, I don’t want to talk.”

今日、テストだったから、昨日は寝なかった。  
*kyoo, tesuto datta kara, kinoo wa nenakatta*  
“Because I had a test today, I didn’t sleep yesterday.”

One difference between *no de* and *kara* is that *no de* provides more personal reasons than *kara*. Also, since *no de* is the *te*-form of *n(o) da*, the preceding forms follow the pattern we saw previously for *n(o) da* rather than *kara da*.

[Forms of predicates before *no de*]

Verb	効く <i>kiku</i>	ので <i>no de</i>	“Because it is effective,…”
I-adjective	強い <i>tsuyoi</i>		“Because it is strong,…”
Na-adjective	安全な <i>anzen na</i>		“Because it is safe,…”
Noun	かぜな <i>kaze na</i>		“Because it is a common cold,…”

Do not attempt to use *\*no de da* in a manner parallel to *kara da*. Just use *n(o) da* if you want to append a reason.

Exercise 23.1

Connect the paired sentences with *te*-forms.

- 1 頭が痛い。勉強できない。  
*atama ga itai. benkyoo-dekinai*  
“I have a headache. I cannot study.”
- 2 熱が高かった。苦しかった。  
*netsu ga takakatta. kurushikatta*  
“My temperature was high. I had a hard time.”
- 3 鼻がつまった。息がしにくい。  
*hana ga tsumatta. iki ga shinikui*  
“My nose is stuffed up. It is difficult to breathe.”
- 4 元気になった。学校に行った。  
*genki ni natta. gakkoo ni itta*  
“I recovered. I went to school.”

- 5 健康だ。うれしい。  
*kenkoo da. ureshii*  
 “I am healthy. I am happy.”

## Exercise 23.2

Translate the following sentences into English.

- 1 歯が痛くて、歯医者に行きました。  
*ha ga itakute, haisha ni ikimashita*
- 2 毎日テストがあつて大変です。  
*mainichi tesuto ga atte taihen desu*
- 3 今週は、仕事がたくさんあつて忙しかったです。  
*konshuu wa, shigoto ga takusan atte isogashikatta desu*

## Exercise 23.3

How would you express the following in Japanese?

- 1 Because I have a headache, I will go to bed early.
- 2 Because I took medicine, my temperature went down.
- 3 Because I feel sick, I will not eat.
- 4 I will stop (using) the medicine. That's because it is not very effective.
- 5 I get a stuffed nose frequently. That's because I have an allergy.

## Exercise 23.4

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form. Insert Ø if nothing is needed.

- 1 病気 ( ) ので、今日は学校を休みます。  
*byooki ( ) no de, kyoo wa gakkoo o yasumimasu*  
 “Because I am sick, I will not go to school today.”
- 2 インタビュー ( ) から、今日はスーツを着て行きます。  
*intabyuu ( ) kara, kyoo wa suutsu o kite ikimasu*  
 “Because I have an interview, I will wear a suit today.”
- 3 私の歯は、父が見ます。歯医者 ( ) のです。  
*watashi no ha wa chichi ga mimasu. haisha ( ) no desu*  
 “My father checks my teeth. That's because he is a dentist.”

- 4 今日は学校を休みます。頭が痛い ( ) んです。  
*kyoo wa gakkoo o yasumimasu. atama ga itai ( ) n desu*  
 “I will not go to school today. I have a headache, you see.”
- 5 熱がある ( ) から、今日は学校を休みます。  
*netsu ga aru ( ) kara, kyoo wa gakkoo o yasumimasu*  
 “Because I have a fever, I will not go to school today.”

## Exercise 23.5

Read the following blog entry by Mr. Shimizu and answer the questions below using *kara desu*. You can check the meaning of the passage in the answer key.

二月十七日（火曜日）

今日は、午前八時の新幹線で名古屋を出たのだが、大雪で遅れて、やっと三時にりょうに帰って来た。クラスに三十分遅れて出た。大変な一日で、本当につかれた。アルバイト先には、新幹線から連絡して、キャンセルできるから行かなかった。晩ご飯を作る時間がなかったから、ハンバーガーを買って食べた。

*nigatsu juushichinichi (kayoobi)*

*kyoo wa, gozen hachiji no shinkansen de nagoya o deta no da ga, ooyuki de okurete, yatto sanji ni ryoo ni kaette kita. kurasu ni sanjuppun okurete deta. taihen na ichinichi de, hontoo ni tsukareta. arubaito-saki ni wa, shinkansen kara renraku-shite, kyanseru-dekita kara ikanakatta. bangohan o tsukuru jikan ga nakatta kara, hanbaagaa o katte tabeta*

- 1 清水さんはどうしてクラスに遅くなったんですか。  
*shimizu-san wa dooshite kurasu ni osoku natta n desu ka*
- 2 清水さんはどうしてアルバイトに行かなかったのですか。  
*shimizu-san wa dooshite arubaito ni ikanakatta no desu ka*
- 3 清水さんはどうして晩ご飯にハンバーガーを食べたのですか。  
*shimizu-san wa dooshite bangohan ni hanbaagaa o tabeta no desu ka*

# UNIT 24



## Describing giving and receiving

Giving gifts plays many important roles in Japanese culture and society. Not only are there numerous special days and occasions when people are expected to give or exchange gifts, but people also closely keep track of these exchanges. Reflecting this socio-cultural emphasis on gift-giving, the Japanese language is rich in expressions relating to the acts of giving and receiving. In this unit, we will study the basic and auxiliary uses of the verbs of giving and receiving.

### Verbs of giving

The Japanese language has several different verbs for giving. Among them, two are basic: *ageru* for outward giving and *kureru* for inward giving. When the gift moves away from the speaker, *ageru* is used. *Kureru* is used when the gift moves closer to the speaker, as illustrated in the following table.

#### [Outward giving and inward giving]

<i>ageru</i> “give outward”:	speaker/giver → →  →
<i>kureru</i> “give inward”:	speaker ← ←  ← giver

We will discuss each verb in more detail next.

#### Outward giving: *ageru*

First, *ageru* is used to describe the act of giving by the speaker or by the speaker’s in-group member (e.g., family members, colleagues) to an out-group member (e.g., non-family members, customers). The subject of *ageru* the giver, is marked by the particle *ga* (or *wa*). The recipient is marked by the particle *ni*.

私が妹にプレゼントをあげた。

*watashi ga imooto ni purezento o ageta*

“I gave a present to my younger sister.”

弟が友だちにプレゼントをあげた。

*otooto ga tomodachi ni purezento o ageta*

“My younger brother gave a present to his friend.”

In addition, *ageru* is the default when the giver and the receiver are at about the same social distance from the speaker.

弟が妹にプレゼントをあげた。

*otooto ga imooto ni purezento o ageta*

“My younger brother gave my younger sister a present.”

### *Inward giving: kureru*

*Kureru* also means “give,” but the gift must move closer to the speaker in the opposite direction of *ageru*. Again, the giver-subject is marked by the particle *ga* (or *wa*), and the recipient by the particle *ni*.

弟が私にプレゼントをくれた。

*otooto ga watashi ni purezento o kureta*

“My younger brother gave me a present.”

友だちが弟にプレゼントをくれた。


*tomodachi ga otooto ni purezento o kureta*

“My friend gave my younger brother a present.”

## Verbs of receiving

The Japanese language has a verb for receiving, *morau* “receive (a gift or favor),” which is different from the English verb “receive” in two respects. First, the meaning of *morau* is “inward receiving.” The transacted object must move toward the speaker.

### [Inward receiving: *morau*]

*morau* “receive”: speaker/receiver ← ←  ←

僕は妹{から/に}プレゼントをもらった。

*boku wa imooto {kara/ni} purezento o moratta*

“I received a present from my sister.”

母が会社から賞状をもらった。

*haha ga kaisha kara shoojoo o moratta*

“My mother received a certificate of distinction from her company.”

In the preceding examples, the receiver-subject is marked by *ga* or *wa*. The source of the transacted object is marked by *kara* “from.” In addition, if the transaction is an interpersonal one, you can also use *ni* instead of *kara* to mark the source. Here, the *ni*-marked person is a cooperative participant in the interpersonal transaction (see Unit 5).

Unlike the *ageru-kureru* pair, *morau* is not paired with a verb indicating movement in the opposite direction. That is, there is no verb of “outward receiving.” If you want to describe a situation where you are a gift-giver, describe it as a giving event, using *ageru* and marking yourself as the subject.

僕は弟にプレゼントをあげた。  
*boku wa ototoo ni purezento o ageta*  
“I gave my younger brother a present.”

Or use a direction- and favor-neutral verb such as *uketoru* “receive,” as in the following.

弟は僕のプレゼントを受け取った。  
*ototoo wa boku no purezento o uketotta*  
“My younger brother received my present.”

Besides being an inward receiving verb, *morau* is different from the English verb “receive” in one more respect. The verb *morau*, unlike the English verb “receive,” specifically indicates that the speaker considers the transacted object to be beneficial.

## Auxiliary uses of verbs of giving and receiving

The verbs of giving and receiving are also used as auxiliary verbs in combination with *te*-forms in the form of *-te ageru*, *-te kureru*, and *-te morau*.

### *-te ageru and -te kureru*

The combination of the *te*-form of a verb and *ageru* means that the speaker or someone socially close to the speaker carries out a beneficial action for someone away from the speaker. In other words, the meaning of *-te ageru* is “outward favor.”

私が[弟に本を読んで]あげた。  
*watashi ga [ototoo ni hon o yonde] ageta*  
“I did my brother the favor of reading him a book.”



弟が[友だちに本を貸して]あげた。

*otooto ga [tomodachi ni hon o kashite] ageta*

“My brother did his friend the favor of lending him a book.”

Conversely, *-te kureru* adds the sense that a beneficial action is carried out for someone closer to the speaker or the speaker him-/herself. In other words, *-te kureru* means “inward favor.”

小さいころよく父が[私に本を読んで]くれた。

*chiisai koro yoku chichi ga [watashi ni hon o yonde] kureta*

“When I was small, my father often did me the favor of reading me a book.”

友だちが[弟に本を貸して]くれた。

*tomodachi ga [otooto ni hon o kashite] kureta*

“A friend of mine did me/my brother the favor of lending my brother/him a book.”

As in the case of the basic uses of these verbs, *ageru* is the default when the giver and the receiver of a favor are both at roughly the same social distance from the speaker.

妹は[弟に本を貸して]あげた。

*imooto wa [otooto ni hon o kashite] ageta*

“My younger sister loaned a book to my younger brother.”

As we have seen so far, *-te ageru* and *-te kureru* inherit the directionality of the verbs *ageru* and *kureru*. However, unlike *ageru* and *kureru*, *-te ageru* and *-te kureru* do not allow recipients of the favor to be clearly indicated by the particle *ni*. The only time *ni* is allowed is when the main verb itself selects a *ni*-marked recipient.

- 妹にまんがの本を買った。

*imooto ni manga no hon o katta*

“I bought my younger sister a comic book.”

- [妹にまんがの本を買って]あげた。

*[imooto ni manga no hon o katte] ageta*

“I bought my younger sister a comic book (for her).”

If you cannot use a *ni*-marked recipient without *-te ageru* or *-te kureru*, you cannot use one with *-te ageru* or *-te kureru* either. For instance, the following is intended to mean “I fixed a computer for a friend.” However, because you cannot say “I fixed a friend a computer,” you cannot say “I fixed a friend a computer (for him)” either.

- × 友だちにコンピューターを**なおした**。  
*tomodachi ni konpyuutaa o **naoshita***  
(intended: “I repaired a computer for my friend.”)
- × [友だちにコンピューターを**なおして**]あげた。  
[*tomodachi ni konpyuutaa o **naoshite***] *ageta*  
(intended: “I repaired a computer for my friend.”)

This does not mean that you cannot use *naosu* “fix” with *-te ageru* or *-te kureru*. If the context allows you to drop the recipient, or if you mark the recipient with *no tame ni* “for the sake of,” you can use verbs of this type with *-te ageru* or *-te kureru*.

A: 池田さんに何かしてあげたの？  
*Ikeda-san ni nanika shite ageta no*  
“Did you do something for Ms. Ikeda?”

B: うん。コンピューターを**なおして**あげた。  
*un. konpyuutaa o naoshite ageta*  
“Yeah, I repaired a computer (for her).”

友だち**のために**コンピューターを**なおして**あげた。  
*tomodachi **no tame ni** konpyuutaa o naoshite ageta*  
“I repaired a computer for my friend.”

## **-te morau**

The verb of receiving, *morau*, is also used as an auxiliary verb in combination with *te*-forms in the form of *-te morau*. The auxiliary use of *morau* adds the sense that the speaker or someone socially close to the speaker receives the favor of someone doing something.

僕はお父さんに[手伝って]**もらった**。  
*boku wa otoosan ni [tetsudatte] **moratta***  
“I had my father to help me. (And I was grateful.)”

私は友だちに[本を貸して]**もらった**。  
*watashi wa tomodachi ni [hon o kashite] **moratta***  
“I received the favor of my friend loaning me a book.”

お母さんが子どもに[郵便局へ行って]**もらった**。  
*okaasan ga kodomo ni [yuubinkyoku e itte] **moratta***  
“The mother asked her children to go to the post office for her.”

The receiver of a favor is marked by the topic particle *wa* or the subject particle *ga*. The one who does the beneficial action is marked by *ni*. Unlike

in the *-te ageru/-te kureru* construction, this *ni* is not limited to those selected by the main verb. This use of the particle *ni* is unique to the auxiliary use of *morau*.

## Honorific and humble counterparts

We saw that *ageru* “give” and *morau* “receive” can take the speaker as the subject, while *kureru* “give” cannot. In this sense, *ageru* and *morau* are speaker-centered. Some speaker-centered verbs have humble counterparts (see Unit 10). Speaker-centered *ageru* and *morau* likewise have humble counterparts, *sashiageru* and *itadaku* respectively.

私は先生にフランスのおみやげをさしあげました。  
*watashi wa sensee ni furansu no omiyage o sashiagemashita*  
 “I gave my teacher a souvenir from France.”

私は先生に中国のおみやげをいただきました。  
*watashi wa sensee ni chuugoku no omiyage o itadakimashita*  
 “I received from my teacher a souvenir from China.”

Conversely, *kureru*, which has someone socially and relatively distant from the speaker as the subject, has an honorific counterpart, *kudasaru*.

先生は私に日本のおみやげをくださいました。  
*sensee wa watashi ni nihon no omiyage o kudasaimashita*  
 “My teacher gave me a souvenir from Japan.”

You can also use these verbs as auxiliary verbs.

私は先生に地図を書いてさしあげました。  
*watashi wa sensee ni chizu o kaite sashiagemashita*  
 “I drew a map for my teacher.”

私は先生に推薦状を書いていただきました。  
*watashi wa sensee ni suisenjoo o kaite itadakimashita*  
 “I received the favor of my teacher writing me a letter of recommendation.”

先生は推薦状を書いてくださいました。  
*sensee wa suisenjoo o kaite kudasaimashita*  
 “My teacher did me the favor of writing a letter of recommendation.”

It should be noted that the combination *-te sashiageru* is less frequently used for fear that it may sound too ingratiating.

## Compatibility with speaker-centered expressions

Speaker-centered *ageru* and *morau* and their auxiliary counterparts can be combined with other speaker-centered expressions such as *-tai* “want to” (see Unit 15) or *-(yo)ol-mashoo* “let’s ...!” (see Unit 19).

困っている人を助けてあげたい。  
*komatte iru hito o tasukete agetai*  
“I want to help people in distress.”

何を買ってあげようか。  
*nani o katte ageyoo ka*  
“What shall I buy for you?”

たくさんの人にショーに来てもらいたいです。  
*takusan no hito ni shoo ni kite moraitai desu*  
“I want a lot of people to come to the show.”

ボーイにスーツケースを運んでもらいましょう。  
*booi ni suutsukeesu o hakonde moraimashoo*  
“Let’s ask the bellboy to carry our suitcases.”

No such option is available for *kureru* and its auxiliary counterpart.

## Summary

The following table summarizes the verbs we have covered in this unit.

### [Summary of giving and receiving verbs]

	Giving		Receiving
	Outward (speaker-centered)	Inward	Inward (speaker-centered)
Neutral	あげる <i>ageru</i>	くれる <i>kureru</i>	もらう <i>morau</i>
Honorific		くださる <i>kudasaru</i>	
Humble	さしあげる <i>sashiageru</i>		いただく <i>itadaku</i>
With <i>-tai</i> , <i>-(yo)o</i> , <i>-mashoo</i>	○		○

## Exercise 24.1

Paying attention to the particles associated with the people, choose the appropriate verb of giving (outward or inward?). You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 母が私にプレゼントを{あげた/くれた}。  
*haha ga watashi ni purezento o {ageta/kureta}*
- 2 私に母がプレゼントを{あげた/くれた}。  
*watashi ni haha ga purezento o {ageta/kureta}*
- 3 私が妹に時計を{あげた/くれた}。  
*watashi ga imooto ni tokee o {ageta/kureta}*
- 4 妹が友だちにスカーフを{あげた/くれた}。  
*imooto ga tomodachi ni sukaaфу o {ageta/kureta}*
- 5 妹の友だちが私に花を{あげた/くれた}。  
*imooto no tomodachi ga watashi ni hana o {ageta/kureta}*

## Exercise 24.2

Choose the appropriate verb. You can check the meaning of each sentence in the answer key.

- 1 妹に私が本を{あげた/くれた}。  
*imooto ni watashi ga hon o {ageta/kureta}*
- 2 林さんに私はおみやげを{くれた/もらった}。  
*hayashi-san ni watashi wa omiyage o {kureta/moratta}*
- 3 私が父に携帯を{くれた/もらった}。  
*watashi ga chichi ni keetai o {kureta/moratta}*
- 4 母がおばにネックレスを{あげた/くれた}。  
*haha ga oba ni nekkuresu o {ageta/kureta}*
- 5 父が私にプレゼントを{あげた/くれた/もらった}。  
*chichi ga watashi ni purezento o {ageta/kureta/moratta}*

## Exercise 24.3

Choose the appropriate verb and translate the sentence into English.

- 1 ルームメートが私のかぜ薬を薬屋で買って{あげた/くれた}。  
*ruumumeeto ga watashi no kazegusuri o kusuriya de katte {agetakureta}*
- 2 私の昼ご飯を姉が妹と作って{あげた/くれた}。  
*watashi no hirugohan o ane ga imooto to tsukutte {agetakureta}*
- 3 先生がぼくの宿題をチェックして{さしあげた/くださった}。  
*sensee ga boku no shukudai o chekku-shite {sashiagetakudasatta}*
- 4 私はルームメートに部屋をそうじして{くれた/もらった}。  
*watashi wa ruumumeeto ni heya o sooji-shite {kuretamoratta}*
- 5 父に本を読んで{くれた/もらった}。  
*chichi ni hon o yonde {kuretamoratta}*
- 6 妹は弟に嫌いな野菜を食べて{あげた/くれた/もらった}。  
*imooto wa ootoo ni kirai na yasai o tabete {agetakuretamoratta}*

## Exercise 24.4

Insert the appropriate particles. Do not use the topic particle *wa*.

- 1 私( )弟( )宿題を見てあげた。  
*watashi ( ) ootoo ( ) shukudai o mite ageta*  
“I checked my younger brother’s homework.”
- 2 山崎さん( )私の日本語の手紙をなおしてくれた。  
*yamazaki-san ( ) watashi no nihongo no tegami o naoshite kureta*  
“Ms. Yamazaki kindly edited my Japanese letter.”
- 3 私( )山崎さん( )難しい手紙を読んでもらった。  
*watashi ( ) yamazaki-san ( ) muzukashii tegami o yonde moratta*  
“I asked Ms. Yamazaki to read a difficult letter for me.”
- 4 はじめに誰( )してもらいましょうか。  
*hajime ni dare ( ) shite moraimashoo ka*  
“Who shall we ask to do it first?”

## Exercise 24.5

Fill in the blanks to describe the pictures.



- 1 父に私の自転車を\_\_\_\_\_。(なおす)  
*chichi ni watashi no jitensha o \_\_\_\_\_ (naosu)*
- 2 子どもの時、母は絵本を\_\_\_\_\_。(読む)  
*kodomo no toki, haha wa ehon o \_\_\_\_\_ (yomu)*
- 3 私はリーさんに病院を\_\_\_\_\_。(教える)  
*watashi wa rii-san ni byooiin o \_\_\_\_\_ (oshieru)*
- 4 スティーブンさんが私の荷物を\_\_\_\_\_。(持つ)  
*sutiibun-san ga watashi no nimotsu o \_\_\_\_\_ (motsu)*

# UNIT 25

## Apologizing and thanking

Knowing how to apologize for your mistakes and how to properly thank others for their kindness is essential in any society, but the actual manners vary across cultures. In this unit, we will study a few standard methods to accomplish these tasks in Japanese.

### Short expressions of apology and appreciation

If you have to apologize or express appreciation at the scene of the offense or act of kindness, you do not need to explain the reason. You can use short expressions such as the following.

***Sumimasen/suimasen*** “I am sorry (for the inconvenience)” is the most common expression used to thank, or apologize to, a stranger. It is used to thank a stranger for an act of kindness, such as giving up a seat on a train. It is also used when one causes minor inconveniences, such as when forcing one’s way through a crowded train or theater. You can also use this expression when you receive a gift or an act of kindness that you feel you are not entitled to.

***Arigatoo (gozaimasu)*** is used to thank for a gift, a token of appreciation, or recognition appropriate for an occasion. For instance, if you receive a gift at your wedding reception or if you are given an award, you should use this form.

***Shitsuree (-shimasu)*** “excuse me” is used when one is about to enter a superior’s office or a not-so-close acquaintance’s house. The past tense form *shitsuree-shimashita* is used when leaving.

***Gomen (nasai)*** “sorry” is used to apologize to family members or close friends for some minor infringement. For instance, when you are late for a date, or when you forget to do something for them.

***Otsukare-sama (deshita)*** “a hard day’s work” is used to acknowledge and appreciate each other’s work at the end of the day.

***Gokuroo-sama (deshita)*** “you completed a challenging task” is used by a senior person to acknowledge his/her junior’s accomplishment and thank him/her for it.



Some of these expressions are used in forming full apologies or thanks, as is discussed next.

Full apologies and thanks

When you try to offer full apologies or thanks in Japanese you might be tempted to pattern them after corresponding expressions in English.

- Sorry for not **being able to help you**.
- I am sorry **that I cannot help you**.
- Thank you for **helping me**.
- We appreciate **that you are helping us**.

The Japanese counterparts of these sentences involve the patterns of nominalization that we studied in Unit 11.

- お手伝いできないのを心ぐるしく思います。  
*otetsudai dekinai no o kokorogurushiku omoimasu*  
“It pains me to think **that I cannot help you**.”
- 協力して下さったことに感謝の意を表します。  
*kyooryoku-shite kudasatta koto ni kansha no i o hyooshimasu*  
“I would like to express my gratitude for **your having helped us**.”

However, such patterns are reserved for extremely formal situations. In the following section we will study a more common alternative, namely the use of *te*-forms.

Apologizing with *te*-forms

In order to apologize for what you have done, state the circumstance using a *te*-form. Immediately follow it with an expression of apology such as *sumimasen* or a similar expression.

[Apology]

Circumstance	Apology
...て -te	すみません/ごめん(なさい) <i>sumimasen/gomen (nasai)</i>

レポートが遅れて、すみません。

**repooto ga okurete, sumimasen**

“I am sorry that my report was late.”

Using this pattern, you can also apologize for the action of someone for whom you feel responsible.

子どもがうるさくて、すみません。

**kodomo ga urusakute, sumimasen**

“I am sorry that my children are noisy.”

On the other end of the spectrum is a formal apology such as the following.

お返事が遅れて、申し訳ありません。

[polite]

**ohenji ga okurete, mooshiwake arimasen**

“I apologize for my late reply.”

お返事が遅れて、申し訳ございません。

[very polite]

**ohenji ga okurete, mooshiwake gozaimasen**

“I sincerely apologize for my late reply.”

*Mooshiwake arimasen/gozaimasen* literally means “there is no excuse.”

## Giving excuses

Apologies are often accompanied by explanations or excuses that are framed with the (*no*) *da* ending (see Units 11 and 23).

遅くなって、すみません。飛行機が遅れたんです。

**osoku natte, sumimasen. hikooki ga okureta n desu**

“I am sorry for being late. My plane was delayed.”

電話しなくて、ごめん。忙しかったんだ。

**denwa-shinakute, gomen. isogashikatta n da**

“Sorry for not calling you. I was busy.”

## Thanking with *te*-forms

Thanking someone can take a form similar to offering an apology. Spell out the favorable action using the auxiliary verb of inward giving *kureru* (see Unit 22). Immediately follow it with an expression of gratitude.

[Thanks]

Circumstance	Expression of gratitude
... てくれて -te kurete	ありがとう(ございます) arigatoo (gozaimasu)

The auxiliary verb *kureru* is used to thank someone casually.

教えてくれて、ありがとう。  
*oshiete kurete, arigatoo*  
“Thank you for telling me.”

来てくれて、ありがとう。  
*kite kurete, arigatoo*  
“Thank you for coming.”

To thank someone formally, use *kudasaru* instead of *kureru*, and *ariga-tooo gozaimasu* instead of *arigatoo*.

教えてくださって、ありがとうございます。  
*oshiete kudasatte, arigatoo gozaimasu*  
“Thank you for informing me.”

おいでくださって、ありがとうございます。  
*oide kudasatte, arigatoo gozaimasu*  
“Thank you for coming.”

Using past-tense forms for apologizing and thanking

The examples so far end with non-past tense forms. You will also hear apologies ending with a past tense form.

遅くなって、すみませんでした。  
*osoku natte, sumimasen deshita*  
“I am sorry for being late.”

昨日来なくて、すみませんでした。  
*kinoo konakute, sumimasen deshita*  
“I am sorry for not coming yesterday.”

お返事が遅れて、申し訳ございませんでした。  
*ohenji ga okurete, mooshiwake gozaimasen deshita*  
“I sincerely apologize for my late reply.”

先日は、お時間がとれなくて、大変失礼いたしました。  
*senjitsu wa, ojikan ga torenakute, taihen shitsuree itashimashita*  
 “I am very sorry that I didn’t have time for you the other day.”

Such apologies do not mean that the speaker was sorry in the past. Instead, they mean that the speaker apologizes for an event that took place in the past. The non-past tense form *sumimasen*, in contrast, is used when the event has immediate bearing on the current situation either because it has occurred very recently or is still in progress. For instance, when you arrive late to a class, use the non-past tense option.

遅くなって、すみません。  
*osoku natte, sumimasen*  
 “I am sorry for being late.”

At the end of the class, the past tense option is more appropriate.

遅くなって、すみませんでした。  
*osoku natte, sumimasen deshita*  
 “I am sorry that I was late.”

This distinction, however, is a very subtle one and may not always be made. In fact, if you use apology forms such as *gomen* and *gomen nasai*, which lack explicit tense information, the distinction is neutralized altogether.

遅くなって、ごめん(なさい)。  
*osoku natte, gomen (nasai)*  
 “Sorry for being late.”

昨日は、遅くなって、ごめん(なさい)。  
*kinoo wa, osoku natte, gomen (nasai)*  
 “Sorry for being late yesterday.”

As in the case of apologizing, use the non-past tense when the action you are thanking for is of relevance to the present situation. At the conclusion of an event or for an event in the past, use the past tense version. *Irashite* is a variant of *irasshate*.

いらしてくださって、ありがとうございます。  
*irashite kudasatte, arigatoo gozaimasu*  
 “Thank you for coming.”

昨日は、いらしてくださって、本当にありがとうございました。  
*kinoo wa, irashite kudasatte, hontoo ni arigatoo gozaimashita*  
 “Thank you very much for coming over yesterday.”

If you use the more casual counterpart *arigatoo*, this distinction is neutralized, and you can use the following both at the beginning and at the conclusion of an interaction or event.

来てくれて、ありがとう。

*kite kurete, arigatoo*

“Thank you for coming.”

昨日は、来てくれて、ありがとう。

*kinoo wa kite kurete, arigatoo*

“Thank you for coming over yesterday.”

## Use of apology for thanking

You can, in effect, thank others by acknowledging the trouble they have gone to. In some such cases, you might frame the trouble as something you have caused. If so, you must conclude your sentence with an expression of apology rather than gratitude.

ご面倒をお願いして、すみません。

*gomendoo o onegai-shite, sumimasen*

“I am sorry for asking you to take the trouble.”

お手間をかけて、すみません。

*otema o kakete, sumimasen*

“I am sorry for having caused you the trouble.”

## Exercise 25.1

Choose from the list the appropriate expression to use in each situation.

[ありがとうございます *arigatoo gozaimasu*, ごめん(なさい) *gomen nasai*, すみません *sumimasen*, 失礼します *shitsuree-shimasu*, お疲れさま *otsukare-sama*]

- 1 You must get to the door in a crowded train.
- 2 You see a coworker leaving for the day after a long meeting.
- 3 You are entering your teacher’s office.
- 4 You receive a medal at a sports event.
- 5 You are late for a date with your girlfriend/boyfriend.
- 6 A stranger offers to carry your luggage up the stairs.

## Exercise 25.2

Choose from the list the appropriate expression you should use in each situation.

[ありがとうございます *arigatoo gozaimasu*, ありがとうございました *arigatoo gozaimashita*, すみません *sumimasen*, すみませんでした *sumimasen deshita*]

- 1 You are working at a store. You see a customer leaving.
- 2 You are working at an art gallery. A customer tells you that she wants to buy a painting.
- 3 You accidentally bump into someone in a crowded station.
- 4 You leave your teacher's office after receiving a letter of recommendation that you had previously asked for.
- 5 A customer previously complained about some inconvenience. You finally fix the situation and apologize.

## Exercise 25.3

How would you say the following to a friend in Japanese?

- 1 Thank you for showing it to me.
- 2 Thank you for going (somewhere) with me.
- 3 Sorry for being late.
- 4 Sorry for forgetting to call you.

# APPENDIX A

## Sound patterns of counters

### Non-native counters

Numeral expressions, known as quantifiers, consist of a number and a counter. Many counters in modern Japanese are of foreign origin. The manner in which basic numbers combine with such non-native counters largely depends on the initial sound of each counter. The following types are the most basic. Learn further variations after mastering these.

#### [Type 1]

A counter that begins with a voiced consonant (*b, d, z, g, m, n, w, y* or *r*) or a vowel (*a, i, u, e* or *o*) is simply added to a number. This is the same for *f-* and *h-* initial counters of Western origin.

	“second” 秒 <i>-byoo</i>	“car, machine” 台 <i>-dai</i>	“ten thousand” 万 <i>-man</i>	“liter” リットル <i>-rittoru</i>
1	<i>ichi-byoo</i>	<i>ichi-dai</i>	<i>ichi-man</i>	<i>ichi-rittoru</i>
2	<i>ni-byoo</i>	<i>ni-dai</i>	<i>ni-man</i>	<i>ni-rittoru</i>
3	<i>san-byoo</i>	<i>san-dai</i>	<i>san-man</i>	<i>san-rittoru</i>
4	<b><i>yon-byoo</i></b>	<b><i>yon-dai</i></b>	<b><i>yon-man</i></b>	<b><i>yon-rittoru</i></b>
5	<i>go-byoo</i>	<i>go-dai</i>	<i>go-man</i>	<i>go-rittoru</i>
6	<i>roku-byoo</i>	<i>roku-dai</i>	<i>roku-man</i>	<i>roku-rittoru</i>
7	<b><i>nana-byoo</i></b>	<b><i>nana-dai</i></b>	<b><i>nana-man</i></b>	<b><i>nana-rittoru</i></b>

Note that the native number *yon* is used for 4. The Sino-Japanese counterpart *shi* is often avoided because it is homophonous with the word for “death.” Also note that *nana* is preferred to *shichi* for 7.

**[Type 2]**

When an *s*-initial or *t*-initial counter follows, the last part of the numbers 1, 8, and 10 assimilates to the initial consonant of the counter (orthographically represented by small *tsu*).

	“bound book” 冊 -satsu	“year (age)” 才 -sai	“centimeter” センチ -senchi	“point” 点 -ten
1	<i>is-satsu</i>	<i>is-sai</i>	<i>is-senchi</i>	<i>it-ten</i>
8	<i>has-satsu</i>	<i>has-sai</i>	<i>has-senchi</i>	<i>hat-ten</i>
10	<i>jus-satsu</i>	<i>jus-sai</i>	<i>jus-senchi</i>	<i>jut-ten</i>

**[Type 3]**

When a *k*-initial counter follows, the last part of the numbers 1, 6, 8 (optional), and 10 assimilates to the initial consonant of the counter (orthographically represented by small *tsu*). A *p*-initial counter largely follows this pattern.

	“frequency” 回 -kai	“piece” 個 -ko	“month” か月 -kagetsu	“page” ページ -peeji
1	<i>ik-kai</i>	<i>ik-ko</i>	<i>ik-kagetsu</i>	<i>ip-peeji</i>
6	<i>rok-kai</i>	<i>rok-ko</i>	<i>rok-kagetsu</i>	<i>rop-peeji</i>
8	<i>hak-kai</i>	<i>hak-ko</i>	<i>hak-kagetsu</i>	<i>hap-peeji</i>
10	<i>juk-kai</i>	<i>juk-ko</i>	<i>juk-kagetsu</i>	<i>jup-peeji</i>

**[Type 4]**

The native *f*- and *h*-initial counters show the most irregular pattern. The numbers follow the Type 3 pattern. *Hachi*, however, is rarely used for 8.

The initial sound of the counter alternates between *f*, *h*, *p*, and *b*. The *p*-option appears after *p*. The *b*-option appears after the number 3 and *nan*- “what.”



	“long object” 本 <i>-hon</i>	“small animal” 匹 <i>-hiki</i>	“cupful” 杯 <i>-hai</i>	“hundred” 百 <i>hyaku</i>
1	<i>ip-pon</i>	<i>ip-piki</i>	<i>ip-pai</i>	<i>hyaku</i>
3	<i>san-bon</i>	<i>san-biki</i>	<i>san-bai</i>	<i>san-byaku</i>
6	<i>rop-pon</i>	<i>rop-piki</i>	<i>rop-pai</i>	<i>rop-pyaku</i>
8	<i>hap-pon</i>	<i>hap-piki</i>	<i>hap-pai</i>	<i>hap-pyaku</i>
10	<i>jup-pon</i>	<i>jup-piki</i>	<i>jup-pai</i>	

Native counters

The basic counter in the native numeral system is *-tsu*. It is used to count small objects up to nine and is used in combination with native numbers. To count more than 10 items, use Sino-Japanese numbers in their bare forms.

- 1 *hito-tsu*
- 2 *futa-tsu*
- 3 *mit-tsu*
- 4 *yot-tsu*
- 5 *itsu-tsu*
- 6 *mut-tsu*
- 7 *nana-tsu*
- 8 *yat-tsu*
- 9 *kokono-tsu*
- 10 ***too***

Most native combinations are used to count only a very small number of items. For instance, in order to count people, start out with *hito-ri* “one person” and *futa-ri* “two people,” but then switch to the combination of a Sino-Japanese number and the Sino-Japanese counter *-nin*, as in *san-nin* “three people.”

# APPENDIX B

## List of useful time words

いつ when?	どのぐらい how long?
Years	
<b>[last year, this year, next year]</b> おとし <i>ototoshi</i> “the year before last” 去年 <i>kyonen</i> “last year” 今年 <i>kotoshi</i> “this year” 来年 <i>rainen</i> “next year” さ来年 <i>sarainen</i> “the year after next”	<b>[1 year, 2 years, ...]</b> 1年(間) <i>ichinen(kan)</i> 2年(間) <i>ninen(kan)</i> 3年(間) <i>sannen(kan)</i> 4年(間) <i>yonen(kan)</i> 5年(間) <i>gonen(kan)</i> 何年(間) <i>nannen(kan)</i> “how many years”

Months	
<b>[Names of the months]</b> 1月 <i>ichigatsu</i> “January” 2月 <i>nigatsu</i> “February” 3月 <i>sangatsu</i> “March” 4月 <i>shigatsu</i> “April” 5月 <i>gogatsu</i> “May” 6月 <i>rokugatsu</i> “June” 7月 <i>shichigatsu</i> “July” 8月 <i>hachigatsu</i> “August” 9月 <i>kugatsu</i> “September” 10月 <i>juugatsu</i> “October” 11月 <i>juuichigatsu</i> “November” 12月 <i>juunigatsu</i> “December” 何月 <i>nangatsu</i> “what month?”	<b>[1 month, 2 months, ...]</b> 1か月(間) <i>ikkagetsu(kan)</i> 2か月(間) <i>nikagetsu(kan)</i> 3か月(間) <i>sankagetsu(kan)</i> 4か月(間) <i>yonkagetsu(kan)</i> 5か月(間) <i>gokagetsu(kan)</i> 6か月(間) <i>rokkagetsu(kan)</i> 7か月(間) <i>nanakagetsu(kan)</i> 8か月(間) <i>hachikagetsu</i> or <i>hakkagetsu(kan)</i> 9か月(間) <i>kyuukagetsu(kan)</i> 10か月(間) <i>jukkagetsu(kan)</i> 何か月(間) <i>nankagetsu(kan)</i> “how many months”

Weeks	
<b>[last week, this week, next week]</b> 先々週 <i>sensenshuu</i> “the week before last” 先週 <i>senshuu</i> “last week” 今週 <i>konshuu</i> “this week” 来週 <i>raishuu</i> “next week” さ来週 <i>saraishuu</i> “the week after next”	<b>[1 week, 2 weeks, ...]</b> 1週間 <i>isshuukan</i> “1 week” 2週間 <i>nishuukan</i> “2 weeks” 3週間 <i>sanshuukan</i> “3 weeks” 8週間 <i>hachishuukan</i> or <i>hasshuukan</i> “8 weeks” 10週間 <i>jusshuukan</i> “10 weeks” 何週間 <i>nanshuukan</i> “how many weeks”

Days	
<b>[Days of the month]</b> 1日 <i>tsuitachi</i> 2日 <i>futsuka</i> 3日 <i>mikka</i> 4日 <i>yokka</i> 5日 <i>itsuka</i> 6日 <i>muika</i> 7日 <i>nanoka</i> 8日 <i>yooka</i> 9日 <i>kokonoka</i> 10日 <i>tooka</i> 11日 <i>juuichinichi</i> 12日 <i>juuninichi</i> ... 14日 <i>juuyokka</i> 20日 <i>hatsuka</i> 24日 <i>nijuuyokka</i> 29日 <i>nijuukunichi</i> 何日 <i>nannichi</i> おととい <i>ototoi</i> “the day before yesterday”, きのう <i>kinoo</i> “yesterday”, 今日 <i>kyoo</i> “today”, 明日 <i>ashita</i> “tomorrow”, あさって <i>asatte</i> “the day after tomorrow”	<b>[1 day, 2 days, 3 days, ...]</b> 1日 (*) <i>ichinichi</i> 2日 (間) <i>futsuka(kan)</i> 3日 (間) <i>mikka(kan)</i> 4日 (間) <i>yokka(kan)</i> 5日 (間) <i>itsuka(kan)</i> 6日 (間) <i>muika(kan)</i> 7日 (間) <i>nanoka(kan)</i> , 8日 (間) <i>yooka(kan)</i> 9日 (間) <i>kokonoka(kan)</i> 10日 (間) <i>tooka(kan)</i> 11日 (間) <i>juuichinichi(kan)</i> 12日 (間) <i>juuninichi(kan)</i> ... 14日 (間) <i>juuyokka(kan)</i> 20日 (間) <i>hatsuka(kan)</i> 24日 (間) <i>nijuuyokka(kan)</i> 29日 (間) <i>nijuukunichi(kan)</i> 何日 (間) <i>nannichi(kan)</i> “how many days” c.f. 2, 3日 <i>nisannichi</i> “two or three days”, 4, 5日 <i>shigonichi</i> “four or five days”

Days	
<b>[Days of the week]</b> 月曜日 <i>getsuyoobi</i> “Monday” 火曜日 <i>kayoobi</i> “Tuesday” 水曜日 <i>suiyoobi</i> “Wednesday” 木曜日 <i>mokuyoobi</i> “Thursday” 金曜日 <i>kin'yoobi</i> “Friday” 土曜日 <i>doyoobi</i> “Saturday” 日曜日 <i>nichiyoobi</i> “Sunday”	

Hours	
<b>[Hours of the day]</b> 1時 <i>ichiji</i> “1 o'clock” 2時 <i>niji</i> “2 o'clock” 3時 <i>sanji</i> “3 o'clock” 4時 <i>yoji</i> “4 o'clock” 9時 <i>kuji</i> “9 o'clock” 何時 <i>nanji</i> “what time”	<b>[1 hour, 2 hours, ...]</b> 1 時間 <i>ichijikan</i> 2 時間 <i>nijikan</i> 3 時間 <i>sanjikan</i> 4 時間 <i>yojikan</i> 9 時間 <i>kujikan</i> 何時間 <i>nanjikan</i> “how many hours”
Minutes	
<b>[Minutes of the hour]</b> 1分 <i>ippun</i> 2分 <i>nifun</i> 3分 <i>sanpun</i> 4分 <i>yonpun</i> 5分 <i>gofun</i> 6分 <i>roppun</i> 7分 <i>nanafun</i> 8分 <i>happun</i> 9分 <i>kyuufun</i> 10分 <i>juppun</i> 何分 <i>nanpun</i>	<b>[1 minute, 2 minutes, ...]</b> 1分(間) <i>ippun(kan)</i> 2分(間) <i>nifun(kan)</i> 3分(間) <i>sanpun(kan)</i> 4分(間) <i>yonpun(kan)</i> 5分(間) <i>gofun(kan)</i> 6分(間) <i>roppun(kan)</i> 7分(間) <i>nanafun(kan)</i> 8分(間) <i>happun(kan)</i> 9分(間) <i>kyuufun(kan)</i> 10分(間) <i>juppun(kan)</i> 何分(間) <i>nanpun(kan)</i>

# KEY TO EXERCISES

## Unit 1

### *Exercise 1.1*

- 1 *desuku*
- 2 *san furanshisuko*
- 3 *piichi*
- 4 *akusento*
- 5 *dotto komu*

### *Exercise 1.2*

- 1 two
- 2 three
- 3 two
- 4 three
- 5 four
- 6 six

## Unit 2

### *Exercise 2.1*

- 1 お
- 2 け
- 3 し, せ
- 4 た, てと
- 5 ひふへほ
- 6 ら, るれろ
- 7 な
- 8 し
- 9 く, つ
- 10 け, ね

- 11 お, の
- 12 きゅ
- 13 にや
- 14 しょ
- 15 ぎょ

### *Exercise 2.2*

- 1 こども
- 2 はやし
- 3 さかな
- 4 まつり
- 5 わらう
- 6 おんな
- 7 いった
- 8 ひやく
- 9 としょかん
- 10 とうきょう

### *Exercise 2.3*

- 1 table
- 2 knife
- 3 spoon
- 4 fork
- 5 napkin
- 6 cheese
- 7 hamburger
- 8 butter
- 9 pineapple
- 10 ice cream

### *Exercise 2.4*

- 1 (h) Brazil/Rio de Janeiro
- 2 (c) France/Paris
- 3 (g) Egypt/Cairo
- 4 (b) UK/London
- 5 (f) Italy/Rome
- 6 (e) Finland/Helsinki
- 7 (a) Indonesia/Jakarta
- 8 (d) Spain/Madrid

## Exercise 2.5

- 1 ドア
- 2 テスト
- 3 ケーキ
- 4 デート
- 5 セーター
- 6 ジャム
- 7 ホットドッグ
- 8 コーヒー
- 9 コンピューター
- 10 ニューヨーク
- 11 ヨーロッパ
- 12 パーティー

## Unit 3

### Exercise 3.1

- 1 noun
- 2 (i-)adjective
- 3 (i-)adjective
- 4 adverb
- 5 verb

### Exercise 3.2

- 1 よく *yoku*
- 2 小さな *chiisana*
- 3 ありがとう *arigatoo*
- 4 白い *shiroi*
- 5 コピーする *kopii-suru*

### Exercise 3.3

- 1 Japanese economy
- 2 exchange student
- 3 subway
- 4 puppy

### Exercise 3.4

- 1 AV
- 2 SV

- 3 AV
- 4 SV
- 5 AV
- 6 SV

### Exercise 3.5

- 1 A
- 2 NA
- 3 A
- 4 A
- 5 NA
- 6 A

### Exercise 3.6

- 1 particle
- 2 demonstrative
- 3 exclamative
- 4 connective

## Unit 4

### Exercise 4.1

- 1 話します *hanashimasu*
- 2 読みます *yomimasu*
- 3 おもしろかったです *omoshirokatta desu*
- 4 イギリス人です *igirisujin desu*

### Exercise 4.2

- 1 私(は) *watashi (wa)*
- 2 山田さん(が) *yamada-san (ga)*
- 3 山田さん(は) *yamada-san (wa)*
- 4 私(が) *watashi (ga)*

### Exercise 4.3

- 1 I
- 2 you
- 3 I
- 4 I



**Exercise 4.4**

- 1 伊藤さんが食べたケーキ(は) *itoo-san ga tabeta keeki (wa)*
- 2 伊藤さん(が) *itoo-san (ga)*
- 3 伊藤さん(は) *itoo-san (wa)*
- 4 私 *watashi*

**Exercise 4.5**

- 1 “Will you come to the university tomorrow, Mr. Ito?” “Yes, I will.”
- 2 “A friend of mine is coming to Japan.” “When is s/he coming?” or “My friends are coming to Japan.” “When are they coming?”

**Exercise 4.6**

- 1 かわいい犬がいます *kawaii inu ga imasu*
- 2 私の専攻は美術です *watashi no senkoo wa bijutsu desu*
- 3 京都の冬はとても寒いです *kyoto no fuyu wa totemo samui desu*
- 4 伊藤さんが話した弁護士は親切でした *itoo-san ga hanashita bengoshi wa shinsetsu deshita*

**Unit 5****Exercise 5.1**

- 1 を *o*
- 2 が *ga*
- 3 で *de*
- 4 に *ni*
- 5 で *de*
- 6 と *to*

**Exercise 5.2**

- 1 で, を *de, o*
- 2 が *ga*
- 3 と, へ/に *to, e/ni*
- 4 の *no*
- 5 で, へ/に *de, e/ni*
- 6 で, を *de, o*

**Exercise 5.3**

- 1 は *wa*
- 2 が *ga*
- 3 が, が *ga, ga*

### Exercise 5.4

- 1 は, も, は *wa, mo, wa*
- 2 は, は *wa, wa*
- 3 は, は, は *wa, wa, wa*

### Exercise 5.5

- 1 とは *to wa*
- 2 には/へは *{ni wa/e wa}*
- 3 へは/には *{e wa/ni wa}*
- 4 では *de wa*

### Exercise 5.6

- 1 とか *toka*
- 2 か *ka*
- 3 から *kara*
- 4 けど *kedo*

### Exercise 5.7

- 1 よ *yo*
- 2 ね *ne*
- 3 ∅

## Unit 6

### Exercise 6.1

- 1 かわいく{ないです/ありません} *kawaiku {nai desu/arimasen}*
- 2 静かでした *shizuka deshita*
- 3 おいしい *oishii*
- 4 忙しく{なかったです/ありませんでした} *isogashiku {nakatta desu/arimasen deshita}*
- 5 きれい{じゃなかった/ではありませんでした} *kiree {ja nakatta/de wa nakatta}*
- 6 おもしろく{なかったです/ありませんでした} *omoshiroku {nakatta desu/arimasen deshita}*

### Exercise 6.2

**one-row verbs** 寝る, 覚える, 起きる, いる, 考える, 開ける *neru, oboeru, okiru, iru* “be”, *kangaeru, akeru*

**five-row verbs** 会う, 作る, 行く, 読む, 書く, 要る, 話す, 分かる, 入る, 遊ぶ  
*au, tsukuru, iku, yomu, kaku, iru* “need”, *hanasu, wakaru, hairu, asobu*

**irregular verbs** 電話する, 来る *denwa-suru, kuru*

### Exercise 6.3

出す, 出した, 出さない, 出さなかった, 出します, 出しました, 出しません, 出しませんでした; 出る, 出た, 出ない, 出なかった, 出ます, 出ました, 出ません, 出ませんでした *dasu, dashita, dasanai, dasanakatta, dashimasu, dashimashita, dashimasen, dashimasen deshita; deru, deta, denai, denakatta, demasu, demashita, demasen, demasen deshita*

### Exercise 6.4

- 1 しました *shimashita* “Did you play tennis yesterday?” しませんでした *shimasen deshita* “No, I didn’t.”
- 2 忙しかったです *isogashikatta desu* “Were you busy last week?” 忙しく {なかったです/ありませんでした} *isogashiku {nakatta desu/arimasen deshita}* “No, I wasn’t busy.”
- 3 好きです *suki desu* “Do you like sushi?” 好き {じゃないです/じゃありません/ではないです/ではありません} *suki {ja nai desu/ja arimasen/de wa nai desu/de wa arimasen}* “No, I don’t like it.”
- 4 分かりません *wakarimasen* “I don’t understand Chinese, but I understand English.”

### Exercise 6.5

- 1 先週の月曜日、両親が日本に来た *senshuu no getsuyoobi, ryooshin ga nihon ni kita* “My parents came to Japan last Monday.”
- 2 朝から大雨だった *asa kara ooame datta* “It had been raining heavily since the morning.”
- 3 私はクラスがなかった *watashi wa kurasu ga nakatta* “There was no class (for me to attend).”
- 4 十二時に空港へ行った *juuniji ni kuukoo e itta* “I went to the airport at 12 o’clock.”
- 5 フライトが遅れて、大変だった *furaito ga okurete taihen datta* “The flight was delayed, and it caused much trouble.”
- 6 両親は三時まで着かなかった *ryooshin wa sanji made tsukanakatta* “My parents did not arrive until 3 o’clock.”

### Exercise 6.6

- 1 東京大学の一年生で、専門は経済です *tookyoo-daigaku no ichinensee de, senmon wa keezai desu* “She is a first-year student at the University

- of Tokyo, and her major is economics.” (The subject can be “he,” “they,” “I,” or “we.”)
- 2 背が高くて、きれいです *se ga takakute, kiree desu* “She is tall and beautiful.” (The subject most likely is a woman because *kiree* is usually used to describe a woman.)
  - 3 毎朝、ジョギングをして、シャワーをあびます *maiasa jogingu o shite, shawaa o abimasu* “She jogs and takes a shower every morning.”
  - 4 昨日、図書館に行って、勉強しました *kinoo toshokan ni itte, benkyoo-shimashita* “Yesterday, she went to the library and studied.”
  - 5 本を読んで、レポートを書きました *hon o yonde, repooto o kakimashita* “She read a book and wrote a paper.”

## Unit 7

### Exercise 7.1

- 1 はい *hai* “Have you eaten lunch?” “Yes, I have.”
- 2 はい *hai* “Will you come to tomorrow’s party?” “Yes, I will.”
- 3 いいえ *iee* “You don’t have a pencil, right?” “{You are mistaken/Yes}, I do. Here, please.”
- 4 はい *hai* “Tomorrow is not a test (day), right?” “{You are right/No}, not a test (day).”

### Exercise 7.2

- 1 いくら *ikura* “How much is the black sweater?”
- 2 どこ *doko* “Where is the post office?”
- 3 どこ *doko* “Where did you buy it?”
- 4 だれ *dare* “Whose bag is this?”
- 5 何 *nani* “What did you do yesterday?”

### Exercise 7.3

- 1 (d) “What is your name?” “My name is Robert.”
- 2 (e) “Where are you from?” “I am from Sydney, Australia.”
- 3 (a) “When did you come to Japan?” “(I came) in 2005.”
- 4 (b) “Why did you come to Japan?” “I came on a job.”
- 5 (c) “How long did you study Japanese in Australia?” “About one year.”

### Exercise 7.4

- 1 成田空港行きはどのバスですか/成田空港行き(のバス)はどれですか/  
どのバスが成田空港行きですか/どれが成田空港行き(のバス)ですか

{narita-kuukoo-iki wa dono basu desu ka/narita-kuukoo-iki (no basu) wa dore desu ka/dono basu ga narita-kuukoo-iki desu ka/dore ga narita-kuukoo-iki (no basu) desu ka}

- 2 チケット売り場はどこですか *chiketto-uriba wa doko desu ka*
- 3 チケットはいくらですか *chiketto wa ikura desu ka*
- 4 次のバスはいつですか *tsugi no basu wa itsu desu ka*
- 5 どのぐらいかかりますか *donogurai kakarimasu ka*

## Unit 8

### Exercise 8.1

- 1 それ, あれ *sore, are*
- 2 どの, これ *dono, kore*
- 3 どんな *donna*
- 4 こちら *kochira*

### Exercise 8.2

- 1 あれ *are* “Excuse me. Can I have a look at that?”
- 2 これ, それ *kore, sore* “It’s this one, right?” “Yes, that’s the one.”
- 3 これ *kore* “This is a popular item.” “It’s cute, isn’t it?”
- 4 これ, それ *kore, sore* “Well, how much is this?” “It is on sale now and is 5,000 yen.”

### Exercise 8.3

- 1 それ *sore*
- 2 あれ *are*
- 3 あれ, あれ *are, are*
- 4 そこ *soko*

### Exercise 8.4

- 1 あそこ, あれ *asoko, are* “Isn’t the person over there Mr./Ms. Nakamura?” “Where? Oh, that’s (someone) different.”
- 2 そっち *sotchi* “Where are you now?” “I am in Tokyo. I will arrive over there at 6 o’clock.”
- 3 ここ, この *koko, kono* “This is a nice restaurant. Do you come here often?” “Yeah. This restaurant is good.”

## Unit 9

### Exercise 9.1

- 1 じゅういち *juuichi*
- 2 にひやくにじゅうに *nihyaku-nijuuni*
- 3 さんぜんさんびやくさんじゅうさん *sanzen-sanbyaku-sanjuusan*
- 4 よんまんよんせんよんひやくよんじゅうよん *yonman-yonsen-yonhyaku-yonjuuyon*
- 5 いちまんにせんさんびやくよんじゅうご *ichiman-nisen-sanbyaku-yonjuugo*
- 6 ろくまんななせんはっぴやくきゅうじゅう *rokuman-nanasen-happyaku-kyuujuu*
- 7 ごせんまん *gosenman*
- 8 いちおくにせんまん *ichioku-nisenman*
- 9 ご(う)てんに(い)ご(う) *go(o)-ten-ni(i)-go(o)*
- 10 れいてんきゅうはち *ree-ten-kyuu-hachi*

### Exercise 9.2

- 1 55,500
- 2 2,590
- 3 80,080,000
- 4 7,700,000
- 5 666,000

### Exercise 9.3

- 1 二匹 *nihiki* “I saw two dogs.”
- 2 三台 *sandai* “Three trucks came.”
- 3 四冊 *yonsatsu* “There are four dictionaries.”
- 4 五本 *gohon* “I need five forks.”
- 5 八人 *hachinin* “There are eight children.”

### Exercise 9.4

- 1 何人来ますか *nannin kimasu ka*
- 2 ピザが何枚ありますか *piza ga nanmai irimasu ka*
- 3 ビールを何本買いますか *biiru o nanbon kaimasu ka*
- 4 フォークは何本ありますか *fooku wa nanbon arimasu ka*

### Exercise 9.5

- 1 も *mo* “How many cars do you have?” “I have five.” “Wow, you have five?!”

- 2 は *wa* “How many hours do you study Japanese for every day?” “I study for at least one hour.”
- 3 だけ *dake* “Is there one more pen?” “No, (there is) only one.”
- 4 しか *shika* “How many shirts did you buy?” “I only bought one.”
- 5 もっと, もう *motto, moo* “Please eat more.” “Well, then, I will have one more.”
- 6 たくさん *takusan* “I had a lot of drink, so I have a hangover today.”

### Exercise 9.6

- 1 ペンをもう1本ください *pen o moo ippon kudasai*
- 2 その二人の先生はとても親切でした *sono futari no sensee wa totemo shinsetsu deshita*
- 3 お客様はスーツを一着とネクタイを二本買いました *okyaku-san wa suutsu o itchaku to ne kutai o nihon kaimashita*
- 4 四、五軒の店で買い物をしました *shigoken no mise de kaimono o shimashita*

## Unit 10

### Exercise 10.1

- 1 お母さん *okaasan*
- 2 お父さん *otoosan*
- 3 おば *oba*
- 4 おまごさん *omagosan*
- 5 むすめ *musume*

### Exercise 10.2

- 1 休みます *yasumimasu*
- 2 お元気ですか *ogenki desu ka*
- 3 行きました *ikimashita*
- 4 食べた *tabeta*

### Exercise 10.3

- 1 いらっしゃいました *irasshaimashita*
- 2 頂きました *itadakimashita*
- 3 ごらんになりました *goran ni narimashita*
- 4 おっしゃいました *osshaimashita*
- 5 いたしました *itashimashita*

### Exercise 10.4

- 1 お分かりになります *owakari ni narimasu*
- 2 お読みにになります *oyomi ni narimasu*
- 3 お帰りにになります *okaeri ni narimasu*
- 4 お書きになります *okaki ni narimasu*

### Exercise 10.5

- 1 お買いになります *okai ni narimasu*
- 2 お立ちになります *otachi ni narimasu*
- 3 お話しになります *ohanashi ni narimasu*
- 4 お座りにになります *osuwari ni narimasu*

### Exercise 10.6

- 1 お姉さん *oneesan*
- 2 あなた/さゆり *anata/sayuri*

### Exercise 10.7

Even if the stranger looks young, you should not presume that he/she is your junior. This rules out the use of *anata no gurasu* “your glass.” However, because you do not know the name of the stranger, you cannot use the personal name option, either.

### Exercise 10.8

- 1 だ *da*
- 2 な *na*
- 3 分かります *wakarimasu*
- 4 見た *mita*
- 5 おもしろい *omoshiroi*
- 6 ある/あります *aru/arimasu*

## Unit 11

### Exercise 11.1

- 1 もっと新しいのありませんか *motto atarashii no arimasen ka* “This is a little old. Do you have a newer one?”
- 2 もっときれいなものありませんか *motto kiree na no arimasen ka* “This is a bit dirty. Do you have a cleaner one?”



- 3 もっとおもしろいのありませんか *motto omoshiroi no arimasen ka* “This is a little boring. Do you have more interesting ones?”
- 4 もっと短いありませんか *motto mijikai no arimasen ka* “This is a little too long. Do you have shorter ones?”

### Exercise 11.2

- 1 覚える *oboeru*
- 2 カナダ人な *kanadajin na*
- 3 せまい *semai*
- 4 予約する *yoyaku-suru*
- 5 便利な *benri na*

### Exercise 11.3

- 1 の *no*
- 2 こと *koto*
- 3 の *no*
- 4 こと *koto*

### Exercise 11.4

- 1 一番速いのは、あの車です *ichiban hayai no wa, ano kuruma desu* “It is that car that is the fastest.”
- 2 社長なのは、父です *shachoo na no wa, chichi desu* “It is my father who is the company president.”
- 3 私が作ったのは、このケーキです *watashi ga tsukutta no wa, kono keeki desu* “It is this cake that I made.”
- 4 先生と会ったのは、母です *sensee to atta no wa, haha desu* “It is my mother who met the teacher.”

## Unit 12

### Exercise 12.1

- 1 どのぐらい *donogurai* “How long did it take you from your home to the university?” “It took me 45 minutes.”
- 2 いつ *itsu* “When is your birthday?” “It’s May 3.”
- 3 どのぐらい *donogurai* “How long do you sleep every night?” “About six hours.”
- 4 いつ *itsu* “When did you come to Japan?” “Three years ago.”
- 5 いつ *itsu* “When will you find out?” “The day after tomorrow.”

### Exercise 12.2

- 1 明日午後十一時 *ashita gogo juuichiji* “11pm tomorrow”
- 2 五月二日土曜日十時二十分 *gogatsu futsuka doyoobi juuji nijuppun* “10:20, Saturday, May 2”
- 3 十二月二十五日午前三時五十分 *juunigatsu nijuugonichi gozen sanji gojuppun* “3:50am, December 25”

### Exercise 12.3

- 1 に *ni*
- 2 Ø
- 3 Ø
- 4 に *ni*
- 5 に *ni*

### Exercise 12.4

- 1 ぐらい *gurai*
- 2 ごろ *goro*
- 3 ごろ/ぐらい *goro/gurai*
- 4 ぐらい *gurai*

### Exercise 12.5

- 1 までに *made ni* “Please turn in this assignment by the day after tomorrow.”
- 2 まで *made* “I am at my office every night until about 9 o’clock.”
- 3 までに *made ni* “I come to the university every morning by 8am.”

### Exercise 12.6

- 1 いつごろ *itsugoro* “When did you come to the UK?” “12 years ago.”
- 2 いつ(ごろ)から *itsu(goro) kara* “How long have you been in Kyoto?” “Since March the year before last.”
- 3 何時まで *nanji made* “Professor, from what time to what time is the exam?” “It’s from 2 o’clock to 4 o’clock.”

### Exercise 12.7

- 1 歯をみがいてから顔を洗う *ha o migaite kara kao o arau* “I wash my face after brushing my teeth.”
- 2 顔を洗う前に歯をみがく *kao o arau mae ni ha o migaku* “I brush my teeth before I wash my face.”

- 3 歯をみがいた後で顔を洗う *ha o migaita ato de kao o arau* “I wash my face after I brush my teeth.”

### Exercise 12.8

- 1 の *no*
- 2 Ø
- 3 Ø
- 4 な *na*

## Unit 13

### Exercise 13.1

- 1 います *imasu* “There is a boy in the park.”
- 2 あります *arimasu* “The dictionary is in the bag.”
- 3 います *imasu* “There is a cat in front of the house.”
- 4 あります *arimasu* “Where is the bank?”

### Exercise 13.2

- 1 に *ni* “Isn’t there a bank nearby?”
- 2 の *no* “The post office is ahead of that intersection.”
- 3 で *de* “There was a concert in front of the station yesterday.”
- 4 が *ga* “What is inside that building?”

### Exercise 13.3

- 1 Ms. Yamamoto is by the door over there.
- 2 There is a coffee shop on the first floor of the library at the university.
- 3 The bank is on this side of the red signboard over there.
- 4 The library is on the other side of the park ahead of you along this road.

### Exercise 13.4

- 1 四階と五階{にあります/です} *yonkai to gokai {ni arimasu/desu}* “On which floor are the restaurants?” “On the fourth and fifth.”
- 2 一階{です/にあります} *ikkai {desu/ni arimasu}* “Where are the domestic check-in counters?” “They are on the first floor.”
- 3 地下一階{にあります/です} *chika-ikkai {ni arimasu/desu}* “Where is the JR station?” “It’s in the basement level 1.”
- 4 レストランや店があります *resutoran ya mise ga arimasu* “What’s on the fifth floor?” “There are restaurants, stores, and so on.”

## Exercise 13.5

吉田 *yoshida*, 田中 *tanaka*, 佐藤 *satoo*, 山口 *yamaguchi*, 木村 *kimura*  
 “To my right is Mr. Yoshida. In front of me is Mr. Tanaka. Across from Mr. Yoshida is Ms. Sato. To the left of Ms. Sato is Ms. Yamaguchi. In front of her is Mr. Kimura.”

## Unit 14

### Exercise 14.1

高橋さんは犬が{大好き/とても好き}です。ねずみは大嫌いです。(食べ物  
 は)たまねぎが嫌いです。(そして)ケーキが好きです。 *takahashi-san wa*  
*inu ga {daisuki/totemo suki} desu. nezumi wa daikirai desu. (tabemono wa)*  
*tamanegi ga kirai desu. (soshite) keeki ga suki desu* “Ms. Takahashi {loves  
 dogs/likes dogs very much}. She hates mice/rats. (As for food,) she dislikes  
 onions. (And) she likes cake.”

### Exercise 14.2

- 1 松本さんは、本を読むの{が/は}好きです *matsumoto-san wa hon o yomu no ga/wa suki desu*
- 2 おさを洗うの{が/は}大嫌いです *osara o arau no ga/wa daikirai desu*
- 3 スキーをするの{が/は}好きです *sukii o suru no ga/wa suki desu*
- 4 友だちと話すの{が/は}{大好き/とても好き}です *tomodachi to hanasu no ga/wa {daisuki/totemo suki} desu*
- 5 パーティーに行くのは嫌いです *paatii ni iku no wa kirai desu*

### Exercise 14.3

- 1 どんな本が好きですか/どんな本を読むのが好きですか *donna hon ga suki desu ka/donna hon o yomu no ga suki desu ka*
- 2 どんなスポーツが好きですか/どんなスポーツをするのが好きですか *donna supootsu ga suki desu ka/donna supootsu o suru no ga suki desu ka*
- 3 どんな車が好きですか/どんな車を運転するのが好きですか *donna kuruma ga suki desu ka/donna kuruma o unten-suru no ga suki desu ka*
- 4 どんな映画が好きですか/どんな映画を見るのが好きですか *donna eega ga suki desu ka/donna eega o miru no ga suki desu ka*

### Exercise 14.4

歌う, 食べる, 行く, 食べる, 作る, 聞く, 食べる *utau, taberu, iku, taberu, tsukuru, kiku, taberu* “Ms. Yamaguchi likes to sing very much. However, she hates singing in front of people. She likes to eat, but she dislikes spicy things. Ms. Inoue loves to go to *karaoke*. And she likes to eat delicious food, but she does not like to cook. Mr. Kimura is different from Ms. Inoue. He likes to make delicious food. He doesn't like singing, but he likes to listen to his friends singing very much. Mr. Hayashi likes Indian food. He likes to cook it and he likes to eat it. He does not like sweet things very much.”

## Unit 15

### Exercise 15.1

- 1 作りたいです *tsukuritai desu*
- 2 寝たいです *netai desu*
- 3 帰りたいです *kaeritai desu*

### Exercise 15.2

- 1 行きたい(ん)ですか *ikitai (n) desu ka* “Where would you like to go in Japan?”
- 2 勉強したい(ん)ですか *benkyoo-shitai (n) desu ka* “What would you like to study in a Japanese university?”
- 3 したい(ん)ですか *shitai (n) desu ka* “What would you like to do in Japan?”
- 4 いたい(ん)ですか *itai (n) desu ka* “Until when would you like to stay in Japan?”

### Exercise 15.3

ほしかった, ほしくない, ほしくなかった *hoshikatta, hoshiku nai, hoshiku nakatta* 考えたかった, 考えたくない, 考えなくなかった *kangaetakatta, kangaetaku nai, kangaetaku nakatta* 見たがった, 見たがらない, 見たがらなかった, *mitagatta, mitagaranai, mitagaranakatta*

### Exercise 15.4

- 1 を/が *o/ga*
- 2 が *ga*
- 3 を *o*

## Exercise 15.5

- 1 すし{を/が}食べたいです *sushi {o/ga} tabetai desu*
- 2 ハンバーガーを食べたがっています *hanbaagaa o tabetagatte imasu*
- 3 何をめしあがります/何をお食べになります *nani o meshiagarimasu/nani o otabe ni narimasu*

## Exercise 15.6

- 1 来年までに大学を出たい *rainen made ni daigaku o detai*
- 2 それから日本に行きたい *sore kara nihon ni ikitai*
- 3 日本でいい仕事をみつけない *nihon de ii shigoto o mitsuketai*
- 4 それから日本で結婚したい *sore kara nihon de kekkon-shitai*

## Unit 16

### Exercise 16.1

会える *aeru*, 作れる *tsukureru*, 寝られる *nerareru*, 行ける *ikeru*, 見られる *mirareru*, 読める *yomeru*, 覚えられる *oboerareru*, 書ける *kakeru*, 話せる *hanaseru*, 帰れる *kaereru*, 起きられる *okirareru*, いられる *irareru*, 入れる *haireru*, 遊べる *asoberu*, 考えられる *kangaerareru*, 開けられる *akerareru*, 来られる *korareru*, できる *dekiru*

### Exercise 16.2

- 1 話せる/話せます *hanaseru* “Tara can speak Japanese and Chinese.”
- 2 読めない/読めません *yomenai/yomemasen* “Newspapers contain many kanji, and I cannot read them yet.”
- 3 飲めない/飲めません *nomenai/nomemasen* “Mr. Matsumoto cannot drink alcohol at all.”
- 4 行けなかった/行けませんでした *ikenakattalikemasen deshita* “Yesterday, I was busy and could not go to the party.”
- 5 会えて *aete* “It was good that I could meet Ms. Inoue in Osaka.”

### Exercise 16.3

- 1 見られる *mirareru*
- 2 見える *mieru*
- 3 見える *mieru*
- 4 聞ける *kikeru*
- 5 聞こえ *kikoe*
- 6 入れ *haire*
- 7 入り *hairi*

### Exercise 16.4

They are looking for someone who can speak both Japanese and English, can write business letters in English, has good computer skills, and can work for five days a week. Therefore, Angela is the best fit.

## Unit 17

### Exercise 17.1

They are most likely to meet at the basketball court. A goes to the gym every day, plays basketball frequently and occasionally plays racketball but hardly ever swims in the pool. B goes to the gym at least five times a week, usually swims in the pool but also plays basketball frequently. B does not play racketball at all.

### Exercise 17.2

- 1 めったに外食しません *metta ni gaishoku-shimasen*
- 2 時々すしを食べます *tokidoki sushi o tabemasu*
- 3 私はよく母に電話をします *watashi wa yoku haha ni denwa o shimasu*
- 4 父はぜんぜん家の掃除をしません *chichi wa zenzen uchi no sooji o shimasen*

### Exercise 17.3

- 1 いいえ、あまりしません *ie, amari shimasen* “Do you ski often?” “No, I don’t (ski) very often.”
- 2 一か月に{一度か二度/一回か二回/一、二度/一、二回}{見ます/です} *ikk-  
agetsu ni {ichido ka nido/ikkai ka nikai/ichinido/ichinikai} {mimasu/desu}*  
“Do you watch movies often?” “I watch a movie once or twice a month.”
- 3 一週間に三度ぐらい{(外食)します/です} *isshuukan ni sando-gurai  
{(gaishoku-)shimasu/desu}* “How often do you eat out?” “I eat out about three times a week.”
- 4 一年に一度だけ{行きます/です} *ichinen ni ichido dake {ikimasu/desu}*  
“How many times a year do you go to the dentist?” “I only go once a year.”
- 5 (一年に)十日{あります/です} *(ichinen ni) tooka {arimasu/desu}* “How many vacation days do you have a year?” “I have ten days (a year).”

### Exercise 17.4

- 1 一年に何度ぐらい外国へ旅行{します/なさいます}か *ichinen ni nando-  
gurai gaikoku e ryokoo-{shimasu/nasaimasu} ka*

- 2 一年に何冊ぐらい(本を){書きます/お書きになります}か *ichinen ni nansatsu-gurai (hon o) {kakimasu/okaki ni narimasu} ka*
- 3 一か月に何冊ぐらい本を{読みます/お読みになります}か *ikkagetsu ni nansatsu-gurai hon o {yomimasu/oyomi ni narimasu} ka*
- 4 一日に何杯ぐらいコーヒーを{飲みます/お飲みになります}か *ichinichi ni nanbai-gurai koohii o {nomimasu/onomi ni narimasu} ka*
- 5 一か月に何度ぐらい外食{します/なさいます}か *ikkagetsu ni nando gurai gaishoku {shimasu/nasaimasu} ka*
- 6 一週間に何度ぐらいスーパーに{行きます/いらっしゃいます}か *isshuu-kan ni nando-gurai suupaa ni {ikimasu/irasshaimasu} ka*

## Unit 18

### Exercise 18.1

- 1 バスより電車の方が便利です *basu yori densha no hoo ga benri desu* “Which is more convenient, the bus or the train?” “The train is more convenient than the bus.”
- 2 日曜日より土曜日の方がひまです *nichiyoobi yori doyoobi no hoo ga hima desu* “On which day do you have more free time, Saturday or Sunday?” “I have more free time on Saturday than Sunday.”
- 3 電話するより会って話す方がいい *denwa-suru yori atte hanasu hoo ga ii* “Is it better to talk on the phone or talk in person?” “It’s better to talk in person than to talk on the phone.”

### Exercise 18.2

- 1 いぬとねことどちらの方が頭がいいですか *inu to neko to dochira no hoo ga atama ga ii desu ka* “Which is smarter, a dog or a cat?”
- 2 すしとてんぷらとどちらの方をよく食べますか *sushi to tempura to dochira no hoo o yoku tabemasu ka* “Which do you eat more often, sushi or tempura?”
- 3 デパートとスーパーとどちらの方によく行きますか *depaato to suupaa to dochira no hoo ni yoku ikimasu ka* “Which do you go to more often, a department store or a supermarket?”
- 4 はしとフォークとどちらの方をよく使いますか *hashi to fooku to dochira no hoo o yoku tsukaimasu ka* “Which do you use more often, chopsticks or a fork?”
- 5 本を読むのと映画を見るのとどちらの方が好きですか *hon o yomu no to eega o miru no to dochira no hoo ga suki desu ka* “Which do you like better, reading books or watching movies?”



### Exercise 18.3

- 1 愛もお金も大切です *ai mo okane mo taisetsu desu* “Both love and money are important.”
- 2 ビールもワインも飲みません *biiru mo wain mo nomimasen* “I do not drink beer or wine.”
- 3 図書館でも家でも勉強します *toshokan de mo uchi de mo benkyooshimasu* “I study at the library as well as at home.”

### Exercise 18.4

- 1 動物の中で犬が一番好きです *doobutsu no naka de inu ga ichiban suki desu* “I like dogs the most among (all) animals.”
- 2 スポーツの中でサッカーを一番よく見ます *supootsu no naka de sakkaa o ichiban yoku mimasu* “I watch soccer the most among the sports.”
- 3 クラス(中)で田中さんが一番よく数学ができます *kurasu (no naka) de tanaka-san ga ichiban yoku suugaku ga dekimasu* “In my class, Mr. Tanaka is the best at math.”
- 4 世界の国でスペインに一番行きたいです *sekai no kuni de supein ni ichiban ikitai desu* “Among (all) the countries in the world, I want to go to Spain the most.”

### Exercise 18.5

- 1 テレビ番組の中でどれを一番よく見ますか *terebi-bangumi no naka de dore o ichiban yoku mimasu ka* “Among (all) TV programs, which do you watch the most?”
- 2 スキーとスケートとスノーボードの中でどれを一番よくしますか *sukii to sukeeto to sunooboodo no naka de dore o ichiban yoku shimasu ka* “Of skiing, skating, and snow boarding, which do you do the most?”
- 3 アフリカとアジアとヨーロッパの中でどこに一番行きたいですか *afurika to ajia to yooroppa no naka de doko ni ichiban ikitai desu ka* “Of Africa, Asia, and Europe, which would you like to go to the most?”
- 4 映画スターの中で誰が一番ハンサムですか *eega-sutaa no naka de dare ga ichiban hansamu desu ka* “Among (all) movie stars, who is the most handsome?”

### Exercise 18.6

- 1 エベレストです *eberesuto desu* “Which is the tallest mountain in the world?” “Mt. Everest.”
- 2 すしが一番有名です *sushi ga ichiban yuumee desu* “In Japanese cuisine, what is the most famous?” “Sushi is the most famous.”

- 3 (アメリカより)カナダの方が大きいです (*amerika yori kanada no hoo ga ookii desu* “Between the US and Canada, which is bigger?” “Canada is bigger (than the US).”

## Unit 19

### Exercise 19.1

- 1 映画を{見ませんか/見ない?} *eega o {mimasen ka/minai}*
- 2 喫茶店でコーヒーを{飲みませんか/飲まない?} *kissaten de koohii o {nomimasen ka/nomanai}*
- 3 レストランで晩ごはんを{食べませんか/食べない?} *resutoran de bangohan o {tabemasen ka/tabenai}*
- 4 サッカーの試合を{見ませんか/見ない?} *sakkaa no shiai o {mimasen ka/minai}*
- 5 テニスを{しませんか/しない?} *tenisu o {shimasen ka/shinai}*

### Exercise 19.2

- 1 すわりましょうか/すわろうか *suwarimashoo ka/suwaroo ka}*
- 2 家に{帰りましょうか/帰ろうか} *uchi ni {kaerimashoo ka/kaeroo ka}*
- 3 タクシーに{乗りましょうか/乗ろうか} *takushii ni {norimashoo ka/noroo ka}*
- 4 もう少し{待ちましょうか/待とうか} *moo sukoshi {machimashoo ka/matoo ka}*

### Exercise 19.3

- 1 窓を{開けましょう/開けよう}か *mado o {akemashoo/akeyoo} ka*
- 2 ピザを{注文しましょう/注文しよう}か *piza o {chuumon-shimashoo/chuumon-shiyoo} ka*
- 3 タクシーを{呼びましょう/呼ぼう}か *takushii o {yobimashoo/yoboo} ka*
- 4 ケーキを{切りましょう/切ろう}か *keeki o {kirimashoo/kiroo} ka*

### Exercise 19.4

見ません, 見ましょう, 行きましょう, 会いません, しましょう *mimasen, mimashoo, ikimashoo, aimasen, shimashoo* “How about watching a movie together tomorrow?” “OK. Where shall we watch (one)?” “Let’s go to Shibuya.” “Well, then, how about meeting at 3 o’clock in front of the statue of Hachi?” “OK. Let’s do that.”

## Exercise 19.5

「明日、一緒に映画を見ない？」 「いいよ。どこで見ようか」 「渋谷へ行こう」 「じゃあ、三時にハチ公前で会わない？」 「いいよ。そうしよう」  
 “ashita issho ni eega o minai?” “ii yo. doko de miyoo ka” “shibuya e ikoo”  
 “jaa, sanji ni hachikoo-mae de awanai” “ii yo. soo shiyoo”

## Unit 20

### Exercise 20.1

- 1 会ったら *attara*
- 2 作ったら *tsukuttara*
- 3 寝たら *netara*
- 4 行ったら *ittara*
- 5 読んだら *yondara*
- 6 書いたら *kaitara*
- 7 覚えたら *oboetara*
- 8 電話したら *denwa-shitara*
- 9 話したら *hanashitara*
- 10 起きたら *okitara*
- 11 入ったら *haittara*
- 12 遊んだら *asondara*
- 13 考えたら *kangaetara*
- 14 来たら *kitara*

### Exercise 20.2

- 1 お茶を飲んだらどう？ *ocha o nondara doo*
- 2 熱をはかったらどう？ *netsu o hakattara doo*
- 3 薬を飲んだらどう？ *kusuri o nondara doo*
- 4 寝たらどう？ *netara doo*
- 5 病院に行ったらどう？ *byooiin ni ittara doo*

### Exercise 20.3

- 1 何ページまで読んだらいいですか *nanpeeji made yondara ii desu ka*
- 2 どの漢字を覚えたらいいですか *dono kanji o oboetara ii desu ka*
- 3 何を勉強したらいいですか *nani o benkyoo-shitara ii desu ka*

### Exercise 20.4

Drink warm liquid, take medicine, and take vitamin C. **Translation of the passage** “Take this medicine three times a day. Do not eat spicy food.

Drink plenty of warm liquid. You should not drink orange juice, but take a vitamin C supplement. You should not drink alcohol either. Do not take a bath today.”

### Exercise 20.5

- 1 いらっしゃいません *irasshaimasen*
- 2 書いてくださいません *kaite kudasaimasen*
- 3 してくださいません *shite kudasaimasen*
- 4 召し上がって *meshiagatte*
- 5 {言って/おっしゃって}下さないません {*itte/osshatte*} *kudasaimasen*

## Unit 21

### Exercise 21.1

- 1 後ろに車を止めたいんですけど、よろしいでしょうか *ushiro ni kuruma o tometai n desu kedo, yoroshii deshoo ka*
- 2 中で待ちたいんですけど、よろしいでしょうか *naka de machitai n desu kedo, yoroshii deshoo ka*
- 3 写真をとりたいんですけど、よろしいでしょうか *shashin o toritai n desu kedo, yoroshii deshoo ka*
- 4 携帯を使いたいんですけど、よろしいでしょうか *keetai o tsukaitai n desu kedo, yoroshii deshoo ka*

### Exercise 21.2

- 1 窓をしめてもいい？ *mado o shimete mo ii*
- 2 テレビを消してもいい？ *terebi o keshite mo ii*
- 3 古い新聞を捨ててもいい？ *furui shinbun o sutete mo ii*
- 4 掃除機を使ってもいい？ *soojiki o tsukatte mo ii*

### Exercise 21.3

- 1 いいえ、(中を)見てはいけません *iie, (naka o) mite wa ikemasen*
- 2 いいえ、(辞書を)使ってはいけません *iie, (jisho o) tsukatte wa ikemasen*
- 3 いいえ、赤いペンで書いてはいけません *iie, akai pen de kaite wa ikemasen*
- 4 いいえ、(外に)行ってはいけません *iie (soto ni) itte wa ikemasen*

### Exercise 21.4

三時に歯医者に行かなくてはならない *sanji ni haisha ni ikanakute wa ikenai* スーパーに行かなくてはならない *suupaa ni ikanakute wa ikenai*

パンとたまごを買わなくてははいけない *pan to tamago o kawanakute wa ikenai* お母さんに電話しなくてははいけない *okaasan ni denwa-shinakute wa ikenai* 誕生日のカードを書かなくてははいけない *tanjoobi no kaado o kakanakute wa ikenai*

### Exercise 21.5

- 1 (c) “You must take this medicine for 10 days.”
- 2 (d) “You may not knock on the door.”
- 3 (b) “You must return the magazines you’ve read here.”
- 4 (e) “You may not go straight in this lane.” **Extra** (a) “You must go straight from the left lane.”

### Exercise 21.6

- 1 はいけない *wa ikenai* “You may not eat inside the library.”
- 2 はいけない, もいい *wa ikenai, mo ii* “You must not use a laptop when the plane takes off, but you may use it during the flight.”
- 3 もいい, はいけない *mo ii, wa ikenai* “On a plane, you may drink alcohol but you must not smoke.”
- 4 はいけない, なくてははいけない “In US supermarkets, they can sell wine, beer, and the like, but they cannot sell whiskey. Therefore, one must buy whiskey in a liquor shop.”

## Unit 22

### Exercise 22.1

- 1 この薬は飲みにくい *kono kusuri wa nominikui* “These capsules are difficult to swallow.”
- 2 コップがとりにくい *koppu ga torinikui* “The cups are hard to reach.”
- 3 映画が見にくい *eega ga minikui* “The movie is difficult to see.”

### Exercise 22.2

- 1 寝やすい *neyasui* “Because this bed is large, it is easy to sleep in.”
- 2 読みやすい *yomiyasui* “Because this book is not difficult, it is easy to read.”
- 3 運転しやすい *untan-shiyasui* “Because this car is just the right size, it is easy to drive.”

### Exercise 22.3

- 1 食べにくい *tabenikui* “difficult to eat”
- 2 持ちにくい *mochinikui* “difficult to hold”

- 3 使いやすい/調べやすい *tsukaiyasui/shirabeyasui* “easy to use/easy to check with”
- 4 入りにくい/通りにくい *hairinikui/toorinikui* “difficult to enter/difficult to pass through”

### Exercise 22.4

1, 2, and 4 “This model is reasonably priced and affordable. It is light and easy to carry around but, because the screen is small, the text will be difficult to read. The camera function is easy to use.”

### Exercise 22.5

- 1 漢字を一日に百覚えるのは難しい *kanji o ichinichi ni hyaku oboeru no wa muzukashii*
- 2 飛行機の切符を{インターネット/オンライン}で予約するのはやさしい *hikooki no kippu o {intanetto/onrain} de yoyaku-suru no wa yasashii*
- 3 オリンピックで金メダルをとるのは難しい *orinipikku de kin-medaru o toru no wa muzukashii*
- 4 ニューヨークで日本食のレストランをみつけるのはやさしい *nyuuyooku de nihonshoku no resutoran o mitsukeru no wa yasashii*

### Exercise 22.6

- 1 このナイフは切りやすい *kono naifu wa kiriyasui*
- 2 おいしいレストランをみつけるのは難しい *oishii resutoran o mitsukeru no wa muzukashii*
- 3 このコーヒーカップは、持ちやすい *kono koohii-kappu wa mochiyasui*

## Unit 23

### Exercise 23.1

- 1 頭が痛くて勉強できない *atama ga itakute benkyoo-dekinai*
- 2 熱が高くて苦しかった *netsu ga takakute kurushikatta*
- 3 鼻がつまって息がしにくい *hana ga tsumatte iki ga shinikui*
- 4 元気になって学校に行った *genki ni natte gakkoo ni itta*
- 5 健康でうれしい *kenkoo de ureshii*

### Exercise 23.2

- 1 “I had a toothache, so I went to the dentist.”
- 2 “We have a test every day, so it’s very demanding.”
- 3 “This week, I had a lot of work and was busy.”

## Exercise 23.3

- 1 頭が痛いから、早く寝ます *atama ga itai kara, hayaku nemasu*
- 2 薬を飲んだから、熱が下がりました *kusuri o nonda kara, netsu ga sagarimashita*
- 3 気持ちが悪いから、食べません *kimochi ga warui kara, tabemasen*
- 4 薬はやめます。効かないからです *kusuri wa yamemasu. kikanai kara desu*
- 5 鼻がよくつまります。アレルギーがあるからです *hana ga yoku tsumarimasu. arerugii ga aru kara desu*

## Exercise 23.4

- 1 な *na*
- 2 だ/がある *{da/ga aru}*
- 3 な *na*
- 4 Ø
- 5 Ø

## Exercise 23.5

- 1 {(大雪で)新幹線が遅れた/3時に帰って来た}からです *{(ooyuki de) shinkansen ga okureta/sanji ni kaette kita} kara desu* “That’s because {the bullet train was delayed (due to heavy snow)/he came back at 3 o’clock}.”
  - 2 {キャンセルできた/つかれた/時間がなかった}からです *{kyanseru-dekita/tsukareta/jikan ga nakatta} kara desu* “That’s because {he could cancel it/he was tired/he did not have time}.”
  - 3 晩ごはんを作る時間がなかったからです *bangohan o tsukuru jikan ga nakatta kara desu* “That’s because he did not have time to make dinner.”
- Translation of the passage** “Tuesday, February 17: Left Nagoya by the 8am bullet train today, but the bullet train was delayed because of heavy snow. Came back to the dormitory finally at 3pm. Went to class 30 minutes late. A tough day. Got really tired. Did not report to part-time job, because I contacted them from the bullet train and could cancel my shift. Did not have time to make dinner, so bought a hamburger to eat.

## Unit 24

## Exercise 24.1

- 1 くれた *kureta* “My mother gave me a present.”
- 2 くれた *kureta* “My mother gave me a present.”

- 3 あげた *ageta* “I gave my younger sister a watch.”
- 4 あげた *ageta* “My younger sister gave her friend a scarf.”
- 5 くれた *kureta* “My younger sister’s friend gave me flowers.”

### Exercise 24.2

- 1 あげた *ageta* “I gave my younger sister a book.”
- 2 もらった *moratta* “I received a souvenir from Mr. Hayashi.”
- 3 もらった *moratta* “I received a cell phone from my father.”
- 4 あげた *ageta* “My mother gave her sister a necklace.”
- 5 くれた *kureta* “My father gave me a present.”

### Exercise 24.3

- 1 くれた *kureta* “My roommate bought me some cold medicine at the pharmacy.”
- 2 くれた *kureta* “My elder sister made lunch for me with my younger sister.”
- 3 くださった *kudasatta* “My teacher did me the favor of checking my homework.”
- 4 もらった *moratta* “I asked my roommate to do me the favor of cleaning the room.”
- 5 もらった *moratta* “I asked my father to do me the favor of reading a book.”
- 6 もらった *moratta* “My younger sister asked my younger brother to eat the vegetables she does not like.”

### Exercise 24.4

- 1 が, の *ga, no*
- 2 が *ga*
- 3 が, に *ga, ni*
- 4 に *ni*

### Exercise 24.5

- 1 なおしてもらった *naoshite moratta* “I asked my father to do me the favor of fixing my bicycle.”
- 2 読んでくれた *yonde kureta* “My mother read me picture books when I was small.”
- 3 教えてあげた *oshiete ageta* “I told Ms. Lee how to get to the hospital.”
- 4 持ってくれた *motte kureta* “Steven did me the favor of carrying my luggage.”



## Unit 25

### Exercise 25.1

- 1 すみません *sumimasen*
- 2 お疲れさま *otsukare-sama*
- 3 失礼します *shitsuree-shimasu*
- 4 ありがとうございます *arigatoo gozaimasu*
- 5 ごめん(なさい) *gomen (nasai)*
- 6 すみません *sumimasen*

### Exercise 25.2

- 1 ありがとうございます *arigatoo gozaimashita*
- 2 ありがとうございます *arigatoo gozaimasu*
- 3 すみません *sumimasen*
- 4 ありがとうございます *arigatoo gozaimashita*
- 5 すみませんでした *sumimasen deshita*

### Exercise 25.3

- 1 見せてくれてありがとう *misete kurete arigatoo*
- 2 いっしょに行ってくれてありがとう *issho ni itte kurete arigatoo*
- 3 遅れてごめん(なさい) *okurete gomen (nasai)*
- 4 電話(するの)を忘れてごめん(なさい) *denwa(-suru no) o wasurete gomen (nasai)*

# GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

**Action verb** — A verb that denotes an action, such as “eat” and “run.”

**Adverb** — A word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, such as “slowly,” “well,” “soon,” and “finally.” An adverb does not conjugate.

**Aspect** — A concept to describe an event in terms of how it flows without reference to its position in time, such as beginning, duration, completion, and repetition.

**Auxiliary verb** — A verb that is used with another verb and adds a supplementary meaning, such as “will” and “be” in “I will be sleeping.”

**Change-of-state verb** — A verb that describes a change in its subject’s condition, such as the verb “break” in “The computer broke down.”

**Comparative** — A grammatical form or structure that is used to compare two options, such as “-er” in “greater.”

**Compound adjective** — An adjective that is formed by combining two or more words, such as “hard-to-find” in “hard-to-find books.”

**Compound word** — A word that is created by combining two or more words, such as “greenhouse” and “download.”

**Conditional** — A grammatical form or structure that expresses the notion “If X, then Y.”

**Conjugation** — Changes in the form of a predicate that reflect changes in its meaning, such as tense and negation.

**Connective** — An independent word that connects two sentences, such as “however” and “therefore.”

**Contrastive focus** — A prominence given to a certain member of a contextual set, as in the prominent intonation given to “John” in “JOHN came,” which implies other people didn’t come.

**Copula verb** — A linking verb that is devoid of meaning of its own, such as “be” in “He will be a doctor.”

**Counter** — A suffix that is used to count things and events together with a number in Japanese, such as *-nin* in *sannin* “three people” and *-satsu* in *sansatsu* “three books.”

**Demonstrative** — A word that specifies an entity based on contextual information, such as “this” in “this book” and “that” in “What’s that?”

**Dependent clause** — A sentence-like unit that is dependent on some other units in the sentence, such as the underlined parts in “I went because he told me to,” “I like the book you gave me,” and “I don’t like washing dishes.”

**Discourse** — A structure of language that is larger than a sentence in verbal or written modes.

**Estimation form** — A form that indicates that the speaker estimates the likelihood of an event to be probable, such as “would” in “It would be good.”

**Exclamative** — A form or structure that is used to express the speaker’s attitude or emotion, such as “Wow!” and “How nice!”

**Five-row verb** — A class of Japanese verb that appears with one of the five syllable types (i.e., *a*, *i*, *u*, *e*, and *o*-row syllables), such as *kaku* “write” (e.g., *kakanai*, *kakimasu*, *kaku*, *kake*, *kakoo*).

**Frequency adverb** — An adverb that indicates how often a certain event takes place.

**Honorific** — A form of a verb, noun, or pronoun that expresses social distance or hierarchy by raising the status of a respected individual, such as *irassharu* “come (honorific)” and *musuko-san* “son (honorific).”

**Humble** — A form of a verb, noun, or pronoun that expresses social distance by lowering the status of the speaker, such as *mairu* “come (humble)” and *moosu* “say (humble).”

***I*-adjective** — An adjective whose dictionary form ends with *-i*. It has its own unique conjugation pattern.

**Indirect object** — A noun phrase that denotes a target or recipient of an action or entity that is described by a direct object.

**Intensifying adverb** — An adverb that acts to intensify the degree of adjectives or other adverbs.

**Intransitive verb** — A verb that has a subject but does not have an object, such as “run” and “sleep.”

**Lexical adjective** — A regular adjective that is listed in the mental dictionary of a native speaker, such as “big” and “natural.”

**Main clause** — A clause that also constitutes a sentence.

**Mora** — A basic rhythmic unit in Japanese.

***Na*-adjective** — An adjective whose dictionary form ends in *na*. It conjugates similarly to the noun predicate with the copula verb *da*.

**Nominalizer** — A word or a part of a word that turns a sentence into a nominalized clause that is used as a noun phrase, such as “-ing” in “I love watching that show,” and “that” in “That he came late didn’t bother me.”

**Noun phrase** — A unit consisting of a noun or a noun with a modifier.

**Number** — 1. A mathematical term used in counting. 2. The indication of the singularity or plurality of a linguistic form.

**Numeral quantifier** — A word that consists of a number and a counter that indicates a quantity of things or events, such as *sannin* “three people” and *sankai* “three times.”

**Object** — A noun phrase that is required by a transitive predicate, such as “a cake” in “John ate a cake” or “mathematics” in “Mary hates mathematics.” Also called “direct object.”

**One-row verb** — A class of Japanese verb that appears uniformly with an *i*-row or *e*-row syllable before conjugational suffixes, such as *okiru* “wake up” (e.g., *okinai*, *okimasu*, *okiru*, *okiro*, *okiyoo*).

**Particle** — A particle typically appears after a noun or another particle to mark the function of the preceding part in Japanese, such as *ga* (subject) and *wa* (topic).

**Parts of speech** — Categories of words, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

**Personal pronoun** — A type of pronoun that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase that refers to people, such as “you” and “I.”

**Plain** — A form or style that is unmarked, which does not carry politeness information.

**Polite** — A form or style that is used to show the formality of a situation or respect for others.

**Post-nominal** — A position after a noun or noun phrase.

**Potential form** — A form of a verb that expresses that someone is capable of doing something or that some action is possible, such as *yomeru* “can read.”

**Predicate** — A necessary component of a sentence that indicates the action or state of its subject.

**Prenominal** — A small class of words in Japanese that modify nouns but do not conjugate and cannot be used as a predicate, such as *ookina* “big.”

**Preposition** — A linguistic form that marks the function of the following element, such as “to,” “at,” and “from.”

**Pronoun** — A class of words used as substitutes for nouns and noun phrases, such as “he,” “it,” and “one” in “the blue one.”

**Quantity adverb** — An adverb that expresses a certain quantity, such as *takusan* “a lot.”

**Sequential voicing** — A phenomenon in which the first voiceless sound of the second member of a compound gets voiced.

**Sino-Japanese** — A word that originates in Chinese.

**Speaker-centered** — A characteristic of a predicate that describes an event or state from the speaker’s perspective, such as *morau* “receive.”

**Stative predicate** — A type of predicate that denotes a state (conditions, attributes, etc.), including stative verbs, noun predicates, and adjectives.

**Stative verb** — A verb which denotes a state of something or someone at some point in time.

**Stem form** — A tenseless form of a predicate, such as *tabe-* “eat” used before *-masu* and in a variety of other grammatical contexts.

**Subject** — A noun phrase that plays a primary role in a sentence. It often corresponds to an actor in an event or a carrier of attributes.

**Suffix** — A dependent element that attaches to the end of other words to form new words, such as “-ness” in “kindness.”

**Superlative** — A grammatical form or structure that is used to compare three or more options, such as “-est” in “strongest” and a question such as “Which is the best?”

**Suru-verb** — A verb that consists of a verbal noun and a verb *suru*, such as *benkyoo-suru* “study” and *kopii-suru* “copy.”

**Te-form** — A form of a predicate that ends in *-te* or *-de* in Japanese, which is used to connect close attributes or closely related events, such as *tabete* “eat” and *kawaikute* “cute.”

**Tense** — The indication of time, such as present, past, or future.

**Topic** — A part of a sentence that is not in focus but rather provides a link to the previous discourse to clarify what is being talked about.

**Transitive adjective** — An adjective that requires a subject and an object because its meaning relates two entities, such as “scared” in “I’m scared of mice.”

**Transitive verb** — A verb that requires a subject and an object because its meaning relates two entities, such as “eat” in “I ate a hamburger.”

**Verbal noun** — A noun that denotes an event or a state, and is used either as a noun or forms a compound verb with the verb *suru*, such as *benkyoo* “study.”

**Volitional form** — A form of a verb that expresses a voluntary intention, such as *ikoo* “let’s go.”

**Volitional subject** — A grammatical subject that denotes an entity with a will.

**Wh-question** — A question that contains an information seeking word, such as “who,” “what,” “which,” “where,” “why,” and “how.”

**Yes-no question** — A question that can be answered with yes or no.

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