

Beginners I

With the first installation of IMABI, you will go from zero Japanese to knowing quite a bit about the basics. Content is neatly split up into bite-sized yet accurate depictions of various grammar points that you will absolutely need to foot yourself firmly into the language.

The material found here is presented in a linguistic yet easy to understand approach that does not cut corners while addressing things in a way that is still not overwhelming. You can trust that this section will become easier and easier over time. Remember, it won't hurt to read things over once or twice when you're stumped! Good luck! Or as the Japanese would say, *gambatte kudasai!*

しょきゅう 初級 I: Beginners I

[第1課: Pronunciation I: Vowels](#)

[第2課: Pronunciation II: Consonants](#)

[第3課: Kana I: Hiragana ひらがな](#)

[第4課: Kana II: Katakana カタカナ](#)

[第5課: Kana III: Long Vowels, Double Consonants, & Yotsugana](#)

[第6課: Introduction to Kanji 漢字 I](#)

[第7課: Introduction to Kanji 漢字 II](#)

[第7課: 10 Major Aspects](#)

[第8課: Nouns & Pronouns](#)

[第9課: Copular Sentences I: Plain Speech](#)

[第10課: Copular Sentences II: Polite Speech](#)

[第11課: The Particle Ga が I: The Subject Marker Ga が](#)

[第12課: The Particle Wa は I: The Topic/Contrast Marker Wa は](#)

[第13課: Adjectives I: 形容詞 Keiyōshi](#)

[第14課: Adjectives II: 形容動詞 Keiyōdōshi](#)

第15課: The Particle Wo: を I

第16課: Regular Verbs I: 一段 Ichidan Verbs

第17課: Regular Verbs II: 五段 Godan Verbs

第18課: The Irregular Verbs Suru & Kuru: する & 来る

第19課: The Particle Ka: か

第20課: The Particle Ka か II: With the Negative

第21課: The Particle Ga が II: The Object Marker Ga が

第22課: The Particle Mo: も

第23課: Kosoado こそあど I: This & That: Kore/Kono これ・この, Sore/Sono それ・その,
& Are/Ano あれ・あの

第24課: Kosoado こそあど II: Here & There: Koko ここ, Soko そこ, & Asoko あそこ

第25課: Basic Daily Expressions

第??課: Yes Phrases: Hai はい, Hā はあ, E ええ, & Un うん

第??課: No Phrases: いいえ, いえ, いや, 否, & ううん

第??課: Expressions of Gratitude

第??課: Expressions of Apology

第26課: The Particle Te: て I

第27課: Numbers I: Sino-Japanese Numbers

第28課: Counters I: 円, 冊, 課, 人, 名, 歩, 枚, ページ, 頭, 匹, 足, 台, 階, 歳, & 杯

第29課: Counters II: 個 VS つ

第30課: The Particle No: の I

第31課: The Particle Ni: に I

[第32課: The Particle E: へ](#)

[第33課: The Particle De: で](#)

[第34課: The Particle Te: て II: Final Particle](#)

[第35課: Aru & Iru: ある & いる](#)

[第36課: Te iru: ～ている](#)

[第37課: Te aru: ～である](#)

[第38課: Fields of Study](#)

[第39課: Countries, Nationalities, & Languages](#)

[第40課: The Particle To: と](#)

[第41課: The Particle Ni: に II](#)

[第42課: Kosoado こそあど III: Kochira こちら, Sochira そちら, & Achira あちら](#)

[第43課: Interrogatives I](#)

[第44課: The Particle Ka か III: Indirect Question](#)

[第45課: The Copula II](#)

[第46課: The Particle Kara: から](#)

[第47課: The Particle Made: まで](#)

[第48課: Adverbs I](#)

[第49課: Adverbs II: From Adjectives](#)

[第50課: Adjectives: Yoi/ii 良い](#)

第1課: Pronunciation I: Vowels

Every language is composed of a unique set of sounds. When you grew up, your brain had the opportunity to master the sounds in your first language(s), but now that you're learning a new language, your brain will now have to essentially start things over. At first, everything

you hear in Japanese will likely sound like an endless, fast stream of mysterious sounds, but this is because your brain has no frame of reference for Japanese. Once you start learning more and more words, this struggle will naturally resolve itself.

Over the course of the next two lessons, our goal will be to figure out the unique sounds of Japanese. You won't be expected to sound Japanese on day one, nor should you place that goal on yourself. After all, you may not know a single word of Japanese yet, so it's important to learn how to pronounce words correctly as you learn them so that you're understood.

Of course, you're probably itching to learn Japanese as quickly as possible, so we won't learn about every little thing there is to know about Japanese, but you'll be shown just enough detail so that you have solid answers to fall back on when you do have questions about pronunciation.

With that, let's look at the vowels of Japanese. Vowels are sounds like "ah" and "eh," but every language--including Japanese--will have its own quirks to them. Our mission will be to find out what those quirks are.

The Five Vowels

Japanese only has five vowels: /a/ (ah), /i/ (ee), /u/ (oo), /e/ (eh) and /o/ (oh). In using these vowels to make words, we group them into units of sound called syllables. This can be done with or without consonants (sounds like k, t, and s). In English, there are lots of ways to make syllables, but in Japanese, there are only three ways: a vowel by itself, a consonant + a vowel, or a consonant by itself. Here are some loanwords from Japanese that show all three types of syllables with each of the five vowels.

A	I	U	E	O
Ka.ta.na	Ni.n.ja	Su.shi	E.da.ma.me	Mi.so
Ma.n.ga	Shi.i.ta.ke	Ko.m.bu	Sa.ke	E.mo.ji

* To indicate syllable boundaries, periods have been placed between each syllable so that you can familiarize yourself with Japanese syllabification.

Short Vowels vs Long Vowels

In Japanese, vowel length is crucial in distinguishing words. To understand what vowel length means, imagine clapping your hands in intervals of three seconds. Each clap equates to one syllable. Now, regardless of how you speed up or slow down the intervals, so long as the intervals are equal to each other, you're replicating how Japanese speakers hear the language being spoken.

When we say a vowel is a short vowel, it means that the vowel length is just one beat. When we say a vowel is a long vowel, it means that the vowel length is two beats. The speed at

which someone is talking may vary as a conversation progresses, but the speed at which any given word is enunciated should remain constant so that such vowel length contrasts can be made. Otherwise, you might say something unintended.

Short "a"	<i>Obasan</i> (aunt)	Long "a"	<i>Obaasan</i> (grandma)
Short "i"	<i>Ie</i> (house)	Long "i"	<i>lie</i> (no)
Short "u"	<i>Yuki</i> (snow)	Long "u"	<i>Yuuki</i> (courage)
Short "e"	<i>E</i> (painting)	Long "e"	<i>Ee</i> (yes)
Short "o"	<i>To</i> (door)	Long "o"	<i>Too</i> (ten things)

* An "oo" should never be pronounced as a long "u" sound. In the context of Japanese, it should always be viewed as an elongated "oh" sound.

How to Pronounce "ei"

The vowel combination "ei" is usually pronounced as a long "eh" sound, but all words that have "ei" can be pronounced as is, meaning as "eh-ee." For now, it is safe for you to simply pronounce the two vowels separately as you can never go wrong there. Over time, you'll learn about the sources of Japanese vocabulary, which will be the ultimate factor between the two pronunciations.

Clock	"Tokei" or "Tokee"	English	"Eigo" or "Eego"
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How to Pronounce "ou"

The vowel combination "ou" is usually pronounced as a long "o" (ō). However, there are many words in which "o" and "u" are pronounced separately. Once we introduce Japanese spelling, knowing when to decide between the two will be very easy. So for now, just relax and practice pronouncing the words below.

Already	<i>Moo</i>	King	<i>Oo</i>	Method	<i>Hooahoo</i>
To think	<i>Omou</i>	Large	<i>Ookii</i>	Calf	<i>Koushi</i>
Action	<i>Koodoo</i>	Robbery	<i>Gootoo</i>	Sauce	<i>Soosu</i>

第2課: Pronunciation II: Consonants

Along with a unique set of vowels, every language has its own set of consonants. Japanese doesn't have that many, but it still has a few that don't exist in English. This means that some time will be needed to get their pronunciations down.

Because you are a beginner, there is no harm in pronouncing sounds in an English fashion

for the time being. You will almost certainly still be understood. As for the purpose of this lesson, our goal will be to learn how they are supposed to sound so that you have a working, basic understanding of pronunciation.

At a basic understanding, Japanese has the following consonants: K, KY, G, GY, S, SH, Z, T, TS, CH, N, NY, H, HY, F, B, BY, P, PY, M, MY, R, RY, Y, W, and N'. These consonants can then be categorized into four types.

- Unvoiced Consonants
- Voiced Consonants
- Nasal Consonants
- Palatal Consonants

As we learn about each type, don't get caught up with the terminology. If you want to ponder a moment on the information to try to mimic these Japanese sounds more accurately, these words will be there to help organize everything in your head. Otherwise, just sit back and practice pronouncing the sounds as they're introduced.

Unvoiced Consonants

One thing that Japanese shares with English is distinguishing consonants by the presence/lack of voicing. Without even knowing what this means, pronounce these pairs of words: "tear/dare," "pug/bug," "ten/den," etc. Now, pronounce each word again with your hand over your throat. When you pronounce "bear," "bug," and "den," you should feel the vocal folds in your throat vibrate. This is what voicing is, which makes the consonants B and D voiced consonants. This also makes the consonants P and T unvoiced consonants because this vibration does not occur when you pronounce them.

All consonants in a language are either one or the other. You can then further compartmentalize them into other categories, but first we're just going to look at the basic unvoiced consonants Japanese has to offer. Before that, though, there is one more thing to keep in mind. This time, place your hand in front of your mouth and then pronounce the English word "king." You should feel a strong puff of air hit your hand. This is called aspiration, and it accompanies all unvoiced consonants in English. In Japanese, though, this is not so prevalent, so try to mitigate the amount of air you emit when speaking.

Now let's learn about how to pronounce these consonants in Japanese! The ones that are unvoiced can all be found in the chart below. Note that some of them change pronunciation depending on what vowel follows them, so please pay attention to those differences.

K	Made by placing the back of the tongue against the soft palate.
T	Made by placing the blade of the tongue behind the upper teeth. When followed by the vowel u, it becomes "ts," and when followed by a the vowel i, it becomes "ch."
CH	Made by having the blade of the tongue right behind the ridge of your mouth behind your upper jaw, which isn't exactly the place where it's made in English, but using the English "ch" is completely understandable.

S	Pronounced the same as English, but it becomes "sh" when followed by the vowel i.
SH	Made by having the middle of the tongue bent and raised towards the hard palate. This isn't the same as English, but using the English "sh" is completely understandable.
H	Sounds just like the English "h" but changes to an "f" when followed by the vowel u. It also changes slightly into the h-like sound in "hue" when followed by the vowel i.
F	The Japanese f is very different. Instead of having your front teeth touch your bottom lip, all you do is bring your lips together and blow air through them. No teeth!
P	More or less the same but not accompanied with a strong puff of air like in English.

To practice these consonants, here are some very useful words.

Ki	Tree	Otoko	Man	Ashi	Leg/foot
Haha	Mother	Chichi	Father	Pan	Bread
Eki	Train station	Fuku	Clothes	Asa	Morning
Kutsu	Shoes	Tsuki	Moon	Hi	Fire

Vowel Devoicing

When the vowels i and u are in between or after unvoiced consonants, they often become devoiced (silent). However, devoicing is never required in a word. It's just important to know that these vowels are often deleted and you'll still need to identify words either way.

Practice: Pronounce the words below with the underlined vowels devoiced.

Kushami (Sneeze) *Tafu* (Tough) *Hito* (Person)

Voiced Consonants

The unvoiced consonants mentioned above all have a **voiced** counterpart.

Unvoiced Counterpart	Voiced Counterpart
/k/	/g/
/s/	/z/~/[dz]
/sh/	/j/
/t/	/d/
[ts]	[dz]
[ch]	[dj]
	/b/

/p/	/b/
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There are a few peculiarities that need to be discussed. However, before going into too much detail, /j/ and /dj/ will be mentioned later in this lesson.

1. /z/ typically becomes [dz] at the start of words. /dz/ tends to become [z] inside words, but this isn't always so. /z/ sounds like the "z" in "zoo," whereas /dz/ sounds like the "ds" in "kids."
2. /h/, its allophones, and /p/ correspond with /b/. /b/ is made by bringing the lips together and then releasing them. This means its articulation is the same as /p/ but not as /h/.
3. /g/ can be pronounced as /ng/ inside words.

Try pronouncing the following example words.

Sokudo	Speed	Baka	Idiot	Zutsuu	Headache
Tsu(d)zuki	Continuance	Kaze	Wind	Deeto	A date
Kazu	Number	Kage	Shadow	Gitaa	Guitar
Bataa	Butter	Toge↓	Thorn	Doku↓	Poison

More Voiced Consonants

There are also voiced consonants that do not have unvoiced counterparts. These sounds are listed in the chart below.

[n]	Made with the blade of the tongue on the back of the upper teeth with /a/, /e/, and /o/, behind the ridge of the mouth with /i/ (like in news), and behind the teeth with /u/ (like in noon).
[m]	Pronounced by bringing the two lips together just as in English.
[r]	Its pronunciation varies drastically. It is typically pronounced as a flap, which is only seen in American English as the "t" in many words such as "water." At the beginning of a word, it sounds almost like /d/. Sometimes it's pronounced as a trill or like /l/.
[y]	Pronounced the same in English by bringing the tongue up to the hard palate. This means it is a palatal consonant.
[w]	Its pronunciation is very similar to the Japanese /u/. Rather than protruding your lips, you compress them. It is only used with the vowels /a/ and /o/, but its use with /o/ won't even become important until later on in your studies.

The differences in pronunciation detailed above make Japanese sound significantly different from English. Many sounds tend to be closer to the teeth, which is the case for [n] and [r], and movement of the tongue is more limited. To practice pronouncing these consonants, try

saying the following words out loud.

Fune	Boat	Neko	Cat	Mune↓	Chest
Yowai	Weak	Yakusoku	Promise	Kawa↓	River
Mura↓	Village	Umi	Sea	Tana	Shelf
Kami	God	Kami	Hair/paper	Yubi↓	Finger
Wana	Trap	Karada	Body	Rei	Example/zero

Palatal Consonants

Palatal consonants are made by the body of the tongue touching against the hard palate of the mouth. In Japanese, these consonants are usually limited to the vowels /a/, /u/, and /o/, and they're all created with the help of the consonant /y/. First, we'll look at those palatal consonants shown below in the chart.

Consonant	C + /a/	C + /u/	C + /o/
/y/	/ya/	/yu/	/yo/
/ky/	/kya/	/kyu/	/kyo/
/gy/	/gya/	/gyu/	/gyo/
/ny/	/nya/	/nyu/	/nyo/
/hy/	/hya/	/hyu/	/hyo/
/py/	/pya/	/pyu/	/pyo/
/by/	/bya/	/byu/	/byo/
/my/	/mya/	/myu/	/myo/
/ry/	/rya/	/ryu/	/ryo/

Terminology Note: Palatal consonants are all semi-voiced due to the use of /y/ following the initial consonant. The voicing of the initial consonant doesn't change. Thus, /gy/ would be fully voiced whereas /ky/ would not be voiced initially but become voiced by the end of the consonant. Here, /y/ acts more like a semi-vowel more so than another consonant, which is why none of these palatal consonants are treated as consonant clusters. Instead, they can be viewed as more additional phonemes in the language.

Usage Note: In loan-words, these consonants may be used with other vowels.

Most of these combination are very common in Japanese. They are most frequently found in words that come from Chinese. Below are some examples.

Hyoo	Vote	Kyaku	Customer	Kyuu	Nine
Myoo	Weird	Hyaku↓	100	Kyoo	Today

Myaku	Pulse	Ryuu	Dragon	Byooki	Illness
Gyaku	Reverse	Ryoo	Quantity	Ryaku	Abbreviation

Other Palatal Consonants

The remaining palatal sounds that have yet to be looked at are /sh/, /ch/ and /⟨d⟩j/.

As we learned earlier, [sh] and [ch] are allophones of /s/ and /t/ respectively. They can also be treated as separate phonemes. This is because all five vowels can follow them, allowing them to become contrastive.

The voiced counterpart for both /sh/ and /ch/ is /⟨d⟩j/. This phoneme /⟨d⟩j/ has two allophones: [dj] and [j]. The former sounds like the j-sound in "judge," and the latter sounds like the j-sound in "seizure." Many speakers pronounce this phoneme as [dj] whenever it appears at the start of a word or after another consonant but as [j] anywhere else. Others only use the [dj] pronunciation.

Shuu	Week	Kaisha	Company	Ocha	Tea
Choosa	Investigation	Chero	Cello	Shefu	Chef
Shooko	Proof	Shima↓	Island	Jiko	Accident
Kaji	Housework/fire	Jookyoo	Situation	Jukyoo	Confucianism

Long Consonants

Consonants may be lengthened in Japanese just like vowels. When you make a **long consonant**, the sound is perceived as sounding harder. The length of time you use to pronounce it increases from one mora to somewhere in between one and two morae. However, speakers conceptualize long consonants as being **two morae**.

The consonants that are typically doubled in Japanese are non-voiced consonants. These consonants include /p/, /k/, /t/, /s/, /sh/, /ch/, and /ts/. As far as transcribing them is concerned, they will be written as /pp/, /kk/, /tt/, /ss/, /ssh/, /tch/, and /ts/ respectively.

Shippai	Failure	Matchi	A match	Yokka	Four days	Zasshi	Magazine
Happa	Leaf/leaves	Kokka	Nation	Shuppatsu	Departure	Hassoo	Conception
Kassooro	Runway	Satchi	Inferring	Sakka	Author	Sakkaa	Soccer

Usage Note: Voiced consonants are only voiced in a handful of loanwords from other languages, but even then they're usually pronounced as their long unvoiced counterparts.

The Moraic Nasal

There is a special voiced consonant in Japanese called the "**moraic nasal**." It counts as a

mora on its own. Although usually transcribed as an "n," its pronunciation varies depending on the environment.

In its basic understanding, it is what's called a uvular "n" that is best transcribed as /N/. The uvula is back in the mouth, but when you pronounce it, the mouth constricts as if you were producing a regular /n/, which makes it sound more like the /n/ you're used to hearing but not quite.

This sound has a lot of allophones because it **assimilates** (becomes more similar) with the sound that follows. Because things can get quite complicated, we'll go over each situation separately with plenty of examples along the way. In Standard Japanese, this sound can't start words, but it is still quite complicated.

- Pronounced as [m].

When /N/ is before a /p/, /b/, or /m/, it becomes [m]. This means that /m/ can in fact be a doubled with the aid of /N/.

Sampo	A walk	Shimpai	Worry	Kampeki	Perfect
Bimboo	Destitute	Kambu	Executive	Sembei	Rice cracker
Sammyaku	Mountain range	Tammatsu	Device	Chimmi	Delicacy

- Pronounced as [n].

When /N/ is before /t/, /d/, /n/, /r/, it becomes [n]. When before /t/, /d/, and /n/, the blade of the tongue is used, and when before /r/, the tip of the tongue is used, but in any case, the natural pronunciation of these consonants will result in you pronounce [n] correctly. Incidentally, by using this sound change, /n/ can become long.

Sontoku	Loss and gain	Sentaku	Choice/laundry	Kantoo	The Kanto Region
Kondate	Menu	Shindai	Bed	Kandoo	Impression
Minna↓	Everyone	Tennai	Inside store	Tennoo	Emperor
Shinrai	Faith	Kanri	Management	Shinri	Mentality

- Pronounced as [ng].

When /N/ is before /k/ and /g/, it becomes [ng]. Because /n/ is pronounced the same way in English under these circumstances, this [ng] will be spelled as "n" for simplicity.

Shinka	Evolution	Kankaku	Feeling	Sanka	Participation
Kingyo	Gold fish	Kango	Sino-Japanese word	Kangae	Idea

- Pronounced as [ny].

When before /ch/ or /dj/, it is pronounced in the same place of the mouth as these consonants. This technically makes it an [ny] with the "y" only indicating that it's palatal. Remember that /ch/ and /dj/ are pronounced by temporarily stopping the flow of air at the gum line in the mouth. This is where [ny] is produced. If a vowel were to follow /ny/-separate from the [ny] of /N/ being discussed now--you'd hear the "y." Since the "y" here is only meant to indicate where in the mouth this variant is pronounced, it will simply be denoted as "n."

<i>Shinchuu</i>	Brass	<i>Tanchiki</i>	Detector	<i>Sanchoo</i>	Summit
<i>Kanja</i>	Patient	<i>Tanjoobi</i>	Birthday	<i>Shinjuku</i>	Shinjuku

Transcription Note: Typically, /dj/ is spelled as "j" since /j/ is largely pronounced as [dj].

- Pronounced as [ũ].

When before vowels, /y/, /w/, /s/, /sh/, /z/, /h/, and /f/, /N/ sounds like a nasal vowel from the back of the mouth. At any rate, the vowel before /N/ is always nasalized, but when /N/ is followed by a vowel, all you may hear is a really nasal vowel and then the following vowel. Typically, this /N/ is usually just a very nasal ũ. Although this is usually spelled as "n" for simplicity, it'll be spelled as "ũ" below.

<i>Taũ'i</i>	Unit	<i>Koũwaku</i>	Perplexity	<i>Deũsha</i>	Train
<i>Kaũzei</i>	Tariff	<i>Kiũyuu</i>	Finance	<i>Kaũsai</i>	The Kansai Region

Pronunciation Notes:

1. When before /z/, some speakers pronounce /N/ as [n].
 2. /Deũsha/ may also be pronounced as [deũsha].
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- Pronounced as [N]/[m]/[ũ].

At the end of words, /N/’s default pronunciation is [N]. However, there are plenty of speakers that pronounce it like a nasal vowel as seen above in this position. In singing, it will even be pronounced as [m]. This is actually true for any instance of /N/ in singing. For the purpose of this section, [N] will be written below as "N."

<i>Nihon</i>	Japan	<i>KaN</i>	Can	<i>HoN</i>	Book
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第3課: *Kana I: Hiragana* ひらがな

Japanese is written with a mixed script composed of several parts. Of these are two systems called *Kana*. These systems spell words moraically. This means that, unlike an alphabet, every symbol will stand for a mora. Thus, a symbol may stand either for a "consonant + vowel" (CV), a "vowel" (V), or a "consonant" (C).

The two *Kana* systems are called *Hiragana* and *Katakana*. Because there are many symbols and rules to learn per system, we will first study *Hiragana*. Then, in Lesson 3 we'll learn the symbols of *Katakana*. After we've covered both sets, we'll learn about *Kanji*, which are Chinese characters used in Japanese writing.

Curriculum Note: Just as has been the case for the past two lessons, pitch notes will be provided for the vocabulary used. High pitch is designated as text in bold. Pitch falls are noted with a ↓.

***Hiragana* ひらがな**

Kana represent the morae of Japanese. As we learned in Lesson 1, a mora is an equal time unit of speech. *Kana* can be organized into a chart called the *Gojūonzu*, which means the table of 50 sounds. Although it doesn't actually have 50 sounds in it, they are deemed to be the most basic sound combinations in Japanese, which are called *seion*.

Each *Kana* system has its own set of symbols. That means once you have mastered the *Hiragana* symbols below, you'll have to prepare yourself to learn an entirely different set for the same sound combinations. As tedious as this might seem, the two systems are used differently. The most important and most used system is *Hiragana*, which is why it is being introduced to you first.

HIRAGANA

The basic symbols of *Hiragana*, as stated above, are organized into a chart called the *Gojūonzu*. This chart is shown below with each basic symbol. Notice how the chart is organized. Stroke orders are listed, and all the allophones of sounds we learned in the previous lesson are shown in their respective columns.

n	w-	r-	y-	m-	h-	n-	t-	s-	k-	
ん N	わ WA	ら RA	や YA	ま MA	は HA	な NA	た TA	さ SA	か KA	-a
	ゐ WI	り RI		み MI	ひ HI	に NI	ち CHI	し SHI	き KI	-i
		る RU	ゆ YU	む MU	ふ FU	ぬ NU	つ TSU	す SU	く KU	-u
	ゑ WE	れ RE		め ME	へ HE	ね NE	て TE	せ SE	け KE	-e
	を WO	ろ RO	よ YO	も MO	ほ HO	の NO	と TO	そ SO	こ KO	-o

Curriculum Note: Print this sheet out and have it at hand as we continue onward.

Usage Notes:

Of these characters, all except the symbols for *we* and *wi* are actually used. These two characters live on only in names, place names, and old literature. Because there is the chance you will encounter them, when you do see them, read them as "e" and "i" respectively as the "w" has dropped from their actual pronunciations. This is largely why the symbols are no longer seen today.

Similarly, the symbol for *wo* is usually pronounced by "o" by most speakers. However, the traditional pronunciation "wo" is still heard depending on personal preference, dialect, as well as occasion. For instance, in music, singers tend to be conservative in pronunciation. This is also the case when people slow down their speech to purposefully enunciate every sound clearly.

Of these characters, all but the symbols for *we*, *wi*, *wo*, and *n* can start words. Also, the symbol for *wo* is only used in names or as a grammatical word that cannot stand alone, which we will learn about later.

Handwriting Notes:

1. Write strokes from top to bottom and left to right.
2. Make sure the end of the second stroke in あ is crossing the curve of the final stroke.
3. Make sure that the final stroke in け is slightly farther down than the first.

4. For セ, the second stroke usually doesn't have a hook.
5. For い, こ, た, ふ, り, and オ, don't connect the strokes together.
6. For む, if you connect stroke 2 and 3, do not add another slash.
7. Make sure the stroke 3 for お is not positioned far away from the rest of the character.
8. In more proper handwriting, the last stroke in さ and き is not connected with the rest.

Examples

The best way to see if you can read *Hiragana* is to practice with actual words. Below is a list of 30 common words written without any aids.

Shape	かたち	Dream	ゆめ↓	Japan	にほん
Usual	ふつう	End	おわり	Promise	やくそく
Snow	ゆき↓	Kitten	こねこ	Proof	あかし
Chair	いす	Bowl	うつわ	Plate	さら
Payment	しはらい	Seat	せき	Speculation	すいそく
Gymnasium	たいいくかん	Strength	ちから↓	Pathway	つうろ
Store clerk	てんいん	Chicken meat	とりにく	Accent	なまり↓
Duty	にんむ	Bypath	ぬけみち	Drink	のみもの
Secret	ひみつ	Star	ほし	Command	めいれい
Night	よる	Young person	わかもの	Bus/train line	ろせん

Diacritics: " & °

There are two diacritics that can be added to symbols that change the consonant of the symbol in question. These diacritics are the “ (dakuten/nigori↓) and the ° (handakuten). The first diacritic changes a consonant into a voiced consonant. A voiced consonant causes the vocal folds to vibrate. The second diacritic changes /h/ to a /p/.

が ga	ぎ gi	ぐ gu	げ ge	ご go
ざ za	じ ji	ず zu	ぜ ze	ぞ zo
だ da	ぢ ji	づ zu	で de	ど do
ば ba	び bi	ぶ bu	べ be	ぼ bo
ぱ pa	ぴ pi	ふ pu	ペ pe	ぼ po

When writing these characters, you write the diacritics last. It's important to note how there are two characters for /ji/ and /zu/. These symbols are not always pronounced exactly the same, but we will go into greater detail about this later.

Examples

The hardest part to mastering the diacritics will simply be remembering to use them and realizing that the pronunciation of a symbol will change because of them. For practice, below are 30 common words that utilize them.

Number	かず	College student	だいがくせい	Key	かぎ↓
Walk	さんぽ	Mountain climbing	とざん	Culture	ぶんか
Throat	のど	Poison	どく↓	Yes and no	さんぴ
Cheers	かんぱい	Nosebleed	はなぢ	Attachment	てんぷ
Electricity	でんき	Potentiality	そこぢから	Hippopotamus	かば
Skin	はだ	Furniture	かぐ	Wall	かべ
Elbow	ひじ↓	Part	ぶぶん	Whirlpool	うず
Continuation	つづき	Scale	きぼ	Wind	かぜ
Eyelash	まつげ	Crevice	ひびわれ	Tatami room	ざしき↓
Mirror	かがみ↓	Family	かぞく	Map	ちず

Palatal Sounds

Palatal sounds are created by placing the tongue on the hard palate of the mouth. Many consonants in Japanese can be palatalized and then followed by the vowels /a/, /i/, /u/, and /o/. In the case of /i/, palatalization is an inherent part of the pronunciation of the sound combination. For instance, /ki/, /shi/, /chi/, /ni/, /mi/, /hi/, and /ri/ are all technically palatalized. This is simply part of the natural process of pronouncing them.

The way Japanese creates more sound combinations with palatalized combinations is by having /ya/, /yu/ and /yo/ follow a consonant. When this happens, new consonants are produced. In *Hiragana*, these combinations are created by using an i-sound symbol with a shrunken y-sound symbol-- ゃ, ゑ, or ゑ.

き や kyā	き ゆ kyū	き ょ kyō	ぎ や gyā	ぎ ゆ gyū	ぎ ょ gyō
し や shā	し ゆ shū	し ょ shō	じ や jā	じ ゥ ju	じ ょ jō
ち や chā	ち ゆ chu	ち ょ cho			
に や nya	に ゆ nyu	に ょ nyo			
ひ や hya	ひ ゆ hyu	ひ ょ hyo	び や byā	び ゥ byu	び ょ byo
み や myā	み ゆ myu	み ょ myo	ぴ や pyā	ぴ ゥ pyu	ぴ ょ pyo
り や ryā	り ゆ ryu	り ょ ryo			

Similarly to above, there are two ways to write /ja/, /ju/, and /jo/. For now, we'll put aside how they differ in pronunciation and usage and solely focus on memorizing these glyphs. Note, though, that you will rarely see the variants that utilize ぢ.

Pronunciation-wise, the ry-sounds will be the most difficult to master as the Japanese /r/ tends to be difficult as it is for native English speakers to acquire.

Examples

Below are 30 words utilizing these glyphs to help you learn them.

Resident	じゅうみん	Parking Injection	ちゅうしゃ	Giant	きょじん
Meow-meow	にゃんにゃん	Acronym	りやくご	Tune	きょく
Seafood	ぎょかいりい	Inn	りょかん	Opposite	ぎやく
600	ろっぴゃく↓	Tathagata	によらい	Studying abroad	りゅうがく
Cow milk	ぎゅうにゅう	Bathing	にゅうよく	Customer	きやく
Concentration	しゅうちゅうりょく	Processing	しょり	Society	しゃかい
Touch down	ちゃくりく	Tea	おちゃ	Directly	ちょくせつ
Weak point	じやくてん	Tutor	じょしゅ	Pulse	みやく↓
Teacup	ゆのみぢゃわん	Hyuga	ひゅうが	100	ひやく↓
Chinese	ちゅうごくご	Properly	ちゃんと	Address	じゅうしょ

Although it may be difficult to properly pronounce these palatal sounds, mispronouncing them as separate morae will result in the word either becoming a different word altogether or a non-word.

i-sound + や・ゅ・よ	i-sound + や・ゅ・よ
じゅう (Freedom)	じゅう (Ten/gun)
りゅう (Reason)	りゅう (Dragon)
きゅう (Needless anxiety)	きゅう (Nine)
しゅう (Private ownership)	しゅう (Week/state)

To Continue

So far, we have covered the unique glyphs that compose *Hiragana*. What we have not learned is how long consonants and vowels are transcribed. We have also not learned about what situations *Hiragana* is even used in. Both of these topics require that we first go over *Katakana* as comparing the two is essentially in understanding these topics properly.

Practice

Part I: Change the following words into *Hiragana*.

1. **Kemuri** (smoke)
2. **Amagumo** (rain cloud)
3. **Uta**↓ (song)
4. **Sekai** (world)
5. **Karate**(karate)

Part II: Change the following words in *Hiragana* into *Rōmaji*.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. かのじょ (She) | 2. しょだな (Bookshelf) |
| 3. にほんご (Japanese language) | 4. さかな (Fish) |
| 5. にんげん (Human) | 6. だいがく (College) |
| 7. ひと (Person) | 8. あした↓ (Tomorrow) |

第4課: Kana II: Katakana カタカナ

In the previous lesson, we learned about how Japanese is a mixed script. The previous lesson was all about learning the individual symbols of *Hiragana*. In this lesson, our goal will be to learn all the individual symbols for *Katakana*.

Hiragana and *Katakana* both represent the same sound combinations (morae). As such, there won't be any differences in pronunciation between an /a/ written in *Hiragana* and one written in *Katakana*. However, the two scripts are used in different circumstances. Their rules for other aspects of spelling such as long vowel notation are also not exactly the same. For now, we will focus solely on learning the individual symbols of *Katakana*. As you will soon see, there are more symbols to learn in *Katakana* than there is for *Hiragana*. This means you have plenty of work ahead of you in this lesson.

Katakana カタカナ

Of the two *Kana* systems, *Katakana* is the least used. However, that doesn't mean it isn't used, and it doesn't mean that it isn't important to learn. One cannot properly read Japanese without knowing both systems. The two systems are still used in different ways. The way they're used also affects how complex the systems are. *Katakana*, as you will see, has an additional set of combinations not used in *Hiragana*. This means it'll take a little more effort to memorize *Katakana* than *Hiragana*. With that being said, let's begin.

KATAKANA

The basic symbols of *Katakana*, just as was the case with *Hiragana*, are organized into a

chart called the *Gojūonzu*. This chart is shown below with each basic symbol. Just like for *Hiragana*, notice how the stroke orders are listed and how all the allophones of sounds we've learned about are shown in their respective columns.

n	w-	r-	y-	m-	h-	n-	t-	s-	k-	
ン N	ワ WA	ラ RA	ヤ YA	マ MA	ハ HA	ナ NA	タ TA	サ SA	カ KA	-a
ヰ WI	リ RI			ミ MI	ヒ HI	ニ NI	チ CHI	シ SHI	キ KI	-i
	ル RU	ユ YU	ム MU	フ FU	ヌ NU	ツ TSU	ス SU	ク KU	ウ U	-u
ヱ WE	レ RE		メ ME	ヘ HE	ネ NE	テ TE	セ SE	ケ KE	エ E	-e
ヲ WO	ロ RO	ヨ YO	モ MO	ホ HO	ノ NO	ト TO	ソ SO	コ KO	オ O	-o

Curriculum Note: Print this sheet out and have it on hand as we continue onward.

Usage Notes:

Of these characters, all of them except the symbols for *we* and *wi* are typically used. These two characters live on only in names, place names, and old literature. Because there is the chance you will encounter them, when you do see them, read them as "e" and "i" respectively as the "w" has dropped from their actual pronunciations. This is largely why the symbols are no longer seen today.

Similarly, the symbol for *wo* is usually pronounced by "o" by most speakers. However, the traditional pronunciation "*wo*" is still heard depending on personal preference, dialect, as well as occasion. For instance, in music, singers tend to be conservative in pronunciation. This is also the case when people slow down their speech to purposefully enunciate every sound clearly. Unlike in *Hiragana*, the *Katakana* symbol for *wo* is hardly used at all. This means you won't get many opportunities to see it actually used.

Of these characters, all but the symbols for *we*, *wi*, *wo*, and *n* can start words. The symbols for *we* and *wi* are deemed obsolete. Also, the symbol for *wo* is only used in names or as a grammatical word that cannot stand alone, which we will learn about later.

Handwriting Notes:

1. Write strokes from top to bottom and left to right.
2. Horizontal strokes come before vertical strokes.
3. Take especial note to the stroke orders of シ and ツ. For シ, its third stroke is irregularly written from the bottom upward, which is how you can distinguish it from ツ, which is written regularly.
4. Also take note of the stroke orders of ソ and ン. For ン, its second stroke is irregularly written from the bottom upward, which is how you can distinguish it from ソ, which is written regularly.
5. When there are horizontal strokes that span the length of the symbol, those strokes aren't first from top to bottom regardless if other strokes may start higher up. Take キ as an example.

Examples

As your first chance at reading practice, below are 60 common words that are spelled in *Katakana*. Although it's not necessary that you memorize them all now, you'll find that many of them are words you're already very familiar with.

Access	アクセス	Assistant	アシスタン	ASEAN	アセアン
Africa	アフリカ	America	アメリカ	Aluminum	アルミ
Good-looking guy	イケメン	Italy	イタリア	Earbud	イヤホン
Air conditioning	エアコン	Eroticism	エロ	Oceania	オセアニア
Offline	オフライン	Cocktail	カクテル	Custom	カスタム
Sponge cake	カステラ	Camera	カメラ	Karaoke	カラオケ
Calcium	カルシウム	Mouse	マウス	Christ	キリスト
Classmate	クラスメイト	Christmas	クリスマス	Koala	コアラ
Coin	コイン	Siren	サイレン	Santa	サンタ
System	システム	Scenario	シナリオ	Restaurant	レストラン
Hormone	ホルモン	Synchronize	シンクロ	Stress	ストレス
Centi(meter)	センチ	Seoul	ソウル	Solo	ソロ
Towel	タオル	Tennis	テニス	Toilet	トイレ
Hotel	ホテル	Minus	マイナス	Nylon	ナイロン
Tomato	トマト	Ton	トン	Knife	ナイフ
Necktie	ネクタイ	Quota	ノルマ	Handkerchief	ハンカチ
Stapler	ホチキス	Marathon	マラソン	Milk	ミルク

Mexico	メキシコ	Moscow	モスクワ	UNESCO	ユネスコ
Toyota	トヨタ	Link	リンク	Lemon	レモン
Russia	ロシア	Request	リクエスト	Wine	ワイン

Diacritics: " & °

The diacritics we learned about last lesson are used in exactly the same way in *Katakana*. These diacritics, the These diacritics are the " (*dakuten/nigori*↓) and the ° (*handakuten*), represent voiced consonants and the consonant /p/ respectively.

ガ ga	ギ gi	グ gu	ゲ ge	ゴ go
ザ za	ジ ji	ズ zu	ゼ ze	ゾ zo
ダ da	ヂ ji	ヅ zu	ヂ de	ド do
バ ba	ビ bi	ブ bu	ベ be	ボ bo
パ pa	ピ pi	ブ pu	ペ pe	ボ po

Just as was the case with *Hiragana*, you write the basic symbol before adding the diacritics. Additionally, there are two characters for /ji/ and /zu/. However, their pronunciations/usage aren't 100% the same. For now, focus on memorizing these symbols.

Examples

Below are 60 common words that utilize these diacritics. Although it is not necessary that you memorize them all, they are all common words that bring purpose to using *Katakana* as the majority of these words are solely written in *Katakana*.

Advice	アドバイス	Radio	ラジオ	England	イギリス
Pokemon	ポケモン	Event	イベント	India	インド
Ego	エゴ	Egypt	エジプト	Apron	エプロン
Holland	オランダ	Casino	カジノ	Gas	ガス

Capsule	カプセル	Gift	ギフト	Jellyfish	クラゲ
Mongolia	モンゴル	Golf	ゴルフ	Convenience store	コンビニ
Size	サイズ	Sandals	サンダル	Running	ランニング
Swimming	スイミング	Pants	ズボン	Celebrity	セレブ
Zombie	ゾンビ	Diamond	ダイヤモンド	Taipei	タイペイ
Dance	ダンス	Design	デザイン	Digital camera	デジカメ
TV	テレビ	Germany	ドイツ	Door	ドア
Dollar	ドル	Napkin	ナプキン	Trash	ゴミ↓
Knob	ノブ	Hiking	ハイキング	Basketball	バスケ
PC	パソコン	Bus	バス	Pachinko	パチンコ
Bread	パン	Banana	バナナ	Panda	パンダ
Piano	ピアノ	Visa	ビザ	Pizza	ピザ
Vitamin	ビタミン	Video	ビデオ	Building	ビル
Pink	ピンク	Judea	ユダヤ	Frying pan	フライパン
Browser	ブラウザ	Blog	ブログ	Veranda	ベランダ
McDonald's	マクドナルド	Medal	メダル	Memo	メモ

Palatal Sounds

Remember that palatal sounds are created by placing the tongue on the hard palate of the mouth. Consonants are naturally palatalized in Japanese when followed by /i/ or /y/. For those created with /y/, shrunken y-sound symbols must be paired with a full-sized i-sound symbol. In Katakana, these combinations are as follows.

キヤ kya	キュ kyu	キヨ kyo
シャ sha	шу shu	ショ sho
チャ cha	チュ chu	チヨ cho
ニヤ nya	ニュ nyu	ニヨ nyo
ヒヤ hya	ヒュ hyu	ヒヨ hyo
ミヤ mya	ミュ myu	ミヨ myo
リヤ rya	リュ ryu	リヨ ryo
ギヤ gya	ギュ gyu	ギヨ gyo
ジャ ja	ジュ ju	ジヨ jo
ヂャ ja	ヂュ ju	ヂヨ jo
ビヤ bya	ビュ byu	ビヨ byo
ビヤ pya	ビュ pyu	ビヨ pyo

Just as was the case with above with there are being two ways to write the says, /ji/ and /zu/, the same can be said for /ja/, /ju/, and /jo/. The variants that use ヂ are essentially obsolete as far as spelling actual, common words is concerned.

Examples

Not all these characters are used as frequently as others. Although some are extremely common, some are only found in certain kinds of words. Others are hard to find without being used with long vowels and consonants. Since we haven't learned what those rules are for the two Kana systems, the 30 examples words are limited to words with short consonants and vowels that are actually common expressions.

Casual	カジュアル	Curriculum	カリキュラム	Cabbage	キャベツ
Cancel	キャンセル	Gambling	ギャンブル	Shirt	シャツ
Chandelier	シャンデリア	Jump	ジャンプ	Jogging	ジョギング
Mandarin dress	チャイナドレス	Chime	チャイム	Channel	チャンネル
Pajamas	パジャマ	Condominium	マンション	Pure	ピュア

Jazz	ジャズ	Munich	ミュンヘン	Genre	ジャンル
Gang	ギャング	Goggling	ギョロギョロ	Hopping	ピョンピヨン
Junior	ジュニア	Meow-meow	ニャンニャン	Nuance	ニュアンス
Awkwardness	ギクシャク	Wriggling	ニヨロニヨロ	Pyeongyang	ピヨンヤン
Chocolate	チョコ	Tunisia	チュニジア	Champion	チャンピオン

Additional Katakana

Unlike *Hiragana*, *Katakana* is used to transcribe far more sound combinations. Although we have not learned exactly when either system is used and why, you may have noticed that a lot of the example words in this lesson have been for loan-words from other languages. This is one purpose of *Katakana* that is heavily reflected in the inventory of sound combinations as an effect.

The most frequently used extensions are those for the consonants /sh/, /j/, /t/, /d/, /ch/, /f/, and /w/. As you can see, all these additional combinations involve using a shrunken symbol next to a full-sized one.

	Y	W	V	S	SH	J	T	D	CH	TS	F	KW	GW
A			ヴァ							ツア	ファ	クア クワ	グア グワ
I		وي	ヴィ	スイ	ズイ		ティ	ディ		ツイ	フィ		
U			ヴ				トウ	ドウ					
E	イエ	ウェ	ヴェ		シェ	ジェ			チエ	ツエ	フェ		
O		ウォ	ヴォ							ツオ	フォ		
Y							テュ	デュ					

Pronunciation Notes:

1. The v-sounds are overwhelmingly pronounced as b-sounds by most speakers.
2. Additional w-sounds and y-sounds are usually pronounced broken up as if they were written with full-sized characters. For instance, kiwi can either be pronounced as *kiui* キウイ

or *kiwi* キウイ.

Examples

The combinations shown above are essentially all additional combinations that are of any significant importance in writing practical words that are actually used by Japanese speakers. However, they aren't all equal in frequency. With that being said, it isn't possible to show practical examples of each combination at this point without having to delve into information beyond the reach of this lesson. Nevertheless, the 30 words will provide you plenty of practice.

Korean won	ウォン	Ending	エンディング	Figurine	フィギュア
The web	ウェブ	Chef	シェフ	Disc	ディスク
Native	ネイティブ	Negative	ネガティブ	Fight(ing spirit)	ファイト
File	ファイル	Family restaurant	ファミレス	Film	フィルム
Philippines	フィリピン	Manifesto	マニフェスト	Czech	チェコ
Share	シェア	Pretzel	プレッツェル	Cafe	カフェ
Highway	ハイウェイ	Fan	ファン	Chess	チェス
Violin	ヴァイオリン	Fake	フェイク	Yes	イエス
Font	フォント	Wedding dress	ウェディングドレス	Wink	ウインク
Wikipedia	ウィキペディア	Shakespeare	シェイクスピア	Fondue	フォンデュ

Word Notes:

- "Violin" is typically spelled as バイオリン.
- イエス is not the typical means of saying "yes"; it is always used in an English-based context.

To Continue

In the next lesson, we will learn about how to write long vowels and consonants in both *Hiragana* and *Katakana*. We will also learn about what the differences are between the variant ways to write the sounds /ji/, /zu/, /ja/, /ju/, and /jo/. After which point, we'll learn about what *Kanji* and then move on to learning how *Kana* and *Kanji* are used together to write

properly in Japanese.

Practice

Part I: Spell the following words in *Katakana*.

1. *Piano*(Piano)
2. *Tesuto* (Test)
3. *Wirusu/Uirusu* (Virus)
4. *Kariforunia* (California)

Part II: Romanize the following words.

1. スリル (Thrill)
2. シネマ (Cinema)
3. マスコミ (The media)
4. キャビン (Cabin)
5. パリ (Paris)

第5課: *Kana III: Long Vowels, Double Consonants, & Yotsugana*

Every language has an **orthography** for its script(s). In any orthography, *there are rules that govern how the writing system(s) are used*. For the most part, Japanese orthography in regard to Kana is rather straightforward, but there are a few special cases.

- [Long Vowels in Hiragana](#)
- [Long Vowels in Katakana](#)
- [Double Consonants in Kana](#)
- [Yotsugana](#)

Long Vowels in *Hiragana*

In *Hiragana*, long vowels are typically written by doubling the vowel. As you can see below, only long /e/ or /o/ sounds are extra complicated. The reason why these two long vowels are two possible spellings is because of all the words that have been borrowed from Chinese. Sometimes, spelling doesn't always match pronunciation. As readers of English, you should know this oh too well.

Long /a/	Long /i/	Long /u/	Long /e/	Long /o/
ああ	いい	うう	ええ えい	おお おう

The next thing to do is see actual words with each of these long vowels. The information we

learned about long /e/ and long /o/ sounds in Lesson 1 will be extremely relevant in this lesson.

Long /a/, /i/, & /u/

To create long vowels for /a/, /i/, and /u/, all you do is double the vowel symbol. In the word charts below, the first column shows their spellings in Hiragana. Because word type is a major factor later on in this lesson, the word type for all words shown in this section are also provided. There are three main sources of vocabulary in Japanese: native (words that are indigenous to Japanese), Sino-Japanese, and loan-words. Sino-Japanese words are words that were either borrowed or created with roots from Chinese. These words are alternatively referred to as Kango (the Japanese terminology for Sino-Japanese) in the charts below. Loan-words are borrowings from modern world languages that have managed to find their way into Japanese. In the third column.

Transcription Note:

1. Because pitch contours will be marked on the *Hiragana* spellings, long vowels will be romanized with macrons in the charts below except for long /i/, which will be written as "ii."
2. High pitch and pitch drops will be denoted the same way as previous lessons, just with their *Hiragana* spellings.

Curriculum Note: False long vowels, vowels that happened to be juxtaposed next to each other but are in fact belong to separate word elements, are not represented as examples of long vowels in the charts below.

Long /a/	Word Type	Meaning
Ā ああ	Native	Ah
Okāsan おかあさん	Native	(Someone's) mother
Obasan おばさん	Native	Aunt; middle-aged woman
Obāsan おばあさん	Native	Grandmother/old woman

Usage Note: Long /a/ is not a common long vowel. In Hiragana, long /a/ is limited to native words.

Long /i/	Word Type	Meaning
Ojisan おじさん	Native	Uncle/middle-aged man
Ojiisan おじいさん	Native	Grandfather/old man

Usage Note: Long /i/ is also not a common long vowel. In Hiragana, long /i/ is limited to native words.

Word Type	Meaning
Long /u/	
Sūgaku すうがく	Kango
Fūfu ふうふ	Kango
Gyūniku ぎゅうにく	Kango
	Beef

Usage Note: Though common, long /u/ is limited to Sino-Japanese words in *Hiragana*.

Long /e/: ええ vs えい

Whereas long /e/ in native words is always spelled with ええ, it is spelled as えい in Sino-Japanese, in which case it may alternatively be literally pronounced as [ei]. This literal pronunciation is preferred in many regions of Japan as well as in conversation pronunciation, especially in singing. Note that all other instances of えい outside Sino-Japanese vocabulary must be pronounced as [ei].

[ē]	Word Type	Meaning
Onēsan おねえさん	Native	Older sister/young lady/miss
Hē へえ	Native	Really?
[ē] or [ei]	Word Type	Meaning
Ēga/Eiga えいが	Kango	Movie
Mēshi/Meishi めいし	Kango	Business card
[ei]	Word Type	Meaning
Mei めい	Native	Niece
Hei へい	Native	Wall/fence
Ei えい	Native	Stingray

Long /o/: おお vs おう

Long /o/ is usually spelled in native words as おお. Historically, the second "o" would have originally been ほ or を, depending on the word. In Sino-Japanese words, long /o/ is written as おう. When おう is used in native words, it either stands for a long /o/ or "o.u." Typically, おう in native words is always a long /o/ except when it is at the end of a verb. The ending of a verb is treated as a separate element, thus breaking apart what otherwise would be a long vowel.

[ō]	Word Type	Meaning
Kōri こおり	Native	Ice
Tōi とおい	Native	Far away
Ōkii おおきい	Native	Big
Ōi おおい	Native	Many
Mō もう	Native	Already
Otōsan おとうさん	Native	(Someone's) father
Kanjō かんじょう	Kango	Emotion
Gakkō がっこう	Kango	School
Nōgyō のうぎょう	Kango	Agriculture
[ou]	Word Type	Meaning
Ou おう	Native	To chase
Ōu おおう	Native	To cover

Long Vowels in Katakana

For Katakana, long vowels are typically represented with a mark that looks similar to a hyphen: —. It's normally either called a *chō'ompu* ちょうおんぷ or *bōbiki* ぼうびき. As Katakana is used primarily to write foreign words, you are primarily going to use and see this with foreign words.

Word	Meaning	Word	Meaning
Tēburu テーブル	Table	Aisukuriīmu アイスクリーム	Ice cream
Intāchenji インターチェンジ	Interchange	Mēru メール	Email
Fināre フィナーレ	Finale	Kōchi コーチ	Coach
Sōda ソーダ	Soda	Kompyūtā コンピューター	Computer
Aisutii アイスティー	Ice tea	Sēru セール	Sale
Orenjījūsu オレンジジュース	Orange juice	Chiizu チーズ	Cheese
Daunrōdo ダウンロード	Download	Kōhii コーヒー	Coffee
Intabyū インタビュー	Interview	Sūtsukēsu スーツケース	Suitcase

Curriculum Note: A lot can be said about how to transcribe and pronounce loan-words. For

now, know that long vowels are typically written with — in *Katakana*.

Double Consonants in *Katakana*

In both *Hiragana* and *Katakana*, double consonants are created by preceding a symbol with a shrunken *tsu*. In *Hiragana*, this is っ. In *Katakana*, this is ツ. As we have learned previously, unvoiced consonants are typically the only consonants doubled. However, /n/ and /m/ can technically be long, but the symbol for N will be what precedes the main symbol (ん in *Hiragana* and ヌ in *Katakana*).

Word	Meaning	Word	Meaning
<i>Chotto</i> ちょっと	A little	<i>Matto</i> マット	Mat
<i>Hokkē</i> ホッケー	Hockey	<i>Shippai</i> しつぱい	Failure
<i>Jetto</i> ジェット	Jet	<i>Intānetto</i> インターネット	Internet
<i>Sakkā</i> サッカー	Soccer	<i>Robotto</i> ロボット	Robot

With *Katakana*, voiced consonants are only voiced in certain loan-words or in exaggerated pronunciations. Even in such expressions, these doubled voiced consonants are still usually pronounced as if they were unvoiced so long as there is an unvoiced equivalent. For instance, "bed" is *beddo* but is normally pronounced as *betto*. Nonetheless, it remains spelled as ベッド. Consonants for which this all applies include: g, z, d, h, f, b, r, w and y.

Word	Meaning	Word	Meaning
<i>Baggu</i> バッグ	Bag	<i>Beddo</i> ベッド	Bed
<i>Suggoi</i> すっこい	Cool!	<i>Reddo Sokkusu</i> レッドソックス	The Red Socks
<i>Aipaddo</i> アイパッド	iPad	<i>Bagudaddo</i> バグダッド	Baghdad
<i>Hottodoggu</i> ホットドッグ	Hot dog	<i>Bahha</i> バッハ	Bach

Glottal Stops

In Lesson 1, we learned about what glottal stops were. A glottal stop is made by forcibly stopping air in one's Adam's apple. When an expression ends in a glottal stop, a small *tsu* is used to indicate this pronunciation. An example of this is *itah* いたっ (ouch!).

Yotsugana

Yotsugana refer to *Kana* that spell what were traditionally four distinct consonants: /z/, /dz/, /j/, and /dj/. Pronunciation-wise, /z/ is usually pronounced as /dz/ and can only be pronounced as /z/ inside words. As for /j/ and /dj/, the two sounds are overwhelmingly both

pronounced as [dj]. Previously, we learned when these consonants are used, but we haven't gone over the rules for how to write them correctly in *Kana*.

Below are the symbols in question in both *Hiragana* and *Katakana*. In the chart, symbols are listed as "common", "uncommon" or "rare."

Sound	<i>Hiragana</i>	Rarity	<i>Katakana</i>	Rarity
JI	じ	Common	ジ	Common
ZU	ず	Common	ズ	Common
DZU	づ	Uncommon	ヅ	Rare
DJI	ぢ	Uncommon	ヂ	Rare
JA	じゃ	Common	ジャ	Common
JU	じゅ	Common	ジュ	Common
JO	じょ	Common	ジョ	Common
DJA	ぢゃ	Uncommon	ヂャ	Rare
DJU	ぢゅ	Rare	ヂュ	Rare
DJO	ぢょ	Rare	ヂョ	Rare

Because *Katakana* is used largely for loan-word transcriptions, which is why symbols traditionally associated with the consonants /dj/ and /dz/ are all rare. Typically, the symbols traditionally associated with the consonants /z/ and /j/ are used regardless of how the consonant is pronounced. The only times when づ・ヅ and ぢ・ヂ are used is when they are immediately preceded by つ・ツ and ち・チ respectively, or when they are the voiced forms of つ・ツ and ち・チ respectively in compound expressions.

Nosebleed	<i>Hana(d)ji</i> はなぢ	Instruction	<i>Shiji</i> しじ
Shrinkage	<i>Chi(d)jimi</i> ちぢみ	Bell	<i>Suzu</i> すず
Continuation	<i>Tsu(d)zuki</i> つづき	Monopoly	<i>Hitorijime</i> ひとりじめ
Class	<i>Jugyō</i> じゅぎょう	Jaguar	<i>Jaga</i> ジャガー
Monotone	<i>Ippon(d)jōshi</i> いっぽんぢょうし	Information	<i>Jōhō</i> じょうほう
Suggestion/hint	<i>Ire(d)jie</i> いれぢえ	Crescent Moon	<i>Mika(d)zuki</i> みかづき
Within reach	<i>Te(d)jika</i> てぢか	To spell	<i>Tsu(d)zuru</i> つづる
Proximity	<i>Ma(d)jika</i> まぢか	Hairpiece	<i>Zura</i> ツラ

Word Note: ザラ is an abbreviation of *katsura* かつら (hairpiece), and it is usually spelled in Katakana largely to emphasize its existence as an abbreviation.

Curriculum Note: To learn more, see Lesson 355.

第6課: Introduction to Kanji I: The Radicals

Japanese, as we have learned, is written with a mix of different writing systems put together. In Lessons 3-5, we learned about the *Kana* writing systems: *Hiragana* ひらがな and *Katakana* カタカナ. These systems alone, though, do not comprise all the characters that are used to write Japanese. Japanese is also written with characters called *Kanji* 漢字. These are symbols which originated from China that were then adapted to write the Japanese language.

Unlike with *Kana*, it will be impossible to learn every *Kanji* all in one go. This is because over 3,000 individual characters are commonly used. The use of *Kanji* is undoubtedly the hardest aspect to writing Japanese, but it is also the most rewarding.

In this lesson, we will learn about how *Kanji* are constructed. By doing so, you'll be able to get an idea of how they are formed and written down. In the next lesson, we'll learn about how *Kanji* are read as their pronunciations are varied and must be learned on a case-by-case basis. Because this is an introductory lesson with no actual vocabulary given, you do not have to memorize any of the *Kanji* provided as examples.

The Building Blocks of *Kanji*

Kanji are completely different from ひらがな and カタカナ. Whereas these systems look like foreign alphabets, the same cannot be said for *Kanji*. In fact, *Kanji* don't even correspond to specific sounds like the letters of an alphabet or syllabary would. Instead, *Kanji* represent actual units of meaning, and to accomplish this, they are composed of one or more building blocks. These building blocks are known as radicals.

All *Kanji* in existence are composed of one or more 214 distinct radicals.

又	阝	扌	少	犭	冫	乚
Long Stride	Village	Hand	Heart	Beast	Ice	Barb

These are just five examples of some of the most common radicals. Radicals will always have one (or more interrelated) meaning(s) assigned to them, allowing the reader to make an accurate educated guess as to what the *Kanji* they're in mean. This means that if you see, for example, 少 in a *Kanji*, it has a good chance of having a meaning related to emotion.

Many radicals happen to be independent *Kanji* themselves. After all, they each possess some core meaning. Not all radicals can be used this way, but this is due to historical happenstance.

山	土	木	火	糸
Mountain	Earth	Tree	Fire	Thread

These radicals also happen to be used as independent *Kanji* with the same meanings. Just like the previous radicals, when you see them in other *Kanji*, their meanings are incorporated into said resultant *Kanji*. To demonstrate this, below are five *Kanji* using the radical for “fire.”

災	炎	燃	煙	灰
Disaster	Flame	Burn	Smoke	Ash

As demonstrated by these examples, the same radical can appear slightly differently depending on where it is in a *Kanji*, but the meaning the radical adds to the character doesn’t change.

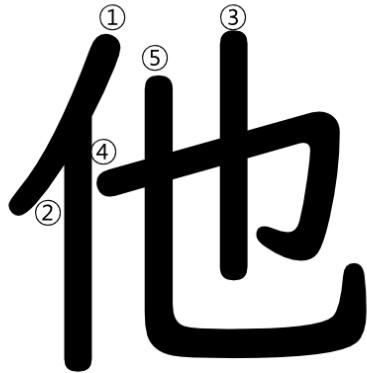
The Types of Radicals

On the topic of shape, radicals come in seven types based on how they fit in *Kanji*. These types also help determine how characters are written—the stroke order. Radicals can fit into more than one type as there is some give and take involved when combining radicals together.

1. 丶 : Left-Side Radicals

The first category of radicals establishes the general rule that strokes of *Kanji* are generally written from left to right. These radicals, naturally, are found on the left-side of a *Kanji*. Let’s look at the radical 亼 meaning “person.” When you see it to the left of a character, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with people.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character 他 meaning “other(s).”



To demonstrate how the radical 亻 contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

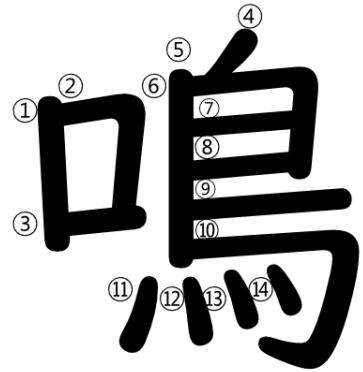
体	伴	仲	仏	休
Body	Companion	Relation	Buddha	Rest

Terminology Note: These radicals are also known as へん radicals in Japanese.

2. 丶 : Right-Side Radicals

The second category of radicals follow the rule of strokes being written left to right, meaning that these radicals are written last. Let's look at the radical 鳟 meaning "bird." When you see it to the right of a character, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with birds.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character 鳴 meaning "chirp/cry."



To demonstrate how the radical 鳥 contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

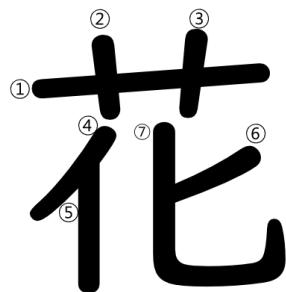
鴨	鳩	鶴	鷄	鷗
Duck	Dove	Stork	Chicken	Seagull

Terminology Note: These radicals are known as つくり radicals in Japanese.

3. : Upper-Side Radicals

The third category of radicals establishes the general rule that strokes of *Kanji* are generally written from top to bottom. Let's look at the radical 艹 meaning "grass". When you see it in the upper-half of a character, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with plant life.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character 花 meaning "flower."



To demonstrate how the radical 艹 contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

芋	茶	苗	苺	芽
Potato	Tea	Seedling	Strawberry	Sprout

Terminology Note: These radicals are known as かんむり in Japanese.

4.  : Bottom-Side Radicals

The fourth category of radicals follows the rule that strokes of *Kanji* are generally written from top to bottom, meaning that they are written last. Let's look at the radical 心 meaning "heart," which is a variant of 億 from earlier. When you see it in the lower-half of a character, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with emotions.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character meaning 思 "think."



To demonstrate how the radical 心 contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

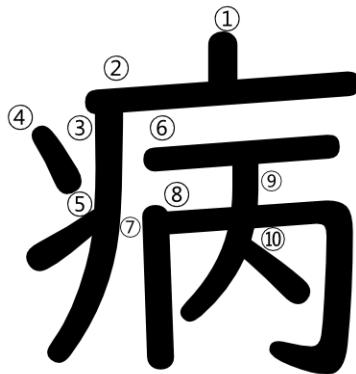
忘	念	怒	想	恋
Forget	Wish	Anger	Concept	Romance

Terminology Note: These radicals are known as あし in Japanese.

5. : Hanging Radicals

The fifth category of radicals follows the general guidelines of writing strokes from top-down and left-right. They appear hanging over the rest of the character in an r-shape. Let's look at the radical 疒 meaning "sickness." When you see it hanging over a character, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with sickness.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character 痘 meaning "disease".



To demonstrate how the radical 疒 contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

痛	疲	症	疫	癌
Pain	Fatigue	Symptom	Epidemic	Cancer

Terminology Note: These radicals are known as たれ in Japanese.

6. : Bottom-Wrapping Radicals

The sixth category of radicals follows the general guidelines of writing stroke orders from top-down and left-right. Consequently, because they begin at the far-left side of a *Kanji*, they are written first. Let's look at the radical 辵 meaning "movement." When you see it wrapped to the left-side and bottom of a character in an l-shape, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with movement/distance.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character 近 meaning "close/nearby."



To demonstrate how the radical 辵 contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

辺	迷	通	巡	這
Vicinity	Lost	Passing Through	Patrol	Crawl

Variant Note: The radical 辵 can alternatively be seen as 辵 like in the *Kanji* above for “crawl.” The extra dot appears in not as common characters.

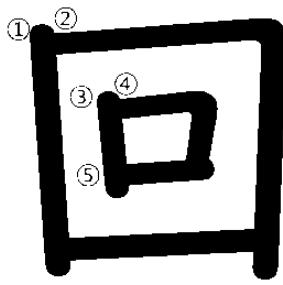
Terminology Note: These radicals are known as よう in Japanese.

7. : Enclosure Radicals

The seventh and final category of radicals all enclose the rest of the character they’re in. Technically, categories 5 and 6 can be seen as enclosure radicals, but they’re conventionally treated separately. Various kinds of enclosure radicals exist. They can either fully enclose the radical like the icon above or appear like the following icons: . Though stroke order depends on what sub-type the character is, they all follow the general principles discussed.

Let’s look at the radical meaning “enclosure.” When you see it to surrounding the entirety of a character, you know that the *Kanji* has something to do with some confined entity.

To demonstrate how these radicals are written, consider the character meaning “revolve.”



To demonstrate how the radical □ contributes meaning-wise to *Kanji*, consider the following characters.

国	围	固	図	囚
Country	Surround	Harden	Map	Prisoner

Other example radicals of this category include 門 (gate), 匚 (open box), 匚 (on-side enclosure) 冂 (upside-down box), and 勹 (wrapping enclosure). Of these, all but the first are nearly purely elemental, providing the full shape to the character it is a part of. Below are some example characters utilizing these radicals.

聞	画	同	匱	区
Hear	Picture	Same	Fragrant	Ward
問	缶	冊	色	医
Question	Can	Book	Color	Doctor

Terminology Note: These radicals are known as かまえ in Japanese.

Picture of What's to Come

The chart below, extracted from www.jisho.org, displays all 214 radicals according to their stroke count. There is no need to look up each and every radical, nor is there any need to necessarily learn what their names are or all the *Kanji* made with them. There is far too much information for that to be possible or practical. Treat this as a mapping of the knowledge to be acquired on your journey.

[Next Lesson → 第?課: Introduction to Kanji 漢字 II: ON & KUN Readings](#)

第?課: Introduction to *Kanji* 漢字 II: ON & KUN Readings

In Lesson 6, we learned that *Kanji* are used to write units of meaning. Each character has one or more meanings, and their components (radicals) help the reader guess what those meanings are. Whereas the last lesson focused on learning about what *Kanji* are, this lesson will be about how to read them. Before we learn about how pronouncing *Kanji* works, we'll need to first learn about the different kinds of *Kanji* that exist. This will help you figure out how to read *Kanji* more than you may think!

The Kinds of *Kanji*

Kanji come in four main kinds based on what they represent and how. Originally, *Kanji* all began as pictographic representations of what they meant. The ancient Chinese took it upon themselves to turn pictures into meaningful symbols, and over many centuries, those symbols evolved into the *Kanji* we know today.

Pictograms

Pictograms are the direct descendants of these ancient depictions. Although highly stylized, many pictographic Kanji still greatly resemble what they represent. Below are some examples.

日	月	山	鳥	木
Sun	Moon	Mountain	Bird	Tree
魚	川	貝	口	龍
Fish	River	Shellfish	Mouth	Dragon

Ideograms

Whereas pictograms are depictions of concrete entities, ideograms are depictions of abstract entities. This is the only difference between the two. Below are some examples.

一	二	三	上	下
One	Two	Three	Up	Down
天	今	母	音	立
Heaven	Now	Mother	Sound	Standing

Compound Ideograms

Compound ideograms are the logical next step after simple ideograms. As implied by the name, they are created by combining radicals together to express a more complex meaning. The meaning is always abstract to some degree. Below are some examples.

林	森	炎	明	信
Woods	Forest	Flame	Bright	Believe
Tree + Tree	Tree + Tree + Tree	Fire + Fire	Sun + Moon	Person + Word
死	比	光	男	休
Death	Compare	Light	Man	Rest
Bones + Person	Person + Person	Fire + Person	Rice Field + Strength	Person + Tree

Semasio-Phonetic Characters

The previous types of characters only make up about 10% of the *Kanji* that exist. This

means that for the remaining 90%, not all parts of a *Kanji* contribute to its meaning. Rather, one or more parts contribute to the meaning while the rest of the character indicates its “sound.” These phonetic elements are deeply tied to Chinese, the language for which *Kanji* were originally developed for. Nonetheless, because so many words have been borrowed into Japanese from Chinese, it would be a huge mistake to ignore *Kanji* phonetics.

To demonstrate all this, let’s first consider the *Kanji* 官 meaning “bureaucracy.” It is a compound ideogram composed of a pictograph of a roof and meat for ceremonial purposes. This gave about a meaning of “military,” which then eventually led to it being interpreted as “a building where military dwell.” From this, the meaning of “bureaucracy” came about. Its “sound” is KAN. When it is seen in other characters, its meaning is usually irrelevant. Its primary purpose is to indicate that the character it’s in also has the same/similar pronunciation.

管	館	菅	棺
Pipe	Large Building	Sedge	Coffin
KAN	KAN	KAN	KAN
Bamboo + 官	Food + 官	Grass + 官	Tree + 官

Kanji Note: 館 can also be viewed as a compound ideogram. A building for the military with lots of resources is naturally large.

ON & KUN Readings

ON Readings

The “sound” elements found in semasiophonic characters refer to what are called ON readings—*on'yomi* おんよみ. ON readings are associated with Sino-Japanese vocabulary. These are words derived from Chinese roots, and any character read with an ON reading represents one of the many Chinese roots borrowed into Japanese.

ON readings were borrowed along with *Kanji*, but *Kanji* weren’t all introduced to Japan at the same time. Over many centuries, Japan would occasionally open itself and then close itself off from direct contact with China and its other neighbors. As time went by, so too did Chinese change. Whenever the flow of linguistic information was reopened, Japan did not simply replace old ON readings for the new ones that came in. Instead, words that had already been made with the old readings stayed as is and the new readings, as well as new meanings in some cases, were used to make even more words.

All this means that any *Kanji* which came from China will have one or more ON readings. To demonstrate this, let’s look at the *Kanji* 男 meaning “man.” It has two ON readings: ナン and ダン, with the first one being older than the latter one. You can find words with both readings. Words created with the ON readings of more than one *Kanji* are technically

compounds as each *Kanji* represents a separate unit of meaning.

Notation Note: ON readings will be given in *Katakana* カタカナ for the rest of this lesson just like above. Additionally, as was the case in previous lessons, characters in bold have a high pitch in comparison to those which are not in bold.

男性	男優	男児	男子	男女
ダンセイ	ダンユウ	ダンジ	ダンシ	ダンジョ
Male	Actor	Boy	Young man	Men and women
長男	次男	三男	美男	下男
チヨウナン	ジナン	サンナン	ビダン・ビナン	ゲナン
Eldest son	Second son	Third son	Handsome man	Male servant

Reading Note: As demonstrated by the word 美男, there are cases in which more than one reading is acceptable.

KUN Readings

Along with ON readings, most *Kanji* also have KUN readings—*kun'yomi* くんよみ. Japanese existed before Chinese loan-words ever crossed the sea into Japan. These Chinese borrowings didn't just replace the existing vocabulary of Japanese. Instead, both the Chinese loans and native vocabulary ended up coexisting similarly to how words of Germanic and Romance origin coexist in English.

Knowing ON readings is like knowing your Latin roots, and knowing KUN readings is like knowing the core vocabulary used in daily conversation. This is indeed reflected statistically in Japanese. Whereas Sino-Japanese words derived from ON readings make up over 60% of the Japanese lexicon, they only make up about 30% of words used commonly in the spoken language. Native vocabulary represented by KUN readings make up over 60% of the words used in daily conversation.

To demonstrate what KUN readings look like, let's return our attention to the *Kanji* 男. It has two KUN readings: お and おとこ. The first KUN reading is a root that refers to "male" entities, and it is seen a lot in Japanese male names. The latter reading おとこ is the word for "man." The character 男 demonstrates that both more than one ON reading and more than one KUN reading can be assigned to a single *Kanji*.

Additionally, just as ON readings are used to make compounds, so too are KUN readings. This is because Japanese has always had means of creating compound expressions.

Notation Note: KUN readings will be given in *Hiragana* ひらがな for the rest of this lesson just like above.

男心	男湯	男前	男神	保男
おとこごころ	おとこゆ	おとこまえ	おがみ	やすお
Male instincts	Men's bath	Man's looks	Male deity	Yasuo

Choosing Between ON & KUN Readings

So, how exactly do you know which reading to choose for any given word?

- Both ON and KUN readings can be used in single-Kanji words. For words like this read with an ON reading, a KUN reading rarely exists. Even if a KUN reading does exist, the readings are used as completely different words. For single-Kanji that are read with a KUN reading, it tends to be a basic vocabulary word.

王	天	線	駅	金
オウ	テン	セン	エキ	キン
King	Heaven	Line	Train station	Gold
雨	山	国	鳥	金
あめ	やま↓	くに	とり	かね
Rain	Mountain	Country	Bird	Money

- Both ON and KUN readings can be used in compounds. Typically, the more *Kanji* there are strung together, the more likely they're read as ON readings. Also, ON readings are associated with technical words, many of which may be best suited for the written language instead of conversation. Contrary to this, KUN reading compounds are associated with simple words common in conversation. They also tend to be core vocabulary of the language that you would expect Japanese to have always had.

王国	天気	京浜東北線	火山	光年	金魚
オウコク	テンキ	ケイヒントウホクセン	カザン	コウネン	キンギョ
Kingdom	Weather	Keihin-Tōhoku Line	Volcano	Lightyear	Goldfish
雨雲	母親	足音	小鳥	子供	貝殻
あまぐも	ははおや	あしおと	ことり	こども	かいがら

Raincloud	Mother	Footstep	Small bird	Child(ren)	Shell
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ON-KUN & KUN-ON Compounds

It is also possible to see ON-KUN compounds, which are called ジュウばこよみ. In *Kanji*, ジュウばこ is 重箱. It uses the ON reading ジュウ of 重 and the KUN reading ばこ of 箱. The word refers to a “multi-tiered food box.” It itself is an example of an ON-KUN compound.

The reverse, KUN-ON readings, is also possible, and these readings are called オトウよみ. In *Kanji*, オトウ is 湯桶. It uses the KUN reading オ of 湯 and the ON reading トウ of 桶. The word refers to a “pail-like wooden container for hot liquids.” It itself is an example of a KUN-ON compound.

台所	番組	路肩	残高	団子
ダイどころ	バンぐみ	ロカタ	ザンだか	ダンゴ
Kitchen	(TV) program	Road shoulder	Bank balance	Dumpling(s)
場所	見本	身分	消印	手帳
ばショ	みホン	みブン	けしイン	てチョウ
Place	Specimen	Status/position	Postmark	Notebook

Okurigana

It is also important to note that many KUN readings are only used when certain *Hiragana* follows. This is called *Okurigana* おくりがな, which, again, is *Hiragana* that follows *Kanji*. *Okurigana* is entirely composed of the parts of word that change in conjugation. Although there are instances in which ON readings can be followed by *Okurigana*, most instances involve KUN readings (native vocabulary).

思う	高い	歌う	大きい	行く
おもう	たかい	うたう	おおきい	いく
To think	To be high/tall	To sing	To be big	To go

Kokuji

Though *Kanji* are Chinese characters, not all of them were made in China. There are, in fact, many important *Kanji* that were made in Japan following the same principles. These characters are called *kokuji* こくじ. *Kokuji*, being indigenous to Japan, typically only have

KUN readings. Again, though, this is unfortunately not a solid rule either. If you're a reader of Chinese, most of the characters will likely not be familiar to you.

Notation Note: Parts of a reading in parentheses indicate that it is *okurigana*.

働	Work	峠	Mountain pass	癇	Spasms
	ON: ドウ KUN: はたら (く)		KUN: とうげ		ON: シャク
鰯	Sardine	畠	Field	腺	Gland
	KUN: いわし		KUN: はた・はたけ		ON: セン
込	Crowded	匂	Fragrant	塀	Fence
	KUN: こ (む)		KUN: にお (う)		ON: ヘイ
辻	Crossroad	榊	Sacred Shinto tree	鉢	Thumbtack
	KUN: つじ		KUN: さかき		ON: ビョウ

Exceptions

Aside from ON and KUN readings are completely exceptional readings. Though they can be viewed as KUN readings, the difference is that more than one *Kanji* is involved, and it's not possible to assign any part of the reading to the individual characters. Instead, you read the word as a whole a particular way. Each exception must be learned individually, and there are unfortunately quite a few such exceptions. Consider the following examples.

昨日	今日	明日	明後日	大人
きのう	きょう	あした・あす	あさって	おとな
Yesterday	Today	Tomorrow	Day after tomorrow	Adult
一日	今朝	煙草	一昨日	梅雨
ついたち↓	けさ	たばこ	おととい	つゆ
First day of the month	This morning	Tobacco	Day before yesterday	Rainy season
雪崩	大和	田舎	太刀	紅葉
なだれ	やまと	いなか	たち	もみじ

Conclusion

Ultimately, reading *Kanji* is very complex. Most characters have multiple readings, and the general patterns discussed above are still not good enough to guess with complete accuracy what reading should be used for any given word. Even though these guidelines can help you guess which reading to choose, you still have to know the readings of the *Kanji* present to make a proper guess.

There is also the reality that there are many *Kanji* which share the same readings. After all, there are far more *Kanji* than there are unique morae in the language. Similarly to how English readers learn how to spell words, it is always safest to simply learn how individual words are read, and along the way, the guidelines mentioned above will gradually become more practical.

Don't let all this be intimidating. Japanese natives aren't perfect either, and there are plenty of words everyone stumbles over—both non-native and native speakers. In our digital age, reading *Kanji* has become easier than ever due to the ease of typing. The more exposure you have with Japanese text, the easier reading *Kanji* becomes, despite how many individual *Kanji* are used. Take your time, but most importantly, practice diligently.

[Next Lesson 第7課: The 10 Major Aspects of Japanese](#)

第7課: The 10 Major Aspects of Japanese

Japanese (*Nihongo* 日本語) is a major world language. Depending on how one defines a language, it may be ranked as the eighth to the tenth most spoken language. Japanese is predominantly spoken in Japan. In Japanese, "Japan" is called 日本, which is usually pronounced as *Nihon* にほん, but it may also be pronounced as *Nippon* にっぽん. *Nippon* is favored in formal settings, but in reality, *Nihon* and *Nippon* are both used in many of the same situations. The country is formally called *Nipponkoku* 日本国 (the nation of Japan).

The country of Japan is said to have been founded by Emperor Jimmu (*Jimmu Ten'nō* 神武天皇) on February 11, 660 B.C. Its national flag is called the *Hinomaru* 日の丸, a reference to it being the land of the rising sun. In this lesson, you will learn about ten of the most important aspects of Japanese. In doing so, the mysteries of Japanese grammar that will be unraveled in the lessons that follow won't be so mysterious after all.

Before delving into what Japanese is, let's first address one concern you've likely had thus far: how to say basic everyday expressions. Below are some of those most important phrases that you can use with Japanese speakers.

- Good morning: *O-hayō gozaimasu* おはようございます
- Good afternoon/Hello: *Kon'nichi wa* こんにちは
- Good evening: *Komban wa* 今晚は
- Good night: *O-yasumi-nasai* お休みなさい
- How are you doing?: *O-genki desu ka?* お元気ですか
- Nice to meet you: *Hajimemashite* 初めまして
- Thank you: *Arigatō gozaimasu* ありがとうございます
- Yes: *Hai* はい
- No: *Iie* いいえ
- I'm sorry/Excuse me: *Sumimasen* すみません

The ten aspects that are to be studied in this lesson are as follows:

1. The Sounds
2. A Mixed Script
3. Word Order
4. Parts of Speech
5. Agglutination
6. Speech Styles
7. Spoken vs Written Language
8. Etymology
9. Language Isolate
10. Dialects

I: The Sounds

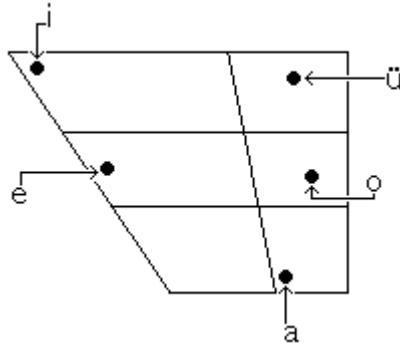
Words are composed of sounds, and every language has its own set of rules that govern how sounds come together to make words. These rules are collectively referred to as the **phonology** of a language. How sounds simply sound is referred to as the **phonetics** of a language.

The Vowels

A **vowel** is a speech sound made by *vibrating the vocal cords without obstructing airflow from the lungs*. In Japanese, there are only five vowels: /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, and /o/. However, they aren't exactly like their English counterparts. To learn how they differ, we need to learn more about what vowels are.

High vowels are made with the tongue raised high. Oppositely, **low vowels** are made with the tongue lowered. **Front vowels** are made by placing the tongue as close to the front of the mouth as possible. Oppositely, **back vowels** are made by placing the tongue as far back in the mouth as possible.

Chart Note: The diagram below maps out the vowels of Japanese in a vowel space that is meant to represent the dimensions of height and forwardness in the mouth. The further left you go, the closer your tongue is to the front of the mouth. The further right you go, the farther your tongue is from the front of the mouth. The further up you go, the higher up the tongue is. The further down you go, the lower the tongue is.



The vowel /a/ is made by with the tongue low but central in the mouth. It is more like the "a" sound found in British English or Spanish. The vowel /i/ is made with the tongue raised high in the front of the mouth. The vowel /u/ is also a high-vowel, but it's made with the tongue in the back of the mouth. In the diagram above, it is marked with a diaeresis (two dots) to indicate that it is not made while rounding the lips like its English counterpart. The vowels /e/ and /o/ are made with the tongue at the center of the mouth. Whereas /e/ is made by placing the tongue closer to the front, /o/ is made by placing the tongue back in the mouth.

Curriculum Note: Various things can happen phonetically to vowels in Japanese. They may become elongated, nasalized, and even devoiced. To learn more about these processes, see Lesson 365.

The Consonants

In [Lesson 2](#), we learned about the various consonant sounds of Japanese. A **consonant** is a speech sound made by *obstructing the airflow from the lungs in some manner*.

Consonants come in four broad categories: unvoiced, voiced, palatalized, and nasal. Unvoiced consonants are made by not vibrating the vocal cords. Voiced consonants are made by vibrating the vocal folds. Palatal consonants are made by placing the body of the tongue against the hard palate of the mouth. Lastly, nasal consonants are made by redirecting some of the air exhaled from the lungs through the nose.

- **Unvoiced Consonants (Museion 無声音):** /k/, /s/, /sh/, /t/, /ts/, /ch/, /h/, /f/, /p/.
- **Voiced Consonants (Yūseion 有声音):** /g/, /z/, /j/, /d/, /dz/, /dʒ/, /b/, /n/, /m/, /r/, /y/, /w/.
- **Palatal Consonants (Yō'on 拗音):** /ky/, /gy/, /sh/, /j/, /dj/, /hy/, /py/, /by/, /ry/, /y/.
- **Nasal Consonants (Bion 鼻音):** /n/, /ny/, /m/, /my/, /N/.

There is some overlap between these categories, but this is only natural. The categorization

of the consonants above does not take into account variations of the same consonant (allophones). To learn more about allophones and the articulation of each kind of consonant, see Lesson 366.

You may remember the terms *seion* 清音, *dakuon* 濁音, *handakuon* 半濁音, and *yō'on* 拗音 when we learned about *Kana* 仮名. However, they don't 100% match with the terms above because they describe how sounds have been traditionally categorized.

- Any consonant in the Table of 50 Sounds (Gojūonzu 五十音図) is a *seion* 清音.
- A consonant written with a *dakuten* ゛ is a *dakuon* 濁音. It excludes other sounds that vibrate the vocal folds such as vowels, /n/, /m/, /r/, /y/, and /w/.
- A consonant written with a *handakuten* ゜ is a *handakuon* 半濁音. This term only refers to /p/, which phonetically is no different other than unvoiced consonants.
- A consonant written with a small *y-kana* い is a *yō'on* 拗音. This term is the Japanese equivalent of "palatal sound."
- Another word you may encounter is *bidakuon* 鼻濁音, which refers to pronouncing /g/ as /ng/.

The Mora

Unlike English, the basic syllabic structure in Japanese is a mora-based system. A **mora** is a unit of sound that is equivalent to a single beat. Each "beat" is conceptualized as being equal in length, and each beat is assigned a high or low pitch.

In reality, morae are not always exactly equal in length, but this is how they are conceptualized. This is then reflected in the writing system. *Kana* 仮名 isn't a syllabary. Rather, it's a moraic system which denotes separate characters to each sound (combination) that can be treated as a mora in Japanese. This includes the moraic consonant /N/, which is written in *Kana* 仮名 as ん・ン.

The moraic sound system helps explain why Japanese distinguishes between short and long vowels as well as single (short) and double (long) consonants. **Long vowels** are deemed as two morae, whereas **short vowels** are deemed as one mora. Similarly, **double consonants**--written with つ・ツ-- are deemed as two morae, whereas **single consonants** are deemed as one mora.

Short Vowels	Long Vowels	Single Consonants	Double Consonants
Soto 外 (Outside)	Sōtō 相当 (Considerable)	Soto 外 (Outside)	Sotto そっと (Gently)
Koko ここ (Here)	Kōkō 高校 (High School)	Koko ここ (Here)	Kokko 国庫 (Treasury)

Pitch Accent

Japanese has a **pitch accent system**. Every mora of a phrase is assigned a high or low pitch. In Standard Japanese, there are only four possible pitch patterns that a phrase can have. Although the allocation of what phrase gets what pattern is arbitrary, the natures of these patterns themselves are not.

Chart Notes:

1. "L" and "H" both stand for a single mora. That means H-L is two morae, whereas H-L-L is three morae. As a reminder of this, numbers will be placed after these contour notations to tell you how many morae words involved have.
2. The "L" and "H" in parentheses indicate what the pitch of something attached to words would be per pattern.

頭高型 <i>Atamadakagata</i>	Pitch is high for the first mora , drops on the second mora, and stays low for any remaining morae that follow. Ex. H(-L) ①, H-L(-L) ②, H-L-L(-L) ③, H-L-L-L(-L) ④	<i>háshì</i> 箸 (chopsticks)
中高型 <i>Nakadakagata</i>	Pitch starts low on the first mora, peaks at high pitch on the middle mora(e) , drops back to low pitch on the third morae, and stays low for any following morae after the word. Ex. L-H-L ③, L-H-H-L ④	<i>hanásu</i> 話す (to speak)
尾高型 <i>Odakagata</i>	Pitch starts low on the first mora, peaks at high pitch on the last mora, and then drops to low pitch on any morae that follow the word . Ex. L-H-(L) ②, L-H-H(-L) ③	<i>hàshí</i> 橋 (bridge)
平板型 <i>Heibangata</i>	Pitch starts low on the first mora, becomes high pitch on the second mora, and then the pitch stays high even once the word is over unto anything that follows. Ex. L(-H) ①, L-H(-H) ②, L-H-H(-H) ③, L-H-H-H(-H) ④	<i>hashi</i> 端 (edge)

Although these are the four pitch patterns of Japanese phrases, there are many processes that can change the pitch pattern of a word from one to another, especially as a phrase becomes further complex. There are also generational and dialectical differences that further complicate this basic understanding of pitch accent. The best way to acquire the Standard Japanese pitch accent system is to mimic native speakers who grew up with Standard Japanese as their primary dialect, which can be said for most people that live in and around Tokyo.

Curriculum Note: To learn more about pitch accent, see Lesson 368.

II: A Mixed Script

Although writing is not the same thing as language, it is intrinsically tied to language. The Japanese writing system is the most complex script in the world. This is because it is

composed of **four** different types of symbols. As we have already partly covered Japanese writing, this section will delve more into information about the system as a whole to give you a better understanding of why it is the way it is.

1) Kanji 漢字

How Kanji 漢字 Came to Japan

Kanji 漢字 are Chinese characters brought to Japan from China via Korea around the beginning of the fifth century. Not soon after these characters were introduced, a Japanese writing system called *Man'yōgana* 万葉仮名 was created. It is called this because it was largely used in a compilation of poems written in Old Japanese called the *Man'yōshū* 万葉集. This system behaved like a syllabary, but characters were often used for their meanings as is the case today. To learn more about this ancient writing system, see Lesson 410.

The Radicals

Kanji 漢字 are composed of one or more building blocks called radicals, or *bushu* 部首 in Japanese. There are 214 such so-called radicals, and with these radicals, most characters fall under four types:

1. ***Shōkei Moji* 象形文字 (Pictograms)**: These characters resemble what they mean. It is generally the case that they looked more similar to what they represent earlier in history, but many still resemble what they mean.
Ex. 日 (sun/day), 月 (moon/month), 山 (mountain), 鳥 (bird), 木 (tree), 魚 (fish), 龍 (dragon)
2. ***Shiji moji* 指示文字 (Ideograms)**: These characters are abstract pictograms, more often referred to as ideograms.
Ex. 一 (one), 二 (two), 三 (three), 上 (above), 下 (below)
3. ***Kaii Moji* 会意文字 (Compound Ideograms)**: These characters combine one or elements to express a certain meaning.
Ex. 休 (rest), 森 (forest/grove), 好 (like), 明 (bright), 信 (believe).
4. ***Keisei Moji* 形成文字 (Semasiophonic)**: About 90% of all characters are this type. They are composed of two parts: a semantic indicator(s) and a phonetic indicator(s). Both indicators are based on the Chinese language rather than the Japanese language. Ex. 河 (river), 湖 (lake), 流 (flow), 沖 (offing), 江 (inlet).
Note: In these characters, the left side indicates meaning while the right side indicates sound.

Curriculum Note: To learn more about *bushu* 部首, see Lesson 359.

How Many Symbols are There?

The number of *Kanji* 漢字 that exist in Japanese is uncertain. The *Kanjigen* 漢字源 is the most realistic Chinese-Japanese character dictionary (*Kanwa Jiten* 漢和辞典) for Japanese, having 9,990 entries. This does not mean that Japanese speakers know 9,990 characters. Although a small percentage might, the most comprehensive proficiency test for proficiency, the *Kanji Nōryoku Kentei Ikkyū* 漢字能力検定一級, only covers approximately 6,000 Kanji. Yet, only about 10% of applicants pass this test--some of whom are foreign test takers.

The *Jōyō Kanji List*, which is a list that the Japanese Ministry of Education has put forth to create a literary baseline for compulsory education, bureaucratic documents and publications, and general use. As of 2017, 2,136 characters have been designated as *Jōyō Kanji* 常用漢字. Additional characters used primarily for names, are designated as *Jimmeiyō Kanji* 人名用漢字, of which a total of 862 exist as of 2017. Generally speaking, most competent readers know over 3,000 characters, and due to the ease of typing, this average is steadily rising.

Examples of *Jōyō Kanji* 常用漢字

雨, 広, 今, 力, 非, 明, 貝, 眠, 央, 芸, 減

Examples of *Jimmeiyō Kanji* 人名用漢字

丑, 之, 乎, 也, 云, 亘, 伊, 伍, 吾, 昌, 胡, 辰, 遙

The Two Kinds of Readings

There are two kinds of readings emerged: *on'yomi* 音読み (readings from Chinese) and *kun'yomi* 訓読み (readings from native words). Most *Kanji* 漢字 have *on'yomi* 音読み as they are inherently characters borrowed from China. The *on'yomi* 音読み of a character can usually be guessed with relative ease as most characters have a phonetic component, as mentioned earlier. Many characters were also attributed to native vocabulary, thus providing them with one or more *kun'yomi* 訓読み.

Chart Note: *On'yomi* 音読み are listed in *Katakana* カタカナ and *kun'yomi* 訓読み are listed in *Hiragana* ひらがな for brevity as well as to provide an opportunity to practice your *Kana* 仮名 skills. *Kana* 仮名 in parentheses are *okurigana* 送り仮名, which usually spell out word inflections and enable said readings to be valid.

<i>Kanji</i> 漢字	Meaning(s)	<i>On'yomi</i> 音読み	<i>Kun'yomi</i> 訓読み
息	Breath/rest	ソク	いき
植	To plant	ショク	う (える)
宮	Palace	キュウ・グウ・ク	みや
院	Institute	イン	
間	Space/gap	カン・ケン	あいだ・ま

Curriculum Note: There are various kinds of both kinds of readings. Knowledge of these kinds gives reasons for why many characters have so many readings. To learn more about this, see Lesson 354.

Japanese-Made Symbols

However, there is also such thing as *Kanji* 漢字 made in Japan. These are called *Kokuji* 国字. Some of these characters do have *on'yomi* 音読み attributed to them, and some of these characters have even made their way into Chinese.

Notation Note: For the characters described below, the same notation conventions for readings as used in the chart above are implemented.

- 働: Meaning "work," it has the readings ドウ and はたら (く) . It is also now used in Mandarin Chinese.
- 勹: Meaning "smell," it has the reading にお (う) .
- 塙: Meaning "wall/fence," it has the readings ヘイ and ベイ, but these readings were formed by using a radical indicating a Chinese phonetic; the character itself is actually not used in Mandarin Chinese.
- 峠: Meaning "mountain peak," it has the reading とうげ. The reading is spelled as とう げ rather than とおげ because it was once たむけ >たうげ , lending its current form, whereas instances of おお typically derive from おほ.
- 神: Meaning "sacred Shinto tree," it has the reading さかき.
- 農: Meaning "include," it has the reading こ (む) .
- 枢: Meaning "framework," it has the reading わく.
- 畑: Meaning "field," it has the readings はた & はたけ.
- 腺: Meaning "gland," it has the reading セン. It was created by using the Chinese phonetic element 泉, lending the sound セン. This character is now also used in Mandarin Chinese.
- 雨: Meaning "raindrop," it has the reading しすく .

Curriculum Note: To learn more about *Kokuji* 国字, see Lesson 360.

Character Simplification

If you are a reader of Traditional Chinese or can read Hanja in Korean, you may notice that many *Kanji* 漢字 don't look the same. This is because many *Kanji* 漢字 were simplified after World War II. The old forms of characters are called *Kyūjitai* 旧字体 whereas the new forms are called *Shinjitai* 新字体. The old forms may still be used in proper nouns as well as in publications printed in the 1960s and beforehand. Below are a handful of some of the characters that were altered.

Meaning(s)	Traditional Form	New New Form	Meaning(s)	Traditional Form	New Form
Yen/circle	圓	円	Learning	學	学
Spirit	氣	気	Old	舊	旧
Meet	會	会	Return	歸	帰

Curriculum Note: To learn more about *Kanji* 漢字 simplification, see Lesson 361.

2) & 3) Kana 仮名: *Katakana* 片仮名 & *Hiragana* 平仮名

From *Kanji* 漢字, *Katakana* カタカナ and *Hiragana* ひらがな were created, both of which are *Kana* 仮名. Each set consists of a basic pool of 48 characters. Intrinsically, they only have phonetic value whereas *Kanji* 漢字 usually have both semantic and phonetic value(s).

Chart Note: The chart to the left illustrates the origin of *Hiragana* ひらがな, and the chart to the right illustrates the origin of *Katakana* カタカナ.

无	和	良	也	末	波	奈	太	左	加	安	ア	イ	伊	ウ	宇	エ	江	オ	於
元	和	ち	ら	や	ま	は	な	た	か	あ	カ	カ	キ	ク	久	ケ	介	コ	己
	鳥	利			美	比	仁	知	之	機	サ	散	シ	ス	須	セ	世	ソ	曾
	み	り			み	ひ	に	ち	し	き	タ	多	チ	千	ツ	川	テ	天	ト
	留	由	武	不	奴	川	寸	久	宇	ナ	奈	ニ	仁	ヌ	奴	ネ	祢	ノ	乃
	石	ゆ	む	ふ	ぬ	つ	す	く	う	ハ	ハ	ヒ	比	フ	不	ヘ	部	ホ	保
	る									マ	末	ミ	三	ム	牟	メ	女	モ	毛
										ヤ	也			ユ	由			ヨ	與
										ラ	良	リ	利	ル	流	レ	礼	ロ	呂
										ワ	和	牛	井			工	惠	ヲ	乎
										ン	尙								

History Note: The first system to be created was *Katakana* カタカナ. It was created thanks to Buddhist monks simplifying the manuscript forms of characters. *Hiragana* ひらがな was created by simplifying the cursive form of characters. *Katakana* カタカナ used to be called "man's hand (*otokode* 男手)" and *Hiragana* ひらがな used to be referred to as "woman's hand (*on'nade* 女手)" as the choice for what script one used was once largely based on one's gender.

Hiragana ひらがな is seen the most as it is used to spell most words that aren't from foreign

languages which *Kanji* 漢字 may not be practical or possible.

- **Inflection** - Ex. *Atarashii* 新しい: the part that conjugates is left in *Hiragana* ひらがな.
- **Kanji 漢字 Replacement** - Ex. *Shiwa* しわ: The symbol 襲 is often deemed too complicated.

Katakana カタカナ is largely used to write foreign loan-words from modern world languages. This includes modern borrowings from Chinese languages.

Loan-word	Meaning	Language	Loan-word	Meaning	Language
シュウマイ	Barbecued pork	Cantonese	ピザ	Pizza	Italian
スポット	Dropper	Dutch	トナカイ	Reindeer	Ainu

Katakana カタカナ may also be used to write onomatopoeia or used to italicize expressions and even entire sentences. Its purpose for italicization is used heavily in Japanese dictionaries.

- **Italicization** - Ex. *megane* メガネ: Meaning "glasses," this word is typically spelled as 眼鏡.
- **Onomatopoeia** - Ex. *dokan* ドカン (boom).

Curriculum Note: To learn about *Kana* 仮名, see also Lessons 3, 4, 355, 356, 357, 364.

4) English Letters (*Rōmaji* ローマ字)

Though Japanese is largely written with a mix of *Kanji* 漢字 and *Kana* 仮名, English letters have become incorporated into the spellings of many words, mostly newly coined words.

<i>Piāru</i> P R	Public relations	<i>Ōeru</i> O L	Office lady
<i>Shiidii</i> C D	CD	<i>Diibuidii</i> D V D	DVD
<i>Emubui</i> M V	Music video	<i>Tiishatsu</i> Tシャツ	T-shirt
<i>Shiemu</i> C M	Commercial	<i>Piemu nii ten go</i> P M 2 . 5	Particle matter 2.5
<i>Echiaibui</i> H I V	HIV	<i>Erujibiiitii</i> L G B T	LGBT

Punctuation

Punctuation has largely been borrowed from the Western tradition, but the punctuation marks and rules associated with punctuation have evolved into something quite different.

Firstly, there are no spaces between words, and you write to the next line even if this breaks

up a word. Text may go down from left to right or down from right to left. Horizontal text was historically right to left. The most basic punctuation marks are shown below.

、	The comma	。	The period	!	The exclamation mark	?	The question mark
---	-----------	---	------------	---	----------------------	---	-------------------

Punctuation marks are written with the same space as regular characters. Commas are often where particles are omitted. ! and ? have been borrowed for emphatic purposes to further demonstrate tone and emotion.

わたし す
1. 私は (、) これが好きです。

Watashi wa(,) kore ga suki desu.

I like this.

2. なに？

Nani?

What?

3. はい！

Hai!

Yes!

Curriculum Note: To learn more about punctuation, see Lesson 346.

III: Word Order

Basic Word Order

In Japanese, the basic word order is SOV. This stands for subject-object-verb. These terms are defined as follows:

- **Subject:** *The item of discussion in a sentence.*
- **Object:** *What an action is directed at.*
- **Verb:** *An action or state of being.*

Though the basic word order of Japanese involves these parts of a sentence as such, the subject and object may flip positions depending on what is deemed more important to the speaker, and a sentence may be without either or both yet still be grammatical. This means that Japanese exhibits all of the following word orders: SOV, OSV, SV, and OV. Of these, the least frequently used is the OSV word order; however, it is still occasionally used nonetheless.

In between the subject and object of a sentence are words called particles. Particles are **post-positions** that equate to the prepositions of English that indicate the grammatical function(s) of what they follow.

SOV

- さかな た
4. クマが 魚 を食べた。
Kuma ga sakana wo tabeta.
The bear ate the fish.

OV

- な
6. ボール + を + 投げた。
Bōru wo nageta.
Literally: Ball threw.
Translation: I threw the ball.

OSV

- さかな た
5. 魚 をクマが食べた
Sakana wo kuma ga tabeta.
The bear ate the fish.

V

- うた
7. 歌った。
Utatta.
Literally: Sang.
Translation: I sang.

Left-Branching

In grammar, "left-branching" refers to modifiers preceding their constituents. For instance, in the English phrase "a tall man," the word "tall" modifies the word "man." This is an example of left-branching in English. However, in English, when a modify becomes too long/complex, it goes after its constituent. This is called right-branching. In the examples below, the constituent is in bold while their modifiers are italicized.

- i. The *kind* **cat**(left-branching)
- ii. The *smart* **dog**(left-branching)
- iii. The **cat** *brought back to life*(right-branching)
- iv. The **dog** *chasing its tail*(right-branching)

In Japanese, modifiers always go before their constituents no matter how complex they are.

- やさ ひと
8. 優しい人
Yasashii hito
Nice person

- がっこう かえ こども
9. 学校から帰った子供
Gakkō-kara kaetta kodomo
Literally: School-from returned kid
Translation: Child who came back from school.

Typical Structuring of Information

In Japanese, word order is not fixated in the way it is in English. Ultimately, the speaker can and normally will organize elements of any given sentence based on what he/she deems to be most to least important. However, most sentences are far more predictable than this fluid representation. Typically, information is organized with the following broad ordering.

TOPIC + TIME + LOCATION + SUBJECT + INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT +

VERB

The basic word order of SOV is reflected in this ordering, but Japanese typically puts a lot of information before the subject.

- The "topic" of a sentence is what the sentence/discussion is about.
- Time phrases would include expressions such as "today," "tomorrow," etc.
- Location phrases would include expressions such as "at Tokyo," "in China," etc.
- An **indirect object** is a phrase referring to something/someone that is a recipient of some action, but it isn't the primary (direct object).
- A **direct object** is a phrase that is primarily being affected by the verb.

わたし えき ともだち ほん
10. 私はきょう、駅で友達に本をあげました。

Watashi-wa kyō, eki-de (ø-ga) tomodachi-ni hon-wo agemashita.

Literally: I-as.for, today, station-at (I-subject.marker) friend-to book-object.marker gave.
Translation: I gave a book to a friend at the train station today.

Grammar Notes:

1. Whenever the subject and topic are the same, the subject is not stated but manifests in the grammar as an unspoken zero-pronoun. This rule comes from the general principle of obligatorily omitting syntactically redundant elements, which we'll look at next.
2. The typical ordering of information is almost completely opposite of that of English.

ぞう はな なが
11. 象は鼻が長い。

Zō-wa hana-ga nagai.

Literally: Elephants-as.for nose-subject.marker long.

Translation: As for elephants, their noses are long/Elephants have long noses.

Grammar Note: This sentence demonstrates how the subject and topic of a sentence, though related intrinsically with each other, do not have to be the same thing. The pattern shown in this example will be of major focus for us in Lesson 12.

けさじしん お
12. 今朝地震が起きました。

Kesa jishin-ga okimashita.

Literally: This.morning earthquake-subject.marker occurred.

Translation: An earthquake occurred this morning.

Grammar Note: Not all verbs require objects as demonstrated in Ex. 12. This sentence is perfectly grammatical with just a time phrase, subject, and a verb.

あした かれ にほんご おし はじ
13. 明日から彼に日本語を教え始めます。

Ashita-kara kare-ni Nihongo-wo oshiehajimemasu.

Literally: Tomorrow-from he-to Japanese-direct object. teach.begin.

I will begin teaching Japanese to him as of tomorrow.

Grammar Note: "To begin teaching" is expressed with a compound verb in Japanese, but the ordering of its components is the opposite of English. In Japanese, the element for "to teach" comes first, and the element for "to begin" is added as a supplementary ending.

Omission

If something is not important at all, it may be omitted altogether, even if it's an element of a sentence that may be grammatically necessary in English. This is evident in how words like "I" and "you," which are a part of an overwhelming number of English sentences, are frequently not stated. Of course, the decision between omitting or verbalizing something does imply change in nuance. For now, however, it's important to note that something in an English sentence may not need to transfer over to Japanese.

なまえ なん
14. お名前は何ですか。

O-namae-wa nan desu-ka?

Literally: Honorific.prefix-name-as.for, what is-question.marker?

Translation: What is your name?

Sentence Note: There is no word in this example corresponding to "your."

もう
15. セスと申します。

Sesu-to mōshimasu.

Literally: Seth-citation.marker called.

Translation: I go by Seth.

Sentence Note: There is no word in this example corresponding to "I."

Inversion

It's even possible to mention the verb first and state everything else as an after-statement. This is called inversion.

かな わたし ねが
16. 叶え、私の願いよ。

Kanae, watashi-no negai-yo.

Literally: Come.true I-genitive.marker wish-exclamation.marker

Translation: Come true, oh my wishes.

Name Ordering

The hierarchy of information importance also explains why one's family name comes first in Japanese. However, it is important to note that the language actually respects the original ordering of parts of a name if it is from another language. Many learners feel like inverting their name to be more Japanese, but this is not necessary and may end up confusing

Japanese people who anticipate the first part of your name to be your given name.

Barack Obama	バラック・オバマ <i>Barakku Obama</i>	Donald Trump	ドナルド・トランプ <i>Donarudo Torampu</i>
Moon Jae-in	ムーン・ジェイン <i>Mūn Je-in</i>	Kim Jeong Un	金正恩 <i>Kimu Jon Un</i>
John Smith	ジョン・スミス <i>Jon Sumisu</i>	Ryo Watanabe	渡辺亮 <i>Watanabe Ryō</i>
Shinzo Abe	安倍晋三 <i>Abe Shinzō</i>	Yu Darvish	ダルビッシュ有 <i>Darubisshu Yū</i>

IV: Parts of Speech

Understanding part of speech (*hinshi* 品詞) is quintessential to properly harnessing the grammar of a language. As a native speaker of any language, you are privy to instinctively knowing how words relate to one another, how they are similar and dissimilar. Without knowing the names of the categories that exist in your language, you're able to naturally categorize words together in various ways.

These categorizations, though, are language specific. Meaning, just because English has words called prepositions, that doesn't mean Japanese does as well. In fact, as we have learned already, prepositions really don't exist in Japanese. Instead, they're replaced by something called particles (post-positions). This, though, is just one instance of how the two languages differ.

To begin learning what the parts of speech are in Japanese, it's important to first answer a seemingly simple yet difficult question: what is a word? For English speakers, a word is anything that is written as one unit. In writing, we distinguish words by spaces. However, spacing doesn't always do justice to a word count. Take for instance the following phrases.

- v. Don't (1-2 words)
- vi. Music video (1-2 words)

The phrase "don't" is a contraction of "do" and "not." Native English speakers typically conceptualize this as one word and do not necessarily deconstruct it in their minds when they use it. Likewise, the phrase "music video" refers specifically to a certain thing that is not solely music nor solely a video. In that sense, you could say it's one word, whereas if you go solely by its spelling you would say that it is two words. Because the word "word" is very vague, for linguistic purposes, the word morpheme is preferred. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning that cannot be divided further. This compartmentalization of meaning enables us to properly and objectively study Japanese phrasing for what it is rather than looking at it through an English-stilted mindset. For discussions that follow, depending on how specific things need to be broken up, "word" or "morpheme" will be used.

Independent VS Ancillary Words

There are two kinds of words in Japanese: independent words (*jiritsugo* 自立語) and ancillary words (*fuzokugo* 付属語). Independent words are those that can stand alone. Independent words can further be broken down into conjugatable and non-conjugatable words. Ancillary words, however, cannot stand alone. They too, though, may or may not be conjugatable.

In Japanese, there are twelve unique parts of speech that can be classified as either independent or ancillary words.

- **Independent Words (*Jiritsugo* 自立語)**

- Conjugatable

- Verbs (*Dōshi* 動詞)Lessons 16, 17, 18, etc.

A **verb** is a word that describes an action, state, or occurrence.

- Adjectives (*Keiyōshi* 形容詞)Lessons 13, 50, 52

An **adjective** is a word that describes an attribute.

- Adjectival Nouns (*Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞)Lessons 14, 51, 53, etc.

An **adjectival noun** is a word that describes an attribute while also being noun-like.

- Not Conjugatable

- Nouns (*Meishi* 名詞)Lesson 8

A **noun** is a word that describes a person, place, state, quality, event, or thing.

- Pronouns (*Daimeishi* 代名詞)Lessons 8, 84, 191

A **pronoun** is a word that indirectly describes a person, direction, or thing.

- Numbers (*Sūshi* 数詞)Lessons 27, 28, 29, 193, etc.

A **number** is a word that counts or measures entities.

- Adnominal Adjectives (*Rentaishi* 連体詞)Lessons 60 & 303

An **adnominal adjective** is a word that describes an attribute by directly modifying a noun.

- Adverbs (*Fukushi* 副詞)Lessons 48, 49, 154, 293, etc.

An **adverb** is a word that qualifies an adjective, adjectival noun, or a verb.

- Conjunctions (*Setsuzokushi* 接続詞)Lesson 169

A **conjunction** is a word that connects sentence together.

- Interjections (*Kandōshi* 感動詞)Lesson 200

An **interjection** is a word that represents an abrupt remark.

- **Ancillary Words (*Fuzokugo* 付属語)**

—Conjugatable

- Auxiliary Verbs (*Jodōshi* 助動詞).....Lessons 9, 10, 36, 37, etc.
An **auxiliary verb** is an ending that attaches to a conjugatable part of speech.

—Not Conjugatable

- Particles (*Joshi* 助詞).....Lessons 11, 12, 15, 19, 20, etc.
A **particle** is a word that follows what it modifies to indicate its function.
-

The Six Kinds of Particles

Particles arguably constitute the most difficult part of speech to master. This is because there are many grammatical functions a phrase can have in a sentence, and the grammatical functions that Japanese chooses to make evident may not always be those that are of grammatical importance in English.

Of all the possible functions and/or purposes a particle could possibly express, they are all manifested in only a finite number of particles that far outnumber the roles they have. Similarly to how prepositions overlap in English, many particles at times behave similarly to others. Although it will take time to truly master the various particles of Japanese, a considerable amount of heartache can be avoided by knowing what to expect.

There are six main types of particles: case, parallel, conjunctive, final, adverbial, and bound. Particles may be categorized differently depending on how they're used. Below you will find these categories defined with many examples of each. Note that the lists are not necessarily exhaustive.

- **Case Particle (*Kaku joshi* 格助詞)**: A particle that indicates the grammatical function of a word in a sentence. Some are prone to being omitted if their functions are deemed unnecessary to make explicitly clear.

- Ga* が.....Lesson 11, 167
- Wo* を.....Lesson 15, 167, 183
- Ni* に.....Lessons 31, 41, 66, 117
- No* の.....Lesson 89
- E* へ.....Lesson 32
- De* で.....Lessons 33, 90
- To* と.....Lesson 66
- Kara* から.....Lessons 46, 117, 256
- Yori* より.....Lesson 144

- **Parallel Particle (*Heiritsu joshi* 並立助詞):** A particle that juxtaposes two or more things together.

—*To* とLesson 40
—*No* のLesson 30
—*Ni* にLesson 41
—*Ya* やLesson 68
—*Yara* やらLesson 302
—*Ka* かLesson 164
—*Nari* なりLesson 302
—*Dano* だのLesson 304
—*Toka* とかLesson 141

- **Conjunctive Particle (*Setsuzoku joshi* 接続助詞):** A particle that connects clauses (parts of a sentence) together.

—*Ga* がLesson 76
—*Ke(re)do* け (れ) どLesson 76
—*Ba* ばLessons 109, 110, 111
—*To* とLessons 109, 110, 111
—*Tara* たらLessons 109, 110, 111
—*Temo* てもLesson 67
—*Node* のでLesson 57
—*Noni* のにLesson 58
—*Kara* からLesson 57
—*Shi* しLesson 69
—*Te* てLesson 26
—*Nagara* ながらLessons 104, 288
—*Tsutsu* つつLesson 289
—*Tari* たりLesson 101
—*Domo* どもLesson 304

- **Final Particle (*Shū-joshi* 終助詞):** A particle placed at the end of a phrase to provide emotional context.

—*Ka* かLessons 19, 20
—*Yo* よLesson 77
—*Ne* ねLesson 77

—Wa わ	Lesson 78
—Te て	Lesson 30
—Na な	Lesson 78
—Zo ぞ	Lesson 78
—Ze ゼ	Lesson 78
—Kana かな	Lesson 184
—Kashira かしら	Lesson 184
—Jan じゃん	Lesson 184
—Koto こと	Lesson 184
—Kke つけ	Lesson 184
—Ya や	Lesson 184
—Sa さ	Lesson 78

- **Adverbial Particle (*Fuku-joshi* 副助詞):** A particle that indicates degree/condition /circumstance.

—Bakari ばかり	Lesson 254
—Made まで	Lesson 47
—Dake だけ	Lesson 85
—Hodo ほど	Lesson 143
—Shimo しも	Lesson 182
—Zutsu ずつ	Lesson 188
—Kiri きり	Lesson 302
—Kurai くらい	Lesson 143
—Nado など	Lesson 143
—Ka か	Lesson 44
—Nomi のみ	Lesson 207

- **Bound Particle (*Kakari joshi* 係助詞):** A particle that is an emphatic marker requiring certain conjugations.

—Wa は	Lesson 12
—Mo も	Lesson 22, 186
—Koso こそ	Lesson 208
—Demo でも	Lesson 67
—Shika しか	Lesson 108
—Hoka ほか	Lesson 108
—Sae さえ	Lesson 230

—*Sura* すら.....Lesson 230

—*Dani* だに.....Lesson 230

V: Agglutination

Japanese is known as an agglutinative language (*kōchakugo* 膠着語). Agglutination is the process of creating complex words by stringing morphemes together into chains that are not broken apart in pronunciation or spelling. Japanese is known to be highly agglutinative, most notably in the construction of conjugations.

In Japanese, agglutination is brought about by a system of bases and endings. For every base that exists, several endings exist that attach to it, and each ending has its own set of bases to potentially keep the chain going. This concept of conjugation is very different to what native English speakers are used. For example, "I did not want to be forced to eat" is expressed with nine words. In Japanese, however, it is expressed as one phrase composed of many morphemes.

17. 食べさせられたくなかった
Tabe-sase-rare-taku-na-katta

Gloss: Eat-causative-passive-want-negation-past.tense

The phrase in Ex. 17 can be broken down even further as there are hidden morphemes that stand for the bases that act as the true glue of Japanese conjugations. Knowing how to break down phrases that far isn't necessary, but it is important to know how conjugation works overall.

In Japanese, something that is conjugatable has potential access to six base forms. After these bases endings may or may not follow. Endings will either be in the form of auxiliary verbs (which can conjugate) or particles (which cannot conjugate, thus stopping the chain).

1. **Mizenkei 未然形**: This base is called the "*irrealis form*" and is associated with endings that indicate actions that have **not** yet taken place: negation, desire, and hypothesis. It is used with endings like *-nai* ない (Lessons 9, 10, 16, 17, 18) and *-(yo)u* よう (Lesson 119).

2. **Ren'yōkei 連用形**: This base is called the "*continuative form*" and is used with endings that indicate actions that are **in the process** of being carried out and the verb is either taken or taking place. It is used with endings like *-ta* た (Lessons 9, 10, 16, 17, 18), *-masu* ます (Lessons 16, 17, 18), *-te* て (26, 34), etc.

3. **Shūshikei 終止形**: This base is called the "*terminal form*" and is used to mark the end of a complete sentence. This form may still be followed by final particles.

4. **Rentaikei 連体形**: This base is called the "*attributive form*" and is used when you want

to use something as a **participial** (verbal/adjectival modifier) when modifying a noun/pronoun.

5. **Kateikei 仮定形**: This base is called the "*hypothetical form*" and is used with the particle *ba* ば (Lesson 109).
6. **Meireikei 命令形**: This base is called the "*imperative form*" and is used to create a stern command (Lesson 150).

For the purpose of our initial studies, we will primarily focus on learning the conjugations that come about from this system. As such, it isn't really imperative to know exactly what base is used with what ending, or what bases those endings subsequently have.

Upon reaching Advanced I, the bases will be reintroduced and used in grammar conversations from Lesson 201 onward. By referencing this summation, however, you will be able to accurately guess exactly what's going on in case you really want to know.

VI: Speech Styles

The way one speaks in Japanese is especially important to maintain human relationships. In English, it is understood that one doesn't necessarily speak the same way to everyone. The manner you speak to your mother is not the same as you would speak to your boss. Business situations require people to be far more formal and polite than casual settings.

How English speaker change their speech to accommodate the situation largely relies on avoiding or implementing certain words. In Japanese, formality affects the entire sentence. Essentially all parts of speech are affected by the level of formality you wish to use. Word choice and conjugations are all affected.

There are four levels of formality in Japanese. As formality increases, there is a tendency for phrases to become longer and more complex. Although this is not always the case, it is a golden rule that you can use with great accuracy throughout your studies.

1. **Degrading Language (*Bubetsugo* 淫蔑語)**: Language that is degrading towards the listener. This is the opposite of honorific language.
2. **Plain Speech (*Jōtaigo* 常体語)**: Language that is neither degrading nor polite. This is used primarily in casual conversation as well as in many grammatical constructs in which politeness is not a factor.
3. **Polite Speech (*Teineigo* 丁寧語)**: Language that is polite and used to express a general level of politeness and respect to the listener(s). This is the most commonly used speech style in conversation among working adults.
4. **Honorific Speech (*Keigo* 敬語)**: Language that is highly formal. It's used when there is a great gap in social status between the speaker and listener(s) (Lessons 124-128).
—**Humble Language (*Kenjōgo* 謙譲語)**: Language that makes it clear the speaker's status is lower than that of the listener(s). This is used when referring to states/actions

involving the speaker.

—**Respectful Language (Sonkeigo 尊敬語)**: Language that makes it clear the status of the listener(s) is higher than the speaker. This is used when referring to states/actions involving the listener(s).

VII: Etymology

There are three primary sources that compose Japanese vocabulary: native words, Sino-Japanese words, and loan-words. Together, they give rise to the language that you are now attempting to learn.

Native Words

At the heart of the language are the native vocabulary words that have existed in some capacity from the dawn of the language. In Modern Japanese, these words make up approximately 30% of all words. As low as this number might be, they make up over 60% of words used in conversation. These words are called *wago* 和語 or *yamato-kotoba* 大和言葉. Below are some examples of native vocabulary.

Hito 人	Person	Hana 花	Flower	Mizu 水	Water
Koe 声	Voice	Kumo 雲	Cloud	Tokoro 所	Place

Sino-Japanese Words

Sino-Japanese words (*Kango* 漢語), are words that were borrowed into Chinese over several centuries, largely through the use of Kanji. Many Sino-Japanese words have also been coined in Japanese. Over 60% of Modern Japanese is made up of these words; however, they only make up about 20% of the words used in the spoken language. They are, however, frequently used in the written language. Below are some examples of Sino-Japanese words.

Kazan 火山	Volcano	Hon 本	Book	Jiyū 自由	Freedom
Nigatsu 二月	February	Sūgaku 数学	Math	Kokka 国家	Nation

Loan-Words

Lastly, loan-words (*Gairaigo* 外来語) are words borrowed from other languages. Although Sino-Japanese words are technically loan-words, they have been in the language for so long that they have been nativized. *Gairaigo* 外来語, however, are still clearly foreign and originate from modern world languages such as English. Below are some examples of loan-words.

Doa ドア	Door	Zubon ズボン	Pants	Kēki ケーキ	Cake
Painappuru パイナップル	Pineapple	Roketto 口ヶツト	Rocket	Onrain オンライ	Online

VIII: Spoken vs Written Language

The spoken language (*hanashikotoba* 話し言葉) and the written language (*kakikotoba* 書き言葉) are not the same thing. The way one speaks is never exactly how one writes. This is especially so in Japanese.

In Japanese, the spoken language is full of colloquialisms, filler words, emotion, and tone that are often never truly expressed via the written language. Although everyone can be moved by a beautiful passage, one is more likely to be moved by a soothing song or story. Speaking Japanese requires that you know not just how to pronounce words but also how to use them to best express how you feel and want to get across to the listener.

In Japanese, the written language is characterized as being formal and often void of the colloquialisms and filler words that pervade speech. Spelling is utilized to add on nuances that may not be so apparent when spoken. This is made possible by the existence of multiple possible spellings of hundreds of words thanks to *Kanji* 漢字. There are many grammatical patterns that are used heavily in the written language that are not really used in the spoken language. Archaic expressions are also more likely to be used in the written language. Although it is important to know how to speak Japanese, it is also just as important to read and write Japanese as mastery in the written language is essential to being a functionally native-like user of the language.

Curriculum Note: Throughout our studies, many references will be made categorizing grammar points as being heavily used in the spoken language, written language, or both.

IX: Language Isolate

Japanese is not related to other major world languages. It is instead in its own language family called the **Japonic** language family. Although it is not alone thanks to the minority Japonic languages spoken in Okinawa, it does not share any common ancestry with other languages in the region nor the world at large.

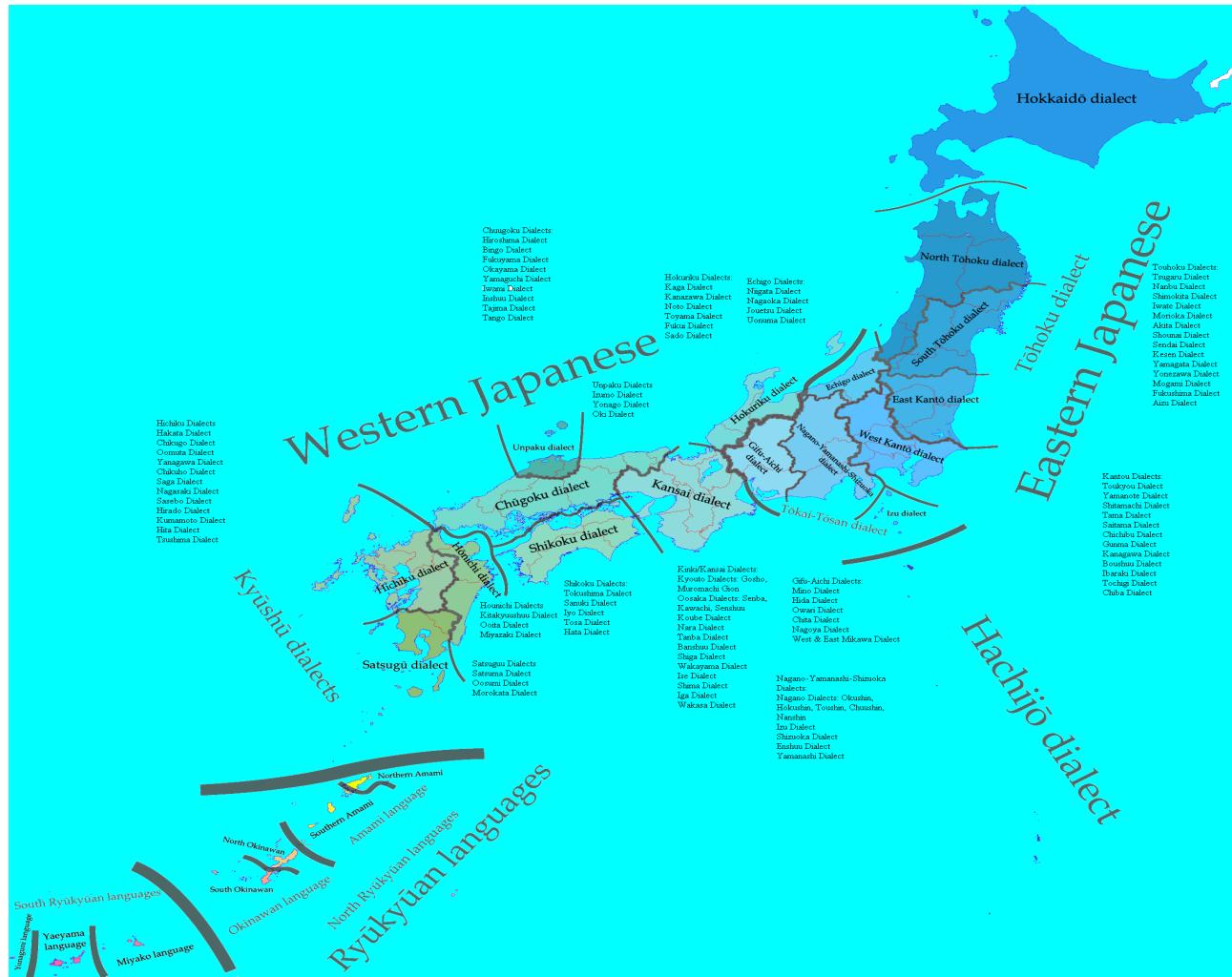
Because Japanese is essentially a language isolate, it has had centuries upon centuries to evolve in its own unique way. That means its grammar is truly foreign to the English eye. Its rules are sometimes opposite to those of English. The culture that it is associated with is also significantly different to Western culture, and these differences do affect language use.

Grammatically speaking, many concepts that are essential to forming coherent sentences are not present in Japanese. For instances, articles (a, an, the), grammatical number (singular vs. plural), and grammatical gender (masculine/feminine forms) don't exist in

Japanese. On the other hand, concepts such as case marking and politeness markers don't exist in English but are essential to speaking Japanese correctly.

X: Dialects

The last point to know about Japanese is that Japanese has many dialects. A **dialect** is a particular form of a language spoken in a certain region and/or by a certain group of people. Essentially every area of Japan has its own dialect.



Dialects may differ in vocabulary, grammar, and punctuation. However, the most important dialect is Standard Japanese. By mastering this dialect, you will be able to converse with essentially any native Japanese speaker. Knowing other dialects is not essential to speaking or understanding Japanese, but many dialectal expressions are known by all speakers. Whenever you watch anime or read manga, you will frequently encounter other major dialects. With this being the case, occasional focus will be given to dialectal expressions that are too important to ignore.

第8課: Nouns & Pronouns

Nouns are the easiest words to learn in a foreign language. Memorizing them all, however, is no easy task. By learning nouns, though, you will create a framework which, when paired with grammar, will allow you to express the things you want to talk about.

In addition to nouns, this lesson will also serve to introduce you to **pronouns**, which are words that indirectly refer to people, direction, and things that require context to be properly understood.

Nouns

In a basic understanding, a **noun** (*meishi* 名詞) represents a person, place, state, quality, event, or thing. In Japanese, nouns have no number or gender. This means that there is no fundamental distinction between singular and plural forms or masculine and feminine forms. In addition, there are no articles like "a," "an," or "the" that accompany nouns like is the case in English.

Some of the most common nouns in Japanese include the following. Many of these words are also written with the most basic *Kanji* 漢字 that are taught early on in Japanese education.

Karaoke	<i>Karaoke</i> カラオケ	Ramen	<i>Rāmen</i> ラーメン	Karate	<i>Karate</i> 空手
Alcohol	(O-)sake (お) 酒	Sushi	<i>Sushi</i> 寿司	Mountain	<i>Yama</i> 山
Anime	<i>Anime</i> アニメ	Manga	<i>Manga</i> マンガ	Dog	<i>Inu</i> 犬
Cat	<i>Neko</i> 猫	Tea	<i>Ocha</i> お茶	Water	<i>Mizu</i> 水
Sea	<i>Umi</i> 海	Fire	<i>Hi</i> 火	Bamboo	<i>Take</i> 竹
Hill	<i>Oka</i> 丘	Tree	<i>Ki</i> 木	Grass	<i>Kusa</i> 草
Person	<i>Hito</i> 人	Car	<i>Kuruma</i> 車	Yen	<i>En</i> 円
Flower	<i>Hana</i> 花	Sound	<i>Oto</i> 音	Sky	<i>Sora</i> 空
Mouth	<i>Kuchi</i> 口	Hand	<i>Te</i> 手	Leg/foot	<i>Ashi</i> 脚・足
Ear	<i>Mimi</i> 耳	Man	<i>Otoko</i> 男	Woman	<i>On'na</i> 女
Sun	<i>Hi/taiyō</i> 日・太陽	Stone	<i>Ishi</i> 石	River	<i>Kawa</i> 川
Village	<i>Mura</i> 村	Town	<i>Machi</i> 町	Bug	<i>Mushi</i> 虫
Countryside	<i>Inaka</i> 田舎	Ground	<i>Tsuchi</i> 土	Book	<i>Hon</i> 本
Name	<i>Namae</i> 名前	Strength	<i>Chikara</i> 力	Eye(s)	<i>Me</i> 目
King	Ō 王	Queen	<i>Jo'ō</i> 女王	Rain	<i>Ame</i> 雨
Gold	<i>Kin</i> 金	Silver	<i>Gin</i> 銀	Money	<i>Okane</i> お金

School	<i>Gakkō</i> 学校	Thread	<i>Ito</i> 糸	Year	<i>Toshi</i> 年
Cloud	<i>Kumo</i> 雲	Song	<i>Uta</i> 歌	Fish	<i>Sakana</i> 魚
Face	<i>Kao</i> 顔	Cow	<i>Ushi</i> 牛	Shape	<i>Katachi</i> 形

Grammar Note: Making nouns plural, although not common, is still possible. One method involves the suffix *-tachi* たち, which is typically used to refer to a group of people or (living) things.

1. 女性たち じょせい

Joseitachi
(Group of) women

2. 男性たち だんせい

Danseitachi
(Group of) men

3. 犬たち いぬ

Inutachi
(A group of) dogs

Proper Nouns

In English, a proper noun is a noun that indicates an individual person, place, organization, etc. and is spelled with initial capital letters. In Japanese, words are not capitalized, but the concept of proper noun (*koyū meishi* 固有名詞) still exists. Below is a chart with some very important examples.

Tokyo	<i>Tōkyō</i> 東京	Kyoto	<i>Kyōto</i> 京都
Osaka	<i>Ōsaka</i> 大阪	Yokohama	<i>Yokohama</i> 横浜
Japan	<i>Nihon/Nippon</i> 日本	America	<i>Amerika</i> アメリカ
Russia	<i>Roshia</i> ロシア	China	<i>Chūgoku</i> 中国
Korea	<i>Kankoku</i> 韓国	Hokkaido	<i>Hokkaidō</i> 北海道
Honshu	<i>Honshū</i> 本州	Shikoku	<i>Shikoku</i> 四国
Kyushu	<i>Kyūshū</i> 九州	Okinawa	<i>Okinawa</i> 沖縄
Asia	<i>Ajia</i> アジア	Europe	<i>Yōroppa</i> ヨーロッパ
Africa	<i>Afurika</i> アフリカ	Australia	<i>Ōsutoraria</i> オーストラリア

Antarctica	<i>Nankyokutairiku</i> 南極大陸	India	<i>Indo</i> インド
Kanto Region	<i>Kanto Chihō</i> 関東地方	Kinki Region	<i>Kinki Chihō</i> 近畿地方
Shinzo Abe	<i>Abe Shinzō</i> 安倍晋三	Barack Obama	<i>Baraku Obama</i> バラク・オバマ
Tokyo Skytree	<i>Tokyo Sukaitsurii</i> 東京スカイツリー	Ueno Park	<i>Ueno Kōen</i> 上野公園

Word Notes:

- There are four main islands of Japan. The northernmost island is Hokkaido. South of it is the largest island, Honshu. Further south are the islands of Shikoku and Kyushu, with Kyushu being the southernmost island. Further south is a chain of islands referred to as Okinawa.
- The Kanto Region encompasses the capital of Japan, Tokyo, as well as the surrounding area.
- The Kinki Region encompasses both Osaka and Kyoto and their surrounding areas.
- Shinzo Abe is the current Prime Minister of Japan.
- Barack Obama is the 44th president of the United States.
- Tokyo Skytree is the second tallest structure found in the world and is located in Tokyo.
- Ueno Park is a very spacious park found in Tokyo.

Loan-words

A **loan-word** is a word borrowed from another language. In Japanese, there are many loanwords from all sorts of languages. Loan-words are called *Gairaigo* 外来語, and this term typically refers to words that have been borrowed in the last two, three centuries from the world's modern languages. Words borrowed from Chinese during the language's development--Kango 漢語--are usually treated separately. Words that have come from Chinese languages in recent centuries like *chāhan* 炒飯 (fried rice), though, are treated as *Gairaigo* 外来語.

Although loan-words come from dozens of languages, the overwhelmingly majority of them come from English. As convenient as that may be, you must still treat these loan words as Japanese words. This means you can't simply pronounce it as if it were English. You will likely not be understood. It is always important that you pronounce words in Japanese like any other word in Japanese regardless of whether or not it comes from English.

Meter	<i>Mētoru</i> メートル	Game	<i>Gēmu</i> ゲーム	Bus	<i>Basu</i> バス
Pen	<i>Pen</i> ペン	Sofa	<i>Sofā</i> ソファー	Pie/pi	<i>Pai</i> パイ
Point	<i>Pointo</i> ポイント	Cola	<i>Kōra</i> コーラ	Coffee	<i>Kōhii</i> コーヒー

Tobacco

Tabako タバコ

Tomato

Tomato トマト

Banana

Banana バナナ

Pronouns: Grammatical Person

A **pronoun** (*daimeishi* 代名詞) *indirectly refers to an entity that involves a person, direction, or thing.* The meaning of said entity is determined by context. For instance, proper names are pronouns because they stand in place of the actual person/thing they reference. Proper names can also be shared with others or other things, and so we need context to truly understand what is meant by say the name "Seth." This can refer to the creator of this curriculum, or it can refer to any other person whose name is "Seth." Because of this, the word "Seth" is a pronoun.

Similarly, words like "here" and "there" or even words like "this" and "that" are also pronouns. This is because no one can ascertain what they refer to without context.

Generally, when we think of pronouns, we think about pronouns that are used to establish grammatical person. For instance, in English we make the following distinctions in grammatical person.

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	I	We
2nd	You	You (all)
3rd	He/she/it	They

In English, gender and number both play roles in determining what grammatical person is used in a sentence. In Japanese, however, there isn't a single pronoun that corresponds to each of the pronouns for grammatical person. Meaning, there is more than one word for "I," "we," etc. This is because all pronouns in Japanese started out as typical nouns, or they were far vaguer pronouns that didn't necessarily match up with the concept of showing grammatical person.

In Japanese, pronouns differ by their politeness and by who actually uses them. Many pronouns are reserved for whether the speaker is male or female, or whether the person is young or old. Dialects also differ majorly in what pronouns are used.

For the purposes of understanding basic Standard Japanese, the pronouns listed below are the most essential. As you will see, the notes provided for them show just how different they are from their English counterparts.

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>Wata(ku)shi 私</i> <i>Boku 僕</i>	<i>Wata(ku)shitachi 私たち</i> <i>Bokutachi 僕たち</i>

2nd	Anata あなた	Anatatachi あなたたち
3rd	Kare 彼 (He) Kanojo 彼女 (She)	Karera 彼ら (They) Kanojotachi 彼女たち (They)

Usage Notes:

1. *Watakushi わたくし* is the respectful form of *watashi わたし*. Typically, *watashi わたし* will suffice in most situations. However, "I" is often dropped altogether. So long as it is known that the sentence is about oneself, there is no need to have to use a pronoun for "I."
2. *Boku 僕* is another pronoun for "I" which is used heavily by male speakers, both young and old, in various situations.
3. There are many pronouns for "you" in Japanese, but the most neutral in terms of politeness and purpose is *anata あなた*. However, it is typically dropped from most sentences altogether. *Anata あなた* is inherently direct, which is a quality not typically found in statements directed at others. Second person statements are rarely stated in absolute terms. Usually, referring to others in third person is preferred.
4. *Anata あなた* may also be used as a term of endearment to refer to one's male partner/spouse, both when one is happy and mad at one's significant other.
5. In casual settings, the pronouns *kare 彼* and *kanojo 彼女* may respectively mean "boyfriend" and "girlfriend."
6. The plural form of *kare 彼*, *karera 彼ら*, uses another suffix for making plurals, *-ra ら*. We will revisit the concept of pluralization in Lesson 92.
7. *Karera 彼ら* may refer to a group of people with both men and women, but *kanojotachi 彼女たち* only refers to groups of women.
8. The pronoun "it" is omitted because it is combined in Japanese with the concept of "that," which is also a pronoun. It will be introduced later in this lesson.

In English, pronouns change form depending on their grammatical purpose in a sentence. In grammar, this is referred to as grammatical case. Grammatical case reflects the function that a given phrase has in a sentence. In English, pronouns are what change the most depending on their case. For instance, "my" is the possessive form of "I."

In Japanese, grammatical case is marked by the use of what are called "case particles." Case particles take the place of form change to nouns/pronouns to indicate what function said word has in a sentence. For the purpose of pronouns, there are two grammatical cases you should know about: the nominative and the possessive.

- Nominative Case: Noun/pronoun used as the subject of the sentence.
 - Possessive Case: Noun/pronoun form that shows ownership.
- i. I am an American man. (I = nominative)
 - ii. Your dog is adorable. (Your = possessive)
 - iii. We are scientists. (We = nominative)

iv. Our goal is world peace. (Our = possessive)

The subject of a sentence is the person/thing that performs an action or exhibits some description which is what the sentence is about. In Japanese, case particles attached to noun/pronouns express these grammatical concepts. To mark something as being in the nominative case, you add the particle *ga* ガ to said noun/pronoun. To mark something as being in the possessive case, you add the particle *no* の to said noun/pronoun.

	Nominative		Possessive
I...	<i>Wata(ku)shi ga</i> 私が <i>Boku ga</i> 僕が	My	<i>Wata(ku)shi no</i> 私の <i>Boku no</i> 僕の
We...	<i>Wata(ku)shitachi ga</i> 私たちが <i>Bokutachi ga</i> 僕たちが	Our	<i>Wata(ku)shitachi no</i> 私たちの <i>Bokutachi no</i> 僕たちの
You...	<i>Anata ga</i> あなたが	Your	<i>Anata no</i> あなたの
You (all)...	<i>Anatatachi ga</i> あなたたちが	Your	<i>Anatatachi no</i> あなたたちの
He... She...	<i>Kare ga</i> 彼が (He) <i>Kanojo ga</i> 彼女が (She)	His Her	<i>Kare no</i> 彼の <i>Kanojo no</i> 彼女の
They...	<i>Karera ga</i> 彼らが <i>Kanojotachi ga</i> 彼女たちが	Their	<i>Karera no</i> 彼らの <i>Kanojotachi no</i> 彼女たちの

Grammar Note: To make a third person reference into the possessive case, just add *no* to whatever name you're using. This means that "Seth's" would be expressed as *Sesu no* セスの.

When we start learning how to make sentences in Lesson 9, it will be important to remember that different things will happen in a Japanese sentence. However, we won't revisit the particle *ga* ガ until Lesson 11.

Pronouns: Place & Things (Demonstratives)

In addition to the pronouns shown above for grammatical person, we still need to learn about the basic pronouns used to indicate place or thing. As was the case with the pronouns above, none of these words are used exactly like their English counterparts. This means that later on, we will have to revisit them to learn more about how they're truly used. For now, it's important to simply have them in your vocabulary.

Close to Speaker	Close to Listener/ Known only to Speaker	Far from Speaker and Listener/ Known to both Speaker and Listener
Here	There	Over There

Koko ここ	Soko そこ	Asoko あそこ
This	That	That over there
Kore これ	Sore それ	Are あれ

Chart Notes:

1. Sore それ is the closest Japanese equivalent to "it."
2. For now, we will forego covering what these words look like in the grammatical cases mentioned above. This is because things become slightly more complicated with these sorts of pronouns than with pronouns for grammatical person.

When speaking about entities **physically visible**, *there is a three-way distinction made based on the proximity of the entity from the speaker and listener*. An entity may be close to the speaker, close to the listener but not the speaker, or far from both the speaker and the listener(s). When the entity discussed is **not physically visible**, *there is a two-way distinction made based on who knows about the entity in question*. The criterion then becomes whether only the speaker knows about the entity or if both the speaker and listener(s) know about it.

第9課: Copular Sentences I: Plain Speech

The Japanese language possesses a speech-level hierarchy that determines how one should address any given person based on various factors: relationship, age, role, respect, etc. The social dynamics that set a discourse also shape how said discourse is worded.

Typically, Japanese learners are first introduced to polite speech. This is because polite speech is what is used in most daily interactions; it helps establish courtesy between oneself and those around. As the Japanese learner, the most practical means of using Japanese early on will be centered around speaking to native speakers who are neither family nor close friends. Because the most important use of plain speech involves casual conversation, it is kept to the side until the learner can handle situations where polite speech is imperative.

However, the greatest flaw made by introducing polite speech first lies in the fact that it is not the base form of speech. Within each speech style you will find unique vocabulary, grammar, and endings. Grammatically, plain speech is what makes up the base form of the language. Contrary to its name, plain speech is not limited to conversation among peers or family. In fact, it is grammaticalized in all sorts of grammar points.

Plain speech is also inherently direct, which is why it is heavily used in academic writing. Most importantly, it is what's used in one's inner monologue. Plain speech also makes up the heart of most music and literature. The very essence of being able to think in Japanese requires oneself to truly understand the language from the ground up. That cannot be possible if the base is left ignored.

Politeness is an auxiliary element to conversation. Its purpose is not to provide information other than social implications. Strip it away and you get the actual message a sentence is

trying to get across. Naturally, plain speech becomes the basis for conjugation, to which politeness is then added.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- *Tera* 寺 – Buddhist temple
- *Jijitsu* 事実 – Fact
- *Kōmori* コウモリ – Bat
- *Tori* 鳥 – Bird
- *Gakusei* 学生 – Student
- *Kankokujin* 韓国人 – Korean
- *Shodō* 書道 – Calligraphy
- *Geijutsu* 芸術 – Art
- *Baka* 馬鹿 – Idiot
- *Neko* 猫 – Cat
- *Pātii* パーティー – Party
- *Kaishi* 開始 – Start/beginning
- *Dōbutsuen* 動物園 – Zoo
- *Hikiwake* 引き分け – A tie
- *Kawauso* カワウソ – Otter
- *Furansugo* フランス語 – French
- *Gakkō* 学校 – School
- *Seikai* 正解 – Correct answer
- *Kujira* 鯨 – Whale
- *Sakana* 魚 – Fish
- *Mogi shiken* 模擬試験 – Mock exam
- *Mizu* 水 – Water
- *Jikan* 時間 – Time
- *Ganjitsu* 元日 – New Year's Day
- *Getsuyōbi* 月曜日 – Monday
- *Suiyōbi* 水曜日 – Wednesday
- *Kaishibi* 開始日 – Start date
- *Kinō* 昨日 – Yesterday
- *Ashita/asu* 明日 – Tomorrow
- *Yoru* 夜 – Night

Pronouns

- *Watashi* 私 – I
- *Boku* 僕 – I (male)
- *Kare* 彼 – He
- *Kanojo* 彼女 – She
- *Kore* これ – This
- *Sore* それ – That
- *Sono* その – That (adj.)

- *Wakusei* 惑星 – Planet
 - *Meiōsei* 冥王星 – Pluto
 - *Ocha* お茶 – Tea
 - *Daihyō* 代表 – Representative
 - *Gen'in* 原因 – Cause
 - *Tabako* 煙草・タバコ・たばこ – Tobacco
 - *Kodomo* 子供 – Child(ren)
 - *Pen* ペン – Pen
 - Are あれ – That (over there)
 - Koko ここ – Here
 - Kimu キム – Kim
 - *Pikachū* ピカチュウ – Pikachu
- Interjections**
- A あ – Ah

The Copular Sentence

The first thing you must learn about Japanese sentence structure is its most basic form: the copular sentence. This is otherwise known as a “noun-predicate” sentence. In other words, “X is Y.” As trivial as it may sound, many far more complex sentences can be broken down to this very structure. First, let’s cover some basic terminology to better understand this topic.

- **Subject:** *The person/thing that performs the action or exhibits the description found in the predicate.*
- **Predicate:** *The part of a sentence that gives some information about the subject.*
- **Copula:** *A word used to link the subject and predicate of a sentence.*
- **Noun:** *In its most basic definition, a word that refers to a person, place, thing, event, substance, or quality.*
- **Auxiliary:** *An ending that helps construct verbal conjugations.*

The predicate of a sentence may take on different forms depending on what the statement is. In the context of this discussion, the copula is the predicate because we are learning how to simply say “X”—the subject—is “Y.” “Y” In this lesson, “Y” will be another noun, which is why “copular sentences” can alternatively be called “noun-predicate sentences.”

In English, the copula verb is “to be,” and it manifests itself in various forms such as “is,” “are,” “was,” “were,” etc. Their use in the English language is profoundly important as they form the basis of a great portion of the statements we make.

- i. The dog is a German shepherd.
- ii. My husband is a banker.
- iii. Apples are fruits.

- iv. It was a fossil.
- v. A bat is not a bird.

Similarly, Japanese has its own copular verb, which in turn has its own various forms. Before discussing what this all looks like in Japanese, we must first understand what sort of basic conjugations exist in general. Using the English examples i.-v. as a basis, we see that **tense** and **affirmation/negation** are major components to a sentence. In English, there are three tenses: **past, present, and future**. As their names suggest, the **past tense** refers to an event/state which occurred in the past, the **present tense** refers to a current event/state, and the **future tense** refers to an event/state that hasn't yet realized. **Affirmation** is positively stating that something is so. **Negation** is rejecting a premise.

Japanese only has two tenses: non-past and past tense. Unlike English, tense is not so straightforward, but the speaker's intent is to always make the "time" factor of any statement obvious in context. The non-past tense encompasses both the concepts of the English present tense and future tense. The past tense corresponds to the past tense, but the form that expresses past tense covers a wider semantic scope than the English -ed.

The Copula *Da* だ

Putting all this aside, it is now time to familiarize yourself with the base form of the copula in plain speech. This verb is ***da* だ**. As is the case for any base form of verb, it alone may stand for the non-past tense. As such, *da* だ can translate as "is," "are," or "will be." Japanese lacks grammatical number, so there is no difference between "is" or "are."

Because the verb of a Japanese sentence must always be at the end, we can't simply insert *da* だ between "X" and "Y." "X" remains at the start of the sentence, and the sentence ends in "Y *da* だ." To complete the sentence, we will insert the particle *wa* は in between X and Y. In Lessons 11-12, we'll learn about the sort of nuances that are expressed with this particle as well as what else can be between X and Y. For now, though, our goal will be to master the basic pattern "X *wa* は Y *da* だ."

Non-past: Present

てら

1. あれは寺だ。

Are wa tera da.

That (over there) is a Buddhist temple.

うそ

2. それは嘘だ。

Sore wa uso da.

That's a lie.

じじつ

3. これは事実だ。

Kore wa jijitsu da.

This is the truth.

わたし がくせい

4. 私は学生だ。

Watashi wa gakusei da.

I'm a student.

かんこくじん

5. キムは韓国人だ。

Kimu wa kankokujin da.

Kim is Korean.

しょどう げいじゅつ

6. 書道は芸術だ。

Shodō wa geijutsu da.

Calligraphy is art.

かれ ばか

7. 彼は馬鹿だ。

Kare wa baka da.

He's an idiot.

Non-Past: Future

がんじつ げつようび

8. 元日は月曜日だ。

Ganjitsu wa getsuyōbi da.

New Year's Day is/will be on Monday.

かいしひ あした

9. 開始日は明日だ。

Kaishibi wa ashita da.

The start date is/will be tomorrow.

よる

10. パーティーは夜だ。

Pātii wa yoru da.

The party will be at night.

Omitting “X”

In Japanese, the subject is often dropped in the sentence. This tends to be the case, especially when the subject is “it.”

あした

11. 明日だ。

Ashita da.

It's tomorrow.

It'll be tomorrow.

ねこ
12. あ、猫だ！

A, *neko da*.

Ah, (it's) a cat!

じかん
13. 時間だ。

Jikan da.

(It's) time.

Omitting Da だ

The copula *da* だ is also occasionally dropped altogether with a heightened intonation at the end to express various emotions such as anger or surprise. Dropping the copula may also be done in this fashion in English.

14. あ、ピカチュウ (だ) !

A, *Pikachū (da)*!

Ah, (it's) Pikachu!

かいし
15. 開始 (だ) !

Kaishi (da)!

Start!

Literally: This is the start!

どうぶつえん
16. 動物園 (だ) !

Dōbutsuen (da)!

(It's) a zoo!

ひ わ
17. 引き分け (だ) !

Hikiwake (da)!

(It's a) draw!

18. あ、カワウソ (だ) !

A, *kawauso (da)*!

Ah, (it's) an otter!

Past Tense: Datta だった

To express past tense with the copula *da* だ, you must conjugate to *datta* だった. As you learn more, you will see that -TA stands for -ed in anything that conjugates. Remember,

Japanese makes no distinctions with grammatical number. This means that “was” and “were” are both expressed with *datta* だった.

Conjugation Recap

Non-Past Tense	Past Tense
<i>Da</i> だ	<i>Datta</i> だった

19. あれはフランス語ごだった。

Are wa Furansugo datta.

That was French.

20. ここは学校がっこうだった。

Koko wa gakkō datta.

This here was a school.

21. 正解はAせいかい エイだった。

Seikai wa ei datta.

The correct answer was A.

22. 昨日は水曜日きのう すいようびだった。

Kinō wa suiyōbi datta.

Yesterday was Wednesday.

23. 彼は子供かれ こどもだった。

Kare wa kodomo datta.

He was a child.

Grammar Note: The past tense form need not always be interpreted literally. Ex. 23 implies that a male individual happened to be a child and is said as a remember to oneself and/or to others.

Negation: *De wa nai* ではない

Conjugating *da* だ into its plain non-past negative form is not as easy as the past tense form. First, you must change *da* だ to *de* で. Then, you add *wa nai* はない. In reality, it's the *nai* ない that brings about the negation, which you'll continue seeing in negative conjugations. Lastly, in conversation, “*de wa* では” typically contracts to “*ja* ジゃ.”

Conjugation Recap

Non-Past Tense	Past Tense	Non-Past Negative
Da だ	Datta だった	De wa nai ではない Ja nai じゃない

24. これはペンではない。

Kore wa pen de wa nai.

This is not a pen.

25. コウモリは鳥とりではない。

Kōmori wa tori de wa nai.

Bats are not birds.

26. 鯨くじらは魚さかなではない。

Kujira wa sakana de wa nai.

Whales are not fish.

27. 冥王星めいおうせいは惑星わくせいじゃない。

Meiōsei wa wakusei ja nai.

Pluto isn't a planet.

28. あれは犬いぬじゃない。

Are wa inu ja nai.

That isn't a dog.

29. これはお茶ちゃじゃない。

Kore wa ocha ja nai.

This isn't tea.

Grammar Note: Saying *de nai* ではない isn't wrong, but it is typically only seen in literature.

Negative-Past: De wa nakatta ではなかった

The last conjugation we will study in this lesson is the plain negative-past form of the copula. To begin, we start with the negative form from above. We then add -TA to it. When you add -TA to the negative auxiliary -nai ない, you get *nakatta* なかつた. Altogether, this gives you *de wa nakatta* ではなかった. Just like above, “*de wa* では” often contracts to “*ja* ジゃ” in conversation, which results in *ja nakatta* ジゃなかった.

Conjugation Recap

Non-past	Past	Negative	Negative-Past
<i>Da</i> だ	<i>Datta</i> だった	<i>De wa nai</i> ではない <i>Ja nai</i> じゃない	<i>De wa nakatta</i> ではなかった <i>Ja nakatta</i> じゃなかった

30. その代表は彼女ではなかった。
 daihyō かのじよ
Sono daihyō wa kanojo de wa nakatta.

The representative was not her.

Grammar Note: The demonstrative pronouns briefly mentioned in Lesson 8 actually have adjectival forms. The adjectival form for *sore* それ is *sono* その, as demonstrated in Ex. 30. This form often translates to "the" whenever the concepts of "the" and "that" overlap.

31. 原因は煙草ではなかった。
 gen'in たばこ
Gen'in wa tabako de wa nakatta.

The cause was not tobacco.

32. あれは模擬試験ではなかった。
 mogi shiken
Are wa mogi shiken de wa nakatta.

That was not a mock exam.

33. 彼は僕の友達じゃなかった。
 kare boku
Kare wa boku no tomodachi ja nakatta
 He wasn't my friend.

34. あれは水じゃなかった。
 are mizu
Are wa mizu ja nakatta.
 That wasn't water.

35. それは嘘じゃなかった。
 sore uso
Sore wa uso ja nakatta.
 That wasn't a lie.

第10課: Copular Sentences II: Polite Speech

As mentioned in Lesson 9, **polite speech** is used in everyday interactions with people who are neither family nor close friends. Polite speech, at times, can also be spoken in a casual manner, but its purpose is to keep some form of distance/formality between the speaker and the listener(s).

In polite speech, the part of the sentence that changes the most is the predicate, which is at the end of the sentence. Remember, the predicate simply means the part of sentence that

gives some information about the subject. As will once more be the case in this lesson, the predicate will be the copula. This is always the case when the copula is used in an **independent clause**—something that can stand alone as a sentence. Another characteristic of polite speech is that the verbal component—the predicate—is longer. There is a rule of thumb that the longer something is, the politer it is.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- *Nihonjin* 日本人 – Japanese person
- *Chūgokujin* 中国人 – Chinese person
- *Taiwanjin* 台湾人 – Taiwanese person
- *O-ishā-san* お医者さん – Doctor
- *Shōgakusei* 小学生 – Elementary student
- *Chūgakusei* 中学生 – Junior high student
- *Kōkōsei* 高校生 – High school student
- *Daigakusei* 大学生 – College/university student
- *Giin* 議員 – Legislator
- *Eiyū* 英雄 – Hero
- *Nisemono* 偽物 – A fake
- *Machigai* 間違い - Mistake
- *Jikan* 時間 – Time
- *Hebi* 蛇 – Snake
- *Sotsugyōshiki* 卒業式 – Graduation ceremony
- *Kaigō* 会合 – Assembly
- *Goendama* 五円玉 – five-yen coin
- *Jōdan* 冗談 – Joke
- *Kiseki* 奇跡 – Miracle
- *Shokudō* 食堂 – Diner
- *Sensei* 先生 – Teacher
- *Jūmin* 住民 – Resident
- *O-hiru* お昼 – Lunch
- *Kōhii* コーヒー – Coffee
- *Onigiri* お握り – Onigiri
- *Saru* 猿 – Monkey
- *Hitori* 1人 – One person
- *Futari* 2人 – Two people
- *Otoko* 男 – Man
- *Otoko-no-ko* 男の子 – Boy
- *Keisatsukan* 警察官 – Police officer
- *Shūryōbi* 終了日 – End date
- *Nichiyōbi* 日曜日 – Sunday
- *Mokuyōbi* 木曜日 – Thursday

- *Nyūsu* ニュース – News
 - *Tero* テロ – Terrorism
 - *Ōkami* オオカミ – Wolf
 - *Uso* 嘘 – Lie
 - *Mogi shiken* 模擬試験 – Mock exam
 - *Yasumi* 休み – Rest/absence/holiday
- *Kinō* 昨日 – Yesterday
 - *Ashita/asu* 明日 – Tomorrow

Adverbs

- *Sō* そう – So
- *Mō sugu* もうすぐ – Soon

Pronouns

- *Watashi* 私 – I
- *Kare* 彼 – He
- *Kanojo* 彼女 – She
- *Kore* これ – This
- *Sore* それ – That
- *Are* あれ – That (over there)
- *Ano*あの – That (over there) (adj.)

Interjections

- *Etto* えっと – Uh/um
- *Hai* はい – Yes
- *Iie* いいえ – No
- *Soko* そこ – There
- *Tanaka-san* 田中さん – Mr./Ms. Tanaka
- *Oda-san* 小田さん – Mr./Ms. Oda
- *Rii-san* リーさん - Mr./Ms. Lee
- *Kenta-kun* 健太君 – Kenta-kun

Copular Conjugations in Polite Speech

Polite Non-Past Form: *Desu* です

In polite speech, the non-past form of the copula is *desu* です. Just like *da* だ, *desu* です can stand for “will be,” “is,” and “are.” Below are examples of the basic noun-predicate sentence in polite speech: “X wa は Y *desu* です.”

Pronunciation Note: In Standard Japanese, the “u” in *desu* です is typically devoiced. It is still perceived as two morae but phonetically rendered as /de.s/. However, devoicing does not mean dropping the vowel altogether. The mouth is still articulated to form the sound. It’s simply not vocalized at that point. It is important to note that this phenomenon doesn’t occur much outside Eastern Japan. This means that you will hear speakers that fully articulate

both “de” and “su.” Lastly, whenever something directly follows *desu* です, the /u/ becomes fully pronounced.

Present Tense

かのじょ　たいわんじん
1. 彼女は台湾人です。

Kanojo wa Taiwanjin desu.

She is Taiwanese.

わたし　じん
2. 私はアメリカ人です。

Watashi wa Amerikajin desu.

I'm an American.

じかん
3. 時間です。

Jikan desu.

It's time.

にほんじん
4. えっと、日本人です。

Etto, Nihonjin desu.

Um, I'm Japanese.

Grammar Note: Remember that the subject is often omitted. This isn't just for "it." In fact, "I" is frequently not stated in a sentence, so long as it is contextually obvious.

へび
5. あれは蛇ですよ。

Are wa hebi desu yo.

That is a snake.

Grammar Note: The particle *yo よ* is added to the end of a sentence to emphasize something you're trying to bring to someone's attention. It is implied that the listener doesn't already know what you're saying.

6. はい、そうです。

Hai, sō desu.

Yes, that's right.

Grammar Note: *Sō そう* is an adverb, not a noun, which literally translates as "so." In English grammar, "so" as in "that is so," is in place of an adjective, but in all other instances of English grammar, it is apparent that it inherently behaves as an adverb (Ex. "This is so cool"). In Japanese, words don't change part of speech unless they're able to conjugate. In Japanese, adverbs are incapable of conjugating, just like nouns, which allows most adverbs and nouns to be followed by the copula verb in the same fashion.

Future Tense

- そつぎょうしき あした
7. 卒業式は明日です。
Sotsugyōshiki wa ashita desu.
Graduation is/will be tomorrow
- かいごう あした
8. 会合は明日です。
Kaigō wa ashita desu.
The assembly is/will be tomorrow.
- しゅうりょうび もくようび
9. 終了日は木曜日です。
Shūryōbi wa mokuyōbi desu.
The end date is/will be Thursday.
10. もうすぐです。
Mō sugu desu.
It'll be soon.

Grammar Note: *Mō sugu* もうすぐ is also an adverb, but the grammar is still the same.

Grammar Note: Unlike with *da* だ, the polite form *desu* です is not usually omitted at the end of a sentence. This is because its purpose is to provide politeness.

Polite Past Tense: *Deshita* でした

The past tense form of *desu* です is *deshita* でした. As you can see, -TA appears once more.

Conjugation Recap

Non-Past Tense	Past Tense
<i>Desu</i> です	<i>Deshita</i> でした

- にほんじん ふたり
11. 日本人は2人でした。
Nihonjin wa futari deshita.
There were two Japanese people.
- ちゅうごくじん ひとり
12. 中国人は1人でした。
Chūgokujin wa hitori deshita.
There was one Chinese person.

おとこ　けいさつかん
13.あの男は警察官でした。
Ano otoko wa keisatsukan deshita.
That man was a policeman.

Grammar Note: *Ano* あの is the attributive form of *are* あれ.

14.ニュースでした。
Nyūsu deshita.
This has been the news.

Grammar Note: In Japanese, the past tense form also extends to perfect tenses (completion).

15.あれはテロでした。
Are wa tero deshita.
That was terrorism.

16.あの子は男の子でした。
Ano ko wa otoko-no-ko deshita.
That child was a boy.

Variation Note: Some speakers use *datta desu* だったです instead of *deshita* でした, but this is deemed incorrect by most native speakers. As such, it is best to always use *deshita* でした but understand what people mean when they use *datta desu* だったです instead.

Polite Negative 1: *De wa nai desu* ではないです

To make the copula negative in polite speech, you have two options at your disposal. The path you take determines how formal you are. The first method takes the least amount of effort, which is adding *desu* です to [de wa/ja] *nai* 【では・じゃ】ない. This method is typically avoided in more formal, serious situations, but it is very common in conversation. With the contraction *ja* じゃ also being most common in speech, you will hear *ja nai desu* じゃないです a lot.

Conjugation Recap

Non-Past Tense	Past Tense	Negative 1
<i>Desu</i> です	<i>Deshita</i> でした	<i>De wa nai desu</i> ではないです <i>Ja nai desu</i> じゃないです

わたし ちゅうがくせい

17. 私は中学生ではないです。

Watashi wa chūgakusei de wa nai desu.

I am not a junior high student.

かのじょ いしゃ

18. 彼女はお医者さんではないです。

Kanojo wa o-ishā-san de wa nai desu.

She is not a doctor.

かれ こうこうせい

19. 彼は高校生ではないです。

Kare wa kōkōsei de wa nai desu.

He is not a high school student.

けんたくん しょうがくせい

20. 健太君は小学生じゃないです。

Kenta-kun wa shōgakusei ja nai desu.

Kenta-kun isn't a student.

Grammar Note: *-kun* 君 is often added affectionately to male names.

21. あれはオオカミじゃないです。

Are wa ōkami ja nai desu.

That isn't a wolf.

うそ

22. それは嘘じゃないです。

Sore wa uso ja nai desu.

That's not a lie.

Polite Negative 2: *De wa arimasen* ではありません

The second method to make the polite negative form is by using *de wa arimasen* ではありません. This form is considerably politer, and as such, its contracted form *ja arimasen* ジやありません is on par with *de wa arimasen* ではありません even in conversation as a result. This is because people typically wish to capitalize on how polite they are when the situation calls for it, and avoiding contractions is one way to accomplish this.

You may be wondering; how do you get *arimasen* ありません out of *nai* ない? The answer is that *nai* ない is the negative form of an actual verb, *aru* ある. Although we haven't learned about verbs just yet, *aru* ある is the basic existential verb of Japanese. Meaning, it demonstrates that something "is" and is actually embedded etymologically into all copular phrases of the language.

Just like the copula, verbs also have their own plain and polite conjugations. Just like the

copula, there are two means of making the polite negative. The less polite form of *aru* ある is *nai desu* ないです. Its politer form is *arimasen* ありません. Although there isn't any need to break down *arimasen* ありません, it's important to note that the /n/ at the end is what brings about the negative meaning. Since *nai* ない also has /n/ in it, this should be easy to remember.

Non-Past	Past Tense	Negative 1
<i>Desu</i> です	<i>Deshita</i> でした	<i>De wa nai desu</i> ではないです <i>Ja nai desu</i> じゃないです
		Negative 2
		<i>De wa arimasen</i> ではありません <i>Ja arimasen</i> じゃありません

かれ ぎいん
23. 彼は議員ではありません。
Kare wa giin de wa arimasen.
He is not a legislator.

だいがくせい
24. リーさんは大学生ではありません。
Rii-san wa daigakusei de wa arimasen.
Mr. Lee is not a college student.

にせもの
25. あれは偽物ではありません。
Are wa nisemono de wa arimasen.
That is not a fake.

かれ えいゆう
26. 彼は英雄じゃありません。
Kare wa eiyū ja arimasen.
He isn't a hero.

まちが
27. それは間違いじゃありません。
Sore wa machigai ja arimasen.
That isn't a mistake.

28. いいえ、そうじゃありません。
lie, sō ja arimasen.
No, that isn't so.

Polite Negative-Past 1: *De wa nakatta desu* ではなかったです

Just like above, there are two methods to making the polite negative-past form. The first simply involves adding *desu* です to [de wa/ja] *nakatta* 【では・じゃ】なかつた. This form, though not as polite as the one that will follow, is still frequently used in conversation. Given that it is used a lot in conversation, you will hear it as *ja nakatta desu* じゃなかつたです the most.

Non-Past	Past	Negative 1	Negative-Past 1
<i>Desu</i> です	<i>Deshita</i> でした	<i>De wa nai desu</i> ではないです <i>Ja nai desu</i> じゃないです	<i>De wa nakatta desu</i> ではなかつたです <i>Ja nakatta desu</i> じゃなかつたです
		Negative 2	
		<i>De wa arimasen</i> ではありません <i>Ja arimasen</i> じゃありません	

きのう やす
29. 昨日は休みではなかつたです。

Kinō wa yasumi de wa nakatta desu.
Yesterday was not a holiday.

きのう にちようび
30. 昨日は日曜日ではなかつたです。

Kinō wa Nichiyōbi de wa nakatta desu.
Yesterday was not Sunday.

ごえんだま
31. それは五円玉ではなかつたです。

Sore wa goendama de wa nakatta desu.
That wasn't a five-yen coin.

もぎしけん
32. これは模擬試験じゃなかつたです。

Kore wa mogi shiken ja nakatta desu.
This wasn't a mock exam.

じょうだん
33. 冗談じゃなかつたですよ。

Jōdan ja nakatta desu yo.
It wasn't a joke.

きせき
34. 奇跡じゃなかつたですよ。

Kiseki ja nakatta desu yo.
It wasn't a miracle.

Polite Negative-Past 2: De wa arimasendeshita ではありませんでした

To make the negative-past form politer, you need to conjugate *arimasen* ありません into the past tense. To this, you add *deshita* でした to the end, giving *arimasendeshita* ありませんでした. Altogether, you get [de wa/ja] *arimasendeshita* 【では・じゃ】 ありませんでした. Due to the nature of this form being inherently polite, both *ja arimasendeshita* じゃありませんでした and *de wa arimasendeshita* ではありませんでした are used frequently in the spoken language. However, in the written language, *de wa arimasendeshita* ではありませんでした is overwhelmingly preferred.

Conjugation Recap

Non-Past	Past	Negative 1	Negative-Past 1
<i>Desu</i> です	<i>Deshita</i> でした	<i>De wa nai desu</i> ではないです <i>Ja nai desu</i> じゃないです	<i>De wa nakatta desu</i> ではなかったです <i>Ja nakatta desu</i> じゃなかったです
		Negative 2	Negative-Past 2
		<i>De wa arimasen</i> ではありません <i>Ja arimasen</i> じゃありません	<i>De wa arimasendeshita</i> ではありませんでした <i>Ja arimasendeshita</i> じゃありませんでした

35. (そこは) 食堂しょくどう ではありませんでした。
(*Soko wa*) *shokudō de wa arimasendeshita*.
(That/it) was not a diner.

36. 田中さんは先生せんせい ではありませんでした。
Tanaka-san wa sensei de wa arimasendeshita.
Mr. Tanaka was not a teacher.

37. 小田さんは住民じゅうみん ではありませんでした。
Oda-san wa jūmin de wa arimasendeshita.
Mr. Oda was not a resident.

38. お昼ひる はお握りにぎ じゃありませんでした。
O-hiru wa onigiri ja arimasendeshita.
Lunch wasn't onigiri.

39. それはコーヒーじゃありませんでした。

Sore wa kōhii ja arimasendeshita.

That wasn't coffee.

40. あれは猿じゃありませんでした。
さる

Are wa saru ja arimasendeshita.

That wasn't a monkey.

第11課: The Particle **Ga** が I: The Subject Marker **Ga** が

As mentioned in Lesson 8, particles indicate the function of what they attach to has in a sentence. Just as there are many functions a word can have in a sentence, there are also many particles. Each particle is complex with its own grammatical rules.

Particles are akin to the prepositions of English. In English, prepositions are words that indicate what function the word that follows has in the sentence.

- i. The pen **in** the drawer is yours.
- ii. The bird **on** the fence is an endangered species.
- iii. The statue **at** the park is brand-new.
- iv. He went **to** Japan with his other half.
- v. I fought **for** freedom.

Particles, however, are post-positions. This means they go after what they modify instead of before. Furthermore, there are functions that some particles have that may not have an English equivalent. Each word in bold below is a particle.

かれ しお こしょう やさい にく あじつ
vi. 彼が塩と胡椒だけで野菜や肉などを味付けした。

Kare-ga shio-to koshō-dake-de yasai-ya niku-nado-wa ajitsukeshita.

Gloss: He-subject marker salt-and pepper-only-with vegetables-such as meat-et cetera-object marker seasoned.

Translation: He seasoned (the) vegetables, meat, etc. with only salt and pepper.

Ga が and **wa** は—written as /ha/ but always pronounced as /wa/—are very different particles, but they are nonetheless very difficult to distinguish in the most basic of sentences.

Ga が is a case particle. A **case particle** is used to mark grammatical case. The purpose of **grammatical case** is to explicitly state the grammatical function of the noun phrase it attaches to in relation to the predicate. A **predicate** can be a copular verb, adjective, adjectival noun, or a verb.

Definition Notes:

1. An **adjective** in Japanese is a word that describes a state which has its own conjugations.
 2. An **adjectival noun** in Japanese is a word that describes a state like an adjective, but it requires the copula to be part of the predicate like a noun.
 3. A **verb** in Japanese is a word that describes an action, state, or occurrence. Its conjugations are distinct from those of adjectives, but the principles of conjugation are the same.
-

Ga が marks the **subject**—person/thing that performs an action (with verbs) or is what exhibits a certain state (with adjectives/adjectival nouns). By doing so, it is implied that the listener(s) are receiving new information, potentially even the speaker. Contrary to generic statements, it is the objective voice needed in making neutral statements as well as answering questions with the information the asker seeks.

Wa は, unlike ga が, is not a case particle. It is a special kind of particle called a **bound particle**: *its purpose is lived out by the comment that follows*, which means it is not restricted by what comes before it. Wa は is bound to the comment that follows. In return, the comment dictates the function of wa は. The only thing the listener can know is that wa は marks the topic of the discussion to come. Its motto is “I don’t know about other things, but as for X...”

The complexity of ga が and wa は doesn’t end here, though. Due to the complexity of the matter at hand, this discussion will be split into two lessons. The first lesson will focus on the fundamentals of ga が, and the second lesson on the fundamentals of wa は.

Curriculum Note: This lesson requires that we look at grammatical items which haven’t been fully covered. This includes adjectives, adjectival nouns, verbs and their conjugations, as well as other particles. As such, your goal should be to focus only on the particles ga が and wa は. Anything aside from the particle ga が and what has been taught up to this point can be safely put to the side for now.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Case Particle Ga が

The purpose of marking the subject (*shukaku* 主格) of a sentence in Japanese is to indicate information that is newly registered to the speaker, and that information is thus being distilled to the listener(s) as **new information**. This distinction helps ga が serve as an objective means of making **neutral statements** and **providing answers to questions**, as well as **asking direct questions** such as “what is...?” or “who is...?”

1. New information

Whereas the purpose of *wa* は is to topicalize something and bring attention to the comment that follows, the particle *ga* が is used mostly to present new information in the form of neutral statements. This is especially true with statements regarding the existence of something, the five senses, and simple intransitive sentences. Intransitive sentences involve an intransitive verb. These verbs only concern a subject and a predicate, which makes the particle *ga* が the perfect particle as the basic particle for such a grammatical relation.

i. Existential Sentences

Existential sentences are those that state something exists. Typically, these sentences include information such as location. In English, the subject of an existential sentence is “there” and the item that exists ends up being treated as an object.

- vii. **There** is a *dog* in the yard.
- viii. **There** are *oranges* on the table.
- ix. There isn't a *dragon* here.
- x. There aren't any *pens* in the room.

In Japanese existential sentences, the thing that exists is treated as the subject. Furthermore, the “to be” verb for showing existence is carried out by two verbs. *Aru* ある is used to express existence of (non-living) inanimate objects whereas *iru* いる is used to express living animate objects.

1. 飴がある。
ame ga aru.

Ame ga aru.
There is candy.

2. 鉛筆がある。
empitsu ga aru.

Empitsu ga aru.
There is/are pencil(s).

3. 鳥がいる。
tori ga iru.

Tori ga iru.
There is/are (a) bird(s).

4. 牛がいる。
ushi ga iru.

Ushi ga iru.
There is/are (a) cow(s).

5. 魚が {ある・いる}。
sakana ga {aru/iru}.

Sakana ga [aru/iru].
There is/are (a) fish.

Sentence Note: When the verb *aru* ある is used, "fish" is being treated as a food item that is no longer living. When the verb *iru* いる is used, the fish is still alive and well.

The subject's **location** is marked with the particle *ni* に. In English, this role may be expressed with "in," "on," or no preposition at all. In Japanese, the subject doesn't have to be the first thing stated. In fact, because anything topicalized with *wa* は always takes precedence, it's not even true that the subject is usually stated first. In this same token, location phrases *usually* take precedence in existential sentences.

がっこう

6. あそこに学校がある。

Asoko ni gakkō ga aru.

There is a school over there.

へ や ねこ

7. 部屋に猫がいる。

Heya ni neko ga iru.

There is/are (a) cat(s) in the room.

つくえ うえ ほん

8. 机の上に本がある。

Tsukue no ue ni hon ga aru.

There is/are a book(s) on top of the table.

した

9. テーブルの下にネズミがいる。

Tēburu no shita ni nezumi ga iru.

There is/are (a) mouse/mice underneath the table.

はし となり たき

10. 橋の隣に滝がある。

Hashi no tonari ni taki ga aru.

There is a waterfall next to the bridge.

ii. Neutral Statements

Neutral statements are those that describe temporary states and/or actions. They form the objective truth of the recent past, the now, or the near future. The most cited example of this usage of the particle *ga* が, however, happens to be Ex. 11. Monkey business is taken seriously in grammar.

さる き お

11. 猿が木から落ちた。

Saru ga ki kara ochita.

A monkey fell from tree.

Alternatively: It is the monkey that fell from the tree (See Usage 2).

Particle Note: The particle *kara* から is the "from" of the sentence.

ひんしつ
12. 品質がいい。

Hinshitsu ga ii.

The quality is good.

にっしょく お
13. 日食が起きます。

Nisshoku ga okimasu.

There will be a solar eclipse.

かれ れいぎ わる
14. (彼は) 礼儀が悪い。

(Kare wa) reigi ga warui.

His manners are bad.

Literally: As for him, (his) manners are bad.

あたま
15. (あなたは) 頭がいい。

(Anata wa) atama ga ii.

You're smart.

Literally: As for you, your mind is good.

iii. Five senses

Another facet of expressing new information/neutral statements is creating statements regarding the five senses: sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch.

さむけ
16. 寒気がする。

Samuke ga suru.

I'm chilly.

くさ にお
17. 臭い匂いがする。

Kusai nioi ga suru.

There's an awful smell.

へん おと
18. 変な音がする。

Hen na oto ga suru.

There's a strange noise.

やま み
19. 山が見える。

Yama ga mieru.

The mountain/mountains are visible.

はごた
20. 歯応えがいい。

Hagotae ga ii.

The feel (of the food) is good.

- しおから あじ
21. 塩辛い味がする。
Shiokarai aji ga suru.
It tastes salty.

iv. Intransitive sentences

One of the most practical applications of expressing new information is speaking about what happens, is happening, or has happened. Intransitive verbs are verbs that, put simply, discuss what happens.

- ゆき つ
22. 雪が積もる。
Yuki ga tsumoru.
Snow accumulates.

Grammar Note: The speaker is seeing the event occur before his eyes.

- つよ かぜ ふ
23. 強い風が吹きました。
Tsuyoi kaze ga fukimashita.
Strong wind blew.

- あめ ふ
24. 雨が降ります。
Ame ga furimasu.
It's going to rain.
Literally: Rain will fall.

- し
25. ドアが閉まります！
Doa ga shimarimasu!
The door is (about to) close!

- たいふう じょうりく
26. 台風が上陸しました。
Taifū ga jōraku shimashita.
The/a typhoon landed.

2. Exhaustive-listing: It is X that...

There are times when *ga* が isn't meant as a mere statement of new information. Instead, it can also explicitly state that it is "X" that is the subject of the predicate. The "X" can be one entity or several entities, which is where the name "exhaustive-listing" comes into play. When the predicate describes a static state, one that is not necessarily a temporary reality, this interpretation is typically meant. A static state can be expressed with a copular sentence, adjectives, adjectival nouns, or verbs which describe states. In fact, this interpretation reigns supreme over the existential sentences studied above. With *ga* が, the things mentioned to exist in a certain place are what's there.

かれ がくせい
27. 彼が学生です。

Kare ga gakusei desu.
He is the student.

きょうかしょ べんり
28. この教科書が便利です。
Kono kyōkasho ga benri desu.
This is the textbook that is useful.

なみ たか
29. 波が高い！
Nami ga takai!
These waves are high!

はごた よわ
30. このサンマのほうが歯応えが弱い。
Kono samma no hō ga hagotae ga yowai.
The consistency of *this* Pacific saury is weak.

Grammar Note: The use of *no hō* のほう (side of a comparison) intensifies the exhaustive nature of *ga* が. Whenever there are two *ga* が phrases next to each other like this, the first *ga* が phrase is always treated as the subject of the main clause. The secondary *ga* が phrase is embedded in the predicate.

ii. Asking Questions

Exhaustive-listing is a feature of *ga* が that is not normally brought out without cause. Meaning, just as is the case for the English equivalents seen in translation, such phrasing is usually brought about some sort of question being asked, for which a direct and substantive answer is required. Unsurprisingly, *ga* が is involved in the making and answering of those questions. To ask the direct questions, you add *ga* が to an interrogative (question word). The basic question words in Japanese are as follows:

- *Dare* 誰
- *Nani* 何
- *Itsu/Nanji* いつ・何時
- *Doko* どこ
- *Naze* 何故

Meaning Note: *Nanji* 何時 literally means “what time?”

ひょういん
31. どこが病院ですか。
Doko ga byōin desu ka?
Where is the hospital?

Sentence Note: This sentence is not a simple question about where the hospital is. Imagine a person looking at a line of buildings and wondering which is the hospital. That is a situation where this sentence would be appropriate. Although not as smooth of a translation, Ex. 31 can also be interpreted as "Where is it that the hospital is?"

- なぜ ゆうれい そんざい
32. 何故ここに幽霊が存在するんですか。
Naze koko ni yūrei ga sonzai suru n desu ka?
Why is it that ghosts exist here?

Grammar Note: In polite speech, "why" questions must end in *n desu ka? んですか.*

- なに
33. 何がおかしい！？
Nani ga okashii!?
What (is it that) is so funny!?

- だれ しゃちょう
34a. 誰が社長？
Dare ga shachō?
しゃちょう だれ
34b. 社長は誰？
Shachō wa dare?
Who's the company president? (34a)
Who is the company president? (34b)

Grammar Note: Ex. 34a would be appropriate to say when you are somewhere where there is a group of people, one of which you would like identified as the company president by who you're asking the question to. Ex. 34b, on the other hand, would be used in a situation where the company president is already at the forefront of conversation and the speaker, you, is simply asking the listener about who that person is. This conversation doesn't have to be held where the company president happens to be at.

- あした なんじ つごう
35. 明日は {いつ・何時} が都合がいいですか。
Ashita wa [itsu/nanji] ga tsugō ga ii desu ka?
As for tomorrow, when is convenient (for you)?

iii. Answers to Questions

Questions brought about with *ga* が are typically answered back with the information sought. *Ga* が provides an exhaustive answer to the question at hand.

- だれ い ほく い
36. 「誰が行く？」 「僕が行きます。」
"Dare ga iku?" "Boku ga ikimasu."
"Who's the one going?" "I'm the one going."

37. 「何がいい？」 「ラーメンがいいでしょう。」

“Nani ga ii?” “Rāmen ga ii deshō.”
“What would be good.” “Ramen would be good.”

iv. Spontaneous Reply

Whenever someone spontaneously utters something, it is often in reference to some immediate concern.

38. この 薬 が 効く よ。
Kono kusuri ga kiku yo.
This medicine will work.

Sentence Note: Suppose you find out a friend has a cold and you have some cold medicine on you. The moment you hear about your friend's condition, you take out the medicine and say this'll help him. This is one way Ex. 38 could be used.

39. お 客 さ ん が 来 た。
O-kyaku-san ga kita.
Customer(s) are here.

Sentence Note: You're the owner of a restaurant. It's nearing lunch hour and at last you hear the first guest(s) entering. Just as you hear this, you utter Ex. 39.

v. Sense of Discovery

Another application of the exhaustive-listing interpretation of *ga* が is expressing surprise in discovery what something truly is. This application translates as “X is what Y is...” This usage is essentially the same as the one for expressing a spontaneous reply.

40. あ、 こ れ が 雪 だ !
A, kore ga yuki da!
Ah, this is what snow is!

41. あ、 あ の 人 が 噂 の 山 田 師 匠 だ !
A, ano hito ga uwasa no Yamada-shishō da!
Ah, that person is the rumored Master Yamada!

4. Object Marker with Stative-Transitive Predicates

Having already learned quite a lot about how *ga* が functions as a subject-marker, we will study its function as an object-marker in Lesson 21.

第12課: The Particle *Wa* は I: The Topic/Contrast Marker *Wa* は

The particle *wa* は, unlike *ga* が, is not a case particle. This means that it grammatically doesn't stand for the subject or even the object of a sentence. Instead, it is a special kind of particle called a bound particle. *Wa* は is bound to the comment that follows. In return, the comment dictates the nature of *wa* は.

It is not possible to know exactly what will be said with *wa* は alone when in total isolation without context. The only thing the listener would know in such a situation is that *wa* は will mark the topic of the discussion to come. In addition, the topic marked by *wa* は is differentiated from other things that could be the topic, which is in and of itself contrast, which will also be looked at in depth in this lesson.

In this lesson, we will continue our discussion on *ga* が vs *wa* は by looking closely at the usages of *wa* は. After reading through this lesson, you will have learned enough about both particles to adequately differentiate them in most circumstances.

Curriculum Note: This lesson also requires that we look at grammatical items which haven't been fully covered. This includes adjectives, adjectival nouns, verbs and their conjugation. As such, your goal should be to focus only on the particles *ga* が and *wa* は.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Bound Particle *Wa* は

1. The Topic Marker *Wa* は

I. What is a “Topic”?

To understand *wa* は, we must first understand what is meant by the word “topic.” The topic (*shudai* 主題) of a sentence can be an animate or inanimate entity (of one or more components), and that entity is what provides a starting point for conversation. A topic must also be something based on previously established information, whether it be from the ongoing conversation, one not too far back in the past, or from common sense.

The topic is, thus, “old information.” In order for something to be registered information, though, you may need to use *ga* が first to establish it. Essentially, information needs to be new before it can be grammatically treated as old information. This distinction between new information and known information is exemplified in Ex. 1.

1. 昔々、あるところに、おじいさんとおばあさんが住んでいました。おじいさんは山へ
しばかわせんたくい
柴刈りに、おばあさんは川へ洗濯に行きました。

Mukashi mukashi, aru tokoro ni, ojisan to obāsan ga sunde imashita. Ojisan wa yama e

shibakari ni, obāsan wa kawa e sentaku ni ikimashita.

Long, long ago, there lived an old man and woman. One day, the old man went to the mountains to gather firewood, and the old woman went to the river to wash clothes.

This sentence is the opening to one of the most important fairy-tales of Japan, *Momotarō* 桃太郎. At the beginning, the reader doesn't know anything about the story. This is why the particle *ga* が is used to mark the subject. Once the characters are established, they are then treated as the topic in the following sentence, thus marked by *wa* は.

わたし ぼうし
2. あれは私の帽子です。

Are wa watashi no bōshi desu.

That's my hat.

Sentence Note: Although the comment, the hat being the speaker's, is "new information," the recognition of the hat is not.

In Japanese, phrases may be topicalized and put at or near the front of the sentence, after which point a comment is made about said topic. The comment could be already known or new information, but the topic is something implied to be known to both speaker and listener(s). The topic, as mentioned above, is deemed to be an entity known to others and oneself. Often times, this is based on a common sense assessment of reality.

なまえ なん
3. お名前は何ですか。

O-namae wa nan desu ka?

What's your name?

Sentence Note: Everyone has a name. Even if this statement weren't completely true, it's practically true. This is all the information one needs to know about the human world to understand how "your name" can be grammatically treated as "old/registered" knowledge. You know the person you're talking to has a name; you just don't know what that person's name is, which is why the question forms the comment about the topic.

4. トイレはどこですか。

Toire wa doko desu ka?

Where is the toilet?

Sentence Note: When you ask this to someone, you're assuming that there is a toilet nearby. The existence of toilets can be rather easily ascertained based on one's surroundings. The fact that you're asking this means you've already determined that there is one, and you're also implying that the existence and knowledge of its location is something that others might help you find out.

かせい あか
5. 火星は赤いです。

Kasei wa akai desu.

Mars is red.

Sentence Note: Most people know about Mars. It has been a part of human fascination for a long time, and so the acknowledgment of its existence is well established. It being red is also something that is so well known that it can be viewed as a generic statement.

ほん しま くに

6. 日本は島の国です。

Nihon wa shima no kuni desu.

Japan is an island nation.

Sentence Note: Japan is known by both all Japanese speakers as well as most of the world, and it's also known by most people that it is an island nation.

7. ウサギはかわいいですね。

Usagi wa kawaii desu ne.

Rabbits are cute, aren't they?

Sentence Note: Wherever rabbits exist, there are humans that know about them.

The Zero-Pronoun

Whenever the topic is semantically the same as the subject or even the object of a sentence, the particle *wa* は does not mark both. It only functions as the topic marker. All sorts of things can be topicalized, which makes it seem like *wa* は has far more functions than it actually does. Semantically, it is very similar to the English expression "as for X." It's the "X" in this expression that *wa* は stands for, and nothing more. However, using "as for" heavily in translation will result in unnatural English. Using one's own intuition on what is proper English will come to play here. Nonetheless, it's a perfect stepping stone for understanding how this particle functions grammatically.

わたし まいにち い

8a. 私は毎日ジムに行きます。

Watashi wa mainichi jimu ni ikimasu.

I go to the gym every day.

Ex. 8a can alternatively be translated as, "As for me, I go to the gym every day." The purpose of *wa* は is two-fold. It establishes that "I" is the topic, but it also differentiates it from other possible topics like "he" or "she." As such, the reason why *watashi* 私 would even be used instead of just being dropped—which is usually the case—is because the speaker has become the center of conversation. Although the subject of this sentence is "I," the *watashi* 私 of this sentence corresponds to the "me" in "as for me." The "I" that corresponds to the subject is not spoken because it would be semantically redundant. In fact, *watashi wa watashi ga* 私は私が is ungrammatical.

This is where the concept of a zero-pronoun comes into play. A zero-pronoun is a pronoun

used to refer to the subject of a Japanese sentence when it is omitted because it is juxtaposed with a topic that happens to be the same thing. It is the grammatical fix to the grammaticalized rule of omitting semantically redundant elements. More broadly, a zero-pronoun is used in place of an entity that is semantically the same as the topic. Thus, this can be applied to other situations as we will see as well. With a zero-pronoun in mind, we can view 8a as follows:

- 8b. 私は毎日ジムに行きます。
Watashi-wa (\emptyset -ga) jimu-ni ikimasu.
As for me, (I) go to the gym every day.
 \emptyset = Watashi 私

- 9a. ケーキはもう食べました。
Kēki wa mō tabemashita.
The cake, I already ate it.

Grammar Note: The particle *wa* は appears to mark the direct object, but in reality, it simply marks the topic which also happens to be the object, but the object is expressed with an unexpressed zero-pronoun. Thus, Ex. 9a can be viewed alternatively as follows:

- 9b. ケーキはもう食べました。
Kēki-wa mō (\emptyset -wo) tabemashita.
The cake, I already ate it.
 \emptyset = Kēki ケーキ

The Variety of Topicalized Phrases

The particle *wa* は has few restrictions on what it can topicalize. It may topicalize time phrases, location phrases, etc. This is exemplified in the following examples.

10. 日本では地震がよく起きます。
Nihon de wa jishin ga yoku okimasu.
In Japan, earthquakes often happen.

11. 今日は韓国語を勉強します。
Kyō wa kankokugo wo benkyō shimasu.
Today, I will study Korean.

12. 私はお茶です。
Watashi wa ocha desu.
I'll have tea.

Grammar Note: Whenever learners don't fully understand the concept of topicalization, they

fail to understand that topic ≠ subject. It's best to never consider them one of the same thing. If this means having to deconstruct sentences and translate them literally first to figure out what the subject is and whether it's being represented by a zero-pronoun so that you don't end up misunderstanding sentences like Ex. 12 as meaning "I am tea," then it would be worth it

わたし おとうと
13. こちらは私の弟です。

Kochira wa watashi no otōto desu.

This is my little brother.

かのじょ ちゅうごくじん にほんじん じん
14. 彼女は{中国人・日本人・アメリカ人・イギリス人}です。

Kanojo wa [chūgokujin/nihonjin/amerikajin/igirisujin] desu.

She is [Chinese/Japanese/American/British].

ちゅうごくけいざい もんだい
15. 中国経済には問題がある。

Chūgoku keizai ni wa mondai ga aru.

There is/are problem(s) in the Chinese economy.

Grammar Note: Due to English phrasing constraints, it may not always be possible to place the topicalized phrase of a Japanese sentence at the front of the English translation. However, the fact that the *wa* は phrase in question is being topicalized and the fact that said *wa* は phrase forms the basis for the upcoming conversation do not change.

わたし い
16. 私は行きません。

Watashi wa ikimasen.

I won't go.

かれ せんせい
17. 彼は先生ではありません。

Kare wa sensei de wa arimasen.

He is not a teacher.

Grammar Notes:

1. Ex. 16 and Ex. 17 are examples of the particle *wa* は bringing out the meaning of "X isn't but something/someone else might be/do Z." This implicit contrast is something that, depending on the context, may become even more profound (See Usage 2). As for Ex. 17, it could be that another person is a teacher, or "he" could be something other than a teacher. If the particle *ga* が were used, the sentences would become examples of exhaustive-listing. Remember, exhaustive-listing is still exhaustive if X simply refers to one entity and one entity only.

2. The *wa* は in *de wa arimasen* ではありません is not the topic *wa* は. Rather, it is one usage of the contrast marker *wa* は (Usage 2).

ii. Generic Statements

Many conversations are started off by mentioning something everyone already knows. However, implying that the listener(s) knows is subjective in nature. This is because one can never definitively know what someone else does or doesn't know. This usage of *wa* は is very different from the exhaustive-listing statements that *ga* が can make. Whereas an exhaustive-listing sentence is limited semantically solely to what's explicitly stated, *wa* は is far more open-ended due to its generic nature. There is always a chance for the speaker to imply "I know that X is Z, but I don't know about Y."

18. リンゴは小さい。
Ringo wa chiisai.

(The) apples are small.

Spelling Note: *Ringo* is only seldom spelled as 林檎.

19. 空は青い。
Sora wa aoi.

The sky is blue.

20. 宇宙は広い。
Uchū wa hiroi.

The universe is wide.

21. 太陽は明るい。
Taiyō wa akarui.

The sun is bright.

22. 夜は暗い。
Yoru wa kurai.

Night is dark.

23. 花は美しい。
Hana wa utsukushii.

Flowers are beautiful.

24. 春は素晴らしいですね。
Haru wa subarashii desu ne.

Spring is wonderful, isn't it?

25. 世界は小さいですね。
Sekai wa chiisai desu ne.

The world is small, isn't it?

- すうがく むずか
26. 数学は 難しいですね。
Sūgaku wa muzukashii desu ne.
Math is difficult, isn't it?

Sentence Note: As a demonstration of the last point from above, this statement should be interpreted as meaning “I'm not sure about other subjects being hard, but math is, isn't it?”

iii. Attribute Phrases: X wa は Y ga が

One of the most common ways to describe something is by following a topicalized phrase (X) with *wa は* with a neutral statement (Y) followed by *ga が*. In the examples below, there are generally two kinds of translations. The first reflects the nature of the Japanese grammar whereas the second rephrases it into more natural English. As you will see, the resulting translation indicates how this grammar is essentially identical to making generic statements.

- ぞう はな なが
27. 象は鼻が長い。
Zō wa hana ga nagai.
As for elephants, their noses are long.
Elephants have long noses.
- にほん じんじゃ おお
28. 日本は神社が多い。
Nihon wa jinja ga ōi.
As for Japan, there are many Shinto shrines.
Japan has many Shinto shrines.

- あき
29. 秋はサンマが最高だ。
Aki wa samma ga saikō da.
As for autumn, Pacific saury is the best.
In autumn, Pacific saury is the best.

- ふゆ きおん さ
30. 冬には気温が下がります。
Fuyu ni wa kion ga sagarimasu.
In winter, the temperature goes down.

- しごと わたし
31. その仕事は、私がします。
Sono shigoto wa, watashi ga shimasu.
As for that job, I'll do it.
I'll do that job.

- くび なが
32. キリンは首が長い。
Kirin wa kubi ga nagai.

As for giraffes, their necks are long.
Giraffes have long necks.

Spelling Note: Only rarely is *kirin* spelled as 麒麟.

33. (私は) 頭が痛いです。
(*Watashi wa*) *atama ga itai desu*.
(As for me), my head hurts.
I have a headache.

34. (私は) お腹が空きました。
(*Watashi wa*) *onaka ga sukimashita*.
I'm hungry.
Literally: (As for me), my stomach is empty.

35. (私は) 喉が渴きました。
(*Watashi wa*) *nodo ga kawakimashita*.
I'm thirsty.
Literally: (As for me), my throat is parched.

Grammar Note: If distinguishing oneself from other people is necessary in expressing hunger or thirst, Ex. 34 and Ex. 35 are both examples of the pattern X wa は Y ga が.

iv. Questions

As opposed to the questions made with *ga* が, those made with *wa* は have the interrogatives as part of the predicate. This is because the questions formed with *wa* は imply that the question (topic) at hand is already known to the listener(s), and this knowledge is then topicalized to bring forth the question (comment) you'd like the discussion to be about. This pattern will be how most of the questions you ask are formed.

Word Note: As seen in Ex. 3, when *nani* 何 (what) is used as the predicate and followed by the copula, it undergoes a sound change and becomes *nan* なん.

36. サムはいつ来る？
Samu wa itsu kuru?
When is Sam coming?

37. 今日は何曜日ですか。
Kyō wa nan'yōbi desu ka?
What day is it today?

38. (あなたは) 誰ですか。
Anata wa dare desu ka?

(Anata wa) dare desu ka?

Who are you?

39. 病院はどこですか。
Byōin wa doko desu ka?

Where is the hospital?

40. 趣味は何ですか。
Shumi wa nan desu ka?

What are your hobbies?

2. The Contrast Marker

On top of being a topic marker, *wa* は is also the particle of contrast (*taihi* 対比), which can be seen in its usage of marking the topic. There is a line of thought that the contrast meaning of *wa* は is actually the primary meaning of *wa* は. Within a given sentence, several *wa* は may appear. Each one will have a different level of contrast implied. When a *wa* は phrase's degree of contrast is really weak, it can be viewed as the topic.

41. 私は昨日は昼食は取らなかつたんです。
Watashi wa kinō wa chūshoku wa toranakatta n desu.
Yesterday, I didn't have lunch.

Although the presence of *watashi wa* 私は could imply a contrast with other people, the sentence is bringing oneself to the forefront of conversation. With this being this case, it is viewed as the topic. Both the words for "yesterday" and "lunch" are marked with *wa* は because they contrast with other scenarios. For instance, the speaker may have eaten lunch today, and he may have eaten breakfast and/or dinner that day.

42. 今日は行きます。 (→ 明日は行きません)
Kyō wa ikimasu. (→ Asu wa ikimasen)
I'm going *today*. (→ I'm not going *tomorrow*)

43. 旦那さんは上海へ行きます。 (→ 奥さんは北京へ行きます)
Dan'na-san wa Shanghai e ikimasu. (→ Oku-san wa Pekin e ikimasu)
His/her husband is going to Shanghai. (→ His/her wife is going to Beijing)

44. 大阪へは行きます。 (→ 京都へは行きません)
Ōsaka e wa ikimasu (→ Kyōto e wa ikimasen)
I'm going to Osaka. (→ I'm not going to Kyoto)

- ほんとう うれ
45. 本当は嬉しいです。
Hontō wa ureshii desu.
I'm actually happy.

Grammar Note: *Hontō* 本当 is used here as a noun meaning "reality/actuality." The speaker may not appear happy, but internally he/she is happy.

- にほんりょうり りょうり す
46. 「日本料理は好きですか」 「タイ料理は好きです」
"Nihon ryōri wa o-suki desu ka?" "Tai ryōri wa suki desu."
"Do you like Japanese cuisine?" I like Thai food(, but as far as other cuisine...)

Grammar Note: The reply provides an indirect means of saying that one doesn't like Japanese cuisine. Although this is inferred by the reply, it's politer to reply as such than simply saying no.

- いぬ す ねこ
47. 犬は好きですが、猫はどうも…
Inu wa suki desu ga, neko wa domo...
I like dogs, but cats ...

Grammar Note: The *ga* が seen after *desu* です is the conjunctive particle *ga* が, which is separate from its use as a subject marker. For now, simply know that it is the "but" in this example and the ones that follow.

- の の
48. コーヒーは飲まないが、ビールは飲むよ。
Kōhii wa nomanai ga, biiru wa nomu yo.
I don't drink coffee, but I drink beer.

- えんぴつ
49. 鉛筆はありませんが、ペンはありますよ。
Empitsu wa arimasen ga, pen wa arimasu yo.
There aren't pencils, but there are pens.
I don't have pencils, but I have pens.

- きつね
50. あれはオオカミではない、狐だよ。
Are wa ōkami de wa nai, kitsune da yo.
That isn't a wolf; it's a fox.

Grammar Note: This example demonstrates how the *wa* は in *de wa nai* ではない is the contrasting *wa* は. The grammar behind this actually goes beyond its use in the negative forms of the copula. However, due to the complexity of this grammar point, it will be discussed in a later lesson.

-
3. Another usage of the particle *wa* は is to express a bare minimum (*saiteigen* 最低限)--"at

least." This is primarily used with number expressions, which will be studied later on. However, this usage is not limited to such expressions, as is demonstrated by Ex. 54.

51. 少なくとも 2 時間はかかります。
Sukunakutomo nijikan wa kakarimasu.
It will take at least two hours.

52. 10 人は来ます。
Jūnin wa kimasu.
At least ten people will come.

53. 10 万円は必要です。
Jūman'en wa hitsuyō desu.
It will need at least 100,00 yen.

54. 牛 乳 ぐらいは買ってください。
Gyūnyū gurai wa katte kudasai.
At least buy milk, please.

Grammar Note: The particle *kurai/gurai* くらい・ぐらい is frequently used with this function of the particle *wa* は to express "at least." It can actually be inserted similarly to the other example sentences in this section. Its addition creates a greater emphatic tone.

55. 盲腸の手術でも1000ドルはかかります。
Mōchō no shujutsu demo sen-doru wa kakarimasu.
Even appendix surgery will cost at least a thousand dollars.

Grammar Note: The particle *demo* でも means "even" and will be discussed in Lesson 67.

第13課: Adjectives I: 形容詞 *Keiyōshi*

Keiyōshi (形容詞) means "adjective." As you will learn, using adjectives is somewhat similar to English. Because we don't need words like "is/are" when we use them, they more or less end up where they do in an English sentence.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 本 *Hon* – Book
- 映画 *Eiga* – Movie

Adjectives

- 新しい *Atarashii* – New
- 早い *Hayai* – Early

- 海 *Umi* – Sea
- 遅い *Osoi* – Late/slow
- 光 *Hikari* – Light
- 速い *Hayai* – Fast
- 建物 *Tatemono* – Building
- 可愛い *Kawaii* - Cute
- ウサギ (兎) *Usagi* - Rabbit/bunny
- 強い *Tsuyoi* – Strong
- クマ (熊) *Kuma* - Bear
- 弱い *Yowai* – Weak
- 齒茎 *Haguki* - Gums
- 古い *Furui* – Old
- 携帯 *Keitai* - Cellphone
- 暑い *Atsui* – Hot (weather)
- 手 *Te* - Hand(s)
- 熱い *Atsui* – Hot (in general)
- 水 *Mizu* - Water
- 寒い *Samui* – Cold (weather)
- 冬 *Fuyu* - Winter
- 冷たい *Tsumetai* – Cold (in general)
- 公園 *Kōen* - Park
- 嬉しい *Ureshii* – Happy
- 景色 *Keshiki* - Scenery
- 悲しい *Kanashii* – Sad
- ラーメン *Rāmen* - Ramen
- 遠い *Tōi* – Far
- 仕事 *Shigoto* - Job/work
- 近い *Chikai* – Nearby/close
- 猫 *Neko* - Cat
- 美しい *Utsukushii* – Beautiful
- 川 *Kawa* - River
- 魁い *Minikui* – Ugly
- 冗談 *Jōdan* - Joke
- 忙しい *Isogashii* – Busy
- 影響 *Eikyō* - Influence/effect
- 楽しい *Tanoshii* – Fun
- 信号 *Shingō* - Traffic light
- 美味しい *Oishii* – Delicious
- リンゴ *Ringo* - Apple
- 不味い *Mazui* – Nasty
- パソコン *Pasokon* - Computer
- 優しい *Yasashii* – Kind
- 給料 *Kyūryō* - Salary/wages
- 厳しい *Kibishii* – Strict/harsh

- 城 *Shiro* - Castle
- 葉っぱ *Happa* - Leaves
- タイヤ *Taiya* - Tire
- 味 *Aji* - Flavor
- 扱い *Atsukai* - Handling
- 品質 *Hinshitsu* - Quality
- 空気 *Kūki* - Air
- スコア *Sukoa* - Score
- 足 *Ashi* - Foot/feet
- 虫 *Mushi* - Bug
- 道 *Michi* - Street/road
- 答え *Kotae* - Answer
- 試験 *Shiken* - Exam
- 問題 *Mondai* - Problem/question
- 良い *Yoi* - Good
- 悪い *Warui* - Bad
- 素晴らしい *Subarashii* - Wonderful
- 凄い *Sugoi* - Amazing
- 汚い *Kitanai* - Dirty
- 明るい *Akarui* - Bright
- 広い *Hiroi* - Wide
- 狹い *Semai* - Narrow
- 暗い *Kurai* - Dark
- 怖い *Kowai* - Scary
- 低い *Hikui* - Low
- 長い *Nagai* - Long
- 短い *Mijkai* - Short (length)
- 正しい *Tadashii* - Correct
- 寂しい *Sabishii* - Lonely
- 痛い *Itai* - Painful
- 易しい *Yasashii* - Easy
- 難しい *Muzukashii* - Difficult
- 背が低い *Se ga hikui* - Short (height)

Proper Nouns

- 山田先生 *Yamada-sensei* – Professor/Dr./Mr. Yamada (teacher)
- 長谷川先生 *Hasegawa-sensei* – Professor/Dr./Mr. Hasegawa (teacher)
- 南米 *Nambei* - South America

Pronouns

- 私 *Watashi* – I
- 僕 *Boku* - I (male)
- 軽い *Karui* - Light
- 重い *Omoi* - Heavy
- 苦い *Nigai* - Bitter

- ・彼 *Kare* – He

- ・辛い *Karai* - Spicy

Demonstratives

- ・塩辛い *Shiokarai* - Salty

- ・この *Kono* – This (adj.)

- ・その *Sono* - That (adj.)

- ・あれ *Are* - That (over there) (n.)

- ・あの *Ano* – That (over there) (adj.)

- ・ここ *Koko* - Here

Copula Verb

- ・です *Desu* – Is/are

What is an Adjective?

An **adjective** is a word that describes some attribute of a noun. In English, an adjective can either come directly before a noun or modify it from afar as the predicate (part of the sentence which makes a statement about the subject) with the help of a “to be” verb.

- i. I sold the **old** book.
- ii. I ate a **green** apple.
- iii. The moose was **large**.
- iv. Textbook are **expensive**.
- v. The **young** man bought a **new** car.

In Japanese, *Keiyōshi* 形容詞 can modify a noun directly before it as well as modify it from afar as the predicate of the sentence. However, unlike English, there is no need for a “to be” (= copula). The adjective may either be directly before a noun or at the end of the sentence. A good example word to showcase this is the adjective for “new”: *atarashii* 新しい. This single word can stand for “to be new,” “is new,” “are new,” etc. To see how it works in actual sentences, consider the following.

1. この本は新しい。
ほん あたら
Kono hon wa atarashii.

This book is new.

2. 新しい本です。
あたら ほん
Atarashii hon desu.
(This is) a new book.

In Ex. 1, *atarashii* 新しい functions as the predicate. In Ex. 2, it only modifies the noun *hon* 本 (book). Understanding word order, though, is only one aspect of knowing how to use adjectives. You will now need to learn how to conjugate adjectives. Note that the conjugations you learn in this lesson only apply to the part of speech being introduced to you. Although the same principles will apply, conjugatable parts of speech in Japanese will always look different from one another, but words in any given part of speech will share the same endings.

Conjugating *Keiyōshi* 形容詞

Plain Non-Past Form: No Conjugation

All *Keiyōshi* 形容詞 end in the vowel /i/. This is no coincidence. This is because the /i/ is an ending that attaches to the stem. The stem of a word is its root, what makes up the meaning of the word. The -i い is a grammatical item that adds a finishing touch. The resultant form is the plain non-past form of an adjective.

Although conjugation is technically involved, speakers treat the “stem” and the ending -i い as parts of a single word. Knowing why the -i い is there simply helps you know when something is a *Keiyōshi* 形容詞. Before we learn about other conjugations, let's first learn a handful of adjectives to add context to the information discussed so far.

Meaning	Adjective	Meaning	Adjective
Strong	<i>Tsuyoi</i> 強い	Weak	<i>Yowai</i> 弱い
Old	<i>Furui</i> 古い	New	<i>Atarashii</i> 新しい
Hot (weather)	<i>Atsui</i> 暑い	Hot	<i>Atsui</i> 热い
Cold (weather)	<i>Samui</i> 寒い	Cold	<i>Tsumetai</i> 冷たい

1. クマは強^{つよ}い。

Kuma wa tsuyoi.

Bears are strong.

2. 齒^{はぐき}茎^{よわ}が弱い。

Haguki ga yowai.

My gums are weak.

3. 南米^{なんべい}は暑^{あつ}い！

Nambei wa atsui!

South America is hot!

て あつ
4. 手が熱い。

Te ga atsui.

My/your hands are hot.

ふる でんわ
5. あれは古い電話だ。

Are wa furui denwa da.

That is an old phone.

みず つめ
6. 水が冷たい。

Mizu ga tsumetai.

The water is cold.

ふゆ さむ
7. 冬は寒い！

Fuyu wa samui!

Winter is cold!

Polite Non-Past Form: + desu です

To conjugate an adjective into its polite non-past form, attach *desu* です to the end.

Meaning	Adjective	Add <i>desu</i> です
Close/nearby	<i>Chikai</i> 近い	<i>Chikai desu</i> 近いです
Far	<i>Tōi</i> 遠い	<i>Tōi desu</i> 遠いです
Beautiful	<i>Utsukushii</i> 美しい	<i>Utsukushii desu</i> 美しいです
Ugly	<i>Minikui</i> 魁い	<i>Minikui desu</i> 魁いです

こうえん ちか
8. 公園が近いです。

Kōen ga chikai desu.

A park is nearby.

けしき うつく
9. 景色が美しいです。

Keshiki ga utsukushii desu.

The scenery is beautiful.

Past Forms: -katta かった & -katta desu かったです

To make an adjective past tense, drop *-i* い and add *-katta* かった. To make it polite, just add

desu です at the end of *-katta* かった.

Meaning	Adjective	<i>-katta</i> かった (plain)	<i>-katta desu</i> かったです (polite)
Delicious	<i>Oishii</i> 美味しい	<i>Oishikatta</i> 美味しかった	<i>Oishikatta desu</i> 美味しかったです
Nasty	<i>Mazui</i> 不味い	<i>Mazukatta</i> 不味かった	<i>Mazukatta desu</i> 不味かったです
Kind	<i>Yasashii</i> 優しい	<i>Yasashikatta</i> 優しかった	<i>Yasashikatta desu</i> 優しかったです
Strict	<i>Kibishii</i> 厳しい	<i>Kibishikatta</i> 厳しかった	<i>Kibishikatta desu</i> 厳しかったです
Busy	<i>Isogashii</i> 忙しい	<i>Isogashikatta</i> 忙しかった	<i>Isogashikatta desu</i> 忙しかったです
Fun	<i>Tanoshii</i> 楽しい	<i>Tanoshikatta</i> 楽しかった	<i>Tanoshikatta desu</i> 楽しかったです

10. ラーメンは美味しかったです。
 Ramen wa oishikatta desu.
 The ramen was delicious.

11. 仕事が忙しかった。
 Shigoto ga isogashikatta.
 Work was busy.

12. あの映画は楽しかったです。
 Ano eiga wa tanoshikatta desu.
 That movie was fun.

13. 彼が優しかった。
 Kare ga yasashikatta.
 He was kind.

14. 長谷川先生は厳しかったです。
 Hasegawa-sensei wa kibishikatta desu.
 Hasegawa-sensei was strict.

Plain Negative Form: *-kunai* くない

To make the negative (to not be...) form of an adjective, drop *-i* い and add *-kunai* くない. The *-nai* ない part also functions as an adjective. This fact will come in handy here shortly.

Meaning	Adjective	<i>-kunai</i> くない
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Early	<i>Hayai</i> 早い	<i>Hayakunai</i> 早くない
Late/Slow	<i>Osoi</i> 遅い	<i>Osokunai</i> 遅くない
Fast	<i>Hayai</i> 速い	<i>Hayakunai</i> 速くない
Cute	<i>Kawaii</i> 可愛い	<i>Kawaikunai</i> 可愛くない
Happy	<i>Ureshii</i> 嬉しい	<i>Ureshikunai</i> 嬉しくない
Sad	<i>Kanashii</i> 悲しい	<i>Kanashikunai</i> 悲しくない

ねこ かわい
15. あの猫は可愛くない。
Ano neko wa kawaikunai.
That cat is not cute.

ぼく かな
16. 僕は悲しくない。
Boku wa kanashikunai.
I am not sad.

おそ
17. 遅くない?
Osokunai?
Aren't you/isn't that slow?

Intonation Note: With a raised intonation at the end, you can use the negative ending to make a rhetorical question in the affirmative.

Polite Negative Forms: *-kunai desu* くないです & *-ku arimasen* くありません

There are two methods to make an adjective negative in polite speech. The first method, which is not as polite but perfect for general conversation is attaching *desu* です to *-kunai* くない, giving *-kunai desu* くないです. The second method involves dropping *-i* い and adding *-ku arimasen* くありません. In Japanese, there is a trend of longer phrases being politer. This is certainly the case here.

Meaning	Adjective	<i>-kunai desu</i> くないです	<i>-ku arimasen</i> くありません
Interesting/funny	<i>Omoshiroi</i> 面白い	<i>Omoshirokunai desu</i> 面面白くないです	<i>Omoshiroku arimasen</i> 面面白くありません
Small	<i>Chiisai</i> 小さい	<i>Chiisakunai desu</i> 小さくないです	<i>Chiisaku arimasen</i> 小さくありません

Large	<i>Ōkii</i> 大きい	<i>Ōkikunai desu</i> 大きくないです	<i>Ōkiku arimasen</i> 大きくありません
Blue/green	<i>Aoi</i> 青い	<i>Aokunai desu</i> 青くないです	<i>Aoku arimasen</i> 青くありません
Red	<i>Akai</i> 赤い	<i>Akakunai desu</i> 赤くないです	<i>Aaku arimasen</i> 赤くありません
Yellow	<i>Kiroi</i> 黄色い	<i>Kiirokunai desu</i> 黄色くないです	<i>Kiiroku arimasen</i> 黄色くありません

じょうだん おもしろ
18. その冗談は面白くないです。
Sono jōdan wa omoshirokunai desu.
That joke is not funny.

えいきょう ちい
19. その影響は小さくありません。
Sono eikyō wa chiisaku arimasen.
The influence of that is not small.

20. 川は青くないです。
Kawa wa aokunai desu.
The river is not blue.

21. 信号は青くないです。
Shingō wa aokunai desu.
The light is not green.

22. あのリンゴは赤くありません。
Ano ringo wa akaku arimasen.
That apple is not red.

Plain Negative Past Form: *-kunakatta* くなかった

To create the negative past in plain speech, drop *-i* い and add *-kunakatta* くなかった. As you can see, what's going on is the *-i* い in *-nai* ない is dropped and then *-katta* かった is added.

Meaning	Adjective	<i>-kunakatta</i> くなかった
Black	<i>Kuroi</i> 黒い	<i>Kurokunakatta</i> 黒くなかった
White	<i>Shiroi</i> 白い	<i>Shirokunakatta</i> 白くなかった

Brown	<i>Chairoi</i> 茶色い	<i>Chairokunakatta</i> 茶色くなかった
Strange	<i>Okashii</i> 可笑しい	<i>Okashikunakatta</i> 可笑しくなかった
Tall/expensive	<i>Takai</i> 高い	<i>Takakunakatta</i> 高くなかった
Cheap	<i>Yasui</i> 安い	<i>Yasukunakatta</i> 安くなかった

やす
23. このパソコンは安くなかった。
Kono pasokon wa yasukunakatta.
This computer wasn't cheap.

きゅうりょう たか
24. 給 料 は高くなかった。
Kyūryō wa takakunakatta.
The salary wasn't/wages weren't high.

しろ しろ
25. その城は白くなかった。
Sono shiro wa shirokunakatta.
That castle wasn't white.

は ちゃいろ
26. 葉っぱは茶色くなかった。
Happa wa chairokunakatta.
The leaves weren't brown.

くろ
27. タイヤは黒くなかった。
Taiya wa kurokunakatta.
The tire(s) weren't black.

あじ おか
28. 味は可笑しくなかった。
Aji wa okashikunakatta.
The flavor wasn't strange.

Polite Negative-Past Forms: *-kunakatta desu* くなかったです & *-ku arimasendeshita* くありませんでした

Just as there were two methods to making an adjective negative in polite speech, there are also two methods to conjugating an adjective into negative past (was not) in polite speech. The first method involves simply attaching *desu* です to *-kunakatta* くなかった, giving *-kunakatta desu* くなかったです. The other is by using *-ku arimasendeshita* くありませんでした, which utilizes *deshita* でした, the past form of *desu* です.

Meaning	Adjective	<i>-kunakatta desu</i> くくなかったです	<i>-ku arimasendeshita</i> くありませんでした
Good	<i>Yoi</i> 良い	良くなかったです	良くありませんでした
Bad	<i>Warui</i> 悪い	悪くなかったです	悪くありませんでした
Wonderful	<i>Subarashii</i> 素晴らしい	素晴らしくなかったです	素晴らしくありませんでした
Amazing	<i>Sugoi</i> 凄い	凄くなかったです	凄くありませんでした
Dirty	<i>Kitanai</i> 汚い	汚くなかったです	汚くありませんでした
Bright	<i>Akarui</i> 明るい	明るくなかったです	明るくありませんでした

29. その扱いは悪くなかったです。

Sono atsukai wa warukunakatta desu.

That handling wasn't bad.

30. 品質が良くませんでした。

Hinshitsu ga yoku arimasendeshita.

The quality was not good.

31. 空気は汚くなかったです。

Kuki wa kitanakunakatta desu.

The air wasn't dirty.

32. スコアは素晴らしいませんでした。

Sukoa wa subarashiku arimasendeshita.

The score was not wonderful.

More Essential Adjectives

Now that you have learned the basic conjugations, we will conclude this lesson by learning more adjectives and then finish off with even more adjectives conjugated into all the forms that have been introduced.

Meaning	Adjective	Meaning	Adjective
Wide	<i>Hiroi</i> 広い	Difficult	<i>Muzukashii</i> 難しい
Narrow	<i>Semai</i> 狹い	Easy	<i>Yasashii</i> 易しい
Dark	<i>Kurai</i> 暗い	Painful	<i>Itai</i> 痛い

Scary	<i>Kowai</i> 怖い	Lonely	<i>Sabishii</i> 寂しい
Low	<i>Hikui</i> 低い	Correct	<i>Tadashii</i> 正しい
Long	<i>Nagai</i> 長い	Short	<i>Mijikai</i> 短い

33. 足が痛い！
Ashi ga itai!
 My feet hurt!

34. 虫、怖いです！
Mushi, kowai desu!
 The bugs are scary!/I'm afraid of bugs.

35. 道が狭かったです。
Michi ga semakatta desu.
 The street(s) were narrow.

36. その答えは正しくないです。
Sono kotae wa tadashikunai desu.
 That answer isn't correct.

37. 私は背が低くありません。
Watashi wa se ga hikuku arimasen.
 I am not short.

Word Note: "Short" as in "height" is *se ga hikui* 背が低い.

38. 試験は難しくありませんでした。
Shiken wa muzukashiku arimasendeshita.
 The exam was not difficult.

39. 試験問題は易しかったです。
Shiken mondai wa yasashikatta desu.
 The exam questions were easy.

40. 僕、寂しい...
Boku, sabishii...
 I'm lonely...

41. 山田先生は厳しいです。
Yamada sensei wa kibii desu.

Yamada-sensei wa kibishii desu.

Yamada-sensei is strict.

わたし いそが
42. 私は忙しくありませんでした。
Watashi wa isogashiku arimasendeshita.

I was not busy.

たてもの ちか
43. あの建物は近いです。
Ano tatemono wa chikai desu.

That building is close/nearby.

あつ
44. ここは暑くないです
Koko wa atsukunai desu.

It isn't hot here.

45. ウサギはかわいいです。
Usagi wa kawaii desu.

Rabbits are cute.

Conjugation Recap

Meaning →	Light	Heavy	Bitter	Spicy	Salty
Adjective → Conjugations ↓	<i>Karui</i> 軽い	<i>Omoi</i> 重い	<i>Nigai</i> 苦い	<i>Karai</i> 辛い	<i>Shiokarai</i> 塩辛い
Plain Non-Past	かるい	おもい	にがい	からい	しおからい
Polite Non-Past	かるいです	おもいです	にがいです	からいです	しおからいです
Plain Past	かるかった	おもかった	にがかった	からかった	しおからかった
Polite Past	かるかった です	おもかった です	にがかった です	からかった です	しおからかった です
Plain Negative	かるくない	おもくない	にがくない	からくない	しおからくない
Polite Negative 1	かるくない です	おもくない です	にがくない です	からくない です	しおからくない です
Polite Negative 2	かるくあり ません	おもくあり ません	にがくあり ません	からくあり ません	しおからくあり ません
Plain Negative-Past	かるくな かった	おもくな かった	にがくな かった	からくな かった	しおからくな かった

Polite Negative-Past 1	かるくな かったです	おもくな かったです	にがくな かったです	からくな かったです	しおからくな かったです
Polite Negative-Past 2	かるくあり ませんでした	おもくあり ませんでした	にがくあり ませんでした	からくあり ませんでした	しおからくあり ませんでした

Chart Note: For brevity, conjugations are shown only in *Hiragana* ひらがな.

第14課: Adjectives II: 形容動詞 *Keiyōdōshi*

The second part of speech that acts like adjectives is called *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞. This name literally means “adjectival verb.” The name comes from the fact that all adjectives in this class must use the copula to conjugate. Confusingly, however, they’re essentially adjectival nouns.

Take, for example, the word “fat.” In English, this is both a noun and an adjective, but when it is used as an adjective, we need to use forms of “to be fat.” Although this example doesn’t translate over into Japanese, this same principle applies to *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞.

Vocabulary List

Nouns	Adjectival Nouns
・病院 <i>Byōin</i> – Hospital	・静かだ <i>Shizuka da</i> – To be quiet
・チエコ語 <i>Chekogo</i> – Czech language	・安全だ <i>Anzen da</i> – To be safe
・図書館 – <i>Toshokan</i> – Library	・健康だ <i>Kenkō da</i> – To be healthy
・子供 <i>Kodomo</i> – Child/children	・元気だ <i>Genki da</i> – To be lively
・歯 <i>Ha</i> – Tooth/teeth	・簡単だ <i>Kantan da</i> – To be easy
・月 <i>Tsuki</i> - Moon	・綺麗だ <i>Kirei da</i> – To be pretty
・人 <i>Hito</i> – Person	・大切だ <i>Taisetsu da</i> – To be indispensable
・建物 <i>Tatemono</i> - Building	・真面目だ <i>Majime da</i> – To be serious
・気持ち <i>Kimochi</i> – Feeling(s)	・ユニークだ <i>Yuniiku da</i> – To be unique

- 酸素 *Sanso* – Oxygen
- 資格 *Shikaku* - Qualifications
- 傾斜 *Keisha* – Slant/slope
- 歌手 *Kashu* – Singer
- ハンドバッグ *Handobaggu* - Handbug
- ビジネス *Bijinesu* – Business
- 問題 *Mondai* – Question/problem
- 登録 *Tōroku* – Registration
- 町 *Machi* – Town
- スタッフ *Sutaffu* - Staff
- 野菜 *Yasai* - Vegetables
- 英語 *Eigo* – English language
- 昔 *Mukashi* – Olden days
- 簡易ベッド *Kan'i beddo* – Bunk bed
- ルール *Rūru* – Rule(s)
- 兵士 *Heishi* - Soldier
- 文章 *Bunshō* – Sentence
- 初恋 *Hatsukoi* – First love
- ゲーム *Gēmu* – Game
- モダンだ *Modan da* – To be modern
- 駄目だ *Dame da* – To be no good
- 馬鹿だ *Baka da* – To be stupid/dumb
- 重要だ *Jūyō da* – To be important
- 変だ *Hen da* – To be strange
- 優秀だ *Yūshū da* – To be excellent at
- 大事だ *Daiji da* – To be valuable
- 有害だ *Yūgai da* – To be harmful
- 平気だ *Heiki da* – To be cool/calm
- 必要だ *Hitsuyō da* – To be necessary
- 急だ *Kyū da* - To be urgent/stEEP/rapid
- カジュアルだ *Kajuaru da* – To be casual
- 有名だ *Yūmei da* – To be famous
- 苦手だ *Nigate da* – To be poor at
- 高価だ *Kōka da* – To be high price
- 容易だ *Yōi da* – To be simple
- 稀だ *Mare da* – To be rare
- 危険だ *Kiken da* – To be dangerous
- 複雑だ *Fukuzatsu da* – To be complicated
- 熱心だ *Nesshin da* – To be enthusiastic
- 適切だ *Tekisetsu da* – To be appropriate
- 失礼だ *Shitsurei da* – To be rude

Pronouns

- 私 *Wata(ku)shi* – I
- 僕 *Boku* – I (male)

- ・彼 *Kare* – He
- ・彼ら *Karera* – They
- ・多忙だ *Tabō da* – To be very busy
- ・冷静だ *Reisei da* – To be calm/composed

Demonstratives

- ・この *Kono* – This (adj.)
- ・それ *Sore* – That (n.)
- ・あれ *Are* – That (n.)
- ・あの *Ano* – That (adj.)
- ・親切だ *Shinsetsu da* – To be kind
- ・公平だ *Kōhei da* – To be fair
- ・最高だ *Saikō da* – To be the best
- ・自由だ *Jiyū da* – To be free

Adverbs

- ・もはや *Mohaya* - No more
- ・全然 *Zenzen* – At all
- ・別に *Betsu ni* – Not particularly
- ・特に *Toku ni* – Especially
- ・まだ *Mada* – Yet/still
- ・少しも *Sukushi mo* – Not one bit
- ・得意だ *Tokui da* – To be good at
- ・自然だ *Shizen da* – To be nature
- ・不自然だ *Fushizen da* – To be unnatural
- ・残酷だ *Zankoku da* – To be harsh/cruel
- ・切実だ *Setsujitsu da* – To be earnest
- ・詳細だ *Shōsai da* – To be detailed
- ・新鮮だ *Shinsen da* – To be fresh

Adjectival Nouns

- ・正確だ *Seikaku da* – To be accurate
- ・特殊だ *Tokushu da* – To be peculiar
- ・微妙だ *Bimyō da* – To be subtle
- ・明確だ *Meikaku da* – To be precise
- ・勇敢だ *Yūkan da* – To be brave
- ・スマートだ *Sumāto da* – To be stylish
- ・リアルだ *Riaru da* – To be realistic
- ・未熟だ *Mijuku da* – To be inexperienced
- ・簡易だ *Kan'i da* – To be simplistic
- ・慎重だ *Shinchō da* – To be prudent
- ・便利だ *Benri da* – To be convenient
- ・不便だ *Fuben da* – To be inconvenient
- ・困難だ *Kon'nan da* – To be difficult
- ・不思議だ *Fushigi da* – To be mysterious
- ・安いだ *An'i da* – To be easy(-going)

- 好きだ *Suki da* – To like
- 嫌いだ *Kirai da* – To hate
- フォーマルだ *Fōmaru da* – To be formal
- ハンサムだ *Hansamu da* – To be handsome
- シックだ *Shikku da* – To be chic

Conjugating *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞

As mentioned above, *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞 are essentially adjectival nouns. Grammatically, an abstract noun is used with a form of the copula. Remember, the copula simply refers to either *da* だ, *desu* です, or any of their conjugations. Although this means the conjugations will be exactly the same as the copula, we will still go through each one individually as we did for *Keiyōshi* 形容詞.

Non-Past Forms: *Da* だ & *Desu* です

To use a *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞 in the non-past tense, simply attach either *da* だ (for plain speech) or *desu* です (for polite speech). When using a *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞 before a noun, though, *da* だ and *desu* です must be replaced with *na* な.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ <i>na</i> な (Before Nouns)	+ <i>da</i> だ	+ <i>desu</i> です
Quiet	<i>Shizuka</i> 静か	<i>Shizuka na</i> 静かな	<i>Shizuka da</i> 静かだ	<i>Shizuka desu</i> 静かです
Safe	<i>Anzen</i> 安全	<i>Anzen na</i> 安全な	<i>Anzen da</i> 安全だ	<i>Anzen desu</i> 安全です
Healthy	<i>Kenkō</i> 健康	<i>Kenkō na</i> 健康な	<i>Kenkō da</i> 健康だ	<i>Kenkō desu</i> 健康です
Lively	<i>Genki</i> 元気	<i>Genki na</i> 元気な	<i>Genki da</i> 元気だ	<i>Genki desu</i> 元気です
Easy	<i>Kantan</i> 簡単	<i>Kantan na</i> 簡単な	<i>Kantan da</i> 簡単だ	<i>Kantan desu</i> 簡単です

1. 病院は安全です。
Byōin wa anzen desu.

The hospital is safe./Hospitals are safe.

2. チェコ語は簡単だ。
Chekogo wa kantan da.
Czech is easy.

としょかん しず
3. あの図書館は静かです。

Ano toshokan wa shizuka desu.
That library is quiet.

げんき こども
4. 元気な子供ですね。

Genki na kodomo desu ne.
What a lively kid.

わたし は けんこう
5. 私の歯は健康です。

Watashi no ha wa kenkō desu.
My teeth are healthy.

Past Forms: Dattaだった& Deshita でした

To use a *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞 in the past tense, you need to conjugate the copula to *datta* だった for plain speech or *deshita* でした for polite speech. To use the past tense to modify a noun, you must use *datta* だった. This is because there is a general rule in Japanese that polite forms shouldn't modify nouns. For instance, if you wanted to say “something that was easy,” you’d need to say *kantan datta koto* 簡単だったこと.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ <i>datta</i> だった (Before Nouns)	+ <i>deshita</i> でした
Pretty	Kirei 級麗	Kirei <i>datta</i> 級麗だった	Kirei <i>deshita</i> 級麗でした
Indispensable	Taisetsu 大切	Taisetsu <i>datta</i> 大切だった	Taisetsu <i>deshita</i> 大切でした
Serious	Majime 真面目	Majime <i>datta</i> 真面目だった	Majime <i>deshita</i> 真面目でした
Unique	Yuniiku ユニーク	Yuniiku <i>datta</i> ユニークだった	Yuniiku <i>deshita</i> ユニークでした
Modern	Modan モダン	Modan <i>datta</i> モダンだった	Modan <i>deshita</i> モダンでした

Grammar Note: Not all adjectives that end in /i/ are *Keiyōshi* 形容詞. This is demonstrated by the existence of *kirei da* 級麗だ. This is why you shouldn’t just gravitate toward conjugating something without first examining at least one conjugation. Just one conjugation will help distinguish misnomer *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞. If the /i/ part is written in *Kanji* 漢字, or can be written in *Kanji* 漢字, it will always be a *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞. Even if the final /i/ is written in *Kana* かな, if it can be followed by *da* だ, it’s a *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞.

つき きれい

6. 月は綺麗でした。

Tsuki wa kirei deshita.

The moon was pretty.

たいせつ ひと
7. 大切だった人

Taisetsu datta hito

A person who was indispensable/important

ぼく まじめ
8. 僕は真面目だった。

Boku wa majime datta.

I was serious.

たてもの
9. 建物がユニークでした。

Tatemono ga yuniiku deshita.

The building(s) were unique.

Plain Negative: [de wa/ja] nai {では・じゃ} ない

To make *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞 negative in plain speech, conjugate the copula to *de wa nai* ではない. In the spoken language, this is usually contracted to *ja nai* じゃない.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ [de wa/ja] nai {では・じゃ} ない (Before Nouns)
No good	Dame 駄目	Dame [de wa/ja] nai 駄目 {では・じゃ} ない
Dumb	Baka 馬鹿	Baka [de wa/ja] nai 馬鹿 {では・じゃ} ない
Important	Jūyō 重要	Jūyō [de wa/ja] nai 重要 {では・じゃ} ない
Strange	Hen 变	Hen [de wa/ja] nai 变 {では・じゃ} ない
Excellent	Yūshū 優秀	Yūshū [de wa/ja] nai 優秀 {では・じゃ} ない

き も へん

10. この気持ちは変じやない。

Kono kimochi wa hen ja nai.

This feeling/these feelings are not strange.

じゅうよう

11. あれはもはや重要ではない。

Are wa mohaya jūyō de wa nai.

That is no longer important.

- ひと ゆうしゅう
12. この人は優秀じゃない。
Kono hito wa yūshū ja nai.
This person isn't excellent.

Polite Negative 1: [de wa/ja] nai desu {では・じゃ} ないです

To make the negative form polite, all you need to do is add *desu* です to the forms above. This option is not as polite as the following one, but it suffices for most instances you'll encounter in daily conversation.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ [de wa/ja] nai desu {では・じゃ} ないです
Valuable	<i>Daiji</i> 大事	<i>Daiji [de wa/ja] nai desu</i> 大事 {では・じゃ} ないです
Harmful	<i>Yūgai</i> 有害	<i>Yūgai [de wa/ja] nai desu</i> 有害 {では・じゃ} ないです
Calm/cool	<i>Heiki</i> 平気	<i>Heiki [de wa/ja] nai desu</i> 平気 {では・じゃ} ないです
Necessary	<i>Hitsuyō</i> 必要	<i>Hitsuyō [de wa/ja] nai desu</i> 必要 {では・じゃ} ないです
Urgent/stEEP /rapid	<i>Kyū</i> 急	<i>Kyū [de wa/ja] nai desu</i> 急 {では・じゃ} ないです

Grammar Note: Do not use these forms when directly modifying a noun! Use their plain speech counterparts!

- さんそ ゆうがい
13. 酸素は有害でないです。
Sanso wa yūgai de wa nai desu.
Oxygen is not harmful.

- わたし へいき
14. 私は平気じゃないです。
Watashi wa heiki ja nai desu.
I'm not cool.

- しかく ひつよう
15. 資格は必要でないです。
Shikaku wa hitsuyō de wa nai desu.
Qualifications are not necessary.

- けいしや きゅう
16. 傾斜は急でないです。
Keisha wa kyū de wa nai desu.
The incline is not steep.

Polite Negative 2: [de wa/ja] arimasen {では・じゃ} ありません

The forms below are the politest means of making the negative form. Note again that the use of *ja* じゃ is most common in the spoken language. It is not used much in the written language.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ [de wa/ja] arimasen {では・じゃ} ありません
Casual	<i>Kajuaru</i> カジュアル	<i>Kajuaru [de wa/ja] arimasen</i> カジュアル {では・じゃ} ありません
Famous	<i>Yūmei</i> 有名	<i>Yūmei [de wa/ja] arimasen</i> 有名 {では・じゃ} ありません
Poor at	<i>Nigate</i> 苦手	<i>Nigate [de wa/ja] arimasen</i> 苦手 {では・じゃ} ありません
High price	<i>Kōka</i> 高価	<i>Kōka [de wa/ja] arimasen</i> 高価 {では・じゃ} ありません
Simple	<i>Yōi</i> 容易	<i>Yōi [de wa/ja] arimasen</i> 容易 {では・じゃ} ありません

Grammar Note: Do not use these forms when modifying a noun! Use their plain speech counterparts!

- かしゅ ゆうめい
17. あの歌手は有名ではありません。
Ano kashu wa yūmei de wa arimasen.
That singer is not famous.
- こうか
18. このハンドバッグは高価ではありません。
Kono handobaggu wa kōka de wa arimasen.
This handbag is not high price.
19. ビジネスカジュアルはカジュアルじゃありません。
Bijinesu kajuaru wa kajuaru ja arimasen.
Business casual isn't casual.

Plain Negative-Past: [de wa/ja] nakatta {では・じゃ} なかった

The use of *nakatta* なかった shows up here as it did with adjectives in Lesson 13. Remember, *de wa* では > *ja* じゃ in regards to politeness. However, the former takes precedent in the written language; the opposite is so in the spoken language.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ [de wa/ja] nakatta {では・じゃ} なかった (Before Nouns)
Rare	<i>Mare</i> 稀	<i>Mare [de wa/ja] nakatta</i> 稀 {では・じゃ} なかった
Dangerous	<i>Kiken</i> 危険	<i>Kiken [de wa/ja] nakatta</i> 危険 {では・じゃ} なかった

Complicated	Fukuzatsu 複雜	Fukuzatsu [de wa/ja] nakatta 複雜 {では・じゃ} なかった
Enthusiastic	Nesshin 热心	Nesshin [de wa/ja] nakatta 热心 {では・じゃ} なかった
Appropriate	Tekisetsu 適切	Tekisetsu [de wa/ja] nakatta 適切 {では・じゃ} なかった

Grammar Note: These forms can be used to directly modify a noun! For instance, a "problem that wasn't complicated" would be *fukuzatsu de wa/ja nakatta mondai* 複雜 {では・じゃ} なかった問題.

とうろく ふくざつ
20. 登録が複雑ではなかった。

Tōroku ga fukuzatsu de wa nakatta.
Registration was not difficult.

てきせつ
21. それは適切ではなかった。

Sore wa tekisetsu de wa nakatta.
That was not appropriate.

まち きけん
22. あの町は危険じゃなかった。

Ano machi wa kiken ja nakatta.
That town wasn't dangerous.

かれ ねっしん
23. 彼らは熱心じゃなかった。

Karera wa nesshin ja nakatta.
They weren't enthusiastic.

Polite Negative-Past 1: [de wa/ja] nakatta desu {では・じゃ} なかったです

To make negative-past polite, just add *desu* です. The same dynamics apply to the negative-past as it did for the negative forms in regards to politeness. Meaning, *de wa* では is more polite than *ja* じゃ, but *ja* じゃ is more common in the spoken language and the opposite is true in the written language. Furthermore, these forms will not be as polite as the ones that will be discussed after this section.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ [de wa/ja] nakatta desu {では・じゃ} なかったです
Rude	Shitsurei 失礼	<i>Shitsurei [de wa/ja] nakatta desu</i> 失礼 {では・じゃ} なかったです

Very busy	<i>Tabō</i> 多忙	<i>Tabō [de wa/ja] nakatta desu</i> 多忙 {では・じゃ} なかったです
Calm	<i>Reisei</i> 冷静	<i>Reisei [de wa/ja] nakatta desu</i> 冷静 {では・じゃ} なかったです
Special	<i>Tokubetsu</i> 特別	<i>Tokubetsu [de wa/ja] nakatta desu</i> 特別 {では・じゃ} なかったです
Kind	<i>Shinsetsu</i> 親切	<i>Shinsetsu [de wa/ja] nakatta desu</i> 親切 {では・じゃ} なかったです

Grammar Note: Do not use these forms when directly modifying a noun! Use their plain speech counterparts!

24. 全然失礼じゃなかったですよ。
Zenzen shitsurei ja nakatta desu yo.

(That) wasn't rude at all.

25. 私、冷静じゃなかったですね。
Watashi, reisei ja nakatta desu ne.

I wasn't calm, huh.

26. 僕は別に特別じゃなかったです。
Boku wa betsu ni tokubetsu ja nakatta desu.
I wasn't particularly special.

27. スタッフが全然親切ではなかったです。
Sutaffu ga zenzen shinsetsu de wa nakatta desu.
The staff wasn't kind at all.

Polite Negative-Past 2: [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita {では・じゃ} ありませんでした

Notice how the negative-past forms that are most polite end in *arimasendeshita* ありませんでした. Don't forget to insert *de wa/ja* では・じゃ! Lastly, remember that *ja* ジャ is more indicative of the spoken language. Although it is not as polite as its uncontracted counterpart *de wa* では, it is very common in conversation. However, it's best to avoid when writing.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	+ [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita {では・じゃ} ありませんでした
Fair	<i>Kōhei</i> 公平	<i>Kōhei [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita</i> 公平 {では・じゃ} ありませんでした

Best	<i>Saikō</i> 最高	<i>Saikō [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita</i> 最高 {では・じゃ} ありませんでした
Free	<i>Jiyū</i> 自由	<i>Jiyū [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita</i> 自由 {では・じゃ} ありませんでした
Fresh	<i>Shinsen</i> 新鮮	<i>Shinsen [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita</i> 新鮮 {では・じゃ} ありませんでした
Good at	<i>Tokui</i> 得意	<i>Tokui [de wa/ja] arimasendeshita</i> 得意 {では・じゃ} ありませんでした

Grammar Note: Do not use these forms when directly modifying a noun! Use their plain speech counterparts!

やさい しんせん
28. 野菜は新鮮じゃありませんでした。

Yasai wa shinsen ja arimasendeshita.

The vegetables weren't fresh.

わたし えいご とくい
29. 私は英語が得意ではありませんでした。

Watashi wa eigo ga tokui de wa arimasendeshita.

I wasn't good at English.

むかし こうへい
30. 昔は公平ではありませんでした。

Mukashi wa kōhei de wa arimasendeshita.

The olden days were not fair.

More Essential *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞

Now that we have learned the basic conjugations for *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞, we will spend some time studying more essential example words. After that, we'll review the conjugations taught in this lesson.

Meaning	Adj. Noun	Meaning	Adj. Noun
Natural	<i>Shizen</i> 自然	Harsh/cruel	<i>Zankoku</i> 残酷
Unnatural	<i>Fushizen</i> 不自然	Earnest	<i>Setsujitsu</i> 切実
Detailed	<i>Shōsai</i> 詳細	Inexperienced	<i>Mijuku</i> 未熟
Simplistic	<i>Kan'i</i> 簡易	Prudent	<i>Shinchō</i> 慎重
Convenient	<i>Benri</i> 便利	Inconvenient	<i>Fuben</i> 不便
Difficult	<i>Kon'nān</i> 困難	Mysterious	<i>Fushigi</i> 不思議

Easy(-going)	<i>An'i</i> 安易	Accurate	<i>Seikaku</i> 正確
Peculiar	<i>Tokushu</i> 特殊	Subtle	<i>Bimyō</i> 微妙
Precise	<i>Meikaku</i> 明確	Brave	<i>Yūkan</i> 勇敢
Stylish	<i>Sumāto</i> スマート	Realistic	<i>Riaru</i> リアル

Meaning Notes:

1. *Kon'nan* 困難 is “difficult” as in dealing with hardship. It is the opposite of *yōi* 容易.
2. *An'i* 安易 is like *yōi* 容易, but it implies that not much effort is needed to get whatever done. Because of this, it often has a negative image attached to it. It is the opposite of *shinchō* 慎重.
3. *Kan'i* 簡易 means that something isn't complicated. It is the opposite of *fukuzatsu* 複雜.
4. *Kantan* 簡単 is similar to *kan'i* 簡易 in that both mean something isn't complicated; however, it is used more widely in the spoken language. Incidentally, *kan'i* 簡易 is usually used in a compound expressions such as *kan'i beddo* 簡易ベッド (bunk bed).

めいかく
31. ルールは明確です。
Rūru wa meikaku desu.
The rules clear.

みじゅく
32. まだ未熟でした。
Mada mijuku deshita.
I was still inexperienced.

すこ ふしき
33. 少しも不思議ではありません。
Sukoshi mo fushigi de wa arimasen.
It is not even a little mysterious.

とく ふべん
34. 特に不便じゃなかつたです。
Toku ni fuben ja nakatta desu.
It wasn't especially inconvenient.

かれ ゆうかん へいし
35. 彼は勇敢な兵士だった。
Kare wa yūkan na heishi datta.
He was a brave soldier.

ほんとう しぜん
36. 本当に自然ですね。
Hontō ni shizen desu ne.
It's really natural, huh.

ふしせん ぶんしょう
37. 不自然な文章です。
Fushisen na bunshō desu.
This is an unnatural sentence.

きじゅつ せいかく
38. 記述が正確じゃなかった。
Kijutsu ga seikaku ja nakatta.
The description wasn't accurate.

はつこい さんこく
39. 初恋は残酷でした。
Hatsukoi wa zankoku deshita.
My first love was cruel.

す
40. リアルなゲームが好きです。
Riaru na gēmu ga suki desu.
I like realistic games.

Part of Speech Note: "To like" is actually expressed in Japanese as a *Keiyōdōshi* 形容動詞 with *suki da* 好きだ. The opposite of this, "to hate," is *kirai da* 嫌いだ. It too is not a verb in Japanese.

Conjugation Recap

Meaning →	Formal	Handsome	Chic
Adjective → Conjugations ↓	<i>Fōmaru</i> フォーマル	<i>Hansamu</i> ハンサム	<i>Shikku</i> シック
Before Nouns	フォーマルな	ハンサムな	シックな
Plain Non-Past	フォーマルだ	ハンサムだ	シックだ
Polite Non-Past	フォーマルです	ハンサムです	シックです
Plain Past	フォーマルだった	ハンサムだった	シックだった
Polite Past	フォーマルでした	ハンサムでした	シックでした
Plain Neg.	フォーマル {では・じゃ} ない	ハンサム {では・じゃ} ない	シック {では・じゃ} ない
Polite Neg. 1	フォーマル {では・じゃ} ないです	ハンサム {では・じゃ} ないです	シック {では・じゃ} ないです

Polite Neg. 2	フォーマル {では・じゃ} いません	ハンサム {では・じゃ} いません	シック {では・じゃ} いません
Plain Neg-Past	フォーマル {では・じゃ} なかった	ハンサム {では・じゃ} なかった	シック {では・じゃ} なかった
Polite Neg-Past 1	フォーマル {では・じゃ} ないです	ハンサム {では・じゃ} ないです	シック {では・じゃ} ないです
Polite Neg-Past 2	フォーマル {では・じゃ} ませんでした	ハンサム {では・じゃ} ませんでした	シック {では・じゃ} ませんでした

Chart Note: For brevity, the chart above is only rendered in *Kana* かな. Use this as an opportunity for review.

第15課: The Particle *Wo* を: The Direct Object/Transition Marker

As we saw in Lesson 11 with the particle *ga* が, **case particles** are what *state grammatical function of a noun phrase in relation to the predicate*. Interpreting case particles correctly, however, requires a considerable amount of knowledge as to what nouns and predicates are used with a given particle to then accurately understand them. In this lesson, we will learn about the case particle *wo* を and its various usages.

The case that the particle *wo* を marks is called the accusative case. The **accusative case** marks the *direct object of a transitive verb*. This definition present us with more terminology to understand.

Pronunciation Note: を is usually pronounced as “o” but is still pronounced as “wo” depending on the dialect and/or context. For instance, it is frequently pronounced as “wo” in clearly enunciated speech and music.

What is a Direct Object?

First, a **direct object** is a noun phrase denoting a person or thing that is the recipient of the action of a transitive verb. Putting aside what a transitive verb is, below are examples of direct objects in English.

- i. I kissed a boy.
- ii. I ate a hamburger.
- iii. I drank milk.
- iv. She bought a television.
- v. He sold his stereo.

Intransitive & Transitive Verbs

The next question is what a transitive verb is, but in figuring this out, it's best to understand both what transitive and intransitive verbs are.

Intransitive Verb: A verb that doesn't need an object to complete its meaning.

Transitive Verb: A verb that requires one or more objects to complete its meaning.

Here are some examples of both intransitive and transitive verbs in English.

- vi. I saw a monkey. (transitive)
 - vii. He stood still. (intransitive)
 - viii. He found a raccoon. (transitive)
 - ix. The alligator swam away. (intransitive)
 - x. She cooked the meal. (transitive)
-

Jidōshi 自動詞 vs *Tadōshi* 他動詞

In Japanese, intransitive verbs are called *jidōshi* 自動詞. Such verbs only require that a subject be used in concert with the predicate, and of course, the subject is marked by *ga* が. Transitive verbs are called *tadōshi* 他動詞. Such verbs require that both a subject and direct object be used in concert with the predicate. Although the subject is still marked by *ga* が, the direct object is marked by *wo* を. The fact that *tadōshi* 他動詞 need one more element (argument) to the sentence to be grammatical, the presence of a direct object or lack thereof, is frequently used to distinguish *jidōshi* 自動詞 and *tadōshi* 他動詞.

In fact, it is often the case that the subject of an intransitive predicate can become the direct object of a transitive predicate. This is also the case in English, which can be seen in the following examples.

1. 電気がついた。 (Intransitive)

Denki ga tsuita.

The lights turned on.

2. ジェイムズが電気をつけた。 (Transitive)

Jeimuzu ga denki wo tsuketa.

James turned on the light.

Sentence Note: The subject of Ex. 1 is the direct object of Ex. 2.

3. ビールが冷えた。 (Intransitive)

Biiru ga hietu.

The beer chilled.

4. 雄太がビールを冷やした。 (Transitive)

Yūta ga biiru wo hiyashita.

Yuta chilled the beer.

Sentence Note: The subject of Ex. 3 is the direct object of Ex. 4.

Intransitive-Transitive Verb Pairs

In English, the verbs "to turn on" and "to chill" can be both used as either intransitive or transitive verbs without any change to their conjugations; however, the same cannot be said for Japanese. "To turn on" is *tsuku* つく and *tsukeru* つける for the intransitive and transitive sense respectively, and "to chill" is *hieru* 冷える and *hiyasu* 冷やす in the intransitive and transitive sense respectively.

In Japanese, many verbs have intransitive-transitive verb pairs, which is another means of figuring out when and when not to use the particle *wo* を. Some of the most common examples of these so-called intransitive-transitive verb pairs in Japanese are listed below. Note that for some of them, they also create verb pairs in English.

Definition	Intransitive	Transitive
To break	<i>Kowareru</i> 壊れる	<i>Kowasu</i> 壊す
To change	<i>Kawaru</i> 変わる	<i>Kaeru</i> 変える
To start	<i>Hajimaru</i> 始まる	<i>Hajimeru</i> 始める
To stop	<i>Tomaru</i> 止まる	<i>Tomeru</i> 止める
To open	<i>Aku</i> 開く	<i>Akeru</i> 開ける

5. 車が止まった。

Kuruma ga tomatta.

The car stopped.

6. 警察官が僕の車を止めた。

Keisatsukan ga boku no kuruma wo tometa.

A police officer stopped me (my car).

7. 窓が開いた。

Mado ga aita.

The window opened.

ゆう まど あ
8. 悠は窓を開けた。

Yū wa mado wo aketa.
Yu opened a/the window.

The Usages of The Particle Wo を

So far, we have seen how the particle *wo を* primarily marks the direct object, but that isn't all it can do. *Wo を* can be explained as having two broad purposes with various applications. Depending on the usage, you may see it with transitive verbs, intransitive verbs, or both.

- 1. Direct Object Marker
- 2. Transition Marker
 - i. Through/Along
 - ii. Toward/Around
 - iii. Object of Departure: "From"
 - iv. Flux in Degree
 - v. Time

For the remainder of this lesson, we will closely look at these usages. Note that at times, there will be some grammar points used that have not been fully introduced. In those instances, you are only expected to focus on learning how to use the particle *wo を*.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Direct Object Marker *Wo を*

The basic usage of *wo を* is to mark the direct object of a transitive verb. Not all transitive verbs in English are transitive verbs in Japanese, and so you can't always expect *wo を* to be the correct particle to choose, but for verbs that are unequivocally transitive

つくえ う
9. 机を売る。

Tsukue wo uru.
To sell a desk.

ゆか は
10. 床を掃く。

Yuka wo haku.
To sweep the floor.

ざっし よ
11. 雑誌を読む。

Zasshi wo yomu.

To read a magazine.

この や た
12. お好み焼きを食べる。

Okonomiyaki wo taberu.

To eat okonomiyaki.

Word Note: *Okonomiyaki* お好み焼き is known as the Japanese pancake. In its predominant form, the batter is made of *komugiko* 小麦粉 (flour), grated *nagaimo* 長芋 (Chinese yam), water/*dashi* 出汁 (soup stalk), eggs, and *sengiri-kyabetsu* 千切りキャベツ (shredded cabbage). Other ingredients such as *aonegi* 青ネギ (green onion), *niku* 肉 (meat), *tako* タコ (octopus), *ika* イカ (squid), *ebi* エビ (shrimp), *yasai* 野菜 (vegetables), *kon'nyaku* コンニャク (konjac), *mochi* 餅 (sticky rice cake), and *chiizu* チーズ (cheese) are typically added.

み
13. テレビを見る。

Terebi wo miru.

To watch TV.

の
14. オレンジジュースを飲む。

Orenjijūsu wo nomu.

To drink orange juice.

しょり め ざ
15. 勝利を目指す。

Shōri wo mezasu.

To aim for victory.

かんじ べんきょう
16. 漢字を勉強する。

Kanji wo benkyō suru.

To study Kanji.

いし な
17. 石を投げる。

Ishi wo nageru.

To throw (a) rock(s).

ゆ わ
18. お湯を沸かす。

Oyu wo wakasu.

To boil water.

Word Note: *Oyu* お湯 (hot water) must be used instead of *mizu* 水 (water) with the verb

wakasu 沸かす (to boil).

The Transition Marker Wo を

Transitive verbs in Japanese usually involve actions in which the agent's volition is a fundamental aspect. In other words, the agent is in control of what happens (to a direct object). It is this quality that the particle *wo を* brings attention to. Because intransitive verbs can also represent actions in which the agent is fully in control of the situation, the particle *wo を* can be used with them so long as the agent is acting upon something. In the following usages, the concept of 'something' is broadened to indicate transition. As the **transition marker**, whether it is used with intransitive or transitive verbs, the particle *wo を* indicates *transition in time, space, or degree*.

- **Motion through all or part of a dimension:** Transitioning through a dimension of time is one of the most important applications of the transition marker *wo を*. To visualize how this works, think of a circle and arrow going through it. The action at hand happens anywhere throughout the space *wo を* marks. Transition-wise, it may equate to various English phrases such as "along," "through," and "across."

Transitivity Note: The verbs this usage is used with are intransitive verbs that all involve motion.

ふじさん のぼ
19. 富士山を登りました。

Fujisan wo noborimashita.
I climbed Mt. Fuji.

こうえん はし
20. 公園を走りました。

Kōen wo hashirimashita.
I ran through the park.

にほんばし わた
21. 日本橋を渡りました。

Nihombashi wo watarimashita.
I crossed the Nihon Bridge.

がわ およ
22. ミシシッピ川を泳ぎました。

Mishissippi-gawa wo oyogimashita.
I swam across the Mississippi River.

そら と
23. 空を飛びました。

Sora wo tobimashita.
I flew across the sky.

かれ くだ ざか はし

24. 彼は下り坂を走った。

Kare wa kudarizaka wo hashitta.

He ran downhill.

かわ くだ

25. アユは川を下った。

Ayu wa kawa wo kudatta.

The sweetfish descended the river.

Ni iku 行く VS Wo iku を行く

As the examples above have demonstrated, the transition marker *wo を* is used to indicate what dimension movement is taking place. However, the particle *wo を* says nothing about destination or what may happen internally within a certain dimension. Those situations are handled by other particles. The verb *iku 行く* means “to go,” and is frequently described as taking the particle *ni に*, which indicates destination.

い
26. スーパーに行きました。

Sūpā ni ikimashita.

I went to the supermarket.

However, it too can be used with the particle *wo を*. In the case of *iku 行く*, the sentence becomes figurative as it goes beyond the typical application of “to go (somewhere).”

ぼく ぼく みち い
27. 僕は僕の道を行く。

Boku wa boku no michi wo iku.

I walk along my path.

Reading Note: For this usage, *行く* may alternatively be read as “*yuku*.”

とお こつきょう こ
28. ラクサウルを通ってネパールとインドの国境を越えました。

Rakusauru wo totte Nepāru to Indo no kokkyō wo koemashita.

Passing through Raxaul, I crossed the border between Nepal and India.

Grammar Note: The verb *tōru 通る* is used together with the conjunctive particle *te て* to make a dependent clause. This means *tōtte 通って* is used to mean “passing through.” We’ll learn more about this conjugation in Lesson 26. As for this sentence, it enables *wo を* to be used twice to mark transition.

-
- **Direction of an action:** Another use of the transition marker *wo を* is to indicate the direction of an action that, although being an outward action, isn’t necessarily going through something. The action could be done towards or around some entity, with entity being

broadened to include direction.

Transitivity Note: This usage may be used with both intransitive and transitive verbs.

29. 角かどを曲まがった。

Kado wo magatta.

I turned the corner.

30. 周まわりを回まわった。

Mawari wo mawatta.

I circled around.

The Noun *Hō* 方

The noun *hō* 方, frequently spelled simply as ほう, is used to help *wo* を create the meaning of “toward.” The insertion of *hō* ほう is imperative whenever the noun it precedes is not a literal direction-word (north, south, east, and west). However, it is still frequently inserted regardless.

North	<i>Kita</i> 北	South	<i>Minami</i> 南
East	<i>Higashi</i> 東	West	<i>Nishi</i> 西
Up	<i>Ue</i> 上	Down	<i>Shita</i> 下
Left	<i>Hidari</i> 左	Right	<i>Migi</i> 右
Forward	<i>Mae</i> 前	Back(ward)	<i>Ushiro</i> 後ろ

31. 下した (のほう) を見みました。

Shita (no hō) wo mimashita.

I looked down(ward).

32. 岐阜ぎふのほうを眺ながめました。

Gifu no hō wo nagamemashita.

I gazed toward Gifu.

33. 翔平しょへいは先生せんせいのほうを向むいた。

Shōhei wa sensei no hō wo muita.

Shohei faced the teacher.

Two Transition Marker *Wo* を in the Same Clause

The transition marker *wo* を, as we're discovering, has more than one application. Although these individual applications are all interrelated to each other, they are different enough to the point that more than one can manifest in a sentence. Because sentences can be composed of several clauses (sections) as was seen in Ex. 28, this isn't hard to fathom.

We have also seen how the same particle can easily be used more than once in a sentence even in the same clause, as is frequently the case with the particles *ga* が and *wa* は. In those discussions, the word sentence was used in place of clause, but clause is simply one stage below a sentence in terms of grammar. Clauses come in two kinds: independent and dependent. An independent clause is something that can stand alone as a proper sentence, whereas a dependent clause cannot stand alone as sentence. A clause, nonetheless, will always have the same hallmarks of a sentence in regards to composition.

In regards to *wo* を, it is possible to have two usages of the transition marker function manifest in a single clause. In Ex. 34, the first *wo* を marks the direction of the action of "to walk." The subject walked "in" the rain. The second *wo* を marks the dimension of transit, which is "through" the park. There is a principle of Japanese grammar, however, that aims to avoid such doubling of case particles. Because of this, the first such *wo* を is usually left omitted despite grammatically still being there.

34. 雨の中 (を) 、公園を歩いた。
Ame no naka (wo), kōen wo aruita.
I walked through the park in the rain.
-

• **Origin of Departure:** The transition marker *wo* を may also mark what the agent is departing from. In this sense, it is interchangeable with another case particle *kara* から. This is only true, however, for when the point of departure is a physical, concrete location.

Transitivity Note: This usage may be used with both intransitive and transitive verbs.

35. 電車 {を・から} 降りました。
Densha [wo/kara] orimashita.
I got off the train.

Nuance Note: The use of *wo* を simply implies getting off a train. The use of *kara* から indicates that the speaker is purposely heading elsewhere upon getting off the train.

36. 家 {を・から} 出ました。
Ie [wo/kara] demashita.
I left the home/I went out of my home.

Nuance Note: The use of *wo* を indicates the former interpretation, which implies leaving

the one to live by oneself, whereas the use of *kara* から indicates the latter interpretation, which simply implies going from the home for a bit.

37. 【妻・主人】は 7 時に 家を 出ました。
【妻・主人】は 7 時に 家を 出ました。

[*Tsuma/shujin*] wa *shichiji ni uchi wo demashita*.
My wife/husband left home at seven o' clock.

Sentence Note: The use of *uchi* instead of *ie*, both words being spelled as 家, helps make it clear that one is not uprooting oneself from one's home. If the particle *kara* から were used instead of *wo* を, it would imply there's a certain destination in mind with the home being the starting point. To simply express one leaving home, use *uchi wo deru* 家を出る.

Grammar Note: The particle *ni* に indicates "at" when used after time phrases.

38. 外に 出ました。
外に 出ました。

Soto ni demashita.
I went outside.

Grammar Note: Like the issue with the verb *iku* 行く as to which particle should be used, if you are intending to use the verb *deru* 出る to indicate where one has exited "to," then you must use the particle *ni* に instead of *wo* を as it is *ni* に that indicates place of destination.

39. 去年 大学 {を ○・から X} 卒業しました。
去年 大学 {を ○・から X} 卒業しました。

Kyonen daigaku wo sotsugyo shimashita.
I graduated (from) college last year.

40. 会社 {を ○・から X} 辞めました。
会社 {を ○・から X} 辞めました。

Kaisha wo yamemashita
I quit the company.

41. 船が 港 {を・から} 出発しました。
船が 港 {を・から} 出発しました。

Fune ga minato [wo/kara] shuppatsu shita.
The boat departed from the harbor.

Grammar Note: The use of *wo* を makes it sound that the harbor is just the origin of the act of departure. The use of *kara* から makes it sound that harbor is specifically the starting point of a venture. This distinction between the two particles is profound enough to have both particles show up in the same sentence for their own respective purposes.

42. シアトルタコマ国際空港から アメリカを 出発した。
シアトルタコマ国際空港から アメリカを 出発した。

Shiatoru-Takoma Kokusai Kūkō kara Amerika wo shuppatsu shita.

I departed America from Seattle-Tacoma International Airport.

- **Flux in Degree:** There are a handful of verbs in Japanese that regard fluctuation in degree. These verbs indicate how a certain value goes beyond or below a certain standard.

Transitivity Note: This usage is used with intransitive verbs.

きょう さんじゅうごど こ もうしょび
43. 今日は 35 度を超える猛暑日でした。
Kyō wa sanjūgodo wo koeru mōshobi deshita.
Today was an extremely hot day exceeding 35 degrees Celsius.

きんがく いちおく うわまわ
44. その金額が1億ドルを上回りました。
Sono kingaku ga ichioku-doru wo uwamarimashita.
The amount exceeded 100 million dollars.

きじゅん したまわ
45. 基準を下回る。
Kijun wo shitamawaru.
To fall below a standard.

- **Transition of Time:** The use of the transition marker of *wo* を to show transition in a temporal sense is not as productive as the grammatical situations above. As is the case with expressing transit through space, *wo* を can mark transiting through a certain time period.

Transitivity Note: This usage may be used with both intransitive and transitive verbs.

なつやす す
46. カナダで夏休みを過ごしました。
Kanada de natsuyasumi wo sugoshimashita.
I spent my summer break in Canada.

Sentence Note: *Sugosu 過ごす* is a transitive verb. It is indicative of how this use of *wo* を, when used with transitive verbs, is used with nouns that are not literally time phrases but inherently imply a period of time.

Grammar Note: The particle *de* で is the particle used to indicate where an action is done “at.”

しゅんこう じゅうねん へ たてもの ちょうさ おこな
47. 竣工から10年を経た建物の調査を行います。
Shunkō kara jūnen wo heta tatemono no chōsa wo okonaimasu.
We perform investigations of buildings which have passed ten years since completion.

Sentence Note: *Heru 経る* is an intransitive verb. It is indicative of how this use of *wo*, when used with intransitive verbs, is used primarily with explicit time phrases.

Grammar Note: The particle *kara* から, when used with nouns that relate to time, indicate a starting point in time. This shows how the concepts of “from” and “since” are the same in Japanese.

48. その殺人事件の容疑者は10年もの間 (を)、息を潜めて、隠れていました。
Sono satsujin jiken no yōgisha wa jūnen mo no aida (wo), iki wo hisomete, kakurete imashita.

The suspect of that murder case had been hiding, breath bated, for ten years.

Grammar Note: In this example, the temporal *wo* を is optional. For one, it is not normally paired with the intransitive verb *kakureru* 隠れる (to hide) as the length of hiding is not a detail that must be explicitly stated. The reason why it would appear in a sentence like Ex. 48 is to emphasize the fact that the suspect was hiding for ten years. The sense of the hiding having been something that was ongoing is the heart of what the temporal *wo* を means.

Grammar Note: The phrase *mo no aida* もの間 equates to “for” in this sentence.

49. 私たちは厳しい現実の中を生きている。
Watashitachi wa kibishii genjitsu no naka wo ikite iru.
We are living through a harsh reality.

Grammar Note: Although *genjitsu no naka* 現実の中 can be interpreted as being a spatial phrase; “living through” a situation implies that time is also passing. This shows just how intertwined spatial and temporal phrases often are in Japanese.

50. 一旦社会を離れた女性がブランクを経て再び仕事に就くことはなかなか困難だ。
Ittan shakai wo hanareta josei ga buranku wo hete futatabi shigoto ni tsuku koto wa nakanaka kon'nand da.

A woman who has separated herself from the public taking a job again upon going through a gap is a fairly difficult thing.

Grammar Notes:

1. The word *koto* こと is used to nominalize the entire phrase before it. *Koto* こと literally means “situation.”
2. The *wo* を before *hanareta* 離れた is the *wo* を of origin of departure.
3. *Hete* 経て is the verb *heru* 経る with the conjunctive particle *te* て. The phrase *buranku wo hete* ブランクを経て means “going through a gap...” This *wo* を is the temporal *wo* を.
4. The use of the particle *ni* に before the verb *tsuku* 就く indicates that one becomes seated into an occupation.

第16課: Regular Verbs I: 一段 Ichidan Verbs

In Japanese, there is a handful of verb classes that differ in conjugation. In this lesson, we will specifically only learn about verbs called "ru る verbs," more specifically called *Ichidan* 一段 verbs. This class constitutes half of all verbs in Japanese.

Before we learn about these verbs, let's go over some basic grammatical terminology.

Verb	An action or state of being.
Auxiliary Verb	An ending that shows some grammatical function.
Transitive Verb	A (willful) act that takes a direct object.
Intransitive Verb	An action, state of being, or happening that does not take a direct object.

Auxiliary verbs, often called "helper verbs," are not standalone words like in English. They must always be attached to verbs. Verbs and auxiliary verbs conjugate, and their conjugations are always very systematic with hardly any exceptions.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 一段 *Ichidan* – *ru* verbs
- 看板 *Kamban* - Billboard
- 服 *Fuku* – Clothes
- 時間 *Jikan* – Time
- 野菜 *Yasai* – Vegetables
- ドア *Doa* – Door
- 教科書 *Kyōkasho* – Textbook
- 絵 *E* – Picture
- 切手 *Kitte* – Stamp
- クマ *Kuma* – Bear
- 木 *Ki* – Tree
- 言葉 *Kotoba* – Word/language

Verbs

- 食べる *Taberu* – To eat (trans.)
- 見る *Miru* – To see/look at (trans.)
- 着る *Kiru* – To wear (trans.)
- 起きる *Okiru* – To occur/get up (trans.)
- 過ぎる *Sugiru* – To pass (intr.)
- 煮る *Niru* – To simmer (intr.)
- 閉じる *Tojiru* – To close (trans.)
- 落ちる *Ochiru* – To drop/fall (intr.)
- 借りる *Kariru* – To borrow (trans.)
- 考える *Kangaeru* – To think/ponder/intend (trans.)
- 覚える *Oboeru* – To remember (trans.)

- 人口 *Jinkō* – Population
- 調味料 *Chōmiryō* – Spice(s)
- 引き戸 *Hikido* – Sliding door
- シャワー *Shawā* – Shower
- 足 *Ashi* – Foot
- 心 *Kokoro* – Heart (emotional entity)
- (お) 肉 (*O*)*niku* - Meat
- 神 *Kami* – God/god/deity/kami
- 証拠 *Shōko* – Proof/evidence
- ごみ *Gomi* – Trash/rubbish
- 話題 *Wadai* – Topic
- ピザ *Piza* – Pizza
- 内容 *Naiyō* – Content
- 魚 *Sakana* – Fish
- 倒れる *Taoreru* – To fall down/collapse (trans.)
- 見つける *Mitsukeru* – To find (trans.)
- 集める *Atsumeru* – To collect (trans.)
- 慣れる *Nareru* – To get used to (trans.)
- 得る *Eru* – To get (trans.)
- 増える *Fueru* – To increase (intr.)
- 並べる *Naraberu* – To line up/put in order (intr.)
- 混ぜる *Mazeru* – To mix (trans.)
- 植える *Ueru* – To plant (trans.)
- 壊れる *Kowareru* – To break (intr.)
- 浴びる *Abiru* – To bathe in (trans.)
- 負ける *Makeru* – To lose (intr.)
- 濡れる *Nureru* – To get wet (intr.)
- 答える *Kotaeru* – To answer (intr.)
- 信じる *Shinjiru* – To believe (trans.)
- 感じる *Kanjiru* – To feel/sense (trans.)
- 出る *Deru* – To go out (intr.)
- 寝る *Neru* – To sleep (intr.)
- 消える *Kieru* – To vanish/disappear (intr.)
- 枯れる *Kareru* – To wither (intr.)
- 捨てる *Suteru* – To throw away (trans.)

Pronouns

- 僕 *Boku* – I (male)
- 彼 *Kare* – He

Adjectives

- 汚い *Kitanai* – Dirty

Demonstratives

- あの *Ano* – That (adj.)

Adverbs

- 每朝 *Maiasa* – Every morning
- ちょっと *Chotto* – A little
- だいぶ *Daibu* – Fairly/considerably
- 今夜 *Kon'ya* – Tonight
- 何も *Nani mo* – Nothing
- 特に *Toku ni* – Particularly
- なかなか *Nakanaka* – Considerably/not really (neg.)
- 今日 *Kyō* – Today
- 忘れる *Wasureru* – To forget (trans.)
- 加える *Kuwaeru* – To add to (trans.)
- 降りる *Oriru* – To get off/go down (intr.)
- 変える *Kaeru* – To change (trans.)
- 認める *Mitomeru* – To admit/recognize (trans.)
- 焦げる *Kogeru* – To get burned/charred (intr.)
- 調べる *Shiraberu* – To check/investigate (trans.)
- 漏れる *Moreru* – To leak (intr.)
- 晴れる *Hareru* – To clear up (intr.)
- もてる *Moteru* – To be popular (intr.)

Conjugating Verbs

Just as with adjectives and adjectival nouns, the basic tenses of Japanese are non-past (present or future) and past. Although tense may not be the best word to describe what goes on in Japanese, we'll stick to it to have things feel more familiar.

Plain Non-Past Form: No Conjugation

Unlike the previous parts of speech we've covered, no conjugation is ever required to use the non-past tense in plain speech. This includes times when you use a verb to modify a noun. That means you won't have to learn any rules like *da* だ becoming *na* な.

It is when you use polite speech that goes beyond the basic form that you begin to conjugate. Nevertheless, as you will see, the non-past form can also stand for the gerund, which is the "to..." form of verbs in English. This means quite a few slightly different things can be expressed just with the basic form of a verb.

1. 看板を見る。
かんばん み
Kamban wo miru.
To look at a billboard.

きたな ふく き

2. 汚い服を着る。

Kitanai fuku wo kiru.

To wear dirty clothes.

まいあさお

3. 每朝起きる。

Maiasa okiru.

To happen every morning/To get up every morning.

じかん す

4. 時間が過ぎる。

Jikan ga sugiru.

Time passes.

やさい に

5. 野菜を煮る。

Yasai wo niru.

To simmer vegetables.

Polite Non-Past Form: -masu ます

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb polite in the non-past tense, drop *ru* る and add *-masu* ます.

Meaning	Verb	Drop <i>ru</i> る, add <i>-masu</i> ます
To close	<i>Tojiru</i> 閉じる	<i>Tojimasu</i> 閉じます
To fall/drop	<i>Ochiru</i> 落ちる	<i>Ochimasu</i> 落ちます
To borrow	<i>Kariru</i> 借りる	<i>Karimasu</i> 借ります
To think	<i>Kangaeru</i> 考える	<i>Kangaemasu</i> 考えます
To remember	<i>Oboeru</i> 覚える	<i>Oboemasu</i> 覚えます

と
6. ドアを閉じます。

Doa wo tojimasu.

I'll close the door.

かんが

7. ちょっと考えます。

Chotto kangaemasu.

I'll think about it.

きょうかしょ か

8. 教科書を借ります。

Kyōkasho wo karimasu.

I'll borrow the textbook.

Usage Note: This form almost always cannot modify nouns. Meaning, you can't place it before a noun for the purpose of modifying said noun. To modify nouns with verbs in the non-past tense, you must use the plain form without *-masu* ます.

か	きょうかしょ
Ex. よく借りる教科書	○
<i>Yoku kariru kyōkasho</i>	
か	きょうかしょ
よく借ります教科書 X	
<i>Yoku karimasu kyōkasho</i>	
Textbook(s) that I often borrow	

Plain Past Form: -ta た

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb past tense in plain speech, drop *ru* る and add *-ta* た.

Meaning	Verb	Drop <i>ru</i> る, add <i>-ta</i> た
To see/look	<i>Miru</i> 見る	<i>Mita</i> 見た
To fall down/collapse	<i>Taoreru</i> 倒れる	<i>Taoreta</i> 倒れた
To find	<i>Mitsukeru</i> 見つける	<i>Mitsuketa</i> 見つけた
To gather/collect	<i>Atsumeru</i> 集める	<i>Atsumeta</i> 集めた
To get used to	<i>Nareru</i> 慣れる	<i>Nareta</i> 慣れた

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

9. あの絵を見た。

Ano e wo mita.

I saw that picture.

10. 切手を集めた。

Kitte wo atsumeta.

I collected stamps.

11. クマが倒れた。

Kuma ga taoreta.

The bear collapsed.

12. だいぶ慣れた。

Daibu nareta.

I've gotten fairly used to it.

Grammar Note: Perfect past tense involving "to have..." in English is usually translated with the past tense.

Polite Past Form: -mashita ました

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb past tense in polite speech, drop *ru* る and add *-mashita* ました.

Meaning	Verb	Drop <i>ru</i> る, add <i>-mashita</i> ました
To get	<i>Eru</i> 得る	<i>Emashita</i> 得ました
To increase	<i>Fueru</i> 増える	<i>Fuemashita</i> 増えました
To line up/arrange in order	<i>Naraberu</i> 並べる	<i>Narabemashita</i> 並べました
To mix	<i>Mazeru</i> 混ぜる	<i>Mazemashita</i> 混ぜました
To plant	<i>Ueru</i> 植える	<i>Uemashita</i> 植えました

き う
13. 木を植えました。

Ki wo uemashita.

I planted a tree.

ことば なら
14. 言葉を並べました。

Kotoba wo narabemashita.

I lined up the words.

じんこう ふ
15. 人口が増えました。

Jinkō ga fuemashita.

The population increased/grew.

ちょうみりょう ま
16. 調味料を混ぜました。

Chōmiryō wo mazemashita.

I mixed in spices.

Usage Note: Usually, this form cannot modify nouns. Meaning, you can't place it before a noun for the purpose of modifying said noun. To modify nouns with verbs in the past tense, you must use the plain form *-ta* た.

ま ちょうみりょう
Ex. 混ぜた調味料 ○
Mazeta chōmiryō

ま ちょうみりょう
混ぜました調味料 X
Mazemashita chōmiryō
 Spice(s) that I mixed

Plain Negative Form: -nai ない

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb negative in plain speech, drop *ru る* and add *-nai ない*.

Meaning	Verb	Drop <i>ru る</i> , add <i>-nai ない</i>
To break	<i>Kowareru 壊れる</i>	<i>Kowarenai 壊れない</i>
To bathe in	<i>Abiru 浴びる</i>	<i>Abinai 浴びない</i>
To lose	<i>Makeru 負ける</i>	<i>Makenai 負けない</i>
To get wet	<i>Nureru 濡れる</i>	<i>Nurenai 濡れない</i>
To answer	<i>Kotaeru 答える</i>	<i>Kotaenai 答えない</i>

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

ひ ど こわ
17. 引き戸が壊れない。
Hikido ga kowarenai.

The sliding door won't break.

あ
18. シャワーを浴びない。
Shawā wo abinai.

To not/will not take a shower.

ぼく ま
19. 僕は負けない。 (Male speech)
Boku wa makenai.

I won't lose.

あし ぬ
20. 足が濡れない。
Ashi ga nurenai.

One's feet won't get wet.

ま こころ
21. 負けない 心
Makenai kokoro

A heart that won't lose

Polite Negative Form: -masen ません

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb negative in polite speech, drop *ru る* and add *-masen ません*.

Meaning	Verb	Drop <i>ru る</i> , add <i>-masen ません</i>
To believe	<i>Shinjiru</i> 信じる	<i>Shinjimasen</i> 信じません
To eat	<i>Taberu</i> 食べる	<i>Tabemasen</i> 食べません
To feel/sense	<i>Kanjiru</i> 感じる	<i>Kanjimasen</i> 感じません
To go out	<i>Deru</i> 出る	<i>Demasen</i> 出ません
To sleep	<i>Neru</i> 寝る	<i>Nemasen</i> 寝ません

Usage Note: This form almost always cannot modify nouns. Meaning, you can't place it before a noun for the purpose of modifying said noun. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative, you must use the plain form *-nai ない*.

22. 今夜寝ません。
Kon'ya nemasen.

I won't sleep tonight.

23. 何も感じません。
Nani mo kanjimasen.

I don't feel anything.

24. (お) 肉は食べません。
(O-)niku wa tabemasen.

I don't/won't eat meat.

25. 神を信じません。
Kami wo shinjimasen.

I don't believe in God.

Usage Note: This form almost always cannot modify nouns. Meaning, you can't place it before a noun for the purpose of modifying said noun. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative, you must use the plain form *-nai ない*.

Ex. 食べない (お) 肉 ○

Tabenai (o-)niku

た
食べません (お) 肉 X

Tabemasen (o-)niku

Meat that I don't/won't eat

Plain Negative Past Form: -nakatta なかった

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb negative past in plain speech, drop *ru る* and add *-nakatta なかった*.

Meaning	Verb	Drop <i>ru る</i> , add <i>-nakatta なかった</i>
To vanish/go out	<i>Kieru</i> 消える	<i>Kienakatta</i> 消えなかった
To wither	<i>Kareru</i> 枯れる	<i>Karenakatta</i> 枯れなかった
To throw away	<i>Suteru</i> 捨てる	<i>Sutenakatta</i> 捨てなかった
To forget	<i>Wasureru</i> 忘れる	<i>Wasurenakatta</i> 忘れなかった
To add to	<i>Kuwaeru</i> 加える	<i>Kuwaenakatta</i> 加えなかった

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

26. 消えなかった証拠

Kienakatta shōko

Evidence that didn't disappear

27. 彼はごみを捨てなかった。

Kare wa gomi wo sutenakatta.

He didn't throw away the trash.

28. 忘れなかったよ。

Wasurenakatta yo.

I didn't forget.

Particle Note: The particle *yo よ* adds exclamation to the sentence.

Polite Negative Past Form: -masendeshita ませんでした

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb negative past in polite speech, drop *ru る* and add *-masendeshita ませんでした*.

Meaning	Verb	<i>Drop ru る, add -masendeshita ませんでした</i>
To get off/go down	<i>Oriru</i> 降りる	<i>Orimasendeshita</i> 降りませんでした
To change	<i>Kaeru</i> 変える	<i>Kaemasendeshita</i> 変えませんでした
To admit/recognize	<i>Mitomeru</i> 認める	<i>Mitomemasendeshita</i> 認めませんでした
To be burned/charred	<i>Kogeru</i> 焦げる	<i>Kogemasendeshita</i> 焦げませんでした
To check/investigate	<i>Shiraberu</i> 調べる	<i>Shirabemasendeshita</i> 調べませんでした

わだい　か
29. 話題を変えませんでした。
Wadai wo kaemasendeshita.
I didn't change the topic.

30. ピザを食べませんでした。
Piza wo tabemasendeshita.
I didn't eat pizza.

31. なかなか焦げませんでした。
Nakanaka kogemasendeshita.
It didn't really get charred.

とく　しら
32. 特に調べませんでした。
Toku ni shirabemasendeshita.
I didn't particularly check/investigate it.

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. Meaning, you can't place it before a noun for the purpose of modifying said noun. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative past, you must use the plain form *-nakatta* なかった.

た
Ex. 食べなかったピザ
Tabenakatta piza
た
食べませんでしたピザ
Tabemasendeshita piza
The pizza I didn't eat

Alternative Polite Negative & Neg-Past Forms: *-nai desu* & *-nakatta desu* ないです・なかつたです

To make an *Ichidan* 一段 verb negative or negative past in polite yet casual speech,

drop *ru* る and add *-nai desu* ないです or *nakatta desu* なかったです respectively.

Meaning	Verb	Change to Plain Negative/Negative-Past, add desu です
To leak	<i>Moreru</i> 漏れる	<i>Morenai desu</i> 漏れないです <i>Morenakatta desu</i> 漏れなかったです
To clear up	<i>Hareru</i> 晴れる	<i>Harenai desu</i> 晴れないです <i>Harenakatta desu</i> 晴れなかったです
To be popular	<i>Moteru</i> もてる	<i>Motenai desu</i> もてないです <i>Motenakatta desu</i> もてなかったです

ないよう も
33. 内容は漏れないです。

Naiyō wa morenai desu.

(The) content won't leak.

きょう は
34. 今日は晴れなかったです。

Kyō wa harenakatta desu.

It didn't clear up today. (Weather)

さかな た
35. 魚は食べないです。

Sakana wa tabenai desu.

I don't eat fish.

Usage Note: These forms cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative or negative past, you must use their plain forms *-nai* ない and *-nakatta* なかった respectively.

Ex. もてない男 ○

Motenai otoko

もてないです男 X

Motenai desu otoko

A man who isn't popular

Conjugation Recap

As review, here are the conjugations you learned in this lesson with the verbs *miru* 見る (to see) and *taberu* 食べる (to eat).

Verb Form	Conjugation	<i>Miru</i> 見る (To see)	<i>Taberu</i> 食べる (To eat)
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Plain Non-Past	N/A	<i>Miru</i> 見る	<i>Taberu</i> 食べる
Polite Non-Past	-masu ます	<i>Mimasu</i> 見ます	<i>Tabemasu</i> 食べます
Plain Past	-ta た	<i>Mita</i> 見た	<i>Tabeta</i> 食べた
Polite Past	-mashita ました	<i>Mimashita</i> 見ました	<i>Tabemashita</i> 食べました
Plain Negative	-nai ない	<i>Minai</i> 見ない	<i>Tabenai</i> 食べない
Polite Neg. 1	-nai desu ないです	<i>Minai desu</i> 見ないです	<i>Tabenai desu</i> 食べないです
Polite Neg. 2	-masen ません	<i>Mimasen</i> 見ません	<i>Tabemasen</i> 食べません
Plain Neg-Past	-nakatta なかった	<i>Minakatta</i> 見なかった	<i>Tabenakatta</i> 食べなかった
Polite Neg-Past 1	-nakatta desu なかったです	<i>Minakatta desu</i> 見なかったです	<i>Tabenakatta desu</i> 食べなかったです
Polite Neg-Past 2	-masendeshita ませんでした	<i>Mimasendeshita</i> 見ませんでした	<i>Tabemasendeshita</i> 食べませんでした

第17課: Regular Verbs II: 五段 Godan Verbs

The next class of verbs that we will study is the *Godan* 五段 verb class. These verbs behave just like *ru* る verbs *Ichidan* 一段 verbs. These verbs conjugate and function the same way with the only difference being that their roots end in consonants. Because their stems end in consonants, which are then followed by *u* う in their basic form, they are frequently referred to as *u* verbs. This difference does have one drawback, which is that you will have to learn contraction rules with certain conjugations.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- ・ 小説 *Shōsetsu* – Novel
- ・ 世界 *Sekai* – World
- ・ 食べ物 *Tabemono* – Food
- ・ 道 *Michi* – Road

(u) Godan Verbs

- ・ 書く *Kaku* – To write (trans.)
- ・ 泳ぐ *Oyogu* – To swim (intr.)
- ・ 話す *Hanasu* – To talk/speak (trans.)
- ・ 勝つ *Katsu* – To win (intr.)

- 警察 *Keisatsu* – Police
- バター *Batā* – Butter
- お金 *Okane* – Money
- 宿題 *Shukudai* – Homework
- 鳥 *Tori* – Bird
- 卵 *Tamago* – Egg(s)
- 肉団子 *Nikudango* – Meatball(s)
- アニソン *Anison* – Anime song
- 悪口 *Warukuchi* – Slander
- 人 *Hito* – Person
- 喉 *Nodo* – Throat
- 香り *Kaori* - Scent
- タイプミス *Taipumisu* – Typo
- 祖母 *Sobo* – Grandmother
- 竹 *Take* – Bamboo
- こと *Koto* – Thing/matter/event
- 自然薯 *Jinenjo* – Japanaese yam
- 心 *Kokoro* – Heart (emotional)
- 電気 *Denki* – Electricity
- 薬 *Kusuri* – Medicine
- 風邪 *Kaze* – Cold
- 風邪薬 *Kazegusuri* – Cold medicine
- 死ぬ *Shinu* – To die (intr.)
- 選ぶ *Erabu* – To choose/select (trans.)
- 読む *Yomu* – To read (trans.)
- 変わる *Kawaru* – To change (intr.)
- 買う *Kau* – To buy (trans.)
- 聞く *Kiku* – To listen/ask (trans.)
- 繋ぐ *Tsunagu* – To connect (trans.)
- 指す *Sasu* – To point (out)/identify (trans.)
- 待つ *Matsu* – To wait (for) (trans.)
- 呼ぶ *Yobu* – To call/invoke/summon (trans.)
- 挑む *Idomu* – To challenge (intr.)
- 凍る *Kōru* - To freeze/be frozen over (intr.)
- 会う *Au* – To meet/encounter (intr.)
- 卷く *Maku* – To wind/envelope (trans./intr.)
- 受け継ぐ *Uketsugu* – To inherit (trans.)
- 貸す *Kasu* – To lend (trans.)
- 終わる *Owaru* – To end (intr.)
- 叫ぶ *Sakebu* – To scream/shout (intr.)
- 包む *Tsutsumu* – To wrap/conceal (trans.)
- 売る *Uru* – To sell (trans.)
- 歌う *Utau* – To sing (trans.)

- 銃 *Jū* – Gun
- 行く *Iku* – To go (intr.)
- 服 *Fuku* – Clothes
- 言う *Iu* – To say (trans.)
- 夫 *Otto* – Husband
- 乾く *Kawaku* – To dry up (intr.)
- 英会話 *Eikaiwa* – English conversation
- 嗅ぐ *Kagu* – To sniff/smell (trans.)
- クリスマス *Kurisumasu* – Christmas
- 直す *Naosu* – To fix (trans.)
- 歯 *Ha* – Tooth
- 治す *Naosu* – To heal/cure (trans.)
- ワニ *Wani* – Crocodile/alligator
- 打つ *Utsu* – To hit/beat/type/etc. (trans.)
- とどめ *Todome* – Finishing blow
- 撃つ *Utsu* – To shoot (trans.)
- ハリー・ポッター *Harii Pottā* – Harry Potter
- 運ぶ *Hakobu* – To carry/transport (trans.)
- 爪 *Tsume* – Nail(s)
- 育む *Hagukumu* – To raise/rear (trans.)
- 商品 *Shōhin* – Product/item
- 掘る *Horu* – To dig (trans.)
- タバコ *Tabako* – Tobacco
- 思う *Omou* – To think (trans.)
- 本 *Hon* – Book
- つく *Tsuku* – To be lit/turn on (intr.)
- 電話 *Denwa* – Phone
- 揺るぐ *Yurugu* – To waver (intr.)
- 着物 *Kimono* – Kimono
- 遊ぶ *Asobu* – To play (trans.)
- 車 *Kuruma* – Car
- 畏む *Tatamu* – To fold (trans.)
- スタイル *Sutairu* – Style
- 実る *Minoru* – To bear fruit (intr.)
- 魚 *Sakana/Uo* – Fish
- 習う *Narau* – To take lessons in (trans.)
- 街 *Machi* – Town
- 働く *Hataraku* – To work (intr.)
- 助け *Tasuke* – Help
- 引き継ぐ *Hikitsugu* – To transfer/hand over (trans.)
- 私 *Wata(ku)shi* – I
- 騙す *Damasu* – To deceive (trans.)

Pronouns

- 私 *Wata(ku)shi* – I

- 僕 *Boku* – I (male)

- 彼 *Kare* – He

- 彼女 *Kanojo* – She

Proper Nouns

- 小泉さん *Koizumi-san* – Mr./Mr(s).
Koizumi

Demonstratives

- この *Kono* – This (adj.)

- その *Sono* – That (adj.)

Adjectives

- 美味しい *Oishii* – Delicious

- 黄色い *Kiiroi* – Yellow

Adjectival Nouns

- 好きだ *Suki da* – To like

- 同じだ *Onaji da* – To be the same

Adverbs

- いつか *Itsuka* – One day/someday

- 全員 *Zen'in* – Everyone/everybody

- 本気で *Honki de* – All out/seriously/in earnest

- やっと *Yatto* – Finally

- 決して *Kesshite* – Never

- まったく *Mattaku* – Completely/at all (neg.)

- 乱す *Midasu* – To throw out of order (trans.)

- 立つ *Tatsu* – To stand (intr.)

- 学ぶ *Manabu* – To study (trans.)

- 悩む *Nayamu* – To be troubled (intr.)

- 帰る *Kaeru* – To return home (intr.)

- 祝う *Iwau* – To celebrate (trans.)

- 動く *Ugoku* – To move (intr.)

- 騒ぐ *Sawagu* – To clamor (intr.)

- 刺す *Sasu* – To stab (trans.)

- 持つ *Motsu* – To hold (trans.)

- 喜ぶ *Yorokobu* – To be delighted (intr.)

- 噛む *Kamu* – To bite (trans.)

- 祈る *Inoru* – To pray (trans.)

- 縫う *Nū* – To sew (trans.)

- 届く *Todoku* – To reach/arrive (intr.)

- 移す *Utsusu* – To swap/infect (trans.)

- 保つ *Tamotsu* – To preserve/retain (trans.)

- 並ぶ *Narabu* – To form a line (intr.)

- 吸う *Sū* – To inhale/smoke/suck (trans.)

- 飲む *Nomu* – To drink/swallow/take (medicine) (trans.)

- 切る *Kiru* – To cut (trans.)

- もう *Mō* – Already/(not) anymore/before long
- まだ *Mada* – Still/yet
- 多分 *Tabun* – Probably
- あまり *Amari* – Not really
- たくさん *Takusan* – A lot
- ずっと *Zutto* – All along/by far

(ru) Ichidan Verbs

- 変える *Kaeru* – To change (trans.)
- 着る *Kiru* – To wear (trans.)

- 走る *Hashiru* – To run (intr.)
- 喋る *Shaberu* – To chat(ter)/talk (intr.)
- 触る *Sawaru* – To touch/feel (trans./intr.)
- 入る *Hairu* – To enter (intr.)
- 滑る *Suberu* – To slip/slides (intr.)
- 握る *Nigiru* – To grasp (trans.)
- 限る *Kagiru* – To limit/restrict (trans.)
- 釣る *Tsuru* – To fish/lure
- 蹴る *Keru* – To kick
- 嘲る *Azakeru* – To ridicule
- 捻る *Hineru* – To twist

Conjugating Godan Verbs

Godan 五段 verbs conjugate as do adjectives, adjectival nouns with the help of *da* だ or *desu* です, and the basic tenses are still the non-past and past tenses. As we've learned in the lesson prior, the non-past tense can be used to stand for either the present tense, future tense, or the gerund depending on context. The past tense correlates to both the English past tense and perfect tense. Using this knowledge that we've already attained, we will take the next step of our journey by learning how to conjugate the remaining 49% of verbs.

Plain Non-Past Form: No Conjugation

As was the case for *Ichidan* 一段 verbs, no conjugation is required for the non-past tense in plain speech. Of course, the non-past needs *-masu* ます when you use polite speech, but we'll get to that shortly. Because a *Godan* 五段 verb can have any consonant end its stem, we'll need to first see all the possibilities.

K	To write	<i>Kaku 書く</i>
G	To swim	<i>Oyogu 泳ぐ</i>

S	To talk/speak	<i>Hanasu</i> 話す
T	To win	<i>Katsu</i> 勝つ
N	To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ
B	To choose	<i>Erabu</i> 選ぶ
M	To read	<i>Yomu</i> 読む
R	To change	<i>Kawaru</i> 変わる
W*	To buy	<i>Kau</i> 買う

Verb Notes:

1. The consonant "w" becomes important in certain conjugations, so even though it may be silent here, it does play a role.
2. *Shinu* 死ぬ is the only verb in Standard Japanese that ends in *nu* んu.

1. 小説を書く。
Shōsetsu wo kaku.

To write a novel.

2. いつか死ぬ。
Itsuka shinu.

To one-day die.

3. 世界が変わる。
Sekai ga kawaru.

The world will change.

4. 美味しい食べ物を買う。
Oishii tabemono wo kau.

To buy delicious food.

Polite Non-Past Form:-masu ます

To make a Godan 五段 verb polite in the non-past tense, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ い, and then add *-masu* ます. Note that the consonant t will turn to ch when followed by the vowel i.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -masu ます
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To ask/listen	<i>Kiku</i> 聴く	<i>Kikimasu</i> 聴きます
To connect	<i>Tsunagu</i> 繋ぐ	<i>Tsunagimasu</i> 繋ぎます
To point (out)/identify	<i>Sasu</i> 指す	<i>Sashimasu</i> 指します
To wait (for)	<i>Matsu</i> 待つ	<i>Machimasu</i> 待ちます
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimasu</i> 死にます
To call/invoke/summon	<i>Yobu</i> 呼ぶ	<i>Yobimasu</i> 呼びます
To challenge	<i>Idomu</i> 挑む	<i>Idomimasu</i> 挑みます
To freeze/be frozen over	<i>Kōru</i> 凍る	<i>Kōrimasu</i> 凍ります
To meet/encounter	<i>Au</i> 会う	<i>Aimasu</i> 会います

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the non-past tense, you must use the plain form without *-masu* ます.

5. 道が凍ります。
Michi ga kōrimasu.

The road(s) (will) freeze over.

6. 小泉さんを待ちます。
Koizumi-san wo machimasu.

I'll wait for Mr. Koizumi.

7. 全員死にます。
Zen'in shinimasu.

Everyone dies.

8. 警察を呼びますよ。
Keisatsu wo yobimasu yo.

I'll call the police.

9. 本気で挑みます！
Honki de idomimasu!

I'm going to challenge all out!

Plain Past Form: -ta た

To make a Godan 一段 verb past tense in plain speech, *-ta* た is used just like with Ichidan

一段 verbs. However, a series of sound changes affect them in different ways depending on what consonant the verb stem ends with.

- If the verb stem ends in k, the k drops, /i/ is inserted, and -ta た is attached.
- If the verb stem ends in g, the g drops, /i/ is inserted, but -ta た → -da だ when attached.
- If the verb stem ends in s, -ta attaches normally like with -masu ます.
- If the verb stem ends in n, b, or m, these consonants → n, and -ta た → -da だ when attached.
- If the verb stem ends in t, r, or w, these consonants → small tsu っ, and then -ta た attaches.

Examples affected by the sound changes described in these rules are shown in bold below along with verbs that are irregular.

Meaning	Verb	Past Tense
To wind/envelope	<i>Maku</i> 巻く	<i>Maita</i> 巻いた
To inherit	<i>Uketsugu</i> 受け継ぐ	<i>Uketsuida</i> 受け継いだ
To lend	<i>Kasu</i> 貸す	<i>Kashita</i> 貸した
To end	<i>Owaru</i> 終わる	<i>Owatta</i> 終わった
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinda</i> 死んだ
To scream/shout	<i>Sakebu</i> 叫ぶ	<i>Sakenda</i> 叫んだ
To wrap up/conceal	<i>Tsutsumu</i> 包む	<i>Tsutsunda</i> 包んだ
To sell	<i>Uru</i> 売る	<i>Utta</i> 売った
To sing	<i>Utau</i> 歌う	<i>Utatta</i> 歌った
To go*	<i>Iku</i> 行く	<i>Itta</i> 行った
To say*	<i>Iu</i> 言う	<i>Itta/Yutta</i> 言った

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

Grammar Notes:

1. The verb "to go" becomes *itta* 行った in the past tense unlike all other verbs whose stems end in k.
2. The verb "to say" is actually pronounced as "yū." This discrepancy manifests in the past tense as well, making both "itta" and "yutta" viable and equally correct pronunciations.

10. バターを売った。
Batā wo utta.

I sold butter.

11. お金を貸した。
Okane wo kashita.

I lent money.

12. やっと宿題が終わった！
Yatto shukudai ga owatta.

My homework is finally finished!

13. その黄色い鳥が死んだ。
Sono kiroi tori ga shinda.

That yellow bird died.

14. 卵を包んだ肉団子
Tamago wo tsutsunda nikudango

Meatballs with egg packed in

15. アニソンを歌った。
Anison wo uttta.

I sang an anime song.

16. 悪口を言った人
Warukuchi wo itta/yutta hito

Person who said slander

Polite Past Form: -mashita ました

To make a *Godan* 五段 verb past tense in polite speech, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ い, and then add *-mashita* ました.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -mashita ました
To dry up	Kawaku 乾く	Kawakimashita 乾きました
To sniff/smell	Kagu 嗅ぐ	Kagimashita 嗅ぎました
To fix	Naosu 直す	Naoshimashita 直しました
To hit/beat/type/etc.	Utsu 打つ	Uchimashita 打ちました

To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimashita</i> 死にました
To carry/transport	<i>Hakobu</i> 運ぶ	<i>Hakobimashita</i> 運びました
To raise/rear	<i>Hagukumu</i> 育む	<i>Hagukumimashita</i> 育みました
To dig	<i>Horu</i> 掘る	<i>Horimashita</i> 掘りました
To think	<i>Omou</i> 思う	<i>Omoimashita</i> 思いました

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the past tense, you must use the plain form *-ta* た.

のど かわ
17. 喉が渴きました。

Nodo ga kawakimashita.
I'm thirsty/My throat is dry.

す かお か
18. 好きな香りを嗅ぎました。

Suki na kaori wo kagimashita.
I smelled a scent that I like.

なお
19. タイプミスを直しました。

Taipumisu wo naoshimashita.
I fixed the typo(s).

そ ぼ きよねんし
20. 祖母は去年死にました。

Sobo wa kyonen shinimashita.
My grandmother died last year.

たけ はこ
21. 竹を運びました。

Take wo hakobimashita.
I carried/transported bamboo.

おな おも
22. 同じことを思いました。

Onaji koto wo omoimashita.
I thought the same thing.

じねんじょ ほ
23. 自然薯を掘りました。

Jinenjo wo horimashita.
I dug up Japanese yams.

Plain Negative Form: *-nai* ない

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative in plain speech, change the vowel after the stem to /a/ あ, and then add *-nai* ない. Note how in this conjugation, silent w becomes spoken.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + a + -nai ない
To be lit/turn on	<i>Tsuku</i> つく	<i>Tsukanai</i> つかない
To waver	<i>Yurugu</i> 摆るぐ	<i>Yuruganai</i> 摆るがない
To heal/cure	<i>Naosu</i> 治す	<i>Naosanai</i> 治さない
To shoot	<i>Utsu</i> 撃つ	<i>Utanai</i> 撃たない
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinanai</i> 死なない
To play	<i>Asobu</i> 遊ぶ	<i>Asobanai</i> 遊ばない
To fold	<i>Tatamu</i> 疊む	<i>Tatamanai</i> 疊まない
To bear fruit	<i>Minoru</i> 実る	<i>Minoranai</i> 実らない
To take lessons in	<i>Narau</i> 習う	<i>Narawanai</i> 習わない

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

24. 心は揺るがない。
 Kokoro wa yuruganai.
 My heart won't waver.

25. 電気がつかない。
 Denki ga tsukanai.
 The electricity won't/doesn't turn on.

26. 風邪薬は風邪を治さない。
 Kazegusuri wa kaze wo naosanai.
 Cold medicine won't cure a cold.

27. 銃を撃たない。
 Jū wo utanai.
 I won't shoot a gun.

28. 決して死がない。
 Kesshite shinanai.
 I'll never die.

ふく たた おっと

29. 服を畳まない夫

Fuku wo tatamanai otto

Husband who won't fold clothes

えいかいわ なら
30. 英会話を習わない。

Eikaiwa wo narawanai.

To not take lessons in English conversation.

Polite Negative Form: -masen ません

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative in polite speech, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ / い/, and then add -masen ません.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -masen ません
To work	<i>Hataraku</i> 働く	<i>Hatarakimisen</i> 働きません
To transfer/hand over	<i>Hikitsugu</i> 引き継ぐ	<i>Hikitsugimisen</i> 引き継ぎません
To deceive	<i>Damasu</i> 騬す	<i>Damashimisen</i> 騬しません
To throw out of order	<i>Midasu</i> 亂す	<i>Midashimisen</i> 乱しません
To stand	<i>Tatsu</i> 立つ	<i>Tachimisen</i> 立ちません
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimisen</i> 死にません
To study	<i>Manabu</i> 学ぶ	<i>Manabimisen</i> 学びません
To be troubled	<i>Nayamu</i> 悩む	<i>Nayamimisen</i> 悩みません
To return home	<i>Kaeru</i> 帰る	<i>Kaerimisen</i> 帰りません
To celebrate	<i>Iwau</i> 祝う	<i>Iwaimisen</i> 祝いません

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative, you must use the plain form *-nai* ない.

おっと はたら
31. 夫がまったく働きません。

My husband won't work at all.

ぼく し
32. 僕は死にません！ (Male speech)

Boku wa shinimasen!

I won't die!

なや
33. もう悩みません。

Mō nayamimasen.

I won't be troubled anymore.

わたし かえ
34. 私はまだ帰りません。

Watashi wa mada kaerimasen.

I'm not going home yet.

いわ
35. クリスマスは祝いません。

Kurisumasu wa iwaimasen.

I won't celebrate *Christmas*.

は た
36. 齒が立ちません。

Ha ga tachimasen.

I can't make a dent in it.

Idiom Note: This idiom comes from a phrase literally meaning “unable to bite through something.”

Plain Negative Past Form: -nakatta なかった

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative past in plain speech, change the vowel after the stem to /a/ あ, and then add *-nakatta* なかった.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + a + -nakatta なかった
To work/move	<i>Ugoku</i> 動く	<i>Ugokanakatta</i> 動かなかった
To clamor	<i>Sawagu</i> 騒ぐ	<i>Sawaganakatta</i> 騒がなかった
To stab	<i>Sasu</i> 刺す	<i>Sasanakatta</i> 刺さなかった
To hold	<i>Motsu</i> 持つ	<i>Motanakatta</i> 持たなかった
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinanakatta</i> 死ななかった
To be delighted	<i>Yorokobu</i> 喜ぶ	<i>Yorokobanakatta</i> 喜ばなかった
To bite	<i>Kamu</i> 噛む	<i>Kamanakatta</i> 噛まなかった
To pray	<i>Inoru</i> 祈る	<i>Inoranakatta</i> 祈らなかった
To sew	<i>Nū</i> 縫う	<i>Nuwanakatta</i> 縫わなかった

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

37. ワニが動かなかった。

Wani ga ugokanakatta.

The crocodile didn't move.

38. とどめを刺さなかった。^さ

Todome wo sasanakatta.

I didn't put an end to it.

39. ハリー・ポッターは死ななかった。^し

Harii Potta wa shinanakatta.

Harry Potter didn't die.

40. 爪を噛まなかった。^{つめ か}

Tsume wo kamanakatta.

I didn't bite my nails.

Polite Negative Past Form: -masendeshita ませんでした

To make a *Godan* 五段 verb negative past in polite speech, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ い, and then add *-masendeshita* ませんでした.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -masendeshita ませんでした
To reach/arrive	<i>Todoku</i> 届く	<i>Todokimasendeshita</i> 届きませんでした
To swim	<i>Oyogu</i> 泳ぐ	<i>Oyogimasendeshita</i> 泳ぎませんでした
To swap/infect	<i>Utsusu</i> 移す	<i>Utsushimasendeshita</i> 移しませんでした
To preserve/retain	<i>Tamotsu</i> 保つ	<i>Tamochimasendeshita</i> 保ちませんでした
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimasendeshita</i> 死にませんでした
To form a line	<i>Narabu</i> 並ぶ	<i>Narabimasendeshita</i> 並びませんでした
To drink/swallow/take (medicine)	<i>Nomu</i> 飲む	<i>Nomimasendeshita</i> 飲みませんでした
To inhale/smoke	<i>Sū</i> 吸う	<i>Suimasendeshita</i> 吸いませんでした

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative past, you must use the plain form *-nakatta* なかつた.

41. 薬を飲みませんでした。^{くすり の}

Kusuri wo nomimasendeshita.

I didn't take (the) medicine.

しょうひん とど
42. 商品が届きませんでした。

Shōhin ga todokimasendeshita.

The item didn't arrive.

し
43. カニは死にませんでした。

Kani wa shinimasendeshita.

The crab didn't die.

す
44. タバコを吸いませんでした。

Tabako wo suimasendeshita.

I didn't smoke.

Alternative Polite Negative & Neg-Past Forms: -nai desu & -nakatta desu ないです・なかつたです

To make a *Godan* 五段 verb negative or negative past in polite yet casual speech, change the vowel after the stem to *i* い, and then add *-nai desu* ないです or *nakatta desu* なかつたです respectively.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + a あ + -nai desu/nakatta desu ないです・なかつたです
To talk	<i>Hanasu</i> 話す	<i>Hanasanai desu</i> 話さないです <i>Hanasanakatta desu</i> 話さなかつたです
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinanai desu</i> 死なないです <i>Shinanakatta desu</i> 死ななかつたです
To read	<i>Yomu</i> 読む	<i>Yomanai desu</i> 読まないです <i>Yomanakatta desu</i> 読まなかつたです

Usage Note: These forms cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative or negative past, you must use their plain forms *-nai* ない and *-nakatta* なかつた respectively.

よ
45. 彼女は本を読まなかつたです。

Kanojo wa hon wo yomanakatta desu.

She didn't read a/the book.

たぶんし
46. 多分死ないです。
Tabun shinanai desu.
I probably won't die.

はな
47. あまり話さなかったです。
Amari hanasanakatta desu.
I really didn't talk/speak.

Conjugation Recap

As review, here are the conjugations you learned in this lesson. Each kind of *Godan* 五段 verb is represented with one verb. For brevity, all conjugations will be rendered in *Hiragana* ひらがな.

う・く・ぐ・す・つ	Kau 買う (To buy)	Kaku 書く (To write)	Oyogu 泳ぐ (To swim)	Hanasu 話す (To talk)	Matsu 待つ (To wait)
Plain Non-Past	かう	かく	およぐ	はなす	まつ
Polite Non-Past	かいます	かきます	およぎます	はなします	まちます
Plain Past	かった	かいた	およいだ	はなした	まったく
Polite Past	かいました	かきました	およぎました	はなしました	まちました
Plain Neg.	かわない	かかない	およがない	はなさない	またない
Polite Neg. 1	かわないです	かかないです	およがないです	はなさないです	またないです
Polite Neg. 2	かいません	かきません	およぎません	はなしません	まちません
Plain Neg-Past	かわなかつた	かかなかつた	およがなかつた	はなさなかつた	またなかつた
Polite Neg-Past 1	かわなかつたです	かかなかつたです	およがなかつたです	はなさなかつたです	またなかつたです
Polite Neg-Past 2	かいませんでした	かきませんでした	およぎませんでした	はなしませんでした	まちませんでした
ぶ・む・ぬ・る	Yobu 呼ぶ (To call)	Yomu 読む (To read)	Shinu 死ぬ (To die)	Horu 掘る (To dig)	

Plain Non-Past	よぶ	よむ	しむ	ほる	
Polite Non-Past	よびます	よみます	しにます	ほります	
Plain Past	よんだ	よんだ	しんだ	ほった	
Polite Past	よびました	よみました	しにました	ほりました	
Plain Neg.	よばない	よまない	しない	ほらない	
Polite Neg. 1	よばないです	よまないです	しないです	ほらないです	
Polite Neg. 2	よびません	よみません	しにません	ほりません	
Plain Neg-Past	よばなかつた	よまなかつた	しななかつた	ほらなかつた	
Polite Neg-Past 1	よばなかつたです	よまなかつたです	しななかつたです	ほらなかつたです	
Polite Neg-Past 2	よびませんでした	よみませんでした	しにませんでした	ほりませんでした	

Godan Verbs that Unfortunately Look Like Ichidan Verbs

After having learned all about both kinds of verbs, the sad realization that sometimes they look exactly like each other hits you like a bowling ball the face. For verbs that end in "eru" or "iru," you won't be able to initially tell what kind of verb they are until you see at least one conjugation. Usually, verbs that are homophonous almost always have different pitches as well.

There is at least one bit of good news from this debacle, which is that the fact there are two classes of verbs helps distinguish verbs that sound alike in their base forms.

Meaning	<i>Ichidan Verb</i>	Meaning	<i>Godan Verb</i>
To change	<i>Kae.ru</i> 変える	To go home	<i>Kaer.u</i> 帰る
To wear	<i>Ki.ru</i> 着る	To cut	<i>Kir.u</i> 切る

If a verb ends in *-ru* る but the vowel preceding it is an /a/, /u/, or /o/, it will always be a *Godan* 五段 verb. It's also the case that a lot of verbs won't sound like an *Ichidan* 一段 verb. All the verbs below are *Godan* 五段 verbs.

To run	<i>Hashiru</i> 走る	To chatter	<i>Shaberu</i> 嘆る	To decrease	<i>Heru</i> 減る
To be proud	<i>Hokoru</i> 誇る	To rub	<i>Kosuru</i> 擦る	To touch	<i>Sawaru</i> 觸る
To enter	<i>Hairu</i> 入る	To slip/slide	<i>Suberu</i> 滑る	To grasp	<i>Nigiru</i> 握る
To change (intr.)	<i>Kawaru</i> 変わる	To limit/restrict	<i>Kagiru</i> 限る	To fish/lure	<i>Tsuru</i> 釣る
To kick	<i>Keru</i> 蹤る	To ridicule	<i>Azakeru</i> 嘲る	To twist	<i>Hineru</i> 捏る

48. 電話を切りました。
 でんわ き
Denwa wo kirimashita.

I hung up the phone.

49. 彼女は着物を着ました。
 かのじょ きもの き
Kanojo wa kimono wo kimashita.

She wore a kimono.

50. スタイルを変えませんでした。
 Sutairu wo kaemasendeshita.
 I didn't change the style.

51. 彼は帰りませんでした。
 かれ かえ
Kare wa kaerimasendeshita.
 He didn't return/go home.

52. 車を擦る。
 くるま こす
Kuruma wo kosuru.
 To scratch a car.

53. この街はずっと変わらない。
 まち か
Kono machi wa zutto kawaranai.
 This town won't ever change.

54. たくさん魚を釣った。
 さかな つ
Takusan sakana wo tsutta.
 I caught a lot of fish.

たす い
55. 助けは要らない。
Tasuke wa iranai.
I don't need help.

第17課: Regular Verbs II: 五段 Godan Verbs

The next class of verbs that we will study is the *Godan* 五段 verb class. These verbs behave just like *ru* る verbs *Ichidan* 一段 verbs. These verbs conjugate and function the same way with the only difference being that their roots end in consonants. Because their stems end in consonants, which are then followed by *u* う in their basic form, they are frequently referred to as *u* verbs. This difference does have one drawback, which is that you will have to learn contraction rules with certain conjugations.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 小説 *Shōsetsu* – Novel
- 世界 *Sekai* – World
- 食べ物 *Tabemono* – Food
- 道 *Michi* – Road
- 警察 *Keisatsu* – Police
- バター *Batā* – Butter
- お金 *Okane* – Money
- 宿題 *Shukudai* – Homework
- 鳥 *Tori* – Bird
- 卵 *Tamago* – Egg(s)
- 肉団子 *Nikudango* – Meatball(s)
- アニソン *Anison* – Anime song

(u) Godan Verbs

- 書く *Kaku* – To write (trans.)
- 泳ぐ *Oyogu* – To swim (intr.)
- 話す *Hanasu* – To talk/speak (trans.)
- 勝つ *Katsu* – To win (intr.)
- 死ぬ *Shinu* – To die (intr.)
- 選ぶ *Erabu* – To choose/select (trans.)
- 読む *Yomu* – To read (trans.)
- 変わる *Kawaru* – To change (intr.)
- 買う *Kau* – To buy (trans.)
- 聞く *Kiku* – To listen/ask (trans.)
- 繋ぐ *Tsunagu* – To connect (trans.)
- 指す *Sasu* – To point (out)/identify (trans.)
- 待つ *Matsu* – To wait (for) (trans.)

- 悪口 *Warukuchi* – Slander
- 人 *Hito* – Person
- 喉 *Nodo* – Throat
- 香り *Kaori* - Scent
- タイプミス *Taipumisu* – Typo
- 祖母 *Sobo* – Grandmother
- 竹 *Take* – Bamboo
- こと *Koto* – Thing/matter/event
- 自然薯 *Jinenjo* – Japanaese yam
- 心 *Kokoro* – Heart (emotional)
- 電気 *Denki* – Electricity
- 薬 *Kusuri* – Medicine
- 風邪 *Kaze* – Cold
- 風邪薬 *Kazegusuri* – Cold medicine
- 銃 *Jū* – Gun
- 服 *Fuku* – Clothes
- 夫 *Otto* – Husband
- 英会話 *Eikaiwa* – English conversation
- クリスマス *Kurisumasu* – Christmas
- 歯 *Ha* – Tooth
- ワニ *Wani* – Crocodile/alligator
- とどめ *Todome* – Finishing blow
- 呼ぶ *Yobu* – To call/invoke/summon (trans.)
- 挑む *Idomu* – To challenge (intr.)
- 凍る *Kōru* - To freeze/be frozen over (intr.)
- 会う *Au* – To meet/encounter (intr.)
- 卷く *Maku* – To wind/envelope (trans./intr.)
- 受け継ぐ *Uketsugu* – To inherit (trans.)
- 貸す *Kasu* – To lend (trans.)
- 終わる *Owaru* – To end (intr.)
- 叫ぶ *Sakebu* – To scream/shout (intr.)
- 包む *Tsutsumu* – To wrap/conceal (trans.)
- 売る *Uru* – To sell (trans.)
- 歌う *Utau* – To sing (trans.)
- 行く *Iku* – To go (intr.)
- 言う *Iu* – To say (trans.)
- 乾く *Kawaku* – To dry up (intr.)
- 嗅ぐ *Kagu* – To sniff/smell (trans.)
- 直す *Naosu* – To fix (trans.)
- 治す *Naosu* – To heal/cure (trans.)
- 打つ *Utsu* – To hit/beat/type/etc. (trans.)
- 撃つ *Utsu* – To shoot (trans.)
- 運ぶ *Hakobu* – To carry/transport (trans.)

- ハリー・ポッター *Harii Pottā* – Harry Potter
- 爪 *Tsume* – Nail(s)
- 商品 *Shōhin* – Product/item
- タバコ *Tabako* – Tobacco
- 本 *Hon* – Book
- 電話 *Denwa* – Phone
- 着物 *Kimono* – Kimono
- 車 *Kuruma* – Car
- スタイル *Sutairu* – Style
- 魚 *Sakana/Uo* – Fish
- 街 *Machi* – Town
- 助け *Tasuke* – Help
- 育む *Hagukumu* – To raise/rear (trans.)
- 掘る *Horu* – To dig (trans.)
- 思う *Omou* – To think (trans.)
- つく *Tsuku* – To be lit/turn on (intr.)
- 揺るぐ *Yurugu* – To waver (intr.)
- 遊ぶ *Asobu* – To play (trans.)
- 置く *Tatamu* – To fold (trans.)
- 実る *Minoru* – To bear fruit (intr.)
- 習う *Narau* – To take lessons in (trans.)
- 働く *Hataraku* – To work (intr.)
- 引き継ぐ *Hikitsugu* – To transfer/hand over (trans.)
- 騙す *Damasu* – To deceive (trans.)
- 亂す *Midasu* – To throw out of order (trans.)
- 立つ *Tatsu* – To stand (intr.)
- 学ぶ *Manabu* – To study (trans.)
- 悶む *Nayamu* – To be troubled (intr.)
- 帰る *Kaeru* – To return home (intr.)
- 祝う *Iwau* – To celebrate (trans.)
- 動く *Ugoku* – To move (intr.)
- 騒ぐ *Sawagu* – To clamor (intr.)
- 刺す *Sasu* – To stab (trans.)

Pronouns

- 私 *Wata(ku)shi* – I
- 僕 *Boku* – I (male)
- 彼 *Kare* – He
- 彼女 *Kanojo* – She

- 立つ *Tatsu* – To stand (intr.)
- 学ぶ *Manabu* – To study (trans.)
- 悶む *Nayamu* – To be troubled (intr.)
- 帰る *Kaeru* – To return home (intr.)
- 祝う *Iwau* – To celebrate (trans.)
- 動く *Ugoku* – To move (intr.)
- 騒ぐ *Sawagu* – To clamor (intr.)
- 刺す *Sasu* – To stab (trans.)

Proper Nouns

- 小泉さん *Koizumi-san* – Mr./Mr(s). Koizumi

Demonstratives

- この *Kono* – This (adj.)

- ・その *Sono* – That (adj.)

Adjectives

- ・美味しい *Oishii* – Delicious

- ・黄色い *Kiiroi* – Yellow

Adjectival Nouns

- ・好きだ *Suki da* – To like

- ・同じだ *Onaji da* – To be the same

Adverbs

- ・いつか *Itsuka* – One day/someday

- ・全員 *Zen'in* – Everyone/everybody

- ・本気で *Honki de* – All out/seriously/in earnest

- ・やっと *Yatto* – Finally

- ・決して *Kesshite* – Never

- ・まったく *Mattaku* – Completely/at all (neg.)

- ・もう *Mō* – Already/(not) anymore/before long

- ・まだ *Mada* – Still/yet

- ・多分 *Tabun* – Probably

- ・あまり *Amari* – Not really

- ・たくさん *Takusan* – A lot

- ・ずっと *Zutto* – All along/by far

- ・持つ *Motsu* – To hold (trans.)

- ・喜ぶ *Yorokobu* – To be delighted (intr.)

- ・噛む *Kamu* – To bite (trans.)

- ・祈る *Inoru* – To pray (trans.)

- ・縫う *Nū* – To sew (trans.)

- ・届く *Todoku* – To reach/arrive (intr.)

- ・移す *Utsusu* – To swap/infect (trans.)

- ・保つ *Tamotsu* – To preserve/retain (trans.)

- ・並ぶ *Narabu* – To form a line (intr.)

- ・吸う *Sū* – To inhale/smoke/suck (trans.)

- ・飲む *Nomu* – To drink/swallow/take (medicine) (trans.)

- ・切る *Kiru* – To cut (trans.)

- ・走る *Hashiru* – To run (intr.)

- ・喋る *Shaberu* – To chat(ter)/talk (intr.)

- ・触る *Sawaru* – To touch/feel (trans./intr.)

- ・入る *Hairu* – To enter (intr.)

- ・滑る *Suberu* – To slip/slide (intr.)

- ・握る *Nigiru* – To grasp (trans.)

- ・限る *Kagiru* – To limit/restrict (trans.)

- ・釣る *Tsuru* – To fish/lure

- ・蹴る *Keru* – To kick

(ru) Ichidan Verbs

- ・*変える* *Kaeru* – To change (trans.)
- ・*嘲る* *Azakeru* – To ridicule
- ・*着る* *Kiru* – To wear (trans.)
- ・*捻る* *Hineru* – To twist

Conjugating *Godan* Verbs

Godan 五段 verbs conjugate as do adjectives, adjectival nouns with the help of *da* だ or *desu* です, and the basic tenses are still the non-past and past tenses. As we've learned in the lesson prior, the non-past tense can be used to stand for either the present tense, future tense, or the gerund depending on context. The past tense correlates to both the English past tense and perfect tense. Using this knowledge that we've already attained, we will take the next step of our journey by learning how to conjugate the remaining 49% of verbs.

Plain Non-Past Form: No Conjugation

As was the case for *Ichidan* 一段 verbs, no conjugation is required for the non-past tense in plain speech. Of course, the non-past needs *-masu* ます when you use polite speech, but we'll get to that shortly. Because a *Godan* 五段 verb can have any consonant end its stem, we'll need to first see all the possibilities.

K	To write	<i>Kaku</i> 書く
G	To swim	<i>Oyogu</i> 泳ぐ
S	To talk/speak	<i>Hanasu</i> 話す
T	To win	<i>Katsu</i> 勝つ
N	To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ
B	To choose	<i>Erabu</i> 選ぶ
M	To read	<i>Yomu</i> 読む
R	To change	<i>Kawaru</i> 変わる
W*	To buy	<i>Kau</i> 買う

Verb Notes:

1. The consonant "w" becomes important in certain conjugations, so even though it may be silent here, it does play a role.
2. *Shinu* 死ぬ is the only verb in Standard Japanese that ends in *nu* ぬ.

しょうせつ か
1. 小説を書く。

Shōsetsu wo kaku.
To write a novel.

し
2. いつか死ぬ。

Itsuka shinu.
To one-day die.

せかい か
3. 世界が変わる。

Sekai ga kawaru.
The world will change.

おい た もの か
4. 美味しい食べ物を買う。

Oishii tabemono wo kau.
To buy delicious food.

Polite Non-Past Form:-masu ます

To make a Godan 五段 verb polite in the non-past tense, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ い, and then add -masu ます. Note that the consonant t will turn to ch when followed by the vowel i.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -masu ます
To ask/listen	<i>Kiku</i> 聞く	<i>Kikimasu</i> 聞きます
To connect	<i>Tsunagu</i> 繋ぐ	<i>Tsunagimasu</i> 繋ぎます
To point (out)/identify	<i>Sasu</i> 指す	<i>Sashimasu</i> 指します
To wait (for)	<i>Matsu</i> 待つ	<i>Machimasu</i> 待ちます
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimasu</i> 死にます
To call/invoke/summon	<i>Yobu</i> 呼ぶ	<i>Yobimasu</i> 呼びます
To challenge	<i>Idomu</i> 挑む	<i>Idomimasu</i> 挑みます
To freeze/be frozen over	<i>Kōru</i> 凍る	<i>Kōrimasu</i> 凍ります
To meet/encounter	<i>Au</i> 会う	<i>Aimasu</i> 会います

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the non-past tense, you must use the plain form without -masu ます.

みち こお

5. 道が凍ります。

Michi ga kōrimasu.

The road(s) (will) freeze over.

こいすみ

ま

6. 小泉さんを待ちます。

Koizumi-san wo machimasu.

I'll wait for Mr. Koizumi.

せんいんし

7. 全員死にます。

Zen'in shinimasu.

Everyone dies.

けいさつ

よ

8. 警察を呼びますよ。

Keisatsu wo yobimasu yo.

I'll call the police.

ほんき

いど

9. 本気で挑みます！

Honki de idomimasu!

I'm going to challenge all out!

Plain Past Form: -ta た

To make a *Godan* 一段 verb past tense in plain speech, *-ta た* is used just like with *Ichidan* 一段 verbs. However, a series of sound changes affect them in different ways depending on what consonant the verb stem ends with.

- If the verb stem ends in k, the k drops, /i/ is inserted, and *-ta た* is attached.
- If the verb stem ends in g, the g drops, /i/ is inserted, but *-ta た* → *-da だ* when attached.
- If the verb stem ends in s, *-ta* attaches normally like with *-masu ます*.
- If the verb stem ends in n, b, or m, these consonants → n, and *-ta た* → *-da だ* when attached.
- If the verb stem ends in t, r, or w, these consonants → small tsu っ, and then *-ta た* attaches.

Examples affected by the sound changes described in these rules are shown in bold below along with verbs that are irregular.

Meaning	Verb	Past Tense
To wind/envelope	<i>Maku</i> 卷く	<i>Maita</i> 卷いた

To inherit	<i>Uketsugu</i> 受け継ぐ	<i>Uketsuida</i> 受け継いだ
To lend	<i>Kasu</i> 貸す	<i>Kashita</i> 貸した
To end	<i>Owaru</i> 終わる	<i>Owatta</i> 終わった
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinda</i> 死んだ
To scream/shout	<i>Sakebu</i> 叫ぶ	<i>Sakenda</i> 叫んだ
To wrap up/conceal	<i>Tsutsumu</i> 包む	<i>Tsutsunda</i> 包んだ
To sell	<i>Uru</i> 売る	<i>Utta</i> 売った
To sing	<i>Utau</i> 歌う	<i>Utatta</i> 歌った
To go*	<i>Iku</i> 行く	<i>Itta</i> 行った
To say*	<i>Iu</i> 言う	<i>Itta/Yutta</i> 言った

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

Grammar Notes:

1. The verb "to go" becomes *itta* 行った in the past tense unlike all other verbs whose stems end in k.
2. The verb "to say" is actually pronounced as "yū." This discrepancy manifests in the past tense as well, making both "itta" and "yutta" viable and equally correct pronunciations.

10. バターを売った。^う

Batā wo utta.

I sold butter.

11. お金を貸した。

Okane wo kashita.

I lent money.

12. やっと宿題が終わった！^{しゅくだい お}

Yatto shukudai ga owatta.

My homework is finally finished!

13. その黄色い鳥が死んだ。

Sono kiroi tori ga shinda.

That yellow bird died.

14. 卵を包んだ肉団子

Tamago wo tsutsunda nikudango

Meatballs with egg packed in

うた
15. アニソンを歌った。

Anison wo utatta.

I sang an anime song.

わるくち ひと
16. 悪口を言った人

Warukuchi wo itta/yutta hito

Person who said slander

Polite Past Form: -mashita ました

To make a *Godan* 五段 verb past tense in polite speech, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ い, and then add *-mashita* ました.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -mashita ました
To dry up	Kawaku 乾く	Kawakimashita 乾きました
To sniff/smell	Kagu 嗅ぐ	Kagimashita 嗅ぎました
To fix	Naosu 直す	Naoshimashita 直しました
To hit/beat/type/etc.	Utsu 打つ	Uchimashita 打ちました
To die	Shinu 死ぬ	Shinimashita 死にました
To carry/transport	Hakobu 運ぶ	Hakobimashita 運びました
To raise/rear	Hagukumu 育む	Hagukumimashita 育みました
To dig	Horu 掘る	Horimashita 掘りました
To think	Omou 思う	Omoimashita 思いました

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the past tense, you must use the plain form *-ta* た.

のど かわ
17. 喉が渴きました。

Nodo ga kawakimashita.

I'm thirsty/My throat is dry.

す かお か
18. 好きな香りを嗅ぎました。

Suki na kaori wo kagimashita.

I smelled a scent that I like.

なお
19. タイプミスを直しました。
Taipumisu wo naoshimashita.
I fixed the typo(s).

そぼきよねんし
20. 祖母は去年死にました。
Sobo wa kyonen shinimashita.
My grandmother died last year.

たけはこ
21. 竹を運びました。
Take wo hakobimashita.
I carried/transported bamboo.

おなおも
22. 同じことを思いました。
Onaji koto wo omoimashita.
I thought the same thing.

じねんじょほ
23. 自然薯を掘りました。
Jinenjo wo horimashita.
I dug up Japanese yams.

Plain Negative Form: -nai ない

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative in plain speech, change the vowel after the stem to /a/ あ, and then add *-nai ない*. Note how in this conjugation, silent w becomes spoken.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + a + -nai ない
To be lit/turn on	<i>Tsuku</i> つく	<i>Tsukanai</i> つかない
To waver	<i>Yurugu</i> 摺るぐ	<i>Yuruganai</i> 摆るがない
To heal/cure	<i>Naosu</i> 治す	<i>Naosanai</i> 治さない
To shoot	<i>Utsu</i> 撃つ	<i>Utanai</i> 撃たない
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinanai</i> 死なない
To play	<i>Asobu</i> 遊ぶ	<i>Asobanai</i> 遊ばない
To fold	<i>Tatamu</i> 置む	<i>Tatamanai</i> 置まない
To bear fruit	<i>Minoru</i> 実る	<i>Minoranai</i> 実らない
To take lessons in	<i>Narau</i> 習う	<i>Narawanai</i> 習わない

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

24. 心は揺るがない。
Kokoro wa yuruganai.

My heart won't waver.

25. 電気がつかない。
Denki ga tsukanai.

The electricity won't/doesn't turn on.

26. 風邪薬は風邪を治さない。
Kazegusuri wa kaze wo naosanai.

Cold medicine won't cure a cold.

27. 銃を撃たない。
Jū wo utanai.

I won't shoot a gun.

28. 決して死なない。
Kesshite shinanai.

I'll never die.

29. 服を畳まない夫
Fuku wo tatamanai otto
Husband who won't fold clothes

30. 英会話を習わない。
Eikaiwa wo narawanai.
To not take lessons in English conversation.

Polite Negative Form: -masen ません

To make a *Godan* 五段 verb negative in polite speech, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ /い/, and then add *-masen* ません.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -masen ません
To work	Hataraku 働く	Hatarakimasen 働きません
To transfer/hand over	Hikitsugu 引き継ぐ	Hikitsugimasen 引き継ぎません

To deceive	<i>Damasu</i> 騙す	<i>Damashimasen</i> 騙しません
To throw out of order	<i>Midasu</i> 亂す	<i>Midashimasen</i> 亂しません
To stand	<i>Tatsu</i> 立つ	<i>Tachimasen</i> 立ちません
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimasesen</i> 死にません
To study	<i>Manabu</i> 学ぶ	<i>Manabimasesen</i> 学びません
To be troubled	<i>Nayamu</i> 悪む	<i>Nayamimasesen</i> 悪みません
To return home	<i>Kaeru</i> 帰る	<i>Kaerimasesen</i> 帰りません
To celebrate	<i>Iwau</i> 祝う	<i>Iwaimasesen</i> 祝いません

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative, you must use the plain form *-nai* ない.

31. 夫おっとがまったくはたら働きません。
My husband won't work at all.

32. 僕ぼくは死しにません！ (Male speech)
Boku wa shinimasesen!
I won't die!

33. もうなや悩みません。
Mō nayamimasesen.
I won't be troubled anymore.

34. 私わたしはまだかえ帰りません。
Watashi wa mada kaerimasesen.
I'm not going home yet.

35. クリスマスいわは祝いません。
Kurisumasu wa iwaimasesen.
I won't celebrate *Christmas*.

36. 歯はが立ちません。
Ha ga tachimasen.
I can't make a dent in it.

Idiom Note: This idiom comes from a phrase literally meaning “unable to bite through something.”

Plain Negative Past Form: -nakatta なかった

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative past in plain speech, change the vowel after the stem to /a/ あ, and then add **-nakatta なかった**.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + a + -nakatta なかった
To work/move	<i>Ugoku</i> 動く	<i>Ugokanakatta</i> 動かなかった
To clamor	<i>Sawagu</i> 騒ぐ	<i>Sawaganakatta</i> 騒がなかった
To stab	<i>Sasu</i> 刺す	<i>Sasanakatta</i> 刺さなかった
To hold	<i>Motsu</i> 持つ	<i>Motanakatta</i> 持たなかった
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinanakatta</i> 死ななかった
To be delighted	<i>Yorokobu</i> 喜ぶ	<i>Yorokobanakatta</i> 喜ばなかった
To bite	<i>Kamu</i> 噛む	<i>Kamanakatta</i> 噛まなかった
To pray	<i>Inoru</i> 祈る	<i>Inoranakatta</i> 祈らなかった
To sew	<i>Nū</i> 縫う	<i>Nuwanakatta</i> 縫わなかった

Usage Note: This form can also be used to modify nouns without any change in form. Most conjugations are able to do so as long as they are not in their polite forms.

37. ワニが動かなかった。

Wani ga ugokanakatta.

The crocodile didn't move.

38. とどめを刺さなかった。^さ

Todome wo sasanakatta.

I didn't put an end to it.

39. ハリー・ポッターは死ななかった。^し

Harii Potta wa shinanakatta.

Harry Potter didn't die.

40. 爪を噛まなかった。^{つめ か}

Tsume wo kamanakatta.

I didn't bite my nails.

Polite Negative Past Form: -masendeshita ませんでした

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative past in polite speech, change the vowel after the stem to /i/ い, and then add *-masendeshita* ませんでした.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + i + -masendeshita ませんでした
To reach/arrive	<i>Todoku</i> 届く	<i>Todokimasendeshita</i> 届きませんでした
To swim	<i>Oyogu</i> 泳ぐ	<i>Oyogimasendeshita</i> 泳ぎませんでした
To swap/infect	<i>Utsusu</i> 移す	<i>Utsushimasendeshita</i> 移しませんでした
To preserve/retain	<i>Tamotsu</i> 保つ	<i>Tamochimasendeshita</i> 保ちませんでした
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinimasendeshita</i> 死にませんでした
To form a line	<i>Narabu</i> 並ぶ	<i>Narabimasendeshita</i> 並びませんでした
To drink/swallow/take (medicine)	<i>Nomu</i> 飲む	<i>Nomimasendeshita</i> 飲みませんでした
To inhale/smoke	<i>Sū</i> 吸う	<i>Suimasendeshita</i> 吸いませんでした

Usage Note: This form cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative past, you must use the plain form *-nakatta* なかった.

41. 薬を飲みませんでした。
Kusuri wo nomimasendeshita.

I didn't take (the) medicine.

42. 商品が届きませんでした。
Shōhin ga todokimasendeshita.
The item didn't arrive.

43. カニは死にませんでした。
Kani wa shinimasendeshita.
The crab didn't die.

44. タバコを吸いませんでした。
Tabako wo suimasendeshita.
I didn't smoke.

Alternative Polite Negative & Neg-Past Forms: *-nai desu* & *-nakatta desu* ないです・なかったです

To make a Godan 五段 verb negative or negative past in polite yet casual speech, change the vowel after the stem to *i* い, and then add *-nai desu* ないです or *nakatta desu* なかったです respectively.

Meaning	Verb	Stem + a あ + -nai desu/nakatta desu ないです・かったです
To talk	<i>Hanasu</i> 話す	<i>Hanasanai desu</i> 話さないです <i>Hanasanakatta desu</i> 話さなかったです
To die	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ	<i>Shinanai desu</i> 死なないです <i>Shinanakatta desu</i> 死ななかったです
To read	<i>Yomu</i> 読む	<i>Yomanai desu</i> 読まないです <i>Yomanakatta desu</i> 読まなかったです

Usage Note: These forms cannot modify nouns. To modify nouns with verbs in the negative or negative past, you must use their plain forms *-nai* ない and *-nakatta* なかった respectively.

45. 彼女は本を読まなかったです。

Kanojo wa hon wo yomanakatta desu.

She didn't read a/the book.

46. 多分死たぶんしなはないです。

Tabun shinanai desu.

I probably won't die.

47. あまり話さはななかったです。

Amari hanasanakatta desu.

I really didn't talk/speak.

Conjugation Recap

As review, here are the conjugations you learned in this lesson. Each kind of Godan 五段 verb is represented with one verb. For brevity, all conjugations will be rendered in *Hiragana* ひらがな.

う・く・ぐ・ す・つ	<i>Kau</i> 買う (To buy)	<i>Kaku</i> 書く (To write)	<i>Oyogu</i> 泳ぐ (To swim)	<i>Hanasu</i> 話す (To talk)	<i>Matsu</i> 待つ (To wait)
Plain Non-Past	かう	かく	およぐ	はなす	まつ

Polite Non-Past	かいます	かきます	およぎます	はなします	まちます
Plain Past	かった	かいた	およいだ	はなした	まったく
Polite Past	かいました	かきました	およぎました	はなしました	まちました
Plain Neg.	かわない	かかない	およがない	はなさない	またない
Polite Neg. 1	かわないで す	かかないで す	およがないで す	はなさないで す	またないで す
Polite Neg. 2	かいません	かきません	およぎません	はなしません	まちません
Plain Neg-Past	かわなかっ た	かかなかっ た	およがなかっ た	はなさなかっ た	またなかっ た
Polite Neg-Past 1	かわなかっ たです	かかなかっ たです	およがなかっ たです	はなさなかっ たです	またなかっ たです
Polite Neg-Past 2	かいません でした	かきません でした	およぎません でした	はなしません でした	まちません でした
ぶ・む・ぬ・ る	<i>Yobu</i> 呼ぶ (To call)	<i>Yomu</i> 読む (To read)	<i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ (To die)	<i>Horu</i> 掘る (To dig)	
Plain Non-Past	よぶ	よむ	しむ	ほる	
Polite Non-Past	よびます	よみます	しにます	ほります	
Plain Past	よんだ	よんだ	しんだ	ほった	
Polite Past	よびました	よみました	しにました	ほりました	
Plain Neg.	よばない	よまない	しない	ほらない	
Polite Neg. 1	よばないで す	よまないで す	しないです	ほらないです	
Polite Neg. 2	よびません	よみません	しにません	ほりません	
Plain Neg-Past	よばなかっ た	よまなかっ た	しななかっ た	ほらなかっ た	
Polite Neg-Past 1	よばなかっ たです	よまなかっ たです	しななかっ たです	ほらなかっ たです	
Polite Neg-Past 2	よびません でした	よみません でした	しにませんでした	ほりませんでした	

Godan Verbs that Unfortunately Look Like Ichidan Verbs

After having learned all about both kinds of verbs, the sad realization that sometimes they look exactly like each other hits you like a bowling ball the face. For verbs that end in "eru" or "iru," you won't be able to initially tell what kind of verb they are until you see at least one conjugation. Usually, verbs that are homophonous almost always have different pitches as well.

There is at least one bit of good news from this debacle, which is that the fact there are two classes of verbs helps distinguish verbs that sound alike in their base forms.

Meaning	<i>Ichidan Verb</i>	Meaning	<i>Godan Verb</i>
To change	<i>Kae.ru</i> 変える	To go home	<i>Kaer.u</i> 帰る
To wear	<i>Ki.ru</i> 着る	To cut	<i>Kir.u</i> 切る

If a verb ends in *-ru* る but the vowel preceding it is an /a/, /u/, or /o/, it will always be a *Godan* 五段 verb. It's also the case that a lot of verbs won't sound like an *Ichidan* 一段 verb. All the verbs below are *Godan* 五段 verbs.

To run	<i>Hashiru</i> 走る	To chatter	<i>Shaberu</i> 嘘る	To decrease	<i>Heru</i> 減る
To be proud	<i>Hokoru</i> 誇る	To rub	<i>Kosuru</i> 擦る	To touch	<i>Sawaru</i> 觸る
To enter	<i>Hairu</i> 入る	To slip/slide	<i>Suberu</i> 滑る	To grasp	<i>Nigiru</i> 握る
To change (intr.)	<i>Kawaru</i> 変わる	To limit/restrict	<i>Kagiru</i> 限る	To fish/lure	<i>Tsuru</i> 釣る
To kick	<i>Keru</i> 蹴る	To ridicule	<i>Azakeru</i> 嘲る	To twist	<i>Hineru</i> 捏る

48. 電話を切りました。
Denwa wo kirimashita.

I hung up the phone.

49. 彼女は着物を着ました。
Kanojo wa kimono wo kimashita.
She wore a kimono.

50. スタイルを変えませんでした。

Sutairu wo kaemasendeshita.

I didn't change the style.

かれ かえ
51. 彼は帰りませんでした。

Kare wa kaerimasendeshita.

He didn't return/go home.

くるま こす
52. 車を擦る。

Kuruma wo kosuru.

To scratch a car.

まち か
53. この街はずっと変わらない。

Kono machi wa zutto kawaranai.

This town won't ever change.

さかな つ
54. たくさん魚を釣った。

Takusan sakana wo tsutta.

I caught a lot of fish.

たす い
55. 助けは要らない。

Tasuke wa iranai.

I don't need help.

第19課: The Particle *Ka* か

In order to make a question in English, we utilize changes in word order and stress. Take for example the following.

- i. Sam will go to the park.
- ii. Will Sam go to the park?

As you can see, the words "Sam" and "will" flip whenever you turn the statement in Ex. i into a question. In addition, stress is placed on the word "park." In Japanese no word order change is necessary to form a question, but the question must be marked somehow at the end of the sentence. There are many ways to do this, and they all differ in the exact tone and purpose of the question. In a way, what English gets across via intonation is more explicitly stated with the aid of verbal emoticons (final particles.)

Because Japanese is more complicated in this respect, it's important for us to first start off with the most basic of questions and work our way up, understanding that more grammar is to come. In this endeavor, we will begin by studying the particle *ka* か.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 高校生 *Kōkōsei* – High school student
- 休憩 *Kyūkei* – Break
- (お) 名前 (*O*)*namae* – Name
- (お) 誕生日 (*O*)*tanjōbi* - Birthday
- 試験 *Shiken* – Exam(ination)
- 結婚式 *Kekkonshiki* – Wedding
- 趣味 *Shumi* - Hobby
- トイレ *Toire* – Bathroom/toilet
- 住所 *Jūsho* - Address
- サラダ *Sarada* - Salad
- 人 *Hito* - Person
- 座席 *Zaseki* – Seat(s)
- 都合 *Tsugō* - Convenience
- 足 *Ashi* – Foot/feet
- お土産 *Omiyage* – Souvenir(s)
- (お) 飲み物 (*O*)*nomimono* Drink
- 社長 *Shachō* – Company president
- 問題 *Mondai* - Problem
- 時間 *Jikan* - Time
- クモ *Kumo* - Spider
- 雨 *Ame* - Rain

Adjectives

- かわいい *Kawaii* – Cute
- 都合がいい *Tsugō ga ii* - Convenient
- 痛い *Itai* - Painful
- いい *Ii* – Good

Adjectival Nouns

- 可能だ *Kanō da* – To be possible
- 好きだ *Suki da* – To like
- 嫌いだ *Kirai da* – To hate
- 元気だ *Genki da* – To be well
- 大丈夫だ *Daijōbu da* – To be alright
- あほだ *Aho da* – To be dumb/stupid

Interjections

- はい *Hai* – Yes
- さ (あ) *Sa(a)* – Well (now)/come now
- では *De wa* – Well (now)/(well) then
- ああ *Ā* – Ah

Adverbs

- もう *Mō* – Already/(not) anymore/before long

(u) Godan Verbs

- 変わる *Kawaru* – To change (intr.)
- 取る *Toru* – To take (trans.)

- 鍵 *Kagi* – Key(s)

Pronouns

- あんた *Anta* – You (Rough)

- 君 *Kimi* – You (Informal)

Proper Nouns

- 山田さん *Yamada-san* – Mr./Mr(s).
Yamada

- 山下さん *Yamashita-san* – Mr./Mr(s).
Yamashita

- 日本 *Nihon/Nippon* – Japan

- 上野公園 *Ueno kōen* – Ueno Park

Demonstratives

- これ *Kore* – This (noun)

- それ *Sore* – That (noun)

- あれ *Are* – That over there (noun)

- あの *Ano* – That over there (adj.)

- 行く *Iku* – To go (intr.)

- 思う *Omou* – To think (trans.)

- 分かる *Wakaru* – To become clear/be known/understand (intr.)

- 違う *Chigau* – To differ/be wrong (intr.)

Interrogatives (Question Words)

- 誰 *Dare* – Who

- 何 *Nani/nan* – What

- いつ *Itsu* – When

- どこ *Doko* – Where

- どうして *Dōshite* – Why

- どう *Dō* – How

Questions Hurt

The majority of questions we make on a daily basis revolve around the words "who," "what," "when," "where," "why," and "how." Japanese is similar in this regard, but because a lot more complexity is placed on things like politeness, tone, and purpose of the question, things can get tricky very quickly. Putting all that aside, the basic means of expressing these questions in Japanese are as follows:

- *Dare desu ka?* だれですか – Who is it?
- *Nan desu ka?* なんですか – What is it?
- *Itsu desu ka?* いつですか – When is it?
- *Doko desu ka?* どこですか – Where is it?
- *Dōshite desu ka?* どうしてですか – Why is it?

- *Dō desu ka?* どうですか — How is it?

In English, these question words can be used more than just to literally create a question. For instance, they may denote a subordinate clause like in "I forgot **what** I did yesterday." They may also deviate further such as in "when I go to school" or "use this when you need help." These unique circumstances call for particular grammar to be used in Japanese, some of which involves more than the basics we're going over now. You must first understand what exactly the Japanese words refer to in order to build upon them.

- *Dare* だれ — "Who" as in an unknown someone.
- *Nani* なに — "What" as in an unknown something.
- *Itsu* いつ — "When" as in an unknown time.
- *Doko* どこ — "Where" as in an unknown location.
- *Dōshite* どうして — "Why" as in an unknown reason.
- *Dō* どう — "How" as in an unknown situation/means.

Form Note: The base form of "what" in Japanese is *nani* 何.

As you can see, these words are treated far more literally in Japanese. *Itsu* いつ, for instance, cannot be used to mean the "when" in "when I go to school" because there isn't anything unknown about this statement unless you were to change it to "when am I going to school?"

The Basic Question

The formula for a *basic* question in Japanese will be defined as a polite sentence with no deviation in tone from a simple, harmless question. Add anything to the mix and the result will likely be different. Now that we've seen what the basic question words are in Japanese, let's go over the very straightforward means of using *ka* か in a sentence: just add it to the end and you're done. That is quite literally all you have to do. Just so that questions don't take over your mind, however, we will see how exactly this all looks like with the parts of speech we've covered thus far.

Part of Speech	+ <i>ka</i> か
Noun	<i>Kōkōsei desu ka?</i> 高校生ですか (Is...a high school student?)
Adjective	<i>Kawaii desu ka?</i> かわいいですか (Is...cute?)
Adjectival Noun	<i>Kanō desu ka?</i> 可能ですか (Is...possible?)
Verb	<i>Kawarimasu ka?</i> 変わりますか (Will...change?)

As you can see, there isn't anything particularly difficult about all this. With that being said, it's time to see how this all works in very real examples. Although you may not be able to ask

all the questions in the world in Japanese just yet, you can still ask away.

きゅうけい と
1. 休憩をりますか。

Kyūkei wo torimasu ka?

Will you take a break?

やまだ
2. 山田さんはどこですか。

Yamada-san wa doko desu ka?

Where is Mr./Mr(s). Yamada?

なまえ なん
3. (お) 名前は何ですか。

(O)namae wa nan desu ka?

What is your name?

たんじょうび
4. (お) 誕生日はいつですか。

(O)tanjōbi wa itsu desu ka?

When is your birthday?

しけん
5. 試験はいつですか。

Shiken wa itsu desu ka?

When is the exam(ination)?

けっこんしき
6. 結婚式はいつですか。

Kekkonshiki wa itsu desu ka?

When is the wedding?

7. 行きます (か) ?

Ikimasu (ka)?

Will you go?/Shall we go?

しゅみ なん
8. 趣味は何ですか。

Shumi wa nan desu ka?

What are your hobbies?

9. トイレはどこですか。

Toire wa doko desu ka?

Where is the bathroom?

じゅうしょ
10. 住所はどこですか。

Jūsho wa doko desu ka?

What is your address?

おも
11. どう思いますか。

Dō omoimasu ka?

What do you think (of it)?

わ
12. 分かりますか。

Wakarimasu ka?

Do you follow/understand?

わ
13. 分かりましたか。

Wakarimashita ka?

Have you got it?/Do you understand?

ちが
14. 違いますか。

Chigaimasu ka?

Is it wrong?/Am I wrong?

なん
15. これは何ですか。

Kore wa nan desu ka?

What is this?

きら
16. サラダが嫌いですか?

Sarada ga kirai desu ka?

Do you hate salad?

ひと やました
17. あの人は山下さんですか。

Ano hito wa Yamada-san desu ka?

Is that person over there Mr./Mr(s). Yamashita?

18. 「お元気ですか」 「はい、元気です」

“*Ogenki desu ka*” “*Hai, genki desu.*”

“How are you?” “I’m doing well.”

Literally: “Are you doing well?” “Yes, I’m doing well.”

Phrase Note: This phrase is perhaps one of the most iconic phrases in Japanese. The *o* attached to *genki* 元氣 indicates politeness, and it will continue to appear a few more times in this lesson.

X wa Y (question word) ga Z

When question words aren’t used as the predicate of the sentence, the differences between *wa* は and *ga* が become most apparent. Instead of seeing the question word at the end of the sentence preceded by *wa* は, you see that the question word is now marked by *ga* が

and that the question word is pinpointing information about the topic. Thus, it's no longer a general question.

iii. What is a pet? → Question word at the end

iv. What would be good for a pet? → X wa Y (question word) ga Z

iii. and iv. illustrate how this grammatical difference works in English. iii. follows the same line of questioning seen in the previous section whereas iv. is indicative of the sorts of questions that will soon follow.

All the question words discussed can be used as either nouns or adverbs except *dō* どう (how), which can only be used as an adverb.

19. 座席はどこがいいですか。
Zaseki wa doko ga ii desu ka?

What seat(s) is/are good?

Literally: As for seat(s), where at is good?

20. いつ (が) 都合がいいですか。
Itsu (ga) tsugō ga ii desu ka?

When will be convenient for you?

Literally: As for you, when is convenient?

Particle Note: Although *itsu* いつ can be used as a noun, this is not nearly as common, and so *ga* が is always optional after it. In this example sentence, *tsugō ga ii* 都合がいい is a set phrase meaning “convenient,” and because it is grammatically treated as a single adjective, two *ga* が become possible in the same clause.

21. 日本のどこが好きですか？
Nihon no doko ga suki desu ka?

What part of Japan do you like?

Literally: What of Japan do you like?

Particle Note: The particle *no* の is used here to indicate “of.” We will learn more about it later in IMABI, but it’s useful here to help make more substantive questions.

22. 足のどこが痛いですか。
Ashi no doko ga itai desu ka?

What part of your leg hurts?/Where on your leg is it that you are hurting?

Literally: What of your leg hurts?

23. お土産は何がいいですか。
Omiyage wa nani ga ii desu ka?

What would be good for souvenirs?
Literally: As for souvenirs, what is good?

の もの なに
24. (お) 飲み物は何がいいですか。
(O)nomimono wa nani ga ii desu ka?
What would you like to drink?

As you can see, the very fundamental pattern "X + wa は + Y + ga が + Z" affects question words the same way as any other words, but this also means you'll have to pay some attention to nuance. Consider the difference between the two following sentences.

しゃちょう だれ
25. 社長は誰ですか。
Shachō wa dare desu ka?
Who is the company president?

The topic of conversation here is clearly the company president. The question is “who is he/she”? This sentence would be used when you are asking someone to identify who the person is out of a group of people. You are simply confirming what can be verifiable in front of you, and the conversation naturally led to this question.

だれ しゃちょう
26. 誰が社長ですか？
Dare ga shachō desu ka?
Who is the company president?

By itself, this sentence will catch most native speakers off-guard as an odd question. This is because more context is needed for this to be used naturally. The basic nature of *ga* が presenting new information comes into play here. The person in question may or may not be around the speaker, but the speaker is still directly asking someone to identify the individual. The direct nature of *dare ga* 誰が happens to be far stronger than with the other question words, which is why it is not preferred over other phrasing. The directness can be felt with the other question words as well.

もんだい なん
27. 問題は何ですか。
Mondai wa nan desu ka?
What's wrong?

なし もんだい
28. 何が問題ですか?
Nani ga mondai desu ka?
What is the problem?

Just as in English, the same sternness that this question possesses comes across in the Japanese as well. Although both sentences could be translated as "what is the problem," the former is not as direct and is merely innocently asking the question at hand.

Basic Questions in Plain Speech

The lack of *desu* です or *-masu* ます in forming questions in plain speech makes using *ka* か a little bit more tricky, largely because it's not typically used at all. Rather, the phrase becomes a question by the use of high intonation.

だいじょうぶ
29. 大丈夫？

Daijōbu?

Are you okay?

なに
30. それは何？

Sore wa nani?

What is that?

31. あれはクモ？

Are wa kumo?

Is that a spider over there?

うえのこうえん
32. 上野公園はどこ？

Ueno kōen wa doko?

Where's Ueno Park?

When *ka* か does happen to be used, a few words of caution are needed. First, it does not attach to *da* だ like it does with *desu* です. The only time this is acceptable is when *ka* か is used to make subordinate clauses, which we'll study in the next lesson. Therefore, *da ka* だか is wrong and must be changed to either *ka ka* かか or dropped entirely. This means it will always attach straight to nouns and adjectival nouns without the copula intervening.

Secondly, *ka* か is primarily used in this fashion by male speakers among friends and/or toward people of lower status. When it is used out of these arenas, you create a question that shows no reservation/modesty toward the listener. As such, it is typically favored by men in very casual situations among each other or whenever they are speaking to people inferior to themselves. If this pattern is used toward someone who is not one's friend nor someone who has a lower status than oneself, the question will create a tone that borders on interrogation, making the speaker sound like a pompous brute, to say the least.

だいじょうぶ
33. 大丈夫か？

Daijōbu ka?

You alright?

きみ
34. 君はあほか？

Kimi wa aho ka?

Are you stupid or something?

35. あんた、行くか?
Anta, iku ka?
You coming?

Tone Note: The use of 35 is largely restricted to males in coarse conversation.

Say if the question isn't directed at anyone, but instead, you're talking to oneself or reacting to something and make a rhetorical question to that effect, then *ka* loses its potency. As the following examples demonstrate, this applies to polite speech as well.

36. もう時間 (です) か。
Mō jikan (desu) ka.
It's already time, huh...

37. さ、行くか。
Sa, iku ka.
Well, time to go.

38. では、行きますか。
De wa, ikimasu ka.
Alright, time to go.

39. 雨、降ったか。
Ame, futta ka.
It rained, huh.

40. ああ、そうか。
Ā, sō ka.
Ah, really?/I see.

Question Word + *ka*: X

Ignoring grammar concerning subordinate clauses which we haven't covered yet, you can't simply add *ka* か to question words like you can with other nouns in plain speech. Instead, you either need to add the particle *yo* よ for exclamatory effect or use *da* だ instead, as non-intuitive as that might seem.

Who	<i>Dare</i> → <i>Dare da (yo)</i>	<i>だれ</i> → <i>だれだ (よ)</i>
What	<i>Nani</i> → <i>Nan da (yo)</i>	<i>なに</i> → <i>なんだ (よ)</i>

When	<i>Itsu</i> → <i>Itsu</i>	いつ → いつ
Where	<i>Doko</i> → <i>Doko da yo</i>	どこ → どこだ (よ)
Why	<i>Dōshite</i> → <i>Dōshite da (yo)</i>	どうして → どうしてだ (よ)

The use of the particle *yo よ* adds to the weight of frustration the speaker has, and as such, it is not a given that the question is rhetorical or not. As the chart above suggests, because *itsu いつ* is almost always adverbial, it is treated differently in heated questions such as these.

41. 何だ、これ？
なん
Nan da, kore ?

What the heck is this?

42. えっ、何だよ！
なん
Eh, nan da yo!

W-what the heck?

43. 鍵はどこだ。
かぎ
Kagi wa doko da?

Where are the keys?/Where is the key?

44. 鍵はどこだよ！
かぎ
Kagi wa doko da yo!?

Where are the dang keys!? /Where is the dang key?

45. 君、どうしてだよ！
きみ
Kimi, dōshite da yo!?

You...why!?

第20課: The Particle *Ka* か II: With the Negative

Asking questions in the negative is not straightforward in either English or Japanese. In fact, things can get rather complicated right off the bat with nuance. What exactly do you mean? Consider the following examples in English.

- i. Are you not going?
- ii. Is this not new?
- iii. Why not go?

The first example expresses surprise and doubt about the situation. The second example purposely uses the negative to make a more affirmative statement, and the third example is

an invitation to do something. All these things translate quite well into Japanese. After this lesson, your knowledge of *ka* か should become even stronger.

Intonation Note: Although this will not be stated again as we go through this lesson, the final syllable of a question in Japanese should have a high intonation.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 年下 *Toshishita* – Younger
- 夕食 *Yūshoku* – Dinner
- 車 *Kuruma* – Car
- 事実 *Jijitsu* - Fact
- 一人暮らし *Hitorigurashi* – Living alone
- トイレ *Toire* – Bathroom/toilet
- パーティ *Pāti* – Party
- コンサート *Konsāto* – Concert
- 彼氏 *Kareshi* – Boyfriend
- 醤油 *Shōyu* – Soy sauce
- 動物 *Dōbutsu* – Animal
- パイナップル *Painappuru* – Pineapple
- 海 *Umi* – Sea
- タバコ *Tabako* - Tobacco
- 糖質 *Tōshitsu* – Carbohydrates
- 折り紙 *Origami* – Origami
- キャンディー *Kyandii* – Candy

Idioms

- いい加減にする *Ii kagen ni suru* – To get... over with

Interjections

- はい *Hai* – Yes
- い (い) え *I(i)e* – No
- あ *A* – Ah

Adverbs

- 毎日 *Mainichi* – Every day
- そう *Sō* – So
- ちょっと *Chotto* – A little
- 一緒に *Issho ni* – Together
- 昨日 *Kinō* - Yesterday
- すぐに *Sugu ni* - Immediately
- 明日 *Ashita/asu* – Tomorrow
- さっき *Sakki* – Just now

(ru) Ichidan Verbs

- やめる *Yameru* – To quit (trans.)
- 潬ける *Tsukeru* – To pickle (trans.)

- ・宿題 *Shukudai* – Homework
- ・ピアノ *Piano* – Piano
- ・ピザ *Piza* – Pizza
- ・カメ *Kame* – Turtle
- ・おやつ *Oyatsu* – Snacks
- ・洋服 *Yōfuku* – Clothes
- ・タヌキ *Tanuki* – Tanuki (Japanese raccoon dog)

Pronouns

- ・彼女 *Kanojo* – She

Proper Nouns

- ・京子さん *Kyōko-san* – Mr/M(r)s. Kyoko
- ・木下さん *Kinoshita-san* – Mr/M(r)s. Kinoshita

Adjectives

- ・忙しい *Isogashii* – Busy
- ・新しい *Atarashii* – New
- ・真新しい *Ma'atarashii* – Brand new
- ・悲しい *Kanashii* – Sad
- ・寂しい *Sabishii* – Lonely/desolate
- ・いい *Ii* – Good

Adjectival Nouns

- ・好きだ *Suki da* – To like

Interrogatives (Question Words)

- ・食べる *Taberu* – To eat (trans.)
- ・見る *Miru* – To see/look (trans.)

(u) Godan Verbs

- ・使う *Tsukau* – To use (trans.)
- ・行く *Iku* – To go (intr.)
- ・祈る *Inoru* – To pray (trans.)
- ・遊ぶ *Asobu* – To play (trans.)
- ・泳ぐ *Oyogu* – To swim (intr.)
- ・減らす *Herasu* – To decrease (trans.)
- ・飲む *Nomu* – To drink/swallow/take (medicine) (trans.)
- ・作る *Tsukuru* – To make (trans.)
- ・やる *Yaru* – To do (casual) (trans.)
- ・終わる *Owaru* – To end (intr.)
- ・選ぶ *Erabu* – To choose (trans.)
- ・弾く *Hiku* – To play (piano/guitar) (trans.)
- ・買う *Kau* – To buy (trans.)
- ・知る *Shiru* - To know/recognize (trans.)

Demonstratives

- ・この *Kono* – This (adj.)
- ・その *Sono* – That (adj.)
- ・あれ *Are* – That over there (noun)

- 何 *Nani/nan* – What

-nai (no) desu ka? ない (の) ですか

When *ka* か follows *-nai desu* ないです, the resultant question translates to “is it not...” When one is rather certain of the answer being the affirmative, this pattern stays as is. However, when there is any degree of doubt, the particle *no* の usually intervenes. In conversation, the particle *no* の is often contracted to *n* ん in this pattern, resulting in *-nai n desu ka* ないんですか?

- かのじょ いそが
1. 彼女は 忙しくないですか。
Kanojo wa isogashikunai no desu ka?
Is she not busy?
- きょうこ としした
2. 京子さんは 年下じゃないですか。
Kyōko-san wa toshishita ja nai n desu ka?
Is Mrs/Ms. Kyoko not younger?
- ゆうしょく た
3. 夕食を 食べないですか。
Yūshoku wo tabenai no desu ka?
Are you not going to have dinner?
- ひとりぐ さび
4. 一人暮らしは 寂しくないですか。
Hitorigurashi wa sabishikunai desu ka?
Isn't living alone lonely?
- じじつ かな
5. その事実は 悲しくないですか。
Sono jijitsu wa kanashikunai desu ka.
Is that fact not sad?
- くるま あたら
6. この車は 新しくないですか。
Kono kuruma wa atarashikunai desu ka?
Isn't this car new?

- い
7. パーティに行かないですか。

The use of *no/n* の • ん provides emphasis on the question element and adds weight to the overall statement. When you are asking about intention and you don't use *no/n* の • ん, then your question sounds more like a solicitation because you are in effect telling the person that you're pretty certain that he/she is doing so.

Pāti ni ikanai n desu ka?
Are you not going to the party?

8. コンサートに行かないですか。
Konsāto ni ikanai desu ka?
Why not go to a/the concert?

Particle Note: In the example sentences here, the particle *ni* に is used to mark where at one is going.

As has been demonstrated thus far, *no/n* の・ん doesn't simply add doubt to a question, it also demonstrates the speaker's interest to the answer in the question as an effect. After all, you aren't 100% as to what the answer will be. This is also true when *no/n desu ka* の・んですか is used with the affirmative.

9. 彼氏は行くんですか。
Kareshi wa iku n desu ka?
Will your boyfriend go?

10. 醤油を使うんですか。
Shōyu wo tsukau n desu ka?
Will you be using soy sauce?

11. 毎日祈るんですか。
Mainichi inoru n desu ka?
Do you pray every day?
-

The Japanese Yes & No

12. 「そう思わないですか」 「いえ、そうは思いません。」
“Sō omowanai desu ka” “Ie, sō wa omoimasen.”
“Don’t you think so?” “No, I don’t think so.”

Particle Note: The particle *wa* は is used here to emphasize the negative situation of not thinking as such.

When responded to a question in the affirmative/negative in Japanese, your answer is about whether it is or is not so first and foremost. In this example, the negative is used for the affirmative, which explains why “no” began the second speaker’s response; however, consider the following.

- どうぶつ す
13. 「動物が好きじゃないのですか」 「はい、好きじゃありません。」
“Dōbutsu ga suki ja nai no desu ka?” “Hai, suki ja arimasen.”
“Do you not like any animals?” “No, I don't like them.”

As you can see, the answer in Japanese was actually “yes” because it affirms that the doubt/question that the first speaker had about the second speaker not liking animals.

-masen ka ませんか

Just as *-nai desu ka* ないですか can be used to solicit, *-masen ka* ませんか is perhaps the most common way in polite speech to invite someone to do something. When used with verbs that describes states (verbs that don't express an action), this is used as a polite means of asking the affirmative.

14. パイナップルを漬けませんか。

Painappuru wo tsukemasen ka?
Why not pickle pineapple?

15. ちょっと遊びませんか。

Chotto asobimasen ka?
Why not have some fun?

16. 海で泳ぎませんか。

Umi de oyogimasen ka?
Why not swim in the ocean?

17. タバコをやめませんか。

Tabako wo yamemasen ka?
How about quitting smoking?

18. 糖質を減らしませんか。

Tōshitsu wo herashimasen ka?
How about decreasing carbohydrates?

19. 知りませんか。

Shirimassen ka?
Do you happen to know?

-nai (ka)? ない (か)

In plain speech, you can solicit someone with the negative with *-nai (ka)? ない (か)*. The

use of *ka* か indicates that you are very familiar with the speaker. As we learned last lesson, this tends to be used by male speakers, and if the listener is not either equal or lower in status than oneself, the invite could be taken badly at the least.

20. 折り紙を作らないか？

Origami wo tsukuranai ka?

Why not make some origami?

21. 一緒に飲まない？

Isshō ni nomanai?

How about we drink together?

22. いい加減にしないか。(Idiom)

Ii kagen ni shinai ka?

Can't you give me a break?

23. キャンディー、食べない？

Kyandii, tabenai?

Why not eat some candy?

Particle Note: This sentence shows how the particle *wo* を can be dropped in casual conversation.

-nai no ka? ないのか

-nai no ka ないのか is used in plain speech to seriously and or harshly ask a question about whether something truly isn't so. This is used frequently by both male and female speakers, especially when emotions are flaring. Thus, caution is needed when using it.

24. 見ないのか。

Minai no ka?

You're not going to watch?

25. すぐにやめないのか。

Sugu ni yamenai no ka?

You're not going to stop immediately?

26. 昨日、宿題やらなかったのか。

Kinō, shukudai yaranakatta no ka.

You didn't do your homework yesterday?

-nai no? ないの

When the particle *ka* か is dropped and you're left with *-nai no* ないの, the question becomes a lot softer, but you are still seriously asking the question. The same goes for when this is used with the affirmative.

27. ピアノ弾かないの？
ひ
Piano hikanai no?

You're not going to/won't play the piano?

28. 終わらないの？
お
Owaranai no?

Is not going to end/are you ever going to finish?

29. 何を選ぶの？
なに えら
Nani wo erabu no?

What'll you choose?

30. 明日行くの？
あした い
Ashita iku no?

Are you going tomorrow?

31. ピザを食べたの？
た
Piza wo tabeta no?

Did you eat pizza?

Verb + (n) ja nai desu ka/ja arimasen ka (ん) じゃないですか・じゃありませんか

When *ja nai desu ka/ja arimasen ka* じゃないですか・じゃありませんか follows a verb/adjective/copula, it is used to mean “isn't it (the case that...)?” The lack of *ん*, as was the case before, indicates greater confidence in one's statement being right in the first place. This may follow any of the conjugations we've studied thus far, but when it is after the non-past form of the copula, the copula must become *na* な. This is because *no/n* の・ん actually functions as a nominalizer in all the examples here in this lesson.

32. あれはカメなんじゃないですか？
Are wa kame na n ja nai desu ka?

Isn't that over there a turtle?

33. おやつ食べないんじゃない?
Oyatsu tabenai n ja nai?

Aren't you not going to eat the snacks?

34. 明日買うじゃない?
Ashita kau ja nai?

Aren't you buying it tomorrow?

35. この洋服、真新しいんじゃないありませんか。
Kono yōfuku, ma'atarashii ja arimasen ka?
Aren't these clothes brand new?

36. いいんじゃないですか。
Ii n ja nai desu ka?
Isn't that fine?

37. いいんじゃない!
Ii n ja nai!
That's great!

38. さっき買ったんじゃない(の)?
Sakki katta n ja nai (no)?
Didn't you buy (that) just now?

Particle Note: As is demonstrated in the previous example, the particle *no* の may follow *n ja nai* んじゃない to add a final hook to the seriousness of one's question.

After verbs and adjectives, ジゃ is hardly ever uncontracted as では in the spoken language, but the entire phrase *ja nai desu ka* ジゃないですか can actually be simplified to *jan (ka)* ジゃん (か). This is a general contraction that may be applied to what we've already covered.

39. あ、木下さんではないですか。
A, Kinoshita-san de wa nai desu ka!
My, isn't it Mr/M(r)s. Kinoshita!

40. いいじゃん！

ii jan!

That's awesome!

41. 行くんじゃん（か）。

Iku n jan (ka)?

Aren't you going, right?

42. あれはタヌキじゃん！

Are wa tanuki jan!

Well is that not a tanuki!

第21課: The Particle **Ga** が II: The Object Marker **Ga** が

In Lesson 15, we learned how the particle **wo** を marks the direct object of a sentence. Direct objects are typically acted upon by an active agent (doer). Usually, there is someone or something that is purposefully and willingly exerted his/her/its intent on another entity.

i. Sam *chopped the lettuce*.

ii. Sarah *threw the ball*.

iii. Dusty *petted the cat*.

However, not all verbs involve an activity with an active agent. Some verbs simply express a stative state. In these situations, the agent isn't necessarily exerting his/her control over the object. The relation between agent and object, then, can be viewed as a mere statement of reality.

iv. I *understand the situation*.

v. I have **three dogs**.

vi. I need **money**.

In English, these verbs (in italics) are all treated as transitive verbs because they have objects (in bold). However, their meanings are stative in nature. A stative verb is one that expresses a state/condition rather than an activity. In English, stative verbs can either be intransitive or transitive depending on the existence of an object or the lack thereof.

vii. There are horses here. (intransitive)

viii. The flag stands still. (intransitive)

ix. The fire burns brightly. (intransitive)

x. Everyone wants money. (transitive)

xi. I like dogs. (transitive)

xii. I hate cats. (transitive)

In English, objects are typically linked to verbs of activity, but this is not the case for stative-

transitive verbs. In fact, these verbs share much in common with adjectives. After all, adjectives are primarily used in expressing the state/condition of something.

- xiii. I'm good at math.
- xiv. I'm bad at physics.
- xv. Spiders are scary.
- xvi. I'm scared of spiders.

Whether it be a stative-transitive verb or an adjective with an object, they both constitute what are called stative-transitive predicates. In Japanese, the objects of these so-called “stative-transitive predicates” are marked by *ga* が rather than *wo* を. The types that exist include those concerned with human attributes such as perception, necessity, possession, desire, etc. These attributes are outside the realm of the subject's control. Even when someone “wants something,” the want is treated as an emotion the speaker can't control. This lack of control prompts the use of *ga* が instead of *wo* を.

Stative-transitive predicates in Japanese involve intransitive verbs, adjectives, or adjectival nouns. The stative-transitive verbs of English are not transitive verbs in Japanese. Instead, they either correspond to intransitive verbs or adjectives/adjectival nouns. In Japanese, *jidōshi* 自動詞 refers not only to verbs that have no objects, but also to verbs whose objects are marked by *ga* が. The term *tadōshi* 他動詞 is reserved only to verbs whose objects are marked by *wo* を. Lastly, when an English stative-transitive verb corresponds to an adjective/adjectival noun, it's because of differences in morphology between the two languages.

Now that we've learned what stative-transitive predicates are in English, it's time to see what they look like in Japanese. These predicates will be divided into two broad categories with further semantic divisions:

Stative-Transitive Predicates of Objective Fact

- Possession
- Necessity
- Non-intentional Perception
- Non-intentional Understanding
- Ability

Stative-Transitive Predicates of Subjective Emotions

- Internal Feeling
- Like/Dislike
- Want/Desire
- Competence

Curriculum Note: Some of these categories exhibit interchangeability between *ga* が and

wo を. In this lesson, we will focus first on the instances *ga* が can and does mark the object of a sentence. For more information about the interchangeability between *ga* が and *wo を*, you will be directed to later lessons.

Stative-Transitive Predicates of Objective Fact

The subject/agent of a stative-transitive predicate is limited to nouns/pronouns which refer to people or things that are personified. Often, the subject and topic are the same, in which case the subject becomes a zero-pronoun, and because it isn't spoken, there is no issue with two *ga* が being used in the same sentence. However, the exhaustive-listing function of *ga* が can still manifest in stative-transitive predicates. When this happens, the first *ga* が marks the subject and the second *ga* が marks the object (thing involved).

Curriculum Note: For some stative-transitive predicates, especially those of this type, the subject (experiencer) may alternatively be marked by *ni (wa)* に (は). The use of *ni (wa)* に (は) adds various kinds of emotions/semantic nuancing not intrinsic to the meanings of these sort of predicates. Because of this, we will discuss how *ni(wa)* に (は) can alternatively mark the subject of stative-transitive predicates in a later lesson.

- Possession: ある & いる

On top of meaning “to be,” the verbs *aru* ある and *iru* いる can also mean “to have.” *Aru* is used to show possession of inanimate objects that may or may not be alive. *Iru* ある is primarily used to show possession of human relations. Although we will be avoiding instances of *ni wa* には marking the subject in this lesson, it is impossible to ignore for these two verbs. Whenever the subject is stated (not omitted), the use of *ga* が brings about the exhaustive-listing meaning, and the use of *wa* は bring out its contrastive meaning. When *ni wa* には is used, it is very like saying “X for one.”

These two verbs primarily show existence, and this is reflected in their secondary meaning of “to have,” so much so that the use of *ni wa* には can still be literally interpreted as showing the place where possession of something exists.” The connection between the possessor and possessed entity becomes heavily emphasized as an effect, which is what brings out the translation “X for one.”

1. 私 (に) は腕時計があります。
Watashi (ni) wa udedokei ga arimasu.
I (for one) have an arm watch.
2. 私たち (に) は十分なお金があります。
Watashitachi (ni) wa jyūfuna okane ga arimasu.

Watashitachi (ni) wa jūbun na okane ga arimasu.

We (for one) have enough money.

わたし あに
3. (私【には・は】) 兄がいます。

(*Watashi [ni wa/wa]*) *ani ga imasu.*

[I, for one,/As for me,] have an older brother.

わたし ともだち
4. 私(に)は友達が【います・いません】。

(*Watashi (ni) wa tomodachi ga [imasu/imasen]*).

I (for one) [have/have no] friends.

Having Pets

Having pets/livestock is usually expressed with *katte iru* 飼っている.

わたし いぬ ねこ かめ きつね しか か
5. 私は【犬・猫・ウサギ・亀・アライグマ・狐・鹿】を飼っています。

(*Watashi wa [inu/neko/usagi/kame/araiguma/kitsune/shika]* wo *katte imasu.*

I have a [dog/cat/rabbit/turtle/raccoon/fox/deer].

わたくし ねこ
6. 私には猫がいます。

(*Watashi ni wa neko ga imasu.*

I, for one, have a cat.

Sentence Note: Students are often tempted to use *iru* いる to express having pets.

Although this isn't technically wrong, *ni wa* には would need to mark the subject, and the sense of "for one" becomes heavily emphasized.

わ や いえ ねこ
7. 【我が家・家】には猫がいます。

(*[Wagaya/ie] ni wa neko ga imasu.*

I have a cat at my/our house.

Sentence Note: A more practical way to say one has a cat or any other kind of pet is to say that you have it at one's home. This will mean that you're using *iru* いる in the literal sense of the pet existing at a certain location but also implying ownership because of where that location happens to be, your home.

-
- Necessity: *Iru 要る*

Pronounced the same as *iru* いる but is instead a *Godan* 五段 verb, *iru* 要る means "to need." It is used to express a need and/or want that is felt to be a certainty. It is used most with nouns regarding time, resources, money, etc.

にゅうじょうりょう　い の もの　かね　い

8. 入場料は要らないですが、乗り物はお金が要ります。

Nyūjōryō wa iranai desu ga, norimono wa okane ga irimasu.

Admission fee isn't needed, but you need money for the rides.

さいしょ　すこ　い

9. 最初は少しコツが要ります。

Saisho wa sukoshi kotsu ga irimasu.

Some skill is needed from the start.

か　し　い

10. このお菓子、要る？

Kono okashi, iru?

You really want this candy?

ばん　はん　よる　はん　い　い

11. 【晩ご飯・夜ご飯】、要る？要らない？

[Bangohan/yorugohan], iru? Iranai?

Do you need dinner or no?

Iru 要るVS Hitsuyō da 必要だ

Iru 要る is similar to the expression *hitsuyō da 必要だ*, which means “to be necessary.”

Hitsuyō da 必要だ is far more broad in usage as anything could be presented as being a necessity/must, whereas *iru 要る* is typically limited to nouns that can be conceptualized as some sort of resource. To “need” has a somewhat subjective tone to it, as is also the case with *iru いる*, but *hitsuyō da 必要だ* can be used in very objective contexts.

ちゅうい　ひつよう

12. 注意が必要です。

Chūi ga hitsuyō desu.

Caution is necessary.

かね　ひつよう

13. お金が必要だ。

Okane ga hitsuyō da.

Money is needed/necessary.

-
- Non-intentional Perception: *Mieru 見える* & *Kikoeru 聞こえる*

The verbs *mieru 見える* and *kikoeru 聞こえる* express that something is visible and audible respectively. Neither verb implies volition. Rather, they merely express the natural phenomena of sight and hearing. They are typically translated as “can see” and “can hear,” respectively, but it may be best to perceive them as meaning “visible” and “audible” so that you don’t accidentally attribute volition to them.

やま　けしき　み

14. 山の景色が見えます。

Yama no keshiki ga miemasu.
The mountain scenery is visible.
I/one can see the mountain scenery.

なに み
15. 何が見えますか。
Nani ga miemasu ka?
What's visible?
What can you see?

き
16. 聞こえましたか？
Kikoemashita ka?
Did you hear it?

おお ぱくはつ き
17. 大きな爆発が聞こえました。
Ōkina bakuhatsu ga kikoemashita.
I heard a large explosion.

- Non-intentional Understanding: 分かる

There are two different meanings of *wakaru* 分かる. It can be used to mean “to understand” or “to become known.” For the first meaning, it’s clear that *wakaru* 分かる falls under the same syntactic situation as other stative-transitive predicates. There is an object to understanding, but the understanding is out of the volition of the person who knows, thus the object is marked with *ga* が. However, for the meaning “to become known,” *ga* が functions more as a subject marker than object marker.

にほんご わ
18. 日本語が分かりますか。
Nihongo ga wakarimasu ka?
Do you understand Japanese?

わたし かんこくご わ
19. 私は韓国語が分かりません。
Watashi wa kankokugo ga wakarimasen.
I don’t understand Korean.

かんとうじん かんさいべん わ
20. 関東人は関西弁が分かりますか。
Kantōjin wa Kansaiben ga wakarimasu ka?
Do people from Kanto understand the Kansai dialect?

Word Note: *Kantō* 関東 is the region of Japan where Tokyo resides.

げんいん わ
21. その原因が分かりました。

Sono gen'in ga wakarimashita.

The cause has become known.

ぼく き も

22. 僕の気持ちをわかってくれ。

Boku no kimochi wo wakatte kure.

Understand my emotions!

Particle Note: The particle *wo を* is occasionally used instead of *ga が* with *wakaru 分かる* whenever it is used with contexts involving emotion. This usage is quite different as it does imply volition in the knowledge had about said emotion. This usage, though, is ungrammatical to many speakers, especially those of older generations. Properly, this meaning is carried about by the verb *rikai suru 理解する*, which is a transitive verb.

Grammar Note: The ending *-te kure てくれ* is a very strong means of commanding someone to do something.

- Ability: *Dekiru 出来る*

One of the meanings of the verb *dekiru 出来る* is “to be able to.” It is treated as the potential form of the verb *suru する* (to do). The potential form of verbs is not something we have discussed yet, and so we will only look at *dekiru 出来る* for now. As for *dekiru 出来る*, the object is always marked with *ga が*. For other potential verbs, including those that also incorporate *dekiru 出来る*, there is interchangeability between *ga が* and *wo を* to mark the object, which is delved into in Lesson 167.

にほんご でき

23. 日本語が出来ますか。

Nihongo ga dekimasu ka?

Can you speak Japanese?

かれ でき

24. 彼はテニスが出来ます。

Kare wa tenisu ga dekimasu.

He can play tennis?

わたし すこ しゅわ でき

25. 私は少し手話が出来ます。

Watashi wa sukoshi shuwa ga dekimasu.

I can speak a little sign language.

でき

26. どんなスポーツが出来ますか。

Don'na supōtsu ga dekimasu ka?

What kind of sports can you play?

Stative-Transitive Predicates of Subjective Emotions

- Internal Feeling

Broadly speaking, all stative-transitive predicates that relate to subjective emotion deal with one's internal feelings.

27. 妖怪が怖い！
Yōkai ga kowai!

Ghosts are scary!
I'm scared of ghosts.

28. 私が怖い？
Watashi ga kowai?
I'm scary?
Are you scared of me?

29. 「俺、クモが怖くないよ」「本当？僕は怖いけど。」
“Ore, kumo ga kowakunai yo.” “Hontō? Boku wa kowai kedo.”
“Me, I'm not afraid of spiders.” “Really? Well, I am.”

30. 私は怖い母親です。
Watashi wa kowai hahaoya desu.
I'm a 'scary' mother.

Grammar Note: In isolation, *X wa kowai Xは怖い* is grammatically ambiguous. It could be that there is a zero-pronoun, which would indicate that "X" is the subject and not the object of fear. "X" could also be the object of fear like in Ex. 30. Although *kowai* 怖い is modifying a noun, making *watashi* 私 function as the subject, *watashi* 私 still behaves as the object of fear of the mother's child(ren). In short, in isolation, *watashi wa kowai* 私は怖い can mean both "I'm scary" or "I'm afraid." Remember, the comment is what dictates the usage of *wa* は, and this can't be more true for this situation.

31. 僕は柿が待ち遠しい。
Boku wa kaki ga machidōshii.
I look forward to persimmons.

-
- Like/Dislike

The adjectival expressions *suki da* 好きだ and *kirai da* 嫌いだ respectively show personal like and dislike. They may be used to either express first person like/dislike or ask about second person like/dislike. However, there is a general principle in Japanese that one can

never definitively state the mindset in third person. In such a situation, a qualifier must be added to make clear that one isn't asserting absolute knowledge pertaining someone else's feelings (Ex. 34).

りょうり す
32. どんな料理が好きですか。
Don'na ryōri ga suki desu ka?
What kind of food do you like?

わたし かれ す
33. 私は彼が好きです。
Watashi wa kare ga suki desu.
I like him.

ねこ ぼく す
34. 猫はみんな僕が好きみたいですねえ。
Neko wa min'na boku ga suki mitai desu nē.
All cats seem to like me, don't they?

ひと いせい どうせい す りゆう なん
35. 人が【異性・同性】{が・を}好きになる理由は何ですか。
Hito ga [isei/dōsei] [ga/wo] suki ni naru riyū wa nan desu ka?
What are the reasons for why people like the [opposite sex/same sex]?

Particle Note: The particle *wo* を is occasionally seen instead of *ga* が with *suki da* 好きだ in casual speech, especially when doing so can prevent two *ga* が's in the same sentence. However, switching *ga* が for *wo* を like this is ungrammatical regardless of the circumstances to many speakers as Japanese grammar allows for such instances of the doubling of *ga* が as we've come to learn.

じょうし きら
36. 上司が嫌いです。
Jōshi ga kirai desu.
I hate my boss.

むすめ むすこ かれし きら
37. 【娘・息子】の彼氏が嫌いです。
[Musume/musuko] no kareshi ga kirai desu.
I hate my [daughter's/son's] boyfriend.

た もの なに きら
38. 食べ物は何が嫌いですか。
Tabemono wa nani ga kirai desu ka?
What foods do you hate?

わたし ひと きら りゆう なん
39. 私がすぐ人{が・を}嫌いになる理由は何だろう。
Watashi ga sugu hito [ga/wo] kirai ni naru riyū wa nan darō?
I wonder what the reasons are for why I end up hating people immediately?

Particle Note: Although not as common as with *suki da* 好きだ, some speakers will occasionally replace the particle *ga* が with *wo* を when using *kirai da* 嫌いだ; however, this is usually done to avoid the doubling of *ga* が. Nonetheless, this is still prescriptively incorrect as well as ungrammatical to most speakers.

- Want/Desire

The adjective *hoshii* 欲しい is used to show personal want/desire for something. It is not used to show third person want. This adjective is also not used to show personal want to do something. These grammar points will be discussed in Lesson 99.

40. 子供が欲しいです。
Kodomo ga hoshii desu.

I want a child/children.

41. 話し相手が欲しいです。
Hanashi aite ga hoshii desu.

I want someone to talk to.

42. 明確な返事がほしいです。
Meikaku na henji ga hoshii desu.

I want a clear response.

43. どちらがほしいですか。

Dochira ga hoshii desu ka?

Which one do you want?

- Competence

There are several phrases in Japanese for “to be good at” and “to be bad at.” How they mainly differ is to what degree they qualify someone and who the subject can be.

Good At

- *Jōzu da* 上手だ – This is used to express that someone is good at something.
- *Umai* うまい – This is used to express that someone is good at something.
- *Tokui da* 得意だ – This is used to express one’s forte or someone else’s forte.

Bad At

- *Nigate da* 苦手だ – Neutral way of expressing “bad at.”

- *Futokui da* 不得意だ – Neutral way of expressing that something is not one's forte.
- *Mazui* まづい - Subjective way of expressing "bad at."
- *Heta da* 下手だ – Often rude way of showing poor skill.
- *Hetakuso da* 下手くそだ – "Shitty."

For "bad at" phrases, they can all essentially be used to refer to oneself as well as others. When commenting about others, a word of caution must be had because they can all be taken the wrong way if the person in question hears your comment.

44. 日本語が (お) 上手ですね。
Nihongo ga (o-)jōzu desu ne.

Your Japanese is good.

Grammar Note: Adding o- お to *jōzu* 上手 makes it politer.

45. 私は料理が得意です。
Watashi wa ryōri ga tokui desu.
I'm good at cooking.

46. 運転がうまいですね。
Unten ga umai desu ne.
Wow, your driving is good.

47. 英語が苦手ですが、頑張ります。
Eigo ga nigate desu ga, gambarimasu.
I'm bad at English, but I'll try.

48. 僕は早起きが苦手です。
Boku wa hayaoki ga nigate desu.
I'm bad at waking up early.

49. 彼女はメイクが下手だ。
Kanojo wa meiku ga heta da.
She's bad at makeup.

50. あいつはどうも苦手だ。
Aitsu wa dōmo nigate da.
He's terribly hard to deal with.

Word Note: *Nigate da* 苦手だ may also express that one has difficulties dealing with someone.

まえ　じ　へ　た

51. お前は字が下手くそだな。

Omae wa ji ga hetakuso da na.

Your handwriting is shitty, you know.

Word Note: Omae お前 is another word for “you,” but it is used in coarse situations and should only be used with people you are incredibly familiar with like a childhood friend. This is used mainly by male speakers.

第22課: The Particle *Mo も*

Although this won't be the last time that you learn about the particle *mo も*, this lesson will introduce you to its most important usages.

The Adverbial Particle *Mo も*

The adverbial particle *mo も* follows nouns to mean "also/too." Similarly to what happens when these two English words are used heavily in conversation, the particle *mo も* often helps soften the tone of a sentence.

This particle must never be used immediately after the particles *ga ガ* or *wa は*. Whenever it is after a noun that functions as a subject and/or topic, these particles are thought of as simply not being spoken. Usually, the particle *mo も* is not used after the particle *wo も* either; however, you will see the combination "*wo mo をも*" in contexts such as older literature.

1. (お) 天気もいいですね。
O-tenki mo ii desu ne.

The weather's good, too.

2. 僕もお腹が空いた。
Boku mo onaka ga suita.

I too am hungry.

3. 東京も京都も雨です。
Tōkyō mo Kyōto mo ame desu.
There's rain in Tokyo and in Kyoto.

4. 成功も成功、大成功だ。
Seikō mo seikō, daiseikō da.
What a success, it was a great success.

Similarly to the contrastive *wa* は, the particle *mo* も may also emphasize sheer lack in negative sentences, or sheer intensity in positive sentences.

5. あのコンピューターは5万円もかからない。
Ano kompyūtā wa goman'en mo kakaranai.

That computer doesn't even cost 50,000 yen.

6. 一センチも動かない。
Issenchi mo ugokanai.
To not move even a centimeter.

7. 五時間も待った。
Gojikan mo matta.
I waited at least/about five hours.

Particle Note: In Ex. 7, *mo* も here implies perhaps a much longer wait, that is, you've already waited "at least five hours" and the wait has become unreasonable. This same logic can also explain Ex. 5. Here, it's implied that the cost of such a computer doesn't even exceed 50,000 yen. Since this equates roughly to \$500, we can imagine that any much higher than that would be an exuberant price without the quality of the PC being far higher than standard expectations. In both cases, *mo* も is seen after some counter phrase.

第23課: **Kosoado こそあど I: This & That: Kore/Kono これ・この, Sore/Sono それ・その, & Are/Ano あれ・あの**

In English, the words "this" and "that" are perhaps the most important words to refer to things, regardless of whether the things they refer to are physically present. No distinction is made between their uses as a noun (pronoun more specifically) or as an adjective.

- i. This is a beautiful house.
- ii. That is a very tall tree.
- iii. This song is amazing.
- iv. That blade is sharp.

In Japanese, "this" and "that" are not this simple. Instead, they both have a pronoun and an adjectival form. As you will see, though, this will not be the only thing to consider as you learn about what word to use and when.

Curriculum Note: Words like "this" and "that" fall under a category of words called demonstratives (*Shijishi* 指示詞). Demonstratives are pronoun/adjectival phrases that indicate which entities are being referred to and how. In Japanese, they are typically called *kosoado* こそあど because each syllable represents the syllables that can start these kinds of words.

This: **Kore** これ & **Kono** この

In Japanese there are two forms of the word “this”: *kore* これ and *kono* この. The first is its pronoun form and the second is its adjectival form.

- たまご
1. これは卵です。
Kore wa tamago desu.
This is the egg/these are eggs.

- つくえ　ふる
2. この机は古いです。
Kono tsukue wa furui desu.
This desk is old/these desks are old.

Grammar Note: As seen by these two examples, there is no distinct difference in Japanese between “this” and “these.” Although a distinction is possible, we will leave that for a later discussion.

There are two fundamentally different uses of the word “this.” You could be speaking about something physically present, or you could be speaking about a “this” in context.

When you are using “this” to refer to something that is physically close to you, you use *kore* これ or *kono* この depending on whether “this” is the subject or “this” is a part of the subject’s description respectively.

- なん
3. これは何ですか。
Kore wa nan desu ka?
What is this?

- まんねんひつ
4. これは万年筆です。
Kore wa man'nenhitsu desu.
This is a fountain pen.

- えいわじてん
5. これは英和辞典です。
Kore wa eiwa jiten desu.
This is an English-Japanese dictionary.

- あた　しづ
6.かつて、この辺りは静かなところでした。
Katsute, kono atari wa shizukana tokoro deshita.
This neighborhood was once a quiet place.

Spelling Note: *Katsute* means “once” and can alternatively be spelled as 話て.

ころ
7. このヘビを殺しました。

Kono hebi wo koroshimashita.
I killed this snake.

Spelling Note: The noun *hebi* meaning “snake” can alternatively be spelled as 蛇.

When a “this” in context is being spoken about, it is the speaker who holds the information and is referring to his own information with “this.” What we refer to as “this” tends to be important information. This dialogue about the word “this” itself is important to the author, it is one written by the author, and it is giving the reader information important to learning Japanese. As you can see, English and Japanese do not differ in this use of “this,” and no different words are needed to use this “this.”

じゅうよう
8. これは重要な手がかりです。

Kore wa jūyō na tegakari desu.
This is an important clue.

たいへん
9. これは大変です！

Kore wa taihen desu!
This is serious!

はなし ひみつ
10. この話は秘密ですよ。

Kono hanashi wa himitsu desu yo.
This conversation is a secret.

Particle Note: The particle *yo よ* at the end of this sentence adds emphasis to the importance of the predicate, which is “is a secret.”

That: **Sore それ & Sono その**

The words *sore それ* and *sono その* mean “that,” and the former is the pronoun form and the latter is the adjectival form.

11. それはオランウータンですよ。

Sore wa oran'utan desu yo.
That's an orangutan.

12. そのつもりはない。

Sono tsumori wa nai.
I don't have that intention.

13. そのアリはかわいいですね。

Sono ari wa kawaii desu ne.

This ant is cute, isn't it?
Those ants are cute, aren't they?

Particle Note: The particle *ne* ね at the end of this sentence seeks agreement from the listener.

Spelling Note: The noun *ari* means “ant” and can alternatively be spelled as 蟻.

As you can see, there is no important distinction between “that” and “those” in Japanese. Just as was the case with “this,” both *sore* それ and *sono* その can be used in reference to “that” which is in physical proximity and “that” in context. There is, however, a catch.

The “that” must be close to the listener when speaking about something in physical proximity.

14. それは何ですか。
Sore wa nan desu ka?
What is that?

Sentence Note: The “that” which the speaker is asking about is close to the listener but not to the speaker.

15. それはワニです。
Sore wa wani desu.
That is a crocodilian.

16. その教科書は安かったですか。
Sono kyōkasho wa yasukatta desu ka?
Was that textbook cheap?

Furthermore, the “that” must either be familiar to either the speaker or the listener but not both parties. It also works when you know something about the “that” but not everything about it.

17. その学生さんは誰ですか。
Sono gakusei-san wa dare desu ka?
Who is that student?

Sentence Note: This sentence would be used in context of the speaker mentioning the student and then asking the listener to tell him/her who that student actually is.

18. あ、その話を聞きました。
A, sono hanashi wo kikimashita.
Oh yeah, I heard about that.

Sentence Note: Even though both the speaker and listener know something about the conversation being referenced, only the listener would know the full story.

19. えー。それ、本当ですか？
ほんとう
Eh. Sore, hontō desu ka?

Eh? Is that true?

20. その日は曇りでした。
ひくも
Sono hi wa kumori deshita.
That day was cloudy.

Sentence Note: In this example, the speaker is informing the listener that the day in question was cloudy.

21. それは要りません。
い
Sore wa irimasen.
I don't need that/that's not necessary.

22. その何がいけないですか。
Sore no nani ga ikenai desu ka?
What is wrong with that?

Sentence Note: The use of *no の* after *sore* それ is not wrong. In this sentence, *sore no nani* その何 literally means "what of that." As such, whenever you are using "this" or "that" as the subject but are using it in a possessive manner, you cannot drop the /re/.

That (Over There): *Are あれ* & *Ano あの*

Japanese has two more phrases for "that," but they're not the same as those above. *Are あれ* and *ano あの* both refer to "that" which is neither close to the speaker nor to the listener. In context when the "that" is not present, the information regarding it is known fully well by all parties involved. If it's just oneself, it's "that" which one has an image of. Again, as was the case above, *are あれ* is the pronoun form and *ano あの* is the adjectival form.

23. あれはカフェテリアです。
Are wa cafeteria desu.
That over there is a cafeteria.

たてもの ぎじどう
24. あの建物は議事堂です。
Ano tatemono wa gijidō desu.
That building is The National Diet.

Culture Note: The National Diet is the parliament house of Japanese government. The

word *gijidō* 議事堂 can in principle refer to other country's legislative branch building, but context would be needed to clarify.

ねこ　す
25. 私もあの猫が好きです。

Watashi mo ano neko ga suki desu.

I too like that cat.

Sentence Note: The cat in question may be physically in sight but away from the speaker or listener, or it may be a cat that both the speaker and listener personally know but is not in sight.

なん　こいのぼり
26. 「あれは何ですか。」 「鯉幟です。」
“Are wa nan desu ka?” “Koinobori desu.”
“What is that?” “It's a koinobori”.

Culture Note: A *koinobori* 鯉幟 is a giant paper carp flown atop poles next to houses that are celebrating Children's Day on May 5th with male children.

Sentence Note: The *koinobori* would be positioned away from both the speaker and the listener.

おい
27. あのレストラン、美味しいかったなあ。
Ano resutoran, oishikatta nā.
Aah, that restaurant was delicious.

Particle Note: The particle *nā* なあ is used to give a heightened sense of appreciation and yearning for the restaurant's food.

たし　た
28. 確かにあれを食べたね。
Tashika ni are wo tabeta ne.
I definitely ate that, right?

Sentence Note: Even when you forget a certain detail, you still use these forms of “that” because you are simply conjuring up knowledge that had already been established between you and the listener.

***Korya* こりや, *Sorya* そりや, & *Arya* ありや**

In more casual speech, the particle *wa* は contracts with the pronoun forms of the words for “this” and “that (over there).”

Standard Speech	Casual Speech	Dialect/When Angry/Other
<i>Kore wa</i> これは	<i>Korya</i> こりや	<i>Kora</i> こら

Sore wa それは	Sorya そりや	Sora そら
Are wa あれは	Arya ありや	Ara あら

These casual forms can be used in rather coarse yet informal situations. The latter column, however, is trickier. *Kora* こら is either used to mean “hey!” when angry, or it’s the same as *kore wa* これは in other dialects. *Sora* そら is either used to mean “look!” in which case it’s interchangeable with *hora* ほら, or it’s the same as *sore wa* それは. *Ara* あら is used to mean “oh?” in female speech. The gender neutral way of saying “oh?” happens to be *are* あれ.

29. なん
何だ、 {こりや・こら} !

Nan da, [korya/kora].

What the heck (is this/going on)!

Sentence Note: This example shows that the casual forms are just as capable of being used when one is angry as is the case for *kora* こら and *sora* そら. This sentence also shows that given the enhanced angry tone of the statement, you find *korya/kora* こりや・こら inverted to the end of the sentence.

30. そら、おもしろい。

Sora, omoroi.

That’s interesting.

Dialect Note: In Kansai dialects, which are well known for being spoken in West Japan in places like Ōsaka 大阪, the adjective *omoshiroi* 面白い (interesting) it’s contracted to *omoroi* おもしろい.

31. ありや、大変だったねえ。

Arya, taihen datta ne.

That was difficult, huh.

Particle Note: *Nē* ねえ is the same as *ne* ね but with a trailing pronunciation that gives a tone of relief/consolation.

32. あら、その音、聞こえた？ (Feminine)

Ara, sono oto, kikoeta?

Oh? Did you hear that sound?

第24課: *Kosoado* こそあど II: Here & There: *Koko* ここ, *Soko* そこ, & *Asoko* あそこ

In this lesson, we will learn about the *kosoado* こそあど words that describe location/situation. The dynamics involved as for which to use are exactly the same as they were for “this” and “that.”

Here: *Koko* ここ

Word of warning, this word does NOT mean cocoa as in cocoa puffs. As tempting as that might sound, it is most certainly the word for “here.” *Koko* ここ refers to a location/situation that is in close proximity/association with the speaker and listener(s).

- きょうしつ
1. ここは教室です。
Koko wa kyōshitsu desu.
Here is a/the classroom.

- かまた
2. ここは蒲田です。
Koko wa Kamata desu.
This is Kamata.

Sentence Note: Sometimes in English, “this” is used instead of “here” for the same purpose. However, in Japanese, *koko* ここ remains the word of choice.

Location Note: *Kamata* 蒲田 is a neighborhood in Ōta Ward (Ōta-ku 大田区) of Tokyo, Japan.

- あじ
3. こここのラーメンは味がうまいです。
Koko no rāmen wa aji ga umai desu.
The ramen here has a delicious taste.

Grammar Note: There are no unique changes to *kosoado* こそあど for location to make them adjectival. All you do is add the particle *no* の after.

Phrase Note: *Umai* うまい is another way of saying “delicious.” However, the word is not as polite or refined as *oishii* 美味しい. This is because the latter originated from refined feminine speech which eventually became widely used by sex and ages. Although this is the case, *umai* うまい can still be used in casual yet polite speech as is shown in this example.

- ごたんだえき へん
4. 五反田駅はここら辺でしたよね。
Gotanda-eki wa kokorahen deshita yo ne?
Gotanda Station was around here, wasn't it?

Particle Note: The particles *yo よ* and *ne ね* are used together at the end of the sentence to express direct seeking of confirmation from the listener.

Tense Note: The use of the past tense here is not literal. Instead, it is used in part to seek confirmation, just as is the case in the English translation.

Suffix Note: The suffix *-rahen* ら辺 may be added to any of the *kosoado* こそあと phrases mentioned in this lesson to add the nuance “about.”

There: **Soko** そこ

The word for “there” in Japanese is *soko* そこ. It is “there” as in a location in close proximity to the listener. When neither speaker nor listener is talking about a place in proximity, then the place indicated by *soko* そこ is one that just one party is fully aware of. Conversely, *soko* そこ is a situation that both listener and speaker are aware of, but the degree to which they are involved will likely not be equal.

5. そこは階段です。
かいだん
Soko wa kaidan desu.

There is a/the staircase there.

6. そこはどこですか。
Soko wa doko desu ka?
Where is that?

Sentence Note: In this example, it is English that is odd. Instead of referring to “there” with “there,” the word “that” is used. However, this is a problem with English and not Japanese, as this example demonstrates.

7. そこが 難しいところですね。
むづか
Soko ga muzukashii tokoro desu ne.
Yeah, that's the difficult part.

Sentence Note: In this example, both the speaker and listener may be heavily involved in whatever is going on. However, it is the listener who must have mentioned how something about it was terribly difficult, and it is the speaker who is simply responding. The tone indicated by *ne* ね in this sentence indicates that the speaker must be less emotionally taxed than the listener. Thus, some distance is to be had in the mind of the speaker.

8. そちら辺に置いてください。
へん お
Sokorahen ni oite kudasai.
Please place it around there.

9. そこまで言う必要はない。
い ひつよう
Soko made iu hitsuyo wa nai.
There's no need to go (talk) that far.

Sentence Note: *Soko made* そこまで means “to that extent/go that far.” This is a perfect example of how “there” doesn’t necessarily have to literally mean “there” but can also mean “that (part/extent/situation).”

ねえ さいふ お
10. そこのお姉さん、あの、財布を落としましたよ。

Soko no onē-san, ano, saifu wo otoshimashita yo.

Miss, um, you dropped your wallet.

Sentence Note: In English, no word indicating the physical proximity of the lady is needed, but in Japanese, it aids in grabbing the lady’s attention. This sentence also demonstrates how the word *ano* あの may be used as an interjection meaning “um.”

(Over) There: *Asoko* あそこ

In a physical sense, *asoko* あそこ refers to a place away from both the speaker and the listener. When said place, however, is out of eyesight and is being referred to in context, then the place must be known by all parties in the conversation. Of course, this is assumed in natural discourse. Similarly to *soko* そこ, *asoko* あそこ may also refer to a situation that is known by both the speaker and listener, but as for *asoko* あそこ, the situation is of a severe degree.

じむしつ
11. あそこは事務室です。

Asoko wa jimushitsu desu.

Over there is the office.

きよこ かばん
12. 清子さんの鞄はあそこにあります。

Kiyoko-san no kaban wa asoko ni arimasu.

Ms. Kiyoko’s bag is over there.

む ふくおかし
13. あそここの向こうは福岡市ですね。

Asoko no mukō wa Fukuoka-shi desu ne.

Beyond there/on the opposite side of there is Fukuoka City, right?

まわ き
14. あそこのお巡りさんに聞いてください。

Asoko no omawari-san ni kiite kudasai.

Please ask that police officer over there.

Phrase Note: Although the word for police officer is *kei(satsu)kan* 警 (察) 官, policemen are generally referred to as *omawari-san* お巡りさん.

かのじょ へん す
15. 彼女もあそこら辺に住んでいます。

Kanojo mo asokorahen ni sunde imasu.

She too lives around there.

ぎんこう
16. 「銀行はどこですか。」 「あそこでです。」

"Ginkō wa doko desu ka?" "Asoko desu."

Where is the bank?

どうぶつえん
17. あそこに動物園があります。

Asoko ni dōbutsuen ga arimasu.

There is a zoo over there.

わたし かぞく
18. 私もあそこに家族がいます。

Watashi mo asoko ni kazoku ga imasu.

I too have family there.

しょうがっこう
19. そこに小学校があります。

Soko ni shōgakkō ga arimasu.

There is an elementary school there.

いた
20. あそこが痛いです。

Asoko ga itai desu.

My private area hurts.

Phrase Note: *Asoko* あそこ may also be used to euphemistically refer to one's private parts.

第25課: Daily Expressions I

There are many expressions that native speakers of a language use on a constant basis. In the English-speaking world, it would be hard, for instance, to go a day without telling someone "hello." This lesson will introduce you to many such phrases in Japanese.

Many of the phrases of this lesson are used in greetings (*aisatsu* 挨拶). These phrases are especially important to Japanese culture. As we've seen, Japanese places a lot of stress in how one addresses others. This will be very true for the phrases introduced in this lesson. Dialectical differences will also be of importance. Because speech styles and dialects bring about a lot of grammar that you haven't encountered, the purpose for this lesson will be simply to learn the set phrases explicitly introduced.

Greetings of the Day: *Hibi no Aisatsu* 日々の挨拶

To begin, we'll learn about the greeting phrases for morning, afternoon, and evening. There will be variation depending on dialect and speech style, but try not to stress over the

variation too much.

Grammar Note: You will notice the prefix *o/go-* お・ご in front of many phrases discussed in this lesson. This prefix is an honorific marker which helps make what it attaches to be more respectful. Much later on, we will learn how to use this constructively.

Good Morning

"Good morning" is expressed with the adjective for early, *hayai* 早い, in its traditional honorific form *o-hayō gozaimasu* お早うございます. In casual situations, this is shortened to *o-hayō* お早う. Note that the pronunciation of *o-hayō* お早う is not the same as the state of Ohio. In Japanese, the latter would be rendered as *Ohaio(-shū)* オハイオ (州). Do not mishear /io/ as /yo/ as they are not the same.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is おはようございます.

せんせい はよ
1. 先生、お早うございます。

Sensei, *o-hayō gozaimasu*.
Good morning, teacher.

けんじくん はよ げんき
2. よー、健二君！お早う！元気？

Yō, Kenji-kun! *O-hayō!* Genki?
Hey, Kenji-kun! Morning! How are ya?

For those who live in the Kinki Region (*Kinki Chihō* 近畿地方) where Kansai Dialects (*Kansai-ben* 関西弁) are spoken, you will frequently hear people use *o-hayō-san* お早うさん instead.

げんき いち に て て ふ
3. 元気に一、二おはようさん！お手手を振っておはようさん！

Genki ni ichi, ni *o-hayō-san!* *O-tete wo futte o-hayō-san!*
Now a lively good morning in one, two! Wave your hands good morning!

Sentence Note: This example comes from a well-known children's song, *bōkaru shoppu* ボーカル・ショップ.

There are also two casual variants of "good morning" that would be wise to remember as well. The first is *ohayōn* おはよーん, which adds a little cutesy flare to the greeting. Another variant is *osoyō* おそよう, which is a portmanteau of *osoi* 遅い and *ohayō* おはよう. Unsurprisingly, this is used in a sarcastic manner towards friends that have woken up far later than they should have.

Hello/Good Afternoon

“Hello” is associated with the phrase *kon'nichi wa* こんにちは (alternatively written as 今日は). In face-to-face encounters, it is used primarily in the afternoon. This is why it is closer to the English expression “good afternoon.” However, when the time of day is not relevant or ascertainable, especially in situations online, it is used just like “hello.” The reason why the particle *wa* は is used is because at one time, Japanese people used to greet each other by first making a comment about the day’s weather. Though this still happens, this phrase can still stand alone regardless whether a complete sentence is made of it.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is こんにちは↓.

4. すみません、こんにちは！

Sumimsen, kon'nichi wa!

Excuse me. Hello!

5. こんにちは、ご返事ありがとうございます。
へんじ

Kon'nichi wa, go-henji arigatō gozaimasu.

Hello, thank you for replying.

6. こんにちは、最新のニュースをお伝えします。
さいしん

Kon'nichi wa, saishin no nyūsu wo o-tsutae shimasu.

Good afternoon, here's the latest news.

Okinawan Hello

For those of you who may be stationed in Okinawa, you may also be familiar with the expressions *haisai* はいさい (men) and *haitai* はいたい (for women). However, it is important to treat these words as belonging to a separate language, Okinawan, that have managed to stick around in the daily lives of Japanese speakers in Okinawa (almost all of whom share cultural affinity as Okinawans). Who one should and shouldn't use these expressions also depends on where you are in Okinawa. Therefore, if you are in Okinawa, finding out who you can say these expressions to may open many more conversations to become familiarized with the local culture.

Casual Hello

In many circles, “hello” is often expressed with *chiwassu* ちわっす. This is only used with people who you are close to where there isn’t emphasis on social order.

Similarly to how English speakers jokingly use “howdy,” Japanese speakers sometimes use *koncha(ssu)* こんちゃ (っす) . However, this gets most currency on Internet forums. The added *ssu* っす comes from *desu* です.

Another well-known casual way to say “hello” is *ossu* おっす or *ussu* うっす. These phrases are used a lot by guys as well as among team sport players, to name just a few instances

where this is frequently used. Both variants come from abbreviating *ohayō* おはよう. In response, one responds with *ossu(ssu)* おっす (っす) or *ussu(ssu)* うっす (っす). The added *ssu* っす comes from *desu* です.

Similarly, Japanese people have also had a custom of making a comment about the evening whenever they would meet past daylight hours. This has brought about the phrase *komban wa* 今晚は, which translates as “good evening.” The time of day when you switch from *kon'nichi wa* こんにちは and *komban wa* 今晚は is mostly determined by whether the sun is still out. If it is still bright outside, you use the former. If it is already darkening outside, you use the latter.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is こんばんは↓.

こんばん
7. 今晚は、ニュース 7 です。
セブン

Komban wa, nyūsu se bun desu.
Good evening, this is News 7.

つき
8. お月さん、今晚は。
こんばん
O-tsuki-san, komban wa.
Good evening, moon.

こんばん
ねこ
かわい
9. 今晚は、猫ちゃん。可愛いね。
Komban wa, neko-chan. Kawaii ne.
Good evening, kitty. Aren't you cute?

Dialect Notes:

1. In traditional Kyoto Dialect (*Kyōto-ben* 京都弁), “good evening” is expressed with the phrase *oshimaiyasu* おしまいやす, which is still used by those who wish to preserve the beauty of the local dialect.
2. In various parts of Western Japan, you'll hear *banjimashite* 晩じまして used instead.
3. In various parts of Northeastern Japan (*Tōhoku Chihō* 東北地方) as well as Hokkaido (*Hokkaidō* 北海道), you may also hear *o-bankata* お晩方 and/or *o-ban desu* お晩です。

Casual Speech Note: Casually, “good evening” can be expressed with *kombancha* こんばんちや, but this usually only gets currency online, where it may alternatively be further shortened and then spelled as *bancha* 番茶, which means “coarse tea” if taken literally.

Good Night

To say “good night,” you use the phrase *o-yasumi-nasai* お休みなさい. Literally, this means

"please go rest," but it is still used whenever you are parting with someone at night. This phrase is also appropriate in figurative uses like the English phrase "may you rest" when at a funeral. Meaning, this phrase is very multi-faceted. In casual speech where it would simply be used to mean "good night," it can be shortened to *o-yasumi* お休み.

Also, whenever you wish to be exceptionally formal in saying "good night," there is also the longer variant *o-yasumi-nasaimase* お休みなさいませ. Additionally, instead of *nasai* なさい, *kudasai* ください may be used instead, creating *o-yasumi-kudasai(mase)* お休み下さい (ませ). Lastly, it's important to note that it doesn't have to be nighttime to tell someone "good night" as the verb used in these expressions literally means "to rest."

Intonation Notes:

1. おやすみなさい.
2. おやすみください.

10. 松井さん、お休みなさい。
Matsui-san, *o-yasumi-nasai*.
Good night, Matsui-san.

11. 夜はぐっすりとお休みください。
Yoru wa *gussuri to o-yasumi-kudasai*.
Please sleep tight at night.

Culture Note: When you have already greeted someone once in the day, it is customary to simply give a small bow. This is called an *eshaku* 会釈.

Farewell: *Wakare no Kotoba* 別れの言葉

Sayōnara さようなら

There are many expressions for "see your later" and "farewell" in Japanese. The most well-known expression to the Western world is *sayōnara* さようなら, which is a shortening of *sayō-naraba* 左様ならば, which literally means "if that's so." Its non-abbreviated form only lives on in purposely old-fashioned samurai-mimicking speech, but *sayōnara* さようなら nonetheless remains an important expression today.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is さようなら.

Sayōnara さようなら is a very formal expression. It is used by students at school to their

instructors at the end of each day from elementary school to high school. Outside school, it is usually perceived as a literal “farewell,” thus making its use rather rare. It may sometimes be seen shortened as *sayonara* さよなら and used as such in expressions like *sayonara pātii* さよならパーティー (farewell party). It may also be seen in some dialects as *sainara* さいなら, in which case it can be more broadly used to mean “bye.”

12.

にっちょく かえ あいさつ
日直 「帰りの挨拶をしましょう」

ぜんいん せんせい みな
全員 「先生、さようなら！皆さん、さようなら！車に気を付けて帰ります」

Nitchoku “Kaeri no aisatsu wo shimashō”

Zen'in “Sensei, sayōnara! Mina-san, sayōnara! Kuruma ni ki wo tsukete kaerimasu”

Kid on Duty: Let's give our going-home salutations.

Everyone: Goodbye, teacher! Goodbye, everyone! I'll watch out for cars as I go home.

13.

にっちょく れい
日直 「礼、さようなら！」

ぜんいん
全員 「さようなら！」

Nitchoku “Rei, sayōnara!”

Zen'in “Sayōnara!”

Kid on Duty: Bow and goodbye!

Everyone: Goodbye!

14. さよならパーティーをしました。

Sayonara pātii wo shimashita.

We had a farewell party.

A Simple Goodbye

In the realm of casual conversation, friends say “goodbye” to each other with all sorts of phrases based off certain key words like *mata* また (again), *ato de* 後で (later), *ashita* 明日 (tomorrow) and *raishū* 来週 (next week).

See you later, k?	(Ja,) <i>mata [ne/na]!</i> (じゃ、) また {ね・な} !
Later!	<i>Ja(a) [ne/na]!</i> じゃ (あ) {ね・な} !
Bye-bye!	<i>Baibai!</i> バイバイ !
See you tomorrow!	<i>Mata ashita (ne)</i> また明日 (ね)
See you next week!	<i>Mata raishū (ne)</i> また来週 (ね)

Well... + ↑

(Sore) [de wa/ja(a)] (それ) {では・じゃ (あ)}

Variation Note: The particle *ne* ね is often switched out for *na* な by male speakers.

15. (それ) ジゃあ、^{らいしゅう}また来週！

(Sore) jā, mata raishū!

Well, see you next week!

16. 寛ちゃん、バイバイ！

Kan-chan, baibai!

Bye-bye, Kan-chan!

17. もちろん行きますよ。それじゃ、また！

Mochiron ikimasu yo. Sore ja, mata!

Of course I'm going. Well, see you!

きょう ほんとう たの あした
18. やあ、今日は本当に楽しかった！みんなありがとう、また明日ね！

Yā, kyō wa hontō ni tanoshikatta! Min'na arigatō, mata ashita ne!

Wow, today was really fun! Thanks, everyone; see you all tomorrow!

Of course, there are plenty other variants that you may encounter wherever you might be in Japan. These expressions, though, don't cover what adults would use in the realm of polite/formal interactions.

Leaving the Office

When leaving before one's coworkers and boss, you will need to say *o-saki ni shitsurei shimasu* お先に失礼します. This can be translated as "Forgive me for leaving first." When leaving coworkers at the same time, *o-tsukare-sama desu* お疲れ様です is used. It may also be shortened to *o-tsukare-sama* お疲れ様, *o-tsukare* お疲れ, or even be seen as *o-tsukare-san* お疲れさん depending on how casual and cordial you are with your coworkers.

As *o-tsukare-sama desu* お疲れ様です, it's also used by those who greet those who've just come from a hard day at work. It's also frequently used at the start of business e-mails, recognizing the addressee's involvement in a matter. Alternatively, *o-tsukare-sama deshita* お疲れ様でした adds a sense of gratitude for that person's work, but it mustn't be used if you think that coworker isn't actually leaving just yet.

19.

やましたさま
山下様

つかさま まるまるかぶしきがいしゃ かねだりょうた
お疲れ様です。〇〇株式会社の金田亮太です。

Yamashita-sama

O-tsukare-sama desu. Maru-maru-kabushikigaisha no Kaneda Ryōta desu.

Mr. Yamashita

First, let me thank you for your work. I am Ryota Kaneda from ## Incorporated.

お みな つかさま
20. これで終わりにしましょう。皆さん、お疲れ様でした。

Kore de owari ni shimasho. Mina-san, o-tsukare-sama deshita.

Let's end here. Thank you for your hard work, everyone.

In addition to this, there is also the phrase *go-kurō-sama desu* ご苦労様です, alternatively as *go-kurō-san desu* ご苦労さんです, used by superiors to their underlings. Depending on how they view their relationship with you, this may be shortened to *go-kurō-sama* ご苦労様 or even just *go-kurō* ご苦労.

がんば くろう
21. よく頑張った、ご苦労さん！ (Boss Talk)

Yoku gambatta, go-kurō-san!

You worked hard. Thanks for your work!

Typically, when parting with someone you should show respect to, you use *shitsurei shimasu* 失礼します when leaving them. For instance, say you're a student that went to your teacher's office hours, you'd part with him/her by saying this. When leaving somewhere in a hurry but feeling still inclined to give respect to whomever may have been of service to you, you may also hear people say *dōmo* どうも.

しゃいん ほか しごと
22. 社員「他に仕事はありませんか。」

じょうし きょう だいじょうぶ
上司「いや、今日は大丈夫です。」

しゃいん さき しつれい
社員「わかりました。では、お先に失礼します。」

じょうし つか
上司「はい、お疲れ。」

Shain "Hoka ni shigoto wa arimasen ka?"

Jōshi "Iya, kyō wa daijōbu desu."

Shain "Wakarimashita. De wa, o-saki ni shitsurei shimasu."

Jōshi "Hai, o-tsukare."

Employee: Is there anything else to do?

Boss: No, we're good for today.

Employee: Understood. In which case, do pardon me for leaving first."

Boss: That's fine. Good work.

Saraba さらば

One last expression we'll go over that means "farewell" is *saraba* さらば. This is a contraction of an archaic expression meaning "if that's so." Nowadays, this phrase is old-fashioned or adds some sense of affection to the situation, which can be interpreted in various ways depending on what/who one is departing with. It is mainly used by men.

みらい
23. さらば、未来。

Saraba, mirai.
Farewell, future.

24. (お) さらばだ。
O-saraba da.
Farewell.

Sentence Note: *O-* お may be added with no change to meaning. It just makes the phrase have better cadence.

25. さらばじゃ。
Saraba ja.
Farewell.

Sentence Note: Ex. 21 would be indicative of an elderly man.

はこだて
26. さらば、函館よ。
Saraba, Hakodate yo.
Farewell, Hakodate.

Leaving & Returning

Whenever you leave somewhere, it's important to say *itte kimasu* 行ってきます or some variant of it.

Plain Speech	Polite Speech	Humble Speech
<i>Itte kuru</i> 行ってくる	<i>Itte kimasu</i> 行ってきます	<i>Itte mairimasu</i> 行ってまいります

These phrases literally mean that one is going but coming right back. If seen in the past tense, it implies that you went to go do something but have since returned.

いま えいかいわ い
27. 今から英会話に行ってきます。
Ima kara eikaiwa ni itte kimasu.
I'm heading to English conversation now (and will be back).

28. ちょっと行ってくるね。

Chotto itte kuru ne.

I'm going to be out for a bit, okay?

29. それでは夢の世界へ行って参ります。
ゆめ せかい い まい

Sore de wa, yume no sekai e itte mairimasu.

Well now, I will be heading to a/the world of dreams!

30. ロンドンに行って参ります。
い まい

Rondon ni itte mairimasu.

I'm going to London (and will be back).

31. 社員旅行で沖縄に行ってきました！
しゃいんりょこう おきなわ い

Shain ryokō de Okinawa ni itte kimashita!

I went on a company trip to Okinawa.

32. 全員で院外研修に行ってまいりました。
ぜんいん いんがいけんしゅう い

Zen'in de ingai kenshu ni itte mairimashita.

We all went together to an outside training.

Going Out to Do...

The above grammar can be extended by replacing the verb *iku* 行く (to go) with any activity verb.

33. じゃ、薬を買ってきます。
くすり か

Ja, kusuri wo katte kimasu.

Well then, I'll go buy medicine (and be right back)

34. 戻ってくるから、安心してね。
もど あんしん

Modotte kuru kara, anshin shite ne.

I'll be right back, so relax.

35. ミュウツーをゲットしてきました。

Myūtsū wo getto shite kimashita.

I've come back having caught Mewtwo.

In response to someone leaving for somewhere, those present customarily say *itte rasshai* 行ってらっしゃい, literally meaning “go and come back.” In more formal situations, *o-ki wo tsukete (itte rasshaimase)* お気をつけて (行ってらっしゃいませ) is used instead. This literally means “please be careful and come back).

36. はい、行ってらっしゃい。
い

Hai, itte rasshai.

Well then, be back safely.

37. それでは、お気をつけて（行ってらっしゃいませ）。

Sore de wa, o-ki wo tsukete (itte rasshaimase).

Well then, please be careful and get back safely.

When returning to the office or any other place, you'll use phrases like the following depending on how formal you need to be.

38. ただいま戻りました。

Tadaima modorimashita.

I've arrived just now.

Sentence Note: Ex. 36 would be especially appropriate when returning to the office.

39. 戻ってきたよ。

Modotte kita yo.

I'm back.

40. もう会社に戻ってますよ。

Mō kaisha ni modottemasu yo.

I'm already back at work (company).

Returning Home

When returning home to your family, it is customary to say *tadaima* ただいま, which literally means "now," emphasizing that you're at home at last. Those present say *o-kaeri(-nasai)* お帰りなさい. The addition of *-nasai* なさい depends on the dynamics in the home. Wives often use this to their husbands, but if children are taught to speak formally to their parents as a sign of class, they too will not abbreviate the phrase. Those not in the immediate family but happen to be present will also choose to say the full *o-kaeri-nasai* お帰りなさい.

41.

だんな
旦那：ただいま！

つま かえ
妻：お帰り（なさい）。

Dan'na: Tadaima!

Tsuma: O-kaeri(-nasai).

Husband: I'm home!

Wife: Welcome back.

Welcome: *Kangei no Kotoba* 歓迎の言葉

The basic word for “welcome” in Japanese is *yōkoso* ようこそ. It can either go at the start or the end of a sentence. When at the beginning, the grammar of the sentence must be inverted. As you'll notice in the examples below, *yōkoso* ようこそ can be used with both the particles *e* へ and *ni* に when it is placed at the end of the sentence.

The use of *e* へ implies a sense of adventure and/or having gone a long way to get to said point. This sense of being welcomed to a new place is heightened with the sentence is inverted to let *yōkoso* ようこそ be at the front, and in this situation, the place in question can only be marked by *e* へ.

42. ようこそ、地獄へ。
Yōkoso, *jigoku e*.

Welcome to hell.

43. ようこそ、日本へ！
Yōkoso, *Nippon e*.

Welcome to Japan.

44. スイス {へ・に} ようこそ。

Suisu [ni/e] yōkoso.

Welcome to Switzerland.

45. この世界へようこそ。
Kono sekai e yōkoso.

Welcome to this world.

46. ようこそWindows 10へ。
Yōkoso *Uindouzu ten e*.

Welcome to Windows 10.

There are also more phrases for “welcome” that you'll hear, some that either do or don't incorporate *yōkoso* ようこそ somehow, but their purpose will always be apparent.

47. ほんじつ い こ 本日はようこそ {お出で・お越し} くださいました。

Honjitsu wa yōkoso [o-ide/o-koshi] kudasaimashita.

Thank you for coming today.

48. {ようこそ・よく} (日本に) いらっしゃいました。

[*Yōkoso/yoku*] (*Nihon ni*) irasshaimashita.

Thank you for coming (to Japan)!

49. いらっしゃいませ！

Irasshaimase!

Welcome!

Sentence Note: You'll hear this when entering many restaurants.

50. よう、いらっしゃい！

Yō, irasshai!

Welcome!

Sentence Note: Ex. 50 is more familial than Ex. 49.

第??課: Yes Phrases: *Hai* はい, *Hā* はあ, *Ē* ええ, & *Un* うん

Way back in Lesson 7, we learned briefly that the words for “yes” and “no” were *hai* はい and *iie* いいえ respectively. However, it couldn’t be further from the truth that this is all you need to know to use these two words correctly, or even to express “yes” and “no” correctly in every circumstance. These words, aside from being literal replies to yes-no questions, can also be used as *aizuchi* 相槌 in back-channeling, where one interjects to indicate that one is paying attention.

Incidentally, a lot can be said about both the words for “yes” and about the words for “no.” Meaning, there are several ways to go about saying both, and each word brings along with it usages that you may not necessarily think of as an English speaker. In this lesson, we will focus solely on the words that translate as “yes.”

- *Hai* はい
- *Hā* はあ
- *Ē* ええ
- *Un* うん

Curriculum Note: Because these words, at times, require context to be understood, there will be some grammar used that has not been formally introduced. At those points, simply focus on understanding the yes-phrase at hand.

The Usages of *Hai* はい • *Hā* はあ

1. The most fundamental usage of *hai* はい is meaning "yes" in **answering “yes-no” questions.**

1. 「はい」を押してください。

“Hai” wo oshite kudasai.

Please press “Yes.”

2.

エイ し あした か もの い
A 氏：明日、買い物に行きますか。

ビー し か もの い
B 氏：はい（、コストコに買い物（し）に行きます）。

Ei-shi: Ashita, kaimono ni ikimasu ka?

Bii-shi: Hai(, Kosutoko ni kaimono (shi) ni ikimasu).

Person A: Are you going to go shopping tomorrow?

Person B: Yes(, I'm going to go shop at Costco).

Although simply saying *hai* はい could suffice in answering a yes-no question, explicitly stating an answer is often needed because this isn't the only function *hai* はい has. Tone, for one, is very important. If one's tone doesn't convey affirmation, then *hai* はい won't likely be interpreted as a simple "yes." Also, if you are speaking to a superior/client where giving a succinct answer is expected, just answering with *hai* はい would be inappropriate. The same could be said in the English-speaking business world if one were to continuously say "yes" without providing anything substantive.

2. *Hai* はい also shows **confirmation**, which is in and of itself an offshoot of above. If the question is in the affirmative, *hai* はい confirms the affirmative. However, if it the question is in the negative, *hai* はい confirms the negative. This is unlike English where the latter situation would be answered with "no."

3.

エイ し ことし にじゅうよんさい
A 氏：今年セスは 24 歳になりますね。

ビー し
B 氏：はい（、そうですね）。

Ei-shi: Kotoshi Sesu wa nijūyonsai ni narimasu ne.

Bii-shi: Hai(, sō desu ne).

Person A: Seth turns 24 this year, right?

Person B: Yes(, that's right).

Phrase Note: *Sō desu ne* そうですね and its variants can often be treated as beings synonymous to "yes" and do not need to be used with a yes-word to be used as such. This is no different than the English expression "that's right."

4.

エイ し あ す きょうと い
A 氏：明日、京都へ行かないんですか。

ビー し い たぶんことし い おも
B 氏：はい、行けませんね。多分今年は行かないと思います。
Ei-shi: Asu, Kyōto e ikanai n desu ka?

Bii-shi: *Hai, ikimasen ne. Tabun kotoshi wa ikanai to omoimasu.*

Person A: Are you not going to Kyoto tomorrow?

Person B: No, I'm not. I probably won't go this year.

5.

さちこ やす
紗智子：休むんですか。

やすひこ きゅう ようじ
泰彦：はい、ちょっと急な用事がありまして。

Sachiko: *Yasumu n desu ka?*

Yasuhiko: Hai, chotto kyū na yoji ga arimashite.

Sachiko: Are you taking the day off?

Yasuhiko: Yes, I have an urgent thing to attend to.

6.

どうりょうエイ い
同僚 A：行かないんですか。

どうりょうビー い
同僚 B：はい、行けません。

Dōryō Ei: *Ikanai n desu ka?"*

Dōryō Bii: *Hai, ikimasen.*

Colleague A: Are you not going?

Colleague B: No, I'm not going.

3. *Hai* はい may also show agreement to a request, in which case it is accompanied with an affirmative tone. This can also be viewed as an offshoot of answering to a yes-no question, only with "no" not being an option.

7.

かちょう つじ てんそう
課長：このファイルを辻さんに転送してください。

しゃいん しょうち
社員：はい（承知しました）。

Kachō: Kono fairu wo Tsuji-san ni tensō shite kudasai.

Shain: Hai(, shōchi shimashita).

Section Manager: Please forward these files to Tsuji-san.

Employee: Yes(, understood).

8. はい、わかりました。

Hai, wakarimashita.

Understood.

Phrase Note: The phrases for "understood" are listed below in order of how polite/humble

they are.

Most Humble	<i>Kashikomarimashita</i> 畏まりました
Very Humble	<i>Shōchi itashimashita</i> 承知いたしました
Humble	<i>Shōchi shimashita</i> 承知しました
Polite (To those equal or below oneself)	<i>Ryōkai shimashita</i> 了解しました
Polite (General-Use)	<i>Wakarimashita</i> わかりました
Polite (To equals)	<i>Ryōkai desu</i> 了解です
Casual	<i>Wakatta</i> わかった・ <i>Ryōkai</i> 了解

4. *Hai* はい is the go-to phrase when responding to someone calling (for) you, both in person and on the phone.

9.

ふじた かねこ
藤田：金子さん。

かねこ
金子：はい。

ふじた き
藤田：こちらに来てもらっていいですか。

かねこ なに
金子：はい、何ですか。

Fujita: Kaneko-san.

Kaneko: *Hai*.

Fujita: *Kochira ni kite moratte ii desu ka?*

Fujita: Kaneko-san.

Kaneko: Yes.

Fujita: Could you please come here?

10.

ははおや でんわ
母親：もしもし。 (電話)

むすめ かあ
娘：はい。あ、お母さん！

Hahaoya: *Moshimoshi. (Denwa)*

Musume: *Hai. A, o-kā-san!*

Mother: Hello. (Phone)

Daughter: Hello. Oh, mom!

5. Another usage of *hai* はい is to indicate the start of a joint activity.

11. では、調理開始ですね、はい。
De wa, chōri kaishi desu ne, hai.
Well then, cooking begins. Yes.

12. これをあのベンチに置いときましょう。ちょっと重いので気をつけましょう。じゃ、いち、にいの、さん、はい！
Kore wo ano benchi ni oitokimashō. Chotto omoi node ki wo tsukemashō. Ja, ichi, nii no, san, hai!
Let's place this on the bench over there. It's a little heavy, so let's be careful. Alright, one, two, three, here we go!

6. One usage of *hai* はい that is far removed from the English concept of “yes” is indicating to the speaker that one is listening. The purpose here is not to interrupt who is talking, which is how it may seem to an English speaker. Once the other person is done speaking, however, simply responding with *hai* はい would be inappropriate as its interpretation would default to this usage.

13.

エイし つぎ み
A 氏：次のグラフを見てもらうと。
ビーし
B 氏：はい。
エイし わ おも
A 氏：分かると思ひますが。
ビーし
B 氏：はい。
Ei-shi: Tsugi no gurafu wo mite morau to.
Bii-shi: Hai.
Ei-shi: Wakaru to omoimasu ga.
Bii-shi: Hai.

Person A: If I have you look at the next graph.

Person B: Mm.

Person A: I believe you'll understand, but...

Person B: Mm.

It may not always be the case that one is the intended listener when using *hai* はい in this fashion. This is especially the case in TV programs where one person may be directing comments to the audience while another person is to the side nodding off and making interjections as the person speaks. This is done largely to encourage engagement from the audience.

The applications of this usage thus far have been harmless, but it can also be used to tell the speaker you've heard enough.

14. はいはい、もう分かってますよ。
Hai hai, mō wakattemasu yo.
Yes, yes, I know already.

With a change in intonation to that of a question, *hai* はい can be used when you would otherwise indicate that you're listening to imply that you're shocked by what is said—simultaneously asking that the speaker repeat oneself.

15. はい？
Hai?
Come again?

7. Responding to *sō desu ka?* ですか is an important function of *hai* はい.

16.

涼子：きのう、しらこばと水上公園に行きましたよ。
Ryōko: Kinō, Shirakobato Suijō Kōen ni ikimashita yo.
沙良：あ、そうですか？
Sara: A, sō desu ka?
涼子：はい、凄く楽しかったですよ。是非行ってみてください。
Ryōko: Hai, sugoku tanoshikatta desu yo. Zehi itte mite kudasai.
Ryoko: I went to Shirakobato Water Park yesterday.
Sara: Oh, really?
Ryoko: Yeah, it was really fun. Definitely try going there.

8. *Hai* はい is often used as an anticipatory answer at the end of a sentence, especially by store clerks.

17.

客：今の旬の食材はなんでしょうか？
Kyaku: Ima no shun no shokuzai wa nan deshō ka?
店長：そうですねえ。今の時期、美味しい魚はいっぱいあるんですけど、特に美味しいのはやっぱり鯛ですね、はい。
Tenchō: So desu nē. Ima no jiki, oishii sakana wa ippai aru n desu keto, toku ni oishii no wa yappari tai desu ne, hai.
Customer: What ingredients are in season now?
Shop Manager: Well, there are a lot of delicious fish this season, but the one that's especially delicious would have to be sea bream. Yes.

9. *Hai* はい is used when presenting something to someone. This can also be said when arriving somewhere, with the destination being what one is bringing attention to.

18. はい、炊き込みご飯です。どうぞ。

Hai, takikomi-gohan desu. Dōzo.

Here's mixed rice. Feel free.

19. はい、こちらはスターバックスコーヒー1号店でございます。

Hai, kochira wa Sutābakkusu Kōhii Ichigōten de gozaimasu.

Now right here is Starbucks Coffee's first store.

20. はい、到着しました。

Hai, tōchaku shimashita.

Alright, we've arrived.

10. *Hai* はい is frequently used right as one is giving instructions.

21. はい、スタート！

Hai, sutāto!

Start!

22. はい、冷蔵庫に入れて。

Hai, reizōko ni irete.

Yeah, put it in the refrigerator.

11. *Hai* はい is used to indicate to others they stop what they're doing.

23. はい、そこまで（だ）！

Hai, soko made (da)!

Alright, stop there!

24.

せいとエイ わたし しょうらいうちゅうひこうし

生徒A：私は将来宇宙飛行士になりたいです！

せんせい けんたくん

先生：はい。じゃ、健太君は？

Seito Ei: Watashi wa shōrai uchū-hikōshi ni naritai desu!

Sensei: Hai. Ja, Kenta-kun wa?

Student A: I want to become an astronaut in the future!

Teacher: Alright. Now how about you, Kenta-kun?

12. *Hai* はい can also be used to get people's attention.

せんせい おつ
25. 先生：はい、はい。みな落ち着いてください。

Sensei: *Hai, hai. Mina ochitsuite kudasai.*
Okay, okay, everyone settle down, please.

13. *Hai* はい is frequently used in response to being asked for commentary.

26.

さいとう かとう おも
斎藤：加藤さん、どう思いますか。

かとう わたし はんたい
加藤：はい、あの、私も反対ですね。

Saitō: *Katō-san, dō omoimasu ka?*
Katō: *Hai, ano, watashi mo hantai desu ne.*

Saito: What do you think, Kato-san?

Kato: Yes, um, I'm also against it.

14. *Hai* はい is also frequently used after someone makes a comment to get the individual to say more. This can be viewed as an offshoot of Usage 6.

27.

ひがいしゃ わたし あお か かくにん ちょくしん はっしゃ
被害者：私は青に変わったのを確認してから直進に発車させました。

けんさつかん 檢察官：はい。

ひがいしゃ あと ひだりがわ くるま み ふ ま あ じ こ
被害者：はい、その後、左側から車が見えてブレーキを踏みましたが、間に合わず事故になりました。

けんさつかん 檢察官：はい。

ひがいしゃ たいこうしゃ いちだい
被害者：そのとき、対向車は一台でした。

Higaisha: *Watashi wa ao ni kawatta no wo kakunin shite kara chokushin ni hassha sasemashita.*

Kensatsukan: *Hai.*

Higaisha: *Hai, sono ato, hidarigawa kara kuruma ga miete burēki wo fumimashita ga, ma ni awazu jiko ni narimashita.*

Kensatsukan: *Hai.*

Higaisha: *Sono toki, taikōsha wa ichidai deshita.*

Injured Party: I went straight in my car after verifying that the light had turned green.

Prosecutor: Continue.

Injured Party: Ok, afterward, I could see a car from the left. I braked but didn't make it in time, which led to the accident.

Prosecutor: Continue.

Injured Party: At that time, there was one oncoming car.

15. At times, *hai* はい is simply used to create a rhythm, especially in folk songs. It may also be used as an interjection when pounding *mochi* 餅 (sticky rice cake).

28. はい、はい、はい、はい。

Hai, hai, hai, hai.

One, two, one, two.

Variation Note: There also exists *hā* はあ, which is treated as a simple alteration of *hai* はい that is used by male speakers, but its usage remains exactly the same.

29. はあ、^{しうち}承知しました。

Hā, shōchi shimashita.

Yes, understood.

30. はあ！

Hā!

Yes, sir!

31. はあ、^{じしん　たいへん}その地震は大変でしたね。

Hā, sono jishin wa taihen deshita ne.

Yeah, that earthquake was terrible, huh.

32. はあ、なんでしょうか。

Hā, nan deshō ka?

Yes, what is it?

33. はあ、それはそうですが。

Hā, sore wa sō desu ga.

Yes, that's true, but...

34. はあ、^{うそ}嘘でしょう？

Hā, uso deshō?

What, you've got to be kidding!?

35. はあ、しまった！

Hā, shimatta!

Ah, damn it!

Usage Note: One usage that *hā* はあ has that it doesn't share with *hai* はい is being used as

an interjection when one is really in a rut over failing at something, etc.

The Usages of *Ē* ええ

Hai はい is the most multi-faceted word used in this lesson. It is also the most formal. With that being said, *ē* ええ is not as complicated. Regardless of how it's used, it is an affirmative response of one's thought and/or emotions, which is why it can at times be perceived as rude if used out of place. Below are various scenarios most suited for using *ē* ええ:

- To show confidence.
 - To make it known that you already know about what's been talked about.
 - Indicative of being older, composed, and being able to affirmatively look back.
 - To show elitism.
 - To give an at-home feeling to those especially close.
 - Responding to audience but without appeal unless mixed together with *hai* はい.
 - Seemingly able to talk on and on, indicative of female conversation.
-

1. Yes-No Questions

36.

佐伯：社長は長崎へ出張するのですか。
さとう
佐藤：ええ。

Saeki: *Shachō wa Nagasaki e shutchō suru no desu ka?*

Satō: *Ē*.

Saeki: Is the company director going to Nagasaki on business.

Sato: Yes.

2. Acknowledgement of Listening

37.

昌平：ちょっとお願ひがあるんですが。
さとし ねが
聰：ええ（、何でしょう）。

昌平：空いてるときは銀行に連れて行ってくれませんか。
さとし あ きんこう つ
聰：ええ、問題ありませんよ。

Shōhei: Chotto o-negai ga aru n desu ga.

Satoshi: Ē(, nan deshō)?

Shōhei: Aiteru toki wa ginkō ni tsurete itte kuremasen ka?

Satoshi: Ē, mondai arimasen yo.

Shohei: I have a small request.

Satoshi: Yes, what is it?

Shohei: When you're free, could you take me to the bank?

Satoshi: Yeah, no problem.

3. Confirmation

38. ええ、そうですよ。

Ē, sō desu yo.

Yes, that's right.

39. ええ、^{せいかい}正解です。

Ē, seikai desu.

Yes, that's the correct answer.

40. ええ、よくあることです。

Ē, yoku aru koto desu.

Yes, it happens often.

41. ええ、^い言うとおりだと思います。

Ē, iu tōri da to omoimasu.

4. Responding to Request/Suggestion: Agreement/Sympathy

42. ええ、ぜひ。

Ē, zehi.

Yes, by all means.

43. ええ、いい考かんがえたと思おもいますな。

Ē, ii kangae da to omoimasu na.

Yes, I think that's a good idea.

5. Surprise (Low-High Intonation)

44. ええ、本当ですか。

Ē, hontō desu ka.

What, really?

45. ええ、嘘うそ！

Ē, uso!

What, you're kidding!?

46. ええ！？

Ē!?

What!?

Usage Note: This usage does not follow the restrictions outlined at the start of this section.

The Usages of *Un* うん

Un うん is a very casual means of saying "yes" that should only be used with those who one is very friendly and close with. When behaving as a means of saying "yes," it has the following purposes.

1. Yes-No Questions
 2. Acknowledgement of Listening
 3. Confirmation
 4. Responding to Request/Suggestion: Agreement/Sympathy
 5. Response to a Command
-

Examples

47. 「ペンギンは鳥なの？」 「うん (、鳥だよ)」

"Pengin wa tori na no?" "Un(, tori da yo)"

"Are penguins birds?" "Yes(, they're birds)."}

48.

花子：明日は…

涼子：うん。

花子：あたしの誕生日なのよ。

Hanako: Ashita…

Ryōko: Un.

Hanako: Atashi no tanjōbi na no yo.

Hanako: Tomorrow…

Ryōko: Yeah.

Hanako: Is my birthday.

49. いや、そのままでいいんじゃない、うん。

Iya, sono mama de ii n ja nai, un.

"No, it's fine as is, right? Yeah."

50. うんうん、君の言うとおりだね。

Un un, kimi no iu tōri da ne.

Yep, yep, it's exactly what you said.

51. うん、その気持ちわかるよ。

Un, sono kimochi wakaru yo.

Yeah, I get what you're feeling.

52. 「ごめんなさい。」「うん、いいんだよ。」

"Gomen-nasai." "Un, ii n da yo."

"Sorry." "No, it's ok."

53.

従業員：小池さんこの種の仕事に向いてないんですか。

支配人：うん、向いてないな。

Jūgyōin: Koike-san wa kono shu no shigoto ni muienai n desu ka?

Shihainin: Un, muienai na.

Employee: Is Koike-san not suited for this

54. うん、そうだよな。はい、そうですね。

Un, sō da yo na. Hai, sō desu ne.

Yeah, that's right. Yes, you're definitely right.

Sentence Note: The first half of this example would be an example of answering one's own question. Only the latter part would be directed at the listener, as indicated by the difference in speech style.

55.

父親：ボール投げて！

むすこ

息子：うん！

Chichioya: Bōru nagete!

Musuko: Un!

Father: Throw the ball!

Son: Ok!

Unrelated to the meanings of "yes" outlined so far, *un* うん may also be used as onomatopoeia for the following purposes.

- The sound of bees, horseflies, etc. in great number flying about.
- The faint sound of machinery.

- The sound of someone in anguish.

56. パソコンがうんうんいってるけど大丈夫かな？
 Pasokon ga un'un itteru kedo daijōbu kana?

The computer is sure making noise. I wonder if it's alright?

57. 痛みがひどくてベッドでうんうんと唸っていた。
 Itami ga hidokute beddo de un'un to unatte ita.

The pain was awful; I was groaning in bed.

第??課: No Phrases: いいえ, いえ, いや, 否, & ううん

The words that will be taught in this lesson are as follows. There will be a lot of overlap in how they're used, but it is important nonetheless to see how each of them are used.

- いいえ
- いえ
- いや
- 否
- ううん

Japanese culture is known for its favoring of indirect expressions. That is not to say that a direct and affirmative “no” can’t be expressed in Japanese. To the contrary, the most basic words for “no” are all capable of expressing opposition, disapproval, or rejecting. It is because of Japanese’s sensitivity to social circumstances that causes all “no” expressions to be multifaceted and seemingly ambiguous.

いいえ

The antonym of はい is いいえ. By default, it is the direct translation of “no.” It is the correct word for any non-verbal “no” you may encounter. For example, a “yes” and “no” window will display はい (Y) and いいえ (N). いいえ is also the most formal and polite of all the variants of it. Although this point will be important to remember as we learn more about these phrases, understand that this is not an absolute and that there will be times when using いいえ may cause an unwanted reaction.

Usage 1: To express negation when presented a question that seeks affirmative or negative response (yes-no question). This is the most basic understanding of いいえ.

1. 「雪はまだ降っていますか？」 「いいえ、 2時間前に止みました。」

"Is it still snowing?" "No, it stopped snowing two hours ago."

2.

じょうし おれ
上司：俺、こうやれって言った？

ぶ か
部下：いいえ、（そう言ってません）。

Boss: "Did I say for you to do it this way?"

Subordinate: "No(, you did not)."

Usage Note: At face value, it seems that the responder is replying politely. However, such a response, especially to a confrontational yes-no question would be conversely inflammatory and undoubtedly stir animosity. This is because a direct denial, even if the response is the truth, is not demonstrating the responsibility of fixing the perceived problem that the questioner is seeking. To stop confrontation, adding fuel to the fire is counterproductive. Ex. 3 would be an appropriate use of いいえ whilst still being polite in this sort of circumstance.

かちょう ふう おっしゃ まちが たいへんもう わけ
3. いいえ、課長はそんな風には仰っていません。私が間違えたのです。大変申し訳ございません。

No, that is not how you said (to do it), Chief. I was mistaken. I am terribly sorry.

Sentence Note: Practically speaking, this response would not necessarily come to mind. A more expedient answer to the question that would still be polite would be Ex. 4.

ちが
4. すみません、違っていたでそしょうか。

I'm sorry, was I incorrect?

Sentence Note: This response would bring about a response that would inevitably result in admitting personal responsibility, which is what Ex. 3 explicitly states from the beginning.

Usage 2: Declining someone's proposal/request—"no thank you."

か
5. 「コーヒーお代わりはいかがですか。」「いいえ、結構です。」

"Would you like a coffee refill?" "No thank you, I'm fine."

Usage Note: Many speakers, especially young people, tend to use 大丈夫です for "no thanks," as it is less direct than saying いいえ、結構です. In formal, business situations, いいえ、結構です is preferred as a certain degree of directness is expected. Additionally, colloquialisms are typically frowned upon in such situations. The same can be said for the English-speaking world.

Usage 3: Negating someone's idea/statement.

- きょう ぐうぜん
6. 「今日のことは偶然なんだ」 「いいえ、そんなはずないと思うわ」
“Today’s incident was just a coincidence.” “No, that can’t be true.”
-

Usage 4: Rejecting the premise of a question.

- かあ ぼく かばんみ し
7. 「母さん、僕の鞄見なかつたね」 「いいえ、知らないよ」
“Mom, you wouldn’t happen to have seen my bag, huh?” “No, I don’t know anything about it.”

- きみ しゅっしゃ しゅっしゃ
8. 「君、きのうは出社しなかつたか」 「いいえ、いつものとおり出社しましたよ」
“Hey, did you not come to work yesterday? “No, I came just as usual.”
-

Usage 5: Indicating one has no intentions of furthering the conversation or intends to end the conversation upon being pressed for explanation.

- なに
9. 「何がいまにわかるのだ」 「いいえ、なんでもありません」
“What exactly am I going to find out soon enough?” “Oh no, it’s nothing.”
-

Usage 6: Rejecting thanks and praise out of courtesy.

- ほんとう たす
10. 「本当に助かります、ありがとうございます。」 「いいえ、とんでもないですよ。」
“I really appreciate it. Thank you.” “Oh no, it’s nothing.”

11. 「ありがとうございます」 「いいえ、どういたしまして」
“Thank you.” “Oh no, you’re welcome.”

いえ & いや

Both いえ and いや can be seen as variants of いいえ, but they have morphed to be somewhat different in their unique ways. Intrinsically, they carry all six usages seen above, but when it’s appropriate to use them will determine how the other person interprets your response.

- やましたくん えんりょ の けっこう
12. 「山下君も、遠慮しないで飲みなさい」 「いえ、結構です」
“Yamashita-kun, don’t hold back and drink.” “Oh no, I’m fine.”

- やく た なに
13. いえいえ、お役に立てれば何よりです。
No, no, what counts more than anything is that I am of use to you.
-

Negating Presentation of Information

A situation where いえ and いや can be used interchangeably in plain or polite speech but cannot be replaced by いいえ is when one is negating and/or criticizing how information is being presented or gently yet affirmatively correcting someone.

14. 「太陽は地球の周りを回ってるって知っていますか？」 「 {いえ・いや} 、地球が太陽の
まわ 周りを回ってるんですよ」

“Did you know that the Sun revolves around the Earth?” “Um, actually, the Earth revolves around the Sun.”

Sentence Note: In this situation, the responder to the first person's statement is rejecting the information trying to be shared. In such circumstances, both いえ and いや are appropriate.

15. 「どうしたの？顔色が悪いよ。」 「いや、なんでもない。」
“What's wrong? You're all pale.” “Oh no, it's nothing.”

Sentence Note: In this example, it isn't that the responder is negating that he/she is pale. The responder is negating the question itself which implies that something is up.

16.

エイ し
A氏：あれ、どこ行くの？
ビー し
B氏：いえ、ちょっと急な用事が入ってさ…。

Person A: Huh? Where are you going?

Person B: Oh no, you see, there's a small urgent matter that's come up...

17.

エイ し
A氏：なんでそんな話をするの？
ビー し
B氏：いえね、実を言うと…。
Person A: Why are you talking about something like that?
Person B: Oh no, you see, the thing is....

Particle Note: Unlike いいえ, いえ and いや can both be followed by the final particle ね.

18. いやね、やっぱりシェアハウスなんてするものじゃないわ。

Oh no, share houses and what not are definitely something not to do.

Variation Note: いや can alternatively sometimes be heard as いーや.

19. 「では、出席を取ります。小沢さん」 「いや、あのー、白石先生のクラスは隣です

よ」

“Alright, I’m going to take attendance. Ozawa-san...” “Hey, um... Shiraishi Sensei, your class is the one next over.”

Usage Note: Whenever one is simply negating how information is being presented but not negating the truth of the statement, then only いや becomes appropriate.

20. 「夜ご飯は何食べようか」「いや、今は関係ないでしょ、その話は」
“What’ll we eat for dinner?” “Uh, that has nothing to do with right now.”

21. 「早すぎる、といいますと?」「いやあ、これは口が滑りました。いや、あなた方に
妙に勘織られると困りますから、証明しますがね」
“When you say ‘too soon’...?” “Ahh, I made a slip of the tongue. Well, since it’d be
troublesome if this were oddly suspected by you all, I’ll explain things.”
From 繁昌するメス by 松本清張.

Variation Note: Elongated as いやー, いや can express a feeling of having gone too forward toward oneself.

Politeness Difference

Generally speaking, いいえ and いえ are both seen as typically being more appropriate in polite speech than いや.

22. 「山手線に乗るんですか」「{いえ〇・いいえ〇・いやX}、違います」
“Do you ride the Yamanote Line?” “No, that’s not the one.”

23. 「エクセル使うの?」「{いや〇・いえX・いいえX}、違う。エクセルは不要だ
ね。」
“Do you use Excel?” “No, Excel isn’t needed.”

24. 「犯人は捕がったのか」「いや、まだだ」
“Do you got the criminal arrested?” “No, not yet.”

However, it is not always the case that いや can’t be used in polite speech. For instance, it can be used just like いいえ and いえ when rejecting thanks/praise, and using it instead can bring about a more familial sense.

25. 「漢検1級合格しんたんだって?おめでとう!」「いや、まあ、おかげさまで、無事
に。」

“So you passed Kanken Level 1? Congrats!” “Oh no, well, thankfully it went all fine.”

Usages Unique to いや

At times, いや isn't just a variant of いえ but a contraction of 嫌だ, and it can be seen elongated as いーや, but unlike the いや that's equivalent to “no,” the intonation drops sharply after the mora for this usage.

- かねか
26. 「お金貸してくれない？」 「いや（だ）！」
“Could you lend me some money?” “No way!”

Only いや can be used when talking to oneself, and this is for any capacity of self-directed commentary, even when one is talking to someone.

- ゆうびんきょく
27. 郵便局はですね、えーと、そこを右折して2つ目の、いや、3つ目の信号を右折して、
しばらく行くと、右手のほうにあります。
The post office, um... if you make a right there and then on the second, no, the third light take a right, and then keep going for a while, it'll be on the right.

否

A variant of these two unique senses of いや is 否. This negation word is most often seen in the grammar point か否か meaning “whether or not,” but it also finds itself synonymous with いやだ or いや, although it is somewhat old-fashioned in these regards. It also happens to be used in the literary sense of “nay.”

- げんじょう　　ざんねん　　いな　　こた
28. 現状では残念ながら否と答えるほかない。
Unfortunately under the circumstances, there is no other alternative but to answer with “no.”

- いな　　だん　　いな
29. 否、断じて否！
No, absolutely not!

- かいしゃ　　いな　　しゃかい　　こうけん　　わ　　み　　ぎせい
30. 会社のため、否、社会に貢献するために我が身を犠牲にしている。
I'm sacrificing myself for the company, no, to contribute to society.

ううん

In casual conversation, ううん can be used to mean “no.” It holds the six basic meanings of いいえ that were discussed earlier but solely within the confines of casual, plain speech. In

addition to those meanings, it can also be used as an interjection similar to “uh” or as an interjection indicating strain /struggling.

Intonation Note: To mean “no,” pitch rises as the end.

31. ううん、もう駄目だ。
No, it's no use.

32. ううん、そんなことないよ?
No, that's not true...?

33. 「^{けいこ}恵子はもう来たの?」 「ううん、まだ来てないよ」
“Has Keiko already here?” “No, she hasn't come yet.”

34. ううん、何^{なん}だっけ。
Er, what was it?

35. ううん、いいよ。
No, it's fine.

第??課: Expressions of Gratitude

Showing gratitude to others is one of many things we do on a daily basis. In English, we primarily express our gratitude via the expression "thank you" and other phrases like "I appreciate it." Many Westerns recognize the Japanese word *arigatō* ありがとう meaning "thank you," but there is a lot more to showing thanks in Japanese than just this one word.

In this lesson, you will be introduced to all sorts of ways to show thanks to others. Dialectical and speech style variation will become rather complex, but the focus for you should be to remember the core phrases introduced. For grammar that hasn't been introduced up to this point, you are not required to know how to constructively use them outside the phrases that are discussed.

Grammar Note: You will notice the prefix *o/go-* お・ご in front of many phrases discussed in this lesson. This prefix is an honorific marker which helps make what it attaches to be more respectful. Much later on, we will learn how to use this constructively.

Gratitude: *Kansha* 感謝

The Western world is very familiar with the expression *arigatō* ありがとう. This word is very important to Japanese speakers and is indeed used in everyday life. However, there is still quite a bit to know on how to properly give thanks to someone. It derives from the adjective *arigatai* ありがたい, meaning “to be grateful.”

The intonation pattern of *arigatō* ありがとう differs depending on where you are in Japan. In Standard Japanese, *arigatō gozaimasu* ありがとうございます is pronounced with the following intonation (morae in bold being those with a high pitch as opposed to a low pitch): ありがとうございます.

For those of you that find yourself outside the greater Kanto Region (*Kantō Chihō* 関東地方), you'll notice native speakers pronouncing *arigatō* ありがとう differently. The most important variations to note are as follows.

- ありがとう (Standard Japanese – *Hyōjungo* 標準語)
- ありがとう (Nagoya Dialect – *Nagoya-ben* 名古屋弁)
- ありがとう (Kansai Dialects – *Kansai-ben* 関西弁)
- ありがとう (Kagoshima Dialect – *Kagoshima-ben* 鹿児島弁)

Spelling Note: This phrase can be spelled in *Kanji* 漢字 as 有り難う御座います. This is quite commonly used, especially in e-mails and business chats.

Of course, whenever we tell people "thank you," we usually add adverbs like "a lot" and "very much." We also usually explain what we're thankful for. All sorts of contexts are provided for intricate thank-yous in the examples below.

1. 「ご心配は要りません。 私 のほうでやります。」 「どうもありがとうございます。」
"Go-shimpai wa irimasen. Wata(ku)shi no hō de yarimasu." "Dōmo arigatō gozaimasu."
"There is no need to worry. I'll do it on my end." "Thank you very much."

Phrase Note: To add the sense of "very much," use the adverb *dōmo* どうも as seen in Ex. 1.

2. あ、本当に助かります。ありがとうございます。
A, hontō ni tasukarimasu. Arigatō gozaimasu.
Wow, that really helps a lot. Thank you.

3. 対応してくれてありがとうございます。
Taiō shite kurete arigatō gozaimasu
Thank you for handling it.

Grammar Note: The pattern *-te kurete* ~てくれて, which indicates a favor being done by someone else for you or someone in one's in-group, is frequently paired with thank-you phrases.

4. 「もう済ませてあるよ。」 「お、ありがと。」
"Mō sumasete aru yo." "O, arigato."

"It's already taken care of." "Oh, thanks."

Pronunciation Note: Shortening the phrase to *arigato* ありがと is very common in speech. The pitch of the phrase remains the same with a high pitch on the /ri/ mora.

なかま おうえん ほんとう
5. 仲間の応援が本当にありがとうございます。

Nakama no ōen ga hontō ni arigatai desu.
My pals' support is really appreciated.

われわれ しえん ほんとう
6. 我々への支援は本当にありがとうございます。

Wareware e no shien wa hontō ni arigatai.
The support to us is really appreciated.

Word Note: *Ōen* 応援 is support as in “cheering on” whereas *shien* 支援 is support as in “assistance.”

そうちよう ゆき つ
7. 早朝はありがたいことに雪が積もっていなかった。

Sōchō wa arigatai koto ni yuki ga tsumotte inakatta.
Thankfully, snow hadn't piled up in the early morning.

Grammar Note: You can express “thankfully” with *arigatai koto ni* ありがたいことに.

かさ お
8. 「傘はあそこに置いてある。」「あ、どうも。」

Kasa wa asoko in oite aru. “A, dōmo.”
The umbrella(s) have been placed over there.” “Ah, thanks.”

Phrase Note: A quick way to tell someone “thanks” is *dōmo* どうも. However, this shouldn’t be used when cutting one’s thanks short isn’t appropriate--speaking to superiors.

9. ホント、いつもありがとうございます！

Honto, itsumo arigatō desu!
Thank you so much as always!

Grammar Note: When people feel like *arigatō gozaimasu* ありがとうございます is too polite but they still wish to be polite to some degree, they often opt for *arigatō desu* ありがとうございます. However, this is ungrammatical to most speakers. Nonetheless, it is still used a lot.

10. おお、あんがとう！

Ō, angatō!
Oh, thanks!

Sentence Note: *Angatō* あんがとう is a very common, casual contraction.

Grammatically speaking, *arigatō gozaimasu* ありがとうございます is in the non-past tense. Literally, it means “to be grateful.” This gratefulness is typically in response to what has just taken place or is currently taking place. If, however, the act of kindness is markedly in the past, then *arigatō gozaimashita* ありがとうございました becomes viable.

- いろいろ せわ まこと
11. 色々とお世話になりました 誠にありがとうございます {ございました・ございます}。
Iroiro to o-sewa ni narimashite makoto ni arigatō [gozaimashita/gozaimasu].
I/we are truly grateful for all the favor you've given me/us.

Grammar Note: By using *gozaimasu* ございます instead of *gozaimashita* ございました, one's gratitude can be emphasized as being still ongoing despite the event of kindness done by the listener was still in the past.

- こ
12. わざわざお越しいただいてありがとうございます {ございました・ございます}。
Wazawaza o-koshi itadaite arigatō [gozaimashita/gozaimasu].
Thank you so much for going through all the trouble to come.

Grammar Note: The adverb *wazawaza* わざわざ is used to stress the trouble someone went to do something for the speaker. Additionally, the word *o-koshi* お越し comes from a respectful verb for “to come.”

- せんじつ えつ
13. 先日はわざわざお越しいただいてありがとうございました。
Senjitsu wa wazawaza o-koshi itadaite arigatō gozaimashita.
Thank you so much for going through all the trouble to come the other day.

- せんじつ
14. 先日はどうも（ありがとうございました）。
Senjitsu wa dōmo (arigatō gozaimashita).
Thank you for the other day.

Sentence Note: Using the unabbreviated version is most appropriate in formal settings such as conversations in business.

- たび まこと
15. この度は誠にありがとうございます。
Kono tabi wa makoto ni arigatō gozaimashita.
Thank you so much for this occasion.

Grammar Note: The event in Ex. 15 would have already been completed at the time of utterance.

Conjugation Recap

As a recap of the forms we've seen so far, they're listed again below.

Plain Non-Past	Polite Non-Past
<i>Arigatō/arigato</i> ありがとう (う) <i>Arigatai</i> ありがたい	<i>Arigato gozaimasu</i> ありがとうございます <i>Arigatai desu</i> ありがたいです
Plain Past	Polite Past
<i>Arigatakatta</i> ありがたかった	<i>Arigatō gozaimashita</i> ありがとうございました <i>Arigatakatta desu</i> ありがたかったです

Variation Notes:

1. *Arigatakatta* ありがたかった (です) would be interpreted as “I appreciated it.” Similar, *arigatai (desu)* ありがたい (です) is interpreted as “That’s appreciated.”
2. Another respectful form is *arigatō zonjimasu* ありがとう存じます, which is occasionally used by women who aim to use the politest phrases possible. Note that the *tō* とう in *arigatō* ありがとう is actually a contraction of *-taku* たく. This is its adverbial form.

Thanking for Food

When giving thanks upon receiving food, Japanese people say *itadakimasu* 頂きます. This literally means “I’m receiving (food).” The intonation of this phrase is **いただきます**.

16. では、頂いただきます。
De wa, itadakimasu.
 Well then, bon appetit!

After finishing a meal, it is customary to give thanks again by saying *go-chisō-sama deshita* ご馳走様でした. The word *chisō* 馳走 means “feast” and literally means “having to ride by horse to gather ingredients.” Although this is no longer modern reality, this expression gives recognition of the effort and quality put into the food that was given to you. Whenever you are familiar with the person, *deshita* でした can be dropped, or you can simply say *go-chisō* ご馳走. However, the shorter you make the expression, the stronger friendship you should have with the individual.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is **ごちそうさまでした**.

17. 今日は食事に誘ってくださって、ありがとうございました。ご馳走様でした。
 Kyō wa shokujii ni sasotte kudasatte, arigatō gozaimashita. Go-chisō-sama deshita.
 Thank you very much for inviting me to dinner today. It was a wonderful meal.

Sentence Notes:

1. Although translated as “dinner,” *shokujii* 食事 simply means “meal” and can be used in the

same sense as “dinner” would in English.

2. *-te kudasatte* てくださって is the respectful version of *-te kurete* てくれて. Its meaning of marking the kind action of someone outside one’s in-group remains the same.

3. The response to this phrase is *o-somatsu-sama deshita* お粗末さまでした. Similarly, the speaker may reduce this phrase to either *o-somatsu-sama* お粗末様 or just *o-somatsu* お粗末 depending on how casual the tone is. This phrase may be used in replying to the use of any services other than just food and drink. For instance, it can be used at bath houses (*sentō* 錢湯).

Kansha shimasu 感謝します

In addition to the phrases above surrounding *arigatō* ありがとう, there is also the verb *kansha suru* 感謝する (to be grateful/thank you) that can be used. The noun *kansha* 感謝 means gratitude. In polite speech, this phrase is rendered as *kansha shimasu* 感謝します.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is かんしゃします.

きょうりょく ふか かんしゃ
18. ご協力に深く感謝します。

Go-kyōryoku ni fukaku kansha shimasu.
I am deeply grateful for your cooperation.

こころ かんしゃ
19a. 心から感謝しています。

こころ かんしゃ
19b. 心より感謝しております。
Kokoro kara kansha shite imasu.
Kokoro yori kansha shite orimasu.
I am profoundly grateful.

Grammar Note: *Kokoro kara/yori* 心 {から・より} literally means “from the heart.” Using the particle *yori* より is more respectful. Additionally, *shite orimasu* しております is the humble form of *shite imasu* しています. The use of these forms instead of just *shimasu* します is done to emphasize how one’s state of gratitude has been an ongoing and continuing emotion.

ながねん し じ かんしゃ
20. 長年のご支持に感謝しております。
Naganen no go-shiji ni kansha shite orimasu.
I am grateful for your long-time support.

Shai 謝意

A very formal means of expressing gratitude that is frequently used in business settings, primarily in speeches and/or the written language is *shai wo hyō suru* 謝意を表する (to express gratitude).

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is しゃいをひょうします.

- こうい こころ しゃい あらわ
21. ご厚意に 心より謝意を 表します。
Go-kōi ni kokoro yori shai wo hyō shimasu.
I am profoundly grateful of your kindness.
-

Sankyū サンキュー

Lastly, it's impossible to ignore how the English phrase "thank you" has made its way into Japanese as *sankyū* サンキュー. A lot of speakers use this in conversation among friends. Online, it may even be seen colloquially spelled as 3Q or 三Q. At McDonald's in Japan, *sankyū* サンキュー has also incorporated a meaning of "understood," mixing gratitude to the customer orders along with confirming what needs to be served.

22. スタッフA氏：オレンジジュースのSサイズおひとつですね。
スタッフB氏：Sサイズのオレンジジュース、サンキュー！
Sutaffu Ei-shi: Orenjijūsu no esu-saizu o-hitotsu desu ne.
Sutaffu Bii-shi: Esu-saizu no orenjijūsu, sankyū!
Staff A: One small-sized orange juice, correct?
Staff B: Small orange juice, coming up!
-

Dialectical Variation

Lastly, there are some important variations of "thank you" that are widely known about and still prevalent in their unique ways.

The most popular dialectical version of "thank you" in Japanese is *ōkini* 大きに, which is emblematic of Kansai Dialects (*Kansai-ben* 関西弁). Younger speakers tend to not gravitate towards this phrase, but it is still prevalent among older generations and among store clerks.

- まいど だい
23. (毎度) 大きに。
(Maido) ōkini.
Thank you (as always).

In most of Western Japan, *arigatō-san (desu)* ありがとうございます (です) is very prevalent. Variation exists as to whether the "o" is long or short.

- みな
24. 皆いつもありがとう（う）さん（です）。
Mina itsumo arigatō/arigato-san (desu).
Thank you, everyone as always.

In Yamagata Prefecture (*Yamagata-ken* 山形県), the phrase *mokke* もっけ is used. In Standard Japanese, this word can be found in the expression *mokke no saiwai* 勿怪の幸い, which means “windfall/piece of good luck.” In this dialect, the word is used to refer to a sense of gratitude that is seldom had.

- ほんとう
25. あいや、もっけだちゃ！本当でありがどのお。（山形弁）
Aiya, mokke da cha! Hontō de arigado nō. (Yamagata-ben)
Oh wow, thank you so much! Really, thank you, thank you! (Yamagata Dialect)

In many parts of Northern Japan, *arigatō* can be heard pronounced as *arigado* ありがとう. This is because non-voiced consonants tend to be voiced in the dialects spoken there. This is still the case for even younger speakers, but this depends on the exact locality.

In prefectures such as Shimane (*Shimane-ken* 島根県), Ehime (*Ehime-ken* 愛媛県), Kumamoto (*Kumamoto-ken* 熊本県), and Miyazaki (*Miyazaki-ken* 宮崎県), the adverb *dandan* だんだん has been used as an intensifier in conjunction with *arigatō* ありがとう, so much so that it can stand for “thank you” by itself. Although this has died out of use, it is still widely known throughout Japan and is still used by older generations in those prefectures.

26. だんだん（ありがとう）。
Dandan (arigatō).
Thank you.

In the Hokuriku Region (*Hokuriku Chihō* 北陸地方), the phrase *ki no doku* 気の毒 can be heard used for “thank you.” In Standard Japanese, this is seen in phrases like *o-ki no doku ni* お気の毒に, which is used to express sympathy for someone’s misfortune. We will learn more about how it is used in Standard Japanese in the next lesson.

- き　　どく
27. 気の毒な。
Ki no doku na.
Thanks (even despite the trouble I put you through).

In Okinawa, one must understand that the local indigenous dialects aren’t really dialects of Japanese. They are sister languages of Japanese. The Standard Japanese spoken in each individual locality will be influenced to some degree by these languages, however. In the main island of Okinawa, you will hear Ex. 28 used.

- にふえー
28. 御挙で一びる。
Nifēdēbiru.

Thank you very much.

You're Welcome

The standard direct translation of “you’re welcome” in Japanese is *dō itashimashite* どういたしまして. This implies that the speaker hasn’t really done anything extraordinary, which is quite opposite of the nuance found in the English “you’re welcome.” Traditionally, this has been a rather humble expression, but in many circumstances people often interpret it as downplaying the situation at hand, which can make it seem that the speaker is of higher status than the listener. Because of this, speakers typically avoid using it, opting for expressions that emphasize how the speaker was only trying to help.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is どういたしまして.

29. いえいえ (、お役に立てれば何よりです) 。
やく た なに
Ieie, (o-yaku ni tatereba nani yori desu).

No, no, so long as I’ve been of any help.

30. どういたしまして。ご利用ありがとうございます。
りょう
Dō itashimashite. Go-riyō arigatō gozaimasu.
You’re welcome. Thank you for using us.

Sentence Note: In customer service, *dō itashimashite* どういたしまして is still used as, traditionally, it is meant to be humble.

31a. とんでもございません。お役に立てれば嬉しいです。
やく た うれ
31b. とんでもないことでございます。お役に立てれば嬉しいです。
やく た うれ
Ton demo gozaimasen. O-yaku ni tatereba ureshii desu.
Ton demo nai koto de gozaimasu. O-yaku ni tatereba ureshii desu.
Don’t mention it. I’m glad if I can be of any help.

Grammar Note: Many speakers feel that *ton demo nai koto de gozaimasu* とんでもないことでございます is more grammatical than *ton demo gozaimasen* とんでもございません despite the fact that both are grammatical.

Intonation Note: とんでもないです.

32. お役に立てて幸いです。
やく た さいわ
O-yaku ni tatete saiwai desu.
I’m happy to be of help.

てつだ
33. お手伝いできてよかったです。
O-tetsudai dekite yokatta desu.
I'm happy to have been able to help.

34. いや、とんでもないです。
Iya, ton demo nai desu.
Oh no, don't mention it.

第??課: Expressions of Apology

Apologizing to others is one of the most sensitive things that we do on a daily basis. Without proper grace and etiquette as well as sensitivity to the matter at hand, apologies can be interpreted as insincere. As such, more so than even the words that go into an apology, the way one conducts oneself is what's most important. Nevertheless, Japanese places a lot of intricacy into how one apologizes.

In the phrases introduced in this lesson, a lot of complexity will be had in differences among speech styles. This inevitably means confronting grammar that hasn't been fully introduced up to this point. For the purpose of this lesson, though, focus on the phrases that center around apologizing.

Grammar Note: You will notice the prefix *o/go-* お・ご in front of many phrases discussed in this lesson. This prefix is an honorific marker which helps make what it attaches to be more respectful. Much later on, we will learn how to use this constructively.

Notation Note: High pitch morae are marked in bold and pitch falls are denoted by ↓.

Apologizing: *O-wabi* お詫び

The basic translation of “I’m sorry” in Japanese is *sumimasen* すみません. This word can also be used to mean “excuse me.” When the apology is for something that occurred in the past, you use *sumimasendeshita* すみませんでした. Many speakers drop the first /m/ in the phrase, resulting in *suimasen* すいません. In plain speech, this can be seen as *sumanai* すまない or *suman* すまん. To organize its conjugations together, we get the following.

Plain Non-Past	Polite Non-Past
すまない・すまん <i>Sumanai/suman</i>	すみません・すいません <i>Sumimasen/suimasen</i>
Plain Past	Polite Past

すまなかつた・すまんかつた
Sumanakatta/sumankatta

すみませんでした・すいませんでした
Sumimasendeshita/suimasendeshita

Etymology Note: This word comes from the negative form of the verb *sumu* 濟む. In this expression, the meaning of “to feel at ease” is at play here. Essentially, the speaker is guilty for what’s going on.

Intonation Notes:

1. すまない.
2. すみません.

1. すみません、すいません。

Sumimasen, suimasen.

Sorry, sorry.

Excuse me, excuse me.

2. すみません、^{とお}通してください。

Sumimasen, tōshite kudasai.

Excuse me, could you let me through?

3. 間違えてしまってすみません。

Machigaete shimatte sumimasen.

I'm sorry for messing up.

4. 混乱させて（しまって）すみません。

Konran sasete (shimatte) sumimasen.

I'm sorry for confusing you.

5. すみません、お時間よろしいですか。

Sumimasen, o-jikan yoroshii desu ka?

Excuse me, but could I take a little bit of your time?

6. すいません、お勘定！

Suimasen, o-kanjō!

Excuse me! Check, please!

7. 大変すみませんでした。

Taihen sumimasendeshita.

I'm terribly sorry for what had happened.

8. あ、 {すまない・すまん} 。

A, [sumanai/suman].

Oh, sorry.

Shitsurei 失礼

The next phrase involving apologies to look at is the word *shitsurei* 失礼, a noun/adjectival noun meaning "impoliteness/delicacy." By itself, it can be used to mean "excuse me" when leaving, but it is usually seen as *shitsurei shimasu* 失礼します in this regard. In the past tense as *shitsurei shimashita* 失礼しました, the phrase is used a lot for apologizing for what one has done. To summarize its conjugations, they would be organized as such.

Plain Non-Past	Polite Non-Past	Humble Non-Past
<i>Shitsurei (suru)</i> 失礼 (する)	<i>Shitsurei shimasu</i> 失礼しま す	<i>Shitsurei itashimasu</i> 失礼いたし ます
Plain Past	Polite Past	Humble Past
<i>Shitsurei shita</i> 失礼した	<i>Shitsurei shimashita</i> 失礼し ました	<i>Shitsurei itashimashita</i> 失礼いた しました

Grammar Note: We will look at its use in the non-past tense more closely later in this lesson.

Intonation Note: The intonation of *shitsurei* 失礼 is しつれい.

9a. 長文失礼しました。
ちょうぶんしつれい

9b. 長文すみません。
ちょうぶん
Chōbun shitsurei shimashita.
Chōbun sumimasen.
I apologize for the long message.

10. 失礼しました。申し訳ありません。
しつれい もう わけ
Shitsurei shimashita. Mōshiwake arimasen.
I was rude. I'm terribly sorry.

Mōshiwake arimasen 申し訳ありません

In Ex. 10, yet another expression for "sorry" was used: *mōshiwake arimasen* 申し訳ありません. This literally means "have no excuse." It is more formal than *sumimasen* すみません, but it can in fact be altered to be used in any speech style.

Plain	Casual Polite	Polite	Humble
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申し訳ない Mōshiwake nai	申し訳ないです Mōshiwake nai desu	申し訳ありません Mōshiwake arimasen	申し訳ございません Mōshiwake gozaimasen
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Grammar Note: Alternatively, there also exists *mōshiwake naku zonjimasu* 申し訳なく存じます, which is the most formal one can make this expression. This adds a sense of “feeling apologetic” on top of actually making an apology.

Of course, these expressions all have past tense forms that are used whenever one’s impolite act occurred in the past.

Plain	Casual Polite	Polite	Humble
申し訳なかった Mōshiwake nakatta	申し訳なかつたで す Mōshiwake nakatta desu	申し訳ありませんでし た Mōshiwake arimasendeshita	申し訳ござん でし た Mōshiwake gozaimasendeshita

11. お忙しいところ、大変申し訳ございません。
O-isogashii tokoro, taihen mōshiwake gozaimasen.

I deeply apologize for this while you’re busy.

12. 先日の忘年会では、酔いに任せて大変な（ご）無礼をして、申し訳ありませんでした。
*Senjitsu no bōnenkai de wa, yoi ni makasete taihen na (go-)burei wo shite, mōshiwake
arimasendeshita.*

At the year-end party the other day, I let alcohol get the best of me, in which I was very out-of-place, and I deeply apologize.

Grammar Note: *Burei* 無礼 is a noun/adjectival noun which means “impoliteness” just like *shitsurei* 失礼. Here, it’s used in its own verbal construct in *go-burei wo suru* ご無礼をする. Some feel that the use of the honorific prefix *go-* ご is inappropriate in this construct, and so many speakers omit it from this phrase.

13. 度重なる失礼、大変申し訳ございました。
Tabikasanaru shitsurei, taihen mōshiwake gozaimasendeshita.

I am terribly sorry for how I’ve repeatedly been discourteous.

14. お客様には大変ご迷惑をお掛けして申し訳ございません。
O-kyaku-sama ni wa taihen go-meiwaku wo o-kake-shite mōshiwake gozaimasen.

We are terribly sorry for the trouble we’ve placed on customers.

Sentence Note: Even though the offense to customers would have been done in the past, the use of the non-past tense instead emphasizes the speaker’s current sense of guilt.

なに むり ねが もう わけ そん

15. いつも何かとご無理をお願いし、申し訳なく存じます。

Itsumo nanika to go-muri wo o-negai shi, mōshiwake naku zonjimasu.

I am really sorry that I keep asking you to do me favors.

Sentence Note: The (adjectival) noun *muri* 無理 used here to mean “favors” literally means “unreasonable.”

O-wabi お詫び

In very formal situations, speakers will also use a form of the phrase *o-wabi (wo) shimasu* お詫び (を) します. *O-wabi* お詫び means “apology,” and it can either be treated as a noun or a *suru*-verb. Below are its most important forms along with example sentences.

Humble	More Humble	Most Humble
お詫び (を) します <i>O-wabi shimasu</i>	お詫び (を) 致します <i>O-wabi wo itashimasu</i>	お詫び (を) 申し上げます <i>O-wabi (wo) mōshiagemasu</i>

かさ がさ わ もう あ
16. 重ね重ね、お詫び (を) 申し上げます。

Kasanegasane, o-wabi (wo) mōshiagemasu.

I sincerely apologize again.

きのう しつれい わ
17. 昨日の失礼をお詫びします。

Kinō no shitsurei wo o-wabi shimasu.

I apologize for my rude behavior yesterday.

かんり ふてぎわ わ いた
18. 管理の不手際をお詫び致します。

Kanri no futegiwa wo o-wabi itashimasu.

I apologize for managerial awkwardness.

いくえ わ いた
19. 幾重にもお詫びを致します。

Ikue ni mo o-wabi wo itashimasu.

I cannot apologize enough.

Phrase Note: *Ikue ni mo* 幾重にも literally means “repeatedly.”

こころ なか わ き も かたち あいて つた
20. どれほど心の中にお詫びの気持ちがあっても、それを形にしなければ、相手には伝わらない。

Dore hodo kokoro no naka ni o-wabi no kimochi ga atte mo, sore wo katachi ni shinakereba, aite ni wa tsutawaranai.

No matter how many apologetic feelings you have inside, if you don't have it take form, then

it will not come across to the other person.

In addition to the phrases above, there are other verbs that mean "to apologize" that must be looked at. These verbs are as follows.

Ayamaru 謝る	This is the basic verb of describing the act of apologizing.
Wabiru 詫びる	Synonymous with above but limited in usage.
Shazai suru 謝罪する	Formal/refined version of ayamaru 謝る.
Chinsha suru 陳謝する	Formal variant of shazai suru 謝罪する used especially in writing.

21. 健太郎は外見では謝っているが、 {謝る・お詫びの} 気持ちが一切感じられない。

Kentarō wa gaiken de wa ayamatte iru ga, [ayamaru/o-wabi no] kimochi ga issai kanjirarenai.

Kentaro may be outwardly apologizing, but I feel absolutely no feeling of remorse.

22. 先生が謝ってくれません。

Sensei ga ayamatte kuremasen.

My teacher won't apologize.

23. お名前を書き間違えたことを陳謝 {します・いたします} 。

O-namae wo kakimachigaeta koto wo chinsha [shimasu/itashimasu].

I/we apologize for misspelling your name.

24. 今回の件を厳肃に受け止め、陳謝いたします。

Konkai no ken wo genshuku ni uketome, chinsha itashimasu.

We are solemnly coming to grips with this case and apologize (for what has happened).

25. これまでに誰かに謝罪 (を) したことはありますか。

Kore made ni dareka ni shazai (wo) shita koto wa arimasu ka?

Is there anyone you have apologized to up to now?

26. 無礼を土下座して詫びる。

Burei wo dogeza shite wabiru.

To kneel down on the ground and apologize for an offense.

Gomen-nasai ごめんなさい

The next phrase to learn about is *gomen-nasai* ごめんなさい. It is generally used towards people you're familiar with. Knowing the person and not necessarily being above or below

the person in social status are key points to using this phrase properly. Casually, it's shortened to *gomen* ごめん.

Spelling Note: This phrase is occasionally spelled as ご免なさい or 御免なさい.

Intonation Note: The intonation of this phrase is ごめんなさい.

ほんとう
27. 本当にごめんなさい。

Hontō ni gomen-nasai.

I'm really sorry.

ごかい
28. 誤解があつたら、ごめんなさい。

Gokai ga attara, gomen-nasai.

I'm sorry if there was a misunderstanding.

だいじょうぶ
29. あ、ごめん。大丈夫？

A, gomen. Daijōbu?

Oh, sorry. Are you alright?

"My Bad"

Another means of saying "sorry" is by using the adjective *warui* 悪い. This is done in casual conversation among friends. In this situation, it is frequently pronounced as *warii* わりい.

30. あ、わりい。

A, warii.

Oh, my bad.

Sorry to Impose

The phrases *kyōshuku* [desu/de gozaimasu] 恐縮 {です・でござります} and *osoreirimasu* 恐れります are used interchangeably to mean "I'm sorry to impose." They may also be used in the sense of "feel obliged" when the context is one where the speaker is imposing by accepting favor/consideration.

たぼう
31. ご多忙のところ、恐縮です。

Go-tabō no tokoro, kyōshuku desu.

I'm sorry to impose when you're very busy.

はなしゅう　たいへんきょうしゅく
32. お話中、大変恐縮でございます。

O-hanashi-chū, taihen kyōshuku de gozaimasu.

I'm terribly sorry to impose while you're talking.

きづか まこと おそ い
33. お気遣いいただき、誠に恐れります。
O-kizukai itadaki, makoto ni osoreirimasu.
I feel truly obliged that you were concerned.

ぶれい
34. ご無礼 {しました・いたしました}。
Go-burei [shimashita/itashimashita].
I apologize (for my rudeness).

Entering and Parting

Whenever one is entering a room or leaving a room, the phrase *shitsurei shimasu* 失礼します can be heard. For the former situation, it is common whenever one is clearly having to interrupt or disturb someone. For the latter situation, it is always used when leaving someone. It is also commonplace to hear when hanging up on the phone.

しつれい てすき
35. 失礼します、お手隙ですか。
Shitsurei shimasu, o-tesuki desu ka?
Excuse me, are you free?

しつけい
36. 失敬します。
Shikkei shimasu.
Excuse me.

Sentence Note: Alternatively, *shikkei shimasu* 失敬します can be heard used instead by superiors when parting with colleagues. *Shikkei* 失敬 is synonymous with *shitsurei* 失礼, but due to difference in cadence, it isn't as widely used. It is deemed dialectical by some and is especially used in Nagoya.

When entering someone's home, room, office, or entryway, speakers will say *o-jama shimasu* お邪魔します to that person. The noun *jama* 邪魔 means hindrance, implying that one's presence can be perceived as intruding on that person's turf. It can be used in the past tense whenever one feels it's necessary to leave after having clearly inconvenienced the other person. Or, it can also be seen in the progressive form, especially by those in cleaning services when workers are busy tidying up your space despite you having arrived.

じやま
37. お邪魔します。
O-jama shimasu.
Excuse me for disturbing/interrupting you.

じやま
38. お邪魔しております。

O-jama shite orimasu.

I apologize for being in the way.

39. お邪魔しました。
じやま

O-jama shimashita.

I'm sorry for having disturbed you.

Gomen-kudasai ごめんください

When entering someone's place without that person having come to greet you, it is customary to say *gomen-kudasai* ごめんください. An even more formal form of this is *gomen-kudasaimase* ごめんくださいませ, but this form is actually more commonly used as a means of hanging up in the customary service industry as a far more polite version of *shitsurei shimasu* 失礼します.

40. ごめんください。田中さん、いらっしゃいますか。
たなか

Gomen-kudasai. Tanaka-san, irasshaimasu ka?

May I come in? Are you there, Tanaka-san?

41. ごめんくださいませ。

Gomen-kudasaimase.

I'm hanging up now./May I come in?

Go-kigen yō 御機嫌よう

There is one last phrase to cover. Some speakers will use *go-kigen yō* 御機嫌よう when both crossing paths with people and when parting with people. In English, it is akin to "how do you do?" and "adieu." This phrase is mostly used by women.

42. 御機嫌よう。
ごきげん

Go-kigen yō.

How do you?/Adieu.

Condolences

Giving condolences in Japanese is a very sensitive topic. The standard phrase for saying "my condolences" that even some Westerners know is *o-ki no doku ni* お気の毒に. However, it is a phrase that shouldn't be used directly to the person involved, or at least not as is, because it will otherwise be taken to be sarcastic or apathetic. The phrase literally means "poison to one's heart," and so although it is meant to show empathy towards those that are going through misfortune and/or suffering, using it must be done so with the utmost sincerity.

Because it is such a problem using this phrase as is, many speakers opt for *o-ki no doku-sama* [desu/deshita] お気の毒様 {です・でした} . There is hardly any difference between the non-past and past tense forms in many circumstances. Although the past tense is the appropriate form when the misfortune has happened in the past, the non-past tense is best when you wish to make further commentary with those involved.

たび まこと き どくさま
43. この度は 誠 にお気の毒様です。
Kono tabi wa makoto ni o-ki no doku-sama desu.
Please accept my sympathy at this time.

Sentence Note: This sentence would most likely be used to people who are close and/or related to someone that has gone through a great misfortune and/or death.

じ こ あ き どくさま
44. 事故に遭われたとは、お気の毒様でした。
Jiko ni awareta to wa, o-ki no doku-sama deshita.
I am terribly sorry to hear that you were in an accident.

く もう あ
45. お悔やみ申し上げます。
O-kuyami moshiagemasu.
My deepest sympathy.

Sentence Note: This phrase is used especially at funerals to the deceased person's relatives.

Another important phrase used toward people who have gone through a terrible loss or misfortune including the loss of a loved one is *go-shūshō-sama* [desu/de gozaimasu/deshita/de gozaimashita] ご愁傷様 {です・でございます・でした・でございました} . The use of the past tense is typically used most often when this is all the speaker can think of that's appropriate to say, whereas the use of the non-past tense is best used when the speaker feels compelled to speak more about the matter. Having said all this, it is still very important that you handle the matter with grace and utmost respect so that the listener will not perceive your words to be insincere or sarcastic.

しゅうしようさま
46. ご愁傷様でした。
Go-shūshō-sama deshita.
My deepest sympathy.

たび まこと しゅうしようさま
47. この旅は 誠 にご愁傷様でございます。
Kono tabi wa makoto ni go-shūshō-sama de gozaimasu.
My truest and deepest sympathy goes out to you at this time.

第26課: The Particle *Te* て

The particle *te* て is the most important conjunctive particle in Japanese. Conjunctive particles correspond to words like "and" and "but." As you will see, you cannot use *te* て for the *and* in "And, I saw him" or "dogs *and* cats do this," but its use is profoundly important. This particle will be seen constantly in various grammatical patterns. For now, though, we'll learn about how it's used when it's by itself.

The Conjunctive Particle *Te* て

Conjugating with the particle *te* て isn't particularly difficult, but conjugating is done differently depending on what part of speech you're using. In the table below, you will see the affirmative and negative *te* て forms for each independent conjugatable part of speech.

Part of Speech	Example Verb	Affirmative	Negative
<i>Ichidan Verbs</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Miru</i> 見る • <i>Taberu</i> 食べる 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • みて • たべて 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • みなくて • たべなくて
<i>Godan Verbs</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kau</i> 買う (To buy) • <i>Iu</i> 言う (To say) • <i>Tō</i> 問う (To question) • <i>Kaku</i> 書く (To write) • <i>Kiku</i> 聞く (To listen) • <i>Iku</i> 行く (To go) • <i>Kagu</i> 嗅ぐ (To sniff) • <i>Katsu</i> 勝つ (To win) • <i>Shiru</i> 知る (To know) • <i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ (To die) • <i>Yobu</i> 呼ぶ (To call) • <i>Yomu</i> 読む (To read) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • かって • いって • とうて • かいて • きいて • いって • かいで • かって • しって • しんで • よんで • よんで 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • かわなくて • いわなくて • とわなくて • かかなくて • きかなくて • いかなくて • かがなくて • かたなくて • しらなくて • しななくて • よばなかくて • よまなくて
Auxiliaries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>-masu</i> ます 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ～まして 	
Irregular	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kuru</i> 来る (To come) • <i>Suru</i> する (To do) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • きて • して 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • こなくて • しなくて
Adjectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Atarashii</i> 新しい (New) • <i>Ii/yo!</i> 良い (Good) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • あたらしくて • よくて 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • あたらしくなくて • よくなくて
Adj. Nouns	<i>Kantan da</i> 簡単だ (Easy)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • かんたんで 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • かんたんではなくて
Copula	<i>Da</i> だ (To be)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • で 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ではなくて

Conjugation Notes:

- With a select number of verbs such as *tō* 問う (to question), the particle *te* て simply follows the verb. Very few verbs do this, and whenever we come across them, this will be brought up.
 - Note how the conjugations for the affirmative forms are, in the case of verbs, made exactly how the past tense is made, utilizing the exact same sound changes.
 - As always, *de wa* では can be contracted to *ja* ジや.
 - As implied by the chart, the polite affirmative forms of verbs can be put in the *te* て form.
Ex. *Suru* する → *shimashite* しまして.
-

Usages of the Particle Te て

- The first and most important role of the particle *te* て is to **connect two clauses**. In doing so, it can also implicitly indicate reason for feelings, states, and/or the past. However, the action in the latter part(s) can't contain volition.

き
1. ニュースを聞いて、びっくりした。
Nyūsu wo kite, bikkuri shita.
I was surprised to hear the news.

にほんご　ぶんしょう　ふくざつ　わ
2. この日本語の文章は複雑で、よく分かりませんでした。
Kono Nihongo no bunshō wa fukuzatsu de, yoku wakarimasendeshita.
The Japanese was complicated, so I didn't understand it well.

- The particle *te* て can **list actions or qualities**, and **indicate a method for action** (like putting sugar in tea and drinking it).

あか　おお
3. そのリンゴは赤くて、大きいです。
Sono ringo wa akakute, ōkii desu.
The apple is red and big.

にほんご　かんたん　すば
4. 日本語は簡単で、素晴らしいです。
Nihongo wa kantan de, subarashii desu.
Japanese is easy and awesome.

かわだ　いえ　あたら　きれい
5. 川田さんの家は新しくて、綺麗ですね。
Kawada-san no ie wa atarashikute, kirei desu ne.
Mrs. Kawada's house is new and pretty, isn't it?

とうきょう　にぎ　おもしろ
6. 東京は賑やかで面白い。
Tōkyō wa nighiyaka de omoshiroi.
Tokyo is lively and interesting.

しゅくだい おお しけん むずか
7. このクラスは宿題が多くて、試験も難しかったです。

Kono kurasu wa shukudai ga okute, shiken mo muzukashikatta desu.

The class had a lot of homework, and the exams were difficult.

かれ かのじょ いえ よ てがみ とど
8. 彼は彼女の家に寄って、手紙を届けた。

Kare wa kanojo no ie ni yotte, tegami wo todoketa.

He stopped by her house and delivered a letter.

ひと やさ あたま
9. あの人は優しくて頭がいいです。

Ano hita wa yasashikute atama ga ii desu.

That person is kind and smart.

た ど あた みまわ
10. 立ち止まって辺りを見回す。

Tachidomatte atari wo mimawasu.

To stop and look around.

かぜ つよ さむ ひ
11. 風が強くて寒い日

Kaze ga tsuyokute samui hi

A cold day where the wind is strong

やまだ やさ
12. 山田さんはきれいで優しいです。

Yamada-san wa kirei de yasashii desu.

Ms. Yamada is pretty and nice.

13. ジェシカさんはきれいで、親切な人です。

Jeshika-san wa kirei de, shinsetsu na hito desu.

Jessica is a pretty and kind person.

うつく しず じょせい
14. 美しくて静かな女性

Utsukushikute shizuka na josei

A beautiful, quiet woman

せかい すば おもしろ
15. 世界は素晴らしい、面白い。

Sekai wa subarashikute, omoshiroi.

The world is wonderful and interesting.

かる
16. 軽くて {かっこいい・スマート} なケータイがほしいです。

Karukute [kakko-ii/sumāto] na kētai ga hoshii desu.

I want a light and stylish cell phone.

Verb Deletion

What if you are just repeating the same verb over and over again? You can delete all but the last, and you can even delete the particle that goes with it except in the last clause.

17a. ランスはフランスへ^い行って、セスは日本へ^い行って、サムは中国へ^{ちゅうごく}行きました。^い

17b. ランスはフランスへ、セスは日本へ、サムは中国へ行きました。

17c. ランスはフランス、セスは日本、サムは中国へ行きました。

17a. *Ransu wa Furansu e itte, Sesu wa Nihon e itte, Samu wa Chūgoku e ikimashita.*

17b. *Ransu wa Furansu e, Sesu wa Nihon e, Samu wa Chūgoku e ikimashita.*

17c. *Ransu wa Furansu, Sesu wa Nihon, Samu wa Chūgoku e ikimashita.*

Lance went to France, Seth went to Japan, and Sam went to China.

Negative Te て Forms

There are two possible negative *te て* forms: *-naide* ないで and *-nakute* なくて. *-naide* ないで means "without" as in "without doing something," whereas *-nakute* なくて simply conjoins two clauses (in line with the usages of *te て* explained above), with the first happening to be in the negative. Note that only verbs are capable of being used with *-naide* ないで.

Part of Speech	Example Verb	<i>-nakute</i> なくて	<i>-naide</i> ないで
<i>Ichidan Verbs</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Miru</i> 見る • <i>Taberu</i> 食べる 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • みなくて • たべなくて 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • みないで • たべないで
<i>Godan Verbs</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kau</i> 買う (To buy) • <i>Iu</i> 言う (To say) • <i>Tō</i> 問う (To question) • <i>Kaku</i> 書く (To write) • <i>Kiku</i> 聞く (To listen) • <i>Iku</i> 行く (To go) • <i>Kagu</i> 嗅ぐ (To sniff) • <i>Katsu</i> 勝つ (To win) • <i>Shiru</i> 知る (To know) • <i>Shinu</i> 死ぬ (To die) • <i>Yobu</i> 呼ぶ (To call) • <i>Yomu</i> 読む (To read) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • かわなくて • いわなくて • とわなくて • かかなくて • きかなくて • いかなくて • およがなくて • かたなくて • かわらなくて • しななくて • よばなかくて • よまなくて 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • かわないで • いわないで • とわないで • かかないで • きかないで • いかないで • かがないで • かたないで • しらないで • しないで • よばないで • よまないで
Irregular	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Kuru</i> 来る (To come) • <i>Suru</i> する (To do) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • こなくて • しなくて 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • こないで • しないで

Adjectives	• Atarashii 新しい (New) • Ii/yoi 良い (Good)	• あたらしくなくて • よくなくて	
Adj. Nouns	Kantan da 簡単だ (Easy)	• かんたんではなくて	
Copula	Da だ (To be)	• ではなくて	

18. 辞書を {使わないで・引かないで} 、手紙を書いた。
Jisho wo [tsukawanaide/hikanaide], tegami wo kaita.

I wrote a letter without using a dictionary.

19. 友だちが来なくて、困りました。

Tomodachi ga konakute, komarimashita.

My friend didn't come, and I was upset.

20. 寝ないで待つ。

Nenaide matsu.

Wait without sleeping.

21. 今日は電車に乗らないで、歩いてきました。

Kyō wa densha ni noranaide, aruite kimashita.

I came by walking instead of riding the train today.

Curriculum Note: There is some considerable overlap between these two forms. Because of this, this section is scheduled to become its own lesson in the not too distant future.

More Examples

22. 私は昼ご飯を食べて、テレビを見て、音楽を聞いて、帰りました。

Watashi wa hirugohan wo tabete, terebi wo mite, ongaku wo kiite, kaerimashita.

I ate lunch, watched TV, listened to music, and came home.

23. 私は夏服をしまって、秋の服を出しました。

Watashi wa natsufuku wo shimatte, aki no fuku wo dashimashita.

I put up my summer clothes and got out my fall clothes.

24. 桜の花が散って、若葉が出ました。

Sakura no hana ga chitte, wakaba ga demashita.

The cherry blossoms have scattered, and the leaves have appeared.

25. 働いて、疲れた。

Hataraito, tsukareta.

I worked and got exhausted.

Te て Phrases Deemed as One Word

There are a few instances when the particle *te* て phrases result in single vocabulary items.

26. 真意を見て取る。
しんい み と
Shin'i wo mite-toru.

To grasp the real sense.

27. 選挙に打って出る。
せんきょ う で
Senkyo ni utte-deru.

To make one's debut in an election.

28. 急いで取って返す。
いそ と かえ
Isoide totte-kaesu.

To hurry and come back.

第27課: Numbers I: Sino-Japanese Numbers

Sino-Japanese numbers come from Chinese and are the most important kind of numbers in Japanese. Number(s) in Japanese is **数** かず. A similar word is **数字** すうじ. **数字** refers to units and or the characters that write out units. So, **数** doesn't always mean the same thing as **数字**.

Sino-Japanese Numbers

1~10

Though we are dealing with numbers that come from Chinese, some such as those in bold are actually native words treated as Sino-Japanese numbers. 4 is usually よん because シ is homophonous with 死 (death). 9 is usually きゅう because く is homophonous with 苦 (suffering). シ and く are hardly ever in big numbers. 7 is often なな, and you don't hear しち after the tens as an initial digit.

1 一 (いち)	2 二 (に)	3 三 (さん)	4 四 (よん・し)	5 五 (ご)
6 六 (ろく)	7 七 (なな・し)	8 八 (はち)	9 九 (きゅう・く)	10 十 (じゅう)

Zero Note: Zero can be ゼロ, れい (零), or ○ (まる). まる means "circle" and is like "o" for zero. ゼロ is written as 0 in numbers. れい is Sino-Japanese and is also common.

11~100,000

Because this system is broken up by powers of four, big numbers are easy. 11 is "ten one". 200 is "two hundred". 10,000 is the fourth power, so the unit changes. To raise the power further, you add 十, 百, and 千 in that order. This doesn't stop where the chart stops, but it's all you need to know for now.

11	十一 (じゅういち)	12	十二 (じゅうに)	20	二十 (にじゅう)
30	三十 (さんじゅう)	100	百 (ひゃく)	300	三百 (さんびゃく)
600	六百 (ろっぴゃく)	800	八百 (はっぴゃく)	1,000	(一) 千 ((いっ) せん)
3,000	三千 (さんぜん)	4,000	四千 (よんせん)	7,000	ななせん
8,000	八千 (はっせん)	10,000	一万 (いちまん)	100,000	十万 (じゅうまん)

Number Notes:

- いっせん really isn't ever used unless a number precedes it. So, if you want to say 11,000, you should say いちまんいっせん.
- Due to certain phonetic rules, 300, 600, 800, 3,000, and 8,000 seem irregular.

Practice (1):

Part I: Write out the following numbers in 漢字.

- 3,0042. 6843. 10,5634. 24
5. 795 6. 18,9747. 100,6748. 201,345

Part II: Write out the following numbers in Arabic numerals.

- 五百六十七
- 四十五万六千七百八十九
- 三十五
- 八千九百五十九
- 二百十
- 四十七
- 十万二百四十五

Part III: Write out the following numbers in かな.

1. 四十 2. 七千六百三十八 3. 二千三百四十六 4. 三百五十三 5. 百二 6. 八百九十三

Spelling Numbers

The most common way to write numbers is using 0, 1, 2, etc. 漢字 are still used in vertical texts, set phrases, and what not but not in the realm of math. 漢字 spellings can be used like Arabic numerals, which is common in pricing and literature. Units like 万 can be in 漢字 like in 2 万 2 千 (22,000), which is common in news reports.

Arabic Numerals	Traditional	Kanji like 0, 1, 2, 3...	Abbreviated 1, 2, 3...
203	二百三	二〇三	2 0 3
5,843	五千八百四十三	五八四三	5 8 4 3
9,630,000	九百六十三万	九六三〇〇〇〇	9 6 3 万

Practice (2): Write the following numbers in a different way.

1. 1002. 6 万 7 3 7 0 3. 七〇四三〇〇

Note: Add マイナス (–) to the front to make negative numbers. So, -5 would be マイナス ご.

Phone Number

でんわばんごう

For phone numbers (電話番号) simply read out the numbers. One mora numbers may become two morae long. So, に → にい. 4, 7, and 9 are normally よん, なな, and きゅう respectively. For zero, you can hear ゼロ, れい, or まる. まる is especially preferred by clerks. In conversion, ゼロ is the most common. On TV, you may often hear れい especially in formal situations like NHK news announcements. の stands for a dash, but not everyone includes it. This is just like how English speakers optionally say space or dash.

「電話番号は何番ですか。」 「3 0 5 6 – 7 7 3 5です。」
"What is your phone number?" "It's 3056-7735".

You could also say XXXX番のXXXX. 番 is the #. , 2 and 10 may be ふた and とお respectively with -番. In fact, ひやくとおばん, #110, is the Japanese equivalent of 911. #119 is used to call firefighters, etc.

Practice (3): Write out the following made-up phone numbers in かな.

1. 977-947-4773 2. 6734-8539 3. 36-463-7574 4. 64-64-647 5.
6766-7744

Keys

Practice (1)

Part I

1. 三千四 2. 六百八十四 3. 一万五百六十三 4. 二十四 5. 七百九十五
6. 一万八千九百七十四 7. 十万六百七十四 8. 二十万 (一) 千三百四十五

Part II

1. 567 2. 456,789 3. 35 4. 8,959 5. 210 6. 47 7. 100,245

Part III

1. よんじゅう 2. ななせんろっぴやくさんじゅうはち 3. にせんさんびやくよんじゅうろく
4. さんびやくごじゅうさん
5. ひやくに 6. はっぴやくきゅうじゅうさん

Practice (2)

1. 一〇〇、百、1百 2. 六七三七〇、六万七千三百七十、67,370 3. 704,300、七十萬四千三百、70万4千3百

Practice (3)

1. きゅう なな なな (の) きゅう よん なな (の) よん なな なな さん
2. ろく なな さん よん (の) はち ご さん きゅう
3. さん ろく (の) よん ろく さん (の) なな ご なな よん
4. ろく よん (の) ろく よん (の) ろく よん なな
5. ろく なな ろく ろく (の) なな なな よん よん

第28課: Counters I: 円, 冊, 課, 人, 名, 歩, 枚, ページ, 頭, 匹, 足, 台, 階, 歳, & 杯

When we learned about Sino-Japanese numbers, we learned that most number phrases in Japanese are largely inherited from Chinese. However, there is more to counting than 一, 二, 三, 四, 五, 六, 七, 八, 九, 十, 二十, 三十, 一百, 一千, 一万, etc. There are also many other counters used for specific items or situations.

さん

三, etc. When counting *things* rather than just counting in general, you must use what are called counters, *josūshi* 助数詞, along with the numbers. The name *josūshi* 助数詞 can literally be interpreted as “helper numbers,” and that is exactly what they are: they help numbers count things.

There are a lot of counters that exist. This is because there are endless things in the world that we count. Incidentally, the infinite things one would want to count are neatly categorized and allotted to a finite number of counters. Counters, in a way, help indicate how nouns are conceptualized semantically speaking. Before we start conquering some of the most commonly used counters, first consider the following English phrases.

- i. When you go to the supermarket, could you buy a **gallon** of milk?
- ii. How many **loaves** of bread are left in the cupboard?
- iii. Why did you only give me three **slices** of ham?
- iv. How many **times** did you go?
- v. I have four **volumes** of the same book.

Counters in Japanese work just like the words in bold. The purpose of counters considering their English equivalents may seem easy enough, but there is a much greater challenge that has yet to be addressed. The challenge is how to read counter phrases.

When we learned about *on'yomi* 音読み and *kun'yomi* 訓読み, we learned that the distinction wasn't arbitrary or trivial. This dichotomy comes from words from Chinese and native words being spelled with the same writing system. Consequently, the Japanese counting system was also heavily influenced by Chinese. Most counters come from Chinese, but a combination of Sino-Japanese and native counters is used with both Sino-Japanese and native numbers.

For now, we'll be avoiding counters that use native numbers not taught yet. In this lesson, we'll only cover fifteen of the most frequently used counters to lessen the load of what needs to be learned for now. You will learn what they count, how they interact with numbers, and become familiar enough with them so that when we study counters again, learning an additional set won't be so bad.

Counters Covered in This Lesson

1. -en 円
2. -satsu 冊
3. -ka 課
4. -nin/-ri 人
5. -mei 名
6. -ho 歩
7. -mai 枚

8. *-pēji* ページ
9. *-tō* 頭
10. *-hiki* 匹
11. *-soku* 足
12. *-dai* 台
13. *-kai* 階
14. *-sai* 歳
15. *-hai* 杯

Reading Note: Whenever a counter expression has more than one reading, readings will be listed in order of most to least commonly used. Additionally, the most commonly used variant will be in bold for easier identification.

Chart Note: In all counter lessons in IMABI, readings will be given in charts in *hiragana* ひらがな only. This is so that readings can be concisely displayed with extraneous information.

Essential Counters

-en 円

Yen is the currency of Japan. *-en* 円 is both the name of the currency and the counter to count said currency. Despite being a Sino-Japanese counter used primarily with Sino-Japanese numbers, you'll still need to use the native numbers for 4 and 7 for most counters. Therefore, we will look at each counter on an individual basis.

1	いちえん	2	にえん	3	さんえん	4	よえん
5	ごえん	6	ろくえん	7	ななえん しちえん	8	はちえん
9	きゅうえん	10	じゅうえん	14	じゅうよえん	100	ひゃくえん
1000	(いっ) セんえん	10000	いちまんえん	?	なんえん		

Reading Note: With 4, the native number for 4 is よ instead of よん. This variation is rare but never optional whenever it is used.

わたし ごえんだま か あつ
1. 私 も5円玉を搔き集めました。

Watashi mo goen-dama wo kakiatsumemashita.

I also scraped up five-yen coins.

きょう いちまんえんさつ ひろ
2. 今日、1万円札を拾いました。
Kyō, ichiman'en-satsu wo hiroimashita.

Today, I picked up a 10,000-yen bill.

にひやくごじゅうえん
3. 250 円のお釣りでございます。
Nihyakugojūen no otsuri de gozaimasu.
Here is 250 yen in change.

Grammar Note: *De gozaimasu* でございます is used as a respectful form of *desu* です in this example sentence and would be expected in situations like this where the speaker ought to be respectful to the listener, which in this situation would be the customer.

-satsu 冊

The counter -satsu 冊 is used to count books, magazines, etc. 冊 itself is a pictograph of volumes of books next to each other, which should aid in remembering what it means.

1	いっさつ	2	にさつ	3	さんさつ	4	よんさつ
5	ごさつ	6	ろくさつ	7	ななさつ	8	はっさつ
9	きゅうさつ	10	じゅっさつ じっさつ	11	じゅういっさつ	20	にじゅっさつ にじっさつ
30	さんじゅっさつ さんじっさつ	50	ごじゅっさつ ごじっさつ	100	ひやくさつ	?	なんさつ

Reading Notes:

1. The contraction じつ for 10 is the original contraction. じゅつ, however, is what's largely used in the spoken language. The prescriptive, older form is often limited to formal situations such as news reports.
2. A minority of speakers pronounce 100冊 as "hyassatsu ひやっさつ."

わたし ほん ごじゅういっさつ
4. 私は本が 51 冊あります。
Watashi wa hon ga gojūissatsu arimasu.
I have fifty one books.

ほん 6 さつか
5. 本を6冊借りました。
Hon wo rokusatsu karimashita.
I borrowed six books.

いっさつよ
6. もう一冊読みました。
Mō issatsu yomimashita.
I read one more book.

-ka 課

When the counter *-ka* 課 is paired with the prefix *dai-* 第, it helps create the expression “Lesson #.” Before we get into the tricky part about this counter, let’s see how to pronounce it with the following numbers.

1	いっか	2	にか	3	さんか	4	よんか
5	ごか	6	ろっか	7	ななか しちか	8	はちか はっか
9	きゅうか	10	じゅっか じっか	11	じゅういっか	20	にじゅっか にじっか
30	さんじゅっか さんじっか	50	ごじゅっか ごじっか	100	ひやっか	?	なんか

だいはち か がくしゅう

7. 第8課を学習します。

Dai-hachika wo gakushū shimasu.

We will study Lesson 8.

Ex. 7 shows exactly how this counter can be used in a practical classroom setting to refer to which lesson is being studied. Unfortunately, the many phrases that English speakers would use such as “how many lessons are in this textbook?” are not easily expressed in Japanese.

Japanese speakers conceptualize books as being broken up into sections just like English speakers do. A written work may be broken up into chapters (*shō 章*) /units (*tangen 単元*), sections (*sekushon セクション*), or lessons (*ressun レッスン* • *ka 課*). These various counters, though, are different words for the same thing. None indicate volume of content. In the Japanese mind, it makes more sense to indicate from what to which section is being indicated rather than the number of sections itself. This contrasts with how an English-speaking student might think, who may feel gratification in having reached Lesson 100 in a language learning course.

With all this in mind, “how many lessons does the textbook have?” is most naturally expressed with something like Ex. 8.

きょうかしょ だいなんか

8. この教科書は第何課までありますか。

Kono kyōkasho wa dai-nanka made arimasu ka?

How many lessons does the textbook have? /Up to what lesson is there in a textbook?

Ex. 8 literally translates as “Up to what lesson is there in this textbook?” This allows the Japanese language student to ask how many lessons there are while also following the

Japanese mindset to figure out about up to what point one might study with the textbook. A context in which the student already knows how the curriculum is organized would make the most sense so that there is a concrete reference point as to where in the series the textbook gets the student.

Grammar Note: The particle *made* まで means “until/up to” and will be discussed in greater depth later on in IMABI.

This is not to say it isn't possible to ask this question in an English-like manner. However, the counter -*ka* 課 would not typically be used. Instead, *sekushon* セクション/*tangen* 単元 would be most suitable.

きょうかしょ なん
9. この教科書には何セクションありますか。

Kono kyōkasho ni wa nansekushon arimasu ka?

How many sections are in this textbook?

きょうかしょ たんげん
10. その教科書にはいくつの単元がありますか。

Sono kyōkasho ni wa ikutsu no tangen ga arimasu ka?

How many units are in that textbook?

Tangen 単元 is a well-known word among educators and concerned college students, but it's not quite the word you would encounter. As such, for it to be used as naturally as possible in this sentence, *ikutsu no tangen* いくつの単元 is used instead of *nantangen* 何単元. Both are possible phrases and are synonymous with each other. In Ex. 10, it is possible to replace *tangen* 単元 with *ka* 課 or *ressun* レッスン, but the sentence would sound rather unnatural. *Ressun* レッスン denotes a very English-based context. For instance, レッスン1 is possible and 1 is typically pronounced as “wan ワン” in this circumstance.

か
Another reason for why there are restrictions on how *ka* 課 can be used to mean “lesson” is because it's normally used to mean “department.” In fact, 何課 is typically read as “nanika なにか” meaning “what department?”

えいぎょうにか
11. 営業二課は変更 (が) ありません。

Eigyō Nika wa henkō (ga) arimasen.

There will be no changes to Sales Department No. 2.

-nin/-ri 人

Counting people in Japanese is not particularly easy. This is because the Sino-Japanese counter -*nin* にん coexists with the native counter -*ri* り, both of which are written as 人. For numbers 1, 2, 4, 7, and any number ending in 4 or 7, native numbers can be seen used.

However, the native counter *-ri* り is used only with 1 and 2. This means 4 and 7 behave just how we've seen them used thus far.

1	ひとり	2	ふたり	3	さんなん	4	よにん
5	ごにん	6	ろくにん	7	しちにん ななにん	8	はちにん
9	きゅうにん くにん	10	じゅうにん	11	じゅういちにん	14	じゅうよにん
19	じゅうくにん じゅうきゅうにん	20	にじゅうにん	100	ひゃくにん	?	なんにん

Reading Notes: As you can see, there are several peculiarities in this chart. *Hitori* ひとり (one person) and *futari* ふたり (two people) are both inherited from native vocabulary. It is perhaps because of their high frequency of use that has spared them from being replaced.

The reading of 4 is also よ just as with *-en* 円. For 7, *shichinin* しちにん is the predominant reading. As for the reading “*ku* く” for 9, it becomes the predominant reading for 19, 29, etc.

The reason why *kunin* くにん is avoided for “9 people” is because the connection of *ku* 九 being homophonous to *ku* 苦 (suffering) becomes more apparent. However, both *kyūnin* きゅうにん and *kunin* くにん are correct and used.

12. 何人いますか。
なんにん

Nan'nin imasu ka?

How many people are there?

13. 子供が10人います。
こども じゅうにん

Kodomo ga jūnin imasu.

There are ten children.

14. 警察官が8人来了。
けいさつかん はちにんき

Keisatsukan ga hachinin kita.

Eight police officers came.

-mei 名

In formal situations, people are counted with *-mei* 名 instead of *-nin* 人. *-mei* 名 replaces *-nin* 人 especially when counting members, participants, staff, etc. However, regardless of the

situation, *-nin* 人 is still used when referring to population, occupancy, family, etc. You'll see that in the news or newspapers that *-nin* 人 is used across the board to give the most objective tone possible.

1	いちめい	2	にめい	3	さんめい	4	よんめい
5	ごめい	6	ろくめい	7	ななめい しちめい	8	はちめい
9	きゅうめい	10	じゅうめい	100	ひゃくめい	?	なんめい

15. 「何名様ですか？」 「 {4名・4人} です。」
 “Nammei-sama desu ka?” “[Yommei/yonin] desu.”
 “How many people?” “Four.”

16. スタッフが3名います。
Sutaffu ga sammei imasu.
 There are three staff members.

17. 従業員が100名を超えてます。
Jūgyōin ga hyakumei wo koete imasu.
 There are over 100 employees.

Phrase Note: The phrase *wo koete iru* を超えている means “to exceed/to be over.”

-ho 歩

The counter *-ho* 步 counts steps.

1	いっぽ	2	にほ	3	さんぽ	4	よんほ
5	ごほ	6	ろっぽ	7	ななほ	8	はっぽ
9	きゅうほ	10	じゅっぽ じっぽ	100	ひゃっぽ	?	なんぽ なんほ

18. 毎日5千歩くらい歩きます。
Mainichi gosempo kurai arukimasu.
 I walk about five thousand steps every day.

Grammar Note: The particle *kurai* くらい means “about” and will be discussed in greater detail later in IMABI.

いっぽいっぽ いっぽ すす
19. {一歩一歩・一歩ずつ} 進む。

[*Ippo ippo/ippo zutsu*] *susumu*.
To proceed one step at a time.

-mai 枚

The counter *-mai* 枚 counts thin and flat objects. As such, it is frequently used to count “paper” and the likes. Interestingly enough, it can also count fields (in a general sense). This is because, just like paper, fields are typically flat. Ironically, this counter is not used to count pages. The counter for that will be discussed next.

1	いちまい	2	にまい	3	さんまい	4	よんまい
5	ごまい	6	ろくまい	7	ななまい しちまい	8	はちまい
9	きゅうまい	10	じゅうまい	100	ひゃくまい	?	なんまい

かみいちまい
20. 紙一枚

Kami ichimai
One piece of paper

さんまい
21. シャツが3枚あります。

Shatsu ga sammai arimasu.
There are three shirts.

こうえん ひょうしき ごまい
22. 公園には標識が5枚あります。

Kōen ni wa hyōshiki ga gomai arimasu.
There are five signs in the park.

-pēji ページ

Pēji ページ means “page.” It has been incorporated into Japanese as both a noun and a counter to count pages.

1	いっぺーじ いちページ	2	にページ	3	さんページ	4	よんページ
---	----------------	---	------	---	-------	---	-------

5	ごページ	6	ろくページ ろっぴーじ	7	ななページ	8	はっぴーじ はちページ
9	きゅうページ	10	じゅつページ じっぺーじ	100	ひゃくページ	?	なんページ

Grammar Note: Some speakers view the contracted forms as meaning “x quantity of pages” and use the non-abbreviated forms to mean “page #.” However, this distinction is not set in stone and the choice is made by personal preference.

ほん にひゃくごじゅう
23. この本は 250 ページあります。
Kono hon wa nihyakugojuppēji arimasu.
This book has two hundred fifty pages.

なん よ
24. 何ページ読みましたか。
Nampēji yomimashita ka?
How many pages did you read?

じゅうご ひら
25. 15 ページを開いてください。
Jūgopēji wo hiraite kudasai.
Please open Page 15.

Grammar Note: These examples show both instances of this counter being used as a *noun* or *adverb*. In Japanese, counter phrases are most often used as adverbs, which explains why the word order seems so different from English. However, counters can be used as nouns. For this lesson, only a handful of instances of counters used as nouns will be presented. This is to allow you to study how counters are most frequently used and leave the more complex issue of part of speech to a later lesson.

Spelling Note: This counter can also be spelled as 頁.

-tō 頭

とう
The counter -tō 頭 counts naturally large animals. It is also the counter for animals in general that are present at a zoo. In the world of zoology, even insects are counted with this (including butterflies). As you will discover, depending on the animal and its physical characteristics, one or more counters may be applicable.

1	いとう	2	にとう	3	さんとう	4	よんとう
5	ごとう	6	ろくとう ろっとう	7	ななとう	8	はととう はちとう

9	きゅうとう	10	じゅうとう じっとう	100	ひゃくとう ひやつとう	?	なんとう
---	-------	----	---------------	-----	----------------	---	------

26. イルカが 3 頭います。
Iruka ga santō imasu.

There are three dolphins.

27. ヒョウが 4 頭います。
Hyō ga yontō imasu.

There are four leopards.

28. パンダが 8 頭います。
Panda ga hattō imasu.

There are eight pandas.

-hiki 匹

The counter **-hiki 匹** counts small animals. Birds are typically counted with other counters. Because that counter is especially tricky, we'll learn about it later. As for this counter, it is the most common counter for animals in general in layman's speech.

1	いっぴき	2	にひき	3	さんびき	4	よんひき
5	ごひき	6	ろっぴき	7	ななひき	8	はっぴき
9	きゅうひき	10	じゅうひき じっひき	100	ひゃくひき	?	なんびき

29. この家には犬が10匹、猫が5匹います。
Kono ie ni wa inu ga juppiki, neko ga gohiki imasu.

There are ten dogs and five cats in this house.

30. 私は子猫 (が) 3 匹います。
Watashi wa koneko (ga) sambiki imasu.

I have three kittens.

31. 私は子犬 (が) 1 匹います。
Watashi wa koinu (ga) ippiki imasu.

I have one puppy.

-soku 足

The counter *-soku* 足 counts pairs of footwear such as shoes and socks.

1	いっそく	2	にそく	3	さんぞく さんそく	4	よんそく
5	ごそく	6	ろくそく	7	ななそく	8	はっそく
9	きゅうそく	10	じゅっそく じっそく	100	ひゃくそく	?	なんぞく なんそく

Reading Notes: The reading *-zoku* is also frequently seen with 1000 (*senzoku/sensoku* 千足) and 10000 (*ichimanzoku/ichimansoku* 一万足). Additionally, any number ending in 3 may utilize this reading.

32. 靴を1足買いました。
Kutsu wo issoku kaimashita.
I bought one pair of shoes.

33. サンダルが2足あります。
Sandaru ga nisoku arimasu.
There are/I have two pairs of sandals.

34. 下駄は今も5足あります。
Geta wa ima mo gosoku arimasu.
I still have five pairs of geta.

Word Note: Geta are wooden clogs. This is the traditional Japanese sandal.

Word Note: To refer to one part of a pair, there are two options: *katahō* 片方 or *hansoku* 半足, with the former option being the most common and usable for any kind of pair. To say something like “two and a half pairs, you would use *nisoku-han(bun)* 2足半 (分) .

-dai 台

The counter *-dai* 台 is used to count mechanical objects both large and small and non-electric and electric ones alike. This means it can count vehicles of any kind, bicycles, pianos, devices of any kind, etc.

1	いちだい	2	にだい	3	さんだい	4	よんだい
5	ごだい	6	ろくだい	7	ななだい しちだい	8	はちだい
9	きゅうだい	10	じゅうだい	100	ひゃくだい	?	なんだい

にほんこくない くるま なんだい
 35. 日本国内には車は何台ありますか。
Nihon kokunai ni wa kuruma wa nandai arimasu ka?
 How many cars in Japan?

わたし にだい ピーシー つな
 36. 私はこの2台のPCを繋ぎます。
Watashi wa kono nidai no piishii wo tsunagimasu.
 I'm going to connect these two PCs.

たんまつ じゅうだいはっそう
 37. 端末を10台発送しました。
Tammatsu wo jūdai hassō shimashita.
 I shipped ten devices.

-kai 階

かい
 The counter *-kai* 階 counts stairs. In English, some difference exists across dialects as to what “first floor, second floor, etc.” refer to. However, in American English, the ground floor is referred to as the “first floor” as is the case in Japanese. Basement floors follow the same naming scheme as in American English as well. B1 becomes “chika ikkai 地下1階 = underground floor 1.”

1	いっかい	2	にかい	3	さんかい さんかい	4	よんかい
5	ごかい	6	ろっかい	7	ななかい	8	はちかい はっかい
9	きゅうかい	10	じゅっかい じっかい	100	ひやっかい	?	なんかい なんかい

Reading Note: For any number that ends in 3, 階 may be read as “gai がい.” For numbers with 8, the reading “hachi はち” for 8 is preferred by announcers of all sorts to avoid any form of confusion. In fact, in announcements on planes, trains, buses, elevators, etc., counter phrases are frequently used without any sound changes.

はなや さんかい
38. 花屋は3階にあります。

Hanaya wa sangai ni arimasu.
The florist is on the third floor.

わたし よんかい す
39. 私はマンションの4階に住んでいます。

Watashi wa manshon no yonkai ni sunde imasu.
I live on Floor 4 of an apartment complex.

たてもの なんがいだ
40. この建物は何階建てですか。

Kono tatemono wa nangaidate desu ka?
How many floors does this building have?

Word Note: To refer to how many floors a building has, *-kaidate* 階建て must be used.

-sai 歳・才

The counter *-sai* 歳・才 counts how many “years old” one is. The first character is used the most, but in abbreviated writing, the latter character is used.

1	いっさい	2	にさい	3	さんさい	4	よんさい
5	ござい	6	ろくさい	7	ななさい	8	はっさい
9	きゅうさい	10	じゅっさい じっさい	15	じゅうござい	18	じゅうはっさい
20	はたち にじゅっさい にじっさい	21	にじゅういっさい	100	ひやくさい	?	なんさい

Reading Notes: To ask “how old are you?” you may also be asked “*o-ikutsu desu ka?* おい なさい” using native phrasing instead of “*nansai desu ka?* 何歳ですか.” The former is politer.

じゅうはっさい みせいねん さんいん
41. 18歳の未成年が3人います。
Jūhassai no miseinen ga san'nin imasu.
There are three minors aged 18.

Culture Note: In Japan, individuals under the age of 20 are considered minors.

- はちじゅっさい さんか
 42. 80 歳のおばさんも参加しました。
Hachijussai no obasan mo sanka shimashita.
 An eighty-year old lady also participated.

-hai 杯

はい
 The counter *-hai* 杯 counts a cup/bowl/glass full of something or squid/octopus/crab (when taken out of the water and then sold).

1	いっぱい	2	にはい	3	さんぱい さんぱい	4	よんはい
5	ごはい	6	ろっぱい	7	ななはい しちはい	8	はっぱい
9	きゅうはい	10	じゅっぱい じっぱい	100	ひやっぱい	?	なんぱい なんぱい

Reading Notes: Traditionally, counters that start with “h” have a sound change with 3 or *nan-* 何 of “h” to “b,” not “p.” This, though, has changed for most counters and is currently changing for *-hai* 杯.

- いっぱいの
 43. コーヒーを一杯飲みました。
Kōhii wo ippai nomimashita.
 I drank a cup of coffee.

- いっぱい おも はか
 44. イカ 1杯の重さを量りました。
Ika ippai no omosa wo hakarimashita.
 I measured the weight of one squid.

Spelling Note: *Ika* is seldom spelled as 烏賊.

- じもと に はいつか
 45. 地元のカニを2杯使いました。
Jimoto no kani wo nihai tsukaimashita.
 I used two local crabs.

Spelling Note: *Kani* is occasionally spelled as 蟹.

- おおがた さんぱい つ
 46. 大型のタコを3杯も釣りました！
Ōgata no tako wo sambai mo tsurimashita!

I caught three large octopuses!

Spelling Note: *Tako* is occasionally spelled as 蝣.

47. 一杯のご飯
いっぽい はん
Ippai no gohan

A bowl of food/rice

Word Note: *Gohan* ご飯 is often used to mean “meal” even though it literally means “cooked rice.”

Ippai 一杯 is used in a lot of expressions. It can show that a container is full of something. It can also be used with time phrases to indicate the full extent of time one has. Showing extent also translates into showing the extent something can be done. Think of this whenever you come across it in a set expression.

48. 精一杯
せいいっぽい
Sei ippai
As hard as possible

Sound Change Rules for Sino-Japanese Counters

After seeing fifteen counters, you may have noticed patterns to the sound changes you've seen. In the chart below, all these rules are detailed in a systematic fashion. Some rules involve counters not taught in this lesson, but you won't need to memorize them until they are introduced.

No.	Contraction	Counters	Effect	Examples
1	いち → いつ	#k, s, sh, t, ch, h, f.	H/F → P	いつかい・いつさい・いっぱい
3	n/a	n/a	H/F → B/P*	さんぽん・さんぱい・さんふん
4	n/a	n/a	H → P	よんふん・よんぱい
4	よ → よん	Almost all.	n/a	よんかい・よんさい
6	ろく → ろっ	#k, h, and f.	H/F → P.	ろっかい・ろっぽ
8	はち → はつ	#k, s, sh, t, ch, h, f.	H/F → P	はっさい・はっぽ
10	じゅう → じゅつ	#k, s, sh, t, ch, h, f.	H/F → P	じゅっかい・じゅっさい

100	ひゃく → ひやつ	#k, h, and f.	H/F → P.	ひやっかい・ひやっぴき
1000	n/a	n/a	H/F → B/P*	せんぼん・せんぱい・せんぶん
1万	n/a	n/a	H/F → B/P*	いちまんぼん・いちまんぶん
何	n/a	n/a	H/F → B/P*	なんぼん・なんぱい・なんぶん

Chart Notes:

- Almost all counters use よん instead of よ. However, some of the most important counters use よ, so be careful whenever those counters are discussed.
- H → P has slowly been replacing H → B, but the choice between the two is currently all over the place.
- The contraction for 10 is formally じつ, but most speakers now use じゅつ.

As we study more counters, you'll see that these rules can be extended to non-Sino-Japanese counters, but the pronunciation of counter phrases is undergoing major flux in Modern Japanese. Ultimately, you'll have to study how people say counter phrases and follow accordingly.

第29課: Counters II: 個 vs つ

In our second lesson on counters, we will tackle how to count things in general with *-tsu* つ and *-ko* 個.

The Counter *-tsu* つ

Before Chinese loan words inundated Japanese, the language already had a counter system. Even then, there was one counter most frequently used. That counter continues to be used to count things in general. This counter is *-tsu* つ. Naturally, this counter is used with native numbers. However, it is because of this that it is greatly limited. After the number 9, 10 can be expressed with a native expression, but the system for counting things in general is largely limited up to 10 as an effect.

0	<i>Nashi</i> なし	1	<i>Hitotsu</i> ひとつ	2	<i>Futatsu</i> ふたつ
3	<i>Mi(t)tsu</i> み (っ) つ	4	<i>Yo(t)tsu</i> よ (っ) つ	5	<i>Itsutsu</i> いつつ
6	<i>Mu(t)tsu</i> む (っ) つ	7	<i>Nanatsu</i> ななつ	8	<i>Ya(t)tsu</i> や (っ) つ
9	<i>Kokonotsu</i> ここのつ	10	<i>Tō</i> とお	?	<i>Ikutsu</i> いくつ

Notes: *Nashi* なし literally means “nothing” and is where *-nai* ない derives. The small っ, although shown as being optional, is almost always pronounced. Other native numbers do

exist, but they survive only in set phrases. As such, these numbers will be addressed later in IMABI.

The *Kanji* 漢字 spellings for these phrases are as follows.

0	無し	1	一つ	2	二つ	3	三つ	4	四つ
5	五つ	6	六つ	7	七つ	8	八つ	9	九つ
10	十	?	幾つ						

Orthography Note: Typically, 1-9 are written with Arabic numerals.

Overusing *-tsu* つ will cause your speech to sound uneducated. This is partly because it is a native word and not a Sino-Japanese word. Sino-Japanese words tend to sound more sophisticated, especially when a native counterpart exists. When you use *-tsu* つ for just anything, there is also the risk that you'll ignore counters that have always been in Japanese. By extension, blanketly using *-tsu* つ to count anything may make it seem as if you're ignoring the whole system.

Howbeit, it is still used heavily in natural conversation. As such, we will now discuss the instances *-tsu* つ is used so that your usage of it may be as natural as possible.

Variation Note: Because the counter *-tsu* つ often replaces the 'proper' counter, variation may include counters not yet introduced. In such an event, you are not required to memorize said counters for now. However, it is still important to know that you have options and that those options may be more appropriate than *-tsu* つ.

1. Used to count three-dimensional items: This usage is the most common and the most problematic. Most physical items have counters to count them, but there are also some things solely counted with *-tsu* つ.

ふた くだ
1. 2つ下さい。
Futatsu kudasai.
Please give me two (of them).

よつ
2. ブースは4つあります。
Būsu wa yottsu arimasu.
There are four booths.

いつ
3. オフィスにテーブルが5つあります。
Ofisu ni tēburu ga itsutsu arimasu.
There are five tables in the office.

にほん おんせん なん しょ
4. 日本に温泉は {いくつ・何か所} ありますか。
Nihon ni onsen wa [ikutsu/nankasho] arimasu ka?
How many hot springs are there in Japan?

いつ ごしょう ごだい
5. ベッドは {五つ△・5床○・5台○} あります。
Bedo wa [itsutsu/goshō/godai] arimasu.
There are five beds.

あめ ひと いっこ た
6. 飴を {1つ・1個} 食べます。
Ame wo [hitotsu/ikko] tabemasu.
I'll eat one piece of candy.

2. Used to count things with an indeterminate form:

きいろ し ふた
7. タオルに黄色い染みが2つあります。
Taoru ni kiiroi shimi ga futatsu arimasu.
There are two yellow stains on the towel.

せんめんだい した おお みずた
8. 洗面台の下に大きな水溜まりがひとつあります。
Semmendai no shita ni ōkina mizutamari ga hitotsu arimasu.
There is a large puddle beneath the washstand.

はい かげ みつ
9. 肺に影が3つありました。
Hai ni kage ga mitsu arimashita.
There were three shadows on the/my lungs.

3. Used to count age (1-9) or to ask someone's age:

10. おいくつですか？
O-ikutsu desu ka?
How old are you?

こ みつ
11. うちの子は3つです。
Uchi no ko wa mitsu desu.
My child is three.

Grammar Note: *Tō +* can be used to mean “10 years old” to complete the series from 1-10.

4. Used to count abstract things:

り ゆ う む つ
12. 理由は 6 つあります。

Riyū wa muttsu arimasu.
There are six reasons.

なな
13. ミッショ n は 7 つあります。

Mission wa nanatsu arimasu.
There are seven missions.

じょうけん ひと
14. 条件は 1 つあります。

Jōken wa hitotsu arimasu.
There is one condition.

か じゅう やくそく まも
15. 交わした 10 の約束はひとつも守らなかった。

Kawashita jū no yakusoku wa hitotsu mo mamoranakatta.
You didn't even protect one of the ten promises we made.

Grammar Note: Ex. 15 shows an example of a number being used without a counter. This is because the series for counting “promises” switches from *-tsu* つ to no counter at all after 9.

The counter *-ko* 個, which is to be discussed shortly, could be used. The choice is up to the speaker in situations like this.

5. Used when ordering things:

ひと いっちょう
16. ラーメン {1 つ・1 丁} !

Rāmen [hitotsu/itchō]!

One ramen!

ひと くだ
17. ハムサンドイッチとコーヒーを 1 つ下さい。

Hamu-sandoitchi to kōhii wo hitotsu kudasai.

One ham sandwich and coffee please.

ひと いっはい くだ
18. アイスコーヒーを {1 つ・1 杯} 下さい。

Aisukōhii wo [hitotsu/ippai] kudasai.

One iced coffee please.

6. Used to replace the proper counter when deemed most convenient:

きんようび じゅぎょう なん
19. 金曜日に授業は {いくつ・何クラス} ありますか。

Kin'yōbi ni jugyō wa [ikutsu/nankurasu] arimasu ka?

How many classes do you have on Friday?

いえ ふた まえ えき ふたえきまえ ともだち ま あ
20. 家の {2つ前の駅・2駅前} で友達と待ち合わせました。

Ie no [futatsu-mae no eki/futaeki-mae] de tomodachi to machiawasemashita.
I met with a friend at the station two stations before my place.

Usage Note: It is this usage that causes students problems. This is because the decision to replace the proper counter with *-tsu* つ is one that is often very difficult even to native speakers. As such, it is best to use the counters you know and listen to when natives use *-tsu* つ.

7. Used in set phrases:

しちょうしゃ ここ
21. 視聴者 (たち) の 心 が ひ と つ に な っ た で し ょ う。
Shichōsha(-tachi) no kokoro ga hitotsu ni natta deshō.
The hearts of the viewers were surely one.

The Counter *-ko* 個

こ
The counter *-ko* 個 can be used to count round items or items that form a cluster. Incidentally, this counter is also used by some speakers to count anything. This comes from how it is used to count things when a specific counter can't be thought of by the speaker. In a way, you can view it as meaning "article" as in "an article of belongings."

1	いっこ	2	にこ	3	さんこ	4	よんこ
5	ごこ	6	ろっこ	7	ななこ	8	はちこ はっこ
9	きゅうこ	10	じゅっこ じっこ	100	ひやっこ	?	なんこ

Though generic, it accounts for physical items in general with which categorization is irrelevant. Even when it is used with something that is not necessarily a physical item, the thing in question will be treated as if it were a concrete item. This is a fundamental difference between it and *-tsu* つ. Thus, although *-ko* 個 may be more frequently used because of prestige it gets as a Sino-Japanese word, the number of things it can be used with (provided the speaker isn't one who uses it with anything and everything) is less than with *-tsu* つ. Nevertheless, the two do still overlap as some of the examples below illustrate.

Variation Note: In the examples below, variants are mentioned regardless of whether they've been taught by this point or not. Because *-ko* 個 does at times replace the 'proper' counter, it's best to know your options.

け さ　たまご　さん こ　みつ　た
22. 今朝、卵を {3個・3つ} 食べました。
Kesa, tamago wo [sanko/mittsu] tabemashita.
I ate three eggs this morning.

いっ こ　ひとたま　か
23. リンゴを {1個・1玉} 買いました。
Ringo wo [ikko/hitotama] kaimashita.
I bought one apple.

Spelling Note: *Ringo* is only seldom spelled as 林檎.

しろ　たま　に こ
24. 白い玉が2個あります。
Shiroi tama ga niko arimasu.
There are two white balls/beads.

に もつ　なん こ
25. 荷物は何個ですか。
Nimotsu wa nanko desu ka?
How many parcels/bags do you have?

あたら　せいひん　いちまん こ
26. 新しい製品が1万個あります。
Atarashii seihin ga ichimanko arimasu.
There are ten thousand new products.

うし　い　よん こ　よつ
27. 牛には胃が {4個・4つ} もあります。
Ushi ni wa i ga [yonko/yottsu] mo arimasu.
A cow has four stomachs.

にんげん　さいぼう　なん こ
28. 人間には細胞が {何個・いくつ} ありますか。
Ningen ni wa saibō ga [nanko/ikutsu] arimasu ka?
How many cells does a human have?

つ　き　なん こ
29. 積み木は何個ありますか。
Tsumiki wa nanko arimasu ka?
How many building blocks are there?

とけい　なん こ
30. 時計は何個ありますか。
Tokei wa nanko arimasu ka?
How many watches are there/do you have?

Counter Note: For arm watches (*udedokei* 腕時計), the counters *-ko* 個 and *-hon* 本 can be used. For alarm clocks (*mezamashidokei* 目覚まし時計), the counter *-ko* 個 is used. For wall

はしらどけい
clocks (*hashiradokei* 柱時計) or those that hang on the wall (*kakedokei* 掛け時計), the
こ　　だい
counters -ko 個 and -dai 台 can be used.

しかく　じゅっこ
31. 四角が 10 個あります。

Shikaku ga jukko arimasu.

There are ten squares.

あな　なんこ
32. ピアスの穴は何個ありますか。

Piasu no ana wa nanko arimasu ka?

How many pierces do you have?

ゆめ　ひやっこ
33. 夢は100個あります。

Yume wa hyakko arimasu.

I have a hundred dreams.

せいすう　ぜんぶ　なんこ
34. 整数は全部で何個ありますか。

Seisū wa zembu de nanko arimasu ka?

How many integers are there in total?

にほん　しちょうそん　なんこ
35. 日本に、市町村は何個ありますか。

Nihon ni, shichōson wa nanko arimasu ka?

How many municipalities are there in Japan?

Counter Note: In bureaucratic documentation, municipalities will be counted with each kind functioning as a counter. Meaning, “three cities” would be 3 市 and five villages would be

ごそん
5村 etc. Notice that the Sino-Japanese readings are used in this case.

いっこした　いっさいした　した　かれし
36. {1個下△・1歳下○・ひとつ下○} の彼氏がいます。

[Ikko-shita/issai-shita/hitotsu-shita] no kareshi ga imasu.

I have a boyfriend who is one year younger.

ごこ　ごほん
37. ジョウロが {5個・5本} あります。

Jōro ga [goko/gohon] arimasu.

There are five watering cans?

Spelling Note: ジョウロ can seldom be spelled as 如雨露.

ふうせん　いっこ　いちまい　いっぽん
38. 風船が {1個・1枚・1本} あります。

Fūsen ga [ikko/ichimai/ippōn] arimasu.

There is one balloon.

Counter Note: When not inflated, balloons are counted with *-mai 枚*. When balloons are shaped in long, cylindrical shapes, they're counted with *-hon 本*. When counting typical inflated balloons, you use *-ko 個*.

39. クモの巣が {5個・5つ} あります。

Kumo no su ga [goko/itsutsu] arimasu.

There are five spider webs.

Spelling Note: *Kumo* is occasionally spelled as 蜘蛛.

40. ジャガイモが 4 個あります。

Jagaimo ga yonko arimasu.

There are four potatoes.

Spelling Note: *Jagaimo* is often spelled as じゃが芋.

第30課: The Particle の I

The particle の is an essential particle. Although much can be said about it, this lesson will solely be about its most important usage, which is its role as an attribute marker. We attribute details to everything, and in Japanese, this particle is what makes these attribute phrases possible.

The Case Particle の

の's primary role is to indicate that Noun 1 is an attribute of Noun 2, but Noun 2 will always be the main noun of the phrase. Treating の as the Japanese equivalent of "of" may be tempting, but know that both "of" and の have usages the other does not.

Examples

Notice how in all the examples below, の helps *qualify* the noun that follows.

1. 高台の建物
たかだい たてもの

A building on high ground

2. 氷の上を滑る。
こおり すべ

To slide on top of ice.

3. ニューヨークの冬はとても寒いですね。
New York winters are really cold, isn't it?

かいがん
4. ハワイの海岸はきれいです。
The Hawaiian coast is pretty.

きせつ うつ か おもしろ
5. 季節の移り変わりは面白い。
The changing of the seasons is interesting.

やけど
6. 指（の）先を火傷する。
To burn the tip of one's fingers.

ふぶき そうさく
7. 吹雪の中を搜索する。
To search through the blizzard.

おおがた しゅつけん
8. 大型（の）クラゲが出現した。
A big jelly fish appeared.

わたしあて
9. 私宛のメッセージはありますか。
Are there any messages for me?

Definition Note: 宛(て) is "for" as in directed to.

いいん つと
10. 私はクラスの委員を務めました。
I served on the class committee.

へいわ
11. 世界（の）平和をもたらす。
To achieve world peace.

Particle Note: At times の is dropped. This is common in long chains of Sino-Japanese words. Particles are dropped when the grammatical relation the particle marks is obvious in context. In this context, の's role is obvious. So, it may be dropped. Japanese has a lot of compound nouns, so those would be examples of の not being needed. When in doubt, use の. It's not a guarantee what you'll say is 100% natural, but it will guarantee that you're being grammatically correct.

12. その赤ちゃんの顔は日焼けしている。
The baby's face is sunburned.

じこく なお
13. (私は) 彼の時計の時刻を直しました。

I fixed the time on his watch.

Word Note: 時刻 is used rather than 時間, which only refers to a period of time. Also note that 時計 is read as とけい.

14. 秘書の上司 VS 上司の秘書
ひしょ じょうし

The secretary's boss VS The boss's secretary.

Phrase Note: The difference between these phrases is simply the relationship you're trying to show. Switch the nouns and you'll switch the roles. The particle の doesn't change at all.

の can also follow other case particles--never が nor に. It can also be after some adverbs. When this happens, it is best to treat the adverb as a nominal phrase.

15. 神への道

Road to God/the gods

16. 母からの手紙

A letter from my mother

17. しばらくの間

For a while

Practice (1): Translate the following. You may use a dictionary.

1. To fix part of a computer.
2. She is the secretary of the company president.
3. A person with pretty eyes.
4. Takamura the bank employee.
5. This is a Japanese textbook.
6. Hokkaido in the winter.
7. I have three children.
8. Her house is beautiful.

We can describe の in the following situations. Remember that these are just different situations of の qualifying a noun to describe what its attributes are. The grammar is the same.

1. Shows the **nature of something**.

- It may mark possession. Ex. 私の時計 = **my** watch.
- It may mark location or time. Ex. 夏のテキサス = Texas in summer.
- It may mark a characteristic. Ex. 木の橋 = wooden bridge.

- It may mark quantity. Ex. 3つの大学 = three colleges.
- It may indicate position. Ex. 社長の正木 = Masaki the company president.

2. Shows the **standard for a relative relationship.**

- It may show a part related to a whole. Ex. ペンの先 = tip of pen.
- It may show a relative placement. This placement may be physical, temporal, etc.
Ex. の後 means "after". It is also how you show the location of something.

3. Shows the **characteristics of affairs.**

- It can show solid information about a matter. Ex. 事故の報告 = accident report.
 - It may show purpose. Ex. 出張の準備 = business trip preparations.
 - It may show the object of action. Ex. 日本語の勉強をする = to study Japanese.
-

Conflicts with Other Means of Making Attribute Expressions

Adjectives also make attributes. There are also words like 特別 for which な or の are used to create attributes. One form may be more common than the other, but there may also be semantic differences.

ばかな人 VS ばかの人

The first is "stupid person", but the second sounds like "the person of an idiot", which isn't something you'd necessarily say.

Verbs can be used as attributes as well. So, we get some variation in phrases such as in どしゃ降りの雨 and どしゃ降る雨 being acceptable for "pouring rain," though the first is more proper. In similar expressions, both may be fine or be narrowed in usage.

18. 平等の権利を与える。

To give equal rights.

19. 平等な {扱い・世界・社会・問題・ルール}

Fair {treatment/world/society/problem/rule}

20. 段る蹴るの暴力を受ける。

To receive violence of punches and kicks.

Part of Speech Note: There are rare expressions with の after verbs to make an attribute phrase. Treat these instances as separate words. You don't have to bother yourself with this example, but it is grammatically intriguing.

Key

Practice

1. コンピュータ（一）の一部を直す。
2. 彼女は社長の秘書です。
3. きれいな眼の人。
4. 銀行員の高村。
ぎんこういん
5. これは日本語の教科書だ。
6. 冬の北海道。
7. 子供が三人いる。
8. 彼女の家は美しい。
いえ

Note: Sometimes, trick question are needed to see if you can learn the content at hand and know whether or not it is the most natural grammar point to use in a given situation.

第31課: The Particle に I

に is the particle of "establishment." It encompasses place, time, direction, and destination. These things may not seem inherently related to each other, but as you learn more about these usages and how they are expressed with に, you'll see how they are quite interrelated in the realm of Japanese grammar.

The Case Particle に

に shows deep establishment of an action or state. For the most part, it is equivalent to "at." The next sections describe the most important usages of に.

- に may show where something exists or occurs and even mark the person of possession. With this comes a strong sense of relation between the verb and what に attaches to.

1. 彼には子どもがいる。
As for him, he has children.
2. この庭に花はない。
There aren't any flowers in this garden.
3. 小学校はどこ {にあります・です} か
Where is the elementary school?

Phrase Note: どこにありますか and どこですか are "where is it at?" and "where is it"

respectively. At times, they really aren't different. However, there are situations where one is more appropriate than the other. The same goes for the English equivalents.

4. 都市にたくさん建物を建てる。
To build a lot of buildings in the city.

5. いすに座る。
To sit in a chair.

6. 玄関に犬が一匹いる。
There is a dog at the door.

7. 彼は台所の戸口にいます。
He is in the kitchen doorway.

8. 氷は水に浮く。
Ice floats on water.

9. 太陽は東に昇ります。
The sun (always) rises in the east.

10. 太陽は西に沈む。
The sun sets in the west.

11. 彼女は男の子に人気がある。
She is popular with boys.

12. 私は困難に陥った。
I fell into difficulties.

Word Note: Notice that 陥る is used instead of 落ちる. The words are related to each other. You would be right in thinking the おち in these words is the same thing.

13. 私の学校には韓国人の先生がいます。
There is a teacher who's Korean in my school.

14. 東京に住んでいますか。
Do you live in Tokyo?

Definition Note: 住む is "to live (somewhere)" and denotes the moment of moving in. ~てい

る shows the state of living there. 住む isn't used for animals. 生息する is.

15. この象はインドに生息する。
This elephant lives/inhabits India.

- Shows **destination or the direction of an action or goal**. As an extension, it also marks **indirect objects**. Both usages are used with intransitive verbs.

16a. 彼に会う。○

16b. 彼を会う。X
To meet him.

17. 雪が降って、雪崩に遭った。
Snow fell and then we got caught in an avalanche.

18. 私はいとこに手紙を書きました。
I wrote a letter to my cousin.

19. 我々はニューヨークに着きました。
We arrived in New York City.

20. 部屋に戻る。
To return to a room.

21. 家に帰る。
To return home.

22. 君に電話だよ。 (Masculine; casual)
There's a phone call for you.

23. 友だちがカリフォルニアに来ます。
My friend is coming to California.

24. スポーツに熱中する。
To be bent on sports.

25. バスが来なくて、授業に遅れました。
The bus didn't come, and so I was late to class.

26. 今期の利益は百億円に達しました。
This term's profits reached ten billion yen.

えき とうちやく
27. 彼女は駅に到着しました。
She arrived at the station.

- Shows the **effect, condition, state, or goal of an action**, including going somewhere.
It may also show pretext as in "you make your hands **as** a pillow."

びょうき
28. 彼女は病気になった。
She became sick.

Word Note: 病気 refers to an "illness" worthy of going to the hospital. When you don't feel well, say something like 気分が悪い or (体の) 調子が悪い.

しごと
29. 仕事に出かける。
To head to work.

わかもの こうほしや た
30. 彼らは若者を候補者に立てた。
They put a young person as the candidate.

さゆう ふ
31. 手を左右に振った。
I waved my hands left and right.

けいさつ きゅうじょ
32. 警察は彼らの救助を行った。
The police went to their rescue.

おきなわりょこう みやげ
33. 私は沖縄旅行のお土産にシーサーを買いました。
I bought a shisa as a souvenir of the trip to Okinawa.

Culture Note: A shisa is a guardian dog/lion hybrid often seen in statues and souvenirs in Okinawa. シーサー comes from the Okinawan word for lion, which is シシ in Japanese.

第32課: The Particle ^

The particle ^, pronounced as "e," is interchangeable with に for one usage. This particle is much easier.

The Case Particle ^

^ indicates movement to somewhere away from where the subject currently is. For the most part, it is interchangeable with に. However, **it must not be used to replace に for any other usage other than movement!**

へ is often associated with extravagant distances, or at least movement away from where the subject currently is. However, this is not always the case. As a grammatical rule, へ must never be replaced by に when preceded by の since に can't be used with の.

Particle Note: へと is a much stronger variant that emphasizes direction. You will see this mainly in music and literature.

1. 私は大阪へ行きます。
I'm going to Osaka.

2. 私は明日徳島へ行きます。
I will go to Tokushima tomorrow.

3. 神戸へ船を見に行きました。
I went to Kobe to see the boats.

4. 彼女はドアのところへ走って行った。
She ran to the door.

5. よく中国へ行きますか。
Do you often go to China?

6. 食堂へ行きませんか。
Why don't we go to the restaurant?

7. 左へ曲ってください。
Please turn left.

8. 川へ飛び込む。
To jump in the river.

9. 机の上 {に ○・へ △・X} 教科書を置く。
To place a textbook on top of the desk.

11. 学校へ行く途中だ。
I'm on my way to school.

12. 平和への歩み
Steps toward peace

13. 私は寿司屋へ行きました。

I went to a sushi restaurant.

- いざかや
14a. よくこの居酒屋へ来るんですか。X
14b. よくこの居酒屋に来るんですか。O
Do you often come to this pub?

Word Note: An 居酒屋 is a Japanese style pub where you can order a wide variety of foods and drinks for a low cost. They often have times or special deals for 飲み放題 (all you can drink) and 食べ放題 (all you can eat).

Particle Note: へ shows direction in going away to somewhere. Here, then, doesn't count in the last sentence because the addressee is already there.

- ま
15. 彼は間もなくここへ来ます。
He will be here shortly.

- き
16. ここへ座って話を聴いてください。
Come and sit down here and listen.

17. 去年イギリスへ行きました。オランダ（へ）も行きました。
Last year, I went to England. I also went to Holland.

Particle Note: Notice how へ isn't needed when followed by も.

- た む
18. 私はニューヨークを発ってシドニーへ向かいました。
I left New York for Sydney.

- しゅっちょう
19. 東京へ出張します。
I will take a business trip to Tokyo.

Culture Note: Presenting business cards, 名刺, is extremely important to business etiquette. You should present your card with both hands and take it out of a business card box, and you are to receive the other person's card, read it, and say 頂戴します. When exchanging cards with someone of higher status, you should make sure yours is below the other. You should place business cards in the back of your leather case, and if you are at a table, wait until the meeting is over before putting it in. Don't write on, damage, or fold business cards, at least not in front of the person.

20. 日本へ帰りたい。
I want to return to Japan.

Culture Note: The above phrase is very weird for a non-Japanese person to say. It's even wrong if someone Japanese is not actually born in Japan. The reason is that 帰る = "to go home." In the case that you want to say that you want to go Japan again, you should say something like 日本へまた行きたいです. Another way to say to return to one's country is 帰国する. This phrase is used more when referring to other people going back home.

Practice: Translate the following.

1. I'm going home.
2. This is a present to you.
3. A letter to my mother
4. I'm going to Tokyo.
5. To go to the left.

Key

Practice

1. 家に帰る。or 家へ帰る。
2. これは君へのプレゼントだ。
3. 母への手紙; お母さんへの手紙
4. 東京に行きます。or 東京へ行きます。
5. 左 {に・へ} 行く。

第33課: The Particle で I

In this lesson we'll study another crucial particle of Japanese, で. Many confuse it with に. However, after this lesson, you will realize that it is not the same thing. There are times when they overlap, but you'll leave this lesson with the knowledge needed to distinguish them.

The Case Particle で

1. で and に both frequently translate as "at." With で, however, there is no deep connection implied between the action and the place of said action as there is with に. The best example of this contrast between the two particles can be seen with the concept of "to work."

1. ここで働くます。 VS ここに勤めています。
I work here. I work here.

The first one says that you just work there. You may just be an extra hand, someone that just does things, or the job may just be temporary. The second says that you have been working there; you're employed there. It's the kind of work where you are going to probably be there for a long time. For example, 会社に勤めている。

に relates to the state of something whereas で relates to the occurrence of something. That is why に is used with verbs like ある, いる, and 勤める and で is used verbs like 働く, 会う, etc. However, it is very possible that you will have to use both in the same sentence because of other usages they have.

2. 学校で勉強します。

I study at school.

3. 図書館で勉強しました。

I studied at the library.

4. 駅前で買い物（を）する。

To shop in front of the train station.

Culture Note: There are almost always lots of shops in and around train stations in Japan.

5. 事務所で電話をかけます。

I will make a call at the office.

6. 彼女は海で泳いた。

She swam in the sea.

Particle Note: 海に泳ぐ in Modern Japanese is incorrect to the majority of speakers. When you use で, you are specifying the location of swimming. Otherwise, you would say 海を泳ぐ.

7. 私はいまびというサイトで日本語を勉強しています。

I'm studying Japanese at IMABI.

8. 子供たちが庭で遊んでいる。

The children are playing in the garden.

じしん

9. 北海道で地震がありました。
There was an earthquake in Hokkaido.
-

2. で shows the condition or method in which something is done--"of/with/by."

10. 日本語で話してください。
Please speak in Japanese.

りょうがえ

11. お金の両替はどこでできますか。
Where can I exchange money?

おんがく

12. ステレオで音楽を聞く。
Listen to music with a stereo.

はやくち

13. 彼は早口でしゃべった。
He chattered rapidly.

けっこんしき　きもの

14. 結婚式に着物で行きます。
I will go to the wedding in kimono.

15. 雨の日（に）はバスで学校に行きますか。
Do you go by bus to school on a rainy day?

かみ　つく

16. 僕は紙で力モを作った。
I made a duck out of paper.

ちかてつ

17. 地下鉄で行きます。
I('ll) go by subway.

18. このCDを3千円で買った。
I bought this CD for three thousand yen.

19. もはやデパートで働いていませんよ。
I no longer work at the department store.

われわれ　とうひょう　き

20. 我々は投票で決めました。
We decided by voting.

Word Note: Remember that 我々 is used in very formal situations.

21. 私はナイフで肉を切りました。
I cut the meat up with a knife.

22. 店の新聞でその記事を読みました。
I read that in the newspaper in the store.

23. これは電気で動きます。
This works with electricity.

24. お茶は要りません。水でけっこうです。
I don't need/want tea. I'm fine with water.

25. わたしはいつも（お）箸で食べます。
I always eat with chopsticks.

Culture Note: Do not point chopsticks completely vertically in a bowl of rice as this resembles burning incense sticks in funerals. Don't pass food with chopsticks because this is how bones are handled. Pass food by placing it on a small plate or using the ends. Mismatched chopsticks aren't used. Pointing chopsticks at someone may be considered a threat.

Curve Ball: に働く Exists...

Many students are penalized all the time making the annoying mistake of writing ～に働いています on a test. Unbeknownst to these students, the phrase isn't so incorrect as they have been taught. In fact, ～に働く is pretty common.

Why, then, must teachers distill false information? For one, telling students to google search examples of ～に働いています doesn't result in thousands of instances of "place + に働いています." The word preceding it can be a number of things such as adverbs, time phrases, etc. Furthermore, if a student were to look up 働く in a Japanese dictionary in Japanese, the verb is defined in way indicative of a temporary job position to simply sustain one's livelihood. It doesn't intrinsically imply working in a career sense.

However, when this is all blurred, the state of the job doesn't necessarily matter. After all, native speakers aren't going to consider the state of their job to determine which particle to use.

26. 彼女はうちの店に働いていますわ。
She's working at my store.

第34課: The Final Particle て

Particle classification is very important to keep in mind as you learn more about particles. The particle て discussed in this lesson is a final particle and mustn't be confused with the conjunctive one. Although the conjunctive て may be at the end of a sentence in the instance that the remaining part of a sentence is not said, overall context should always help you differentiate between the two.

The Final Particle て

The main purpose of the final particle て is to **make a light command**. This is the contraction of ~てください, the polite command. Likewise, the negative of this is ~ないで (ください), making the absence of ください a contracted form of the pattern. Thus, its absence for both the affirmative and negative makes it go from polite to plain speech. A more polite form of both can be made by changing ください to くださいませんか.

1. ちょっと待って。 (Casual)
Hold on.
2. 払い戻してください。
Please refund this.
3. 助けて！
Help!
4. 教科書を {閉じて・しまって} テストを受けてください。
Please do your test by closing your textbooks.
5. やめて！
Quit it!
6. これを見て。
Look at this.
7. タクシーを呼んでください。
Please call a taxi (for me).
8. はやく急いで！
Hurry quickly!
9. もっとゆっくりと話してください。

Please speak more slowly.

10. 速くしてよ！
(Do it) faster!

11. まっすぐ行ってください。
Please go straight.

12. 座布団を敷いてください。
Please sit on a cushion.

Culture Note: 座布団 are floor cushions used instead of chairs in traditional Japanese rooms.

Contraction Note: ~てて is the contraction of ~ていて. ~ている means "-ing". ~ていて creates a command similar to "be...-ing!".

In women's speech, ~(っ)てよ asserts opinion. However, this phrase has essentially disappeared in the younger generations and is most likely to be used by older women or seen in literature dating back a few decades ago. It is replaced by things such as ~てるよ.

13. あたくし、ちっとも酔ってなんかいなくてよ。
I'm not even the least bit drunk.
From 永すぎた春 by 三島由紀夫.

Particle Note: なんか is essentially a filler word here.

14. かまわなくってよ。
I don't care.

～て, with a high intonation, can make a question. These two usages, though, are **hackneyed yet refined**. This, too, would be replaced with something like ~てる?.

15. あなた、私のいうことが分かって？
Do you understand what I'm saying?

It is to note that ~てよ is used by everyone to make a command. The sound of your voice is what matters.

～て may also follow things like だ・じゃ to tell someone to do something or give some

sort of instruction/warning. This, though, is uncommon.

16. 大変なことじやて。 (Old person; dialectical)
That's a horrible thing!

第35課: ある & いる

ある and いる contrast each other in many ways. There are some important exceptions to conjugation that you need to keep in mind.

Verb	Class	Plain Negative	Polite Negative	Plain Negative Past
ある	五段	ない	ありません	なかつた
いる	一段	いない	いません	いなかつた

Grammar Note: The negative of ある is ない, not あらない. This is not the only anomaly in regards to conjugation for these two verbs, but for now, just keep this in mind.

ある

Both ある and いる show that **there is something**. They may or may not be interchangeable depending on their use. Even when you can choose between the two, one will **always** be more prevalent/natural than the other. ある normally shows **existence of things besides people and animals**. 存在する is more appropriate, especially with non-physical items, for the explicit meaning of "to exist."

Particle Note: に, not で, should be used with existential verbs. で shows location of action, not state. Existing in a place is a state of being. Furthermore, をある and をいる are always wrong.

Examples

1. そこに財布がありました。
There was a wallet there.
2. 高い木があります。
There is a tall tree.
3. 高い木が公園にたくさんあります。
There are a lot of tall trees in the park.

こうしゅうでんわ

4. 公衆電話はありますか。
Is there a public telephone?

とかい びょういん

5. 都会に病院がある。
There is a hospital in the city.

ほんしゃ

6. 本社は東京にあります。
The main office is in Tokyo.

しんせいひん しさくだんかい

7. 新製品は試作段階にない。
The new product is not in the trial stage.

りょうこくかん

8. 両国間には国交がありません。 (Not Spoken Language)
There isn't any diplomatic relations between both of the nations.

こうさてん こうばん

9. 日本では交差点に交番があります。
There are police stations at intersections in Japan.

なごやじょう

10. 名古屋には名古屋城がある。
In Nagoya, there is the Nagoya Castle (but not anywhere else).

Culture Note: The Nagoya Castle was one of the most important stops on the Minoji 美濃路 Highway, which was a major roadway in the Edo Period. The castle still exists and is still very significant.

がんじょう と て

11. あの車には頑丈な取っ手があるんじゃないかな。
Isn't there a firm handle in that car?
-

Possession and Occurrence

ある may also show the **possession of inanimate non-living and non-physical things**. This usage may also show *physical* attributes of people and things. It can even mean "to occur". Depending on the usage of "to occur", there are alternative ways to say it. 発生する はつせい is "to occur" as in a break out of some kind. 起こる おきる means "to occur" as in some event. For this usage で can be used because "to occur" is not existential.

きん じかん

12. 金も時間もたっぷりある王
A king ample in both gold and time

す きら
13. 好き嫌いがある。

To have one's likes and dislikes.

ぶんしょう
14. 彼女の文章にはユーモアがある。

There is humor in her composition.

じしん
15. 奈良で地震がありました。

There was an earthquake in Nara.

16a. 事故があった。

16b. 事故に遭った。

16a. There was an accident.

16b. I was in an accident.

はっぴょう
17. 発表があった。

There was an announcement.

なや
18. 悩みがある。

To have worries.

どうぶつ　たいじゅう
19. その動物は体重が200キロもある。

The animal has a weight of at least 200 kilograms.

たが　めんしき
20. 互いに面識がある。

To have an acquaintance with each other.

きょうよう
21. 教養がある。

To have an education.

に　ば
22. もう逃げ場はありません。

There is nowhere to hide.

23. 高さは六十メートルある。

The height is 60 meters.

ざいさん
24. 財産はありますか。

Do you have assets?

ふろづ　へ　や
25. 風呂付きの部屋はありますか。

Do you have a room with a bath?

みかた
26a. 私には、強い味方がある。?

26b. 私には、強い味方がいる。

As for me, I have a strong ally.

Usage Note: This ある would most certainly almost always be replaced with いる today.

ぎゅうにゅう
27. 牛乳はありますか。

Do you have milk?

じこくひょう
28. 時刻表はありますか。

Do you have a timetable?

Other Usages

Old Usages: ある may be used in the introduction of characters, but いる is **predominant** in this case. More so literary, ある may show that someone is in a certain position/role. Again, いる is more common here. It may also be used in this manner with things, in which case いる would not be applicable.

おおむかし ところ
29a. 大昔、ある所におじいさんとおばあさんがありました。?

29b. 大昔、ある所におじいさんとおばあさんがいました。

30c. 大昔、ある所におじいさんとおばあさんがおりました。

Long time ago, there was an old man and an old woman.

Usage Note: This usage is no longer used in the spoken language. This nostalgic line is now normally stated with either いました or おりました (a dialectal and or humble version of いる) instead of ありました.

The last old usage that we will look at is とある. This is not used in the spoken language. However, you can find it in the written language a lot in contexts such as in Ex. 30.

せいしょ はじ かみ てん ち そうぞう
30. 聖書には「初めに神は天と地とを創造された」とある。

It is written in the Bible that, "In the beginning, God created the heavens and the earth."

いる

いる shows that an **animate and alive** thing exists in a certain location. It may also show the possession of something animate and alive.

さとう いえ
31. 佐東さんは家にいませんでした。
Mr. Sato was not home.

32. 犬がいません。
I don't have a dog (since it left somewhere).

Nuance Note: Using ガ here makes it sound like either there isn't a dog, and in the case of ownership, something happened to the dog, like it ran away, was stolen, or died. If you were to say 犬はいません, you would be able to say I don't have a dog, but it sounds like you may own something else like a cat. You could say 犬を飼っていません to avoid this extra nuance. 飼う means "to raise an animal." You could just also naturally respond with いません or 飼っていません.

わ や さんば
33. 我が家には鳥が三羽いる。
We have three birds in our house.

- よい みょうじょう
34a. 宵の 明星 がいる。?
34b. 宵の 明星 がでています。○
34c. 宵の 明星 が見えます。○
There is the evening Venus.

Sentence Note: Ex. 34a is an example of いる in literary language that wouldn't be used in the spoken language. Originally, this usage was meant to show something that normally moves but is in fact not moving.

ある VS いる Troubles

In reality, natives don't all agree with each other on case by case instances of ある VS いる. What do you use with words like 家族, バス, エレベーター, 人形, or a dead cat? None of these example nouns are necessarily straightforward.

35. 家族が {いる・ある} 。
I have a family.

Sentence Note: More speakers would choose いる. However, ある is not strange at all.

36. 神が {ある・いる} 。
There is God/god/kami.

Sentence Note: Ignoring the various interpretations of the word 神, describing such a

spiritual force's existence with いる is most common today, but ある does get used. It may sound less religious, stiff, or old-fashioned, but this Japanese does exist.

37. 私 (に) は兄弟が3人 { (△・X) ある・○いる} 。
I have three siblings.

Sentence Note: Using ある for people causes heart attacks for Japanese learners, but the reality is that there are speakers who find this instance of ある perfectly fine, though even these individuals will admit that it is old-fashioned.

38. 私の2人の兄弟は神奈川に {○います・Xあります} 。
My two siblings are in Kanagawa.

39. 人形がいっぱい {いる・ある} ね。
There are a lot of dolls, aren't there.

Sentence Note: いる would most especially be used when in contact or in the vicinity of the dolls, but it's important to know that speakers use both. The decision hinges on how human-like you wish to view dolls.

40. あそこにロボットが {います・あります} 。
There is a robot over there.

Sentence Note: If you use いる, the robot is in service and is truly human-like. If you use ある, it's in the same position as a regular inanimate object.

41. あそこにバスが {○・△いる・○ある・○止まっている} 。
There is a bus over there.

Sentence Note: いる has the nuance of that it is in service, but some speakers still think that this is wrong. Other speakers think that this is even OK for elevators and what not in service, but others still disagree and believe you should use 止まっている when its stopped there indefinitely. If you wanted to show it's just stopped there, the particle に should be changed to で. If you use ある, you would simply state that there is a bus/elevator, and it would most certainly mean it's not in service.

42. 捕らわれの身 {○にある・Xでいる} 。
To be in captivity.

Sentence Note: This is a set phrase, but the grammar is also a little tricky because にある is actually the original copula. It shows up here as set phrases tend to hold onto old grammar. However, when we try replacing it with grammar we've learned today, we see that

the result is ungrammatical.

The Dead: いる or ある?

What if something is dead? Certainly, when you use words such as 死体 or 遺体 which mean corpse, you use ある. When discussing the existence of dead people, いる is overwhelmingly used. However, consider this counterexample.

43. ピーナッツアレルギーで死んだ人が {いました・ありました} 。

There were people who died from peanut allergies.

Many speakers would not like ありました. Those that do, though, would say it is rarer, but it is more emphatic and focusing on the severity of the matter than いました. What about dogs and cats? Generally, people would hate using ある for dead pets. If you really hate pet animals, you could use ある. This would imply you don't value them as much.

44. 毒入りのものを食べて、死んだ猫が {○いた・△あった} 。

There was a dead cat that ate a poison-laced item.

What about a dead fly? The phrase 死んだハエ is possible. Most would still say いる is OK and ある is not so OK, but saying 死んだハエがいる is not practical. Thus, some say that a sentence like below would be more practical.

45. コップの中に死んだハエが入っている。

There is a dead fly in my cup.

Another word to consider is けが人 (injured). It turns out that even if the noun is a person noun, if the concept is abstract, it can still take ある. Or, if there is any wavering of whether something exists or not, ある more easily appears.

46. 乗客の中にけが人は {ありません ○/X・いません○} でした。

There were no people injured among the passengers.

第36課: ～ている

When used with the particle て, いる functions as a supplementary verb. In Japanese a supplementary verb is a *verb that loses some or all of its literal connotations to serve (a) specific grammatical purpose(s)*. Although it retains some resemblance to its basic meaning of indicating state, ～ている should be treated separately from いる.

～ている

Correctly interpreting ～ている depends on the verb being used with it. Therefore, pay attention to the kinds of verbs used for each meaning introduced in this lesson. "Kind" here does not refer to how the verb conjugates, but rather what it means semantically and its relation to verbs of similar meaning.

-ing

The first usage of ～ている equates to "-ing." You're doing something, thus it is a continuation in the present time. This is also linked to ongoing action, which is typically expressed with verbs of process--食べる、飲む、走る.

- たろう
1. 太郎は朝ご飯を食べています。
Taro is eating breakfast.
- きょうし
2. 教師をしています。
I am a teacher.

Phrase Note: Remember that using ～をする in this manner shows profession and is more appropriate in this situation than です.

Habit

Then there are instances when the action is not literally being done now, but it's a habit of some sort.

3. A学校に行っています。
I go to School A.
- てんさい う こ
4. 天才はいつも勉強に打ち込んでいる。
Geniuses are always diving into studies.
-

State of Being

When used with verbs like 着る (to wear), it shows a state of being dressed. This is in contrast to putting clothing on, which has to be expressed differently to avoid ambiguity as 着ている最中. Other verbs are just like this.

- まが
5. ネクタイが曲っている。

His necktie is tangled.

- ふるぎ
6. 古着を着ています。
I'm wearing old clothes.
-

State: Motion Verbs

For verbs of motion like 行く and 帰る, it shows state of having done that movement.
Interpret it as a completed action and the result being the state in effect.

7. 彼女は東京に来ています。

She has come to Tokyo.

8. 彼はもう帰っている。

He's already gone home.

More Examples

9. 赤い顔をしている。

To have a red face.

- かみ
10. 彼女は長い髪をしている。

She has long hair.

- えき
11. 私は東京駅の近くに住んでいます。

I live near Tokyo Station.

- かいちょう
12. 彼は会長をしていた。

He had been the chairman.

Nuance Note: 会長 is a chairman of an organization; 議長 is a chairman of an assembly.

- かあ に
13. お母さんによく似ています。

You resemble your mother well.

Word Note: お母さん is used instead of 母 because the speaker is referencing the listener's mother.

- はし
14. その橋は石でできている。

The bridge is made of stone.

15. この机は壊れています。
This desk is broken.

16. 砂糖はもう入っています。
Sugar has already been put in.

17. 今日も穏やかなお天気が続いていますね。
The moderate weather is continuing today, isn't it?

18. 小屋は山へ面している。
The lodge faces the mountain.

19. 彼は通りをのそのそと歩き続けていた。
He continued to flop along the street.

20. その教科書は初学者に適しています。
The textbook is suitable for beginners.

21. お風呂はもう沸いていますか。
Is the bath hot yet?

21. その時計は5分ほど進んでいます。
The clock is five minutes fast.

22. 私は車を持っています。
I own a vehicle.

23a. 木になっていたりんごを集めた。○

23b. 木にあってたりんごを集めた。X

23c. 木にあったりんごを集めた。??

I gathered the apples that were on the tree.

Word Note: This なる is 生る, which means "to bear fruit". So, this sentence more literally reads "I gathered the apples that ripened on the tree". If you were to say the third line, it sounds like the apple is somehow out of place inside a tree. It definitely isn't talking about picking apples from an apple tree.

24. 町は谷に位置している。
The town lies in the valley.

25. 山がそびえている。

The mountain towers above (everything).

漢字 Note: そびえる in 漢字 is 肳える, but you don't need to know this spelling for now.

26. 疲れています。
つか
I'm tired.

27. 明治大学で法律を勉強しています。
ほうりつ
I am studying law at Meiji University.

28. 今晚空いている部屋はありますか。
あ
へ や
Do you have any vacant rooms this evening?

29. この金額は総合保険を含んでいますか。
きんがく そうごうほけん ふく
Does this price include fully comprehensive insurance?

30. 彼は電流を流している。
でんりゅう なが
He's passing an electric current.

31. 通りは込んでいる。
The road is crowded.

Attribute Note: When 辿んでいる is an attribute, it's often just 辿んだ. Also, you wouldn't use 込む to describe Tokyo or Japan. You could say 東京はどこへ行っても 辿んでいる, which means "Tokyo is crowded wherever you go".

Spelling Note: This usage of the verb 込む can also be spelled as 混む.

32. 存在している。 ？
そんざい

Phrase Note: The above phrase is only used when telling for how long something has existed.

33. 数では圧倒している状態だ。
かず あっとう じょうたい
As far as numbers are concerned, the situation is overwhelming.

～ている Negation

The negative is ～ていない, but ～ず (に) いる and ～ないでいる mean "without...-ing". ～ずにいる is used in more formal, poetic-like speech.

34. 覚えていません。

I don't remember.

35. 僕は何もしていません。(男性語)
ぼく
I'm not doing anything.

36. 決して病気にならないでいることは不可能だ。
けつ
ふかのう
It is impossible to never get sick.

37. 彼はいつも落ち着かないでいる。
かれ
おちつき
He is always ill at ease.

38. 彼女は通えないでいる。
かれじょ
かよ
She has not been able to go to school.

Grammar Note: 通える is the potential form of the verb 通う.

Contractions

～ている is usually contracted to ～てる in casual conversation. Even in polite speech, it is commonplace to hear ～てます instead of ～ています. However, in truly polite situations such as being in an interview, it is NG (エヌジー = No good) to use such contractions as humanly possible.

Dialect Note: In other regions of Japan, you will hear ～とる or even ～ちよる instead of ～てる. These are both contractions of ～ておる, which in Standard Japanese is the plain humble form of ～ている. However, in the dialects these variants are used, they are treated as the standard non-honorific form for conversation purposes.

39. 今の、聞いてましたか。 (ちょっとくだけた話し言葉)
Were you listening to what I was saying just now?

40. 父は私が何を勉強してるか知らない。
My dad doesn't know what I am studying.

41. 動いてる！
It's moving.

Word Note: 動く is "to move" as in to physically move about, not "to move to a different house". That meaning of the English verb "to move" is carried out by the verb 引っ越す.

States & Appearances 状態・様子

In the chart below, several verbs are shown in different forms. For each row, the same verb is used, but for each column, the grammar pattern being used is different.

～た + Noun	V+ている	V+た
わ たまご 割れた卵 A broken egg.	卵が割れている。 The egg is broken.	卵が割れた。 The egg broke.
すがた やせた姿の A slim figure	姿がやせている。 To have a slim figure	姿がやせた。 Figure got skinny.
ふと 太った彼 He, who is fat	彼は太っている。 He is fat.	彼は太った。 He got fat.
あな　あ 穴が開いたポケット A pocket with a hole	ポケットに穴が開いている There's a hole in my pocket	ポケットに穴が開いた。 A hole opened up in the pocket.
ゆが　みかた 歪んだ見方 A distorted viewpoint	見方が歪んでいる。 Your viewpoint is distorted.	
くさ　はし 腐った橋の A rotten bridge 腐っている橋 A rotting/rotten bridge	橋が腐っている。 The bridge is rotting/rotten.	橋が腐った。 The bridge rotted.
へこ 凹んだドア A dented door	ドアが凹んでいる。 The door is dented.	ドアが凹んだ。 The door got dented.
こお 凍った川 A frozen river	川が凍っている。 The river is frozen/freezing.	川が凍った。 The river froze.
かわ　すな 乾いた砂の Dry sand	砂が乾いている。 The sand is dry/drying.	砂が乾いた。 The sand dried.
ひび　かべ ひびが入った壁の Cracked wall	壁にひびが入っている。 There are cracks in the wall.	壁にひびが入った。 Cracks have gotten in the wall.
ほそみち 曲がった細道の A twisted narrow path	細道が曲がっている。 The narrow path is twisted.	

か 欠けた茶碗 A chipped teacup	ちゃわん 茶碗が欠けている。 The teacup is chipped.	茶碗が欠けた。 The teacup got chipped.
--------------------------------	---------------------------------------------	------------------------------------

Grammar Notes:

1. ~た is often preferred over ~ている when used as an attribute. You can substitute it and still create a grammatical phrase, but 90% of the time, ~た is used.

2. Context determines whether ~ている is the 進行形(progressive) or the 完了形(perfect tense).

漢字 Note: やせる has 漢字 spellings 痩せる・瘦せる・瘠せる, and they are listed in usefulness. But, you're not responsible for any of them. They all show up in books, though. ひび has the spelling 龟, which although cool looking, is not very useful to remember.

第37課: ~てある

~てある is quite different from ~ている, but it is still often confused with it. Just as was the case with いる, ある functions as a supplementary verb when paired with the particle て. As a recap, remember that in Japanese, a supplementary verb is a verb that loses some or all of its literal meaning(s) to serve a specific grammatical purpose.

~てある: Creating Stative Verbs

~てある is exclusively used with verbs but is restricted to only certain kinds of verbs.

Class	Example Verb	+ ~てある	Class	Example Verb	+ ~てある
Ichidan Verbs	伝える	伝えてある	Godan Verbs	洗う	洗ってある
Kuru	来る	来てある X	Suru	する	してある

Grammar Note: For grammatical reasons to be discussed, 来てある is ungrammatical.

What is ~てある?

~てある shows a *current state caused by someone's action*. This state results from purposeful action done by someone, not something. In other words, the someone has to be a person. Personification, however, can be used to make non-humans treated as people in this situation. It's used with transitive verbs, but を is not used for this usage. The basic

pattern is (だれかに)XがYである.

花が生けてある ^い means that "the flowers have been arranged (by someone)" and the flowers are still arranged as such. 生ける is transitive. Do not confuse with 生くる.

The following example exhibits a static nuance. The resultant state is "to have informed."

1. 彼女には前もって伝えてある。
To have informed her beforehand.

Similarly, ~ことにしてある has it that something is deemed as such by someone but really isn't. ~にする means "to make as..". For example, ばかにする means "to make an idiot of". Similarly, "Verb + ことにする" means "to decide that". Together, you can make sentences like the one below.

2. 元氣でいることにしてある。
I decided to (make myself out to) be well (even though I'm really not).

Let's put some context to this statement. Your friend is in a stressful situation at home. In order to not worry her family, she has decided to be spirited on the phone to keep them at ease. This wouldn't be referring to actually seeing them in person.

Examples

3. その時計は五分進めてあります。
(I) have set the clock five minutes forward.
State: The state is that the clock has been set five minutes forward.

Sentence Note: Ex. 3 shows that this pattern occasionally implies that the speaker is who did the action.

4. ガラスが割ってある。
The glass has been broken (because of the actions of someone and still is broken).
State: The glass is still broken due to the fact that someone purposely broke it in the first place.

5. アンケートは集めてある。
The questionnaires have been gathered.
State: The questionnaires are now gathered due to the actions of a person or people.

6. 窓が開けてあります。

The window is open (by someone).

State: The window has been left open by someone.

7. ストーブがつけてあります。

The heater was turned on (by someone) and has been kept that way.

State: The heater has been turned on by someone.

8. 木^{たの}が倒してある。

The tree has been toppled down (by someone).

State: A person knocked the tree down and the tree is still on the ground.

9. 彼の熱^{ねつ}は計ってある。

His temperature was checked (by someone).

State: The person's temperature has been checked.

10. 晩ご飯^{ばんごはん}が作ってある。

Dinner has been made.

State: The dinner is made.

11. シャツが洗^{あら}ってある。

The shirt has been washed.

State: The shirt is washed.

12. 机に本が置いてある。

The book was placed on the desk (by someone).

13. 荷物^{にもつ}が乱雑^{らんざつ}に積^つんである。

The luggage was piled up in a clutter (by someone).

Other Conjugations

～てある has other conjugations. For instance, you can still see ～てあった and ～てない. Because particle usage and other parts of grammar differ between the two patterns, it shouldn't be too difficult to distinguish this ～てない from the contraction of ～ていない, ～てない.

14. 一階^かは古本屋に貸してあった。

The first floor [had been/was] rented to an old book store.

15. 新聞に書いてあった。

It [had been/was] written in the newspaper.

か ぐ
16. あまり家具が置いてありません。
There isn't much furniture placed.

第38課: Fields of Study

This lesson will be about how to express fields of study in Japanese. We will be utilizing this opportunity to take a break from pure grammar studies to expand upon vocabulary in an easy and productive way.

Curriculum Note: This lesson has recently been truncated to simply be about fields of study. As such, it is subject to its own remodeling in the near future.

Fields of Study 専門 (せんもん)

Many fields of study end with the suffix *-gaku* 学, which equates to "the study of." It also corresponds to the English suffix *-ology*. Of course, not all fields of study end in this. Below are some of the most common fields of studies:

医学	いがく	Medical science	科学	かがく	Science
化学	かがく	Chemistry	数学	すうがく	Mathematics
物理学	ぶつりがく	Physics	音楽	おんがく	Music
建築学	けんちくがく	Architecture	工学	こうがく	Engineering
電気工学	でんきこうがく	Electrical engineering	土木工学	どぼくこうがく	Civil engineering
機械工学	きかいこうがく	Mechanical engineering	遺伝子工学	いでんしこうがく	Genetic engineering
電子工学	でんしこうがく	Electronics	哲学	てつがく	Philosophy
言語学	げんごがく	Linguistics	社会学	しゃかいがく	Sociology
法律学	ほうりつがく	Law	経済学	けいざいがく	Economics

生物学	せいぶつがく	Biology	地学	ちがく	Geology
教育学	きょういくがく	Education	体育学	たいいくがく	Physical education
農学	のうがく	Agriculture	心理学	しんりがく	Psychology
美術	びじゅつ	Fine arts	芸術	げいじゅつ	Art
経営学	けいえいがく	Business administration	文学	ぶんがく	Literature
天文学	てんもんがく	Astronomy	宗教学	しゅうきょうがく	Theology
薬学	やくがく	Pharmacology	生化学	せいかがく	Biochemistry
環境科学	かんきょうかがく	Environmental science	コンピューター科学	コンピューターかがく	Computer science
地理学	ちりがく	Geography	国際関係学	こくさいかんけいがく	International relations

Word Note: Science is 科学. In reference to courses, it's 理科. "Science department" is 理学部. "Science course" is 理科系. 理系, an abbreviation, is used in expressions such as 理系の学生. 理学部の学生 is a "science major".

第39課: Countries, Nationality, & Languages

In this lesson, you will be introduced to the Japanese names of the countries, nationalities, and languages found in the world. We will also learn about the diversity found in Japanese dialects. There is no need to learn the name of every country, nationality, or language mentioned. Use this opportunity to improve upon your transliteration skill of foreign place names so that you may become better able to describe yourself in Japanese.

Countries of the World

Currently, there are 197 recognized independent states in the world. Each country has a Japanese name, many of which come from transliterations of their true names. As such, you will be able to recognize many country names without having to necessarily study them. To refer to nationality (*kokuseki* 国籍), all you need to do is add the suffix *-jin* 人 to the name of the country in question. To refer to the language of said country, simply add the suffix *-go* 語. These suffixes are also used regardless if a group of people has its own country or not.

Because there are far more languages than there are countries, we will first go over the names of countries and nationalities.

Spelling Note: Most country names are written in *Katakana* カタカナ. Only a handful, those typically found in Asia, have spellings in *Kanji* 漢字. Although all country names have *Kanji* 漢字 spellings, only a handful are used. In this lesson, we will only concern ourselves with the standard spelling of each country name. After all, you have plenty of countries to go over.

Countries of Eurasia

Eurasia in Japanese is *Yūrashia(-tairiku)* ヨーラシア (大陸) . In America, Europe (*Yōroppa(-tairiku)* ヨーロッパ (大陸)) and Asia (*Ajia(-tairiku)* アジア (大陸)) are typically treated as separate continents, but in Japan they are viewed as one. In Japanese, the six continents are either referred to as *rokudaishū* 六大州 or *rokutairiku* 六大陸. The difference between *taishū* 大州 and *tairiku* 大陸 is that the former refers to all landmasses on a continental plate whereas the latter refers solely to the continents. The *-tairiku* 大陸 seen after the name of the continents is only used when referring to the continents in the sense of geography. In everyday speech, the continents simply go by their names.

Chart Notes:

1. *Kokumei* 国名 = Country name; *kokuseki* 国籍 = Nationality.
2. *Tsūshō* 通称 means “popular name” and refers to the fact that the names listed are not the full-length names every nation has. These names are the ones that are used in actual conversation.
3. Romanization will not be provided in the country name charts of this lesson for brevity and conciseness. Use this opportunity to practice *Katakana* カタカナ.

こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通称	こくせき 国籍	こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通称	こくせき 国籍
China	ちゅうごく 中国	ちゅうごくじん 中国人	India	インド	インド人
Indonesia	インドネシア	インドネシア人	Pakistan	パキスタン	パキスタン人
Bangladesh	バングラデ シュ	バングラデシュ 人	Russia	ロシア	ロシア人
Japan	にほん 日本	にほんじん 日本人	Philippines	フィリピン	フィリピン人
Vietnam	ベトナム	ベトナム人	Germany	ドイツ	ドイツ人
Iran	イラン	イラン人	Turkey	トルコ	トルコ人
Thailand	タイ	タイ人	United Kingdom	イギリス	イギリス人

France	フランス	フランス人	Italy	イタリア	イタリア人
Myanmar	ミャンマー	ミャンマ一人	South Korea	かんこく 韓国	かんこくじん 韓国人
Spain	スペイン	スペイン人	Ukraine	ウクライナ	ウクライナ人
Poland	ポーランド	ポーランド人	Iraq	イラク	イラク人
Saudi Arabia	サウジアラビア	サウジアラビア人	Uzbekistan	ウズベキスタン	ウズベキスタン人
Malaysia	マレーシア	マレーシア人	Nepal	ネパール	ネパール人
Afghanistan	アフガニスタン	アフガニスタン	Yemen	イエメン	イエメン人
North Korea	きたちょうせん 北朝鮮	きたちょうせんじん 北朝鮮人	Taiwan	たいわん 台湾	たいわんじん 台湾人
Syria	シリア	シリア人	Sri Lanka	スリランカ	スリランカ人
Romania	ルーマニア	ルーマニア人	Kazakhstan	カザフスタン	カザフスタン人
Netherlands	オランダ	オランダ人	Cambodia	カンボジア	カンボジア人
Belgium	ベルギー	ベルギー人	Greece	ギリシャ	ギリシャ人
Czech Republic	チェコ	チェコ人	Portugal	ポルトガル	ポルトガル人
Hungary	ハンガリー	ハンガリー人	Sweden	スウェーデン	スウェーデン人
Azerbaijan	アゼルバイジャン	アゼルバイジャニ人	Belarus	ベラルーシ	ベラルーシ人
UAE	アラブ しゅちょうこくれんぽう 首長国連邦	アラブ しゅちょうこくれんぱうじん 首長国連邦人	Austria	オーストリア オーストリー	オーストリア人
Tajikistan	タジキスタン	タジキスタン人	Israel	イスラエル	イスラエル人
Switzerland	スイス	スイス人	Hong Kong	ほんこん 香港	ほんこんじん 香港人
Bulgaria	ブルガリア	ブルガリア人	Serbia	セルビア	セルビア人
Jordan	ヨルダン	ヨルダン人	Laos	ラオス	ラオス人
Kyrgyzstan	キルギス	キルギス人	Denmark	デンマーク	デンマーク人
Singapore	シンガポール	シンガポール人	Finland	フィンランド	フィンランド人
Slovakia	スロバキア	スロバキア人	Norway	ノルウェー	ノルウェー人
Turkmenistan	トルクメニスタン	トルクメニスタン人	Palestine	パレスチナ	パレスチナ人
Ireland	アイルランド	アイルランド人	Lebanon	レバノン	レバノン人
Croatia	クロアチア	クロアチア人	Oman	オマーン	オマーン人
Kuwait	クウェート	クウェート人	Bosnia and Herzegovina	ボスニアヘルツェゴビナ	ボスニアヘルツェゴビナ人

					ボスニア人 ヘルツェゴビナ人
Georgia	ジョージア グルシア	グルシア人	Moldova	モルドバ	モルドバ人
Mongolia	モンゴル	モンゴル人	Armenia	アルメニア	アルメニア人
Lithuania	リトアニア	リトアニア人	Albania	アルバニア	アルバニア人
Qatar	カタール	カタール人	Macedonia	マケドニア	マケドニア人
Slovenia	スロベニア	スロベニア人	Latvia	ラトビア	ラトビア人
Kosovo	コソボ	コソボ人	Bahrain	バハレーン	バハレーン人
Estonia	エストニア	エストニア人	East Timor	ひがし 東 ティモール	ひがし 東 ティモール人
Cyprus	キプロス	キプロス人	Bhutan	ブータン	ブータン人
Macau	マカオ	マカオ人	Montenegro	モンテネグロ	モンテネグロ人
Luxembourg	ルクセンブル ク	ルクセンブルク 人	Malta	マルタ	マルタ人
Brunei	ブルネイ	ブルネイ人	Maldives	モルディブ	モルディブ人
Iceland	アイスランド	アイスランド人	Andorra	アンドラ	アンドラ人
Monaco	モナコ	モナコ人	Liechtenstein	リヒテンシュタイ ン	リヒテンシュタイン人
San Marino	サンマリノ	サンマリノ人	Vatican City	バチカン市国 しこく	バチカン市国民 しこくみん

Word Notes:

1. In formal situations, 日本 is read as *Nippon*.
2. *Kokumin* 国民 means “citizen” and is a more appropriate word to refer to the citizens of Vatican City, who are all associated with the religious establishment of the nation itself.
3. Some countries of Eurasia are abbreviated to single-character *Kanji* 漢字 spellings in writing, especially in news reports or non-fiction literature. Europe itself can also be abbreviated as *Ō* 欧. This is because another name for Europe is *Ōshū* 欧州, which is usually used in the written language. Asia may also be abbreviated as *A* 亞. This comes from the *Kanji* 漢字 spelling 亞細亞.

Chart Notes:

1. Only abbreviations that are used to a significant degree are listed below.
2. *Ryakushō* 略称 = abbreviation(s); *Kanji hyōki* 漢字表記 = Kanji Spelling.

こくめい 国名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略 称	こくめい 国名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略 称
Italy	伊太利亞	I 伊	Netherlands	阿蘭陀	Ran 蘭
France	仏蘭西	Futsu 仏	England	英吉利	Ei 英
Switzerland	瑞西	Sui 瑞	Russia	露西亞	Ro 露
Myanmar	緬甸	Men 緬	Turkey	土耳古	To 土
Portugal	葡萄牙	Po 葡	Germany	独逸	Doku 独
Spain	西班牙	Sei 西	Poland	波蘭	Po 波
Taiwan	台灣	Tai 台	Sweden	瑞典	Ten 典
Norway	諾威	Daku 諾	Thailand	泰	Tai 泰
Laos	羅宇	Ryō 寮・Rō 老	Malaysia	馬來西亞	Ma 馬
Belgium	白耳義	Haku 白	Greece	希臘	Gi 希
Denmark	丁抹	Tei 丁	Finland	芬蘭	Fun 芬
India	印度	In 印	Singapore	新嘉坡・新加坡	Sei 星
Philippines	比律賓	Hi 比	Vietnam	越南	Etsu 越
South Korea	韓國	Kan 韓	China	中国	Chū 中・Ka 華
Mongolia	蒙古	Mō 蒙	Japan	日本	Nichi 曰・Wa 和
North Korea	北朝鮮	Chō 朝			

Usage Notes:

1. 中 is the typical abbreviation for China, but 華 can also be seen every so often, especially in various terminology.
2. The use of 和 to stand for Japan is ancient. Japan was once called Wa in antiquity, and this name still lives on in many situations. The use of 和 is typically limited to compounds such as wayaku 和訳 (translating into Japanese).
3. 蒙古 is the old name for Mongolia and is read as Mōko.
4. 老 for Laos comes from the Chinese name of the country; however, in other parts of Asia, the country is referred to as 寮國, and it is because of this that 寮 is also used in Japan.
4. Abbreviations tend to be added together, especially in news headlines. For instance, China-Korea will be abbreviated as Chūkan 中韓. Japan-Korea will be abbreviated as

Nikkan 日韓. Another example is *Nichiryō* 日寮 (Japan-Laos). For other nation combinations, a *nakaguro* 中黒 (・) is usually inserted between the abbreviations. For example, 伊・仏 stands for “Italy-France.”

5. Although some of these are not frequently used, those in this list are at least widely known. You will still see many of these used.

Countries of the Americas

North America, Central America, and South America are *Kita Amerika* 北アメリカ, *Chūō Amerika* 中央アメリカ, and *Minami Amerika* 南アメリカ respectively. They also go by the shortenings *Hokubei* 北米, *Chūbei* 中米, and *Nambei* 南米 respectively. In fact, these shortenings are used the most in conversation. The continents North America and South America are called *Kita-Amerika-tairiku* 北アメリカ大陸 and *Minami-Amerika-tairiku* 南アメリカ大陸 respectively. Below are the nations that can be found on these two continents:

こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通称	こくせき 国籍	こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通称	こくせき 国籍
United States	アメリカ べいこく 米国	アメリカ 人 べいこくじん 米国人	Brazil	ブラジル	ブラジル人
Mexico	メキシコ	メキシコ 人	Colombia	コロンビア	コロンビア人
Argentina	アルゼン チン	アルゼン チン人	Canada	カナダ	カナダ人
Peru	ペルー	ペルー人	Venezuela	ベネズエラ	ベネズエラ人
Chile	チリ	チリ人	Ecuador	エクアドル	エクアドル人
Guatemala	グアテマ ラ	グアテマ ラ人	Cuba	キューバ	キューバ人
Haiti	ハイチ	ハイチ人	Bolivia	ボリビア	ボリビア人
Dominican Republic	ドミニカ 共和国 きょうわこく	ドミニカ 人	Honduras	ホンジュラス	ホンジュラス人
Paraguay	パラグア イ	パラグア イ人	Nicaragua	ニカラグア	ニカラグア人
El Salvador	エルサル バドル	エルサル バドル人	Costa Rica	コスタリカ	コスタリカ人

Panama	パナマ	パナマ人	Uruguay	ウルグアイ	ウルグアイ人
Jamaica	ジャマイカ	ジャマイカ人	Trinidad and Tobago	トリニダード・トバゴ	トリニダード・トバゴ人
Guyana	ガイアナ	ガイアナ人	Suriname	スリナム	スリナム人
Bahamas	バハマ	バハマ人	Belize	ベリーズ	ベリーズ人
Barbados	バルバドス	バルバドス人	French Guiana	フランス領ギアナ	ギアナ人
Saint Lucia	セントルシア	セントルシア人	Curaçao	キュラソー島	キュラソー島人
Aruba	アルバ	アルバ人	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	セントビンセント・グレナディーン	セントビンセント・グレナディーン
Grenada	グレナダ	グレナダ人	Antigua and Barbuda	アンティグア・バーブーダ	アンティグア・バーブーダ人
Dominica	ドミニカ	ドミニカ	Saint Kitts and Nevis	セントクリストファー・ネイビス	セントクリストファー・ネイビス

Word Notes:

1. *Beikoku* 米国 and *Beikokujin* 米国人 are typically only used in the written language. The full name of the United States in Japanese is *Amerika Gasshūkoku* アメリカ合衆国.
2. *Furansu-ryō* フランス領 means “French controlled.”
3. For nations that aren’t well known, the suffix *-jin* 人 may frequently be seen replaced with *no hito* の人.
4. Because both the nationalities for the Dominican Republic and Dominica are rendered as *Dominikajin* ドミニカ人, to distinguish the two, you can refer to people of the Dominican Republic as *Dominika Kyōwakoku no hito* ドミニカ共和国の人 and people from Dominica as *Dominika-koku no hito* ドミニカ国の人. *Dominika-koku* ドミニカ国 is the full name for Dominica.
5. Just as was the case with Eurasian countries, there are several countries in the Americas whose names can be abbreviated to single-character spellings based on their *Kanji* 漢字 spellings. Below are the most common abbreviations:

こくめい 国名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略 称	こくめい 国名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略 称
United States	亞米利加	Bei 米	Canada	加奈陀	Ka 加
Mexico	墨西哥	Boku 墨	Brazil	伯刺西爾	Haku 伯
Argentina	亞爾然丁	Ji 爾	Cuba	玖馬	Kyū 玖
Chile	智利	Chi 智	Peru	秘露	Hi 秘

Usage Note: Of these, the only ones important to remember are those for the United States and Canada.

Countries of Africa

Africa in Japanese is *Afurika(-tairiku)* アフリカ (大陸) and is composed of the following nations:

こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通 称	こくせき 国籍	こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通 称	こくせき 国籍
Nigeria	ナイジエ リア	ナイジエ リア人	Ethiopia	エチオピア	エチオピア人
Egypt	エジプト	エジプト 人	Democratic Republic of the Congo	コンゴ <small>みんしゅきょうわこく</small> 民主共和国	コンゴ人
Tanzania	タンザニ ア	タンザニ ア人	Sudan	スーダン	スーダン人
Morocco	モロッコ	モロッコ 人	Kenya	ケニア	ケニア人
Algeria	アルジェ リア	アルジェ リア人	Uganda	ウガンダ	ウガンダ人
Angola	アンゴラ	アンゴラ 人	Ghana	ガーナ	ガーナ人
Mozambique	モザン ビーク	モザン ビーク人	Madagascar	マダガスカル	マダガスカル 人
Cameroon	カメルー ン	カメルー ン人	Ivory Coast	コートジボワー ル	コートジボ ワール人
Zambia	ザンビア	ザンビア 人	Niger	ニジェール	ニジェール人

Mali	マリ	マリ人	Burkina Faso	ブルキナファソ	ブルキナファソ人
Zimbabwe	ジンバブエ	ジンバブエ人	Malawi	マラウイ	マラウイ人
Senegal	セネガル	セネガル人	Somalia	ソマリア	ソマリア人
Chad	チャド	チャド人	Tunisia	チュニジア	チュニジア人
Guinea	ギニア	ギニア人	Benin	ベニン	ベニン人
South Sudan	みなみ 南スードン	みなみ 南スードン人	Rwanda	ルワンダ	ルワンダ人
Burundi	ブルンジ	ブルンジ人	Togo	トーゴ	トーゴ人
Sierra Leone	シェラレオネ	シェラレオネ人	Libya	リビア	リビア人
Eritrea	エリトリア	エリトリア人	Central African Republic	ちゅうおう 中央アフリカ	中央アフリカ人
Liberia	リベリア	リベリア人	Republic of the Congo	きょうわこく コンゴ共和国	コンゴ人
Mauritania	モーリタニア	モーリタニア人	Lesotho	レソト	レソト人
Namibia	ナミビア	ナミビア人	Botswana	ボツワナ	ボツワナ人
Guinea-Bissau	ギニアビサウ	ギニアビサウ人	Gambia	ガンビア	ガンビア人
Gabon	ガボン	ガボン人	Mauritius	モーリシャス	モーリシャス人
Swaziland	スワジランド	スワジランド人	Djibouti	ジブチ	ジブチ人
Comoros	コモロ	コモロ人	Equatorial Guinea	せきとう 赤道ギニア	せきとう 赤道ギニア人
Cape Verde	カーボベルデ	カーボベルデ人	São Tomé and Príncipe	サントメ・プリンシペ	サントメ・プリンシペ人

Seychelles	セーシェル	セーシェル人		
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Word Note:

- The nationalities for both the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the Republic of the Congo are rendered as *Kongojin* コンゴ人. To distinguish, you can refer to people of the former nation as *Kongo Minshu Kyōwakoku no hito* コンゴ民主共和国の人 and people of the latter nation as *Kongo Kyōwakoku no hito* コンゴ共和国の人.
- Unlike other continents, very few country names have commonly known single-character spellings. The ones that do seldom get used are below. Although the continent and not a country, Africa is also listed as there are so few examples.

ちめい 地名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略称	ちめい 地名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略称
Egypt	埃及	Ai 埃	Africa	阿弗利加	A 阿

Chart Note: *Chimei* 地名 = Place name.

Usage Note: Neither of these examples are commonly used.

Countries of the Pacific

Oceania in Japanese is *Oseania* オセアニア. The Pacific Ocean is called *Taiheiyo* 太平洋. Within Oceania is Australia, which is called *Ōsutoraria(-tairiku)* オーストラリア (大陸) . Below are the nations that can be found in this region of the world:

こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通称	国籍	こくめい 国名	つうしょう 通称	こくせき 国籍
Australia	オーストラリア	オーストラリア人	Papua New Guinea	パプア ニューギニア	パプアニュー ギニア人
New Zealand	ニュージーランド	ニュージーランド人	Fiji	フィジー	フィジー人
Solomon Islands	ソロモン 諸島	ソロモン 諸島人	Vanuatu	バヌアツ	バヌアツ人
Samoa	サモア	サモア人	Kiribati	キリバス	キリバス人
Tonga	トンガ	トンガ人	Federated States of Micronesia	ミクロネシア 連邦	ミクロネシア 人

Marshall Islands	マーシャル しょとう 諸島	マーシャル しょとうじん 諸島人	Palau	パラオ	パラオ人
Tuvalu	ツバル	ツバル人	Nauru	ナウル	ナウル人

Word Notes:

1. The two examples of single-character spellings for the Pacific are as follows:

ちめい 地名	かんじひょうき 漢字表記	りやくしょう 略称	ちめい 地名	かんじ 漢字	りやくしょう 略称
Australia	濠太刺利	Gō 豪・Gō 濠	New Zealand	新西蘭	Shin 新

Usage Note: Of these, Gō 豪 for Australia is the most commonly used.

Languages

Below are some of the world's most spoken and/or important languages. With few exceptions, they all end in the suffix -go 語.

言語	通称	言語	通称	言語	通称
Mandarin Chinese	ちゅうごくご 中国語 ふつうわ 普通話	English	えいご 英語	Hindi	ヒンディー語
Spanish	スペイン語	Arabic	アラビア語	Bengali	ベンガル語
Portuguese	ポルトガル語	Russian	ロシア語	Japanese	にほんご 日本語
German	ドイツ語	French	フランス語 ふつご 仏語	Punjabi	パンジャーブ語
Javanese	ジャワ語	Korean	かんこくご 韓国語 ちょうせんご 朝鮮語 コリア語 ハングル△	Vietnamese	ベトナム語
Telugu	テルグ語	Marathi	マラーティー語	Tamil	タミル語
Farsi	ペルシア語	Urdu	ウルドゥー語	Italian	イタリア語

Turkish	トルコ語	Gujarati	グジャラート語	Polish	ポーランド語
Ukrainian	ウクライナ語	Malayalam	マラヤーラム語	Kannada	カンナダ語
Azerbaijani	アゼルバイジャン語	Odia	オリヤー語	Burmese	ビルマ語
Thai	タイ語	Sundanese	スンダ語	Kurdish	クルド語
Pashto	パシュトー語	Hausa	ハウサ語	Romanian	ルーマニア語
Indonesian	インドネシア語	Uzbek	ウズベク語	Sindhi	シンド語
Cebuano	セブアノ語	Yoruba	ヨルバ語	Somali	ソマリ語
Lao	ラーオ語	Oromo	オモロ語	Malay	マレー語
Igbo	イボ語	Dutch	オランダ語	Amharic	アムハラ語
Malagasy	マダガスカル語	Tagalog	タガログ語	Nepali	ネパール語
Hebrew	ヘブライ語	Norwegian	ノルウェー語	Icelandic	アイスランド語
Swedish	スウェーデン語	Czech	チェコ語	Zulu	ズールー語

Chart Notes:

1. For languages not listed here that happen to be the national language of a certain nation, simply add -go 語 to the name of that nation and it is most likely the Japanese name for that language.
2. Many of the languages in this list are spoken in India. India has the second largest population in the world and is very linguistically diverse.
3. In many aspects of life such as education, Japanese is referred to as *Kokugo* 国語, meaning “national language.” However, this word can be used in context of any nation to refer to its national language(s).
4. *Futsugo* 仏語 is an outdated word for “French” which is seldom used.

Usage Notes:

1. Chinese is perhaps the most controversial language on this list. Although it is still the most spoken language in the world, there are many Chinese languages. Mandarin Chinese is either referred to as *Chūgokugo* 中国語 or *Futsūwa* (*Pūtonfa*) 普通話. The latter name comes from the actual name for the language in Mandarin Chinese. The other Chinese languages that were neglected in the chart above that are worth noting include the following:

- *Kantongo* 広東語 - Cantonese
- *Gogo* 吳語 – Wu Chinese

- *Hakkago* 客家語 - Hakka

2. Korean is typically referred to as *Kankokugo* 韓国語. However, linguistically speaking, it is referred to as *Chōsengo* 朝鮮語. Some speakers prefer *Koriago* コリア語 to be politically neutral. Some speakers erroneously call it *Hanguru* ハングル, which is the name of the Korean alphabet.

Languages & Dialects of Japan

Other languages that are important to know about are those spoken in Japan. These include the following:

Ainu	アイヌ語	Amami	あまみご 奄美語	Kunigami	くにがみご 国頭語
Okinawan	おきなわご 沖縄語 ウチナーロ	Miyako	みやこご 宮古語	Yaeyama	やえやまご 八重山語
Yonaguni	よなぐにご 与那国語				

Word Note: *Uchināguchi* ウチナーロ is Okinawan for the name of the language itself.

Of these languages, all of them are related to Japanese except Ainu. For those related to Japanese, the Japanese government has tried over the past century to claim that they are dialects (*hōgen* 方言). However, they are all mutually unintelligible to Japanese and vice versa. Generally speaking, dialects end in either *hōgen* 方言 or *-ben* 弁. Dialects in Japan can be very divergent from one another. It is merely that their accents (*namari* 話り) are different. Vocabulary and grammar will also be different. For the most part, any area of Japan will have its own dialect which may or may not be like those around it.

【Kagoshima-ben 鹿児島弁】

ゆ来たね！ → よく來たね！

Yu kita ne! *Yoku kita ne!*

How good it is you came!

【Ōsaka-ben 大阪弁】

どないしたん？ → どうしたの？

Donai shita n? → *Dō shita no?*

What's wrong?

【Kyōto-ben 京都弁】

豆腐さん用意しといて。 → 豆腐を用意しておいて。

O-tofu-san yōi shitoite. *Tōfu wo yōi shite oite.*
Prepare the tofu.

【Nagasaki-ben 長崎弁】
きのうなん 昨日何ばしょったと？ → きのうなに 昨日何をしていたの？
Kinō nam ba shiyotta to? *Kinō nani wo shite ita no?*
What were you doing yesterday?

【Kōbe-ben 神戸弁】
これ、知つとお？ → これ、知ってる？
Kore, shittō? *Kore, shitteru?*
Did you know this?

Curriculum Note: Dialect coverage will continue to be limited to the most essential knowledge that is known by speakers of Japanese at large. This is because the lingua franca of Japan is overwhelmingly Standard Japanese.

第40課: The Particle と

There is a lot to know about the particle と. However, this lesson will only focus on the case particle と. If you don't quite remember what a case particle is, don't worry. These particles simply show basic grammatical relationships in a sentence.

The Case Particle と

Noun + と + Noun(と)

と's basic meaning is "and" when placed **in between nominal phrases**. If you want to use something else, it has to become a noun first. と can't be used at the beginning of a sentence. In that case, you should use something like そして. When listing more than two things, consecutive と may be omitted, and this is usually the most natural thing to do. と is typically not used after the last item, but it can be in older language.

- 1a. 私は日本人と医者です X
1b. 私は日本人で医者です。 ○
I am Japanese and a doctor.

Grammar Note: Again, this meaning is for when と is between two or more **nouns**! 1a is wrong because this rule is violated in a more complicated way. In English "I am Japanese and a doctor" is technically short for "I am Japanese and I am a doctor." Here it is clear that you are actually connecting two predicate phrases, not two simple noun phrases. If you

wanted to say that "X and Y are doctors," you would use と.

- 2a. すばしっこいと茶色の狐はのろまな犬を飛び越える。 X
2b. すばしっこい茶色の狐はのろまな犬を飛び越える。 O
The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog.

Example Note: 2b is grammatically correct, but because it is a translation of a sentence in English that has each letter of the alphabet in it, the Japanese sounds somewhat like a direct translation. For instance, this sentence has an unnecessarily lengthy subject. In Japanese, such lengthy subjects tend to sound unnatural.

Examples

3. リンゴとブドウがテーブルの上にあります。
There are apples and grapes on the table.
 4. これとそれは同じです。
This and that are the same.
 5. ノートと教科書と辞書を持ってきてください。
Please come with your notes, textbook, and dictionary.
 6. 犬と猫がいる。
I have a dog and a cat; there is a dog and a cat.
 7. 犬と猫を飼っている。
I have a dog and a cat.
 8. 日本語のクラスにはアメリカ人と、イギリス人と、カナダ人がいます。
There are Americans, English, and Canadians in (my) Japanese class.
 9. 朝と夜はちょっと寒いです。
Morning and night are a little cold.
-

Particle Note: This pattern used to be XとY（と） for "X and Y." If you ever see something like XとYとが, you're not seeing a typo. It's just not frequently used.

With

と may show the partner in which a person of interest is doing an *action with*. Both the "and" and "with" definitions can be in the same sentence as they're not the same and have

different requirements. The word after と when it means "with" is not part of the same phrase as と.

10. {両親・父と母} と公園に行きます。

I'm going to the park with my father and mother.

11a. 犬と散歩さんぽに出かけた。

11b. 犬の散歩に出かけた。

I went out on a walk with my dog.

Nuance Note: Both 11a and 11b are grammatical, but 11a sounds as if you are elevating the dog to the same level of importance as yourself whereas 11b means that you are simply taking the dog out for its walk.

11c. 一緒に and 共に both may mean "together" or "jointly". と一緒に is only used with two compatible nouns that are same in status and kind. You can't use it in "I talked together with my teacher". 一緒する is honorific but means "to go with". とともに is more formal and shows that things/people are doing something or in the same state together.

12. 彼女と彼は結婚する。 (Don't need 一緒に)

He and she will marry (each other).

13. 宏と花子は同時に結婚する。

Hiroshi and Hanako will marry simultaneously.

14. 彼らは一緒に敵と戦たたかっていた。

They fought the enemy together.

15. 彼らは敵と一緒に戦っていた。

They fought mutually with the enemy.

16. あたしは日の出でとともに起きます。 (Feminine)

I rise with the sun.

17. 夫婦ともに元気です。

The husband and wife are both fine.

18a. 誰かと悲しみを共にすることはおかしなことではない。 (Lyrical/poetic)

18b. 誰かと悲しみを共有することはおかしなことではない。 (Normal)

It is not strange to share sadness with someone.

19. (あなたと) 一緒に行きます。
I am going together (with you).
20. あの二人はいつも一緒です。
Those two are always together.
21. 私は父と電話で話しました。
I talked with my father on the telephone.

22. 彼氏と一緒に宿題をした。
かれし しゅくだい
I did homework together with my boyfriend.

- 23a. 同じ羽の鳥は一緒に集まる。
はね あつ
るい とも
- 23b. 類は友を呼ぶ。
Birds of a feather flock together.

24. 一緒に来ませんか。
Won't you come with me?
25. 彼は恐怖と戦って、ついに勝った。
きょうふ
He fought against his fears, and he finally won.

26. 彼女と時々けんかする。
I sometimes argue with her.

27. 車とぶつかった。
I collided with a car.

28. 子供と遊ぶ。
To play with a child.

29. 彼と食事をともにした。
しょくじ
I had dinner with him.

30. 友達と会う。
ともだち
To meet with a friend.

Grammar Note: 会う shows that both sides move (to see one another) while に会う shows that only one party moves, thus leading to meeting the person. Due to this discrepancy, for "to happen to meet someone/encounter someone," you can see X {と・に} ばったり (と) [会う・出会う].

Comparing

と may mark a subject being compared. As for 似る, ～に似る and ～と似る are possible but slightly different. と in this case marks one side of a mutual relation(ship) whereas に only shows the standard of comparison. They both, though, make the second person the basis of comparison when the pattern is XはY {に・と} 似ている. Consider the following.

- 31a その父と子は似ている。○
31b. その子はお父さんと似ている。 ○
31c. その子はお父さんに似ている。 ○
31d. その父は息子と似ている。 ○
31e. その父は息子に似ている。 X
The child resembles his father.

- 32a. この事件は以前とは異なる。
32b. 以前の事件とは異なる。
32c. 以前の事件とは違う。
The case is different from before.

33. Xと比べる
To compare with X.

34. 彼と同じ考え方です。
That is the same idea as his.

35. 人間と動物との違い
The difference between humans and animals.

Particle Note: The second instance of と here is not optional. The different と are different. The first is "and" and the second is "with" used here to show comparison, or in this case the opposite of comparison.

36. スペイン語と日本語はまったく似ていません。
The Spanish and Japanese don't resemble/match each other at all.

Particle Note: We've seen XはYと似ている and XはYに似ている, but XとYは似ている exists too. If the referents weren't mentioned, then you'd need something like お互いに for "each other", but you don't use the word every time you use 似ている.

Content of a Result

と and に are sometimes similar, but there is always a difference. と may show the result of something. It's used with verbs like 決める (to decide) and なる (to become). As for なる, になる and となる are possible. However, になる shows an **end point** of some change. Therefore, there is a duration to it. As for となる, it shows the content/substance of a result.

と shows a **discrete** change. This means that it shows the result of something not from a continuous process. と often sounds more stiff and formal. Another verb where there is this contrast is 改める (to reform; revise). This means that there are some phrases where と doesn't make a lot of sense.

- うんどうかい
37. いよいよ運動会の日となりました。
Field day has come at last.
- きまつしけん にしゅうかんご
38. 期末試験は二週間後と決まった。
It's been decided that the final test will be in 2 weeks.
- こさめ
39. 小雨となった。
It became a drizzle.

- 40a. 元気となる。△/X
40b. 元気になる。○
To become better.
41. みぞれが雪となりました。
The sleet turned to snow.

漢字 Note: みぞれ is rarely written in 漢字 as 霽.

第41課: The Particle に II

There is a lot to learn about the particle に. So, instead of having to go through it all in one lesson, this lesson will go over the rest of the basic information that you should know about it.

More on the Case Particle に

AをBにする

"AをBにする" is "to make/have A be a B way". You can alternatively see the particle と instead, but the difference between the two is that に shows the endpoint of a duration of some sort whereas と shows the content/substance of a result. This may seem arbitrary, but it will become more important later on.

"AをB {に・と} する" may also show what someone deems as or decides on. Using と sounds more formal and rigid due to its aforementioned quality. This is most prominently seen in こと {に・と} する.

This pattern also applies to the adverbial forms of adjectives. For 形容詞, you would alternatively use ~くする, not ~くにする.

1. 殺害事件を小説にする。
さつがいじけん しょうせつ

To make the murder case into a novel.

2. 音楽のボリュームを高くする。
おんがく

To make the music louder.

3. 彼は彼女を幸せにした。
しあわ

He made her happy.

4. 妹が部屋をきれいにしました。
いもうと へや

My younger sister made the/her room clean.

5. 子供を漫画家にする。
こども まんがか

To have a kid become a manga artist.

6. 2億円を身代金とする。
におくえん みのしろきん

To use 200 million yen as ransom money.

7. 写真を趣味にする。
しゃしん しゅみ

To do pictures as a hobby.

9. すしを昼ご飯にする。
りょうがえ

To have sushi for lunch.

10. ポンドを円に両替してください。
りょうがえ

Please change these pounds into yen.

11. 岩を枕にして眠る。
いわ まくら ねむ

To sleep with a rock as a pillow.

Grammar Note: There are instances in Japanese where certain adjective れんようけい do become functional nouns such as 近く (vicinity) and 遠く (afar). This, though, combined with this phrase, which is possible, would not cause any structural problems given the definitions.

Curriculum Note: There will be more things discussed about とする over time.

- Shows the **standard of action, condition, or state**. Ex. "to lack **in** creativity".

じんこう　か　こ　よ　ねんかん　　ぱい　ぞうか
12. 人口は過去4年間に3倍に増加しました。
The population has increased three times in the last four years.

Word Note: 人口 is either 多い or 少ない, not 大きい or 小さい. Although the last sentence was different, you definitely need to know this.

よ　ふ
13. 夜更かしは体によくありません。
Staying up late is not good for your health.

いちにち　さんかいさんぽ
14. 僕は一日に3回散歩に行く。 (Guy speech)
I go on a walk three times a day.

15. 私の家は駅に近いです。
My house is close to the train station.

しょうぶ
16. 勝負に勝ったよ！
I won the match!

Word Note: 勝つ should only be used to mean "to win" when talking about games of some sort. If you want to say, "to win the lottery", you need to say something like "くじがあたる".

- Shows **what brings about some sort of measure, feelings, situation, or work**. It is "by" as in "to be...by..." and the "from" in receiving.

ひろし　　はら
17. 宏にしばしば腹を立てる。
I frequently get angry at Hiroshi.

きみ　どうじょう
18. 君に同情する。
I sympathize with you.

そ　ぼ　　こづか
19. 僕は祖母にお小遣いをもらった。

I received some spending money from my grandmother.

More Usages

- Shows direct time. Although true, it is not used after 今日, 去年, 翌年, 来月, etc.

まいあさ はじ
20. 学校は毎朝 8 時 1 5 分に始まります。

School begins every morning at 8:15.

かいぎ
21. 会議は 2 時に終わります。
The meeting will end at 2.

おおさか たいざい
22. 私は五月の終わりに大阪に滞在しました。
I stayed in Osaka at the end of May.

- Creates pairs with a deep connection. It's often in set phrases. This is also actually used in ordering items as well.

しんろう しんぶ
23. 新郎に新婦。
A bridegroom and a bride.

おに かなぼう
24. 鬼に金棒。
A demon and a metal club.

たぜい ぶぜい
25. 多勢に無勢。
To be outnumbered.

Definition Note: 多勢 = "a lot of people"; 無勢 = "few people".

- Verb stem + に + same verb creates a special emphasis. The base form of this pattern may be in the non-past form, but in actual practice, the final verb is basically always in the past tense. The grammar pattern itself is usually used in the written language.

26. 待ちに待った。
To wait and wait.

27a. 赤ちゃんは泣きに泣いた。 (Slightly literary)
27b. 赤ちゃんは大泣きしていた。 (More natural)
The baby cried and cried.

第42課: *Kosoado* こそあど III: *Kochira* こちら, *Sochira* そちら, & *Achira* あちら

In this lesson, we will discuss three more *kosoado* こそあど phrases that are politer counterparts to both the *kosoado* こそあど phrases for “this” and “that” and those for “here” and “there.” The reason for why they would be intertwined with each other is because phrases indicating direction have always been used in Japanese to also refer to physical entities, and by extension, people as you will soon see.

***Kochira* こちら**

The first main usage of *kochira* こちら is as a politer version of *kore* これ.

1. こちらは新製品でございます。
Kochira wa shinseihin de gozaimasu.
This is a new product.

Grammar Note: In respectful language, more than just one word here and there will be different. Verb forms also change. Instead of using *desu* です, *de gozaimasu* でございます may be used instead to both be more respectful yet humble at the same time.

Prefix Note: *Shin-* 新 is seen in a lot of phrases in place of *atarashii* 新しい to mean “new” to form compound phrases. Although these should be learned individually, some phrases like *shinseihin* 新製品 will also be common in the spoken language as they are in the written language.

2. こちら、親子丼です。
Kochira, oyakodon desu.
This is your oyakodon (you ordered).

Culture Note: *Oyakodon* 親子丼 is a bowl of rice topped with chicken and eggs. *Oyako* 親子 means parent and child, and the use of chicken and eggs refers to the age-old question “which came first, the chicken or the egg?” This is one variety of rice bowl dishes called *domburi* 丼.

The second main usage of *kochira* こちら is as a politer version of *koko* ここ.

3. どうぞこちらへ。
Dōzo kochira e.
Please, come this way.

む
4. こちらを向いてください。

Kochira wo muite kudasai.

Please face this way.

きのう ひど あめ
5. こちらは昨日、酷い雨でした。

Kochira wa kinō, hidoi ame deshita.

It rained here heavily yesterday.

As a Pronoun

Just as alluded to in the introduction, *kochira* こちら may also be used as a pronoun, and when it is, it can either be a first person or a third person pronoun. As a first person pronoun, it is used to indirectly refer to oneself.

よろ ねが
6. こちらこそどうぞ宜しくお願ひします。

Kochira koso dōzo yoroshiku onegai shimasu.

It's very nice to meet you too.

けっこう
7. こちらはいつでも結構です。

Kochira wa itsu demo kekkō desu.

I'm fine whenever.

In the third person, *Kochira* こちら may also be used to refer to “this person.” In this case, the person is either equal or above one’s own status. The phrase is synonymous with *kono kata* この方. When the person is of especially high status, the suffix *-sama* 様 should be added, creating *kochira-sama* ちら様.

ふじん
8. こちらはジョーンズ夫人です。

Kochira wa Jōnzu-fujin desu.

This is Mrs. Jones.

さま みず さ あ
9. こちら様にお水を差し上げてください。

Kochira-sama ni omizu wo sashiagete kudasai.

Please give this individual water.

***Sochira* そちら**

The first main usage of *sochira* そちら is as a politer version of *sore* それ.

か どく
10. そちらはお買い得ですよ。

Sochira wa okaidoku desu yo.

That is a good bargain.

The second main usage of *sochira* そちら is used as a politer version of *soko* そこ.

11. そちらはもう寒くなりましたか。
Sochira wa mō samuku narimashita ka?

Has it already gotten cold there?

As a Pronoun

As a pronoun, *sochira* そちら frequently refers to the person whom you are interacting with. Essentially, this is a respectful “you.”

12. そちらのご意見を聞かせてください。
Sochira no go-iken wo kikasete kudasai.
Please let me hear your opinion.

Grammar Note: *Kikaseru* 聞かせる means “to let hear/ask.” Additionally, the prefix *go-* ご attached to *iken* 意見 adds respect to the noun.

13. そちらこそお疲れ様です。
Sochira koso otsukare-sama desu.
Thanks to you as well for your work.

Sentence Note: This phrase is used to very politely respond to also being told “*otsukare-sama* お疲れ様.” This phrase is used at the end of the day to thank colleagues for their efforts in the day’s work. It is also used by the public in service industries to people who have gotten off work.

As an extension of this, it may also refer to someone in proximity/relation with whom you are interacting with. In this case, you are not who is completely in the know about the individual. If the person happens to be in eyesight, then the individual is simply close to the listener.

Just as is the case for *kochira* こちら, if the person in question is of especially high social status, then the suffix *-sama* 様 should be added, creating *sochira-sama* そちら様.

14. そちらを 私に紹介してもらえませんか。
Sochira wo watakushi ni shōkai shite moraemasen ka?
Could I have you introduce the/that person to me?

***Achira* あちら**

The first main usage of *achira* あちら is as a politer version of *are* あれ.

15. あちらをご覧ください。
Achira wo goran kudasai.

Look at that over there.

Grammar Note: The respectful form of “please see” is *goran kudasai* ご覧ください.

The second main usage of *achira* あちら is as a politer version of *asoko* あそこ.

16. お手洗いはあちらです。
Otearai wa achira desu.

The bathroom is over there.

17. 金子さんはあちら仕込みの流暢な英語が話せますよ。
Kaneko-san wa achira-jikomi no ryūchō na eigo ga hanasemasu yo.
Mr. Kaneko can speak fluent English acquired abroad.

Grammar Note: *Hanasemasu* 話せます utilizes the potential form of the verb *hanasu* 話す, which we'll get to later. Additionally, the suffix *-jikomi* 仕込み is used to mean “acquired at.”

As a Pronoun

Achira あちら may be used to refer to a third person that is not in near proximity to the speaker or the listener. When the individual is not in eyesight, all parties in the conversation are assumed to know who the person in question is. However, simple distance from parties involved determines its usage if said person is in eyesight.

18. あちらがお母様ですか。
Achira ga okā-sama desu ka?
Is that person over there your mother?

19. あちら様は家柄もよろしいのです。
Achira-sama wa iegara mo yoroshii no desu.
That person's pedigree is also very good.

Kotchi こっち, Sotchi そっち, & Atchi あっち

Quite simply, these are contractions of the forms *kochira* こちら, *sochira* そちら, and *achira* あちら respectively. They possess the same meanings but without heightened sense of politeness. To the contrary, they are casual since they are contractions.

20. こっち、こっち！

Kotchi, kotchi!

This way, this way!

せりふ
21. それはこっちの台詞だ。

Sore wa kotchi no serifu da.

That's my line.

ひと
22. そっちの人たちのことを話してたの？

Sotchi no hitotachi no koto wo hanashiteta no?

Were you talking about those people?

みず にぎ
23. あっちの水は苦いぞ。こっちの水は甘いぞ。

Atchi no mizu wa nigai zo. Kotchi no mizu wa amai zo.

The water over there is bitter! The water here is sweet!

Culture Note: These lines are a part of an old children's song for catching fireflies.

Grammar Note: The particle *zo* ゾ is used here to add force to the tone of the sentence.

わたし ことし せかい
りょこう まわ
24. 私は今年、世界をあちこち旅行して回りました。

Watashi wa kotoshi, sekai wo achikochi ryokō shite mawarimashita.

I traveled around the world this year.

Phrase Note: *Achikochi* あちこち literally means here and there. Although it may be pronounced as *atchikotchi* あっちこっち, that is not its normal pronunciation. However, *achikochi* あちこち is not a contraction of it. In fact, it is simply composed of *achira* あちら and *kochira* こちら without the /ra/.

第43課: Interrogatives: Who, What, When, Where, & Why?

In English, we create questions with what are colloquially called "wh-words." Although there are quite a few of these words in English, it's customary to view "who," "what," "when," "where," and "why" as the basic five.

In grammar, these words are called "interrogatives." These words in English, though, have two fundamental kinds of usage. The following examples demonstrate this with the words "when" and "where."

- i. When did he go home?
- ii. I like it when you dance.
- iii. Where do you live.
- iv. The place where I bought my dog is really nice.

In Japanese, interrogatives are called *gimonshi* 疑問詞. This word literally means "part of speech for questioning." As this name implies, the meanings of these words revolve around questioning. Although each individual word may have a variety of usages, unlike English, they will always be used in some sense in questions/describing uncertainty.

In English, there is a grammatical rule that interrogatives go at the start of a sentence and/or clause. In Japanese, there is no such rule. To put this in perspective, consider the following examples.

v. Who went with you to the park?

vi. Last night when I came home from work, [who was it to that you were talking on the phone with]?

In v. and vi., "who" must be at the start of their respective independent clauses. However, this as you will see in this lesson, is not the case in Japanese. As we learn about the rules of Japanese interrogatives, try to superimpose your understanding of English interrogatives on to them.

In this lesson, we will learn about the basic question words of Japanese. To simplify things, we will only look at polite speech. This is because there is a lot of variation regarding speech styles. Due to the emphasis placed on politeness in Japanese, questioning is something that you have to go about with caution. Yet, basic personal questions, unlike in Western culture, are deemed natural and key to starting conversations as icebreakers.

As a Japanese learner, being able to ask questions is especially important. Otherwise, you'll lose the ability to figure out how and when questions are formed. As the Japanese learner, however, there is a general understanding that you will be asking all sorts of questions, similar to children as they are still trying to grasp what things mean. Use this expectation to your advantage as it will certainly speed up the language learning process.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 疑問詞 *Gimonshi* – Interrogatives
- 社長 *Shachō* – Company president
- 妻 *Tsuma* – Wife
- 科学者 *Kagakusha* - Scientist
- 担当者 *Tantōsha* – Manager/person in charge
- お土産 *Omiyage* - Souvenir
- 履き物 *Hakimono* – Footwear

Adjectives

- いい *Ii* – Good/nice
- 安い *Yasui* – Cheap
- 美味しい *Oishii* – Delicious
- 好き {な} *Suki [na]* – To like
- 一緒 {の} *Issho [no]* – Together
- 有利 {な} *Yūri [na]* – Advantageous/lucrative

Adjectival Nouns

- ・日 *Hi* - Day/sun
- ・仕事 *Shigoto* - Job/work
- ・名前 *Namae* - Name
- ・趣味 *Shumi* - Hobby
- ・エアコン *Eakon* - Air-conditioner
- ・住宅 *Jūtaku* - Residence/housing
- ・時期 *Jiki* - Time/period
- ・請求 *Seikyū* - Billing
- ・雛人形 *Hina-ningyō* - Hina doll
- ・サプリ (メント) *Sapuri(mento)* - Supplement
- ・タイミング *Taimingu* - Timing
- ・苺 *Ichigo* - Strawberry
- ・携帯電話 *Keitai denwa* - Cellphone
- ・地震 *Jishin* - Earthquake
- ・速報 *Sokuhō* - News flash/bulletin
- ・復興 *Fukkō* - Reconstruction/restoration
- ・電池 *Denchi* - Battery
- ・数学 *Sūgaku* - Math
- ・住所 *Jūsho* - Address
- ・トイレ *Toire* - Toilet/bathroom
- ・お手洗い *Otearai* - Restroom/bathroom/lavatory
- ・街 *Machi* - Town
- ・コンビニ *Kombini* - Convenience store

- ・ベスト {の・な} *Besuto [no/na]* - Best
- ・緊急 {の・な} *Demonstratives*
- ・この *Kono* - This (adj.)

Question Words

- ・誰 *Dare* - Who?
- ・何 *Nani/nan* - What?
- ・いつ *Itsu* - When?
- ・どこ *Doko* - Where?
- ・何故 *Naze* - Why?

Number Phrases

- ・2週間 *Nishūkan* - Two weeks

Prefixes

- ・お～ *O-* - Honorific prefix

Suffixes

- ・～頃 *-goro* - Around
- ・～後 *-go* - After...

Interjections

- ・え *E* - Eh?/What

Adverbs

- ・一番 *Ichiban* - Best/most
- ・今日 *Kyō* - Today
- ・今 *Ima* - Now
- ・毎日 *Mainichi* - Every day? } *Kinkyū [no/na]* - Urgent

(u) Godan Verbs

- ・お握り *Onigiri* - Rice ball
- ・飛行機 *Hikōki* - (Air)plane
- ・座席 *Zaseki* - Seat
- ・郵便局 *Yūbinkyoku* - Post office
- ・牛 *Ushi* - Cow
- ・乳 *Chichi* - Milk (from mammalian breasts)/breasts
- ・火山 *Kazan* - Volcano
- ・名詞 *Meishi* - Noun
- ・人々 *Hitobito* - People
- ・神 *Kami* - god/deity
- ・マレーシア *Marēshia* - Malaysia
- ・スマスさん *Sumisu-san* Mr. Smith
- ・日本 *Nihon/Nippon* - Japan
- ・住む *Sumu* - To live (intr.)
- ・思う *Omou* - To think (trans.)
- ・成る *Naru* - To become/come into fruition (intr.)
- ・生る *Naru* - To ripen (intr.)
- ・鳴る *Naru* - To sound/ring (intr.)
- ・変わる *Kawaru* - To change (intr.)
- ・買う *Kau* - To buy (trans.)
- ・飾る *Kazaru* - To decorate (trans.)
- ・仕上がる *Shiagaru* - To be finished (intr.)
- ・飲む *Nomu* - To drink/swallow/take (medicine) (trans.)
- ・空く *Aku* - To be open/empty/hungry (intr.)
- ・壊す *Kowasu* - To break (trans.)
- ・行く *Iku* - To go (intr.)
- ・祈る *Inoru* - To pray (trans.)
- ・太る *Futoru* - To gain weight (intr.)

Proper Nouns

- ・似る *Niru* - To resemble (intr.)
- ・出る *Deru* - To exit/come out/leave/appear (intr.)

suru Verbs

- ・発明する *Hatsumei suru* - To invent (trans.)
- ・噴火する *Funka suru* - To erupt (intr.)

Interrogatives in Polite Speech

The first interrogatives that we will be going over are "who," "what," "when," "where," and "why." In Japanese, these words can appear in more places in the sentence than in English.

This difference happens to affect various factors in how they're used. In the following chart, take note of the differences between interrogatives used at the start of a sentence and interrogatives used at the end of a sentence.

Interrogative	Start of a Sentence	End of a Sentence
Who	Dare ga...desu ka? 誰が...ですか？	...wa dare desu ka? ...は誰ですか？
What	Nani ga...desu ka? 何が...ですか？	...wa nani desu ka? ...は何ですか？
When	Itsu (ga)...desu ka? いつ (が) ...ですか？	...wa itsu desu ka? ...はいつですか？
Where	Doko ga...desu ka? どこが...ですか？	...wa doko desu ka? ...はどこですか？
Why	Naze...no/n desu ka? 何故... {の・ん} ですか？	...(no) wa naze desu ka? ...{の}は何故ですか？

The placement of interrogatives is determined by how much emphasis you are placing on the individual words in the sentence. The closer to the front of a sentence something is, the more emphasis is placed on it. This principle helps determine the nuances in the examples below designed to give you a thorough range of grammatical complexity that comes about simply from the patterns above.

1a. 誰が社長ですか。
Dare ga shachō desu ka?

1b. 社長は誰ですか。
Shachō wa dare desu ka?
Who is the company president?

Sentence Note: Ex. 1a. would only be used in the sense of "who is the company president?" It would only be used when asking about who the company president is in a conversation where said person would not be present. This is unlike 1b. which could be used to ask who the company president is out of a group of people visible/near the speaker and listener(s).

2. 誰が好きですか？
Dare ga suki desu ka?

Who do you like?

3. 妻は誰に似てると思しますか？
Tsuma wa dare ni niteru to omoimasu ka?
Who do you think my wife looks like?

4. 誰と一緒に住んでいますか。
Dare ittoshō su
Who lives with whom?

Dare to issho ni sunde imasu ka?

Who do you live together with?

いちばんす かがくしゃ だれ

5. 一番好きな科学者は誰ですか。

Ichiban suki na kagakusha wa dare desu ka?

Who is your favorite scientist?

たんどうしゃ だれ

6. 担当者は誰になりますか。

Tantōsha wa wa dare ni narimasu ka?

Who will be(come) the manager?

なに か

7. 何が変わったのですか。

Nani ga kawatta no desu ka?

What has changed?

みやげ なに

8. お土産は何がいいですか。

Omiyage wa nani ga ii desu ka?

What would be good for souvenirs?

は もの なに

9. 履き物は何がいいですか。

Hakimono wa nani ga ii desu ka?

What would be good for footwear?

きょう なん ひ

10. 今日は何の日ですか。

Kyō wa nan no hi desu ka?

What day is it today?

なん

11. え、何ですか。

E, nan desu ka?

Uh, what?

しごと なん

12. お仕事は何ですか。

O-shigoto wa nan desu ka?

What is your job?

Phrasing Note: Ex. 12 could be rephrased as *nan no shigoto wo shite imasu ka?* 何の仕事をしていますか. In this phrasing, greater emphasis is placed on "what." As such, it could be translated as "What line of work are you in?"

なまえ なん

13. お名前は何ですか。

O-namae wa nan desu ka?

What is your name?

しゅみ なん

14. 趣味は何ですか。

Shumi wa nan desu ka?

What are your hobbies?

15. エアコンはいつが安いんですか。^{やす}

Eakon wa itsu ga yasui n desu ka?

When is it that air conditioning is cheap?

Grammar Note: いつ, along with なぜ, are typically used as adverbs. The other interrogatives are always used as nouns. As for いつ, it can also be used as a noun, and when it is used as a noun, it's very similar to "what time (period)?"

じゅうたく ゆうり か じき
16. 住宅を有利に買う時期はいつがいいんですか。

Jūtaku wo yūri ni kau jiki wa itsu ga ii n desu ka?

What time is good to lucratively buy a home?

ひなにんぎょう かざ じき
17. 雛人形を飾る時期はいつごろが良いですか。

Hina-ningyō wo kazaru jiki wa itsu-goro ga ii desu ka?

About what time would be alright to display hina dolls?

Phrase Note: -goro 頃 is used after time phrases like "when" to mean "around..."

18. このサプリ（メント）は、飲むタイミングがいつがベストなんですか？^の

Kono sapuri(mento) wa, nomu taimingu ga itsu ga besuto na n desu ka?

As for this supplement, what timing would be best to drink it?

せいきゅう
19. 請求はいつになりますか。

Seikyū wa itsu ni narimasu ka?

When will billing be?

し あ
20. いつ仕上がりますか。

Itsu shiagarumasu ka?

When will you be finished?

Grammar Note: Using *ni* に after *itsu* いつ in this sentence would be grammatically incorrect.

21. イチゴはいつ生るんですか？^な

Ichigo wa itsu naru n desu ka?

When do strawberries ripen?

Spelling Note: *Ichigo* may occasionally be spelled as 莓.

Grammar Note: *Itsu ni naru* いつになる translates as "when will...be?" The "when" is essentially the same as "what time?" If you were to not use *ni* に, *naru* なる would have to be interpreted as 生る (to ripen), 鳴る (to sound/ring), or 成る (to come into fruition).

22. ケータイの緊急地震速報はいつ鳴るんですか。
Kētai no kinkyū jishin sokuhō wa itsu naru n desu ka?
When does the mobile emergency earthquake alert go off?

Word Note: The formal word for cellular phone in Japanese is *keitai denwa* 携帯電話. Because /ei/ can be pronounced as /ē/, this explains the colloquial spelling ケータイ.

23. 復興はいつ成るのですか。
Fukkō wa itsu naru no desu ka?
When will restoration come into fruition?

24. 「いつが空いてます？」 「2週間後が空いてます！」
“*Itsu ga aitemasu?*” “*Nishūkan-go ga aitemasu!*”
“What time is available?” “Two weeks from now is available!”

Grammar Note: With the use of *ga* が after the respective time phrases, it is apparent that openings in schedules are being referred to.

25. 今 (は) 、いつですか。
Ima (wa), itsu desu ka?
What point in time is it now?

Sentence Note: One can imagine this sentence would be used by someone from the future confused as to what point in time he has traveled to. The use of the particle *wa* は enhances the emphasis placed on the "now" in the sentence.

26. いつマレーシアに来ましたか。
Itsu Marēshia ni kimashita ka?
When did you come to Malaysia?

27. 電池は、いつ、誰が発明しましたか。
Denchi wa, itsu, dare ga hatsumei shimashita ka?
As for the battery, when and who invented it?

28. スミスさんはどこで何を壊しましたか。
Sumisu-san wa doko de nani wo kowashimashita ka?
What did Mr. Smith break and where?

にほん なに す
29. 日本の {何・どこ} が好きですか。
Nihon no [nani/doko] ga suki desu ka?
What about/where in Japan do you like?

Sentence Note: The use of *doko* どこ can actually stand for either nuance whereas the use of *nani* 何 would only result in the first nuance.

すうがく す
30. 数学のどこが好きですか。
Sūgaku no doko ga suki desu ka?
What part about math do you like?

じゅうしょ
31. 住所はどこですか。
Jūsho wa doko desu ka?
What is your address?

Grammar Note: Contrary to English, the word for "where" needs to be used in asking what someone's address is.

てあら
32. {トイレ・お手洗い} はどこですか。
[Toire/otearai] wa doko desu ka?
Where is the bathroom?

Phrase Note: *Otearai* お手洗い is a more refined means of saying "bathroom" in the same way "restroom" is more refined than saying "bathroom."

まち い
33. なぜ街へ行ったのですか。
Naze machi e itta no desu ka?
Why did you go to town?

おい おも
34. コンビニのおにぎり、どこが美味しいと思いますか。
Kombini no onigiri, doko ga oishii to omoimasu ka?
As for convenience store rice balls, where are they really good at?

ひこうき させき
35. 飛行機の座席はどこがいいですか。
Hikōki no zaseki wa doko ga ii desu ka?
What seats on a(n air)plane are good?

ゆうびんきょく
36. 郵便局はどこですか。
Yūbinkyoku wa doko desu ka?
Where is the post office?

Why?

To use the word for "why" other than when you're just saying *naze* (*desu ka?*) なぜ (ですか) , you need to use the particle *no* の with it in some fashion. When *naze* なぜ is at the front of a sentence, the sentence should end in *n/no desu ka ん・のですか*. Contracting *no* の to *n ん* is done largely in the spoken language. When following verbs or adjectives, nothing else need to be done to the sentence, but if following nouns or adjectival nouns, then *na* な will need to placed in between the noun/adjectival noun and *n/no desu ka ん・のですか*.

うし　　まいにちちち　　で
37. 牛は、なぜ毎日乳が出るんですか。

Ushi wa, naze mainichi chichi ga deru n desu ka?
Why do cows produce milk every day?

かざん　　ふんか
38. 火山はなぜ噴火するんですか。

Kazan wa naze funka suru n desu ka?
Why do volcanoes erupt?

めいし
39. なぜ名詞なんですか。

Naze meishi na n desu ka?
Why is it a noun?

Under the same principles, if *naze* なぜ is at the end of the sentence, a noun phrase has to precede it. If the phrase is a full sentence, then the particle *no* の needs to be used to make it into a noun before *naze* なぜ can create the question. In this situation, *no* の shouldn't ever be contracted.

ひとびと　　かみ　　いの
40. 人々が神に祈るのはなぜですか。

Hitobito ga kami ni inoru no wa naze desu ka?
Why do people pray to God/the gods.

ふと　　おも
41. 太ったのはなぜだと思いますか。

Futotta no wa naze da to omoimasu ka?
Why do you think it is you got fat?

第44課: The Particle *Ka* か III: Indirect Question

Subordinate clauses (*jūzokusetsu* 徒属節) are the opposite of independent clauses (*dokuritsusetsu* 独立節). In English, independent clauses stand alone as sentences with at least a subject and a verb, and dependent clauses are composed of a subject and verb but do not form a complete thought. Thus, the former is used as a sentence and may also be

called the “main clause (*shusetsu* 主節)” but the latter is not. In the English sentences, below, the clause put in [] is labeled as either being an independent or a dependent clause.

- I. [I went to the park.] – Independent
- II. The one [who went to the park]... - Dependent
- III. [That song is amazing.] - Independent
- IV. Which song was it [(that) I thought was amazing]? – Dependent
- V. I forgot [what we did the other day.] - Dependent
- VI. I know [what you did the other day.] - Dependent

In English, dependent clauses are usually marked with the words “what,” “which,” “whose,” “where,” “who,” “whom,” and “that.” English doesn’t particularly distinguish between using these words based on whether a question is being embedded or not. In other words, “what” doesn’t look different in v. or vi. despite that the meaning is not the same.

Vocabulary List

Nouns

- 独立節 *Dokuritsusetsu* – Independent clause
- 従属節 *Jūzokusetsu* – Dependent clause
- 主節 *Shusetsu* – Main clause
- 山 *Yama* – Mountain
- サメ *Same* – Shark
- 魚 *Sakana/Uo* – Fish
- 宿題 *Shukudai* – Homework
- 生物 *Seibutsu* – Creature
- 妻 *Tsuma* – Wife
- 虫 *Mushi* – Bug(s)
- お風呂 *Ofuro* – Bath
- (お) 店 (*O)mise – Store/shop/restaurant*

Adjectival Nouns

- 巨大だ *Kyodai da* – To be enormous
- 嫌いだ *Kirai da* – To hate
- 幸せだ *Shiawase da* – To be happy
- ゲイだ *Gei da* – To be gay
- 静かだ *Shizuka da* – To be quiet
- 綺麗だ *Kirei da* – To be pretty
- 生の *Nama no* – Raw/natural

Adverbs

- きのう *Kinō* – Yesterday
- やはり *Yahari* – As expected
- さっぽり *Sappari* – Not in the least/completely (neg.)
- 十分に *Jūbun ni* – Enough

- 素麺 *Sōmen* – Fine white noodles
 - 夫 *Otto* – Husband
 - 旦那 *Dan'na* – Husband (informal)
 - 警察 *Keisatsu* – Police
 - 犯行 *Hankō* – Crime
 - 現場 *Gemba* – Scene
 - 状態 *Jōtai* – Situation
 - 方法 *Hōhō* – Method
 - 時点 *Jiten* – Point in time
 - 端末 *Tammatsu* - Device
 - 今週 *Konshū* – This week
 - 来週 *Raishū* – Next week
 - 水曜 *Suiyō* - Wednesday
 - もの *Mono* – Thing
 - 存在 *Sonzai* - Existence
 - 意義 *Igi* – Meaning/significance
 - 次 *Tsugi* – Next
 - 相手 *Aite* – Partner/other party
 - 生鮮食料品 *Seisen shokuryōhin* – Fresh foods
 - インターネット *Intānetto* – Internet
 - 情報 *Jōhō* – Information
 - 本当に *Hontō ni* – Really
 - 凄く *Sugoku* – Very/immensely
 - 今日 *Kyō* – Today
 - 大体 *Daitai* – Generally/for the most part
 - 全部 *Zembu* – All
 - 明日 *Ashita* – Tomorrow
 - ほとんど *Hotondo* – Hardly
 - きっと *Kitto* – Surely
 - 何だか *Nandaka* – A little/rather/somewhat
 - 最高に *Saikō ni* – The most
 - もう *Mō* – Already/yet
 - 一体 *Ittai* – The heck
 - 一番 *Ichiban* – Most/best
 - みんな *Min'na* – Everyone
- (ru) Ichidan Verbs**
- 確かめる *Tashikameru* – To check/make sure (trans.)
 - 寝る *Neru* – To sleep (intr.)
 - 起きる *Okiru* – To get up/occur (intr.)
 - 調べる *Shiraberu* – To investigate (trans.)
 - 教える *Oshieru* – To teach/tell (trans.)
 - いる *Iru* – To be (live animate objects) (intr.)

- 子 *Ko* – Child
- 本 *Hon* – Book
- 粘土 *Nendo* - Clay
- 日 *Hi* – Day/sun
- 世界 *Sekai* – World
- 世 *Yo* – World/society
- 男 *Otoko* - Man
- 女 *On'na* - Woman
- 辺 *Hen* – Area/neighborhood
- 主人公 *Shujinkō* – Protagonist
- 寿司 *Sushi* – Sushi
- 刺し身 *Sashimi* – Sashimi
- 水道水 *Suidōsui* – Tap water
- お茶 *Ocha* – Tea
- 水 *Mizu* – Water
- ミルク *Miruku* – Milk
- 公園 *Kōen* – Park
- デパート *Depāto* – Department store
- 人 *Hito* – Person

Pronouns

- 私 *Wata(ku)shi* – I
- 僕 *Boku* – I (male)

(u) Godan Verbs

- 登る *Noboru* – To climb
- 飲み込む *Nomikomu* – To swallow/gulp up
- 分かる *Wakaru* – To become clear/be known/understand (intr.)
- 知る *Shiru* – To know/recognize (trans.)
- 歌う *Utau* – To sing (trans.)
- 届く *Todoku* – To arrive (intr.)
- 言う *Iu* – To say (trans.)
- 盗む *Nusumu* – To steal (trans.)
- 混む *Komu* – To be crowded (intr.)
- 許す *Yurusu* – To forgive (trans.)
- 作る *Tsukuru* – To make (trans.)
- 買う *Kau* – To buy (trans.)
- 成る *Naru* – To become (intr.)
- 飲む *Nomu* – To drink/swallow/take (medicine)
- 行く *Iku* – To go (intr.)
- 死ぬ *Shinu* – To die (intr.)

Irregular Verbs

- 来る *Kuru* – To come (intr.)

suru Verbs

- 調査する *Chōsa suru* – To investigate (trans.)

- ・彼女 *Kanojo* – She

Proper Nouns

- ・健太君 *Kenta-kun* – Kenta
- ・カイロ *Kairo* – Cairo
- ・七夕 *Tanabata* – Star Festival
- ・織姫 *Orihime* – Vega
- ・彦星 *Hikoboshi* - Altair
- ・山口さん *Yamaguchi-san* – Mr/M(r)s. Yamaguchi
- ・札幌 *Sapporo* – Sapporo
- ・東京 *Tōkyō* – Tokyo

Adjectives

- ・大きい *Ōkii* – Large
- ・美味しい *Oishii* – Delicious
- ・不味い *Mazui* – Nasty/disgusting
- ・難しい *Muzukashii* – Difficult/hard
- ・古い *Furui* – Old
- ・熱い *Atsui* – Hot (general)
- ・暑い *Atsui* – Hot (weather)
- ・寒い *Samui* – Cold (weather)
- ・少ない *Sukunai* – Few
- ・多い *Ōi* – Many/a lot
- ・安い *Yasui* - Cheap

- ・発送する *Hassō suru* – To ship (trans.)

- ・到着する *Tōchaku suru* – To arrive (intr.)
- ・運用する *Un'yō suru* – To operate /make use of
- ・注目する *Chūmoku suru* – To notice/give attention to

- ・注文する *Chūmon suru* – To order
- ・沸騰する *Futtō suru* – To boil

Question Words

- ・誰 *Dare* – Who
- ・誰か *Dareka* - Someone
- ・何 *Nani/nan* – What
- ・何か *Nanika* – Something
- ・いつ *Itsu* – When
- ・いつか *Itsuka* – Sometime
- ・どこ *Doko* – Where
- ・どこか *Dokoka* – Somewhere
- ・どう *Dō* – How
- ・どうか *Dōka* – Shomehow

Demonstratives

- ・この *Kono* – This (adj.)
- ・あの *Ano* – That over there (adj.)
- ・どれ *Dore* – Which (noun)

- 高い *Takai* – Expensive/high
 - 眠い *Nemui* – Sleepy
 - 健康にいい *Kenkō ni ii* – Healthy
 - どの *Dono* – Which (adj.)
 - ここ *Koko* – Here
 - あいつ *Aitsu* – That guy
 - どんな *Don'na* – What kind
 - ある *Aru* – A certain
- Number Phrases**
- ひとつ *Hitotsu* – One (thing)

Idioms

- しょうがない *Shō ga nai* – It can't be helped

Subordinate Clause: When not a question

When you are creating a subordinate clause but not to embed a question, you simply place the verbal phrase like you would an adjectival phrase directly before the noun you wish to modify. This is exactly opposite of English, which depending on the length of the phrase, usually places complex verbal qualifiers after the noun in question.

けんたくん やま のぼ
1. 健太君はきのう、山を登りました。
Kenta-kun wa kinō, yama wo noborimashita.
Yesterday, Kenta climbed a mountain.

やま のぼ けんたくん
2. きのう山を登ったのは、健太君でした。
Kinō yama wo nobotta no wa , Kenta-kun deshita.
The one who climbed the mountain yesterday was Kenta.

In Ex. 2, the particle *no の* is used to change *kinō yama wo nobotta* きのう山を登った into a nominal phrase exactly. It is essentially the “one” in the sentence with no intervening “who” being necessary. This should not be new information at this point as we've seen plenty of sentences in which whole phrases, whether they end in adjectives or verbs, modify nouns. Now you just know a little more about what's going on.

きょだい さかな の こ
3. 巨大な魚があのサメを飲み込んだ。
Kyodai na sakana ga ano same wo nomikonda.
An enormous fish swallowed that shark.

の こ さかな おお
4. あのサメを飲み込んだ、この魚はやはり大きいですね。
Ano same wo nomikonda, kono sakana wa yahari ōkii desu ne.
This fish, which swallowed that shark, is big as expected, isn't it.

Embedded/Indirect Questions

When a subordinate clause is an embedded question, the particle *ka* か intervenes. Embedded sentences, as a rule, don't include the topic of the sentence. This is because the topic should be outside, in the main clause. As such, you will expect to see *ga* が in dependent clauses. If for some reason you do see *wa* は, that's a clue that you are not actually in the embedded clause, and if you are, it's not being used to mark the topic.

5. カイロは (、) どこの国にあるか知っていますか。
Kairo wa(,) doko no kuni ni aru ka shitte imasu ka?

Do you know which country Cairo is at?

Literally: As for Cairo, do you know which country it is at?

6. どの宿題が難しかったか教えてください。
Dono shukudai ga muzukashikatta ka oshiete kudasai.

Please tell me which homework was difficult.

7. どれがおいしいかもづいさっぱりわかりません。

Dore ga oishii ka mazui ka sappari wakarimasen.

I have no idea which is delicious and which is nasty.

8. この生物は何か教えてください。
Kono seibutsu wa nani ka oshiete kudasai.

Please tell me what creature this is.

9. 七夕はいつか知っていますか。
Tanabata wa itsu ka shitte imasu ka?

Do you know when Tanabata is?

Culture Note: *Tanabata* 七夕, also known as the Star Festival, is a Japanese festival that celebrates the meeting of the deities *Orihime* 織姫 and *Hikoboshi* 彦星 represented by the stars Vega and Altair respectively.

Ka dō ka かどうか

To express "whether (...) or not," you can substitute what "not" would stand for with *dō ka* どうか. This gives rise to the phrase *ka dō ka* かどうか.

10. 妻が寝ているか起きているか分からない。
Tsuma ga nete iru ka okite iru ka wakaranai.

I don't know whether my wife is asleep or awake?

つま　ね　わ
11. 妻が寝ているかどうか分からない。

Tsuma ga nete iru ka dō ka wakaranai.

I don't know whether or not my wife is asleep.

わたし　かのじよ　むし　きら
12. (私は、) 彼女が虫が嫌いかどうかわかりません。

(Watashi wa,) kanojo ga mushi ga kirai ka dō ka wakarimasen.

I don't know whether or not she hates bugs.

おっと　ほんとう　しあわ　わ
13. 夫が本当に幸せかどうか分かりません。

Otto ga hontō ni shiawase ka dō ka wakarimasen.

I really don't know whether or not my husband is really happy.

Without the *dō ka* どうか, you create a sentence that asks "if" something is so.

ふろ　じゅうぶん　あつ　たし
14. お風呂が十分に熱いかどうか確かめてください。

Ofuro ga jūbun ni atsui ka dō ka tashikamete kudasai.

Please check whether or not the bath is hot enough.

ふろ　じゅうぶん　あつ　たし
15. お風呂が十分に熱いか確かめてください。

Ofuro ga jūbun ni atsui ka tashikamete kudasai.

Please check if the bath is hot enough.

みせ　そうめん　ほんとう　ちょうさ
16. きょうは、あの店の素麺が本当にまずいか調査します。

Kyō wa, ano mise no sōmen ga hontō ni mazui ka chōsa shimasu.

Today, I will investigate if that place's somen really is disgusting.

Indirect Questions are Noun-Like

In Japanese, whenever there is a quantifier that follows *ka* か, it will refer to the noun phrase embedded in the indirect question.

やまぐち　だれ　うた　だいたい　し
17. 山口さんは誰が歌ったか大体知っているでしょう。

Yamaguchi-san wa dare ga utatta ka daitai shitte iru deshō.

Mr/M(r)s. Yamaguchi probably knows for the most part who sang.

Word Note: *Daitai* 大体 corresponds to the quantity of people *dare* 誰 refers to.

わたし　なに　とど　ぜんぶ　し
18. 私は何が届いたか全部知っています。

Watashi wa nani ga todoita ka zembu shitte imasu.

I know all of what has arrived.

Word Note: *Zembu* 全部 corresponds to the quantity of things *nani* 何 refers to.

This demonstrates that embedded questions end up functioning like nouns thanks to か. This can be further demonstrated by how other particles can follow it.

けいさつ だれ はんこうげんば しら
19. 警察は誰が犯行現場にいたか (を) 調べています。

Keisatsu wa dare ga hankō gemba ni ita ka wo shirabete imasu.
The police are investigating who was at the crime scene.

じょうたい ちゅうもく
20. どんな状態になるかに注目してください。

Don'na jōtai ni naru ka ni chūmoku shite kudasai.
Pay attention to what sort of situation it becomes.

ふる しら ほうほう
21. 古いかどうかを調べる方法

Furui ka dō ka wo shiraberu hōhō
Method of investigating whether or not it's old

あす じてん はっそう たんまつ らいしゅうすいよう さっぽろ
22. ないものはしょうがないですが、明日の時点で発送する端末は来週水曜までに札幌に
どうちゃく し 到着するかが知りたいです。

Nai mono wa shōga nai desu ga, asu no jiten de hassō suru tammatsu wa raishū suiyō made ni Sapporo ni tōchaku suru ka ga shiritai desu.
The ones you don't have can't be helped, but I want to know if the devices that you will ship as of tomorrow will make it by Wednesday next week to Sapporo.

Grammar Note: The ending *-tai* ～たい is an ending that denotes personal want to do something, and it conjugates, interestingly enough, as an adjective. We will learn more about it later in IMABI.

No ka のか

In our last discussion on *ka* か, we learned that the *no* の in *no ka* のか adds weight to the question one is making. In other words, it makes your concern serious. Now, what determines the overall civility of your question is all based on what else is added to the sentence, but putting that aside, this same principle applies to embedded questions as well.

そんざいいぎ なん おし
23. 存在意義は何なのか教えてください。

Sonzai igi wa nan na no ka oshiete kudasai.
Please tell me what exactly the meaning of life is.

なに なに
24. 何が何かはほとんどわかりません。

Nani ga nani ka wa hotondo wakarimasen.

I hardly understand what is what.

なに い
25. 何を言っているのかわからない。

Nani wo itte iru no ka wakaranai.

I don't understand what you're saying.

When you use *ka* か all on its own, the level of uncertainty you are portraying is more or less at about 20%. You aren't sure, so you're asking a question, but your level of uncertainty is neither pressing nor significant in the least. This helps explain the tone of all the examples of it thus far in this lesson.

つぎ あいて だれ
26. 次の相手は誰かわかりません。

Tsugi no aite wa dare ka wakarimasen.

I don't know who my next opponent is.

つぎ あいて だれ
27. 次の相手は誰なのかわかりません。

Tsugi no aite wa dare na no ka wakarimasen.

I really don't know who my next opponent is.

The use of *no ka* のか raises the level of one's uncertainty to 50%. When the particle *ka* か is directly after a question word, it first and foremost shows that something is uncertain. As such, in Ex. 26 ...the fact that one has an opponent is just what is uncertain about the situation. With the change to *no ka* のか, your attention is shifting toward suspicion as to who will really be one's opponent.

だれ ぬす し
28. 誰が盗んだのか知りませんか。

Dare ga nusunda no ka shirimasesen ka?

Would you happen to know who stole it?

せいせんしょくりょうひん やす こ
29. ここは生鮮食料品が安いのか、すごく混んでいます。

Koko wa seisen shokuryōhin ga yasui no ka, sugoku konde imasu.

Whether it's because fresh produce is cheap, but it is really crowded here.

うんよう ひと すく じょうほう
30. 運用している人が少ないのか、インターネットに情報がほとんどありません。

Un'yō shite iru hito ga sukunai no ka, intānetto ni jōhō ga hotondo arimasen.

Whether it's because there are few people running it, there is hardly any information online.

Question Word + ka か

In speaking of *ka* か attaching to questions to show uncertainty, consider the follow phrases that are created when "question + *ka* か" is not used at the end of the sentence.

- *Dareka* 誰か = Someone
- *Nanika* 何か = Something
- *Itsuka* いつか = Sometime
- *Dokoka* どこか = Somewhere
- *Dōka* どうか = Somehow or other

Their parts of speech are just like the question words that make them up. *Dareka* 誰か, *nanika* 何か, and *dokoka* どこか can either be used as nouns or adverbs. This means that *ga* が and *wo* を will always be optional if applicable. *Itsuka* いつか and *dōka* どうか on the other hand are only used as adverbs and never take these particles.

31. いつかきっと、世界が一つになる日が来る。
Itsuka kitto, sekai ga hitotsu ni naru hi ga kuru.

Someday surely, the day in which the world becomes one will arrive.

32. あの子は粘土で何か（を）作った。
Ano ko wa nendo de nanika (wo) tsukutta.
 That child made something with clay.

33. 今週は、旦那がある本を買いにどこかへ行った。
Konshū wa, dan'na ga aru hon wo kai ni dokoka e itta.
 This week, my husband went somewhere to buy a certain book.

34. どうか許してください。
Dōka yurushite kudasai.
 Please forgive me.

Da ka だか

Say you are even more doubtful and or suspicious about the situation. In which case, rather than using *ka* か or *no ka* のか, you can actually use *da ka* だか. This is when it becomes appropriate to have the particle *ka* か follow the copula *da* だ. The level of one's uncertainty with this is about 80%.

Da ka だか attaches to nouns and adjectival nouns with no modification done to either side. With other parts of speech, you will need to insert *n/no ん・の* between it and a verb/adjective, giving *n da ka んだか・no da ka のだか*.

35. 次の相手は誰だかわかりません。
Tsugi no aite wa dare da ka wakarimasen.

I have no clue who my next opponent is.

36. 僕は、あいつが本当に女だかわからないんですよ。

Boku wa, aitsu ga hontō ni on'na da ka wakaranai n desu yo.

I really have no clue if that guy is a woman.

37. 相手がゲイだかわからない。

Aite ga gei da ka wakaranai.

I sure don't know if my partner/the person (I'm dealing with) is gay.

80% uncertainty is not a guarantee. In the example below, the question posed is simply drawing the listener in to elicit a response for the speaker to then say yea or nay.

38. この世で最高に綺麗なものは何だか知っています？

Kono yo de saikō ni kirei na mono wa nan da ka shittemasu?

Do you what the prettiest thing in the world is?

Nandaka 何だか can also be used as an adverb meaning "a little/somewhat/rather."

39. この辺は何だか静かですね。

Kono hen wa nandaka shizuka desu ne.

This area is rather quiet, isn't it?

40. 何だか眠い。

Nandaka nemui.

I'm a little tired.

N da ka んだか

Showing 80-100% indecisiveness/uncertainty is possible with *n da ka んだか*, especially in the pattern "A...n da ka + B...n da ka (A...んだか+B...んだか)." The "A" and "B" can be a noun, adjective, adjectival noun, or verb. If it's a noun or adjectival noun, you will need to place *na* な before *n da ka んだか*. For adjectives and verbs, this pattern becomes indistinguishable from the previous one, which is why it may or may not show absolute indecisiveness.

41. 安いんだか、高いんだか、もうわからないんですよ。

Yasui n da ka, takai n da ka, mō wakaranai n desu yo.

I have no idea if whether it's cheap or expensive.

42. 主人公は一体誰なんだかわからない。

Shujinkō wa ittai dare na n da ka wakaranai.
I have no earthly idea who the protagonist is.

43. 少ないんだか、多いんだか分からなくなるよな。
Sukunai n da ka, ōi n da ka wakaranaku naru yo na.

You end up not having a clue if there's little or a lot of it, you know.

Particle Note: The particle *na* な at the end of this sentence is used similarly to ending a sentence with “you know” in English.

Or

As you can see, using more than one *n da ka* んだか is used to show a desperate/completely indecisive “whether...or...” This, though, is used in the sense of making heads or tails of a situation, not as in presenting indecisiveness on a benign decision.

In the same light, all the other patterns shown in this lesson can be used the same way with various degrees of uncertainty implied.

Pattern	Uncertainty	Note
...ka...ka ～か～か	0~20%	Simply lists options.
...no ka...no ka ～のか～のか	50%	A rather confident yet uncertain “or.”
...da ka...da ka ～だか～だか	80%	Very uncertain and suspicious “or.”
...n da ka...n da ka ～んだか～んだか	100%	Completely indecisive “or.”

As for “...ka...ka (～か～か),” the final *ka* か isn’t there if you’re just listing options of an action/situation unless you are actually questioning something. It’s when you list situations/actions that both *ka* か are needed.

44. 生の水道水か沸騰した水道水かお茶か、どれが一番健康にいいんですか。
Nama no suidōsui ka futtō shita suidōsui ka ocha ka, dore ga ichiban kenkō ni ii n desu ka?

Which is the healthiest, plain tap water, boiled tap water, or tea?

45. 水かミルクを飲んでください。
Mizu ka miruku wo nonde kudasai.
Drink water or milk.

46. すしか刺し身を注文してください。
Sushi ka sashimi wo chūmon shite kudasai.

Order either sushi or sashimi.

47. 公園に行くか、デパートに行くかですね。
Kōen ni iku ka, depāto ni iku ka desu ne.

Either go to the park or go to the department store, right?

48. 東京では男だか女だか分からない人が多いの？
Tōkyō de wa otoko da ka on'na da ka wakaranai hito ga ōi no?

Are there are lot of people in Tokyo you can't tell whether they're a man or a woman?

49. 寒いのか暑いのか分からないんじゃないの？
Samui no ka atsui no ka wakaranai n ja nai no?

You don't know whether it's cold or hot (outside)?

50. もう誰が死ぬんだか、みんな死ぬんだかわからない。
Mō dare ga shinu n da ka, min'na shinu n da ka wakaranai.

I have no idea anymore who's going to die or if everyone's going to die.

第45課: The Copula II

This is one of the shortest lessons in IMABI. So, feel relaxed as you go through more information about the copula in Japanese.

A Closer Look at である, だ, & です

である

である is quite **ceremonious** and normally used only in writing, but when it is used in the spoken language, it becomes an objective-sounding means of presenting something as fact.

A comical example of this is the title of a famous book written by the renowned author 夏目

そうせき
漱石.

1. 我輩は猫である。

I am a cat.

Word Note: わがはい is a very pompous, old-fashioned pronoun, and it is well-known from this title in and outside of Japan. Aside from this title, this pronoun is hardly ever used. It is certainly not used in everyday conversation, and even if it were, it would be for comedic relief.

2. 「あの君島という人は、そっちの会社の人なわけですね」

So, that Kimishima guy is someone from that company, no?
From 顔に降りかかる雨 by 桐野夏生.

Grammar Note: The reason why this example is cited is because of a peculiar avoidance of である due to the lack of a need to be formal. Typically, having a whole phrase be a participle for another noun simply involves な. At times, である can be used instead but usually in writing. In a way, it can be viewed as the non-contracted form of this grammar.

However, it is important to note that when you wish to use something like んだ・のだ, which is for explicit emphasis, to "nominalize" an entire phrase, な is obligatory after a noun if it is the final word. If you have それは魚 and want to add んだ, you say それは魚なんだ. These two grammatical situations demonstrate how である and な perform the same function but are not 100% interchangeable.

だ & です

As far as usage is concerned, both だ and です make a declarative sentence. Also, both can act as a final particle to strengthen an appeal to the listener.

3. 日本語は簡単です。

Japanese is easy.

4. 明日は休みだ。

Tomorrow is a break.

5. ぼくはアイスティー。

Note: This sentence can be interpreted differently depending on context. It could show that you want to drink iced tea, brought iced tea, etc.

6. げんき。

I'm fine.

Grammar Note: The omission of the copula is allowed, but the statement loses some of its assertiveness, which could be helpful to not sound rude or blunt in the case of だ.

7. まあ、宿題だ。
しゅくだい

Well, it's homework (time).

8. まあ、出発です。
しゅっぱつ

Well, it's (time to) depart.

9. そこでだ、君はだね
きみ

So, you

Grammar Note: The copula may be used as a filler word like in Ex. 9.

10. あっかんべーだ。

Sticking out your tongue.

Culture Note: あっかんべー is where you stick out your tongue while pulling down your eyelid.

11. 明日はですね。

So, tomorrow.

です can make some conjugations polite whereas だ doesn't! だ is plain and the basic form of adjectives and verbs are already plain.

12a. 簡単ではないだ X

12b. 簡単ではないです。 ○

It's not easy.

Variants of the Copula

The copula can look quite different depending on where you are and what speech style you are using. Aside from である, だ, and です, the following variants are important to keep in mind, but the only extra two that you will be immediately responsible for are や and じゃ. The honorific variants will be touched on at a later time.

Kansai Region	や	Southern Japan	や、じゃ、ちゃ
Western Japan	や、じゃ	Colloquial	っす
Older generations	じゃ	Classical	にあり・なり
Plain Speech	だ	Polite Speech	です
Respectful	でいらっしゃいます	Humble	でございます

13. うそや。(Kansai)

That's a lie.

14. 私は田中良治でございます。(Humble)

I am Ryoji Tanaka.

15. 黒木社長でいらっしゃいます。 (Honorific)

(He) is President Kurogi.

16. 本当だ。 (Plain)

It's real.

17. 簡単っす。 (Colloquial)

It's easy.

第46課: The Particle から

In this lesson we will learn how to say "from" with the particle から.

The Case Particle から

から means "from". Just as in English it may mark a point of transit or starting, place of departure, starting time, order, in XからYまで to mean "from...to...", cause as in "due to," and is also the "from" used with "change," "made," "receive," "hear from," etc. This mainly goes after nominal phrases, but it is also possible for it to come after temporal adverbial expressions.

1. 左から (左 is a noun)

From the left

2. 生後間もなくから (間もなく is adverbial)

Not long after birth

Particle Notes:

1. As for "receive," から can show receiving from anything whereas に is limited to people. Thus, one could say that に shows a closer relationship as it is limited to human interaction.

2. When used to show the place of transit or departure, it may be replaced by を.

Examples

3. 太陽は 東 から昇ります。
The sun rises in the east.

4. 隙間から放射性物質が漏れる恐れがあります。
There is a fear that radioactive material is leaking from an opening.

しんげん せんだい

5. 震源は仙台から数キロ離れています。

The epicenter is a couple kilometers from Sendai.

6. ヨーロッパからブラジルへ船で行きました。

I went to Brazil from Europe by boat.

じゅぎょう

7. 日本語の授業は朝9時から始まります。

Japanese class begins at 9 o'clock in the morning.

かいぎ

8. 会議は3時から始まります。

The meeting will begin at 3 o' clock.

かいし

9. 来年から開始します。

We will start next year.

そだ

10. 子犬から育てたよ。

I raised it from (since it was) a puppy.

しほいにん

11. 彼女はウェイトレスからそのレストランの支配人になりました。

She rose from a waitress to become the manager of that restaurant.

しょうむちょうかん

だいとうりょう

12. ハーバート・フーヴァーは商務長官から大統領になりました。

Herbert Hoover rose from the Secretary of Commerce to the presidency.

きじ すみ

13. その記事を隅から隅まで読んだ。

I read that article from beginning to the end.

にさい ろくさい

こども

14. 二歳から六歳までの子供がいた。

There were children from two to six years old.

15. この川からあの山まで走れ！

Run from this river to the mountain over there!

せきにんかん

じょく

16. 彼は責任感から辞職した。

He resigned from office due to a sense of responsibility.

さいばんかん

めつ

かがいしゃ はんだん

17. 裁判官は目付きから加害者の判断をした。

The judge judged the assailant from his looks.

おとな しんさつ
18. 大人から診察します。

I will examine people starting from the adults.

かくしゅ
19. これらのコンピューターは各種5万円からです。

These computers start at 50,000 yen.

こむぎこ つく
20. パンは小麦粉から作る。

You make bread out of/from flour.

ふちゅうい かいだん お
21. 彼は不注意で階段から落ちた。

He fell down the staircase due to carelessness.

だいざ ぎん
22. 台座を銀から作る。

To make a pedestal from silver.

23. 日本は北海道、本州、九州、四国という4つの大きい島からなっています。

Japan consists of four large islands Hokkaido, Honshu, Kyushu, and Shikoku.

24. その話は先生から聞きました。

I heard that story from my teacher.

Particle Note: から is interchangeable with に in the sense of receiving.

きのう
25. 昨日からずっとここにいる。

I have been here since yesterday.

はんげき みなみ
26. 反撃が南から来た。

A counterattack came from the south.

ふちゅうい
27. 不注意からくる失敗

Failure (coming) from carelessness

第47課: The Particle まで

The particle まで often goes hand in hand with から, with it being the "to" in "from X to Y." Don't let classification confuse you as this particle is either a case or adverbial particle.

Pronunciation Note: Do not pronounce this like the English word "maid". Don't even think about it. It's just so bad that it could cause a Japanese's ear to bleed. Seriously, don't.

The Case Particle まで

The particle まで is most commonly seen in the pattern から...まで, which means "from...to...". This can be used to refer to temporal, location, spatial, or quantity boundaries. This pattern can be used in situations like "from 1 to 3 o' clock," "from the car to the street," or "from 1 meter to 4 meters."

まで is the equivalent of "to/until/till." This particle is seen a lot after nouns and temporal adverbial nouns like 今. However, it may also be seen after verbs but never in the past tense.

With Nouns	N + まで	明日まで; 京都まで; そこまで; 1リットルまで
With Verbs	Non-past V (連体形) + まで	終わるまで; 消えるまで; 歌い始めるまで

Tense Note: Do not use it with the past tense. This doesn't make sense because "until" is describing an event that has yet to actually happen. It's illogical to use the past tense which refers to something already done/taken place.

Examples

1. 9時から5時まで仕事をします。

I work from nine to five.

2. 僕は9歳までローマで育ちました。
I was raised in Rome until I was nine.

3. 最近までアメリカに住んでいました。
I was living in America until recently.

4. 仕事が始まるまでの休み時間は素晴らしい。
The free time until work starts is wonderful!

5. 最後の一粒まで食べてください。
Eat to the last grain.

6. いつまでここにいるのか。(Harsh)
Until when are you going to be here?

7. 6月までオースティンに住む予定です。
I plan to live in Austin until June.

8. ちょっと大学まで行ってくる！

I'm going to go to the university for a little bit and come back!

9. カチッと音が鳴るまで鍵を押し込む。
な かぎ お こ

To push a key in until there is a click sound.

10. きょうまでよく耐えたな、俺。
た おれ

(Casual, male speech)
I've endured pretty well thus far...

11. 「どちらへ」「ちょっとそこまで」

"Where are you going?" "No where particular"

Culture Note: In Japanese you may be asked by people as a gesture where you are going, and you may respond in this manner. You are not obliged like you would be to Americans to tell exactly where you're going.

までに

Be careful in adding the particle に to まで. までに = "by (the time)", which is quite different. This can be seen after stuff as simple as 一時. So, 一時までに = by 1 o' clock. It could also be after the non-past form of a verb, such as in 死ぬ（とき）までにやりとげる = to accomplish by (the time) one dies. Note that you can also easily add とき in case this makes things easier. This pattern shows the time for which something is to be realized.

12. 零時までに三冊読む。
れいじ さんさつ

To read three books by midnight.

13. 日が出るまでに寝る。

To sleep until the sun rises.

14. 明日までに郵便局に行かないといけない。
ゆうびんきょく

I have to go to the post office by tomorrow.

Grammar Note: ～ないといけない is a "must" construction. We will formally study it in [Lesson 102](#).

15. ご参考まで(に)
さんこう

For your information/reference

Particle Note: This phrase is so common that it might as well be viewed as a set phrase. It is a little more polite with に. The role of まで(に) loosely falls under the usages described

thus far. The idea is that the speaker is trying to indirectly suggest a reference, and if the listener gets to the point by which it would be useful to use, that person can do so.

16. ご挨拶(まで)に伺いました。

I have come by to say hello and introduce myself.

Culture Note: This phrase is often said when simply coming to greet someone. Just like in America, there are times when we feel obliged to visit someone for the first time and exchange salutations. In Japanese, this means you need to show due respect. The verb 伺う in this sentence is a humble form of 来る.

Culture Section: Trains

The train is the most important mode of transportation in Japan. The 新幹線 (bullet train) continues to connect more of Japan together. 緑の窓口 ^{まどぐち} is the "Green Window" where you buy reserved seat tickets (指定券) ^{していきん} and long distance tickets. Most stations also have a machine to do this. However, you're more likely to find about deals if you go to an actual window. You can buy tickets in ticket vending machines (券売機). A 入場券 ^{けんばいき} lets you see people off on the platform, 定期券 ^{ていきけん} are season tickets, 回数券 ^{かいすうけん} are discounted tickets.

17. 大阪までの切符を4枚ください。

Four tickets to Osaka please.

18. オースティンからダラスまで4時間半かかる。

It will take 4 and a half hours from Austin to Dallas.

19. 私たちは一緒に駅まで行きました。

We went together up to the train station.

20. このバスは京都まで行きます。

This bus goes (up) to Kyoto.

21. 新宿までいくらですか。

How much is it to Shinjuku?

Geography Note: 新宿 is a major commercial and administrative center.

The Adverbial Particle まで

The adverbial particle まで exemplifies an extremity. This is by nature showing degree, but extremity has a great sense of intensity to it. The emotional aspect separates it from the case particle. Aside from that, it also has peculiar usages. Even so, when just after a noun or verb, it's not that obvious that it's any different from what you've just seen above.

22. オレのガールフレンドまでもオレを 疑うたがってるんだよ。 (Masculine; rough)
Even my own girlfriend doubts me.

23. どこまでオレを 憎にくむのか。 (Masculine; rough)
To what extent do you detest me?

24. 今まで (に) 見たこともない景色だよ。
I've never seen such scenery before.

25. 私は今までずっとスウェーデンに住んでいます。
I've been living in Sweden all this while.

26. そこまで言う？ちょっとひどくない？
Wow, isn't that a little harsh saying that much?

27. あの人まで宗しゅう教きょうにはまりました。
Even that person became obsessed with religion.

Spelling Note: The verb はまりだす can be spelled in 漢字 as 嵌り出す.

第48課: Adverbs I

Adverbs (副詞) modify verbs or adjectives, and although adverbs may show up in various places in a sentence, they are typically used at the beginning of a sentence. This isn't a rule, and you still see adverbs just about anywhere. It is simply a trend that you will become familiarized with.

Adverbs come from various sources. However, not every kind of adverb will be discussed in this lesson, and we will continue learning more about adverbs in consecutive lessons.

Adverbs

Most adverbs come from nouns. This sometimes makes it hard to tell when an adverb phrase is actually being used as a noun or not, but we'll learn more about how to discern between them. You've actually already gotten used to such words. **Temporal words** and **counters** are great examples of things that can be nouns or adverbs.

Only a handful of adverbs are true adverbs--もう (already). A "true adverb" can never be used as nouns, and not surprisingly, they don't appear to come from nouns at all.

Below are some of the most common adverbs in Japanese. Before we get to example sentences, we'll need to take into account the notes that follow the chart.

Now	今	Today	本日、今日	Yesterday	昨日
Tomorrow	明日	Already	もう	Still; yet	まだ
At that time	その時	A little	少し、ちょっと	Sometimes	時々
Immediately	すぐに	Fairly; quite	かなり	Almost	ほとんど
Again	また	Completely	まったく	Suddenly	とつぜん

Usage Notes:

1. The general reading for 今日 is きょう. こんにち is formal and usually expected if used in formal writing. In general speech, it is usually limited to こんにちは. こんじつ is a rather outdated reading that you should not expect to see.
2. 本日 is read as ほんじつ, not ほんにち. It is very formal and usually treated as a 書き言葉.
3. 明日 is formally read as みょうにち. あす is slightly more formal than あした, but both are common readings in the spoken language.
4. 昨日 is formally read as さくじつ. However, this is usually restricted to very honorific speech or writing. Its normal reading is きのう.

Examples

1. 彼女はまだ時計の見方を知らない。
みかた し
She still doesn't know how to tell time.

2. とりわけ今日は寒い。
Today is particularly cold.

3. 救急車が二台来ました。 (Polite)
きゅうきゅうしゃ にだいき
Two ambulances came.

4. ついに冬も終わった。
ふゆ お
Winter has finally ended.

5. 薬品は現在かなり安いです。 (Formal)
やくひん げんざい

Pharmaceuticals are currently fairly cheap.

- 6a. きのうと比べてちょっと 暖かいね。 (Casual)
6b. きのうと比べて {すこし・ちょっと} 暖かいですね。 (Polite)
It's a little warm compared to yesterday, isn't it?

Vocab Note: あたたかい is written as 温かい in reference to heat of touch or emotion and 暖かい as in reference to climate, body temperature, and even color. あたたかい may also be あたたかな or even あったか {い・な} in casual speech. Remember that な is used before nouns. As for "hot", 热い refers to things being hot and 暑い refers to the weather being hot.

7. たくさんありますか。
Is there a lot?/Do you have a lot?

Grammar Note: たくさん may either be used as a noun or an adverb. Never say たくさんな when using this as a noun quantifier.

もう vs もっと

Both have meanings of "more." The first, though, can be used in the sense of "once more/further" and the second is "more" as in the degree of something. Aside from that, もう also means "already" and "shortly."

- 8a. もう一回 ○
8b. もっと一回 X
Once more
9. もっと時間が必要だ。
I need more time.
10. 寿司をもう食べた。
I already ate the sushi.
11. もっとお金が必要です。
More money is necessary.
12. もう一つ上のクラスに移った。
I've already switched to a class above (the previous one).

13. もうすこしがんばって。
Just keep on a little bit more.

14. もう終わった。
It has already ended.

Adverbs from the Particle て

Some て phrases are adverbial. These phrases have no "conjunctive" role as the literal grammatical function of て has been lost in them. It is best to treat them as separate words in your vocabulary.

15. 歩いて10分かかります。
It will take 10 minutes by foot.

- 16a. それは初めて聞く話です。
16b. それは初めて聞きました。
16c. それは初耳です。 (Idiom)
That's a new story to me/That's first in my ears.

第49課: Adverbs II: From Adjectives

This lesson is about how you can create adverbs out of any adjective in Japanese.

Adjective → Adverb

To make an adjective an adverb, drop い and add く. For 形容動詞, you add に. These adverbs are normally translated with "-ly". However, for whenever English is weird and doesn't let us use -ly, we have to go with another translation.

Adjective		Adverb		Adjective		Adverb	
強い	Strong	強く	Strongly	静か (な)	Quiet	静かに	Quietly
弱い	Weak	弱く	Weakly	かんたん (な)	Easy	かんたんに	Easily
遅い	Late	遅く	Late	まじめ (な)	Serious	まじめに	Seriously
小さい	Small	小さく	Small	きれい (な)	Pretty; nice	きれいに	Nicely

Example Sentences

- かんたん せつめい
1. 簡単に説明する。

To easily explain.

2. 楽しく休日を過ごす。
To spend the holidays merrily.

3. 何かを小さく切る。
To cut something into small pieces.

4. わたしは毎日自分の部屋で一人静かに勉強します。
I study in my own room quietly every day.

5. インディゴで洗面台が青く染まった。
The washbasin was dyed blue with indigo.

6.あの（向こう）の電気が赤く輝いた。
That light over there shined red.

Phrase Note: あの is literally translated in English as "that over there" as it refers to something not directly near the speaker or listener. However, when the object of reference is truly literally "over there" as in on the other side of the speaker and listener, あの向こうの is more appropriate.

7.姉は優しくなりました。
My older sister became nice.

Grammar Notes:

1. When we want to say that something "becomes X" but X is actually an adjectival attribute, we turn the adjective into an adverb and then add なる. So, "to become red" is 赤くなる. 赤くになる is wrong. However, you say きれいになる for "to become pretty". Remember that there are two classes of adjectives and that they always conjugate differently.

2. Continuing on 2, 信号が青くなった actually means "the light turned green". 青, not 緑, is the color used for streetlights for "green".

8.もう少し静かにしてください。
Please be more quiet

Grammar Note: The opposite of "(adjectival) adverb + なる" is "(Adjectival) adverb + する", which means "to make..." as in implementing a change.

9.冬には太陽は早く沈む。
The sun sets early in the winter.

ふか　いき　す
10. 深く息を吸う。

To take a deep breath.

たし 確か VS 確かに

確かに means "certain", but as an adverb, it's often paired with だろう・でしょう to mean "if I'm not mistaken". The other adverb form 確かに means "certainly". So, they're slightly different.

せかい
11. 世界の人口は、確かに70億（人）ぐらいだ(った)と思います。

The population of the world, if I'm not mistaken is around 7 billion people.

たお
12. 確かにその木が倒れるでしょう。

The tree will certainly fall.

13a. 確か（か）？ (Very casual and a little blunt)

13b. 確かですか。

Is that for certain?

14. それは確かな証拠ではないです。

That is not definitive evidence.

Nuance Note: 多分 is less certain than 確か and きっと is more certain than 確かに.

Exceptional Phrases

Not all adverb phrases will be made similarly. For example, 必要に is not used. "Necessarily" is instead 必ず。Another example is けっこう。Although it too is a 形容動詞, it's adverbial form is just けっこう。Lastly, we have 少しく meaning "just a little". The word comes from when 少し was an adjective. It is occasionally used in the written language.

15. 今日はけっこう寒いです。

Today is quite cold.

すこ
16. 少しく思うところを述べる。(書き言葉)

To state a little bit of what you think.

Ends in に but not from 形容詞

Even though an adverb may end in に, this doesn't mean it necessarily comes from an adjective. Though this is usually the case, there are still very commonly used exceptions to this.

げんじょう ただ
17. 現状は直ちに問題はありません。
There are no problems present right now.

くうこう
18. レンタカーで直ちに空港を出発しました。
(I/we) immediately left the airport in a rental car.

第50課: Adjectives: *Yoi/Ii 良い*

The word for “good” is *yoi 良い*. However, it is not as easy as simply using it as the opposite of *warui 悪い*. The first problem we encounter is that it's usually replaced with its contracted form: *ii いい*. However, it is *yoi 良い* that is used for conjugation. There is also the problem of nuance, which is the hardest problem for learners.

Good Ole *Yoi/Ii 良い*

When you conjugate *yoi/ii よい・いい*, you must use *yoi よい* for everything aside from the non-past tense.

Form	Plain Speech	Polite Speech
Non-past	<i>Yoi/ii よい・いい</i>	<i>Yoi desu/ii desu よいです・いいです</i>
Past	<i>Yokatta よかった</i>	<i>Yokatta desu よかったです</i>
Negative	<i>Yokunai よくない</i>	<i>Yokunai desu よくないです</i>
Negative Past	<i>Yokunakatta よくなかった</i>	<i>Yokunakatta desu よくなかったです</i>
Te て Form	<i>Yokute よくて</i>	<i>Yokute よくて</i>
Adverbial Form	<i>Yoku よく</i>	<i>Yoku よく</i>

In the example sentences below, *yoi/ii よい・いい* are used in the various forms above with nuances that all revolve around “good (for)/fine/excellent/pleasant/agreeable/ready/sufficient /beneficial/okay.”

せいせき よ
1. 成績が良くなった。
Seiseki ga yoku natta.
My grades become good/got better.

こんしゅう てんき よ
2. 今週は（お）天気が良くないですね。
Konshū wa (o)tenki ga yokunai desu ne.
The weather this week isn't good, huh.

うん よ
3. 運が良かったですね。
Un ga yokatta desu ne.
My/our/your/his/her luck was good, huh.

かれ やさ
4. 彼はかっこよくて優しいですね。
Kare wa kakko yokute yasashii desu ne.
He is cool and nice, isn't he?

Phrase Note: *Kakkō yoi* 格好良い means “attractive/good-looking/stylish,” and in the spoken language, it is typically contracted to *kakko ii* かっこいい. It is frequently alternatively spelled as 力ッコいい.

いんしょう よ
5. 印象が良くなかったです。
Inshō ga yokunakatta desu.
Its impression wasn't good.

じゅうぎょういん たいおう よ
6. 従業員の対応が良くなかった。
Jūgyōin no taiō ga yokunakatta.
The employees' handling wasn't good.

よ
7. 良かった！
Yokatta!
Thank goodness!

よ とし
8. 良いお年を！
Yoi o-toshi wo!
Have a good New Year!

Phrase Note: This phrase is more or less the same as saying “Happy New Year” in the West, and as such, it is not used once the New Year has begun. Even in the spoken language, /yo/i is still the predominant pronunciation in this set phrase. However, /ii/ would not be wrong.

9. それはよかったですね。
Sore wa yokatta desu ne.
I'm glad to hear that.

Sentence Note: One could more literally be expressed as *sore wo kiite yokatta desu ne* それ

を聞いてよかったです。However, this would emphasize being glad that you heard whatever “that” is.

からだ よ
10. タバコは 体 に良くないです。

Tabako wa karada ni yokunai desu.
Tobacco is not good for the body.

Spelling Note: *Tabako* may be alternatively spelled as たばこ or 煙草.

けしき
11. いい景色ですね。

Ii keshiki desu ne.
What nice scenery, no?

Sentence Note: This may be more literally expressed by adding the adverb *nanto* なんと at the beginning of the sentence, but because this is very emphatic, the adjective *subarashii* 素晴らしい (wonderful) would be more appropriate.

かれ うで
12. 彼も腕がいいですよ。

Kare mo ude ga ii desu yo.
He too has good skill.

Phrase Note: *Ude ga yoi/ii 腕が良い* is a set phrase meaning “able/skilled,” and both /yo/i/ and /ii/ are correct pronunciations; however, the latter is most common in the spoken language.

とうようびょう よ しょくひん おし
13. 糖尿病に良い食品を教えてください。

Tōnyōbyō ni yoi shokuhin wo oshiete kudasai.
Could you please tell me foods that are good for diabetes?

Spelling Note: As you may have noticed, writing *yoi/ii よい・いい* in Kanji usually indicates that the pronunciation is /yo/i/. Although this not a guarantee, it shows that the sentence is stilted to the written language.

かくご
14. 覚悟はいいか？

Kakugo wa ii ka?
You prepared?

Tone Note: This sentence is both casual and indicative of a superior-inferior relationship. Meaning, the speaker is in no way below the listener in status.

あいしょう とくちょう なに
15. 相性が良いカップルの特徴は何ですか。

Aishō ga yoi/ii kappuru no tokuchō wa nan desu ka?

What are the characteristics of a couple that suits each other.

Phrase Note: *Aishō* 相性 means affinity, and so *aishō ga yoi/ii* 相性が良い literally means “affinity is good.” The opposite of this is *aishō ga warui* 相性が悪い.

えいが　み　よ
16. 映画を観て良かったです。

Eiga wo mite yokatta desu.

I'm glad I watched a/the movie.

Grammar Note: *Te yokatta* てよかった is used to mean “I'm glad that (I)...” It may be used in reference to being glad that an action was done or that a particular situation came to be.

Spelling Note: Spelling *miru* as 観る indicates that you watched the movie somewhere, most likely a theatre.

Rejecting an Offer

Just as in English with the word “fine,” *ii* may be used in rejecting offers.

ええ、いいですよ。

Ē, ii desu yo.

Sure, that's fine.

(いや、) いいです。

(Iya,) ii desu.

(No,) I'm fine.

However, just as in English, many people just don't get it and do whatever you intended to say “no” to anyway.

Spelling Notes:

1. When 良い's nuance focuses on the nature/behavior/actions/status of someone/something is satisfactory, it may be alternatively spelled as 善い. However, this is rather rare in today's writing.

2. When 良い's nuance focuses on the auspicious nature of something, then it may be alternatively yet rarely spelled as 好い, 佳い, or 吉い. Unless you read works of the famous *Natsume Sōseki* 夏目漱石, you'll likely never see them.

No Need/Insulting/Irony

As an extension of rejecting with *ii*, it may also be used in an insulting/ironic manner in

several set phrases.

19. もういいです。

Mō ii desu.

That's enough.

Sentence Note: Even in English, this phrase may be quite offensive depending on the situation.

20. いい加減にしてください！
かげん
Ii kagen ni shite kudasai!

Please cut it out!

21. いい歳（を）して実家暮らしへ恥ずかしい。
とし
じっかぐ
は
Ii toshi (wo) shite jikkagurashi wa hazukashii.

Living at one's parents' house despite being old enough to know better is embarrassing.

Phrase Note: *Ii toshi (wo) shite* いい歳（を）して is a set phrase used to insult someone for something that is unbecoming of his age. *Jikkagurashi* 実家暮らし is a set phrase meaning living with one's parents, particularly at their home.

22. あんた、いい迷惑だよ。
めいわく
Anta, ii meiwaku da yo.

You're a real nuisance.

Phrase Note: *Anta* あんた is a coarse contraction of *anata* あなた (you). Only in non-Standard Japanese dialects is it used in a less casual and coarse manner. Male speakers of Arabic should especially take caution in not overusing it as it may be tempting to use it due to it coincidentally sounding like the word for "you."

23. いいざまだ。

Ii zama da.

It serves you/him/her right!

24. いい気味だ。
きみ
Ii kimi da.

It serves you/him/her right!

Phrase Note: This is synonymous to Ex. 23. *Kimi* literally means "feeling/sensation" and *zama* ざま literally means "sorry state." It may also be seen as a suffix attached to verb stems to mean "manner of." For example, *ikizama* 生き様 means "way of life."

25. いいご身分だね。
みぶん

Ii go-mibun da ne.
How can you afford it?

Phrase Note: *Go-mibun* ご身分 is literally a respectful phrase referring to someone's status. Here, it is being used sarcastically to lead to a question about how the other person could possibly afford the item of discussion.

Spelling Note: Although not really common at all, these negative nuances of *ii* いい may be spelled in *Kanji* alternatively as 好い.

Set Phrases

There are plenty of set phrases in which *yoi/ii* よい・いい are attached to nouns to create a compound expression. In this case, the main difference is typically whether the sentence is made for the written or spoken language. For the written language, *yoi* よい will be your choice, and for the spoken language, *ii* いい will be your choice.

あさぶろ きも
26. 朝風呂も気持ち {よい・いい} です。
Asaburo mo kimochi-yoi/ii.

The morning bath also feels good.

とり ここち みみ かたむ
27. 鳥たちの心地 {よい・いい} さえずりに耳を傾ける。
Toritachi no kokochi-yoi/ii saezuri ni mimi wo katamukeru.
To listen carefully to the pleasant songs of the birds.

Phrase Note: *Mimi wo katamukeru* 耳を傾ける literally means "to tilt one's ears." *Kokochi* 心地 means "sensation," and it is seen following the stem of verbs as *gokochi* to show the "sensation of doing." In which case, these phrases are very frequently followed by *yoi/ii* よい・いい.

Grammar Note: *-tachi* たち is a suffix that indicates a group of something.

Spelling Note: Although rare and difficult, *saezuri* may be alternatively written in *Kanji* as 嘸り.

いごこち ばしょ とくべつ じかん す
28. 居心地良い場所で特別な時間を過ごす。
Igokochi-yoi/ii basho de tokubetsu na jikan wo sugosu.
To spend special time at a cozy place.

こうそう さいじょうかい す ごこち
29. 高層マンションの最上階は住み心地良いのですか。
Kōsō manshon no saijsōkai wa sumigokochi-yoi no desu ka?

Is it comfortable living on the top floor of a high-rise apartment complex?

Reading Note: Due to the presence of *no desu ka* のですか, it becomes more unlikely that 良い is read as /ii/.

Yoku よく

The adverbial form *yoku よく* may be used to mean “nicely/well” or “frequently/often,” but differentiating between these usages will require contextual clues.

30. 齒をよく磨いてください。
Ha wo yoku migaite kudasai.

Brush your teeth well.

31. 彼は本当によく歯を磨いているかどうかわかりません。
Kare wa hontō ni yoku ha wo migaite iru ka dō ka wakarimasen.
I don't really know whether or not he brushes his teeth often.

32. よくやりましたね。

Yoku yarimashita ne.
Wow, you did well.

33. あの子はお母さんとよく似ていますね。
Ano ko wa okā-san to yoku nite imasu ne.
That child closely resembles his/her mother.

34. それ、最近よく聞きますね。
Sore, saikin yoku kikimasu ne.
You here that a lot recently, don't you.

35. よく電話する相手を登録する。
Yoku denwa suru aite wo tōroku suru.
To register those one often calls.

36. 私はよくピザを注文します。
Watashi wa yoku pizza wo chūmon shimasu.
I often order pizza.

37. イチゴをよく食べますか。
Ichigo wo yoku tabemasu ka.
Do you often eat strawberries?

Spelling Note: *Ichigo* may alternatively be spelled in Kanji as 莓.

き
38. よく聞いてください。
Yoku kiite kudasai.

Please listen closely.

かれ てぎわ しょっき かさ
39. 彼は、手際よく食器を重ねていました。
Kare wa, tegiwa yoku shokki wo kasanete imashita.
He was skillfully stacking tableware.

うん ながい
40. そのカメは運よく長生きしました。
Sono kame wa un yoku nagaiki shimashita.
The turtle luckily lived a long life.

第65課: Transitivity I: Different Transitive & Intransitive Forms

Most verbs are usually either transitive or intransitive. Transitivity is a concept that helps explain what does what, what does what to whom, and similar questions related to action or state.

たどうし じどうし
The Japanese terms for transitive verbs (他動詞) and intransitive verbs (自動詞) are defined below. As transitivity classifications don't always match with their English equivalent, the Japanese terms will be preferred in this discussion.

他動詞 *An action done by "someone/thing" on something or someone else (direct object).*

自動詞 *An action or state that has no active agent and no direct object.*

Definition Note: An "agent" in grammar is, simply put, the "doer" of an action. However, just because a verb has "no active agent," this doesn't mean that the verb has "no agent" at all.

There are some verbs like 暮らす which do have an agent, but the agent is "non-active". After all, "people" do "live" out their lives. However, "living" is not the same thing as "cooking a meal" or "driving a car." As opposed to having a non-active agent, "cooking" and "driving" have active agents acting upon a direct object.

As alluded to above, some verbs don't have the same transitivity as their English equivalents. For example, 分かる (to understand) and 要る (to need) are intransitive in Japanese even though their English equivalents are transitive verbs. The reason for these discrepancies is that the two languages describe things from different angles in these instances. More will be discussed about this later.

Rules of Thumb

を with 他動詞 always marks the direct object of a sentence. If it is used with a 自動詞, it essentially means "through".

1. パソコンを捨てる。 (捨てる = 他動詞)
To throw away a PC.

2. 道を歩く。 歩く = 自動詞
To walk through the street.

If you don't see を and the subject is marked with が, it is often safe to assume that the verb is a 自動詞. However, the direct object could be dropped. So, you must take that into consideration. Is it logical for the verb in question to have a direct object?

3. 鳥が歌っている。 歌う = 他動詞
The bird is singing.

Transitivity Note: 歌う is a transitive verb because birds sing songs. There is intrinsically always a direct object implied.

4. 車が停ま^とった。 (停まる = 自動詞)
The car stopped.

自他動詞: Intransitive & Transitive Verbs

There are upwards of 300 of these verb pairs in Japanese. Most fit nicely into four broad categories with various sub-types. Derivation becomes convoluted very quickly, however. Morphology doesn't always make a language easier. It just explains where things come from and why. As you go through the types of transitivity verb pairs, don't feel that you must memorize every detail being shown. After all, not even the best Japanese scholars have this completely figured out.

Type 1: ある and おる = Intransitive

About a fourth of pairs have an intransitive pair with an r or y suffix usually preceded by either the vowel /a/ or /o/ to the root of a verb (except for Type 1d below). The transitive form may end in -u, -eru, or -ru based on type. The sub-types will be listed by frequency. Frequency here is not frequency in type 1 alone but for ALL verb pairs of all types.

Type 1	Frequency	Intransitive	Example	Transitive	Example
a	~20%	✓ -(w)ar-u	上がる (to rise)	✓-Ø-eru	上げる (to raise)

b	~3%	✓-ar-u	ふさ 塞がる	✓-Ø-u	塞 (ふさ) ぐ (to block)
c	~1%	✓-(w)ar- eru	分かれる (to divide/branch)	✓-Ø-eru	分ける (to split)
d	~.70%	✓-[y]-eru	見える (to be in sight)	✓-Ø-ru	見る (to see)
e	~.33%	✓-o[y]-eru	聞こえる (to be heard)	✓-Ø-u	聞く (to hear)
f	~.33%	✓-or-u	つ 積もる (to pile)	✓-Ø-u	積む (to pile)
g	~.33%	✓-or-eru	う 埋もれる (to be covered)	✓-Ø-eru	埋める (to bury/cover)

Chart Note: Ø is used here to stand for "nothing" that takes the place for where a morpheme (meaning component) would otherwise be located to indicate transitivity explicitly.

Even though there are seven sub-types, many patterns can be observed. The /ar-/ and /or-/ you see actually relate to the verbs ある and おる. The [y] in parentheses is actually silent and is etymologically the same as the /r/ in these derivations.

Type 2: S = Transitive

These verbs all have a transitive form with a stem that ends in s. What else makes up the stem or what follows varies, but this characterizes 30% of all pairs in Japanese. Frequency, again, refers to frequency among all verb pairs.

Type 2	Frequency	Intransitive	Example	Transitive	Example
a	~14%	✓-Ø-eru	ひ 冷える (to get chilly)	✓-(y)as-u	冷やす (to chill)
b	~10%	✓-Ø-u	ち 散る (to scatter)	✓-(w)as-u	散らす (to scatter)
c	~2%	✓-Ø-iru	ひ 干る (to dry up)	✓-os-u	ほ 干す (to dry)
d	~1.3%	✓-Ø-iru	生きる (to live)	✓-as-u	生かす (to keep alive)
e	~1%	✓-Ø-ru	着る* (to wear)	✓-s-eru	着せる (to clothe)
f	~.70%	✓-Ø-eru	ふく 膨れる (to swell)	✓-as-eru	膨らせる (to swell)
g	~.33%	✓-Ø-u	およ 及ぶ (to extend)	✓-os-u	及ぼす (to affect)

h	~.33%	$\sqrt{-\emptyset}$ -iru	ほころ 綻 びる (to come apart)	$\sqrt{-as}$ -eru	綻ばせる (to break into)
i	~.33%	$\sqrt{-\emptyset}$ -iru	つ 尽 きる (to run out)	$\sqrt{-us}$ -u	尽くす (to exhaust)

*: Although it is technically transitive, its meaning is more like an intransitive verb and this is important for other uses of the verb.

Word Note: 綻ばせる is "to break into" as in "to break into a smile."

Type 3: Once the Same Long Ago

Type 2 and Type 3 are extremely similar. Put together, they indicate that at one point, many transitivity verb pairs probably derived from a single verb which could function as either an intransitive or a transitive verb. This would be just how most English verbs work. As for Type 3, its verbs have morphemes expressed after the root indicating transitivity. Unsurprisingly, the "r/y-s" pattern is used for this.

Type 3	Frequency	Intransitive	Meaning	Transitive	Meaning
a	~8%	$\sqrt{-r}$ -u	あま 余る (to be plenty)	$\sqrt{-s}$ -u	余す (to spare over)
b	s ~6%	$\sqrt{-r}$ -eru	あらわ 現 れる (to appear)	$\sqrt{-s}$ -u	現す (to show/appear)
c	r ~1%	$\sqrt{-r}$ -u	乗る (to ride)	$\sqrt{-s}$ -eru	乗せる (to pick up)
d	u ~.70%	$\sqrt{-[y]}$ -eru	こ 越える (to go over)	$\sqrt{-s}$ -u	越す (to go over)
e	t ~.33%	$\sqrt{-r}$ -iru	た 足りる (to suffice)	$\sqrt{-s}$ -u	足す (to add)

Type 4: Change in Verb Class

For the above types, a morpheme of some sort is used to go from one transitivity to another. Adding a morpheme to the root of the verb frequently results in a verb that's in a different verb class than its counterpart. For instance, 上がる is a 五段 verb and 上げる is an 一段 verb. The addition of "-ar" to the root of these verbs "ag-" was all that was needed to cause this difference.

For the remaining 25% of verbs, change in verb class alone is what's responsible for transitivity change. Nothing is added to the roots of these verbs to change transitivity. In times past, the basic verb form for these verb pairs looked identical. The only distinguishing aspect they had was having different conjugations. This indicates that these verbs may be remnants of a far older process to derive transitivity pairs. Ironically, however, this type of verb pairs is split into two polar opposite sub-types. This is where memorization becomes especially important.

Type 4	Frequency	Intransitive	Example	Transitive	Example
--------	-----------	--------------	---------	------------	---------

a	~16%	✓-Ø-u	あ 開く (to open)	✓-Ø-eru	開ける (to open)
b	~10%	✓-Ø-eru	わ 割れる (to crack)	✓-Ø-u	割る (to crack)

Exceptions Note: There are several exceptions that are important to learn. Those will be found as examples in this lesson.

Examples

Sometimes knowing which verb form to use is not easy. For instance, suppose you have a cat named ニヤ子ちゃん. To tell her to hide because a dog is coming, you would say かくれて, not かくして. This is because there is only an implied subject (the cat) and an action (hiding). There is no direct object. Had you wanted to say "hide yourself", you would use the transitive form かくす and get 身をかくして.

The chart below has a handful of the most important pairs for you to learn.

意義	他動詞	意義	自動詞	意義	他動詞	意義	自動詞
To break	壊す	To be broken	壊れる	To open	開ける	To open	開く
To raise	育てる	To be raised	育つ	To close	閉める	To close	閉まる
To put out	消す	To disappear	消える	To flow	流す	To flow	流れる
To drop	落とす	To fall	落ちる	To stand	立てる	To stand	立つ
To stop	止める	To stop	止まる	To change	変える	To change	変わる
To start/begin	始める	To begin	始まる	To reveal	現す	To appear	現れる
To add	加える	To take part/join	加わる	To (a)wake	さ 覚ます	To wake up	覚める
To leave	残す	To remain	残る	To rotate	回す	To rotate	回る

Transitivity Notes:

- 開く read as あく is an intransitive verb.
- 開ける read as あける is only transitive and is used to open many things. There are also other spellings of this verb depending on usage. When read as ひらける, it is a more literary, intransitive verb for enlightenment, development, and things being opened up. For instance, you can say 目の前に海がひらけた (the sea opened up in front of our eyes) and 文明がひらけた (civilization has developed).

Meaning Notes:

- 消える may also mean "to fade", "to go off/out", "to pass", "to vanish", etc. 消す may also mean "to turn off", "to remove", "to erase", "to vanish", "to extinguish", etc.
- Etymologically, 立つ and 立てる are the same words as 建つ (to be built) and 建てる (to build) respectively. Translation of たつ and たてる, which have other spellings depending on usage, varies. However, you should get the theme of what they mean.
- 止める read as とめる means "stop" as in "to halt". It can be spelled as 停める (to halt a vehicle), 留める (to restrain; to hold (custody); to leave an impression), and 泊める (to accommodate/lodge). When read as やめる, it means "stop" as in stopping a condition/action. It can be spelled as 辞める (to quit a job). The intransitive form of やめる is やむ.

Spelling Note: Many of these words have additional meanings and additional spellings. Knowing each and every meaning of these verb pairs and the spellings to go with them is too overwhelming for now.

Examples

- はた
5. 旗を上げる。
To raise a flag.
- とつぜんと
6. 車が突然止まった。
The car suddenly stopped.
- こわ
7. 弟がカメラを壊しました。
My younger brother broke the camera.
- ぼく
8. ぼくの新しいカメラが壊れました。
My new camera broke.
- みずうみ
9. 川が 湖 に流れている。
The river is flowing into the lake.

10. タクシーを止めなかったの。

You didn't stop a taxi?

11. ドアを開けました。

I opened the door.

じどう
12. 自動ドアが開きました。

The automatic door opened.

13. いつ始まりますか。

When will it start?

き
14. 気が変わったかわからない。

I don't know if [his/her] mind changed.

15. 妹がテレビをつけました。

My little sister turned on the TV.

16. テレビがつきました。

The TV came on.

なみだ
17. 涙を流す。

To shed tears.

ちそ
18. 土が血で染まった。

The ground was dyed with blood.

しゅくだい
19. 宿題を始める。

To start one's homework.

でんきけ
20. 電気を消しました。

I turned off the lights.

き
21. 電気が消えました。

The lights [turned/went] off.

22. {話・話題} を変える。

To change topics.

はら
23. 彼は腹が立った。 (Set Phrase)

He got angry.

24. バラの木が植わっている。^う

There are rose bushes planted.

25. バラの木を植えました。

I planted a rose bush.

Usage Note: Sometimes a certain verb in a transitivity pair will not be frequently used. For instance, some speakers hardly ever use 植わる.

More Practice

The following sentences will have you choose one of two options. Use additional information and the contents of the lesson to help you choose the right answer.

Questions:

- | | |
|----------------------------------------|-----------|
| 1. オレンジが (落ちる・落とす)。 | Drop |
| 2. 図書館の前に人が (並ぶ・並べる)。
^{なら} | Line up |
| 3. 日時を (決まる・決める)。
^{にちじ} | Decide |
| 4. 枝を (折れる・折る)。
^{えだ} | Bend |
| 5. 勉強を (続く・続ける)。 | Continue |
| 6. 草を (燃える・燃やす)。
^も | Burn |
| 7. 週末を (過ぎる・過ごす)。 | Spend |
| 8. 猫を (助かる・助ける)。 | Save |
| 9. 木が (倒れる・倒す)。 | Fall down |
| 10. 仕事が (増える・増やす)。
^ふ | Increase |
| 11. 数が (減る・減らす)。
^へ | Decrease |
| 12. 子どもを (育つ・育てる)。 | Raise |
| 13. トイレを (流れる・流す)。 | Flush |
| 14. 角を左に (曲がる・曲げる)。
^{かど} | Turn |
| 15. ひげを (伸びる・伸ばす)。
^の | Grow long |

Curriculum Note: Later on in a series of lessons, we will learn about verbs that do not change depending on transitivity. These verbs must be looked at on an individual basis, but because they each require a considerable amount of attention due to their complexity, this will conclude our studies of transitivity for now.

Exercises

Questions:

1. 落ちる
2. 並ぶ
3. 決める
4. 折る
5. 続ける
6. 燃やす
7. 過ごす
8. 助ける
9. 倒れる
10. 増える
11. 減る
12. 育てる
13. 流す
14. 曲がる
15. 伸ばす

第11課: The Particle **Ga** が I: The Subject Marker **Ga** が

As mentioned in Lesson 8, particles indicate the function of what they attach to has in a sentence. Just as there are many functions a word can have in a sentence, there are also many particles. Each particle is complex with its own grammatical rules.

Particles are akin to the prepositions of English. In English, prepositions are words that indicate what function the word that follows has in the sentence.

- i. The pen **in** the drawer is yours.
- ii. The bird **on** the fence is an endangered species.
- iii. The statue **at** the park is brand-new.
- iv. He went **to** Japan with his other half.
- v. I fought **for** freedom.

Particles, however, are post-positions. This means they go after what they modify instead of before. Furthermore, there are functions that some particles have that may not have an English equivalent. Each word in bold below is a particle.

かれ しお こしょう やさい にく あじつ
vi. 彼が塩と胡椒だけで野菜や肉などを味付けした。

Kare-**ga** shio-**to** koshō-**dake-de** yasai-**ya** niku-**nado-wo** ajitsukeshita.

Gloss: He-subject marker salt-and pepper-only-with vegetables-such as meat-et cetera-object marker seasoned.

Translation: He seasoned (the) vegetables, meat, etc. with only salt and pepper.

Ga が and **wa** は—written as /ha/ but always pronounced as /wa/—are very different particles, but they are nonetheless very difficult to distinguish in the most basic of sentences.

Ga が is a case particle. A **case particle** is used to mark grammatical case. The purpose of **grammatical case** is to explicitly state the grammatical function of the noun phrase it attaches to in relation to the predicate. A **predicate** can be a copular verb, adjective, adjectival noun, or a verb.

Definition Notes:

1. An **adjective** in Japanese is a word that describes a state which has its own conjugations.
 2. An **adjectival noun** in Japanese is a word that describes a state like an adjective, but it requires the copula to be part of the predicate like a noun.
 3. A **verb** in Japanese is a word that describes an action, state, or occurrence. Its conjugations are distinct from those of adjectives, but the principles of conjugation are the same.
-

Ga が marks the **subject**—person/thing that performs an action (with verbs) or is what exhibits a certain state (with adjectives/adjectival nouns). By doing so, it is implied that the listener(s) are receiving new information, potentially even the speaker. Contrary to generic statements, it is the objective voice needed in making neutral statements as well as answering questions with the information the asker seeks.

Wa は, unlike ga が, is not a case particle. It is a special kind of particle called a **bound particle**: *its purpose is lived out by the comment that follows*, which means it is not restricted by what comes before it. Wa は is bound to the comment that follows. In return, the comment dictates the function of wa は. The only thing the listener can know is that wa は marks the topic of the discussion to come. Its motto is “I don’t know about other things, but as for X...”

The complexity of ga が and wa は doesn’t end here, though. Due to the complexity of the matter at hand, this discussion will be split into two lessons. The first lesson will focus on the fundamentals of ga が, and the second lesson on the fundamentals of wa は.

Curriculum Note: This lesson requires that we look at grammatical items which haven’t been fully covered. This includes adjectives, adjectival nouns, verbs and their conjugations, as well as other particles. As such, your goal should be to focus only on the particles ga が and wa は. Anything aside from the particle ga が and what has been taught up to this point can be safely put to the side for now.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Case Particle Ga が

The purpose of marking the subject (*shukaku* 主格) of a sentence in Japanese is to indicate information that is newly registered to the speaker, and that information is thus being distilled to the listener(s) as **new information**. This distinction helps ga が serve as an objective means of making **neutral statements** and **providing answers to questions**, as well as **asking direct questions** such as “what is...?” or “who is...?”

1. New information

Whereas the purpose of *wa* は is to topicalize something and bring attention to the comment that follows, the particle *ga* が is used mostly to present new information in the form of neutral statements. This is especially true with statements regarding the existence of something, the five senses, and simple intransitive sentences. Intransitive sentences involve an intransitive verb. These verbs only concern a subject and a predicate, which makes the particle *ga* が the perfect particle as the basic particle for such a grammatical relation.

i. Existential Sentences

Existential sentences are those that state something exists. Typically, these sentences include information such as location. In English, the subject of an existential sentence is “there” and the item that exists ends up being treated as an object.

- vii. **There** is a *dog* in the yard.
- viii. **There** are *oranges* on the table.
- ix. There isn't a *dragon* here.
- x. There aren't any *pens* in the room.

In Japanese existential sentences, the thing that exists is treated as the subject. Furthermore, the “to be” verb for showing existence is carried out by two verbs. *Aru* ある is used to express existence of (non-living) inanimate objects whereas *iru* いる is used to express living animate objects.

1. 飴がある。
ame ga aru.

Ame ga aru.
There is candy.

2. 鉛筆がある。
empitsu ga aru.

Empitsu ga aru.
There is/are pencil(s).

3. 鳥がいる。
tori ga iru.

Tori ga iru.
There is/are (a) bird(s).

4. 牛がいる。
ushi ga iru.

Ushi ga iru.
There is/are (a) cow(s).

5. 魚が {ある・いる}。
sakana ga {aru/iru}.

Sakana ga [aru/iru].
There is/are (a) fish.

Sentence Note: When the verb *aru* ある is used, "fish" is being treated as a food item that is no longer living. When the verb *iru* いる is used, the fish is still alive and well.

The subject's **location** is marked with the particle *ni* に. In English, this role may be expressed with "in," "on," or no preposition at all. In Japanese, the subject doesn't have to be the first thing stated. In fact, because anything topicalized with *wa* は always takes precedence, it's not even true that the subject is usually stated first. In this same token, location phrases *usually* take precedence in existential sentences.

がっこう

6. あそこに学校がある。

Asoko ni gakkō ga aru.

There is a school over there.

へ や ねこ

7. 部屋に猫がいる。

Heya ni neko ga iru.

There is/are (a) cat(s) in the room.

つくえ うえ ほん

8. 机の上に本がある。

Tsukue no ue ni hon ga aru.

There is/are a book(s) on top of the table.

した

9. テーブルの下にネズミがいる。

Tēburu no shita ni nezumi ga iru.

There is/are (a) mouse/mice underneath the table.

はし となり たき

10. 橋の隣に滝がある。

Hashi no tonari ni taki ga aru.

There is a waterfall next to the bridge.

ii. Neutral Statements

Neutral statements are those that describe temporary states and/or actions. They form the objective truth of the recent past, the now, or the near future. The most cited example of this usage of the particle *ga* が, however, happens to be Ex. 11. Monkey business is taken seriously in grammar.

さる き お

11. 猿が木から落ちた。

Saru ga ki kara ochita.

A monkey fell from tree.

Alternatively: It is the monkey that fell from the tree (See Usage 2).

Particle Note: The particle *kara* から is the "from" of the sentence.

ひんしつ
12. 品質がいい。

Hinshitsu ga ii.

The quality is good.

にっしょく お
13. 日食が起きます。

Nisshoku ga okimasu.

There will be a solar eclipse.

かれ れいぎ わる
14. (彼は) 礼儀が悪い。

(Kare wa) reigi ga warui.

His manners are bad.

Literally: As for him, (his) manners are bad.

あたま
15. (あなたは) 頭がいい。

(Anata wa) atama ga ii.

You're smart.

Literally: As for you, your mind is good.

iii. Five senses

Another facet of expressing new information/neutral statements is creating statements regarding the five senses: sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch.

さむけ
16. 寒気がする。

Samuke ga suru.

I'm chilly.

くさ にお
17. 臭い匂いがする。

Kusai nioi ga suru.

There's an awful smell.

へん おと
18. 変な音がする。

Hen na oto ga suru.

There's a strange noise.

やま み
19. 山が見える。

Yama ga mieru.

The mountain/mountains are visible.

はごた
20. 歯応えがいい。

Hagotae ga ii.

The feel (of the food) is good.

- しおから あじ
21. 塩辛い味がする。
Shiokarai aji ga suru.
It tastes salty.

iv. Intransitive sentences

One of the most practical applications of expressing new information is speaking about what happens, is happening, or has happened. Intransitive verbs are verbs that, put simply, discuss what happens.

- ゆき つ
22. 雪が積もる。
Yuki ga tsumoru.
Snow accumulates.

Grammar Note: The speaker is seeing the event occur before his eyes.

- つよ かぜ ふ
23. 強い風が吹きました。
Tsuyoi kaze ga fukimashita.
Strong wind blew.

- あめ ふ
24. 雨が降ります。
Ame ga furimasu.
It's going to rain.
Literally: Rain will fall.

- し
25. ドアが閉まります！
Doa ga shimarimasu!
The door is (about to) close!

- たいふう じょうりく
26. 台風が上陸しました。
Taifū ga jōraku shimashita.
The/a typhoon landed.

2. Exhaustive-listing: It is X that...

There are times when *ga* が isn't meant as a mere statement of new information. Instead, it can also explicitly state that it is "X" that is the subject of the predicate. The "X" can be one entity or several entities, which is where the name "exhaustive-listing" comes into play. When the predicate describes a static state, one that is not necessarily a temporary reality, this interpretation is typically meant. A static state can be expressed with a copular sentence, adjectives, adjectival nouns, or verbs which describe states. In fact, this interpretation reigns supreme over the existential sentences studied above. With *ga* が, the things mentioned to exist in a certain place are what's there.

かれ がくせい
27. 彼が学生です。

Kare ga gakusei desu.
He is the student.

きょうかしょ べんり
28. この教科書が便利です。
Kono kyōkasho ga benri desu.
This is the textbook that is useful.

なみ たか
29. 波が高い！
Nami ga takai!
These waves are high!

はごた よわ
30. このサンマのほうが歯応えが弱い。
Kono samma no hō ga hagotae ga yowai.
The consistency of *this* Pacific saury is weak.

Grammar Note: The use of *no hō* のほう (side of a comparison) intensifies the exhaustive nature of *ga* が. Whenever there are two *ga* が phrases next to each other like this, the first *ga* が phrase is always treated as the subject of the main clause. The secondary *ga* が phrase is embedded in the predicate.

ii. Asking Questions

Exhaustive-listing is a feature of *ga* が that is not normally brought out without cause. Meaning, just as is the case for the English equivalents seen in translation, such phrasing is usually brought about some sort of question being asked, for which a direct and substantive answer is required. Unsurprisingly, *ga* が is involved in the making and answering of those questions. To ask the direct questions, you add *ga* が to an interrogative (question word). The basic question words in Japanese are as follows:

- *Dare* 誰
- *Nani* 何
- *Itsu/Nanji* いつ・何時
- *Doko* どこ
- *Naze* 何故

Meaning Note: *Nanji* 何時 literally means “what time?”

ひょういん
31. どこが病院ですか。
Doko ga byōin desu ka?
Where is the hospital?

Sentence Note: This sentence is not a simple question about where the hospital is. Imagine a person looking at a line of buildings and wondering which is the hospital. That is a situation where this sentence would be appropriate. Although not as smooth of a translation, Ex. 31 can also be interpreted as "Where is it that the hospital is?"

- なぜ ゆうれい そんざい
32. 何故ここに幽霊が存在するんですか。
Naze koko ni yūrei ga sonzai suru n desu ka?
Why is it that ghosts exist here?

Grammar Note: In polite speech, "why" questions must end in *n desu ka? んですか.*

- なに
33. 何がおかしい！？
Nani ga okashii!?
What (is it that) is so funny!?

- だれ しゃちょう
34a. 誰が社長？
Dare ga shachō?
しゃちょう だれ
34b. 社長は誰？
Shachō wa dare?
Who's the company president? (34a)
Who is the company president? (34b)

Grammar Note: Ex. 34a would be appropriate to say when you are somewhere where there is a group of people, one of which you would like identified as the company president by who you're asking the question to. Ex. 34b, on the other hand, would be used in a situation where the company president is already at the forefront of conversation and the speaker, you, is simply asking the listener about who that person is. This conversation doesn't have to be held where the company president happens to be at.

- あした なんじ つごう
35. 明日は {いつ・何時} が都合がいいですか。
Ashita wa [itsu/nanji] ga tsugō ga ii desu ka?
As for tomorrow, when is convenient (for you)?

iii. Answers to Questions

Questions brought about with *ga* が are typically answered back with the information sought. *Ga* が provides an exhaustive answer to the question at hand.

- だれ い ほく い
36. 「誰が行く？」 「僕が行きます。」
"Dare ga iku?" "Boku ga ikimasu."
"Who's the one going?" "I'm the one going."

37. 「何がいい？」 「ラーメンがいいでしょう。」

“Nani ga ii?” “Rāmen ga ii deshō.”
“What would be good.” “Ramen would be good.”

iv. Spontaneous Reply

Whenever someone spontaneously utters something, it is often in reference to some immediate concern.

38. この 薬 が 効く よ。
Kono kusuri ga kiku yo.
This medicine will work.

Sentence Note: Suppose you find out a friend has a cold and you have some cold medicine on you. The moment you hear about your friend's condition, you take out the medicine and say this'll help him. This is one way Ex. 38 could be used.

39. お 客 さ ん が 来 た。
O-kyaku-san ga kita.
Customer(s) are here.

Sentence Note: You're the owner of a restaurant. It's nearing lunch hour and at last you hear the first guest(s) entering. Just as you hear this, you utter Ex. 39.

v. Sense of Discovery

Another application of the exhaustive-listing interpretation of *ga* が is expressing surprise in discovery what something truly is. This application translates as “X is what Y is...” This usage is essentially the same as the one for expressing a spontaneous reply.

40. あ、 こ れ が 雪 だ !
A, kore ga yuki da!
Ah, this is what snow is!

41. あ、 あ の 人 が 噂 の 山 田 師 匠 だ !
A, ano hito ga uwasa no Yamada-shishō da!
Ah, that person is the rumored Master Yamada!

4. Object Marker with Stative-Transitive Predicates

Having already learned quite a lot about how *ga* が functions as a subject-marker, we will study its function as an object-marker in Lesson 21.

第12課: The Particle *Wa* は I: The Topic/Contrast Marker *Wa* は

The particle *wa* は, unlike *ga* が, is not a case particle. This means that it grammatically doesn't stand for the subject or even the object of a sentence. Instead, it is a special kind of particle called a bound particle. *Wa* は is bound to the comment that follows. In return, the comment dictates the nature of *wa* は.

It is not possible to know exactly what will be said with *wa* は alone when in total isolation without context. The only thing the listener would know in such a situation is that *wa* は will mark the topic of the discussion to come. In addition, the topic marked by *wa* は is differentiated from other things that could be the topic, which is in and of itself contrast, which will also be looked at in depth in this lesson.

In this lesson, we will continue our discussion on *ga* が vs *wa* は by looking closely at the usages of *wa* は. After reading through this lesson, you will have learned enough about both particles to adequately differentiate them in most circumstances.

Curriculum Note: This lesson also requires that we look at grammatical items which haven't been fully covered. This includes adjectives, adjectival nouns, verbs and their conjugation. As such, your goal should be to focus only on the particles *ga* が and *wa* は.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Bound Particle *Wa* は

1. The Topic Marker *Wa* は

i. What is a “Topic”?

To understand *wa* は, we must first understand what is meant by the word “topic.” The topic (*shudai* 主題) of a sentence can be an animate or inanimate entity (of one or more components), and that entity is what provides a starting point for conversation. A topic must also be something based on previously established information, whether it be from the ongoing conversation, one not too far back in the past, or from common sense.

The topic is, thus, “old information.” In order for something to be registered information, though, you may need to use *ga* が first to establish it. Essentially, information needs to be new before it can be grammatically treated as old information. This distinction between new information and known information is exemplified in Ex. 1.

1. 昔々、あるところに、おじいさんとおばあさんが住んでいました。おじいさんは山へ
しばかわせんたくい
柴刈りに、おばあさんは川へ洗濯に行きました。

Mukashi mukashi, aru tokoro ni, ojisan to obāsan ga sunde imashita. Ojisan wa yama e

shibakari ni, obāsan wa kawa e sentaku ni ikimashita.

Long, long ago, there lived an old man and woman. One day, the old man went to the mountains to gather firewood, and the old woman went to the river to wash clothes.

This sentence is the opening to one of the most important fairy-tales of Japan, *Momotarō* 桃太郎. At the beginning, the reader doesn't know anything about the story. This is why the particle *ga* が is used to mark the subject. Once the characters are established, they are then treated as the topic in the following sentence, thus marked by *wa* は.

わたし ぼうし
2. あれは私の帽子です。

Are wa watashi no bōshi desu.

That's my hat.

Sentence Note: Although the comment, the hat being the speaker's, is "new information," the recognition of the hat is not.

In Japanese, phrases may be topicalized and put at or near the front of the sentence, after which point a comment is made about said topic. The comment could be already known or new information, but the topic is something implied to be known to both speaker and listener(s). The topic, as mentioned above, is deemed to be an entity known to others and oneself. Often times, this is based on a common sense assessment of reality.

なまえ なん
3. お名前は何ですか。

O-namae wa nan desu ka?

What's your name?

Sentence Note: Everyone has a name. Even if this statement weren't completely true, it's practically true. This is all the information one needs to know about the human world to understand how "your name" can be grammatically treated as "old/registered" knowledge. You know the person you're talking to has a name; you just don't know what that person's name is, which is why the question forms the comment about the topic.

4. トイレはどこですか。

Toire wa doko desu ka?

Where is the toilet?

Sentence Note: When you ask this to someone, you're assuming that there is a toilet nearby. The existence of toilets can be rather easily ascertained based on one's surroundings. The fact that you're asking this means you've already determined that there is one, and you're also implying that the existence and knowledge of its location is something that others might help you find out.

かせい あか
5. 火星は赤いです。

Kasei wa akai desu.

Mars is red.

Sentence Note: Most people know about Mars. It has been a part of human fascination for a long time, and so the acknowledgment of its existence is well established. It being red is also something that is so well known that it can be viewed as a generic statement.

ほん しま くに

6. 日本は島の国です。

Nihon wa shima no kuni desu.

Japan is an island nation.

Sentence Note: Japan is known by both all Japanese speakers as well as most of the world, and it's also known by most people that it is an island nation.

7. ウサギはかわいいですね。

Usagi wa kawaii desu ne.

Rabbits are cute, aren't they?

Sentence Note: Wherever rabbits exist, there are humans that know about them.

The Zero-Pronoun

Whenever the topic is semantically the same as the subject or even the object of a sentence, the particle *wa* は does not mark both. It only functions as the topic marker. All sorts of things can be topicalized, which makes it seem like *wa* は has far more functions than it actually does. Semantically, it is very similar to the English expression "as for X." It's the "X" in this expression that *wa* は stands for, and nothing more. However, using "as for" heavily in translation will result in unnatural English. Using one's own intuition on what is proper English will come to play here. Nonetheless, it's a perfect stepping stone for understanding how this particle functions grammatically.

わたし まいにち い

8a. 私は毎日ジムに行きます。

Watashi wa mainichi jimu ni ikimasu.

I go to the gym every day.

Ex. 8a can alternatively be translated as, "As for me, I go to the gym every day." The purpose of *wa* は is two-fold. It establishes that "I" is the topic, but it also differentiates it from other possible topics like "he" or "she." As such, the reason why *watashi* 私 would even be used instead of just being dropped—which is usually the case—is because the speaker has become the center of conversation. Although the subject of this sentence is "I," the *watashi* 私 of this sentence corresponds to the "me" in "as for me." The "I" that corresponds to the subject is not spoken because it would be semantically redundant. In fact, *watashi wa watashi ga* 私は私が is ungrammatical.

This is where the concept of a zero-pronoun comes into play. A zero-pronoun is a pronoun

used to refer to the subject of a Japanese sentence when it is omitted because it is juxtaposed with a topic that happens to be the same thing. It is the grammatical fix to the grammaticalized rule of omitting semantically redundant elements. More broadly, a zero-pronoun is used in place of an entity that is semantically the same as the topic. Thus, this can be applied to other situations as we will see as well. With a zero-pronoun in mind, we can view 8a as follows:

- 8b. 私は毎日ジムに行きます。
Watashi-wa (\emptyset -ga) jimu-ni ikimasu.
As for me, (I) go to the gym every day.
 \emptyset = Watashi 私

- 9a. ケーキはもう食べました。
Kēki wa mō tabemashita.
The cake, I already ate it.

Grammar Note: The particle *wa* は appears to mark the direct object, but in reality, it simply marks the topic which also happens to be the object, but the object is expressed with an unexpressed zero-pronoun. Thus, Ex. 9a can be viewed alternatively as follows:

- 9b. ケーキはもう食べました。
Kēki-wa mō (\emptyset -wo) tabemashita.
The cake, I already ate it.
 \emptyset = Kēki ケーキ

The Variety of Topicalized Phrases

The particle *wa* は has few restrictions on what it can topicalize. It may topicalize time phrases, location phrases, etc. This is exemplified in the following examples.

10. 日本では地震がよく起きます。
Nihon de wa jishin ga yoku okimasu.
In Japan, earthquakes often happen.

11. 今日は韓国語を勉強します。
Kyō wa kankokugo wo benkyō shimasu.
Today, I will study Korean.

12. 私はお茶です。
Watashi wa ocha desu.
I'll have tea.

Grammar Note: Whenever learners don't fully understand the concept of topicalization, they

fail to understand that topic ≠ subject. It's best to never consider them one of the same thing. If this means having to deconstruct sentences and translate them literally first to figure out what the subject is and whether it's being represented by a zero-pronoun so that you don't end up misunderstanding sentences like Ex. 12 as meaning "I am tea," then it would be worth it

わたし おとうと
13. こちらは私の弟です。

Kochira wa watashi no otōto desu.

This is my little brother.

かのじょ ちゅうごくじん にほんじん じん
14. 彼女は{中国人・日本人・アメリカ人・イギリス人}です。

Kanojo wa [chūgokujin/nihonjin/amerikajin/igirisujin] desu.

She is [Chinese/Japanese/American/British].

ちゅうごくけいさい もんだい
15. 中国経済には問題がある。

Chūgoku keizai ni wa mondai ga aru.

There is/are problem(s) in the Chinese economy.

Grammar Note: Due to English phrasing constraints, it may not always be possible to place the topicalized phrase of a Japanese sentence at the front of the English translation. However, the fact that the *wa* は phrase in question is being topicalized and the fact that said *wa* は phrase forms the basis for the upcoming conversation do not change.

わたし い
16. 私は行けません。

Watashi wa ikimasen.

I won't go.

かれ せんせい
17. 彼は先生ではありません。

Kare wa sensei de wa arimasen.

He is not a teacher.

Grammar Notes:

1. Ex. 16 and Ex. 17 are examples of the particle *wa* は bringing out the meaning of "X isn't but something/someone else might be/do Z." This implicit contrast is something that, depending on the context, may become even more profound (See Usage 2). As for Ex. 17, it could be that another person is a teacher, or "he" could be something other than a teacher. If the particle *ga* が were used, the sentences would become examples of exhaustive-listing. Remember, exhaustive-listing is still exhaustive if X simply refers to one entity and one entity only.

2. The *wa* は in *de wa arimasen* ではありません is not the topic *wa* は. Rather, it is one usage of the contrast marker *wa* は (Usage 2).

ii. Generic Statements

Many conversations are started off by mentioning something everyone already knows. However, implying that the listener(s) knows is subjective in nature. This is because one can never definitively know what someone else does or doesn't know. This usage of *wa* は is very different from the exhaustive-listing statements that *ga* が can make. Whereas an exhaustive-listing sentence is limited semantically solely to what's explicitly stated, *wa* は is far more open-ended due to its generic nature. There is always a chance for the speaker to imply "I know that X is Z, but I don't know about Y."

18. リンゴは小さい。
Ringo wa chiisai.

(The) apples are small.

Spelling Note: *Ringo* is only seldom spelled as 林檎.

19. 空は青い。
Sora wa aoi.

The sky is blue.

20. 宇宙は広い。
Uchū wa hiroi.

The universe is wide.

21. 太陽は明るい。
Taiyō wa akarui.

The sun is bright.

22. 夜は暗い。
Yoru wa kurai.

Night is dark.

23. 花は美しい。
Hana wa utsukushii.

Flowers are beautiful.

24. 春は素晴らしいですね。
Haru wa subarashii desu ne.

Spring is wonderful, isn't it?

25. 世界は小さいですね。
Sekai wa chiisai desu ne.

The world is small, isn't it?

- すうがく むずか
26. 数学は 難しいですね。
Sūgaku wa muzukashii desu ne.
Math is difficult, isn't it?

Sentence Note: As a demonstration of the last point from above, this statement should be interpreted as meaning “I'm not sure about other subjects being hard, but math is, isn't it?”

iii. Attribute Phrases: X wa は Y ga が

One of the most common ways to describe something is by following a topicalized phrase (X) with *wa* は with a neutral statement (Y) followed by *ga* が. In the examples below, there are generally two kinds of translations. The first reflects the nature of the Japanese grammar whereas the second rephrases it into more natural English. As you will see, the resulting translation indicates how this grammar is essentially identical to making generic statements.

- ぞう はな なが
27. 象は鼻が長い。
Zō wa hana ga nagai.
As for elephants, their noses are long.
Elephants have long noses.
- にほん じんじゃ おお
28. 日本は神社が多い。
Nihon wa jinja ga ōi.
As for Japan, there are many Shinto shrines.
Japan has many Shinto shrines.

- あき
29. 秋はサンマが最高だ。
Aki wa samma ga saikō da.
As for autumn, Pacific saury is the best.
In autumn, Pacific saury is the best.

- ふゆ きおん さ
30. 冬には気温が下がります。
Fuyu ni wa kion ga sagarimasu.
In winter, the temperature goes down.

- しごと わたし
31. その仕事は、私がします。
Sono shigoto wa, watashi ga shimasu.
As for that job, I'll do it.
I'll do that job.

- くび なが
32. キリンは首が長い。
Kirin wa kubi ga nagai.

As for giraffes, their necks are long.
Giraffes have long necks.

Spelling Note: Only rarely is *kirin* spelled as 麒麟.

33. (私は) 頭が痛いです。
(*Watashi wa*) *atama ga itai desu*.
(As for me), my head hurts.
I have a headache.

34. (私は) お腹が空きました。
(*Watashi wa*) *onaka ga sukimashita*.
I'm hungry.
Literally: (As for me), my stomach is empty.

35. (私は) 喉が渴きました。
(*Watashi wa*) *nodo ga kawakimashita*.
I'm thirsty.
Literally: (As for me), my throat is parched.

Grammar Note: If distinguishing oneself from other people is necessary in expressing hunger or thirst, Ex. 34 and Ex. 35 are both examples of the pattern X wa は Y ga が.

iv. Questions

As opposed to the questions made with *ga* が, those made with *wa* は have the interrogatives as part of the predicate. This is because the questions formed with *wa* は imply that the question (topic) at hand is already known to the listener(s), and this knowledge is then topicalized to bring forth the question (comment) you'd like the discussion to be about. This pattern will be how most of the questions you ask are formed.

Word Note: As seen in Ex. 3, when *nani* 何 (what) is used as the predicate and followed by the copula, it undergoes a sound change and becomes *nan* なん.

36. サムはいつ来る？
Samu wa itsu kuru?
When is Sam coming?

37. 今日は何曜日ですか。
Kyō wa nan'yōbi desu ka?
What day is it today?

38. (あなたは) 誰ですか。
Anata wa dare desu ka?

(Anata wa) dare desu ka?

Who are you?

39. 病院はどこですか。
Byōin wa doko desu ka?

Where is the hospital?

40. 趣味は何ですか。
Shumi wa nan desu ka?

What are your hobbies?

2. The Contrast Marker

On top of being a topic marker, *wa* は is also the particle of contrast (*taihi* 対比), which can be seen in its usage of marking the topic. There is a line of thought that the contrast meaning of *wa* は is actually the primary meaning of *wa* は. Within a given sentence, several *wa* は may appear. Each one will have a different level of contrast implied. When a *wa* は phrase's degree of contrast is really weak, it can be viewed as the topic.

41. 私は昨日は昼食は取らなかつたんです。
Watashi wa kinō wa chūshoku wa toranakatta n desu.
Yesterday, I didn't have lunch.

Although the presence of *watashi wa* 私は could imply a contrast with other people, the sentence is bringing oneself to the forefront of conversation. With this being this case, it is viewed as the topic. Both the words for "yesterday" and "lunch" are marked with *wa* は because they contrast with other scenarios. For instance, the speaker may have eaten lunch today, and he may have eaten breakfast and/or dinner that day.

42. 今日は行きます。 (→ 明日は行きません)
Kyō wa ikimasu. (→ Asu wa ikimasen)
I'm going *today*. (→ I'm not going *tomorrow*)

43. 旦那さんは上海へ行きます。 (→ 奥さんは北京へ行きます)
Dan'na-san wa Shanghai e ikimasu. (→ Oku-san wa Pekin e ikimasu)
His/her husband is going to Shanghai. (→ His/her wife is going to Beijing)

44. 大阪へは行きます。 (→ 京都へは行きません)
Ōsaka e wa ikimasu (→ Kyōto e wa ikimasen)
I'm going to Osaka. (→ I'm not going to Kyoto)

- ほんとう うれ
45. 本当は嬉しいです。
Hontō wa ureshii desu.
I'm actually happy.

Grammar Note: *Hontō* 本当 is used here as a noun meaning "reality/actuality." The speaker may not appear happy, but internally he/she is happy.

- にほんりょうり りょうり す
46. 「日本料理は好きですか」 「タイ料理は好きです」
"Nihon ryōri wa o-suki desu ka?" "Tai ryōri wa suki desu."
"Do you like Japanese cuisine?" I like Thai food(, but as far as other cuisine...)

Grammar Note: The reply provides an indirect means of saying that one doesn't like Japanese cuisine. Although this is inferred by the reply, it's politer to reply as such than simply saying no.

- いぬ す ねこ
47. 犬は好きですが、猫はどうも…
Inu wa suki desu ga, neko wa domo...
I like dogs, but cats ...

Grammar Note: The *ga* が seen after *desu* です is the conjunctive particle *ga* が, which is separate from its use as a subject marker. For now, simply know that it is the "but" in this example and the ones that follow.

- の の
48. コーヒーは飲まないが、ビールは飲むよ。
Kōhii wa nomanai ga, biiru wa nomu yo.
I don't drink coffee, but I drink beer.

- えんぴつ
49. 鉛筆はありませんが、ペンはありますよ。
Empitsu wa arimasen ga, pen wa arimasu yo.
There aren't pencils, but there are pens.
I don't have pencils, but I have pens.

- きつね
50. あれはオオカミではない、狐だよ。
Are wa ōkami de wa nai, kitsune da yo.
That isn't a wolf; it's a fox.

Grammar Note: This example demonstrates how the *wa* は in *de wa nai* ではない is the contrasting *wa* は. The grammar behind this actually goes beyond its use in the negative forms of the copula. However, due to the complexity of this grammar point, it will be discussed in a later lesson.

-
3. Another usage of the particle *wa* は is to express a bare minimum (*saiteigen* 最低限)--"at

least." This is primarily used with number expressions, which will be studied later on. However, this usage is not limited to such expressions, as is demonstrated by Ex. 54.

51. 少なくとも 2 時間はかかります。
Sukunakutomo nijikan wa kakarimasu.
It will take at least two hours.

52. 10 人は来ます。
Jūnin wa kimasu.
At least ten people will come.

53. 10 万円は必要です。
Jūman'en wa hitsuyō desu.
It will need at least 100,00 yen.

54. 牛 乳 ぐらいは買ってください。
Gyūnyū gurai wa katte kudasai.
At least buy milk, please.

Grammar Note: The particle *kurai/gurai* くらい・ぐらい is frequently used with this function of the particle *wa* は to express "at least." It can actually be inserted similarly to the other example sentences in this section. Its addition creates a greater emphatic tone.

55. 盲腸の手術でも1000ドルはかかります。
Mōchō no shujutsu demo sen-doru wa kakarimasu.
Even appendix surgery will cost at least a thousand dollars.

Grammar Note: The particle *demo* でも means "even" and will be discussed in Lesson 67.

第11課: The Particle *Ga* が I: The Subject Marker *Ga* が

As mentioned in Lesson 8, particles indicate the function of what they attach to has in a sentence. Just as there are many functions a word can have in a sentence, there are also many particles. Each particle is complex with its own grammatical rules.

Particles are akin to the prepositions of English. In English, prepositions are words that indicate what function the word that follows has in the sentence.

- i. The pen in the drawer is yours.
- ii. The bird on the fence is an endangered species.
- iii. The statue at the park is brand-new.
- iv. He went to Japan with his other half.
- v. I fought for freedom.

Particles, however, are post-positions. This means they go after what they modify instead of before. Furthermore, there are functions that some particles have that may not have an English equivalent. Each word in bold below is a particle.

かれ しお こしょう やさい にく あじつ
vi. 彼が塩と胡椒だけで野菜や肉などを味付けした。

Kare-**ga** shio-**to** koshō-**dake-de** yasai-**ya** niku-**nado-wo** ajitsukeshita.

Gloss: He-subject marker salt-and pepper-only-with vegetables-such as meat-et cetera-object marker seasoned.

Translation: He seasoned (the) vegetables, meat, etc. with only salt and pepper.

Ga が and wa は—written as /ha/ but always pronounced as /wa/—are very different particles, but they are nonetheless very difficult to distinguish in the most basic of sentences.

Ga が is a case particle. A **case particle** is used to mark grammatical case. The purpose of **grammatical case** is to explicitly state the grammatical function of the noun phrase it attaches to in relation to the predicate. A **predicate** can be a copular verb, adjective, adjectival noun, or a verb.

Definition Notes:

1. An **adjective** in Japanese is a word that describes a state which has its own conjugations.
 2. An **adjectival noun** in Japanese is a word that describes a state like an adjective, but it requires the copula to be part of the predicate like a noun.
 3. A **verb** in Japanese is a word that describes an action, state, or occurrence. Its conjugations are distinct from those of adjectives, but the principles of conjugation are the same.
-

Ga が marks the **subject**—person/thing that performs an action (with verbs) or is what exhibits a certain state (with adjectives/adjectival nouns). By doing so, it is implied that the listener(s) are receiving new information, potentially even the speaker. Contrary to generic statements, it is the objective voice needed in making neutral statements as well as answering questions with the information the asker seeks.

Wa は, unlike ga が, is not a case particle. It is a special kind of particle called a **bound particle**: its purpose is lived out by the comment that follows, which means it is not restricted by what comes before it. Wa は is bound to the comment that follows. In return, the comment dictates the function of wa は. The only thing the listener can know is that wa は marks the topic of the discussion to come. Its motto is “I don’t know about other things, but as for X...”

The complexity of ga が and wa は doesn’t end here, though. Due to the complexity of the matter at hand, this discussion will be split into two lessons. The first lesson will focus on the

fundamentals of *ga* が, and the second lesson on the fundamentals of *wa* は.

Curriculum Note: This lesson requires that we look at grammatical items which haven't been fully covered. This includes adjectives, adjectival nouns, verbs and their conjugations, as well as other particles. As such, your goal should be to focus only on the particles *ga* が and *wa* は. Anything aside from the particle *ga* が and what has been taught up to this point can be safely put to the side for now.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Case Particle *Ga* が

The purpose of marking the subject (*shukaku* 主格) of a sentence in Japanese is to indicate information that is newly registered to the speaker, and that information is thus being distilled to the listener(s) as **new information**. This distinction helps *ga* が serve as an objective means of making **neutral statements** and **providing answers to questions**, as well as **asking direct questions** such as "what is...?" or "who is...?"

1. New information

Whereas the purpose of *wa* は is to topicalize something and bring attention to the comment that follows, the particle *ga* が is used mostly to present new information in the form of neutral statements. This is especially true with statements regarding the existence of something, the five senses, and simple intransitive sentences. Intransitive sentences involve an intransitive verb. These verbs only concern a subject and a predicate, which makes the particle *ga* が the perfect particle as the basic particle for such a grammatical relation.

i. Existential Sentences

Existential sentences are those that state something exists. Typically, these sentences include information such as location. In English, the subject of an existential sentence is "there" and the item that exists ends up being treated as an object.

- vii. **There** is a dog in the yard.
- viii. **There** are oranges on the table.
- ix. There isn't a dragon here.
- x. There aren't any pens in the room.

In Japanese existential sentences, the thing that exists is treated as the subject. Furthermore, the "to be" verb for showing existence is carried out by two verbs. *Aru* ある is used to express existence of (non-living) inanimate objects whereas *iru* いる is used to express living animate objects.

あめ
1. 飴がある。

Ame ga aru.

There is candy.

えんぴつ
2. 鉛筆がある。

Empitsu ga aru.

There is/are pencil(s).

とり
3. 鳥がいる。

Tori ga iru.

There is/are (a) bird(s).

うし
4. 牛がいる。

Ushi ga iru.

There is/are (a) cow(s).

さかな
5. 魚が {ある・いる}。

Sakana ga [aru/iru].

There is/are (a) fish.

Sentence Note: When the verb *aru* ある is used, “fish” is being treated as a food item that is no longer living. When the verb *iru* いる is used, the fish is still alive and well.

The subject's **location** is marked with the particle *ni* に. In English, this role may be expressed with “in,” “on,” or no preposition at all. In Japanese, the subject doesn't have to be the first thing stated. In fact, because anything topicalized with *wa* は always takes precedence, it's not even true that the subject is usually stated first. In this same token, location phrases *usually* take precedence in existential sentences.

がっこう
6. あそこに学校がある。

Asoko ni gakkō ga aru.

There is a school over there.

へや ねこ
7. 部屋に猫がいる。

Heya ni neko ga iru.

There is/are (a) cat(s) in the room.

つくえ うえ ほん
8. 机の上に本がある。

Tsukue no ue ni hon ga aru.

There is/are a book(s) on top of the table.

した
9. テーブルの下にネズミがいる。

Tēburu no shita ni nezumi ga iru.

There is/are (a) mouse/mice underneath the table.

はし となり たき
10. 橋の隣に滝がある。

Hashi no tonari ni taki ga aru.

There is a waterfall next to the bridge.

ii. Neutral Statements

Neutral statements are those that describe temporary states and/or actions. They form the objective truth of the recent past, the now, or the near future. The most cited example of this usage of the particle *ga* が, however, happens to be Ex. 11. Monkey business is taken seriously in grammar.

さる き お
11. 猿が木から落ちた。

Saru ga ki kara ochita.

A monkey fell from tree.

Alternatively: It is the monkey that fell from the tree (See Usage 2).

Particle Note: The particle *kara* から is the "from" of the sentence.

ひんしつ
12. 品質がいい。

Hinshitsu ga ii.

The quality is good.

にっしょく お
13. 日食が起きます。

Nisshoku ga okimasu.

There will be a solar eclipse.

かれ れいぎ わる
14. (彼は) 礼儀が悪い。

(Kare wa) reigi ga warui.

His manners are bad.

Literally: As for him, (his) manners are bad.

あたま
15. (あなたは) 頭がいい。

(Anata wa) atama ga ii.

You're smart.

Literally: As for you, your mind is good.

iii. Five senses

Another facet of expressing new information/neutral statements is creating statements

regarding the five senses: sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch.

さむけ
16. 寒気がする。

Samuke ga suru.

I'm chilly.

くさ にお
17. 臭い匂いがする。

Kusai nioi ga suru.

There's an awful smell.

へん おと
18. 変な音がする。

Hen na oto ga suru.

There's a strange noise.

やま み
19. 山が見える。

Yama ga mieru.

The mountain/mountains are visible.

はごた
20. 齒応えがいい。

Hagotae ga ii.

The feel (of the food) is good.

しおから あじ
21. 塩辛い味がする。

Shiokarai aji ga suru.

It tastes salty.

iv. Intransitive sentences

One of the most practical applications of expressing new information is speaking about what happens, is happening, or has happened. Intransitive verbs are verbs that, put simply, discuss what happens.

ゆき つ
22. 雪が積もる。

Yuki ga tsumoru.

Snow accumulates.

Grammar Note: The speaker is seeing the event occur before his eyes.

つよ かぜ ふ
23. 強い風が吹きました。

Tsuyoi kaze ga fukimashita.

Strong wind blew.

あめ ふ
24. 雨が降ります。

Ame ga furimasu.

It's going to rain.

Literally: Rain will fall.

し
25. ドアが閉まります！

Doa ga shimarimasu!

The door is (about to) close!

たいふう じょうりく
26. 台風が上陸しました。

Taifū ga jōraku shimashita.

The/a typhoon landed.

2. Exhaustive-listing: It is X that...

There are times when *ga* が isn't meant as a mere statement of new information. Instead, it can also explicitly state that it is "X" that is the subject of the predicate. The "X" can be one entity or several entities, which is where the name "exhaustive-listing" comes into play. When the predicate describes a static state, one that is not necessarily a temporary reality, this interpretation is typically meant. A static state can be expressed with a copular sentence, adjectives, adjectival nouns, or verbs which describe states. In fact, this interpretation reigns supreme over the existential sentences studied above. With *ga* が, the things mentioned to exist in a certain place are what's there.

かれ がくせい
27. 彼が学生です。

Kare ga gakusei desu.

He is the student.

きょうかしょ べんり
28. この教科書が便利です。

Kono kyōkasho ga benri desu.

This is the textbook that is useful.

なみ たか
29. 波が高い！

Nami ga takai!

These waves are high!

は ご た よ わ
30. このサンマのほうが歯応えが弱い。

Kono samma no hō ga hagotae ga yowai.

The consistency of *this* Pacific saury is weak.

Grammar Note: The use of *no hō* のほう (side of a comparison) intensifies the exhaustive nature of *ga* が. Whenever there are two *ga* が phrases next to each other like this, the first *ga* が phrase is always treated as the subject of the main clause. The secondary *ga* が

phrase is embedded in the predicate.

ii. Asking Questions

Exhaustive-listing is a feature of *ga* が that is not normally brought out without cause. Meaning, just as is the case for the English equivalents seen in translation, such phrasing is usually brought about some sort of question being asked, for which a direct and substantive answer is required. Unsurprisingly, *ga* が is involved in the making and answering of those questions. To ask the direct questions, you add *ga* が to an interrogative (question word). The basic question words in Japanese are as follows:

- *Dare* 誰
- *Nani* 何
- *Itsu/Nanji* いつ・何時
- *Doko* どこ
- *Naze* 何故

Meaning Note: *Nanji* 何時 literally means “what time?”

31. どこが病院ですか。
Doko ga byōin desu ka?
Where is the hospital?

Sentence Note: This sentence is not a simple question about where the hospital is. Imagine a person looking at a line of buildings and wondering which is the hospital. That is a situation where this sentence would be appropriate. Although not as smooth of a translation, Ex. 31 can also be interpreted as “Where is it that the hospital is?”

32. 何故ここに幽霊が存在するんですか。
Naze koko ni yūrei ga sonzai suru n desu ka?
Why is it that ghosts exist here?

Grammar Note: In polite speech, “why” questions must end in *n desu ka?* んですか.

33. 何がおかしい！？
Nani ga okashii!?
What (is it that) is so funny!?

34a. 誰が社長？
Dare ga shachō?
34b. 社長は誰？
Shachō wa dare?

Who's the company president? (34a)
Who is the company president? (34b)

Grammar Note: Ex. 34a would be appropriate to say when you are somewhere where there is a group of people, one of which you would like identified as the company president by who you're asking the question to. Ex. 34b, on the other hand, would be used in a situation where the company president is already at the forefront of conversation and the speaker, you, is simply asking the listener about who that person is. This conversation doesn't have to be held where the company president happens to be at.

35. 明日は {いつ・何時} が都合がいいですか。
Ashita wa [itsu/nanji] ga tsugō ga ii desu ka?
As for tomorrow, when is convenient (for you)?

iii. Answers to Questions

Questions brought about with *ga* が are typically answered back with the information sought. *Ga* が provides an exhaustive answer to the question at hand.

36. 「誰が行く？」 「僕が行きます。」
“Dare ga iku?” “Boku ga ikimasu.”
“Who's the one going?” “I'm the one going.”
37. 「何がいい？」 「ラーメンがいいでしょう。」
“Nani ga ii?” “Rāmen ga ii deshō.”
“What would be good.” “Ramen would be good.”

iv. Spontaneous Reply

Whenever someone spontaneously utters something, it is often in reference to some immediate concern.

38. この 薬 が効くよ。
Kono kusuri ga kiku yo.
This medicine will work.

Sentence Note: Suppose you find out a friend has a cold and you have some cold medicine on you. The moment you hear about your friend's condition, you take out the medicine and say this'll help him. This is one way Ex. 38 could be used.

39. お 客 さん が 来 た 。
O-kyaku-san ga kita.
Customer(s) are here.

Sentence Note: You're the owner of a restaurant. It's nearing lunch hour and at last you

hear the first guest(s) entering. Just as you hear this, you utter Ex. 39.

v. Sense of Discovery

Another application of the exhaustive-listing interpretation of *ga* が is expressing surprise in discovery what something truly is. This application translates as “X is what Y is...” This usage is essentially the same as the one for expressing a spontaneous reply.

40. あ、これが雪だ！
A, *kore ga yuki da!*

Ah, this is what snow is!

41. あ、あの人ひとが噂うわさの山田師匠やまだししょうだ！
A, *ano hito ga uwasa no Yamada-shishō da!*

Ah, that person is the rumored Master Yamada!

4. Object Marker with Stative-Transitive Predicates

Having already learned quite a lot about how *ga* が functions as a subject-marker, we will study its function as an object-marker in Lesson 21.

第12課: The Particle *Wa* は I: The Topic/Contrast Marker *Wa* は

The particle *wa* は, unlike *ga* が, is not a case particle. This means that it grammatically doesn't stand for the subject or even the object of a sentence. Instead, it is a special kind of particle called a bound particle. *Wa* は is bound to the comment that follows. In return, the comment dictates the nature of *wa* は.

It is not possible to know exactly what will be said with *wa* は alone when in total isolation without context. The only thing the listener would know in such a situation is that *wa* は will mark the topic of the discussion to come. In addition, the topic marked by *wa* は is differentiated from other things that could be the topic, which is in and of itself contrast, which will also be looked at in depth in this lesson.

In this lesson, we will continue our discussion on *ga* が vs *wa* は by looking closely at the usages of *wa* は. After reading through this lesson, you will have learned enough about both particles to adequately differentiate them in most circumstances.

Curriculum Note: This lesson also requires that we look at grammatical items which haven't been fully covered. This includes adjectives, adjectival nouns, verbs and their conjugation. As such, your goal should be to focus only on the particles *ga* が and *wa* は.

Vocabulary List (Under Construction)

The Bound Particle **Wa** は

1. The Topic Marker **Wa** は

i. What is a “Topic”?

To understand *wa* は, we must first understand what is meant by the word “topic.” The topic (*shudai* 主題) of a sentence can be an animate or inanimate entity (of one or more components), and that entity is what provides a starting point for conversation. A topic must also be something based on previously established information, whether it be from the ongoing conversation, one not too far back in the past, or from common sense.

The topic is, thus, “old information.” In order for something to be registered information, though, you may need to use *ga* が first to establish it. Essentially, information needs to be new before it can be grammatically treated as old information. This distinction between new information and known information is exemplified in Ex. 1.

むかしむかし
1. 昔々、あるところに、おじいさんとおばあさんが住んでいました。おじいさんは山へ
しばか かわ せんたく す やま
柴刈りに、おばあさんは川へ洗濯に行きました。
柴刈りに、おばあさんは川へ洗濯に行きました。

Mukashi mukashi, aru tokoro ni, ojisan to obāsan ga sunde imashita. Ojisan wa yama e shibakari ni, obāsan wa kawa e sentaku ni ikimashita.

Long, long ago, there lived an old man and woman. One day, the old man went to the mountains to gather firewood, and the old woman went to the river to wash clothes.

This sentence is the opening to one of the most important fairy-tales of Japan, *Momotarō* 桃太郎. At the beginning, the reader doesn't know anything about the story. This is why the particle *ga* が is used to mark the subject. Once the characters are established, they are then treated as the topic in the following sentence, thus marked by *wa* は.

わたし ぼうし
2. あれは私の帽子です。
Are wa watashi no bōshi desu.
That's my hat.

Sentence Note: Although the comment, the hat being the speaker's, is “new information,” the recognition of the hat is not.

In Japanese, phrases may be topicalized and put at or near the front of the sentence, after which point a comment is made about said topic. The comment could be already known or new information, but the topic is something implied to be known to both speaker and listener(s). The topic, as mentioned above, is deemed to be an entity known to others and

oneself. Often times, this is based on a common sense assessment of reality.

なまえ なん
3. お名前は何ですか。

O-namae wa nan desu ka?

What's your name?

Sentence Note: Everyone has a name. Even if this statement weren't completely true, it's practically true. This is all the information one needs to know about the human world to understand how "your name" can be grammatically treated as "old/registered" knowledge. You know the person you're talking to has a name; you just don't know what that person's name is, which is why the question forms the comment about the topic.

4. トイレはどこですか。

Toire wa doko desu ka?

Where is the toilet?

Sentence Note: When you ask this to someone, you're assuming that there is a toilet nearby. The existence of toilets can be rather easily ascertained based on one's surroundings. The fact that you're asking this means you've already determined that there is one, and you're also implying that the existence and knowledge of its location is something that others might help you find out.

かせい あか
5. 火星は赤いです。

Kasei wa akai desu.

Mars is red.

Sentence Note: Most people know about Mars. It has been a part of human fascination for a long time, and so the acknowledgment of its existence is well established. It being red is also something that is so well known that it can be viewed as a generic statement.

にほん しま くに
6. 日本は島の国です。

Nihon wa shima no kuni desu.

Japan is an island nation.

Sentence Note: Japan is known by both all Japanese speakers as well as most of the world, and it's also known by most people that it is an island nation.

7. ウサギはかわいいですね。

Usagi wa kawaii desu ne.

Rabbits are cute, aren't they?

Sentence Note: Wherever rabbits exist, there are humans that know about them.

The Zero-Pronoun

Whenever the topic is semantically the same as the subject or even the object of a

sentence, the particle *wa* は does not mark both. It only functions as the topic marker. All sorts of things can be topicalized, which makes it seem like *wa* は has far more functions than it actually does. Semantically, it is very similar to the English expression “as for X.” It’s the “X” in this expression that *wa* は stands for, and nothing more. However, using “as for” heavily in translation will result in unnatural English. Using one’s own intuition on what is proper English will come to play here. Nonetheless, it’s a perfect stepping stone for understanding how this particle functions grammatically.

- わたし　まいにち　　い
8a. 私は毎日ジムに行きます。
Watashi wa mainichi jimu ni ikimasu.
I go to the gym every day.

Ex. 8a can alternatively be translated as, “As for me, I go to the gym every day.” The purpose of *wa* は is two-fold. It establishes that “I” is the topic, but it also differentiates it from other possible topics like “he” or “she.” As such, the reason why *watashi* 私 would even be used instead of just being dropped—which is usually the case—is because the speaker has become the center of conversation. Although the subject of this sentence is “I,” the *watashi* 私 of this sentence corresponds to the “me” in “as for me.” The “I” that corresponds to the subject is not spoken because it would be semantically redundant. In fact, *watashi wa watashi ga* 私は私が is ungrammatical.

This is where the concept of a zero-pronoun comes into play. A zero-pronoun is a pronoun used to refer to the subject of a Japanese sentence when it is omitted because it is juxtaposed with a topic that happens to be the same thing. It is the grammatical fix to the grammaticalized rule of omitting semantically redundant elements. More broadly, a zero-pronoun is used in place of an entity that is semantically the same as the topic. Thus, this can be applied to other situations as we will see as well. With a zero-pronoun in mind, we can view 8a as follows:

- わたし　まいにち　　い
8b. 私は毎日ジムに行きます。
Watashi-wa (ø-ga) jimu-ni ikimasu.
As for me, (I) go to the gym every day.
ø = *Watashi* 私

- 9a. ケーキはもう食べました。
Kēki wa mō tabemashita.
The cake, I already ate it.

Grammar Note: The particle *wa* は appears to mark the direct object, but in reality, it simply marks the topic which also happens to be the object, but the object is expressed with an unexpressed zero-pronoun. Thus, Ex. 9a can be viewed alternatively as follows:

- 9b. ケーキはもう食べました。
Kēki-wa mō (ø-wo) tabemashita.
The cake, I already ate it.
ø = Kēki ケーキ

The Variety of Topicalized Phrases

The particle *wa* は has few restrictions on what it can topicalize. It may topicalize time phrases, location phrases, etc. This is exemplified in the following examples.

10. 日本では地震がよく起きます。
Nihon de wa jishin ga yoku okimasu.
In Japan, earthquakes often happen.
11. 今日は韓国語を勉強します。
Kyō wa kankokugo wo benkyō shimasu.
Today, I will study Korean.
12. 私はお茶です。
Watashi wa ocha desu.
I'll have tea.

Grammar Note: Whenever learners don't fully understand the concept of topicalization, they fail to understand that topic ≠ subject. It's best to never consider them one of the same thing. If this means having to deconstruct sentences and translate them literally first to figure out what the subject is and whether it's being represented by a zero-pronoun so that you don't end up misunderstanding sentences like Ex. 12 as meaning "I am tea," then it would be worth it

13. こちらは私の弟です。
Kochira wa watashi no ototo desu.
This is my little brother.
14. 彼女は {中国人・日本人・アメリカ人・イギリス人} です。
Kanojo wa [chūgokujin/nihonjin/amerikajin/igirisujin] desu.
She is [Chinese/Japanese/American/British].

15. 中国経済には問題がある。
Chūgoku keizai ni wa mondai ga aru.
There is/are problem(s) in the Chinese economy.

Grammar Note: Due to English phrasing constraints, it may not always be possible to place the topicalized phrase of a Japanese sentence at the front of the English translation.

However, the fact that the *wa* は phrase in question is being topicalized and the fact that said *wa* は phrase forms the basis for the upcoming conversation do not change.

16. 私は行きません。
Watashi wa ikimasen.
I won't go.

17. 彼は先生ではありません。
Kare wa sensei de wa arimasen.
He is not a teacher.

Grammar Notes:

- Ex. 16 and Ex. 17 are examples of the particle *wa* は bringing out the meaning of "X isn't but something/someone else might be/do Z." This implicit contrast is something that, depending on the context, may become even more profound (See Usage 2). As for Ex. 17, it could be that another person is a teacher, or "he" could be something other than a teacher. If the particle *ga* が were used, the sentences would become examples of exhaustive-listing. Remember, exhaustive-listing is still exhaustive if X simply refers to one entity and one entity only.
- The *wa* は in *de wa arimasen* ではありません is not the topic *wa* は. Rather, it is one usage of the contrast marker *wa* は (Usage 2).

ii. Generic Statements

Many conversations are started off by mentioning something everyone already knows. However, implying that the listener(s) knows is subjective in nature. This is because one can never definitively know what someone else does or doesn't know. This usage of *wa* は is very different from the exhaustive-listing statements that *ga* が can make. Whereas an exhaustive-listing sentence is limited semantically solely to what's explicitly stated, *wa* は is far more open-ended due to its generic nature. There is always a chance for the speaker to imply "I know that X is Z, but I don't know about Y."

18. リンゴは小さい。
Ringo wa chiisai.
(The) apples are small.

Spelling Note: *Ringo* is only seldom spelled as 林檎.

19. 空は青い。
Sora wa aoi.
The sky is blue.

うちゅう ひろ
20. 宇宙は広い。

Uchū wa hiroi.

The universe is wide.

たいよう あか
21. 太陽は明るい。

Taiyō wa akarui.

The sun is bright.

よる くら
22. 夜は暗い。

Yoru wa kurai.

Night is dark.

はな うつく
23. 花は美しい。

Hana wa utsukushii.

Flowers are beautiful.

はる すば
24. 春は素晴らしいですね。

Haru wa subarashii desu ne.

Spring is wonderful, isn't it?

せかい ちい
25. 世界は小さいですね。

Sekai wa chiisai desu ne.

The world is small, isn't it?

すうがく むずか
26. 数学は難しいですね。

Sūgaku wa muzukashii desu ne.

Math is difficult, isn't it?

Sentence Note: As a demonstration of the last point from above, this statement should be interpreted as meaning “I'm not sure about other subjects being hard, but math is, isn't it?”

iii. Attribute Phrases: X wa は Y ga が

One of the most common ways to describe something is by following a topicalized phrase (X) with *wa* は with a neutral statement (Y) followed by *ga* が. In the examples below, there are generally two kinds of translations. The first reflects the nature of the Japanese grammar whereas the second rephrases it into more natural English. As you will see, the resulting translation indicates how this grammar is essentially identical to making generic statements.

ぞう はな なが
27. 象は鼻が長い。

Zō wa hana ga nagai.

As for elephants, their noses are long.

Elephants have long noses.

にほん じんじゃ おお
28. 日本は神社が多い。

Nihon wa jinja ga ōi.

As for Japan, there are many Shinto shrines.
Japan has many Shinto shrines.

あき
29. 秋はサンマが最高だ。

Aki wa samma ga saikō da.

As for autumn, Pacific saury is the best.
In autumn, Pacific saury is the best.

ふゆ きおん さ
30. 冬には気温が下がります。

Fuyu ni wa kion ga sagarimasu.

In winter, the temperature goes down.

しごと わたし
31. その仕事は、私がします。

Sono shigoto wa, watashi ga shimasu.

As for that job, I'll do it.
I'll do that job.

くび なが
32. キリンは首が長い。

Kirin wa kubi ga nagai.

As for giraffes, their necks are long.
Giraffes have long necks.

Spelling Note: Only rarely is *kirin* spelled as 麒麟.

わたし あたま いた
33. (私は) 頭が痛いです。

(Watashi wa) atama ga itai desu.

(As for me), my head hurts.

I have a headache.

わたし なか す
34. (私は) お腹が空きました。

(Watashi wa) onaka ga sukimashita.

I'm hungry.

Literally: (As for me), my stomach is empty.

わたし のど かわ
35. (私は) 喉が渴きました。

(Watashi wa) nodo ga kawakimashita.

I'm thirsty.

Literally: (As for me), my throat is parched.

Grammar Note: If distinguishing oneself from other people is necessary in expressing hunger or thirst, Ex. 34 and Ex. 35 are both examples of the pattern X wa は Y ga が.

iv. Questions

As opposed to the questions made with *ga* が, those made with *wa* は have the interrogatives as part of the predicate. This is because the questions formed with *wa* は imply that the question (topic) at hand is already known to the listener(s), and this knowledge is then topicalized to bring forth the question (comment) you'd like the discussion to be about. This pattern will be how most of the questions you ask are formed.

Word Note: As seen in Ex. 3, when *nani* 何 (what) is used as the predicate and followed by the copula, it undergoes a sound change and becomes *nan* なん.

36. サムはいつ来る？
Samu wa itsu kuru?

When is Sam coming?

37. 今日は何曜日ですか。
Kyō wa nan'yōbi desu ka?

What day is it today?

38. (あなたは) 誰ですか。
(Anata wa) dare desu ka?
Who are you?

39. 病院はどこですか。
Byōin wa doko desu ka?
Where is the hospital?

40. 趣味は何ですか。
Shumi wa nan desu ka?
What are your hobbies?

2. The Contrast Marker

On top of being a topic marker, *wa* は is also the particle of contrast (*taihi* 対比), which can be seen in its usage of marking the topic. There is a line of thought that the contrast meaning of *wa* は is actually the primary meaning of *wa* は. Within a given sentence, several *wa* は may appear. Each one will have a different level of contrast implied. When a *wa* は phrase's degree of contrast is really weak, it can be viewed as the topic.

わたし きのう ちゅうしょく と

41. 私は昨日は昼食は取らなかつたんです。

Watashi wa kinō wa chūshoku wa toranakatta n desu.

Yesterday, I didn't have lunch.

Although the presence of *watashi wa* 私は could imply a contrast with other people, the sentence is bringing oneself to the forefront of conversation. With this being this case, it is viewed as the topic. Both the words for "yesterday" and "lunch" are marked with *wa* は because they contrast with other scenarios. For instance, the speaker may have eaten lunch today, and he may have eaten breakfast and/or dinner that day.

きょう い あす
42. 今日は行きます。 (→ 明日は行きません)

Kyō wa ikimasu. (→ Asu wa ikimasen)

I'm going today. (→ I'm not going tomorrow)

だんな しゃんはい い おく べきん い
43. 旦那さんは上海へ行きます。 (→ 奥さんは北京へ行きます)

Dan'na-san wa Shanhai e ikimasu. (→ Oku-san wa Pekin e ikimasu)

His/her husband is going to Shanghai. (→ His/her wife is going to Beijing)

おおさか い きょうと い
44. 大阪へは行きます。 (→ 京都へは行きません)

Ōsaka e wa ikimasu (→ Kyōto e wa ikimasen)

I'm going to Osaka. (→ I'm not going to Kyoto)

ほんとう うれ
45. 本当は嬉しいです。

Hontō wa ureshii desu.

I'm actually happy.

Grammar Note: *Hontō* 本当 is used here as a noun meaning "reality/actuality." The speaker may not appear happy, but internally he/she is happy.

にほんりょうり りょうり す
46. 「日本料理は好きですか」「タイ料理は好きです」

"Nihon ryōri wa o-suki desu ka?" "Tai ryōri wa suki desu."

"Do you like Japanese cuisine?" I like Thai food(, but as far as other cuisine...)

Grammar Note: The reply provides an indirect means of saying that one doesn't like Japanese cuisine. Although this is inferred by the reply, it's politer to reply as such than simply saying no.

いぬ す ねこ
47. 犬は好きですが、猫はどうも…

Inu wa suki desu ga, neko wa domo...

I like dogs, but cats ...

Grammar Note: The *ga* が seen after *desu* です is the conjunctive particle *ga* が, which is separate from its use as a subject marker. For now, simply know that it is the "but" in this

example and the ones that follow.

48. コーヒーは飲のまないが、ビールは飲のむよ。

Kōhii wa nomanai ga, biiru wa nomu yo.

I don't drink coffee, but I drink beer.

49. 鉛筆えんぴつはありますありますが、ペンはありますありますよ。

Empitsu wa arimasen ga, pen wa arimasu yo.

There aren't pencils, but there are pens.

I don't have pencils, but I have pens.

50. あれはオオカミきつねではない、狐kitsuneだよ。

Are wa ōkami de wa nai, kitsune da yo.

That isn't a *wolf*, it's a fox.

Grammar Note: This example demonstrates how the *wa* は in *de wa nai* ではない is the contrasting *wa* は. The grammar behind this actually goes beyond its use in the negative forms of the copula. However, due to the complexity of this grammar point, it will be discussed in a later lesson.

3. Another usage of the particle *wa* は is to express a bare minimum (*saitēgen* 最低限)--"at least." This is primarily used with number expressions, which will be studied later on. However, this usage is not limited to such expressions, as is demonstrated by Ex. 54.

51. 少なくとも 2 時間じかんはかかります。

Sukunakutomo nijikan wa kakarimasu.

It will take at least two hours.

52. 10 人じゅうにんは来きます。

Jūnin wa kimasu.

At least ten people will come.

53. 10 万円じゅうまんえんは必要ひつようです。

Jūman'en wa hitsuyō desu.

It will need at least 100,00 yen.

54. 牛 乳ぎゅうにゅうぐらいは買かってください。

Gyūnyū gurai wa katte kudasai.

At least buy milk, please.

Grammar Note: The particle *kurai/gurai* くらい・ぐらい is frequently used with this function

of the particle *wa* は to express "at least." It can actually be inserted similarly to the other example sentences in this section. Its addition creates a greater emphatic tone.

- もうちょう しゅじゅつ せん
55. 腹 腸 の 手 術 で も 1000 ドル は か か り ま す。
Mōchō no shujutsu demo sen-doru wa kakarimasu.
Even appendix surgery will cost at least a thousand dollars.

Grammar Note: The particle *demo* でも means "even" and will be discussed in Lesson 67.