

{静かな / 静かだった} んだい (s.t. is / was quiet?)

{shizukana / shizukadatta} n dai

{先生 な / 先生 だった} んだい (s.o. is / was a teacher?)

{sensei na / sensei datta} n dai



Examples

(a) 新しい仕事はどうだい。

Atarashii shigoto wa dō dai.

(How's your new job?)

(b) あの人はだれだい。

Ano hito wa dare dai.

(Who is that person?)

(c) 何がおかしいんだい。

Nani ga okashii n dai.

(What's funny?)

(d) どの人が佐藤先生なんだい。

Dono hito ga Satō-sensei na n dai.

(Which person is Prof. Sato?)

Notes

1. *Dai* can also be used with declarative sentences for emphasis in boys' speech, as in (1)

(1) a. 这は僕のだい。

Kore wa boku no dai.

(This is mine.)

b. 僕も行くんだい。

Boku mo iku n dai.

(I will go, too.)

2. When *dai* is used with interrogative sentences, the sentences must be WH-questions. Thus, the following sentences are ungrammatical.

(2) a. *あの人は先生だい。

**Ano hito wa sensei dai.*

(Is that person a teacher?)

b. *村田さんも行くんだい。

**Murata-san mo iku n dai.*

(Is Mr. Murata going, too?)

For yes-no questions, *kai* is used.

(⇒ *kai*)

3. Questions with *dai*, as in KS (A), and those with *n dai*, as in KS (B), correspond to questions without *no desu* and those with *no desu* in formal speech, respectively. (\Leftrightarrow *no da*)
4. *Dai* actually consists of the copula *da* and the particle *i*. Thus, it can follow only *na*-type adjective stems, nouns and noun equivalents. The following sentences are ungrammatical because *dai* follows a verb or an *i*-type adjective.

- (3) a. *だれが行くだい。
**Dare ga iku dai.*
(Who is going?)
- b. *どれがおもしろいだい。
**Dore ga omoshiroi dai.*
(Which one is interesting?)

N dai can follow verbs and *i*-type adjectives, as in KS (B) and Ex. (c), because *n* is a nominalizer (the colloquial form of *no*³) and it changes the preceding sentence into a noun equivalent.

5. In informal male speech, questions as in (3) are expressed as in (4), with rising intonation.

- (4) a. だれが行く?
Dare ga iku?
(Who is going?)
- b. どれがおもしろい?
Dore ga omoshiroi?
(Which one is interesting?)

6. The past form of *dai* is *dattai*, but it is not frequently used. The more frequently used past form of *dai* is *datta* with rising intonation, as seen in (5).

- (5) a. 新しい仕事はどうだった?
Atarashii shigoto wa dō datta?
(How was your new job?)
- b. どこが静かだった?
Doko ga shizukadatta?
(What place was quiet?)

【Related Expression】

In informal speech, the question marker *ka* (i.e., *ka*²) is not usually used.



The following chart summarizes the endings for informal questions.

Formal	Male, informal	Female, informal	Note
yes-no question	Sinf かい; Sinf kai	Sinf	Dai after Adj (na) stem and N drops.
yes-no question with no desu	Sinf の かい; Sinf の no kai no	Sinf の no	Dai after Adj (na) stem and N changes to na.
WH-question	Sinf; {Adj (na) stem / N} dai	Sinf	Dai after Adj (na) stem and N drops.
WH-question with no desu	Sinf ん dai; Sinf の n dai no	Sinf の no	Dai after Adj (na) stem and N changes to na.

Sinf *ka* is used in very informal speech or in vulgar speech. Female informal endings can also be used by male speakers.

dake だけ prt.

{ a particle which expresses a limit imposed upon something that is growing and expanding } only; just; alone; merely; that's all
[REL. *shika* (*bakari*)]

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subject	Predicate	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	だけ (が) <i>dake (ga)</i>	来た / 来ました。 <i>kita / kimashita.</i>
(Only Mr. Smith came.)		

(B)

		Number-Counter		
私 は 日本 へ <i>Watashi wa Nihon e</i>	一度 <i>ichido</i>	だけ <i>dake</i>	行った / 行きました。 <i>itta / ikimashita.</i>	
(I went to Japan only once.)				

(C)

Sentence	Vinf	
雪子さん と は <i>Yukiko-san to wa</i>	デート し た <i>dēto shita</i>	だけ だ / です。 <i>dake da / desu.</i>
(I just dated Yukiko, that's all.)		

(D)

Sentence	Adj (i) inf	
この 家 は <i>Kono ie wa</i>	大 き い <i>ōkii</i>	だけ だ / です。 <i>dake da / desu.</i>
(This house is big, that's all.)		

(E)

Sentence	Adj (na) stem		
この お菓子 は 色 が <i>Kono o-kashi wa iro ga</i>	き れ い <i>kirei</i>	な <i>na</i>	だけ だ / です。 <i>dake da / desu.</i>
(This cake has pretty colors, that's all.)			

Formation

(i) N だけ (が) / (を)
dake (ga) / (o)

先生 だけ (が) / (を) (the teacher alone (subject) / (direct object))
sensei dake (ga) / (o)

(ii) N {だけ Prt / Prt だけ} (where Prt=particles other than *ga*, *o*, and
dake Prt / Prt *dake*} *wa*)

先生 {だけ に / に だけ} (only to the teacher / to the teacher alone)
sensei {dake ni / ni dake}



(iii) {V / Adj (i)} infだけ {だ / です}
dake {da / desu}

{話す / 話した}だけ {だ / です} (s.o. talks / talked, that's all)
{hanasu / hanshita} dake {da / desu}

{高い / 高かった}だけ {だ / です} (s.t. is / was expensive, that's all)
{takai / takakatta} dake {da / desu}

(iv) Adj (na) stem {な / だった}だけ {だ / です}
{na / datta} dake {da / desu}

{静かな / 静かだった}だけ {だ / です} (s.t. is / was quiet, that's all)
{shizukana / shizukadatta} dake {da / desu}

Examples

(a) 佐藤さんだけ(が)会議に出ました。

Satō-san dake (ga) kaigi ni demashita.

(Only Mr. Sato attended the conference.)

(b) 小さい和英辞典だけ(を)買いました。

Chisai waeijiten dake (o) kaimashita.

(I bought only a small Japanese-English dictionary.)

(c) 僕にだけ / だけに話して下さい。

Boku ni dake / dake ni hanashite kudasai.

(Please tell it only to me / to me alone.)

(d) この車はアルコールでだけ / だけで動きます。

Kono kuruma wa arukōru de dake / dake de ugokimasu.

(This car runs only on alcohol (and on nothing else) / on alcohol alone (so it needs nothing else).)

(e) あの先生には一度だけ会いました。

Ano sensei ni wa ichido dake aimashita.

(I met that professor only once.)

(f) 朝はコーヒーを一杯飲むだけです。

Asa wa kōhi o ippai nomu dake desu.

(In the morning I just drink a cup of coffee, that's all.)

(g) この本は高いだけでおもしろくない。

Kono hon wa takai dake de omoshirokunai.

(This book is just expensive and is not interesting.)

(h) テニスは好きなだけで上手じゃない。

Tenisu wa sukina dake de jōzuja nai.

(I just like tennis, and I'm not good at it.)

- (i) それは学生だけのパーティーだった。
Sore wa gakusei dake no pāti datta.
 (It was a party for students only.)
- (j) 出来るだけゆっくり話して下さい。
Dekiru dake yukkuri hanashite kudasai.
 (Please speak as slowly as possible.)

Notes

- When *dake* modifies a preceding noun, as in Exs. (a), (b), (c), and (d), the particle that is used with the noun can be positioned before or after *dake*, except for the particles *ga*, *o* and *wa*, which can be optionally used only after *dake*.
- The optional positionings of the particles other than *ga*, *o* and *wa* create a subtle semantic difference. Distinctive emphasis is placed on the particle, yielding a meaning of exclusiveness in the case of N+Prt+*dake*. No meaning of exclusiveness is implied in the case of N+*dake*+Prt.
- If *dake* is used in:

$$\sim \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \{\text{V / Adj (i)}\} \text{ inf} \\ \{\text{Adj (na)} \text{ stem } \{\text{na / datta}\}\} \end{array} \right\} + \text{dake } \{\text{da / desu}\}$$

as illustrated by KSs (C), (D) and (E), *dake* modifies the entire preceding part and means ‘~, that’s all.’

Compare (1a) and (1b) below:

- (1) a. 魚だけ(を)食べた。
Sakana dake (o) tabeta.
 (I ate only fish.)
- b. 魚を食べただけだ。
Sakana o tabeta dake da.
 (I ate fish, that’s all.)

In (1a) *dake* modifies only the preceding noun *sakana* ‘fish’, while in (1b) *dake* modifies the entire preceding part of the sentence *sakana o tabeta* ‘I ate fish.’

- V(Potential)+*dake* as in Ex. (j) means ‘as much as one can ~’.
- (2) a. 食べられるだけ食べたい。
Taberareru dake tabetai.
 (I’d like to eat as much as I can (eat).)



b. 踊れるだけ踊ろう。

Odoreru dake odorō.

(Let's dance as much as we can (dance).)

dake de (wa) naku ~ (mo) だけで(は)なく~(も) phr.

not only X but also Y, where X and Y can be either a noun, a verb, an adjective

not only ~ but also ~
【REL. *bakari de (wa) naku ~ (mo)*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)		Vinf	
あの 人 <i>Ano hito</i>	は <i>wa</i>	よく <i>yoku</i>	勉強する <i>benkyōsuru</i> だけ で (は) なく よく <i>dake de (wa) naku yoku</i> 遊ぶ / 遊びます。 <i>asobu / asobimasu.</i>

(He not only studies hard, but also plays a lot.)

(B)

Topic (subject)		Adj (i) inf	
あの 人 <i>Ano hito</i>	は <i>wa</i>	頭 が <i>atama ga</i>	いい <i>ii</i> だけ で (は) なく よく 勉強 <i>dake de (wa) naku yoku benkyō</i> (も) する / します。 <i>(mo) suru / shimasu.</i>

(He is not only smart; he studies hard, too.)

98 *dake de (wa) naku ~ (mo)*

(C)

Topic (subject)	Adj (na) stem		
この うち <i>Kono uchi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	きれい <i>kirei</i>	な <i>na</i>
だけ で (は) なく とても <i>dake de (wa) naku totemo</i> 安い (です)。 <i>yasui (desu).</i>			
(This house is not only beautiful but it is also inexpensive.)			

(D)

Subject			Predicate	
Noun		Noun		
ジョン <i>Jon</i>	だけ で (は) なく <i>dake de (wa) naku</i>	メアリー <i>Meari</i>	も <i>mo</i>	来た / 来ました。 <i>kita / kimashita.</i>
(Not only John but also Mary came here.)				

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf だけ で (は) なく (not only ~)
dake de (wa) naku

{話す / 話した} だけ で (は) なく (s.o. not only speaks /
hanasu / hanashita) *dake de (wa) naku* spoke ~)

{高い / 高かった} だけ で (は) なく (s.t. is / was not only
takai / takakatta) *dake de (wa) naku* expensive ~)

(ii) Adj (na) stem {な / だった} だけ で (は) なく (not only ~)
{na / datta} *dake de (wa) naku*

{静かな / 静かだった} だけ で (は) なく (s.t. is / was not only
shizukana / shizukadatta) *dake de (wa) naku* quiet ~)

(iii) N {ø / だった} だけ で (は) なく (not only ~)
{ø / datta} *dake de (wa) naku*

{先生 / 先生 だった} だけ で (は) なく (not only teachers / not
sensei / sensei datta) *dake de (wa) naku* only s.o. was a teacher)

Examples

D

- (a) あの人は小説を読むだけではなく書きます。
Ano hito wa shōsetsu o yomu dake de wa naku kakimasu.
 (He not only reads novels but also writes them.)
- (b) ブラウンさんは日本へ行っただけではなく住んだこともあります。
Buraun-san wa Nihon e itta dake de wa naku sunda koto mo arimasu.
 (Mr. Brown has not only been to Japan, but has also lived there.)
- (c) このアパートは高いだけでなく大変狭いです。
Kono apāto wa takai dake de naku taihen semaidesu.
 (This apartment is not only expensive but it is also very small.)
- (d) 幸子は頭がよかつただけではなく、とても親切でした。
Sachiko wa atama ga yokatta dake de wa naku, totomo shinsetsu-deshita.
 (Sachiko was not only bright but was also very kind.)
- (e) この車はきれいなだけではなく、よく走ります。
Kono kuruma wa kireina dake de wa naku, yoku hashirimasu.
 (This car is not only pretty but also runs well.)
- (f) 日本人だけでなくアメリカ人もよく働きます。
Nihonjin dake de naku amerikajin mo yoku hatarakimasu.
 (Not only Japanese but also Americans work hard.)
- (g) 中村さんはアメリカやヨーロッパだけではなく東南アジアにもよく出張します。
Nakamura-san wa Amerika ya Yōroppa dake de wa naku Tōnan Ajia ni mo yoku shutchōshimasu.
 (Mr. Nakamura makes a business trip not only to America and Europe but also to Southeast Asia.)
- (h) ジョンソンさんは日本語だけではなく中国語も話せます。
Jonson-san wa nihongo dake de wa naku chūgokugo mo hanasemasu.
 (Mr. Johnson can speak not only Japanese but also Chinese.)

Note

In “Noun ~ *dake de (wa) naku* Noun ~ *mo*”, the two nouns can be followed by various particles.

- (1) 手紙は友達(から)だけではなく先生からもきました。
*Tegami wa tomodachi (**kara**) dake de wa naku sensei **kara** mo kimashita.*
 (Letters came not only from my friends but also from my teachers.)

100 *dake de (wa) naku ~ (mo) / darō*

(2) 手紙は友達(に)だけではなく先生にも書きました。

Tegami wa tomodachi (ni) dake de wa naku sensei ni mo kakimashita.

(I wrote letters not only to my friends, but also to my teachers.)

【Related Expression】

In the majority of cases *dake* can be replaced by *bakari*. When one needs to define limitation in a rigid way, however, *dake* is preferable. For example:

[1] [Teacher to his student.]

あしたまでに十課だけ / ?? ばかりでなく十一課も勉強しておきなさい。

Ashita made ni jukka dake / ?? bakari de naku jūkka mo benkyō-shite okinasai.

(Study not only Lesson 10 but also Lesson 11 by tomorrow.)

(\Leftrightarrow *dake*)

***darō* だろう aux.**

{ an auxiliary indicating the speaker's
conjecture which is not based on any
particular information or evidence }

probably

【REL. *kamoshirenai* (*ni chigainai*); *yōda* (*rashii, sōda²*)]

◆ Key Sentence

Sentence (informal)†	
アンダーソンさんは 日本 へ 行く <i>Andāson-san wa Nihon e iku</i>	だろう / でしょう。 <i>darō / deshō.</i>
(Ms. Anderson will probably go to Japan.)	

†*Da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N drops.

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf だろう
darō

{話す / 話した} だろう (s.o. will probably talk / probably talked)
{hanasu / hanashita} darō

{高い / 高かった} だろう (s.t. is / was probably expensive)
{takai / takakatta} darō

(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {ø / だった} だろう
{ø / datta} darō

{静か / 静かだった} だろう (s.t. is / was probably quiet)
{shizuka / shizukadatta} darō

{先生 / 先生 だった} だろう (s.o. is / was probably a teacher)
{sensei / sensei datta} darō

Examples

(a) あのアパートは高いでしょう。

Ano apāto wa takai deshō.

(That apartment is probably expensive.)

(b) ロジャーはスキーが上手だろう。

Rojā wa ski ga jōzu darō.

(Roger is probably good at skiing.)

(c) あの人は中国人だろう。

Ano hito wa chūgokujin darō.

(That man is probably Chinese.)

Notes

1. *Darō* is originally the informal conjecture form of the copula *da*, but it is used as an auxiliary of conjecture. The formal version is *deshō*.
2. Probability adverbs such as *tabun*, *osoraku* and *kitto* are sometimes used with *darō* or *deshō*. The speaker's conjecture sounds more certain with *tabun* or *osoraku*, and even more certain with *kitto*. Examples:

(1) アンダーソンさんはたぶん日本へ行くだろう。

Andāson-san wa tabun Nihon e iku darō.

(Ms. Anderson will most probably go to Japan.)

(2) アンダーソンさんはきっと日本へ行くだろう。

Andāson-san wa kitto Nihon e iku darō.

(I'm almost certain that Ms. Anderson will go to Japan.)



3. *Darō / deshō* with the question marker *ka* makes questions softer or less direct. Compare (3) and (4).

(3) 大じょうぶですか。
Daijōbu desu ka.

(Is it all right?)

(4) 大じょうぶでしょうか。
Daijōbu deshō ka.

(I wonder if it's all right.)

4. S *darō / deshō* with rising intonation asks for the hearer's agreement.

(5) a. 君も行くだろう?
Kimi mo iku darō?

(You will go too, (am I) right?)

b. これ、きれいでしょう?
Kore, kirei deshō?

(Isn't this pretty?)

The sentence-final particle *ne* also asks for the hearer's agreement, but S *darō / deshō* with rising intonation is softer or less direct. (\Rightarrow *ne*) Compare (5a) with (6).

(6) 君も行くね。
Kimi mo iku ne.

(You will go too, won't you?)

~dasu ~出す aux. v. (Gr. 1)

{ S.t. that has been latent is realized. }

out; begin to; start to

【REL. ~*hajimeru*】

(ANT. ~*owaru*)



◆ Key Sentence

Subject	Vmasu		
車 Kuruma	が ga	動き ugoki	出した / 出しました。 <i>dashita</i> / <i>dashimashita</i> .
(The car started to move.)			

Formation

Vmasu 出す
dasu

話し出す (s.o. starts to talk)
hanashidasu

食べ出す (s.o. starts to eat)
tabedasu

Examples

(a) 急に雨が降り出した。

Kyūni ame ga furidashita.

(Suddenly it began to rain.)

(b) 一歳になって初めて歩き出した。

Issai ni natte hajimete arukidashita.

(Lit. He started to walk only after he became a year old. (=He didn't start to walk until he was a year old.))

(c) そのアイディアはだれが考え出したんですか。

Sono aidia wa dare ga kangaedashita n desu ka.

(Who thought out that idea?)

(d) 一時間ぐらいかけてとうとうその本屋を探し出した。

Ichijikan gurai kakete tōtō sono hon-ya o sagashidashita.

(After spending about an hour, I finally located that bookstore.)

Notes

1. *Dasu* in *Vmasu+dasu* is used as an auxiliary verb. When it is used as a full verb, it means 'cause something to become visible'.
2. *Vmasu+dasu* is normally ambiguous; one meaning is '～ out' and the other is 'begin to ～'. Thus, *tsukuridasu* means 'turn out' or 'begin to make'.

3. Vmasu+dasu conjugates as a Gr. 1 Verb.

	さない	(inf, neg, nonpast)
	<i>sanai</i>	
	します	(fml, nonpast)
	<i>shimasu</i>	
	す	(inf, nonpast)
話し出-	<i>su</i>	
<i>hanashida-</i>	せば	(conditional)
食べ出-	<i>seba</i>	
<i>tabeda-</i>	そう	(volitional)
	<i>sō</i>	
	して	(te-form)
	<i>shite</i>	
	した	(inf, past)
	<i>shita</i>	

4. Vmasu+owaru ‘finish ~ing’ is an antonym of Vmasu+dasu / *hajimeru*.

【Related Expression】

~dasu in the sense of ‘begin to ~’ is different from ~*hajimeru* in that the former indicates a non-volitional and abrupt beginning while the latter is more broadly used. Thus,

[1] そろそろ歩き始めましょう / *歩き出しましょうか。

Sorosoro arukihajimemashō / **arukidashimashō* ka.

(It's getting late. Shall we begin to walk?)

[2] 私達が歩き始めた / 歩き出した時山田達が来た。

Watashitachi ga arukihajimeta / *arukidashita toki Yamada-tachi ga kita*.

(When we started to walk, Yamada and his company came.)

[3] どうしてか分からなかったが、男は急におこり出した / ??おこり始めた。

Dōshite ka wakaranakatta ga, otoko wa kyūni okoridashita / ??*okori-hajimeta*.

(I don't know why, but the man suddenly started to get angry.)

de¹ て prt.

a particle which indicates location,
except for location of existence

at; in; on

【REL. *ni*⁴; *ni*⁶; *o*²】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)	Noun (location)		Predicate (non-existential)	
私達 <i>Watashitachi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	きっ茶店 <i>kissaten</i>	で <i>de</i>	コーヒーを飲んだ / 飲みました。 <i>kōhi o nonda / nomimashita.</i>
(We drank coffee at a coffee shop.)				

Examples

- (a) ゆり子はデパートで働いています。
Yuriko wa depāto de hataraite imasu.
(Yuriko is working at a department store.)
- (b) オーストラリアでは十二月は夏だ。
Ōsutoraria de wa jūnigatsu wa natsu da.
(In Australia it is summer in December.)
- (c) 島崎さんは日本では元気でした。
Shimazaki-san wa Nihon de wa genkideshita.
(Mr. Shimazaki was healthy in Japan.)
- (d) ヘレンは初めて舞台で歌った。
Heren wa hajimete butai de utatta.
(Helen sang on the stage for the first time.)

Note

*De*¹ cannot be used to indicate location of existence. (⇒ *ni*⁶) However, if the existential verb *aru* '(inanimate things) exist' occurs with an event, *de* is used, as in (1).

- (1) a. 今晚ジムの家で / *にパーティーがあります。
*Konban Jimu no ie de / *ni pāti ga arimasu.*
(There's a party at Jim's tonight.)
- b. きのうこの部屋で / *にプライス先生の講演があった。
*Kinō kono heya de / *ni Puraisu-sensei no kōen ga atta.*
(We had Prof. Price's lecture in this room yesterday.)

de² て* *prt.

a particle which indicates the use of
s.t. for doing s.t.

by; for; from; in; on; using;
with

【REL. o *tsukatte*】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)			Noun (means)		
宮本さん <i>Miyamoto-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	毎日 <i>mainichi</i>	バス <i>basu</i>	で <i>de</i>	会社 へ 行く / 行きます。 <i>kaisha e iku / ikimasu.</i>
(Mr. Miyamoto goes to his company by bus everyday.)					

Examples

- (a) 日本人ははしでご飯を食べる。
Nihonjin wa hashi de gohan o taberu.
 (Japanese people eat rice with chopsticks.)
- (b) 私達は日本語で話した。
Watashitachi wa nihongo de hanashita.
 (We talked in Japanese.)
- (c) 私はその映画をテレビで見ました。
Watashi wa sono eiga o terebi de mimashita.
 (I saw the movie on TV.)
- (d) とうふは大豆で作ります。
Tōfu wa daizu de tsukurimasu.
 (We make *tofu* from soybeans.)
- (e) ラリーはこのいすを十ドルで買った。
Rari wa kono isu o jūdoru de katta.
 (Larry bought this chair for ten dollars.)
- (f) ベツィーはそのレポートを一日で書いたそうだ。
Bettsi wa sono repōto o ichinichi de kaita sōda.
 (I heard that Betsy wrote the report in one day.)

Notes

1. In general, *de²* indicates something which is used when someone or something does something. Typically, it indicates means and instruments as in KS and Exs. (a) – (c).



2. Since *de* also indicates reason and cause, the phrase *nan de*, which consists of *nan* ‘what’ and *de*, is ambiguous: One meaning is ‘by means of what (=how)’ and the other is ‘for what reason (=why)’. Thus, (1) can be interpreted in two ways.

(1) 本田さんは何で大阪へ行くんですか。

Honda-san wa nan de Ōsaka e iku n desu ka.

(How / Why is Mr. Honda going to Osaka?)

[Related Expression]

De² can be used instead of the phrase ~ o *tsukatte* ‘by using ~’, except when the preceding noun refers to a human being. Examples:

[1] 私達はタクシーを使って / で来ました。

Watashitachi wa takushi o tsukatte / de kimashita.

(We came by taxi.)

[2] 私は子供を使って / *で家具を動かした。

*Watashi wa kodomo o tsukatte / *de kagu o ugokashita.*

(Lit. I moved the furniture using my children.)

de³ て prt.

a particle (apparently derived from the *te*-form of *desu*) that indicates a weak causal relationship

and; because of; due to;
because

【REL. *kara³*; *node*】

◆ Key Sentence

	Noun (cause)		
山口さんは	病気	で	学校を休んだ / 休みました。
<i>Yamaguchi-san wa</i>	<i>byōki</i>	<i>de</i>	<i>gakkō o yasunda / yasumimashita.</i>
(Lit. Mr. Yamaguchi was ill and absented himself from school. (=Because Mr. Yamaguchi was ill, he didn't come to school.))			

Examples

(a) あしたは期末試験で大変です。

Ashita wa kimatsushiken de taihen desu.

(I'm having an awful time because of tomorrow's final exam.)

(b) 大雨で橋がこわれた。

Ōame de hashi ga kowareta.

(Lit. Because of heavy rain the bridge broke down. (=Heavy rain destroyed the bridge.))

(c) きのうは夜、仕事でとても疲れた。

Kinō wa yoru, shigoto de totomo tsukareta.

(Lit. Because of my work I got very tired last night. (=I worked so hard last night that I got very tired.))

(d) 父は交通事故で入院しました。

Chichi wa kōtsūjiko de nyūinshimashita.

(My father was hospitalized due to a traffic accident.)

Notes

- Some of the uses of *de*³ (such as KS and Ex. (a)) are very close to the *te*-form of *desu*. For example, KS can be paraphrased into two sentences (1a) and (1b):

(1) a. 山口さんは病気でした。

Yamaguchi-san wa byōki deshita.

(Mr. Yamaguchi was ill.)

b. 山口さんは学校を休みました。

Yamaguchi-san wa gakkō o yasumimashita.

(Mr. Yamaguchi was absent from school.)

And KS can be considered to be the result of combining the two sentences using the *te*-form of *desu* which basically means ‘be ~ and’.

- A noun that precedes *de*³ expresses something that is beyond human control (such as illness, flood, accident, rain, and fire). It is also to be noted that *de*³ co-occurs with any noun, if a predicate expresses something that is beyond human control. If the co-occurring predicate expresses something that is controllable, the particle *de* is no longer *de*³; it is *de*² of means. (\Leftrightarrow *de*²) Compare (2a) and (2b) below:

(2) a. 卵でアレルギーになる。

Tamago de arerugi ni naru.

(Lit. Eggs cause me allergy. (=I'm allergic to eggs.))

b. 卵でオムレツを作る。

Tamago de omuretsu o tsukuru.

(I make an omelette with eggs.)

(2a) and (2b) contain a noncontrollable predicate *arerugi ni naru* ‘become allergic’ and a controllable predicate *omuretsu o tsukuru* ‘make an omelette’, respectively. Therefore, *de* in (2a) and (2b) are *de³* and *de²*, respectively.



[Related Expression]

The particle *de³* is a very loose marker of cause due to its origin; in contrast, *kara³* and *node* are clear subordinate conjunctions of cause / reason.

(⇒ *kara³*; *node*)

de⁴ で prt.

a particle which indicates the time when s.t. terminates or the amount of time a period of activity has taken	at; on; in 【REL. <i>ni¹</i> 】
---	---

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)	Noun (time)		
春学期 <i>Harugakki</i>	は <i>wa</i>	五月 十日 <i>gogatsu tōka</i>	で <i>de</i>
(The spring term ends on May 10.)			

Examples

- (a) このコンサートは十時で終わります。
Kono konsāto wa jūji de owarimasu.
(This concert will be over at ten o'clock.)
- (b) 私のパスポートは六月できる。
Watashi no pasupōto warokugatsu de kireru.
(My passport expires in June.)
- (c) アメリカに来てから今日で三年になる。
Amerika ni kite kara kyō de sannen ni naru.
(It's been three years since I came to America.)

Notes

1. In general, X *de*⁴ indicates that something lasts for a period of time up to X.
2. When X in X *de* refers to a duration of time, as in (1), it is the *de* of means rather than the *de* of termination time. (⇒ *de*²)

(1) 山田さんは一週間でそのレポートを書いた。

Yamada-san wa isshūkan de sono repōto o kaita.

(Mr. Yamada wrote the report in a week (lit. using a week).)

[Related Expression]

*Ni*¹ can be used in place of *de*⁴ in KS and Exs. (a) and (b), as in [1].

[1] 春学期は五月十日で / に終わる。

Harugakki wa gogatsu tōka de / ni owaru.

(The spring term ends on May 10.)

When *de* is used, the nuance is that the spring term lasts up to May 10. When *ni* is used, however, the sentence simply indicates the time when the spring term ends.

★Semantic Derivations of *De*

de ‘using’

< Instrument > *de*²:

ジョンは車でシカゴへ行った。

Jon wa kuruma de Shikago e itta.

(John went to Chicago by car.)

< Means > *de*²:

私達は英語で話した。

Watashitachi wa eigo de hanashita.

(We talked in English.)

< Cause > *de*³:

その家は台風でこわれた。

Sono ie wa taifū de kowareta.

(That house collapsed due to the typhoon.)

< Reason > *de*³:

僕は試験で行けなかった。

Boku wa shiken de ikenakatta.

(I couldn't go (there) because of the exam.)

< Material > de²:

私は毛糸でくつ下をあんだ。

Watashi wa keito de kutsushita o anda.

(I knit socks with wool.)

< Place > de¹:

道子はいつも図書館で勉強する。

Michiko wa itsumo toshokan de benkyōsuru.

(Michiko usually studies at the library.)

< Required time > de²:

木村さんは三日でこのレポートを書いた。

Kimura-san wa mikka de kono repōto o kaita.

(Mr. Kimura wrote this report in three days.)

< Time > de⁴:

仕事は五時で終わります。

Shigoto wa goji de owarimasu.

(My work ends at five o'clock.)

< Required cost > de²:

私はこの本を十ドルで買った。

Watashi wa kono hon o jūdoru de katta.

(I bought this book for ten dollars.)

demo でも prt.

{ the te-form of desu plus mo 'even' }

even

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subject	Predicate		
先生 でも <i>Sensei demo</i>	まちがう / まちがいます。 <i>machigau / machigaimasu.</i>		
(Even a teacher makes mistakes.)			

(B)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object			Verb
私 は <i>Watashi wa</i>	難しい 仕事 <i>muzukashii shigoto</i>	でも <i>demo</i>		する / します。 <i>suru / shimasu.</i>
(I will even do a difficult job.)				

(C)

Noun	Prt			
ここ <i>Koko</i>	から <i>kara</i>	でも <i>demo</i>	富士山 が 見える / 見えます。 <i>Fujisan ga mieru / miemasu.</i>	
(Even from here you can see Mt. Fuji.)				

Formation

(i) N でも
demo

先生 が (subject) → 先生 でも (even a teacher)
sensei ga *sensei demo*

先生 を (object) → 先生 でも (even a teacher)
sensei o *sensei demo*

(ii) N+Prt でも
demo

先生 と でも (even with a teacher)
sensei to demo

東京 から でも (even from Tokyo)
Tōkyō kara demo

**Examples**

- (a) 子供でもそんなことは分かりますよ。
Kodomo demo sonna koto wa wakarimasu yo.
 (Even a child can understand that sort of thing.)
- (b) お会いしたいんですが、日曜日でもかまいませんか。
O-ai shitai n desu ga, nichiyōbi demo kamaimasen ka.
 (I'd like to see you, but is it all right to see you even on Sunday?)
- (c) あの人は魚でも肉でも食べます。
Ano hito wa sakana demo niku demo tabemasu.
 (Lit. He eats anything, whether it be fish or meat. (=He eats both fish and meat.))

Notes

1. WH-word + *demo* yields the following meaning depending on which WH-word is used.

だれでも	<i>dare demo</i>	(no matter who it is; anyone)
何でも	<i>nan demo</i>	(no matter what it is; anything)
いつでも	<i>itsu demo</i>	(no matter when; any time)
どこでも	<i>doko demo</i>	(no matter where it is; any place)
どれでも	<i>dore demo</i>	(no matter which it is)

- (1) あの図書館はだれでも入れます。
Ano toshokan wa dare demo hairemasu.
 (Anyone can enter that library.)
- (2) いつでもかまいませんよ。
Itsu demo kamaimasen yo.
 (Any time will be fine.)

2. The particle *demo* should not be confused with the particle combination *de+mo*, as in (1) below where *de* is a particle of location (=*de*¹), and in (2) where *de* is a particle of means (=*de*²).

- (1) 日本でもインフレが大きな問題になっている。
Nihon de mo infure ga ōkina mondai ni natte iru.
 (In Japan, too, inflation is a big problem.)
- (2) そこはバスでも行けますか。
Soko wa basu de mo ikemasu ka.
 (Can you also get there by bus?)

(⇒ *de*¹; *de*²)

***dō* どう adv.**

an interrogative adverb which asks
about the state of s.o. / s.t. or the
way of doing s.t.

how; in what way

**◆ Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)		
お母さん <i>O-kā-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	どう (ですか)。 <i>dō (desu ka).</i>
(How's your mother?)		

Examples

(a) 新しいアパートはどうですか。
Atarashii apāto wa dō desu ka.
(How's your new apartment?)

(b) コーヒーはどうですか。
Kōhi wa dō desu ka.
(How is the coffee? / Would you like coffee? / How about coffee?)

(c) 土曜日はどう?
Doyōbi wa dō?
(How about Saturday?)

Notes

1. The polite version of *dō* is *ikaga*. In very informal speech *desu ka* is omitted after *dō* or *ikaga*.
2. *Dō* and *ikaga* are also used to offer or suggest something, as in Exs. (b) and (c). In this case, *dō* or *ikaga* are asking about the state of the hearer's mind regarding the offer or suggestion rather than about the state of what is being offered or suggested.
3. *Dō* is also used to ask the way of doing something. In this case, *ikaga* is usually not used. Example:

(1) この言葉はどう読みますか。
Kono kotoba wa dō yomimasu ka.
(How do you read this word?)



4. The idiomatic expression *dō shite* ‘lit. doing what’ is used to ask manners, reasons or causes. Examples:

(2) どうして日本語を勉強しているんですか。

Dō shite nihongo o benkyōshite iru n desuka.

(How (=In what way) are you studying Japanese? / Why are you studying Japanese?)

(3) この木はどうして枯れたんですか。

Kono ki wa dō shite kareta n desu ka.

(Why did this tree die?)

As seen in (2), unless the context is clear, *dō shite* is sometimes ambiguous. (The interrogative adverb *naze* ‘why’ is unambiguous but less colloquial than *dō shite*.)

e へ prt.

a particle that indicates the direction toward which some directional movement or action proceeds

to; towards

【REL. *made*; *ni*⁴; *ni*⁷】

E

◆ Key Sentence

	Noun (location)		
私 は 先週 <i>Watashi wa senshū</i>	京都 <i>Kyōto</i>	へ <i>e</i>	旅行 に 行った / 行きました。 <i>ryokō ni itta / ikimashita.</i>
(I went on a trip to Kyoto last week.)			

Examples

(a) 私は札幌のうちへ飛行機で帰った。

Watashi wa Sapporo no uchi e hikoki de kaetta.

(I went back home to Sapporo by plane.)

(b) 地震だったのでいそいで外へ出た。

Jishin datta node isoide soto e deta.

(It was an earthquake, so I went outside quickly.)

(c) 父へ手紙を出したが、まだ返事が来ない。

Chichi e tegami o dashita ga, mada henji ga konai.

(I sent a letter to my father, but his reply has not come yet.)

【Related Expressions】

I. The particles *e*, *made*, and *ni*⁷ focus on direction, course (up to ~), and point of contact, respectively. Thus,

[1] はるばる東京まで / ?に / ?へ来た。

Harubaru Tōkyō made / ?ni / ?e kita.

(I came all the way to Tokyo.)

[2] 東京に / へ / *まで十二時に着いた。

*Tōkyō ni / e / *made jūniji ni tsuita.*

(I arrived in Tokyo at 12:00 o'clock.)

[3] ニューヨークへ / まで / *にの便はもうありません。

*Nyūyōku e / made / *ni no bin wa mō arimasen.*

(There isn't any flight to / as far as New York any more.)

- [4] ここまで / *へ / *にの道は悪かったでしょう。

*Koko made / *e / *ni no michi wa warukatta deshō.*

(Your way here must have been rough.)

In actuality, native speakers use *e* and *ni*⁷ (of point of contact) almost interchangeably except in the case of [3] (i.e., *ni* cannot be followed by *no*).



- II. Even the *ni*⁴ of direct contact meaning ‘into; onto’ can be replaced by *e* as in:

- [5] お風呂に / へ入った。

O-furo ni / e haitta.

(Lit. I entered into a bath. (=I took a bath.))

- [6] 机の上に / へ乗った。

Tsukue no ue ni / e notta.

(I got onto the table.)

- [7] 黒板に / へ漢字を書いた。

Kokuban ni / e kanji o kaita.

(I wrote *kanji* on the blackboard.)

ga¹ が *prt.*

a particle which indicates the subject

【REL. *wa*¹ (は)】

◆ Key Sentence

Subject	Predicate
雨 <i>Ame</i>	が <i>ga</i> 降っている / います。 <i>futte iru / imasu.</i>
(Lit. Rain is falling (=It's raining.))	

Examples

(a) 私の部屋にはステレオがあります。

Watashi no heya ni wa sutereo ga arimasu.

(There is a stereo in my room.)

(b) あ、のり子が走っている。

A, Noriko ga hashitte iru.

(Oh, Noriko is running.)

(c) A : このレストランは何がおいしいですか。

Kono resutoran wa nani ga oishiidesu ka.

(What is good in this restaurant?)

B : ステーキがおいしいです。

Sutēki ga oishiidesu.

(Steak is good.)

Notes

1. *Ga* marks the subject of a sentence when the information expressed by the subject is first introduced in a discourse. When the subject is presented as the topic (that is, the information has already been introduced into the discourse), however, the topic marker *wa* replaces *ga*. (⇒ *wa*¹ (は)) Consider the following discourse, a typical opening in folktales, which illustrates the different uses of *ga* and *wa*.

(1) 昔々一人のおじいさんが住んでいました。おじいさんはとても貧乏でした。

*Mukashimukashi hitori no o-jī-san **ga** sunde imashita. O-jī-san **wa** totemo binbōdeshita.*

(Once upon a time there lived an old man. He (lit. the old man) was very poor.)

In the first sentence, *o-jī-san* ‘old man’ appears for the first time in the discourse; *o-jī-san* is the subject but not the topic in this sentence. Therefore, it is marked by *ga*. The second sentence tells something about the old man introduced in the first sentence. *O-jī-san* is now the topic; therefore, it is marked by *wa* rather than *ga*. Note the parallelism here between *ga* and *wa* in Japanese and *a* and *the* in English.

2. *Ga* is also replaced by *wa* if the subject is in contrast with another element. For example, in Ex. (c), B could also say:

(2) ステーキはおいしいです。

Sutēki wa oishiidesu.

(Stéak is good (but other food is not). / (I don't know about other food but at least) Stéak is good.)

Here, *sutēki* ‘steak’ is newly introduced in the discourse and is not the topic; yet it is marked by *wa*. This is because *sutēki*, in this case, is being contrasted with other food.

3. Since WH-words like *nani* ‘what’, *dare* ‘who’ and *doko* ‘what place’ can never be topics, they are never marked by *wa*, as in (3).

(3) 今晚だれが / *は来ますか。

*Konban dare ga / *wa kimasu ka.*

(Who is coming tonight?)

4. The subject in subordinate clauses is marked by *ga* unless it is a contrasted element, as seen in (4).

(4) a. 私はデビーが / *はフランスへ行くことを知らなかった。

*Watashi wa Debi ga / *wa Furansu e iku koto o shiranakatta.*

(I didn't know that Debbie was going to France.)

b. ジーンは僕が / *はアパートを出た時まだ寝ていた。

*Jin wa boku ga / *wa apāto o dela toki mada nete ita.*

(Gene was still in bed when I left my apartment.)

c. 私が / *はきのう見た映画はドイツの映画だった。

*Watashi ga / *wa kinō mita eiga wa Doitsu no eiga datta.*

(The movie I saw yesterday was a German film.)

Note that topics are not presented in subordinate clauses.

5. In relative clauses, the subject may be marked by *no*, as in (5).

(⇒ Relative Clause, Note 3)



(5) 私のきのう見た映画はドイツの映画だった。

Watashi no kinō mita eiga wa Doitsu no eiga datta.

(The movie I saw yesterday was a German film.)

6. In some expressions, elements which are considered to be direct objects are presented as subjects and are marked by *ga*. ($\Rightarrow \sim wa \sim ga$)

(6) a. 僕はスポーツカーが欲しい。

Boku wa supōtsukā ga hoshii.

(I want a sports car. (Lit. To me, a sports car is desirable.))

b. 春子はスペイン語が分かる。

Haruko wa supeingo ga wakaru.

(Haruko understands Spanish. (Lit. To Haruko, Spanish is understandable.))

7. To sum up the important rules concerning *ga*,

- (A) *Ga* marks the subject when it is newly introduced in a discourse.
- (B) *Wa* replaces *ga* when the subject is a topic or a contrasted element.
- (C) WH-words are always marked by *ga* when they are the subject of a sentence.
- (D) The subject in subordinate clauses is marked by *ga* unless it is a contrasted element.
- (E) When predicates are transitive adjectives or stative transitive verbs, the elements which correspond to the direct object in English are marked by *ga*.

【Related Expression】

The topic marker *wa* is often mistaken for a subject marker. It appears to be a subject marker because it often replaces *ga*. (See Notes 1 and 2, and Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 2. Topic.) ($\Rightarrow wa^1$ (は))

***ga*² が conj.**

a disjunctive coordinate conjunction
that combines two sentences

but

【REL. *daga*; *dakedo*; *demo*;
keredomo; *shikashi*】

◆ Key Sentence

Sentence ₁		Sentence ₂
ジョンは來た / 来ました Jon wa kita / kimashita	が ga	メアリーは來なかつた / 来ませんでした。 Meari wa konakatta / kimasendeshita.
(John came but Mary didn't (come).)		

Formation

S₁ が S₂

ga

太郎は泳いだが 次郎は泳がなかつた。
Tarō wa oyoida ga Jirō wa oyoganakatta.

(Taro swam but Jiro didn't swim.)



Examples

(a) 私はビールは飲むが酒は飲まない。

Watashi wa biru wa nomu ga sake wa nomanai.

(I drink beer but don't drink sake.)

(b) 旅行をしたいがお金がない。

Ryokō o shitai ga o-kane ga nai.

(I want to travel but I don't have money.)

Notes

1. *Ga²*, like *but* in English, combines two sentences which express contrastive ideas. However, *ga* is much weaker than *but* in that it is sometimes used simply to combine two sentences for stylistic reasons even if those two sentences do not represent contrastive ideas. For example, the *ga* in (1) is used simply as a transition word to connect two sentences.

(1) a. パーティーをしますが来ませんか。

Pāti o shimasu **ga** kimasen ka.

(We'll have a party. Wouldn't you like to come?)

b. 田中さんは私のうちにも時々来ますがおもしろい人ですね。

Tanaka-san wa watashi no uchi ni mo tokidoki kimasu **ga** omoshiroi hito desu ne.

(Mr. Tanaka sometimes comes to my place, too. He is an interesting person, isn't he?)

2. *Ga²* makes a sentence unit with the preceding sentence, not with the following sentence. Thus, it is wrong to place a comma before *ga* or to start a sentence with *ga*, as in (2) and (3).

(2) *ジョンは来た、がメアリーは来なかった。

**Jon wa kita, ga Meari wa konakatta.*

(John came, but Mary didn't come.)

(3) *ジョンは来た。がメアリーは来なかった。

**Jon wa kita. Ga Meari wa konakatta.*

(John came. But Mary didn't come.)

3. S_1 and S_2 in “ $S_1 ga S_2$ ” must be in the same form whether formal or informal, because they are both independent clauses. (4) and (5) are stylistically awkward. ($\Rightarrow keredomo$)

(4) ??太郎は泳ぎましたが次郎は泳がなかった。

?*Tarō wa oyogimashita ga Jirō wa oyoganakatta.*

(Taro swam but Jiro didn't (swim).)

(5) ?太郎は泳いだが次郎は泳ぎませんでした。

?*Tarō wa oyoida ga Jirō wa oyogimasendeshita.*

(Taro swam but Jiro didn't (swim).)

4. S_2 in “ $S_1 ga S_2$ ” is often omitted when it is understandable from the context and / or the situation, or when the speaker doesn't want to continue for some reason (e.g., the sentence is too direct, impolite, embarrassing, etc.). Examples:

(6) 大じょうぶだと思いますが。

Daijōbuda to omoimasu ga.

(I think it's all right but . . .)

(7) トムはよく勉強するんですが。

Tomu wa yoku benkyōsuru n desu ga.

(Tom studies hard but . . .)

5. When “ $S_1 ga S_2$ ” expresses contrastive ideas, the contrastive *wa* typically appears in S_1 and S_2 , as in KS and Ex. (a). ($\Rightarrow wa^1$ (は))

[Related Expressions]

Daga, dakedo, demo, shikashi and *keredomo* express the same idea as *ga*. However, the first four cannot make compound sentences like *ga* does; they must occur at the beginning of a sentence, as in [1]. (See Note 2.)

[1] a. $S_1 ga S_2$.

b. * $S_1 daga / dakedo / demo / shikashi S_2$.

c. $S_1. Daga / Dakedo / Demo / Shikashi S_2$.

Keredomo differs from *ga* in that *keredomo* is a subordinate conjunction

meaning ‘although’. That is, in “S₁ keredomo S₂”, S₁ *keredomo* is a subordinate clause and S₂ is a main clause. In “S₁ ga S₂”, on the other hand, both S₁ and S₂ are independent clauses.

~garu ~がる aux. v. (Gr. 1)

an auxiliary verb attached to a psychological / physiological adjective
meaning a person other than the speaker shows signs of ~

G

show signs of ~

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object		Adj (i) stem	
一男 Kazuo	は wa	スポーツカー supōtsukā	を o	欲しがった / がりました。 hoshigatta / garimashita.
(Lit. Kazuo showed signs of wanting a sports car. (=Kazuo wanted a sports car.))				

(B)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object	Adj (i) stem		
		Vmasu		
上田さん Ueda-san	は wa	アイスクリーム aisukurimu	を o	食べた tabeta がった / がりました。 gatta / garimashita.
(Lit. Mr. Ueda showed signs of wanting to eat ice cream. (=Mr. Ueda wanted to eat ice cream.))				

Formation

Adj (i / na) stem がる
garu

うれしがる (s.o. shows signs of being glad)
ureshigaru

めんどうがる (s.o. shows signs of being bothered)
mendōgaru

Examples

- (a) スーザンは一人で淋しがっています。
Suzan wa hitori de sabishigatte imasu.
 (Susan feels lonely by herself.)
- (b) 子供が眠たがっている。
Kodomo ga nemutagatte iru.
 (My child wants to go to sleep.)

Notes

1. There is a group of adjectives which, in the present tense, usually requires the first person (or a person with whom the speaker can empathize) as subject. If the subject of a sentence in which these adjectives occur is not the first person (or one with whom the speaker can empathize), then *garu* is attached to the adjective. Observe the accompanying change of particles from *ga* into *o*.

- (1) a. 僕は犬がこわい。
*Boku wa inu **ga** kowai.*
 (Lit. To me dogs are scary. (=I am scared of dogs.))
- b. 深田さんは犬をこわがっている。
*Fukada-san wa inu **o** kowagatte iru.*
 (Mr. Fukada fears dogs.)
- (2) a. 僕はスポーツカーが欲しい。
*Boku wa supōtsukā **ga** hoshii.*
 (I want a sports car.)
- b. 一男はスポーツカーを欲しがっている。
*Kazuo wa supōtsukā **o** hoshigatte iru.*
 (Kazuo wants a sports car.)

If an adjective appears in an embedded clause (except a nominalized clause), the *garu* attachment is unnecessary even if the tense is nonpast and the subject is a person with whom the speaker cannot empathize. Thus,

- (3) a. 深田さんは犬がこわいと言った。
*Fukada-san wa inu **ga** kowai to itta.*
 (Mr. Fukada said that he is scared of dogs.)
- b. 一男はスポーツカーが欲しいそうだ。
*Kazuo wa supōtsukā **ga** hoshii sōda.*
 (I heard that Kazuo wants a sports car.)

(⇒ *hoshii*¹, Note 3)

2. *Garu* conjugates as a Gr. 1 verb. Thus,

	らない	(inf, neg, nonpast)
	<i>ranai</i>	
	ります	(fml, nonpast)
	<i>rimasu</i>	
	る	(inf, nonpast)
	<i>ru</i>	
欲しが-	れば	(conditional)
<i>hoshiga-</i>	<i>reba</i>	
	ろう	(volitional)
	<i>rō</i>	
	って	(te-form)
	<i>tte</i>	
	った	(inf, past)
	<i>tta</i>	

3. The following psychological and physiological adjectives are commonly used with *garu*.

Psychology	Physiology
(Adj (i))	(Adj (i))
欲しい <i>hoshii</i>	(want)→欲しがる <i>hoshigaru</i>
うれしい <i>ureshii</i>	(happy)→うれしがる <i>ureshigaru</i>
淋しい <i>sabishii</i>	(lonely)→淋しがる <i>sabishigaru</i>
～たい ～ <i>tai</i>	(want to)→～たがる ～ <i>tagaru</i>
こわい <i>kowai</i>	(scary)→こわがる <i>kowagaru</i>
羨しい <i>urayamashii</i>	(envious)→羨しがる <i>urayamashigaru</i>
おもしろい <i>omoshiroi</i>	(amusing)→おもしろがる <i>omosirogaru</i>
	痛い <i>itai</i>
	苦しい <i>kurushii</i>
	かゆい <i>kayui</i>
	寒い <i>samui</i>
	暑い <i>atsui</i>
	だるい <i>darui</i>
	くすぐったい <i>kusuguttai</i>
	(painful)→痛がる <i>itagaru</i>
	(painful)→苦しがる <i>kurushigaru</i>
	(itchy)→かゆがる <i>kayugaru</i>
	(cold)→寒がる <i>samugaru</i>
	(hot)→暑がる <i>atsugaru</i>
	(languid)→だるがる <i>darugaru</i>
	くすぐったい (ticklish)→くすぐったがる <i>kusuguttagaru</i>

(Adj (na))	
迷惑だ (troublesome) →迷惑がる <i>meiwakuda</i>	<i>meiwakugaru</i>
いやだ (dislike) →いやがる <i>iyada</i>	<i>iyagaru</i>

4. A limited number of ~garu forms have derived noun forms. The form is ~gari (ya), meaning 'a person who shows signs of being ~'.

(⇒ -ya)

- 淋しがり (屋)
sabishigari (ya)
(a person who always feels lonely)
- こわがり (屋)
kowagari (ya)
(a person who is easily frightened)
- 寒がり (屋)
samugari (ya)
(a person who is sensitive to cold)
- 暑がり (屋)
atsugari (ya)
(a person who is sensitive to heat)

goro ごろ suf.

approximately (with a specific point of time)	about; around 【REL. <i>kurai</i> / <i>gurai</i> 】
---	--

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)		Noun (time)		Predicate
鈴木さん <i>Suzuki-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	朝 <i>asa</i>	七時 <i>shichiji</i>	ごろ <i>goro</i> うちを出る / 出ます。 <i>uchi o deru / demasu.</i>
(Mr. Suzuki leaves home at about 7:00 o'clock in the morning.)				

Formation

N (time) ごろ (に)
goro (ni)

三時 ごろ (に) (at about 3 o'clock)
sanji goro (ni)

Examples

(a) A : いつごろ北京に行きますか。
Itsu goro Pekin ni ikimasu ka.
 (About when are you going to Beijing?)

B : 来年の六月ごろ行きます。
Rainen no rokugatsu goro ikimasu.
 (I'm going there around June of next year.)

(b) A : 今朝は何時ごろまで寝ていましたか。
Kesa wa .nanji goro made nete imashita ka.
 (Until about what time were you asleep this morning?)

B : 十時ごろまで寝ていました。
Jūji goro made nete imashita.
 (I was asleep until about 10 o'clock.)

(c) 去年の今ごろは大雪でしたね。
Kyonen no ima goro wa ōyuki deshita ne.
 (About this time last year it snowed heavily, didn't it?)

Notes

1. *Goro* is used with a specific point of time. Thus, the following sentence is unacceptable.
 - (1) *夜ごろテレビを見っていました。
**Yoru goro terebi o mite imashita.*
 (*I was watching TV about at night.)
2. Depending on the speaker's perspective, time expressions other than exact time expressions can be perceived as points in time. Thus, in Ex. (a), the month of June is a point in time from the speaker's viewpoint. In these cases, *goro* seems easier to use grammatically if there is some distance between the time of the event and the time of speech, as seen in the following examples.



- (2) ??来年の夏ごろ山中さんに会います。
 ??*Rainen no natsu goro Yamanaka-san ni aimasu.*
 (*I will see Mr. Yamanaka around next summer.)
- (3) 再来年の夏ごろ山中さんに会います。
Sarainen no natsu goro Yamanaka-san ni aimasu.
 (I will see Mr. Yamanaka in the summer in a couple of years.)
- (4) ??去年の夏ごろ山中さんに会いました。
 ??*Kyonen no natsu goro Yamanaka-san ni aimashita.*
 (*I met Mr. Yamanaka around the summer of last year.)
- (5) おととしの夏ごろ山中さんに会いました。
Ototoshi no natsu goro Yamanaka-san ni aimashita.
 (I met Mr. Yamanaka sometime during the summer of the year before last.)

【Related Expression】

Goro is different from *kurai* / *gurai* ‘about’ in that the latter is used with specific quantity expressions. Thus,

[1] 僕は三時ごろに寝ました。
Boku wa sanji goro ni nemashita.
 (I went to sleep at about 3 o'clock.)

[2] 僕は三時間ぐらい寝ました。
Boku wa sanjikan gurai nemashita.
 (I slept about three hours.)

goto ni ごとに prt.

S.t. takes place regularly in succession after a certain temporal or spatial interval.	every 【REL. <i>mai</i>; <i>oki ni</i>】
--	--

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Number-Counter			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	三時間 <i>san-jikan</i>	ごとに <i>goto ni</i>	薬を飲んだ / 飲みました。 <i>kusuri o nondai / nomimashita.</i>
(I took medicine every three hours.)				

G

(B)

Topic (subject)	Noun			
正月 <i>Shōgatsu</i>	は <i>wa</i>	家 <i>ie</i>	ごとに <i>goto ni</i>	門松を立てる / 立てます。 <i>kadomatsu o tateru / tatemasu.</i>
(They put up pine tree decorations at every house on New Year's Day.)				

Examples

(a) 一課ごとに試験がある。

Ikka goto ni shiken ga aru.

(There is a test after every lesson.)

(b) 学期ごとに先生がかわる。

Gakki goto ni sensei ga kawaru.

(Every semester teachers change.)

(c) 木村さんは会う人ごとに挨拶している。

Kimura-san wa au hito goto ni aisatsushite iru.

(Mr. Kimura greets every one he meets.)

(d) 三日ごとにテニスをしています。

Mikka goto ni tenisu o shite imasu.

(I'm playing tennis every third day.)

[Related Expression]

Oki ni indicates that something is repeated at certain intervals. Although its usage is comparable to *goto ni*, note the distinct difference in meanings in examples [1a] and [1b].

[1] a. この電車は二駅おきに止まる。

Kono densha wa futa eki oki ni tomaru.

(This train stops at every third station.)

b. この電車は二駅ごとに止まる。

*Kono densha wa futa eki **goto ni** tomamu.*

(This train stops at every other station.)

When a time expression precedes *oki ni* or *goto ni*, there is no difference in meaning, if an event takes place at one point in time as in [2a]. But there is difference in meaning, if an event takes place within a certain period of time as in [2b].

[2] a. 電車は五分おきに / ごとに出る。

*Densha wa gofun **oki ni** / **goto ni** deru.*

(The train leaves every five minutes.)

b. 私は二日おきに / ごとに花子と会っている。

*Watashi wa futsuka **oki ni** / **goto ni** Hanako to atte iru.*

(I'm seeing Hanako every third day / every other day.)

~hajimeru ~はじめる aux. v. (Gr. 2)

S.o. / s.t. begins to do s.t. or begins to be in some state.	begin to 【REL. ~dasu; kuru ² 】 (ANT. ~owaru)
--	---

◆ Key Sentence

Vmasu		
あした から レポート を Ashita kara repōto o	書き <i>kaki</i>	はじめる / はじめます。 <i>hajimeru</i> / <i>hajimemasu</i> .
(I'll begin to write my paper tomorrow.)		

Formation

Vmasu はじめる
hajimeru

話しへはじめる (s.o. begins to talk)
hanashihajimeru

食べはじめる (s.o. begins to eat)
tabehajimeru

Examples

(a) 私は八月から源氏物語を読みはじめました。

Watashi wa hachigatsu kara Genjimonogatari o yomihajimemashita.

(I began to read *The Tale of Genji* in August.)

(b) 日本の経済は1964年の東京オリンピックのころから強くなりはじめた。

Nihon no keizai wa sen-kyūhyaku-rokujūyo(n)nen no Tōkyō Orinpikku no koro kara tsuyoku narihajimeta.

(The Japanese economy began to strengthen about the time of the 1964 Tokyo Olympics.)

(c) A: いつから切手を集めはじめたんですか。

Itsu kara kitte o atsumehajimeta n desu ka.

(When did you start to collect stamps?)

B: 子供の時から集めはじめました。

Kodomo no toki kara atsume hajimemashita.

(I started to collect them when (lit. since) I was a child.)

Notes

1. Vmasu+*hajimeru* conjugates exactly like the Gr. 2 Verb *hajimeru*.

話しはじめ- <i>hanashihajime-</i> 食べはじめ- <i>tabehajime-</i>	ない	(inf, neg, nonpast)
	<i>nai</i>	
	ます	(fml, nonpast)
	<i>masu</i>	
	る	(inf, nonpast)
	<i>ru</i>	
	れば	(conditional)
	<i>reba</i>	
	よう	(volitional)
	<i>yō</i>	
	て	(te-form)
	<i>te</i>	
	た	(inf, past)
	<i>ta</i>	

2. For the sentence (1) below, there are two honorific versions, depending on which part of Vmasu+*hajimeru* is changed into an honorific form; if the Vmasu is changed into an honorific form, it will become (2a) and if the entire Vmasu+*hajimeru* is changed into an honorific form, it will become (2b).

(1) 先生は本を書きはじめた。

Sensei wa hon o kakihajimeta.

(The teacher began to write a book.)

(2) a. 先生はご本をお書きになりはじめた。

Sensei wa go-hon o o-kaki ni narihajimeta.

b. 先生はご本をお書きはじめになった。

Sensei wa go-hon o o-kakihajime ni natta.

(⇒ *o ~ ni naru*)

3. ~*hajimeru* is normally attached to a non-punctual verb (such as *yomu* ‘read’, *kaku* ‘write’ and *miru* ‘see’). If the subject is plural, however, the verb can be a punctual verb (such as *tsuku* ‘arrive’, *kuru* ‘come’ and *shinu* ‘die’). (⇒ Appendix 2D) Thus,

- (3) 上田さんは新聞を読みはじめました。
Ueda-san wa shinbun o yomihajimemashita.
 (Mr. Ueda began to read a newspaper.)

- (4) 人々 / *花子が会場に着きました。
*Hitobito / *Hanako ga kaijō ni tsukihajimemashita.*
 (People / *Hanako began to arrive at the meeting room.)

hazu はず n.

a dependent noun which expresses
 the speaker's expectation that s.t. will
 take place or took place or that s.o. /
 s.t. is or was in some state

I expect that ~ ; It is expected
 that ~ ; ~ is expected to; I am
 fairly certain that ~ ; should;
 ought to; It is natural that ~ ;
 No wonder ~



◆ Key Sentence

Sentence (informal)†	
クラークさんはパーティーに行く <i>Kurāku-san wa pātī ni iku</i>	はずだ / です。 <i>hazu da / desu.</i>
(I expect that Mr. Clark will go to the party.)	

†*Da* after Adj (*na*) and N changes to *na* and *no*, respectively.

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf はずだ
hazu da

{話す / 話した} はずだ (It is expected that s.o. will talk / talked.)
{hanasu / hanashita} *hazu da*

{高い / 高かった} はずだ (It is expected that s.t. is / was expensive.)
{takai / takakatta} *hazu da*

(ii) Adj (*na*) stem {な / だった} はずだ
{na / datta} *hazu da*

{静かな / 静かだった} はずだ (It is expected that s.t. is / was
 quiet.)
{shizukana / shizukadatta} *hazu da*

(iii) N {の / だった} はず だ
 {no / datta} *hazu da*

{先生 の / 先生 だった} はず だ (It is expected that s.o. is / was a
 {sensei no / sensei datta} *hazu da* teacher.)

Examples

(a) 大野先生はサンドラを知っているはずです。
Ōno-sensei wa Sandora o shitte iru hazu desu.

(I expect that Prof. Ono knows Sandra.)

(b) あの本は高かったはずだ。
Ano hon wa takakatta hazu da.

(I expect that book was expensive.)

(c) そのアパートはきれいなはずです。
Sono apāto wa kireina hazu desu.

(I expect that apartment is clean.)

(d) カールソンさんは昔先生だったはずだ。
Kāruson-san wa mukashi sensei datta hazu da.

(I'm fairly sure that Ms. Carlson was a teacher before.)

Notes

1. “*S hazu*” expresses the speaker’s expectation, not in the sense of hoping or looking forward to something, but in the sense that the proposition expressed by *S* should be true or come true. Thus, when the speaker uses *hazu*, he is not merely guessing, but stating a proposition based on reliable information or knowledge. (⇒ *darō*; *rashii*; *sōda*²; *yōda*)

2. *Hazu* is a dependent noun and cannot be used alone. It is always modified by a sentence or a demonstrative such as *sono* ‘that’ and *konna* ‘like this’. “Demonstrative *hazu*” is used when a proposition is known to the hearer from the context, as in (1).

(1) A : マーサも来ますか。
Māsa mo kimasu ka.
 (Is Martha coming, too?)

B : はい, そのはずです。
*Hai, sono **hazu** desu.*
 (Yes, I expect so.)

3. Negative expectations can be expressed in two ways:
 (A) S (negative) *hazu da*

(2) クラークさんはパーティーに行かないはずだ。

Kurāku-san wa pāti ni ikanai hazu da.

(Lit. I expect that Mr. Clark is not going to the party.

(=I don't expect that Mr. Clark is going to the party.))

(B) S *hazu wa / ga nai*

(3) クラークさんはパーティーに行くはずは / がない。

Kurāku-san wa pāti ni iku hazu wa / ga nai.

(Lit. I have no expectation that Mr. Clark is going to the party.

(=It is improbable that Mr. Clark will go to the party.))

The assertion in (3) is stronger than that in (2).



4. “S *hazu*” can also be used when the speaker has discovered the reason for an event or a state. In this case, *hazu* means “It is natural that ~.” or “No wonder ~.” and can be paraphrased as “S *wake da*.” (⇒ *wake da*) Example:

(4) 高いはずだ。これは金だ。

Takai hazu da. Kore wa kin da.

(No wonder this is expensive. It's gold.)

5. When “S *hazu*” modifies a noun, that is, when “S *hazu*” is a relative clause, *no* follows, as in (5). (⇒ Relative Clause)

(5) 山口さんに出したはずの手紙が床に落ちていた。

Yamaguchi-san ni dashita hazu no tegami ga yuka ni ochite ita.

(I found the letter I thought I had sent to Mr. Yamaguchi on the floor.)

hodo ほど *prt.*

a particle which indicates an extent
or a degree to which s.o. / s.t. does
s.t. or is in some state

to the extent of; to the extent
that ~ ; (not as) ~ as ~ ; about
【REL. *bakari*; *kurai*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Noun		Predicate (negative)
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	ケン <i>Ken</i>	ほど <i>hodo</i>
強くない / 強くありません。 <i>tsuyokunai / tsuyokuarimasen.</i>			

(Lit. I'm not strong to Ken's extent. (=I'm not as strong as Ken.))

(B)

Topic (subject)	Sentence (informal)†		Predicate
この 仕事 <i>Kono shigoto</i>	は <i>wa</i>	子供 でも 出来る <i>kodomo demo dekiku</i>	ほど <i>hodo</i>
やさしい / やさしいです。 <i>yasashii / yasashiidesu.</i>			

(Lit. This job is easy to the extent that even a child can do it. (=This job is so easy that even a child can do it.))

†*Da* after Adj(*na*) and N changes to *na* and *de aru*, respectively.

Formation

(i) N ほど
hodo

君 ほど (as you)
kimi hodo

(ii) Demonstrative ほど
hodo

それ ほど (to that extent)
sore hodo

(iii) Sinf ほど
hodo

家が倒れる ほど (to the extent that houses would fall down)
ie ga taoreru hodo

Examples

(a) 僕は君ほど速く歩けません。

Boku wa kimi hodo hayaku arukemasen.

(I can't walk as fast as you can.)



- (b) ジェニファーほどよく勉強する学生はない。
Jenifā hodo yoku benkyōsuru gakusei wa inai.
 (There is no student who studies as hard as Jennifer.)
- (c) 私は西田さんがあれほどピアノがひけるとは思わなかった。
Watashi wa Nishida-san ga are hodo piano ga hikeru to wa omowana-katta.
 (I didn't think that Mr. Nishida could play the piano that well (lit. to that extent).)
- (d) ルイスさんの日本語は太田先生も外国人だと気づかなかったほど上手です。
Ruisu-san no nihongo wa Ōta-sensei mo gaikokujin da to kizukanakatta hodo jōzudesu.
 (Mr. Lewis's Japanese is so good that even Prof. Ota didn't notice he was a foreigner.)

Notes

1. When *hodo* is preceded by a noun, the predicate must be negative, as in KS(A), Exs. (a) and (b). The following sentences are ungrammatical.

- (1) *私は太郎ほど強い。
**Watashi wa Tarō hodo tsuyoi.*
 (I am as strong as Taro.)
- (2) *フットボールほどおもしろいスポーツはたくさんある。
**Futtabōru hodo omoshiroi supōtsu wa takusan aru.*
 (There are many sports which are as interesting as football.)

If a sentence or a demonstrative modifies *hodo*, however, the predicate of the main clause can be either affirmative or negative, as in KS(B), Ex. (d) and (3).

- (3) その仕事はそれほどやさしいんですか。
Sono shigoto wa sore hodo yasashii n desu ka.
 (Is that job that easy (lit. easy to that extent)?)

2. When *hodo* is used with a quantifier, it means 'about'. Example:

- (4) ビールを三本ほど飲みました。
Biru o sanbon hodo nomimashita.
 (I drank about three bottles of beer.)

【Related Expressions】

Bakari and *kurai* also mean 'about' when they are used with a number and a counter. The difference among the three is that *bakari* and *hodo* can be

used with an exact number or amount of something, whereas *kurai* cannot, as seen in [1].

[1] そのりんごを二つばかり / ほど / *くらいください。

*Sono ringo o futatsu bakari / hodo / *kurai kudasai.*

(Please give me two of those apples.)

In the situation in [1] the speaker does not want *about* two apples but *exactly* two apples, and, in this case, *kurai* cannot be used. It is a very common practice in Japanese to avoid asking for exact numbers or amounts, and the practice comes from the idea that being straightforward or direct is impolite. This can be observed in many verbal and nonverbal expressions in Japanese and also in the manners of the Japanese people.

hō ga ii ほうがいい phr.

It is strongly suggested that s.o. do
s.t.

had better do s.t.
【REL. *tara dō desu ka*】

◆ Key Sentence

	Vinf.past	
日本語 の 本 を <i>Nihongo no hon o</i>	読んだ <i>yonda</i>	ほうがいい / いいです。 <i>hō ga ii / iidesu.</i>
(You'd better read Japanese books.)		

Formation

Vinf.past ほうがいい
hō ga ii

話した ほうがいい (had better talk)
hanashita hō ga ii

食べた ほうがいい (had better eat)
tabeta hō ga ii

Examples

- (a) 野菜も食べたほうがいいよ。
Yasai mo tabeta hō ga ii yo.
 (You'd better eat vegetables, too.)

- (b) もう帰ったほうがいいですか。
Mō kaetta hō ga iidesu ka.
 (Had I better go home now?)
- (c) 和子はもっと英語を勉強したほうがいいね。
Kazuko wa motto eigo o benkyōshita hō ga ii ne.
 (Kazuko had better study English harder.)

**Notes**

1. Vinf.past *hō ga ii* is an idiomatic expression of the comparative structure and expresses a strong suggestion. ($\Leftrightarrow \sim hō ga \sim yori$)
2. The second person subject in declarative sentences and the first person subject in interrogative sentences are usually omitted. (KS and Exs. (a) and (b)) When the subject is the third person, it is not omitted unless it can be clearly understood from the context. In this case, the speaker is telling the hearer what the speaker suggests for the third person. (Ex. (c))
3. Vinf.nonpast can be substituted for Vinf.past, as in (1).

- (1) 日本語の本を読むほうがいい。
Nihongo no hon o yomu hō ga ii.
 (You'd better read Japanese books.)

The meaning of Vinf.nonpast *hō ga ii* is almost the same as that of Vinf.past *hō ga ii* if it is used in situations of suggestion. However, Vinf.past *hō ga ii* may express a stronger suggestion than Vinf.nonpast *hō ga ii*. For instance, in the following example, Vinf.past *hō ga ii* is more appropriate.

- (2) お前、このごろ麻薬をやってるそうだな。そんなもの止めた / ??止めるほうがいいぜ。
Omae, konogoro mayaku o yatteru sō da na. Sonna mono ya-meta / ??yameru hō ga ii ze.
 (I heard you are taking drugs these days. You'd better stop such things, I tell you.)
4. “Had better not do s.t.” is expressed by Vneg *nai hō ga ii*. Example:

(3) コーヒーを飲まないほうがいい。

Kōhi o nomanai hō ga ii.

(You'd better not drink coffee.)

Note that the verb must be in the nonpast negative form in this expression.

The following is ungrammatical.

(4) *コーヒーを飲まなかつたほうがいい。

**Kōhi o nomanakatta hō ga ii.*

(You'd better not drink coffee.)



~hō ga ~yori ~ほうが～より phr.

In comparing two entities, one is in some state or does s.t. more than the other.

～ be more (Adj.) than ～ ; ～ do s.t. more (Adv.) than ～ do
【REL. *yori*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Noun ₁			Noun ₂		Predicate
石田さん <i>Ishida-san</i>	の <i>no</i>	ほうが <i>hō ga</i>	私 <i>watashi</i>	より <i>yori</i>	若い / 若いです。 <i>wakai / wakaidesu.</i>
(Mr. Ishida is younger than I am.)					
私 <i>Watashi</i>	の <i>no</i>	ほうが <i>hō ga</i>	上田さん <i>Ueda-san</i>	より <i>yori</i>	よく 食べる / 食べます。 <i>yoku taberu / tabemasu.</i>
(I eat more than Ms. Ueda does.)					

(B)

Sentence ₁ (informal)†		Sentence ₂ (informal)†		Predicate
車で行く <i>Kuruma de iku</i>	ほうが <i>hō ga</i>	バスで行く <i>basu de iku</i>	より <i>yori</i>	安い / 安いです。 <i>yasui / yasuidesu.</i>
(Going by car is cheaper than going by bus.)				

†*Da* after Adj(*na*) and N changes to *na* and *de aru*, respectively.

Formation

KS(A):

N の ほう が N より
no hō ga yori

先生 の ほう が 学生 より (Teachers are more ~ than students.)
sensei no hō ga gakusei yori

KS(B):

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf ほう が; {V / Adj (i)} inf·nonpast より
hō ga yori

{話す / 話した} ほう が (Talking / Having talked is more ~);
{hanasu / hanashita} *hō ga*

聞く より (than hearing)
kiku yori

{食べる / 食べた} ほう が (Eating / Having eaten is more ~);
{taberu / tabeta} *hō ga*

寝る より (than sleeping)
neru yori

{高い / 高かった} ほう が (Being / Having been expensive is more ~);
{takai / takakatta} *hō ga*

安い より (than being cheap)
yasui yori

(ii) Adj (na) stem {な / だった} ほう が; Adj (na) stem な より
{na / datta} *hō ga na yori*

{静かな / 静かだった} ほう が (Being / Having been quiet is more
{shizukana / shizukadatta} *hō ga ~*);

きれい な より (than being pretty)
kirei na yori

(iii) N {で ある / だった} ほう が; N で ある より
{de aru / datta} *hō ga de aru yori*

{先生 で ある / 先生 だつた} ほう が (Being / Having been a
{sensei de aru / sensei datta} *hō ga teacher is more ~*);

学生 で ある より (than being a student)
gakusei de aru yori



Examples

- (a) このカメラのほうがあのカメラより好きです。
Kono kamera no hō ga ano kamera yori sukidesu.
(I like this camera better than that camera.)
- (b) ジェフのほうが私より速く走れる。
Jefu no hō ga watashi yori hayaku hashireru.
(Jeff can run faster than I can.)
- (c) 私が話すほうが君が話すよりいいでしょう。
Watashi ga hanasu hō ga kimi ga hanasu yori ii deshō.
(It's probably better for me to talk than for you to talk.)
- (d) もちろん、安いほうが高いよりうれしいです。
Mochiron, yasui hō ga takai yori ureshiidesu.
(Of course, I'm happier when it is cheap than when it is expensive.)
- (e) 子供は元気なほうが静かなより安心だ。
Kodomo wa genkina hō ga shizukana yori anshinda.
(Talking about children, you feel more at ease when they are lively than when they are quiet.)
- (f) 私は女であるほうが男であるより楽しいと思う。
Watashi wa onna de aru hō ga otoko de aru yori tanoshii to omou.
(I think it's more enjoyable to be a woman than to be a man.)

Notes

1. In Japanese there are no comparative forms of adjectives and adverbs. The idea of comparison is expressed by the “X no hō ga Y yori” pattern. Y yori may be omitted if it is clear from the context or the situation. Example:

- (1) A : トムとジョンとどちらが強いですか。
Tomu to Jon to dochira ga tsuyoidesu ka.
(Who is stronger, Tom or John?)

B : トムのほうが(ジョンより)強いです。
Tomu no hō ga (Jon yori) tsuyoidesu.
(Tom is stronger (than John).)

2. In the “S₁ hō ga S₂ yori” pattern (KS(B)), S₁ can be either nonpast or past. S₂, however, is always nonpast regardless of the tense of S₁ and the main clause. There are two cases in which S₁ is past. First, S₁ can be past when the whole sentence is about a present or future action or state. In this case, the sentence sounds rather hypothetical. Example:

(2) 私が話したほうが君が話すよりいいでしょう。

Watashi ga hanashita hō ga kimi ga hanasu yori ii deshō.

(It would probably be better if I talk rather than if you talk.)

S₁ can also be past if the whole sentence is about a past action or state. In this case the sentence is counterfactual. Example:

(3) 私が話したほうが君が話すよりよかったです。

Watashi ga hanashita hō ga kimi ga hanasu yori yokatta.

(It would have been better if I had talked rather than you.)

3. Y *yori* can precede X (*no*) *hō ga*, as in (4).

(4) あのカメラよりこのカメラのほうが好きです。

Ano kamera yori kono kamera no hō ga sukidesu.

(I like this camera better than that camera.)



4. X *no hō* is a noun phrase; therefore, it can also be a direct object, an indirect object, etc. However, when it is used for something other than the subject, the “Y *yori* X *no hō* (*o*, *ni*, etc.)” order is preferable. Examples:

(5) a. 私はビールより酒のほうをよく飲む。

Watashi wa biru yori sake no hō o yoku nomu.

(I drink *sake* more than beer.)

b. 学生は川田先生より木村先生のほうによく質問に行く。

Gakusei wa Kawada-sensei yori Kimura-sensei no hō ni yoku shitsumon ni iku.

(Students go to Prof. Kimura to ask questions more often than to Prof. Kawada.)

【Related Expression】

The idea of comparison can be expressed by the “X *wa* Y *yori*” pattern, too. (⇒ *yori*) However, when this pattern is used, X must have already been established as a topic. Thus, in a context like [1], the “X *wa* Y *yori*” pattern cannot be used.

[1] A : トムとジョンとどちらが強いですか。

Tomu to Jon to dochira ga tsuyoidesu ka.

(Who is stronger, Tom or John?)

B : トムのほうが / *トムは(ジョンより)強いです。

*Tomu no hō ga / *Tomu wa (Jon yori) tsuyoidesu.*

(Tom is stronger (than John).)

On the other hand, in a context like [2], the “X wa Y yori” pattern is preferable, because X has already been established in the previous sentence.

[2] トムはとても強いです。彼は / ??彼のほうがジョンより強いです。

Tomu wa totomo tsuyoidesu. Kare wa / ??Kare no hō ga Jon yori tsuyoidesu.

(Tom is very strong. He is stronger than John.)

H

hoshii¹ ほしい

{ S.t. is desired by the speaker. } want (s.t.)
【REL. *tai*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (experiencer)		Desired Object			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	車 <i>kuruma</i>	が <i>ga</i>	ほしい / ほしいです。 <i>hoshii / hoshiidesu.</i>	
(I want a car.)					

(B)

Topic (experiencer)		Desired Object			
弟 <i>Ototo</i>	は <i>wa</i>	僕 の 自転車 <i>boku no jitensha</i>	を <i>o</i>	ほしがって いる / います。 <i>hoshigatte iru / imasu.</i>	
(My little brother wants my bike.)					

Examples

(a) 私は日本人の友達がほしい。

Watashi wa nihonjin no tomodachi ga hoshii.

(I want a Japanese friend.)

(b) あなたは今何がほしいですか。

Anata wa ima nani ga hoshiidesu ka.

(What do you want now?)

- (c) パムはステレオをほしがっている。
Pamu wa sutereo o hoshigatte iru.
 (Pam wants a stereo.)

Notes

1. The *i*-type adjective *hoshii* expresses a person's desire for some object. Like other stative transitive adjectives, *hoshii* takes the *wa-ga* construction, where the experiencer is marked by *wa* and the desired object by *ga*. (In subordinate clauses the experiencer is also marked by *ga*). ($\Rightarrow \sim wa \sim ga$)
2. Since *hoshii* expresses a very personal feeling, the experiencer is usually the first person in declarative sentences and the second person in interrogative sentences, as in KS(A), Exs. (a) and (b). The third person's desire is usually expressed by *hoshigatte iru* 'Lit. be showing the sign of wanting (s.t.)', as in KS(B) and Ex. (c). ($\Rightarrow garu$) It is noted that when *hoshigatte iru* is used, the desired object is marked by *o*.
3. It is, however, acceptable to use *hoshii* in connection with the third person experiencer in the following situations:

(1) *In the past tense*

モーリスはいいステレオがほしかった。
Mōrisu wa ii sutereo ga hoshikatta.
 (Maurice wanted a good stereo set.)

(2) *In indirect / semi-direct speech*

- a. ジョイもほしいと言っている。
Joi mo hoshii to itte iru.
 (Joy says she wants it, too.)
- b. オスカーもほしいそうだ。
Osukā mo hoshii sōda.
 (I heard that Oscar wants it, too.)

(3) *In explanatory situations*

パメラはイヤリングがほしいんです。
Pamera wa iyaringu ga hoshii n desu.
 ((The explanation is that) Pamela wants a pair of earrings.)
 ($\Rightarrow no da$)



(4) *In conjecture expressions*

a. フランシスはうで時計がほしいらしい。

Furanshisu wa udedokei ga hoshii rashii.

(It seems that Francis wants a wrist watch.)

b. コニーは人形がほしいようだ。

Koni wa ningyō ga hoshii yōda.

(It appears that Connie wants a doll.)

**hoshii² ほしい aux. adj. (i)**

want s.o. (who is not higher in status
than the speaker) to do s.t.

want (s.o.) to do (s.t.)
【REL. *moraitai*; *tai*】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (experiencer)	Indirect Object	Vte	
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	あなた <i>anata</i>	に <i>ni</i>

(I want you to teach me English.)

Formation

Vte ほしい
hoshii

話して ほしい (want (s.o.) to talk)
hanashite hoshii

食べて ほしい (want (s.o.) to eat)
tabete hoshii

Examples

(a) 私は子供達に私と一緒に住んでほしい。

Watashi wa kodomotachi ni watashi to issconi sunde hoshii.
(I want my children to live together with me.)

- (b) あなたはだれに来てほしいですか。
Anata wa dare ni kite hoshiidesu ka.
 (Who do you want to come?)

Notes

1. *Hoshii* is used as an auxiliary with *Vte* to mean ‘want (s.o.) to do (s.t.)’. When the experiencer wants a person X to do something, X is marked by *ni*. *Hoshii* is not used if X has a higher status than the experiencer. Thus, the following sentence is not appropriate when the speaker is a student of Prof. Yoshida’s. (See Related Expression, [2] for the correct sentence in that situation.)



- (1) 私は吉田先生に来てほしい。
Watashi wa Yoshida-sensei ni kite hoshii.
 (I want Prof. Yoshida to come.)

2. When *Vte hoshii* is used, the experiencer is usually the first person in declarative sentences (KS, Ex. (a)) and the second person in interrogative sentences (Ex. (b)). If the experiencer is the third person, *Vte moraitagatte iru* ‘(lit.) be showing the sign of wanting to receive the favor of doing s.t. from s.o.’ is used, as in (2). (⇒ *mora^u²; tai; garu*)

- (2) アダムスさんはフランシスにこの仕事をしてもらいたがっている。
Adamusu-san wa Furanshisu ni kono shigoto o shite moraitagatte iru.
 (Mr. Adams wants Francis to do this job.)

[Related Expression]

The same idea can also be expressed by *Vte moraitai*. (⇒ *mora^u²; tai*) Example:

- [1] 私はあなたに英語を教えてもらいたい。
Watashi wa anata ni eigo o oshiete moraitai.
 (I want you to teach me English.)

This pattern can be used when the experiencer wants someone who has higher status to do something. In this case, *itadaku*, the humble version of *mora^u*, is used instead of *mora^u*. Example:

- [2] 私は吉田先生に来ていただきたい。
Watashi wa Yoshida-sensei ni kite itadakitai.
 (I would like Prof. Yoshida to come.)

ichiban 一番 *adv.*

a superlative marker

most

◆ Key Sentence

Noun		Subject		Adjective
クラス <i>Kurasu</i>	(の中) で (no naka) de	大川さん <i>Ōkawa-san</i>	が <i>ga</i>	一番 <i>ichiban</i> 頭 が いい。 <i>atama ga ii.</i>
(Mr. Okawa is the brightest in the class.)				

Formation

(i) 一番 *Adj (i / na)*
*ichiban*一番 {高い / 高かった} (s.t. is / was the highest)
ichiban {takai / takakatta}一番 {静かだ / 静かだった} (s.t. is / was the most quiet)
ichiban {shizukada / shizukadatta}(ii) 一番 {*Adj (i) stem く / Adj (na) stem に*}
ichiban *ku* *ni*一番 高く (most highly)
*ichiban takaku*一番 静かに (most quietly)
ichiban shizukani

Examples

(a) A : この中でどの映画が一番おもしろいですか。

Kono naka de dono eiga ga ichiban omoshiroidesu ka.

(Among these, which movie is the most interesting?)

B : この日本の映画でしょう。

Kono Nihon no eiga deshō.

(This Japanese movie, I guess.)

(b) A : 松本さんと池田さんと清水さんの中で、だれが一番(よく)出来ますか。

Matsumoto-san to Ikeda-san to Shimizu-san no naka de, dare ga ichiban (yoku) dekimasu ka.

(Among Mr. Matsumoto, Mr. Ikeda and Mr. Shimizu, who is the best student (lit. can do best)?)

B : 池田さんです。

Ikeda-san desu.

(Mr. Ikeda is.)

(c) 日本で一番きれいな所はどこですか。

Nihon de ichiban kireina tokoro wa doko desu ka.

(Lit. Where is the most scenic place in Japan? (=Which place is the most scenic in Japan?))

Note

Ichiban cannot be affixed directly to a noun as in **ichiban sensei*, meaning ‘the best teacher’. It should precede an adjective, as in *ichiban ii sensei*. If the meaning is predictable, however, the adverbial form of adjectives, esp. *yoku* ‘well, frequently’, may be omitted, as in Ex. (b).



iku¹ 行く v. (Gr. 1)

S.o. or s.t. moves in a direction away
from the speaker or the speaker's
viewpoint. } go; come
[REL. *kuru¹*]

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)		Noun (direction)		
田中さん <i>Tanaka-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	来週 <i>raishū</i>	アメリカ <i>Amerika</i>	へ / に <i>e / ni</i>
(Mr. Tanaka is going to America next week.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)	N (location)		N (location)		N (means)		
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	東京 <i>Tōkyō</i>	から <i>kara</i>	大阪 <i>Ōsaka</i>	まで <i>made</i>	バス <i>basu</i>	で <i>de</i>
(I went from Tokyo to Osaka by bus.)							行った / <i>itta</i> / 行きました。 <i>ikimashita</i> .

Examples

(a) 私は毎朝八時に会社に行く。

Watashi wa maiasa hachiji ni kaisha ni iku.

(I go to work (lit. my company) at eight every morning.)

(b) A : 今晚私のうちでパーティーをしますが来ませんか。

Konban watashi no uchi de pāti o shimasu ga kimasen ka.

(We are going to have a party at my place tonight. Wouldn't you like to come?)

B : はい、行きます。

Hai, ikimasu.

(Yes, I'll come (lit. go).)

(c) あなたにもその知らせは行きましたか。

Anata ni mo sono shirase wa ikimashita ka.

(Lit. Did the notice go to you, too? (=Did you get the notice, too?))

(d) その村にもバスは行っている。

Sono mura ni mo basu wa itte iru.

(The bus goes to the village, too.)

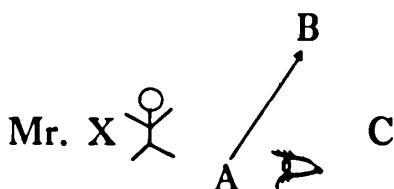
Notes

1. *iku*¹ is used when someone or something moves in a direction away from the speaker or in a direction away from the speaker's viewpoint, which is not necessarily the speaker's position. (\Rightarrow *kuru*¹) For example, in the following situation, *iku* is used when the speaker (point C) places his viewpoint near point A.

(1) XさんはBに行った。

X-san wa B ni itta.

(Mr. X went to B.)



2. When someone goes to his own “home base” (e.g., *uchi* ‘home’), *uchi ni iku* is ungrammatical. In this case, *kaeru* ‘return’ is used as in *uchi ni kaeru* ‘go home’.
3. There are cases where both *kuru* and *iku* can be used with different shades of meaning. Examples:

(2) 君のうちに息子が来ませんでした / 行きませんでしたか。

Kimi no uchi ni musuko ga kimasendeshita / ikimasendeshita ka.

(Didn't my son go to your house?)

(3) [The speaker lives in San Francisco and is calling his friend in New York who is coming to Los Angeles.]

スミスさんは来月ロサンゼルスに来る / 行くそうですね。

Sumisu-san wa raigetsu Rosuanjerusu ni kuru / iku sōdesu ne.

(Mr. Smith, I was told that you're coming to Los Angeles next month.)



In (2), when the speaker uses *kuru*, he is putting himself psychologically in the addressee's location; when he uses *iku*, he is not. In (3), *kuru* is more appropriate than *iku* because, in general, a speaker is more empathetic with a location close to his own. The choice of *iku* here definitely implies that the speaker is unusually unempathetic with his neighboring location.

iku² 行く aux. v. (Gr. 1)

Some action or state keeps changing from the point in time at which the speaker first describes the action.

go on ~ing; continue; grow;
become
【REL. *kuru²*】

◆ Key Sentence

		Vte	
これ から は <i>Kore kara wa</i>	寒く <i>samuku</i>	なって <i>nette</i>	行く / 行きます よ。 <i>iku / ikimasu yo.</i>

(It will get colder (and continue to be that way) from now on.)

Formation

Vte 行く
iku

話して 行く (s.o. continues to talk)
hanashite iku

食べて 行く (s.o. continues to eat)
tabete iku

Examples

(a) これからは毎日本を一冊読んで行くつもりです。

Kore kara wa mainichi hon o issatsu yonde iku tsumori desu.

(I intend to keep reading one book a day from now on.)

(b) これからは暖かくなって行きますよ。

Kore kara wa atatakaku natte ikimasu yo.

(It will grow warmer (and continue in that way) from now on.)

(c) その頃から日本の経済は強くなって行った。

Sono koro kara Nihon no keizai wa tsuyoku natte itta.

(The Japanese economy grew stronger (and continued to grow that way) from that time on.)

(d) 分からないことをノートに書いて行った。

Wakaranai koto o nōto ni kaite itta.

(I went on taking notes on things I didn't understand.)

Notes

1. The point in time at which the action starts is the present time in Exs. (a) and (b) and the past in Exs. (c) and (d), respectively.
2. The following examples use *iku* as a full verb meaning 'to go', and are not the usage of *iku*².

(1) 毎日会社にバスに乗って行く。

Mainichi kaisha ni basu ni notte iku.

(Lit. I ride a bus every day and go to my company. (=I go to work every day by bus.))

- (2) あのレストランでコーヒーを飲んで行きましょう。

Ano resutoran de kōhi o nonde ikimashō.

(Lit. Let's drink coffee at that restaurant and go. (=Let's drink coffee at that restaurant and then continue on our way.))

【Related Expression】

When a change of state is expressed by *iku²*, as in Exs. (b) and (c), *iku²* can be replaced by *kuru²*, as in [1a] and [1b] below.

- [1] a. これからは暖かくなつて来ますよ。

Kore kara wa atatakaku natte kimasu yo.

(It will grow warmer from now on.)

- b. その頃から日本の経済は強くなつて來た。

Sono koro kara Nihon no keizai wa tsuyoku natte kita.

(The Japanese economy grew stronger from that time on.)



The *iku²* versions here are more impersonal and objective than the *kuru²* versions. The latter versions stress that some change is going to involve or has involved the speaker himself, while the former versions are impersonal statements.

iru¹ いる v. (Gr. 2)

{ An animate thing exists. }

be; exist; stay

【REL. *aru¹*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (location)	Subject		Quantifier	
この町 <i>Kono machi</i>	(に)は <i>(ni) wa</i>	日本人 <i>nihonjin</i>	が <i>ga</i>	たくさん <i>takusan</i>
(Lit. In this town are many Japanese. (=There are many Japanese in this town.))				

(B)

Topic (subject)	Noun (location)			
リー Ri	は wa	この 寮 <i>kono ryo</i>	に ni	いる / います。 <i>iru / imasu.</i>
(Lee is in this dorm.)				

Examples

- (a) この動物園にはパンダがいます。
Kono dōbutsuen ni wa panda ga imasu.
 (There are pandas in this zoo.)
- (b) スチーブはいまロビンのアパートにいる。
Suchibu wa ima Robin no apāto ni iru.
 (Steve is in Robin's apartment now.)

Notes

1. *Iru*¹ expresses existence in terms of animal life. It cannot be used for plant life or inanimate things. Thus, the following sentence is ungrammatical.

- (1) *このキャンパスには木がたくさんいる。
**Kono kyanpasu ni wa ki ga takusan iru.*
 (There are many trees on this campus.)

For plants and inanimate things, *aru* is used. (⇒ *aru*¹)

2. Two sentence patterns can be used with *iru*¹. In the KS(A) pattern, a location is presented as the topic and what exists there is under focus. In this pattern the location marker *ni* can optionally drop. In the KS(B) pattern, on the other hand, what exists is presented as the topic and where it exists is under focus. (⇒ *aru*¹, Note 3)

3. An animate thing or a group or organization of animate things such as a football team can also be in the location position, as seen in (2).

- (2) a. 私(に)は子供が三人いる。
Watashi (ni) wa kodomo ga sannin iru.
 (Lit. There are three children with me. (=I have three children.))
- b. このチーム(に)はいいクオーターバックがいる。
Kono chīmu (ni) wa ii kuōtābakku ga iru.

(Lit. There is a good quarterback in this team. (=This team has a good quarterback.))

iru² いる aux. v. (Gr. 2)

S.o. or s.t. is doing s.t. he or it started some time ago, or is in a state created by an action he or it took some time ago.

be ~ing; have done (s.t.)
【REL. *aru²*】



◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)		Vte	
佐々木さん <i>Sasaki-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	酒を <i>sake o</i>	飲んで <i>nonde</i>

(Mr. Sasaki is drinking *sake*.)

Formation

Vte いる
iru

話して いる (be talking)
hanashite iru

食べて いる (be eating)
tabete iru

Examples

- (a) 和江は新聞を読んでいる。
Kazue wa shinbun o yonde iru.
(Kazue is reading a newspaper.)
- (b) このりんごはくさっている。
Kono ringo wa kusatte iru.
(This apple is rotten.)

- (c) 木が倒れている。
Ki ga taorete iru.
 (A tree has fallen down (and is lying there).)
- (d) 私は鈴木さんを知っています。
Watashi wa Suzuki-san o shitte imasu.
 (I know Miss Suzuki.)

Notes

1. *Iru* is used as an auxiliary verb with *Vte* and expresses the continuation of an action or state. In general, if *Vte* expresses an action which can continue or be repeated, *Vte iru* expresses the continuation of the action. If *Vte* is a verb indicating a momentary action which cannot be repeated, *Vte iru* expresses the idea that something happened to X and X maintains the state which was created by that event. Exs. (a) are examples of the first usage and Exs. (b), (c) and (d) are examples of the second usage. Note in Ex. (d) that *shiru*, the dictionary form of *shitte*, means ‘to get to know’ and *shitte iru* expresses the continuation of the state after the speaker got to know Miss Suzuki, which is expressed by *know* in English. It is also noted, however, that ‘not to know’ is not *shitte inai*, but *shiranai*. (⇒ *shiru*)
2. *Vte iru* also expresses a habitual action, which is a special sort of repeated action. Example:
 - (1) 私は毎日四マイル走っている。
*Watashi wa mainichi yonmairu **hashitte** iru.*
 (I run four miles every day.)
3. When *Vte* is a motion verb such as *iku* ‘go’, *kuru* ‘come’ and *kaeru* ‘return’, the meaning of *Vte iru* is not ‘be ~ing’. For example, *itte iru* means ‘to have gone to some place and to still be there’. The sentences in (2) provide examples.
 - (2) a. 次郎はアメリカに行っている。
*Jirō wa Amerika ni **itte** iru.*
 (Jiro has gone to America and is there.)
 - b. ベックさんはもう家に帰っています。
*Bekku-san wa mō ie ni **kaette** imasu.*
 (Mr. Beck has already returned home and is there.)
4. The verb *sumu* ‘live’ requires the “*Vte iru*” pattern if the sentence ex-

presses a present state. Also, verbs like *iu* ‘say’ and *omou* ‘think’ with a third person subject require the “Vte *iru*” pattern if the sentence expresses a present state. Examples:

- (3) a. 私は東京に住んでいる / *住む。

*Watashi-wa Tōkyō ni sunde iru / *sumu.*

(I live in Tokyo.)

- b. ウエストさんは日本語はやさしいと思っている / *思う。

*Uesuto-san wa nihongo wa yasashii to omotte iru / *omou.*

(Mr. West thinks that Japanese is easy.)



iru³ いる v. (Gr. 1)

{ S.o. or s.t. needs s.t. } need

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (experiencer)	Necessary Object			
君たち Kimitachi	は wa	英和辞典 eiwa-jiten	が ga	いる / いります。 <i>iru / irimasu.</i>
(You need an English-Japanese dictionary.)				

Examples

- (a) 私は今お金がいる。

Watashi wa ima o-kane ga iru.

(I need money now.)

- (b) 何か道具がいりますか。

Nanika dōgu ga irimasu ka.

(Do you need some tools?)

- (c) この車はガソリンがたくさんいる。

Kono kuruma wa gasorin ga takusan iru.

(This car needs a lot of gas.)

Notes

1. *Iru* ‘need’ takes the *wa-ga* construction, where the experiencer (that

is, the person or thing that needs something) is followed by *wa* and the necessary object by *ga*.
 ($\Rightarrow \sim wa \sim ga$)

2. *Iru* ‘need’ is a Gr. 1 verb; thus, the negative form is *iranai*, the polite form is *irimasu* and the *te*-form is *itte*.
 (Cp. *iru*¹; *iru*²)
3. The experiencer can also take the particle *ni*, as in (1).

(1) a. この子にはいい家庭教師がいる。

Kono ko ni wa ii kateikyōshi ga iru.

(This child needs a good tutor. (Lit. For this child, a good tutor is necessary.))

b. このプロジェクトには人と金がいる。

Kono purojekuto ni wa hito to kane ga iru.

(This project needs people and money. (Lit. For this project people and money are necessary.))

4. In subordinate clauses, the experiencer is followed by either *ga* or *ni*, as in (2), unless the sentence is contrastive. (In that case, *wa* follows.)
 ($\Rightarrow wa^1$ (は))

(2) この車が / にガソリンがたくさんいることを知っていましたか。

Kono kuruma ga / ni gasorin ga takusan iru koto o shitte imashita ka.

(Did you know that this car needs a lot of gas?)

jibun¹ 自分 *pro.*

a reflexive pronoun that refers (back) to a human subject with whom the speaker is empathizing

~self; own
【REL. **jibun²**】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)				
土田 <i>Tsuchida</i>	は <i>wa</i>	幸子 が <i>Sachiko ga</i>	自分 <i>jibun</i>	を 愛していることを知らなかった / <i>o aishite iru koto o shiranakatta /</i> 知りませんでした。 <i>shirimasendeshita.</i>

(Tsuchida didn't know that Sachiko loved him (lit. himself).)



(B)

Sentence ₁		
ゆかり は 歩きながら 考えて いた。 <i>Yukari wa arukinagara kangaete ita.</i>		
(Yukari was walking while thinking.)		
Sentence ₂		
健一 は <i>Ken'ichi wa</i>	自分 <i>jibun</i>	が 本当に 好きな ん だろ う か。 <i>ga hontō ni sukina n darō ka.</i>
Does Kenichi really love me (lit. myself)?)		

Examples

(a) 中川は自分が京大に入れると思っていなかった。

Nakagawa wa jibun ga Kyōdai ni haireru to omotte inakatta.

(Nakagawa didn't think that he (lit. himself) could enter Kyoto University.)

(b) 一郎は冬子が自分に会いに来た時うちにいなかった。

Ichirō wa Fuyuko ga jibun ni ai ni kita uchi ni inakatta.

(Ichiro wasn't at home when Fuyuko came to see him (lit. himself).)

- (c) 道子は一男に自分の車で行かせた。

Michiko wa Kazuo ni jibun no kuruma de ikaseta.

(*Michiko made Kazuo go there in his / her own car.*)

- (d) ジョンはメアリーのことを思っていた。彼女は自分と結婚してくれるんだろうか。自分を捨てて、ボブと結婚するんだろうか。

Jon wa Meari no koto o omotte ita. Kanojo wa jibun to kekkonshite kureru n darō ka. Jibun o sutete, Bobu to kekkonsuru n darō ka.

(*John was thinking of Mary. Is she going to marry me (lit. myself)? Is she going to leave me (lit. myself) and marry Bob?*)

Notes

1. *Jibun*¹ is an empathy marker that normally refers back to the subject of the main clause as in KS(A), Exs. (a), (b) and (c), or to the discourse topic as in KS(B) and Ex. (d).

2. When *jibun* is an empathy marker, its referent (i.e., the subject of the sentence) is normally a passive experiencer. In other words, the referent is not an agent (i.e., someone who initiates and / or completes an action). (\Leftrightarrow *jibun*²)

3. Ex. (c) is an ambiguous sentence, because *jibun* can refer to either the main subject *Michiko* or to *Kazuo*. *Jibun*'s reference to *Kazuo* is not a counterexample of *jibun*'s strong tendency to refer to the subject, however, because *Kazuo* is semantically the subject of the verb *iku* 'go'. Also to be noted is that *Michiko* is an agent of the causative action, but *Kazuo* is a passive experiencer of the causative action. Indeed, it is easier to look at *Kazuo* as the object of the speaker's empathy, because he is a passive experiencer. It is very likely that *jibun* is not an empathy marker but a contrastive marker when it refers to an agent *Michiko*. Other similar ambiguous sentences follow:

- (1) a. 道子は一男に自分の車で行ってもらった。

Michiko wa Kazuo ni jibun no kuruma de itte moratta.

(Lit. *Michiko received from Kazuo a favor of going there in her / his own car.* (= *Michiko had Kazuo go there in her / his own car.*))

- b. 道子は一男に自分の車で行かれた。

Michiko wa Kazuo ni jibun no kuruma de ikareta.

(Lit. *Michiko is annoyed by the fact that Kazuo went there by her / his own car.* (= *Michiko had Kazuo go there in her / his own car.*))

Note that *jibun* in (1a, b) is an empathy marker when it refers to *Michiko* and is a contrastive marker when it refers to *Kazuo*. (\Rightarrow *jibun*²)

4. The referent of *jibun* in a complex sentence has to be conscious of the situation expressed in the main clause. Compare (2a) and (2b):

- (2) a. 友子は自分が死ぬ前に子供が大学に入った。

Tomoko wa jibun ga shinu mae ni kodomo ga daigaku ni haitta.

(Lit. Speaking of Tomoko, before she (lit. herself) died, her child entered college. (= Before Tomoko died, her child entered college.))

- b. *友子は自分が死んだあとで子供が大学に入った。

**Tomoko wa jibun ga shinda ato de kodomo ga daigaku ni haitta.*

(Lit. Speaking of Tomoko, after she (lit. herself) had died, her child entered college. (= After Tomoko died, her child entered college.))

The sentence (2b) is ungrammatical because one can hardly empathize with a dead person.



jibun² 自分 pro.

a reflexive pronoun that refers (back) to a human subject, the referent of which is contrasted with s.o. else

~self; own
【REL. *jibun*¹】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)			
日本人 <i>Nihonjin</i>	は <i>wa</i>	自分 <i>jibun</i>	の 国 の 文化 を ユニーク だ と 思って <i>no kuni no bunka o yuniku da to omotte</i> いる / います。 <i>iru / imasu.</i>

(The Japanese think that their country's culture is unique.)

(B)

Topic (subject, agent)			
メアリー <i>Meari</i>	は <i>wa</i>	自分 <i>jibun</i>	で 何 で も す る / し ま す。 <i>de nan demo suru / shimasu.</i>

(Mary does everything by herself.)

(C)

Topic (subject)			
一男 <i>Kazuo</i>	は <i>wa</i>	自分 <i>jibun</i>	を 励ました / 励ました。 <i>o hagemashita / hagemashimashita.</i>

(Kazuo braced himself.)

Examples

- (a) 自分を知ることが一番難しい。
Jibun o shiru koto ga ichiban muzukashii.
 (To know yourself is the hardest.)
- (b)マイクはいつも自分の寮の部屋で勉強している。
Maiku wa itsumo jibun no ryō no heya de benkyōshite iru.
 (Mike is always studying in his own dorm room.)
- (c) 小林は自分からしたいと言った。
Kobayashi wa jibun kara shitai to itta.
 (Kobayashi voluntarily (lit. from himself) said that he wanted to do it.)
- (d) 先生はご自分の家で私に会って下さった。
Sensei wa go-jibun no ie de watashi ni atte kudasatta.
 (The professor kindly met me at his own house.)



Note

Jibun is a contrastive marker if at least one of the following three conditions is met: (1) *its referent is an agent* (as in KSs (B), (C), Exs. (b), (c) and (d)). (2) *the subject is generic* (as in KS(A) and Ex. (a)). (3) *jibun cannot be replaced by an implicit third person pronoun (ø) or by an explicit third person pronoun* (such as *kare* ‘he’ and *kanojo* ‘she’). KS(C) satisfies the condition (3), because if *jibun* is replaced by ø or *kare* ‘he’, the meaning of the sentence changes into ‘Kazuo encouraged him.’

[Related Expression]

Jibun is *jibun*¹ if the referent does not satisfy any of the three conditions given in Note; if it satisfies at least one of them it is *jibun*².



ka¹ か *prt.*

{ a particle which marks an alternative } { (either) ~ or ~ [REL. *soretomo*] }

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Noun ₁		Noun ₂				Predicate
私 は <i>Watashi wa</i>	電車 <i>densha</i>	か	バス <i>basu</i>	(か) (<i>ka</i>)	で	<i>de</i>	行く / 行きます。 <i>iku / ikimasu.</i>

(I will go either by train or by bus.)

(B)

Sentence ₁ (informal)†		Sentence ₂ (informal)†		
トム が 行く <i>Tomu ga iku</i>	か <i>ka</i>	メアリー が 行く <i>Meari ga iku</i>	か <i>ka</i>	どちらか だ / です。 <i>dochiraka da / desu.</i>

(Either Tom will go or Mary will go.)

†*Da* after Adj(*na*) stem and N drops.**Formation**

KS(A):

N₁ か N₂ (か)
ka (*ka*)

先生 か 学生 (か) (either a teacher or a student)
sensei ka gakusei (ka)

KS(B):

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf か
ka

{話す / 話した} か (either s.o. talks / talked or)
{ihanasu / hanashita} *ka*

{高い / 高かった} か (either s.t. is / was expensive or)
{takai / takakatta} *ka*

(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {ø / だった} か
{ø / datta} *ka*

{静か / 静かだった} か (either s.t. is / was quiet or)

{shizuka / shizukadatta} ka

{先生 / 先生 だった} か (either s.o. is / was a teacher or)

{sensei / sensei datta} ka

Examples

(a) 私は毎朝ジュースかミルクを飲む。

Watashi wa maiasa jūsu ka miruku o nomu.

(I drink either juice or milk every morning.)

(b) それはボブかマークがします。

Sore wa Bobu ka Māku ga shimasu.

(As for that, either Bob or Mark will do it.)

(c) 肉が高かったか一郎が肉がきらいだったかどちらかだ。

Niku ga takakatta ka Ichirō ga niku ga kiraidatta ka dochiraka da.

(Either meat was expensive or Ichiro didn't like meat.)

(d) 手紙を書くか電話をかけるかどちらかしてください。

Tegami o kaku ka denwa o kakeru ka dochiraka shite kudasai.

(Either write a letter or make a call, please.)

(e) 食べるか話すかどちらかにしなさい。

Taberu ka hanasu ka dochiraka ni shiniasai.

(Lit. Decide on either eating or talking. (=Just do one thing, eat or talk.))



Notes

1. The basic function of *ka* is to mark an alternative. It can mark either nouns or sentences. When it marks nouns, the final *ka* is usually omitted. When it marks sentences, the sentences are subordinate clauses; that is, they must be in the informal form. The topic marker *wa* must not be used.
2. *Ka* cannot be used to connect two questions. Thus, the following sentences are ungrammatical.

(1) a. *これはあなたのですか。か私のですか。

**Kore wa anata no desuka. Ka watashi no desu ka.*

(Is this yours or mine?)

b. *私と一緒に来ますか。かここにいますか。

**Watashi to isshoni kimasu ka. Ka koko ni imasu ka.*

(Will you come with me? Or will you stay here?)

In this case, *soretomo* is used instead of *ka*.

(⇒ *soretomo*)

[Related Expression]

Soretomo is also used with alternatives. However, the function of *soretomo* is to *connect* two alternatives, not to *mark* an alternative. Thus, *soretomo* appears with *ka*, not in place of *ka*. Examples:

[1] 肉が高かったか, それとも一郎が肉がきらいだったかどうかだ。

Niku ga takakatta ka, soretomo Ichirō ga niku ga kiraidatta ka dochiraka da.

(Either meat was expensive or Ichiro didn't like meat.)

[2] 私と一緒に来ますか。それともここにいますか。

Watashi to isshoni kimasu ka. Soretomo koko ni imasuka.

(Will you come with me? Or will you stay here?)

Soretomo is optional in [1], but not in [2].

ka*² か *prt.

a sentence-final particle which indicates that the preceding sentence is interrogative

whether; if
【REL. *dai* (*kai*)】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Sentence†	
よし子 は 大学 へ 行く / 行きます <i>Yoshiko wa daigaku e iku / ikimasu</i>	か。 <i>ka.</i>
(Is Yoshiko going to college?)	

†In informal speech, *da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N drops.

(B)

	Sentence (informal)†				
私はテリーに Watashi wa Teri ni	ナンシーが日本へ行く Nanshi ga Nihon e iku	か ka	と to	聞いた/ kiita / 聞きました。 kikimashita.	
(I asked Terry whether Nancy was going to Japan.)					

†Da after Adj (na) stem and N drops.

Formation(i) {V / Adj (i)} か
ka{話す / 話します} か (Will (or Does) s.o. talk? (informal / formal))
{hanasu / hanashimasu} ka{高い / 高いです} か (Is s.t. expensive? (informal / formal))
{takai / takaidesu} ka(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {ø / です} か
{ø / desu} ka{静か / 静かですか} か (Is s.t. quiet? (informal / formal))
{shizuka / shizukadesu} ka{先生 / 先生 ですか} か (Is s.o. a teacher? (informal / formal))
{sensei / sensei desu} ka**Examples**

(a) あなたは学生ですか。

Anata wa gakusei desu ka.

(Are you a student?)

(b) これは何ですか。

Kore wa nan desu ka.

(What is this?)

(c) 友達は漢字が難しいかと聞いた。

Tomodachi wa kanji ga muzukashii ka to kiita.

(My friend asked if kanji is difficult.)

(d) 私はジャンにだれが来たかとたずねた。

Watashi wa Jan ni dare ga kita ka to tazuneta.

(I asked Jan who had come.)



- (e) 僕は山崎先生がきのう何を言ったか忘れてしまった。
Boku wa Yamazaki-sensei ga kinō nani o itta ka wasurete shimatta.
(I've forgotten (completely) what Prof. Yamazaki said yesterday.)
- (f) 私は健二にお金を貸したかどうか思い出せない。
Watashi wa Kenji ni o-kane o kashita ka dō ka omoidasenai.
(I cannot remember if I lent Kenji some money.)

Notes

1. The question marker *ka* is a special use of the *ka* which marks an alternative (i.e., *ka¹*). For example, KS(A) came from (1), with the parenthesized part omitted. ($\Leftrightarrow ka^1$)

(1) よし子は大学へ行きますか。(それとも行きませんか。)
Yoshiko wa daigaku e ikimasu ka. (Soretomo ikimasen ka.)
(Is Yoshiko going to college? (Or is she not?))
2. Unless it is very informal, an interrogative sentence is marked by *ka* whether it is a yes-no question or a WH-question. ($\Leftrightarrow dai; kai$) Note that in Japanese interrogative sentences, the word order is the same as that of the corresponding declarative sentence. Also, an interrogative sentence is pronounced with rising intonation whether it is a yes-no question or a WH-question.
3. *Ka* remains in indirect questions as in KS(B), Exs. (c) and (d).
4. When the informal forms of *na*-type adjectives and the copula precede the question marker *ka*, *da* drops. A possible reason is that *da*, the informal form of *desu*, expresses a strong assertion and it conflicts with the question marker *ka*, which expresses the speaker's uncertainty about something. ($\Leftrightarrow kai; kamoshirenai; kashira$)

ka (dō ka) か(どうか) prt.

a marker for an embedded yes-no question

whether or not; if (~ or not)

◆ Key Sentence

Embedded Yes-No Question (informal)†		Verb (cognition)
鈴木さん が 大学 に 入った か <i>Suzuki-san ga daigaku ni haitta ka</i>	(どう か) (は) (<i>dō ka</i>) (<i>wa</i>)	知らない / 知りません。 <i>shiranai</i> / <i>shirimassen</i> .
(I don't know whether or not Mr. Suzuki entered college.)		

†*Da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N drops.

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf か (どう か)
 ka (*dō ka*)

{話す / 話した} か (どう か) (whether or not s.o. talks / talked)
{*hanasu* / *hanashita*} *ka* (*dō ka*)

{高い / 高かった} か (どう か) (whether or not s.t. is / was expensive)
{*takai* / *takakatta*} *ka* (*dō ka*)

(ii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N} {ø / だった} か (どう か)
 {ø / *datta*} *ka* (*dō ka*)

{静か / 静かだった} か (どう か) (whether or not s.t. is / was quiet)
{*shizuka* / *shizukadatta*} *ka* (*dō ka*)

{先生 / 先生 だった} か (どう か) (whether or not s.o. is / was a teacher)
{*sensei* / *sensei datta*} *ka* (*dō ka*)



Examples

- (a) 小川さんが結婚しているかどうか知っていますか。
Ogawa-san ga kekkonshite iru ka dō ka shitte imasu ka.
(Do you know if Mr. Ogawa is married or not?)
- (b) フォークナーの小説がおもしろいかどうか知らない。
Fōkunā no shōsetsu ga omoshiroi ka dō ka shiranai.
(I don't know if Faulkner's novels are interesting.)
- (c) 山口先生がお元気かどうか存じません。
Yamaguchi-sensei ga o-genki ka dō ka zonjimasen.
(I don't know if Prof. Yamaguchi is healthy.)

Notes

- When the optional *dō ka* is used, the embedded question has to be a yes-no question. If it is not used, then the question can be either a yes-no question or a WH-question.

- (1) レストランで何を食べたか / *かどうか覚えてますか。
Resutoran de nani o tabeta ka / **ka dō ka oboete imasu ka.*
 (Do you remember what you ate at the restaurant?)
- (2) その時だれと一緒にいたか / *かどうか覚えてますか。
Sono toki dare to issconi ita ka / **ka dō ka oboete imasu ka.*
 (Do you remember who you were with at that time?)
2. Typical final verbs include, among others, verbs of knowing, examining, understanding, asking, remembering, and deciding.
3. Sinf *ka* (*dō ka*) can be used as a noun phrase that takes particles such as *ga* and *o*.
- (3) 仕事をやめるかどうかが問題だった。
Shigoto o yameru ka dō ka ga mondai datta.
 (Whether or not to quit the job was the question.)
- (4) 大学院に行くかどうかを今考えています。
Daigakuin ni iku ka dō ka o ima kangaete imasu.
 (I'm now thinking about whether or not I will go to graduate school.)

kai かい *prt.*

a sentence-final particle which marks
yes-no questions in informal male
speech

【REL. *dai* (*ka²*)】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Sentence (informal)†	
日本語 は おもしろい <i>Nihongo wa omoshiroi</i>	かい。 <i>kai.</i>
(Is Japanese interesting?)	

†*Da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N drops.

(B)

Sentence (informal)†		
上野さん は アメリカ へ 行く Ueno-san wa Amerika e iku	の no	かい。 kai.
(Is Mr. Ueno going to America?)		

†Da after Adj (na) stem and N changes to na.

Formation

KS(A):

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf かい
kai{話す / 話した} かい (Does (or Will) / Did s.o. talk?)
{hanasu / hanashita} kai{高い / 高かった} かい (Is / Was s.t. expensive?)
{takai / takakatta} kai(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {ø / だった} かい
{ø / datta} kai{静か / 静かだった} かい (Is / Was s.t. quiet?)
{shizuka / shizukadatta} kai{先生 / 先生 だった} かい (Is / Was s.o. a teacher?)
{sensei / sensei datta} kai

KS(B):

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf の かい
no kai{話す / 話した} の かい (Does (or Will) / Did s.o. talk?)
{hanasu / hanashita} no kai{高い / 高かった} の かい (Is / Was s.t. expensive?)
{takai / takakatta} no kai(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {な / だった} の かい
{na / datta} no kai{静かな / 静かだった} の かい (Is / Was s.t. quiet?)
{shizukana / shizukadatta} no kai{先生 な / 先生 だった} の かい (Is / Was s.o. a teacher?)
{sensei na / sensei datta} no kai

Examples

(a) 日本語を勉強するかい。

Nihongo o benkyōsuru kai.

(Will you study Japanese?)

(b) このアパートは静かかい。

Kono apāto wa shizuka kai.

(Is this apartment quiet?)

(c) 君達は学生かい。

Kimitachi wa gakusei kai.

(Are you students?)

(d) その本は難しいかい。

Sono hon wa muzukashii no kai.

(Is the book difficult?)

(e) あの人は先生なのかい。

Ano hito wa sensei na no kai.

(Is that person a teacher?)

Notes

1. Since *kai* is used in informal speech, preceding sentences must be in the informal form. The following sentences are unacceptable.

(1) a. *日本語はおもしろいです(の)かい。

**Nihongo wa omoshiroidesu (no) kai.*

(Is Japanese interesting?)

b. *上野さんはアメリカへ行きます(の)かい。

**Ueno-san wa Amerika e ikimasu (no) kai.*

(Is Mr. Ueno going to America?)

2. *Kai* is used only for yes-no questions. Thus, the following sentences are ungrammatical.

(2) a. *どこへ行く(の)かい。

**Doko e iku (no) kai.*

(Where are you going?)

b. *あの人はだれ(なの)かい。

**Ano hito wa dare (na no) kai.*

(Who is that person?)

(In these sentences, *dai* is used. (⇒ *dai*))

3. Questions in the KS(A) pattern and those in the KS(B) pattern correspond to questions without *no desu* and those with *no desu* in formal speech, respectively. ($\Rightarrow no\ da$)

4. Questions in female informal speech can be formed by dropping *kai* in male informal questions and using rising intonation. Examples:

(3) a. 日本語はおもしろい(の)?

Nihongo wa omoshiroi (no)?

(Is Japanese interesting?)

b. 上野さんはアメリカへ行く(の)?

Ueno-san wa Amerika e iku (no)?

(Is Mr. Ueno going to America?)

c. あの人は先生(なの)?

Ano hito wa sensei (na no)?

(Is that person a teacher?)

For a summary of the endings for informal questions, see *dai*, Related Expression.



kamoshirenai かもしれない aux. adj (i)

{ can't tell if ~ } { might }
 【REL. *darō*; *ni chigainai*; *sōda²*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

	Vinf	
午後 雨 が <i>Gogo ame ga</i>	降る <i>furu</i>	かもしれない / かもしれません。 <i>kamoshirenai</i> / <i>kamoshiremasen</i> .
(It might rain in the afternoon.)		

(B)

	Adj (i) inf	
あの 先生 の 授業 は <i>Ano sensei no jugyō wa</i>	つまらない <i>tsumaranai</i>	かもしれない / かもしれません。 <i>kamoshirenai / kamoshiremasen.</i>
(That teacher's class might be dull.)		

(C)

	Adj (na) stem	
京都 の 桜 は まだ <i>Kyōto no sakura wa mada</i>	きれい <i>kirei</i>	かもしれない / かもしれません。 <i>kamoshirenai / kamoshiremasen.</i>
(The cherry blossoms in Kyoto might still be beautiful.)		

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf かもしれない
kamoshirenai

{話す / 話した} かもしれない (s.o. might talk / might have talked)
{hanasu / hanashita} *kamoshirenai*

{高い / 高かった} かもしれない (s.t. might be high / might have been
{takai / takakatta} *kamoshirenai* high)

(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {ø / だった} かもしれない
kamoshirenai

{静か / 静かだった} かもしれない (s.t. might be quiet / might have
{shizuka / shizukadatta} *kamoshirenai* been quiet)

{先生 / 先生 だった} かもしれない (s.o. might be a teacher / might
{sensei / sensei datta} *kamoshirenai* have been a teacher)

Examples

(a) 今年の冬は大変寒くなるかもしれません。

Kotoshi no fuyu wa taihen samuku naru kamoshiremasen.

(It might be very cold this winter.)

(b) あの人は今日のパーティーのことを忘れたかもしれません。

Ano hito wa kyō no pāti no koto o wasureta kamoshiremasen.

(He might have forgotten about today's party.)

(c) この映画はあなたにはつまらないかもしれません。

Kono eiga wa anata ni wa tsumaranai kamoshiremasen.

(This movie might be uninteresting for you.)

(d) 中国語の文法は日本語の文法より簡単かもしれない。
Chūgokugo no bunpō wa nihongo no bunpō yori kantan kamoshirenai.

(Chinese grammar might be simpler than Japanese grammar.)

(e) あれは鈴木先生かもしれないよ。

Are wa Suzuki-sensei kamoshirenai yo.

(That might be Prof. Suzuki.)

【Related Expressions】

I. The probability of accuracy predicted by a *kamoshirenai* sentence is lower than that of a *darō* sentence and much lower than that of a *ni chigainai* sentence as diagrammed below:

low probability ←————→ high probability
kamoshirenai < darō < ni chigainai

The Japanese weatherman on radio or TV, for example, employs *deshō* (the formal version of *darō*) in his forecasts as in the following:

[1] 関東地方、あすは小雨が一日中降るでしょう。

Kantō-chihō, asu wa kosame ga ichinichijū furu deshō.

(Tomorrow, in the Kanto area it will probably be drizzling all day long.)



II. Vmasu / Adj (*i* / *na*) stem *sōda* is used when the speaker's conjecture is based primarily on visual or other perceptual evidence, but *kamoshirenai* is not; rather the latter is used when that conjecture is based on logical reasoning. Thus,

[2] あっ！ このケーキ(は)おいしそうですね。

A! Kono kēki (wa) oishi sōdesu ne.

(Look, this cake looks good, doesn't it?)

[3] *あっ！ このケーキ(は)おいしいかもせんね。

**A! Kono kēki (wa) oishi kamoshiremasen ne.*

(*Look, this cake might be good, might it not?)

(⇒ *yōda*)

kara¹ から *prt.*

a particle which indicates a starting point or a source

from; since; out of
【REL. *ni*³; *o*³】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)	Noun		
パーティー <i>Pāti</i>	は <i>wa</i>	八時 <i>hachiji</i>	から <i>kara</i>
(The party starts at (lit. from) eight o'clock.)			

Examples

- (a) 今日の授業は一時から三時までです。
Kyō no jugyō wa ichiji kara sanji made desu.
 (Today's class is from one o'clock till three o'clock.)
- (b) このバスはニューヨークから来た。
Kono basu wa Nyūyōku kara kita.
 (This bus came from New York.)
- (c) ここから富士山が見えるよ。
Koko kara Fujisan ga mieru yo.
 (You can see Mt. Fuji from here.)
- (d) そのタイプライターはだれから借りたんですか。
Sono taipuraitā wa dare kara karita n desu ka.
 (Who did you borrow the typewriter from?)
- (e) 酒は米から作る。
Sake wa kome kara tsukuru.
 (Sake is made out of rice.)
- (f) つまらないことからけんかになった。
Tsumaranai koto kara kenka ni natta.
 (Lit. It became a quarrel from a trifle. (=We started to quarrel over a trifle.))

Note

Kara basically indicates a temporal or spatial starting point (Exs. (a), (b) and (c)) or a source (Exs. (d), (e) and (f)). As seen in Exs. (d), (e) and (f), a source can be a person, material, a cause or a reason.

kara² から conj.

after / since a point in time at which
s.t. takes place

after; having done s.t.; since
(time)
【REL. *ato de*; te-form of verb】

◆ Key Sentence

	Vte		
雪子 は 晩ご飯 を <i>Yukiko wa bangohan o</i>	食べて <i>tabete</i>	から <i>kara</i>	映画 に 行った / 行きました。 <i>eiga ni itta / ikimashita.</i>
(After eating her supper, Yukiko went to a movie.)			

Formation

Vte から
kara

話して から (after talking)
hanashite kara

食べて から (after eating)
tabete kara

**Examples**

(a) 私は友達に電話してからうちを出た。

Watashi wa tomodachi ni denwashite kara uchi o deta.

(I left home after making a call to my friend.)

(b) ジョーンズさんはいつもシャワーを浴びてから寝ます。

Jōnzu-san wa itsumo shawā o abite kara nemasu.

(Mr. Jones always goes to bed after taking a shower.)

(c) 私達がこの家を買ってからもう十年になる。

Watashitachi ga kono ie o katte kara mō jūnen ni naru.

(It's already been ten years since we bought this house.)

(d) 二年前に交通事故を起こしてから、ミラーさんは車に乗らないようにしています。

Ninen mae ni kōtsūjiko o okoshite kara, Mirā-san wa kuruma ni noranai yōni shite imasu.

(Since he caused a traffic accident two years ago, Mr. Miller has been trying not to drive a car.)

Notes

1. *Vte kara S* means ‘S after doing s.t.’ or ‘S since ~ did s.t.’ The usage of *kara*² is an extended use of *kara*¹.

2. *Te kara* is not to be confused with *ta kara* in which *kara* is used as a conjunction of cause / reason. (⇒ *kara*³)

(1) a. ジョギングをしてからシャワーを浴びた。

Jogingu o shite kara shawā o abita.

(After jogging, I took a shower.)

b. ジョギングをしたからシャワーを浴びた。

Jogingu o shita kara shawā o abita.

(Because I jogged, I took a shower.)

[Related Expression]

Kara in *Vte kara* can be omitted if the main verb does not indicate a high degree of volitional control on the part of the speaker as in the cases of a strong suggestion, determination or a command. Thus, in KS and Exs. (a), (b) and (c) *kara* can drop, but in Ex. (d), [1a] and [2a] it cannot.

[1] a. 勉強が終わってからテニスをしましょう。

Benkyō ga owaratte kara tenisu o shimashō.

(Let's play tennis after we've finished studying.)

b. *勉強が終わって、テニスをしましょう。

**Benkyō ga owaratte, tenisu o shimashō.*

(*We've finished studying, and let's play tennis.)

[2] a. 勉強が終わってから遊びなさい。

Benkyō ga owaratte kara asobinasai.

(Play after you've finished studying.)

b. *勉強が終わって遊びなさい。

**Benkyō ga owaratte asobinasai.*

(*You've finished studying, and play.)

The difference between *te kara* and *te* is that the former focuses more on chronological order and volitional planning than the latter does.

kara³ から conj.

{ a subordinate conjunction which expresses a reason or a cause } so; since; because
【REL. node】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subordinate Clause (reason / cause)	Main Clause
来年 日本 へ 行く <i>Rainen Nihon e iku</i>	から <i>kara</i> 日本語 を 勉強して いる / い ます。 <i>nihongo o benkyōshite iru / imasu.</i>
(I'm studying Japanese because I'm going to Japan next year.)	

(B)

A:
どうして 日本語 を 勉強して いる ん {だ / です か}。 <i>Dō shite nihongo o benkyōshite iru n {da / desu ka}.</i>
(Why are you studying Japanese?)

B: Sentence (informal)		
来年 日本 へ 行く <i>Rainen Nihon e iku</i>	から <i>kara</i>	だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>
(It's because I'm going to Japan next year.)		

Formation

KS(B):

Sinf から
kara{話す / 話した} から (because s.o. (will) talk / talked)
{hanasu / hanashita} *kara*{高い / 高かった} から (because s.t. is / was expensive)
{takai / takakatta} *kara*{静かだ / 静かだった} から (because s.t. is / was quiet)
{shizukada / shizukadatta} *kara*

{先生 だ / 先生 だった} から (because s.o. is / was a teacher)
 {sensei da / sensei datta} kara

Examples

- (a) 春子は十七だからまだお酒を飲めない。
Haruko wa jūshichi da kara mada o-sake o nomenai.
 (Haruko is seventeen, so she can't drink *sake* yet.)
- (b) 今日は忙しいですからあした来てください。
Kyō wa isogashii desu kara ashita kite kudasai.
 (Please come tomorrow because I'm busy today.)
- (c) A : どうしてきのう学校を休んだんですか。
Dō shite kinō gakkō o yasunda n desu ka.
 (Why were you absent from school yesterday?)
 B : 頭が痛かったからです。
Atama ga itakatta kara desu.
 (It was because I had a headache.)

Notes

1. S *kara* represents a reason or a cause. Thus, S₁ *kara* S₂ corresponds to ‘S₂ because / since S₁’, ‘Because / since S₁, S₂’, or ‘S₁, so S₂’. Note that the order of S₁ and S₂ is not always the same in English, while in Japanese *kara* clauses (i.e., S₁) always precede main clauses (i.e., S₂).
2. In subordinate clauses predicates are usually in the informal form. However, since the degree of subordination or dependency of S₁ in “S₁ *kara* S₂” is rather low, S₁ may be in the formal form in very formal speech, as in Ex. (b).
3. When a main clause is known to the hearer from the context, the KS(B) pattern is used. In this case, the *kara* clause must be in the informal form. The following sentence is unacceptable.
 - (1) *来年日本へ行きますからだ / です。
**Rainen Nihon e ikimasu kara da / desu.*
 (It's because I'm going to Japan next year.)
4. In question-and-answer situations as in KS(B) and Ex. (c), abbreviated forms are occasionally used. For example, speaker B may say (2) in the KS(B) situation.
 - (2) 来年日本へ行きますから。
Rainen Nihon e ikimasu kara.
 (Because I'm going to Japan next year.)

In this sentence, the main clause *nihongo o benkyō shite imasu* ‘I’m studying Japanese’ has been omitted.

kashira かしら *prt.*

a sentence-final particle which expresses the idea that the female speaker wonders about s.t. I wonder

◆ Key Sentence

Sentence (informal)†	
松本さん は 来る Matsumoto-san wa <i>kuru</i>	かしら。 <i>kashira.</i>
(I wonder if Mr. Matsumoto will come.)	



†*Da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N drops.

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf かしら
kashira

{話す / 話した} かしら (I wonder s.o. (will) talk / talked)
{*hanasu* / *hanashita*} *kashira*

{高い / 高かった} かしら (I wonder s.t. is / was expensive)
{*takai* / *takakatta*} *kashira*

(ii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N} {Ø / だった} かしら
{Ø / *datta*} *kashira*

{静か / 静かだった} かしら (I wonder s.t. is / was quiet)
{*shizuka* / *shizukadatta*} *kashira*

{先生 / 先生 だった} かしら (I wonder s.o. is / was a teacher)
{*sensei* / *sensei datta*} *kashira*

Examples

- (a) あの先生の授業はおもしろいかしら。
Ano sensei no jūgō wa omoshiroi kashira.
(I wonder if that teacher's class is interesting.)
- (b) 幸子さんは何が好きかしら。
Sachiko-san wa nani ga suki kashira.
(I wonder what Sachiko likes.)
- (c) あの人はだれかしら。
Ano hito wa dare kashira.
(I wonder who that person is.)

Notes

1. Etymologically, *kashira* comes from *ka shiranai* ‘I don't know (if) ~’, but now expresses the idea “I wonder”.
2. *Kashira* is usually used by female speakers in rather informal speech. The male version is *kanā*, which is used only in fairly informal situations. The formation rules of *kanā* are exactly the same as those for *kashira*.
3. Sfml *kashira* is acceptable if the situation is very formal. Example:
 - (1) そこは静かですかしら。
Soko wa shizukadesu kashira.
(I wonder if that place is quiet.)
4. Since *kashira* and *kanā* mean ‘I wonder’ (present tense), they cannot be used for expressions like “I wondered” and “Mr. Smith wondered”. For such expressions, “A wa Sinf *kashira / kanā to omou*” is used. Here, A is the person who wonders; *to omou* literally means ‘think that’. Examples:
 - (2) a. 私は松本さんは来るかしらと思った。
Watashi wa Matsumoto-san wa kuru kashira to omotta.
(I wondered if Mr. Matsumoto would come.)
 - b. 山本さんは小川さんは先生かしらと思った。
Yamamoto-san wa Ogawa-san wa sensei kashira to omo-tta.
(Ms. Yamamoto wondered if Mr. Ogawa was a teacher.)

-kata 方 suf.

a noun-forming suffix that indicates a way or a manner in which one does s.t.	a way of; a manner of; how to 【REL. <i>hōhō</i> 】
---	--

◆ Key Sentence

Vmasu			
ケーキ の <i>Kēki no</i>	作り 方 <i>tsukuri kata</i>		を 教えて ください。 <i>o oshiete kudasai.</i>
(Please show me how to make a cake.)			

FormationVmasu 方
*kata*話し 方 (way / manner of speaking)
*hanashikata*食べ 方 (way / manner of eating)
tabekata**Examples**

- (a) この漢字の書き方が分かりません。
Kono kanji no kakikata ga wakarimasen.
(I don't know how to write this *kanji*.)
- (b) あの人の歩き方はおもしろいですね。
Ano hito no arukikata wa omoshiroidesu ne.
(His manner of walking is amusing, isn't it?)
- (c) 日本語の勉強の仕方を教えてください。
Nihongo no benkyō no shikata o oshiete kudasai.
(Please teach me how to study Japanese language.)

Notes

1. Vmasu+kata is in itself ambiguous, meaning either 'way' or 'manner'. Thus,
 - (1) 飲み方が大事です。
Nomikata ga daijidesu.

is ambiguous: it means either ‘The way of drinking is important’ or ‘The manner in which one drinks is important.’ The separate meanings become clearer in an extended context:

(2) この薬は飲み方が大事です。必ず食前に飲んでください。
Kono kusuri wa nomikata ga daijidesu. Kanarazu shokuzen ni nonde kudasai.

(It’s important to know how to take this medicine. Be sure to take it before every meal.)

(3) スープは飲み方が大事です。
Sūpu wa nomikata ga daijidesu.
 (In eating soup the manner (in which one eats it) is important.)

2. Sino-Japanese *suru*-verbs such as *benkyō-suru* ‘study’, *denwa-suru* ‘telephone’, *ryōri-suru* ‘cook’, *setsumei-suru* ‘explain’ and *sōdan-suru* ‘consult’ need the particle *no* before *shikata* as in:

(4) 勉強 / 電話 / 料理 / 説明の仕方
benkyō / denwa / ryōri / setsumei no shikata
 (a way / manner of studying / telephoning / cooking / explanation)

【Related Expression】

Kata can be replaced by *hōhō* but only when *kata* means ‘a way of doing s.t.’ *Hōhō* roughly corresponds to the English word ‘method’; it means a relatively complicated way of doing s.t. Ex. (c) can be rewritten as [1].

[1] 日本語の勉強の方法を教えてください。
Nihongo no benkyō no hōhō o oshiete kudasai.
 (Please teach me a method for studying Japanese.)

kawari ni かわりに phr.

{ S.t. (including an action) replaces }
 { s.t. else. }

in place of ~; instead of; to make up for ~; although; but
 【REL. *keredo(mo)*; *shikashi*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Noun		Noun	Predicate
先生 <i>Sensei</i>	の かわり に <i>no kawari ni</i>	私 <i>watashi</i>	が 教えた / 教えました。 <i>ga oshietta / oshiemashita.</i>
(I taught in place of my teacher.)			

(B)

Sentence (informal)†		
土曜日 に 仕事 を する <i>Doyōbi ni shigoto o suru</i>	かわり に <i>kawari ni</i>	月曜日 は 休む / <i>getsuyōbi wa yasumu /</i> 休みます。 <i>yasumimasu.</i>
(To make up for working on Saturdays, I take Mondays off.)		

†*Da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N changes to *na* and *no*, respectively.

Formation

(i) N の かわり に
no kawari ni

先生 の かわり に (in place of the teacher)
sensei no kawari ni

(ii) {V / Adj (i)} inf かわり に
kawari ni

{話す / 話した} かわり に (instead of talking / talked but)
{hanasu / hanashita} kawari ni

{食べる / 食べた} かわり に (instead of eating / ate but)
{taberu / tabeta} kawari ni

{高い / 高かった} かわり に (s.t. is / was expensive but ~)
{takai / takakatta} kawari ni

(iii) Adj (na) stem {な / だった} かわり に
{na / datta} kawari ni

{静かな / 静かだった} かわり に (s.t. is / was quiet but ~)
{shizukana / shizukadatta} kawari ni

Examples

- (a) ピールのかわりに酒を買いました。
Biru no kawari ni sake o kaimashita.
(I bought *sake* instead of beer.)
- (b) わたしのかわりに父が行ってもいいですか。
Watashi no kawari ni chichi ga itte mo iidesu ka.
(Can my father go there in place of me?)
- (c) 今日は夜おそくまで踊るかわりにあしたは一日中勉強します。
Kyō wa yoru osoku made odoru kawari ni ashita wa ichinichijū benkyō-shimasu.
(I'll study all day tomorrow to make up for dancing until late tonight.)
- (d) 手伝ってあげるかわりに飲ませてくださいよ。
Tetsudatte ageru kawari ni nomasete kudasai yo.
(I'll help you, so (to make up for it) please (lit. let me drink) buy me a drink, OK?)
- (e) 僕のアパートは不便なかわりに家賃が安い。
Boku no apāto wa fubenna kawari ni yachin ga yasui.
(My apartment is inconvenient, but the rent is cheap.)
- (f) 英語を教えてあげたかわりに日本語を教えてもらった。
Eigo o oshiete ageta kawari ni nihongo o oshiete moratta.
(I taught him Japanese, so (to make up for it) he taught me English.)
- (g) その車は安かったかわりによく故障した。
Sono kuruma wa yasukatta kawari ni yoku koshōshita.
(That car was inexpensive, but it often broke down.)

Note

In $N_1 \text{ no } kawari \text{ ni } N_2$, N_2 is regarded as the substitute for N_1 , which is the originally intended item. In $S_1\text{inf } kawari \text{ ni } S_2$, an action or a state identified by S_2 takes place to make up for a counter-action or counter-state represented in S_1 .

[Related Expressions]

In $S_1 \text{ kawari ni } S_2$, *kawari ni* can be replaced by *keredo(mo)* ‘although’ or *shikashi* ‘but’. Note, however, that the converse is not always acceptable. Thus, *keredo(mo)* and *shikashi* in [1] below cannot be replaced by *kawari ni*, because the meaning of ‘making up for ~’ is missing, but the same conjunctions in [2] can be replaced by *kawari ni*, because the compensative meaning is present there.

- [1] 私は甘いものをたくさん食べるけれど(も)。しかし / *かわりに歯は強い。
*Watashi wa amai mono o takusan taberu keredo(mo) / . Shikashi / *kawari ni ha wa tsuyoi.*

(Although I eat a lot of sweets, I have strong teeth.)

- [2] 私は甘いものをたくさん食べるけれど(も)。しかし / かわりに歯をよく磨く。

Watashi wa amai mono o takusan taberu keredo(mo) / . Shikashi / kawari ni ha o yoku migaku.

(Although I eat a lot of sweets, I brush my teeth well.)

keredomo けれども conj.

a disjunctive subordinate conjunction that combines two sentences

although; though

【REL. *ga²* (*daga, dakedo, demo, shikashi*)】



◆ Key Sentence

Subordinate Clause (informal)	Main Clause
私 は 言わなかつた <i>Watashi wa iwanakatta</i>	けれども <i>keredomo</i>
トム は 知つて いた / いました。 <i>Tomu wa shitte ita / imashita.</i>	
(Although I didn't tell him, Tom knew (about it).)	

Formation

Sinf けれども
keredomo

{話す / 話した} けれども (Although s.o. (will) talk / talked)
 {hanasu / hanashita} *keredomo*

{高い / 高かった} けれども (Although s.t. is / was expensive)
 {takai / takakatta} *keredomo*

{静かだ / 静かだった} けれども (Although s.t. is / was quiet)
 {shizukada / shizukadatta} *keredomo*

{先生 だ / 先生 だった} けれども (Although s.o. is / was a teacher)
 {sensei da / sensei datta} *keredomo*

Examples

(a) この本は高いけれどもいい本ですよ。

Kono hon wa takai keredomo ii hon desu yo.

(Although it is expensive, this book is a good book.)

(b) 僕はドイツ語があまり好きじゃないけれども勉強しなければならない。

Boku wa doitsugo ga amari sukijanai keredomo benkyōshinakereba narai.

(Although I don't like German very much, I have to study it.)

(c) 大野さんは九十歳だけれどもとても元気だ。

Ōno-san wa kyūjussai da keredomo totomo genkida.

(Although Mr. Ono is ninety years old, he is very healthy.)

Notes

1. $S_1 \ keredomo \ S_2$ means 'Although S_1 , S_2 '. Here, $S_1 \ keredomo$ is a subordinate clause, therefore it is usually in the informal form. However, in very polite speech, S_1 can be in the formal form, as in (1).

(1) この本は高いですけれどもいい本ですよ。

*Kono hon wa **takaidesu** keredomo ii hon desu yo.*

(Although it is expensive, this book is a good book.)

2. The informal forms of *keredomo* (listed from least formal to most formal) are *kedo*<*kedomo*<*keredo*.

kikoeru 聞こえる v. (Gr. 2)

S.t. is passively and spontaneously audible. audible; (can) hear; it sounds
audible. 【REL. *kikeru*】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (experiencer)	Audible Object			
私 (に) は <i>Watashi</i> (ni) wa	うぐいすの声 <i>uguisu no koe</i>	が <i>ga</i>	よく <i>yoku</i>	聞こえる / 聞こえます。 <i>kikoeru / kikoemasu.</i>
(Lit. To me the cries of a nightingale are clearly audible. (=I can clearly hear the cries of a nightingale.))				

Examples

- (a) その音は小さすぎて聞こえない。
Sono oto wa chisasugite kikoenai.
 (That sound is too weak and is not audible.)
- (b) 大山さんの声は大きいので隣の部屋の人にもよく聞こえる。
Ōyama-san no koe wa ōkii node tonari no heya no hito ni mo yoku kikoeru.
 (Mr. Oyama's voice is so loud that people in the neighboring rooms can hear him.)
- (c) 私にはお寺のかねの音が聞こえたが、弟には聞こえなかった。
Watashi ni wa o-tera no kane no ne ga kikoeta ga, otōto ni wa kikoenakatta.
 (I could hear the sound of the temple bell, but my younger brother couldn't.)
- (d) テーラーさんの作った文は変に聞こえる。
Tērā-san no tsukutta bun wa hen ni kikoeru.
 (The sentences which Mr. Taylor made sound strange.)

[Related Expression]

Kikoeru is different from the regular potential form of *kiku* ‘hear’ (i.e., *kikeru*), in that the former indicates a passive, auditory potentiality, whereas the latter indicates that the speaker (or the subject of sentence) can hear sound not passively but actively. Thus,

- [1] 僕は耳が聞こえない / *聞けない。
*Boku wa mimi ga kikoenai / *kikenai.*
 (I am deaf.)
- [2] こんなに後ろに座るとよく聞こえない / *聞けないよ。
*Konna ni ushiro ni suwaru to yoku kikoenai / *kikenai yo.*
 (If we sit this far back, we won't be able to hear well.)
- [3] いいステレオを買ったからレコードが聞ける / *聞こえる。
*ii sutereo o katta kara rekōdo ga kikeru / *kikoeru.*
 (I bought a good stereo set, so I can listen to records.)
- [4] 音楽がうるさくて話が聞こえない / 聞けない。
Ongaku ga urusakute hanashi ga kikoenai / kikenai.
 (The music is so loud that the conversation is inaudible / we cannot hear the conversation.)



Note that in [4] both *kikeru* and *kikoeru* are possible, depending on the speaker's perception of the situation; if he perceives the situation to be inalterable, he uses *kikoeru*; if not, he uses *kikeru*.

kiraida きらいだ adj. (*na*)

S.t. or s.o. is what s.o. does not like.	don't like; dislike (ANT. <i>sukida</i>)
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◆ Key Sentence

Topic (experiencer)	Disliked Object				
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	チーズ <i>chizu</i>	が <i>ga</i>	きらいだ / きらいです。 <i>kiraida</i> / <i>kiraidesu</i> .	
(I don't like cheese.)					

Examples

(a) 僕は冬がきらいだ。

Boku wa fuyu ga kiraida.

(I dislike winter.)

(b) ホワイトさんはフットボールが大きらいです。

Howaito-san wa futtobōru ga dai-kiraidesu.

(Mr. White hates football.)

Notes

1. *Kiraida* is a *na*-type adjective which requires the “*wa-ga* construction”. (⇒ ~ *wa* ~ *ga*) The experiencer (i.e., the person who dislikes some thing) is marked by *wa* and the disliked object by *ga*. Note that the disliked object is marked by *ga*, not by *o*.
2. In subordinate clauses, *wa* marking the experiencer changes into *ga*, as seen in (1).