

# **A DICTIONARY OF BASIC JAPANESE GRAMMAR**

**日本語基本文法辞典**

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## Preface

This is a dictionary of basic Japanese grammar designed primarily for first and second year Japanese students and for teachers of Japanese. After having examined major textbooks being used in Japan and the United States we have chosen what we believe to be basic grammatical items. Our descriptions and explanations have incorporated the recent findings in Japanese linguistics which we felt were of practical significance.

We have spent three years and a half preparing this dictionary. Each of us initially prepared half of the original draft: approximately 200 entries. Upon completion of the first draft of the dictionary (i.e., Entries, Appendixes, Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, and Grammatical Terms), we closely examined, discussed and improved our individual drafts. Therefore, every part of this dictionary has virtually been written by both of us.

Naturally we owe a great deal to our predecessors whose works are listed in the references. Our heart-felt thanks go to them, although we could not acknowledge them individually in each entry where we used their insightful explanations. We would also like to acknowledge many profitable discussions with our colleagues at the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign and at the Summer Japanese School of Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont. For fear of omission, we would rather not attempt a comprehensive listing of names. Even so we would like to mention four individuals whose technical assistance has made it possible to publish this dictionary: First, Mr. Burr Nelson of the University of Illinois and Mrs. Sharon Tsutsui, who have edited our English and provided us with valuable comments and suggestions from the user's viewpoint; also, Mr. Mamoru Yoshizawa, who has patiently and conscientiously assisted with the proofreading; and, last but not least Mr. Masayuki Ishida of The Japan Times, who has done such conscientious editing: he has been a perfect midwife for the birth of our progeny and our special thanks go to him.

Spring 1986

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Michio Tsutsui

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## To the Reader

This dictionary consists of the following parts:

- A. *Grammatical Terms* contains brief explanations or informal definitions of the grammatical terms frequently used in this book. If the reader finds that he is not familiar with these terms, we suggest he read this section carefully.
- B. *Characteristics of Japanese Grammar* introduces the reader to the major characteristics of Japanese grammar and the important concepts involved. The reader should read through this section before he starts to consult the dictionary. Some entries from the *Main Entries* section refer the reader to topics in this section which provide broader perspectives on those entries.
- C. *Main Entries* constitutes the core of this book. Each entry is organized as follows:

① [entry name]	② [part of speech]
③ [meaning / function]	④ [English counterpart(s)]
	[antonym]
	⑤ [related expression(s)]
⑥ ♦ <b>Key Sentence(s)</b>	
⑦ <b>Formation</b>	
⑧ <b>Examples</b>	
⑨ <b>Note(s)</b>	
⑩ <b>[Related Expression(s)]</b>	

- ① [entry name]: Each entry is given in romanized spelling followed by its *hiragana* version. Entries are alphabetically ordered based on their romanized spellings.
- ② [part of speech]: Each entry is followed by its part of speech.
- ③ [meaning / function]: The general meaning or function of the entry is given in the box below the entry name.
- ④ [English counterpart(s)]: English expressions equivalent to the entry are given to the right of the box. When the entry has an antonym, it is provided, as in (ANT. xxx).

- ⑤ [related expression(s)]: Items which are related semantically to the entry are listed as [REL. aaa; bbb; **ccc** (ddd)]. Expressions in non-bold type like aaa are explained in the entry under **【Related Expression(s)】** (⑩). Expressions in bold type like **ccc** contain comparisons to the entry under **【Related Expression(s)】** for **ccc**. Parenthesized expressions like (ddd) are explained in the **ccc** entry.
  - ⑥ ♦ **Key Sentence(s)**: Key sentences present basic sentence patterns in frames according to sentence structure. The parts in red color are recurrent elements. The same is true of *Formation*.
  - ⑦ **Formation**: The word formation rules / connection forms for each item are provided with examples.
  - ⑧ **Examples**: Example sentences are provided for each entry.
  - ⑨ **Note(s)**: Notes contain important points concerning the use of the item.
  - ⑩ **【Related Expression(s)】**: Expressions which are semantically close to the entry are compared and their differences are explained.
- D. *Appendixes* contains information such as tables of verb / adjective conjugations, a list of connection rules for important expressions and a list of counters.
- E. *Indexes* contains three indexes: the grammar index, the English index and the Japanese index. The reader, therefore, has three means of access to the word he is looking up.

## List of Abbreviations

Adj(*i*)=*i*-type adjective (e.g. *takai* 'high, expensive', *yasui* 'inexpensive')

Adj(*na*)=*na*-type adjective (e.g. *genkida* 'healthy', *shizukada* 'quiet')

Adv.=adverb

Aff.=affirmative

ANT.=antonym

Aux.=auxiliary

Conj.=conjunction

Cop.=copula (= *da* / *desu*, *datta* / *deshita*)

Fml.=formal (= *-des-*, *-mas-*)

Gr.=Group

Inf.=informal

Irr.=Irregular (e.g. *kuru* 'come', *suru* 'do')

KS=Key Sentence

LSV=Location+Subject+Verb

N=Noun

Neg.=negative

Nom.=nominalizer (= *no* and *koto*)

NP=Noun Phrase

Phr.=phrase

Pl.=plural

Pot.=potential

Pref.=prefix (e.g. *o-*, *go-* 'politeness markers')

Pro.=pronoun

Prt.=particle

REL.=Related Expression

S=Sentence

Sinf=Sentence that ends with an informal predicate (e.g. *Nihon ni iku* of *Nihon ni iku n desu* 'It is that I am going to Japan.')

SLV=Subject+Location+Verb

S.o.=someone

S.t.=something

SOV=Subject+Object+Verb

SV=Subject+Verb

Str.=structure



Suf.=suffix (e.g. *-sa* ‘-ness’, *-ya* ‘store’)

V=Verb

Vcond=conditional stem of Gr. 1 Verb (e.g. *hanase* of *hanaseba* ‘if s.o. talks’)

Vinf=informal form of verbs (e.g. *hanasu* ‘talk’, *hanashita* ‘talked’)

Vmasu=*masu*-stem of Verb (e.g. *hanashi* of *hanashimasu* ‘talk’)

Vneg=informal negative form of Gr. 1 verb (e.g. *hanasa* of *hanasanai* ‘s.o. doesn’t talk’)

Vstem=stem of Gr. 2 Verb (e.g. *tabe* of *taberu* ‘eat’)

Vte=*te*-form of Verb (e.g. *hanashite* ‘talk and ~’, *tabete* ‘eat and ~’, *kite* ‘come and ~’, *shite* ‘do and ~’)

Vvol=volitional form of Verb (e.g. *hanasō* ‘let’s talk’, *tabeyō* ‘let’s eat’, *koyō* ‘let’s come’, *shiyō* ‘let’s do it’)

WH-word=an interrogative word (e.g. *nani* ‘what’, *doko* ‘where’, *dare* ‘who’, *itsu* ‘when’, *dō* ‘how’, *naze* ‘why’)

## List of Symbols

⇒=See or refer to.

?=The degree of unacceptability is indicated by the number of question marks, three being the highest.

\*=ungrammatical or unacceptable (in other words, no native speaker would accept the asterisked sentence.)

{A / B}C=AC or BC (e.g. {V/Adj(*i*)}inf=Vinf or Adj(*i*)inf)

∅=zero (in other words, nothing should be used at a place where ∅ occurs.

Thus, Adj(*na*) {∅ / *datta*} *kamoshirenai* is either Adj(*na*) *kamoshirenai* or Adj(*na*) *datta kamoshirenai*.)



## Grammatical Terms

The following are brief explanations of some grammatical terms most frequently used in this dictionary.

**Active Sentence** A sentence which describes an action from the agent's point of view. (Cp. Passive Sentence) In active sentences, the subject is the agent. Sentences (a) and (b) below are an active and a passive sentence, respectively.

- (a) 先生はジョンをしかった。  
*Sensei wa Jon o shikatta.*  
(The teacher scolded John.)
- (b) ジョンは先生にしかられた。  
*Jon wa sensei ni shikarareta.*  
(John was scolded by the teacher.)

**Agent** One who initiates and / or completes an action or an event. The agent is not always in the subject position. Compare the positions of the agent *Bill* in (a) and (b).

- (a) ビルはマーサをぶった。  
*Biru wa Māsa o butta.*  
(Bill hit Martha.)
- (b) マーサはビルにぶたれた。  
*Māsa wa Biru ni butareta.*  
(Martha was hit by Bill.)

**Appositive Clause (Construction)** A clause which modifies a noun (or noun phrase) and explains *what* the modified noun is. In (a), *Meari ga Tomu ni atta* 'Mary met Tom' is an appositive clause, and is what *jijitsu* 'the fact' refers to.

- (a) 私はメアリーがトムに会った事実を知っている。  
*Watashi wa Meari ga Tomu ni atta **jijitsu** o shitte iru.*  
(I know the fact that Mary met Tom.)

**Auxiliary Adjective** A dependent adjective that is preceded by and at-

tached to a verb or another adjective. The bold-printed parts of the following sentences are typical auxiliary adjectives.

- (a) 私はジョンに行って欲しい。  
*Watashi wa Jon ni itte **hoshii**.*  
 (I want John to go there.)
- (b) この辞書は使いやすい。  
*Kono jisho wa tsukai**yasui**.*  
 (This dictionary is easy to use.)
- (c) 私は寿司が食べたい。  
*Watashi wa sushi ga tabe**tai**.*  
 (I want to eat *sushi*.)
- (d) ベスは大学を出たらしい。  
*Besu wa daigaku o deta **rashii**.*  
 (Beth seems to have graduated from college.)
- (e) 花子は淋しいようだ。  
*Hanako wa sabishii **yōda**.*  
 (Hanako looks lonely.)
- (f) このお菓子はおいしそうだ。  
*Kono o-kashi wa oishi**sōda**.*  
 (This cake looks delicious.)

**Auxiliary Verb** A verb which is used in conjunction with a preceding verb or adjective. The bold-faced words of the following sentences are typical auxiliary verbs.

- (a) ビルは今手紙を書いている。  
*Biru wa ima tegami o kaite **iru**.*  
 (Bill is writing a letter now.)
- (b) 窓が開けてある。  
*Mado ga akete **aru**.*  
 (The window has been opened. (=The window is open.))
- (c) 僕は宿題をしてしまった。  
*Boku wa shukudai o shite **shimatta**.*  
 (I have done my homework.)
- (d) 私は友達にお金を貸してあげた。  
*Watashi wa tomodachi ni o-kane o kashite **ageta**.*

(I loaned money to my friend.)

- (e) このコンピューターは高すぎる。

*Kono konpyūtā wa takasugiru.*

(This computer is too expensive.)

- (f) ジョージはスポーツカーを欲しがっている。

*Jōji wa supōtsukā o hoshigatte iru.*

(Lit. George is showing signs of wanting a sports car. (=George wants a sports car.))

- (g) あっ！ 雨が降って来た！

*A! Ame ga futte kita!*

(Gee! It's started to rain!)

**Compound Particle** A particle which consists of more than one word but functions like a single particle. For example, the compound particle *to shite wa* consists of the particle *to*, the *te*-form of *suru* and the particle *wa*, but it is used like a single particle to mean 'for'. (Cp. Double Particle)

**Compound Sentence** A sentence which consists of clauses combined by coordinate conjunctions such as *ga* meaning 'but' or by the *te*-forms of verbs, adjectives or the copula meaning '～ and'.

- (a) 僕は泳いだがスミスさんは泳がなかった。

*Boku wa oyoida ga Sumisu-san wa oyoganakatta.*

(I swam but Mr. Smith didn't.)

- (b) 吉田さんは東京に行って鈴木さんに会った。

*Yoshida-san wa Tōkyō ni itte Suzuki-san ni atta.*

(Mr. Yoshida went to Tokyo and met Mr. Suzuki.)

**Contrastive Marker** A particle which marks contrast. For example, when X is contrasted with Y, it is typically marked by the particle *wa*. X and Y usually appear in  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , respectively in  $S_1$  *ga*  $S_2$ , as shown in (a).

- (a) ジョンは来たが、ビルは来なかった。

*Jon wa kita ga, Biru wa konakatta.*

(John came here. But Bill didn't.)

**Coordinate Conjunction** A conjunction that combines two sentences without subordinating one to the other. A typical coordinate conjunction is *ga* 'but'. Example :

- (a) 走っていますが、ちっともやせません。

*Hashitte imasu ga, chitto mo yasemasen.*

(I'm running, but I haven't lost any weight at all.)

**Direct Object** The direct object of a verb is the direct recipient of an action represented by the verb. It can be animate or inanimate. An animate direct object is the direct experiencer of some action (as in (a) and (b) below). An inanimate direct object is typically something which is created, exchanged or worked on, in short, the recipient of the action of the verb (as in (c), (d) and (e) below).

- (a) 山口先生は学生をよくほめる。

*Yamaguchi-sensei wa gakusei o yoku homeru.*

(Prof. Yamaguchi often praises his students.)

- (b) かおりは一郎をだました。

*Kaori wa Ichirō o damashita.*

(Kaori deceived Ichiro.)

- (c) 僕は本を書いた。

*Boku wa hon o kaita.*

(I wrote a book.)

- (d) 一郎はみどりにスカーフをやった。

*Ichirō wa Midori ni sukāfu o yatta.*

(Ichiro gave a scarf to Midori.)

- (e) 私はドアを開けておいた。

*Watashi wa doa o akete oita.*

(I kept the door open.)

Although direct objects are marked by the particle *o*, nouns or noun phrases marked by *o* are not always direct objects, as shown in (f) and (g). (⇒ *o*<sup>2</sup>; *o*<sup>4</sup>)

- (f) 花子は一郎の大学入学を喜んだ。

*Hanako wa Ichirō no daigakunyūgaku o yorokonda.*

(Hanako was glad that Ichiro entered college.)

- (g) トムはその時公園を歩いていた。

*Tomu wa sono toki kōen o aruite ita.*

(At that time Tom was walking in the park.)

**Double Particle** A sequence of two particles. The first particle is usually a case particle and the second is an adverbial particle such as *wa* ‘topic / contrast marker’, *mo* ‘also, even’, and *shika* ‘only’.

- (a) 東京からは田中さんが来た。  
*Tōkyō kara wa Tanaka-san ga kita.*  
 (Lit. From Tokyo Mr. Tanaka came.)
- (b) 私はミラーさんとも話した。  
*Watashi wa Mirā-san to mo hanashita.*  
 (I talked with Mr. Miller, too.)

**Embedded Sentence** A sentence within another sentence is an embedded sentence. The bold-faced part of each sentence below is the embedded sentence. An embedded sentence is marked by a subordinate conjunction such as *kara* ‘because’, *keredomo* ‘although’, *node* ‘because’, *noni* ‘although’, *to* ‘if’, the quote marker *to* ‘that’, a nominalizer (*no* or *koto*) or the head noun of a relative clause.

- (a) 山田は頭が痛いと言った。  
*Yamada wa **atama ga itai** to itta.*  
 (Yamada said that he had a headache.)
- (b) 山田は頭が痛いので学校を休んだ。  
*Yamada wa **atama ga itai** node gakkō o yasunda.*  
 (Yamada didn’t go to school, because he had a headache.)
- (c) 山田は外国に行くのが大好きだ。  
*Yamada wa **gaikoku ni iku** no ga dai-sukida.*  
 (Yamada loves to go to a foreign country.)
- (d) 山田は空手を習ったことがある。  
*Yamada wa **karate o naratta** koto ga aru.*  
 (Yamada has learned *karate* before.)

**Hearer** The person who receives a spoken or written message. In this dictionary the term “hearer” is used in a broader sense to mean the person to whom the speaker or the writer communicates.

**Imperative Form** A conjugated verb form that indicates a command, as in *Hanase!* ‘Talk!’, *Tabero!* ‘Eat it!’, *Shiro!* ‘Do it!’ or *Koi!* ‘Come!’.

**Indefinite Pronoun** A pronoun which does not refer to something specifically. *No* in B's sentence in (a) is an indefinite pronoun. Here, *no* is used for *jisho* 'dictionary', but does not refer to a specific dictionary.

- (a) A : どんな辞書が欲しいんですか。  
*Donna jisho ga hoshii n desu ka.*  
 (What kind of dictionary do you want?)

B : 小さいのが欲しいんです。  
*Chisai no ga hoshii n desu.*  
 (I want a small one.)

**Intransitive Verb** A verb which does not require a direct object. The action or state identified by the intransitive verb is related only to the subject of the sentence. For example, the verb *hashitta* 'ran' in (a) is an intransitive verb because the action of running is related only to the subject.

(Cp. Transitive Verb)

- (a) 鈴木さんは走った。  
*Suzuki-san wa hashitta.*  
 (Mr. Suzuki ran.)

Intransitive verbs typically indicate *movement* (such as *iku* 'go', *kuru* 'come', *aruku* 'walk', *tobu* 'fly', *noru* 'get onto'), *spontaneous change* (such as *naru* 'become', *kawaru* 'change', *tokeru* 'melt', *fukuramu* 'swell', *hajimaru* 'begin'), *human emotion* (such as *yorokobu* 'rejoice', *kanashimu* 'feel sad', *omou* 'feel'), and *birth / death* (such as *umareru* 'be born', *shinu* 'die').

(⇒ Appendix 3)

**/-type Adjective** An adjective whose nonpast prenominal form ends with *i*. Examples of *i*-type adjectives are *takai* 'high, expensive' and *tsuyoi* 'strong', as seen in (a). (Cp. *Na*-type Adjective)

- (a) 高い本  
*takai hon*  
 (an expensive book)  
 強い人  
*tsuyoi hito*  
 (a strong person)

*/-type* adjectives are further subdivided into two types: *i*-type adjectives which end with *shi-i* and those with non-*shi-i* endings. Most adjectives with *Shi-i*



endings express human emotion (such as *ureshii* 'happy', *kanashii* 'sad', *sabishii* 'lonely', *kurushii* 'painful'); the non-*shi-i* adjectives are used for objective descriptions (such as *kuroi* 'black', *shiroi* 'white', *hiroi* 'spacious', *takai* 'high, expensive').

***Na*-type Adjective** An adjective whose nonpast prenominal form ends with *na*. For example, *shizukada* 'quiet' and *genkida* 'healthy' are *na*-type adjectives, as in (a). (Cp. *I*-type Adjective)

- (a) 静かな家  
*shizukana ie*  
 (a quiet house)
- 元気な人  
*genkina hito*  
 (a healthy person)

*Na*-type adjectives are very similar to nouns. Some *na*-type adjectives can be used as real nouns as shown in (b). All *na*-type adjectives behave as nouns when they are used before the copula *da*, as shown in (c).

- (b) 健康は大事ですよ。  
*Kenkō wa daijidesu yo.*  
 (Health is important, you know.)

Cp. 健康な人  
*kenkōna hito*  
 (a healthy person)

ご親切は忘れません。  
*Go-shinsetsu wa wasuremasen.*  
 (I'll never forget your kindness.)

Cp. 親切な人  
*shinsetsuna hito*  
 (a kind person)

- (c) この人は元気 / 学生 {だ / です / だった / でした / じゃない / じゃありません / じゃなかった / じゃありませんでした。}  
*Kono hito wa genki / gakusei {da / desu / datta / deshita / janai / jaarimasen / janakatta / jaarimasendeshita.}*  
 ('This person {is / was / isn't / wasn't} healthy / a student.)

**Nominalizer** A nominalizer is a particle that makes a sentence into a noun phrase or clause. There are two nominalizers *no* and *koto*: the former rep-

resents the speaker's empathetic feeling towards an event / state expressed in the nominalized noun phrase / clause; the latter represents the speaker's relatively anti-empathetic feeling towards an event / state. (⇒ *no*<sup>3</sup>; *koto*<sup>2</sup>)

Noun Phrase / Clause		Particle	Predicate
Sentence	Nominalizer		
日本語を読む <i>Nihongo o yomu</i>	の / こと <i>no / koto</i>	は <i>wa</i>	難しい。 <i>muzukashii.</i>
(Reading Japanese is difficult.)			

The nominalized sentence can be used in any position where an ordinary noun or a noun phrase / clause can be used.

**Passive Sentence** A sentence which describes an action by someone from the viewpoint of someone else who is affected by that action. (Cf. Active Sentence) (a) and (b) are passive sentences.

(a) 私はビルにぶたれた。  
*Watashi wa Biru ni butareta.*  
(I was beaten by Bill.)

(b) 太郎は秋子に泣かれた。  
*Tarō wa Akiko ni nakareta.*  
(Lit. Taro was annoyed by the fact that Akiko cried. (=Taro was annoyed by Akiko's crying.))

**Potential Form** A verb form that expresses competence in the sense of 'can do s.t.' The formation is as follows:

Gr. 1 Verbs	Vcond+る <i>ru</i>	e.g. 話せる 'can talk' <i>hanase-ru</i>
Gr. 2 Verbs	Vstem+られる <i>rareru</i>	e.g. 食べられる 'can eat' <i>tabe-rareru</i>
	Vstem+れる <i>reru</i>	e.g. 食べれる 'can eat' <i>tabe-reru</i>
Irr. Verbs	来る <i>kuru</i>	来られる 'can come' <i>korareru</i> 来れる <i>koreru</i>

する  
*suru*

出来る 'can do'  
*dekiru*

**Predicate** The part of a sentence which makes a statement about the subject. The core of the predicate consists either of a verb, an adjective, or a noun followed by a form of the copula *da*. Optionally, objects and other adjectival and / or adverbial modifiers may be present. In (a), (b) and (c) the predicates are printed in bold type.

- (a) 松本さんはよく映画を見る。  
*Matsumoto-san wa yoku eiga o miru.*  
(Mr. Matsumoto sees movies often.)
- (b) 私の家はスミスさんのより新しい。  
*Watashi no ie wa Sumisu-san no yori atarashii.*  
(My house is newer than Mr. Smith's.)
- (c) ジョンは日本語の学生です。  
*Jon wa nihongo no gakusei desu.*  
(John is a student of Japanese language.)

**Prenominal Form** The verb / adjective form which immediately precedes a noun and modifies it. The bold-faced verb and adjectives in (a), (b), (c) and (d) are prenominal forms.

- (a) 私が読む / 読んだ新聞  
*watashi ga yomu / yonda shinbun*  
(the newspaper I read)
- (b) 大きい / 大きかった家  
*ōkii / ōkikatta ie*  
(a big house / a house which used to be big)
- (c) 立派な / 立派だった建物  
*rippana / rippadatta tatemono*  
(a magnificent building / a building which used to be magnificent)
- (d) おいしそうな / おいしそうだったケーキ  
*oishisōna / oishisōdatta kēki*  
(a delicious-looking cake / a cake which looked delicious)

**Punctual Verb** A verb that represents a momentary action which either occurs once, as in (a), or can be repeated continuously, as in (b).

(a) 知る 'get to know'

*shiru*

死ぬ 'die'

*shinu*

始まる 'begin'

*hajimaru*

結婚する 'get married'

*kekkonsuru*

やめる 'stop s.t.'

*yameru*

似る 'resemble'

*niru*

(b) 落とす 'drop'

*otosu*

もぎる 'pluck off'

*mogiru*

ける 'kick'

*keru*

跳ぶ 'jump'

*tobu*

打つ 'hit'

*utsu*

With the auxiliary verb *iru* (i.e., *iru*<sup>2</sup>), the punctual verbs in (a) express a state after an action was taken, and those as in (b) express either a repeated action or a state after an action was taken. (⇒ Appendix 2)

**Stative Verb** A verb which represents a state of something or someone at some point in time, as in (a). (⇒ Appendix 2)

(a) ある

*aru*

(exist (of inanimate things))

いる

*iru*

(exist (of animate things))

いる

*iru*

(need)

出来る

*dekiru*

(can do)

**Subject** The subject is an element of a sentence which indicates an agent of an action in active sentences (as in (a)) or an experiencer of an action (as in (b)) or someone or something that is in a state or a situation (as in (c), (d), (e) and (f)). The subject is normally marked by the particle *ga* in Japanese unless it is the sentence topic.

- (a) ジョンがりんごを食べた。

***Jon ga ringo o tabeta.***

(John ate an apple.)

- (b) メアリーが先生にほめられた。

***Meari ga sensei ni homerareta.***

(Mary was praised by her teacher.)

- (c) ナンシーはきれいだ。

***Nanshi wa kireida.***

(Nancy is pretty.)

- (d) ドアが開いた。

***Doa ga aita.***

(The door opened.)

- (e) 机が一つある。

***Tsukue ga hitotsu aru.***

(Lit. One table exists. (=There is a table.))

- (f) 空が青い。

***Sora ga aoi.***

(The sky is blue.)

**Subordinate Clause** A clause which is embedded into a main clause with a subordinate conjunction. Typical subordinate conjunctions are *ba* 'if', *kara* 'because', *node* 'because', *keredo* 'although' and *noni* 'although'. Thus, in (a) below, the bold-faced clause with the subordinate conjunction *node* is embedded into the main clause *Nakayama-san wa gakkō o yasunda*, 'Mr. Nakayama was absent from school.'

- (a) 中山さんは頭が痛かったので学校を休んだ。

*Nakayama-san wa atama ga itakatta node gakkō o yasunda.*

(Mr. Nakayama was absent from school because he had a headache.)

The informal form of a verb / adjective is usually used in a subordinate clause.

**Transitive Verb** A verb that requires a direct object. It usually expresses an action that acts upon s.o. or s.t. indicated by the direct object. Actions indicated by transitive verbs include *real causatives* (such as *ikaseru* 'make / let s.o. go', *korosu* 'kill', *miseru* 'show', *nakasu* 'make s.o. cry', *noseru* 'put, place'), *exchange* (such as *ageru* 'give', *morau* 'receive', *kureru* 'give'), *creation* (such as *tsukuru* 'make', *kaku* 'write', *kangaeru* 'think'), *communication* (such as *hanasu* 'speak', *oshieru* 'teach', *tsutaeru* 'convey a message') and others. Note that some English transitive verbs are intransitive in Japanese.

- (a) 私は車がある。

*Watashi wa kuruma ga aru.*

(Lit. With me a car exists. (=I have a car.))

- (b) 僕はお金がいる。

*Boku wa o-kane ga iru.*

(Lit. To me money is necessary. (=I need money.))

- (c) スミスさんは中国語が分かる。

*Sumisu-san wa chūgokugo ga wakaru.*

(Lit. To Mr. Smith Chinese is understandable. (=Mr. Smith understands Chinese.))

- (d) 私はフランス語が少し出来る。

*Watashi wa furansugo ga sukoshi dekiru.*

(Lit. To me French is a bit possible. (=I can speak French a little.))

- (e) 木下さんは東京でお父さんに会った。

*Kinoshita-san wa Tōkyō de o-tō-san ni atta.*

(Mr. Kinoshita met his father in Tokyo.)

- (f) 私にはベルが聞こえなかった。

*Watashi ni wa beru ga kikoenakatta.*

(Lit. To me the bell wasn't audible. (=I wasn't able to hear the bell.))

- (g) ここからは富士山が見えますよ。

*Koko kara wa Fujisan ga miemasu yo.*

(Lit. From here Mt. Fuji is visible. (=We can see Mt. Fuji from here.))

- (h) 私達は新幹線に乗りました。  
*Watashitachi wa shinkansen ni **norimashita**.*  
 (We rode a bullet train.)
- (i) 私は母に似ているらしい。  
*Watashi wa haha ni **niteiru** rashii.*  
 (It seems that I resemble my mother.)

**Volitional Sentence** A sentence in which a person expresses his will. The main verb in such sentences is in the volitional form, as in (a).

- (a) 僕が行こう / 行きましょう。  
*Boku ga **ikō** / **ikimashō**.*  
 (I will go.)

**WH-question** A question that asks for information about *who*, *what*, *where*, *which*, *when*, *why* and *how*, as exemplified by (a) through (f) below.

(Cp. Yes-No Question)

- (a) 誰が来ましたか。  
***Dare** ga kimashita ka.*  
 (Who came here?)
- (b) 何を食べますか。  
***Nani** o tabemasu ka.*  
 (What will you eat?)
- (c) どこに行きますか。  
***Doko** ni ikimasu ka.*  
 (Where are you going?)
- (d) いつ大阪へ帰りますか。  
***Itsu** Ōsaka e kaerimasu ka.*  
 (When are you going back to Osaka?)
- (e) どうして買わないんですか。  
***Dōshite** kawanai n desu ka.*  
 (How come you don't buy it?)
- (f) 東京駅へはどう行きますか。  
*Tōkyō eki e wa **dō** ikimasu ka.*  
 (How can I get to Tokyo Station?)

**WH-word** An interrogative word which corresponds to English words such as *who*, *what*, *where*, *which*, *when*, *why* and *how*. The following are some examples.

- (a) 誰 ‘who’  
*dare*  
 何 ‘what’  
*nani / nan*  
 どこ ‘where’  
*doko*  
 いつ ‘when’  
*itsu*  
 どうして / なぜ ‘how come / why’  
*dōshite / naze*  
 どう ‘how’  
*dō*

Note that Japanese WH-words are not always found in sentence-initial position; they are frequently found after a topic noun phrase, as shown in (b) and (c) below.

- (b) きのうのパーティーには誰が来ましたか。  
*Kinō no pāti ni wa dare ga kimashita ka.*  
 (Lit. To yesterday's party, who came there? (= Who came to yesterday's party?))  
 Cp. 誰がきのうのパーティーに来ましたか。  
*Dare ga kinō no pāti ni kimashita ka.*  
 (Who came to yesterday's party?)
- (c) 日本では何をしましたか。  
*Nihon de wa nani o shimashita ka.*  
 (Lit. In Japan what did you do? (= What did you do in Japan?))  
 Cp. 何を日本でしましたか。  
*Nani o nihon de shimashita ka.*  
 (What did you do in Japan?)

**Yes-No Question** A question that can be answered by *hai* / *ē* ‘yes’ or *ie* ‘no’. (Cp. WH-question) Examples follow:

- (a) A: 上田さんは来ましたか。  
*Ueda-san wa kimashita ka.*  
 (Did Mr. Ueda come?)



B : はい, 来ました。

*Hai, kimashita.*

(Yes, he did.)

(b) A : 鈴木さんは学生ですか。

*Suzuki-san wa gakusei desu ka.*

(Is Mr. Suzuki a student?)

B : いいえ, そうじゃありません。

*Īe, sō ja arimasen.*

(No, he isn't.)

# Characteristics of Japanese Grammar

## 1. Word Order

Japanese is typologically classified as an *SOV* (Subject+Object+Verb) language, whereas English is classified as *SVO*. An important fact about Japanese word order is that each sentence ends in a verb, an adjective or a form of the copula, and that the order of the other sentence elements is relatively free, except for the topic noun or noun phrase, which normally comes at sentence-initial position. A sample sentence follows.

(1)

Subject (topic)	Location	Direct Object	Verb (transitive)
スミスさん    は <i>Sumisu-san</i> <i>wa</i>	日本    で <i>Nihon</i> <i>de</i>	日本語    を <i>nihongo</i> <i>o</i>	勉強している。 <i>benkyōshite iru.</i>
(Mr. Smith is studying Japanese in Japan.)			

The Location and the Direct Object can be switched, but the Subject (topic) and the Verb must normally be in sentence-initial and sentence-final positions, respectively.

The word order principle for Japanese is *the modifier precedes what is modified*. This principle holds whether the modified word is dependent or fully independent. The function of the modifier is to specify the meaning of the modified word. Thus, in (1), the verb *benkyōshite iru* 'is studying' is modified by the preceding elements Subject, Location and Direct Object. Observe the following phrases and clauses.

(2)

Adjective	Noun
赤い <i>akai</i>	車 <i>kuruma</i>
(a red car)	

(3)

Noun Phrase	
Relative Clause	Noun
父    が    きのう    読んだ <i>chichi ga kinō yonda</i>	本 <i>hon</i>
(a book which my father read yesterday)	

(4)

Noun	Particle
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>
(Mr. Smith (topic))	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	が <i>ga</i>
(Mr. Smith (subject))	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	を <i>o</i>
(Mr. Smith (object))	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	も <i>mo</i>
(Mr. Smith also)	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	に <i>ni</i>
(to / by / from Mr. Smith)	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	から <i>kara</i>
(from Mr. Smith)	
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	より <i>yor</i>
((more ~) than Mr. Smith)	

(5)

Subordinate Clause	
Sentence	Conjunction
日本 へ 行く <i>Nihon e iku</i>	から <i>kara</i>
(Because I go to Japan)	
日本 へ 行く <i>Nihon e iku</i>	けれど <i>keredo</i>
(Although I go to Japan)	
日本 へ 行く <i>Nihon e iku</i>	と <i>to</i>
(When I go to Japan)	
日本 へ 行く <i>Nihon e iku</i>	なら <i>nara</i>
(If you go to Japan)	

Note: A subordinate clause precedes a main clause.

(6)

Nominalized Noun Phrase	
Sentence	Nominalizer
音楽 を 聞く <i>ongaku o kiku</i>	の / こと <i>no / koto</i>
(to listen / listening to music)	

In (2) and (3) where the modified word is an independent noun the basic principle holds; in (4) (5) and (6) where the second element is a dependent word, such as a particle, conjunction, or nominalizer, the basic modificational principle also holds, because the meaning of the modified word is fully specified by the modifier. Unlike independent words, however, dependent words require modifiers.

It is important for students of Japanese to recognize and understand some of the most basic Japanese sentence types and their word order. Examples of these basic sentence types are given below:

- (7) a.
- X wa Y da / X ga Y da*
- 'Speaking of X, X is Y / It is X that is Y'

X (subject / topic)	Prt	Y	Copula
田中さん <i>Tanaka-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	学生 <i>gakusei</i>	だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>
(Mr. Tanaka is a student.)			

(In answer to the question: Who is a student?)

X (subject)	Prt	Y	Copula
田中さん <i>Tanaka-san</i>	が <i>ga</i>	学生 <i>gakusei</i>	だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>
(Lit. It is Mr. Tanaka who is a student. (=Mr. Tanaka is a student.))			

- b. =(1)
- SOV*

- c.
- S Adj*

Subject (topic)	Prt	Adj ( <i>i</i> )
山川さん <i>Yamakawa-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	若い / 若いです。 <i>wakai / wakaidesu.</i>
(Mr. Yamakawa is young.)		

Subject (topic)	Prt	Adj ( <i>na</i> )
山川さん <i>Yamakawa-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	元気だ / 元気です。 <i>genkida / genkidesu.</i>
(Mr. Yamakawa is healthy.)		

- d.
- X wa Y ga ~*
- 'Speaking of X, Y ~'

X (topic, experiencer)	Prt	Y	Prt	Predicate
本田さん <i>Honda-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	テニス <i>tenisu</i>	が <i>ga</i>	上手だ / 上手です。 <i>jōzuda / jōzudesu.</i>
(Mr. Honda is good at tennis.)				

X (topic, possessor)	Prt	Y	Prt	Predicate
象 <i>Zō</i>	は <i>wa</i>	鼻 <i>hana</i>	が <i>ga</i>	長い / 長いです。 <i>nagai / nagaidesu.</i>
(An elephant has a long trunk.)				

e. *SV* (=Subject+Verb)

Subject (topic)	Prt		Verb (intransitive)
スミスさん <i>Sumisu-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	学校 ..... に <i>gakkō ..... ni</i>	行く / 行きます。 <i>iku / ikimasu.</i>
(Mr. Smith goes to school.)			

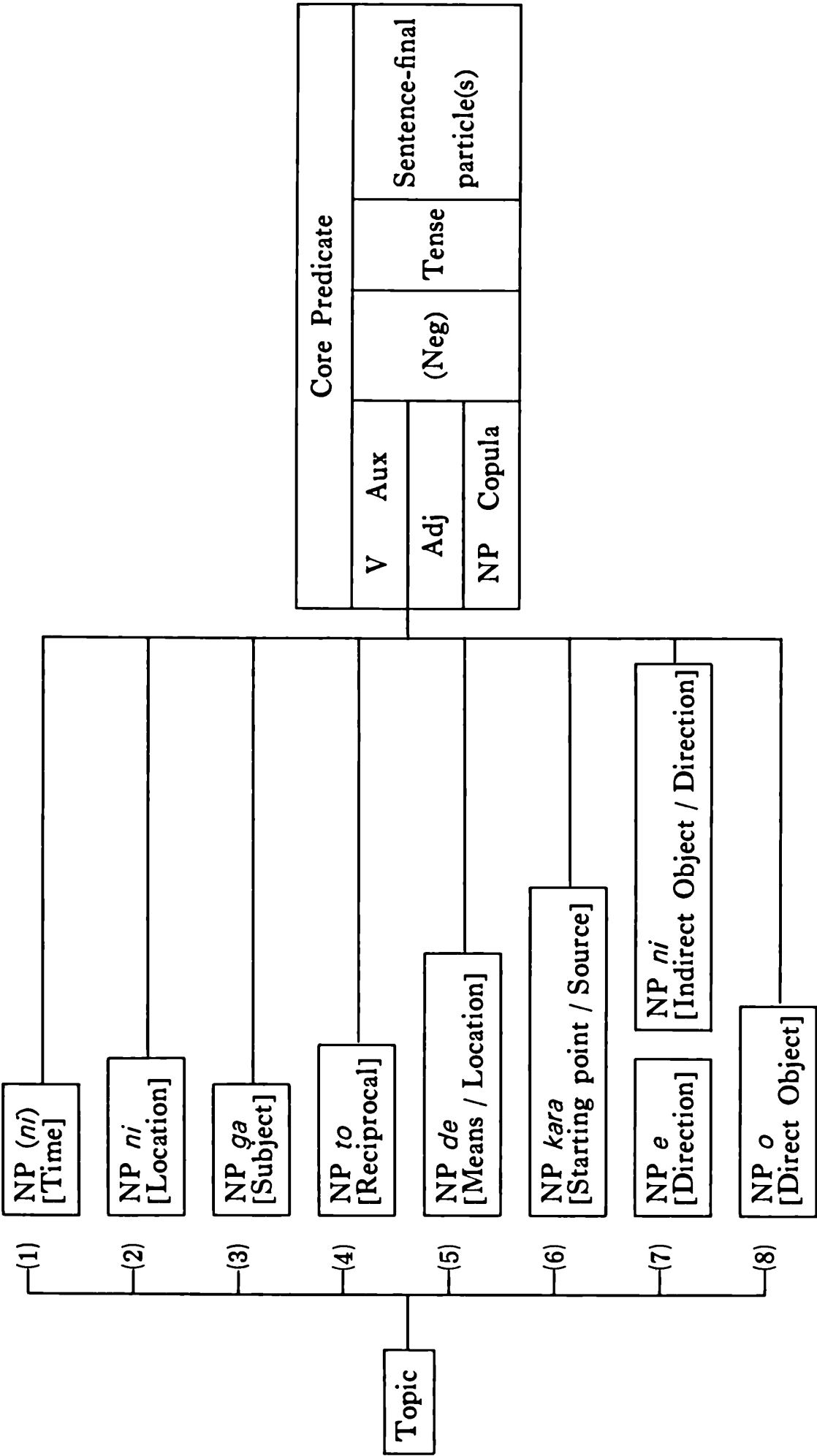
f. *LSV* (=Location+Subject+Verb)

Location (topic)	Prt	Prt	Subject	Prt	Quantity	Verb (existence)
この町 <i>Kono machi</i>	(に) <i>(ni)</i>	は <i>wa</i>	大学 <i>daigaku</i>	が <i>ga</i>	二つ <i>futatsu</i>	ある / あります。 <i>aru / arimasu.</i>
(In this town there are two universities.)						

g. *SLV* (=Subject+Location+Verb)

Subject (topic)	Prt	Location	Prt	Quantity	Verb (existence)
大学 <i>Daigaku</i>	は <i>wa</i>	この町 <i>kono machi</i>	に <i>ni</i>	二つ <i>futatsu</i>	ある / あります。 <i>aru / arimasu.</i>
(Speaking of universities, there are two of them in this town.)					

Finally, as shown in the following diagram, any major element listed vertically in (1) through (8) can be a topic marked by *wa*. The element with a lower number tends to be used towards the beginning of a sentence. The order of elements within the predicate is usually much more complex than that shown below. An adverb, which is omitted in the chart, can be positioned at any place before the Core Predicate, as long as it is positioned before or after NP+Prt. The normal position for an adverb, however, is right before the word it modifies.



## 2. Topic

Topic is a key concept in understanding Japanese. Roughly speaking, the topic of a sentence is what the sentence is about. For example, in (1), the topic is *Hanako* and the rest of the sentence provides information about *Hanako*.

- (1) 花子は学生です。

*Hanako wa gakusei desu.*

(Hanako is a student.)

[(Speaking of Hanako,) Hanako is a student.]

Topics are presented using various topic-marking devices. Among these, *wa* is the most frequent marker. (For other topic-markers, see *wa*<sup>1</sup> (は).)

When a topic is presented it must be something both the speaker and the hearer can identify from their knowledge. Usually a topic is something that has been mentioned in a previous discourse, something the speaker and the hearer perceive through their five senses, a proper noun or a generic noun, as seen in (2).

- (2) a. 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  
でした。(O-ji-san was mentioned previously.)

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

(Once upon a time, there lived an old man. The old man was very  
poor.)

- b. これは私のペンです。(Kore is what the speaker and the hearer see.)

*Kore wa watashi no pen desu.*

(This is my pen.)

- c. 鈴木さんは日本人です。(Suzuki-san is a proper noun.)

*Suzuki-san wa nihonjin desu.*

(Mr. Suzuki is Japanese.)

- d. くじらはほ乳動物です。(Kujira is a generic noun.)

*Kujira wa honyūdōbutsu desu.*

(Whales are mammals.)

In general, any noun phrase (NP) can be topicalized, although subject NPs are the ones most frequently topicalized. (3) presents additional examples. As seen below, when an NP is topicalized, the particle which follows may or may not be retained depending on the particle.

- (3) a. スミスさんは日本へ行きました。  
*Sumisu-san wa Nihon e ikimashita.*  
 (Mr. Smith went to Japan.)
- b. その映画はもう見ました。  
*Sono eiga wa mō mimashita.*  
 (I already saw the movie.)
- c. 日本(へ / に)はまだ行ったことがない。  
*Nihon (e / ni) wa mada itta koto ga nai.*  
 (I haven't been to Japan yet.)
- d. まり子には本をあげた。  
*Mariko ni wa hon o ageta.*  
 (To Mariko, I gave a book.)
- e. アメリカからはスミスさんが来た。  
*Amerika kara wa Smisu-san ga kita.*  
 (As for ((lit.) from) America, Mr. Smith came (from there).)

Finally, in discourse, once a topic is established, it does not need to be repeated unless another topic is presented. Consider the following passage, consisting of four sentences (a) – (d) in (4).

- (4) a. 太郎はまだアメリカに行ったことがない。  
*Tarō wa mada Amerika ni itta koto ga nai.*  
 (Taro has not been to America yet.)
- b. いつも行きたいと思っているがお金がないから行けない。  
*Itsumo ikitai to omotte iru ga o-kane ga nai kara ikenai.*  
 (He always thinks he wants to go, but since he has no money, he cannot go.)
- c. お父さんは働いてお金をためなさいと言う。  
*O-tō-san wa hataraitte o-kane o tamenasai to iu.*  
 (His father tells him to work and save money.)
- d. でも太郎はお父さんにお金を出してほしいのだ。  
*Demo Tarō wa o-tō-san ni o-kane o dashite hoshii no da.*  
 (But Taro wants his father to give him money.)

Here, (4a) introduces a topic, *Tarō*. Since (4b) is a statement about *Tarō* and *Tarō* is an established topic at this point, *Tarō wa* does not have to be repeated here. (4c), however, presents a new topic, *o-tō-san*. Since this topic is still in effect when the topic returns to *Tarō* in (4d), *Tarō wa* has to be reintroduced. A topic must also be presented if a sentence is the first sentence of a new paragraph, even if the last sentence of the preceding paragraph has the same topic.



### 3. Ellipsis

In language it is universally observed that strategies exist to minimize the effort of conveying messages. The most common strategies are ellipsis, contraction, abbreviation and the use of pronouns. Of these, ellipsis (i.e., the omission of words) is the most efficient and occurs frequently in Japanese.

Generally speaking, elements which can be understood from the context and / or from the situation can be omitted in Japanese unless ellipsis makes the sentence ungrammatical. For example, in (1), B does not repeat *Tarō wa* and *sono mise de* because they can be understood.

- (1) A : 太郎はその店で何を買いましたか。  
*Tarō wa sono mise de nani o kaimashita ka.*  
 (What did Taro buy at the store?)

B : ペンを買いました。  
*Pen o kaimashita.*  
 (He bought a pen.)

*Kaimashita*, however, cannot be omitted in normal conversation even though it can be understood here, because Japanese sentences (or clauses) must end with a *core predicate* (that is, either a verb, an adjective or a noun phrase which is followed by a form of the copula). Therefore, without the core predicate *kaimashita*, this sentence is ungrammatical. (In informal conversation, B might reply “pen” in answer to A’s question, but an answer of this sort is considered abrupt.)

The following are some general rules of ellipsis in Japanese.

- (A) If X is the topic of a sentence (often marked by *wa*) and it is also the topic of the sentence which follows it, X can be omitted in the second sentence. (See (4) in 2. *Topic*.)
- (B) In question-and-answer discourse, if an element X is shared in the question and the answer, X can be omitted in the answer unless X is the core predicate. Example:

- (2) A : 田中さんはむかえに来てくれましたか。  
*Tanaka-san wa mukae ni kite kuremashita ka.*  
 (Did Mr. Tanaka come to pick you up?)

B : はい、来てくれました。  
*Hai, kite kuremashita.*  
 (Yes, he did.)

- (3) A : あなたはアメリカにいた時, 学生でしたか。  
*Anata wa Amerika ni ita toki gakusei deshita ka.*  
 (Were you a student when you were in America?)

B : はい, そう / 学生 でした。 (*Sō* is more commonly used.)  
*Hai, sō / gakusei deshita.*  
 (Yes, I was.)

(Refer again to (1). In yes-no question situations, even predicates can be omitted in very informal conversation.)

- (C) If the referent of X is something very close to the speaker and the hearer, and X can be understood from the context and / or the situation, X can be omitted as in (4) – (6). (The parenthesized words can be omitted.)

- (4) A : (あなたは)行きますか。  
*(Anata wa) ikimasu ka.*  
 (Are you going?)

B : はい, (私は)行きます。  
*Hai, (watashi wa) ikimasu.*  
 (Yes, I am.)

- (5) A : (私達は)行きましょうか。  
*(Watashitachi wa) ikimashō ka?*  
 (Shall we go?)

B : いや, (私達は)よしましう。  
*Iya, (watashitachi wa) yoshimashō.*  
 (No, let's not.)

- (6) A : (これは / それは)何ですか。  
*(Kore wa / Sore wa) nan desu ka.*  
 (What is this / that?)

B : (それは / これは)花子からのプレゼントです。  
*(Sore wa / Kore wa) Hanako kara no purezento desu.*  
 (That / This is a present from Hanako.)

(A) – (C) concern the ellipsis of content words such as nouns and verbs. However, ellipsis in Japanese is not limited to content words. The following are some general rules regarding the ellipsis of particles in conversation.

- (D) If the referent of X in X *wa* is psychologically close to the speaker and the hearer, *wa* tends to drop unless X is under focus. Examples:

- (7) a. わたくし(は)山田ともうします。  
*Watakushi (wa) Yamada to mōshimasu.*  
 (Lit. I call myself Yamada. (=I am Yamada.))
- b. 君(は)今, 何年生ですか。  
*Kimi (wa) ima nan-nensei desu ka.*  
 (What year (in school) are you in now?)
- c. この本(は)おもしろいよ。  
*Kono hon (wa) omoshiroi yo.*  
 (This book is interesting.)
- d. あの人(は)誰ですか。  
*Ano hito (wa) dare desu ka.*  
 (Who is that person?)

(E) The subject marker *ga* can be omitted if the sentence conveys information which is expected by the hearer or which is very closely related to the hearer. Examples:

- (8) a. あ, 電車(が)来た。  
*A, densha (ga) kita.*  
 (Oh, here comes the train.)
- b. みなさん, お食事(が)出来ました。  
*Minasan, o-shokuji (ga) dekimashita.*  
 (Folks, the meal is ready now.)
- c. 今日田中さんから君に電話(が)あったよ。  
*Kyō Tanaka-san kara kimi ni denwa (ga) atta yo.*  
 (There was a phone call for you today from Mr. Tanaka.)
- d. もしもし, くつのひも(が)ほどけてますよ。  
*Moshimoshi, kutsu no himo (ga) hodokete masu yo.*  
 (Excuse me, your shoelace is untied.)

(F) The direct object marker *o* can be omitted unless the NP *o* is under focus. (*O* drops more frequently in questions.) Examples:

- (9) a. コーヒー(を)飲みませんか。  
*Kōhi (o) nomimasen ka.*  
 (Wouldn't you like coffee?)
- b. じゃ, それ(を)もらいます。  
*Ja, sore (o) moraimasu.*  
 (Then, I'll take it.)

- c. 今晚電話(を)ください。  
*Konban denwa (o) kudasai.*  
 (Please give me a call tonight.)

Rules (A) – (F) concern the ellipsis of parts of simple sentences or clauses. There are, however, cases in which entire clauses are omitted. (G) is a general rule regarding this sentential ellipsis.

(G) If the message conveyed by a main clause can be understood from the context and / or the situation, the main clause can be deleted. Examples:

- (10) A: きのうパーティーに来なかったね。  
*Kinō pāti ni konakatta ne.*  
 (You didn't come to the party yesterday.)
- B: うん, ちょっと忙しかったから(行けなかった)。  
*Un, chotto isogashikatta kara (ikenakatta).*  
 (Yeah, (I couldn't come) because I was busy.)
- (11) 田中先生に聞いたら(どうですか)?  
*Tanaka-sensei ni kiitara (dō desu ka)?*  
 (Lit. (How will it be) if you ask Prof. Tanaka? (=Why don't you ask Prof. Tanaka?))
- (12) お茶がはいりましたけど(いかがですか)。  
*O-cha ga hairimashita kedo (ikaga desu ka).*  
 (Lit. Tea is ready now, but (how would you like it?))

Additionally, ellipsis can take place for psychological reasons. That is, the speaker may omit a part of a sentence either because he considers it rude, because he feels uncomfortable saying it or because he doesn't know how to say it, etc. For example, if he is offered food he cannot eat, he may say, *Sore wa chotto*, '(lit.) That is, a little,' implying *Sore wa chotto taberaremasen*, 'I can hardly eat it.' Or, if the speaker hears someone's unhappy news, he may say, *Sore wa dōmo*, '(lit.) That is, very,' meaning *Sore wa kanashii koto desu ne*, 'That is a sad thing.'

Finally, it is noted that since ellipsis is common in Japanese, Japanese sentences are often ambiguous in isolation. They are interpreted correctly only if they are in proper contexts and / or situations. Examples:

- (13) a. ぼくは雪子はあまり好きじゃない。      しかし(ぼくは)  
*Boku wa Yukiko wa amari sukijanai. Shikashi (boku wa)*  
 春子は好きだ。  
*Haruko wa sukida.*  
 (I don't like Yukiko very much. But, I like Haruko.)

- b. ぼくは雪子はあまり好きじゃない。      しかし春子は  
*Boku wa Yukiko wa amari sukijanai. Shikashi Haruko wa*  
 (雪子が)好きだ。  
*(Yukiko ga) sukida.*  
 (I don't like Yukiko very much. But, Haruko likes her.)
- (14) a. 私はいい人を見つけたので、さっそく田中さんに  
*Watashi wa ii hito o mitsuketa node, sassoku Tanaka-san ni*  
 (その人に)会ってもらった。  
*(sono hito ni) atte moratta.*  
 (I found a good man, so I asked Mr. Tanaka to see him right away.)
- b. 私はいい人を見つけたので、さっそく(その人に)  
*Watashi wa ii hito o mitsuketa node, sassoku (sono hito ni)*  
 田中さんに会ってもらった。  
*Tanaka-san ni atte moratta.*  
 (I found a good man, so I asked him to see Mr. Tanaka right away.)

#### 4. Personal Pronouns

One of the peculiarities of Japanese personal pronouns is that there is more than one pronoun for the first and second person and that traditionally there have been no third person pronouns. The most frequently used first and second person pronouns are listed below:

	Personal Pronouns	Singular	
		First Person 'I'	Second Person 'You'
Formal — Informal	Very Formal	わたくし <i>watakushi</i>	none
	Formal	わたし <i>watashi</i>	あなた <i>anata</i>
	Informal	ぼく <i>boku</i> (male)	きみ <i>kimi</i> (male)
	Very Informal	おれ <i>ore</i> (male)	おまえ <i>omae</i> (male)
Formal — Informal	Personal Pronouns	Plural	
		First Person 'We'	Second Person 'You'
	Very Formal	わたくしども <i>watakushidomo</i>	none
	Formal	わたくしたち <i>watakushitachi</i> わたしたち <i>watashitachi</i>	あなたがた <i>anatagata</i>
	Informal	ぼくたち <i>bokutachi</i> (male) ぼくら <i>bokura</i> (male)	きみたち <i>kimitachi</i> (male) きみら <i>kimira</i> (male)
	Very Informal	おれたち <i>oretachi</i> (male)	おまえたち <i>omaetachi</i> (male) おまえら <i>omaera</i> (male)

Note: (Male) / (female) means that the particular pronoun is used by a male / female speaker, respectively.

The first person singular pronoun *watakushi* has at least six contracted forms. The way the contraction (i.e., omission of sounds) takes place is as follows:

- ~~wata~~*kyushi* → *watashi* (formal)  
~~wata~~*kushi* → *atakushi* (formal, female)  
~~wata~~*kyushi* → *atashi* (informal, female)  
~~wata~~*kyushi* → *atai* (very informal / vulgar, female)  
~~wat~~*akushi* → *washi* (informal, older male)  
~~wat~~*akushi* → *asshi* (very informal, adult male of the Bay area of Tokyo)

The fact that there is more than one pronoun for the first and second person leads us to suspect that Japanese first and second person pronouns are not pure pronouns but are a kind of noun. In fact, these 'pronouns' can be freely modified by adjectives or by relative clauses as in (1) and cannot be repeated in a single sentence as in (2), which supports the idea that they are similar to regular nouns.

- (1) a. 忙しい私はテレビも見られない。  
*Isogashii **watashi** wa terebi mo mirarenai.*  
 (Lit. Busy me cannot see even TV. (=I cannot even watch TV because I'm so busy.))
- b. 音楽が好きな私は一日中音楽を聞いている。  
*Ongaku ga sukina **watashi** wa ichinichijū ongaku o kiite iru.*  
 (Lit. I who like music is listening to music all day long. (=Because I like music, I listen to it all day long.))
- c. 若いあなたにはまだ分からないでしょう。  
*Wakai **anata** ni wa mada wakaranai deshō.*  
 (Lit. Young you probably won't understand it. (=Since you are young, you probably won't understand it.))
- (2) a. \*私は私の部屋で私の友達と話していた。  
 \****Watashi** wa **watashi** no heya de **watashi** no tomodachi to hanashite ita.*  
 (I was talking with my friend in my room.)  
 → 私は ø 部屋で ø 友達と話していた。  
***Watashi** wa ø heya de ø tomodachi to hanashite ita.*
- b. \*あなたはきのうあなたの部屋であなたの友達と何をしていましたか。  
 \****Anata** wa kinō **anata** no heya de **anata** no tomodachi to nani o shite imashita ka.*

(What were you doing yesterday with your friend in your room?)

→ あなたはきのう 〇 部屋で 〇 友達と何をしていましたか。

*Anata wa kinō 〇 heya de 〇 tomodachi to nani o shite imashita ka.*

It is also important to note that Japanese first and second person pronouns are deleted unless it is necessary to emphasize *me*-ness or *you*-ness. Under normal communicative situations, who is speaking to whom is obvious, so Japanese speakers simply omit these pronouns. Students of Japanese, therefore, should avoid using first and second person pronouns whenever possible.

In addition to first and second person pronouns, there are other ways to refer to the speaker or the addressee, as summarized in the following chart.

Kinds & Conditions	Self-address Forms	Alter-address Forms
Kinship terms	お父さん (your father) <i>o-tō-san</i> お母さん (your mother) <i>o-kā-san</i> おじいさん (your grandpa) <i>o-jī-san</i> おばあさん (your grandma) <i>o-bā-san</i> おじさん (your uncle) <i>oji-san</i> おばさん (your aunt) <i>oba-san</i>	お父さん <i>o-tō-san</i> お母さん <i>o-kā-san</i> おじいさん <i>o-jī-san</i> おばあさん <i>o-bā-san</i> おじさん <i>oji-san</i> おばさん <i>oba-san</i>
Social role terms	先生 (your teacher) <i>sensei</i>	先生 <i>sensei</i> 社長 (president of a company) <i>shachō</i> 課長 (section chief) <i>kachō</i>
Occupational terms	none	魚屋さん (fish monger) <i>sakana-ya-san</i> 肉屋さん (butcher) <i>niku-ya-san</i>
First / Last names	花子 <i>Hanako</i>	花子さん <i>Hanako-san</i> 田中さん <i>Tanaka-san</i>



Within a family, if the speaker is considered superior (primarily in terms of age) to the addressee (Speaker > Addressee), he may use a kinship term as a form of self-address, but if not, he can use only a first person pronoun in self-address. If the addressee is considered superior to the speaker (Addressee > Speaker), the speaker has to employ the kinship term of the addressee when addressing him, or he must use a second person pronoun or the addressee's name (optionally with *-san* or *-chan*). Outside the family, in an Addressee > Speaker situation, the speaker has to employ the addressee's social role term when addressing him. If the situation is Speaker > Addressee, the speaker cannot use his own social role term as a form of self-address, except for the term *sensei* when it refers to elementary and junior high school teachers.

Occupational terms such as *sakana-ya* 'fish monger', *niku-ya* 'butcher' and *hana-ya* 'florist' are used as address forms by attaching *-san* to them. (⇒ *-ya*) Also, a female first name is employed by a young girl as a self-address form in very informal speech as in (3).

- (3) あのね、京子きのう一郎さんとデートしたのよ。

*Ano ne, Kyōko kinō Ichirō-san to dēto shita no yo.*

(You know what? I (=Kyoko) had a date with Ichiro yesterday!)

There is no real third person pronoun in Japanese. As shown in (4), all English third person pronouns have no corresponding forms in Japanese.

- (4) a. 山田さんは去年アメリカに行った。英語が勉強したかったのだ。

*Yamada-san wa kyonen Amerika ni itta. Eigo ga benkyōshitakatta no da.*

(Mr. Yamada went to America last year. *He* wanted to study English.)

- b. 上田さんは十年前に買った車にまだ乗っている。

*Ueda-san wa jūnen mae ni katta kuruma ni mada notte iru.*

(Mr. Ueda is still driving the car which *he* bought ten years ago.)

- c. A: ボブはきのう来ましたか。

*Bobu wa kinō kimashita ka.*

(Did Bob come see you yesterday?)

- B: ええ、来ましたよ。

*Ē, kimashita yo.*

(Yes, *he* did.)

- d. A: 田中さん達、遅いわねえ。

*Tanaka-san-tachi, osoi wa nē.*

(Miss Tanaka and the people with her are late, aren't they?)

B : 忘れているんじゃないかしら。

*Wasurete iru n ja nai ka shira.*

(I wonder if *they* have forgotten about this.)

c. ここから大阪まで車で一時間かかる。

*Koko kara Ōsaka made kuruma de ichijikan kakaru.*

(It takes one hour from here to Osaka.)

f. 今七時です。

*Ima shichiji desu.*

(It is seven now.)

During the past century or so, however, the third person pronouns *kare* 'he', *kanojo* 'she', *karera* 'they (male)' and *kanojora* 'they (female)' have begun to be employed primarily in novels translated into Japanese and in Japanese novels. These pronouns are also fairly widely used in current spoken Japanese. Like first and second person pronouns, they are treated very much like nouns, as seen in (5).

(5) a. 僕の彼女、とてもきれいなんだ。

*Boku no **kanojo**, totemo kireina n da.*

(My girl friend is very pretty, you know.)

b. 大学を出た彼はすぐ結婚した。

*Daigaku o deta **kare** wa sugu kekkonshita.*

(Lit. He who finished college got married right away. (=He got married right after graduation from college.))

There is one condition governing the use of third person pronouns:

The speaker / writer is psychologically somewhat distant from the referent of the pronoun.

## 5. Passive

The concept of passive in Japanese, which is called *ukemi* (受身) (lit. body which receives something), is considerably different from its English counterpart. The Japanese passive contains two elements: an event (i.e., an action by someone / something) and a person or thing which is affected by that event. For example, if someone runs away and it affects someone else, that action can be expressed by the passive construction. Or, if someone smokes and it affects someone else, that can be a passive situation. In other words, the common characteristic of the Japanese passive is that the event is not under the control of those affected by it. Note that the person in the first situation above has no control over someone's running away and the one in the second has no control over someone's smoking.

Passive situations are expressed in various ways according to the situation. The most common way is to use the passive forms of verbs. (⇒ *rareru*<sup>1</sup>) For instance, the above situations can be expressed as in (1), using passive verb forms.

- (1) a. 山田さんは奥さんに逃げられた。  
*Yamada-san wa okusan ni nigerareta.*  
 (Lit. Mr. Yamada's wife ran away on him.)
- b. 太郎は春子にたばこをすわれた。  
*Tarō wa Haruko ni tabako o suwareta.*  
 (Lit. Taro had a cigarette smoked by Haruko on him.)

Notice here that in (1a) the verb *nigeru* 'run away' is intransitive and in (1b) there is a direct object *tabako* 'cigarette'. Neither (1a) nor (1b) can be expressed using the English passive construction "*be*+past participle". This type of construction, however, is frequently found in Japanese and is called 'the indirect passive'. In indirect passive sentences the thing affected by the event is usually human and how the person is affected is interpretable only from the context. The sentences in (1) show situations where someone is negatively affected. The following is an example where the person is positively affected.

- (2) 木村さんは美人に横に座られてうれしそうだ。  
*Kimura-san wa bijin ni yoko ni suwararete ureshi sōda.*  
 (Lit. Mr. Kimura, having a pretty woman sit beside him, looks happy.)

In indirect passive sentences the agent of the event is usually animate and the action is volitional. Therefore, the following examples are all unacceptable.

- (3) a. \*私は石に頭に落ちられた。  
*\*Watashi wa ishi ni atama ni ochirareta.*  
 (\*My head was fallen on by a rock.)
- b. \*トムは交差点のまん中で車に止まれた。  
*\*Tomu wa kōsaten no mannaka de kuruma ni tomarareta.*  
 (\*Tom was stopped in the middle of the intersection by his car.)

There are, however, a very few exceptions, as seen in (4).

- (4) 僕は雨に降られた。  
*Boku wa ame ni furareta.*  
 (Lit. It rained on me.)

The passive forms of verbs can also express what is called direct passive. (5) presents some examples.

- (5) a. ジョンはビルにぶたれた。  
*Jon wa Biru ni butareta.*  
 (John was hit by Bill.)
- b. この絵は十九世紀に描かれた。  
*Kono e wa jūkyū-seiki ni kakareta.*  
 (This picture was painted in the nineteenth century.)
- c. 酒は米から作られる。  
*Sake wa kome kara tsukurareru.*  
 (*Sake* is made from rice.)

As seen in (5), direct passive sentences have passive equivalents in English. It is noted that in direct passive sentences, too, the conditions mentioned above are satisfied. That is, in (5a) there is a person, John, who was affected by an event, Bill's hitting, and the event was not under John's control. The difference between direct passive and indirect passive is that in direct passive sentences a person / thing is *directly* affected by an event (i.e., a person / thing is the direct receiver of someone's / something's action) as in (5), while in indirect passive sentences the effect of an event on a person is indirect (i.e., a person is not the direct receiver of someone's / something's action), as seen in (1) – (4).

In general, when a passive sentence is used, it is about the person / thing which is affected by the event, and when what is affected is human, the sentence takes the viewpoint of the person rather than the agent of the event.

(See 9. Viewpoint.)

Some passive situations are also expressed by the verb *morau* 'get', as in (6).

- (6) a. マーガレットはポールにイヤリングをもらった。  
*Māgaretto wa Pōru ni iyaringu o moratta.*  
 (Margaret got a pair of earrings from Paul.)
- b. メアリーはスティーブにアパートに来てもらった。  
*Meari wa Sutibu ni apāto ni kite moratta.*  
 (Mary had Steve come to her apartment. (=Steve came to Mary's apartment for her.))
- c. 私は父にカメラを買ってもらった。  
*Watashi wa chichi ni kamera o katte moratta.*  
 (I had my father buy me a camera. (=My father bought a camera for me.))

When *morau* is used, the event always affects the person *positively*. (This is not the case with sentences with *rareru*.) In this case, also, the speaker's viewpoint is that of the person affected by the event. (⇒ *morau*<sup>1,2</sup>)

*Naru* 'become' can also express some passive situations. Compare the following pairs of sentences with *suru* 'do' and *naru*.

- (7) a. 山口さんはアメリカに行くことにした。  
*Yamaguchi-san wa Amerika ni iku koto ni shita.*  
 (Mr. Yamaguchi has decided to go to America.)
- b. 山口さんはアメリカに行くことになった。  
*Yamaguchi-san wa Amerika ni iku koto ni natta.*  
 (It's been decided that Mr. Yamaguchi is going to America.)
- (8) a. 先生はフレッドを停学にした。  
*Sensei wa Fureddo o teigaku ni shita.*  
 (The teacher suspended Fred from school.)
- b. フレッドは停学になった。  
*Fureddo wa teigaku ni natta.*  
 (Fred was suspended from school.)

Here, again, the viewpoint in the (b) sentences is that of the person affected by the event, and the agent of the event is not the speaker's main concern.

(⇒ *koto ni naru*; *naru*)

## 6. Politeness and Formality

All languages are equipped with polite expressions and Japanese is no exception. What makes Japanese polite expressions distinctly different from those of other languages is that the Japanese system involves grammar as well as lexical items. Basically, there are two ways to be polite in Japanese; one is to elevate the speaker's superior, i.e., a person who is older and higher in social status than the speaker. Expressions of this type are called *Honorific Polite Expressions*. The other method is to lower the speaker or his in-group members, and thus elevate his superior indirectly. Expressions of this type are called *Humble Polite Expressions*.

With *Honorific Polite Expressions*, the subject of the sentence is the speaker's superior and the form of the main predicate is an honorific form, as shown below:

### (A) *Honorific Polite Verbs*

#### *Regular Formation*

Nonpolite (Dictionary Form)	Honorific Polite	
	<i>o- Vmasu ni naru</i>	Passive Form
話す (talk) <i>hanasu</i>	お話し になる <i>o-hanashi ni naru</i>	話される <i>hanasareru</i>
教える (teach) <i>oshieru</i>	お教え になる <i>o-oshie ni naru</i>	教えられる <i>oshierareru</i>

#### *Irregular Forms*

Nonpolite (Dictionary Form)	Honorific Polite
見る (see) <i>miru</i>	ご覧 になる <i>goran ni naru</i> (Gr. 1)
知っている (know) <i>shitte iru</i>	ご存知 だ <i>gozonji da</i>
居る / 来る / 行く (be / come / go) <i>iru / kuru / iku</i>	いらっしゃる <i>irassharu</i> (Gr. 1)
くれる (give (to me)) <i>kureru</i>	くださる <i>kudasaru</i> (Gr. 1)
食べる (eat) <i>taberu</i>	召し上がる <i>meshiagaru</i> (Gr. 1)
する (do) <i>suru</i>	なさる <i>nasaru</i> (Gr. 1)
来る / 行く / 居る (come / go / be) <i>kuru / iku / iru</i>	おいで になる (Gr. 1) <i>oide ni naru</i>

着る (wear) <i>kiru</i>	お召しになる (Gr. 1) <i>omeshi ni naru</i>
死ぬ (die) <i>shinu</i>	おなくなりになる (Gr. 1) <i>o-nakunari ni naru</i>
言う (say) <i>iu</i>	おっしゃる (Gr. 1) <i>ossharu</i>

The following are typical examples of sentences using honorific polite verbs:

- (1) a. 先生はアメリカの大学で日本語をお教えになります。  
*Sensei wa Amerika no daigaku de nihongo o o-oshie ni narimasu.*  
(The professor will teach Japanese at an American college.)
- b. 先生はアメリカの大学で日本語を教えられます。  
*Sensei wa Amerika no daigaku de nihongo o oshieraremasu.*  
(The professor will teach Japanese at an American college.)
- c. 先生はゴルフをなさるとおっしゃいました。  
*Sensei wa gorufu o nasaru to osshaimashita.*  
(The professor told me that he's going to play golf.)

Sentence (1a) with its longer honorific expression, is more polite than (1b), which has a shorter honorific expression. Notice also that the honorific form in (1b) is the same as the passive form. An important characteristic of the honorific and passive form is *indirectness*, the origin of honorific politeness. Sentence (1c) includes the irregular verbs *nasaru* 'do' and *ossharu* 'say'. Such verbs as *nasaru* and *ossharu* which are irregular must be memorized one by one. Note that the following honorific polite verbs are Gr. 1 verbs, but are irregular in their conjugations of formal nonpast and imperative forms.

Inf Neg	Fml Nonpast	Inf Nonpast	Conditional	Imperative
いらっしゃらない <i>irassharanai</i>	いらっしゃいます <i>irasshaimasu</i>	いらっしゃる <i>irassharu</i>	いらっしゃれば <i>irasshareba</i>	いらっしゃい <i>irasshai</i>
くださらない <i>kudasaranai</i>	くださいます <i>kudasaimasu</i>	くださる <i>kudasaru</i>	くだされば <i>kudasareba</i>	ください <i>kudasai</i>
なさらない <i>nasaranai</i>	なさいます <i>nasaimasu</i>	なさる <i>nasaru</i>	なされば <i>nasareba</i>	なさい <i>nasai</i>
おっしゃらない <i>ossharanai</i>	おっしゃいます <i>osshaimasu</i>	おっしゃる <i>ossharu</i>	おっしゃれば <i>osshareba</i>	おっしゃい <i>osshai</i>

The honorific polite form of *Vte iru* is formed as shown in the following chart.

*Honorific Polite Forms of Vte iru.*

Nonpolite	Honorific Polite	
読んでいる (be reading) <i>yonde iru</i>	<i>Vte irassharu</i>	<i>o- Vmasu da / de irassharu</i>
	読んでいらっしゃる <i>yonde irassharu</i>	お読みだ / でいらっしゃる <i>o-yomi da / de irassharu</i>
教えている (be teaching) <i>oshiete iru</i>	教えていらっしゃる <i>oshiete irassharu</i>	お教えだ / でいらっしゃる <i>o-oshie da / de irassharu</i>

The use of the honorific polite *Vte iru* is exemplified by (2) below. Here again the longer version is more polite than the shorter one. Thus, the hierarchy of politeness is: *o- Vmasu de irassharu* > *Vte irassharu* > *o- Vmasu da*.

- (2) a. 先生は今ご本をお読みでいらっしゃいます。  
*Sensei wa ima go-hon o o-yomi de irasshaimasu.*  
 (The professor is reading a book.)
- b. 先生は今ご本を読んでいらっしゃいます。  
*Sensei wa ima go-hon o yonde irasshaimasu.*
- c. 先生は今ご本をお読みだ。  
*Sensei wa ima go-hon o o-yomi da.*

(B) *Honorific Polite Adjectives*

*Regular Formation (Adj(i))*

Nonpolite (Dictionary Form)	Honorific Polite <i>o- Adj(i) inf</i>
若い (young) <i>wakai</i>	お若い <i>o-wakai</i>
強い (strong) <i>tsuyoi</i>	お強い <i>o-tsuyoi</i>

*Irregular Forms*

Nonpolite	Honorific Polite
いい / よい (good) <i>ii / yoi</i>	およろしい <i>o-yoroshii</i>



*Regular Formation (Adj(na))*

Nonpolite	Honorific Polite
	<i>o-</i> Adj( <i>na</i> )stem { <i>da / de irassharu</i> }
元気だ (healthy) <i>genkida</i>	お元気{だ / でいらっしゃる} <i>o-genki</i> { <i>da / de irassharu</i> }
きれいだ (pretty) <i>kireida</i>	おきれい{だ / でいらっしゃる} <i>o-kirei</i> { <i>da / de irassharu</i> }

There are additional polite adjectival forms (such as *o-wakō gozaimasu* (from *wakai* 'young'), *o-tsuyō gozaimasu* (from *tsuyoi* 'strong')), but such hyperpolite forms are now seldom used by younger native speakers, except in greetings such as *o-hayō gozaimasu* (from *hayai* 'early'), *o-medetō gozaimasu* 'Congratulations!' (from *medetai* 'auspicious') and *arigatō gozaimasu* 'Thank you very much' (from *arigatai* 'grateful'). Adjectives which can be used in honorific polite sentences are limited to those which refer to personal characteristics. Examples follow:

- (3) a. お若いですね。

*O-wakaidesu ne.*

(You are young, aren't you?)

- b. お父さんはお元気でいらっしゃいますか。

*O-tō-san wa o-genkide irasshaimasu ka.*

(Lit. Is your father healthy? (=How is your father's health?))

In terms of humble polite expressions, the subject of the sentence is the speaker or someone in his in-group rather than the speaker's superior. The humble polite predicates are listed below:

(C) *Humble Polite Verbs*  
*Regular Formation*

Nonpolite (Dictionary Form)	Humble Polite <i>o-</i> Vmasu <i>suru / itasu</i>
話す (talk) <i>hanasu</i>	お話す / いたす <i>o-hanashi suru / itasu</i>
教える (teach) <i>oshieru</i>	お教えする / いたす <i>o-oshie suru / itasu</i>

*Irregular Formation*

Nonpolite (Dictionary Form)	Humble Polite
見る (see) <i>miru</i>	拝見する / いたす <i>haiken suru / itasu</i> (Gr. 1)
借りる (borrow) <i>kariru</i>	拝借する / いたす <i>haishaku suru / itasu</i>
飲む / 食べる / もらう (drink / eat / receive) <i>nomu / taberu / morau</i>	いただく <i>itadaku</i> (Gr. 1)
する (do) <i>suru</i>	いたす <i>itasu</i> (Gr. 1)
来る / 行く (go) <i>kuru / iku</i>	まいる <i>mairu</i> (Gr. 1)
言う (say) <i>iu</i>	申す <i>mōsu</i> (Gr. 1)
会う (meet) <i>au</i>	お目にかかる <i>o-me ni kakaru</i> (Gr. 1) (お会いする / いたす) ( <i>o-ai suru / itasu</i> )
いる (be) <i>iru</i>	おる <i>oru</i> (Gr. 1)
やる / あげる (give) <i>yaru / ageru</i>	さしあげる <i>sashiageru</i> (Gr. 2)
知っている (know) <i>shitte iru</i>	存じている <i>zonjite iru</i> (Gr. 2)

Typical sentences containing humble polite expressions follow:

- (4) a. 私がそのお荷物をお持ちします。  
*Watashi ga sono o-nimotsu o o-mochi shimasu.*  
 (I will carry your luggage.)
- b. 母がお連れいたします。  
*Haha ga o-tsure itashimasu.*  
 (My mother will take you there.)

Sentence (4b) with its longer humble expression is more humble than (4a) with a shorter humble expression.

In addition to the two major polite expressions (i.e., Honorific Polite and Humble Polite Expressions), there is what might be called *Neutral Polite Expression*. It is called 'neutral' because its predicate *de gozaimasu* can be honorific-, humble- or neutral-polite, as shown in the following chart.

(D) *Neutral Polite Form of Copula 'da'*

Nonpolite	Neutral Polite
(a) 先生は病気だ。 <i>Sensei wa byōki da.</i> (The professor is ill.)	Speaker's superior <i>wa / ga o- / go- ~ de go-zaimasu.</i> (Honorific)
	先生はご病気でございます。 <i>Sensei wa go-byōki de gozaimasu.</i>
(b) 私は学生だ。 <i>Watashi wa gakusei da.</i> (I am a student.)	Speaker <i>wa / ga ~ de gozaimasu.</i> (Humble)
	私は学生でございます。 <i>Watakushi wa gakusei de gozaimasu.</i>
(c) あれは議事堂です。 <i>Are wa gijidō desu.</i> (That's the Diet building.)	Inanimate object <i>wa / ga ~ de gozaimasu.</i> (Neutral)
	あれは議事堂でございます。 <i>Are wa gijidō de gozaimasu.</i>

In (Da) the speaker is being polite to the person referred to by the subject. In (Db) the speaker is being humble towards the addressee and in (Dc) the speaker is just using polite speech; it is not directed towards the inanimate object referred to by the subject.

In the case of honorific polite expressions in general, the polite prefix *o-* or *go-* is attached to someone or something belonging to the human subject of a sentence. Although the prefixes *o-* and *go-* are normally attached to Japanese and Sino-Japanese nouns, respectively, the prefix *o-* can be attached to highly Japanized nouns such as *benkyō* (勉強) 'study', *cha* (茶) 'tea' and *den-wa* (電話) 'telephone'. *Go-*, however, is never attached to traditional Japanese nouns. Example sentences in which *o-* or *go-* are used are given below:

- (5) a. 先生はお車をお持ちですか。  
*Sensei wa o-kuruma o o-mochi desu ka.*  
 (Do you have a car, Professor?)
- b. 田中先生はご本をお書きになった。  
*Tanaka-sensei wa go-hon o o-kaki ni natta.*  
 (Prof. Tanaka has written a book.)

The prefixes *o-* and *go-* can also be attached to things which are not related to the speaker's superior, especially to basic items related to clothing, food and housing. The purpose of such usage is to make a sentence sound more elegant. Female speakers tend to use *o-* and *go-* in this way more frequently than males. Example sentences follow:

- (6) a. 今晚はお刺身とお吸い物にしましょうか。  
*Konban wa o-sashimi to o-suimono ni shimashō ka.*  
 (Shall we make it *sashimi* and clear soup tonight?)
- b. お手洗いはどこですか。  
*O-tearai wa doko desu ka.*  
 (Where is the washroom?)

It is also important to note that there is a stylistic distinction between the *informal* and *formal* styles, independent of the honorific-, humble-, and neutral-polite distinctions. The formal style is normally used when one is NOT speaking intimately or personally with someone who belongs to his in-group. The informal style is used when one is speaking with one's own in-group or when a verb, an adjective or the copula is used in specific grammatical positions, such as right before *hazu da* 'be expected to' or *tsumori da* 'intend to', as shown in (7).  
 (⇒ Appendix 4 (C), (D), (E), (I), (J) and (K))

- (7) a. 先生は今日研究室にいらっしゃる / \*いらっしゃいますはずです。  
*Sensei wa kyō kenkyūshitsu ni irassharu / \*irasshaimasu hazu desu.*  
 (The professor is expected to be at his office today.)
- b. 私が先生にご連絡する / \*ご連絡しますつもりです。  
*Watashi ga sensei ni go-renrakusuru / \*go-renrakushimasu tsumori desu.*  
 (I intend to contact you, Professor.)

The formal style is marked by *-mas-* or *-des-* as shown in the following chart.

<div>Styles</div> <div>Predicates</div>		Informal		Formal	
		Nonpast	Past	Nonpast	Past
Verbals	Verb	食べる <i>taberu</i> (eat)	食べた <i>tabeta</i> (ate)	食べます <i>tabemasu</i> (eat)	食べました <i>tabemashita</i> (ate)
	Adj ( <i>i</i> )	広い <i>hiro</i> (is wide)	広かった <i>hirokatta</i> (was wide)	広いです <i>hiroidesu</i> (is wide)	広がったです <i>hirokattadesu</i> (was wide)
Nominals	Adj ( <i>na</i> )	きれいだ <i>kireida</i> (is pretty)	きれいだった <i>kireidatta</i> (was pretty)	きれいです <i>kireidesu</i> (is pretty)	きれいでした <i>kireideshita</i> (was pretty)
	Noun	本だ <i>hon da</i> (is a book)	本だった <i>hon datta</i> (was a book)	本です <i>hon desu</i> (is a book)	本でした <i>hon deshita</i> (was a book)

Students of Japanese will usually be exposed to the formal style in their beginning textbook, because it is the proper stylistic register for adults. They should be aware, however, that the informal style is more basic than the formal style, as evidenced by the fact that native children master the informal style first.

It is interesting to note that whenever the speaker takes a *speaker-oriented position* he switches his style from formal to informal, even in a formal situation. For example, a student speaking with his professor would use the formal style during conversation. But, if he were stung by a bee while talking, he would use the informal *itai* 'ouch', rather than the formal form *itaidesu*, because getting stung is purely a speaker-oriented matter. This is an extreme case, but there are many situations where the informal style must be used due to speaker-orientation. This results in a formal discourse interspersed with informal verbals and nominals.

Finally, in practical terms, what are the appropriate situations for polite sentences? Generally speaking, an inferior uses polite speech to an addressee or to the person presented as the topic of a sentence. Typical situations are the following:

You are:	Your addressee is:
student	teacher, professor
subordinate	boss
salesperson	customer
junior	senior

Sometimes, an older person uses polite expressions when he is asking a favor of a younger person. Under such circumstances, the older person feels psychologically inferior to the person he is addressing.

Another appropriate situation for polite speech involves discourse among adults of equal status who do not know each other well. Formal Japanese is also used at such occasions as ceremonies, public speeches and public announcements. The informal style, then, is normally reserved for communication among equals who are on intimate terms.

## 7. Sentence-final Particles

In Japanese there is a group of particles called sentence-final particles. In non-inverted sentences, sentence-final particles are placed at the end of a main clause and indicate the function of the sentence or express the speaker's emotion or attitude toward the hearer in a conversational situation. (Personal letters, which are a sort of conversation between the sender and the receiver, may also contain sentence-final particles.) Some of these particles are used exclusively by male or exclusively by female speakers, so they also function to mark the speaker's sex. In what follows, we will take some common sentence-final particles and see how they are used.

(1) is a declarative sentence. If the sentence-final particles *ka* and *ne* are affixed to (1), as in (2) and (3), the sentence becomes a question ((2)) and a sentence of confirmation ((3)).

- (1) 山田さんは先生です。  
*Yamada-san wa sensei desu.*  
(Mr. Yamada is a teacher.)
- (2) 山田さんは先生ですか。  
*Yamada-san wa sensei desu ka.*  
(Is Mr. Yamada a teacher?)
- (3) 山田さんは先生ですね。  
*Yamada-san wa sensei desu ne.*  
(Mr. Yamada is a teacher, isn't he?)

*Ne* is also used to soften requests and invitations, and it often expresses the speaker's friendliness.

- (4) 来て(ください)ね。  
*Kite (kudasai) ne.*  
(Please come.)
- (5) 一緒に行きましょうね。  
*Isshoni ikimashō ne.*  
(Let's go together, shall we?)

*Ne* can be used with polite imperatives but not with plain imperatives.

- (6) 学校へ行きなさいね。  
*Gakkō e ikinasai ne.*  
(Go to school, okay?)

- (7) \*学校へ行けね。  
\*Gakkō e ike *ne*.

*Na* functions as the negative imperative marker when it is used with informal nonpast verbs.

- (8) a. こっちへ来るな。  
Kotchi e kuru *na*.  
(Don't come this way.)
- b. 動くな。  
Ugoku *na*.  
(Don't move.)

When *na* is affixed to informal declarative or invitational sentences, it sometimes functions like *ne*, with the limitation that it is used only by men.

- (9) a. 一郎は一年生だな。  
Ichirō wa ichi-nensei da *na*.  
(Ichiro is a freshman, isn't he?)
- b. 一緒に行こうな。  
Isshoni ikō *na*.  
(Let's go together, shall we?)

*Na* is also used by men in monologue situations.

- (10) a. おかしいな。誰もいない。どうしたんだろう。  
Okashii *na*. Dare mo inai. Dō shita n darō.  
(It's strange. There's nobody. What's wrong, I wonder?)

Sometimes *na* is used with formal sentences in older men's speech. This *na* conveys the feeling of weak assertion.

- (11) a. それはちょっと難しいですな。  
Sore wa chotto muzukashii desu *na*.  
(That's a bit difficult.)

*Yo*, *zo* and *ze* are used for assertion. Some English equivalents are "I tell you", "you know", "believe me", and "I'd say". *Zo* and *ze* are exclusively used in informal male speech.

- (12) a. 私は知りませんよ。  
Watashi wa shirimasen *yo*.  
(I don't know. Believe me.)



- b. おれは負けないぞ。  
*Ore wa makenai zo.*  
 (I won't lose!)

- c. これは金だぜ。  
*Kore wa kin da ze.*  
 (Hey, this is gold!)

*Yo* and *ze* are also used with invitational sentences.

- (13) 今晚は飲もうよ / ぜ。  
*Konban wa nomō yo / ze.*  
 (Let's drink tonight!)

*Wa* is affixed only to declarative sentences by female speakers. It gives sentences a feminine flavor and sometimes expresses a light assertion. It is used in both formal and informal speech.

- (14) a. 私はまだ十八ですわ。  
*Watashi wa mada jūhachi desu wa.*  
 (I am still eighteen.)
- b. あたし、うれしいわ。  
*Atashi, ureshii wa.*  
 (I'm happy.)

*Wa* can be used with *ne* and *yo* but not with *ka*, as in (15).

- (15) a. これ、高いわね。  
*Kore, takai wa ne.*  
 (This is expensive, isn't it?)
- b. 私も行くわよ。  
*Watashi mo iku wa yo.*  
 (I'm going, too.)
- c. \*田中さんも来るわか。  
*\*Tanaka-san mo kuru wa ka.*  
 (Is Mr. Tanaka coming, too?)

*Nē*, *nā* and *wā* are used in exclamatory sentences. *Nē* can also convey the idea of confirmation. *Nā* is usually used by men, but can be heard in conversations by younger women. *Wā* is used only by women.

- (16) a. きれいだねえ。 (Male)  
*Kireida nē.*  
 (Isn't it pretty!)

- b. きれいだわねえ。 (Female)  
*Kireida wa nē.*  
 (Isn't it pretty!)
- c. 鈴木君はよく働くなあ。 (Male)  
*Suzuki-kun wa yoku hataraku nā.*  
 (Boy, Mr. Suzuki works hard!)
- d. すてきだわあ。 (Female)  
*Sutekida wā.*  
 (It's wonderful!)

Some sentence-final particles appear in questions in informal speech. For example, in informal male speech *kai* and *dai* mark yes / no questions and WH-questions, respectively. (⇒ *dai*; *kai*)

- (17) a. これは君の本かい。 (Male)  
*Kore wa kimi no hon kai.*  
 (Is this your book?)
- b. これはだれの本だい。 (Male)  
*Kore wa dare no hon dai.*  
 (Whose book is this?)

In informal female speech the sentence-final *n(o) desu ka* becomes *no* spoken with rising intonation. In this use *no* is almost a female question marker. Examples follow:

- (18) a. 友子さん、パーティーに行かないの? (Female)  
*Tomoko-san, pāti ni ikanai no?*  
 (Aren't you going to the party, Tomoko?)
- b. 何を買うの? (Female)  
*Nani o kau no?*  
 (What are you going to buy?)

*Kashira* and *kanā* also appear in sentence-final position and express the speaker's uncertainty about a proposition. The former is usually used by female speakers and the latter by male speakers.

- (19) a. 私にも出来るかしら。 (Female)  
*Watashi ni mo dekiru kashira.*  
 (Can I do it, too, I wonder?)
- b. あしたは雨かなあ。 (Male)  
*Ashita wa ame kanā.*

(Will it rain tomorrow, I wonder?)

As we have seen in the various examples above, sentence-final particles play an important role in determining the function of a sentence. Also, by using these particles in conversation, a speaker expresses his / her emotion or attitude toward the hearer as well as his / her masculinity / femininity.

## 8. Sound Symbolisms—*giseigo* and *gitaigo*

Japanese is abundant in sound symbolisms in the form of *phonomimes* (= *onomatopoeia*, *giseigo*), *phenomimes* (= *gitaigo*) and *psychomimes* (= *gitaigo*). All languages have phonomimes or direct phonetic representations of actual sounds in every day life, such as the English *bang*, *bowwow*, *cock-a-doodle-do* and *meow*. English phonomimes are normally considered children's language and are not fully integrated into adult language. In Japanese, however, not only *phonomimes* but also *phenomimes* (phonetic representations of phenomena perceptible by non-auditory senses) and *psychomimes* (phonetic representations of human psychological states) are an integral part of adult spoken and written Japanese. Therefore, it is of vital importance that students of Japanese learn these sound symbolisms as part of their ordinary vocabulary.

A summary of sound symbolisms is given below. Each sound symbolism is an adverb associated with a specific verb. The adverb is normally followed by the quote marker *to*, because the sound symbolism is perceived as a quotation. The examples contain the verb that typically co-occurs with the given sound symbolism.

### (A) *Voiceless* and *Voiced Consonants*

Voiced consonants tend to represent something big, heavy, dull or dirty; whereas voiceless consonants represent something small, light, sharp or pretty.

- a. きらきら((と)光る) ((shine) sparklingly)  
*kirakira* ((to) *hikaru*)
- b. ころころ((と)転がる) ((small object) rolls)  
*korokoro* ((to) *korogaru*)
- c. ぽたぽた((と)落ちる) ((small amount of liquid) drips)  
*potapota* ((to) *ochiru*)
- d. さくさく((と)切る) ((cut) a thin, light object)  
*sakusaku* ((to) *kiru*)
- a'. ぎらぎら((と)光る) ((shine) dazzlingly)  
*giragira* ((to) *hikaru*)
- b'. ごろごろ((と)転がる) ((heavy object) rolls)  
*gorogoro* ((to) *korogaru*)
- c'. ぼたぼた((と)落ちる) ((large amount of liquid) drips)  
*botabota* ((to) *ochiru*)

- d'. ざくざく ((と) 切る) ((cut) a thick, heavy object)  
*zakuzaku ((to) kiru)*

(B) *Velar Consonants—k and g*

The velar consonants [k] and [g] tend to represent hardness, sharpness, clear-cutness, separation, detachment or sudden change.

- a. かちかち (に凍る) ((freeze) hard)  
*kachikachi (ni kōru)*
- b. くっきり ((と) 見える) ((be visible) clearly)  
*kukkiri ((to) mieru)*
- c. きっぱり ((と) 別れる) ((separate from people) once and for all)  
*kippari ((to) wakareru)*
- d. がらっ (と変わる) ((completely) change)  
*garat (to kawaru)*
- e. ぐっ (と引く) ((pull) with a jerk)  
*gut (to hiku)*
- f. ぽっくり ((と) 死ぬ) ((die) suddenly)  
*pokkuri ((to) shinu)*

(C) *Dental Fricative Consonant—s*

The dental fricative consonant [s] tends to represent a quiet state or a quiet and quick motion. [sh] in particular seems to represent some quiet human emotion.

- a. さっ (と立ち上がる) ((stand up) quickly)  
*sat (to tachiagaru)*
- b. するする ((と) 滑る) ((slide) smoothly)  
*surusuru ((to) suberu)*
- c. しとしと ((と) 降る) ((it rains) quietly)  
*shitoshito (to furu)*
- d. しんみり ((と) 話す) ((talk) quietly and intimately)  
*shinmiri ((to) hanasu)*
- e. しん (とする) ((be) quiet)  
*shin (to suru)*
- f. しょんぼり ((と) する) ((be) despondent)  
*shonbori ((to) suru)*

- g. こそこそ((と)逃げる) ((escape) secretly)  
*kosokoso ((to) nigeru)*
- h. しゅん(とする) ((be) dispirited)  
*shun (to suru)*
- i. ひっそり((と))する ((be) quiet)  
*hissori ((to) suru)*

(D) *Liquid Consonant—r*

The liquid consonant [r] tends to represent fluidity, smoothness or slipperiness.

- a. すらっ(としている) ((figure) is slim)  
*surat (to shite iru)*
- b. すらすら((と)答える) ((answer) with great ease)  
*surasura ((to) kotaeru)*
- c. くるくる((と)まわる) ((turn) round and round)  
*kurukuru ((to) mawaru)*
- d. つるつる(している) ((be) slippery)  
*tsurutsuru (shite iru)*
- e. ぬるぬる(している) ((be) slimy)  
*nurunuru (shite iru)*
- f. さらさら((と)流れる) ((flow) smoothly)  
*sarasara ((to) nagareru)*
- g. たらたら((と)流れる) ((sweat or blood) drip continuously)  
*taratara ((to) nagareru)*

(E) *Nasal Consonants—m and n*

The nasal sounds tend to represent tactuality, warmth and softness.

- a. むくむく(している) ((of a dog or a cat) is plump)  
*mukumuku (shite iru)*
- b. むちむち(している) ((be) plump)  
*muchimuchi (shite iru)*
- c. なよなよ((と)している) ((be) slender and delicate)  
*nayonayo ((to) shite iru)*
- d. にちゃにちゃ(する) ((be) sticky)  
*nichanicha (suru)*

- e. にゆるにゆる(している) ((be) slimy)  
*nyurunyuru (shite iru)*
- f. ぬるぬる(している) ((be) slimy)  
*nurunuru (shite iru)*
- g. ねちねち(している) ((be) sticky)  
*nechinechi (shite iru)*

(F) *Voiceless Bilabial Plosive*—*p*

The voiceless bilabial plosive (=stop) [p] tends to represent explosiveness, crispiness, strength and suddenness.

- a. ぱっ(と明るくなる) ((become bright) suddenly)  
*pat (to akaruku naru)*
- b. ぴしゃり(と叩く) (whack)  
*pishari (to tataku)*
- c. ぴん(とくる) (come to (me) in a flash)  
*pin (to kuru)*
- d. ぺらぺら((と)しゃべる) (gibber, speak fluently)  
*perapera ((to) shaberu)*
- e. ぴんぴん(している) ((be) peppy)  
*pinpin (shite iru)*
- f. ぷい(と出て行く) ((leave) suddenly)  
*pui (to dete iku)*
- g. ぷつつ(と切れる) ((break) suddenly)  
*putsut (to kireru)*
- h. ぽっかり((と)浮かぶ) ((float) suddenly)  
*pokkari ((to) ukabu)*

(G) *Semi-vowel*—*y*

The semi-vowel [y] tends to represent weakness, slowness and softness.

- a. よいよい(になる) (have locomotor ataxia, loss of reflexes)  
*yoiyoi (ni naru)*
- b. よぼよぼ(になる) ((become) senile)  
*yoboyobo (ni naru)*
- c. よれよれ(になる) ((become) worn-out)  
*yoreyore (ni naru)*

- d. ゆらゆら((と)ゆれる) ((sway) like waves)  
*yurayura* ((to) *yureru*)
- e. ゆっくり(話す) ((speak) slowly)  
*yukkuri* (*hanasu*)
- f. やんわり(と言う) ((tell) softly)  
*yanwari* (to *iu*)
- g. よちよち((と)歩く) ((walk) totteringly)  
*yochiyochi* ((to) *aruku*)

(H) *Back High Vowel—u*

The back high vowel [u] tends to represent something that has to do with human physiology or psychology.

- a. うとうと(する) (doze)  
*utouto* (*suru*)
- b. うきうき(する) ((be) buoyant)  
*ukiuki* (*suru*)
- c. うすうす(感づく) ((perceive) dimly)  
*usuusu* (*kanzuku*)
- d. うずうず(する) (itch for action)  
*uzuuzu* (*suru*)
- e. うつらうつら(する) (doze)  
*utsura**utsura* (*suru*)
- f. うっかり(する) ((be) off guard)  
*ukkari* (*suru*)
- g. うっとり(する) ((be) enchanted)  
*uttori* (*suru*)
- h. うら(さびしい) (somewhat (lonely))  
*ura* (*sabishii*)
- i. うんざり(する) ((be) fed up with)  
*unzari* (*suru*)

(I) *Back Vowel—o*

The back vowel [o] tends to represent something basically negative with regard to human psychology.

- a. おずおず(している) ((be) nervous and timid)  
*ozuozu* (*shite iru*)



- b. おどおど(している) ((be) very nervous)  
*odoodo (shite iru)*
- c. おろおろ(する) ((be) in a dither)  
*orooro (suru)*
- d. おたおた(する) (don't know what to do)  
*otaota (suru)*
- e. おめおめ(とだまされる) ((be deceived) in a shameless manner)  
*omeome (to damasareru)*

(J) *Front Vowel—e*

The front vowel [e] tends to represent something vulgar.

- a. へべれけ(になる) ((become) dead drunk)  
*hebereke (ni naru)*
- b. へらへら((と)笑う) ((laugh) meaninglessly when embarrassed)  
*herahera ((to) warau)*
- c. てらてら(光る) (be glossy)  
*teratera (hikaru)*
- d. めそめそ((と)泣く) (sob)  
*mesomeso ((to) naku)*

In addition to the regular sound symbolisms there are some basic words that can be explained in terms of (B) and (E) above. Consider the following semantically similar words that are indispensable in Japanese grammar.

Velars	Nasals
が <i>ga</i> (subject marker)	の <i>no</i> (subject marker in relative and nominalized clauses)
から <i>kara</i> (because)	ので / もの <i>node / mono</i> (because)
から(貰う) <i>kara (morau)</i> ((receive) from)	に(貰う) <i>ni (morau)</i> ((receive) from)

か <i>ka</i> (or)	の <i>no</i> (a particle for combining nouns)
けれど / が <i>keredo / ga</i> (although / but)	のに <i>noni</i> (although)
こと <i>koto</i> (nominalizer)	の <i>no</i> (nominalizer)
こと <i>koto</i> (an intangible thing)	もの <i>mono</i> (a tangible thing)

The words with the nasal [n] sound more personal, subjective and speaker-oriented than their counterparts with the velar [k] or [g].

It is also to be noted that (C) above would tend to explain why *i*-type adjectives that end in *-shi* as in *kanashii* 'sad', *sabishii* 'lonely', *tanoshii* 'enjoyable', *ureshii* 'happy' represent human emotive psychological states.

Also note that the glottal stop is often used to create more emphatic and / or more emotive versions of a given sound, as in *pitari* vs. *pittari* 'tightly', *yahari* vs. *yappari* 'as expected', *bakari* vs. *bakkari* 'only', *yohodo* vs. *yoppodo* 'to a great extent', *to* vs. *tte* 'that', *i*-type adj. stem+*kute* (e.g., *sabishikute* 'be lonely and ~') vs. *i*-type adj. stem+*kutte* (e.g., *sabishikutte*), etc.

It is important for students of Japanese to learn basic sound symbolisms, (especially, phenomimes and psychomimes) relatively early in their Japanese language study. These words are an indispensable part of the basic vocabulary of any adult speaker. More importantly, the acquisition, use and understanding of Japanese sound symbolisms allow the student to appreciate the keen sensibility of Japanese language and culture toward directly perceptible objects.

## 9. Viewpoint

There is more than one way to describe a state or an event, and the choice of expressions depends, in part, on the viewpoint from which the state or event is described. To illustrate this, let us suppose that a person A hit a person B. This event can be expressed by either (1a) or (1b).

- (1) a. A hit B.
- b. B was hit by A.

Both (1a) and (1b) state the same fact, but the speaker's (or writer's) viewpoint is different. That is, when (1a) is chosen, the speaker is describing the event from A's point of view or a neutral viewpoint, and when (1b) is used, the speaker's description is from B's point of view.

There are several principles and rules concerning viewpoint; some are universal and others are specific to Japanese. The following are rather universal principles:

- (A) Within a single sentence (excluding coordinate sentences) the viewpoint should be consistent.
- (B) When a sentence includes the structure A's B, (e.g., John's wife) the speaker is taking A's viewpoint rather than B's.
- (C) When the speaker (or writer) empathizes with someone, the speaker tends to take that person's viewpoint.
- (D) The speaker usually describes a situation or an event from his own viewpoint rather than from others' when he is involved in the situation or the event.
- (E) It is easier for the speaker to take the viewpoint of the person in a sentence subject position than to take the viewpoint of a person in other positions.
- (F) It is easier for the speaker to take the viewpoint of the person who has been established as a discourse topic than to take the viewpoint of someone who has just been introduced in the discourse.
- (G) Under normal circumstances the speaker cannot take the viewpoint of a dead person.

Although many of the grammatical principles concerning viewpoint are rather universal, as seen above, there are a number of viewpoint-related expressions which are important and specific to Japanese. Some rules concerning these

expressions are listed below :

(H) The following giving / receiving verbs require the viewpoints shown in (2).

- (2) a. やる, あげる, さしあげる (give): the giver's or a neutral viewpoint  
*yaru ageru sashiageru* (when they are used as auxiliary verbs,  
 only the giver's viewpoint)
- b. くれる, くださる (give): the receiver's viewpoint  
*kureru kudasaru*
- c. もらう, いただく (get; receive): the receiver's viewpoint  
*morau itadaku*

(H), together with (A) and (D), explains the unacceptability of the following sentences. ( $\Rightarrow$  *ageru*<sup>1,2</sup>; *kureru*<sup>1,2</sup>; *morau*<sup>1,2</sup>)

- (3) a. \*一郎は私にパンをあげた。  
 \**Ichirō wa watashi ni pan o ageta.*  
 (Ichiro gave me some bread.)
- b. \*私は和男にペンをくれた。  
 \**Watashi wa Kazuo ni pen o kureta.*  
 (I gave Kazuo a pen.)
- c. \*花子は私にえんぴつをもらった。  
 \**Hanako wa watashi ni enpitsu o moratta.*  
 (Hanako received a pencil from me.)

(I) The passive construction, whether direct or indirect, requires the viewpoint of the referent of the subject. (Cp. (E))

Together with (A), (B) and (D), this explains the unnaturalness of sentences like (4). ( $\Rightarrow$  *rareru*<sup>1</sup>)

- (4) a. \*私のむすこは私にしかられた。  
 \**Watashi no musuko wa watashi ni shikarareta.*  
 (My son was scolded by me.)
- b. \*私の家内は私に秘密の手紙を読まれた。  
 \**Watashi no kanai wa watashi ni himitsu no tegami o yomareta.*  
 (My wife had her secret letter read by me.)

(J) When the verb *kuru* 'come' is used, the speaker's viewpoint is somewhere close to the arrival point. When *kuru* is used as an auxiliary verb, the viewpoint is the point *to* which an action is directed or a change proceeds.

- (K) When the verb *iku* 'go' is used, the speaker's viewpoint is somewhere close to the departure point. When *iku* is used as an auxiliary verb, the viewpoint is the point *from* which an action is directed or a change proceeds.

(J) and (K) explain the unacceptability of the sentences in (5) and (6) under the given conditions. (⇒ *iku*<sup>1,2</sup>; *kuru*<sup>1,2</sup>)

- (5) a. [The speaker is in Japan.]  
 \*私は来年アメリカへ来ます。  
 \**Watashi wa rainen Amerika e kimasu.*  
 (I will come to America next year.)
- b. [The speaker is in America.]  
 \*私は去年アメリカへ行きました。  
 \**Watashi wa kyonen Amerika e ikimashita.*  
 (I went to America last year.)
- (6) a. \*私はどろぼうにおそいかかって来た。  
 \**Watashi wa dorobō ni osoikakatte kita.*  
 (Lit. I came to attack the robber.)
- b. \*どろぼうは私におそいかかって行った。  
 \**Dorobō wa watashi ni osoikakatte itta.*  
 (Lit. The robber went to attack me.)

- (L) When adjectives like *hoshii* 'want' (lit. desirable), *ureshii* 'happy' and *kanashii* 'sad' which describe one's personal feelings are used with the third person subject, the speaker empathizes with that person, which usually implies that the speaker is taking the viewpoint of that person.

(Cp. (C))

Thus, if the subject is someone the speaker is unable to empathize with, the adjectives mentioned in (L) cannot be used, as in (7). (⇒ *garu*; *hoshii*; *taī*)

- (7) a. \*見知らぬ人がたばこが欲しい。  
 \**Mishiranu hito ga tabako ga hoshii.*  
 (A stranger wants a cigarette.)
- b. \*通りがかりの人がうれしい。  
 \**Tōrigakari no hito ga ureshii.*  
 (A passerby is happy.)

- (M) Kinship terms can be used for the first person and (less commonly) the second person. In this case the proper kinship term for the first person

(or the second person) is selected from the viewpoint of someone X with whom the speaker empathizes. The person X is usually lower in status than the person for whom a kinship term is used. (e.g., one's little brother) (Cp. 4. Personal Pronouns)

- (8) a. [From an elder brother to his younger brother]

兄さんに見せてごらん。

*Ni-san ni misete goran.*

(Let me see it.)

- b. [From an uncle to his niece]

おじさんがしてあげよう。

*Oji-san ga shite ageyō.*

(I'll do it for you.)

- c. [Spoken by a mother to her daughter Yoshiko from the viewpoint of the daughter's little brother Hiroshi]

お姉ちゃん、ひろしに貸してあげなさい。

*O-nē-chan, Hiroshi ni kashite agenasai.*

(Yoshiko, let Hiroshi have it.)

- (N) When a reflexive pronoun *jibun* 'self' is used, the speaker tends to empathize with the referent of *jibun*, which implies that the speaker's viewpoint is that of the referent. (⇒ *jibun*<sup>1</sup>)

In (9) the referent of *jibun* is Hanako and the speaker is taking Hanako's viewpoint.

- (9) 花子は太郎が自分を愛していると信じていた。

*Hanako wa Tarō ga jibun o aishite iru to shinjite ita.*

(Hanako believed that Taro loved her.)

(10) is unnatural because the viewpoint is inconsistent.

- (10) \*妻は私が自分を今でも愛していると信じている。

*\*Tsuma wa watashi ga jibun o ima demo aishite iru to shinjite iru.*

(My wife believes that I still love her.)

**A DICTIONARY  
OF  
BASIC  
JAPANESE  
GRAMMAR**

**(Main Entries)**

Seiichi Makino and Michio Tsutsui

**日本語基本文法辞典**





ageru<sup>1</sup> あげる v. (Gr. 2)

S.o. gives s.t. to a person who is not a member of the giver's in-group but whose status is about equal to that of the giver.

give

【REL. *kureru*<sup>1</sup> (*morau*<sup>1</sup>)】

## ◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)	Indirect Object	Direct Object	
私 ..... は <i>Watashi ..... wa</i>	良子 ..... に <i>Yoshiko ..... ni</i>	花 ..... を <i>hana ..... o</i>	あげた / あげました。 <i>ageta / agemashita.</i>
(I gave Yoshiko flowers.)			

## Examples

- (a) 大野さんは山本さんに本をあげた。  
*Ōno-san wa Yamamoto-san ni hon o ageta.*  
(Ms. Ono gave Mr. Yamamoto a book.)
- (b) 君はアンに何をあげましたか。  
*Kimi wa An ni nani o agemashita ka.*  
(What did you give to Ann?)

## Notes

1. *Ageru* is one of a set of giving and receiving verbs; the meaning is 'give'. However, *ageru* cannot be used when the indirect object is the first person (i.e., *I* or *we*) or a person with whom the speaker empathizes (usually a member of the speaker's in-group). Thus, (1a) and (1b) are ungrammatical.

- (1) a. \*花子は私に本をあげた。  
\**Hanako wa watashi ni hon o ageta.*  
(Hanako gave me a book.)
- b. \*花子は私のむすこに本をあげた。  
\**Hanako wa watashi no musuko ni hon o ageta.*  
(Hanako gave my son a book.)

The reason for this is as follows: *Ageru* requires the giver's point of view or a neutral point of view when describing an event. When an event involves the first person or a person the speaker empathizes with,

however, the event is normally described from that person's point of view. (See Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 9. Viewpoint.) Therefore, if the first person or a person the speaker empathizes with is a recipient in *ageru*-sentences, a viewpoint conflict arises, making the sentences ungrammatical. The grammatical sentences for (1a) and (1b) are (2a) and (2b), respectively. (⇒ *kureru*<sup>1</sup>)

- (2) a. 花子は私に本をくれた。  
*Hanako wa watashi ni hon o kureta.*  
 (Hanako gave me a book.)
- b. 花子は私のむすこに本をくれた。  
*Hanako wa watashi no musuko ni hon o kureta.*  
 (Hanako gave my son a book.)

2. The humble polite version of *ageru* is *sashiageru*. Example:

- (3) 私は先生に本をさしあげました。  
*Watashi wa sensei ni hon o sashiagemashita.*  
 (I gave my teacher a book.)

The degree of politeness expressed in *sashiageru* is higher than that of *kudasaru* and *itadaku*, which are the polite versions of *kureru* and *morau*, respectively. (⇒ *kureru*<sup>1</sup>, REL. II)

3. When the giver is in a higher position than the recipient or the recipient is a person very close to the speaker, *yaru* is used instead of *ageru*. Examples:

- (4) a. 私は弟に本をやった。  
*Watashi wa otōto ni hon o yatta.*  
 (I gave my little brother a book.)
- b. ひろしは猫にミルクをやった。  
*Hiroshi wa neko ni miruku o yatta.*  
 (Hiroshi gave milk to the cat.)
- c. [Tom is the speaker's intimate friend.]  
 私はトムにケーキをやりしました。  
*Watashi wa Tomu ni kēki o yarimashita.*  
 (I gave a cake to Tom.)

ageru<sup>2</sup> あげる *aux. v. (Gr. 2)*

S.o. gives some action as a favor to a person who is not a member of the giver's in-group but whose status is about equal to that of the giver.

do s.t. for s.o.; do s.o. a favor by doing s.t.

【REL. *kureru*<sup>2</sup> (*morau*<sup>2</sup>)】

## ◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Indirect Object	Direct Object	Vte	
私 ..... は <i>Watashi ..... wa</i>	信男さん ..... に <i>Nobuo-san ..... ni</i>	ネクタイ ..... を <i>nekutai ..... o</i>	買って <i>katte</i>	あげた / あげました。 <i>ageta / agemashita.</i>
(I bought a tie for Nobuo.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object	Vte	
僕 ..... は <i>Boku ..... wa</i>	春子さん ..... を <i>Haruko-san ..... o</i>	なぐさめて <i>nagusamete</i>	あげた / あげました。 <i>ageta / agemashita.</i>
(I consoled Haruko.)			

## Formation

Vte あげる  
*ageru*

話して あげる (talk for s.o.'s sake)  
*hanashite ageru*

食べて あげる (eat for s.o.'s sake)  
*tabete ageru*

## Examples

(a) 君はお母さんに何をしてあげましたか。  
*Kimi wa o-kā-san ni nani o shite agemashita ka.*  
(What did you do for your mother?)

(b) 田中さんはスミスさんに本を貸してあげた。  
*Tanaka-san wa Sumisu-san ni hon o kashite ageta.*  
(Mr. Tanaka lent a book to Mr. Smith.)

## Notes

- (1) a. \*花子は私に日本語を教えてあげた。  
*\*Hanako wa watashi ni nihongo o oshiete ageta.*  
 (Hanako taught me Japanese.)
- b. \*メアリーは私のむすめにペンを買ってあげた。  
*\*Meari wa watashi no musume ni pen o katte ageta.*  
 (Mary bought a pen for my daughter.)

(2) a. 花子は私に日本語を教えてくれた。  
Hanako wa watashi ni nihongo o oshiete **kureta**.

b. メアリーは私のむすめにペンを買ってくれた。  
Meari wa watashi no musume ni pen o katte **kureta**.

- (3) a. \*僕は春子さんに春子さんをなぐさめてあげた。  
 \*Boku wa **Haruko-san ni** Haruko-san o nagusamete ageta.
- b. \*僕は春子さんになぐさめてあげた。  
 \*Boku wa **Haruko-san ni** nagusamete ageta.

- (4) \*私達はジョンに働いてあげた。  
\**Watashitachi wa Jon ni hataraitte ageta.*  
(We worked for John.)

In this case, *no tame ni* ‘for the sake of’ is used, as in (5). ( $\Rightarrow$  ***tame (ni)***)

- (5) 私達はジョンのために働いた。

*Watashitachi wa Jon no tame ni hataraita.*

(We worked for John's sake.)

4. The humble polite version of *Vte ageru* is *Vte sashiageru*. Example:

- (6) 私は先生にピアノをひいてさしあげました。

*Watashi wa sensei ni piano o hiite sashiagemashita.*

(I played the piano for my teacher.)

The degree of politeness expressed in *Vte sashiageru* is higher than that of *Vte kudasaru* and *Vte itadaku*, which are the polite versions of *Vte kureru* and *Vte morau*, respectively. (⇒ *kureru*<sup>1</sup>, REL. II)

5. When the benefactor is in a higher position than the recipient or is of equal status and his relationship to the recipient is close, *Vte yaru* is used instead of *Vte ageru*. Examples:

- (7) a. 私は妹にレコードを買ってやった。

*Watashi wa imōto ni rekōdo o katte yatta.*

(I bought my little sister a record.)

- b. じゅんは猫に魚を焼いてやった。

*Jun wa neko ni sakana o yaite yatta.*

(Jun roasted fish for his cat.)

- c. [John is the speaker's close friend.]

私はジョンにラジオを貸してやりました。

*Watashi wa Jon ni rajio o kashite yarimashita.*

(I lent John my radio.)

**aida (ni) 間 (に)** *phr.*

the space between two temporal or physical points

during (the time when); while  
【REL. *nagara*; *uchi ni*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subordinate Clause				Main Clause
	Vte			
私 が ご飯 を <i>Watashi ga gohan o</i>	食べて <b>tabete</b>	いる <i>iru</i>	間 <i>aida</i>	山田さん は テレビ を <i>Yamada-san wa terebi o</i> 見て いた / いました。 <i>mite ita / imashita.</i>
(While I was eating my meal, Mr. Yamada was watching TV.)				

(B)

Subordinate Clause				Main Clause
	Vte			
私 が ご飯 を <i>Watashi ga gohan o</i>	食べて <b>tabete</b>	いる <i>iru</i>	間 ..... に <i>aida ni</i>	山田さん が 来た / <i>Yamada-san ga kita /</i> 来ました。 <i>kimashita.</i>
(While I was eating my meal, Mr. Yamada came in.)				

**Formation**

(i) Vte いる 間 (に)  
*iru aida (ni)*

話して いる 間 (に) (while s.o. is talking)  
*hanashite iru aida (ni)*

食べて いる 間 (に) (while s.o. is eating)  
*tabete iru aida (ni)*

(ii) Adj (i) 間 (に)  
*aida (ni)*

高い 間 (に) (while s.t. is expensive)  
*takai aida (ni)*

(iii) Adj (na) stem な 間 (に)  
*na aida (ni)*

静かな 間 (に) (while s.t. is quiet)  
*shizukana aida (ni)*

(iv) N の 間 (に)  
*no aida (ni)*

夏休み の 間 (に) (during the summer vacation)  
*natsuyasumi no aida (ni)*

### Examples

- (a) スミスさんは日本にいる間英語を教えていました。  
*Sumisu-san wa Nihon ni iru aida eigo o oshiete imashita.*  
 (Mr. Smith was teaching English (all during the time) while he was in Japan.)
- (b) 子供達がテレビを見ている間私は本を読んでいた。  
*Kodomotachi ga terebi o mite iru aida watashi wa hon o yonde imashita.*  
 (I was reading a book (all during the time) while my children were watching TV.)
- (c) 高橋さんはアメリカにいる間にゴルフを覚えました。  
*Takahashi-san wa Amerika ni iru aida ni gorufu o oboemashita.*  
 (Mr. Takahashi learned golf while he was in America.)
- (d) 中川さんのお母さんは中川さんがパリに留学している間に病気になりました。  
*Nakagawa-san no o-kā-san wa Nakagawa-san ga Pari ni ryūgakushite iru aida ni byōki ni narimashita.*  
 (Mr. Nakagawa's mother became ill while he was studying in Paris.)
- (e) 秋子は子供がいない間に本を読む。  
*Akiko wa kodomo ga inai aida ni hon o yomu.*  
 (Akiko reads books while her children are not at home.)

### Notes

1. The subjects for the *aida*-clause (=subordinate clause) and the main clause can be different as in Exs. (b), (d) and (e) or can be the same as in Exs. (a) and (c). When the subjects are different, the subject in the *aida*-clause is marked not by *wa* but by *ga*.
2. The verb before *aida* is normally nonpast *Vte iru* or *iru*, regardless of the tense of the main clause.

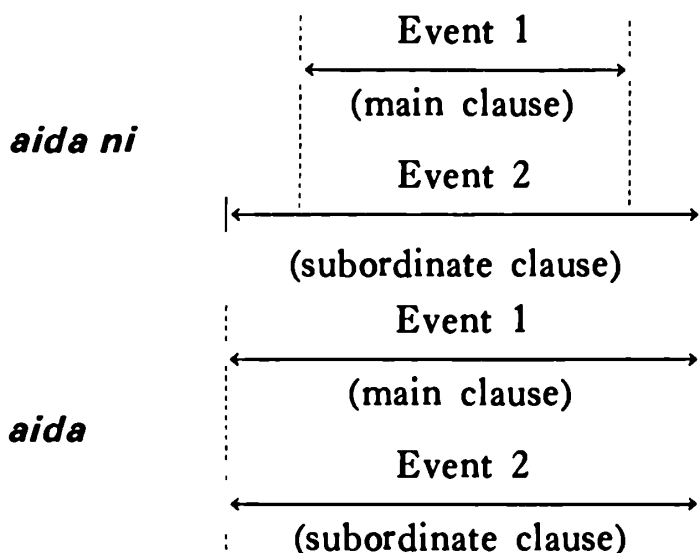
3. *Aida*, if followed by *ni*, a particle of specific time point, means that the time span of an event identified by the main clause falls within the time span of an event identified by the *aida*-clause, as in Exs. (c), (d) and (e). *Aida* without *ni*, as in Exs. (a) and (b), indicates that the two events are assumed to cover the same span of time. Thus, if the main verb is a punctual verb, *aida* should be used with *ni*. The following sentence, therefore, is ungrammatical.

- (1) \*山田さんがパリに留学している間お母さんが病気になった。

\**Yamada-san ga Pari ni ryūgakushite iru aida o-kā-san ga byōki ni natta.*

(\*Mr. Yamada's mother became ill (all during the time) while he was studying in Paris.)

The difference between *aida ni* and *aida* can be diagrammed as follows:



4. A noun or an adjective can be used before *aida*.

- (2) 夏休みの間レストランでアルバイトをしました。

*Natsuyasumi no aida resutoran de arubaito o shimashita.*

(During the summer vacation I worked part time at a restaurant.)

- (3) 夏休みの間にガールフレンドが出来ました。

*Natsuyasumi no aida ni gārufurendo ga dekimashita.*

(During the summer vacation I found a girl friend.)

- (4) 長い間母に手紙を書いていません。

*Nagai aida haha ni tegami o kaite imasen.*

(I haven't written to my mother for a long time.)

- (5) 若い間に本を出来るだけたくさん読みなさい。

*Wakai aida ni hon o dekiru dake takusan yominasai.*

(Read as many books as you can while you are young.)



5. The non-temporal *aida* which means 'space between' or 'relationship' is used in the structure *A to B (to) no aida* 'between A and B' as in:

(6) 日本とアメリカ(と)の間には海しかない。

*Nihon to Amerika (to) no aida ni wa umi shika nai.*

(There is only ocean between Japan and America.)

(7) 山口と僕(と)の間は決して悪くない。

*Yamaguchi to boku (to) no aida wa kesshite warukunai.*

(The relationship between Yamaguchi and me is not bad at all.)

The usage of *aida* meaning 'relationship' in (7) is a metaphorical extension of physical space between two persons.

6. The verb *iru* '(an animate object) exists' can be used by itself, as in Ex. (c), due to its stative nature. Some adjectives such as *takai* 'expensive', *yasui* 'cheap', *atatakai* 'warm', *suzushii* 'cool', *wakai* 'young' can also be used in this way, as follows:

(8) 若い間にスポーツをいろいろした方がいいです。

*Wakai aida ni supōtsu o iroiro shita hō ga iidesu.*

(It's better to do various sports while you are young.)

These adjectives, however, sound a little more natural with *uchi ni* 'while'.  
(⇒ *uchi ni*)

### 【Related Expression】

If the subjects of the main and subordinate clauses are identical and if the verbs are action verbs, *aida* can be replaced by *nagara*, but with different meaning.

[1] 雪子ご飯を食べている間テレビを見ていた。

*Yukiko wa gohan o tabete iru aida terebi o mite ita.*

(Yukiko was watching TV while she was eating her meal.)

[2] 雪子ご飯を食べながらテレビを見ていた。

*Yukiko wa gohan o tabenagara terebi o mite ita.*

(Lit. Yukiko was primarily watching TV, although simultaneously she was eating her meal. (=Yukiko was eating her meal while watching TV.))

[1] and [2] focus on 'duration of some action/state' and 'accompanying minor action', respectively.  
(⇒ *nagara*)

**amari** あまり *adv.*

The degree of s.t. is not great.

(not) very much; (not) very

◆ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)		Predicate (negative)
この 本 ..... は <i>Kono hon ..... wa</i>	あまり <i>amari</i>	よくない / よくありません。 <i>yokunai / yokuarimasen.</i>
(This book is not very good.)		

**Examples**

- (a) 鈴木さんはあまり食べない。  
*Suzuki-san wa amari tabenai.*  
(Miss Suzuki does not eat much.)
- (b) 私はあまり速く走れません。  
*Watashi wa amari hayaku hashiremasen.*  
(I cannot run very fast.)

**Notes**

- The adverb *amari* usually occurs in negative sentences, meaning ‘not very (much)’. *Amari* is one of a group of adverbs which co-occur with negative predicates. They include:
  - zenzen* ‘(not) at all’; *mettani* ‘rarely, seldom’; *kesshite* ‘never, by no means’; *sappari* ‘(not) at all’; *sukoshimo* ‘(not) a bit’; *chittomo* ‘(not) a bit’
- Anmari* is a phonological variant of *amari* and usually used in conversation.
- In limited situations, *amari* can be used in affirmative sentences, too. In this case, it means ‘very; too’ with a negative implication. Examples:
  - (2) a. スコットがあまり失礼なことを言うのでサリーは怒って帰ってしまった。  
*Sukotto ga **amari** shitsureina koto o iu node Sari wa okotte kaette shimatta.*  
(Since Scott was very rude (lit. said very rude things), Sally got mad and went home.)

b. 井上さんはあまり酒を飲んだので病気になった。  
*Inoue-san wa **amari** sake o nonda node byōki ni natta.*

(Mr. Inoue drank too much and became ill.)

c. それはあんまりです。

*Sore wa anmari desu.*

(You're (lit. That's) too cruel.)

**aru<sup>1</sup> ある** v. (Gr. 1)

An inanimate thing exists.

be; exist; have

【REL. *iru<sup>1</sup>*; *motte iru*】

### ◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (location)	Subject	Quantifier	
この 町 (に) は <i>Kono machi (ni) wa</i>	大学 が <i>daigaku ga</i>	三つ <i>mittsu</i>	ある / あります。 <i>aru / arimasu.</i>
(Lit. In this town are three universities. (=There are three universities in this town.))			

(B)

Topic (subject)	Noun (location)		
エッフェル塔 は <i>Efferutō wa</i>	パリ <i>Pari</i>	に <i>ni</i>	ある / あります。 <i>aru / arimasu.</i>
(The Eiffel Tower is in Paris.)			

### Examples

- (a) 私のアパート (に) はテレビが二台ある。  
*Watashi no apāto (ni) wa terebi ga nidai aru.*  
(There are two TV sets in my apartment.)
- (b) デトロイトはミシガン州にあります。  
*Detoroito wa Mishigan-shū ni arimasu.*  
(Detroit is in the State of Michigan.)

- (c) 和田さんのうち(に)はクーラーがない。

*Wada-san no uchi (ni) wa kūrā ga nai.*

(There is no air-conditioner at Mr. Wada's.)

### Notes

1. *Aru* expresses the existence of or the possession of *inanimate things* including abstract things such as events and problems. Thus, (1) is ungrammatical.

- (1) \*この町には日本人がある。

\**Kono machi ni wa nihonjin ga aru.*

(There are Japanese in this town.)

For animate things, *iru*<sup>1</sup> is used.

(⇒ *iru*<sup>1</sup>)

2. The negative informal form of *aru* is not *aranai* but *nai*.
3. Two sentence patterns can be used with *aru*. The KS (A) pattern is used when a location is presented as a topic. In this case, what exists is under focus. In this pattern, the location marker *ni* can optionally drop. The KS (B) pattern is used when something which exists is presented as a topic. In this case, where it exists is under focus. Compare the two patterns in (2).

- (2) A : 早稲田大学はどこにありますか。

*Waseda Daigaku wa doko ni arimasu ka.*

(Where is Waseda University?)

- B : 早稲田大学は東京にあります。

*Waseda Daigaku wa Tōkyō ni arimasu.*

(Waseda University is in Tokyo.)

- A : 東京には早稲田大学しかありませんか。

*Tōkyō ni wa Waseda Daigaku shika arimasen ka.*

(Lit. Are there no universities in Tokyo but Waseda University? (=Is Waseda University the only university in Tokyo?))

- B : いいえ、東京には大学がたくさんあります。

*Ie, Tōkyō ni wa daigaku ga takusan arimasu.*

(No, there are many universities in Tokyo.)

4. A thing (whether animate or inanimate) can also occur in the location position of KS (A). In this case, the sentence expresses possession rather than existence. Examples:

- (3) a. この車(に)はカー・ステレオがある。

*Kono kuruma (ni) wa kâ sutereo ga aru.*

(Lit. There is a car stereo in this car. (=This car has a car stereo.))

- b. 私(に)は車がある。

*Watashi (ni) wa kuruma ga aru.*

(Lit. There is a car with me. (=I have a car.))

Note that even if *aru* expresses the idea of possession, possessed things are marked not by *o* but by *ga*. This is because *aru* essentially indicates existence.

5. When *aru* is used to express the idea of having and the object is animate, that object must be someone who maintains a very close relationship with the possessor, such as a family member, a relative or a friend. Thus, (4) is acceptable, but (5) is odd.

- (4) 私(に)は子供が三人ある。

*Watashi (ni) wa kodomo ga sannin aru.*

(I have three children.)

- (5) ??私(に)は運転手がある。

??*Watashi (ni) wa untenshu ga aru.*

(I have a chauffeur.)

Since *aru* in this usage is a possessive expression, it cannot be used in situations where the idea indicates existence. Thus, (6) is unacceptable.

- (6) \*私(に)は母がもうありません。

\**Watashi (ni) wa haha ga mō arimasen.*

(I don't have my mother now.)

In this case, *iru* must be used.

6. When *aru* is used for events such as parties and concerts, the particle marking locations must be *de* as in (7). (⇒ *de*<sup>1</sup>; *ni*<sup>6</sup>)

- (7) 今日サムのうちに / \*にパーティーがある。

*Kyō Samu no uchi de / \*ni pāti ga aru.*

(There is a party at Sam's today.)

### [Related Expressions]

- I. There is another possessive expression, *motte iru*, which is the *te*-form of *motsu* 'hold' followed by the auxiliary verb *iru*. However, *motte iru* is used only when the possessor is animate and the possessed thing

is inanimate. Thus, [1] is acceptable, but [2] and [3] are not.

[1] ジョンはいい車を持っている。

*Jon wa ii kuruma o motte iru.*

(John has a good car.)

[2] \*ジョンは妹を持っている。

\**Jon wa imōto o motte iru.*

(John has a younger sister.)

[3] \*この車はクーラーを持っている。

\**Kono kuruma wa kūrā o motte iru.*

(This car has an air-conditioner.)

Groups and organizations of people such as political parties, countries, institutions and companies can also be possessors in sentences with *motte iru*, as in [4].

[4] この大学はいい図書館を持っている。

*Kono daigaku wa ii toshokan o motte iru.*

(This university has a good library.)

II. *iru*<sup>1</sup> is also used to express existence. However, *iru*<sup>1</sup> is used only for animate objects. (See Note 1.)

## **aru**<sup>2</sup> ある *aux. v. (Gr. 1)*

S.t. has been done to s.t. and the resultant state of that action remains.

have been done; be done  
【REL. *iru*<sup>2</sup>; *oku*】

### ◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)			Vte	
それ <i>Sore</i>	は <i>wa</i>	もう ジョン に <i>mō Jon ni</i>	話して <i>hanashite</i>	ある / あります。 <i>aru / arimasu.</i>
(It's been told to John already.)				

**Formation**

Vte ある  
aru

話して ある (has been told)  
hanashite aru

食べて ある (has been eaten)  
tabete aru

**Examples**

- (a) 飲み物はもう買ってあります。  
Nomimono wa mō katte arimasu.  
(Drinks have already been bought.)
- (b) 窓が開けてある。  
Mado ga akete aru.  
(The window has been open / is open.)

**Notes**

1. *Aru* is used with *Vte* as an auxiliary verb. Two points are indicated by the *Vte aru* expression:
  - (A) Someone did something to X. (Thus, *Vte* is usually a transitive verb.)
  - (B) X is still in that state.

X is most frequently marked by the topic marker *wa* or the subject marker *ga*; occasionally it is marked by the direct object marker *o*.
2. The agent is usually omitted because he is unimportant, unknown or obvious.

**[Related Expressions]**

There are expressions similar to *Vte aru*, namely, *Vte iru* and *Vte oku*. Let us compare [1] and [2] with Ex. (b).

- [1] 窓が開いている。  
Mado ga aite **iru**.  
(The window is open.)
- [2] 私は窓を開けておく。  
Watashi wa mado o akete **oku**.  
(I open / will open the window (in advance).)

[1] simply means that the window is open. It doesn't imply that someone opened it. *Aite*, the *te*-form of *aku* 'open', is an intransitive verb. As seen in [2], *Vte oku* means 'do s.t. in advance for future convenience'. An important difference between *Vte aru* and *Vte oku* is that the former expresses a state, while the latter expresses an action. Note that in *Vte oku* sentences, the agent is not omitted unless it is known.

**ato de** あとで *conj.*

Some state or action takes place at a time (not always immediately) after another state or action has taken place.

after  
 【REL. *tara*; *te kara*】  
 (ANT. *mae ni*)

◆ **Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)	Subordinate Clause			Predicate	
		Vinf・past			
メイソンさん <i>Meison-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	日本 へ <i>Nihon e</i>	行った <i>itta</i>	あと で <i>ato de</i>	病気 になった / <i>byōki ni natta</i> / なりました。 <i>narimashita.</i>
(Mr. Mason became ill after he went to Japan.)					

(B)

Topic (subject)		Noun (event)			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	授業 <i>jugyō</i>	の <i>no</i>	あと で <i>ato de</i>	図書館 に行った / <i>toshokan ni itta</i> / 行きました。 <i>ikimashita.</i>
(After the class I went to the library.)					



## Formation

KS(A):

Vinf·past あと で  
ato de話した あと で (after s.o. has talked/had talked)  
hanashita ato de食べた あと で (after s.o. has eaten/had eaten)  
tabeta ato de

KS(B):

N の あと で  
no ato de勉強 の あと で (after study)  
benkyō no ato de

## Examples

- (a) ご飯を食べたあと(で)すぐ勉強しました。  
Gohan o tabeta ato (de) sugu benkyōshimashita.  
(I studied right after I had eaten my meal.)
- (b) 山田さんはビールを飲んだあと(で)寝てしまった。  
Yamada-san wa biru o nonda ato (de) nete shimatta.  
(Mr. Yamada fell asleep after he drank beer.)
- (c) 戦争が終わったあと(で)東京にもどりました。  
Sensō ga owatta ato (de) Tōkyō ni modorimashita.  
(I went back to Tokyo after the war ended.)
- (d) 食事のあとでテニスをした。  
Shokuji no ato de tennis o shita.  
(I played tennis after my meal.)

## Note

The particle *de* may be omitted in informal speech.

## 【Related Expressions】

- I. Vinf·past *ato de* is crucially different from *Vte kara* in two respects: *Vte kara* is very awkward if the main clause expresses something beyond the control of the subject or the speaker of the sentence. Vinf·past *ato de* is free from such restriction.

- [1] 私がうちへ帰ったあとで / ??? 帰ってから雨が降った。

*Watashi ga uchi e kaetta ato de / ???kaette kara ame ga futta.*

(It rained after I came home.)

Secondly, *Vte kara* indicates 'the space of time following after', but *Vinf·past ato de* indicates 'any space of time after'. Thus,

- [2] 日本へ来てから / \*来たあとで何年になりますか。

*Nihon e kite kara / \*kita ato de nannen ni narimasu ka?*

(How many years have passed since you came to Japan?)

(⇒ *kara*<sup>2</sup>)

II. *Vinf·past ato de* can be replaced by *Vinf·past ra* when the latter is used with a purely temporal meaning (i.e., 'after', 'when'). Thus, Exs. (a), (b) and (c) can be rephrased as [3a], [3b] and [3c], respectively.

- [3] a. ご飯を食べたらすぐ勉強しました。

*Gohan o tabetara sugu benkyōshimashita.*

- b. 山田さんはビールを飲んだら寝てしまった。

*Yamada-san wa biru o nondara nete shimatta.*

- c. 戦争が終わったら東京にもどりました。

*Sensō ga owattara Tōkyō ni modorimashita.*

However, if *Vinf·past ra* has a non-temporal meaning (i.e., 'if'), it cannot be replaced by *Vinf·past ato de*, as illustrated by [4].

- [4] a. 日本へ行ったら / \*行ったあとでいいでしょう。

*Nihon e ittara / \*itta ato de ii deshō.*

(Lit. It would be nice if you go to Japan. (=You should go to Japan.))

- b. これを読んだら / \*読んだあとでどうですか。

*Kore o yondara / \*yonda ato de dō desuka.*

(Lit. How would it be if you read this. (=Why don't you read this?))

(⇒ *tara*)

**ba** ば *conj.*

a conjunction which indicates that the preceding clause expresses a condition

if

【REL. *tara* (*nara*, *to<sup>4</sup>*)】◆ **Key Sentence**

Subordinate Clause (condition)	Main Clause
この薬を飲め ば <i>Kono kusuri o nome ba</i>	よくなる / なります。 <i>yoku naru / narimasu.</i>
(If you take this medicine, you'll get well.)	

**Formation**

(i) Gr. 1 verbs: Vcond ば  
*ba*

話せば (if s.o. talks)  
*hanaseba*

(ii) Gr. 2 verbs: Vstem れば  
*reba*

食べれば (if s.o. eats)  
*tabereba*

(iii) Irr. verbs: 来る → 来れば (if s.o. comes)  
*kuru kureba*

する → すれば (if s.o. does)  
*suru sureba*

(iv) Adjs (*i*): Adj (*i*) stem ければ  
*kereba*

高ければ (if s.t. is expensive)  
*takakereba*

(v) Adjs (*na*): Adj (*na*) stem {なら(ば) / であれば}  
{*nara(ba) / de areba*}

{静かなら(ば) / 静かであれば} (if s.t. is quiet)  
{*shizukanara(ba) / shizukade areba*}

(vi) N+cop.: N {なら(ば) / であれば}  
{*nara(ba) / de areba*}

{先生 なら(ば) / 先生 であれば} (if s.o. is a teacher)  
 {sensei nara(ba) / sensei de areba}

### Examples

- (a) これは松本先生に聞けば分かります。  
*Kore wa Matsumoto-sensei ni kikeba wakarimasu.*  
 (You'll understand it if you ask Prof. Matsumoto.)
- (b) その町は車で行けば三十分で行ける。  
*Sono machi wa kuruma de ikeba sanjuppun de ikeru.*  
 (You can get to that town in thirty minutes if you go by car.)
- (c) 安ければ買います。  
*Yasukereba kaimasu.*  
 (I'll buy it if it's cheap. / I would buy it if it were cheap.)
- (d) 時間があれば京都へも行きたい。  
*Jikan ga areba Kyōto e mo ikitai.*  
 (If I have time, I want to go to Kyoto, too. / If I had time, I would want to go to Kyoto, too.)
- (e) 見たければ見なさい。  
*Mitakereba minasai.*  
 (If you want to see it, see it.)
- (f) 出来ればこれもやってください。  
*Dekireba kore mo yatte kudasai.*  
 (Please do this, too, if you can.)

### Notes

1. “ $S_1$  *ba*  $S_2$ ” basically expresses a general conditional relationship between the two propositions represented by  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ .  $S_1$  represents a condition and  $S_2$  a proposition which holds or will hold true under the condition. (*Ba* is, in fact, the origin of the topic marker *wa*.)
2.  $S_2$  can be a statement of the speaker's volition or hope, as in Exs. (c) and (d). ( $\Rightarrow$  *to*<sup>4</sup>)
3.  $S_2$  can be a command, a request or a suggestion, as in Exs. (e) and (f). In this case, however,  $S_1$  cannot be an action. Thus, in (1) and (2) *ba* is ungrammatical. ( $\Rightarrow$  *nara*; *tara*)

- (1) 山本さんが来たら / \*来れば知らせてください。  
*Yamamoto-san ga kitara / \*kureba shirasete kudasai.*  
 (If Mr. Yamamoto comes in, please let me know.)



- (2) シカゴへ行く(の)なら / \*行けばバスで行ったらどうですか。

*Shikago e iku (no) nara / \*ikeba basu de ittara dō desu ka.*

(If you go to Chicago, why don't you go by bus?)

4.  $S_1$  can express both factual and counterfactual conditions. Thus, Exs. (c) and (d) can be either factual or counterfactual statements.

( $\Rightarrow$  *ba yokatta*)

5.  $S_1$  can be a state or an event in the past if it is counterfactual or habitual. Examples:

- (3) もっと安ければ買いました。

*Motto yasukereba kaimashita.*

(I would have bought it if it had been much cheaper.)

- (4) 雨が降ればよく家で本を読んだものだ。

*Ame ga fureba yoku ie de hon o yonda mono da.*

(When it rained, I often read at home.)

However,  $S_1$  cannot be a single factual event in the past even if it represents a condition, as seen in (5). ( $\Rightarrow$  *tara*)

- (5) 日本へ行ったら / \*行けば日本語が上手になった。

*Nihon e ittara / \*ikeba nihongo ga jōzuni natta.*

(I became good at Japanese when I went to Japan.)

6. “ $S_1$  *ba*  $S_2$ ” does not mean more than a conditional relationship; therefore, this construction cannot be used when the speaker wants to suggest something by a conditional sentence. For example, (6) does not suggest that one should not approach the cage. It is acceptable only when it means, as a mere conditional statement, that one is in danger under the condition that one gets close to the cage.

- (6) そのおりに近づけばあぶないですよ。

*Sono ori ni chikazukeba abunaidesu yo.*

(It is dangerous if you get close to the cage.)

(In order to suggest that one should not approach the cage, *chikazuku* to or *chikazuitara* is used instead of *chikazukeba*.)

7. There are some idiomatic expressions which utilize the “ $S_1$  *ba*  $S_2$ ” construction. ( $\Rightarrow$  *ba yokatta*; *nakereba naranai*; *to ieba*)

**bakari** ばかり prt.

a particle which indicates that s.t. is the only thing or state which exists, or the only action s.o. will take, takes, is taking or took

only; just; be ready to do s.t.; have just done s.t.; just did s.t.; be just doing s.t.; about

【REL. *hodo* (kurai); *shika* (dake); *tokoro da*<sup>2</sup>】

## ◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Vinf·nonpast		
デザート ..... は <i>Dezāto ..... wa</i>	食べる <i>taberu</i>	ばかり <i>bakari</i>	に なっ て い る い ます。 <i>ni natte iru imasu.</i>
(Lit. The only thing left to do with the dessert is to eat it. (=The dessert is ready to eat.))			

(B)

Topic (subject)	Vte		
友子 ..... は <i>Tomoko ..... wa</i>	遊んで <i>asonde</i>	ばかり <i>bakari</i>	い る / い ます。 <i>iru / imasu.</i>
(Lit. The only thing Tomoko is doing is playing. (=Tomoko is doing nothing but playing.))			

(C)

Topic (subject)		Vinf·past		
私 ..... は <i>Watashi ..... wa</i>	昼ご飯 を <i>hirugohan o</i>	食べた <i>tabeta</i>	ばかり <i>bakari</i>	だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>
(Lit. I had my lunch and haven't done anything else since then. (=I have just eaten my lunch.))				

(D)

Topic (subject)	Adj		
この レストラン ..... は <i>Kono resutoran ..... wa</i>	安い <i>yasui</i>	ばかり <i>bakari</i>	だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>
(Lit. The only merit of this restaurant is that the food is inexpensive. (=This restaurant is just cheap.))			

(E)

Topic (subject)	Noun			
デニス ..... は <i>Denisu</i> ..... <i>wa</i>	ビール <i>bīru</i>	ばかり <i>bakari</i>	飲んで いる / います。 <i>nonde iru / imasu.</i>	
(Dennis is drinking only beer.)				

(F)

Topic (subject)	Quantifier			
私 ..... は <i>Watashi</i> ..... <i>wa</i>	ひと月 <i>hitotsuki</i>	ばかり <i>bakari</i>	パリ に いた / いました。 <i>Pari ni ita / imashita.</i>	
(I was in Paris for about a month.)				

**Formation**

(i) Vinf・nonpast ばかり  
*bakari*

話す ばかり (be ready to talk)  
*hanasu bakari*

食べる ばかり (be ready to eat)  
*taberu bakari*

(ii) Vte ばかり  
*bakari*

話して ばかり (be just talking)  
*hanashite bakari*

食べて ばかり (be just eating)  
*tabete bakari*

(iii) Vinf・past ばかり  
*bakari*

話した ばかり (have just talked)  
*hanashita bakari*

食べた ばかり (have just eaten)  
*tabeta bakari*

(iv) {Adj (i) inf・nonpast / Adj (na) stem な} ばかり  
*na bakari*

高い ばかり (just expensive)

*takai bakari*

静かな ばかり (just quiet)

*shizukana bakari*

(v) N ばかり

*bakari*

先生 ばかり (only teachers)

*sensei bakari*

(vi) N Prt ばかり

*bakari*

学生 に ばかり (only to students)

*gakusei ni bakari*

(vii) Quantifier ばかり

*bakari*

一時間 ばかり (about an hour)

*ichijikan bakari*

### Examples

(a) このレポートはあと結論を書くばかりだ。

*Kono repōto wa ato ketsuron o kaku bakari da.*

(The only thing left to do with this report is to write a conclusion.)

(b) 春江は泣いてばかりいて何も話そうとしない。

*Harue wa naite bakari ite nanimo hanasō to shinai.*

(Harue is just crying and won't talk about anything.)

(c) 松山さんは今シカゴに着いたばかりです。

*Matsuyama-san wa ima Shikago ni tsuita bakari desu.*

(Mr. Matsuyama has just arrived in Chicago now.)

(d) この仕事はめんどろなばかりであまりもうかりません。

*Kono shigoto wa mendōna bakari de amari mōkarimasen.*

(This job is just troublesome and doesn't bring us big profits.)

(e) この寮に住んでいるのは男子学生ばかりだ。

*Kono ryō ni sunde iru no wa danshi gakusei bakari da.*

(The students who are living in this dorm are all boys.)

(f) フィッシャー先生はリサとばかり話している。

*Fisshā-sensei wa Risa to bakari hanashite iru.*

(Prof. Fisher is talking only with Lisa.)



(g) 十人ばかりの友達が手伝ってくれました。

*Jūnin bakari no tomodachi ga tetsudatte kuremashita.*

(About ten friends helped me.)



### Notes

1. The basic idea which *bakari* expresses is that there is nothing except what is stated. When Vinf·nonpast precedes *bakari*, the whole expression means there is nothing left to do (to complete something) but what is stated by the verb. In some contexts, Vinf·nonpast *bakari* means that someone does nothing but what is stated. Example:  
 (1) 彼は笑うばかりで何も説明してくれない。  
*Kare wa warau bakari de nanimo setsumeishite kurenai.*  
 (He just laughs and doesn't explain anything to me.)
2. When Vinf·past precedes *bakari*, the whole expression means that there has been almost no time for anything to happen since what is stated took place. That is, something has just happened, or someone has just done something.
3. When *bakari* follows “N *ga*” or “N *o*”, *ga* or *o* drops. The directional *e* and *ni* may be either deleted or retained. Other case particles do not drop when they are followed by *bakari*.
4. *Bakari* in classical Japanese expressed the speaker's conjecture and this usage is still seen in the “Quantifier *bakari*” pattern, where *bakari* means ‘about’.

**ba yokatta** ばよかった *phr.*

a phrase which expresses the speaker's regret

I wish ~ had done s.t.  
 【REL. *te yokatta*】

### ◆ Key Sentence

Subordinate Clause (condition)		Main Clause
先生 に <i>Sensei ni</i>	聞け ば <i>kike ba</i>	よかった / よかったです。 <i>yokatta / yokattadesu.</i>
(I wish I had asked my teacher.)		

**Formation**

(i) Gr. 1 verbs: Vcond ば よかった  
*ba yokatta*

話せ ば よかった (I wish s.o. had talked)  
*hanase ba yokatta*

(ii) Gr. 2 verbs: Vstem れば よかった  
*reba yokatta*

食べれば よかった (I wish s.o. had eaten)  
*tabereba yokatta*

(iii) Irr. verbs: 来る → 来れば よかった (I wish s.o. had come)  
*kuru kureba yokatta*  
する → すれば よかった (I wish s.o. had done)  
*suru sureba yokatta*

**Examples**

- (a) あの本を読めばよかった。  
*Ano hon o yomeba yokatta.*  
(I wish I had read that book.)
- (b) ウェルズさんは日本へ行けばよかったね。  
*Ueruzu-san wa Nihon e ikeba yokatta ne.*  
(I wish Mr. Wells had gone to Japan, don't you?)
- (c) ああ、もっと英語を勉強しておけばよかったなあ。  
*Ā, motto eigo o benkyōshite okeba yokatta nā.*  
(Oh, I wish I had studied English harder!)

**Notes**

1. Vcond *ba yokatta* is an idiomatic expression which means 'I wish ~ had done s.t.' It consists of a conditional clause with *ba* and *yokatta* 'was good' and literally means 'It would have been good if ~ had done s.t.'
2. When there is no subject in a *ba*-clause sentence, the first person is the implicit subject.
3. This expression is often used with exclamatory words such as *ā* 'oh' and the sentence-final particle of exclamation *nā*, as in Ex. (c).
4. "S.o. (other than the first person) wishes ~ had done s.t." is expressed using this phrase and the verb *omou* 'think', as in (1).

(⇒ *iru*<sup>2</sup>, Note 4; *to*<sup>3</sup>)

- (1) ビルは日本へ行けばよかったと思っている。

*Biru wa Nihon e ikeba yokatta to omotte iru.*

(Lit. Bill thinks that it would have been good if he had gone to Japan. (=Bill wishes he had gone to Japan.))



**【Related Expression】**

In “Vcond *ba yakatta*”, Vcond *ba* expresses a counterfactual action or state in the past. In a similar expression “Vte *yokatta*”, Vte expresses a factual action or state in the past. Compare [1] with Ex. (a).

- [1] あの本を読んでよかった。

*Ano hon o yonde yokatta.*

(Lit. It was good that I read that book. (=I’m glad I read that book.))

【REL.  $ka^2$ ;  $kai$ 】

(A)

Subject	Adj ( <i>na</i> ) stem / N	
<div> <div>どこ</div> <div><i>Doko</i></div> </div> <div> <div>が</div> <div><i>ga</i></div> </div>	<div>静か</div> <div><i>shizuka</i></div>	<div>だい。</div> <div><i>dai.</i></div>
(What place is quiet?)		

(B)

Sentence (informal)†	
だれ が 行く <i>Dare ga iku</i>	ん だい。 <i>n dai.</i>
(Who is going?)	

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

( i ) {Adj (na) stem / N}    だい  
   daj

静か　だい　(s.t. is quiet?)  
shizuka dai

先生 だい (s.o. is a teacher?)  
sensei dai

(ii) {V / Adj (i)} inf *n dai*

{話す / 話した} ん だい (s.o. talks / talked?)  
{hanasu / hanashita} n dai

{高い / 高かった} ん だい (s.t. is / was expensive?)  
{*takai / takakatta*} *n dai*

[illegible]