6. *Ni* is optional with the names of the four seasons. Thus,

(4) 春(に)結婚します。
     Haru (ni) kekkonshimasu.
     (I'm getting married in the Spring.)

ni² に   *prt.*

~~~~~~
an indirect object marker   to; for
~~~~~~

♦ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)		Indirect Object		Direct Object		
私	は	母	に	手紙	を	よく 書く / 書きます。
Watashi	*wa*	*haha*	*ni*	*tegami*	*o*	*yoku kaku / kakimasu.*
(I often write letters to my mother.)						

Examples

(a) 父は僕に時計をくれた。
     Chichi wa boku ni tokei o kureta.
     (My father gave me a watch.)

(b) 加藤先生はアメリカ人の学生に日本文学を教えている。
     Katō-sensei wa amerikajin no gakusei ni nihonbungaku o oshiete iru.
     (Prof. Kato is teaching Japanese literature to American students.)

(c) 私は妹にお金を少しやりました。
     Watashi wa imōto ni o-kane o sukoshi yarimashita.
     (I gave a little money to my younger sister.)

(d) 今井さんに電話しましたがいませんでした。
     Imai-san ni denwashimashita ga imasendeshita.
     (I called Mr. Imai, but he wasn't there.)

(e) 大川先生は学生に色々な辞書を見せた。
     Ōkawa-sensei wa gakusei ni iroirona jisho o miseta.
     (Prof. Okawa showed various dictionaries to his students.)

Notes

1. In this construction, as seen in KS, the verb is typically transitive and is related to an action that involves something that can be transferred from one person to another, such as *ageru* 'give', *hanasu* 'talk', *kureru* 'give', *miseru* 'show', *nageru* 'throw', *oshieru* 'teach' and *yaru* 'give'.

2. Any transitive verb used in the V*te ageru* or V*te kureru* construction can take *ni*, if the verb does not take a human direct object. For example, *yomu* 'read', which does not take a human object, can take *ni²*, if used in the V*te ageru* or V*te kureru* construction, as shown in (1), but *homeru* 'praise', which takes a human object, cannot take *ni*, as shown in (2).

   (1) 小さい時お母さんは私によく本を読んでくれた。
       *Chisai toki o-kā-san wa watashi **ni** yoku hon o yonde kureta.*
       (When I was small, my mother often read me books.)

   (2) 先生は私を / *にほめてくださいました。
       *Sensei wa watashi **o** / *****ni** homete kudasaimashita.*
       (My teacher praised me.)

An intransitive verb can never take *ni* even if it is used in the V*te ageru* or V*te kureru* construction. Thus,

   (3) ジョンはメアリーの / *にパーティーに来てあげた。
       *Jon wa Meari **no** / *****ni** pāti ni kite ageta.*
       (John came to Mary's party (for her sake).)

(⇨ ***ageru²*; *kureru²***)

---

ni³ に   *prt.*

| a particle that indicates an agent or a source in passive, causative, *morau* / *te morau* and other receiving constructions | by; from [REL. *kara¹*] |

♦Key Sentences

(A)

Sentence (passive)						
Topic (subject)		Agent		Direct Object		Verb (passive)
一男 *Kazuo*	は *wa*	友達 ***tomodachi***	に *ni*	手紙 *tegami*	を *o*	読まれた / 読まれました。 ***yomareta* / *yomaremashita*.**
(Kazuo's friend read his (=Kazuo's) letter (and Kazuo was unhappy).)						

(B)

Sentence (causative)						
Topic (subject)		Agent		Direct Object		Verb (causative)
秋子 *Akiko*	は *wa*	浩 ***Hiroshi***	に *ni*	ご飯 *gohan*	を *o*	作らせた / 作らせました。 ***tsukuraseta* / *tsukurasemashita*.**
(Akiko made Hiroshi fix a meal.)						

(C)

Topic (subject)		Agent		Direct Object		V*te*	
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	父 ***chichi***	に *ni*	車 *kuruma*	を *o*	買って ***katte***	もらった / もらいました。 *moratta* / *moraimashita*.
(Lit. I had my car bought by my father. (=My father bought me a car.))							

(D)

Topic (subject)		Source					
ジェーン *Jēn*	は *wa*	山野　先生 ***Yamano-sensei***	に *ni*	生け花 *ikebana*	を *o*	習った / 習いました。 *naratta* / *naraimashita*.	
(Jane took lessons in flower arranging from Mrs. Yamano.)							

Examples

(a)　その子はお母さんに叱られました。

　　Sono ko wa o-kā-san ni shikararemashita.

　　(The child was scolded by its mother.)

(b) A : そのネクタイはだれにもらったんですか。

  Sono nekutai wa dare ni moratta n desu ka.

  (Lit. From whom did you receive that tie? (=Who gave you that tie?))

 B : 父にもらいました。

  Chichi ni moraimashita.

  (Lit. I received it from my father. (=My father did.))

(c) 僕はアメリカ人に英語を教えてもらった。

  Boku wa amerikajin ni eigo o oshiete moratta.

  (I had an American teach me English.)

(d) 兄は私に五時間も運転させました。

  Ani wa watashi ni gojikan mo untensasemashita.

  (My older brother made me drive for as long as five hours.)

(e) A : 吉田さんが結婚したそうですよ。

  Yoshida-san ga kekkonshita sōdesu yo.

  (I heard that Mr. Yoshida got married.)

 B : そうですか。だれに聞きましたか。

  Sō desu ka. Dare ni kikimashita ka.

  (Is that right? Who told you so?)

Notes

1. *Ni*³ is typically used in passive, causative, *morau / te morau* constructions and with verbs such as *kariru* 'borrow', *kiku* 'hear', *morau* 'receive', *narau* 'learn', *osowaru* 'learn' which require a noun phrase representing the source of the direct object.

       (⇨ *rareru*; *saseru*; *morau*¹; *morau*²)

2. Nouns that take *ni*³ as in KSs (A), (B) and (C) all represent agents of the main verb's action. Thus, KSs (A), (B) and (C) include (1), (2) and (3), respectively as part of their meaning.

  (1) 友達が手紙を読んだ。

    Tomodachi ga tegami o yonda.

    (His friend read a letter.)

  (2) 浩がご飯を作った。

    Hiroshi ga gohan o tsukutta.

    (Hiroshi fixed a meal.)

(3) 父が車を買った。

Chichi ga kuruma o katta.

(My father bought a car.)

3. *Ni³* of source as in KS (D), Exs. (b) and (e) can be replaced by *kara¹*, but *ni³* of agent, as in KSs (A), (B), (C), Exs. (a), (c) and (d), cannot.

[Related Expression]

The difference between *ni³* (of source) and *kara¹* is that the former indicates the speaker's psychological closeness to a human source, whereas the latter doesn't. This difference explains why *ni³* is ungrammatical if the source is an impersonal institution to which the speaker can hardly feel close, as shown in [1].

[1]　ヒルさんは文部省から / *に奨学金をもらいました。

*Hiru-san wa monbushō **kara** / ***ni** shōgakukin o moraimashita.*

(Mr. Hill has received a scholarship from the Ministry of Education.)

ni⁴ に *prt.*

a particle that indicates the surface of s.t. upon which some action directly takes place	on; onto [REL. *de¹*; *e* (*made*, *ni⁷*); *ni⁶*]

◆Key Sentence

Subject				Direct Object		Verb (action)
子供	が	紙	に	絵	を	描いた / 描きました。
Kodomo	*ga*	*kami*	*ni*	*e*	*o*	*kaita / kakimashita.*
(A child has drawn a picture on the paper.)						

Examples

(a) ここにあなたの名前と住所を書いてください。

Koko ni anata no namae to jūsho o kaite kudasai.

(Please write your name and address here.)

(b) ヘリコプターが山の上におりました。

Herikoputā ga yama no ue ni orimashita.

(A helicoptor landed on the top of the mountain.)

(c) オーバーはハンガーにかけてください。

Ōbā wa hangā ni kakete kudasai.

(Please hang your overcoat on the hanger.)

(d) そんな所に立っていると危ないですよ。

Sonna tokoro ni tatte iru to abunaidesu yo.

(It's dangerous to keep standing in such a place.)

[Related Expressions]

I. *Ni*⁴ should not be confused with *de*¹, a particle that indicates a location in which some action takes place. (⇨ *de*¹) Consider the difference in meaning between [1a] and [1b]:

[1] a. 道に絵を描いた。

      *Michi **ni** e o kaita.*

      (I drew a picture *on* the street.)

    b. 道で絵を描いた。

      *Michi **de** e o kaita.*

      (I drew a picture *in* the street.)

II. *Ni*⁴ should not be confused with *ni*⁶, a particle that indicates the location where someone or something exists. (⇨ *ni*⁶) Examples:

[2] a. その寺は京都にある。

      *Sono tera wa Kyōto **ni** aru.*

      (That temple is in Kyoto.)

    b. 私は部屋にいた。

      *Watashi wa heya **ni** ita.*

      (I was in the room.)

ni⁵ に *prt.*

| a particle which indicates purpose when s.o. moves from one place to another | to do s.t.; in order to do s.t. 【REL. *tame ni*】 |

♦ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)			V*masu*		Verb (motion)
私 Watashi	は wa	デパート へ 贈り物 を depāto e okurimono o	買い *kai*	に ni	行った / 行きました。 itta / ikimashita.
(I went to a department store to buy a gift.)					

Formation

V*masu* に
　　　　ni

話し　　　に　　　(to talk)
hanashi ni

食べ　に　　(to eat)
tabe ni

Examples

(a) 学生が質問をしに来た。
　　Gakusei ga shitsumon o shi ni kita.
　　(A student came to ask questions.)

(b) そこへ何をしに行くんですか。
　　Soko e nani o shi ni iku n desu ka.
　　(Lit. To do what are you going there? (=For what are you going there?))

(c) 村井さんは昼ご飯を食べにうちへ帰った。
　　Murai-san wa hirugohan o tabe ni uchi e kaetta.
　　(Mr. Murai went home to eat his lunch.)

Notes

1. V*masu ni*, meaning ' to do s.t.', can be used only with verbs of motion, (i.e., verbs which express a movement from one place to another), such

as *iku* ' go ', *kuru* ' come ', *kaeru* ' return ', *hairu* ' enter ' and *deru* ' leave '. Verbs like *aruku* ' walk ', *hashiru* ' run ' and *oyogu* ' swim ' are not considered motion verbs because they express a manner of movement rather than a movement from one place to another. Therefore, the following sentence is ungrammatical.

(1) *私は桜の花を見に公園を歩いた。

　　Watashi wa sakura no hana o mi ni kōen o aruita.

　　(I walked through the park to see cherry blossoms.)

2. If the verb in V*masu ni* is a compound verb of the structure N *suru*, such as *shigotosuru* ' work ', *benkyōsuru* ' study ' and *shitsumonsuru* ' ask a question ', *suru* is sometimes omitted.

(2) a. 大山さんは仕事(し)に行った。

　　　Ōyama-san wa shigoto(shi) ni itta.

　　　(Mr. Oyama went to work.)

　　b. 学生が質問(し)に来た。

　　　Gakusei ga shitsumon(shi) ni kita.

　　　(A student came to ask questions.)

[Related Expression]

Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* is also used to express purpose in an action. However, the uses of Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* and V*masu ni* differ in some ways. First, unlike V*masu ni*, Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* can be used with any verb. Examples:

[1] 私は子供の写真を撮るためにカメラを買った。

　　*Watashi wa kodomo no shashin o toru **tame ni** kamera o katta.*

　　(I bought a camera to take pictures of my child.)

[2] 私はアメリカ人の友達と話すために英語を勉強している。

　　*Watashi wa amerikajin no tomodachi to hanasu **tame ni** eigo o benkyōshite iru.*

　　(I'm studying English in order to speak with my American friend.)

Second, when V*masu ni* and Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* are used with verbs of motion, V*masu ni* can be used without a directional phrase, but Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* cannot, unless that information is clear from the context. Examples:

[3] 僕は酒を飲みに行った。

　　*Boku wa sake o nomi **ni** itta.*

　　(I went (somewhere) to drink.)

[4]   a.   僕は酒を飲むために友達の家に行った。

       *Boku wa sake o nomu **tame ni** tomodachi no ie ni itta.*

       (I went to his friend's house to drink.)

   b.   *僕は酒を飲むために行った。

       Boku wa sake o nomu **tame ni itta.*

       (I went to drink.)

Third, when Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* and V*masu ni* are used with verbs of motion, Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* usually expresses a rather important purpose, while V*masu ni* can be used even to express something insignificant. Examples:

[5]   a.   喫茶店へコーヒーを飲みに行った。

       *Kissaten e kōhi o nomi **ni** itta.*

       (I went to a coffee shop to drink coffee.)

   b.   ??喫茶店へコーヒーを飲むために行った。

       *??Kissaten e kōhi o nomu **tame ni** itta.*

       (I went to a coffee shop to drink coffee.)

ni⁶ に   *prt.*

a particle which indicates the location where s.o. or s.t. exists	in; at; on [REL. *de*¹; *ni*⁴]

♦ **Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)			Noun (location)		Verb (existence)
ヒルさん *Hiru-san*	は *wa*	今 *ima*	ジョンソンさん の アパート ***Jonson-san no apāto***	に *ni*	いる / います。 *iru / imasu.*
(Mr. Hill is at Mr. Johnson's apartment now.)					

(B)

Topic (location)			Subject		Verb (existence)
私　の　クラス ***Watashi no kurasu***	に *ni*	は *wa*	中国人　の　学生 *chūgokujin no gakusei*	が *ga*	いる / います。 *iru / imasu.*
(There is a Chinese student in my class.)					

Examples

(a) その本はこの学校の図書館にあります。
Sono hon wa kono gakkō no toshokan ni arimasu.
(That book is in this school's library.)

(b) この学校にはプールがない。
Kono gakkō ni wa pūru ga nai.
(There is no swimming pool at this school.)

(c) 加藤さんは大阪に住んでいます。
Katō-san wa Ōsaka ni sunde imasu.
(Mr. Kato lives in Osaka.)

(d) 庭に桜の木が立っている。
Niwa ni sakura no ki ga tatte iru.
(There is a cherry tree standing in the yard.)

(e) この作文には文法のまちがいがたくさん見られる。
Kono sakubun ni wa bunpō no machigai ga takusan mirareru.
(Lit. A lot of grammatical mistakes can be seen in this composition.
(＝There are a lot of grammatical mistakes in this composition.))

(f) 花子がみのるの隣に座っている。
Hanako ga Minoru no tonari ni suwatte iru.
(Hanako is sitting next to Minoru.)

Notes

1. *Ni*[6] indicates the location where someone or something exists. Verbs such as *iru* '(animate things) exist', *aru* '(inanimate things) exist' and *sumu* 'live' typically occur with the locational *ni*.　　　(⇨ *aru*[1]; *iru*[1])

2. The verb *aru* often takes the particle *ni*, but when *aru* is used for an event, *ni* cannot be used. In this case, *de* is used.　　　(⇨ *aru*[1]; *de*[1])

3. Noun phrases with *ni* often occur as topics, as in KS(B) and Ex. (b).

4. If a location phrase which indicates the existence of someone or something modifies a noun phrase, as in 'an apartment *in New York*', *ni* cannot be used. In this case, *no* is used. (⇨ *no*¹)

(1) ニューヨークの / *にアパート
Nyūyōku **no** / ***ni** apāto
(an apartment in New York)

[Related Expressions]

I. *De*¹ also indicates location, but not a location where someone / something exists. Thus, in the following sentences *de* is ungrammatical.

[1] a. 私のうちに / *ではテレビがない。
Watashi no uchi **ni** / ***de** wa terebi ga nai.
(There is no TV set in my house.)

b. スミスさんは今会議室に / *でいる。
Sumisu-san wa ima kaigishitsu **ni** / ***de** iru.
(Mr. Smith is in the conference room now.)

On the other hand, *ni* is used only to indicate the location where someone / something exists, but not an event; therefore, in the following sentences, *ni* is ungrammatical.

[2] a. 私はいつも図書館で / *に勉強する。
Watashi wa itsumo toshokan **de** / ***ni** benkyōsuru.
(I always study at the library.)

b. このラケットは日本で / *には五万円ぐらいだ。
Kono raketto wa Nihon **de** /***ni** wa goman'en gurai da.
(This racket costs about 50,000 yen in Japan.)

c. そのパーティーはトムの家で / *にあった。
Sono pāti wa Tomu no ie **de** / ***ni** atta.
(The party was held at Tom's.)

II. In some sentences, both the locational *ni* and the locational *de* can be used. For example, in [3] both *ni* and *de* are appropriate.

[3] 私は京都に / でいい家を見つけた。
Watashi wa Kyōto **ni** / **de** ii ie o mitsuketa.
(I found a good house in Kyoto.)

However, the nuances of a sentence with *ni* and that with *de* are different. Namely, the sentence with *ni* implies that " I found a good house

which is in Kyoto", while the one with *de* means " In Kyoto I found a good house". Therefore, in [4] the *ni* version and the *de* version mean different things.

[4] 私は東京に / で仕事を見つけた。
*Watashi wa Tōkyō **ni** / **de** shigoto o mitsuketa.*
(I found a job in Tokyo.)

Namely, in the sentence with *ni*, the job is in Tokyo and the place the speaker found it might not have been Tokyo. On the other hand, the sentence with *de* means that the place the speaker found the job was Tokyo and the place where he is going to work is not necessarily Tokyo.

ni⁷ に   *prt.*

| a particle which indicates a place toward which s.o. or s.t. moves | to; toward [REL. *e*] |

♦ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)			Noun (place)		
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	きのう *kinō*	サンフランシスコ ***Sanfuranshisuko***	に *ni*	行った / 行きました。 *itta / ikimashita.*
(I went to San Francisco yesterday.)					

Examples

(a) ジムは来年アメリカに帰る。
Jimu wa rainen Amerika ni kaeru.
(Jim is going back to America next year.)

(b) いつか私のうちに来ませんか。
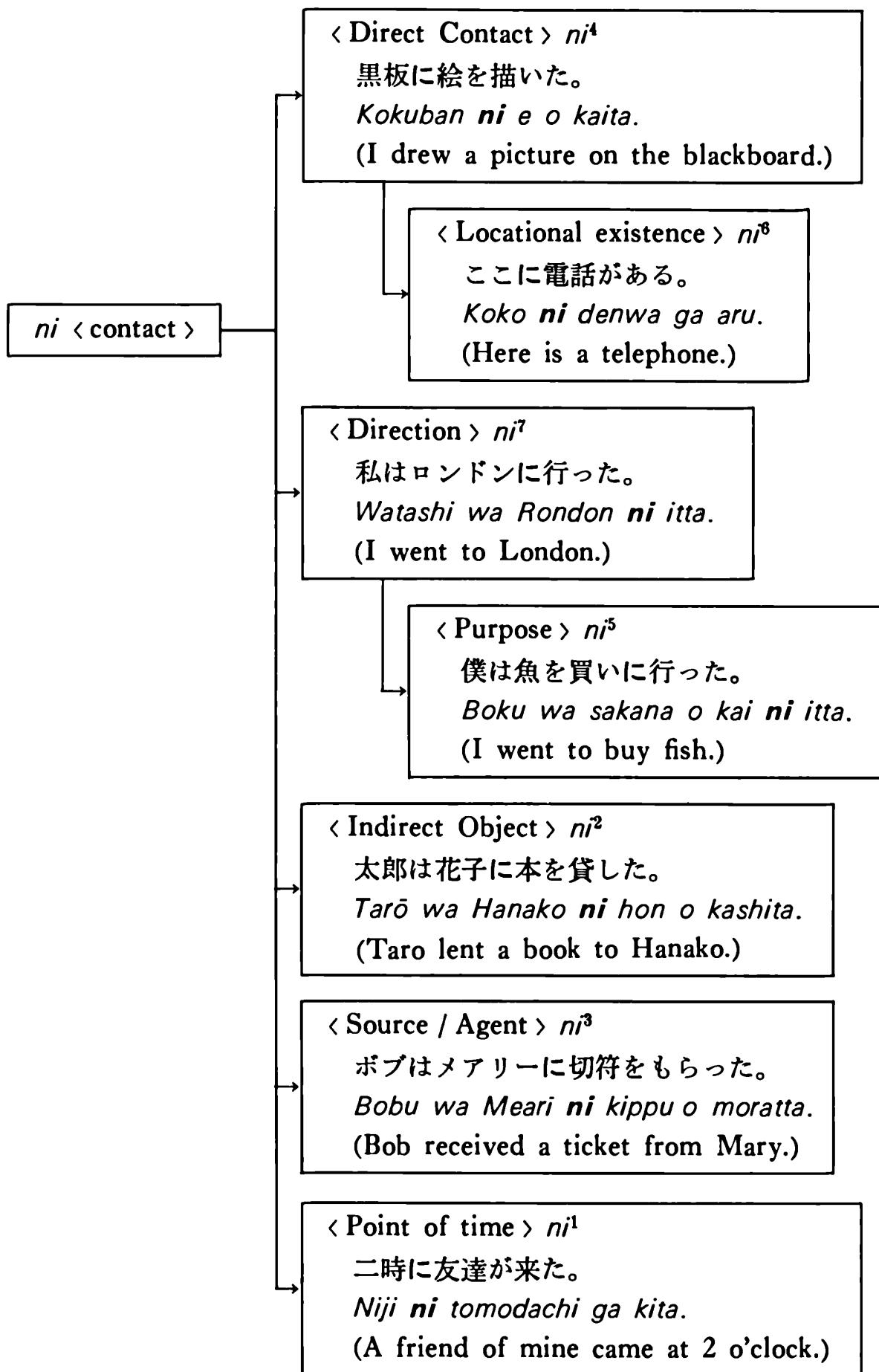*Itsuka watashi no uchi ni kimasen ka.*
(Wouldn't you like to come to my house sometime?)

(c) 彼らは角のレストランに入った。
Karera wa kado no resutoran ni haitta.
(They entered the restaurant around the corner.)

★**Semantic Derivations of** *Ni*

ni ‹ contact ›

〈 Direct Contact 〉 *ni*⁴
黒板に絵を描いた。
*Kokuban **ni** e o kaita.*
(I drew a picture on the blackboard.)

〈 Locational existence 〉 *ni*⁶
ここに電話がある。
*Koko **ni** denwa ga aru.*
(Here is a telephone.)

〈 Direction 〉 *ni*⁷
私はロンドンに行った。
*Watashi wa Rondon **ni** itta.*
(I went to London.)

〈 Purpose 〉 *ni*⁵
僕は魚を買いに行った。
*Boku wa sakana o kai **ni** itta.*
(I went to buy fish.)

〈 Indirect Object 〉 *ni*²
太郎は花子に本を貸した。
*Tarō wa Hanako **ni** hon o kashita.*
(Taro lent a book to Hanako.)

〈 Source / Agent 〉 *ni*³
ボブはメアリーに切符をもらった。
*Bobu wa Meari **ni** kippu o moratta.*
(Bob received a ticket from Mary.)

〈 Point of time 〉 *ni*¹
二時に友達が来た。
*Niji **ni** tomodachi ga kita.*
(A friend of mine came at 2 o'clock.)

N

ni chigainai にちがいない *phr.*

The speaker is convinced that there is no mistake on his part in guessing something.

there is no doubt that ~; must be ~; no doubt

【REL. *darō*; *hazu*; *kamoshirenai*】

◆**Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)			Vinf	
下田さん *Shimoda-san*	は *wa*	今日 の こと *kyō no koto*	を *o*	忘れた **wasureta**	に ちがいない / *ni chigainai* / ちがいありません。 *chigaiarimasen.*
(Mr. Shimoda must have forgotten today's plans (lit. about things of today).)					

(B)

Topic (subject)		Adj (*i*) inf	
あの 先生 の 試験 *Ano sensei no shiken*	は *wa*	難しい **muzukashii**	に ちがいない / ちがいありません。 *ni chigainai / chigaiarimasen.*
(That teacher's exams must be hard.)			

(C)

Topic (experiencer)			Adj (*na*) stem	
ベイリーさん *Beiri-san*	は *wa*	テニス *tenisu*	が *ga*	上手 **jōzu**	に ちがいない / ちがいありません。 *ni chigainai / chigaiarimasen.*
(Mr. Bailey must be good at tennis.)					

(D)

Topic (subject)		Noun	
あの 人 *Ano hito*	は *wa*	日本人 **nihonjin**	に ちがいない / ちがいありません。 *ni chigainai / chigaiarimasen.*
(That person must be Japanese.)			

Formation

KSs (A) and (B):

{Vinf / Adj(*i*)} inf に ちがいない
　　　　　　　　　ni chigainai

{話す　／話した}　に ちがいない　　(s.o. will no doubt talk / s.o. no
{*hanasu / hanashita*} *ni chigainai*　　doubt talked)

{食べる／食べた} に ちがいない　　(s.o. will no doubt eat / s.o. no doubt
{*taberu / tabeta*} *ni chigainai*　　ate)

{高い／高かった} に ちがいない　　(s.t. is / was no doubt expensive)
{*takai / takakatta*} *ni chigainai*

KSs (C) and (D):

{Adj (*na*) stem / N} {ø / だった} に ちがいない
　　　　　　　　　　　 {ø / *datta*}　 *ni chigainai*

{静か　／静かだった}　に ちがいない　　(s.t. is / was no doubt quiet)
{*shizuka / shizukadatta*} *ni chigainai*

{先生　／先生　だった} に ちがいない　(s.o. is / was no doubt a teacher)
{*sensei / sensei datta*}　 *ni chigainai*

Examples

(a) 二人は今頃ハワイで楽しく泳いでいるにちがいない。
　　Futari wa imagoro Hawai de tanoshiku oyoide iru ni chigainai.
　　(The two must now be enjoying swimming in Hawaii.)

(b) 一人で外国へ行くのは大変にちがいない。
　　Hitori de gaikoku e iku no wa taihen ni chigainai.
　　(It must be hard to go to a foreign country alone.)

(c) 山口さんは頭がいいにちがいない。
　　Yamaguchi-san wa atama ga ii ni chigainai.
　　(Mr. Yamaguchi must be bright.)

(d) あれはトンプソンさんにちがいない。
　　Are wa Tonpuson-san ni chigainai.
　　(That must be Mr. Thompson.)

Note

The sentence-equivalent that precedes *ni chigainai* can be nominalized by *no* in written Japanese, yielding more credibility to the speaker's assertion.
Examples: (⇨ *no*[3])

(1) a. 日本の経済はよくなったのにちがいない。

   *Nihon no keizai wa yoku natta **no** ni chigainai.*

   (The Japanese economy must have really improved.)

   b. 家を買うのはあまり難しくないのにちがいない。

   *Ie o kau no wa amari muzukashikunai **no** ni chigainai.*

   (Buying a house is no doubt not so difficult.)

[Related Expressions]

I. There are cases where *ni chigainai* can sometimes be replaced by *hazu da*. In such cases, however, the former is always a conjecture and the latter is the speaker's expectation based on objective facts.   (⇨ *hazu*)

II. The degree of probability implied by *darō*, *kamoshirenai*, and *ni chigai-nai* is as follows:

Least probable   Most probable

←――――――――――――――――――――――――――――――→

| *kamoshirenai* | *darō* | *ni chigainai* |

-nikui にくい   *aux. adj. (i)*

{ S.t. or s.o. is hard to ~. }

hard to ~ ; difficult to ~ ; don't do s.t. easily; not readily; not prone to ~
(ANT. *-yasui*)

◆ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)			V*masu*	
この 本 *Kono hon*	は *wa*	大変 *taihen*	読み *yomi*	にくい / にくいです。 *nikui / nikuidesu.*
(This book is very hard to read.)				

Formation

V*masu* にくい
     nikui

話しにくい   (s.o. is hard to talk to)
hanashinikui

食べにくい   (s.t. is hard to eat)
tabenikui

Examples

(a) このドアは開きにくいですね。
   Kono doa wa akinikuidesu ne.
   (This door doesn't open easily, does it?)

(b) あの人の名前は覚えにくい。
   Ano hito no namae wa oboenikui.
   (His name is hard to remember.)

(c) あの先生は話しにくいです。
   Ano sensei wa hanashinikuidesu.
   (That teacher is hard to talk to.)

(d) この靴は走りにくいです。
   Kono kutsu wa hashirinikuidesu.
   (These shoes are hard to run in.)

N⦁tes

1. V*masu*+*nikui* conjugates exactly like an Adj (*i*).

		Informal	Formal
Aff.	Nonpast	話しにくい *hanashinikui*	話しにくいです *hanashinikuidesu*
	Past	話しにくかった *hanashinikukatta*	話しにくかったです *hanashinikukattadesu*
Neg.	Nonpast	話しにくくない *hanashinikukunai*	話しにくくありません *hanashinikukuarimasen*
	Past	話しにくくなかった *hanashinikukunakatta*	話しにくくありませんでした *hanashinikukuarimasendeshita*

2. In both English and Japanese the subject of the *nikui*-construction can be the subject of an intransitive verb, as in Ex. (a) where *kono doa* 'this door' is the subject of *aku* 'open'. It can also be the direct object of a transitive verb, as in Ex. (b) where *ano hito no namae* 'his name' is the direct object of *oboeru* 'remember'. It can be the indirect object of a transitive verb, as in Ex. (c) where *ano sensei* 'that teacher' is the indirect object of *hanasu* 'talk'. Finally, the subject can be N+ Particle such as *kono kutsu de* 'with these shoes' corresponding in English to Preposition+N. In this construction, as in Exs. (c) and (d), note that the preposition in the English sentence is retained but the corresponding particle in the Japanese sentence is deleted.

3. *-yasui* 'easy to do ~' is an antonym of *-nikui*. The basic formation of the *yasui*-construction is identical to the *nikui*-construction.   (⇨ *-yasui*)

~ni shite wa ~にしては   *prt.*

a phrase that indicates a generally agreed upon standard (The entire sentence that includes this phrase expresses some deviation from that standard.)

for ~; considering that ~
【REL. *~to shite wa*】

♦ **Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)		Noun		
高山さん *Takayama-san*	は *wa*	日本人 **nihonjin**	に して は *ni shite wa*	大きい / 大きいです。 *ōkii / ōkiidesu.*
(Mr. Takayama is big for a Japanese person.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)			Vinf		
ボブ *Bobu*	は *wa*	日本語 を よく *nihongo o yoku*	勉強して いる **benkyōshite iru**	に して は *ni shite wa*	下手だ / *hetada /* 下手です。 *hetadesu.*
(Considering that Bob is studying Japanese hard, he is poor at it.)					

Formation

KS(A):

N (だった) に して は
   (*datta*) *ni shite wa*

先生 (だった) に して は   (considering that s.o. is / was a teacher)
sensei (datta) ni shite wa

KS(B):

Vinf に して は
    ni shite wa

{話す ／ 話した}　に して は　(considering that s.o. talks / talked)
{*hanasu / hanashita*} *ni shite wa*

Examples

(a) 八月にしては涼しいですね。
Hachigatsu ni shite wa suzushiidesu ne.
(For August it is cool, isn't it?)

(b) これは日本の車にしては大きいですね。
Kore wa Nihon no kuruma ni shite wa ōkiidesu ne.
(For a Japanese car this is big, isn't it?)

(c) 彼はレスラーだったにしては体が小さい。
Kare wa resurā datta ni shite wa karada ga chisai.
(Considering that he was a wrestler, he is small.)

(d) 青木さんはアメリカに十年いたにしては英語があまり上手じゃない。
Aoki-san wa Amerika ni jūnen ita ni shite wa eigo ga amari jōzujanai.
(Considering that Mr. Aoki spent ten years in America, his English is not very good.)

Note

~*ni shite wa* is the *te*-form of *ni suru* 'make it ~, decide on ~ ' plus *wa* ' if'. The literal meaning is 'if one makes it ~'.

~**ni suru** ~にする　*phr.*

S.o. has decided on s.t.

decide on ~ ; make it ~
[REL. *ni kimeru*]

♦ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)		Noun		
私	は	この アパート	に	する / します。
Watashi	*wa*	*kono apāto*	*ni*	*suru / shimasu.*
(I've decided on this apartment.)				

Examples

(a) A : あなたは何にしますか。

　　　Anata wa nan ni shimasu ka.

　　　(Lit. What have you decided on? (=What will you have?))

　　B : 私はステーキにします。

　　　Watashi wa sutēki ni shimasu.

　　　(Lit. I've decided on steak. (=I'll have steak.))

(b) 岡田さんはアメリカの車にしました。

　　Okada-san wa Amerika no kuruma ni shimashita.

　　(Mr. Okada (has) decided on an American car.)

Notes

1. *Ni suru* is usually preceded by a noun or a noun equivalent. (⇨ *koto ni suru*) However, a noun with a particle is also possible. Example:

　　(1) 今度の旅行はニューヨークまでにします。

　　　　Kondo no ryokō wa Nyūyōku made ni shimasu.

　　　　(Next trip, I'll make it as far as New York.)

2. If the tense is nonpast, *ni suru* implies that a decision has just been made, as in KS and Ex. (a). If the past tense is used, the sentence is ambiguous; it means either that a decision has been made but no action has been taken or that a decision was made and an action was also taken. (Ex. (b))

[Related Expression]

Ni kimeru also means 'decide on' and *ni suru* and *ni kimeru* can be used interchangeably, although *ni kimeru* is usually used in situations where a decision is considered significant or important. Thus, in situations like Ex. (a), *ni kimeru* is not used.

no¹ の *prt.*

> a particle which, with a preceding noun phrase, forms a phrase to modify a following noun phrase

's; of; in; at; for; by; from
【REL. *no²*】

♦ **Key Sentences**

(A)

	Noun		Noun	
これ は *Kore wa*	先生 ***sensei***	の *no*	本 *hon*	だ / です。 *da / desu.*
(This is my teacher's book.)				

(B)

	Noun	Particle		Noun	
これ は *Kore wa*	友達 ***tomodachi***	から ***kara***	の *no*	手紙 *tegami*	だ / です。 *da / desu.*
(This is a letter from my friend.)					

Formation

(i) N の N
　　　　no

田中さん　の 家　　(Mr. Tanaka's house)
Tanaka-san no ie

アメリカ の　大学　　(a university in America)
Amerika no daigaku

(ii) N Prt の N
　　　　　　no

日本　で の　仕事　　(a job in Japan)
Nihon de no shigoto

メアリー へ の プレゼント　　(a present for Mary)
Meari　e no purezento

Examples

(a) 私の本
watashi no hon
(my book)

学校の名前
gakkō no namae
(the name of the school)

今日の新聞
kyō no shinbun
(today's paper)

(b) 日本の寺
Nihon no tera
(a temple in Japan)

駅の電話
eki no denwa
(a telephone at the station)

(c) 美術の本
bijutsu no hon
(a book on fine arts)

日本語の試験
nihongo no shiken
(an exam on Japanese)

(d) 桜の花
sakura no hana
(a cherry blossom)
かぜの薬
kaze no kusuri
(cold medicine)

桃の木
momo no ki
(a peach tree)

バスの切符
basu no kippu
(a bus ticket)

(e) 日本語の先生
nihongo no sensei
(a teacher of Japanese)

音楽の学生
ongaku no gakusei
(a student of music)

(f) ピカソの絵
Pikaso no e
(a picture by Picasso)

ベートーベンの音楽
Bētōben no ongaku
(music by Beethoven)

フォードの車
Fōdo no kuruma
(a car made by Ford)

(g) 友達の大木さん
tomodachi no Ōki-san
(my friend Mr. Oki)
十歳の子供
jussai no kodomo
(a ten-year-old child)

医者の森田さん
isha no Morita-san
(a medical doctor, Dr. Morita)

カラーの写真
karā no shashin
(a photo in color)

(h) 絹のドレス
kinu no doresu
(a silk dress)

れんがの家
renga no ie
(a brick house)

(i) 八時からのパーティー
hachiji kara no pātī
(a party which starts at eight o'clock)

先生との話し合い
sensei to no hanashiai
(a discussion with the teacher)

Notes

1. Generally, *no* combines two noun phrases into a larger noun phrase. In A *no* B, A *no* modifies B and indicates a specific member(s) of B among all the members of B. A and B in A *no* B relate to each other in various ways, and these relationships are determined by context. Some common relationships follow.

   (A) A is the possessor of B. (Ex. (a))
        B of A; A's B

   (B) A is the location where B exists. (Ex. (b))
        B in / at A

   (C) B is about / on A. (Ex. (c))
        B on A; B about A

   (D) A is a specific kind of B. (Ex. (d))
        AB; B of A; B for A

   (E) A is the object and B is the subject. (Ex. (e))
        AB; B of A

   (F) A created B. (Ex. (f))
        A's B; B by A; B created by A

   (G) A is an attribute of B. (Ex. (g))
        A, B; B, who / which is A

   (H) B is made of / from A. (Ex. (h))
        AB

2. In A *no* B, A is sometimes a noun phrase with a particle, as in KS(B) and Ex. (i). Note that *no* cannot be omitted in this case, because it indicates that the preceding noun phrase with a particle modifies the following noun phrase. Without *no*, the noun phrase with the particle is interpreted as an adverbial phrase which modifies the predicate in the clause. For example, in (1a) *hachiji kara* ' from eight o'clock ' modifies *ikimashita* ' went ', while in (1b) *hachiji kara no* modifies *pāti* ' party '.

   (1) a. 八時から   パーティーに 行きました。
            Hachiji kara pāti ni   *ikimashita.*

        (I went to the party at (lit. from) eight o'clock.)

b. 八時からの　　　　パーティーに　行きました。
    Hachiji kara no pāti ni   ikimashita.

(I went to the party which had started at (lit. from) eight o'clock.)

3. The "A *no* B" construction can be extended as in "A *no* B *no* C *no*..." Examples:

(2) a. 私の先生の本
       watashi **no** sensei **no** hon
       (my teacher's book)

   b. 日本語の先生の田中先生
       nihongo **no** sensei **no** Tanaka-sensei
       (the Japanese teacher, Prof. Tanaka)

4. In A *no* B, B can be omitted if it is apparent from context. Examples:

(3) これは私の（本）です。
     Kore wa watashi **no** (hon) desu.
     (This is mine (=my book).)

(4) このレストランの（ステーキ）はよくありません。
     Kono resutoran **no** (sutēki) wa yokuarimasen.
     (This restaurant's (steak) is not good.)

N

no² の *pro.*

a dependent indefinite pronoun	one
	[REL. *no¹*; *no³*]

♦ **Key Sentences**

(A)

	Adj		
私　　は	大きい	の	を　買った／買いました。
Watashi wa	ōkii	no	o　katta／kaimashita.
(I bought a big one.)			

(B)

	Relative Clause		
私 は *Watashi wa*	去年 買った ***kyonen katta***	の *no*	を 使った / 使いました。 *o tsukatta / tsukaimashita.*
(I used the one I bought last year.)			

Formation

KS(A):

(i) Adj (*i*) inf·nonpast の

   no

高い の (expensive one)
takai no

(ii) Adj (*na*) stem な の

   na no

じょうぶな の (durable one)
jōbuna   no

KS(B):

Same formation rules as those for relative clauses. (⇨ Relative Clause)

Examples

(a) A : どんな車がほしいですか。
   Donna kuruma ga hoshiidesu ka.
   (What kind of car do you want?)

   B : 小さいのが欲しいです。
   Chisai no ga hoshiidesu.
   (I want a small one.)

(b) 友達がワインを飲みたがったのできのう買ったのを出した。
   Tomodachi ga wain o nomitagatta node kinō katta no o dashita.
   (My friend wanted to drink wine, so I served the one I bought yesterday.)

Notes

1. The indefinite pronoun *no* is a dependent pronoun; it cannot be used by itself. It must be modified by an adjective or a relative clause.

2. *No* is used in place of a noun when what it refers to is clear from the context or the situation. Things referred to by *no* are not necessarily tangible. Example:

(1) 今まで聞いたアイデアの中では田村君が言ったのが一番よさそうだ。

*Ima made kiita aidea no naka de wa Tamura-kun ga itta **no** ga ichiban yosa sōda.*

(Among the ideas we've heard so far, the one Mr. Tamura told us seems the best.)

[Related Expressions]

The indefinite pronoun *no* (i.e., *no²*) is different from the particle *no* (i.e., *no¹*) and the nominalizer *no* (i.e., *no³*). First, [1] shows the difference between *no¹* and *no²*. Namely, in [1a] *Tomu no* is the omitted form of *Tomu no pen*. On the other hand, [1b] is not an omitted form; that is, if a noun is inserted after *kuroi no* in [1b], the sentence becomes ungrammatical as seen in [1c]. In fact, what [1b] means is [1d], if *no* 'one' refers to a pen.

[1] a. *no¹* (particle)

私はトムの（ペン）がほしい。

*Watashi wa Tomu **no** (pen) ga hoshii.*

(I want Tom's pen.)

b. *no²* (indefinite pronoun)

私は黒いのがほしい。

*Watashi wa kuroi **no** ga hoshii.*

(I want a black one.)

c. *私は黒いのペンがほしい。

Watashi wa kuroi **no pen ga hoshii.*

(I want a black pen.)

d. 私は黒いペンがほしい。

*Watashi wa kuroi **pen** ga hoshii.*

(I want a black pen.)

Next, [2] shows the difference between *no²* and *no³*. That is, the meaning of the sentence depends on whether the *no* in [2] is interpreted as *no²* or *no³*, as shown in the two English translations.

[2] 高田さんが使っていたのをおぼえていますか。

*Takada-san ga tsukatte ita **no** o oboete imasu ka.*

((A) [Indefinite pronoun] Do you remember *the one* Mr. Takada was using?)

((B) [Nominalizer] Do you remember *that* Mr. Takada was using (something)?)

no³ の   *nom.*

> a nominalizer which is used when the nominalized sentence expresses a directly perceptible event

that ~ ; to do s.t.; doing s.t.
[REL. *koto²*; *no²*]

◆**Key Sentences**

(A)

Sentence (informal)†			
日本語 を 教える *Nihongo o* **oshieru**	の *no*	は *wa*	難しい / 難しいです。 *muzukashii / muzukashiidesu.*
(Teaching Japanese is difficult.)			

(B)

Topic (subject)		Sentence (informal)†			
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	雪子さん　が ビール を **飲む** *Yukiko-san ga biru o* **nomu**	の *no*	を *o*	見た / 見ました。 *mita / mimashita.*
(I saw Yukiko drink beer.)					

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

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (*i*)} inf の
　　　　　　　　　　　no

　　{話す　 / 話した}　　の　　(that s.o. talks / talked)
　　{*hanasu* / *hanashita*} *no*

　　{高い / 高かった}　の　　(that s.t. is / was expensive)
　　{*takai* / *takakatta*} *no*

(ii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N}　{な / だった} の
　　　　　　　　　　　　　{*na* / *datta*} *no*

　　{静かな　 / 静かだった}　　の　　(that s.t. is / was quiet)
　　{*shizukana* / *shizukadatta*} *no*

　　{先生　な / 先生　 だった} の　　(that s.o. is / was a teacher)
　　{*sensei na* / *sensei datta*} *no*

Examples

(a) 日本へ行くのは簡単です。

Nihon e iku no wa kantandesu.

(Going to Japan is easy.)

(b) 私は小林さんがピアノを弾いているのを聞いた。

Watashi wa Kobayashi-san ga piano o hiite iru no o kiita.

(I heard Ms. Kobayashi playing the piano.)

(c) クラークさんがフランスへ行くのを知っていますか。

Kurāku-san ga Furansu e iku no o shitte imasu ka.

(Do you know that Mr. Clark is going to France?)

Notes

1. *No* makes a noun equivalent from a sentence. KS(A) and Ex. (a) are examples of sentences where nominalized sentences are used in subject position, and KS(B) and Exs. (b) and (c) are examples where nominalized sentences are used as direct objects. A nominalized sentence can occur in any position where a noun phrase can appear, except in the position of B in "A *wa* B *da*". In that situation, the nominalizer *koto* (i.e., *koto²*) is used as in (1).

   (1) こまったの / ことは彼が来られないこと / *のだ。

   *Komatta no / koto wa kare ga korarenai koto / *no da.*

   (The trouble is that he can't come.)

2. Nominalized sentences are subordinate clauses, and, therefore, the topic marker *wa* cannot occur, as seen in (2). (⇨ *ga¹*)

   (2) 僕はひろ子さんが / *はピアノを弾いているのを聞いた。

   *Boku wa Hiroko-san ga / *wa piano o hiite iru no o kiita.*

   (I heard Hiroko playing the piano.)

3. There is another nominalizer, *koto*. *No* and *koto* are sometimes mutually interchangeable. (⇨ *koto²*) For example, Exs. (a) and (c) can be restated as:

   (3) 日本へ行くことは簡単です。

   *Nihon e iku **koto** wa kantandesu.*

   (Going to Japan is easy.)

   (4) クラークさんがフランスへ行くことを知っていますか。

   *Kurāku-san ga Furansu e iku **koto** o shitte imasu ka.*

   (Do you know that Mr. Clark is going to France?)

However, in general, *no* is used when the preceding clause expresses something rather concrete or perceptible, while *koto* is used when the preceding clause expresses something rather abstract or imperceptible. In KS(B), Ex. (b) and (5), for example, *koto* cannot be used because the nominalized clauses in these examples all express concrete, perceptible events.

(5) 私は自分の体がふるえている**の** / *ことを感じた。

*Watashi wa jibun no karada ga furuete iru **no** / *koto o kanjita.*

(I felt my body trembling.)

Also, there are a number of idiomatic phrases with *koto* where *koto* cannot be replaced by *no*. (⇨ **koto ga aru**; **koto ga dekiru**; **koto ni naru**; **koto ni suru**) (6) lists verbs and adjectives and their appropriate nominalizers.

(6)

		no	*koto*
見る miru	'see'	v	*
見える mieru	'be visible'	v	*
聞く kiku	'hear'	v	*
聞こえる kikoeru	'be audible'	v	*
感じる kanjiru	'feel'	v	*
止める tomeru	'stop (v.t.)'	v	*
待つ matsu	'wait'	v	*
見つける mitsukeru	'discover'	v	?
ふせぐ fusegu	'protect'	v	?
知る shiru	'get to know'	v	v
忘れる wasureru	'forget'	v	v
(に) 気 が つく (ni) ki ga tsuku	'notice'	v	v
思い出す omoidasu	'recall'	v	v

		no	*koto*
覚える *oboeru*	'learn'	v	v
認める *mitomeru*	'admit'	v	v
避ける *sakeru*	'avoid'	v	v
止める *yameru*	'quit'	v	v
後悔する *kōkaisuru*	'regret'	v	v
(が) 分かる *(ga) wakaru*	'understand'	v	v
(が) 好きだ *(ga) sukida*	'like'	v	v
(が) きらいだ *(ga) kiraida*	'dislike'	v	v
(が) 怖い *(ga) kowai*	'afraid'	v	v
(が) うれしい *(ga) ureshii*	'happy'	v	v
(が) 悲しい *(ga) kanashii*	'sad'	v	v
やさしい *yasashii*	'easy'	v	v
難しい *muzukashii*	'difficult'	v	v
期待する *kitaisuru*	'expect'	?	v
信じる *shinjiru*	'believe'	??	v
すすめる *susumeru*	'advise'	??	v
考える *kangaeru*	'think'	*	v
頼む *tanomu*	'ask'	*	v
命じる *meijiru*	'order'	*	v

N

		no	koto
(が) 出来る (*ga*) *dekiru*	'can do'	*	v
(が) ある (*ga*) *aru*	'there are / were times when'	*	v
(に) する (*ni*) *suru*	'decide'	*	v
(に) なる (*ni*) *naru*	'be decided'	*	v
(に) よる (*ni*) *yoru*	'be due to'	*	v

no⁴ の　*prt.*

> a sentence-final particle used by a female speaker or a child to indicate an explanation or emotive emphasis

it is that ~

[REL. *no da*]

♦ **Key Sentences**

(A)

A:	Vinf		B:	Vinf	
どうして *Dōshite*	泣いて いる ***naite iru***	の？ *no?*	お母さん が *O-kā-san ga*	いない ***inai***	の。 *no.*
(How come you are crying?)			('Cause mommy's gone.)		

(B)

Topic (subject)			Adj (*i*) inf	
あの 人 *Ano hito*	は *wa*	とても *totemo*	やさしい ***yasashii***	の。 *no.*
(He is so gentle, you know.)				

(C)

Topic (subject)				Adj (*na*) stem		
母 Haha	は wa	まだ mada	とても totemo	元気 **genki**	**な** **na**	の。 no.
(My mother is still quite fine.)						

(D)

Topic (subject)		Noun		
主人 Shujin	は wa	エンジニア **enjinia**	**な** **na**	の。 no.
(My husband is an engineer.)				

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (*i*)} inf　の
　　　　　　　　　　　no

　　{話す　／話した}　　の　　(s.o. talks / talked)
　　{*hanasu* / *hanashita*}　*no*

　　{食べる／食べた}　の　　(s.o. eats / ate)
　　{*taberu* / *tabeta*}　*no*

　　{大きい／大きかった}　の　　(s.t. is / was big)
　　{*ōkii*　／*ōkikatta*}　　*no*

(ii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N}　{な／だった}　の
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　{*na* / *datta*}　*no*

　　{静かな　／静かだった}　　の　　(s.t. is / was quiet)
　　{*shizukana* / *shizukadatta*}　*no*

　　{先生　な／先生　だった}　の　　(s.o. is / was a teacher)
　　{*sensei na* / *sensei datta*}　*no*

Examples

(a)　A : どうして食べないの?
　　　Dōshite tabenai no?
　　　(How come you don't eat it?)

B : おなか(が)空いて(い)ないの。
　　Onaka (ga) suite (i)nai no.
　　('Cause I'm not .hungry.)

(b)　A : どうしたの?
　　　Dōshita no?
　　　(What's the matter with you?)

　　B : 頭が痛いの。
　　　Atama ga itai no.
　　　(I have a headache.)

(c)　うちの子はまだ小学生なの。
　　Uchi no ko wa mada shōgakusei na no.)
　　(My child is still in grade school.)

(d)　大学はプリンストンだったの。
　　Daigaku wa Purinsuton datta no.
　　(My university was Princeton.)

Notes

1. The sentence-final *no* is derived from *no da* / *no desu* through deletion of *da* / *desu*.

2. This *no* is used by females or children only in an informal situation. There are times when adult male speakers use *no* in questions, as in Exs. (a) and (b), but they do not use it in declarative sentences, as in Exs. (c) and (d).

[Related Expression]

The sentence-final particle *no*[4] is the same in its meaning as *no* of *no da*.

(⇨ *no da*)

no da のだ　*phr.*

| a sentence ending which indicates that the speaker is explaining or asking for an explanation about some information shared with the hearer, or is talking about something emotively, as if it were of common interest to the speaker and the hearer | The explanation is that ~ ; The reason is that ~ ; The fact is that ~ ; It is that ~ |

◆ **Key Sentences**

A:		
Sentence (informal)†		
何　を　して　いる *Nani　o　shite　iru*	ん / の　です *n / no desu*	か‡。 *ka.*
(What are you doing?)		

B:	
Sentence (informal)†	
日本語　を　勉強して　いる *Nihongo o benkyōshite iru*	ん / の　です*。 *n / no desu.*
(I'm studying Japanese.)	

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

‡Informal form:　　何　を　して　いる　ん　だい。　　　(male)
　　　　　　　　　　Nani o shite iru n dai.　　　　　　(⇨ *dai*)

　　　　　　　　　　何　を　して　いる　の？　　　　　(female)
　　　　　　　　　　Nani o shite iru no?　　　　　　(⇨ *no*[4])

*Informal form:　　…勉強して　　いる　ん　だ。　　　(male)
　　　　　　　　　　…*benkyōshite iru　n da.*

　　　　　　　　　　…勉強して　　いる　の。　　　　　(female)
　　　　　　　　　　…*benkyōshite iru　no.*

Formation

(i)　{V / Adj (*i*)} inf　の　だ
　　　　　　　　　　　　　no da

{話す / 話した}　の　だ　　(s.o. (will) talk / talked)
{*hanasu* / *hanashita*}　*no da*

{高い / 高かった}　の　だ　　(s.t. is / was expensive)
{*takai* / *takakatta*}　*no da*

(ii)　{Adj (*na*) stem / N}　{な / だった}　の　だ
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　{*na* / *datta*}　*no da*

{静かな　/ 静かだった　　の　だ　　(s.t. is / was quiet)
{*shizukana* / *shizukadatta*}　*no da*

{先生　な / 先生　だった}　の　だ　　(s.o. is / was a teacher)
{*sensei na* / *sensei datta*}　　*no da*

Examples

(a)　A：どうしてお酒を飲まないんですか。
　　　Dōshite o-sake o nomanai n desu ka.
　　　(Why don't you drink *sake*?)

　　　B：私はまだ十七なんです。
　　　Watashi wa mada jūshichi na n desu.
　　　((The reason is that) I'm still seventeen.)

(b)　僕は今日のパーティーに行けません。宿題がたくさんあるんです。
　　　Boku wa kyō no pāti ni ikemasen. Shukudai ga takusan aru n desu.
　　　(I can't go to today's party. I have a lot of homework.)

(c)　あなたと結婚したいんです。
　　　Anata to kekkonshitai n desu.
　　　(I want to marry you.)

Notes

1. In conversation, *no da / desu* often becomes *n da / desu*. In informal speech, male speakers use *n da* and female speakers use *no*. (For the informal forms of *no da* in interrogative sentences, see *kai* and *dai*.)

2. Basically, S *no da* is used when the speaker is explaining or asking for an explanation about information shared with the hearer. The information is often what the speaker and the hearer have observed or heard. For example, in KSs, A uses *no desu* because he is asking for an explanation about what he sees B doing. B also uses *no desu* because he is explaining his actions. In this situation, (1) is odd.

(1) A : 何をしていますか。

　　　Nani o shite imasu ka.

　　　(What are you doing?)

　　B : 日本語を勉強しています。

　　　Nihongo o benkyōshite imasu.

　　　(I'm studying Japanese.)

If, however, A is only assuming that B is doing something, A can ask the question in (2), and B can answer as B does in (1).

(2) あなたは今何をしていますか。

　　Anata wa ima nani o shite imasu ka.

　　(What are you doing now?)

In Ex. (a), as in KS, A uses *n desu* because A observes that B isn't drinking *sake* and wants an explanation for that. And, B also uses *n desu* because he is explaining about what A observed. In Ex. (b), the speaker uses *n desu* in the second sentence because it is an explanation about the information which has been given in the first sentence.

3. S *no da* is also used when no information is shared by the speaker and the hearer and the speaker is not explaining or asking for an explanation about anything. In this case, the speaker is talking as if some information were shared with the hearer and the effects of this are, for example,

(A) to involve the hearer in the affairs he is talking about (See (3) and (4) below.),

and / or

(B) to impose his idea upon the hearer or, at least, to emphasize his idea emotively. (See (5) below.)

Examples:

(3) 今日フットボールがあるんですが一緒に行きませんか。

　　*Kyō futtobōru ga aru **n desu** ga isshoni ikimasen ka.*

　　(There is a football game today. Wouldn't you like to go (together) with me?)

(4) 先生，困っているんです。助けてください。

　　*Sensei, komatte iru **n desu**. Tasukete kudasai.*

　　(Teacher, I'm in trouble. Please help me.)

(5) 日本語の文法は難しいですがおもしろいんですよ。

*Nihongo no bunpō wa muzukashiidesu ga omoshiroi **n desu** yo.*

(Japanese grammar is difficult, but it is interesting, you know.)

node ので   *conj.*

a subordinate conjunction which expresses a reason or a cause	so; since; because [REL. *de*[3]; *kara*[3]]

♦ **Key Sentence**

Subordinate Clause (cause / reason)		Main Clause
Sentence (informal)†		
お酒 を たくさん 飲んだ *O-sake o takusan **nonda***	ので *node*	眠く なった / なりました。 *nemuku natta / narimashita.*
(Because I drank a lot of *sake*, I got sleepy.)		

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

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (*i*)} inf   ので
　　　　　　　　　　　　node

{話す ／ 話した}　　ので　　(because s.o. (will) talk / talked)
{*hanasu / hanashita*} *node*

{高い ／ 高かった}　ので　　(because s.t. is / was expensive)
{*takai / takakatta*} *node*

(ii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N} {な ／ だった} ので
　　　　　　　　　　　　　{*na / datta*} *node*

{静かな　／ 静かだった}　ので　　(because s.t. is / was quiet)
{*shizukana / shizukadatta*} *node*

{先生　な ／ 先生　だった} ので　　(because s.o. is / was a teacher)
{*sensei na / sensei datta*} *node*

Examples

(a) 宿題がたくさんあるのでパーティーに行けません。

Shukudai ga takusan aru node pātī ni ikemasen.

(Since I have a lot of homework, I can't go to the party.)

(b) その本は高かったので買わなかった。

Sono hon wa takakatta node kawanakatta.

(Because that book was expensive, I didn't buy one.)

(c) 私の部屋は静かなのでよく勉強出来ます。

Watashi no heya wa shizukana node yoku benkyō dekimasu.

(My room is quiet, so I can study (there) well.)

(d) ジェーンはまだ中学生なので車を運転出来ない。

Jēn wa mada chūgakusei na node kuruma o unten dekinai.

(Because Jane is still a junior high student, she can't drive a car.)

Note

Etymologically, *node* is the *te*-form of *no da*. (⇨ **no da**) However, in modern Japanese it is used as a conjunction to indicate reason or cause.

[Related Expressions]

I. The conjunction *kara* also expresses reason or cause. However, *kara* and *node* differ in the following way. *Node* is used when the speaker believes that the information he provides in S₁ *node* as cause or reason for S₂ is valid and is also evident and acceptable to the hearer. (Exs. (a)-(d)) S₁ *kara* S₂, however, does not involve that assumption. Therefore, *node* cannot be used and *kara* must be used in the following situations:

(A) S₁ (i.e., reason / cause clause) expresses the speaker's conjecture about something.

[1] 人がたくさん来るだろうから / *ので食べものを たくさん買っておいた。

Hito ga takusan kuru darō **kara** / ***node** tabemono o takusan katte oita.

(Because many people will probably come, I've bought a lot of food.)

(B) S₂ (i.e., the main clause) is a command, request, suggestion or invitation.

[2] *Command*

この映画はためになるから / *ので行きなさい。

*Kono eiga wa tame ni naru **kara** / ***node** ikinasai.*

(Because this movie is good for you, go (see it).)

[3] *Request*

あしたのショーはおもしろいから / *のでぜひ見に来てください。

*Ashita no shō wa omoshiroi **kara** / ***node** zehi mi ni kite kudasai.*

(Tomorrow's show is interesting, so please come to see it.)

[4] *Suggestion*

この本は とてもおもしろいから / *のでみんなも 読んだほうがいいよ。

*Kono hon wa totemo omoshiroi **kara** / ***node** minna mo yonda hō ga ii yo.*

(This book is very interesting, so you'd better read it, too.)

[5] *Invitation*

いい酒をもらったから / *ので一緒に飲みましょうか。

*Ii sake o moratta **kara** / ***node** isshoni nomimashō ka.*

(I got some good *sake*, so shall we drink it together?)

(C) S₂ expresses the speaker's volition or personal opinion.

[6] *Volition*

田中さんが行くから / *ので僕も行こう。

*Tanaka-san ga iku **kara** / ***node** boku mo ikō.*

(Since Mr. Tanaka is going (there), I'll go, too.)

[7] *Personal Opinion*

僕がよく知っているから / *ので大じょうぶです。

*Boku ga yoku shitte iru **kara** / ***node** daijōbudesu.*

(I know it well, so there will be no problem.)

II. The particle *de* is also used to express a reason or cause. (⇨ *de*³; Semantic Derivations of *De*) *De*, however, can be used only with nouns, while *node* and *kara* are used only with sentences. Compare [8] and [9].

[8] 台風で / *から / *ので家がたくさんたおれた。

*Taifū **de** / ***kara** / ***node** ie ga takusan taoreta.*

(Many houses fell down due to the typhoon.)

[9] 強い風が吹いたから / ので / *で家がたくさんたおれた。

*Tsuyoi kaze ga fuita **kara** | **node** | *de ie ga takusan taoreta.*

(Lit. Many houses fell down because a strong wind blew.)

noni[1] のに   *conj.*

| Contrary to everybody's expectation based on the sentence preceding *noni*, the proposition in the sentence following *noni* is the case. | even though; despite the fact that ~; although; but; in spite of the fact that ~
 [REL. *ga*; *keredo(mo)*] |

♦ **Key Sentences**

(A)

Subordinate Clause			Main Clause
	Vinf		
毎日　漢字 を *Mainichi kanji o*	勉強して　いる **benkyōshite iru**	のに *noni*	よく 覚えられない / *yoku oboerarenai* / 覚えられません。 *oboeraremasen.*

(Although I'm studying *kanji* every day, I cannot memorize them well.)

(B)

Topic (subject)		Adj (*i*) inf		
この ステーキ *Kono sutēki*	は *wa*	高い **takai**	のに *noni*	おいしくない / おいしくありません。 *oishikunai* / *oishikuarimasen.*

(In spite of the fact that this steak is expensive, it isn't delicious.)

(C)

Topic (subject)		Adj (*na*) stem			
清水さん *Shimizu-san*	は *wa*	ゴルフ が *gorufu ga*	下手 **heta**	な **na**	のに *noni*	大好きだ / *dai-sukida* / 大好きです。 *dai-sukidesu.*
(Although Mr. Shimizu is not good at golf, he loves it.)						

(D)

Topic (subject)		Noun			
ホールさん *Hōru-san*	は *wa*	アメリカ人 **amerikajin**	な **na**	のに *noni*	肉 が 嫌いだ / 嫌いです。 *niku ga kiraida / kiraidesu.*
(In spite of the fact that Mr. Hall is an American, he doesn't like meat.)					

Formation

KSs(A) and (B):

{V / Adj (*i*)} inf　のに
　　　　　　　　noni

{話す　/ 話した}　のに　　(although s.o. talks / talked)
{*hanasu* / *hanashita*}　*noni*

{高い / 高かった}　のに　　(although s.t. is / was expensive)
{*takai* / *takakatta*}　*noni*

KSs(C) and (D):

{Adj (*na*) stem/ N}　{な / だった}　のに
　　　　　　　　　　{*na* / *datta*}　*noni*

{静かな　/ 静かだった}　のに　　(although s.t. is / was quiet)
{*shizukana* / *shizukadatta*}　*noni*

{先生　な / 先生　だった}　のに　　(although s.o. is / was a teacher)
{*sensei na* / *sensei datta*}　*noni*

Examples

(a)　中学と高校で六年間も英語を勉強したのにまだ英語が話せません。
　　　Chūgaku to kōkō de rokunenkan mo eigo o benkyōshita noni mada
　　　eigo ga hanasemasen.

(I studied English for as many as six years at junior high and senior high, but I still cannot speak it.)

(b) 寒いのにオーバーを着ないで出かけた。

Samui noni ōbā o kinaide dekaketa.

(Although it was cold, he went out without wearing an overcoat.)

(c) あの人はピアノが上手なのにめったに弾きません。

Ano hito wa piano ga jōzuna noni metta ni hikimasen.

(He is good at piano, but seldom plays.)

(d) 父は九十歳なのにまだ働いています。

Chichi wa kyūjussai na noni mada hataraite imasu.

(My father is still working in spite of the fact that he is ninety years old.)

Notes

1. *Noni* is the nominalizer *no* plus the particle *ni* 'to', meaning 'in contrast to the fact that ~'. The *noni* clause expresses a highly presupposed, speaker-oriented action or state. (⇨ *no*[3]) In other words, the speaker of S_1 *noni* S_2 is personally involved with the proposition of S_1. This personal involvement tends to create some emotive overtone.

2. In colloquial speech, if the content of the main clause is predictable, the clause often drops. In this case, the sentence expresses a feeling of discontent on the part of the speaker.

   (1) A : そんなもの要らないよ。

        Sonna mono iranai yo.

        (I don't need that kind of stuff.)

      B : せっかくあげると言うのに。

        Sekkaku ageru to iu noni.

        (Lit. Although I'm kindly saying that I'll give it to you. (= I'm saying I'll give it to you, you know.))

[Related Expressions]

I. Because of the speaker-oriented character of the *noni* clause, certain types of constructions involving the hearer cannot be used in the main clause in this construction. If the main clause is a request, suggestion, question, command or request for permission, only *keredo*(*mo*) can be used. Examples of the above categories can be seen in [1] through [5] below:

[1] 難しいけれど / *のにしてみてください。
　　*Muzukashii **keredo** / *noni shite mite kudasai.*
　　(It is difficult, but try it, please.)

[2] あまりおいしくないけれど / *のに食べてみませんか。
　　*Amari oishiku nai **keredo** / *noni tabete mimasen ka.*
　　(It's not so good, but do you want to try it?)

[3] a. 寒いけれど / *のに外に出ますか。
　　　*Samui **keredo** / *noni soto ni demasu ka.*
　　　(It's cold, but are you going outside?)

　　b. 寒いけれど / のに外に出るんですか。
　　　*Samui **keredo** / **noni** soto ni deru n desu ka.*
　　　(It's cold, but (lit. is it that you are going outside?) are you going outside?)

[4] つまらないけれど / *のに読みなさい。
　　*Tsumaranai **keredo** / *noni yominasai.*
　　(It's boring, but read it.)

[5] 下手だけれど / *下手なのにしてもいいですか。
　　*Hetada **keredo** / *Hetana **noni** shite mo iidesu ka.*
　　(I'm not good at it, but can I do it?)

[3b] is acceptable, because the scope of the question is not the main verb *deru* 'go outside' but the whole sentence nominalized by *n*.

II. The main clause cannot be an expression of intention as in [6], because the expression is directed not towards the speaker but towards the hearer.

[6] 分からないけれど / *のによく考えてみるつもりです / 考えてみよう と思います。
　　*Wakaranai **keredo** / *noni yoku kangaete miru tsumori desu / kangaete miyō to omoimasu.*
　　(Although I don't understand it, I intend to really think about it / I think I will really think about it.)

III. Due to the nominalizer *no*, the *noni* clause tends to express something with which the speaker is emotively involved. But *keredo(mo)* is relatively free from the speaker's emotive involvement; in short, it is more objective than *noni*.　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(⇨ *no*[3])

IV. *Noni* in Exs. (a) through (d) can also be replaced by the disjunctive conjunction *ga* 'but'. For example, Ex. (d) can be rewritten as [7].

[7] 父は九十歳だが，まだ働いている。

Chichi wa kyūjussai da ga, mada hataraite iru.

(My father is ninety years old, but he is still working.)

The disjunctive meaning of *ga* is much weaker than that of *noni*, and *ga* is free from the restrictions imposed on *noni*. The style of the *noni* clause is always informal, but depending on the style of the second sentence, the style of the sentence preceding *ga* can be either informal or formal, as shown below:

Sinf *ga* Sinf / fml   vs.   Sinf *noni* Sinf / fml

Sfml *ga* Sfml

noni² のに   *conj.*

> in the process or for the purpose of doing s.t. expressed in the *no*-nominalized clause

in the process of doing ~ ; (in order) to do ~ ; for the purpose of ~

[REL. *ni⁵*; *tame (ni)*]

◆ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)		Subordinate Clause			Main Clause
			Vinf·nonpast		
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	日本語 の 新聞 を *nihongo no shinbun o*	読む *yomu*	のに *noni*	辞書 を 使う / *jisho o tsukau /* 使います。 *tsukaimasu.*

(I use a dictionary to read Japanese newspapers.)

Formation

Vinf·nonpast のに
　　　　　　　noni

話す　のに　(in order to talk)
hanasu noni

食べる のに   (in order to eat)
taberu noni

Examples

(a)　すきやきを作るのには何が要りますか。
Sukiyaki o tsukuru noni wa nani ga irimasu ka.
(What do you need to make *sukiyaki?*)

(b)　このレポートを書くのに一か月かかりました。
Kono repōto o kaku noni ikkagetsu kakarimashita.
(It took me a month to write this paper.)

(c)　会社に行くのにバスと電車を使っている。
Kaisha ni iku noni basu to densha o tsukatte iru.
(I am using the bus and the train to get to (lit. my company) work.)

Notes

1. In the *noni²* construction, only informal, nonpast, volitional verbs can precede *noni*.　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(Cp. **noni¹**)

2. When the *noni* clause is used as the topic (i.e., S *noni wa*), *no* is often deleted in conversation, as in (1).

　　(1)　すきやきを作るには何が要りますか。
　　　　*Sukiyaki o tsukuru **ni wa** nani ga irimasu ka.*
　　　　(What do you need to make *sukiyaki?*)

[Related Expressions]

I. When the main verb is a verb of motion, the *noni²* construction contrasts with that of V*masu ni* V(motion).　(⇨ **ni⁵**)　Examples:

　　[1]　映画を見に銀座へ行った。
　　　　*Eiga o mi **ni** Ginza e itta.*
　　　　(I went to Ginza to see a movie.)

　　[2]　映画を見るのに銀座へ行った。
　　　　*Eiga o miru **noni** Ginza e itta.*
　　　　(I went to Ginza for the purpose of seeing a movie.)

　　[3]　映画を見に / *見るのに行った。
　　　　*Eiga o mi **ni** /*miru **noni** itta.*
　　　　(I went to see / *for the purpose of seeing a movie.)

If a destination is specified, as in [1] and [2], both constructions can be used. However, the *noni* version implies that the subject of the

sentence made a lot out of the entire process. [2] can imply that the speaker shouldn't have used time and money going to Ginza to see a movie. If a location is not specified, only the V*masu ni* V (motion) construction-can be used, as shown in [3].

II. *Noni²* is similar in its meaning to Vinf·nonpast *tame ni* 'in order to'. The latter purely means 'purpose' but the former retains the meaning of 'in the process of', even when it means 'purpose'. Thus, in a sentence such as [4] below in which the verb in the *noni*-clause is incongruous with the meaning of 'process', *noni* cannot be used.

[4] 生きるために / *のに食べる。
    *Ikiru **tame ni** / ***noni** taberu.*
    (We eat in order to live.)

Cp. この町で生きていくために / のに月二十万円は必要だ。
    *Kono machi de ikite iku **tame ni** / **noni** tsuki nijūman'en wa hitsuyōda.*
    (We need 200,000 yen a month in order to keep living in this town.)

~no wa ~da ~のは ~だ   *str.*

a structure that indicates new, important information by placing it between *no wa* and the copula *da* (*No* is an indefinite pronoun (*no²*) that replaces 'time', 'person', 'thing', 'place' or 'reason'.)

it is ~ that ~; the one who ~ is ~; the place where ~ is ~; the reason why ~ is ~; the time when ~ is ~; what ~ is ~

[REL. *no³*]

◆**Key Sentences**

(A)

		Vinf			Important Information	
私 が 中国 に *Watashi ga Chūgoku ni*		行った *itta*	の は *no wa*		三年 前 *sannen mae*	だ / です。 *da / desu.*

(It was three years ago that I went to China. / The time when I went to China was three years ago.)

(B)

	Adj (i) inf		Important Information	
この クラス で 一番 頭 が Kono kurasu de ichiban atama ga	いい ii	の は no wa	吉田さん Yoshida-san	だ / です。 da / desu.

(The brightest one in this class is Mr. Yoshida.)

(C)

	Adj (na) stem			Important Information	
ここ で 一番 Koko de ichiban	きれい kirei	な na	の は no wa	山 yama	だ / です。 da / desu.

(The most beautiful things here are mountains.)

Formation・

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf の は ~ だ
　　　　　　　　　 no wa ~ da

　　{話す / 話した} の は ~ だ　　(it is ~ who talks / talked)
　　{hanasu / hanashita} no wa ~ da

　　{食べる / 食べた} の は ~ だ　　(it is ~ who eats / ate)
　　{taberu / tabeta} no wa ~ da

　　{高い / 高かった} の は ~ だ　　(it is ~ that is / was expensive)
　　{takai / takakatta} no wa ~ da

(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {な / だった} の は ~ だ
　　　　　　　　　　　　 {na / datta} no wa ~ da

　　{静かな / 静かだった} の は ~ だ　　(it is ~ that is / was quiet)
　　{shizukana / shizukadatta} no wa ~ da

　　{先生 な / 先生 だった} の は ~ だ　　(it is ~ who is / was a teacher)
　　{sensei na / sensei datta} no wa ~ da

Examples

(a) 山田さん, あなたがシカゴに行ったのはいつですか。
　　Yamada-san, anata ga Shikago ni itta no wa itsu desu ka.
　　(Mr. Yamada, when was it that you went to Chicago?)

(b) おととい遊びに来たのは秋子さんです。

Ototoi asobi ni kita no wa Akiko-san desu.

(It was Akiko who came to see me the day before yesterday.)

(c) モーツアルトが大好きになったのは大学一年の時です。

Mōtsuaruto ga dai-sukini natta no wa daigaku ichinen no toki desu.

(It was during my freshman year that I became very fond of Mozart.)

(d) 父がきらいなのはテレビだ。

Chichi ga kiraina no wa terebi da.

(It is television that my father hates.)

(e) 日本でおいしいのは果物だ。

Nihon de oishii no wa kudamono da.

(What is delicious in Japan is fruit.)

Notes

1. The particle used with the noun or noun phrase between *no wa* and *da* usually drops if the particle does not have any concrete meaning (as in the cases of *ga* and *o*), or if the meaning of the entire sentence is somehow predictable. Examples follow.

(1) 八時にうちに来たのは森田さん（*が）だ。

*Hachiji ni uchi ni kita no wa Morita-san (*ga) da.*

(It was Mr. Morita who came to my house at eight o'clock.)

(2) 森田さんが持って来たのはケーキ（*を）だ。

*Morita-san ga motte kita no wa kēki (*o) da.*

(It was cake that Mr. Morita brought here.)

(3) 森田さんがケーキをくれたのは弟（に）だ。

Morita-san ga kēki o kureta no wa otōto (ni) da.

(It was to my brother that Mr. Morita gave cake.)

(4) 森田さんがうちに来たのは車でだ。

Morita-san ga uchi ni kita no wa kuruma de da.

(It was by his car that Mr. Morita came to my house.)

(5) a. 森田さんが来たのは東京からだ。

Morita-san ga kita no wa Tōkyō kara da.

(It was from Tokyo that Mr. Morita came.)

b. 森田さんが出発したのは東京（から）だ。

Morita-san ga shuppatsushita no wa Tōkyō (kara) da.

(It was from Tokyo that Mr. Morita departed.)

(6)　a.　森田さんが飲んだのは田山さんとだ。

Morita-san ga nonda no wa Tayama-san **to** da.

(It was with Mr. Tayama that Mr. Morita drank.)

　　　b.　森田さんが一緒に飲んだのは田山さん（と）だ。

Morita-san ga isshoni nonda no wa Tayama-san (**to**) da.

(It was with Mr. Tayama that Mr. Morita (lit. together) drank.)

In (5b) and (6b) the particles *kara* and *to* normally drop, because *shuppatsushita* 'departed' and *isshoni* 'together' generally co-occur with *kara* and *to*, respectively.

3. The element between *no wa* and *da* cannot be a manner adverb. The following sentences are all unacceptable.

(7)　*花子が歩いたのはゆっくりだ。

*Hanako ga aruita no wa **yukkuri** da.

(*It was slowly that Hanako walked.)

(8)　*太郎が字を書いたのはきれいにだ。

*Tarō ga ji o kaita no wa **kireini** da.

(*It was beautifully that Taro wrote characters.)

4. Unlike English, the copula *da* in this construction is normally in the present tense.

(9)　きのう買ったのはステレオです / ???でした。

Kinō katta no wa sutereo **desu** / ???**deshita**.

(It was a stereo set that I bought yesterday.)

5. The number of *no wa* ~*da* sentences which can be produced from one sentence is limited only by the number of elements which can be placed between *no wa* and *da*. For example, four such sentences can be derived from (10).

(10)　ジョンがジェーンに東京で八月に会った。

Jon ga **Jēn** ni **Tōkyō** de **hachigatsu** ni atta.

(John met Jane in August in Tokyo.)

(11)　a.　ジェーンに東京で八月に会ったのはジョンだ。

Jēn ni Tōkyō de hachigatsu ni atta no wa **Jon** da.

(It was John who met Jane in August in Tokyo.)

　　　b.　ジョンが東京で八月に会ったのはジェーンだ。

Jon ga Tōkyō de hachigatsu ni atta no wa **Jēn** da.

(It was Jane whom John met in August in Tokyo.)

   c. ジョンがジェーンに八月に会ったのは**東京（で）**だ。

      *Jon ga Jēn ni hachigatsu ni atta no wa **Tōkyō** (**de**) da.*

      (It was in Tokyo that John met Jane in August.)

   d. ジョンがジェーンに東京で会ったのは**八月**だ。

      *Jon ga Jēn ni Tōkyō de atta no wa **hachigatsu** da.*

      (It was in August that John met Jane in Tokyo.)

6. Normally the *no* clause takes *wa*, marking the entire clause as presupposed, old, unimportant information, and the element between *no wa* and *da* represents a new, important piece of information. But sometimes the *no* clause takes *ga*, marking the clause as new, important information. In this case the element between *no ga* and *da* indicates unimportant information.

   (12) 私が作っている**のが**ロボットです。

      *Watashi ga tsukutte iru **no ga** robotto desu.*

      (The one I'm making is a robot.)

   Cp. ロボットは私が作っています。

      *Robotto **wa** watashi ga tsukutte imasu.*

      (Speaking of robots, I'm making one.)

[Related Expression]

No in the present construction should not be confused with the *no* used as a nominalizer. Sentence [1] is the *no wa* ~*da* construction and [2], the nominalized sentence.   (⇨ *no*[3])

   [1] 本を読む**の**はたいてい夜だ。

      *Hon o yomu **no** wa taitei yoru da.*

      (It is usually at night that I read books.)

   [2] 本を読む**の**はいいことだ。

      *Hon o yomu **no** wa ii koto da.*

      (It is a good thing to read books.)

One way to differentiate between the two constructions is to see if the sentence can be restated by deleting *no wa* and *da* and placing the element before *no wa* in an appropriate position. For example, [1] can be restated as [3], but [2] cannot be restated, as seen in [4].

   [3] たいてい夜本を読む。

      Taitei yoru hon o yomu.

      (I read books usually at night.)

[4] a. *いいこと本を読む。
*Ii koto hon o yomu.

b. *本をいいこと読む。
*Hon o ii koto yomu.

c. *本を読むいいこと。
*Hon o yomu ii koto.

N

o- お *pref.*

~~~~~~

a prefix that expresses politeness **【REL.** *go-***】**

~~~~~~

♦ Key Sentences

(A)

	V*masu*	
石田先生　は 英語 で *Ishida-sensei wa eigo de*	お話し o-*hanashi*	に なった / なりました。 *ni natta / narimashita.*
(Prof. Ishida talked in English.)		

(B)

	V*masu*	
私　は きのう　山崎先生　に *Watashi wa kinō Yamazaki-sensei ni*	お会い o-*ai*	した / しました。 *shita / shimashita.*
(I met Prof. Yamazaki yesterday.)		

(C)

	Adj (*i / na*)
今村さん　は ゴルフ が *Imamura-san wa gorufu ga*	お好きだ / 好きです。 o-*sukida / sukidesu.*
(Mr. Imamura likes golf.)	

(D)

Noun	
お飲み物 O-*nomimono*	は 何 が よろしいです か。 *wa nani ga yoroshiidesu ka.*
(Lit. As for drinks, what would be good? (=What would you like to drink?))	

◖Formation◗

KS(A):　お V*masu* に なる　　　　　　　　　　(⇨ *o ~ni naru*)
　　　　　o-　　　 *ni naru*

KS(B):　お V*masu* する　　　　　　　　　　　　　(⇨ *o ~suru*)
　　　　　o-　　　*suru*

KS(C):　お Adj (*i* / *na*)
　　　　　o-

　　　お忙しい　　　(s.o. is busy)
　　　o-isogashii

　　　お上手だ　　　(s.o. is good at ~)
　　　o-jōzuda

KS(D):　お N
　　　　　o-

　　　お金　　　(money)
　　　o-kane

Examples

(a)　田村先生は今とてもお忙しい。
　　Tamura-sensei wa ima totemo o-isogashii.
　　(Prof. Tamura is very busy now.)

(b)　毎日お暑いですね。
　　Mainichi o-atsuidesu ne.
　　(It's hot day after day, isn't it?)

(c)　上田先生はテニスがお上手です。
　　Ueda-sensei wa tenisu ga o-jōzudesu.
　　(Prof. Ueda is good at tennis.)

(d)　宮本さんの奥様はとてもおきれいだ。
　　Miyamoto-san no okusama wa totemo o-kireida.
　　(Mrs. Miyamoto is very pretty.)

(e)　野村さんからお電話がありました。
　　Nomura-san kara o-denwa ga arimashita.
　　(There was a phone call from Mr. Nomura.)

(f)　お昼ご飯はもう食べましたか。
　　O-hirugohan wa mō tabemashita ka.
　　(Have you had your lunch yet?)

Notes

1. The polite prefix *o-* is used with verbs, adjectives and nouns to express the speaker's respect, modesty or politeness. *O-Vmasu ni naru*

is an honorific polite expression and *o-Vmasu suru* is a humble polite expression.   (⇨ *o ~ni naru*; *o ~suru*)

2. *O*-Adj can be either an honorific polite expression, as in Exs. (a), (c) and (d), or a simple polite expression, as in Ex. (b).

3. *O*-N is used in various ways:

    (1) *Honorific polite expression*:

        先生がお手紙をくださいました。

        *Sensei ga **o**-tegami o kudasaimashita.*

        (My teacher wrote me a letter.)

    (2) *Humble polite expression*:

        明日お電話をさしあげます。

        *Myōnichi **o**-denwa o sashiagemasu.*

        (I'll call you tomorrow.)

    (3) *Simple polite expression*:

        お野菜が高くなりましたねえ。

        ***O**-yasai ga takaku narimashita nē.*

        (Vegetables have become expensive, haven't they?)

4. *O*- cannot be attached to the following words:

    (A) Adjectives and nouns which begin with the [o] sound:

        *おおもしろい (interesting)   *おおいしい (delicious)

        *o-omoshiroi   *o-oishii

        *お大きい (big)   *おおじさん (uncle)   *おおび (belt, sash)

        *o-ōkii   *o-oji-san   *o-obi

    (B) Long words:

        *おじゃがいも (potato)   (cf. おじゃが (potato))

        *o-jagaimo   *o-jaga*

        *おほうれん草 (spinach)

        *o-hōrensō

    (C) Foreign words:

        *おエレベーター (elevator)   *おクリスマス (Christmas)

        *o-erebētā   *o-kurisumasu

        *おバター (butter)

        *o-batā

O

There are some exceptions to this rule. For example:

おたばこ (tobacco)	おズボン (trousers)	おビール (beer)
o-tabako	*o-zubon*	*o-biru*

おソース (sauce)
o-sōsu

These exceptions are words which have been part of the Japanese vocabulary long enough to sound like Japanese-origin words to native speakers.

5. There are a few words which are always used with the polite prefix *o-* or *go-*. (For *go-*, see Related Expression.)

(4) おなか (stomach)　　ご飯 (cooked rice, meal)
　　o-naka　　　　　　*go-han*

[Related Expression]

There is another polite prefix, *go-*. Basically, *go-* is used for Chinese-origin words and *o-* for Japanese-origin words. Examples follow:

[1] *Na*-type adjectives (*I*-type adjectives are all Japanese-origin words; therefore, they are all preceded by *o-*.)

    a. Chinese-origin words:

ご親切 (kind)	ごていねい (polite)	ご便利 (convenient)
go-shinsetsu	*go-teinei*	*go-benri*

    b. Japanese-origin words:

お静か (quiet)	おにぎやか (lively)	お好き (fond)
o-shizuka	*o-nigiyaka*	*o-suki*

[2] Nouns

    a. Chinese-origin words:

ご研究 (research)	ご結婚 (marriage)	ご本 (book)
go-kenkyū	*go-kekkon*	*go-hon*

    b. Japanese-origin words:

お肉 (meat)	お魚 (fish)	おはし (chopsticks)
o-niku	*o-sakana*	*o-hashi*

There are, however, some Chinese-origin words which require the use of *o-*. These exceptions are words which have become assimilated to the point that native speakers no longer consider them to be "borrowed" words. The words in [3] are examples of such exceptions.

[3] a. *Na*-type adjectives:

お上手 (skillful)　　　お元気 (healthy)
o-jōzu　　　　　　**o-genki**

b. Nouns:

お電話 (telephone)　お料理 (dishes)　お時間 (time)
o-denwa　　　　**o-ryōri**　　　**o-jikan**

お勉強 (study)　　　お菓子 (confectionery)
o-benkyō　　　　**o-kashi**

There are very few examples of *go-* Japanese-origin words.

[4] ごゆっくり (slowly)　　ごもっとも (reasonable)
　　　go-yukkuri　　　　**go-mottomo**

o¹ を　　*prt.*

a particle which marks a direct object

♦**Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)		Direct Object		Transitive Verb
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	日本語 **nihongo**	を *o*	勉強して いる / います。 *benkyōshite iru / imasu.*
(I'm studying Japanese.)				

Examples

(a) 前田さんはきのう車を買った。
　　Maeda-san wa kinō kuruma o katta.
　　(Mr. Maeda bought a car yesterday.)

(b) 何を飲みますか。
　　Nani o nomimasu ka.
　　(What will you drink?)

Notes

1. *O* marks the direct object. It is noted, however, that the direct object in English is not always marked by *o* in Japanese. Compare Japanese and English in the following sentences, for example.

    (1) 私は英語が分かる。
        *Watashi wa eigo **ga** wakaru.*
        (I understand English.)   (⇨ *~ wa ~ ga*; *wakaru*)

    (2) ジムはベスに電話した。
        *Jimu wa Besu **ni** denwashita.*
        (Jim called Beth.)

    (3) 僕はきのう田中さんに / とあった。
        *Boku wa kinō Tanaka-san **ni** / **to** atta.*
        (I met Mr. Tanaka yesterday.)

2. In some constructions, the direct object marker *o* can be replaced by the subject marker *ga*.

    (4) ミルクを飲む → ミルクを / が飲みたい   (⇨ *tai*)
        *miruku **o** nomu*   *miruku **o** / **ga** nomitai*
        (drink milk)   (want to drink milk)

    (5) 日本語を話す → 日本語を / が話せる   (⇨ *rareru²*)
        *nihongo **o** hanasu*   *nihongo **o** / **ga** hanaseru*
        (speak Japanese)   (can speak Japanese)

    (6) まどを開ける → まどを / が開けてある   (⇨ *aru²*)
        *mado **o** akeru*   *mado **o** / **ga** akete **aru***
        (open the window)   (The window has been opened.)

3. *O* cannot occur more than once in a clause, whether it is the direct object marker (i.e., *o¹*) or the space marker (i.e., *o²*). Thus, in the causative construction, for example, the causee can be marked only by *ni* if another element in the same clause is marked by *o*. (⇨ *saseru*)

    (7) 父は私に / *を酒を飲ませた。
        *Chichi wa watashi **ni** / ***o** sake **o** nomaseta.*
        (My father made me drink *sake*.)

    (8) 友達は私に / *を急な坂をのぼらせた。
        *Tomodachi wa watashi **ni** / ***o** kyūna saka **o** noboraseta.*
        (My friend made me go up a steep slope.)

4. If the direct object is presented as a topic or a contrastive element, *o* is replaced by *wa*.

(9) 日本語は知りません。

*Nihongo **wa** shirimasen.*

(I don't know Japanese.)

(10) その本はもう読みました。

*Sono hon **wa** mō yomimashita.*

(I already read that book.)

o² を   *prt.*

| a particle which indicates a space in / on / across / through / along   which s.o. or s.t. moves | in; on; across; through; along; over [REL. *de¹*] |

◆**Key Sentence**

	Noun (space)		
私　　は *Watashi wa*	五番街 ***goban-gai***	を *o*	歩いた / 歩きました。 *aruita / arukimashita.*
(I walked along Fifth Avenue.)			

Examples

(a) 公園を通って帰りましょう。

Kōen o tōtte kaerimashō.

(Let's go home through the park (lit. passing through the park).)

(b) 鶴が湖の上を飛んでいます。

Tsuru ga mizuumi no ue o tonde imasu.

(Cranes are flying over the lake.)

(c) 日本では車は道の左側を走ります。

Nihon de wa kuruma wa michi no hidarigawa o hashirimasu.

(In Japan they drive (lit. cars run) on the left side of the street.)

(d) そこの交差点を右に曲がってください。

Soko no kōsaten o migi ni magatte kudasai.

(Please turn to the right at the intersection there.)

Note

When a sentence involves the verb *noboru* 'climb', there is an important difference between the use of the particle *o* and that of *ni*, as seen in (1).

(1) a. ドンは東京タワーをのぼった。
     Don wa Tōkyō Tawā o nobotta.
     (Don scaled Tokyo Tower.)

   b. ドンは東京タワーにのぼった。
     Don wa Tōkyō Tawā ni nobotta.
     (Don went up Tokyo Tower.)

[Related Expression]

The particle *de¹* also marks the space in which an action takes place. The difference between *de¹* and *o* is that *de¹* can be used with any action verb, while *o* can be used only with motion verbs such as *aruku* 'walk', *hashiru* 'run', *tobu* 'fly' and *oyogu* 'swim'. Thus, *o* is ungrammatical in [1].

[1] 私は図書館で / *を勉強した。
   *Watashi wa toshokan de / *o benkyōshita.*
   (I studied at the library.)

When either *de¹* or *o* is possible, as in [2], there is usually a subtle difference between them.

[2] ジョンは川で / を泳いだ。
   Jon wa kawa de / o oyoida.
   (John swam in the river.)

First, when *de¹* is used, other locations for an action are also implied, but when *o* is used, there are no such implications. For example, in [3] John has a choice between a pool and the river. Here, *de¹* is acceptable, but *o* is not.

[3] ジョンはプールがきらいだからたいてい川で / *を泳ぐ。
   *Jon wa pūru ga kiraida kara taitei kawa de / *o oyogu.*
   (John usually swims in the river because he doesn't like pools.)

Second, when *de¹* is used, the sentence often indicates that the purpose of the action is the action itself, whereas when *o* is used it seems that there is another purpose behind the action. For example, in [4] John swam in order to escape, and swimming was not the purpose of his action. Therefore, *o* is acceptable but *de¹* is not.

[4] ジョンは川を / *で泳いで逃げた。

Jon wa kawa o / *de oyoide nigeta.

(John escaped by swimming in the river.)

o³ を   *prt.*

> a particle that marks the location
> from which some movement begins

[REL. *kara¹*]

◆ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)			Noun (space)		
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	朝　七時半　に *asa shichijihan ni*	家 *uchi*	を *o*	出る / 出ます。 *deru / demasu.*
(I leave home at 7:30 in the morning.)					

Examples

(a) 汽車がトンネルを出た。

Kisha ga tonneru o deta.

(A train came out of the tunnel.)

(b) バスを降りた時友達に会った。

Basu o orita toki tomodachi ni atta.

(I met a friend when I got off the bus.)

(c) 日本を離れて外国で暮らしている。

Nihon o hanarete gaikoku de kurashite iru.

(He left Japan and is living abroad.)

[Related Expression]

The particle *o³* in Exs. (a), (b), (c) can be replaced by *kara¹* 'from'. The basic difference between *o³* and *kara¹* is that *o³* marks the location from which some movement begins and *kara¹* marks the initial location in movement from one location to another. Thus, when focusing on both the new and old location of something or someone, *kara* should be used instead of *o*. Consider the following examples.   (⇨ *kara¹*)

[1]　a.　私は今朝八時頃家を / *から出た。

Watashi wa kesa hachiji goro ie **o** / ***kara** deta.

(This morning I left my house at about eight.)

b.　きのうはうちから / *を外に出なかった。

Kinō wa uchi **kara** /***o** soto ni denakatta.

(Yesterday I didn't go outside.)

[1a] focuses on a point of detachment, so *o* is acceptable but *kara* isn't.　[1b], however, focuses on a starting point, so *kara* is acceptable but *o* isn't.

o⁴ を　　prt.

> a particle that marks the cause of some human emotion

◆**Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)		Noun		Verb (emotive)
次郎 Jirō	は wa	父　の　死 **chichi no shi**	を o	悲しんだ / 悲しみました。 kanashinda / kanashimimashita.
(Jiro was saddened at his father's death.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)			Nominalizer		Verb (emotive)
次郎 Jirō	は wa	父　が　死んだ **chichi ga shinda**	こと / の koto / no	を o	悲しんだ / kanashinda / 悲しみました。 kanashimimashita.
(Jiro was sad that his father died.)					

Examples

(a) 私は浩の大学入学を喜んだ。

Watashi wa Hiroshi no daigakunyūgaku o yorokonda.

(I was happy about Hiroshi's entering college.)

(b) ヨーロッパ人はまた戦争が起きることを恐れている。

Yōroppajin wa mata sensō ga okiru koto o osorete iru.

(Europeans are afraid that war will break out again.)

(c) 信子は京都での一年をなつかしんだ。

Nobuko wa Kyōto de no ichinen o natsukashinda.

(Nobuko nostalgically recollected her year in Kyoto.)

(d) 林は英語が出来ないことを悩んでいる。

Hayashi wa eigo ga dekinai koto o nayande iru.

(Hayashi is worried that he cannot speak English.)

Notes

1. Because the main verbs used in the KSs and the Exs., such as *kanashimu* 'sadden', *yorokobu* 'rejoice', *osoreru* 'fear', *natsukashimu* 'nostalgically recollect' and *nayamu* 'worry' are all inwardly-oriented psychological verbs they cannot be considered transitive verbs in Japanese. Therefore, the particle *o⁴* preceding these verbs cannot be the ordinary direct object marker *o* which normally marks an outwardly-oriented event. Rather it indicates the cause for human emotion expressed by the main verb. Thus, it is sometimes possible to rewrite the sentence in question using *node* 'because'. (⇨ *node*) For example, KS(A) and Ex. (a) can be paraphrased as (1a) and (1b), respectively.

(1) a. 次郎は父が死んだので悲しんだ。

Jirō wa chichi ga shinda **node** kanashinda.

(Jiro was sad because his father died.)

b. 私は浩が大学に入学したので喜んだ。

Watashi wa Hiroshi ga daigaku ni nyūgakushita **node** yoro-konda.

(I was glad because Hiroshi entered college.)

The original versions are examples of written style and are seldom used in conversational Japanese, but the rewritten versions can be used in both spoken and written Japanese.

2. No matter what person (first, second, third) the subject of this con-

struction is, the main emotive verb is normally in the stative *te iru / inai* form and / or in the past tense. In a generic statement, however, the verb can be in the non-stative, nonpast form as in (2):

(2) だれでも親の死を悲しむ。

Dare demo oya no shi o kanashimu.

(Everybody is saddened by their parents' death.)

3. If the emotive verb consists of adj(*i*)stem+suffix *mu* as in *kanashi-mu* 'sadden', *natsukashi-mu* 'nostalgically recollect', *oshi-mu* 'regret', *tanoshi-mu* 'enjoy', it can take the suffix *-garu* 'show signs of ~ ' as in *kanashi-garu*, *natsukashi-garu*, *oshi-garu* and *tanoshi-garu*. Thus, along with KS(A) we have a sentence type (3).   (⇨ *garu*)

(3) 次郎は父の死を悲しがった。

Jirō wa chichi no shi o kanashigatta.

(Jiro showed signs of being sad about his father's death.)

(3) is a more objective expression than KS(A), because the verb *-garu* 'show signs of ~' has an outwardly-oriented meaning.

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ōi 多い   *adj. (i)*

| (of quantity or number) a lot |

many; a lot of; much
[REL. *ōzei*; *takusan*]
(ANT. *sukunai*)

◆**Key Sentence**

Topic (location)		Subject		
日本 (に) *Nihon (ni)*	は *wa*	大学 *daigaku*	が *ga*	多い / 多いです。 *ōi / ōidesu.*
(Lit. In Japan universities are many.		(=There are a lot of universities		
in Japan.))				

Examples

(a) 京都(に)はお寺が多いです。
Kyōto (ni) wa o-tera ga ōidesu.
(There are many temples in Kyoto.)

(b) ロスさんの作文(に)は間違いが多いです。
Rosu-san no sakubun (ni) wa machigai ga ōidesu.
(There are many mistakes in Mr. Ross's compositions.)

(c) 一月(に)は雪が多い。
Ichigatsu (ni) wa yuki ga ōi.
(There is a lot of snow in January.)

Notes

1. Unlike the English 'many', the Japanese ōi cannot be used before a noun, except in a relative clause where ōi is the predicate of the clause, not the modifier of the head noun.

   (1) *京都には多いお寺があります。
   *Kyōto ni wa **ōi** o-tera ga arimasu.
   (There are many temples in Kyoto.)

   (2) お寺が多い町は京都です。
   O-tera ga **ōi** machi wa Kyōto desu.
   (The town in which there are many temples is Kyoto.)

2. Ōi cannot be used in front of a noun, but ōku no can be used that way in written Japanese. Thus,

   (3) 多くの学生が毎年アジアから日本の大学に来る。
   Ōku no gakusei ga maitoshi Ajia kara Nihon no daigaku ni kuru.
   (Every year many students come to Japanese universities from Asia.)

3. Sukunai, an antonym of ōi, is very similar to ōi in its use. Neither sukunai nor ōi can be used before nouns, except in relative clauses. Sukunai differs from ōi in that there is no counterpart of ōku 'the majority' and of ōku no 'many'. (⇨ **sukunai**)

   (4) a. この町は車が少ないです。
   Kono machi wa kuruma ga **sukunai**desu.
   (There aren't many cars in this town.)

   b. 日本語の新聞が読める学生は少ない。
   Nihongo no shinbun ga yomeru gakusei wa **sukunai**.
   (Few students can read Japanese newspapers.)

[Related Expressions]

I. *Ōi* and *ōku no* can be replaced by *ōzei iru* and *ōzei no*, respectively, if *ōi* and *ōku no* refer to human beings. *Ōzei* is used only for people.

[1] この部屋(に)は学生が多い / 大勢いる。
Kono heya (ni) wa gakusei ga ōi / ōzei iru.
(There are a lot of students in this room.)

[2] この部屋(に)は多くの / 大勢の学生がいる。

Kono heya (ni) wa ōku no / ōzei no gakusei ga iru.
(There are a lot of students in this room.)

Ōzei can be used by itself as an adverb, but the adverbial form of *ōi* cannot be used as an adverb in colloquial speech.

[3] 学生が大勢 / *多く来た。
*Gakusei ga ōzei / *ōku kita.*
(Many students came.)

II. *Ōi* and *ōku no* can be replaced by *takusan aru / iru* and *takusan no*, respectively. *Takusan* can also be used by itself as an adverb.

[4] この部屋(に)は机が多い / たくさんある。
Kono heya (ni) wa tsukue ga ōi / takusan aru.
(There are a lot of tables in this room.)

[5] この部屋(に)は学生が多い / たくさんいる。
Kono heya (ni) wa gakusei ga ōi / takusan iru.
(There are a lot of students in this room.)

[6] 今年はたくさん / *多く / *大勢雪が降った。
*Kotoshi wa takusan / *ōku / *ōzei yuki ga futta.*
(It snowed a lot this year.)

III. *Ōku* can be used as a noun but *ōzei* and *takusan* cannot.

[7] 学生の多く / *大勢 / *たくさんは男だ。
*Gakusei no ōku / *ōzei / *takusan wa otoko da.*
(The majority of the students are male.)

oku おく   *aux. v. (Gr. 1)*

do s.t. in advance for future convenience

do s.t. in advance; go ahead and do s.t.; let s.o./s.t. remain as he/it is

[REL. **aru²**]

◆**Key Sentence**

	V*te*	
あした パーティー を する ので ビール を *Ashita pāti o suru node biru o*	買って **katte**	おいた / おきました。 *oita / okimashita.*
(Since we are having a party tomorrow, I bought some beer for it.)		

Formation

V*te* おく
　　　oku

話して　　おく　　　(talk in advance)
hanashite oku

食べて おく　　(eat s.t. in advance)
tabete oku

Examples

(a) 今日は昼に客が来るので昼ご飯を早目に食べておいた。
Kyō wa hiru ni kyaku ga kuru node hirugohan o hayame ni tabete oita.
(Since I'm having a guest at noon today, I had my lunch earlier.)

(b) 来年日本へ行くから少し日本語を勉強しておきます。
Rainen Nihon e iku kara sukoshi nihongo o benkyōshite okimasu.
(Since I'm going to Japan next year, I will study a little Japanese ahead of time.)

Notes

1. *Oku* as a main verb means 'put' or 'place'. However, when it is used with V*te*, it is an auxiliary verb meaning 'do something in advance and leave the resultant state as it is for future convenience'.

2. With a causative verb, V*te oku* can express the idea that someone *lets* someone or something remain in his / its present state. Examples:

(1) a. 信子は疲れているからしばらく寝させておこう。

Nobuko wa tsukarete iru kara shibaraku nesasete okō.

(Since Nobuko is tired, let's let her sleep for a while.)

b. 飲みたいと言うのなら好きなだけ飲ませておきなさい。

Nomitai to iu no nara sukina dake nomasete okinasai.

(If he says he wants to drink, let him drink as much as he likes.)

However, if the context is not clear, causative V*te oku* can be ambiguous. For example, the following sentence can be interpreted two ways.

(2) 私はボブにビールを飲ませておいた。

*Watashi wa Bobu ni biru o **nomasete oita**.*

((A) I let (or make) Bob drink beer (for future convenience). (B) I let Bob drink beer.)

3. V*te oku* may be contracted into *toku* or *doku* in informal conversation.

(3) a. 見て おく　→ 見 とく　　(see ~ in advance)
   mite oku　　*mi **toku***

b. 読んで おく → 読ん どく　　(read ~ in advance)
   yonde oku　　*yon **doku***

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o ~ni naru　お ~ になる　*phr.*

a phrase which expresses the speaker's respect for someone when describing that person's action or state

[REL. *o ~suru*; *rareru*[1]]

♦ **Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)			V*masu*	
田中先生 *Tanaka-sensei*	は *wa*	もう *mō*	お帰り *o-**kaeri***	に なった / なりました。 *ni natta / narimashita.*
(Prof. Tanaka already went home.)				

Formation

お V*masu* に なる
o-　　　*ni naru*

お話し　　に　なる　　　(s.o. (will) talk)
o-hanashi ni naru

お教え　に　なる　　　(s.o. (will) teach)
o-oshie ni naru

Examples

(a) この本をもうお読みになりましたか。
Kono hon o mō o-yomi ni narimashita ka.
(Have you read this book yet?)

(b) グッドマン先生は私の名前をお忘れになった。
Guddoman-sensei wa watashi no namae o o-wasure ni natta.
(Prof. Goodman has forgotten my name.)

Notes

1. In ordinary circumstances, *o-Vmasu ni naru* is used when the speaker describes someone's action or state with respect. However, if a social norm requires the speaker to talk in honorific speech, the honorific form is used, even if the speaker does not respect the person he talks about. (For more detail, see Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 6. Politeness and Formality.) Politeness is expressed in this form by two elements: first by the polite prefix *o-*, and second by the verb *naru*, which describes someone's action or state indirectly. This indirectness is a common strategy in polite expressions. (⇨ *naru*)

2. There are some verbs whose honorific forms are expressed by special honorific verbs.
(See Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 6. Politeness and Formality.)

3. When a verb has the form "N *suru*" like *kekkonsuru* 'marry' and *denwasuru* 'call' its honorific form is "*go- / o-*N *nasaru*". *Nasaru* is the honorific form of *suru* 'do' and a Gr. 1 verb. (Note that V*masu* is *nasai (masu)*, not *nasari (masu)*.) Except for a handful of exceptions which require *o-* (i.e., *denwasuru* 'call', *benkyōsuru* 'study', *ryōrisuru* 'cook', *sentakusuru* 'wash', *sōjisuru* 'clean', *sanposuru* 'take a walk'), *go-* precedes N. (⇨ *o-*, REL.) Examples:

(1) 小山先生は四月にご結婚なさいます。
Koyama-sensei wa shigatsu ni go-kekkon nasaimasu.
(Prof. Koyama will get married in April.)

(2) 森本さんにお電話なさいましたか。
Morimoto-san ni o-denwa nasaimashita ka.
(Did you call Mr. Morimoto?)

[Related Expression]

Rareru[1] can also be used to describe respectfully someone's action or state, as seen in [1], although the degree of politeness is not as high.

(⇨ *rareru*[1], Note 9)

[1] a. 田中先生はもう帰られましたか。
Tanaka-sensei wa mō kaeraremashita ka.
(Did Prof. Tanaka go home already?)

b. この本をもう読まれましたか。
Kono hon o mō yomaremashita ka.
(Have you read this book yet?)

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o ~suru お ～ する   *phr.*

> a phrase which humbly expresses the speaker's politeness to someone when describing the speaker's action or state that involves or affects that person

[REL. *o ~ni naru*]

♦**Key Sentence**

Topic (subject)					V*masu*	
私	は	先生 の	スーツケース	を	お持ち	した / しました。
Watashi	*wa*	*sensei no*	*sūtsukēsu*	*o*	*o-mochi*	*shita / shimashita.*
(I carried my teacher's suitcase.)						

Formation

お V*masu* する
o   suru

お話し   する   (s.o. (will) talk)
o-hanashi suru

お教え   する   (s.o. (will) teach)
o-oshie suru

Examples

(a) そのことは私がお話ししましょう。
    Sono koto wa watashi ga o-hanashi shimashō.
    (I will tell you about that matter.)

(b) 山村君は先生に本をお借りした。
    Yamamura-kun wa sensei ni hon o o-kari shita.
    (Mr. Yamamura borrowed a book from his teacher.)

Notes

1. *O-Vmasu suru* is used when the speaker wants to be polite when talking about something he or his in-group member did or will do. (For more detail, see Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 6. Politeness and Formality.) For example, when a sales manager is talking to a customer, the manager uses this pattern to describe what his salesmen will do for the customer, as in (1).

    (1) サンプルは明日うちのセールスマンがお届けします。
        Sanpuru wa myōnichi uchi no sērusuman ga o-todoke shimasu.
        ((One of) Our salesmen will bring the sample to you tomorrow.)

2. *O-Vmasu suru* is used only when the speaker's (or his in-group member's) action involves or affects the person the speaker wants to be polite to. Thus, (2) is unacceptable under ordinary circumstances.

    (2) *私がお歩きします。
        Watashi ga o-aruki shimasu.
        (I will walk.)

3. There are some verbs whose humble forms are expressed by special verbs. (See Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 6. Politeness and formality.) The rule in Note 2 does not apply to these verbs. That is, these special verbs are also used as simple polite expressions and can be used even if the speaker's (or his in-group member's) action does not involve or affect the person the speaker wants to be polite to.

4. When a verb has the form "N *suru*", like *shōkaisuru* 'introduce' and *denwasuru* 'call', its humble form is "*go-* / *o*-N *suru*" or, more politely, "*go-* / *o*-N *itasu*". (*Itasu* is the humble form of the verb *suru*, do'.) Except for a handful of exceptions which require *ō*- (i.e., *denwasuru* 'call', *benkyōsuru* 'study', *ryōrisuru* 'cook', *sentakusuru* 'wash', *sōji-suru* 'clean', *sanposuru* 'take a walk'), *go*- precedes N. (⇨ **o-**, REL.) Examples:

(3) 上村さんをご紹介します / いたします。
　　*Uemura-san o **go**-shōkai **shimasu** / **itashimasu**.*
　　(Let me (lit. I will) introduce Mr. Uemura.)

(4) あしたお電話します / いたします。
　　*Ashita **o**-denwa **shimasu** / **itashimasu**.*
　　(I will call you tomorrow).

[Related Expression]

O-Vmasu ni naru is also used to express politeness. However, *o-Vmasu ni naru* and *o-Vmasu suru* are different in that the former is used when the speaker talks about someone's action or state with respect, while the latter is used when the speaker talks about his own action or state.

　　(⇨ Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 6. Politeness and Formality)

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~owaru ~終わる　　*aux. v. (Gr.* 1)

finish doing ~	finish; end
	[REL. *shimau*]
	(ANT. ~*hajimeru*)

◆**Key Sentence**

	V*masu*	
源氏物語　　を　やっと *Genjimonogatari o　yatto*	読み *yomi*	終わった / 終わりました。 *owatta / owarimashita.*
(I finally finished reading *The Tale of Genji*.)		

Formation

V*masu* 終わる
       owaru

話し終わる   (finish talking)
hanashiowaru

食べ終わる   (finish eating)
tabeowaru

Examples

(a)   やっと論文を書き終わった。
       Yatto ronbun o kakiowatta.
       (I finally finished writing a paper.)

(b)   ちょうどご飯を食べ終わったところです。
       Chōdo gohan o tabeowatta tokoro desu.
       (I've just finished eating my meal.)

Notes

1. ~*owaru* is an auxiliary verb derived from the intransitive verb *owaru* meaning 'end; comes to a close'.

2. ~*owaru* can be replaced by ~*oeru* in written Japanese. ~*oeru*, however, conjugates as a Gr. 2 verb.

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rareru[1] られる   *aux. v. (Gr. 2)*

| A state or an action cannot be con- trolled by s.o. or s.t. | be -ed; get -ed [REL. *o ~ni naru*; *rareru*[2]] |

♦**Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)		Agent		Transitive Verb (passive)
一郎 *Ichirō*	は *wa*	花子 *Hanako*	に *ni*	だまされた / だまされました。 *damasareta / damasaremashita.*
(Ichiro was deceived by Hanako.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)		Agent			Intransitive Verb (passive)
ジェーン *Jēn*	は *wa*	フレッド *Fureddo*	に *ni*	夜　おそく　アパート　に *yoru osoku apāto ni*	来られた / *korareta /* 来られました。 *koraremashita.*
(Fred came to Jane's apartment late at night (and Jane was unhappy).)					

(C)

Topic (subject)		Agent		Direct Object		Transitive Verb (passive)
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	弟 *otōto*	に *ni*	ケーキ *kēki*	を *o*	食べられた / 食べられました。 *taberareta / taberaremashita.*
(Lit. I got my cake eaten by my younger brother. (＝My younger brother ate my cake (and I was unhappy).))						

(D)

Topic (subject)			Verb (passive)
田中先生 *Tanaka-sensei*	は *wa*	日本 へ *Nihon e*	帰られた / 帰られました。 *kaerareta / kaeraremashita.*
(Prof. Tanaka went back to Japan. (Honorific))			

Formation

(i) Gr. 1 Verbs: Vneg れる
                reru

               話される   (be told)
               hanasareru

(ii) Gr. 2 Verbs: Vstem られる
                rareru

               食べられる   (be eaten)
               taberareru

(iii) Irr. Verbs: 来る → 来られる   (s.o. (X) comes to s.o. (Y) and Y is
           kuru   *korareru*   unhappy)

            する → される   (be done)
            suru   *sareru*

Examples

(a) このビルは二年前に建てられた。
    Kono biru wa ninen mae ni taterareta.
    (This building was built two years ago.)

(b) この本は1965年にアメリカで出版された。
    Kono hon wa 1965 nen ni Amerika de shuppansareta.
    (This book was published in America in 1965.)

(c) 私は二年前妻に死なれた。
    Watashi wa ninen mae tsuma ni shinareta.
    (My wife died two years ago (and gave me sorrow).)

(d) 原田さんは奥さんに高いコートを買われた。
    Harada-san wa okusan ni takai kōto o kawareta.
    (Mr. Harada's wife bought an expensive coat (and he is unhappy).)

(e) 林先生は日本の大学のことを話された。
    Hayashi-sensei wa Nihon no daigaku no koto o hanasareta.
    (Prof. Hayashi talked about Japanese universities. (Honorific))

Notes

1. There are two types of passive sentences in Japanese. One can be called " direct passive " and the other, " indirect passive ". The direct passive is similar to the English passive. (KS(A), Exs. (a) and (b)) That is, for every passive sentence, there is a corresponding active sentence. For example, the active version of KS(A) is (1).

(1) 花子は一郎をだました。

Hanako wa Ichirō o damashita.

(Hanako deceived Ichiro.)

As seen in KS(A), in direct passive sentences, the direct object in active sentences is presented as the subject; the subject in active sentences is presented as the agent and marked by *ni*. (⇒ *ni*[3]) Note that verbs in direct passive sentences are always transitive.

2. When the speaker uses a direct passive sentence, he is making a statement from the viewpoint of the receiver of the action. The agent is frequently omitted when he / it is not important and / or unknown, as in Exs. (a) and (b).

3. The indirect object in active sentences can also be the subject in direct passive sentences. Examples:

(2) a. *Active sentence*

ジョンは先生に質問をした。

Jon wa sensei ni shitsumon o shita.

(John asked his teacher a question.)

b. *Direct passive sentence*

先生はジョンに質問をされた。

Sensei wa Jon ni shitsumon o sareta.

(The teacher was asked a question by John.)

4. The agent in direct passive sentences can also be marked by other particles, such as *ni yotte* and *kara*.

(3) *Ni yotte*

a. この絵はピカソによってかかれた。

*Kono e wa Pikaso **ni yotte** kakareta.*

(This picture was painted by Picasso.)

b. 電話はベルによって発明された。

*Denwa wa Beru **ni yotte** hatsumeisareta.*

(The telephone was invented by Bell.)

Ni yotte, meaning 'depending on; owing to; by means of', is usually used in written form or formal speech when X in X *ni yotte* is a sort of medium through which or whom something is done. When *ni yotte* is used, X *ni yotte* is usually under strong focus. Therefore, the following sentences are unacceptable under normal circumstances.

(4) a. *私は花子によってぶたれた。

   *Watashi wa Hanako **ni yotte** butareta.*

   (I was hit by Hanako.)

   b. *川本さんはいつも仕事によって追われている。

   *Kawamoto-san wa itsumo shigoto **ni yotte** owarete iru.*

   (Mr. Kawamoto's work always keeps him busy.)

Kara 'from' can be used in place of *ni* when the agent is a sort of source, that is, when there is something coming from the agent.

(5) *Kara*

   a. 私は学生から日本の大学のことを聞かれた。

   *Watashi wa gakusei **kara** Nihon no daigaku no koto o kika-reta.*

   (I was asked by the students about Japanese universities.)

   b. 木田さんはみんなから尊敬されている。

   *Kida-san wa minna **kara** sonkeisarete iru.*

   (Mr. Kida is respected by everybody.)

The following sentences are unacceptable because the agents cannot be considered sources.

(6) a. *その時計はどろぼうから盗まれました。

   *Sono tokei wa dorobō **kara** nusumaremashita.*

   (That watch was stolen by a thief.)

   b. *この写真は私の父からとられたものです。

   *Kono shashin wa watashi no chichi **kara** torareta mono desu.*

   (This picture is the one taken by my father.)

5. The other type of passive, the indirect passive, does not exist in English. The indirect passive is different from the direct passive and the English passive in the following ways:

   (A) The verb can be intransitive. (KS(B), Ex. (c))

   (B) The direct object can remain as the direct object. (KS(C), Ex. (d))

The indirect passive describes an event (X) involving an action by someone or something (Y) which affects another person (Z). As in direct passive sentences, the subject (Z) has no control over the event. (⇨ Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 5. Passive) Consider the following pair of sentences. (7a), a non-passive sentence, states simply that Taro drank Jiro's beer. (7b), an indirect passive sentence, however, expresses the idea that Jiro was affected by Taro's drinking beer.

It implies that Jiro was annoyed in some way by Taro's action, perhaps because the beer Taro drank belonged to Jiro.

(7) a. 太郎は次郎のビールを飲んだ。

Tarō wa Jirō no bīru o nonda.

(Taro drank Jiro's beer.)

b. 次郎は太郎にビールを飲まれた。

Jirō wa Tarō ni bīru o nomareta.

(Jiro was annoyed by Taro's drinking beer.)

6. In the indirect passive construction, Z is usually presented as the topic, marked by *wa*, and Y as the agent, marked by *ni*, as seen in KS(B) and KS(C).

7. Since in many situations X negatively affects Z, this construction is also referred to as "adversity passive" or "suffering passive". (KS(B), KS(C), Exs. (c) and (d)) However, whether X affects Z negatively or positively depends on the situation. Z is not always a "victim", as seen in (8) where Z is affected positively.

(8) 高山さんは美人に横に座られてニコニコしている。

Takayama-san wa bijin ni yoko ni suwararete nikoniko shite iru.
(Lit. Mr. Takayama, having a pretty woman sit beside him, is smiling happily. (=A pretty woman sat beside Mr. Takayama and he is happy.))

8. In indirect passive sentences, the agent must be marked by *ni*. If a passive sentence contains an NP *ni*, as well as an agent marked by *ni*, the agent must precede the NP *ni*. Example:

(9) a. 私はトムにメアリーに電話された。

Watashi wa Tomu ni Meari ni denwasareta.

(Tom called Mary (and I was unhappy).)

b. *私はメアリーにトムに電話された。

**Watashi wa Meari ni Tomu ni denwasareta.*

(Tom called Mary (and I was unhappy).)

9. Passive verbs are also used as honorific expressions, as in KS(D) and Ex. (e), though the degree of politeness is lower than that of the "*o-Vmasu ni naru*" form and special honorific verbs. (⇨ *o ~ ni naru*; Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 6. Politeness and Formality) Politeness, in this case, is conveyed through the indirectness of the passive construction.

10. Passive verbs are all Gr. 2 verbs. The basic conjugations are as follows:

(10) 話される　　(nonpast·inf·affirmative)
hanasareru

話されない　　(nonpast·inf·negative)
hanasarenai

話されて　　(*te*-form)
hanasarete

話された　　(past·inf·affirmative)
hanasareta

[Related Expression]

The potential form of Gr. 2 verbs is the same form as the passive form. (⇨ **rareru**²) Potential, passive or honorific structures are identified through syntax and context. Examples:

[1] 先生は刺身が食べられる。(Potential)
*Sensei wa sashimi **ga** taberareru.*
(My teacher can eat *sashimi*.)

[2] 先生は刺身を食べられた。((A) Honorific, (B) Potential or (C) Indirect passive)
*Sensei wa sashimi **o** taberareta*
((A) My teacher ate *sashimi*. (B) My teacher could eat *sashimi*. (C) Someone ate *sashimi* and my teacher was unhappy.)

[3] 先生は学生に刺身を食べられた。(Indirect passive)
*Sensei wa **gakusei ni** sashimi o taberareta.*
(The teacher had (his) *sashimi* eaten by his students.)

As seen in [1], if the direct object is marked by *ga*, *taberareru* can only be interpreted as potential; if there is an agent marked by *ni*, however, *taberareru* expresses indirect passive, as seen in [3]. If there is no agent marked by *ni* and the direct object is marked by *o*, *taberareru* is ambiguous; it can be either honorific, potential or indirect passive, as seen in [2].

rareru² られる　　*aux. v. (Gr.* 2)

> an auxiliary verb which indicates potential

be able *to* do s.t.; can do s.t.; be -able; ~ can be done
[REL. *kikoeru*; *koto ga dekiru*; *mieru]*

♦**Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (experiencer)		Object of Action		Verb (potential)
私 *Watashi*	は *wa*	日本語 *nihongo*	が *ga*	読める / 読めます。 *yomeru / yomemasu.*
(I can read Japanese.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)		Verb (potential)
この　水 *Kono mizu*	は *wa*	飲めない / 飲めません。 *nomenai / nomemasen.*
(This water is not drinkable.)		

Formation

(i) Gr. 1 Verbs:　Vcond　る
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　ru

　　　　　　　　話せる　　(can talk)
　　　　　　　　hanaseru

(ii) Gr. 2 Verbs:　Vstem　られる
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　rareru

　　　　　　　　食べられる　　(can eat)
　　　　　　　　taberareru

(iii) Irr. Verbs:　来る　→　来られる　　(can come)
　　　　　　　　　kuru　　*korareru*

　　　　　　　　する　→　出来る　　(can do)
　　　　　　　　suru　　*dekiru*

Ikareru is often used as the potential form of *iku* 'go' (Gr. 1).

Examples

(a) ブラウンさんは刺身が食べられる。

Buraun-san wa sashimi ga taberareru.

(Mr. Brown can eat *sashimi* (=sliced raw fish).)

(b) 寺田さんはテニスが出来る。

Terada-san wa tenisu ga dekiru.

(Mr. Terada can play tennis.)

(c) この字は読めない。

Kono ji wa yomenai.

(This letter is not readable.)

Notes

1. In potential expressions, if there is an experiencer, that noun phrase is usually marked by *wa* and the object of the action by either *ga* or *o*. (⇨ ~ **wa** ~ **ga**)　Compare (1a) and (1b).

    (1) a. *Non-potential*

        私は英語を話します。

        Watashi wa eigo o hanashimasu.

        (I speak English.)

      b. *Potential*

        私は英語が / を話せます。

        *Watashi wa eigo **ga** / **o** hanasemasu.*

        (I can speak English.)

2. In general, the choice between *ga* and *o* seems to depend on the degree of volition expressed in the action the experiencer takes.　That is, if his volition is high, *o* is preferable.　Thus, in the following sentences, *ga* is unnatural.

    (2) a. 私はやめようと思えばいつでも今の仕事を / *がやめられる。

        *Watashi wa yameyō to omoeba itsu demo ima no shigoto **o** / ***ga** yamerareru.*

        (I can quit my current job whenever I want to quit (lit. whenever I think I will quit it).)

      b. 僕はやっとの思いで自分を / *がおさえられた。

        *Boku wa yatto no omoi de jibun **o** / ***ga** osaerareta.*

        (I could barely control my emotions (lit. hold myself).)

3. *Dekiru* 'can do', however, always requires the object of an action to be marked by *ga*, as in Ex. (b).　Another example follows:

(3) 私はチェスが / *を出来る。

　　*Watashi wa chesu ga / *o dekiru.*

　　(I can play chess.)

4. The spatial *o* (i.e., *o²*) and the detachment *o* (i.e., *o³*) do not change into *ga* in potential expressions.

(4) *Space*

　　a. 私はあの公園を / *が夜一人で歩けない。

　　　*Watashi wa ano kōen o / *ga yoru hitori de arukenai.*

　　　(I can't walk through that park by myself at night.)

　　b. この道を / *がくつをはかずに歩けますか。

　　　*Kono michi o / *ga kutsu o hakazu ni arukemasu ka.*

　　　(Can you walk along this road without shoes on?)

(5) *Detachment*

　　今日はうちを / *が出られません。

　　*Kyō wa uchi o / *ga deraremasen.*

　　(I can't leave home today.)

5. If the experiencer is clear from the context and / or the situation, or if the experiencer is a person in general, he is usually omitted and the object of the action is presented as a topic marked by *wa*, as in KS(B) and Ex. (c).

6. Non-volitional verbs like *wakaru* 'understand, be understandable'; *iru* 'need, be necessary'; *aru* 'exist'; *aku* 'open (v.i.)' and *kusaru* 'rot (v.i.)' do not have potential forms.

7. The potential forms of *miru* 'see' (*mirareru*) and *kiku* 'hear' (*kikeru*) are similar to the verbs *mieru* 'be visible' and *kikoeru* 'be audible', respectively, but their uses are different.　　　　　(⇨ *kikoeru*; *mieru*)

8. The idea of potentiality can also be expressed by Vinf·nonpast *koto ga dekiru*.　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(⇨ *koto ga dekiru*)

9. Potential verbs are all Gr. 2 verbs. The basic conjugations are as follows:

(6) 話せる　　(can talk)

　　hanaseru

　　話せない　　(cannot talk)

　　hanasenai

　　話せて　　(can talk and, (*te*-form))

　　hanasete

話せた   (could talk)
hanaseta

10. There is another potential form for Group 2 verbs.

   (7) Gr. 2 verbs: Vstem れる
                              reru

   食べる → 食べれる
   taberu   *tabereru*

This form, however, is used only in informal conversation.

rashii らしい   *aux. adj.* (*i*)

an auxiliary adjective which indicates that the preceding sentence is the speaker's conjecture based on what he has heard, read or seen	seem; look like; apparently; I heard [REL. *yōda* (*darō*; *sōda*²)]

♦ **Key Sentence**

Sentence (informal)†	
松田さん　は　アメリカ　へ　行く *Matsuda-san wa Amerika e* **iku**	らしい / らしいです。 *rashii / rashiidesu.*
(It seems that Mr. Matsuda is going to America.)	

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

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (*i*)} inf らしい
                          rashii

{話す　/ 話した}　らしい   (It seems that s.o. (will) talk / talked.)
{*hanasu / hanashita*} *rashii*

{高い / 高かった}　らしい   (It seems that s.t. is / was expensive.)
{*takai / takakatta*} *rashii*

(ii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N} {ø / だった} らしい

　　　　　　　　　　{ø / *datta*}　*rashii*

{静か　　/ 静かだった}　らしい　　(It seems that s.t. is / was quiet.)
{*shizuka* / *shizukadatta*}　*rashii*

{先生　/ 先生　だった}　らしい　　(It seems that s.o. is / was a teacher.)
{*sensei* / *sensei datta*}　　*rashii*

Examples

(a)　杉本さんはもう帰ったらしいです。
Sugimoto-san wa mō kaetta rashii desu.
(Mr. Sugimoto seems to have gone home already.)

(b)　あの学校の入学試験は難しいらしい。
Ano gakkō no nyūgakushiken wa muzukashii rashii.
(That school's entrance exam seems difficult.)

(c)　このあたりはとても静からしいです。
Kono atari wa totemo shizuka rashiidesu.
(This neighborhood seems very quiet.)

(d)　その話は本当らしい。
Sono hanashi wa hontō rashii.
(That story seems true (lit. the truth).)

(e)　ここは学校らしい。
Koko wa gakkō rashii.
(This place seems to be a school.)

Notes

1. *Rashii* is generally used when the speaker makes a conjecture based on some information which he has heard, read or seen. What he has heard is especially important. Unlike *sōda*[2], which expresses a simple guess based on what the speaker sees, *rashii* is used when the conjecture is based on more reliable information. (⇨ *sōda*[2]) (For a comprehensive comparison of conjecture expressions, see *yōda*, Related Expressions.)

2. If there has been relatively little conjecture in the speaker's mind, *rashii* is almost the same as the hearsay expression *sōda*[1].　　　　(⇨ *sōda*[1])

3. Negative conjecture is expressed by a negative predicate and *rashii*, as in (1).

(1) a. 田口さんはパーティーに行かないらしい。

*Taguchi-san wa pāti ni **ikanai** rashii.*

(It seems that Mr. Taguchi won't go to the party.)

b. メアリーはビルが好きじゃないらしい。

*Meari wa Biru ga **sukijanai** rashii.*

(It seems that Mary doesn't like Bill.)

4. Another use of *rashii* is as follows:

(2) 大木さんは男らしい。

Ōki-san wa otoko rashii.

(Mr. Oki is manly.)

Here, *rashii* means likeness. That is, " X *wa* Y *rashii* " means that X is like the ideal model of Y. (Of course, (2) can also mean " It seems that Oki is a man.")

5. Since *rashii* is an *i*-type adjective, it can also precede nouns, as in (3).

(3) 私は男らしい人が好きだ。

*Watashi wa **otoko rashii** hito ga sukida.*

(I like a manly man.)

The negative version of (2) is (4).

(4) 大木さんは男らしくない。

*Ōki-san wa otoko **rashikunai**.*

(Mr. Oki is not manly.)

If *Ōki-san wa otoko* (*da*) is negated, the meaning changes.

(5) 大木さんは男じゃないらしい。

*Ōki-san wa otoko **janai** rashii.*

(It seems that Oki is not a man.)

R

Relative Clause

◆Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)			Predicate
Relative Clause	Noun		
田中さん が 食べた *Tanaka-san ga tabeta*	ステーキ *sutēki*	は *wa*	高かった / 高かったです。 *takakatta / takakattadesu.*
(The steak that Mr. Tanaka ate was expensive.)			

(B)

Direct Object			Transitive Verb
Relative Clause	Noun		
ステーキ が おいしい *Sutēki ga oishii*	レストラン *resutoran*	を *o*	知らない / 知りません か。 *shiranai / shirimasen ka.*
(Do you know a restaurant which has good steak (lit. in which steak is good)?)			

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (*i*)} inf+N

{話す / 話した} 人　　(a person who (will) talks / talked)
{*hanasu* / *hanashita*} *hito*

{高い / 高かった} 本　　(a book which is / was expensive)
{*takai* / *takakatta*} *hon*

(ii) Adj (*na*) stem {な / だった} N
　　　　　　　　　　　 {*na* / *datta*}

{静かな / 静かだった} 家　　(a house which is / was quiet)
{*shizukana* / *shizukadatta*} *ie*

(iii) N {の / だった / である / であった} N
　　　{*no* / *datta* / *de aru* / *de atta*}

先生 {の / である} 田中さん　　(Mr. Tanaka (,) who is a teacher)
sensei {*no* / *de aru*} *Tanaka-san*

先生 {だった / であった} 田中さん　　(Mr. Tanaka (,) who was a
sensei {*datta* / *de atta*}　*Tanaka-san*　teacher)

Examples

(a) 日本語を教えている先生は小林先生です。

Nihongo o oshiete iru sensei wa Kobayashi-sensei desu.

(The teacher who is teaching Japanese is Prof. Kobayashi.)

(b) テニスが上手な人を教えてください。

Tenisu ga jōzuna hito o oshiete kudasai.

(Please tell me of a person who is good at tennis.)

(c) お父さんが医者の学生は三人います。

O-tō-san ga isha no gakusei wa sannin imasu.

(There are three students whose fathers are doctors.)

(d) 私がいた町は病院がなかった。

Watashi ga ita machi wa byōin ga nakatta.

(There was no hospital in the town where I lived.)

(e) 道子が行く学校は東京にあります。

Michiko ga iku gakkō wa Tōkyō ni arimasu.

(The school where Michiko is going is in Tokyo.)

(f) スティーブがあなたの写真をとったカメラはこれですか。

Sutibu ga anata no shashin o totta kamera wa kore desu ka.

(Is this the camera with which Steve took pictures of you?)

Notes

1. The procedure for making relative clauses consists of several steps. The following steps show how to relativize *sutēki* ‘ steak ’ in (1a) in order to obtain the clause modifying *sutēki* in (1b).

   (1) a. ジョンは**ステーキ**を食べました。

      *Jon wa **sutēki** o tabemashita.*

      (John ate a steak.)

      b. その**ステーキ**はおいしかったです。

      *Sono **sutēki** wa oishikattadesu.*

      (The steak was delicious.)

   Step 1: Delete the common noun phrase in the relative clause. ([ ] indicates the relative clause boundary.)

   (2) [ジョンは ∅ を食べました]ステーキはおいしかったです。

      [*Jon wa ∅ o tabemashita*] ***sutēki*** *wa oishikattadesu.*

   Step 2: Delete the particle which remains.

(3) [ジョンは ∅ 食べました] ステーキはおいしかったです。
[*Jon wa ∅ tabemashita*] *sutēki wa oishikattadesu.*

Step 3: Change the predicate into an appropriate form. (See Formation.)

(4) [ジョンは食べた] ステーキはおいしかったです。
[*Jon wa **tabeta**] sutēki wa oishikattadesu.*

Step 4: If the topic marker *wa* appears in the clause, replace it with the appropriate particle. (If *wa* follows another particle, delete *wa*.) In this example, *Jon* is the subject; therefore, the particle which replaces *wa* is the subject marker *ga*. (⇨ *ga*; *wa* (は))

(5) [ジョンが食べた] ステーキはおいしかったです。
[*Jon **ga** tabeta*] *sutēki wa oishikattadesu.*
(The steak that John ate was delicious.)

The clause in brackets in (5) is the final form of the relative clause when *sutēki* is relativized in (1a).

2. As seen in the procedure for relativization in Note 1, the relative clause construction in Japanese has several characteristics:

(A) Relative clauses precede their corresponding relativized nouns.

(B) There are no relative pronouns like *which*, *that* and *who* in English.

(C) Particles which were affixed to relativized nouns are deleted.

(D) The topic marker *wa* does not appear in relative clauses.

3. *No* can also be used to mark the subject in relative clauses, as in (6).

(6) ジョンが / の食べたステーキ
*Jon **ga** / **no** tabeta sutēki*
(the steak that John ate)

No cannot be used in place of *ga*, however, if the subject of the sentence is followed by a noun, as in (7a). If *no* is used in this construction, the meaning of the sentence changes, as seen in (7b).

(7) a. トムがフットボールの切符をあげた女の子
*Tomu **ga** futtobōru no kippu o ageta onna no ko*
(the girl to whom Tom gave a football ticket)

b. トムのフットボールの切符をあげた女の子
*Tomu **no** futtobōru no kippu o ageta onna no ko*
(the girl to whom (someone) gave Tom's football ticket)

4. Besides the relative clause construction explained above, Japanese has a construction which looks similar to the one above. As seen in Note 1, in a genuine relative clause construction, the relativized noun (the head noun) is part of the original sentence from which the relative clause was derived. In this construction, however, the "head noun" is not part of the original sentence. For example, in (8), *nioi* 'smell' is not part of the sentence *Sakana ga kogeru.* 'Fish is burning.'

(8) 魚がこげるにおい。
   sakana ga kogeru nioi
   (the smell of burning fish (lit. the smell which fish burns))

The relationship between the "relative clause" and the "head noun", as seen in (8), is as follows: Suppose that X is the "head noun". Then, X is something which was brought about by the event expressed in the "relative clause", but is not something which was explicitly stated. For example, in (8) the "head noun" *nioi* 'smell' is something brought about when fish burns, but is not an explicit part of the original sentence. Here are some more examples of this type of construction:

(9) だれかがろうかを走る音
   dareka ga rōka o hashiru oto
   (the sound of someone's running in the hall)

(10) 紙をもやしたけむり
   kami o moyashita kemuri
   (the smoke which came out when someone burned papers (lit. the smoke which someone burned papers))

(11) 山に登った疲れ
   yama ni nobotta tsukare
   (fatigue which was caused from climbing a mountain (lit. fatigue that (someone) climbed a mountain))

5. The following examples are usually considered to be appositive clause constructions rather than relative clause constructions, because in these examples what is expressed by the preceding clause is the following noun itself.

(12) 日本へ行く計画 / 考え / 予定 / 夢
   Nihon e iku keikaku / kangae / yotei / yume
   (the plan / idea / schedule / dream that (I am) going to Japan)

(13) 日本へ行った事実 / 経験 / 話 / 思い出

Nihon e itta jijitsu / keiken / hanashi / omoide

(the fact / experience / story / memory that (I) went to Japan)

6. In relative clauses in Japanese, the restrictive use and the non-restrictive use cannot be distinguished from the structure. It is usually determined from the context and / or the situation. The following examples are ambiguous.

(14) 私が日本語を教えてあげたブラウンさんはよく勉強する。

Watashi ga nihongo o oshiete ageta Buraun-san wa yoku ben-kyōsuru.

((A) Mr. Brown, to whom I taught Japanese, studies well.

(B) (Among those Browns we know the) Mr. Brown to whom I taught Japanese studies well.)

(15) よく働く日本人はきらわれる。

Yoku hataraku nihonjin wa kirawareru.

((A) Japanese people, who work hard, are hated.

(B) Japanese people who work hard are hated.)

7. The ease of relativization of a noun phrase differs depending on the particle marking the phrase. (16) shows the particle hierarchy. Here, noun phrases marked by the particles in the upper position are easy to relativize and noun phrases marked by the particles in the lower position are hard to relativize.

(16) $ga > o^1 > ni^2 > ni^6 > o^2 > e > de^1 > de^2$ (means) $> kara^1$ (source) $> no^1 >$ $kara^1$ (starting point) $> to^2 > de^2$ (cause / reason) $> yori^1$

Concerning the relativization of noun phrases in simple sentences, noun phrases marked by de^2 (cause / reason) and $yori^1$ cannot be relativized, but those marked by the rest of the particles in (16) can.

-sa さ   *suf.*

> a suffix that makes a noun out of an
> adjective by attaching it to the stem
> of an Adj (*i*) or much less frequently
> to the stem of an Adj (*na*)

-ness; -ty
[REL. -*mi*]

◆Key Sentence

	Adj (*i*) stem	
この うち の *Kono uchi no*	広さ *hiro sa*	は ちょうど いい / いいです。 *wa chōdo ii / iidesu.*
(The size of this house is just right.)		

Formation

Adj (*i* / *na*) stem さ

　　　　　　　　　　　sa

高さ　　　(height)
takasa

静かさ　　　(quietness)
shizukasa

Examples

(a) 富士山の高さはどのぐらいですか。
　　　Fujisan no takasa wa dono gurai desu ka.
　　　(What is the approximate height of Mt. Fuji?)

(b) 日本語の難しさがよく分かりました。
　　　Nihongo no muzukashisa ga yoku wakarimashita.
　　　(I'm now well aware of the difficulty of Japanese.)

(c) アメリカのよさはパイオニア・スピリットでしょう。
　　　Amerika no yosa wa paionia supiritto deshō.
　　　(One of America's good qualities is perhaps its pioneering spirit.)

Notes

1. The suffix -*sa* is a very productive suffix that makes a noun out of an adjective. Some typical examples are given below:

新しさ (newness / freshness) *atarashisa*	大きさ (size) *ōkisa*
速さ (speed) *hayasa*	強さ (strength) *tsuyosa*
長さ (length) *nagasa*	よさ (goodness / merit) *yosa*
白さ (whiteness) *shirosa*	黒さ (blackness) *kurosa*

2. Adj (*na*) stem + *sa* is not commonly used. It is suggested that the learner avoid using it. Some of the most commonly used Adjs (*na*) stem + *sa* are the following:

便利さ (convenience) *benrisa*	正確さ (accuracy) *seikakusa*
忠実さ (loyality) *chūjitsusa*	完ぺきさ (perfection) *kanpekisa*
のどかさ (calmness) *nodokasa*	にぎやかさ (liveliness) *nigiyakasa*

3. When an adjective can be paired with another adjectival antonym as in *ōkii* 'big' vs. *chisai* 'small', the positive counterpart, (i.e., *ōkii*) tends to acquire a meaning of absolute degree when -*sa* is attached, as in *ōkisa* 'size'. Examples follow:

Positive	Negative
厚さ (breadth) *atsusa*	薄さ (thinness) *ususa*
重さ (weight) *omosa*	軽さ (lightness) *karusa*
難しさ (difficulty) *muzukashisa*	やさしさ (easiness) *yasashisa*
うれしさ (joy) *ureshisa*	悲しさ (sadness) *kanashisa*
深さ (depth) *fukasa*	浅さ (shallowness) *asasa*

Positive	Negative
高さ (height) *takasa*	低さ (lowness) *hikusa*
暑さ (heat) *atsusa*	寒さ (coldness) *samusa*
濃さ (density) *kosa*	薄さ (thinness) *ususa*
大きさ (size) *ōkisa*	小ささ (smallness) *chisasa*
広さ (size of space) *hirosa*	狭さ (smallness of space) *semasa*
強さ (strength) *tsuyosa*	弱さ (weakness) *yowasa*

[Related Expression]

-*sa* describes, in an analytical manner, the degree of the state represented by an adjective, but -*mi*, another noun-forming suffix, is a more emotive and concrete characterization of some state (based primarily on direct perception). Only a limited number of Adj (*i*) can be used with -*mi*. Examples:

赤み (reddishness) *akami*		悲しみ (sorrow) *kanashimi*	
暖かみ (warmness) *atatakami*		深み (depth) *fukami*	
厚み (thickness) *atsumi*		弱み (weakness) *yowami*	
甘み (sweetness) *amami*		苦み (bitterness) *nigami*	
苦しみ (painfulness) *kurushimi*		強み (strength) *tsuyomi*	

Consider the following sentences in which -*sa* is unacceptable.

[1] あの人はおもしろみ / *おもしろさがないね。
Ano hito wa omoshiromi / *omoshirosa ga nai ne.
(He just lacks something that attracts people.)

S

[2] 楽しみ / *楽しさにしています。

Tanoshimi / **tanoshisa ni shite imasu.*

(I'm looking forward to it.)

In both [1] and [2] the -*sa* version is unacceptable because both sentences express something concrete that can be expressed only by -*mi*. The fact that nouns with the suffix -*mi* indicate something concrete seems to be related to a general tendency of nasal sounds.

(⇨ Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 8. Sound Symbolisms)

-sama 様　　*suf.*

a suffix (originally meaning 'appearance') that indicates the speaker's / writer's politeness towards s.o.

Mr.; Miss; Ms.; Mrs.

[REL. -*chan*; -*kun*; -*san*]

Examples

(a) 王様の耳はろばの耳だ。

Ō-sama no mimi wa roba no mimi da.

(The King's ears are donkey's ears.)

(b) 神様を信じますか。

Kami-sama o shinjimasu ka.

(Do you believe in God?)

(c) 花子ちゃん，今夜はお月様もお星様もきれいねえ。

Hanako-chan, kon'ya wa o-tsuki-sama mo o-hoshi-sama mo kirei nē.

(Hanako, aren't the moon and the stars beautiful tonight!)

(d) お母様，どこにいらっしゃるの？

O-kā-sama, doko ni irassharu no?

(Mother, where are you going?)

(e) お客様が見えたよ。

O-kyaku-sama ga mieta yo.

(Our guests have come.)

Notes

1. The reason why *-sama* ' appearance ' is used to show one's respect is that *-sama* allows one to refer indirectly to one's superior. For instance, *Yamada-sama* is a more indirect way to refer to a person called *Yamada* than to call him simply *Yamada*, because *Yamada-sama* literary means ' appearance of *Yamada* '. Note, however, that a personal name + *sama* is not used in conversational Japanese, except in highly polite speech used to clientele by clerks / attendants of hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, department stores, etc.

2. *-sama* attached to a personified object shows more endearment than respect, as in Ex. (c).

3. *-sama* can also be attached to some action or state related to the hearer, as in (1) through (5) below:

 (1) ご馳走様(でした)。
   Go-chisō-sama (deshita).
   (It was such a treat.)

 (2) お世話様になりました。
   O-sewa-sama ni narimashita.
   (Thank you for all that you've done for me.)

 (3) お気の毒様(でした)。
   O-ki no doku-sama (deshita).
   (Lit. It was a pitiful matter. (That's too bad.))

 (4) お疲れ様(でした)。
   O-tsukare-sama (deshita).
   (You must be very tired.)

 (5) おかげ様で元気です。
   O-kage-sama de genkidesu.
   (Lit. Thanks to you I'm fine. (I'm fine, thank you.))

4. In written Japanese, esp. after the addressee's name in a letter, etc., *-sama* is used as in:

 (6) 山田一郎様
   Yamada Ichirō-sama
   (Mr. Ichiro Yamada)

[Related Expressions]

I. Two related forms, *-san* and *-chan* are derived from *-sama* through

phonetic modifications.   -*san* is the informal version of -*sama* and there-fore less honorific and more intimate than -*sama*.   Except for Exs. (a) and (b), in which the highest superiors appear, -*sama* can be replaced by -*san*.   -*san* can also be attached to names of occupations and titles as in:

[1]   Name of occupation+*san*
       魚屋さん   (fishmonger)
       sakana-ya-san

       お菓子屋さん   (confectioner)
       o-kashi-ya-san

       酒屋さん   (wine dealer)
       saka-ya-san

[2]   Title+*san*
       校長さん   (principal)
       kōchō-san

       市長さん   (mayor)
       shichō-san

       課長さん   (section chief)
       kachō-san

-*chan* is used with children's names or in child-like language.   Normally this suffix is attached only to kinship terms or first names as in:

[3]   Kinship terms+*chan*
       お母ちゃん   (mom)
       o-kā-chan

       お父ちゃん   (pop)
       o-tō-chan

       おじいちゃん   (grandpa)
       o-ji-chan

       おばあちゃん   (grandma)
       o-bā-chan

       おじちゃん   (uncle)
       oji-chan

       おばちゃん   (auntie)
       oba-chan

[4] First name + *chan*

花子ちゃん　　(Hanako)
Hanako-chan

太郎ちゃん　　(Taro)
Tarō-chan

II. *-kun* is a similar Sino-Japanese suffix which can be attached to a male equal or male inferior's first name and / or last name. It is sometimes used to refer to a female or a male in an institution such as a school or a company. Etymologically *-kun* has nothing to do with *-sama* and its variants.

(⇨ *-kun*)

saseru させる　　*aux. v. (Gr. 2)*

cause s.o. / s.t. to do s.t. or cause s.t. to change its state

make s.o. / s.t. do s.t.; cause s.o. / s.t. to do s.t.; let s.o. / s.t. do s.t.; allow s.o. / s.t. to do s.t.; have s.o. / s.t. do s.t.; get s.o. / s.t. to do s.t.

◆Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (causer)		Causee			Intransitive Verb (causative)
鈴木さん *Suzuki-san*	は *wa*	むすめ *musume*	を / に *o / ni*	大学 へ *daigaku e*	行かせた / 行かせました。 *ikaseta / ikasemashita.*
(Mr. Suzuki made / let his daughter go to college.)					

(B)

Topic (causer)		Causee		Direct Object		Transitive Verb (causative)
父 *Chichi*	は *wa*	妹 *imōto*	に *ni*	ピアノ *piano*	を *o*	習わせた / 習わせました。 *narawaseta / narawasemashita.*
(My father made (or let) my younger sister learn to play the piano.)						

Formation

(i) Gr. 1 Verbs: Vneg せる
seru

話させる　(cause to talk)
hanasaseru

(ii) Gr. 2 Verbs: Vstem させる
saseru

食べさせる　(cause to eat)
tabesaseru

(iii) Irr. Verbs:　来る → 来させる　(cause to come)
kuru　*kosaseru*

する → させる　(cause to do)
suru　*saseru*

Examples

(a) ひさ子は私を困らせた。
Hisako wa watashi o komaraseta.
(Lit. Hisako made me have trouble. (=Hisako caused me trouble.))

(b) このゲームはジムに勝たせようと思う。
Kono gēmu wa Jimu ni kataseyō to omou.
(I think I'll let Jim win this game.)

(c) 友達は私にチップを払わせた。
Tomodachi wa watashi ni chippu o harawaseta.
(My friend made me leave (lit. pay) a tip.)

(d) アンダーソンさんは子供達に好きなだけアイスクリームを食べさせた。
Andāson-san wa kodomotachi ni sukina dake aisukurimu o tabesaseta.
(Mr. Anderson let his children eat as much ice cream as they liked.)

(e) 私は冷蔵庫でミルクをこおらせた。
Watashi wa reizōko de miruku o kōraseta.
(Lit. I made milk freeze (=I froze milk) in the refrigerator.)

(f) それは私にさせてください。
Sore wa watashi ni sasete kudasai.
(As for that, let me do it.)

Notes

1. The idea that someone / something (=the causer) causes or allows some-

one / something (=the causee) to do something is expressed by the causative construction. In the causative construction, the causer is usually marked by *wa* in main clauses and by *ga* in subordinate clauses. When the main verb is an intransitive verb, the causee is marked by either *o* or *ni*. The choice between the two particles depends on the following general rule. When *ni* is used, the causee has taken an action *intentionally*. For example, *ni* is ungrammatical in (1) because the causee didn't intend to go to the party in this situation.

(1) 父は私を / *にむりやりパーティーへ行かせた。

Chichi wa watashi o / *ni muriyari pāti e ikaseta.

(My father forced (lit. forcefully made) me to go to the party.)

Also, *ni* is ungrammatical in (2) because the causee is a non-volitional entity and, therefore, has no intent (cannot take a volitional action).

(2) 私はハンカチを / *にしめらせた。

Watashi wa hankachi o / *ni shimeraseta.

(Lit. I made my handkerchief get damp. (= I dampened my handkerchief.))

O, on the other hand, can be used regardless of the causee's volition, as seen in (3) and (4). Whether a sentence expresses "permissive" causative or "coercive" causative depends on the context and / or the situation.

(3) a. 私はいやがるむすこを / *にむりやり泳がせた。

Watashi wa iyagaru musuko o / *ni muriyari oyogaseta.

(Lit. I forced my son, who resisted swimming, to swim.)

b. 私はむすこを / に好きなだけ泳がせた。

Watashi wa musuko o / ni sukina dake oyogaseta.

(I let my son swim as much as he wanted.)

(4) a. 秋子は勉強はもうしたくないと言ったが私は彼女を / *に大学に行かせることにした。

Akiko wa benkyō wa mō shitakunai to itta ga watashi wa kanojo o / *ni daigaku ni ikaseru koto ni shita.

(Akiko said she didn't want to study any more, but I've decided to send her to college. (lit. make her go to college.))

b. 秋子はもっと勉強したいと言ったので，私は彼女を / に大学に行かせることにした。

Akiko wa motto benkyōshitai to itta node, watashi wa kanojo o / ni daigaku ni ikaseru koto ni shita.

(Akiko said she wanted to study more, so I've decided to let her go to college.)

2. If the main verb is a transitive verb, the causee can be marked only by *ni*, as in (5), because *o* cannot appear more than once in a clause and, in this case, there is already a direct object marked by *o* in the clause. ($\Rightarrow$ *o*[1])

(5) 一郎は雪子に / *をビールを飲ませた。
*Ichirō wa Yukiko ni / *o biru o nomaseta.*
(Ichiro made (or let) Yukiko drink beer.)

Thus, when the verb is transitive, *ni* is acceptable even if the causee is not willing to take the action.

(6) 一郎は雪子にむりやりビールを飲ませた。
Ichirō wa Yukiko ni muriyari biru o nomaseta.
(Ichiro forced Yukiko to drink beer.)

When the main verb is transitive, it is often difficult to tell from the sentence alone whether or not the causee takes the action willingly. This must be determined by the context and / or the situation in which the sentence is uttered.

3. Whether or not the causee is willing to do something is clear if one of the set of giving and receiving verbs is used. ($\Rightarrow$ *ageru*[2]; *kureru*[2]; *morau*[2]) Examples:

(7) 私は春子をパーティーに行かせてやった。
Watashi wa Haruko o pāti ni ikasete yatta.
(I let Haruko go to the party.)

(8) 父は私に酒を飲ませてくれた。
Chichi wa watashi ni sake o nomasete kureta.
(My father let me drink *sake*.)

The causee's unwillingness to do something, on the other hand, can be more explicitly expressed by the causative-passive construction explained in Note 7.

4. In causative sentences, the causer must be equal to or higher than the causee in terms of status. Thus, the following is unacceptable:

(9) *私は先生に / をパーティーに来させるつもりだ。
*Watashi wa sensei ni / o pāti ni kosaseru tsumori da.
(I'm going to let (or make) my teacher come to the party.)

5. Causative verbs are all Gr. 2 verbs. The basic conjugations are as follows: