

Examples

- (a) 私の本
watashi no hon
 (my book)
- (b) 日本の寺
Nihon no tera
 (a temple in Japan)
- (c) 美術の本
bijutsu no hon
 (a book on fine arts)
- (d) 桜の花
sakura no hana
 (a cherry blossom)
- かぜの薬
kaze no kusuri
 (cold medicine)
- (e) 日本語の先生
nihongo no sensei
 (a teacher of Japanese)
- (f) ピカソの絵
Pikaso no e
 (a picture by Picasso)
- (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)
- (h) 絹のドレス
kinu no doresu
 (a silk dress)
- (i) 八時からのパーティー
hachiji kara no pāti
 (a party which starts at eight o'clock)
- 学校の名前
gakkō no namae
 (the name of the school)
- 駅の電話
eki no denwa
 (a telephone at the station)
- 日本語の試験
nihongo no shiken
 (an exam on Japanese)
- 桃の木
momo no ki
 (a peach tree)
- バスの切符
basu no kippu
 (a bus ticket)
- 音楽の学生
ongaku no gakusei
 (a student of music)
- ベートーベンの音楽
Bētōben no ongaku
 (music by Beethoven)
- 医者の森田さん
isha no Morita-san
 (a medical doctor, Dr. Morita)
- れんがの家
renga no ie
 (a brick house)
- 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.)



no² の pro.

a dependent indefinite pronoun

one

[REL. no¹; no³]

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

	Adj		
私 は <i>Watashi wa</i>	大 き い <i>ōkii</i>	の <i>no</i>	を 買 つ た / 買 い ま し た。 <i>o katta / kaimashita.</i>
(I bought a big one.)			

(B)

Relative Clause			
私 は <i>Watashi wa</i>	去年 買った <i>kyonan katta</i>	の <i>no</i>	を 使った / 使いました。 <i>o tsukatta / tsukaimashita.</i>
(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)?)

***no*³ 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. *koto*²; *no*²】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

Topic (subject)	Sentence (informal)†			
私 は 雪子さん が ビールを 飲む <i>Watashi wa Yukiko-san ga biru o nomu</i>	の <i>no</i>	を <i>o</i>	見た / 見ました。 <i>mita</i> / <i>mimashita</i> .	
(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., *koto*²) 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). ($\Rightarrow ga^1$)

(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. ($\Rightarrow koto^2$) 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*. (\Rightarrow *koto ga aru*; *koto ga dekiru*; *koto ni naru*; *koto ni suru*) (6) lists verbs and adjectives and their appropriate nominalizers.

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

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

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

***no*⁴ 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 <i>Dōshite</i>	泣いて いる <i>naite iru</i>	の? <i>no?</i>	お母さん が <i>O-kā-san ga</i>	いない <i>inai</i>	の。 <i>no.</i>
(How come you are crying?)			('Cause mommy's gone.)		

(B)

Topic (subject)		Adj (i) inf	
あの 人 <i>Ano hito</i>	は <i>wa</i>	とても <i>totemo</i>	やさしい <i>yasashii</i>
(He is so gentle, you know.)			

(C)

Topic (subject)			Adj (na) stem		
母 Haha	は wa	まだ mada	とても totemo	元氣 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 <i>enjinia</i>	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*.

(\Leftrightarrow *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?

(⇒ no⁴)

*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. *de³*; *kara³*】

◆ Key Sentence

Subordinate Clause (cause / reason)		Main Clause
Sentence (informal)†		
お酒 を たくさん 飲んだ <i>O-sake o takusan nondar</i>	ので <i>node</i>	眠く なった / なりました。 <i>nemuku natta / narimashita.</i>
(Because I drank a lot of <i>sake</i> , 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
 {i 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 pāti 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*. (\Rightarrow *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 issconi 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. ($\Rightarrow de^3$; 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.)

noni¹ 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 <i>Mainichi kanji o</i>	勉強して いる <i>benkyōshite iru</i>	のに <i>noni</i>	よく 覚えられない / <i>yoku oboerarenai</i> / 覚えられません。 <i>oboeraremasen</i> .
(Although I'm studying <i>kanji</i> every day, I cannot memorize them well.)			

N

(B)

Topic (subject)	Adj (i) inf			
この ステーキ <i>Kono sutēki</i>	は <i>wa</i>	高い <i>takai</i>	のに <i>noni</i>	おいしくない / おいしくありません。 <i>oishikunai</i> / <i>oishikuarimasen</i> .
(In spite of the fact that this steak is expensive, it isn't delicious.)				

(C)

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

(D)

Topic (subject)	Noun					
ホールさん <i>Hōru-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	アメリカ人 <i>amerikajin</i>	な <i>na</i>	のに <i>noni</i>	肉 が 嫌いだ / 嫌いです。 <i>niku ga kiraida / kiraidesu.</i>	
(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 hataraitē 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. (\Rightarrow *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?)

N [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 hataraiteru.

(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 <i>ga</i> Sinf / fml	vs.	Sinf <i>noni</i> Sinf / fml
Sfml <i>ga</i> 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. *ni*⁵; *tame* (*ni*)】



◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)	Subordinate Clause		Main Clause	
	Vinf·nonpast			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	日本語 の 新聞 を <i>nihongo no shinbun o</i>	読む <i>yomu</i>	のに <i>noni</i> 辞書 を 使う / <i>jisho o tsukau /</i> 使います。 <i>tsukaimasu.</i>
(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ヶ月かかりました。

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 *noni*² construction, only informal, nonpast, volitional verbs can precede *noni*. (Cp. *noni*¹)

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 *noni*² construction contrasts with that of *Vmasu ni V(motion)*. (⇒ *ni*⁵) 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 *Vmasu ni V* (motion) construction can be used, as shown in [3].

- II. *Noni*² 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 (*no*²) 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. *no*³】



◆ Key Sentences

(A)

	Vinf		Important Information	
私 が 中国 に <i>Watashi ga Chūgoku ni</i>	行つた <i>itta</i>	の は <i>no wa</i>	三 年 前 <i>sannen mae</i>	だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>
(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
(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 / だつた} 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) 森田さんが持つて来たのはケーキ(*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 issconi 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 *issconi* ‘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*⁹)

- [1] 本を読むのはたいてい夜だ。
Hon o yomu no wa taitei you 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 you hon o yomu.
 (I read books usually at night.)



- [4] a. *いいこと本を読む。
**i 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.*



o- お pref.

{ a prefix that expresses politeness }

【REL. go-】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

	Vmasu	
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)

	Vmasu	
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.)	

0

(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 Vmasu に なる
o- ni naru

(⇒ o ~ni naru)

KS(B): お Vmasu する ($\Rightarrow o \sim suru$)

KS(C): お Adj (*i* / *na*)

Q-

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.
 $\Leftrightarrow o \sim ni naru; o \sim suru$

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:

*おもしろい (interesting)	*おいしい (delicious)	
*o-omoshiroi	*o-oishii	
*大きい (big)	*おじさん (uncle)	*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	<i>o-jaga</i>

*おほうれん草 (spinach)
*o-hōrenso

(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	

There are some exceptions to this rule. For example:

おたばこ (tobacco)	おズボン (trousers)	おビール (beer)
<i>o-tabako</i>	<i>o-zubon</i>	<i>o-biru</i>
おソース (sauce)		
<i>o-sōsu</i>		

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.)

おなか (stomach)	ご飯 (cooked rice, meal)
<i>o-naka</i>	<i>go-han</i>

[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 (*/*-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)
<i>go-shinsetsu</i>	<i>go-teinei</i>	<i>go-benri</i>

- b. Japanese-origin words:

お静か (quiet)	おにぎやか (lively)	お好き (fond)
<i>o-shizuka</i>	<i>o-nigiyaka</i>	<i>o-suki</i>

- [2] Nouns

- a. Chinese-origin words:

ご研究 (research)	ご結婚 (marriage)	ご本 (book)
<i>go-kenkyū</i>	<i>go-kekkon</i>	<i>go-hon</i>

- b. Japanese-origin words:

お肉 (meat)	お魚 (fish)	おはし (chopsticks)
<i>o-niku</i>	<i>o-sakana</i>	<i>o-hashi</i>

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)
<i>o-jōzu</i>	<i>o-genki</i>

b. Nouns:

お電話 (telephone)	お料理 (dishes)	お時間 (time)
<i>o-denwa</i>	<i>o-ryōri</i>	<i>o-jikan</i>
お勉強 (study)	お菓子 (confectionery)	
<i>o-benkyō</i>	<i>o-kashi</i>	

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 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	日本語 <i>nihongo</i>	を <i>o</i> 勉強して いる / います。 <i>benkyōshite iru / imasu.</i>
(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.)

($\Rightarrow \sim wa \sim ga; wakaru$)

(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

miruku o nomu *miruku o / ga nomitai*

(drink milk) (want to drink milk)

($\Rightarrow tai$)

(5) 日本語を話す → 日本語を / が話せる

nihongo o hanasu *nihongo o / ga hanaseru*

(speak Japanese) (can speak Japanese)

($\Rightarrow rareru^2$)

(6) まどを開ける → まどを / が開けてある

mado o akeru *mado o / ga akete aru*

(open the window) (The window has been opened.)

($\Rightarrow aru^2$)

3. *O* cannot occur more than once in a clause, whether it is the direct object marker (i.e., *o*¹) or the space marker (i.e., *o*²). 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*. ($\Rightarrow saseru$)

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

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Examples

- (a) 公園を通って帰りましょう。
Kōen o totte 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 *de*¹ also marks the space in which an action takes place. The difference between *de*¹ and *o* is that *de*¹ 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 *de*¹ 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 *de*¹ 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, *de*¹ 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 *de*¹ 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 *de*¹ 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. *kara*¹】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject)		Noun (space)		
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	朝 七時半 に <i>asa shichijihan ni</i>	家 <i>uchi</i>	を <i>o</i> 出る / 出ます。 <i>deru / demasu.</i>
(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.)

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【Related Expression】

The particle *o³* in Exs. (a), (b), (c) can be replaced by *kara*¹ ‘from’. The basic difference between *o³* and *kara*¹ is that *o³* marks the location from which some movement begins and *kara*¹ 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. (⇒ *kara*¹)

[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 は <i>Jirō wa</i>	父 の 死 <i>chichi no shi</i>	を <i>o</i>	悲しんだ / 悲しみました。 <i>kanashinda / kanashimimashita.</i>
(Jiro was saddened at his father's death.)			

(B)

Topic (subject)		Nominalizer		Verb (emotive)
次郎 は <i>Jirō wa</i>	父 が 死んだ <i>chichi ga shinda</i>	こと / の <i>koto / no</i>	を <i>o</i>	悲しんだ / <i>kanashinda /</i> 悲しみました。 <i>kanashimimashita.</i>
(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'. (\Leftrightarrow *node*) For example, KS(A) and Ex. (a) can be paraphrased as (1a) and (1b), respectively.

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- (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 yorokonda.
(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) <i>Nihon (ni)</i>	は <i>wa</i>	大学 <i>daigaku</i>	が <i>ga</i>	多い / 多いです。 <i>ōi / ōidesu.</i>
(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 sukunaidesu.

(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. *aru*²】

◆Key Sentence

	Vte	
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 <i>katte</i>	おいた / おきました。 <i>oita / okimashita.</i>
(Since we are having a party tomorrow, I bought some beer for it.)		

Formation

Vte 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.)

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Notes

1. *Oku* as a main verb means 'put' or 'place'. However, when it is used with Vte, 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, Vte *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 *Vte 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. *Vte 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)			Vmasu	
田中先生 <i>Tanaka-sensei</i>	は <i>wa</i>	もう <i>mō</i>	お帰り <i>o-kaeri</i>	になった / なりました。 <i>ni natta / narimashita.</i>
(Prof. Tanaka already went home.)				

Formation

お Vmasu 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 nmae 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 *kekkinsuru* ‘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 *Vmasu* 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】

Rareru¹ 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.

(⇒ *rareru¹*, 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?)

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

Formation

お Vmasu 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*”. (*/tasu* 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’, *sōjisuru* ‘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)



~owaru ~終わる aux. v. (Gr. 1)

finish doing ~

finish; end

【REL. *shimau*】

(ANT. ~*hajimeru*)

◆ Key Sentence

	Vmasu
源氏物語 を やっと <i>Genjimonogatari o yatto</i>	読み終わった / 終わりました。 <i>yomiowatta / owarimashita.</i>
(I finally finished reading <i>The Tale of Genji</i> .)	

Formation

Vmasu 終わる
owaru

話し終わる (finish talking)
hanashioru

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.

rareru¹ られる aux. v. (Gr. 2)

A state or an action cannot be controlled 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 <i>Ichirō</i>	は <i>wa</i>	花子 <i>Hanako</i>	に <i>ni</i> だまされた / <i>damasareta</i> / だまされました。 <i>damasaremashita</i> .
(Ichiro was deceived by Hanako.)			

(B)

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

(C)

Topic (subject)	Agent		Direct Object	Transitive Verb (passive)
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	弟 <i>otōto</i>	に <i>ni</i>	ケーキ <i>kēki</i> を <i>o</i> 食べられた / 食べられました。 <i>taberareta</i> / <i>taberaremashita</i> .
(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 <i>Tanaka-sensei</i>	は <i>wa</i>	日本 へ <i>Nihon e</i>	帰られた / 帰られました。 <i>kaerareta</i> / <i>kaeraremashita</i> .
(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 unhappy)
kuru *korareru*

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 koto 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**

- 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*. ($\Rightarrow ni^3$) 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 kikareta.
 (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 biru o nondā.
 (Taro drank Jiro's beer.)

- b. 次郎は太郎にビールを飲まれた。
Jirō wa Tarō ni biru 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. ($\Rightarrow o \sim ni naru$; 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 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	日本語 <i>nihongo</i>	が <i>ga</i>
(I can read Japanese.)			

(B)

Topic (subject)	Verb (potential)
この 水 <i>Kono mizu</i>	は 飲めない / 飲めません。 <i>nomenai</i> / <i>nomemasen</i> .
(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*

/kareru 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*.
 ($\Rightarrow \sim \text{wa} \sim \text{ga}$) 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) 私はチエスが / *を出来る。
*Watashi wa chesu ga / *o dekiru.*
(I can play chess.)

4. The spatial *o* (i.e., *o*²) and the detachment *o* (i.e., *o*³) 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 you 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)

hanasetta

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 <i>Matsuda-san wa Amerika e iku</i>	らしい / らしいです。 <i>rashii</i> / <i>rashiidesu</i> .
(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.)



Relative Clause

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)			Predicate
Relative Clause	Noun		
田中さん が 食べた <i>Tanaka-san ga tabeta</i>	ステーキ <i>sutēki</i>	は <i>wa</i>	高かった / 高かったです。 <i>takakatta / takakattadesu.</i>
(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 <i>Sutēki ga oishii</i>	レストラン <i>resutoran</i>	を <i>o</i>	知らない / 知りません か。 <i>shiranai / shirimassen ka.</i>
(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 / ある / 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 teacher)
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 Ø を食べました]ステーキはおいしかったです。

[*Jon wa ø 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 ø 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 benkyōsuru.

((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 > o¹ > ni² > ni⁶ > o² > e > de¹ > de² (means) > kara¹ (source) > no¹ > kara¹ (starting point) > to² > de² (cause / reason) > yori¹*

Concerning the relativization of noun phrases in simple sentences, noun phrases marked by *de²* (cause / reason) and *yori¹* 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>i</i>) stem	
このうちの <i>Kono uchi no</i>	広さ <i>hiro</i> sa	はちょうどいい / いいです。 <i>wa chōdo ii / iidesu.</i>

(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くらいですか。

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) <i>atarashisa</i>	大きさ (size) <i>ōkisa</i>
速さ (speed) <i>hayasa</i>	強さ (strength) <i>tsuyosa</i>
長さ (length) <i>nagasa</i>	よさ (goodness / merit) <i>yosa</i>
白さ (whiteness) <i>shirosa</i>	黒さ (blackness) <i>kurosa</i>

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) <i>benrisa</i>	正確さ (accuracy) <i>seikakusa</i>
忠実さ (loyalty) <i>chūjitsusa</i>	完ぺきさ (perfection) <i>kanpeksa</i>
のどかさ (calmness) <i>nodokasa</i>	にぎやかさ (liveliness) <i>nigiyakasa</i>

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) <i>atsusa</i>	薄さ (thinness) <i>ususa</i>
重さ (weight) <i>omosa</i>	軽さ (lightness) <i>karusa</i>
難しさ (difficulty) <i>muzukashisa</i>	やさしさ (easiness) <i>yasashisa</i>
うれしさ (joy) <i>ureshisa</i>	悲しさ (sadness) <i>kanashisa</i>
深さ (depth) <i>fukasa</i>	浅さ (shallowness) <i>asasa</i>

Positive	Negative
高さ (height) <i>takasa</i>	低さ (lowness) <i>hikusa</i>
暑さ (heat) <i>atsusa</i>	寒さ (coldness) <i>samusa</i>
濃さ (density) <i>kosa</i>	薄さ (thinness) <i>ususa</i>
大きさ (size) <i>ōkisa</i>	小ささ (smallness) <i>chisasa</i>
広さ (size of space) <i>hirosa</i>	狭さ (smallness of space) <i>semasa</i>
強さ (strength) <i>tsuyosa</i>	弱さ (weakness) <i>yowasa</i>

[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) <i>akami</i>	悲しみ (sorrow) <i>kanashimi</i>
暖かみ (warmness) <i>atatakami</i>	深み (depth) <i>fukami</i>
厚み (thickness) <i>atsumi</i>	弱み (weakness) <i>yowami</i>
甘み (sweetness) <i>amami</i>	苦み (bitterness) <i>nigami</i>
苦しみ (painfulness) <i>kurushimi</i>	強み (strength) <i>tsuyomi</i>



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.)

[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* literally 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) おかげ様で元氣です。
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 therefore 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-jī-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 <i>Suzuki-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	むすめ <i>musume</i>	を / に <i>o / ni</i>	大学 へ <i>daigaku e</i> 行させた / 行させました。 <i>ikaseta / ikasemashita.</i>
(Mr. Suzuki made / let his daughter go to college.)				



(B)

Topic (causer)	Causee		Direct Object	Transitive Verb (causative)
父 <i>Chichi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	妹 <i>imōto</i>	に <i>ni</i>	ピアノ <i>piano</i> を <i>o</i> 習わせた / 習わせました。 <i>narawasetra / narawasemashita.</i>
(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 komarasete.

(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 harawasete.

(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 tabesasete.

(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 kōrasete.

(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:

(10) 話させる (nonpast·inf·affirmative)

hanasaseru

話させない (nonpast·inf·negative)

hanasasenai

話させて (te-form)

nanasasete

話させた (past·inf·affirmative)

hanasaseta

6. There is another set of formation rules for causative verbs. (Causative verbs of this version are all Gr. 1 verbs.)

(11) a. Gr. 1 Verbs: Vneg す

su

話さす (cause to talk)

hanasasu

b. Gr. 2 Verbs: Vstem さす

sasu

食べさす (cause to eat)

tabesasu

c. Irr. Verbs: 来る → 来さす (cause to come)

kuru *kosasu*

する → さす (cause to do)

suru *sasu*

In general, this set of conjugations seems to express more direct causation. For example, in (12a) *tabesasu* means ‘feed (with a spoon or something)’ rather than ‘make / let eat’, while in (12b) *tabesaseru* is more general and means ‘make / let eat (either by saying something like “Eat your meal” or “You may eat your meal” or actually by feeding with a spoon or something)’.

(12) a. 私はジムにくだものを食べさすつもりだ。

Watashi wa Jimu ni kudamono o tabesasu tsumori da.

(I intend to feed Jim fruit.)

b. 私はジムにくだものを食べさせるつもりだ。

Watashi wa Jimu ni kudamono o tabesaseru tsumori da.

(I intend to make / let Jim eat fruit.)



7. Causative-passive verbs, which are used in causative-passive sentences, are constructed by affixing the passive verb ending *rareru* to causative verb stems. (⇒ *rareru*¹⁾) Examples:

(13) 話させられる (be made to talk)

hanasaserareru

食べさせられる (be made to eat)

tabesaserareru

Causative-passive sentences express the idea “be made to do something”. Note that they do not express the idea “be allowed to do something”. (14) and (15) show causative sentences and their corresponding causative-passive sentences.

(14) a. 父は私を歩いて帰らせた。

Chichi wa watashi o aruite kaeraseta.

(My father had me walk home.)

b. 私は父に歩いて帰らせられた。

Watashi wa chichi ni aruite kaeraserareta.

(Lit. I was made to walk home by my father. (= My father made me walk home.))

(15) a. 和夫は夏子に酒を飲ませた。

Kazuo wa Natsuko ni sake o nomaseta.

(Kazuo made / let Natsuko drink *sake*.)

b. 夏子は和夫に酒を飲ませられた。

Natsuko wa Kazuo ni sake o nomaserareta.

(Natsuko was made to drink *sake* by Kazuo.)



sekkaku せっかく adv.

Some situation which seldom occurs has now occurred and one can either make use of it or, to one's regret, cannot make use of it.

with effort; at great pain; take the trouble to do ~
【REL. *wazawaza*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subordinate Clause			Main Clause		
せっかく Sekkaku	会い に行った <i>ai ni itta</i>	のに <i>noni</i>	友達 は いなかつた / いませんでした。 <i>tomodachi wa inakatta / imasendeshita.</i>		
(I took the trouble to go to see my friend, but he wasn't at home.)					

(B)

Subordinate Clause				Main Clause	
せっかく Sekkaku	いい 大学 に 入った <i>ii daigaku ni haitta</i>	の だ <i>no da</i>	か ら <i>kara</i>	よ く 勉 強 す る つ も り <i>yoku benkyōsuru tsumori</i> だ / です。 <i>da / desu.</i>	
(I entered a good college with great effort, so I intend to study hard.)					

(C)

Subordinate Clause					Main Clause
		Noun			
せっかく Sekkaku	の <i>no</i>	日曜日 <i>nichiyōbi</i>	な <i>na</i>	の に <i>noni</i>	働いた / 働きました。 <i>hataraita / hatarakimashita.</i>
(Although Sunday is precious (to me), I worked (all day long).)					

Examples

- (a) せっかくアメリカまで行ったのにニューヨークに行けなくて残念だった。
Sekkaku Amerika made itta noni Nyūyōku ni ikenakute zannendatta.
(I went as far as America at great expense, but, to my regret, I couldn't make it to New York.)
- (b) せっかく日本語を三年間も勉強したのだから、是非一度日本へ行ってみたいと思います。
Sekkaku nihongo o sannenkan mo benkyōshita no da kara, zehi ichido Nihon e itte mitai to omoimasu.
(Because I studied Japanese for (as many as) three years, I would love to go to Japan once.)



(c) せっかくの旅行が病気でだめになりました。

Sekkaku no ryōkō ga byōki de dame ni narimashita.

(My long awaited trip had to be canceled because of my illness.)

(d) せっかくですが今日は忙しくて行けません。

Sekkaku desu ga kyō wa isogashikute ikemasen.

(I appreciate your most kind offer, but I'm too busy to go there today.)

(e) せっかくのチャンスだからデートしたらどうですか。

Sekkaku no chansu da kara dētoshitara dō desu ka.

(It's a good chance, so why don't you date her?)

(f) せっかくですから遠慮なくいただきます。

Sekkaku desu kara, enryo naku itadakimasu.

(Since you took the trouble to bring it to me, I'll take it without hesitation.)

Note

Sekkaku tends to co-occur with *noni* ‘although’ or *no da kara* ‘because (it is that) ~’, as in KSs(A) and (B), respectively. *Sekkaku no+N*, however, can be used as a noun phrase, free from any co-occurrence restrictions, as shown in KS(C) and Exs. (c) and (e). *Sekkaku desu ga* (in Ex. (d)) is used to politely decline s.o.’s kind offer, and *sekkaku desu kara* (in Ex. (f)) is used to accept s.o.’s offer.

[Related Expression]

Sekkaku is related to *wazawaza*, an adverb whose basic meaning is ‘intentionally take the trouble to do s.t., although it is not necessary to do so’.

[1] a. せっかく / *わざわざ近くまで来たのだから寄りました。

*Sekkaku / *Wazawaza chikaku made kita no da kara yorimashita.*

(Because I came all the way to your neighborhood, I dropped by.)

b. わざわざ / *せっかく新しい車を買った。

*Wazawaza / *Sekkaku atarashii kuruma o katta.*

(He went to the trouble of buying a new car.)

c. わざわざ / *せっかく持って来てくれてありがとう。

*Wazawaza / *Sekkaku motte kite kurete arigatō.*

(Thanks for your trouble in bringing it to me.)

shi し conj.

a conjunction to indicate ‘and’ in
an emphatic way

and what’s more; not only ~
but also ~; so
【REL. *sore kara*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

	Verb		
今日は テニス も <i>Kyō wa tenisu mo</i>	した <i>shita</i>	し, <i>shi,</i>	映画 も 見た / 見ました。 <i>eiga mo mita / mimashita.</i>
(I not only played tennis but also saw a movie today.)			

(B)

	Adj (i)		
ここ は 夏 は <i>Koko wa natsu wa</i>	暑い <i>atsui</i>	し, <i>shi,</i>	冬 は 寒い / 寒いです。 <i>fuyu wa samui / samuidesu.</i>
(Here it's hot in the summer, and what's more, it's cold in the winter.)			

(C)

	Adj (na)		
この アパート は <i>Kono apāto wa</i>	きれいだ <i>kireida</i>	し, <i>shi,</i>	安い / 安いです。 <i>yasui / yasuidesu.</i>
(This apartment is clean, and what's more, it's inexpensive.)			

(D)

	Noun	Copula		
遊びたい ん です / だ が 明日 は <i>Asobitai n desu / da ga ashita wa</i>	試験 <i>shiken</i>	だ <i>da</i>	し <i>shi</i>	遊べない / <i>asobenai /</i> 遊べません。 <i>asobemasen.</i>
(I would like to play, but there is an exam tomorrow, and I can't fool around.)				

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} し
shi

{話す / 話した} し (s.o. talks / talked and what's more)
{hanasu / hanashita} *shi*

{食べる / 食べた} し (s.o. eats / ate and what's more)
{taberu / tabeta} *shi*

{高い / 高かった} し (s.t. is / was expensive and what's more)
{takai / takakatta} *shi*

(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {だ / だった} し
{da / datta} *shi*

{静かだ / 静かだった} し (s.t. is / was quiet and what's more)
{shizukada / shizukadatta} *shi*

{先生 だ / 先生 だった} し (s.o. is / was a teacher and what's more)
{sensei da / sensei datta} *shi*

Examples

(a) 仕事もあったし、結婚も出来たし、とてもうれしいです。

Shigoto mo atta shi, kekkon mo dekita shi, totemo ureshiidesu.

(Not only did I find a job, but I was also able to get married, so I'm very happy.)

(b) 今日は天気もいいし、どこかへ行きましょうか。

Kyō wa tenki mo ii shi, doko ka e ikimashō ka.

(It's a nice day, so shall we go out somewhere?)

(c) あの人は美人だし、頭もいい。

Ano hito wa bijin da shi, atama mo ii.

(She's beautiful and what's more she's bright.)

(d) 切符は買ってあるし、是非見に行きましょう。

Kippu wa katte aru shi, zehi mi ni ikimashō.

(I've bought a ticket for you, so let's go see it, by all means.)

Notes

- As in Ex. (a), *shi* can be repeated more than once in a clause, just like *Vte* ‘～ and’ can be repeated.
- There are times when a sentence ends with *shi* in order to weaken the sentence and obscure the cause / reason:



(1) A: あした映画に行きませんか。

Ashita eiga ni ikimasen ka.

(Wouldn't you like to go see a movie tomorrow?)

B: えっ、あしたですか。あしたは試験があるし、...

E, ashita desu ka. Ashita wa shiken ga aru shi....

(Tomorrow? I have an exam tomorrow, and...)

3. When the speaker wishes to be very polite, the clause before *shi* can be in the formal form if the main clause is in the formal form, as in (2).

(2) 今日は天気もいいですし、どこかへ行きましょうか。

Kyō wa tenki mo iidesu shi, doko ka e ikimashō ka.

(It's a nice day, so shall we go out somewhere?) (Cf. Ex. (b))

-shi- し infix

an infix attached to the stem of an
Adj (*i*) to indicate s.t. that one cannot
objectively measure on any scale (e.g.
human emotion)

Examples

悲しい (sad) <i>kanashii</i>	くやしい (regrettable) <i>kuyashii</i>	恐ろしい (scary) <i>osoroshii</i>
楽しい (enjoyable) <i>tanoshii</i>	きびしい (strict) <i>kibishii</i>	難しい (difficult) <i>muzukashii</i>
らしい (seem) <i>rashii</i>	うらやましい (envious) <i>urayamashii</i>	恋しい (dear) <i>koishii</i>
おいしい (delicious) <i>oishii</i>	さびしい (lonely) <i>sabishii</i>	うれしい (happy) <i>ureshii</i>
苦しい (painful) <i>kurushii</i>	惜しい (regrettable) <i>oshii</i>	親しい (intimate) <i>shitashii</i>
頼もしい (dependable) <i>tanomoshii</i>	ねたましい (enviable) <i>natamashii</i>	涼しい (cool) <i>suzushii</i>



Note

Adjs (*i*) that do not contain -*shi-* are, for the most part, descriptive adjectives that are dependent on the speaker's objective judgment. In other words, they are adjectives which indicate something that one can objectively measure on some scale. Typical descriptive adjectives are:

赤い (red) <i>akai</i>	低い (low) <i>hikui</i>	青い (blue) <i>aoi</i>	堅い (hard) <i>katai</i>
大きい (big) <i>ōkii</i>	浅い (shallow) <i>asai</i>	軽い (light) <i>karui</i>	白い (white) <i>shiroi</i>
小さい (small) <i>chisai</i>	黒い (black) <i>kuroi</i>	高い (high) <i>takai</i>	近い (near) <i>chikai</i>
短い (short) <i>mijkai</i>	薄い (thin) <i>usui</i>	深い (deep) <i>fukai</i>	長い (long) <i>nagai</i>
安い (cheap) <i>yasui</i>	柔らかい (soft) <i>yawarakai</i>	若い (young) <i>wakai</i>	濃い (thick) <i>koi</i>

shika しか prt.

a particle which marks an element
X when nothing but X makes the
expressed proposition true

nothing / nobody / no ~ but;
only
【REL. *bakari*; *dake*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subject			Predicate (negative)
戸田さん <i>Toda-san</i>	しか <i>shika</i>	たばこを <i>tabako o</i>	吸わない / 吸いません。 <i>suwanai</i> / <i>suimasen</i> .
(No one but Mr. Toda smokes.)			

(B)

	Direct Object		Predicate (negative)
私 は <i>Watashi wa</i>	日本語 <i>nihongo</i>	しか <i>shika</i>	知らない / 知りません。 <i>shiranai</i> / <i>shirimasen</i> .
(I know nothing but Japanese.)			

(C)

	Noun	Prt		Predicate (negative)
それ は <i>Sore wa</i>	江口さん <i>Eguchi-san</i>	に <i>ni</i>	しか <i>shika</i>	話して いない / いません。 <i>hanashite inai</i> / <i>imasen</i> .
(I haven't told it to anybody but Mr. Eguchi.)				

(D)

	Quantifier		Predicate (negative)
私 は ご飯 を <i>Watashi wa gohan o</i>	一ぱい <i>ippai</i>	しか <i>shika</i>	食べなかつた / 食べませんでした。 <i>tabenakatta</i> / <i>tabemasendeshita</i> .
(I had only one bowl of rice.)			

Formation(i) N しか
*shika*先生 が (Subject) → 先生 しか (no one but the teacher)
sensei ga *sensei shika*先生 を (Direct Object) → 先生 しか (no one but the teacher)
sensei o *sensei shika*(ii) N+(Prt) しか
*shika*東京 へ / に (Direction) → 東京 (へ / に) しか (to nowhere but
Tōkyō e / ni *Tōkyō (e / ni) shika* Tokyo)先生 に (Indirect Object, Agent) → 先生 (に)† しか (no one but
sensei ni *sensei (ni) shika* the teacher)(†*Ni* cannot drop if X *shika* can be interpreted as the subject.)日曜日 に (Time) → 日曜日 (に) しか (only on Sunday)
nichiyōbi ni *nichiyōbi (ni) shika*

東京 に (Location) → 東京 (に) しか (only in Tokyo)
Tōkyō ni *Tōkyō (ni) shika*

(iii) N+Prt しか
shika

東京 で (Location) → 東京 で しか (only in Tokyo)
Tōkyō de *Tōkyō de shika*

車 で (Means) → 車 で しか (only by car)
kuruma de *kuruma de shika*

山田さん と (Reciprocal) → 山田さん と しか (only with Mr.
Yamada-san to *Yamada-san to shika* Yamada)

東京 から (Starting point / source) → 東京 から しか (only from
Tōkyō kara *Tōkyō kara shika* Tokyo)

五時 まで (Ending point) → 五時 まで しか (only till five o'clock)
goji made *goji made shika*

(iv) Quantifier しか
shika

少し しか (only a little)
sukoshi shika

Examples

(a) パーティーには学生しか来なかった。

Pāti ni wa gakusei shika konakatta.

(Only students came to the party.)

(b) 田村さんはサラダしか食べなかった。

Tamura-san wa sarada shika tabenakatta.

(Mr. Tamura ate only salad.)

(c) 私は日曜日(に)しか来られません。

Watashi wa nichi'yōbi (ni) shika koraremasen.

(I can come only on Sunday.)

(d) この本はこの図書館(に)しかありません。

Kono hon wa kono toshokan (ni) shika arimasen.

(Only this library has this book.)

(e) そこは車でしか行けない。

Soko wa kuruma de shika ikenai.

(Lit. You can go there only by car. (=The only way you can go there is by car.))

(f) 私は山田さんとしか話をしない。

Watashi wa Yamada-san to shika hanashi o shinai.

(I talk only with Mr. Yamada.)

(g) この学校は学生が百人しかいない。

Kono gakkō wa gakusei ga hyakunin shika inai.

(This school has only a hundred students.)

Note

Shika always occurs with negative predicates.

【Related Expressions】

I. *Dake* expresses a similar idea. (\Leftrightarrow *dake*) However, *dake* and *shika* differ in the following ways:

- (A) X *shika* emphasizes the negative proposition of “non-X”, while X *dake* merely describes the situation in neutral fashion.
- (B) *Shika* occurs only with negative predicates; *dake*, however, can occur with affirmative predicates. Compare the following sentences:

[1] a. ボブだけ来た。

Bobu dake kita.

(Only Bob came.)

b. ボブしか来なかつた。

Bobu shika konakatta.

(Nobody but Bob came.)

[2] a. ボブだけ来なかつた。

Bob dake konakatta.

(Only Bob didn't come.)

b. *ボブしか来た / 来なくななかつた。

**Bobu shika kita / konakunakatta.*

(Everybody but Bob came.)

- (C) The verb *kakaru* ‘it takes (time)’ can be used with *shika*, but not with *dake*, as in [3].

[3] a. 私の家から学校までは車で五分しかかかるない。

Watashi no ie kara gakkō made wa kuruma de gofun shika kakaranai.

(From my house to school it takes only five minutes by car.)



- b. *私の家から学校までは車で五分だけかかる。
**Watashi no ie kara gakkō made wa kuruma de gofun dake kakaru.*
 (From my house to school it takes only five minutes by car.)

II. *Bakari* is also used to mean ‘only’ in some situations. (\Leftrightarrow *bakari*) Unlike X *shika* or X *dake*, however, X *bakari* emphasizes the positive proposition of X, often with the implication that s.o. / s.t. does s.t. to X / with X / . . . a lot or more than one expects. For example, [4a] emphasizes the fact that Jim drank beer, whereas [4b] emphasizes the fact that Jim didn’t drink anything but beer. [4c] is a neutral statement.

- [4] a. ジムはビールばかり飲んだ。
Jimu wa biru bakari nonda.
 (Jim drank only beer (and a lot).)
- b. ジムはビールしか飲まなかつた。
Jimu wa biru shika nomanakatta.
 (Jim drank nothing but beer.)
- c. ジムはビールだけ飲んだ。
Jimu wa biru dake nonda.
 (Jim drank only beer.)

Note that X *bakari* cannot be used if X is a single entity. Thus, [5a] is grammatical, but [5b] is not.

- [5] a. 女の子ばかり來た。
Onna no ko bakari kita.
 (Only girls came (and it was more than I expected).)
- b. *メアリーばかり來た。
**Meari bakari kita.*
 (Only Mary came.)

Note also that *bakari* cannot be used with negative predicates, as in [6].

- [6] 子供達だけ / *ばかり來なかつた。
*Kodomotachi dake / *bakari konakatta.*
 (Only the children didn’t come.)



shimau しまう aux. v. (Gr. 1)

an auxiliary verb which indicates the completion of an action	have done s.t.; finish doing s.t.; finish s.t. up 【REL. ~owaru】
--	---

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)		Vte		
池田君 <i>Ikeda-kun</i>	は <i>wa</i>	三日 で その 本 を <i>mikka de sono hon o</i>	読んで <i>yonde</i>	しまった / しまいました。 <i>shimatta / shaimashita.</i>
(Mr. Ikeda finished reading the book in three days.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)		Vte		
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	ルームメート の ミルク を <i>rūmumēto no miruku o</i>	飲んで <i>nonde</i>	しまった / しまいました。 <i>shimatta / shaimashita.</i>
(I (mistakenly) drank my roommate's milk.)				

Formation

Vte しまう
shimau

話して しまう (have talked)
hanashite shimau

食べて しまう (have eaten)
tabete shimau

**Examples**

(a) もう宿題をしてしまいましたか。

Mō shukudai o shite shaimashita ka.

(Have you done your homework yet?)

(b) 私は今日中にそのレポートを書いてしまおうと思っている。

Watashi wa kyōjū ni sono repōto o kaite shimaō to omotte iru.

(I think that I will finish (writing) the report today.)

- (c) 早くご飯を食べてしまいなさい。
Hayaku gohan o tabete shimainasai.
 (Finish (eating) your meal quickly.)
- (d) シチューを作りすぎてしまいました。
Shichū o tsukuri sugite shimaimeshita.
 (I made too much stew (to my regret).)

Notes

1. *Shimau* is used as an auxiliary verb with *Vte* and expresses the idea of completion in terms of an action. *Vte shimau* often appears with such adverbs as *sukkari* ‘completely’, *zenbu* ‘all’ and *kanzenni* ‘completely’. Examples:

- (1) a. マイクはすっかり日本語を忘れてしまった。
Maiku wa sukkari nihongo o wasurete shimatta.
 (Mike has completely forgotten Japanese.)
- b. 私は持っていた切手を全部友達にあげてしまった。
Watashi wa motte ita kitte o zenbu tomodachi ni agete shimatta.
 (I gave all the stamps I had kept to my friends.)

2. *Vte shimatta* also expresses the idea that someone did something which he shouldn’t have done or something happened which shouldn’t have happened. (KS(B) and Ex. (d)) Thus, it often implies the agent’s regret about what he has done or the speaker’s regret or criticism about someone’s action or about something that has happened. Examples:

- (2) a. ジェリーはペギーのケーキを食べてしまった。
Jeri wa Pegi no kēki o tabete shimatta.
 (Jerry (mistakenly) ate Peggy’s cake.)
- b. 私はちがうバスに乗ってしまった。
Watashi wa chigau basu ni notte shimatta.
 (I got on the wrong bus.)
- c. 雨が降ってしまったのでピクニックに行けなかった。
Ame ga futte shimatta node piknikku ni ikenakatta.
 (It rained, so we couldn’t go on a picnic.)

3. Whether a sentence with *Vte shimatta* is interpreted as simple completion or regret (or criticism) depends on the context and / or the situation. For example, (3) can be interpreted in two ways.



(3) 僕はお酒を飲んでしまった。

Boku wa o-sake o nonde shimatta.

((A) I finished drinking *sake*. (B) I drank *sake* (which I shouldn't have done).)

4. *Te shimau* and *de shimau* are contracted as *chau* and *jau*, respectively, in informal speech, as in (4), and can be used by male and by female speakers.

(4) a. 話して しまう → 話し ちゃう (have talked)
hanashite shimau hanashi chau

b. 飲んで しまう → 飲ん じゃう (have drunk)
nonde shimau non jau

Chimau and *jimau*, another set of contracted forms of *te shimau*, are used only by male speakers.

[Related Expressions]

- I. Vpast can also express the completion of an action. However, it is different from Vte *shimau* in that Vpast expresses the completion of an action in the past, while Vte *shimau* expresses completion regardless of the time of completion. Thus, [1a] is grammatical, but [1b] is not.

[1] a. ここにおいておくとジムが食べてしまうよ。

Koko ni oite oku to Jimu ga tabete shimau yo.

(If you leave it here, Jim will eat it (up).)

b. *ここにおいておくとジムが食べたよ。

**Koko ni oite oku to Jimu ga tabeta yo.*

(If you leave it here, Jim will eat it up.)

- II. Vmasu *owaru* also means ‘finish doing ~’. The difference between Vmasu *owaru* and Vte *shimau* is that Vmasu *owaru* indicates the action of finishing something, while Vte *shimau* indicates the completed state of the action. Thus, these two expressions correspond to the English expressions *finish doing* and *have done* in that Vmasu *owaru* can occur with a specific time phrase, but Vte *shimau* cannot.

[2] a. きのうその本を読み終わった / *読んでしまった。

*Kinō sono hon o yomiowatta / *yonde shimatta.*

(I finished reading / *have read the book yesterday.)

b. けさ九時にやっとレポートを書き終わった / *書いてしまった。

*Kesa kuji ni yatto repōto o kakiorwatta / *kaite shimatta.*



(I finally finished writing / *have finally written the report at nine o'clock this morning.)

It is also noted that *shimau* can be used with noncontrollable verbs like *wasureru* 'forget', while *owaru* cannot, as in [3].

- [3] a. 僕はナンシーの住所を忘れてしまった。

Boku wa Nanshi no jūsho o wasurete shimatta.

(I've forgotten Nancy's address.)

- b. *僕はナンシーの住所を忘れ終わった。

**Boku wa Nanshi no jūsho o wasureowatta.*

(*I finished forgetting Nancy's address.)

shiru 知る v. (Gr. 1)

S.o. gets information from some outside source.

get to know
【REL. *wakaru*】

◆ Key Sentences

A:			
Direct Object			
日本 の こと <i>Nihon no koto</i>	を o	知って います か。 <i>shitte imasu ka.</i>	
(Do you know about Japan?)			
B:			
はい, 知って います。/ いいえ, 知りません。 <i>Hai, shitte imasu. / Ie, shirimasen.</i>			
(Yes, I do. / No, I don't.)			

Examples

- (a) 木下さんを知っていますか。
Kinoshita-san o shitte imasu ka.
 (Do you know Mr. Kinoshita?)

- (b) 山口さんの電話番号を知っていますか。
Yamaguchi-san no denwabangō o shitte imasu ka.
 (Do you know Mr. Yamaguchi's telephone number?)

- (c) A : 中国語を知っていますか。
Chūgokugo o shitte imasu ka.
 (Do you know Chinese?)

B : いいえ、知りません。
Ie, shirimassen.
 (No, I don't.)

- (d) 私は上田さんがアメリカへ行ったことを知らなかった。
Watashi wa Ueda-san ga Amerika e itta koto o shiranakatta.
 (I didn't know that Mr. Ueda had gone to America.)

Notes

1. *Shiru*, a nonstative verb, takes the Vte *iru* form when it means the stative 'know'. (⇒ *iru*²)
2. When answering in the negative to the question X *o shitte imasu ka* 'Do you know X?', the negative nonstative form *shiranai* / *shirimassen* is used instead of *shitte inai* / *shitte imasen*, as in KS(B) and Ex. (c).

**sōda¹ そうだ aux.**

an auxiliary which indicates that the information expressed by the preceding sentence is what the speaker heard

I hear that ~ ; I heard that ~ ;
 People say that ~
 [REL. *sōda*²; *yōda* (*darō*;
rashii)]

◆ Key Sentence

Sentence (informal)	
山川さんはフランス語を勉強している <i>Yamakawa-san wa furansugo o benkyōshite iru</i>	そうだ / そうです。 <i>sōda / sōdesu.</i>
(I heard that Mr. Yamakawa is studying French.)	

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf そうだ
sōda

{話す / 話した} そうだ (I heard that s.o. (will) talk / talked.)
{hanasu / hanashita} *sōda*

{高い / 高かった} そうだ (I heard that s.t. is / was expensive.)
{takai / takakatta} *sōda*

(ii) {Adj (na) stem / N} {だ / だった} そうだ
{da / datta} *sōda*

{静かだ / 静かだった} そうだ (I heard that s.t. is / was quiet.)
{shizukada / shizukadatta} *sōda*

{先生 だ / 先生 だった} そうだ (I heard that s.o. is / was a teacher.)
{sensei da / sensei datta} *sōda*

Examples

(a) 清水さんはお酒を飲まないそうです。

Shimizu-san wa o-sake o nomanai sōdesu.

(I heard Mr. Shimizu doesn't drink any alcohol.)

(b) 日本の肉はとても高いそうだ。

Nihon no niku wa totemo takai sōda.

(I hear that meat in Japan is very expensive.)

(c) 利子さんは英語がとても上手だそうです。

Toshiko-san wa eigo ga totemo jōzuda sōdesu.

(I heard that Toshiko speaks very good English.)

(d) キングさんは英語の先生だそうだ。

Kingu-san wa eigo no sensei da sōda.

(I heard that Mr. King is a teacher of English.)

Notes

1. Sinf *sōda* expresses hearsay. That is, this pattern is used when the speaker conveys information obtained from some information source without altering it. (⇒ *rashii*)

2. Information sources are expressed by N *ni yoru to* ‘according to N’.

(1) 新聞によるとフロリダに雪が降ったそうだ。

Shinbun ni yoru to Furorida ni yuki ga futta sōda.

(According to the newspaper, it snowed in Florida.)

[Related Expression]

The hearsay *sōda* (i.e., *sōda¹*) and the conjecture *sōda* (i.e., *sōda²*) are two different expressions. Compare their different connection patterns in [1].

(⇒ *sōda²*)

[1]	<i>sōda¹</i> (hearsay)	<i>sōda²</i> (conjecture)
V before <i>sōda</i>	Vinf <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 話す / 話した そうだ <i>hanasu</i> / <i>hanashita sōda</i>)	Vmasu <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 話し そうだ <i>hanashi sōda</i>)
Adj (i) before <i>sōda</i>	Adj (i) inf <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 高い / 高かった そうだ <i>takai</i> / <i>takakatta sōda</i>)	Adj (i) stem <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 高 そうだ <i>taka sōda</i>)
Adj (na) before <i>sōda</i>	Adj (na) stem {da / datta} <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 静かだ / 静かだった そうだ <i>shizukada</i> / <i>shizukadatta sōda</i>)	Adj (na) stem <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 静か そうだ <i>shizuka sōda</i>)
N before <i>sōda</i>	N {da / datta} <i>sōda</i> (Ex. 先生だ / 先生だった そうだ <i>sensei da</i> / <i>sensei datta sōda</i>)	
<i>sōda</i> before N		{Vmasu / Adj (i) stem / Adj (na) stem} <i>sōna</i> N (Ex. 高そうな 本 <i>taka sōna hon</i>)



~*sōda*² ~そうだ aux. adj. (*na*)

an auxiliary adjective which indicates that what is expressed by the preceding sentence is the speaker's conjecture concerning an event in the future or the present state of someone or something, based on what the speaker sees or feels

look; look like; appear; seem;
feel like

【REL. *sōda*¹; *yōda* (*darō*; *rashii*)】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Subject	Vmasu	
雨 <i>Ame</i>	が <i>ga</i>	降り <i>furi</i>

(It looks like it will rain.)

(B)

Topic (subject)	Adj (<i>i</i> / <i>na</i>) stem	
あの 車 <i>Ano kuruma</i>	は <i>wa</i>	高 <i>taka</i>

(That car looks expensive.)

Formation

(i) Vmasu そうだ
sōda

話し そうだ (It looks like s.o. will talk.)
hanashi sōda

食べ そうだ (It looks like s.o. will eat.)
tabe sōda

(ii) Adj (*i* / *na*) stem そうだ
sōda

高 そうだ (S.t. looks expensive.)
taka sōda



静か そうだ (S.t. looks quiet.)

shizuka sōda

Examples

- (a) この家は強い風が吹いたらたおれそうだ。

Kono ie wa tsuyoi kaze ga fuitara taore sōda.

(It looks like this house will fall down when there's a strong wind (lit. a strong wind blows).)

- (b) あのステーキはおいしそうだった。

Ano sutēki wa oishisōdatta.

(That steak looked delicious.)

- (c) このあたりは静かそうだ。

Kono atari wa shizuka sōda.

(This neighborhood looks quiet.)

Notes

1. {Vmasu / Adj (i / na) stem} *sōda* expresses the speaker's conjecture based on visual information. Thus, this expression can be used only when the speaker directly observes something. The speaker's conjecture concerns an event which might take place in the future or the present state of someone or something. In other words, *sōda*² cannot be used to express the speaker's conjecture concerning a past event or state.

(⇒ *rashii*; *yōda*)

2. The adjective *ii* 'good' and the negative *nai* 'not exist / not' change to *yosa* and *nasa*, respectively, before *sōda*². Examples:

- (1) このアパートはよさそうだ。

Kono apāto wa yosa sōda.

(This apartment looks good.)

- (2) 問題はなさそうだ。

Mondai wa nasa sōda.

(It looks like there is no problem.)

- (3) 村山さんの家はあまり新しくなさそうだ。

Murayama-san no ie wa amari atarashikunasa sōda.

(Mr. Murayama's house doesn't look so new.)



3. N or N + Copula cannot precede *sōda*², as seen in (4a) and (4b), but N + Copula neg·nonpast can, as seen in (4c).

- (4) a. *加藤さんは学生 *ø* そうだ。
 *Katō-san wa gakusei *ø* sōda.
 (Mr. Kato looks like a student.)
- b. *加藤さんは学生だそうだ。
 *Katō-san wa gakusei *da* sōda.
 (Mr. Kato looks like a student.)
- c. 加藤さんは学生じゃなさそうだ。
 Katō-san wa gakusei *janasa* sōda.
 (Mr. Kato doesn't look like a student.)

To express the intended meaning in (4a) and (4b) *rashii* is used. (⇒ *rashii*) (4b) is grammatical if *sōda* means hearsay. (⇒ *sōda*¹)

4. In this construction, the negative forms of verbs usually don't precede *sōda*². Instead, Vmasu *sō ni / mo nai* is used. Examples:

- (5) ク里斯は車を売りそう に / も ない。
 Kurisu wa kuruma o uri *sō ni / mo nai*.
 (Chris doesn't seem to sell his car.)
- (6) この問題は学生には出来そう に / も ない。
 Kono mondai wa gakusei ni wa deki *sō ni / mo nai*.
 (It doesn't seem that the students can solve this problem.)

5. *Sōda* is also used to express the speaker's conjecture concerning his own non-volitional future actions based on what he feels.

- (7) 僕はこのケーキを残しそうだ。
 Boku wa kono kēki o nokoshi *sōda*.
 (I'm afraid I can't eat all this cake.)
- (8) 私はとても疲れていてたおれそうだ。
 Watashi wa totemo tsukarete ite taore *sōda*.
 (I'm so tired that I feel weak (lit. like I'm falling down).)

6. *Sōda* is a *na*-type adjective; the prenominal form is *sōna*. Examples:

- (9) 高そうな車
 taka sōna kuruma
 (a car which looks expensive (=an expensive-looking car))
- (10) 雨が降りそうな空
 ame ga furi sōna sora
 (lit. the sky which looks like it will bring rain)



sore de それで conj.

- ~ a conjunction to indicate that what
is stated in the preceding sentence
is the reason or cause for what is
stated in the following sentence
- and; because of that; that is
why; therefore; so
【REL. da kara; node】

◆ Key Sentence

Sentence ₁	Sentence ₂	
きのうはかぜをひきました。 <i>Kinō wa kaze o hikimashita.</i>	それで <i>Sore de</i>	学校を休んだんです。 <i>gakkō o yasunda n desu.</i>
(I had a cold yesterday. That's why I took a day off from school.)		

Examples

- (a) ちょっと大阪で用事がありました。それできのういなかつたんです。
Chotto Ōsaka de yōji ga arimashita. Sore de kinō inakatta n desu.
(I had some business in Osaka. That's why I wasn't here yesterday.)
- (b) A: きのうはちょっと大阪で用事がありました。
Kinō wa chotto Ōsaka de yōji ga arimashita.
(Yesterday I had to run an errand in Osaka.)
- B: ああ、それでいらっしゃらなかつたんですね。
Ā, sore de irassharanakatta n desu ne.
(Oh, that's why you weren't here.)
- (c) A: きのう小川君とピンポンの試合をしたんだ。
Kinō Ogawa-kun to pinpon no shiai o shita n da.
(Yesterday I played pingpong with Mr. Ogawa.)
- B: それで、先週新しいラケットを買ったんですね。
Sore de, senshū atarashii raketto o katta n desu ne.
(That's why he bought a new paddle last week.)

**【Related Expressions】**

- I. “S₁. Sore de S₂” can be rephrased using *node* if *sore de* means cause or reason. Note, however, that the *node* construction is a single sentence.
(⇒ *node*) Example:

[1] ちょっと大阪で用事があったのできのういなかつたんです。

Chotto Ōsaka de yōji ga atta node kinō inakatta n desu.

(Because I had an errand to run in Osaka, I wasn't here yesterday.)

The difference is that *sore de* combines two sentences much more loosely than *node*.

II. “S₁. *Sore de S₂*” can be rephrased using *da / desu kara*, if S₁ indicates a reason or a cause for S₂.

[2] ちょっと大阪で用事がありました。だからきのういなかつたんです。

Chotto Ōsaka de yōji ga arimashita.. Da kara kinō inakatta n desu.

(I had an errand to run in Osaka. So, I wasn't here yesterday.)

The difference between *sore de* and *da kara* is similar to the difference between *node* and *kara*. (⇒ ***kara***³; ***node***) Observe the following sentence.

[3] 今日は忙しいです。だから / *それであした来てください。

*Kyō wa isogashii desu. Da kara / *Sore de ashita kite kudasai.*

(I'm busy today. So, please come tomorrow.)

***sore de wa* それでは conj.**

If that is the case,

if so; then; well then

【REL. *sore nara*】

◆ Key Sentences

A:

この オレンジ は 甘くない です。

Kono orenji wa amakunai desu.

(This orange is not sweet.)

B:

それ で は
Sore de wa

これ は ど う (で す か)。
kore wa dō (desu ka).

(How about this one, then?)

Examples

(a) A: 僕は魚も肉も嫌いです。

Boku wa sakana mo niku mo kiraidesu.

(I hate both fish and meat.)

B: それでは何を食べるんですか。

Sore de wa nani o taberu n desu ka.

(Then, what do you eat?)

(b) A: 今日の午後テニスをしませんか。

Kyō no gogo tenisu o shimasen ka.

(Wouldn't you like to play tennis this afternoon?)

B: 今日の午後はちょっと都合が悪いんですが。

Kyō no gogo wa chotto tsugō ga warui n desu ga.

(This afternoon is not convenient for me, but . . .)

A: それではあしたの午後はどうですか。

Sore de wa ashita no gogo wa dō desu ka.

(Then, how about tomorrow afternoon?)

(c) それでは二十分ぐらい休みましょう。

Sore de wa nijuppun gurai yasumimashō.

(Well then, let's take a break for about twenty minutes.)

(d) それではまた来週の金曜日に来ます。

Sore de wa mata raishū no kin'yōbi ni kimasu.

(Well then, I'll come again next Friday.)

Notes

1. *Sore de wa* is contracted into *sore ja* or *sore jā* in informal speech.
2. *Sore de wa* is often shortened to *de wa*, which is further contracted to *jā* or *ja*.
3. *Sore de wa* is used in sentence-initial position, and *sore* ‘that’ refers to that which is stated in the preceding sentence, as in Exs. (a) and (b), or to the preceding context, as in Exs. (c) and (d). In Exs. (c) and (d) the speaker uses *sore de wa* based on some nonverbal shared knowledge. The shared knowledge for (c) and (d) could be ‘the fact of having worked long enough’ and ‘the fact of having finished today’s discussion and an agreement for meeting every Friday’, respectively.



sore kara それから conj.

a conjunction that indicates (1) temporally contiguous actions or states, or (2) a cumulative listing of objects, actions or states

after that; and then; in addition to that
【REL. *kara*²; *shi*; *soshite*】

◆Key Sentences

(A)

Vte		
きのうは二時間ぐらい友達と <i>Kinō wa nijikan gurai tomodachi to</i>	飲んで <i>nonde</i>	それから <i>sore kara</i> うちに帰った/ <i>uchi ni kaetta /</i> 帰りました。 <i>kaerimashita.</i>

(Yesterday I drank with my friend for about two hours and then went home.)

(B)

Sentence ₁	Sentence ₂	
きのうは二時間ぐらい友達と飲んだ。 <i>Kinō wa nijikan gurai tomodachi to nondatta.</i>	それから <i>Sore kara</i>	本屋に寄って <i>hon-ya ni yotte</i> うちに帰った。 <i>uchi ni kaettatta.</i>

(Yesterday I drank with my friend for about two hours. Then I dropped by a bookstore and went home.)

Formation

(i) {Vte / Vmasu} それから
sore kara

{話して / 話し}, それから (s.o. talks, and then ~)
{*hanashite* / *hanashi*}, *sore kara*

{食べて / 食べ}, それから (s.o. eats, and then ~)
{*tabete* / *tabe*}, *sore kara*

(ii) Adj (i) stem く(て), それから
ku(te), sore kara

高く(て), それ から (s.t. is not only expensive but ~)
takaku(te), sore kara

(iii) Adj (na) stem で, それ から
de, sore kara

静かで, それ から (s.t. is not only quiet but ~)
shizukade, sore kara

(iv) N₁ (と) N₂ (と) それ から N₃
(to) (to) sore kara

英語 (と) 日本語 (と), それ から 中国語 (English, Japanese and
eigo (to) nihongo (to), sore kara chūgokugo Chinese)

Examples

- (a) 十時まで宿題をしました。それから映画に行きました。
Jūji made shukudai o shimashita. Sore kara eiga ni ikimashita.
 (I did my home work until 10 o'clock. And then, I went to the movie.)
- (b) きのうは朝銀座に行って、それから映画を見に行った。
Kinō wa asa Ginza ni itte, sore kara eiga o mi ni itta.
 (Yesterday morning I went to Ginza and then went to see a movie.)
- (c) レストランではステーキとサラダとそれからチーズケーキを食べました。
Resutoran de wa sutēki to sarada to sore kara chizukēki o tabemashita.
 (At the restaurant I ate steak, salad, and cheesecake.)
- (d) 湖の色は初めは青く、それから緑になりました。
Mizuumi no iro wa hajime wa aoku, sore kara midori ni narimashita.
 (The color of the lake was blue in the beginning and then turned green.)
- (e) 月曜, 火曜, それから木曜もとても忙しいです。
Getsuyō, kayō, sore kara mokuyō mo totemo isogashiidesu.
 (I am very busy on Monday, Tuesday, and Thursday, too.)



Notes

1. *Sore kara* can be used to indicate something which the speaker almost forgot to mention, as in (1) below:
 - (1) ジョンとメリーと, ああそうだ, それからボブが来たよ。
Jon to Meri to, ā sō da, sore kara Bobu ga kita yo.
 (John and Mary and, oh yeah, Bob came too.)
2. *Sore kara* 'and then' is often used by the hearer to elicit more information from the speaker. Example:

(2) A : 今日はどこへ行きましたか。
Kyō wa doko e ikimashita ka.
 (Where did you go today?)

B : まず東京タワーに上りました。
Mazu Tōkyō tawā ni noborimashita.
 (First we went up Tokyo Tower.)

A : それから?
Sore kara?
 (And then?)

B : 美術館に行きました。
Bijutsukan ni ikimashita.
 (I went to the art museum.)

A : それから?
Sore kara?
 (And then?)

B : デパートに行って、食堂で昼ご飯を食べました。
Depāto ni itte, shokudō de hirugohan o tabemashita.
 (I went to a department store and ate my lunch at the cafeteria.)

3. V_{te}, V_{masu}, Adj (*i*) stem *ku* (*te*) and Adj (*na*) stem *de* do not have their own tense. The tense is identical with that of the main verb.

[Related Expressions]

- I. V_{te} *kara* and V_{te}, *sore kara* are similar but not identical in meaning. V_{te} *kara* expresses chronological sequence; V_{te}, *sore kara* expresses chronological sequence and / or enumeration. For example, [1a] expresses purely chronological order and [1b], chronological order and enumeration.

(\Leftrightarrow *kara*²)

- [1] a. 山中さんは三時間ゴルフをしてから一時間泳いだ。
*Yamanaka-san wa sanjikan gorufu o shite **kara** ichijikan oyoida.*
 (Mr. Yamanaka swam for one hour after having played golf for three hours.)
- b. 山中さんは三時間ゴルフをして、それから一時間泳いだ。
*Yamanaka-san wa sanjikan gorufu o shite, **sore kara** ichijikan oyoida.*
 (Mr. Yamanaka played golf for three hours, and, on top of that, he swam for an hour.)

II. “Vte / Vmasu, sore kara”, “Adj (i) stem kute, sore kara” and “Adj (na) stem de, sore kara” are very similar to *shi* when they express enumeration.

[2] a. 今日はテニスをして、それから映画も見た。

Kyō wa tenisu o shite, sore kara eiga mo mita.

(Today I played tennis, and I saw a movie, too.)

b. 今日はテニスもしたし、映画も見た。

Kyō wa tenisu mo shita shi, eiga mo mita.

(Today I played tennis, and what's more, saw a movie.)

III. *Sō shite / soshite* and *sore kara* are interchangeable when two events do not occurs simultaneously. Compare the following:

[3] a. 音楽を聞いて、そして勉強するのが好きだ。

Ongaku o kiite, sō shite benkyōsuru no ga sukida.

(I like to listen to music while studying. / I like to listen to music first and then study.)

b. 音楽を聞いて、それから勉強するのが好きだ。

Ongaku o kiite, sore kara benkyōsuru no ga sukida.

(I like to listen to music first and then study.)

sore nara それなら conj.

{ If that is the case, } then; in that case
【REL. *sore de wa*】

◆ Key Sentence

A:	B:	
頭が痛いんです。 <i>Atama ga itai n desu.</i> (I have a headache.)	それなら <i>Sore nara</i>	すぐ寝なさい。 <i>sugu nenasai.</i> (In that case, go to sleep right away.)

Examples

(a) A: 映画を見に行きませんか。

Eiga o mi ni ikimasen ka.

(Wouldn't you like to go see a movie?)

B: あした試験があるんです。

Ashita shiken ga aru n desu.

(I have an exam tomorrow.)

A: それなら、あさってはどうですか。

Sore nara, asatte wa dō desu ka.

(Then, how about the day after tomorrow?)

(b) A: 日本にはどのぐらいいましたか。

Nihon ni wa dono gurai imashita ka.

(How long did you stay in Japan?)

B: 三年です。

Sannen desu.

(Three years.)

A: それなら、日本のこととはよく知っているでしょうね。

Sore nara, Nihon no koto wa yoku shitte iru deshō ne.

(Then, you must know a lot about Japan.)

Notes

1. *Sore* ‘that’ refers to a previously-spoken sentence. In KS, for example, *sore* refers to A’s entire sentence. B’s sentence can be rephrased as (1):

(1) 頭が痛いんならすぐ寝なさい。

*Atama ga itai n **nara** sugu nenasai.*

(If you have a headache, go to sleep right away.)

Nara in (1) expresses the speaker’s supposition concerning the truth of A’s statement. (⇒ *nara*)

2. *Sore nara* has a more formal form, *sore naraba*, and a more informal one, *sonnara*.
3. For restrictions imposed on the sentence that follows *sore nara*, see the notes in *nara*.

[Related Expression]

Although *sore nara* and *sore de wa* are very similar, they differ in that the former is dependent on verbal context while the latter is not. Thus, towards the end of one’s visit with his superior or on an occasion when something is offered, *sore de wa* is used, as in [1a, b].

[1] a. それでは / *それなら失礼します。

*Sore de wa / *Sore nara shitsureishimasu.*

(Lit. Then I must be going now.)

b. それでは / *それなら遠慮なくいただきます。

Sore de wa / *Sore nara enryo naku itadakimasu.

(Lit. Then, I'll take it (without hesitation).)

soretomo それとも conj.

a coordinate conjunction which connects two alternatives expressed by sentences or; either ~ or ~
【REL. *ka*¹】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Sentence ₁ (informal)		
この 本 が まちがって いる <i>Kono hon ga machigatte iru</i>	か <i>ka</i>	(それとも) (soretomo)
Sentence ₂ (informal)		
私 が まちがって いる <i>watashi ga machigatte iru</i>	か <i>ka</i>	どちらか だ / です。 <i>dochiraka da / desu.</i>
(It's either that this book is wrong or that I am wrong.)		

(B)

Question ₁		Question ₂
刺身 を 食べます か。 <i>Sashimi o tabemasu ka.</i>	それとも <i>Soretomo</i>	すきやき に します か。 <i>sukiyaki ni shimasu ka.</i>
(Will you have <i>sashimi</i> , or will you have <i>sukiyaki</i> ?)		

Examples

(a) 僕が来るか(それとも)村井さんが来るかどちらかです。

Boku ga kuru ka (soretomo) Murai-san ga kuru ka dochiraka desu.

(Either I will come or Mr. Murai will come.)

(b) あの人は先生ですか。それとも医者ですか。
Ano hito wa sensei desu ka. Soretomo isha desu ka.
 (Is he a teacher or a doctor?)

Notes

1. *Soretomo* combines statements (KS(A)) or questions (KS(B)). In KS(A), *soretomo* can be omitted.
2. In KS(B), if the context is clear, abbreviated questions may occur in informal speech. For example, (1) may be used for KS(B).

(1) 刺身? それとも、すきやき?
Sashimi? Soretomo, sukiyaki?
 (Sashimi or sukiyaki?)

soshite そして conj.

a coordinate conjunction that connects two sentences

and; and then
【REL. *sore kara*】

◆ Key Sentence**Sentence₁**

今日は 東京 に行った / 行きました。
Kyō wa Tōkyō ni itta / ikimashita.

(I went to Tokyo today.)

Sentence₂

そして	友達 に 会った / 会いました。
<i>Soshite</i>	<i>tomodachi ni atta / aimashita.</i>

And I met my friend there.)

Examples

(a) きのうは朝ゴルフをしました。そして午後はテニスをしました。
Kinō wa asa gorufu o shimashita. Soshite gogo wa tenisu o shimashita.

(Yesterday I played golf in the morning. And I played tennis in the afternoon.)

(b) この映画はつまらない。そして長すぎる。
Kono eiga wa tsumaranai. Soshite nagasugiru.

(This movie is uninteresting. And it's too long.)

(c) この花はきれいです。そして安いです。
Kono hana wa kireidesu. Soshite yasuidesu.

(This flower is pretty. And it is inexpensive.)

Notes

1. *Soshite* and *sō shite* are normally interchangeable, but if *sō shite* is used in the original sense of ‘by doing so’, it cannot be replaced by *soshite*.

(1) そうして / *そして直すんですか。
*Sō shite / *Soshite naosu n desu ka.*

(Lit. Do you fix it by doing so? (=Oh, that's how you fix it?))

2. The two sentences in this construction can be combined using the *te*-form of verbs or adjectives, as in (2). This version is encountered less frequently than the above version and sounds a little redundant, because the *te*-form alone can mean ‘～ and’.

(2) 今日は東京に行って、そうして / そして友達に会いました。
Kyō wa Tōkyō ni itte, sō shite / soshite tomodachi ni aimashita.

(I went to Tokyo today, and I met my friend there.)

**sugiru すぎる aux. v. (Gr. 2)**

S.o. / s.t. does s.t. excessively or is
in a state excessively.

too; do s.t. too much / often;
over-

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)			Vmasu	
ウィルソンさん <i>Uiruson-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	肉 を <i>niku o</i>	食べ <i>tabe</i>	すぎる / すぎます。 <i>sugiru / sugimasu.</i>
(Mr. Wilson eats too much meat.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)		Noun		Adj (i / na) stem	
この アパート <i>Kono apāto</i>	は <i>wa</i>	私達 <i>watashitachi</i>	には <i>ni wa</i>	高 <i>taka</i>	すぎる / すぎます。 <i>sugiru / sugimasu.</i>
(This apartment is too expensive for us.)					

Formation

(i) Vmasu すぎる
*sugiru*話し すぎる (talk too much)
*hanashi sugiru*食べ すぎる (eat too much)
tabe sugiru(ii) Adj (i / na) stem すぎる
*sugiru*高 すぎる (too expensive)
*taka sugiru*静か すぎる (too quiet)
shizuka sugiru

Examples

- (a) 私は今朝寝すぎて学校におくれた。
Watashi wa kesa ne sugite gakkō ni okureta.
(I overslept this morning and was late for school.)

- (b) この机は私の部屋には大きすぎる。
Kono tsukue wa watashi no heya ni wa ōki sugiru.
 (This desk is too big for my room.)

- (c) 田中先生の授業は大変すぎるのでやめました。
Tanaka-sensei no jugyō wa taihen sugiru node yamemashita.
 (I dropped Prof. Tanaka's class because it was too demanding.)
- (d) 森さんは太りすぎている。
Mori-san wa futori sugite iru.
 (Mr. Mori is too fat.)

Notes

1. *Sugiru*, which as a main verb means ‘pass; go beyond some limit’, is used as an auxiliary verb with Vmasu or Adj (*i / na*) stem and means ‘do s.t. excessively’ or ‘be ~ excessively’.
2. The stem of *ii* ‘good’ changes to *yo* before *sugiru*, as in (1).
 - (1) このアパートはトムにはよすぎる。
Kono apāto wa Tomu ni wa yo sugiru.
 (This apartment is too good for Tom.)
3. The negative *nai* ‘not exist / not’ changes to *nasa* before *sugiru*.
 - (2) ベンは力がなさすぎる。
Ben wa chikara ga nasa sugiru.
 (Lit. Ben has too little power. (=Ben is too weak.))
 - (3) 友子は野菜を食べなさすぎる。
Tomoko wa yasai o tabenasa sugiru.
 (Tomoko eats too few vegetables.)
4. For in “be too ~ for someone / something” is expressed by *ni wa*, as in KS(B) and Ex. (b).
5. *Sugiru* is a Gr. 2 verb; the negative form is *suginai*, the polite form is *sugimasu* and the *te*-form is *sugite*.



sukida すきだ adj. (*na*)

S.t. or s.o. is what s.o. likes.

like; be fond of
(ANT. *kiraida*)

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (experiencer)	Liked Object			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	ステーキ <i>sutēki</i>	が <i>ga</i>	好きだ / 好きです。 <i>sukida</i> / <i>sukidesu</i> .
(I like steak.)				

Examples

(a) 僕は野球が好きだ。

Boku wa yakyū ga sukida.

(I like baseball.)

(b) ジョンソンさんはジャズが大好きです。

Jonson-san wa jazzu ga dai-sukidesu.

(Mr. Johnson loves jazz.)

Notes

1. *Sukida* is a *na*-type adjective which requires the “*wa ~ ga* construction”. That is, the experiencer (i.e., the person who likes someone or something) is marked by *wa* and the liked object by *ga*. ($\Rightarrow \sim \text{wa} \sim \text{ga}$) Note that the liked object is marked by *ga* not by *o*.
2. In subordinate clauses, the experiencer is also marked by *ga*, as in (1) and (2).

(1) 私がステーキが好きなことはみんな知っている。

Watashi ga sutēki ga skina koto wa minna shitte iru.

(Everybody knows that I like steak.)

(2) ジョンが好きなスポーツは野球です。

Jon ga sukina supōtsu wa yakyū desu.

(Lit. The sport John likes is baseball. (=John's favorite sport is baseball.))

3. “Like a lot” is expressed by *dai-sukida*, as in Ex. (b).



sukunai 少ない adj. (i)

~~~~~  
 small in number or quantity  
 ~~~~~

few; a small number of; little;
 a small quantity of ~

【REL. *wazuka*】
 (ANT. *ōi*)

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (location)	Subject			
この 町 <i>Kono machi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	いい レストラン <i>ii resutoran</i>	が <i>ga</i>	少ない / 少ないです。 <i>sukunai / sukunaidesu.</i>
(Lit. In this town good restaurants are few. (=There aren't many good restaurants in this town.))				

Examples

- (a) この大学は女子学生が少ないです。
Kono daigaku wa joshigakusei ga sukunaidesu.
 (The number of female students at this college is small.)
- (b) 日本は犯罪が少ない。
Nihon wa hanzai ga sukunai.
 (There are few crimes in Japan.)
- (c) 日本語が書ける外国人は大変少ない。
Nihongo ga kakeru gaikokujin wa taihen sukunai.
 (Lit. Foreigners who can write Japanese are very few. (=Very few foreigners can write Japanese.))

Notes

1. *Sukunai* cannot be used before a noun, except in a relative clause where *sukunai* is the predicate of the subject of the relative clause.
 - (1) *この大学は少ない女子学生がいます。
Kono daigaku wa **sukunai joshigakusei ga imasu.*
 (Cp. Ex. (a))
 - (2) 木が少ない町に住みたくありません。
*Ki ga **sukunai** machi ni sumitaku arimasen.*
 (I don't want to live in a town where there are few trees.)
2. The distinction between English 'few' vs. 'a few' can be expressed by *sukunai* and *sukoshi wa* as in (3) below.



- (3) a. 日本語が分かるアメリカ人は少ない。
*Nihongo ga wakaru Amerikajin wa **sukunai**.*
 (Lit. Americans who can understand Japanese are few. (=Few Americans can understand Japanese.))
- b. 日本語が分かるアメリカ人は少しある。
*Nihongo ga wakaru Amerikajin wa **sukoshi wa iru**.*
 (There are a few Americans who can understand Japanese.)

【Related Expression】

Sukunai differs from a similar word *wazuka(da)* in both meaning and use. The latter means ‘insignificant number or amount of ~’ and is used before a noun or in a predicate position or as an adverb. Only in [1a] below can *wazukada* be replaced by *sukunai*.

- [1] a. 私が持っているお金はわずかだ。
*Watashi ga motte iru o-kane wa **wazukada**.*
 (The money I possess is very little.)
- b. わずかなお金で暮らしている。
Wazukana o-kane de kurashite iru.
 (He is living with a paltry sum of money.)
- c. あの人はわずかのことすぐおこる。
*Ano hito wa **wazuka** no koto de sugu okoru.*
 (He gets angry easily over a trifling matter.)
- d. その時僕はわずか(に)六つでした。
*Sono toki boku wa **wazuka(ni)** muttsu deshita.*
 (At that time I was merely six years old.)

suru¹ する v. (Irr.)

S.o. / s.t. causes a state or action to take place.

do; make; play; play the role of ~; wear

【REL. *naru*; *yaru*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object			
中山さん Nakayama-san	は wa	テニス tenisu	を o	する / します。 suru / shimasu.
(Mr. Nakayama plays tennis.)				

(B)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object			
リーズさん Rizus-san	は wa	英語 の 先生 eigo no sensei	を o	して いる / います。 shite iru / imasu.
(Mr. Leeds is (lit. doing) an English teacher.)				

(C)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object		Adj (i) stem		
先生 Sensei	は wa	テスト tesuto	を o	やさし yasashi	く ku
(The teacher made his test easy.)					

(D)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object		Noun		
木口 Kiguchi	は wa	息子 musuko	を o	医者 isha	に ni
(Kiguchi caused his son to become a physician.)					

(E)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object		Sino-Japanese Compound	
私 Watashi	は wa	中国語 chūgokugo	を o	勉強して いる / います。 benkyōshite iru / imasu.
(I am studying Chinese.)				



(F)

Topic (subject)	Direct Object			
京子 Kyōko	は wa	きれいな スカーフ kireina sukāfu	を o	して いる / います。 <i>shite iru / imasu.</i>
(Kyoko is wearing a beautiful scarf.)				

Examples

(a) 日本人はたいてい土曜日も仕事をする。

Nihonjin wa taitei doyōbi mo shigoto o suru.

(The Japanese usually work on Saturdays, too.)

(b) ビルはハムレットをするつもりだ。

Biru wa Hamuretto o suru tsumori da.

(Bill is going to play Hamlet.)

(c) 陽子は部屋をきれいにした。

Yōko wa heya o kireini shita.

(Lit. Yoko made her room clean. (=Yoko cleaned her room.))

(d) 僕はよく車を運転します。

Boku wa yoku kuruma o untenshimasu.

(I often drive a car.)

(e) 一男はアメリカ人を妻にした。

Kazuo wa amerikajin o tsuma ni shita.

(Lit. Kazuo made a wife of an American. (=Kazuo took an American wife.))

(f) いいネクタイをしているね。

Ii nekutai o shite iru ne.

(You're wearing a nice tie, aren't you?)

Notes

1. *Suru*¹ means ‘to cause some state or action’, and corresponds to English ‘do’ or ‘make’.
2. KS(A) and Ex. (a) are cases in which the subject is *doing / playing* s.t. KS(B) as well as Ex. (b) are cases where the subject is *playing a social or dramatic role*. KSs(C) and (D) and Ex. (c) have causative meanings.
3. KS(C) and Ex. (c) require that either Adj (*i*) stem+*ku* or Adj (*na*) stem+*ni* (i.e., adverbial form of Adj (*i* / *na*)) be used before *suru*. KS(D) and

Ex. (e) use a Noun+ni in front of *suru*.

4. The Direct Objects of KS(F) and Ex. (f) are items that cover a small part of the human body such as *nekutai* '(neck)tie', *tebukuro* 'gloves' and *udedokei* 'wristwatch'. When used with such direct objects, *suru* means 'wear'.
5. The construction in KS(D) (i.e., N+ni *suru*) also has an idiomatic use, meaning 'decide on ~'. (⇒ ni *suru*)
6. Sino-Japanese compounds+*suru* such as *benkyōsuru* 'study' and *unten-suru* 'drive' can be used as transitive verbs, as in KS(E) and Ex. (d). The Sino-Japanese compound itself can also be used as the direct object of *suru*. For example, compare KS(E) and Ex. (d) with (1) and (2), respectively.

(1) 私は中国語の勉強をしている。

Watashi wa chūgokugo no benkyō o shite iru.

(Lit. I am doing the study of Chinese. (=I am studying Chinese.))

(2) 僕はよく車の運転をします。

Boku wa yoku kuruma no unten o shimasu.

(Lit. I often do the driving of a car. (=I often drive a car.))

Note in Sentences (1) and (2) that the direct object in KS(E) and Ex. (d) is connected to the Sino-Japanese compound by the particle *no*, creating a noun phrase which is the direct object of *suru*.

7. In contemporary Japanese it is very common to use *suru* with loanwords. The majority of loanwords are from English verbs. Some typical examples follow:

ヒットする (make a hit)
hitto-suru

ノックする (knock on the door)
nokku-suru

ドライブする (drive a car)
doraibu-suru

キスする (kiss)
kisu-suru

タイプする (type)
taiyu-suru

パスする (pass an exam)
pasu-suru

It is also common to use *suru* with sound symbolisms, especially phenomimes and psychomimes.

(⇒ Characteristics of Japanese Grammar, 8. Sound Symbolisms)



びくびくする (be in fear) <i>bikubiku-suru</i>	かっとする (flare up) <i>katto-suru</i>
ぼんやりする (be absent-minded) <i>bonyari-suru</i>	はっとする (be taken aback) <i>hatto-suru</i>
ぞっとする (shiver) <i>zotto-suru</i>	いらいらする (become irritated) <i>iraira-suru</i>

8. *Suru* basically means some causative change that is under human control, whereas *naru* ‘become’ basically means spontaneous change that is almost beyond human control. Since injury normally occurs due to human carelessness, *suru* is acceptable, but *naru* is unacceptable, as shown in (3) below. In contrast to injury, illness is assumed to occur regardless of human carefulness or carelessness, so it should not take *suru*. But in actuality it does. Illness can take *suru* when it is talked about as if it were something under human control, for example, cases of past illness (as in (4a)), apologies implying that one has caused illness due to carelessness on one’s part (as in (4b)), and statements of one’s medical history (as in (4c)). Otherwise, illness cannot take *suru*, as shown in (4d).

(3) a. 病気 / けがをする。

Byōki / kega o suru.

(One becomes ill / sustains injury.)

b. 病気 / *けがになる。

*Byōki / *kega ni naru.*

(One becomes ill.)

(4) a. 若い頃はよく病気をした / ?になった。

Wakai koro wa yoku byōki o shita / ?ni natta.

(When I was young, I often became ill.)

b. いつも病気をして / ?になってすみません。

Itsomo byōki o shite / ?ni natte sumimasen.

(I’m sorry that I always become ill.)

c. 一年に何回ぐらい病気をしますか / ?になりますか。

Ichinen ni nankai gurai byōki o shimasu ka / ?ni narimasu ka.

(About how many times do you become ill per year?)

d. きのう急に病気になりました / *をしました。

*Kinō kyūni byōki ni narimashita / *o shimashita.*

(I suddenly became ill yesterday.)



9. *Suru* can be used in the construction *o+Vmasu+suru*, a humble, polite form of verb. The subject of this humble verb must be the speaker or his in-group member.

(5) 私がお読み / 書き / 持ちします。

Watashi ga o yomi / kaki / mochi shimasu.

(I will read / write / carry it (for you).)

A further degree of humbleness can be expressed by replacing *suru* with its humble version *itasu* / *itashimasu*. (⇒ *o ~ suru*)

[Related Expressions]

- I. *Naru* ‘become’ forms an intransitive-transitive pair with *suru*, although they are not phonetically related. (⇒ Appendix 3) Semantically, *naru* seems more passive, while *suru* seems more causative. Compare the following pairs of sentences:

[1] a. 山田は停学になった。

Yamada wa teigaku ni natta.

(Lit. Yamada became suspension from school. (= Yamada got suspended from school.)

b. 学校は山田を停学にした。

Gakkō wa Yamada o teigaku ni shita.

(Lit. The school made Yamada suspended from school. (= The school suspended Yamada.))

[2] a. 山田は本を書くことになった。

Yamada wa hon o kaku koto ni natta.

(It's been decided that Yamada will write a book.)

b. 山田は本を書くことにした。

Yamada wa hon o kaku koto ni shita.

(Yamada has decided to write a book.)

(⇒ *koto ni naru*; *koto ni suru*)

- II. *Suru* can be replaced by its informal version *yaru* (Gr. 1 Verb) when it means ‘do / play s.t.’ as in KS(A) or ‘play a dramatic / social role’ as in KS(B). Also, if *suru* takes a Sino-Japanese compound as its direct object (as in *benkyō o suru* ‘Lit. do a study of’), it can be replaced by *yaru*.



suru² する v. (Irr.)

S.o. or s.t. has some (semi-)permanent attribute.

have

【REL. ~ wa ~ ga】

◆ Key Sentence

Topic (subject, possessor)	Adjective	N (bodily part)		
洋子 Yōko	は wa	長い <i>nagai</i>	足 <i>ashi</i>	を o して いる / います。 <i>shite iru / imasu.</i>
(Yoko has long legs.)				

Examples

(a) 一男は丈夫な体をしています。

Kazuo wa jōbuna karada o shite imasu.

(Kazuo has a strong body.)

(b) この机は丸い形をしている。

Kono tsukue wa marui katachi o shite iru.

(This table has a round shape.)

Notes

1. The sentence pattern is:

Topic (subject)+Adj(*i* / *na*)+{Noun of Bodily Part / Noun of Attribute}+*shite iru* / *imasu*.

A bodily part or an attribute must be inalienably possessed by the subject. In other words, it must be such an essential part of the possessor (=subject) that he / it cannot exist without the part or the attribute.

2. In the main clause the verb *suru* always takes the *te iru* form, but in a relative clause *te iru* may be replaced by *ta* as in:

(1) 長い足をしている / した洋子

Nagai ashi o shite iru / shita Yōko

(Yoko, who has long legs)

【Related Expression】

Sentences of this construction can be restated using the *wa-ga* construction as follows:

$N_1 \text{ wa Adj } N_2 o shite iru \rightarrow N_1 \text{ wa } N_2 ga \text{ Adj.}$

Thus, the KS example can be rephrased as:

[1] 洋子は足が長い / 長いです。

Yōko wa ashi ga nagai / nagaidesu.

(Yoko has long legs.)

The only perceptible difference between KS and [1] is that the latter sentence is more analytical than the former. In other words, in KS *nagai ashi* ‘long legs’ is one unit, but in [1] *ashi* ‘legs’ is first presented as a single unit and is then further characterized as *nagai* ‘long’.

suru³ する v. (Irr.)

{ S.t. is perceived by s.o.’s non-visual } feel; smell; hear
 { senses. }

◆ Key Sentence

Subject		
子供達 の 声 <i>Kodomotachi no koe</i>	が ga	した / しました。 <i>shita / shimashita.</i>
(I heard children's voices.)		

Examples



(a) この魚は変な味がしますね。

Kono sakana wa henna aji ga shimasu ne.

(This fish tastes funny, doesn't it?)

(b) このきれはざらざらしている。

Kono kire wa zarazara shite iru.

(This cloth feels rough.)

(c) この花はいいにおいがする。

Kono hana wa ii nioi ga suru.

(This flower smells good.)

- (d) 私は寒気がします。
Watashi wa samuke ga shimasu.
(I feel a chill.)

Note

If s.t. is perceived visually, either the ~ *o shite iru* structure or the ~ *wa* ~ *ga* structure is used.
(⇒ *suru²*; ~ *wa* ~ *ga*)

- (1) このりんごはきれいな色をしている。
Kono ringo wa kireina iro o shite iru.
(This apple has a pretty color.)
- (2) このリンゴは色がきれいだ。
Kono ringo wa iro ga kireida.
(This apple has a pretty color.)

***suru⁴* する v. (Irr.)**

a verb that indicates how much s.t.
costs or a duration of time cost; lapse

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Quantity	
この 時計 <i>Kono tokei</i>	は <i>wa</i>	十万円 <i>jūman'en</i> する / します。 <i>suru / shimasu.</i> (This watch costs 100,000 yen.)

(B)

Subordinate Clause		Main Clause
あと <i>Ato</i>	一年 <i>ichinen</i>	したら <i>shitara</i> 大学 を出る / 出ます。 <i>daigaku o deru / demasu.</i> (In another year I'll graduate from college.)

Examples

- (a) A : それはどのぐらいしましたか。
Sore wa dono gurai shimashita ka.
 (About how much did it cost?)
- B : 二十五万円ぐらいしました。
Nijūgoman'en gurai shimashita.
 (It cost about 250,000 yen.)
- (b) もう少しすれば主人が帰ってまいります。
Mō sukoshi sureba shujin ga kaette mairimasu.
 (In a short time my husband will be here.)

Note

When *suru⁴* is used to mean 'lapse of time', it can only be used in a subordinate clause, as in KS(B) and Ex. (b). Therefore, the following sentence in which *suru⁴* is used in the main clause is ungrammatical.

- (1) *三年しました。
**Sannen shimashita.*
 Cp. 三年たちました。
Sannen tachimashita.
 (Three years passed.)

suru to すると conj.

a coordinate conjunction which connects two sentences (The second sentence either describes an event which takes place right after the event described in the first sentence or it expresses a logical guess related to the event in the first sentence.)

thereupon ~; then ~; and ~
 【REL. *sore de wa*; *sō suru to*】



◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Sentence ₁	Sentence ₂	
ジョギングを始めました。 <i>Jogingu o hajimemashita.</i>	すると <i>Suru to</i>	ご飯がおいしくなりました。 <i>gohan ga oishiku narimashita.</i>
(I began jogging. Then, I began to have a good appetite.)		

(B)

A:		
今日は月曜日ですよ。 <i>Kyō wa getsuyōbi desu yo.</i>		
(Today is Monday, you know.)		
B:		
するとあのデパートは休みですね。 <i>Suru to ano depāto wa yasumi desu ne.</i>		
(Then, that department store is closed, isn't it?)		

Examples

- (a) 私は自転車を買いました。すると弟も欲しがりました。
Watashi wa jitensha o kaimashita. Suru to otōto mo hoshigarimashita.
(I bought a bike. Then, my younger brother wanted one, too.)
- (b) 頭が痛かったのでアスピリンを飲みました。すると痛みがすぐ止まりました。
Atama ga itakatta node asupirin o nomimashita. Suru to itami ga sugu tomarimashita.
(I took an aspirin because I had a headache. Then, the headache disappeared right away.)
- (c) A : 息子は今高校三年です。
Musuko wa ima kōkō sannen desu.
(My son is now a junior at high school.)
- B : すると、来年は大学受験ですね。
Suru to, rainen wa daigakujiken desu ne.
(Then, he is going to take a college entrance examination next year, isn't he?)



Note

To of *suru to* is the conjunction *to*⁴. (\Rightarrow **to⁴**) Therefore, in KS(A), Sentence₂ normally expresses an event that is beyond the control of the speaker; that is why Sentence₂ cannot be a command, a request, or a suggestion.

[Related Expressions]

I. *Suru to* is the shortened form of *sō suru to*. These two constructions have identical meanings and can be used interchangeably. They are related to another expression *sore de wa* ‘then’, but unlike *sore de wa*, the second sentence in the (*sō*) *suru to* construction cannot be a command, request, suggestion, or something which can be controlled by the subject of the sentence. (\Rightarrow **sore de wa**) Thus,

[1] A : 今日は忙しいです。

Kyō wa isogashiidesu.

(I'm busy today.)

B : それでは / *(そう)するとあした行きましょう。

Sore de wa / *(Sō) suru to ashita ikimashō.

(Then, let's go there tomorrow.)

[2] A : (=same as [1] A)

B : それでは / *(そう)するとあした来てください。

Sore de wa / *(Sō) suru to ashita kite kudasai.

(Then, please come tomorrow.)

[3] A : あなたが来ないと困るんです。

Anata ga konai to komaru n desu.

(It will be difficult if you don't come.)

B : それでは / *(そう)すると行きます。

Sore de wa / *(Sō) suru to ikimasu.

(Lit. Then, I'll go.)

II. *Sore de wa* ‘then’ can replace the *suru to* in KS(B) but not the *suru to* in KS(A), because *sore de wa* requires that the speakers of Sentence₁ and Sentence₂ be different.



-tachi 達 suf.

a plural marker attached to personal pronouns or to human (proper) nouns

【REL. -domo; -gata; -ra】

Formation(i) Personal Pronoun + 達
tachi

私達 (we)

watashitachi

あなた達 (you [pl.])

anatatachi

*彼達 (they [male])

karetachi

Cp. 彼等 (they [male])

karera

彼女達 (they [female])

kanojotachi

Cp. 彼女等 (they [female])

kanojora

(ii) Human Proper Noun + 達
tachi

山田さん達 (Mr. Yamada and others)

Yamada-san-tachi

(iii) Human Noun + 達
tachi

子供達 (children)

kodomotachi

男達 (men)

otokotachi

Note

Kanojo ‘she’ can take *-tachi*, but *kare* ‘he’ cannot.

[Related Expressions]

In addition to *-tachi* there are three other pluralizing suffixes: *-domo*, *-gata* and *-ra*. *-domo* is attached primarily to formal first person pronouns, yielding a humble ‘we’, as in:

[1] 私共は何も存じません。

Watashidomo wa nani mo zonjimasen.

(We don’t know anything about it.)

-domo can also be attached to a very limited number of human nouns such as *otoko* ‘man’ and *onna* ‘woman’, yielding the rather downgrading plurals *otokodomo* ‘men’ and *onnadomo* ‘women’, respectively. Although *kodomo* ‘child’ is *ko+domo*, it is no longer used as a plural. Instead *-tachi* is attached to it to generate the plural form, as in Formation (iii).

-gata is an honorific plural marker attached to the second person pronoun *anata* ‘you’ and a very limited number of nouns such as *o-kā-san* ‘mother’, *o-tō-san* ‘father’ and *sensei* ‘teacher’.

[2] a. あなた方はいついらっしゃいますか。

Anatagata wa itsu irasshaimasu ka.

(When are you going there?)

b. 先生方はいらっしゃらないそうです。

Senseigata wa irassharanai sōdesu.

(I was told that the teachers aren’t coming.)

The honorific plural form for *hito* ‘person’ is *katagata* (as in *kono katagata* ‘these people’) which is the plural form of *kata*.

-ra is the least formal plural marker and is normally attached to personal pronouns and names.

(1st Person)	僕等 <i>bokura</i>	わたし等 <i>watashira</i>	わし等 <i>washira</i>	*わたくし等 * <i>watakushira</i>
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(2nd Person)	君等 <i>kimira</i>	お前等 <i>omaera</i>	あんた等 <i>antara</i>	*あなた等 * <i>anatara</i>
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(3rd Person)	彼等 (male) <i>karera</i>	彼女等 (female) <i>kanojora</i>	それ等 (inanimate) <i>sorera</i>	
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田中等 (Tanaka and his company)

Tanaka-ra



tai たい aux. adj. (i)

{ an auxiliary adjective which expresses a desire to do s.t. }

want (to do s.t.); would like (to do s.t.)

【REL. *hoshii*¹; *hoshii*²】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)		Vmasu	
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	日本 へ <i>Nihon e</i>	行き <i>iki</i>
たい / たいです。 <i>tai / taidesu.</i> (I want to go to Japan.)			

(B)

Topic (subject)		Direct Object	Vmasu	
僕 <i>Boku</i>	は <i>wa</i>	今 <i>ima</i>	ピザ <i>piza</i>	を / が <i>o / ga</i>
食べ <i>tabe</i> たい / たいです。 <i>tai / taidesu.</i> (I want to eat pizza now.)				

(C)

Topic (subject)		Vmasu		
鈴木さん <i>Suzuki-san</i>	は <i>wa</i>	アメリカ へ <i>Amerika e</i>	行き <i>iki</i>	た <i>ta</i>
がって いる / います。 <i>gatte iru / imasu.</i> (Lit. Mr. Suzuki is showing signs of wanting to go to America. (=Mr. Suzuki wants to go to America.))				

FormationVmasu *tai**tai*話す *tai* (want to talk)*hanashi tai*食べる *tai* (want to eat)*tabe tai***Examples**

(a) 僕は冷たいビールを / が飲みたい。

Boku wa tsumetai biru o / ga nomitai.

(I want to drink cold beer.)



- (b) 今日は何を / が食べたいですか。
Kyō wa nani o / ga tabetaidesu ka.
 (What do you want to eat today?)
- (c) 三木さんは車を買いたがっている。
Miki-san wa kuruma o kaita gatte iru.
 (Mr. Miki wants to buy a car.)

Notes

1. *Tai* is an *i*-type auxiliary adjective which expresses a person's desire to do something. Since *Vmasu tai* expresses a very personal feeling, it is usually used only for the first person in declarative sentences and for the second person in interrogative sentences. For the third person, *Vmasu ta gatte iru* 'lit. is showing signs of wanting to do s.t.' is usually used, as in KS(C) and Ex. (c). (\Rightarrow *garu*) *Vmasu tai* with the third person subject is acceptable, however, in the following situations:

(1) *In the past tense*

和男はとても行きたかった。
Kazuo wa totemo ikitakatta.
 (Kazuo wanted to go very badly.)

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

- a. 一郎も行きたいと言っている。
Ichirō mo ikitai to itte iru.
 (Ichiro says he wants to go, too.)
- b. 利子は日本へ帰りたいそうだ。
Toshiko wa Nihon e kaeritai sōda.
 (I heard that Toshiko wants to go back to Japan.)

(3) *In explanatory situations*

野村さんはあなたと話したいんですよ。
Nomura-san wa anata to hanashi tai n desu yo.
 ((The explanation is that) Miss Nomura wants to talk with you.)

(\Rightarrow *no da*)

(4) *In conjecture expressions*

- a. 村山さんはのり子と踊りたいらしい。
Murayama-san wa Noriko to odoritai rashii.
 (It seems that Mr. Murayama wants to dance with Noriko.)
- b. 早田さんは早く家族に会いたそうだ。
Hayata-san wa hayaku kazoku ni aita sōda.
 (It looks like Mr. Hayata wants to see his family soon.)

2. In some situations, if the verb in *Vmasu tai* is a transitive verb, the direct object can be marked either by *ga* or by *o*, as seen in KS(B), Ex. (a) and Ex. (b). In general, the choice between *ga* and *o* seems to depend on the degree of desire. That is, when the desire to do something is high, *ga* is preferred; when it is low, *o* is used. Compare (4) and (5):

- (4) [Situation: The speaker has just run five miles.]

私は水が / ?を飲みたい。

Watashi wa mizu ga / ?o nomitai.

(I want to drink some water.)

- (5) [Situation: The speaker has been told by a doctor to drink as much water as possible. That is, he feels he has to drink water.]

私は水を / ?が飲みたいが...

Watashi wa mizu o / ?ga nomitai ga ...

(I want to drink water but (my stomach doesn't accept it anymore) ...)

Under the following conditions, *ga* cannot be used even if the degree of desire is high.

- (A) When a long element intervenes between the direct object and the verb:

- (6) 私は水を / *が出かける前に飲みたい。

*Watashi wa mizu o / *ga dekakeru mae ni nomitai.*

(I want to drink water before I leave home.)

- (B) When the main verb is in the passive form:

- (7) 私は先生にこの絵を / *がほめられたい。

*Watashi wa sensei ni kono e o / *ga homeraretai.*

(Lit. I want to have this picture praised by my teacher.)

- (C) When the preceding noun is not the direct object:

- (8) a. 私は早くこの電車を / *が降りたい。

*Watashi wa hayaku kono densha o / *ga oritai.*

(I want to get off this train soon.)

- b. 私は公園を / *が歩きたい。

*Watashi wa kōen o / *ga arukitai.*

(I want to walk through the park.)

($\Rightarrow o^2$; o^3)

3. In the construction *Vmasu ta gatte iru*, *ga* can never be used to mark the direct object.

- (9) 三木さんは車を / *が買いたがっている。
*Miki-san wa kuruma o / *ga kaita gatte iru.*
 (Mr. Miki wants to buy a car.)

4. Vmasu tai cannot be used to express an invitation. The following sentences are inappropriate in invitation situations.

- (10) a. 私と一緒に行きたいですか。
Watashi to isshoni iki tai desu ka.
 (Do you want to go with me?)
- b. あした食事に来たいですか。
Ashita shokujii ni kitai desu ka.
 (Would you like to come to dinner tomorrow?)

In these situations negative questions are used, as seen in (11).

(\Leftrightarrow mashō)

- (11) 私と一緒に行きませんか。
Watashi to isshoni ikimasen ka.
 (Wouldn't you like to go with me?)

【Related Expressions】

The idea of ‘want’ in English is expressed by either *tai*, *hoshii*¹ or *hoshii*². *Tai* is used when the experiencer wants to do something. *Hoshii*¹ is used when the experiencer wants something. *Hoshii*² is used when the experiencer wants someone to do something. (\Leftrightarrow *hoshii*¹; *hoshii*²)



tamaranai たまらない phr.

The speaker or whomever he empathizes with cannot cope with a situation expressed by the -te phrase.

unbearably ~; extremely; be dying to do ~
 【REL. *shikata ga nai*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

	Adj (<i>i</i>) stem		
今日は <i>Kyō wa</i>	暑 <i>atsu</i>	くて <i>kute</i>	たまらない / たまりません。 <i>tamaranai / tamarimasen.</i>
(It is unbearably hot today.)			

(B)

	Adj (<i>na</i>) stem		
数学が <i>Sūgaku ga</i>	嫌い <i>kirai</i>	で <i>de</i>	たまらない / たまりません。 <i>tamaranai / tamarimasen.</i>
(I really hate math.)			

Formation

KS(A):

Adj (*i*) stem くて たまらない
kute tamaranai

寒くて たまらない (s.t. is unbearably cold)
samukute tamaranai

KS(B):

Adj (*na*) stem で たまらない
de tamaranai

不便で たまらない (s.t. is unbearably inconvenient)
fubende tamaranai

Examples

(a) この本はおもしろくてたまりません。
Kono hon wa omoshirokute tamarimasen.
 (This book is extremely interesting.)

(b) 父が死んで、悲しくてたまりません。
Chichi ga shinde, kanashikute tamarimasen.
 (My father died and I'm awfully sad.)

(c) おいしい魚が食べたくてたまりません。
Oishii sakana ga tabetakute tamarimasen.
 (I'm dying to eat some good fish.)



(d) 僕はあの子が好きでたまらない。

Boku wa ano ko ga sukide tamaranai.

(I just love that girl.)

(e) 兄は田中先生の授業が嫌でたまらなかった。

Ani wa Tanaka-sensei no jugyō ga iyade tamaranakatta.

(My older brother really hated Mr. Tanaka's class.)

Notes

1. *~te / de tamaranai* is an idiomatic phrase used to express the fact that some situation is unbearable in the extreme for the speaker or someone with whom he empathizes.
2. The adjectives used before *te / de* refer to human feelings.
3. There is no affirmative counterpart of this construction, **~te / de tamari*.

[Related Expression]

~te tamaranai (lit. ~ and I can't stand it) can be replaced by *te shikata ga nai* (lit. ~ and I don't know what to do about it). The only difference is that the former is more emotive than the latter. But when *shikata ga nai* is directly preceded by *Vte mo*, it cannot be replaced by *tamara nai*, as shown in [1].

[1] そんな本は読んでも仕方がない / *読んでたまらない。

*Sonna hon wa yonde mo shikata ga nai / *yonde tamaranai.*
(There is no use reading that sort of book.)

tame (ni) ため (に) n.

a noun that indicates a benefit, a purpose, a reason or a cause

on account of ~ ; for the benefit of ~ ; for the good of ~ ; for the sake of ~ ; on behalf of ~ ; for the purpose of ~ ; in order to ~ ; because of ~ ; owing to ~
[REL. *kara*³; *ni*⁵; *node*; *noni*²]



◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Noun			
学生 は Gakusei wa	試験 <i>shiken</i>	の <i>no</i>	ため に <i>tame ni</i>	勉強する / 勉強します。 <i>benkyōsuru / benkyōshimasu.</i>
(Students study in preparation for exams. / Students study because there are exams.)				

(B)

Subordinate Clause (purpose)	Vinf. nonpast	Main Clause
私 は 日本 の ことを <i>Watashi wa Nihon no koto o</i>	知る <i>shiru</i>	ため (に) <i>tame (ni)</i>
日本 へ 行く / 行きます。 <i>Nihon e iku / ikimasu.</i>		
(I'll go to Japan (in order) to learn about Japan.)		

(C)

Subordinate Clause (reason / cause)	Vinf	Main Clause
今 年 は 雪 が あま り <i>Kotoshi wa yuki ga amari</i>	降 ら ない <i>furanai</i>	ため (に) <i>tame (ni)</i>
スキー が 出 来 な い / <i>suki ga dekinai /</i> 出 来 ま せ ん。 <i>dekimasen.</i>		
(Because it hasn't snowed (lit. doesn't snow) very much this year, we can't ski.)		

(D)

Noun			Noun Phrase	
外 国 人 <i>Gaikokujin</i>	の <i>no</i>	ため の <i>tame no</i>	い い 辞 書 <i>ii jisho</i>	が な い / あ り ま せ ん。 <i>ga nai / arimasen.</i>
(There aren't (any) good dictionaries for foreigners.)				

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf ため に
tame ni

{話す / 話した} ため に (in order to talk / because s.o. talks /
hanasu / hanashita) *tame ni* talked)

{食べる / 食べた} ため に (in order to eat / because s.o. eats / ate)
taberu / tabeta *tame ni*

{高い / 高かった} ため に (because s.t. is / was high)
takai / takakatta *tame ni*

(ii) Adj (na) stem {な / だった} ため に
{na / datta} tame ni

{静かな / 静かだった} ため に (because s.t. is / was quiet)
shizukana / shizukadatta *tame ni*

(iii) N {の / だった} ため に
{no / datta} tame ni

{先生 の / 先生 だった} ため に (for the sake of the teacher / because
of the teacher / because s.o. is / was
a teacher)
{sensei no / sensei datta} *tame ni*

(iv) Demonstrative Adj ため に
tame ni

{この / その} ため に (for the sake of this / that, because of this /
{kono / sono} *tame ni* that)

Examples

(a) 日本人は会社のためによく働きます。

Nihonjin wa kaisha no tame ni yoku hatarakimasu.

(The Japanese work hard for the sake of their company.)

(b) 雪のため(に)学校が休みになった。

Yuki no tame (ni) gakkō ga yasumi ni natta.

(The school was closed because of the snow.)

(c) ジャクソンさんは研究のため(に)ドイツに行った。

Jakuson-san wa kenkyū no tame (ni) Doitsu ni itta.

(Mr. Jackson went to Germany for the purpose of research.)

(d) 私は父が死んだため(に)大学に行けなかった。

Watashi wa chichi ga shinda tame (ni) daigaku ni ikenakatta.

(I couldn't go to college because my father died.)



- (e) 体を強くするため(に)毎日プールで泳いでいる。
Karada o tsuyoku suru tame (ni) mainichi pūru de oyoide iru.
(I'm swimming every day in the pool in order to strengthen my body.)
- (f) 親が甘かったため(に)子供がだめになった。
Oya ga amakatta tame (ni) kodomo ga dameni natta.
(Because the parents were soft, the children got spoiled.)
- (g) 字が下手なため(に)人に笑われた。
Ji ga hetana tame (ni) hito ni warawareta.
(I was laughed at because my handwriting is so poor.)
- (h) フランスに行ったのは香水を買うためだ。
Furansu ni itta no wa kōsui o kau tame da.
(Lit. It was for the purpose of buying perfume that I went to France.
(=I went to France to buy perfume.))

Notes

1. *Tame ni* expresses cause or reason when it is preceded by an *Adj(i)* or an *Adj(na)*, as in Exs. (f) and (g), or when the main clause describes a noncontrollable situation and / or when the *tame ni* clause is in the past tense, as in Ex. (d). In these cases, it never expresses purpose. Consider the additional examples in (1).

- (1) a. 仕事のために何もほかの事が出来ない。
Shigoto no tame ni nani mo hoka no koto ga dekinai.
(Because of the job I can't do anything else.)
- b. 会社のために朝から晩まで働いている。
Kaisha no tame ni asa kara ban made hataraite iru.
(He's working from morning till night for the sake of his company.)

(1a) gets the *reason / cause* interpretation, because the main clause describes a noncontrollable situation, whereas (1b) gets the *purpose* interpretation, because the main clause describes a controllable situation.

2. The *ni* of *tame ni* can be dropped, as in Exs. (b), (c), (d), (e), (f) and (g), if a phrase(s) intervenes between the main verb and *tame ni*.

【Related Expressions】

- I. When *tame* is used to mean reason or cause, it can be replaced by *kara* or *node*. Thus, KS(C) and Ex. (d) can be rephrased as [1a] and [1b], respectively.

- [1] a. 今年は雪があまり降らないから / のでスキーが出来ない。
Kotoshi wa yuki ga amari furanai kara / node suki ga dekinai.
 (We cannot ski because it hasn't snowed very much this year.)
- b. 私は父が死んだから / ので大学に行けなかった。
Watashi wa chichi ga shinda kara / node daigaku ni ikenakatta.
 (I couldn't go to college because my father died.)

The difference between *tame* and other markers of reason / cause is that *tame* is more formal than the others and is seldom used in informal conversation. (⇒ *kara*³; *node*)

- II. When *tame* is used to mean purpose, it can be replaced by either Vinf-nonpast *noni* or Vmasu *ni* Vmotion. However, *tame ni* can be replaced by *noni* only when one does something *in the process of* achieving some goal. Thus, [3a] can be paraphrased as [3b] but [4a] cannot be paraphrased as [4b].

- [3] a. 漢字を調べるために辞書を使う。
Kanji o shiraberu tame ni jisho o tsukau.
 (In order to find out about *kanji* I use a dictionary.)
- b. 漢字を調べるのに辞書を使う。
Kanji o shiraberu noni jisho o tsukau.
 (In order to find out about *kanji* I use a dictionary.)
- [4] a. 体を強くするために毎日プールで泳いでいる。
Karada o tsuyoku suru tame ni mainichi pūru de oyoide iru.
 (I'm swimming every day in the pool in order to strengthen my body.)
- b. ??体を強くするために毎日プールで泳いでいる。
 ??*Karada o tsuyoku suru noni mainichi pūru de oyoide iru.*
 (I'm swimming every day in the pool in order to strengthen my body.)

Note also that *tame* can be replaced by Vmasu *ni* Vmotion only when *tame* is used with a Vmotion. The difference between *tame* and other markers of purpose is that *tame* is the most formal and least colloquial of the three.



~tara たら conj.

a subordinate conjunction which indicates that the action / state expressed by the main clause in a sentence takes place after the action / state expressed by the subordinate clause

if; when; after

【REL. *ba*; *nara*; *to⁴*; *toki*】

◆ Key Sentence

Subordinate Clause (antecedent)		Main Clause (subsequence)
Sentence (informal past)		
山田さん が 来た <i>Yamada-san ga kita</i>	ら <i>ra</i>	私 は 帰る / 帰ります。 <i>watashi wa kaeru / kaerimasu.</i>
(When / If Mr. Yamada comes, I'll go home.)		

Formation

{V / Adj (*i* / *na*) / N + Copula} inf·past ら
 ra

話したら (if / when s.o. talks / talked)
hanashitara

高かったたら (if s.t. is / were expensive)
takakattara

静かだったら (if s.t. is / were quiet)
shizukadattara

先生 だったら (if s.o. is / were a teacher)
sensei dattara



Examples

(a) 先生に聞いたらすぐ分かった。

Sensei ni kiitara sugu wakatta.

(When I asked my teacher, I understood it right away.)

(b) 私は大学を出たら小学校の先生になります。

Watashi wa daigaku o detara shōgakkō no sensei ni narimasu.

(I'll be an elementary school teacher after graduating from college.)

- (c) 私は忙しいですから、おもしろかったら読みますが、おもしろくなかったら読みませんよ。
Watashi wa isogashii desu kara, omoshirokattara yomimasu ga, omoshirokunakattara yomimasesen yo.
(I'm busy, so I'll read it if it's interesting, but I won't if it's not interesting.)
- (d) きらいだったら残してください。
Kiraidattara nokoshite kudasai.
(If you don't like it, please leave it.)
- (e) 英語だったら分かると思います。
Eigo dattara wakaru to omoimasu.
(I think I'll understand it if it's English.)

Notes

1. The meaning of S_1 *tara* S_2 varies depending on the contents of S_1 and S_2 and also on the situation in which this construction is used. However, S_1 always represents an antecedent and S_2 a consequence. For example, in KS, Mr. Yamada's coming precedes the speaker's returning home. Likewise, in Ex. (a), the speaker's asking his teacher precedes his understanding something. If this relation does not hold, this construction cannot be used. For example, (1) cannot be expressed by the *tara* construction because the event of S_1 , the speaker's going to Chicago, does not precede the event of S_2 , his going there by car.

- (1) When I go to Chicago, I usually go by car.

*私はシカゴへ行ったらたいてい車で行きます。

**Watashi wa Shikago e ittara taitei kuruma de ikimasu.*

(In this situation, *toki* is used. (\Rightarrow *toki*)) For the same reason, *tara* is ungrammatical in the situation in (2).

- (2) If you go to Chicago, go by bus.

*シカゴへ行ったらバスで行きなさい。

**Shikago e ittara basu de ikinasai.*

(In this case, *nara* is used. (\Rightarrow *nara*))



2. In S_1 *tara* S_2 , it is often the case that S_1 represents a condition and S_2 an event which occurs under that condition. Therefore, the whole sentence basically means 'when S_1 is satisfied, S_2 takes place' or ' S_1 brings about S_2 ', as in Exs. (c), (d) and (e).

3. As seen in KS, *tara* may mean ‘when’ in one case and ‘if’ in another. *Tara* means ‘when’ if S_1 is a certainty; if not, *tara* means ‘if’. Thus, in (3), *tara* means ‘when’.

(3) 十二時になつたら帰ります。

Jūniji ni nattara kaerimasu.

(When / *If it is twelve o'clock, I'll go home.)

Moshi before S_1 *tara* makes sentences unambiguous; it always means ‘if S_1 ’. Example:

(4) もし山田さんが来たら私は帰ります。

Moshi Yamada-san ga kitara watashi wa kaerimasu.

(If / *When Mr. Yamada comes, I'll go home.)

4. In S_1 *tara* S_2 , S_2 can be a command, a request, a suggestion, an invitation or a volitional sentence.

(5) 仕事が早く終わったら僕のうちに

Shigoto ga hayaku owattara boku no uchi ni

- | | |
|----|--|
| a. | 来なさい。
<i>kinasai.</i> |
| b. | 来てください。
<i>kite kudasai.</i> |
| c. | 来たらどうですか。
<i>kitara dō desu ka.</i> |
| d. | 来ませんか。
<i>kimasen ka.</i> |

(If you finish your work early,

- | | |
|----|---|
| a. | come to my place. |
| b. | please come to my place. |
| c. | why don't you come to my place? |
| d. | wouldn't you like to come to my place?) |

(6) 仕事が早く終わったらおうちにおうかがいします。

Shigoto ga hayaku owattara o-uchi ni o-ukagai shimasu.

(If I finish my work early, I'll visit your place.)

5. S_1 *tara* S_2 can also be used in counterfactual situations, as in (7).



- (7) a. お金があったらこんなうちにはいない。
O-kane ga attara konna uchi ni wa inai.
 (If I had money, I wouldn't be in such a house.)
- b.あの時お金があったら日本へ行っていたでしょう。
Ano toki o-kane ga attara Nihon e itte ita deshō.
 (If I had had money at that time, I would probably have gone to Japan.)
6. When S_2 in “ $S_1 tara S_2$ ” represents a past action, the action cannot be one intentionally taken by the agent after the action or event represented by S_1 . Thus, the (a) sentences in (8) and (9) are acceptable, but the (b) sentences are not.
- (8) a. 学校へ行ったら、ぐうぜん上田さんに会った。
Gakkō e ittara, gūzen Ueda-san ni atta.
 (When I went to school, I happened to see Mr. Ueda.)
- b. *学校へ行ったら、上田さんと話をした。
**Gakkō e ittara, Ueda-san to hanashi o shita.*
 (When I went to school, I talked with Mr. Ueda.)
- (9) a. お酒を飲んだら寝てしまった。
O-sake o nondara nete shimatta.
 (After I drank sake, I fell asleep.)
- b. *お酒を飲んだら寝た。
**O-sake o nondara neta.*
 (After I drank sake, I went to bed.)

[Related Expressions]

Ba, *nara* and *to⁴* have similar functions but they are different from *tara* in the following ways:

- I. In $S_1 tara S_2$, if the event in S_1 precedes the event in S_2 , those events can be past events. This is also the case with $S_1 to^4 S_2$, but not with $S_1 ba S_2$ and $S_1 nara S_2$, as in [1].

- [1] a. 先生に聞いたら / 聞くと / *聞けば / *聞いた(の)ならすぐ分かった。
*Sensei ni kiitara / kiku to / *kikeba / *kiita (no) nara suga wakatta.*
 (When I asked my teacher, I understood it immediately.)



- b. キャシーのアパートに行ったら / 行くと / *行けば / *行った(の)ならアンディーがいた。
*Kyashi no apāto ni ittara / iku to / *ikeba / *itta (no) nara Andi ga ita.*
 (When I went to Cathy's apartment, Andy was there.)

II. As stated in Note 4, S_2 in $S_1 tara S_2$ can be a command, a request, a suggestion, an invitation or a volitional sentence. This is also the case with S_2 in $S_1 ba S_2$ and $S_1 nara S_2$ but not with S_2 in $S_1 to S_2$. Example:

- [2] 安かったら / 安ければ / 安い(の)なら / *安いと買いなさい。
*Yasukattara / Yasukereba / Yasui (no) nara / *Yasui to kainasai.*
 (Buy it, if it's cheap.)

III. Although S_2 in $S_1 tara S_2$, $S_1 ba S_2$ and $S_1 nara S_2$ can be a command, a request, a suggestion, an invitation or a volitional sentence, the meanings are not exactly the same. The following examples show the differences clearly.

- [3] a. ベンが来たら, 私は帰ります。
Ben ga kitara, watashi wa kaerimasu.
 (When / If Ben comes, I'll go home.)
- b. ベンがくれば, 私は帰ります。
Ben ga kureba, watashi wa kaerimasu.
 (If Ben comes, I'll go home. (If not, I'll stay here.))
- c. ベンが来る(の)なら, 私は帰ります。
Ben ga kuru (no) nara, watashi wa kaerimasu.
 (If it is true that Ben is coming, I'll go home.)

As seen above, [3a] is ambiguous; it is not clear that Ben is coming. If Ben's coming is certain, [3a] indicates the time the speaker will leave. If Ben's coming is uncertain, [3a] indicates the condition under which the speaker will leave. In both cases, however, Ben's coming precedes the speaker's leaving. [3b] is similar to the second case of [3a] (i.e., the case in which Ben's coming is uncertain). However, [3b] focuses more on the condition. That is, [3b] implies something like 'the condition under which I go home is Ben's coming here'. In [3b] also, Ben's coming precedes the speaker's leaving. S_1 in [3c] also indicates the condition under which the speaker returns home. In this case, however, Ben's coming does not necessarily precede the speaker's leaving.



because the condition under which the speaker goes home is that Ben's coming is true, not that Ben comes (to a certain place).

- IV. As stated in Note 5, S_1 *tara* S_2 can be used in counterfactual situations, and so can S_1 *ba* S_2 and S_1 *nara* S_2 . However, S_1 *to* S_2 cannot be used in such situations except for the idiomatic expression S *to ii* / *yokatta* 'It would be good / It would have been good if S'. Example:

[4] あの時お金があつたら / あれば / あつたなら / *あると日本に行っていただろう。
*Ano toki o-kane ga attara / areba / atta nara / *aru to Nihon ni itte ita darō.*

(If I had had money at that time, I would have gone to Japan.)

~tara dō desu ka ~たらどうですか phr.

a phrase which expresses a suggestion (Lit. How would you feel if you do s.t.?)	Why don't you do ~?; What about doing ~? 【REL. <i>hō ga ii</i> 】
---	---

◆Key Sentence

	Vinf·past		
もっと 日本 の 本 を <i>Motto Nihon no hon o</i>	読んだ <i>yonda</i>	ら <i>ra</i>	どう です か。 <i>dō desu ka.</i>
(Why don't you read more Japanese books?)			

Formation

Vinf·past ら どう ですか。
ra dō desu ka.

話した ら どう ですか。 (Why don't you talk ~?)
hanashita ra dō desu ka.



458 ~tara dō desu ka / ~tari ~tari suru

食べたらどうですか。 (Why don't you eat ~?)
tabeta ra dō desu ka.

Examples

- (a) サラダも食べたらどうですか。
Sarada mo tabetara dō desu ka.
 (Why don't you eat salad, too?)
- (b) 山村先生に聞いたらどうですか。
Yamamura-sensei ni kiitara dō desu ka.
 (Why don't you ask Prof. Yamamura?)

Notes

1. Vinf·past *ra dō desu ka* is an idiomatic phrase derived from the “S₁ tara S₂” construction and expressing a suggestion. (⇒ ~**tara**)
2. The informal version is Vinf·past *ra dō?* More polite versions are Vinf·past *ra dō deshō (ka)*, Vinf·past *ra ikaga desu ka* and Vinf·past *ra ikaga deshō (ka)*. (⇒ **dārō**)

【Related Expression】

Hō ga ii also expresses suggestion, but this phrase is close to a command (especially when it is preceded by Vinf·past), and, therefore, is stronger than *tara dō desu ka*.

~tari ~tari suru ～たり～たりする phr.

a phrase which expresses an inexhaustive listing of actions or states

do things like ~ and ~ ; sometimes ~ and sometimes ~

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (subject)	Vinf·past		Vinf·past		
私達 <i>Watashitachi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	歌った <i>utatta</i>	り <i>ri</i>	踊った <i>odotta</i>	り <i>ri</i>
(We did things like singing and dancing.)					

(B)

Topic (subject)		{Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} inf·past		{Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} inf·past
この レストラン の ステーキ <i>Kono resutoran no sutēki</i>	は wa	大きかった <i>ōkikatta</i>	り ri	小さかった <i>chisakatta</i>
り ri	する / します。 <i>suru / shimasu.</i>			
(Steaks at this restaurant are sometimes big and sometimes small.)				

(C)

A :					
毎日 テープ を 聞いて います か。 <i>Mainichi tēpu o kiite imasu ka.</i>					
(Are you listening to tapes every day?)					
B :	{V / Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} inf·past		{V / Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} inf·past		
いいえ, <i>Ie,</i>	聞いた <i>kiita</i>	り ri	聞かなかつた <i>kikanakatta</i>	り ri	です。 <i>desu.</i>
(Lit. No, I listen at one time and don't listen at another (=only off and on).)					

Formation

{V / Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} inf·past り (する)
ri (suru)

話したり (する) (s.o. (does) things like talking)
hanashitari (suru)

高かったり (する) (s.t. is sometimes expensive)
takakattari (suru)

静かだったり (する) (s.t. is sometimes quiet)
shizukadattari (suru)

先生 だったり (する) (s.o. is sometimes a teacher)
sensei dattari (suru)



Examples

- (a) 私はニューヨークでミュージカルを見たりコンサートを聞いたりした。
Watashi wa Nyūyōku de myūjikaru o mitari konsāto o kiitari shita.
 (In New York I did things like seeing musicals and listening to concerts.)
- (b) トムは来たり来なかつたりする。
Tomu wa kitari konakattari suru.
 (Lit. Tom comes at one time and doesn't at another time. (=Tom doesn't always come.))
- (c) あしたは雨が降ったりやんだりするでしょう。
Ashita wa ame ga futtari yandari suru deshō.
 (It will probably rain off and on tomorrow.)
- (d) この店の魚は新しかつたり古かつたりする。
Kono mise no sakana wa atarashikattari furukattari suru.
 (This shop's fish is sometimes fresh and sometimes old.)
- (e) 日本語の先生は日本人だったりアメリカ人だったりします。
Nihongo no sensei wa nihonjin dattari amerikajin dattari shimasu.
 (Teachers of Japanese are sometimes Japanese and sometimes American.)
- (f) 石川さんは来たり来なかつたりであてにならない。
Ishikawa-san wa kitari konakattari de ate ni naranai.
 (Mr. Ishikawa doesn't come regularly and we can't count on him.)

Notes

1. The “X *tari* Y *tari suru*” construction generally expresses an *inexhaustive listing of actions or states*. “Inexhaustive” means that in a given situation there may be additional, unstated actions or states. (The *exhaustive listing of actions or states* is expressed by the *te-form*. (⇒ -*te*))
 (Cp. *to*¹; *ya*)
2. *Suru* usually follows “X *tari* Y *tari*” regardless of the part of speech of X and Y, and expresses the tense, the aspect (e.g., progressive, perfect) and the formality level of the sentence.
3. This construction usually lists two actions or two states, but it can list more than two actions or two states, as in (1).



- (1) 本を読んだり、映画を見たり、テープを聞いたりして日本語を勉強している。

Hon o yondari, eiga o mitari, tēpu o kiitari shite nihongo o benkyōshite iru.

(I'm studying Japanese by doing things like reading books, seeing movies and listening to tapes.)

Sometimes only one action or state is listed in this construction, as in (2).

- (2) 新聞を読んだりして友達が来るのを待っていた。

Shinbun o yondari shite tomodachi ga kuru no o matte ita.

(I was waiting for my friend to come, doing things like reading a newspaper.)

4. If “X *tari* Y *tari suru*” is not the final segment of a sentence and the predicate is an adjective, *suru* may be omitted, as in (3).

- (3) 歌ったり踊ったり(して)とても楽しかった。

Utattari odottari (shite) totemo tanoshikatta.

(We did things like singing and dancing, and it was a lot of fun.)

If the predicate is a verb, however, *suru* cannot be omitted as in (4).

- (4) *私達はテニスをしたり泳いだりして / *ø 遊んだ。

**Watashitachi wa tenisu o shitari oyoidari shite / *ø asonda.*

(Lit. We played doing things like playing tennis and swimming.)

5. As seen in KS(C) and Ex. (f), a slightly different pattern, X *tari* Y *tari da*, is also used in some situations. This pattern is used when a speaker describes someone's or something's inconstant state.



-tatte たって conj.

even if s.o. did s.t. or s.t. were in
some state (the desired result would
not come about) or even if s.o. or
s.t. is in some state

even if ~
【REL. *te mo*】

◆Key Sentences

(A)

Topic (indirect object)	Vinf·past		
あの 人 <i>Ano hito</i>	に は <i>ni wa</i>	話し たって <i>hanashitatte</i>	分から ない / 分かり ま せん。 <i>wakaranai / wakarimasen.</i>
(Even if I tell him that, he won't understand it.)			

(B)

Topic (subject)		Adj (i) stem		
僕 <i>Boku</i>	は <i>wa</i>	そ の 切 符 を <i>sono kippu o</i>	高 く <i>takaku</i>	た って <i>tatte</i>
(I will buy the ticket even if it is expensive.)				

Formation

(i) Vinf·past って
*tte*話したって (even if s.o. talks / talked)
*hanashitatte*食べたって (even if s.o. eats / ate)
tabetatte(ii) Adj (i) stem くたって
*kutatte*高くたって (even if s.t. is / were expensive)
takakutatte(iii) {Adj (na) stem / N} だっ(たっ)て
*dat(tat)te*静かだっ(たっ)て (even if s.t. is / were quiet)
*shizukadat(tat)te*先生 だっ(たっ)て (even if s.o. is / were a teacher)
sensei dat(tat)te

Examples

(a) お 金 が あ つ た て 車 は 買 い た く な い。

O-kane ga attatte kuruma wa kaitakunai.

(Even if I had money, I wouldn't want to buy a car.)

- (b) 本を買ったって、忙しくて読めない。
Hon o kattatte, isogashikute yomenai.
 (Even if I buy books, I'm too busy to read them.)
- (c) きたなくたってかまいません。
Kitanakutatte kamaimasen.
 (I don't care even if it is dirty.)
- (d) 遠くて不便だってマイ・ホームならかまいません。
Tōkute fubendatte mai hōmu nara kamaimasen.
 (Even if it is far away and inconvenient, it doesn't matter if it is 'my home'.)
- (e) どんなにいい先生だって時々間違います。
Donna ni ii sensei datte tokidoki machigaimasu.
 (No matter how good a teacher may be, he sometimes makes mistakes.)

Notes

- tatte is used strictly in informal spoken Japanese, and is used to indicate something counter to fact. However, the counterfactual (or subjunctive) nature of this construction is not very strong. See Ex. (a).
- tatte can take *donna ni* (as in Ex. (e)) meaning 'no matter how'. More examples follow.
 - どんなに考えたって分からないよ。
Donna ni kangaetatte wakaranai yo.
 (No matter how hard you think, you won't understand it.)
 - どんなに寒くたって大丈夫です。
Donna ni samukutatte daijōbudesu.
 (No matter how cold it is, it's all right.)

[Related Expression]

-tatte can be replaced by *te mo*. The difference is that *te mo* can be used in spoken and written language and that it is less emotive than -tatte. Thus, if Ex. (a) is replaced by the following sentence, the counterfactuality of having money is nullified, and the entire sentence sounds much less emotive.



- [1] お金があっても車は買いたくない。
O-kane ga atte mo kuruma wa kaitakunai.
 (Even if I have money, I don't want to buy a car.)

-te 形 te-form

the *te*-form ending of verbs and *i*-type adjectives (The *te*-form ending of *na*-type adjectives and the *te*-form of the copula is *de*.)

and; -ing

◆ Key Sentences

(1)	{V / Adj (<i>i</i> / <i>na</i>) / N + Copula} <i>te</i>	
	ジム は 日本 へ <i>Jimu wa Nihon e</i>	行って <i>itte</i>
(Jim went to Japan and studied (there).)		
(2)	ここ の ステーキ は <i>Kokono sutēki wa</i>	安くて <i>yasukute</i>
(Steaks here are inexpensive and delicious.)		
(3)	この アパート は <i>Kono apāto wa</i>	静かで <i>shizukade</i>
(This apartment is quiet and good.)		
(4)	私 の 父 は <i>Watashi no chichi wa</i>	先生 で <i>sensei de</i>
(My father is a teacher and teaches English at senior high school.)		

Formation**(i) Gr. 1 verbs:**

(a) *su*-verbs: 話す → 話して (s.o. talks and)
hanasu *hanashite*

(b) *ku*-verbs: 歩く → 歩いて (s.o. walks and)
aruku *aruite*

Exception: 行く → 行って (s.o. goes and)
iku *itte*

(c) *gu*-verbs: 泳ぐ → 泳いで (s.o. swims and)
oyogu *oyoide*



- | | | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| (d) <i>mu / bu / nu</i> -verbs: | <i>飲む</i> | → <i>飲んで</i> | (s.o. drinks s.t. and) |
| | <i>nomu</i> | <i>nonde</i> | |
| | <i>遊ぶ</i> | → <i>遊んで</i> | (s.o. plays and) |
| | <i>asobu</i> | <i>asonde</i> | |
| | <i>死ぬ</i> | → <i>死んで</i> | (s.o. dies and) |
| | <i>shinu</i> | <i>shinde</i> | |
| (e) <i>tsu / u / ru</i> -verbs: | <i>待つ</i> | → <i>待って</i> | (s.o. waits and) |
| | <i>matsu</i> | <i>matte</i> | |
| | <i>買う</i> | → <i>買って</i> | (s.o. buys s.t. and) |
| | <i>kau</i> | <i>katte</i> | |
| | <i>取る</i> | → <i>取って</i> | (s.o. takes s.t. and) |
| | <i>toru</i> | <i>totte</i> | |
| (ii) Gr. 2 Verbs: Vstem | て | | |
| | <i>te</i> | | |
| | <i>食べて</i> | (s.o. eats s.t. and) | |
| | <i>tabete</i> | | |
| (iii) Irr. Verbs: | <i>来る</i> | → <i>来て</i> | (s.o. comes and) |
| | <i>kuru</i> | <i>kite</i> | |
| | <i>する</i> | → <i>して</i> | (s.o. does s.t. and) |
| | <i>suru</i> | <i>shite</i> | |
| (iv) Adj (i): | Adj (i) stem | くて | |
| | | <i>kute</i> | |
| | <i>高くて</i> | (s.t. is expensive and) | |
| | <i>takakute</i> | | |
| (v) Adj (na): | Adj (na) stem | で | |
| | | <i>de</i> | |
| | <i>静かで</i> | (s.t. is quiet and) | |
| | <i>shizukade</i> | | |
| (vi) N+Copula: | N | で | |
| | | <i>de</i> | |
| | <i>先生</i> | で | (s.o. is a teacher and) |
| | <i>sensei</i> | <i>de</i> | |



Examples

- (a) 私はコートを脱いでハンガーにかけた。
Watashi wa kōto o nuide hangā ni kaketa.
 (Taking off my coat, I hung it on a hanger.)
- (b) ワインを飲みすぎて頭が痛い。
Wain o nomisugite atama ga itai.
 (I've drunk too much wine and have a headache.)
- (c) 私の部屋はせまくて暗い。
Watashi no heya wa semakute kurai.
 (My room is small and dark.)
- (d) このスープはからくて飲めない。
Kono sūpu wa karakute nomenai.
 (This soup is salty (or (spicy) hot) and I can't eat (lit. drink) it.)
- (e) 私はテニスが大好きでよく友達とする。
Watashi wa tenisu ga dai-sukide yoku tomodachi to suru.
 (I love tennis and often play with my friends.)
- (f) ゆみ子は今大学三年で専攻は日本文学です。
Yumiko wa ima daigaku sannen de senkō wa nihonbungaku desu.
 (Yumiko is a junior at college now and her major is Japanese literature.)
- (g) 伊藤先生は今週病気で、かわりに村田先生が教えた。
Itō-sensei wa konshū byōki de, kawari ni Murata-sensei ga oshietta.
 (Prof. Ito was ill this week and Prof. Murata taught for him.)

Notes

1. The *te*-form functions, in part, to link sentences. That is, if the last element of the predicate of a clause is the *te*-form, it means that that clause is not the end of the sentence and that another predicate or clause follows it. For example, in Ex. (b) the last element of the predicate of the first clause is *sugite*, the *te*-form of *sugiru* 'do s.t. too much', and *sugite* is followed by another clause *atama ga itai* 'lit. (my) head aches'.
2. The meaning of the *te*-form varies according to context, but generally, it corresponds to *and* or *-ing* in participial constructions.
3. When the *te*-form links two predicates, the relationship between the two is often one of the following:
 (A₁: the action or state expressed by the first predicate; A₂: the action or state expressed by the second predicate)



- (A) A₁ and A₂ occur sequentially, as in KS(1) and Ex. (a).
- (B) A₁ and A₂ are two states of someone or something, as in KS(2), KS(4), Exs. (c) and (f).
- (C) A₁ is the reason for or the cause of A₂, as in KS(3), Exs.(b), (d), (e) and (g). (This usage of the *te*-form is very common.)
- (D) A₁ is the means by which someone does A₂ or the manner in which someone does A₂. Examples:

(1) 僕は歩いて帰った。

Boku wa aruite kaetta.

(Lit. I walked and went home. (=I went home on foot.))

(2) 健二は急いでご飯を食べた。

Kenji wa isoide gohan o tabeta.

(Lit. Kenji hurried and ate his meal. (=Kenji ate his meal in a hurry.))

- (E) A₁ is contrasted with A₂. Example:

(3) 男は外で働いて、女はうちに働く。

Otoko wa soto de hatarakte, onna wa uchi de hataraku.

(Lit. Men work outside and women work inside.)

- (F) A₂ is unexpected in terms of A₁. Example:

(4) トムはいつも遊んでいてテストが出来る。

Tomu wa itsumo asonde ite tesuto ga dekiru.

(Tom plays around, yet he always does well on tests.)

- 4. The *te*-form can be repeated more than once in a clause. Just like the particle *to*¹ makes an exhaustive listing of nouns, the *te*-form can list verbs and adjectives exhaustively. (Cp. ~ *tari* ~ *tari suru*; *ya*) Example:

(5) エミーは美しくて明るくて人に親切だ。

Emi wa utsukushikute akarukute hito ni shinsetsuda.

(Amy is pretty, cheerful and kind to people.)



- 5. *Te*-form verbs are also used with such expressions as *iru*² 'be doing ~', *kara* 'after' and *wa ikenai* 'must not do ~'. (⇒ Appendix 4, Connection forms of important expressions, F. V_{te}+____)

te mo ても conj.

Te mo is used when that which is expressed in the main clause is not what is expected from the content of the dependent (*te mo*) clause.

even if; although

【REL. *keredo*; *noni*¹; -**tatte**】**◆ Key Sentences**

(A)

Topic (subject)		V _{te}			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	雨が <i>ame ga</i>	降って futte	も <i>mo</i>	行く / 行きます。 <i>iku / ikimasu.</i>
(I'll go there even if it rains.)					

(B)

Topic (subject)	Adj (i / na)te			
私 <i>Watashi</i>	は <i>wa</i>	寒くて <i>samukute</i>	も <i>mo</i>	出かける / 出かけます。 <i>dekakeru / dekakemasu.</i>
(I'll go out even if it is cold.)				

(C)

	Noun			
僕が <i>Boku ga</i>	トム <i>Tomu</i>	でも <i>de mo</i>	同じことをしただろう / でしょう。 <i>onaji koto o shita darō / deshō.</i>	
(Even if I were Tom, I would probably have done the same thing.)				

Formation(i) {V / Adj (i / na)} te も
mo話して も (even if s.o. talks)
*hanashite mo*食べて も (even if s.o. eats)
*tabete mo*高くて も (even if s.t. is expensive)
takakute mo

静かで も (even if s.t. is quiet)

shizukade mo

(ii) N で も

de mo

先生 で も (even if s.o. is a teacher)

sensei de mo

Examples

(a) 中山さんは本を買っても読みません。

Nakayama-san wa hon o katte mo yomimasen.

(Mr. Nakayama doesn't read books even if he buys them.)

(b) 私は四時間歩いても疲れなかった。

Watashi wa yojikan aruite mo tsukarenakatta.

(I didn't get tired although I walked for four hours.)

(c) 何を食べてもおいしいです。

Nani o tabete mo oishiidesu.

(No matter what I eat, it tastes good.)

(d) だれに聞いても分からなかった。

Dare ni kiite mo wakaranakatta.

(No matter who I asked, I couldn't get the answer.)

(e) A : たばこをすってもいいですか。

Tabako o sutte mo iidesu ka.

(Lit. Is it all right even if I smoke? (= May I smoke?))

B : はい、いいです。

Hai, iidesu.

(Yes, you may.)

(f) どんなに日本語が難しくてもやってみます。

Donna ni nihongo ga muzukashikute mo yatte mimasu.

(No matter how difficult Japanese may be, I will try it.)

(g) どんなに丈夫でも体には気をつけた方がいい。

Donna ni jōbude mo karada ni wa ki o tsuketa hō ga ii.

(No matter how healthy you are, you'd better take good care of yourself.)

(h) 井上さんが先輩でも僕ははっきり言うつもりだ。

Inoue-san ga senpai de mo boku wa hakkiri iu tsumori da.

(I intend to speak straightforwardly, even if Mr. Inoue is my senior.)



Notes

1. The basic meaning of *te mo* is the same as the English phrase ‘even if ~’.
2. ~*te mo iidesu ka* as in Ex. (e) is an idiomatic expression used to request permission to do s.t. If the answer is in the affirmative, it is “*Hai, iidesu.*” (Yes, you may.) If it is in the negative, it is “*Ie, ikemasen.*” (No, you may not.)
3. WH-word ~ *te mo* means ‘no matter WH-’, as in Exs. (c), (d), (f), and (g). Typical usages are listed below:

だれに 話して も (no matter who s.o. talks to)
dare ni hanashite mo

何を 話して も (no matter what s.o. talks about)
nani o hanashite mo

どこで 話して も (no matter where s.o. talks)
doko de hanashite mo

いつ 話して も (no matter when s.o. talks)
itsu hanashite mo

どう 話して も (no matter how s.o. talks)
dō hanashite mo

どんなに 話して も (no matter how much s.o. talks)
donna ni hanashite mo

【Related Expressions】

Te mo is comparable but not identical to *keredo* ‘although’ and *noni* ‘in spite of the fact that’. The semantic difference is exactly that of English ‘even if’ vs. ‘although’. (⇒ *keredo*; *noni*) Thus,

- [1] 中山さんは本を買っても / 買うけれど / 買うのに読みません。
Nakayama-san wa hon o katta mo / kau keredo / kau noni yomimasen.
 (Mr. Nakayama doesn’t read books even if / although he buys them.)

However, if *te mo* is used with a WH-word, it cannot be replaced by *keredo* or *noni*.

- [2] 何を食べても / *食べるけれど / *食べるのにおいしいです。
*Nani o tabete mo / *taberu keredo / *taberu noni oishiidesu.*
 (No matter what I eat, it tastes good.)

~te mo ii ~てもいい phr.

a phrase which expresses permission
or concession

may; It is all right if
(ANT. ~ wa ikenai)

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

A:	V _{te}			B:
ここ で たばこ を <i>Koko de tabako o</i>	吸って <i>sutte</i>	も <i>mo</i>	いいですか。 <i>iidesu ka.</i>	はい, いいです。 <i>Hai, iidesu.</i>
(May I smoke here?)				(Yes, you may.)

(B)

{Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} te		
高くて <i>Takakute</i>	も <i>mo</i>	いい / いいです。 <i>ii / iidesu.</i>
(It is all right if it's expensive.)		
学生 で <i>Gakusei de</i>	も <i>mo</i>	いい / いいです。 <i>ii / iidesu.</i>
(It is all right if you are a student.)		

Formation

{V / Adj (i / na) / N + Copula} te も いい
mo ii

話して も いい (may talk; It is all right if s.o. talks.)
hanashite mo ii



高くて も いい (It is all right if s.t. is expensive.)
takakute mo ii

静かで も いい (It is all right if s.t. is quiet.)
shizukade mo ii

先生 で も いい (It is all right if s.o. is a teacher.)
sensei de mo ii

Examples

(a) このいすを使ってもいいですか。

Kono isu o tsukatte mo iidesu ka.

(May I use this chair?)

(b) 今日の宿題は作文です。短くてもいいですがおもしろいのを書いてください。

Kyō no shukudai wa sakubun desu. Mijikakute mo iidesu ga omoshiroi no o kaite kudasai.

(Today's homework assignment is a composition. It is all right if it's short, but please write an interesting one.)

(c) A : テニスをしませんか。

Tenisu o shimasen ka.

(Wouldn't you like to play tennis?)

B : 下手でもいいですか。

Hetade mo iidesu ka.

(Is it all right if I'm poor at it?)

(d) A : 何か冷たいものを飲みたいんですが。

Nanika tsumetai mono o nomitai n desu ga.

(I want to drink something cold.)

B : ビールでもいいですか。

Biru de mo iidesu ka.

(Will beer do?)

Notes

- When *te mo ii* is preceded by a verb, it means permission.
 - ~nakute *mo ii*, the negative *te*-form with *mo ii*, means 'It is all right if ~ not ~' or 'do not have to do ~'. (Cp. ~nakereba narai)
- Examples:

(1) 私はその試験を受けなくてもいい。

Watashi wa sono shiken o ukenakute mo ii.

(I don't have to take the exam.)

(2) 新しくなくてもいいです。

Atarashikunakute mo iidesu.

(It is all right if it's not new (or fresh).)

(3) 学生じゃなくてもいいです。

Gakusei janakute mo iidesu.

(It is all right if you're not a student.)

3. Other expressions like *yoroshii*(*desu*), the polite form of *ii* ‘good, all right’, and *kamaimasen* ‘don’t mind’ can be used in place of *ii*(*desu*). The degrees of politeness in these expressions are as follows:



Examples:

- (5) あした休んでもよろしいですか。
Ashita yasunde mo yoroshiidesu ka.
(Would it be all right if I take a day off tomorrow?)

(6) たばこを吸ってもかまいませんか。
Tabako o sotte mo kamaimasen ka.
(Do you mind (lit. Don't you mind) if I smoke?)

Note that *kamau* ‘mind’ must be negated in this expression.

4. *Te mo ii* sometimes appears with WH-words like *nani* ‘what’ and *ikura* ‘how much’. In this case, the expression means ‘It is all right no matter what / who / how much / etc. ~’ or ‘It doesn’t matter what / who / how much ~.’ (See *te mo*, Note 3.) Examples:

- (7) それはだれがしてもいいです。
Sore wa dare ga shite mo iidesu.
(It doesn't matter who does it.)

(8) いくら食べてもいいです。
Ikura tabete mo iidesu.
(It is all right no matter how much you eat.)



to¹ & *prt.*

a particle which lists things exhaustively

and
[REL. *n*/ (and); *to*²; *ya*]