

A DICTIONARY OF BASIC JAPANESE GRAMMAR

日本語基本文法辞典

Seiichi Makino
and
Michio Tsutsui

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Preface

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

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

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

Spring 1986

Seiichi Makino
Michio Tsutsui

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|----------|
| Preface | v |
| To the Reader..... | viii |
| List of Abbreviations | x |
| List of Symbols | xi |
| Grammatical Terms | 1 |
| Characteristics of Japanese Grammar | 16 |
| 1. Word Order | 16 |
| 2. Topic | 21 |
| 3. Ellipsis | 23 |
| 4. Personal Pronouns | 28 |
| 5. Passive | 33 |
| 6. Politeness and Formality | 36 |
| 7. Sentence-final Particles | 45 |
| 8. Sound Symbolisms— <i>giseigo</i> and <i>gitaigo</i> | 50 |
| 9. Viewpoint | 57 |
| • • • | |
| Main Entries | 61 ~ 573 |
| • • • | |
| Appendices | 575 |
| 1. Basic Conjugations | 576 |
| 2. Semantic Classification of Verbs and Adjectives | 582 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 3. Pairs of Intransitive and Transitive Verbs | 585 |
| 4. Connection Forms of Important Expressions | 589 |
| 5. <i>Ko-so-a-do</i> | 600 |
| 6. Numerals and Counters..... | 602 |
| 7. Compound Words | 608 |
| 8. Improving Reading Skill by Identifying an ‘Extended Sentential Unit’ | 612 |
| Grammar Index | 619 |
| English Index | 621 |
| Japanese Index | 626 |
| References | 632 |

To the Reader

This dictionary consists of the following parts:

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

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

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

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

List of Abbreviations

- Adj(*i*)=*i*-type adjective (e.g. *takai* ‘high, expensive’, *yasui* ‘inexpensive’)
- Adj(*na*)=*na*-type adjective (e.g. *genkida* ‘healthy’, *shizukada* ‘quiet’)
- Adv.=adverb
- Aff.=affirmative
- ANT.=antonym
- Aux.=auxiliary
- Conj.=conjunction
- Cop.=copula (=da / desu, datta / deshita)
- Fml.=formal (=des-, mas-)
- Gr.=Group
- Inf.=informal
- Irr.=Irregular (e.g. *kuru* ‘come’, *suru* ‘do’)
- KS=Key Sentence
- LSV=Location+Subject+Verb
- N=Noun
- Neg.=negative
- Nom.=nominalizer (=no and koto)
- NP=Noun Phrase
- Phr.=phrase
- Pl.=plural
- Pot.=potential
- Pref.=prefix (e.g. o-, go- ‘politeness markers’)
- Pro.=pronoun
- Prt.=particle
- REL.=Related Expression
- S=Sentence
- Sinf=Sentence that ends with an informal predicate (e.g. *Nihon ni iku* of *Nihon ni iku n desu* ‘It is that I am going to Japan.’)
- SLV=Subject+Location+Verb
- S.o.=someone
- S.t.=something
- SOV=Subject+Object+Verb
- SV=Subject+Verb
- Str.=structure

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

V=Verb

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

List of Symbols

⇒=See or refer to.

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

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

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

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

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

Grammatical Terms

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2 GRAMMATICAL TERMS

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

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

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

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

(I loaned money to my friend.)

(e) このコンピューターは高すぎる。

Kono konpyūtā wa takasugiru.

(This computer is too expensive.)

(f) ジョージはスポーツカーを欲しがっている。

Jōji wa supōtsukā o hoshigatte iru.

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

(g) あっ！ 雨が降って来た！

A! Ame ga futte kita!

(Gee! It's started to rain!)

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

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

(a) 僕は泳いだがスミスさんは泳がなかった。

Boku wa oyoida ga Sumisu-san wa oyoganakatta.

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

(b) 吉田さんは東京に行って鈴木さんに会った。

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

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

Contrastive Marker A particle which marks contrast. For example, when X is contrasted with Y, it is typically marked by the particle *wa*. X and Y usually appear in *S₁* and *S₂*, respectively in *S₁ ga S₂*, as shown in (a).

(a) ジョンは來たが、ビルは來なかつた。

Jon wa kita ga, Biru wa konakatta.

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

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

4 GRAMMATICAL TERMS

- (a) 走っていますが、ちっともやせません。
Hashitte imasu ga, chitto mo yasemasen.
(I'm running, but I haven't lost any weight at all.)

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

- (a) 山口先生は学生をよくほめる。
Yamaguchi-sensei wa gakusei o yoku homeru.
(Prof. Yamaguchi often praises his students.)
- (b) かおりは一郎をだました。
Kaori wa Ichirō o damashita.
(Kaori deceived Ichiro.)
- (c) 僕は本を書いた。
Boku wa hon o kaita.
(I wrote a book.)
- (d) 一郎はみどりにスカーフをやった。
Ichirō wa Midori ni sukāfu o yatta.
(Ichiro gave a scarf to Midori.)
- (e) 私はドアを開けておいた。
Watashi wa doa o akete oita.
(I kept the door open.)

Although direct objects are marked by the particle *o*, nouns or noun phrases marked by *o* are not always direct objects, as shown in (f) and (g). ($\Rightarrow o^2$; o^4)

- (f) 花子は一郎の大学入学を喜んだ。
Hanako wa Ichirō no daigakunyūgaku o yorokonda.
(Hanako was glad that Ichiro entered college.)
- (g) トムはその時公園を歩いていた。
Tomu wa sono toki kōen o aruite ita.
(At that time Tom was walking in the park.)

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

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

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

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

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

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

6 GRAMMATICAL TERMS

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

(a) A : どんな辞書が欲しいんですか。

Donna jisho ga hoshii n desu ka.

(What kind of dictionary do you want?)

B : 小さいのが欲しいんです。

Chisai no ga hoshii n desu.

(I want a small one.)

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

(Cp. Transitive Verb)

(a) 鈴木さんは走った。

Suzuki-san wa hashitta.

(Mr. Suzuki ran.)

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

(⇒ Appendix 3)

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

(Cp. *Na*-type Adjective)

(a) 高い本

takai hon

(an expensive book)

強い人

tsuyoi hito

(a strong person)

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

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

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

(a) 静かな家

shizukana ie

(a quiet house)

元気な人

genkina hito

(a healthy person)

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

(b) 健康は大事ですよ。

Kenkō wa daijidesu yo.

(Health is important, you know.)

Cp. 健康な人

kenkōna hito

(a healthy person)

ご親切は忘れません。

Go-shinsetsu wa wasuremasen.

(I'll never forget your kindness.)

Cp. 親切な人

shinsetsuna hito

(a kind person)

(c) この人は元気 / 学生 {だ / です / だった / でした / じゃない / じゃありません / じゃなかった / じゃありませんでした。}

Kono hito wa genki / gakusei {da / desu / datta / deshita / janai / jaarimasen / janakatta / jaarimasendeshita.}

(This person {is / was / isn't / wasn't} healthy / a student.)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Gr. 1 Verbs Vcond+る e.g. 話せる ‘can talk’
ru hanase-ru

Gr. 2 Verbs Vstem+られる e.g. 食べられる ‘can eat’
 rareru tabe-rareru

Vstem+れる e.g. 食べれる ‘can eat’
reru tabe-reru

| | | | |
|------------|-------------------|-------------------------|------------|
| Irr. Verbs | 来る <i>kuru</i> | 来られる <i>korareru</i> | ‘can come’ |
| | | 来れる <i>koreru</i> | |

| | |
|------|--------------|
| する | 出来る ‘can do’ |
| suru | dekiru |

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

- (a) 松本さんはよく映画を見る。

Matsumoto-san wa yoku eiga o miru.

(Mr. Matsumoto sees movies often.)

- (b) 私の家はスミスさんにより新しい。

Watashi no ie wa Sumisu-san no yori atarashii.

(My house is newer than Mr. Smith's.)

- (c) ジョンは日本語の学生です。

Jon wa nihongo no gakusei desu.

(John is a student of Japanese language.)

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

- (a) 私が読む / 読んだ新聞

watashi ga yomu / yonda shinbun

(the newspaper I read)

- (b) 大きい / 大きかった家

ōkii / ōkikatta ie

(a big house / a house which used to be big)

- (c) 立派な / 立派だった建物

rippana / rippadatta tatemono

(a magnificent building / a building which used to be magnificent)

- (d) おいしそうな / おいしそうだったケーキ

oishisōna / oishisōdatta kēki

(a delicious-looking cake / a cake which looked delicious)

10 GRAMMATICAL TERMS

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

(a) 知る ‘get to know’

shiru

死ぬ ‘die’

shinu

始まる ‘begin’

hajimaru

結婚する ‘get married’

kekkonsuru

やめる ‘stop s.t.’

yameru

似る ‘resemble’

niru

(b) 落とす ‘drop’

otosu

もぎる ‘pluck off’

mogiru

ける ‘kick’

keru

跳ぶ ‘jump’

tobu

打つ ‘hit’

utsu

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

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

(a) ある

aru

(exist (of inanimate things))

いる

iru

(exist (of animate things))

いる
iru
 (need)
 出来る
dekiru
 (can do)

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

(a) ジョンがりんごを食べた。

Jon ga ringo o tabeta.

(John ate an apple.)

(b) メアリーが先生にほめられた。

Meari ga sensei ni homerareta.

(Mary was praised by her teacher.)

(c) ナンシーはきれいだ。

Nanshi wa kireida.

(Nancy is pretty.)

(d) ドアが開いた。

Doa ga aita.

(The door opened.)

(e) 机が一つある。

Tsukue ga hitotsu aru.

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

(f) 空が青い。

Sora ga aoi.

(The sky is blue.)

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

12 GRAMMATICAL TERMS

(a) 中山さんは頭が痛かったので学校を休んだ。

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

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

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

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

(a) 私は車がある。

Watashi wa kuruma ga aru.

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

(b) 僕はお金がいる。

Boku wa o-kane ga iru.

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

(c) スミスさんは中国語が分かる。

Sumisu-san wa chūgokugo ga wakaru.

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

(d) 私はフランス語が少し出来る。

Watashi wa furansugo ga sukoshi dekiru.

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

(e) 木下さんは東京でお父さんに会った。

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

(Mr. Kinoshita met his father in Tokyo.)

(f) 私にはベルが聞こえなかった。

Watashi ni wa beru ga kikoenakatta.

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

(g) ここからは富士山が見えますよ。

Koko kara wa Fujisan ga miemasu yo.

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

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

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

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

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

(Cp. Yes-No Question)

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

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

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

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

- (b) きのうのパーティーには誰が来ましたか。

Kinō no pāti ni wa dare ga kimashita ka.

(Lit. To yesterday's party, who came there? (=Who came to yesterday's party?))

Cp. 誰がきのうのパーティーに来ましたか。

Dare ga kinō no pāti ni kimashita ka.

(Who came to yesterday's party?)

- (c) 日本では何をしましたか。

Nihon de wa nani o shimashita ka.

(Lit. In Japan what did you do? (=What did you do in Japan?))

Cp. 何を日本でしましたか。

Nani o nihon de shimashita ka.

(What did you do in Japan?)

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

- (a) A : 上田さんは来ましたか。

Ueda-san wa kimashita ka.

(Did Mr. Ueda come?)

B : はい， 来ました。

Hai, kimashita.

(Yes, he did.)

(b) A : 鈴木さんは学生ですか。

Suzuki-san wa gakusei desu ka.

(Is Mr. Suzuki a student?)

B : いいえ， そうじゃありません。

Ie, sō ja arimāsen.

(No, he isn't.)

Characteristics of Japanese Grammar

1. Word Order

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

| (1) | Subject (topic) | Location | Direct Object | Verb (transitive) |
|--|---|----------|---------------|-------------------|
| | スミスさん は 日本 で 日本語 を 勉強している。 Sumisu-san wa Nihon de nihongo o benkyōshite iru. | | | |
| (Mr. Smith is studying Japanese in Japan.) | | | | |

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

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

| (2) | Adjective | Noun |
|-------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| | 赤い <i>akai</i> | 車 <i>kuruma</i> |
| (a red car) | | |

| (3) | | Noun Phrase |
|--|--|--|
| | | Relative Clause |
| | | 父 が きのう 読んだ <i>chichi ga kinō yonda</i> |
| 本 <i>hon</i> (a book which my father read yesterday) | | |

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

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

Note: A subordinate clause precedes a main clause.

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

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

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

18 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

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

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

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

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

b. =(1) SOV

c. S Adj

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

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

d. X wa Y ga ~ ‘Speaking of X, Y ~’

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

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

e. *SV* (=Subject+Verb)

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

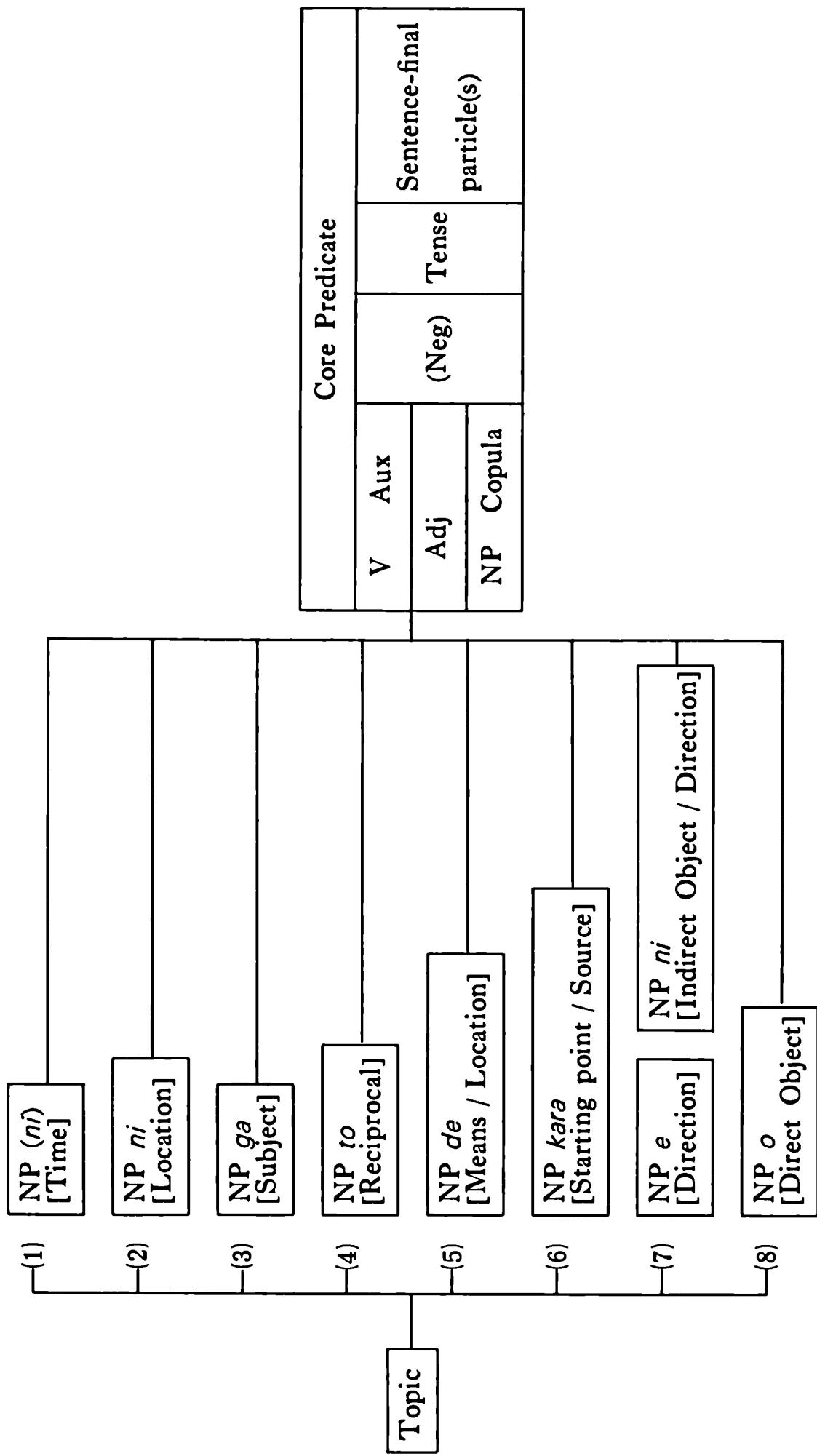
f. *LSV* (=Location+Subject+Verb)

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

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

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

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



2. Topic

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

- (1) 花子は学生です。

Hanako wa gakusei desu.

(Hanako is a student.)

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

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

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

- (2) a. 昔々、一人のおじいさんが住んでいました。おじいさんはとても貧乏でした。*(O-jī-san was mentioned previously.)*
Mukashimukashi. hitori no o-jī-san ga sunde imashita. O-jī-san wa totemo binbōdeshita.
 (Once upon a time, there lived an old man. The old man was very poor.)
- b. これは私のペンです。*(Kore is what the speaker and the hearer see.)*
Kore wa watashi no pen desu.
 (This is my pen.)
- c. 鈴木さんは日本人です。*(Suzuki-san is a proper noun.)*
Suzuki-san wa nihonjin desu.
 (Mr. Suzuki is Japanese.)
- d. くじらはほ乳動物です。*(Kujira is a generic noun.)*
Kujira wa honyūdōbutsu desu.
 (Whales are mammals.)

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

22 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

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

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

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

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

3. Ellipsis

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

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

(1) A : 太郎はその店で何を買いましたか。

Tarō wa sono mise de nani o kaimashita ka.

(What did Taro buy at the store?)

B : ペンを買いました。

Pen o kaimashita.

(He bought a pen.)

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

The following are some general rules of ellipsis in Japanese.

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

(2) A : 田中さんはむかえに来てくれましたか。

Tanaka-san wa mukae ni kite kuremashita ka.

(Did Mr. Tanaka come to pick you up?)

B : はい, 来てくれました。

Hai, kite kuremashita.

(Yes, he did.)

24 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

- (3) A : あなたはアメリカにいた時、学生でしたか。
Anata wa Amerika ni ita toki gakusei deshita ka.
(Were you a student when you were in America?)
- B : はい、そう / 学生 でした。 (Sō is more commonly used.)
Hai, sō / gakusei deshita.
(Yes, I was.)

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

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

- (4) A : (あなたは)行きますか。
(Anata wa) ikimasu ka.
(Are you going?)
- B : はい、(私は)行きます。
Hai, (watashi wa) ikimasu.
(Yes, I am.)

- (5) A : (私達は)行きましょうか。
(Watashitachi wa) ikimashō ka?
(Shall we go?)
- B : いや、(私達は)よしましょう。
Iya, (watashitachi wa) yoshimashō.
(No, let's not.)

- (6) A : (これは / それは)何ですか。
(Kore wa / Sore wa) nan desu ka.
(What is this / that?)
- B : (それは / これは)花子からのプレゼントです。
(Sore wa / Kore wa) Hanako kara no purezento desu.
(That / This is a present from Hanako.)

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

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

- (7) a. わたくし(は)山田ともうします。
Watakushi (wa) Yamada to mōshimasu.
 (Lit. I call myself Yamada. (=I am Yamada.))
- b. 君(は)今、何年生ですか。
Kimi (wa) ima nan-nensei desu ka.
 (What year (in school) are you in now?)
- c. この本(は)おもしろいよ。
Kono hon (wa) omoshiroi yo.
 (This book is interesting.)
- d. の人(は)誰ですか。
Ano hito (wa) dare desu ka.
 (Who is that person?)
- (E) The subject marker *ga* can be omitted if the sentence conveys information which is expected by the hearer or which is very closely related to the hearer. Examples:
- (8) a. あ、電車(が)来了。
A, densha (ga) kita.
 (Oh, here comes the train.)
- b. みなさん、お食事(が)出来ました。
Minasan, o-shokuji (ga) dekimashita.
 (Folks, the meal is ready now.)
- c. 今日田中さんから君に電話(が)あったよ。
Kyō Tanaka-san kara kimi ni denwa (ga) atta yo.
 (There was a phone call for you today from Mr. Tanaka.)
- d. もしもし、くつのひも(が)ほどけてますよ。
Moshimoshi, kutsu no himo (ga) hodokete masu yo.
 (Excuse me, your shoelace is untied.)
- (F) The direct object marker *o* can be omitted unless the NP *o* is under focus. (*O* drops more frequently in questions.) Examples:
- (9) a. コーヒー(を)飲みませんか。
Kōhi (o) nomimasen ka.
 (Wouldn't you like coffee?)
- b. じゃ、それ(を)もらいます。
Ja, sore (o) moraimasu.
 (Then, I'll take it.)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4. Personal Pronouns

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

| Personal Pronouns | | Singular | | |
|----------------------|---------------|------------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|
| | | First Person 'I' | Second Person 'You' | |
| Formal | Very Formal | わたくし <i>watakushi</i> | none | |
| | Formal | わたし <i>watashi</i> | あたくし <i>atakushi</i> (female) | あなた <i>anata</i> |
| | Informal | ぼく <i>boku</i> (male) | あたし <i>atashi</i> (female) | きみ <i>kimi</i> (male) |
| | Very Informal | おれ <i>ore</i> (male) | おまえ <i>omae</i> (male) | あんた <i>anta</i> |
| Personal Pronouns | | Plural | | |
| | | First Person 'We' | Second Person 'You' | |
| Formal | Very Formal | わたくしども <i>watakushidomo</i> | none | |
| | Formal | わたくしたち <i>watakushitachi</i> | あなたがた <i>anatagata</i> | |
| | Informal | ぼくたち <i>bokutachi</i> (male) | あたしたち <i>atashitachi</i> (female) | きみたち <i>kimitachi</i> (male) |
| | Very Informal | ぼくら <i>bokura</i> (male) | あたしら <i>atashira</i> (female) | あなたたち <i>anatatachi</i> |
| Informal | Very Informal | おれたち <i>oretachi</i> (male) | おまえたち <i>omaetachi</i> (male) | あなたたち <i>antatachi</i> |
| | | | おまえら <i>omaera</i> (male) | あんたら <i>antara</i> |

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

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

| | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| <i>watakyūshi</i> → <i>watashi</i> | (formal) |
| <i>watakushi</i> → <i>atakushi</i> | (formal, female) |
| <i>watakyūshi</i> → <i>atashi</i> | (informal, female) |
| <i>watakyūshi</i> → <i>atai</i> | (very informal / vulgar, female) |
| <i>watakyūshi</i> → <i>washi</i> | (informal, older male) |
| <i>watakyūshi</i> → <i>aṣshi</i> | (very informal, adult male of the Bay area of Tokyo) |

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

- (1) a. 忙しい私はテレビも見られない。

Isogashii watashi wa terebi mo mirarenai.

(Lit. Busy me cannot see even TV. (=I cannot even watch TV because I'm so busy.))

- b. 音楽が好きな私は一日中音楽を聞いている。

Ongaku ga sukina watashi wa ichinichijū ongaku o kiite iru.

(Lit. I who like music is listening to music all day long. (=Because I like music, I listen to it all day long.))

- c. 若いあなたにはまだ分からぬでしょう。

Wakai anata ni wa mada wakaranai deshō.

(Lit. Young you probably won't understand it. (=Since you are young, you probably won't understand it.))

- (2) a. *私は私の部屋で私の友達と話していた。

**Watashi wa watashi no heya de watashi no tomodachi to hanashite ita.*

(I was talking with my friend in my room.)

→ 私は Ø 部屋で Ø 友達と話していた。

Watashi wa Ø heya de Ø tomodachi to hanashite ita.

- b. *あなたはきのうあなたの部屋であなたの友達と何をしていましたか。

**Anata wa kinō anata no heya de anata no tomodachi to nani o shite imashita ka.*

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

→ あなたはきのう も 部屋で も 友達と何をしていましたか。

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

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

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

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

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

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

- (3) あのね、京子きのう一郎さんとデートしたのよ。

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

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

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

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

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

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

- b. 上田さんは十年前に買った車にまだ乗っている。

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

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

- c. A : ボブはきのう来ましたか。

Bobu wa kinō kimashita ka.

(Did Bob come see you yesterday?)

- B : ええ、来ましたよ。

Ē, kimashita yo.

(Yes, *he* did.)

- d. A : 田中さん達、遅いわねえ。

Tanaka-san-tachi, osoi wa nē.

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

B : 忘れているんじゃないかなしら。
Wasurete iru n ja nai ka shira.

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

c. ここから大阪まで車で一時間かかる。

Koko kara Ōsaka made kuruma de ichijikan kakaru.

(It takes one hour from here to Osaka.)

f. 今七時です。

Ima shichiji desu.

(It is seven now.)

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

(5) a. 僕の彼女、とてもきれいなんだ。

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

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

b. 大学を出た彼はすぐ結婚した。

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

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

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

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

5. Passive

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

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

- (1) a. 山田さんは奥さんに逃げられた。

Yamada-san wa okusan ni nigerareta.

(Lit. Mr. Yamada's wife ran away on him.)

- b. 太郎は春子にたばこをすわれた。

Tarō wa Haruko ni tabako o suwareta.

(Lit. Taro had a cigarette smoked by Haruko on him.)

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

- (2) 木村さんは美人に横に座られてうれしそうだ。

Kimura-san wa bijin ni yoko ni suwararete ureshi sōda.

(Lit. Mr. Kimura, having a pretty woman sit beside him, looks happy.)

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

34 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

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

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

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

The passive forms of verbs can also express what is called direct passive.

(5) presents some examples.

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

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

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

(See 9. Viewpoint.)

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

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

When *morau* is used, the event always affects the person *positively*. (This is not the case with sentences with *rareru*.) In this case, also, the speaker's viewpoint is that of the person affected by the event. (\Rightarrow *morau*^{1,2})

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

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

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

(\Rightarrow *koto ni naru; naru*)

6. Politeness and Formality

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

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

(A) Honorific Polite Verbs

Regular Formation

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

Irregular Forms

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Honorific Polite Forms of Vte iru.

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

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

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

(B) *Honorific Polite Adjectives*

Regular Formation (Adj(i))

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

Irregular Forms

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

*Regular Formation (Adj(*na*))*

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

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

(3) a. お若いですね。

O-wakaidesu ne.

(You are young, aren’t you?)

b. お父さんはお元氣でいらっしゃいますか。

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

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

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

(C) *Humble Polite Verbs*

Regular Formation

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

Irregular Formation

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

Typical sentences containing humble polite expressions follow:

- (4) a. 私がそのお荷物をお持ちします。

Watashi ga sono o-nimotsu o o-mochi shimasu.

(I will carry your luggage.)

- b. 母がお連れいたします。

Haha ga o-tsure itashimasu.

(My mother will take you there.)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

7. Sentence-final Particles

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

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

(1) 山田さんは先生です。

Yamada-san wa sensei desu.

(Mr. Yamada is a teacher.)

(2) 山田さんは先生ですか。

Yamada-san wa sensei desu ka.

(Is Mr. Yamada a teacher?)

(3) 山田さんは先生ですね。

Yamada-san wa sensei desu ne.

(Mr. Yamada is a teacher, isn't he?)

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

(4) 来て(ください)ね。

Kite (kudasai) ne.

(Please come.)

(5) 一緒に行きましょうね。

Isshoni ikimashō ne.

(Let's go together, shall we?)

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

(6) 学校へ行きなさいね。

Gakkō e ikinasai ne.

(Go to school, okay?)

46 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

- (7) *学校へ行けね。
**Gakkō e ike ne.*

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

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

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

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

Na is also used by men in monologue situations.

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

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

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

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

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

- b. おれは負けないぞ。
Ore wa makenai zo.
(I won't lose!)
- c. これは金だぜ。
Kore wa kin da ze.
(Hey, this is gold!)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(Will it rain tomorrow, I wonder?)

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

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

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

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

(A) *Voiceless and Voiced Consonants*

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

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

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

(B) *Velar Consonants—k and g*

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

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

(C) *Dental Fricative Consonant—s*

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

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

52 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

g. こそこそ((と)逃げる) ((escape) secretly)
kosokoso ((to) nigeru)

h. しゅん(とする) ((be) dispirited)
shun (to suru)

i. ひっそり((と))する ((be) quiet)
hissori ((to) suru)

(D) *Liquid Consonant—r*

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

a. すらっ(としている) ((figure) is slim)
surat (to shite iru)

b. すらすら((と)答える) ((answer) with great ease)
surasura ((to) kotaeru)

c. くるくる((と)まわる) ((turn) round and round)
kurukuru ((to) mawaru)

d. つるつる(している) ((be) slippery)
tsurutsuru (shite iru)

e. ぬるぬる(している) ((be) slimy)
nurunuru (shite iru)

f. さらさら((と)流れる) ((flow) smoothly)
sarasara ((to) nagareru)

g. たらたら((と)流れる) ((sweat or blood) drip continuously)
taratara ((to) nagareru)

(E) *Nasal Consonants—m and n*

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

a. むくむく(している) ((of a dog or a cat) is plump)
mukumuku (shite iru)

b. むちむち(している) ((be) plump)
muchimuchi (shite iru)

c. なよなよ((と)している) ((be) slender and delicate)
nayonayo ((to) shite iru)

d. にちゃにちゃ(する) ((be) sticky)
nichanicha (suru)

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

(F) *Voiceless Bilabial Plosive—p*

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

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

(G) *Semi-vowel—y*

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

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

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

(H) *Back High Vowel—u*

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

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

(I) *Back Vowel—o*

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

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

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

(J) *Front Vowel—e*

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

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

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

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

56 CHARACTERISTICS OF JAPANESE GRAMMAR

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

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

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

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

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

9. Viewpoint

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

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

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

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

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

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

expressions are listed below:

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

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

(H), together with (A) and (D), explains the unacceptability of the following sentences.
 $\Rightarrow \text{ageru}^{1,2}; \text{kureru}^{1,2}; \text{morau}^{1,2}$

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

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

Together with (A), (B) and (D), this explains the unnaturalness of sentences like (4).
 $\Rightarrow \text{rareru}^1$

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

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

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

(J) and (K) explain the unacceptability of the sentences in (5) and (6) under the given conditions. ($\Leftrightarrow iku^{1,2}; kuru^{1,2}$)

- (5) a. [The speaker is in Japan.]

*私は来年アメリカへ来ます。

**Watashi wa rainen Amerika e kimasu.*

(I will come to America next year.)

- b. [The speaker is in America.]

*私は去年アメリカへ行きました。

**Watashi wa kyōnen Amerika e ikimashita.*

(I went to America last year.)

- (6) a. *私はどろぼうにおそいかかって來た。

**Watashi wa dorobō ni osoikakatte kita.*

(Lit. I came to attack the robber.)

- b. *どろぼうは私におそいかかって行った。

**Dorobō wa watashi ni osoikakatte itta.*

(Lit. The robber went to attack me.)

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

(Cp. (C))

Thus, if the subject is someone the speaker is unable to empathize with, the adjectives mentioned in (L) cannot be used, as in (7). ($\Leftrightarrow garu; hoshii; tai$)

- (7) a. *見知らぬ人がたばこが欲しい。

**Mishiranu hito ga tabako ga hoshii.*

(A stranger wants a cigarette.)

- b. *通りがかりの人がうれしい。

**Tōrigakari no hito ga ureshii.*

(A passerby is happy.)

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

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

(Cp. 4. Personal Pronouns)

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

兄さんに見せてごらん。

Ni-san ni misete goran.

(Let me see it.)

- b. [From an uncle to his niece]

おじさんがしてあげよう。

Oji-san ga shite ageyō.

(I'll do it for you.)

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

お姉ちゃん、ひろしに貸してあげなさい。

O-nē-chan, Hiroshi ni kashite agenасai.

(Yoshiko, let Hiroshi have it.)

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

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

- (9) 花子は太郎が自分を愛していると信じていた。

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

(Hanako believed that Taro loved her.)

- (10) is unnatural because the viewpoint is inconsistent.

- (10) *妻は私が自分を今でも愛していると信じている。

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

(My wife believes that I still love her.)

**A DICTIONARY
OF
BASIC
JAPANESE
GRAMMAR**

(Main Entries)

Seiichi Makino and Michio Tsutsui

日本語基本文法辞典



ageru¹ あげる v. (Gr. 2)

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

give

【REL. *kureru¹* (*morau¹*)】

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

- (2) a. 花子は私に本をくれた。

Hanako wa watashi ni hon o kureta.

(Hanako gave me a book.)

- b. 花子は私のむすこに本をくれた。

Hanako wa watashi no musuko ni hon o kureta.

(Hanako gave my son a book.)

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

- (3) 私は先生に本をさしあげました。

Watashi wa sensei ni hon o sashiagemashita.

(I gave my teacher a book.)

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

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

- (4) a. 私は弟に本をやった。

Watashi wa otōto ni hon o yatta.

(I gave my little brother a book.)

- b. ひろしは猫にミルクをやった。

Hiroshi wa neko ni miruku o yatta.

(Hiroshi gave milk to the cat.)

- c. [Tom is the speaker's intimate friend.]

私はトムにケーキをやりました。

Watashi wa Tomu ni kēki o yarimashita.

(I gave a cake to Tom.)



ageru² あげる aux. v. (Gr. 2)

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

do s.t. for s.o.; do s.o. a favor by doing s.t.
【REL. *kureru*² (*morau*²)】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

Formation

Vte あげる

ageru

話して あげる (talk for s.o.'s sake)

hanashite ageru

食べて あげる (eat for s.o.'s sake)

tabete ageru

Examples

(a) 君はお母さんに何をしてあげましたか。

Kimi wa o-kā-san ni nani o shite agemashita ka.

(What did you do for your mother?)

(b) 田中さんはスマスさんに本を貸してあげた。

Tanaka-san wa Sumisu-san ni hon o kashite ageta.

(Mr. Tanaka lent a book to Mr. Smith.)

Notes

1. *Ageru* is used as an auxiliary verb with the *te*-form of verbs. The meaning of *Vte ageru* is ‘do s.t. for s.o.’ or ‘do s.o. a favor by doing s.t.’ The restriction which applies to *ageru*¹ also applies to *ageru*². Namely, sentences with *Vte ageru* are descriptions from the viewpoint of the benefactor (i.e., the person in subject position); therefore, the indirect object must not be the first person or a person the speaker empathizes with. (⇒ *ageru*¹, Note 1) Thus, (1a) and (1b) are ungrammatical.

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

The grammatical sentences for (1a) and (1b) are (2a) and (2b), respectively.
 (⇒ *kureru*²)

- (2) a. 花子は私に日本語を教えてくれた。
Hanako wa watashi ni nihongo o oshiete kureta.
- b. メアリーは私のむすめにペンを買ってくれた。
Meari wa watashi no musume ni pen o katte kureta.

2. As in KS (B), if the person receiving the benefit is the direct object of the sentence, the indirect object is omitted. Therefore, (3a) and (3b) are ungrammatical.

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

3. When the main verb is intransitive, *ageru* is not used along with *ni*. The following sentence is ungrammatical,

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

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



(5) 私達はジョンのために働いた。

Watashitachi wa Jon no tame ni hataraita.

(We worked for John's sake.)

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

(6) 私は先生にピアノをひいてさしあげました。

Watashi wa sensei ni piano o hiite sashiagemashita.

(I played the piano for my teacher.)

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

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

(7) a. 私は妹にレコードを買ってやった。

Watashi wa imōto ni rekōdo o katte yatta.

(I bought my little sister a record.)

b. じゅんは猫に魚を焼いてやった。

Jun wa neko ni sakana o yaite yatta.

(Jun roasted fish for his cat.)

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

私はジョンにラジオを貸してやりました。

Watashi wa Jon ni rajio o kashite yarimashita.

(I lent John my radio.)

aida (ni) 間 (に) phr.

{ the space between two temporal or
physical points }

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

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

Formation

(i) Vte いる 間 (に)
iru aida (ni)

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

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

(ii) Adj (i) 間 (に)
aida (ni)

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

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



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

(iv) N の 間 (に)
no aida (ni)

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

Examples

(a) スミスさんは日本にいる間英語を教えていました。

Sumisu-san wa Nihon ni iru aida eigo o oshiete imashita.

(Mr. Smith was teaching English (all during the time) while he was in Japan.)

(b) 子供達がテレビを見ている間私は本を読んでいました。

Kodomotachi ga terebi o mite iru aida watashi wa hon o yonde imashita.

(I was reading a book (all during the time) while my children were watching TV.)

(c) 高橋さんはアメリカにいる間にゴルフを覚えました。

Takahashi-san wa Amerika ni iru aida ni gorufu o oboemashita.

(Mr. Takahashi learned golf while he was in America.)

(d) 中川さんのお母さんは中川さんがパリに留学している間に病気になりました。

Nakagawa-san no o-kā-san wa Nakagawa-san ga Pari ni ryūgakushite iru aida ni byōki ni narimashita.

(Mr. Nakagawa's mother became ill while he was studying in Paris.)

(e) 秋子は子供がない間に本を読む。

Akiko wa kodomo ga inai aida ni hon o yomu.

(Akiko reads books while her children are not at home.)

Notes

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

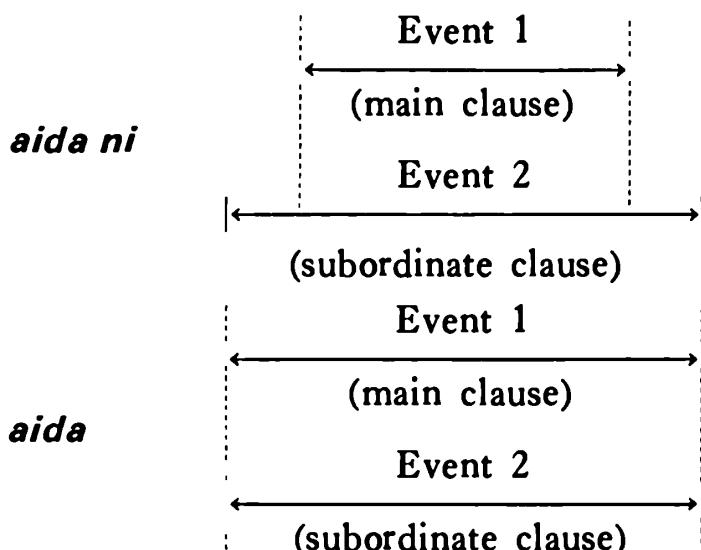
3. *Aida*, if followed by *ni*, a particle of specific time point, means that the time span of an event identified by the main clause falls within the time span of an event identified by the *aida*-clause, as in Exs. (c), (d) and (e). *Aida* without *ni*, as in Exs. (a) and (b), indicates that the two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

(1) *山田さんがパリに留学している間お母さんが病気になった。

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

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

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



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

(2) 夏休みの間レストランでアルバイトをしました。

Natsuyasumi no aida resutoran de arubaito o shimashita.

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

(3) 夏休みの間にガールフレンドが出来ました。

Natsuyasumi no aida ni gārufurendo ga dekimashita.

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

(4) 長い間母に手紙を書いていません。

Nagai aida haha ni tegami o kaite imasen.

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

(5) 若い間に本を出来るだけたくさん読みなさい。

Wakai aida ni hon o dekiru dake takusan yominasai.

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

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

(6) 日本とアメリカ(と)の間には海しかない。

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

(There is only ocean between Japan and America.)

(7) 山口と僕(と)の間は決して悪くない。

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

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

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

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

(8) 若い間にスポーツをいろいろした方がいいです。

Wakai aida ni supōtsu o iroiro shita hō ga iidesu.

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

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

【Related Expression】

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

[1] 雪子はご飯を食べている間テレビを見ていた。

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

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

[2] 雪子はご飯を食べながらテレビを見ていた。

Yukiko wa gohan o tabenagara terebi o mite ita.

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

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

amari あまり adv.

The degree of s.t. is not great.

(not) very much; (not) very

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

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

Notes

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



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

- c. それはあんまりです。
Sore wa anmari desu.
 (You're (lit. That's) too cruel.)

aru¹ ある v. (Gr. 1)

| | |
|------------------------------|--|
| { An inanimate thing exists. | { be; exist; have 【REL. <i>iru¹</i> ; <i>motte iru</i> 】 |
|------------------------------|--|

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

Examples

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

- (c) 和田さんのうち(に)はクーラーがない。
Wada-san no uchi (ni) wa kūrā ga nai.
 (There is no air-conditioner at Mr. Wada's.)

Notes

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

- (1) *この町には日本人がある。
**Kono machi ni wa nihonjin ga aru.*
 (There are Japanese in this town.)

For animate things, *iru*¹ is used. (⇒ *iru*¹)

2. The negative informal form of *aru* is not *aranai* but *nai*.

3. Two sentence patterns can be used with *aru*. The KS (A) pattern is used when a location is presented as a topic. In this case, what exists is under focus. In this pattern, the location marker *ni* can optionally drop. The KS (B) pattern is used when something which exists is presented as a topic. In this case, where it exists is under focus. Compare the two patterns in (2).

- (2) A : 早稲田大学はどこにありますか。
Waseda Daigaku wa doko ni arimasu ka.
 (Where is Waseda University?)

B : 早稲田大学は東京にあります。
Waseda Daigaku wa Tōkyō ni arimasu.
 (Waseda University is in Tokyo.)

A : 東京には早稲田大学しかありませんか。
Tōkyō ni wa Waseda Daigaku shika arimasen ka.
 (Lit. Are there no universities in Tokyo but Waseda University? (=Is Waseda University the only university in Tokyo?))

B : いいえ、東京には大学がたくさんあります。
Ie, Tōkyō ni wa daigaku ga takusan arimasu.
 (No, there are many universities in Tokyo.)

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



- (3) a. この車(に)はカー・ステレオがある。

Kono kuruma (ni) wa kā sutereo ga aru.

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

- b. 私(に)は車がある。

Watashi (ni) wa kuruma ga aru.

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

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

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

- (4) 私(に)は子供が三人ある。

Watashi (ni) wa kodomo ga sannin aru.

(I have three children.)

- (5) ??私(に)は運転手がある。

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

(I have a chauffeur.)

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

- (6) *私(に)は母がもうありません。

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

(I don't have my mother now.)

In this case, *iru* must be used.

6. When *aru* is used for events such as parties and concerts, the particle marking locations must be *de* as in (7). ($\Rightarrow de^1; ni^6$)

- (7) 今日サムのうちで / *にパーティーがある。

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

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

【Related Expressions】

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

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

- [1] ジョンはいい車を持っている。
*Jon wa ii kuruma o **motte iru**.*
 (John has a good car.)

- [2] *ジョンは妹を持っている。
 Jon wa imōto o **motte iru.*
 (John has a younger sister.)

- [3] *この車はクーラーを持っている。
 Kono kuruma wa kūrā o **motte iru.*
 (This car has an air-conditioner.)

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

- [4] この大学はいい図書館を持っている。
*Kono daigaku wa ii toshokan o **motte iru**.*
 (This university has a good library.)

II. *Iru¹* is also used to express existence. However, *iru¹* is used only for animate objects. (See Note 1.)

aru² ある aux. v. (Gr. 1)

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

have been done; be done
【REL. *iru²; oku*】

◆ Key Sentence

| Topic (subject) | | Vte | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| それ <i>Sore</i> | は <i>wa</i> | もう ジョンに <i>mō Jon ni</i> | 話して <i>hanashite</i> |
| (It's been told to John already.) | | | |

**Formation**

Vte ある
aru

話して ある (has been told)
hanashite aru

食べて ある (has been eaten)
tabete aru

Examples

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

Notes

1. *Aru* is used with *Vte* as an auxiliary verb. Two points are indicated by the *Vte aru* expression:
 - (A) Someone did something to X. (Thus, *Vte* is usually a transitive verb.)
 - (B) X is still in that state.
 X is most frequently marked by the topic marker *wa* or the subject marker *ga*; occasionally it is marked by the direct object marker *o*.
2. The agent is usually omitted because he is unimportant, unknown or obvious.

[Related Expressions]

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

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

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

ato de あとで conj.

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

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

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

**Formation**

KS(A):

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

KS(B):

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

(a) ご飯を食べたあと(で)すぐ勉強しました。

Gohan o tabeta ato (de) sugu benkyōshimashita.

(I studied right after I had eaten my meal.)

(b) 山田さんはビールを飲んだあと(で)寝てしまった。

Yamada-san wa biru o nondatta ato (de) nete shimatta.

(Mr. Yamada fell asleep after he drank beer.)

(c) 戦争が終わったあと(で)東京にもどりました。

Sensō ga owatta ato (de) Tōkyō ni modorimashita.

(I went back to Tokyo after the war ended.)

(d) 食事のあとでテニスをした。

Shokujii no ato de tenisu o shita.

(I played tennis after my meal.)

NoteThe particle *de* may be omitted in informal speech.**[Related Expressions]**

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

[1] 私がうちへ帰ったあとで / ??? 帰ってから雨が降った。

Watashi ga uchi e kaetta ato de / ???kaette kara ame ga futta.
(It rained after I came home.)

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

[2] 日本へ来てから / *来たあとで何年になりますか。

*Nihon e kite kara / *kita ato de nannen ni narimasu ka?*
(How many years have passed since you came to Japan?)

($\Leftrightarrow kara^2$)

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

[3] a. ご飯を食べたらすぐ勉強しました。

Gohan o tabetara sugu benkyōshimashita.

b. 山田さんはビールを飲んだら寝てしまった。

Yamada-san wa biru o nondara nete shimatta.

c. 戦争が終わったら東京にもどりました。

Sensō ga owa tara Tōkyō ni modorimashita.

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

[4] a. 日本へ行ったら / *行ったあとでいいでしょう。

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

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

b. これを読んだら / *読んだあとでどうですか。

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

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

($\Leftrightarrow tara$)

ba ば conj.

a conjunction which indicates that
the preceding clause expresses a condition

if

【REL. **tara** (*nara, to⁴*)】**B**

◆ Key Sentence

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

Formation

(i) Gr. 1 verbs: V_{cond} ば
ba

話せば (if s.o. talks)
hanaseba

(ii) Gr. 2 verbs: V_{stem} れば
reba

食べれば (if s.o. eats)
tabereba

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

する → すれば (if s.o. does)
suru sureba

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

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

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

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

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

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

Examples

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

Notes

1. “S₁ *ba* S₂” basically expresses a general conditional relationship between the two propositions represented by S₁ and S₂. S₁ represents a condition and S₂ a proposition which holds or will hold true under the condition. (*Ba* is, in fact, the origin of the topic marker *wa*.)
2. S₂ can be a statement of the speaker's volition or hope, as in Exs. (c) and (d). (⇒ *to*⁴)
3. S₂ can be a command, a request or a suggestion, as in Exs. (e) and (f). In this case, however, S₁ cannot be an action. Thus, in (1) and (2) *ba* is ungrammatical. (⇒ *nara*; *tara*)
 - (1) 山本さんが来たら/*来れば知らせてください。
*Yamamoto-san ga **kitara** /***kureba** shirasete kudasai.*
 (If Mr. Yamamoto comes in, please let me know.)



- (2) シカゴへ行く(の)なら/*行けばバスで行ったらどうですか。
*Shikago e iku (no) nara / *ikeba basu de ittara dō desu ka.*
 (If you go to Chicago, why don't you go by bus?)

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

(\Rightarrow **ba yokatta**)

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

- (3) もっと安ければ買いました。
Motto yasukereba kaimashita.
 (I would have bought it if it had been much cheaper.)
- (4) 雨が降ればよく家で本を読んだものだ。
Ame ga fureba yoku ie de hon o yonda mono da.
 (When it rained, I often read at home.)

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

- (5) 日本へ行ったら/*行けば日本語が上手になった。
*Nihon e ittara / *ikeba nihongo ga jōzuni natta.*
 (I became good at Japanese when I went to Japan.)

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

- (6) そのおりに近づけばあぶないですよ。
Sono ori ni chikazukeba abunaidesu yo.
 (It is dangerous if you get close to the cage.)

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

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

bakari ばかり *prt.*

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

only; just; be ready to do s.t.; have just done s.t.; just did s.t.; be just doing s.t.; about
【REL. *hodo* (*kurai*); *shika* (*dake*); *tokoro da²*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

| Topic (subject) | Vinf·nonpast | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| デザート <i>Dezāto</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 食べる <i>taberu</i> | ばかり <i>bakari</i> |

(Lit. The only thing left to do with the dessert is to eat it. (=The dessert is ready to eat.))

(B)

| Topic (subject) | Vte | | | |
|---------------------|----------------|----------------------|----------------------|--|
| 友子 <i>Tomoko</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 遊んで <i>asonde</i> | ばかり <i>bakari</i> | いる / います。 <i>iru</i> / <i>imasu</i> . |

(Lit. The only thing Tomoko is doing is playing. (=Tomoko is doing nothing but playing.))

(C)

| Topic (subject) | | Vinf·past | | |
|---------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| 私 <i>Watashi</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 昼ご飯 を <i>hirugohan o</i> | 食べた <i>tabeta</i> | ばかり <i>bakari</i> |

(Lit. I had my lunch and haven't done anything else since then. (=I have just eaten my lunch.))

(D)

| Topic (subject) | Adj | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| この レストラン <i>Kono resutoran</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 安い <i>yasui</i> | ばかり <i>bakari</i> |

(Lit. The only merit of this restaurant is that the food is inexpensive.
 (=This restaurant is just cheap.))



(E)

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

(F)

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

Formation

(i) Vinf·nonpast ばかり
bakari

話す ばかり (be ready to talk)
hanasu bakari

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

(ii) Vte ばかり
bakari

話して ばかり (be just talking)
hanashite bakari

食べて ばかり (be just eating)
tabete bakari

(iii) Vinf·past ばかり
bakari

話した ばかり (have just talked)
hanashita bakari

食べた ばかり (have just eaten)
tabeta bakari

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

高い ばかり (just expensive)
takai bakari

静かな ばかり (just quiet)
shizukana bakari

(v) N ばかり
bakari

先生 ばかり (only teachers)
sensei bakari

(vi) N Prt ばかり
bakari

学生 に ばかり (only to students)
gakusei ni bakari

(vii) Quantifier ばかり
bakari

一時間 ばかり (about an hour)
ichijikan bakari

Examples

(a) このレポートはあと結論を書くばかりだ。

Kono repōto wa ato ketsuron o kaku bakari da.

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

(b) 春江は泣いてばかりいて何も話そうとしない。

Harue wa naite bakari ite naimo hanasō to shinai.

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

(c) 松山さんは今シカゴに着いたばかりです。

Matsuyama-san wa ima Shikago ni tsuita bakari desu.

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

(d) この仕事はめんどうなばかりであまりもうかりません。

Kono shigoto wa mendōna bakari de amari mōkarimasen.

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

(e) この寮に住んでいるのは男子学生ばかりだ。

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

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

(f) フィッシャー先生はリサとばかり話している。

Fisshā-sensei wa Risa to bakari hanashite iru.

(Prof. Fisher is talking only with Lisa.)

(g) 十人ばかりの友達が手伝ってくれました。

Jūnin bakari no tomodachi ga tetsudatte kuremashita.

(About ten friends helped me.)

Notes

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

ba yokatta ばよかったです phr.

a phrase which expresses the speaker's regret

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

◆ Key Sentence

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

Formation

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

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

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

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

(iii) Irr. verbs: 来る → 来れば よかった (I wish s.o. had come)
kuru kureba yokatta

する → すれば よかった (I wish s.o. had done)
suru sureba yokatta

Examples

(a) あの本を読めばよかった。

Ano hon o yomeba yokatta.

(I wish I had read that book.)

(b) ウエルズさんは日本へ行けばよかったね。

Ueruzu-san wa Nihon e ieba yokatta ne.

(I wish Mr. Wells had gone to Japan, don't you?)

(c) ああ、もっと英語を勉強しておけばよかったなあ。

Ā, motto eigo o benkyōshite okeba yokatta nā.

(Oh, I wish I had studied English harder!)

Notes

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

(⇒ *iru*², Note 4; *to*³)

(1) ピルは日本へ行けばよかったと思っている。

Biru wa Nihon e ikeba yokatta to omotte iru.

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

[Related Expression]

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

[1] あの本を読んでよかったです。

Ano hon o yonde yokatta.

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

dai だい *prt.*

a sentence-final particle which indicates a WH-question in informal male speech

【REL. *ka²; kai*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

†*Da* after Adj (*na*) stem and N changes to *na*.**Formation**(i) {Adj (*na*) stem / N} だい
*dai*静か だい (s.t. is quiet)
*shizuka dai*先生 だい (s.o. is a teacher)
sensei dai(ii) {V / Adj (*i*)} inf ん だい
n dai{話す / 話した} ん だい (s.o. talks / talked?)
{*hanasu* / *hanashita*} *n dai*{高い / 高かった} ん だい (s.t. is / was expensive?)
{*takai* / *takakatta*} *n dai*(iii) {Adj (*na*) stem / N} {な / だった} ん だい
{*na* / *datta*} *n dai*

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

{shizukana / shizukadatta} n dai

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

{sensei na / sensei datta} n dai



Examples

(a) 新しい仕事はどうだい。

Atarashii shigoto wa dō dai.

(How's your new job?)

(b) あの人はだれだい。

Ano hito wa dare dai.

(Who is that person?)

(c) 何がおかしいんだい。

Nani ga okashii n dai.

(What's funny?)

(d) どの人が佐藤先生なんだい。

Dono hito ga Satō-sensei na n dai.

(Which person is Prof. Sato?)

Notes

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

(1) a. 这は僕のだい。

Kore wa boku no dai.

(This is mine.)

b. 僕も行くんだい。

Boku mo iku n dai.

(I will go, too.)

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

(2) a. *あの人は先生だい。

**Ano hito wa sensei dai.*

(Is that person a teacher?)

b. *村田さんも行くんだい。

**Murata-san mo iku n dai.*

(Is Mr. Murata going, too?)

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

(⇒ *kai*)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

【Related Expression】

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



The following chart summarizes the endings for informal questions.

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

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

dake だけ prt.

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

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

(C)

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

(D)

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

(E)

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

Formation

(i) N だけ (が) / (を)
dake (ga) / (o)

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

Examples

(a) 佐藤さんだけ(が)会議に出ました。

Satō-san dake (ga) kaigi ni demashita.

(Only Mr. Sato attended the conference.)

(b) 小さい和英辞典だけ(を)買いました。

Chisai waeijiten dake (o) kaimashita.

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

(c) 僕にだけ / だけに話して下さい。

Boku ni dake / dake ni hanashite kudasai.

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

(d) この車はアルコールでだけ / だけで動きます。

Kono kuruma wa arukōru de dake / dake de ugokimasu.

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

(e) あの先生には一度だけ会いました。

Ano sensei ni wa ichido dake aimashita.

(I met that professor only once.)

(f) 朝はコーヒーを一杯飲むだけです。

Asa wa kōhi o ippai nomu dake desu.

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

(g) この本は高いだけでおもしろくない。

Kono hon wa takai dake de omoshirokunai.

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

(h) テニスは好きなだけで上手じゃない。

Tenisu wa sukina dake de jōzuja nai.

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

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



b. 踊れるだけ踊ろう。

Odoreru dake odorō.

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

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

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

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

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

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

(B)

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

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

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

(C)

| Topic (subject) | Adj (na) stem | | |
|--|----------------|---------------------|----------------|
| この うち <i>Kono uchi</i> | は <i>wa</i> | きれい <i>kirei</i> | な <i>na</i> |
| だけ で (は) なく とても <i>dake de (wa) naku totemo</i> 安い (です)。 <i>yasui (desu).</i> | | | |

(This house is not only beautiful but it is also inexpensive.)

(D)

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

Formation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Examples

D

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

Note

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

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

100 *dake de (wa) naku ~ (mo) / darō*

(2) 手紙は友達(に)だけではなく先生にも書きました。

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

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

【Related Expression】

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

[1] [Teacher to his student.]

あしたまでに十課だけ / ?? ばかりでなく十一課も勉強しておきなさい。

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

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

(\Leftrightarrow *dake*)

***darō* だろう aux.**

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

probably

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

◆ Key Sentence

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

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

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf だろう
darō

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

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

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

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

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

Examples

(a) あのアパートは高いでしょう。

Ano apāto wa takai deshō.

(That apartment is probably expensive.)

(b) ロジャーはスキーが上手だろう。

Rojā wa ski ga jōzu darō.

(Roger is probably good at skiing.)

(c) あの人は中国人だろう。

Ano hito wa chūgokujin darō.

(That man is probably Chinese.)

Notes

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

(1) アンダーソンさんはたぶん日本へ行くだろう。

Andāson-san wa tabun Nihon e iku darō.

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

(2) アンダーソンさんはきっと日本へ行くだろう。

Andāson-san wa kitto Nihon e iku darō.

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



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

(3) 大じょうぶですか。
Daijōbu desu ka.

(Is it all right?)

(4) 大じょうぶでしょうか。
Daijōbu deshō ka.

(I wonder if it's all right.)

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

(5) a. 君も行くだろう?
Kimi mo iku darō?

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

b. これ、きれいでしょう?
Kore, kirei deshō?

(Isn't this pretty?)

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

(6) 君も行くね。
Kimi mo iku ne.

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

~dasu ~出す aux. v. (Gr. 1)

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

out; begin to; start to

【REL. ~*hajimeru*】

(ANT. ~*owaru*)



◆ Key Sentence

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

Formation

Vmasu 出す
dasu

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

食べ出す (s.o. starts to eat)
tabedasu

Examples

(a) 急に雨が降り出した。

Kyūni ame ga furidashita.

(Suddenly it began to rain.)

(b) 一歳になって初めて歩き出した。

Issai ni natte hajimete arukidashita.

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

(c) そのアイディアはだれが考え出したんですか。

Sono aidia wa dare ga kangaedashita n desu ka.

(Who thought out that idea?)

(d) 一時間ぐらいかけてとうとうその本屋を探し出した。

Ichijikan gurai kakete tōtō sono hon-ya o sagashidashita.

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

【Related Expression】

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

[1] そろそろ歩き始めましょう / *歩き出しましょうか。

Sorosoro arukihajimemashō / **arukidashimashō* ka.

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

[2] 私達が歩き始めた / 歩き出した時山田達が来た。

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

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

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

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

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

de¹ て prt.

a particle which indicates location,
except for location of existence

at; in; on

【REL. *ni*⁴; *ni*⁶; *o*²】

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

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

Note

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

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

de² て* *prt.

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

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

【REL. o *tsukatte*】

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

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

Notes

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



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

(1) 本田さんは何で大阪へ行くんですか。

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

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

[Related Expression]

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

[1] 私達はタクシーを使って / で来ました。

Watashitachi wa takushi o tsukatte / de kimashita.

(We came by taxi.)

[2] 私は子供を使って / *で家具を動かした。

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

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

de³ て prt.

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

and; because of; due to;
because

【REL. *kara³*; *node*】

◆ Key Sentence

| | Noun (cause) | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------|--|
| 山口さんは <i>Yamaguchi-san wa</i> | 病気 <i>byōki</i> | で <i>de</i> | 学校を休んだ / 休みました。 <i>gakkō o yasunda / yasumimashita.</i> |

(Lit. Mr. Yamaguchi was ill and absented himself from school. (=Because Mr. Yamaguchi was ill, he didn't come to school.))

Examples

(a) あしたは期末試験で大変です。

Ashita wa kimatsushiken de taihen desu.

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

(b) 大雨で橋がこわれた。

Ōame de hashi ga kowareta.

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

(c) きのうは夜、仕事でとても疲れた。

Kinō wa yoru, shigoto de totomo tsukareta.

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

(d) 父は交通事故で入院しました。

Chichi wa kōtsūjiko de nyūinshimashita.

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

Notes

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

(1) a. 山口さんは病気でした。

Yamaguchi-san wa byōki deshita.

(Mr. Yamaguchi was ill.)

b. 山口さんは学校を休みました。

Yamaguchi-san wa gakkō o yasumimashita.

(Mr. Yamaguchi was absent from school.)

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

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

(2) a. 卵でアレルギーになる。

Tamago de arerugi ni naru.

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

b. 卵でオムレツを作る。

Tamago de omuretsu o tsukuru.

(I make an omelette with eggs.)

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



[Related Expression]

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

(⇒ *kara³*; *node*)

de⁴ で prt.

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

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

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

Notes

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

(1) 山田さんは一週間でそのレポートを書いた。

Yamada-san wa isshūkan de sono repōto o kaita.

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

[Related Expression]

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

[1] 春学期は五月十日で / に終わる。

Harugakki wa gogatsu tōka de / ni owaru.

(The spring term ends on May 10.)

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

★Semantic Derivations of *De*

de 'using'

< Instrument > *de*²:

ジョンは車でシカゴへ行った。

Jon wa kuruma de Shikago e itta.

(John went to Chicago by car.)

< Means > *de*²:

私達は英語で話した。

Watashitachi wa eigo de hanashita.

(We talked in English.)

< Cause > *de*³:

その家は台風でこわれた。

Sono ie wa taifū de kowareta.

(That house collapsed due to the typhoon.)

< Reason > *de*³:

僕は試験で行けなかった。

Boku wa shiken de ikenakatta.

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

< Material > de²:

私は毛糸でくつ下をあんだ。
Watashi wa keito de kutsushita o anda.

(I knit socks with wool.)

< Place > de¹:

道子はいつも図書館で勉強する。
Michiko wa itsumo toshokan de benkyōsuru.

(Michiko usually studies at the library.)

< Required time > de²:

木村さんは三日でこのレポートを書いた。
Kimura-san wa mikka de kono repōto o kaita.

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

< Time > de⁴:

仕事は五時で終わります。
Shigoto wa goji de owarimasu.

(My work ends at five o'clock.)

< Required cost > de²:

私はこの本を十ドルで買った。
Watashi wa kono hon o jūdoru de katta.

(I bought this book for ten dollars.)

demo でも *prt.*

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

even

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

(C)

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

Formation

(i) N でも
demo

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

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

(ii) N+Prt でも
demo

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

東京 から でも (even from Tokyo)
Tōkyō kara demo

**Examples**

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

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

(⇒ *de*¹; *de*²)

***dō* どう adv.**

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

how; in what way

D

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

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

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

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

Notes

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

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



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

(2) どうして日本語を勉強しているんですか。

Dō shite nihongo o benkyōshite iru n desuka.

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

(3) この木はどうして枯れたんですか。

Kono ki wa dō shite kareta n desu ka.

(Why did this tree die?)

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

e へ *prt.*

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

to; towards

【REL. *made*; *ni*⁴; *ni*⁷】

E

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

(a) 私は札幌のうちへ飛行機で帰った。

Watashi wa Sapporo no uchi e hikoki de kaetta.

(I went back home to Sapporo by plane.)

(b) 地震だったのでいそいで外へ出た。

Jishin datta node isoide soto e deta.

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

(c) 父へ手紙を出したが、まだ返事が来ない。

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

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

【Related Expressions】

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

[1] はるばる東京まで / ?に / ?へ来た。

Harubaru Tōkyō made / ?ni / ?e kita.

(I came all the way to Tokyo.)

[2] 東京に / へ / *まで十二時に着いた。

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

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

[3] ニューヨークへ / まで / *にの便はもうありません。

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

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

- [4] ここまで / *へ / *にの道は悪かったでしょう。

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

(Your way here must have been rough.)

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



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

- [5] お風呂に / へ入った。

O-furo ni / e haitta.

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

- [6] 机の上に / へ乗った。

Tsukue no ue ni / e notta.

(I got onto the table.)

- [7] 黒板に / へ漢字を書いた。

Kokuban ni / e kanji o kaita.

(I wrote *kanji* on the blackboard.)

ga¹ が *prt.*

a particle which indicates the subject

【REL. *wa*¹ (は)】

◆ Key Sentence

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

Examples

(a) 私の部屋にはステレオがあります。

Watashi no heya ni wa sutereo ga arimasu.

(There is a stereo in my room.)

(b) あ、のり子が走っている。

A, Noriko ga hashitte iru.

(Oh, Noriko is running.)

(c) A : このレストランは何がおいしいですか。

Kono resutoran wa nani ga oishiidesu ka.

(What is good in this restaurant?)

B : ステーキがおいしいです。

Sutēki ga oishiidesu.

(Steak is good.)

Notes

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

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

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

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

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

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

(2) ステーキはおいしいです。

Sutēki wa oishiidesu.

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

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

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

(3) 今晚だれが / *は来ますか。

*Konban dare ga / *wa kimasu ka.*

(Who is coming tonight?)

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

(4) a. 私はデビーが / *はフランスへ行くことを知らなかった。

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

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

b. ジーンは僕が / *はアパートを出た時まだ寝ていた。

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

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

c. 私が / *はきのう見た映画はドイツの映画だった。

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

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

Note that topics are not presented in subordinate clauses.

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

(⇒ Relative Clause, Note 3)

(5) 私のきのう見た映画はドイツの映画だった。

Watashi no kinō mita eiga wa Doitsu no eiga datta.

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

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

(6) a. 僕はスポーツカーが欲しい。

Boku wa supōtsukā ga hoshii.

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

b. 春子はスペイン語が分かる。

Haruko wa supeingo ga wakaru.

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

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

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

【Related Expression】

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

***ga*² が conj.**

a disjunctive coordinate conjunction
that combines two sentences

but

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

◆ Key Sentence

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

Formation

S₁ が S₂

ga

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

(Taro swam but Jiro didn't swim.)



Examples

(a) 私はビールは飲むが酒は飲まない。

Watashi wa biru wa nomu ga sake wa nomanai.

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

(b) 旅行をしたいがお金がない。

Ryokō o shitai ga o-kane ga nai.

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

Notes

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

(1) a. パーティーをしますが来ませんか。

Pāti o shimasu **ga** kimasen ka.

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

b. 田中さんは私のうちにも時々来ますがおもしろい人ですね。

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

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

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

(2) *ジョンは来た、がメアリーは来なかった。

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

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

(3) *ジョンは来た。がメアリーは来なかった。

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

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

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

(4) ??太郎は泳ぎましたが次郎は泳がなかった。

?*Tarō wa oyogimashita ga Jirō wa oyoganakatta.*

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

(5) ?太郎は泳いだが次郎は泳ぎませんでした。

?*Tarō wa oyoida ga Jirō wa oyogimasendeshita.*

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

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

(6) 大じょうぶだと思いますが。

Daijōbuda to omoimasu ga.

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

(7) トムはよく勉強するんですが。

Tomu wa yoku benkyōsuru n desu ga.

(Tom studies hard but . . .)

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

[Related Expressions]

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

[1] a. $S_1 ga S_2$.

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

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

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

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

~garu ~がる aux. v. (Gr. 1)

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

G

show signs of ~

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

Formation

Adj (i / na) stem がる
garu

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

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

Examples

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

(⇒ *hoshii*¹, Note 3)

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

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

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

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

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

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

(⇒ -ya)

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

goro ごろ suf.

{ approximately (with a specific point of time) } { about; around
【REL. *kurai* / *gurai*】 }

◆ Key Sentence

| Topic (subject) | | Noun (time) | | Predicate |
|---------------------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|--|
| 鈴木さん <i>Suzuki-san</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 朝 <i>asa</i> | 七時 <i>shichiji</i> | ごろ <i>goro</i> うちを出る / 出ます。 <i>uchi o deru / demasu.</i> |

(Mr. Suzuki leaves home at about 7:00 o'clock in the morning.)

Formation

N (time) ごろ (に)
goro (ni)

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

Examples

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

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

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

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

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

Notes

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



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

【Related Expression】

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

- [1] 僕は三時ごろに寝ました。
Boku wa sanji goro ni nemashita.
 (I went to sleep at about 3 o'clock.)
- [2] 僕は三時間ぐらい寝ました。
Boku wa sanjikan gurai nemashita.
 (I slept about three hours.)

goto ni ごとに prt.

{ S.t. takes place regularly in succession
 after a certain temporal or spatial
 interval. } every
 【REL. *mai*; *oki ni*】

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

G

(B)

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

Examples

(a) 一課ごとに試験がある。

Ikka goto ni shiken ga aru.

(There is a test after every lesson.)

(b) 学期ごとに先生がかわる。

Gakki goto ni sensei ga kawaru.

(Every semester teachers change.)

(c) 木村さんは会う人ごとに挨拶している。

Kimura-san wa au hito goto ni aisatsushite iru.

(Mr. Kimura greets every one he meets.)

(d) 三日ごとにテニスをしています。

Mikka goto ni tenisu o shite imasu.

(I'm playing tennis every third day.)

[Related Expression]

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

[1] a. この電車は二駅おきに止まる。

Kono densha wa futa eki oki ni tomaru.

(This train stops at every third station.)

- b. この電車は二駅ごとに止まる。
*Kono densha wa futa eki **goto ni** tomamu.*
 (This train stops at every other station.)

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

- [2] a. 電車は五分おきに / ごとに出る。
*Densha wa gofun **oki ni** / **goto ni** deru.*
 (The train leaves every five minutes.)
- b. 私は二日おきに / ごとに花子と会っている。
*Watashi wa futsuka **oki ni** / **goto ni** Hanako to atte iru.*
 (I'm seeing Hanako every third day / every other day.)

~hajimeru ~はじめる aux. v. (Gr. 2)

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

◆ Key Sentence

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

Formation

Vmasu はじめる
hajimeru

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

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

Examples

(a) 私は八月から源氏物語を読みはじめました。

Watashi wa hachigatsu kara Genjimonogatari o yomihajimemashita.

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

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

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

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

(c) A: いつから切手を集めはじめたんですか。

Itsu kara kitte o atsumehajimeta n desu ka.

(When did you start to collect stamps?)

B: 子供の時から集めはじめました。

Kodomo no toki kara atsume hajimemashita.

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

Notes

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

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

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

(1) 先生は本を書きはじめた。

Sensei wa hon o kakihajimeta.

(The teacher began to write a book.)

(2) a. 先生はご本をお書きになりはじめた。

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

b. 先生はご本をお書きはじめになった。

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

(⇒ *o ~ ni naru*)

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

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

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

hazu はず n.

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

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



◆ Key Sentence

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

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

Formation

(i) {V / Adj (i)} inf はずだ
hazu da

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

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

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

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

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

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

Examples

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

(I expect that Prof. Ono knows Sandra.)

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

(I expect that book was expensive.)

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

(I expect that apartment is clean.)

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

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

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

(2) クラークさんはパーティーに行かないはずだ。

Kurāku-san wa pāti ni ikanai hazu da.

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

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

(B) S *hazu wa / ga nai*

(3) クラークさんはパーティーに行くはずは / がない。

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

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

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

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



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

(4) 高いはずだ。これは金だ。

Takai hazu da. Kore wa kin da.

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

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

(5) 山口さんに出したはずの手紙が床に落ちていた。

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

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

hodo ほど *prt.*

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

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

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

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

(B)

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

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

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

Formation

(i) N ほど
hodo

君 ほど (as you)
kimi hodo

(ii) Demonstrative ほど
hodo

それ ほど (to that extent)
sore hodo

(iii) Sinf ほど
hodo

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

Examples

(a) 僕は君ほど速く歩けません。

Boku wa kimi hodo hayaku arukemasen.

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



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

Notes

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

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

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

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

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

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

【Related Expressions】

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

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

[1] そのりんごを二つばかり / ほど / *くらいください。

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

(Please give me two of those apples.)

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

hō ga ii ほうがいい phr.

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

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

◆ Key Sentence

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

Formation

Vinf.past ほうがいい
hō ga ii

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

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

Examples

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

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

**Notes**

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

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

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

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

(3) コーヒーを飲まないほうがいい。

Kōhi o nomanai hō ga ii.

(You'd better not drink coffee.)

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

The following is ungrammatical.

(4) *コーヒーを飲まなかつたほうがいい。

**Kōhi o nomanakatta hō ga ii.*

(You'd better not drink coffee.)



~hō ga ~yori ~ほうが～より phr.

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

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

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

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

(B)

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

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

Formation

KS(A):

N の ほう が N より
no hō ga yori

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

KS(B):

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

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

聞く より (than hearing)
kiku yori

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

寝る より (than sleeping)
neru yori

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

安い より (than being cheap)
yasui yori

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

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

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

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

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

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



Examples

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

Notes

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

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

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

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

(2) 私が話したほうが君が話すよりいいでしょう。

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

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

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

(3) 私が話したほうが君が話すよりよかったです。

Watashi ga hanashita hō ga kimi ga hanasu yori yokatta.

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

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

(4) あのカメラよりこのカメラのほうが好きです。

Ano kamera yori kono kamera no hō ga sukidesu.

(I like this camera better than that camera.)



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

(5) a. 私はビールより酒のほうをよく飲む。

Watashi wa biru yori sake no hō o yoku nomu.

(I drink *sake* more than beer.)

b. 学生は川田先生より木村先生のほうによく質問に行く。

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

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

【Related Expression】

The idea of comparison can be expressed by the “X *wa* Y *yori*” pattern, too. (⇒ *yori*) However, when this pattern is used, X must have already been established as a topic. Thus, in a context like [1], the “X *wa* Y *yori*” pattern cannot be used.

[1] A : トムとジョンとどちらが強いですか。

Tomu to Jon to dochira ga tsuyoidesu ka.

(Who is stronger, Tom or John?)

B : トムのほうが / *トムは(ジョンより)強いです。

*Tomu no hō ga / *Tomu wa (Jon yori) tsuyoidesu.*

(Tom is stronger (than John).)

On the other hand, in a context like [2], the “X wa Y yori” pattern is preferable, because X has already been established in the previous sentence.

[2] トムはとても強いです。彼は / ??彼のほうがジョンより強いです。

Tomu wa totomo tsuyoidesu. Kare wa / ??Kare no hō ga Jon yori tsuyoidesu.

(Tom is very strong. He is stronger than John.)

H

hoshii¹ ほしい

| | |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| S.t. is desired by the speaker. | want (s.t.) |
| 【REL. <i>tai</i> 】 | |

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

| Topic (experiencer) | | Desired Object | | | |
|---------------------|----------------|--------------------|----------------|---|--|
| 私 <i>Watashi</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 車 <i>kuruma</i> | が <i>ga</i> | ほしい / ほしいです。 <i>hoshii / hoshiidesu.</i> | |
| (I want a car.) | | | | | |

(B)

| Topic (experiencer) | | Desired Object | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------|------------------------------------|---------------|---|--|
| 弟 <i>Ototo</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 僕 の 自転車 <i>boku no jitensha</i> | を <i>o</i> | ほしがって いる / います。 <i>hoshigatte iru / imasu.</i> | |
| (My little brother wants my bike.) | | | | | |

Examples

(a) 私は日本人の友達がほしい。

Watashi wa nihonjin no tomodachi ga hoshii.

(I want a Japanese friend.)

(b) あなたは今何がほしいですか。

Anata wa ima nani ga hoshiidesu ka.

(What do you want now?)

- (c) パムはステレオをほしがっている。
Pamu wa sutereo o hoshigatte iru.
 (Pam wants a stereo.)

Notes

1. The *i*-type adjective *hoshii* expresses a person's desire for some object. Like other stative transitive adjectives, *hoshii* takes the *wa-ga* construction, where the experiencer is marked by *wa* and the desired object by *ga*. (In subordinate clauses the experiencer is also marked by *ga*). ($\Rightarrow \sim wa \sim ga$)
2. Since *hoshii* expresses a very personal feeling, the experiencer is usually the first person in declarative sentences and the second person in interrogative sentences, as in KS(A), Exs. (a) and (b). The third person's desire is usually expressed by *hoshigatte iru* 'Lit. be showing the sign of wanting (s.t.)', as in KS(B) and Ex. (c). ($\Rightarrow garu$) It is noted that when *hoshigatte iru* is used, the desired object is marked by *o*.
3. It is, however, acceptable to use *hoshii* in connection with the third person experiencer in the following situations:

(1) *In the past tense*

モーリスはいいステレオがほしかった。
Mōrisu wa ii sutereo ga hoshikatta.
 (Maurice wanted a good stereo set.)

(2) *In indirect / semi-direct speech*

- a. ジョイもほしいと言っている。
Joi mo hoshii to itte iru.
 (Joy says she wants it, too.)
- b. オスカーもほしいそうだ。
Osukā mo hoshii sōda.
 (I heard that Oscar wants it, too.)

(3) *In explanatory situations*

パメラはイヤリングがほしいんです。
Pamera wa iyaringu ga hoshii n desu.
 ((The explanation is that) Pamela wants a pair of earrings.)
 ($\Rightarrow no da$)



(4) *In conjecture expressions*

a. フランシスはうで時計がほしいらしい。

Furanshisu wa udedokei ga hoshii rashii.

(It seems that Francis wants a wrist watch.)

b. コニーは人形がほしいようだ。

Koni wa ningyō ga hoshii yōda.

(It appears that Connie wants a doll.)

**hoshii² ほしい aux. adj. (i)**

want s.o. (who is not higher in status
than the speaker) to do s.t.

want (s.o.) to do (s.t.)
【REL. *moraitai*; *tai*】

◆ Key Sentence

| Topic (experiencer) | Indirect Object | Vte | |
|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|----------------|
| 私 <i>Watashi</i> | は <i>wa</i> | あなた <i>anata</i> | に <i>ni</i> |

(I want you to teach me English.)

Formation

Vte ほしい
hoshii

話して ほしい (want (s.o.) to talk)
hanashite hoshii

食べて ほしい (want (s.o.) to eat)
tabete hoshii

Examples

(a) 私は子供達に私と一緒に住んでほしい。

Watashi wa kodomotachi ni watashi to issconi sunde hoshii.
(I want my children to live together with me.)

- (b) あなたはだれに来てほしいですか。
Anata wa dare ni kite hoshiidesu ka.
 (Who do you want to come?)

Notes

1. *Hoshii* is used as an auxiliary with *Vte* to mean ‘want (s.o.) to do (s.t.)’. When the experiencer wants a person X to do something, X is marked by *ni*. *Hoshii* is not used if X has a higher status than the experiencer. Thus, the following sentence is not appropriate when the speaker is a student of Prof. Yoshida’s. (See Related Expression, [2] for the correct sentence in that situation.)



- (1) 私は吉田先生に来てほしい。
Watashi wa Yoshida-sensei ni kite hoshii.
 (I want Prof. Yoshida to come.)

2. When *Vte hoshii* is used, the experiencer is usually the first person in declarative sentences (KS, Ex. (a)) and the second person in interrogative sentences (Ex. (b)). If the experiencer is the third person, *Vte moraitagatte iru* ‘(lit.) be showing the sign of wanting to receive the favor of doing s.t. from s.o.’ is used, as in (2). (⇒ *mora^u*²; *tai*; *garu*)

- (2) アダムスさんはフランシスにこの仕事をしてもらいたがっている。
Adamusu-san wa Furanshisu ni kono shigoto o shite moraitagatte iru.
 (Mr. Adams wants Francis to do this job.)

[Related Expression]

The same idea can also be expressed by *Vte moraitai*. (⇒ *mora^u*²; *tai*) Example:

- [1] 私はあなたに英語を教えてもらいたい。
Watashi wa anata ni eigo o oshiete moraitai.
 (I want you to teach me English.)

This pattern can be used when the experiencer wants someone who has higher status to do something. In this case, *itadaku*, the humble version of *mora^u*, is used instead of *mora^u*. Example:

- [2] 私は吉田先生に来ていただきたい。
Watashi wa Yoshida-sensei ni kite itadakitai.
 (I would like Prof. Yoshida to come.)

ichiban 一番 *adv.*

a superlative marker

most

◆ Key Sentence

| Noun | | Subject | | Adjective |
|--|------------------------|--------------------------|----------------|---|
| クラス <i>Kurasu</i> | (の中) で (no naka) de | 大川さん <i>Ōkawa-san</i> | が <i>ga</i> | 一番 <i>ichiban</i> 頭 が いい。 <i>atama ga ii.</i> |
| (Mr. Okawa is the brightest in the class.) | | | | |

Formation

(i) 一番 *Adj (i / na)*
*ichiban*一番 {高い / 高かった} (s.t. is / was the highest)
ichiban {takai / takakatta}一番 {静かだ / 静かだった} (s.t. is / was the most quiet)
ichiban {shizukada / shizukadatta}(ii) 一番 {*Adj (i) stem く / Adj (na) stem に*}
ichiban *ku* *ni*一番 高く (most highly)
*ichiban takaku*一番 静かに (most quietly)
ichiban shizukani

Examples

(a) A : この中でどの映画が一番おもしろいですか。

Kono naka de dono eiga ga ichiban omoshiroidesu ka.

(Among these, which movie is the most interesting?)

B : この日本の映画でしょう。

Kono Nihon no eiga deshō.

(This Japanese movie, I guess.)

(b) A : 松本さんと池田さんと清水さんの中で、だれが一番(よく)出来ますか。

Matsumoto-san to Ikeda-san to Shimizu-san no naka de, dare ga ichiban (yoku) dekimasu ka.

(Among Mr. Matsumoto, Mr. Ikeda and Mr. Shimizu, who is the best student (lit. can do best)?)

B : 池田さんです。

Ikeda-san desu.

(Mr. Ikeda is.)

(c) 日本で一番きれいな所はどこですか。

Nihon de ichiban kireina tokoro wa doko desu ka.

(Lit. Where is the most scenic place in Japan? (=Which place is the most scenic in Japan?))

Note

Ichiban cannot be affixed directly to a noun as in **ichiban sensei*, meaning ‘the best teacher’. It should precede an adjective, as in *ichiban ii sensei*. If the meaning is predictable, however, the adverbial form of adjectives, esp. *yoku* ‘well, frequently’, may be omitted, as in Ex. (b).



iku¹ 行く v. (Gr. 1)

S.o. or s.t. moves in a direction away from the speaker or the speaker's viewpoint. } go; come
[REL. *kuru¹*]

◆ Key Sentences

(A)

| Topic (subject) | | Noun (direction) | | |
|---|----------------|---------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| 田中さん <i>Tanaka-san</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 来週 <i>raishū</i> | アメリカ <i>Amerika</i> | へ / に <i>e / ni</i> |
| (Mr. Tanaka is going to America next week.) | | | | |

(B)

| Topic (subject) | N (location) | | N (location) | | N (means) | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---|
| 私 <i>Watashi</i> | は <i>wa</i> | 東京 <i>Tōkyō</i> | から <i>kara</i> | 大阪 <i>Ōsaka</i> | まで <i>made</i> | バス <i>basu</i> | で <i>de</i> |
| (I went from Tokyo to Osaka by bus.) | | | | | | | 行った / <i>itta</i> / 行きました。 <i>ikimashita</i> . |

Examples

(a) 私は毎朝八時に会社に行く。

Watashi wa maiasa hachiji ni kaisha ni iku.

(I go to work (lit. my company) at eight every morning.)

(b) A : 今晚私のうちでパーティーをしますが来ませんか。

Konban watashi no uchi de pāti o shimasu ga kimasen ka.

(We are going to have a party at my place tonight. Wouldn't you like to come?)

B : はい、行きます。

Hai, ikimasu.

(Yes, I'll come (lit. go).)

(c) あなたにもその知らせは行きましたか。

Anata ni mo sono shirase wa ikimashita ka.

(Lit. Did the notice go to you, too? (=Did you get the notice, too?))

(d) その村にもバスは行っている。

Sono mura ni mo basu wa itte iru.

(The bus goes to the village, too.)

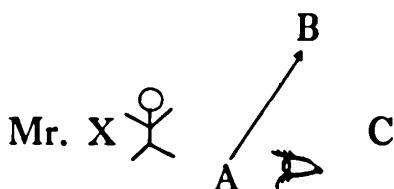
Notes

1. *iku*¹ is used when someone or something moves in a direction away from the speaker or in a direction away from the speaker's viewpoint, which is not necessarily the speaker's position. (\Rightarrow *kuru*¹) For example, in the following situation, *iku* is used when the speaker (point C) places his viewpoint near point A.

(1) XさんはBに行った。

X-san wa B ni itta.

(Mr. X went to B.)



2. When someone goes to his own “home base” (e.g., *uchi* ‘home’), *uchi ni iku* is ungrammatical. In this case, *kaeru* ‘return’ is used as in *uchi ni kaeru* ‘go home’.
3. There are cases where both *kuru* and *iku* can be used with different shades of meaning. Examples:

(2) 君のうちに息子が来ませんでした / 行きませんでしたか。

Kimi no uchi ni musuko ga kimasendeshita / ikimasendeshita ka.

(Didn't my son go to your house?)

(3) [The speaker lives in San Francisco and is calling his friend in New York who is coming to Los Angeles.]

スミスさんは来月ロサンゼルスに来る / 行くそうですね。

Sumisu-san wa raigetsu Rosuanjerusu ni kuru / iku sōdesu ne.

(Mr. Smith, I was told that you're coming to Los Angeles next month.)



In (2), when the speaker uses *kuru*, he is putting himself psychologically in the addressee's location; when he uses *iku*, he is not. In (3), *kuru* is more appropriate than *iku* because, in general, a speaker is more empathetic with a location close to his own. The choice of *iku* here definitely implies that the speaker is unusually unempathetic with his neighboring location.

iku² 行く aux. v. (Gr. 1)

Some action or state keeps changing from the point in time at which the speaker first describes the action.

go on ~ing; continue; grow;
become
【REL. *kuru²*】