

文法第 1 課

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1. Sentence with a Verb as Predicate

Probably in all languages of the world a sentence can be categorized as belonging to one of the following **three basic types**:

1. sentence with a **verb as predicate**
(e.g. Michael *is drinking* white wine. マイケルは白ワインを飲みます。)
1. sentence with a **noun as predicate**
(e.g. Michael is a *student*. マイケルは学生です。)
1. sentence with an **adjective as predicate**
(e.g. Michael is *eager*. マイケルは真面目です。)

In this lesson, sentences with a *verb* as predicate will be the focus of our attention. The two other types of predicate will be discussed in later lessons.

(noun: lesson 3,8; adjective: lesson 5,6)

To be able to build sentences like *Michael is drinking white wine*, we first have to be introduced to some components of a sentence with a verb as predicate.

1.1 The Verb (part 1)

In modern Japanese, **three types** (classes, groups, inflectional groups) **of verbs** are distinguished according to the following features:

1. **verbs with weak changes.** Jaku henka dooshi 弱変化動詞 abbreviation: 弱V
(弱=weak)
2. **verbs with strong changes.** Kyoo henka dooshi 強変化動詞 abbreviation: 強V
(強=strong)
3. **irregular verbs.** Fukisoku dooshi 不規則動詞 abbreviation: 不V
(不=negation)

notice: In further steps we will mostly use these abbreviations !

1.1.1 The Three Types of Verbs

A. Verbs with weak changes 弱V

The **dictionary forms** (these are forms of words mentioned in dictionaries, so-called lexicalized forms) of **verbs with weak changes** (further 弱V) end always in **-ru** (～る).
E.g. tabe-ru (to eat), mi-ru (to see), ake-ru (to open), fue-ru (to increase), ochi-ru (to fall) etc.

The -ru ending of 弱V is always preceded by the sound **e-** or **i-** or, to be more precise, by a syllable containing an e- or i-sound: taberu = ~**be** + ru, miru = **mi** + ru, akeru = ~**ke** + ru, fueru = ~**e** + ru, ochiru = ~**chi** + ru etc.

Word Formation:

弱V = V-stem + **-i** + ru

弱V = V-stem + **-e** + ru

Practically speaking, there are only **9** possible i-sound units and **11** possible e-sound units which can be followed by the ending -ru:

The 9 possible combinations of i-sound units plus -ru and their examples are:

- iru 　～いる　　(iru いる to be; mochiiru 用いる to use)
- kiru 　～きる　　(kiru 着る to wear; okiru 起きる to wake up)
- giru 　～ぎる　　(nigiru 握る to grip)
- jiru 　～じる　　(tsujiru 通じる to connect with)
- chiru 　～ちる　　(ochiru 落ちる to fall)
- niru 　～にる　　(niru 似る to resemble)
- biru 　～びる　　(nobiru 伸びる to extend)
- miru 　～みる　　(miru 見る to see; shimiru 染みる to soak in)
- riru 　～りる　　(oriru 降りる to disembark; tariru 足りる to be enough)

The 11 possible combinations of e-sound units plus -ru and their examples are:

- eru 　～える　　(eru 得る to get; kangaeru 考える to think)
- keru 　～ける　　(akeru 開ける to open; wakeru 分ける to share)
- geru 　～げる　　(ageru あげる to give; nageru 投げる to throw)
- seru 　～せる　　(miseru 見せる to show; noseru 載せる to take on board)
- zeru 　～ぜる　　(mazeru 混ぜる to mix)
- teru 　～てる　　(suteru 捨てる to throw away; tateru 建てる to construct)
- deru 　～でる　　(deru 出る to go out; yuderu ゆでる to boil)
- neru 　～ねる　　(neru 寝る to sleep; haneru 跳ねる to jump)
- beru 　～べる　　(taberu 食べる to eat; kuraberu 比べる to compare)
- meru 　～める　　(hajimeru 始める to begin; shimeru 閉める to close)
- reru 　～れる　　(ireru 入れる to put into; nureru 濡れる to get wet)

Quiz 1: Which verb is a 弱v? In each horizontally-arranged row only one verb is a 弱v...

ある	もる	でる	おる	くる
あそぶ	あげる	あがる	あたる	あまる
みる	ある	かる	なる	おる
かざる	まざる	まぜる	なぞる	あさる
くぼる	しばる	こおる	のぼる	のびる
かりる	かざる	かたる	なぞる	なさる



The answers will be discussed during the grammar lesson.

B. Verbs with strong changes 強V

The group of **verbs with strong changes** (further 強v) consists of verbs which in their dictionary form always end in **u-sounds** of the Japanese syllables. According to the Hiragana chart (or transcription chart) and considering linguistic usage, only 9 different 強v -endings exist:

-u, -ku, -gu, -su, -tsu, -nu, -bu, -mu and **-ru**.

(～う、～く、～ぐ、～す、～つ、～ぬ、～ぶ、～む、～る)

These endings of 強v can be preceded by vowels and syllables containing an a-, i-, u-, e- or o-sound. Examples: ha-u, aru-ku, yo-mu, aso-bu, shi-nu, haka-ru, etc.

Word Formation:

強V = V-stem + -u / -ku / -gu / -su / -tsu / -nu / -bu / -mu / -ru

-u	～う (kau 買う to buy; warau 笑う to laugh, au 会う to meet)
-ku	～く (kaku 書く to write; aruku 歩く to walk, iku 行く to go)
-gu	～ぐ (nugu 脱ぐ to take off <clothing>; fusegu 防ぐ to defend)
-su	～す (hanasu 話す to speak; kesu 消す to extinguish, to switch off)
-tsu	～つ (matsu 待つ to wait; motsu 持つ to carry)
-nu	～ぬ (shinu 死ぬ to die; the only verb ending in -nu)
-bu	～ぶ (tobu 飛ぶ to fly; erabu 選ぶ to choose, sakebu 叫ぶ to shout)
-mu	～む (yomu 読む to read; hohoemu 微笑む to smile, amu 編む to knit)
-ru	～る (tsukuru 作る to produce; kaeru 帰る to return, aru 在る to exist)

Quiz 2: Which of the following verbs are 強v?

ある みる である とぶ になる
 あそぶ あげる あがる あてる あきる
 ぬる ねる かく なく える
 はなす まぜる はずす はじる こわす
 しぬ まつ あつまる あつめる のびる
 まつる おちる いそぐ いる なる



The answers will be discussed during the grammar lesson.

Important note:

Since Japanese is not a synthetic language and as is the case in every naturally developed language, exceptions to the rules are inevitable.

In rare cases the distinguishing marks of 強v and 弱v overlap:

Some of the Japanese verbs with -eru or -iru endings have to be identified as 強v instead of 弱v. Verbs in current use like **kaeru** 帰る (to go back, to go home) or **shiru** 知る (to know) are definitely 強v. Their number amounts to approximately 60 (not counting compound words).

The 12 most frequently confusing 強v in the guise of 弱v are:

heru	減る (to decrease)	II - 1
kaeru	帰る (to go back, go home)	I - 1
shaberu	しゃべる (to chat, talk)	II - 7
suberu	滑る (to slip, slide, glide)	II - 8
chiru	散る (to fall, scatter)	-
hairu	入る (to enter)	II - 1
hashiru	走る (to run)	I - 11
iru	要る (to need)	I - 9
kagiru	限る (to limit, restrict)	III - 8
kiru	切る (to cut)	II - 4
nigiru	握る (to grasp, clasp)	III - 11
shiru	知る (to know)	I - 11

The numbers after the verbs refer to the lesson in which they are mentioned for the first time (e.g. II-7 = 2nd semester, lesson 7).

As you can easily notice **kaeru** 帰る (to go back, go home) belongs to the vocabulary of **this** lesson!

C. Irregular verbs 不V

In Japanese only **two** verbs namely **kuru** 来る (to come) and **suru** する (to do) belong to the group of irregular verbs.

Contrary to other verbs, the change in the structure of these two verbs depending on their function in a sentence (the so-called inflection) is *not* systematic, i.e. *kuru* and *suru* are not regular.

Word Formation:

不V = **kuru** and **suru**

1.1.2 Other Characteristics of the Verb

In contrast to the verbs of European languages, Japanese verbs have **no conjugation**, i.e. there are neither changes of the form related to the person (English: I drinkk, you drinkk, he /she/ it drinkks,...; German: ich trinkee, du trinkst, er sie es trinktt,...), nor to singular and plural (German: ich trinkee – wir / sie trinkenen).

Given the fact that common western languages have a conjugation, this fact is quite astonishing. On the other hand, the lack of conjugation facilitates the learning of a foreign language enormously. Conjugation is not a linguistic necessity, particularly because you would never speak or write a word without a **context** and so the question of the acting person(s) or their number (singular or plural) is usually answered unequivocally.

1.1.3 Modification (Inflexion) of Verbs

Apart from the conjugation there are many possibilities to change the form of the verb depending on the meaning you want to express. We want to call this change an inflexion or rather in a neutral way a **modification**.

In Japanese the verb is one of the most important carriers of multi-layered information contained in a sentence or parts of a sentence (phrase). Unlike European languages where other components of the sentence serve to indicate tense, voice, mood, etc. of the verb (I eat meat / I do not eat meat / I am able to eat meat / I am just now eating meat / I let her eat meat etc.), the Japanese language operates systematically with a very simple and ultimate principle: **attaching the respective information to the unchangeable part (= stem) of the verb**

In other words the entire information concentrates in the verb without use of any auxiliaries. Thus, if you want to modify any verb, take the stem and add any information you like at the end of it and the sentence will contain the desired message.

By the way, we have already seen a lot of such examples. The dictionary form of verbs is nothing but an attachment to the unchangeable stem of the verb. For instance the verb “to eat” **taberu** 食べる is made by the stem **tabe-** and the ending **-ru**. This **-ru** is so to say one of the carriers of information and it indicates that the whole verb is now in the lexicalized form.

In the same way you can attach different information to **tabe(-ru)**:

not to eat	=	tabe- + nai	(negative)
be able to eat	=	tabe- + rareru	(potential)
just now eating	=	tabe- + te iru	(gerund)
let eat	=	tabe- + saseru	(causative)

In linguistic usage a verb carries not only a single information, but it very often contains a many-dimensional information.

If you say “I did not eat meat“, the sentence predicate conveys two meanings: a. it refers to the action which did not take place and b. it refers to the action which did not happen in the past. In such cases Japanese verbs get two successively attached pieces of information:

stem + info 1 + info 2

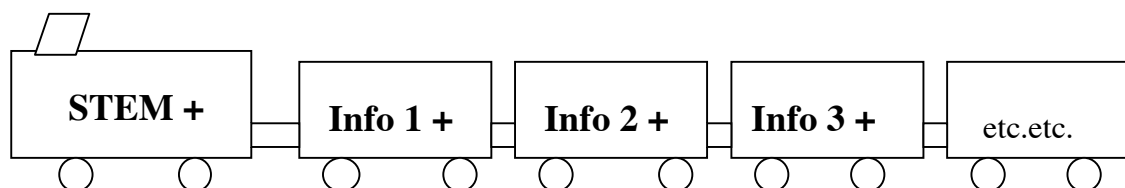
or more grammatically performed:

stem + info “negation“+ info “past“

or using our example:

tabe- + na + katta

Generally speaking, the inflection of Japanese verbs can be illustrated as follows:



The principle of modification of Japanese verbs reminds us of the relationship between a locomotive (railway engine) and its waggons (cars). The stem of the verb is connected like a draught horse with one or more interlocked endings (infos).

The following comparison comes even more to the point:

Like the connected parts of the train the stem of the verb and all following pieces of information need a very well fitting kind of connection. It is rather obvious, that linkages formed like ◀ and ▶, or linkages formed like □ and □ fit perfectly. At the same time ◀ and □ or □ and ▶ can evidently not be connected.

In the same way the stem and all the endings (modifications) of the verb always need precise and unmistakably fitting links.

This is one of the most important peculiarities concerning the modification of the Japanese verbs. We will have a critical look at this phenomenon for the next *three* semesters!

1.1.4 The Ordinary Polite Affirmative Form “masu“

Japanese has strictly different politeness levels of language depending primarily on the *social requirements* and the *degree of intimacy* between the interlocutors. There is not only the difference between lexical domains (different words one uses on each level), but there are also different grammatical structures to be used.

In order to meet the interests of students and achieve a practical applicability of their knowledge, they have to be introduced to a level of language which is, it is true, not almighty, but which can be understood by everyone and – perhaps, which is much more important – , to a level, which is approved and felt as sufficiently polite.

This multilateral and almost universal level is the so-called **ordinary polite level**. Knowledge of this level is certainly not enough to cover all imaginable situations, but we can neglect this fact in favour of a progressive learning of this language. Otherwise it would be very confusing, if we dealt simultaneously with other levels like the most polite and honorific level or with a politeness-neutral level.

The first applicable form of the verb we want to learn is the **ordinary polite affirmative form**. This form has the ending **–masu**.

The **masu-form** is built for the three types of verbs as follows:

弱V :

STEM + masu (ます)

This can be revealed in the following samples:

見る	miru	to see	見ます	mimasu
起きる	okiru	to get up, wake up	起きます	okimasu
食べる	taberu	to eat	食べます	tabemasu

強V :

STEM (i-sound units) + masu (ます)

This can be revealed in the following samples:

買う	kau	to buy	買います	kaimasu
行く	iku	to go	行きます	ikimasu
泳ぐ	oyogu	to swim	泳ぎます	oyogimasu
話す	hanasu	to speak	話します	hanashimasu
待つ	matsu	to wait	待ちます	machimasu
死ぬ	shinu	to die	死にます	shinimasu
飛ぶ	tobu	to fly	飛びます	tobimasu
読む	yomu	to read	読みます	yomimasu
帰る	kaeru	to return	帰ります	kaerimasu

notice:

Obviously the last sound of the stem (= linkage of the locomotive) has changed from an u-sound to an **i-sound**. In other words the **masu-form** or the ordinary polite affirmative form of 強V belongs to *another* type of inflection than the dictionary form.

～う	～u	→	～い	～i
～く	～ku	→	～き	～ki
～ぐ	～gu	→	～ぎ	～gi
～す	～su	→	～し	～shi
～つ	～tsu	→	～ち	～chi
～ぬ	～nu	→	～に	～ni
～ぶ	～bu	→	～び	～bi
～む	～mu	→	～み	～mi
～る	～ru	→	～り	～ri

This system can easily be derived from the order of the **kana-syllabary**.

There were always **5 columns** of sounds like a-i-u-e-o; ka-ki-ku-ke-ko etc. etc.

The **second column** shows us the **i-sound** mentioned above, while the third column represents the u-sound or the sound of the dictionary form.

So if you like to build the masu-form of any 動V, even those you have never seen before, just go back to the *second* column of the kana-chart.

The masu-form of the last remaining type of verbs, the 不V is :

不V :

STEM (i-sounds) + masu (ます)

する suru (to do) → します shimasu

来る kuru (to come) → 来ます kimasu

In this case 不V behave (more accidentally) like a 動V. So there is no need to learn a new form for this group.

1.1.5 The Meaning of the masu-form

The **masu-form** indicates a **non-past affirmative** action. Non-past means in a manner of speaking the **future**, an action which has not taken place yet.

~**masu** (~ます) means “we *will* do this“ or “we surely will complete this action in the *very near future*, but it has not happened yet (has not been done yet)“.

So, strictly speaking ~**masu** does not mean “we are doing this action at this moment“ (present tense or exactly: the gerund). The gerund will be introduced in lecture 11.

So the masu-form does not convey a present action and in its very fundamental function it only shows an action which has not been completed, which is quasi- **non-past**.

However, ~**masu** can be used in casual customary situations in the meaning of a **habitual** activity. If you want to phrase a question about the habit of reading of the newspapers, you surely would say something like “Do you read the papers?“ rather than “Are you accustomed to reading the papers?“. This by all means absolutely correct literary language style is normally felt as too stiff and intricate. In the same way the masu-form is often used as a short and more fluent version to express a habitual activity.

So do not feel misled, if the ~**masu** as, for instance, in “yomimasu“ is sometimes translated simply as „to read“ or “will read“ or “accustomed to reading“.

Quiz 3: Let us build some masu-forms

くる	ある	かく	みる	でる	とぶ	にる	ねる
たべる	あそぶ	あげる	あがる	あてる	おきる	できる	なく
はなす	まぜる	まざる	かかる	こわす	つかう	あらう	よむ
しぬ	くる	する	のびる	のぼる	およぶ	もつ	あく



The answers will be discussed during the grammar lesson.

1.1.6 The Ordinary Polite Past Form “mashita”

After we have learnt the masu-form, it is very easy to build the **ordinary polite past form**. Just replace ~masu (~ます) with the ending **~mashita** (~ました), that's all.

Word Formation:

STEM + mashita (ました)

For the three types of verbs **past** is built as follows:

弱V :

STEM + mashita (ました)

This can be revealed in the following examples:

見る	miru	to see	見ました	mimashita
起きる	okiru	to get up, wake up	起きました	okimashita
食べる	taberu	to eat	食べました	tabemashita

強V :

STEM (i-sounds) + mashita (ました)

This can be revealed in the following examples:

買う	kau	to buy	買いました	kaimashita
行く	iku	to go	行きました	ikimashita
泳ぐ	oyogu	to swim	泳ぎました	oyogimashita
話す	hanasu	to speak	話しました	hanashimashita
待つ	matsu	to wait	待ちました	machimashita
死ぬ	shinu	to die	死にました	shinimashita
飛ぶ	tobu	to fly	飛びました	tobimashita
読む	yomu	to read	読みました	yomimashita
帰る	kaeru	to return	帰りました	kaerimashita

不V :

STEM (i-sounds) + mashita (ました)

する	suru	(to do)	→	しました	shimashita
来る	kuru	(to come)	→	来ました	kimashita

In the case of past both **不V** behave like a **強V**. There is no need to learn a new form for this group.

1.1.7 The Predicate

The **predicate** of a sentence is often confounded with the **verb**. For those learners who are experts in foreign languages this section can be omitted completely. Probably like in all languages of the world, a sentence in Japanese is strictly constructed of different groups of words which form syntactic constituents of a sentence (phrases). In this way the **predicate** is indeed the most important component of a sentence, because it contains an information which reveals the heart of the matter. As we have already read in chapter 1, there are **three basic types of predicate**:

1. sentence with a **verb as predicate**:

Normally this type of sentence shows, that an **action** happens with a noun. (Nouns are beings, things or facts in the widest sense).

2. sentence with a **noun as predicate**:

This kind of sentence shows, that a particular **noun** is assigned to another superordinate noun. (These nouns are beings, things or facts in the widest sense).

3. sentence with an **adjective as predicate**

The last type of predicate shows the feature of the noun (beings, things or facts in the widest sense) provided by an **adjective**.

2. The Noun

2.1 The Noun

Contrary to the western languages, the noun in Japanese has neither a **declension**, nor a formal distinction of **number** (singular and plural), nor an **article** (definite or indefinite, which is so important in many western languages). The Japanese noun is **unchangeable** (not inflexional).

Let us think about some consequences of this fact:

The Japanese word for “bread“ has been borrowed from the Portuguese and is called “pan“ パン. **Pan** as a Japanese noun has **three** meanings: a bread (indefinite), the bread (definite), and breads (plural)! Accordingly, a sentence with more than one noun has a wide range of meanings and it can be given manifold interpretations.

A combination of merely two at random chosen nouns like “sensei“ 先生 (teacher, master) and パン composed in a more or less sensible sentence with a verb like “tabemasu“ (to eat) 先生はパンを食べます. gives rise to many ambiguous versions of translation:

The teacher eats a bread. The teachers eat a bread. The teacher eats breads. The teachers eat breads. A teacher eats bread. A teacher eats breads. Teachers eat bread. Teachers eat breads....

By the way, we did not take into account the gender (of the teacher) in this case.

(If you like, you can try to create more sentences like these by yourself. Suggested words:

学生 がくせい (student), ワイン (wine), 飲み屋 のみや (pub), and 飲みます のみます (to drink).

Categories of nouns

These are the categories (groups) of nouns in Japanese. Notably are those which are not categorized as a noun in other languages:

1. **designation of things** (in the widest sense)
 - mountain 山 やま ; human being 人 ひと ; student 学生 がくせい ; cat 猫 ねこ ;
 - heart 心 ころ ; thought 考え かんがえ ; language course 語学コース ごがくコース etc.
1. **names** (place names, personal names etc.)
 - Tokyo 東京 ; Coca Cola コカ・コーラ ; Shakira シャキーラ ; Eiffel tower エッフェル塔 ; etc.
1. **numbers** and numbers combined with **numerals** (classifiers, units of measurement)
 - twenty 二十 にじゅう ; two pieces 二つ ふたつ ; five grammes 5グラム ごグラム ; No.8 第8 だいはち ; etc.
1. **pronouns** (also personal, demonstrative, and interrogative pronouns)
 - she 彼女 かのじょ ; this これ ; when いつ ; which どれ ; etc.
1. **preposition of precise positioning**
 - above 上 うえ ; down 下 した ; left 左 ひだり ; behind 後ろ うしろ ; between 間 あいだ ; etc.

2.2 The Subject

The subject as a grammatical item is often defined as the noun, noun phrase, or pronoun in a sentence or clause that denotes the doer of the action or what is described by the predicate.

In Japanese, this **doer** (agent) is often omitted. In case of personal pronouns “**I**“ (watashi 私) and “**you**“ (anata あなた) as doers (agents) the omission is almost ubiquitous!

The occurrence of too many “**I**“ makes the us unintentionally egocentric and the occurrence of too many “**you**“ sounds like an examination by the criminal investigation department. So if you do not want to appear self-centred, try to avoid using **watashi** and **anata** if possible. By the way, the excessive use of watashi and anata is a typical attribute of an average learner of Japanese...

3. The Particle

The **particle** is one of the special categories of words in the Japanese language. It is a short uninflected word which often acts as a substitute for preposition, conjugation and declension, or provides emotional meanings to words and sentences. Sometimes it is also called **postposition**.

Anyway, a particle is very important to mark the function of words and relationship between them in a sentence. In Japanese we have a manageable amount of particles, since one particle can be used for different functions. The three important characteristics of a particle are:

1. it is **unchangeable** (uninflectable)
1. it is positioned **after** words, normally after a **noun** (see the designation: *post-position*)
1. it can be used in **combination**

The relevance of a particle as a grammatical information carrier can be shown by sentences which are absolutely equal to each other with the exception of particles. Exchange of particles brings a completely new meaning into sentence.

As a source we will take the following sentence:

“The mother reads a book to her child.“ 母親が子供に本を読みます。

The main constituents of this sentence are 母親 mother, 子供 child, 本 book, and 読みます to read. And as you can easily guess the particles are が, に, and を .

Just focus your attention on the modified places (bold face):

1. 母親**が**子供**に**本を読みます。 *A mother reads a book to her child.*
2. 母親**は**子供**に**本を読みます。 (Usually) mothers read books to their children.
3. 母親**が**子供**と**本を読みます。 The mother and her child read a book (together).
4. 母親**は**子供**と**本を読みます。 (Usually) mothers and their children read a book (together).
5. 母親**に**子供**が**本を読みます。 *A child reads a book to his mother.*
6. 母親**も**子供**に**本を読みます。 Also mothers read books to their children.
7. 母親**と**子供**に**本を読みます。 (Somebody) reads to the mother and the child a book.
8. 母親**も**子供**も**本を読みます。 Mothers and children read books.
etc.etc.etc.

As it is easy to determine, these eight sentences have different meanings exclusively through the usage of different particles. The changes were as follows:

が of the first sentence has changed to **は** in sentence number 2

に of the first sentence has changed to **と** in sentence number 3

が and **に** of the first sentence has changed to **は** and **と** in sentence number 4

が and **に** of the first sentence has changed to **に** and **が** in sentence number 5

が of the first sentence has changed to **も** in sentence number 6

が of the first sentence has changed to **と** in sentence number 7

が and **に** of the first sentence has changed to **も** and **も** in sentence number 8

In other words really nothing happened to the rest, to the main constituents of the sentences. Not even to the word order. This shows how important the particle in Japanese is!

By the way, we can build far more different sentences than these eight by still using these **が**, **に**, **は**, **と**, and **も**, or by using other particles, or by combining these and other particles. In addition, we can also consider the number (singular and plural). So an immense amount of similar looking sentences can be made only by substituting the particles.

Although particles are very important indeed, in usual conversation between native speakers (perhaps with the exception of eager instructors of Japanese) you would never overstress this part of the sentence. During an oral communication particles are usually **unstressed** or some of them are even clipped.

Types of Particles

For those precise and curious learners who want to know everything about the particles by now:

There are some types of particles which are used to compose sentences.

topical particles:	は、も、こそ、さえ、しか、でも、だって、こそは、さえも
case particles:	が、に、を、へ、で、より
conjunctive particles:	し、けれども、が、と、ので、のに
nominal particles:	の、な、と、や、か、なの、への、での
adverbial particles:	まで、ばかり、だけ、ぐらい、など、なり、やら、から、ながら、ほど
interjective particles:	な、なあ、ね、ねえ、さ、ぞ、よ、わ
interrogative particles:	か、は

After this excursus let us learn and use the first *seven* particles:

3.1 Particle を

Example:

ビールを 飲みます。 Biiru o nomimasu.

I will drink beer.

First of all the particle “o” is written using the Hiragana を (and not お!).

This particle shows in normal case, that the foregoing noun has the function of accusative or, what is better known as **direct object**. In the sample sentence を belongs to the noun ビール.

Formation:

Nを V

More examples with direct object:

仕事をします。	Shigoto o shimasu.	I will do the job. (I will work.)
買い物をしました。	Kaimono o shimashita.	I went shopping. (I made shopping.)
映画を見ます。	Eiga o mimasu.	I will see a film.
本を買います。	Hon o kaimasu.	I will buy books.
パンを食べました。	Pan o tabemashita.	I ate bread. (I have eaten bread.)
ジュースを飲みました。	Juusu o nomimashita.	I drank juice. (I have drunk juice.)

Depending on the context all these actions in the sentences above can be done by another person (**you, he, she, we, you, they**). In the same way the number of direct objects can be **singular or plural**.

3.2 Particle に

Example:

日本に 行きます。 Nihon ni ikimasu.

I will go to Japan.

This particle shows a **place** or, to be more precise, an **aiming point**. It correlates with prepositions like “**to**”, “**into**”, “**at**” or “**in**”. If you use に, the place will be quasi delimited and it can be exactly outlined on a map.

Besides the usage as an indicator of the place (local indication), に is also used as an indicator of **time** or, to be more precise, of a **point in time**. So に is a spatiotemporal particle. (Lesson 4)

Formation:

Nに V

More examples with the particle of aiming point:

レストランに行きます。	Resutoran ni ikimasu.	I will go to the restaurant.
会社に行きました。	Kaisha ni ikimashita.	I went to the firm.
映画館に行きます。	Eiga-kan ni ikimasu.	I will go to the cinema.
家に帰ります。	Uchi/Ie ni kaerimasu.	I will go back home.

3.3 Particle へ**Example:**

日本へ 行きます。 Nihon e ikimasu.

I will go to Japan.

First of all the particle “e” is written using the Hiragana へ. Its pronunciation is exceptionally “e” (and not “he“!).

This particle indicates also a **place**, but unlike the に it shows more the **direction** and not an aiming point. In some cases へ is comparable with the preposition “**towards**“ but it also correlates with other prepositions like “**to**“ or “**at**“. By using へ the place will be treated more like a not exactly definable space. So it often depends on the intention of the user to choose へ to express primarily the direction or to choose に to lay an emphasis on the aiming point. Although in daily use, へ and に are very often compatible (see the same examples), へ can *never* be used as a *temporal* indicator !

Formation:

Nへ V

More examples with the particle of direction:

レストランへ行きます。	Resutoran e ikimasu.	I will go to the restaurant.
会社へ行きました。	Kaisha e ikimashita.	I went to the firm.
映画館へ行きます。	Eiga-kan e ikimasu.	I will go to the cinema.
家へ帰ります。	Uchi/Ie e kaerimasu.	I will go back home.

3.4 Particles から and まで

Particle から

Example:

日本から 来ました。 Nihon kara kimashita.

She came from Japan.

The particle から corresponds to the word “**from**“. It can be used in spatiotemporal as well as in other linguistic environments.

The temporal usage is explained in lesson 8. Here we use から principally as a **local** particle.

Formation:

Nから V

More examples with this local particle:

フランスから来ます。 Furansu kara kimasu.

It will come from France.

会社から帰ります。 Kaisha kara kaerimasu.

He will come back from the firm.

家から行きます。 Uchi kara ikimasu.

I will go from home (to somewhere).

Particle まで

Example:

大学まで 行きます。 Daigaku made ikimasu.

I will go (as far as) to the college.

The particle まで corresponds to the expression “**to**“ in the meaning of the local and temporal indication. So it is also spatiotemporal. (temporal : lesson 8).

In this lesson まで is mainly used as a **local** particle. Precisely observed, まで means not only the destination, but it signifies the **final destination** (as far as). So the difference between に , へ and まで must be clear.

Formation:

Nまで V

More examples with this local particle:

日本まで行きます。 Nihon made ikimasu.

I will go (as far as) to Japan.

ドイツまで来ました。 Doitsu made kimashita.

We came (as far as) to Germany.

Combination of から and まで

Example:

日本から ドイツまで 来ました。 Nihon kara doitsu made kimashita.

She came from Japan (as far as) to Germany.

The both particles から and まで are often used as a pair. They can be used as temporal particles in sentences like “from 11 A.M. to (until) 5 P.M.” (see lesson 8), as well as in figurative sense like in the expression “from the cradle to the grave”, or “from kids to adults”.

As lokal particles they indicate two places, the **starting point** and the **final destination** in the widest meaning. The suitable translation depends understandably on the actual context.

Formation:

N_1 から N_2 まで V

This is our first sentence structure with **two** nouns.

More examples with two nouns:

ドイツからフランスまで行きました。 She went from Germany (as far as) to France.

Doitsu kara Furansu made ikimashita.

ケルンからベルリンまで行きます。 I will go from Cologne (as far as) to Berlin.

Kerun kara Berurin made ikimasu.

大学から家まで帰りました。 They went back from the college to home.

Daigaku kara uchi made kaerimashita. (...as far as to home)

Figurative use of から , まで and the pair of から and まで :

新聞から読みます。 I will start with the newspaper.

Shinbun kara yomimasu. (Among other reading matter I first read the paper.)

本まで買いました。 I even bought a book.

Hon made kaimashita. (Among other things I finally bought a book.)

水からお酒まで飲みました。 I drank from water up to Sake. (I drank every kind of

Mizu kara o-sake made nomimashita. liquids starting with water up to Sake.)

3.5 Particle で

Example:

レストランで 食べました。 Resutoran **de** tabemashita.

I dined in the restaurant.

The particle で shows the **place of action**. Unlike the particle に , which has the function to show just the aiming point, で is also responsible for the action at a place. So it corresponds to the expression “**to do something in/at**“. In such sentences not only the place of happening, but also the case itself is mentioned, i.e. the (directly) involved object of the activity appears very often. The instance sentence can be extended to:

レストランで ご飯を 食べました。 Resutoran **de** go-han o tabemashita.

I dined (a meal) in the restaurant.

Formation:

Nで V

N₁で N₂を V

Notice: In a sentences where more than one noun is used, it is offhand possible and also permitted to change the position of these nouns. But the absolute condition of a change is not to forget to take the appended particle with the replaced noun. Usually the **first** mentioned noun is the bearer of the most important information in **written** cases. So if you say “Resutoran de go-han o tabemashita,“ the place (restaurant) is important. And in a sentence like “Go-han o resutoran de tabemashita.“ the involving object (meal) is more important than the second noun. The usual order is - place or time – object - predicate. In **spoken** language, as a matter of course, the **accentuation** defines the importance of the information.

More examples with で and を :

日本で着物を買いました。
Nihon de kimono o kaimashita.

I bought a Kimono in Japan.

映画館で映画を見ました。
Eiga-kan de eiga o mimashita.

I saw a film in the cinema.

デパートで買い物をします。
Depaato de kaimono o shimasu.

I will go shopping to the department store.

家でコーヒーを飲みます。
Uchi de koohii o nomimasu.

I will drink coffee at home.

3.6 Particle か

Example:

本を 読みますか。 Hon o yomimasu ka.

Do you read books ?

This is the first particle which belongs to the group of **interrogative particles**.

The function of か extends to the whole sentence. Regardless of the length or complexity, every sentence with a か at the end means a **question** (so-called **interrogative sentence**). In Japanese it is absolutely unnecessary to change the word order to transform a non-question sentence to an interrogative sentence. Strictly speaking, you can recognize a question only by this か, because the official Japanese orthography does not accept or know a question mark. Nevertheless in modern and especially in private writings you often see this sign.


An ordinary polite affirmative sentence like “biiru o nomimasu.” (She will drink beer.) transforms into a question by just attaching a か at the end of the sentence:

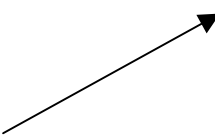
“Hon o yomimasu ka.” 本を読みますか。(Do you read books?)

Formation:

Sentence + ka.

During an oral communication a stress (accent) in an interrogative sentence should be on か. Please avoid the mistake of lifting your voice already at the predicate:

right pronunciation: Hon o yomimasu ka. 

wrong pronunciation: Hon o yo mi masu ka. 

More examples with か :

仕事をしますか。

Do you work?

Shigoto o shimasu ka.

会社に行きましたか。

Did he go to the firm?

Kaisha ni ikimashita ka.

映画館で映画を見ましたか。

Did you see a film in the cinema?

Eiga-kan de eiga o mimashita ka.

家でコーヒーを飲みますか。

Do you drink coffee at home?

Uchi de koohii o nomimasu ka.

ケルンからベルリンまで行きますか。

Do you go from Cologne to Berlin?

Kerun kara Berurin made ikimasu ka.

4. Interrogative Sentence

4.1 Yes / No questions

Example:

本を 読みますか。	はい、読みます。
Hon o yomimasu ka.	Hai, yomimasu.

Do you read books? Yes, I do (read books).

In the list of vocabularies of your **Practice Handbook** (Lesson 1) you will find the words **hai** (yes) and **ie** (no).

Although these words are sufficient for *non* Wh-questions, i.e. questions to which an “yes“ or “no“ answer is required, there are also other possibilities of answering. Instead of a plain **hai**, you can repeat all the elements of the interrogative sentence, with the exception of か, naturally. *Hai, hon o yomimasu*. But this is a standard, not very elegant class book answer. (In case of **ie**: see lesson 2)

In order to answer the question elegantly, you have to avoid repeating all the unnecessary parts. The suitable answer to the question: “Hon o yomimasu ka.“ should be “**Hai, yomimasu.**“

So in most cases the answer to interrogative sentences which are answered by **hai** or **ie** omits the nouns (see: *hon* in the sample sentence).

More examples:

仕事をしますか。 Shigoto o shimasu ka.	はい、します。 Hai, shimasu.
家へ帰りますか。 Uchi e kaerimasu ka.	はい、帰ります。 Hai, kaerimasu.
会社に行きましたか。 Kaisha ni ikimashita ka.	はい、行きました。 Hai, ikimashita.
映画館で映画を見ましたか。 Eiga-kan de eiga o mimashita.	はい、見ました。 Hai, mimashita.
家でコーヒーを飲みますか。 Uchi de koohii o nomimasu ka.	はい、飲みます。 Hai, nomimasu.
ケルンからベルリンまで行きますか。 Kerun kara Berurin made ikimasu ka.	はい、行きます。 Hai, ikimasu.

notice:

the most frequent mistakes are as follows:

- to repeat the か in the answer. (Shigoto o shimasu ka. Hai, shimasu ka.)
- to disregard the tense. (Kaisha ni ikimashita ka. Hai, ikimasu.)

4.2 Wh-question (Sentence Including an Interrogative)

Example:

どこへ行きますか。	大学へ行きます。
Doko e ikimasu ka.	Daigaku e ikimasu.

Where do you go?

I will go to the university. (college campus)

Where are you going to?

I am going to the university. (college campus)

Interrogative sentences with a specific interrogative word like “who“, “when“, “where“, “what“ etc. (so-called **probe questions**) should be answered by a keyword.

In this lesson only two interrogative words are introduced: どこ (where) and なに (what).

These words belong to the category of **pronouns**, i.e. nouns, and they should normally be accompanied by a particle. The interrogative **doko** is not only a “where“, but it is often translated with a long winded expression “which place“ to show the nominal character of this word. The interrogative **nani** written in Kanji as 何 can be pronounced in certain surroundings either *nan* or *nani*.

Formation:

Sentence including an interrogative + か。

Examples with どこ:

どこへ行きますか。

日本へ行きます。

Doko e ikimasu ka.

Nihon e ikimasu.

Where do you go? (Where are you going to?) I will go to Japan. (I'm going to...)

どこから来ましたか。

フランスから来ました。

Doko kara kimashita ka.

Furansu kara kimashita.

Where are you coming from ?

I am coming from France.

どこで買い物をしますか。

デパートでします。

Doko de kaimono o shimasu ka.

Depaato de shimasu.

At what place do you go shopping.

In the department store.

Examples with なに:

何をしますか。

本を読みます。

Nani o shimasu ka.

Hon o yomimasu.

What are you going to do?

I will read a book. (I'm going to...)

何をみますか。

映画をみます。

What are you going to see?

I will see a film. (I'm going to...)

どこで何をしますか。

家で勉強をします。

Doko de nani o shimasu ka.

Uchi de benkyoo o shimasu.

What are you going to do? And where?

I will learn at home. (I'm going to...)

The last sentence shows us the possibility of combination of **two** (or more) interrogatives.

More sentences of this kind:

どこで何をみますか。

Doko de nani o mimasu ka.

What are you going to see. And where?

家でテレビをみます。

Uchi de terebi o mimasu.

I am going to watch TV at home.

どこで何を買いますか。

Doko de nani o kaimasu ka.

What are you going to buy? And where?

デパートで着物を買います。

Depaato de kimono o kaimasu.

I am going to buy a k. in the department store.

It is possible to start the sentence with 何 followed by どこ, but it sounds somehow unusual. As already mentioned in 3.5, in sentences including more than one noun, it is possible to change their positions. Since the most important noun is mentioned as first, a sentence with an interrogative starts usually with the interrogative word itself. All examples are built in this way. A sentence like “**Doko de** shigoto o shimasu ka.” (At what place are you going to work?) shows the ordinary and ideal order of a probe question. But if you want to lay emphasis on the object (i.e. if the work in this example is contextually more important than place), it is quite unproblematic to start the sentence with the object: “**Shigoto o** doko de shimasu ka.”.

Quiz 4: Put the right particle into the space.

1. 本 買いました。
2. 花 見ました。
3. 肉 食べます。
4. 魚 食べます 。
5. デパート 買い物 します。
6. スーパー 買い物 します 。
7. フランス 行きます。
8. 家 帰ります。
9. 大学 勉強 します。
10. ドイツ 日本 行きます。
11. 日本 着物 買いました。
12. 家 ワイン 飲みます。
13. 何 飲みます 。
14. どこ 行きました 。
15. 何 しました 。
16. 手紙 書きました。
17. ラジオ 聞きます。
18. 会社 仕事をします。



The answers will be discussed during the grammar lesson.