A Pedagogical Study on Japanese Subordinate Clauses

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to analyze what aspects of Japanese subordinate clauses⁽¹⁾, which are shown in Minami (1974, 1993), are pedagogically meaningful and to consider how they can properly apply to the effective understanding of Japanese sentence structure and of how to properly position fraternal tricky particles *wa* and *ga*, special adverbs like declarative statement adverbs⁽²⁾ or modal auxiliaries within the domain of a subordinate clause or without it in a sentence, being intended to also consider a methodological teaching of Japanese sentence structure through understanding of how subordinate clauses behave.

This study claims in particular that the structural difference of wa and ga can be illustrated, in a way that makes it structurally understandable, instead of discussing the semantic difference of them. We will see the positions in which specific constituent elements like wa and ga can or must be placed, which are effectively illustrated as in [NP wa / ga ... [...ga... (verb) - (predicational element)] main predicate]. We will be able to examine the expertise of Minami (1974, 1993) that is pedagogically illustrated here so that we may effectively apply it.

Key words: wa, ga, subordinate clause, constituent element, main clause

1 Introduction

In this study, let us see what aspects of Japanese subordinate clauses are pedagogically valid and how they can properly apply to the effective understanding of Japanese sentence structure and of special adverbs or particles like wa and ga, by illustrating a methodological teaching of Japanese sentence structure through subordinate clauses and by showing in which position in a sentence, within the domain of a subordinate clause or without it, specific particles like wa and ga, declarative statement adverbs or modal auxiliaries like $dar\bar{o}$ can or must be placed.

When teaching Japanese grammar in classrooms, it appears from the author's experience of teaching Japanese that complicated sentences like complex sentences or compound sentences have not been in strict sense properly taught nor dealt with in textbooks. Thus, it can be said that when instructing learners, for example, in the difference of the most tricky particles *wa* and *ga*, though the semantic difference in a simple

sentence may be commonly taught a bit, specific differences in complex sentences might not have been explained concretely in view of subordinate clauses. Thus far, possibly sufficient attention of instructors or texbooks' writers has not been directed toward the instruction in complex or compound sentences, and much more in bizarre particles like wa and ga. Although, in fact, complex sentences and compound sentences with basic subordinate phrases are simply dealt with even in teaching Japanese to beginners, insufficient attention has been directed toward hidden structural frames within those sentences.

This study will show the structural difference of wa and ga, how to insert declarative statement adverbs and particular auxiliary verbs in subordinate clauses from the viewpoint of the structural relation between the whole sentence and an included subordinate clause.

2 The Structure of Japanese Subordinate Clauses

The structure of subordinate clauses has been very usefully considered and reasonably illustrated in *table 1* from Minami (1993), however, it does not seem, from the viewpoint of pedagogy, to be dealt with properly by instructors nor in teaching materials of Japanese language. The author considers how the theory of Japanese subordinate clause structure applies to pedagogical use in teaching Japanese.

Japanese subordinate clauses, some of which may be rather close to phrases, are conclusive key factors for the determination of whether ga can or must be used instead of wa in specific subordinate clauses, of whether the polite auxiliaries like masu and desu, the tense or aspect auxiliary ta, the negative auxiliary nai, the guess auxiliaries like $dar\bar{o}$ and mai and the volitional auxiliaries o and $y\bar{o}$ can be inserted into specific subordinate clauses, of what kind of adverbs (state adverbs, degree adverbs or declarative statement adverbs) or adverbial phrases (of time or place) can be inserted into or must be taken out of specific subordinate clauses and of which type of specific subordinate clauses can be inserted into the other specific subordinate clauses.

Minami (1993; pp.96-97) illustrates the relations of constituent elements and the words that frame subordinate clauses in the following table where constituent elements are listed in the upper horizontal row and the words that frame subordinate clauses are classified into three types in the left vertical column.

The sign "+" indicates, in *table 1*, that the constituent element with it in the upper horizontal row can be inserted into the subordinate clause shown on the left in the same line and the sign "-" indicates that the constituent element with it in the upper horizontal row cannot be inserted into the subordinate clause shown on the left in the same line.

Interestingly, for example, although $\sim te^2 \ (\sim \ \vec{\tau}^2)$ as B type of subordinate clause in the left column permits the nominative Case particle ga with the sign "+" to enter the subordinate clause ending with te^2 , the topic marker wa is accompanied with the sign "-", and thus wa is not permitted to enter the subordinate clause ending with te^2 . See *figure 2* in order to more explicitly confirm how to know what the table shows. In this case, we do not have to be troubled at all by the determining whether or not wa is proper in the subordinate clause with te^2 . We can just use ga there in order to indicate the agent of the action expressed by a verb in the te-form, though we have to know the differences of four te-forms in advance, which is very useful for learners of Japanese or even also for native speakers of Japanese to properly create refined complex sentences without making a mistake.

We will see several important subordinate clauses that are shown in *table 1* and will consider how the expertise is pedagogically helpful for applying to teaching materials.

table 1

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3 Three Types of Subordinate Clauses

Japanese subordinate clauses are classified into three types in Minami (1974, 1993). In this study, example sentences are created, according to the system shown there, for illustrating the structural property of the three types of subordinate clauses. They may be made use of in teaching various relations between constituent elements and subordinate clauses.

3.1 A Type of Subordinate Clause '...nagara'

First, let us see a constituent element that creates the most restricted type of subordinate clause, A type that is called 'A *rui*' in Minami (1974, 1993). Besides A type, there are B type (B *rui*) and C type (C *rui*). Although A type of subordinate clause actually should be called 'phrase' because it is so considerably restricted that a word expressing an agent of a sub-action, which would be positioned within it, actually cannot enter the 'clause', let us call it 'clause' here for convenience sake, since B and C type accept a word expressing an agent of a sub-action.

In the way as shown above, *table 1* is very helpful but such a table has never been seen in any textbook of Japanese as far as the author has been concerned with, and thus it can be said that it has not been considered by any writers of Japanese textbooks up to now. However, the author has been trying to adopt the theory illustrated in *table 1* into his textbook (forthcoming from Tuttle Publishing Company, U.S.A.) as in *figure 1*⁽³⁾, though it is not so extensively adopted there because of the linguistic level demanded in the textbook for beginners. For beginners of Japanese, it might be safer to concretely illustrate little by little in this way without showing a table like *table 1*, which looks a little too complicated.

In *figure 1*, the referent of the subject NP, *tomodachi* (my friend), that is put at the position as the agent of the sub-action 'looking at the car navigation' expressed in the *nagara*-clause that is classified as A type of subordinate clause in *table 1*, cannot actually be inserted into this subordinate clause. This implies that *tomodachi* is not an agent of the action of driving 'my car' even though it is marked by the subject marker *ga* at the top of the sentence. The explanation in *figure 1* tells that the main subject should be marked by *wa* as the topic of the whole sentence, and thus indicates that the agent of the main action ('driving my car') and the agent of the sub-action ('looking at the car navigation') accompanying the main action, must be the same.

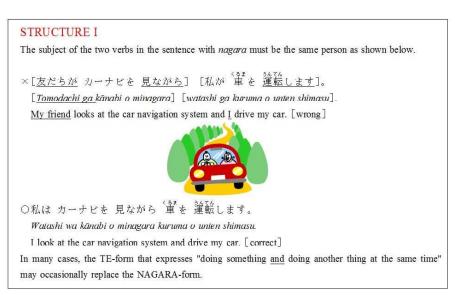


figure 1

Although the main agent, which is a topic marked by wa here, also can be marked by ga, wa that is chosen in many cases may be sufficient here. However, in cases where both wa and ga can be chosen as in the above main clause, if ga is chosen instead of wa, as in "Watashi ga kānabi o minagara kuruma o unten shimasu," the most probably well-known questions will arise as to whether wa is suitable or ga should be

chosen and as to what the difference of wa and ga is. Such a question that is not relevant at all to the structure of subordinate clause and the whole sentence but is relevant to ther nuance of the two fraternal particles, one of which strongly governs the whole statement as far as the end of sentence or of specific types of subordinate clauses and the other of which is merely a Case⁽⁴⁾ particle that indicates an agent of some action expressed by the directly following verb or the subject of the directly following predicational adjective or noun, should be saved for another opportunity and is not to be argued much in this study. The explanation in *figure 1* also states that this *nagara* may be replaced by *te*. Technically, this type of *te* is classified as *te*¹ shown in *table 1*, which is used to create A type of subordinate clause.

According to *table 1*, *nagara* and *te*¹ that create A type of subordinate clause are indicated by the sign "-" at the points where the horizontal rows of them and the vertical columns of '-wa' and '-ga' intersect, which lets us promptly notice that the following both sentences created to mean 'She views the car navigation while I drive my car' are ungrammatical.

- (1) a. Watashi wa [kanojo *wa kānabi o minagara] kuruma o unten shimasu.
 - b. Watashi wa [kanojo *ga_kānabi o minagara] kuruma o unten shimasu.

Kanojo, the agent of the sub-action expressed by the verb in the subordinate clause ending with *nagara*, is not permitted to enter the subordinate clause in both cases where the agent is marked by *wa* and *ga*. That is, only the following sentence with no agent other than '*watashi*' is grammatical.

(2) Watashi wa [kānabi o minagara] kuruma o unten shimasu.

However, we notice, by seeing *table 1*, that there is another type of *nagara*, which is an emotive adversative conjunctive particle, that creates B type of subordinate clause and that it does not permit *wa*-marked agent to enter the domain of the clause '-*nagara*', but permits *ga*-marked agent to enter there, as below.

(3) Taro wa [kānojo ga inagara / kānojo *wa inagara] hoka no onna no ko to asonde iru.

Taro is playing with another girl though he has a girl friend.

In this way, the clear difference between *nagara* of A type of subordinate clause and that of B type of subordinate clause is easily understood by knowing the above structural rules shown in *table 1*, which must be actually quite useful for learners to simply know how to properly use *wa* and *ga* in those subordinate clauses, rather than understanding the difference of their tricky semantic nuances. Also, for example, seeing that the sign "+" is indicated in the row of this type of *nagara* below the negative auxiliary *nai* in *table 1*, we notice we can create the following sentence with ease.

(4) Taro wa [kānojo ga inai nagara] sabishiku omotte inai.
Taro does not feel lonely though he does not have a girl friend.

3.2 B Type of Subordinate Clause '...tara'

Let us see the conjunction *tara* that creates the subordinate clause with the meaning 'when', 'after' or 'if'. Knowing its structural rule as to how to properly use *wa* and *ga* within or without the subordinate clause ending with *tara* is helpful for framing grammatical complex sentences because *tara* is one of the most important conjunctive particles that are frequently used.

Let us see the following and think about the reason wa is wrong.

(5) Watashi wa [Taro *wa_kitara] isshoni gēmu o shimasu.

I'll play games with Taro after he comes.

In cases where a learner has no idea about which of the two fraternal particles, wa and ga, must be used in the above subordinate clause, he or she will be sure, by checking table 1, that the following sentence is grammatical.

(6) Watashi wa [Taro ga kitara] isshoni gēmu o shimasu.

By the way, the declarative statement adverb *tabun* (probably) is one of the special adverbs that are the hardest to be positioned within the domain of subordinate clauses, and thus the following sentences require attention on its position. *Tabun* does not modify the verb *shindara* but modifies only the main verb because such an adverb cannot enter the domain of the subordinate clause ending with *tara* as shown below.

(7) Watashi wa <u>tabun</u> [Hanako ga shindara] ikite ikenai.

Probably I cannot live after Hanako dies.

There are some other auxiliary verbs that may enter there as in (4). Let us see whether or not the polite auxiliary *masu* may enter there.

(8) Anata wa [okyaku sama ga irasshai<u>mashit</u>ara] kyakuma ni otōshi nasai ne.

Please show the guests into the drawing room when they appear.

We may be able to easily create such a refined sentence as (8), by seeing *table 1* that shows *masu* is acceptable within the domain of *tara*-clause. The point at which the horizontal row of *tara* and the vertical column of *masu* intersect indicates the sign "+" in *table 1*.

In such a case where, for example, the respectful verb *irassharu* (to come) is used as in the above sentence, whether the polite auxiliary *masu* should or can be used in subordinate clauses should be known by the speaker so that he or she can properly speak in an advanced style in the sense that the whole sentence is well-balanced in all the polite expressions in it. For example, if the speaker uses the regular verb *kuru* instead of the respectful verb *irassharu* as follows, the former sentence (9a) without '*mashi*-' sounds rude while the latter one (9b) with '*mashi*-' might be okay because the polite auxiliary '*mashi*-' recovers the politeness even when the regular verb *kuru* is used.

- (9) a. Anata wa [okyaku sama ga *kitara] kyakuma ni otōshi nasai ne.
 - b. Anata wa [okyaku sama ga kimashitara] kyakuma ni otōshi nasai ne.

3.3 Subordinate Clause '...te'

The author considers that the pattern of the subordinate clause '...wa / ga ... (elements) ... [verb-te]' is most frequently used clause in Japanese, which is, in that sense, very important for learners or probably even for some native speakers who might make wrong use of wa and ga in those confusing subordinate clauses or want to create more complicated sentences to properly use. The combination of te and wa and that of te and ga seem to be the big keys for the reason the fraternal particles wa and ga have to be discriminated.

There are four types of te-clauses each of which has its own meaning, function and structural property, as follows. Let us call them ' te^{1} ', ' te^{2} ', ' te^{3} ' and ' te^{4} ', following Minami (1974, 1993) and see how they behave together with wa or ga in a sentence.

$3.3.1 Te^{1}$

The following te1 that may be close to 'while' when translated into English, though the order of Japanese

clauses and English ones may be reversed, behaves in the same way as the above *nagara*. However, let us put aside the nuances of those two words here.

(10) Taro wa sumaho o mite aruite iru.

Taro watches his smart phone while he is walking.

The restriction as to the use of wa and ga when te^1 is used is the same as that when nagara is used. Thus, we promptly and easily notice that the following sentences are ungrammatical, though the English translation of them is grammatical.

- (11) a. Taro wa [Hanako *wa sumaho o mite] aruite iru.
 - b. Taro wa [Hanako *ga sumaho o mite] aruite iru.

Hanako watches her smart phone while Taro is walking.

Therefore, as for te^1 , the following formula can be composed. The verb² is within the domain of A type of subordinate clause and the verb¹ is the main predicational verb of the whole sentence (and the same applies hereafter).

(12) Formula 1: [NP wa (or ga) [... \overline{wa} /... \overline{ga} [verb²- te^1]] ...verb¹].

However, there is not a structural difference of the wa and the ga that are positioned directly after the NP but a slight difference between their meanings, which is not a matter of interest here. We may inform learners that the above te^1 expresses a simultaneous additional event caused by the same person (or thing) as the agent of the main action.

$3.3.2 Te^2$

The verb followed by te^2 in the following subordinate clause does not express a simultaneous additional event because there is no way that Taro was sleeping in bed while he was taking shower (in a shower room or on a bed).

(13) Taro wa [shawā o abite] neta.

Taro took shower and went to bed. (*Taro took shower while sleeping in bed.)

Understandably, Taro went to bed after taking shower. We notice that the above *te* is used to state that the event 'taking shower' precedes the main event 'going to bed', and thus that this type of sentence describes events in succession.

Then let us see whether or not wa and ga may be inserted into this type of subordinate clause ending with te^2 . First, let us put ga at the position of the subject.

(14) Taro ga kōto o nuide sofā ni oita.

Taro took off his coat and put it on the sofa.

Interestingly, the above sentence actually does not let us know who put his coat on the sofa, though it must be taken as Taro in the English translation. In Japanese, Taro marked by ga may come out of the domain of the subordinate clause as in (15a) and also may remain in the domain of the subordinate clause as in (15b).

- (15) a. Taro ga [kōto o nuide] sofā ni oita.
 - b. [Taro ga kōto o nuide] sofā ni oita.
- (15a) shows that 'Taro' marked by ga positioned out of the domain of the subordinate clause is the only word that the sentence-ending predicate may succeed to, and thus the person who put it on the sofa must be understood to automatically indicate Taro. In contrast to (15a), (15b) shows that 'Taro' marked by ga

positioned inside the domain of the subordinate clause does not let us clearly know who put it on the sofa because there is no other word that expresses the agent of the main action of putting his coat on the sofa out of the domain of the subordinate clause, i.e., tells us that somebody else may have put his coat on the sofa as below.

(16) [Taro ga kōto o nuide] [Hanako ga sofā ni oita].

It was Hanako that put his coat after Taro took it off.

In addition, while (16) emphasizes who put his coat on the sofa, (17) that is also grammatical because the main subject is marked by *wa* as the topic neutrally and explanatorily tells us who put his coat on the sofa without emphasizing who did it.

(17) [Taro ga kōto o nuide] [Hanako wa sofā ni oita].

Note that the fact that (17) must be stated without changing the ga that marks Taro in the subordinated clause implies that Taro is not particularly emphasized but neutralized by the property of subordinate clauses, unlike the ga as the marker of the main subject in (15a) exclusively emphasizes Taro. Compared with (16) that emphatically expresses who put his coat on the sofa by the ga as the marker of the main subject in the sense that Hanako just physically did it by no implication, (17) is rather more meaningfully and thus refinedly expressing who did it and how or why she did it by implication as if it is being narrated in a literary work.

In fact, when the main subject is marked by ga as in (15a) and unlike in (13) that has the main subject marked by wa, the sentence has some emphatic nuance, i.e., it implies that it is not somebody else but Taro that took off his coat and put it on the sofa, while the wa-marked Taro is neutrally placed as the topic without exclusively emphasizing who did it, differently than (15a), as below.

(18) Taro wa [kōto o nuide] sofā ni oita.

Therefore, the above sentence with wa-marked topic, which might have been a seemingly ambiguous sentence for those who have no idea about the difference between (14) and (18), clearly expresses who put his coat on the sofa. However, this is the semantic difference that is not dealt with further here.

3.3.3 Te^3

 Te^3 , the third type of te, expresses reason or cause for the resulting event indicated in a main predicate.

(19) Taro wa Hanako ni aete ureshī.

Taro is glad to (be able to) meet Hanako.

The structure of (19) is as below, and thus we may automatically notice that who met Hanako is not anybody else but Taro, due to the fact that there is no other word indicating an agent besides *Taro* and that *Taro* is marked by *wa* that governs the whole statement, i.e., the influence of *Taro* as an element of the sentence is exerted as far as the end of the sentence.

(20) Taro wa [Hanako ni aete] ureshī.

In fact, te^2 and te^3 are fraternal constituent elements, both of which create B type of subordinate clauses, that structurally behave similarly to each other, except that their meanings are different from each other, though they are originally relevant to each other because a result always follows a cause in the same way as events in succession. Thus, we or learners may know whether or not the following sentence is grammatical.

(21) Taro wa [Hanako *wa kite kurete] ureshī.

Taro is glad that Hanako came to meet him.

In accordance with te^2 , (21) must be as follows.

(22) Taro wa [Hanako ga kite kurete] ureshī.

Interestingly, if the order of the subordinate clause and the main clause is arranged as in (23a), it seems that a few native speakers may feel it okay. In fact, there were some who accept it as grammatical when the author asked some native speakers whether or not it is acceptable to them, though in fact (23b) might be safer. The sign '?' indicates unstable grammatical acceptability of the expression with it.

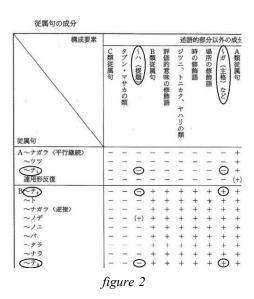
- (23) a. [Hanako ?wa kite kurete,] [Taro wa ureshī].
 - b. [Hanako ga kite kurete,] [Taro wa ureshī].

This may be because the both clauses are placed in parallel and thus the preceding subordinate clause may look like a highly independent clause that may accept a topic within itself, which would be actually possible if this te were te^4 . However, we should notice, considering the logical relation between the preceding subordinate clause and the following main clause, that the former clause is semantically dependent upon the latter clause in the sense that the former expresses the reason for the result expressed in the main clause and thus that the language power of the first wa clashes with the latter wa due to the action of wa exerted on the very end of the whole sentence.

Therefore, we may derive the following formulas for te^2 and te^3 . NP¹ and verb¹ belong to the main clause, while NP² and verb² to the subordinate clause.

- (24) a. Formula 2: $[NP^1 wa \text{ (or } ga) \text{ } [NP^2 ga \text{ } [\text{verb}^2 te^2 / te^3]] \text{ ...} \text{verb}^1].$
 - b. Formula 3: $[NP^2 ga \ [verb^2-te^2 / te^3]] \ [NP^1 wa \ (or ga) ...verb^1].$

Let us see the following figure, which is part of *table 1*, so that we may explicitly know how wa and ga behave in subordinate clauses with te^1 , te^2 and te^3 , by checking the signs '+' and '-'.



It is noticeable here that kara, which frames C type of subordinate clause and expresses reason in the same way as te^3 does, accepts wa-marked topic as what indicates the agent of sub-action within the domain of subordinate clauses. Thus, it might be confusing that both the following sentences are grammatical while (21) is ungrammatical and (23a) might be improper.

- (25) a. Taro wa [Hanako wa kite kureta kara] ureshī.
 - b. [Hanako wa kite kureta kara,] [Taro wa ureshī].

Also, the wa of the above both subordinate clauses can be replaced by the ga that simply expresses who came, as follows. Wa in subordinate clauses ending with kara can always be replaced by ga.

- (26) a. Taro wa [Hanako ga kite kureta kara] ureshī.
 - b. [Hanako ga_kite kureta kara,] [Taro wa ureshī].

Since the agent in the above subordinate clauses can be marked by not only ga but also wa, the write or speaker can also express the subtle nuance of wa and ga not only in the main clauses but also in the subordinate clauses, i.e., there can be the following four combinations of wa and ga for this sentence.

- (27) a. Taro wa [Hanako wa kite kureta kara] ureshī.
 - b. Taro wa [Hanako ga kite kureta kara] ureshī.
 - c. Taro ga [Hanako wa kite kureta kara] ureshī.
 - d. Taro ga [Hanako ga kite kureta kara] ureshī.
- (28) a. [Hanako wa kite kureta kara,] [Taro wa ureshī].
 - b. [Hanako wa kite kureta kara,] [Taro ga ureshī].
 - c. [Hanako ga kite kureta kara,] [Taro wa ureshī].
 - d. [Hanako ga kite kureta kara,] [Taro ga ureshī].

However, how the above each combination of wa and ga has its own nuance is not a matter of interest in this study. The structural characteristic of such a constituent element as kara that frames C type of subordinate clause will be dealt with again later.

$3.3.4 Te^4$

Although the topic marker wa may not be used in subordinate clauses framed by te^2 or te^3 as illustrated above, te^4 accepts wa as the topic marker as below in the same way as kara.

(29) Wagasha wa shinseihin o dasu yotei deshite, shachō wa kisha to no gappei o kangaete orimasu.
Our company is going to release a new product, and our president is contemplating a merger with your company.

The above complex sentence equals the following two independent sentences that can be framed by dividing it. *De* is an optional conjunction that equals 'and'.

- (30) Wagasha wa shinseihin o dasu yotei desu. De, shachō wa kisha to no gappei o kangaete orimasu. Reversing the order of the above two sentences makes no meaningful difference as below.
 - (31) Shachō wa kisha to no gappei o kangaete orimasu. De, wagasha wa shinseihin o dasu yotei desu.

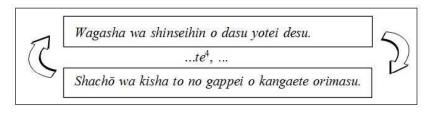


figure 3

Thus, the following also can be effected.

(32) Shachō wa kisha to no gappei o kangaete orimashite, wagasha wa shinseihin o dasu yotei desu. It can be said that (29) is framed by simply connecting the two highly independent statements by te^4 without expressing events in succession nor a sequence of cause and effect. This type of constituent element that frames the above type of complex sentence, which may be called 'compound sentence' because whose subordinate clause and main clause are not clearly interdependent with each other as illustrated in *figure 3*, is C type (C rui).

In order to let learners of Japanese create more advanced sentences containing subordinate clauses, it will be significant to recommend them to positively and properly frame C type of subordinate clauses with several predicational words that are positioned in a proper style at the end of subordinate clauses, for example, in order to avoid framing such a compound sentence as below especially on occasions requiring a speaker to properly use polite expressions.

(33) [Kono moderu wa zaiko ga kirete *<u>ite</u>,] moshi kyanseru no bāi wa osshatte kudasai.

This model is out of stock now. If you want to cancel it, please let us know.

While the *ite* that is positioned at the end of the preceding subordinate clause is the *te*-form of the verb *iru* in the plain form, the 'osshatte kudasai' in the main clause is a respectful form. (33) sounds unbalanced and thus odd as to its polite style of speech because the former clause is expressed in the plain style while the latter is in the respectful style, although (33) equals two independent sentences since the subordinate clause is C type ending with te^4 , which is highly independent as a clause. Thus, we should state the former clause also in the polite manner in the same way as the latter as follows.

(34) [Kono moderu wa zaiko ga kirete <u>orimashite,</u>] moshi kyanseru no bāi wa osshatte kudasai.

Even if the courteous copular-like verb gozaru, which means 'to be', is used in the *te*-form as below, it still sounds odd or impolite.

(35) [Kono moderu wa zaikogire de *gozatte,] moshi kyanseru no bāi wa osshatte kudasai.

This model is out of stock now. If you want to cancel it, please let us know.

It should be stated with the polite auxiliary masu in the te-form in the same way as (33), as below.

(36) [Kono moderu wa zaikogire de gozaimashite,] moshi kyanseru no bāi wa osshatte kudasai.

In *table 1*, we notice that the sign '+' is put at the intersection points of the horizontal rows of te^2 , te^3 and te^4 and the vertical column of *masu* and that not only when used for simply connecting two clauses almost meaninglessly but also when expressing events in succession or reason *masu* can be inserted into the predicational element in the subordinate clause as follows.

- (37) [Watashi wa ima shigoto ga owari<u>mashite,</u>] kaeru tokoro de gozaimasu. I'm on my way home after having finished my job.
- (38) [Watashi wa ima shigoto ga takusan arimashite,] jikan ga gozaimasenn. I have no time because I have lots of things to do now.

However, since the expression of politeness at the end of sentence may determine the politeness of the whole sentence, it hardly matters whether or not *masu* must be used in the former subordinate clause that is highly dependent upon the latter main clause unlike in (34) and (36).

We may be able to derive the following formula.

(39) Formula 4: $[NP^2 wa \text{ (or } ga) \text{ [verb}^2-(mashi / deshi) -te^4]] \text{ [NP}^1 wa \text{ (or } ga) ...verb^1].}$

3.4 Subordinate Clause '...ga'

The adversative conjunction ga, which may mean 'although' and occasionally 'and', works as a constituent element that frames C type of subordinate clause. Thus, this ga behaves in the same way as the above te^4 or kara as to how to manage a subordinate clause. The following sentence sounds odd or occasionally impolite.

- (40) a. [Aanata wa sakana ga suki *da ga,] watashi wa niku ga suki desu ne. You like fish and I like meat.
 - b. [Onaka ga *suita ga] nanika tabe ni ikimasen ka.

I'm hungry. Won't you go somewhere to eat with me?

As explained above, *desu* and *masu* should be inserted into the above subordinate clauses respectively as follows.

- (41) a. [Anata wa sakana ga suki desu ga,] watashi wa niku ga suki desu ne.
 - b. [Onaka ga sukimashita ga] nanika tabe ni ikimasen ka.

figure 4

The above figure is part of the textbook written by the author (forthcoming from Tuttle Publishing Company, U.S.A.), which is significant for learners to know so that they may learn to properly communicate well socially. The combination of the subordinate clause in the plain form and the main clause in the plain form is also proper especially when reporting some event in a formal style.

However, we should note that many of the constituent elements that frame B type of subordinate clauses may also follow *masu* and *desu* as follows, though *wa*-marked topic may not be inserted into B type of subordinate clauses unlike C type.

- (42) [Junbi ga dekimashitara,] oyobi shimasu. When I'm ready, I'll call you.
- (43) [Oyobi <u>deshitara</u>,] kono botan o oshite kudasai.
 When you want to call us, please push this button.
- (44) [Kodomo ga kaze o hikimashite,] oyasumi o itadakitai n desu.

 I want to take a leave of absence because my child has a cold.

As for the rest of the constituent elements that frame C type of subordinate clauses, we may consider that

they may behave similarly to those that frame B type except that te^3 cannot accept the volitional auxiliaries or guessing auxiliaries like (yo) o, $dar\bar{o}$ and mai, as shown in table 1. Also, te^3 may not accept tabun that was discussed above, which is one of the clear differences between B type and C type of subordinate clauses.

The following combination of ga and the constituent elements that are wa, tabun and $desh\bar{o}$ here, is particularly noticeable.

- (45) [Jiko de densha wa tabun okureru deshō ga,] watashitachi wa mani au deshō.

 The train probably will be delayed due to the accident but I'm sure we'll be in time.

 In the same way as above, kara may accept it.
 - (46) [Kyō no tenki wa tabun warui deshō kara,] watashitachi wa kasa o motte ikimashō. Let's bring umbrellas because I'm afraid probably today's weather will be bad.

Intriguingly, we notice that *node* turns out to be structurally quite different from kara by seeing that it may not accept wa, tabun nor $desh\bar{o}$ in its domain as a clause, as below, despite the fact that node also expresses reason.

- (47) Kyō wa [tenki *wa *tabun warui *deshō node,] watashitachi wa kasa o motte ikimashō. If the above ungrammatical sentence can be given as a question for correcting, it will be a good exercise. A conceivable answer for it is as below.
 - (48) Kyō wa [tenki ga waruku naru kamoshiremasen node,] watashitachi wa kasa o motte ikimashō.

4. Summary

The core of the theory of subordinate clauses from the viewpoint of sentence structure that is applied in this study is from Minami (1974, 1993). Insufficient attention has been directed toward hidden structural frames of subordinate clauses within sentences. The author thinks that this study may be the first work that is advanced from the pedagogical viewpoint. This study has analyzed what aspects of Japanese subordinate clauses are pedagogically useful and has considered how they can properly apply to the effective understanding of sentence structure.

The fraternal particles wa and ga are particularly illustrated from the viewpoint of sentence structure so that learners and instructors may methodologically understand the structural differences of them by showing at which position in a sentence, i.e., within the domain of subordinate clauses or without the domain of subordinate clauses, they can or must be placed.

The pattern of the subordinate clause '...ga / wa ... (elements) ... [verb-te]' is most frequently used among subordinate clauses in Japanese. Thus, as for the te-form, we have seen four types of them particularly by observing the positions of wa and ga in a sentence from the viewpoint of the structural relation between the whole sentence and an included subordinate clause. The author derived the following four formulas for te.

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Formula 1: [NP wa (or ga) [...wa/...ga [verb²-te^1]] ...verb¹].

Formula 2: [NP¹ wa (or ga) [NP² ga [verb²-te^2 / te^3]] ...verb¹].

Formula 3: [NP² ga [verb²-te^2 / te^3]] [NP¹ wa (or ga) ...verb¹].

Formula 4: [NP² wa (or ga) [verb²-(mashi / deshi)-te^4]] [NP¹ wa (or ga) ...verb¹].
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We have seen that, although, for example, there still remains another problem to learners as to the nuance of wa and ga or semantic difference of node and kara, acquiring full information about the structural

differences seen from the viewpoint of subordinate clauses will be useful. The author expects the application of the structural principle to pedagogical development of teaching materials.

NOTE

- (1) In Japanese, the concept 'clause' may be ambiguous, since even arguments like *ga*-marked one or *o*-marked one may be in many cases ready to be omitted in an inserted subordinate expression, and thus whether it should be called 'clause' or 'phrase' is not necessarily clear unlike in English. Although Minami (1974, 1993) calls it 'phrase,' let us call it 'clause' in this study, since whether or not *ga*-marked argument can be inserted in it is one of the biggest concerns.
- (2) The adverbs that govern the whole statement and require a specific sentence-ending expression. For example, tabun requires such expressions at the end of a sentence as ' $dar\bar{o}$ ', 'to omou', etc.
- (3) The use of the illustration in *figure 1* is permitted by JustSystems Corporation.
- (4) In this study, the grammatical case is indicated by 'Case' so as to be regarded as a grammatical case.

REFERENCES

Minami Fujio (1974) Gendai Nihongo no Kōzō, Taishūkan shoten.

Minami Fujio (1993) Gendai Nihongo bunpo no Rinkaku, Taishūkan shoten.