Esutonia-go bunpoo nyuumon. Eesti keele grammatika jaapan-lastele. Koostanud ja kirjutanud Kazuto Matsumura. Institute for the Study of Languages and Cultures of Asia and Africa, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, 1991. 367 pp.; Esutonia-go syooziten. Väike eesti-jaapani õppesõnaraamat. Koostanud Kazuto Matsumura. Institute for the Study of Languages and Cultures of Asia and Africa, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, 1991. 110 pp.

This grammar of Estonian and the supplementary little Estonian-Japanese dictionary were published as textbooks for a 150-hour intensive course of the Estonian language held from July 22 to August 31, 1991, at the Institute for the Study of Languages and Cultures of Asia and Africa, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies.

When I started to learn Estonian under Kazuto Matsumura's guidance in January 1990, my textbook was his English translation of А. Валмет, Э. Туру, Э. Ууспыл д, Учебник эстонского языка (Tallinn 1981 = Учебник). He had translated the book from Russian into English a few years earlier and revised his translation over the years (a copy of an earlier version of his translation can be found at the Department of Estonian of Tartu University). Since Учебник is a good textbook, Matsumura first thought of translating it into Japanese so that it could be used as a textbook in his intensive course of Estonian. He went a little farther, however, and wrote a new excellent textbook.

Matsumura's is the first systematic presentation of Estonian grammar ever written in Japanese. The lexicon, though it constains only a little more than 750 basic words, is perhaps the first dictionary compiled for learners of Estonian as a foreign language. Before its publication learning Estonian was little short of impossible in Japan. Now Japanese students can learn Estonian through the medium of their mother tongue, which I consider an epoch-making event.

In spite of its Japanese title, Matsumura's grammar is no primer — it is also very useful for more advanced learners and those who intend to pursue Estonian studies here in Japan. The Estonian sentences were all checked by a native speaker with regard to grammaticality, so it can serve as a useful source book for professional linguistic research as well.

Though he acknowledges his debt to Учебник as an important source of illustra-tive sentences, Matsumura's descriptions and explanations of the grammatical facts of Estonian in this grammar bear little resemblance to those found in Учебник, which is rather traditional in spirit. Matsumura's descriptions and explanations are much more systematic and consistent from the learner's point of view, and thus easier to understand.

The grammar book is divided into 20 chapters. No index is provided, but the lack of a subject index is partly compensated for by the 16-page-long table of contents, where all the titles of the sections in each chapter are indicated for the benefit of those who want to use it as a reference grammar. Morphological exercises are given here and there in the earlier chapters.

The textbook would be complete if it contained a chapter on Estonian phonetics and phonology and some short easy texts for reading at the end of each chapter. During the 1991 summer intensive course, teaching material for pronunciation practice, reading and translation was distributed to all the students of the course. It should be added that six audiocassettes are now available upon request, though there is much to be hoped for in the quality of recording.

Now I will pick up some grammatical topics and illustrate how they are explained by Matsumura to the Japanese learner of Estonian.

(1) Object Case Marking

This subject is dealt with in Chapters 5 and 13.

In Chapter 5, in order to explain one aspect of the intricacy of the Estonian object case marking, Matsumura classifies nouns into two major categories *kotai* (individual) nouns (e. g., 'clock', 'book', 'dog', etc.) and *hi-kotai* (non-individual) nouns (e. g., 'clay', 'water', 'paper', 'space', etc.). He, however, warns beginning-level learners that this distinction is far from absolute. For example, 'coffee' is usually a *hi-kotai* noun as it denotes something which is

indefinite in amount and thus cannot be counted one by one. It, however, turns into a *kotai* noun when it is used in a context in which it denotes something which is definite in amount and concrete in meaning, as in the expression 'two coffees' used when we order two cups of coffee at a café.

Now Matsumura explains the rules of case marking for the direct object noun in the singular. The object is always in the partitive case if the sentence is a negative one, otherwise it is marked by the genitive or the partitive. Some verbs, such as *armastama* 'to love', *vaatama* 'to look', always require the partitive object, while the others take either a genitive or a partitive object. In the latter case, the choice of the case for the singular direct object is extremely difficult for learners of Estonian as a foreign language.

In order to make the situation a bit easier for the learners, Matsumura explains the semantic distinction between *kotai* and *hi-kotai* nouns referred to above. When the direct object is a *hi-kotai* noun, it is usually in the partitive. But when a *hi-kotai* noun denotes something which is definite in amount, as in the example 'two coffees' above, i. e., when it can be reclassified as *kotai* noun, then the direct object is generally put into the genitive form. On the other hand, if the direct object is a *kotai* noun, the genitive/partitive opposition is used to denote the perfective/imperfective opposition in verbal aspect.

In Chapter 13, the rules for marking the direct object in the plural are discussed. The reader is told that the rules for the case marking of plural objects are more or less similar to those for marking the singular *hi-kotai* object: there is a certain similarity between the singular *hi-kotai* noun and the plural noun. Suppose you have ten coins on your desk. If you take some and put them into your pocket, then there are coins both on the desk and in your pocket, i. e. you can call both group of coins — one on the desk and the other in your pocket — by the plural noun 'coins'. Such is exactly the case with the singular *hi-kotai* noun like 'money' and you can repeat the same story using the singular *hi-kotai* noun 'money' instead of the plural 'coins'.

There is a very interesting kind of parallelism between the genitive/partitive

opposition in singular *hi-kotai* objects and the nominative/partitive opposition in plural *kotai* objects. In negative sentences the plural object is, as a rule, in the partitive. In affirmative sentences it may be either in the nominative plural or in the partitive plural. The object is put into the nominative plural if the things it refers to are regarded as forming a definite group or organized complex. In contrast, if the purpose of using the plural form is to indicate that the referent consists of more than one thing, the object is put into the partitive plural. In other words, plural nouns are just like *hi-kotai* nouns.

Being systematic and consistent, Matsumura's explanation of the rules for object case marking in terms of *kotai* and *hi-kotai* nouns is an illuminating way to present one of the intricacies of Estonian grammar to foreign learners.

(2) The Imperative

The imperative is introduced in Chapters 6 and 16. The second person singular imperative form of a verb is no problem to the learner since the verb has just the present indicative stem. However, the choice of a second person plural imperative ending is not an easy task for foreign students.

Chapter 6 gives an overview of the distribution of the imperative markers *-ge* and *-ke*. The choice between the two forms depends on the morphological structure of the infinitive form of a verb. Estonian verbs are classified by Matsumura into five major types with respect to the morphology of the infinitive forms: 1) if the *da*-infinitive ends in *-da*, and both the *da*-infinitive and the *ma*-infinitive stems end in a vowel, then the imperative marker is *-ge*; 2) if the *da*-infinitive ends in *-ta*, and the stem of *da*-infinitive ends in a vowel, then the imperative marker is *-ke*; 3) if the *da*-infinitive ends in *-la*, *-na* or *-ra*, then the imperative marker is *-ge*; 4) if the *ma*-infinitive stem ends in a voiceless consonant, then the imperative marker is *-ke*; if the *ma*-infinitive stem ends in a voiced consonant, then the imperative marker is *-ge*; (5) if the *ma*-infinitive stem ends in *-le*, and the *da*-infinitive stem ends in *-el*, then the imperative marker is *-ge*.

One problem with this classification in terms of infinitive stems and endings

is that the rules for separating the *da*-infinitive ending from the stem are not explained here, but as late as in Chapter 16.

In Chapter 16 the rules for the choice of the imperative ending are presented from a little different aspect: the ending is *-ke* if either the *da*-infinitive ending is *-ta* or the stem of the *da*-infinitive ends with one of the voiceless consonants *-t*, *-d*, *-s* and *-h*. Otherwise *-ge* is chosen. There is a list of verbs whose stem structure is "irregular": e. g. *joo|ma, juu|a, joo|ge* 'to drink', *söö|ma, süü|a, söö|ge* 'to eat', *võt|ma, võt|ta, võt|ke* 'to take'. In the last case, the orthographic convention blurs the phonemic structure of the stem *võtt-*.

(3) Grade Alternation

Grade alternation, which is peculiar to the Estonian language, is explained in Chapter 7. Matsumura's treatment of grade alternation is synchronic, and only productive types are explained in terms of rules.

Four major types are pointed out and explained in detail: 1) an overlong consonant alternates with a long one, where the alternation is reflected in spelling (e. g. *pi`kk* gen. *pika*, part. *pi`kka* 'long'); 2) an overlong consonant/vowel alternates with a long one, but the alternation is not indicated in spelling (e. g., *li`nn*, gen. *linna*, part. *li`nna* 'town'); 3) a long voiceless plosive alternates with a short one (*p : b*, *t : d*, *k : g*), 4) the short plosive occurring in the strong grade assimilates to the preceding consonant in the weak grade (e. g., *sild*, gen. *silla*, part. *silda* 'bridge').

Other cases which are traditionally treated under the heading of "alternation of quality" are put together in a supplementary section, and the reader is recommended to learn them by rote: 1) cases where a short consonant disappears in the weak grade (e. g., *jõgi*, gen. *jõe*); 2) cases where the consonant disappearance is accompanied by vowel change (e. g., *tuba*, gen. *toa*); 3) cases where a different consonant occurs in the weak grade (e. g., *sada*, gen *saja*). They are not "regular" cases of grade alternation in that you cannot tell whether it occurs or not from the phonemic structure of the stem. For example, the noun *rida* 'row' is subject to grade alternation (gen. *rea*, part. *rida*),

but the noun *ida* 'east' is not (gen. *ida*, part. *ida*). In some words grade alternation is optional: *pidu*, gen. *peo* or *pidu*, part. *pidu* 'festival'. Considering the low productivity of the quality alternation in Present-Day Estonian, Matsumura's solution is reasonable. Presenting these cases side by side with the productive patterns as instances of grade alternation would only confuse the learner.

(4) Indefinite Person (Umbisik)

The indefinite person, which is peculiar to the Estonian language, is described in Chapters 17 and 18. Though it is a very interesting phenomenon, foreigners often find it difficult to understand it precisely. Matsumura's explanation is given in plain language and easy to understand.

According to Matsumura, the indefinite person in Estonian can be characterized by the following three points:
1) No subject which expresses an agent appears if the verb of a sentence is in the indefinite person. In other words, the indefinite person merely indicates the existence of a human actor or actors, but does not specify who is referred to.
2) Each verb has a special form for the indefinite person. Since it is not associated with any particular person, it always occurs in one and the same form: for example, in the present tense indicative the ending is *-takse* in the affirmative and *-ta* in the negative.
3) The direct object is marked by the nominative singular; in contrast, in the sentence of the definite person it is marked by the genitive singular.

Some cases of the indefinite person can be translated into the passive in English. For example:
(a) *Võid tehakse piimast* 'Butter is made from milk'.
(b) *Kõik õunad ostetakse kindlasti* 'All apples are bought surely'.

This does not imply that the indefinite person is always like the passive. Matsumura points out that there is a crucial difference between the indefinite person in Estonian and the passive in English.

In the following examples, sentences (d) and (e) are passive sentences corresponding to sentence (c). In terms of semantic structure, sentence (d) is equivalent to sentence (c) because both mean that the church was destroyed and that the cause of its destruction was a fire.

Sentence (e) is not equivalent to (c) in semantic content because it reports only the church's destruction.

(c) The fire destroyed the church.
(d) The church was destroyed by the fire.
(e) The church was destroyed.

Sentence (f) is the Estonian sentence that semantically corresponds to the English sentence (c). The indefinite person counterpart of (f) is sentence (g).

(f) *Tulekahju hävitas kiriku* 'The fire destroyed the church'.
(g) *Kirik hävitati* 'The church was destroyed by someone'.

Unlike an English passive such as (d), the Estonian indefinite person cannot indicate the agent explicitly. In English, if (c) is true, then (e) is also true. In Estonian, however, (g) is not equivalent to (f) in semantic content. In (f) the fire can be either an intentional act or a mere accident. But (g), unlike the English passive (e), presupposes that the destruction was carried out intentionally by someone.

It should be added that this chapter abounds in appropriate illustrative sentences, which greatly help the learner understand what the indefinite person is all about.

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As for the dictionary, which contains some 750 words, the main body of the vocabulary was taken from the booklet Базовый словарь эстонского языка (Basic Vocabulary of the Estonian Language) published in Tallinn in 1989. To this were added some 20 words such as *Jaapan, jaapanlane*, etc. for the Japanese learner. Each head word is accompanied by at least one illustrative sentence. These examples were for the most part simplified versions of the sentences composed by Toomas Help. Being simple and appropriate, they are very useful for the beginner. Any overlong syllable is

marked with an acute accent (`) unless it occurs in a monosyllabic word or monosyllabic constituent of a compound word. Moreover, each noun (adjective) is followed by its genitive, partitive and illative forms, and each verb by its *da*-infinitive, first person indicative present form and the *tud*-participle.

The knowledge of the Estonian language is indispensable for Estonian studies. I am certain that Matsumura's grammar and vocabulary will help enhance the understanding of Estonian culture and history in Japan.

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Toivo T i k k a, Vepsän suffiksoituneet postpositiot. Kieliopillisiin sijoihin liittyvä suffiksoituminen, Uppsala 1992 (Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis. Studia Uralica Upsaliensia 22). XIII + 208 S.

Die hier zu besprechende Doktordissertation von Toivo Tikka über die suffigierten Postpositionen des Wepsischen wurde postum veröffentlicht. Aus dem von Lars-Gunnar Larsson verfaßten Vorwort geht hervor, daß Toivo Tikka mit dieser Forschung im Dezember 1991 an der Universität Uppsala seinen Doktorgrad erworben hätte. Der unerwartete Tod des Verfassers trat ein, als der Druck des Werkes sich bereits im Stadium des Korrekturlesens befand. Prof. L.-G. Larsson, unter dessen Anleitung T. Tikka seine Dissertation erarbeitete, sah die Herausgabe der Untersuchung als Notwendigkeit an und sorgte mit Unterstützung von Dr. Rut Boström-Andersson, Dozent Stig Eliasson und Jurij Anduganov u. a. für ihre Vollendung.

Die umfangreiche Forschung von T. Tikka mit insgesamt 9 Kapiteln, 38 Tabellen und 15 Karten ist offensichtlich in einem längeren Zeitraum erstellt worden. Im Werk selbst gibt es keinerlei Hinweise darauf, wann der Autor mit dem Sammeln des weitläufigen Materials und dem entsprechenden Literaturstudium begonnen hat. In ausgedehntem Maße wurden Druckschriften, aber auch handschriftliches