The principle of repulsion between active inflecting words

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I. Stative inflecting words and active inflecting words

In his work *Gengyo shishuron* ("Theory of the four-way distinction in words"), Hanareya Okina Suzuki Akira presents a completely novel proposal for a categorization of inflecting words. It is argued under the title of "words for states and words for actions" and is presented as follows:

For items that have heretofore been treated under a single category, variously called 'words of application,' 'words of function,' 'words of inflection,' etc., now I divide them into the two categories of 'stative words' and 'active words', with the distinction between them being whether either for the inflecting words in the "te, ni, wo, ha" class attached to the ends of these words, or for these words themselves, the written symbol suffixed to the word root corresponds to second column 'i' rhymes or to third column 'u' rhymes. In the case of those rhyming with 'i', they are further divided into words ending in 'si' and those ending in 'ri'. In the case of 'si', it can be recognized as the 'si' in words such as 'kirakirasi'(shiny.CLS) or 'sugasugasi' (fresh.CLS), or in the contemporary speech as the '-sii' in 'nani-nanisi-i' (something-something-ACOP.CLS), the nature of which is denoting states: The '-si' of '-kesi' as in 'sizukesi' (tranquil.CLS), 'harukesi' (distant.CLS); of '-tasi' as in 'ureta-si' (annoying-CLS), 'medeta-si' (praiseworthy-CLS); of '-mekasi' as in 'hurumekasi' (old-fashioned.CLS), 'obomekasi' (vague.CLS) all are in this category, as is the '-si' in 'taka-si' (high-CLS), 'hiki-si' (low-CLS), 'yo-si' (good-CLS), 'a-si' (bad-CLS), 'kanasi' (disarming.CLS), 'tanosi' (interesting.CLS). In the case of '-ri', the form is 'ar-i' (exist-CLS) with the 'a-' being that 'a-' attested in words like 'ariari' (manifest), 'azayaka' (vivid), 'araharu' (appear) 'akiraka' (clear), which is elided and disappears when suffixed to other elements: 'worri' (be.sitting.ADI) is from 'wi-arri' (sit-exist.ADI); 'kik-eri' (hear-STV.ADI) and 'mi-tari' (see-PRF.ADI) are from 'kiki-ari' (hear-exist.ADI) and 'mi-te-ari' (see-PRF-exist.ADI); 'yuk-eri' (go-STV.ADI) and 'kaher-eri' (return-STV.ADI) are from 'yuki-ari' (go-exist.ADI) and 'kaheri-ari' (return-STV.ADI). Every such word ending in the character 'ri' is originally an active word that now denotes a state. In this way, all words that end in either 'i' or 'ri' denote states....

The point in which the categorization above differs in result from typical bipartite categorizations dividing predicates into verbs and adjectives is in its treatment of the 'ra'-row irregular inflecting verbs, whereby verbs such as 'ari' (exist.ADI) 'worri' ('be.sitting.ADI'), 'haberi' (serve.ADI), 'imakari' ('go.ADI'), etc. are separated from other verbs and subsumed under a category including adjectives.

That the distinction between stative and active predicates is not one merely applying to free inflecting morphemes but is also applicable to bound verbal suffixes
should be clear from the quotation above. But from the fact that verbal suffixes in
Japanese are limited to two classes, those with conclusive forms in ‘i’ and those in ‘u’,
without a single item having a conclusive form other than those two, the classification can
be seen to partition all the inflecting forms of Japanese into two clear groups. Moreover, as
a result of this, with regard to two forms that should be thought of as occupying the same
category on the basis of semantics, namely ‘ari’ (‘exist.ADI’) and ‘na-si’ (‘lacking-CLS’),
the need for the strange analysis whereby the former is a verb and the latter is an adjective
is eliminated. Furthermore, we must recognize that, as can be seen in the naming that
Suzuki applies to the categories, the resulting grouping of inflecting words denoting the
states of things and those denoting the actions of things is not a distinction merely drawn
on the basis of morphology, but parallels observations on a semantic level as well. To this
extent the analysis above captures an aspect of the nature of the Japanese language very
accurately and can be thought of as having a significance equal to that of the partitioning
of verbs from adjectives. Nevertheless, because the morphological utility of the analysis
was lost due to the enormous disruption of the inflection system after the Muromachi
period, which resulted in the elimination of the ‘ra’-row irregular inflection, this analysis
saw no development worth mentioning since the publication of Gengyo shishuron, and
compared to the verb/adjective distinction, it seems to have been left in neglect.
Nevertheless, the analysis can be thought of as having plenty of value at least with respect
to the Japanese language that predates the loss of the ‘ra’-row irregular inflection, so
based on Suzuki’s categorization, I propose, in the pages that follow, to investigate how
said categorization is reflected in the makeup of the Japanese language.

Suzuki’s analysis can be summarized as follows:

All the inflecting words in the Japanese language can be divided into two groups depending on
whether the conclusive form of a given word ends in an ‘i’ rhyme or a ‘u’ rhyme. There are no
exceptions. The first group is designated as the group of stative predicates, and the latter is the
group of active predicates.

Now, when making these definitions based on morphology, the semantic fact that,
without exception, stative predicates always denote states of things and active predicates
always denote actions of things strictly falls out as a consequence is (as noted above) an
important feature of the categorization. However, language is never without change and
development, with semantic shift and changes in lexical characteristics being unavoidable,
so that items which undergo changes in lexical characteristics due to external influences
are attested, albeit in small numbers. Specifically, the items presented in the discussion
that immediately follows are originally active inflecting words which have come to be
used as stative inflecting words (and there are no items exemplifying a shift in the
opposite direction).
These words do not denote actions of things, but rather denote judgments about the subjective existence of things on the occasion of seeing, hearing, and perceiving them, and to this extent these words should be categorized together with stative inflecting words. It has already been pointed out by previous researchers that these words are originally ‘miru’ (see.ADN), ‘kiku’ (hear.ADC), and ‘omohu’ (think.ADC) with the verbal auxiliary ‘-yu’ (-PASS.CLS) attached, and are thus not strictly single-morpheme items, but it can be said that on a semantic level their character of denoting not actions but rather states is a result of external influences.

It is generally acknowledged that originally each of these words respectively denoted distinct actions for the most part, but due to semantic change, they all came to be used in exactly the same way as ‘ari’ and ‘haberi’. Furthermore, it can be proven that this semantic shift was a change due to external influences that occurred after the Heian period.

These expressions are limited to cases where, respectively, ‘to ihu’ is used to express appellation, and ‘ni naru’ is used to express longevity. In contemporary Japanese as well, the statements ‘watasi wa nanigasi to iimasu’ (lit. ‘I call (myself) such and such’) and ‘watasi wa boosai ni narimasu’ (lit. ‘I become such and such years old’) express, in effect, the same meanings as ‘watasi wa nanigasi desu’ (‘I am such and such’) and ‘watasi wa boosai desu’ (‘I am such and such years old’). Accordingly, it is clear that these expressions are not accompanied by the active meanings of ‘to ihu’ and ‘ni naru’, and their origins belong to a historical period that is amenable to empirical verification.

The conclusive form of the verbal auxiliary for negation ‘zu’ ends in a rhyme with ‘u’, but its inflectional paradigm should be identified with that of adjectives (Hashimoto, Shōwa 30 (1955) lecture “Kokubunpō taikei-ron”). Furthermore, its inflectional paradigm can clearly be seen to be made up of two distinct variant types, one in the ‘na’-row and one in the ‘za’-row, so that it must be admitted that this inflection is also a result of a change due to external influences. Furthermore, the conclusive form of the verbal auxiliary for conjecture ‘mu’ also ends in a rhyme with ‘u’, but, given that it originally was simply used

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to denote either conjecture and futurity or to denote intention, it can be argued that semantically the first usage includes stativity in its meaning. The reason is that in Classical Japanese the expression ‘yuka-mu’ (go-CJR.ADC) was a single form with two senses, capable of expressing both conjecture and intention, but in Contemporary Spoken Japanese the expression ‘yukau’ (go.HORT) expresses in the Standard Language only intention and not conjecture. In order to simply express conjecture the form becomes ‘yuku darau’ (go.ADC COP.HORT) where, given that ‘dara’ can be traced back to ‘de ari’ (COP.GER exist.CLS), it can be seen that ‘ari’ mediates in the formation of the expression. In addition, these stay as two distinct forms in polite speech: ‘yuki-maseu’ (go-POL.HORT) and ‘yuku deseu’ (go.ADC COP.POL.HORT), but while, as can be seen in the expression ‘Izure kuwasii koto wa honnin ga mawosiagemaseu ga toriaezu watasi kara daitai wo ohanasi simasu.’ (‘Eventually the person in question will tell the details, but for the moment I will give the gist’) it cannot be easily claimed that there are absolutely no instances where ‘-maseu’ expresses conjecture, normally ‘yukimaseu’ expresses intention and ‘yuku deseu’ expresses conjecture. When we consider the relationship between ‘-masu’ (-POL.CLS) and ‘mawirasu’ (submit.CLS), and that between ‘desu’ (COP.POL.CLS) and ‘de ar-imasu’ (COP-GER exist-POL.CLS) we also can see the existence of stativity in the forms that denote conjecture. If we state this from the point of view whereby auxiliary verbs are what Tokieda calls ‘kannen-go’ (conceptual-words), since we should consider the forms expressing the intention of the subject as being more direct expressions, it is more fitting to consider the expression simply denoting conjecture or futurity as being the result of an expansion of the usage of ‘mu,’ and accordingly the fact that ‘mu’ which rhymes with ‘u’ has come to denote stative meanings can be said to be a result of a change in lexical characteristics. The same can be said of the conjectural forms ‘ramu’ (CJR.ADC) and ‘-kemu’ (-CJR.ADC).

The only forms that should be regarded as exceptions within the stative/active categorization are those few set out in the discussion above, but as previously noted these are all the result of either changes or expansions of the semantics or lexical characteristics due to external influences, changes which were newly arisen and certainly not any original characteristic of the words in question. For this reason, we can consider the stative/active categorization to be a truly magnificent categorization allowing of no exceptions with respect to the time period at which the inflections of words in the Japanese language had yet to be exposed to the eroding winds of language change, and from this standpoint, we can say that the above categorization has a necessity deeply rooted in the nature of the Japanese language.

Now, at the point when the items raised above (which morphologically have conclusive forms rhyming with ‘u’, while at the same time semantically denote states of things) had their membership shift from the class quasi-stative words to that of stative words, the scope of the class of stative words was as follows:
i. adjectives
    ‘-ku’ inflection
    ‘-siku’ inflection

ii. verbs
    ‘ohasu’, ‘to ihu’, ‘ni naru’

iii. verbal auxiliaries
    ‘besi’ (‘ought’), ‘-tasi’ (‘desire’), ‘gotosi’ (semblative), ‘-mazi’ (negative
    conjecture), ‘-mahosi’ (‘desire’), ‘-tari’ (resultative), ‘-ri’ (progressive), ‘-keri,’
    (modal past), ‘meri’ (evidential), ‘nari’ (evidential), ‘bekari’ (‘ought’), ‘-takari’
    (be desirous of), ‘-mazikari’ (negative conjecture), ‘-mahosikari’ (‘be desirous
    of’), ‘-zari’ (negative), ‘gotoku nari’ (semblative), ‘-ki’ (simple past), ‘-masi’
    (subjunctive), ‘rasi’ (evidential) ‘-zi’ (negative conjectural), ‘-zu’ (negative), ‘-mu’
    (conjunctural), ‘ramu’ (conjunctural), ‘-kemu’ (conjunctural)

Accordingly, all of the inflecting forms other than those listed above are active predicates.
I propose to investigate how the consequences of this categorization are reflected in the
structure of the Japanese language.

II. Stative nominalizations and active nominalizations

It is said that the particle ‘no’ connects substantive expressions (and quasi-
substantive expressions) to inflecting words, thereby forming a nominative case
relationship, but in most of these instances they form nominalizations in complex
clauses, with simplex sentences being rather rare. Furthermore, the nominalizations
formed by ‘no’ in this way are distinguished as being of two types of extremely different
natures, such that the two cannot be treated as belonging to the same class, as has been
pointed out by Yuzawa Kōkichirō (“‘No’, ‘ga’ wo tomonau ku no ikkeisiki,”

Kokugogakuronkō). To wit:

(1) 友の遠方より訪れたるを喜ぶ。

Tomo=no wenpauyori otozure-taru=wo yorokobu
friend=NOM afar=ABL visit-PRF.ADN=ACC celebrate.CLS
‘(We, they) celebrate the friend’s having visited from afar’

(2) 友の遠方より訪れたるをもてなし。

Tomo=no wenpauyori otozure-taru=wo ebonobu
friend=NOM afar=ABL visit-PRF.ADN=ACC entertain.CLS
‘(We, they) entertain the friend’s having visited from afar’
In examples (1) and (2) above, the underlined parts take on object roles in relation to the predicates ‘yorokobu’ (‘celebrate.ADC’) and ‘motenasu’ (‘welcome.ADC’), respectively, forming nominalizations through the mediation of the particle ‘no’. Furthermore, the nominalizations in (1) and (2) are completely identical in form, admitting of no difference whatsoever, but considered from the aspect of their semantics, they are not necessarily the same. The reason is that in example (1), the interpretation is ‘(We, they) celebrate (the fact of) a friend’s coming to visit from afar,’ while in example (2) the interpretation is ‘(We, they) welcome a friend who has come to visit from afar,’ so that in (1) the entire expression ‘tomo no wenpau yori otozuretaru’ takes on its grammatical dependency as a proposition or sentence, while in (2) the only element of ‘tomo no wenpau yori motenasu’ that semantically takes on a direct grammatical dependency is the noun ‘tomo’ (‘friend’).

In the final analysis, (2) means ‘to welcome a friend,’ so that ‘come to visit from afar’ is not so much predicated of ‘friend’ as it is ascribed to ‘friend.’ In effect, the ‘no’ in (2) is, as Yuzawa might say, functioning in a way analogous to the relative pronouns in such languages as English, German, and French, forming something along the lines of an appositive construction. Rather than being a nominative marker, the ‘no’ in (2) is more properly characterized as being a genitive marker.

Given that we should distinguish between the two types of ‘no’ in nominalizations of the sort described above, the question is whether the difference between the two is a matter only of semantics, or whether there is some difference with regard to morpho-syntax as well.
If, as a preliminary test, we look at the attestations of the type in (2), namely those where ‘no’ is used as a relative pronoun and ascertain the type of inflecting word that locally combines with it, we get results as set out in the chart above. (The texts were chosen to provide an overview of each historical period: Shokunihongi senmyō, Norito, Taketori monogatari, Ise monogatari, Tosa nikki, Yamato monogatari, Genji monogatari, Konjaku monogatari, Udi shiimonogatari, Kokon Chomonshū, Gukanshō, Hōgen monogatari, Heiji monogatari. In addition, the base texts used for the survey are the same as those from volume 210 of Kokugo to Kokubungaku.)

The chart above indicates that the inflecting words heading the nominalizations that are formed through the mediation of ‘no’ belong in large part to the class of so-called stative inflecting words defined in the previous section. Several of these examples are presented below:

奪 灵 乃 子孤
	taputwo-ki  mi-tama  n-o  uminokwo=no
	august-ADN  HON-soul  COP-ADN  grandchild=NOM

遠 流天尋 京都仁
	topo-ku  nagasi-te  aru=wo-ba  miyakwo=ni
distant-INF  exile-PRF.INFexist.ADN=ACC-TOP  capital=DAT

召上天 臣 止 成无
	myesi-agete  omi  to  nas-amu
call-raise.GER  minister  COP.INF  make.become-CJR.CLS

‘I wish to call to the capital your august spirit’s descendants of who have been exiled to a distant place and make them ministers’

(Senmyō 34)
白い鳥の足と嘴は赤く、大きさなる。

水の上にあそびつゝ

‘a bird such that its beak and feet are red, and it is the size of a sandpiper playing on the surface of the water’

(Ise monogatari)

文時・惟茂が舟の遅れたりし、

奈良志津より室津へ来ぬ

‘Huntoki’s and Koremoti’s boat which had been late came from Narasizu to Murotsu’

(Tosa Nikki)

此の大徳の親族なりける

人の女の内裏に奉らんとて

かしづきけるを密かに語らひてけり

‘This high-ranked monk secretly seduced his relative’s daughter, who was being carefully groomed with the intention of offering her into service to the inner palace’

(Yamato monogatari)
友だちの 人を うしなへるが 許

tomodati=no hito=wo usinah-eru=ga moto
‘the home of a friend who had lost someone’
(Ise monogatari)

In addition, there are examples with quasi-stative predicates:

紙の 御几帳の 側より 仄 見ゆるを 取りて
kami=no mi-kityau=no soba=yori hono miyuru=wo torite
‘taking the paper that was slightly visible to the side of the partition’
(Genji, Yokobuye)

所領の 候を 人に おしとられて 候
syoryau=nosaburahu=wo hito=ni osi-tora-rete saburahe
‘an estate that exists has been stolen by someone’
(Chomonshū 5)

神ノ 御スルガ 人ヲ 生蟄 ニ 食 も
kami=no ohasuru=ga hito=wo ikenihe ni kuhu nari
‘it appears that there is a god who eats people as sacrifices’
(Konjaku 26)

女の 辨といふを 呼び出でて
musume=no ben to ihu=wo yobi-idete
‘calling out (his) daughter who calls (herself) Ben’
(Genji, Aoi)

王子ノ 四 ニ ナラセ給ヲ 踏絵 シテ
wauji=no yo-tu ni nara-se-tamahu=wo senso site
Furthermore, as the language enters the Muromachi period, the inflecting words of Japanese lose the distinction between conclusive and adnominal forms for the most part, accompanied by the expiration of the ‘ra’ irregular inflection, but in this case, according to a survey of the *Amagusabon Heike monogatari* and *Esopo monogatari*, the only predicates following the relative pronoun use of particle ‘no’ are adjectives, the descendants of auxiliaries ‘tari’ and ‘nari’ –namely ‘ta’ and ‘na’, and quasi-stative predicates.

According to the discussion above, it can be provisionally concluded that nominalizations formed by the relative pronominal use of ‘no’ as in the aforementioned example (2) required stative predicates, but the point at issue here is the inventory of words grouped under ‘other’ in the immediately preceding chart, which contains neither purely stative nor quasi-stative predicates, and so is an aggregation of purely active ones. Moreover, these attestations cannot simply be set aside as exceptions, considering how
numerous they are. So as not to shirk an onerous task, let us examine a few of the items
grouped under ‘other’.

嫡腹の 限り なくと
mukahibara=no kagiri na-ku=to
child_by_marriage=NOM limit lacking_INF=COMP

思すは、 はかゝるしろうも
omohasu=ha, hakabakasi-u=mo
think-HON.ADN=TOP satisfactory_INF=MPH

得あらぬ に
e-ara-nu ni
can-exist-NEG.ADN COP.INF
‘she, who being a child by marriage, was considered to be blessed by fortune without limit, was
in a position that was insupportable’ (Genji, Sakaki)

物怪の 現れ出で來るも
mononoke=noarahare-ide-kuru=mo
evil.spirit=NOM appear-leave-come.ADN=MPH

無き に
na-ki ni
lacking-ADN COP.INF
‘(might) not there be an evil spirit that appears?’ (ibid., Kashiwagi)

京の 家の 限り なく と
kyau=no ihe=no kagiri na-ku to
capital=GEN house=NOM limit lacking-INF COP.INF

磨くも、 え 斯うは
migaku=mo e kau=ha
polish.ADN=MPH can.INF this.way=RES

あらぬや と 覚ゆ
ara-nu=ya to oboyu
exist-NEG.ADN=FOC COMP think.CLS
‘he thought, “how can it be that there is a place that can rival my immeasurably beautiful home in the capital?”’

(\textit{ibid., Agemaki})

山人ノ 行き通ズル、 五人 有ケリ

\textit{yama-bito=no yuki-tuuzuru, go-nin ari-keri}
‘there were five mountain people who were passing by’

(Konjaku 5)

大ル 童ノ 本ヨリ 仕ル 有リ

\textit{opo-naru waraha=no moto=yori tukamaturu ari}
‘there was a big child who had done service previously’

(\textit{ibid. 12})

女ノ 清水ニ 強 ニ 参ル 有ケリ

\textit{womuna=no kiyomidu=ni anagati ni mawiru}
‘there was a woman who willfully went to Kiyomizu’

(\textit{ibid., 16})

僧共ノ 相知ル、 有テ

\textit{sou-domo=no ai-siru, arite}
‘there being some monks with whom (he) was acquainted’ (\textit{ibid., 17})

圆 ナル 物ノ 光ル 有ケリ

\textit{maruyaka naru mono=no hikaru ari-keri}
‘there was a round thing that was shining’

(\textit{ibid., 27})
武者ノ通ル有ケリ
musya=no tohoru ari-keri
warrior=NOM pass-ADN exist-MOD.CLS
‘there was a warrior who was passing by’

( Ibid., 29 )

節會の袍とてほのヵと
setiwe=no uhenokinu=tote honobono to
Sechie=GEN overcloak=COMP scant COPINF
ある物の人にかすなどが
aru mono=no hito=ni kasu=nado=ga
exist.ADN person=NOM stranger=DAT loan.ADN=RES=NOM
有けるを
ari-keru=wo
exist-MOD.ADN=CJN
‘there was a person who had very little who loaned his Sechi’e overcloak to a stranger’

( Chomonshū 3 )

妻のいと物ねたみする有けり
tuma=no ito mono-netami suru ari-keri
spouse=NOM extremely object-hate do.ADN exist-MOD.CLS
‘there was a wife who was extremely resentful’

( Ibid., 16 )

蟬の露をのまんとするあり
semi=no tuyu=wo nom-an to suru ari
cicada=NOM dew-ACC drink-CJR.CLS COMP do.ADN exist.CLS
‘there was a cicada that was making to drink some dew’

( Ibid., 20 )

たよりなりきける女の清水に
tayori na-k-ari-keru womuna=no kiyomidu=ni
support lacking-INF-exist-MOD.ADN woman=NOM Kiyomizu=ALL
On examining these examples, there is one phenomenon common to all which comes to our attention. That is the fact that all the examples are complex clauses taking the nominalization formed from the particle ‘no’ as a subject, and furthermore, the inflecting word that makes up the predicate of the complex clause is either ‘ari’ or ‘nasi’. In other words, stated on the basis of the status of ‘no’, the predicate that directly follows it is active, but in addition, the predicate that indirectly follows it is invariably stative, specifically either ‘ari’ or ‘nasi’.

Of the items under ‘other’ in the preceding chart, excluding examples of the sort listed above, there remain extremely few items, and indeed among them are only either instances where the predicate is stative in variant texts, or instances where there clearly has been some morphological or semantic mixing through analogy. Especially in texts having orthography that is comparatively unclear, such as the Konjaku monogatari, where the script is 「入ル」 ‘iru’ (enter.ADC), 「返ル」 ‘kaheru’ (return.ADN), 「下ル」 ‘kudaru’ (descend.ADC), 「為ル」 ‘suru’ (do.ADN), etc., readings of ‘ir-eru’ (enter-STV.ADN), ‘kaher-eru’ (return-STV.ADN), ‘kudar-eru’ (descend-STV.ADN), and ‘s-eru’ (do-STV.ADN) possibly ought to be adopted. Consequently, as there are items that cannot be readily identified as active predicates, the only examples that are unmistakably exceptions are the seven following examples:
(1) 人のむすめのかしつく、

人=GEN 女=GEN be.raised.carefully-and

いかでこのおとこに物いはんと

おそらく だきこの 男=DAT thing  say-CJR.CLS=COMP

おもひkeri

think-MOD-CLS

‘someone’s daughter who was being raised with great care thought she would by any means possible convey her thoughts to him’

(Ise monogatari)

(2) 受領どもの面白き家造り

受領-PL=NOM unusual-ADN house-make

好むが この宮の木立を

enjoy.ADN=NOM this palace=GEN copse=ACC

心に附けて

mind=DAT attach.GER

‘landholders who enjoyed unusual architecture, taking an interest in the stand of trees of this palace’

(Genji, Yomogi'u)

(3) 夜光ル玉ノ目出タク明ク

夜=DAT 光=ADN jewel=NOM admirable-INF bright-INF

照スヲ持テ

shine.ADN hold.GER
‘picking up the jewel that glowed by night that shone admirably and brightly’

(Konjaku 10)

(4) 船ノ行ガ、島隠レ為ヲ

hune=no yuku=ga, sima-gakure suru=wo
boat=NOM go.ADN=NOM island-hidedo.ADN=ACC
‘a boat that was going along that was hiding among islands’

(ibid., 24)

(5) 女 形 美ト聞クヲバ、

wonna=no katati uruhasi=to kiku=woba,
woman=NOM form beautiful.CLS=COMP hear.ADN=ACC
宮仕人ヲモ人ノ娘ヲモ
miya-dukahe-bito=wo=mo hito=no musume=wo=mo
palace-serve-person=ACC=MPH person=GEN daughter=ACC=MPH
見残ス無ク員ヲ盡シテ
mi-nokosu na-ku kazu=wo tukusite
see-leave.over.ADN lacking-INF number=ACC exhaust.GER
見ム
mi-mu
see-CJR.CLS
‘any woman who was heard to be beautiful in form, whether a palace servant or the daughter of a lord, he would want to see, exhausting the inventory of them, without leaving anyone unseen’

(ibid., 27)

(6) すづめの おどりありくを、石を とりて

suzume=no odori-ariiku=wo, isi=wo torite
sparrow=NOM dance-walk.ADN=ACC stone=ACC take.GER
もしや とてうてば
mosi=ya tote uteba
if=FOC COMP hit.PRV
‘when, taking a stone and, thinking, “Just maybe if...,” he hit a small sparrow that was hopping about’
Furthermore, in (4) the particle ‘ga’ can be considered a connective particle, and if we interpret (6) and (7) as meaning, respectively, ‘at the event of (its) walking’ and ‘at the event of (its) eating,’ it is not outside the realm of possibility to say that these too do not constitute exceptions. In either case, given that there are no rules without exceptions, it is conceivable that of all 1278 instances, a mere 0.5% (7 items) ought to be allowed for.

For these reasons I believe that it is plausible to refer to nominalizations formed by relative pronominal ‘no’ as stative nominalizations. From their semantics as well, stative nominalizations can be said to make ascriptions to things on the basis of the stative aspect of their properties, as previously discussed. Accordingly, it is surely natural that, in contrast to these, nominalizations formed through the nominative ‘no’ are to be referred to as active nominalizations. Again, as previously discussed, active nominalizations make predications about things on the basis of the active aspect of their properties.

So far, we have established that stative nominalizations require only stative predicates, but when we examine the nature of active nominalizations, we see that they receive no restriction whatsoever with regard to predicate type. Both active and stative predicates can be used freely and there is no need to take the effort to provide proof of this, but the phenomenon resulting from this deserves attention: Stative nominalizations and active nominalizations are complementary concepts with regard to semantics, but not with regard to morphology. That is, stative predicates can form both stative nominalizations and active nominalizations. In the two examples presented at the beginning of this section (reproduced below) the underlined part in (1) is an active nominalization while the underlined part in (2) is a stative nominalization, but the fact that the two expressions are morphologically identical bespeaks this state of affairs.

(1) Tomo no wenpau yori otozuretaru wo yorokobu.

(2) Tomo no wenpau yori otozuretaru wo motenasu.

In this instance the distinction between the two expressions is based purely on semantics, depending on whether there is predication based on an active aspect or there is ascription based on a stative aspect.
Now, the existence of two types of nominalization, stative and active, is due to characteristics of the particle ‘no’. Specifically, this comes from the fact that the particle ‘no’ can express a possessive or genitive meaning when combining with a noun, such as in the expression ‘otodo=no kwo-ra’ (minister=GEN child-PL, ‘the children of the Minister’), while at the same time the particle ‘no’ can express an appositive meaning when joining together similar nouns, such as in the expression ‘ya-tuka-po no ikasi-po’ (eight-fist-ear COP.ADN plenty-ear, ‘long rice which is plenty-grained rice’). This appositive function is one not found in other particles, so it is by principle that stative nominalizations (which may be thought of as a development of this appositive use) cannot be formed through any other particle. In fact, when we look through the history of the Japanese language, at the earliest stages there was no such particle other than ‘no,’ but as Yuzawa states, in later eras, approximately from the Heian period onward, other particles (namely, nominative particles and focus particles) were infected with this usage, most likely through analogy with ‘no’. Furthermore, this usage was extended to structures completely unaccompanied by particles. As a consequence, it falls out for all nominalizations, needless to say whether they be accompanied by ‘no’ or not, that they belong either to the class of active nominalizations or to that of stative ones, and furthermore, stative nominalizations get their status as such just as they are, regardless of the presence or absence of particle ‘no,’ with the presence of ‘no’ not changing the meaning one iota.

The discussion above can be summarized as follows:

All nominalizations can be divided into two groups: stative nominalizations and active nominalizations. There are no other groups but these two. Active nominalizations can be freely formed on any kind of inflecting word, but the inflecting word of a stative nominalization must be a stative inflecting word. As one exception, a stative nominalization can take an active inflecting word provided that the resulting nominalization is the subject of a complex clause, where the inflecting word of that clause must be stative.

III. Stative nominalizations and active following clauses

In the previous section we saw that stative nominalizations take only stative inflecting words, but there was an exception for stative nominalizations that take active inflecting words, under the condition that any such nominalization function as the subject of a complex clause, where that complex clause furthermore has a stative inflecting word as its predicate. On the basis of this we can imagine that there is some sort of interrelation between the inflecting word of the nominalization and the inflecting word that forms the predication in the following clause.

Accordingly, in this section I propose mainly to examine the inflecting words that form the predicates of complex clauses taking these nominalizations as subjects. In the Japanese language, there are three possible frames for marking subjects: one where
particle ‘no’ is used, one where particle ‘ga’ is used, and one where no particle is used at all. For this reason, where these nominalizations form the subjects of following clauses as well, we expect three cases to occur based on those frames. But because particle ‘no’ cannot directly mark an inflecting word (on this point see my article in Kokugo to kokubungaku Vol. 210), ‘no’ doesn’t function to mark these nominalizations. Accordingly, the only two possible patterns are as follows:

nominalization [∅, ga] inflecting word (where ∅ means no accompanying particle)

As these nominalizations are divided into two groups, stative and active, as described in the previous section, there are accordingly four cases to consider. Let us examine examples where a stative nominalization is the subject of the complex clause, starting with the expressions in which there is no accompanying particle. Expressions of this form are also found in poems, appearing in small numbers in the Man’yōshū.

(1634) 衣手に 水濁 つくまで
koromo-de ni mi-sibu tuku=made
robe-hand=ALL water-foam stick.ADN=ALL
植ゑし 田を 引板
uwe-si ta=wo pik-ita
plant-PAST.ADN field=ACC pull-plank
吾が 延へ 守れる
wa=ga pape mamor-eru
PRS.1SG-NOM extend.INF guard-STV.ADN
苦し
kurusi (眞守有栗子)
agonizing.CLS
‘guarding the field (I) planted even unto scum sticking to (my) cuffs, my extending a bull-roarer, is agonizing’
(Book 8)

(2518) 吾妹子し 吾を 邊ると
wa-g-imo-kwo=si a=wo okuru=to
All these examples have following clauses that take active nominalizations as subjects, with the wavy underline marking the inflecting word of the nominalization, and the straight underline marking the inflecting word in the complex clause. What is notable about the examples above is that the inflecting words of the complex clauses (that is, the words with the straight underlines) are all stative inflecting words. The interlinear glosses for these words are almost completely certain, giving ‘kurusi’ (painful.CLS, an adjective), ‘masar-eri’ (surpass-STV.CLS, a verb with an auxiliary ‘ri,’ the inflection of which is ‘ra’ irregular), and ‘omopoyu’ (come.to.mind.CLS, a quasi-stative inflecting word). Drawing a conclusion from just these few examples is of course risky, but it is unlikely that the facts set out above are coincidence. The reason for this is that, in the Man’yōshū there are
hardly any other instances of a complex predicate taking an active nominalization for a subject as in the examples above, but in the same collection, we do find 32 examples like the one below, with a special stative nominalization formed with a conclusive inflecting word, where moreover the complex clause invariably has a predicate formed on the inflecting word ‘miyu’ (be.visible.CLS).

$\begin{align*}
(3449) \quad \text{しろたへの 衣の 袖を} & \\
\text{sirwo-tape=nc koromo=nc swode=wo} & \\
\text{white-cloth=COP-ADN robe=GEN sleeve=ACC} & \\
\text{眞久良我よ 海人 榜き来 見ゆ} & \\
\text{makuraga=ywo pito kogi-ku \textit{miyu} (許伎久見由)} & \\
\text{Makuraga=ABL stranger row-come.CLS be.visible.CLS} & \\
\text{浪 立つな ゆめ} & \\
\text{nami tatu=na yume} & \\
\text{wave stand.CLS=PHB ever} & \\
\text{‘(making a pillow of the sleeve of your robe of white cloth) there is visible a fisher from Makuraga rowing towards here. Waves, don’t ever rise!’} & \\
\end{align*}$

That the word ‘miyu’ is a quasi-stative inflecting predicate has been already pointed out. Additional examples of complex predicates taking stative nominalizations as subjects in the \textit{Man’yōshū} include the following:

$\begin{align*}
(169) \quad \text{あかね さす 日は 照らせど} & \\
\text{akane sasu pi=pa teras-eredo} & \\
\text{redness extend.ADN sun-RES shine-STV.CSS} & \\
\text{ぬばたまの 夜 渡る 月の} & \\
\text{nubatama=no ywo wataru tukwi=no} & \\
\text{jewel=GEN night cross.ADN moon=NOM} & \\
\text{隱らく 慎しも} & \\
\text{kakuraku wosi=mo (隠良久慎毛)} & \\
\text{hide.NML regrettable.CLS=MPH} & \\
\end{align*}$
'although the sun which radiates redness is shining, how regrettable is it that the moon which crosses the jewel-black night is hiding!'

(Book 2)

Examples like these displaying the special form of the so-called ‘ku-gohō’ appear with considerable frequency, but in these instances the inflecting word in the complex clause is only ever an adjective of one of the following types:

1. conclusive adjective with either particle ‘mo’ or suffix ‘-mi’ attached
2. adnominal adjective
3. infinitive adjective

We do find two extremely rare examples in which the inflecting words are verbs, presented here:

(1609) 宇陀の 野の  秋萩
uda=no  nwo=no  aki-pagwi
Uda=GEN  field=GEN  autumn-bushclover
凌ぎ  鳴く  鹿も、
sinwogi  naku  sika=mo,
overlay.INF  cry.ADNdeer=MPH
妻に  戀ふらく
tuma=ni  kwopuraku
spouse=DAT  yearn.NML
我には  益さじ
ware=ni=pa  masa-zi (戀樂苦……不益)
I=DAT=RES  exceed-NEGJR.CLS
‘the longing for one’s spouse, by even by the deer that cries lying on the autumn bushclover in the fields of Uda, could not possibly surpass me’

(Book 8)

(2022) 相見らく  飽き足らねども
ishigaki
pioneering linguistic works in japan

api-miraku aki-tara-nedomo (相見久厭雖不足)

RECP-see.NML be.sated-suffice-NEG.CSS

いなの めの 明け行きにけり

ina=no me=no ake-yuki-ni-kyeri

rice-ear=GEN eye=GEN dawn-go-PRF-MOD.CLS

船出 せむ 嬰

pune-de se-mu tuma

boat-depart do.CJR spouse

‘Although our seeing each other is never enough, the dawn is breaking. My spouse, I shall set sail’

(Book 10)

But the auxiliaries which end the expressions are ‘-zi’ and ‘-zu’, both stative inflecting words.

In this way, it can be seen that the complex causes taking active nominalizations as subjects in the Man’yōshū are all formed on stative inflecting words, with no active inflecting words attested. When we make a further survey of the various texts in each of the historical periods to ascertain whether this pattern has the character of a universal law, we obtain data on complex clauses taking active nominalizations as subjects as set out in the chart below. In the Asuka-Nara period, aside from the examples in the Man’yōshū, the only instances of complex sentences having ‘miyu’ as predicate are found in the poems of the Kojiki and Nihonshoki.

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23
As can be seen in the chart above, one can verify that all attestations have stative predicates. A few examples are presented below:

手叩けば山彦の答ふる，
tate tatakeba yamahiko=no kotahuru，
hand beat.PRV Yamahiko=NOM answer.ADN

いと煩はし
ito wadurahasi
extremely burdensome.CLS
‘when (he) clapped (his) hands, Yamahiko’s answering was extremely lethargic’

（Genji, Yugao）

筆の行く，限りありて
hude=no yuku, kagiri arite
brush=NOM go.ADN limit exist.GER
‘there was a limit to how far the brush would go’

（Genji, Eawase）

この宴ヲオコサルハ，然ルべシ
kono utage=wo okosa-ruru, sikaru be-si
this party=ACC instigate-PASS.ADN be.this.way fitting-CLS
‘this party’s being held was in a manner most appropriate’

（Gukanshō 6）

目はなにいる，たへがたし
me-hana=ni iru, tahe-gata-si
eye-nose=ALL enter.ADN endure-difficult-CLS
‘it is difficult to endure (the rice) that gets in the nose and eyes’

（Uji shūi 11）
一ノ牛ヲ殺シテ
hito-tu no usi=wo korosite
one-CLF COP-ADN cow=ACC kill.GER
其ノ報ヲ受ケム、
sono hou=wo uke-mu,
this reward=ACC receive-CJR.ADN
併如ㇾ此シ
sikasinagara kaku=no goto-si
in.the.end this.way=GEN similar-CLS
‘but in the end, their intending to kill one cow and receiving the reward for it turned out like this’

(Konjaku 2)

汝ヂ出家ノ人
nandi syutuke no hito
PRS.2SG forsake.home COP.ADN person
香油ヲ身二塗ル、
kau-yu=wo mi=ni nuru,
fragrance-oil body=DATpaint.ADN
糞ヲ塗ルニ似タリ
kuso=wo nuru=ni ni-tari
excrement=ACC slather.ADN=DAT resemble-PREF.CLS
‘for you to slather ointment on the body of a person who has taken holy orders is like slathering excrement (on them)’

(Konjaku 2)

斯く迎ふるを翁は
kaku mukahuru=wo okina=ha
this.way greet.ADN=ACC old.man=RES
泣き歎く、能はぬ事なり
naki-nageku, ataha-nu koto nari
cry-grieve.ADN be.commensurate-NEG.ADN matter COP.CLS
'for (you) old man, to cry and grieve about my coming to take (her) away, is something that is inappropriate'

(Taketori)

‘as for this woman, her strength being strong was equal to the strength of one hundred people’

(Konjaku 23)

‘Yesterday when I thought I’d talk to you, your having ignored me went against (my) wishes’

(Chomonshū 2)
kongauhan’nyakukei=wo  dokuzyu suru
Diamond-sutra=ACC  read  do.ADN,

数巻二  不レ及ザル  程ニ
su-kuan=ni  oyoba-zaru  hodoni
number-scroll=DAT attain-NEG.ADN  time.when
‘Ichien’s obeying orders, coming, and at the head of the Daijin’s pillow, reciting the Vajracchedikā Prajñāpāramitā sutra, did not get through even a few scrolls, when...’

現ニ  人ヲ  馬ニ
araha ni  hito=wo  uma ni
clear  COP.INF  person=ACC  horse COP.INF
打成ケル、  更ニ  不ニ心得－ズ
uti-nasi-keru,  sarani  kokoro-e-zu
beat-make.become.MOD.ADN  furthermore  mind-gain-NEG.CLS
‘we also don’t know if (they) actually beat (people) into becoming horses’

下人も  数多く  頼もしげ
simo-bito=mo  kazuoho-ku  tanomosi-ge
low-person=MPH  number many-INF  confident-air
なる  気色にて  橋より  今
naru  kesiki=nite  hasi=yori  ima
COP.ADN  mood=INS  bridge=ABL  now
渡り来る、  見ゆ
watari-kuru,  miyu
cross-come.ADN  be.visible.CLS
‘one could see many underlings with a confident air come crossing over the bridge now’

此  禅師ヲ  取テ  打出ント
kono  zenzi=wo  torite  uti-ide-n=to
this  Zenzi=ACC  take-GER  smite-put.out-CJR.CLS=COMP
シケル、 又 間～テ
si-keru, mata kikohete
do-MOD.ADN again be.audible.GER
‘moreover, (their) trying to take and kill this Zenzi being heard of’

(Gukanshō 6)

生きたらじ=と 想ひ 沈み給へる、
iki-tara-zi=to omohi sizumi-tamap-eru,
live-PRF-NEG-CJR=COMP think.INF sink-HON-STV.ADN

理 と 覚ゆれば
kotowari to oboyureba
natural.order COMP feel.PRV
‘As (he) felt thinking to live no longer and being depressed to be reasonable’

(Genji, Tamakadura)

With the discussion above we have demonstrated that for instances unaccompanied by particles, the inflecting words of complex clauses that take nominalizations as subjects are invariably stative. This state of affairs is exactly the same for instances marked with ‘ga.’ A few examples are presented here.

わが きぬ はがん=と しつる
wa=ga kinu haga-n=to si-turu
PRS.1SG robe strip.off-CJR.CLS=COMP do-PRF.ADN

男の にはかに うせぬるが
otoko=nihaka ni use-nuru=ga
man=NOM sudden COP.INF disappear-PRF.ADN=NOM

あやしければ
ayasi-kereba
suspicious-PRV
‘as the man who tried to strip off my robes who suddenly disappeared was suspicious’ (Uji shāi 14)

水の なきが 大事 なれば

28
水＝NOM欠け＝ADN大事件 COP＝PRV
‘水の欠けは大問題であった’

（ibid., 7）

さばかり 語らひつるが 結石 に
such.way＝RES speak＝PRF.ADN＝NOM expected COP＝INF
覚えて
oboyete
feel.GER
‘語られているように想像されるような’

（Taketori）

To summarize the points discussed above, the inflecting words of complex clauses taking active nominalizations as subjects are invariably stative. They follow the pattern below:

active nominalization {ga,∅} stative inflecting word

In contrast to this, when the subject is a stative nominalization both when unaccompanied by particle marking and when marked with ‘ga,’ either an active inflecting word or a stative inflecting word can be freely used as the predicate of the complex clause.

ある 人の 子の 童
exist＝ADV person＝GEN child COP＝ADN youngster
なる、 ひそかに いふ
COP＝ADN furtive COP＝INF say＝ADC
‘ある人の子が秘密に言った’

（Tosa）
アリシ、 イマダ 生タリケレバ
ari-si, imada iki-tari-kereba
‘as a person, named Karasumaru, who was beloved of the lately retired emperor, was still alive...’
(Gukansyō 5)

女の まだ 世 へずと
onna=no mada yo he-zu=to
‘a woman who was believed to have not yet experienced the world, having crept to the place of a
person of high status,...’
(Ise)

香の 御唐櫃に 入れたりけるが
kau=no ohon-karabitu=ni ire-tari-keru=ga
‘(the robes) that (they) had put into the incense smoking chest were giving off a fragrance in a
most enticing way’
(Genji, Yomogi’u)

In short, they fall into the following pattern:

stative nominalization {ga,∅} all inflecting words
As set out in the previous section, because active nominalizations have the status of the substantive word ‘koto’ (fact) whereas stative nominalizations have the status of the substantive word ‘mono’ (person), the complex clauses that take these two types of subjects respectively follow patterns like those below:

```
tomo=no   wenpau=yori otozure-taru(fact)=ga  uresi-ki  nari.
tomo=NOM  afar=ABL  visit-PRF.ADN=NOM  joyous-ADN COP.CLS
’a friend’s visiting from afar is a joyous occasion’
```

```
tomo=no   wenpau=yori otozure-taru(entity)=ga to-guti=nite   yobu.
tomo=NOM  afar=ABL  visit-PRF.ADN=NOM  door-mouth=LOC  call.CLS
’a friend who was visiting from afar called from the doorway’
```

Accordingly, the predicates of complex clauses taking active nominalizations as subjects ascribe the properties of facts from a stative aspect, while the predicates of complex clauses taking stative nominalizations as subjects predicate the properties of entities from an active aspect. Consequently, we can refer to complex clauses taking active nominalizations as subjects as stative complex clauses, and to complex clauses taking stative nominalizations as subjects as active complex clauses.

At this point the discussion in this section can be summarized as follows:

Active complex clauses can take any kind of inflective word, but stative complex clauses must take only active inflecting words.

IV. The principle of repulsion between active inflecting words

The considerations above can be organized in the following way.

Principle 1

All of the inflecting words in the Japanese language are divided into two groups depending on whether their conclusive inflection ends with an ‘i’ rhyme or with an ‘u’ rhyme. There are no other classes besides these two. We designate the first as the class of stative inflecting words, and the second as the class of active inflecting words. Stative inflecting words denote states, and active inflecting words denote actions.

Principle 2
All nominalizations are divided into two classes: those that predicate properties of things from an active aspect, and those that ascribe properties to things from a stative aspect. There are no other classes besides these two. We designate the first as the class of active nominalizations and the second as the class of stative nominalizations. The inflecting word in an active nominalization can be any type of inflecting word, while the inflecting word in a stative nominalization must be stative. However, a stative nominalization can have an active inflecting word provided that it is the subject of a complex clause where that complex clause takes a stative inflecting word.

**Principle 3**

All complex clauses that take nominalizations as subjects are divided into two groups: Those that predicate properties of subjects from an active aspect, and those that ascribe properties to subjects from a stative aspect. There are no other classes besides these two. We designate the first as the class of active complex clauses, and the second as the class of stative complex clauses. Active complex clauses take stative nominalizations as subjects and can take any kind of inflecting word as predicate. In contrast, stative complex clauses take active nominalizations as subjects, but only take stative predicates.

If we set aside focus particles and the like for the moment, we can diagram Principle 2 in a way that reduces each relation to a pattern:

(1) Structure of active nominalizations

<table>
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<tr>
<th>∅</th>
<th>ga</th>
<th>no</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{active inflecting word}</td>
<td>{stative inflecting word}</td>
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</table>

(2) Structure of stative nominalizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>∅</th>
<th>ga</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>{stative inflecting word}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(3) Structure of special stative nominalizations

Next we diagram Principle 3:

(4) Structure of active complex clauses

(5) Structure of stative complex clause

If we substitute the pattern in (1) for its corresponding term in (5), and substitute the pattern in (2) for its corresponding term in (4), we get the following diagrams:
In the diagrams above, (A) indicates the structure of a stative complex clause, while (B) and (C) indicate the structures of active complex clauses. In short, calculating the combinations with the forms that normally mark subjects (‘no,’ ‘ga,’ and zero particle) yields the following total:

\[ 12 + 12 + 6 = 30 \]

There are 30 distinct patterns that are possible. Furthermore, from among these 30 patterns, an interesting conclusion can be drawn about the combination of inflecting words. Namely, stative predicates can co-occur with each other, but combinations where an active predicate co-occurs with an active predicate are not to be found. At this point we can infer a further principle:

**Principle 4**

For all complex clauses taking nominalizations as subjects, at least one of either the inflecting word in the nominalization or the inflecting word in the complex clause must be a stative inflecting word. It is in principle absolutely impossible for the inflecting word in the nominalization and the inflecting word in the complex clause to both be active.

I designate the principle above as the principle of repulsion between active inflecting words.
With regard to the combination of particle ‘no’ with particle ‘ga,’ we can illustrate the above fact with examples from *Genji monogatari*.

(a) Where ‘no’ forms an active nominalization marked by ‘ga’ and the inflecting word that selects that nominalization is stative.

```
この君のいたくまめだち過して
kono kimi=no ita-ku mame-dati-sugusite
this lord=NOM extreme-INF conscientious-stand-exceed.GER
常にもどき給ふが
tune ni modoki-tamahu=ga
constant COP.INF act.impulsively-HON.ADN=NOM
嫉妒を
neta-ki=wo
despicable-ADN=CNJ
‘given how he resented this lord’s most excessive showing of conscientiousness and his always acting impulsively’
(Momiji no ga)
```

(b) Where ‘no’ forms an active nominalization marked by ‘ga’, and both the inflecting word selecting that nominalization and the inflecting word forming that nominalization are stative.

```
年頃に習ひ侍りける
tosigoro ni narahi-haberi-ni-keru
year.upon.year COP.INF copy-serve-PRF-MOD.ADN
宮仕の今はとて
miya-dukahe=no ima=wa=tote
palace-servants=NOM now=RES=COMP
絶え侍らむが心細きになむ
taye-habera-mu=ga kokoro-boso-ki ni=namu
stop-serve-CJR.ADN=NOM mind-narrow-ADN COP.INF=FOC
‘it is quite a desolation, that the palace servants’ who observed the custom for years should leave off, as if to say, “No more”’
(Shii ga moto)
```
(c) Where ‘no’ forms a stative nominalization marked by ‘ga’, and only the inflecting word forming that nominalization is stative.

よからぬ 狐など いふ なる
yo-karanu kitune=nado ihu naru
good-NEG.ADN fox=RES say.ADN EVID.ADN

物の 諏れたるが 亡き 人の
mono=no tabure-taru=ga na-ki hito=no
thing=NOM plot-PRF.ADN=NOM dead-ADN person=NOM

面伏 なる 事 言ひ出つるも
omote-buse naru koto ihi-iduru=mo
surface-face.down COP.ADN purport say-put.out.ADN=MPH

‘words to embarrass the dead that something people call a “wily fox” who has played a dirty trick says’

(Wakana no ge)

(d) Where ‘no’ forms a stative nominalization marked by ‘ga,’ and both the inflecting word that forms that nominalization and the inflecting word that selects that nominalization are stative.

雲の 薄く 渡れるが 鈍色
kumo=nousu-ku water-eru=ga nibi-iro
cloud=NOM thin-INF cross-STV-.DN=NOM dull-color

なるを
naru=wo
COP.ADN=ACC

‘clouds that are spreading thinly that are dull-colored’

(Usugumo)

(e) Where ‘no’ forms a stative nominalization marked by ‘ga’, and only the inflecting word selecting that nominalization is stative.

こよなく 衰へたる 宮仕人などの
koyona-ku otorohe-taru miya-dukahe-bito=nado=no
incomparable-INF fall.into.decline-PRF.ADN palace-servant-person=RES=NOM

巌の 中尋ぬるが
石堆の中捜するなどこそあれ

落ち留れるなどこそあれ

Although (she) was a palace servant incomparably reduced in fortune who had aspired to the life of a recluse and who had fallen short’

(Miotukusi)

The five scenarios above comprise the full inventory of types. There are as a rule no instances where the inflecting word preceding ‘ga’ and the inflecting word following ‘ga’ are both active. Thus, for example, an expression such as the following cannot be formed in the Japanese language.

* 僕等は ga 水が
child=NOM water.ADN=NOM

(intended) ‘Children who gather make a disturbance’

This is because both the inflecting word preceding ‘ga’ and that following ‘ga’ are active. In order to form a grammatical expression, either the inflecting word following ‘ga’ needs to be made stative, making the expression a stative complex clause taking an active nominalization:

子供は ga 喧嘩
child=NOM argument.ADN=NOM make.disturbance.CLS
‘Children who gather are boisterous’

Or the inflecting word preceding ‘ga’ needs to be made stative, making the expression an active complex clause taking a stative nominalization as subject:

子供は ga 喧嘩
child=NOM argument.ADN=NOM make.disturbance.CLS
‘Children who are gathered make a disturbance’

One or the other of these alternatives must be adopted.

With the extinction of the ‘ra’ irregular inflectional type after the Muromachi period, the morphological distinction between stative and active inflecting words was lost, but the principle above can be seen to operate to a considerable degree even to the present day.
The relationships can be seen in the data above. Consequently, the principle of repulsion between active predicates is a universal principle that obtains throughout all periods of the Japanese language and is fundamental to the rules governing the structure of complex clauses. Furthermore, there are many advantages to be had in applying this rule to the interpretation of texts. To set out the main instances, first there is the distinction between the nominative case marker ‘ga’ and the connective particle ‘ga.’ In short, because clauses can be easily formed in Japanese without subjects, even if no subject appears after particle ‘ga,’ it is not necessarily the case that this particle ‘ga’ cannot be considered to be a connective particle. However, in that case, if both the inflecting word preceding ‘ga’ and that following ‘ga’ are active, we can immediately determine that this ‘ga’ is a connective particle and not a nominative case marker. Secondly, the same point can be made for instances unaccompanied by particles. Particularly starting from the Middle Ages, even when no ‘kakari-musubi’ relationship is admitted, sentences can be freely ended with adnominal forms, and because inflecting words for which the conclusive form and the adnominal form are identical are comparatively abundant, it is frequently difficult to judge only from morphology whether a given sequence represents two independent clauses or whether it represents a complex clause in which subject-predicate relation obtains. Here again, if the inflecting words in the two parts are both active, we can immediately determine that the sequence comprises two mutually independent clauses with no nominative relation between them. Furthermore, as is clear from figures (A), (B), and (C) above, when a complex clause takes an active inflecting word as its predicate, it can be immediately determined that these fit pattern (B), and that the subject constitutes a stative nominalization. Various other advantages can be found in the examination along historical principles of the 30 patterns described above, which are not all attested at any given period, but as the allotted number of pages for this study has already been exceeded, I shall leave this point with only a description of the direction that might be pursued.

It is demonstrable that the method used in the classification of inflecting words by Hanareya Okina Suzuki Akira is reflected in the structure of the Japanese on a rather large

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<tr>
<th>gunkan=no susumu</th>
<th>tanku=no hasiru no=wa</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>warship=NOM proceed.ADN</td>
<td>tank=NOM drive NMLZ=TOP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no=wa rippa</td>
<td>sugo-i amazing-CLS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMLZ=TOP magnificent</td>
<td>'tanks that are amazing drive'</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>gunkan no rippa</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>warship=NOM magnificent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na no=ga COP.ADN NMLZ=NOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>susumu proceed.CLS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'warships that are magnificent proceed'</td>
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<td>tank=NOM amazing-CLS</td>
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<td>no=ga hasiru NMLZ=NOM drive.CLS</td>
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<tr>
<td>'tanks driving are amazing'</td>
</tr>
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scale, with the distinction between stative and active inflecting words being a basic duality that governs inflecting forms in the Japanese language. This classification can be considered to have a value easily comparable to that of the classification into adjectives and verbs.

i Apparently defining it as the class of suffixes and clitics, Suzuki includes all verbal auxiliaries in this class.

ii The columns of the syllabary array are headed by ‘a’, ‘i’, ‘u’, ‘e’, and ‘o’.

iii Phonemic transcription includes kō-otu distinctions for Old Japanese. Remaining examples are transcribed with rekisiteki kanazukai for historical texts and for created examples in Classical Japanese style. Glosses and translations have been added to show grammatical analysis compatible with Frellesvig, Bjarke. A History of the Japanese Language. Cambridge University Press, 2010. The abbreviations used in glosses are as follows: ABL = ablative particle; ACC = accusative particle; ACOP = adjectival copula; ADC = ambiguous between adnominal and conclusive inflection; ADI = ambiguous between adnominal and infinitive; ADN = adnominal inflection; ALL = allative particle; CJN = conjunctural particle; CJR = conjectural auxiliary; CLF = classifier; CLS = conclusive inflection; COMP = complementizer; COP = copula; COO = coordinating particle; CND = conditional inflection; CSS = concessive inflection; CTT = continuative inflection; DAT = dative particle; EVD = evidential extension; FOC = focus particle; GEN = genitive particle; GER = gerund inflection; HON = honorific prefix or auxiliary; HORT = hortative inflection; INF = infinitive inflection; INS = instrumental particle; LOC = locational particle; MOD = modal past auxiliary; MPH = emphatic particle; NMLZ = nominalizing pronoun; NMZ = nominalizing suffix; NOM = nominative particle; PASS = passive auxiliary; PHB = prohibitive particle; PL = plural; PRF = perfective auxiliary; PRV = provisional inflection; PST = past auxiliary; RECP = reciprocal prefix; RES = restrictive particle; SG = singular; STV = stative auxiliary; TOP = topic particle; XCL = exclamatory inflection.


v Ishigaki uses the term ‘meisiku’ (名詞句, literally ‘noun phrase’) to refer to nominalized clauses. I replace this term with ‘nominalization’ to avoid confusion with the more general sense.

vi Roughly, any clause having a subject-predicate relation and within which a second
subject-predicate relation obtains.

vii The asterisk '*' has been added to indicate an unattested pattern.