SECOND INTERNATIONAL WORKSHOP
ON
NOUN MODIFYING CONSTRUCTIONS AND NOMINALIZATION
ORGANISED JOINTLY BY
DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS, DECCAN COLLEGE, PUNE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR JAPANESE LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS, TOKYO
AND
CENTRAL INSTITUTE OF INDIAN LANGUAGES, MYSORE
19-20 DECEMBER 2019
AT THE
DECCAN COLLEGE, PUNE
VENUE: New Library Hall (first floor), Deccan College, Main Campus

WORKSHOP SCHEDULE AND ABSTRACTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SESSION</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>Speaker and Topic</th>
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<tr>
<td>DAY - 1</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORKSHOP INAUGURATION</td>
<td>2:30 to 2:50 PM</td>
<td>Prof. Prasad Joshi, Vice Chancellor (A), Deccan College will inaugurate the workshop</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| ACADEMIC SESSION-1          | 3:00 PM to 3:30 PM | Prashant PARDESHI (NINJAL, Tokyo)  
On mapping noun modifying constructions: World Atlas of noun modifying constructions (WANMC) |
|                              | 3:30 PM to 4:15 PM | Pritha CHANDRA (IIT, Delhi)  
On the form and function of Meiteilon Nominalizers |
|                              | 4:15 PM to 4:30 PM | Tea-break |
|                              | 4:30 PM to 5:15 PM | S. Rajendran (Amrita University, Coimbatore)  
Lexicalization, Grammaticalization and Nominalization of NMEs in Tamil |
<p>|                              | 5:15 PM to 5:45 PM | General Discussion |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tr>
<td>7:00 PM</td>
<td>Group dinner with individual contributions.</td>
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<td><strong>DAY-2</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>ACADEMIC SESSION-2</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>10:30 AM</td>
<td>Masayoshi SHIBATANI (Rice University)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to 1:00 PM</td>
<td><em>What is nominalization? Towards the theoretical foundations of nominalization</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11:45 AM</td>
<td>Tea break</td>
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<tr>
<td>to 12:00 noon)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1:15 PM</td>
<td><strong>WORKSHOP PHOTOGRAPH</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:30 PM to</td>
<td>Lunch for registered workshop participants in the Deccan College Gymkhana</td>
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<tr>
<td>2:15 PM</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>ACADEMIC SESSION-3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:30 PM to</td>
<td>Kazuyuki KIRYU (Mimasaka University)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:15 PM</td>
<td><em>Grammatical nominalizations and their uses in Meche</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:15 PM to</td>
<td>Sung-Yeo CHUNG (Osaka University)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4:00 PM</td>
<td><em>On the relationship between nominalization and NP-use markers—Japanese-Korean contrastive and historical perspective</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>4:00 PM to</td>
<td>High Tea</td>
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<tr>
<td>4:15 PM</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4:15 PM to</td>
<td>Prashant Pardeshi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5:00 PM</td>
<td><em>Rethinking noun complement and relative clauses in Marathi</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>5:00 PM to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5:30 PM</td>
<td>General discussion and wrap up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
More than forty years ago, the philosopher-linguist Zeno Vendler noted that “the grammar of nominalizations is a centrally important part of linguistic theory” (Vendler 1976:125). Indeed, the contributions to recent volumes such as Yap, Grunow-Hårsta, and Wrona (2011) and Zariquiey, Shibatani, and Fleck (2019) present mounting evidence that nominalization plays a central role in the formation of complex constructions such as complementation and relativization. This workshop presents a thorough discussion of the phenomenon of nominalization and the grammatical functions of nominalization structures, especially their role in noun-modification constructions, such as noun complements and relative clauses. The workshop sessions are devoted to the discussions of the theoretical foundations of nominalization and as well as several specific aspects of nominalization in individual languages, namely Meche, Meitei (Tibeto-Burman), Tamil (Dravidian), Japanese and Korean, and Marathi, in an effort to illuminate crosslinguistic generalizations about nominalization among these typologically distinct languages.
ABSTRACTS
On the form and function of Meiteilon Nominalizers
Pritha Chandra
Indian Institute of Technology Delhi
E-mail: prithachandra@gmail.com

This paper looks at nominalizers in the Tibeto-Burman language, Meiteilon which is spoken primarily in the north-eastern Indian state of Manipur, and addresses the following questions – (i) is the nominalizer restricted to a single category, like a noun?, (ii) what function does the nominalizer play in the grammar, and why?

I answer the first question while illustrating with the nominalizer -ba/bi (with gender marking) that is found attached to some nouns; see (1)-(2). Interestingly, the same marker is also found on attributive adjectives (3)-(4).

1. mə-puroy-ba
   3p-own-nmz

   ‘husband’ (also nupa)

2. loynə-bi
   together-nmz

   ‘wife’ (also nupi)

3. a-wang-ba nupa ama
   attri.adj-tall-nmz boy one

   ‘A tall boy’

4. a-wang-ba nupi ama
   attri.adj-tall-nmz girl one

   ‘A tall girl’

Meiteilon does not exhibit person, number and gender inflectional morphology, which confirms that -ba on adjectives cannot result from concord. Structures such as (3)-(4) therefore present an interesting challenge. Why do attributive adjectives end up with a nominalizing marker? One possible answer to this puzzle is that adjectives in this language have [NP ] structures, which then combine with other nominals [NP ] structures. Schematically:
5. \[NP3 \left[ NP1 \left[ Adj \ a-wang \right] \right] \left[ NP2 \ nupi \right]\]

What (5) indicates is that a nominalizer’s role is to turn a category into a noun such that it itself can attach to another noun. Is an \[NP \right] \left[NP \right]\ combination a robust phenomenon in the language? To answer this question, I examine the internal structure of Meiteilon nouns. To start with, I note here that Meiteilon [+human] nouns can be dissected into smaller units. Take for instance, the words \textit{nupa} (‘male’/‘husband’) and \textit{nupi} (‘female’/‘wife’), which are also found in other [+human] nouns, such as \textit{əŋaŋ nupa} (‘boy’), \textit{nupi məča} (‘girl’). Taking evidence from a genealogically related language Mizo, \textit{nu} is for feminine (\textit{nu} ‘female’/‘mother’, \textit{nu-pui} ‘wife’), and \textit{pa} is for masculine (\textit{pa} ‘male/father’). In Meiteilon, however, the \textit{nu} form has been reanalyzed for a [+human] feature, which explains its presence on both male [+human] and female [+human] nouns, while \textit{pa} is still exclusively used to denote the ‘male’. This information helps us break the Meiteilon \textit{nupa/nupi} as in (6).

6. \[nu \left[ +human \right] + palpi \left[ +NMZ\_Gender \right]\]

The following structures demonstrate that nouns have an additional layer – denoted by the \textit{-mə} morpheme in (7). This morpheme essentially has a ‘vantage-point’ function used to place the object from the perspective of a discourse participant. In the following example, ‘husband’ is a third person discourse participant and this information is carried by the \textit{-mə} morpheme. If this analysis is right, we can posit a structure like (8) for all nominals, wherein a noun may attach to another element which is like itself – i.e. either by turning it into the same category (like a nominalizer would do) or by placing it in the same perspective/vantage point (like the \textit{mə} morpheme would do).

7. \textit{mə-puroy-ba}
   \[3p-own-nmz\]
   ‘husband’ (also \textit{nupa})

8. \[VP \ mə\] + \[NP\_NMZ\]

This observation is further substantiated in the following instances (9)-(11), where irrespective of the categorial status of the attaching element (a possessive pronoun, numeral or a quantifier), these are always marked with the vantage marker \textit{mə}.

9. \textit{mə-gi mə-pa}
   \[3p-gen. 3p-father\]
‘Father/His father’

10. *sem mə-ri*
    apple 3P-four

    ‘Four apples’

11. *sem mə-yam*
    apples 3P-many

    ‘Many apples’

Looking at noun formation from this perspective, the role of a Meiteilon nominalizer does not stand out in the grammar. Nominalizers, like other elements such as *mə* enable nouns and their accompanying items to merge together to form larger nominal units. Their function is thus very similar to appositive structures, which are also noun-noun combines (12).

12. o *aetos to puli*
The eagle the bird

    ‘The eagle that is also a bird’

    (Stavrou 1995, as reported in Lekakou and Szendrői 2013: 216)

I end this note with relative clause constructions from Meiteilon, where once again, the nominalizer -*bə* is found turning the relative clause into a noun, enabling it to merge with the head noun.

13. *mə-nə kʰɔtli-bə bol-du oŋaŋ-bə-ni*
    3p-subj. bouncing-nmz. ball-dem red-nmz-cop.

    ‘The ball that he is bouncing is red’ (lit. ‘bouncing ball is red’/'red bouncing ball’).

    3p-subj. bouncing-nmz. ball-dem. red- nzr-cop.

    ‘The ball that she is bouncing is red’ (lit. ‘her red bouncing ball’)
Lexicalization, Grammaticalization and Nominalization of NMEs in Tamil

Rajendran Sankaravelayuthan

Email: rajushush@gmail.com

1. Introduction

While I made an exhaustive study of word formation in Tamil I made some observations which may be relevant for the topic of this seminar. I have observed that most of the adjectives if not all are derived from nouns or verbs. What may of interest to us is that many adjectives are formed from verbs forms which are inflected for adjectival participles –a. I have listed them in my paper on “strategies in the formation of adjectives in Tamil” (Rajendran 2003).

I like to present my paper into four sections: one is NMEs in Tamil based on the survey list prepared by Peter Hook and others; the second one is on lexicalization of NMEs into (lexical or phrasal) adjectives. The third part is in grammaticalization of NME into adjectival suffixes or adjectivalizers. The fourth part is nominalization of NMEs of relative clauses into noun phrases. Probably the fourth part may be related to or intended to substantiate the idea spelt out in the papers or book chapters written by Shibatani and Shibatani Shigeno on “Nominalization” (Shibatani, 2018a, 2018b Shipatani and Shigeno 2013) focusing on Japanese language.

2. NMEs in Tamil

NMEs in Tamil are elaborately discussed in Rajendran (2016). The following table shows the NMEs in Tamil based on the 24 types of NMEs listed by Peter Hook and others in their survey questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Relativization on intransitive subject</td>
<td>cennaiy-ilirundtu va-ndt-a paiyan Chennai-from come-Pst-Aprt boy 'The boy who came from Chennai'</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Relativization on direct object</td>
<td>veeka-maaka kaNNan u-NT-a uNavu fast Kannan eat-Pst-Aprt food 'the food that Kannan ate fast'</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Relativization on transitive subject</td>
<td>cooRu koTu-tt-a aaciriyar rice give-Pst-Aprt doctor 'The teacher who gave cooked rice’</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Relativization on dative of Acquirer</td>
<td>ndalla veelai kiTai-tt-a ndapar good job get-Pst-Aprt person 'the person who got a good job.'</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Relativization on dative of Experiencer</td>
<td>pacci-tt-a enakku hunger-Pst-Aprt I-Dat 'for me who was hungry.'</td>
<td>Restricted to dative-marked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Relativization</td>
<td>Example</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
</tr>
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<td>----</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>on indirect object</td>
<td><code>cooRu k0Tu-tt-a ndaay</code> rice give-Pst-Aprt dog 'The dog to whom X gave rice’</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>on instrument</td>
<td><code>cooRu k0Tu-tt-a karaNTi</code> rice give-Pst-Prt spoon 'the spoon with which X gave Y rice'</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>on Source</td>
<td><code>avan paNam eTu-tt-a vangki</code> he money take-Pst-Aprt bank 'the bank from which he got money'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>on Perlative [Path]:</td>
<td><code>taNNiir veLiyee va-ndt-a tuLai</code> water out come-PST-APAR hole ‘the hole through which water came out’ (Note the source sentence could be: <code>taNNiir tuLai vaziyaaka veLiyee va-ndt-atu</code> water hole through outside come-Pst-3ns ‘The water came out through the hole’)</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>on Possessor of alienable entities</td>
<td><code>avan en-atu viiT-iliirundtu ce-nR-aan</code> he I-gen house-from go-pst-3s ‘He went from my house’ (Here the entities are linked by genitive case marker -atu) <code>avan viiT-iliirundtu ce-nR-a ndaan</code> he house-from go-pst-apar I (Note: The relativized form does not give the expected meaning.) <code>enn-iTam paNam iru-ndt-atu</code> I-with money be-pst-3s <code>enn-iTam iru-ndt-a paNam</code> I-with be-pst-apar money ‘The money I have’ (Note: Here the entities are not linked by genitive case.)</td>
<td>Not possible, Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>on Possessor of inalienables</td>
<td><code>ndaan kaal-ai oTi-tt-a paiyan</code> I leg-Acc break-Pst-Aprt boy 'The boy whose leg I broke '</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>on Possessor of oblique component [sometimes deleted] inside the PPP:</td>
<td><code>viiT-il taNNiir ndzai-ndt-a enakku</code> house-Loc water enter-Pst-Aprt I-Dat ‘For me into whose house water entered ‘ (The source sentence could be: <code>en viiT-il taNNiir ndzai-ndt-atu</code> I-gen house-loc water enter-pst-3ns ‘The water entered my house’)</td>
<td>rare but possible, Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>on Cause [Result]</td>
<td><code>talai-valiy-al.k kuRai-tt-a maattirai</code> head-ache-Acc reduce-Pst-Aprt pills 'the pills which reduced the head ache.' (Note: the relativized form could be from the source</td>
<td>Common</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>Translation</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Relativization on Consequence</td>
<td>veiyil-il ndTa-ndt-a kaLaippu</td>
<td>sun-in walk-Pst-Apqrt exhaustion 'exhaustion [caused by] walking in the sun …’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Relativization on Purpose</td>
<td>veelai cey-t-a paNam</td>
<td>work do-Pst-Apqrt money 'the money earned by doing work’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Relativization on time [in the sense of ‘when …’]</td>
<td>kaNNan viiTTu-kku va-ndt-a pozutu</td>
<td>Kannan house-to come-Pst-Apqrt time 'when Kannan came to the house' avaL ndinai-nt-ta maattiratt-il kaTavuL avaL mun toonRinaar he think-Pas-apar at that time god appeared ‘God appeared before her as soon as she thought (about him)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Relativization on an elided noun expressing quantity or measurement</td>
<td>etirpaar-nt-ta aLav-ai viTa kuRaivaaka</td>
<td>expect-Pst-Apqrt measure than less ‘less than the expected amount’ (Here the object aLavu ‘measure’ cannot be elided; either it must me there the verb has to be nominalized by atu ‘that’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>As a complement to a noun expressing sensory experience</td>
<td>kappal veTi-nt-ta cattam keeTTatu. ship explode-Pst-Apqrt sound was heard 'A sound was heard that the ship exploded.'</td>
<td>miin vaRu-nt-ta maNam fish fry-Pst-Apqrt smell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19a</td>
<td>In a noun-complement to nouns like 'way', 'manner', etc.</td>
<td>In a noun-complement to nouns like 'way', 'manner', etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>'sound', 'sight', 'smell', etc.</td>
<td>‘The smell that the fish was fired’</td>
<td>‘The smell that the fish was fired’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paaTTu paaT-iy-a makizcci</td>
<td>son sing-pst-Apar happiness</td>
<td>‘The happiness that he sang a song’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘The smell that the fish was fired’</td>
<td>ndaay iRa-ndt-a tukkam</td>
<td>dog die-pst-Apar-sorrow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘the sorrow that the dog died’</td>
<td>kuzantai peR-R-a veetanai</td>
<td>child deliver-pst-Apar pain</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>the delivery pain</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>nān con-n-a paṭī aval kēṭṭāḷ</td>
<td>I say-Pst-Prt way she listened</td>
<td>'She did as I said’</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'She did as I said’</td>
<td>(Note: paTi gives adverbial sense to the RC)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>aval va-nt-a kāranam ...</td>
<td>she come-Pst-Aprt reason</td>
<td>'The reason that she came ...'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aval va-nt-a palan</td>
<td>she come-pst-apar benefit</td>
<td>‘the benefit of her coming’</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>aval va-nt-a palan</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ndaan iRa-ndt-a ceyti uy-akku var-um</td>
<td>I Nom die-Pst-Aprt news you-Dat come-fut</td>
<td>'News that I died will come to you.'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aval avan-aič kaatali-tt-a pukaar</td>
<td>she he-acc love-pst-Apar complaint</td>
<td>‘the complaint that she loved him’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aval avanai kolai cey-t-a aataaram</td>
<td>she he-acc murder cey-pst-apar proof</td>
<td>‘the proof of she killed him’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aval avanai kolai cey-t-a aataaram</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>teervil veRRipeR-R-a makizcci</td>
<td>exam succeed-Pst-Aprt happiness</td>
<td>'the happiness at having passed the exam’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndaay iRa-ndt-a varuttum</td>
<td>dog die-pst-apar sorrow</td>
<td>‘the sorrow that the dog died’</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manaiviyaik ko-nR-a vazakkü</td>
<td>wife-acc kill-pas-Apar case</td>
<td>‘the of killing wife’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manaiviyaik ko-nR-a vazakkü</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>manaiyaik ko-nR-a vazakkü</td>
<td>he she-acc love-pas-Apar matter</td>
<td>‘the matter that he loved her’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 20 | Mismatches | *ndii kuuling kiLaas aNi-ndt-a pukaippaTam*  
the photo in which you were wearing cooling glass’ |
| 21 | Directives | *peerundtu payaNaccitTTu munpativu ceyy-a-cco-nn-a ndaNpar*  
‘the friend to whom X asked to book bus ticket’  
(There could be another meaning ‘The friend who asked X to book ticket’ |
| 22 | Quotatives | *eezumaNi-kku varuveen en-R-a kumaran*  
seven O’clock-dat come-fut-I say-pst-Apar Kumaran  
‘Kumaran who said that he would come a 7 O’clock’ |
| 23 | Double-embedding (on a direct object extracted from a finite clause embedded in the PPP) | *maamaa vaangku-v-een enRa kaar*  
uncle-buy-fut-I say-pst-Apar car  
‘the car uncle said that he would buy’  
Common ? |
| 24 | Relativization on Result? | *kaandity-ai ko-nR-a viLaiv-aal ??*  
Gandhi-acc kill-pas-apar result-ins  
‘As a result of Gandhi’s assassination’  
*valatu kai-kku iTatu kaiy-in aataravu kiTai-rt-a pinpalam*  
right hand left hand-gen support give-pst-Apar additional support’  
‘the additional support which left hand gave to right hand’  
rare ?? |

Many abstract nouns such as *naSTam* ‘loss’, *laapam* ‘gain’, *azivu* ‘destruction’, *munneeRRam* ‘development’, *ruci* ‘taste’, names of taste, etc. (and a list of few others) can complement the RCs. The constraints need to be explored.

As Peter Cook has pointed out in his email, Tamil is closely related to Japanese in this aspect. Among 17 types listed in the questionnaire as NMEs of relativization all are found in Tamil except the 10th one. All the types of NMEs listed as complemented by nouns (19a to 19e) are found in Tamil. The rest of NMEs of types 20-23 are also found in Tamil.

3. Lexicalization of adjectival participle forms into adjectives

I have made the following observation in my paper: “Many Past Relative Participle (PaRP) forms of verbs have been listed in KTTA as adjectives as obtaining idiosyncratic meaning lexicalized them. The form is made up of three morphemes- the verb stem + past tense suffix + relative participle suffix. There are sixty seven simple forms and fifty compound forms of this type listed KTTA as adjectives.”

3.1. Simple forms

The simple forms make 50 in numbers.
1. *akaNTa* (pst-Apar from of *akaL* 'widen') 'wide; expensive'
2. *akanRa* (pst-Apar form of *akal* 'become wider') 'broad'
3. *aTarndta* (pst-Apar form of *aTar* 'be close together') 'dense; thick'
4. *aTutta* 'next' (pst-Apar form of *aTu* 'go near') 'next'
5. *aRRa* (pst-Apar form of *aRu* 'be cut off; snap') 'without; less; beyond'
6. *aazndta* (pst-Apar form of *aazh* 'be drowned') 'heart-felt; profound'
7. *iruNTa* (pst-Apar form of *iruL* 'become dark') 'dark'
8. *izindta* (pst-Apar form of *izhi* 'descend') 'degraded; low'
9. *iRandta* (pst-Apar form of *iRa* 'die') 'beyond'
10. *ukandta* (pst-Apar form of *uka* 'accept with pleasure') 'suitable; appropriate'
11. *uyarndta* (pst-Apar form of *uyar* 'raise; go up') 'highest; tallest'
12. *uratta* (pst-Apar form of *ura* 'become intense or louder') 'loud'
13. *uRRa* (pst-Apar form of *uRu* 'happen; obtain') 'needed; trusted'
14. *oTTiya* (pst-Apar form of *oTTu* 'stick; become close') 'alongside; adjacent; preceding and following'
15. *orumitta* (pst-Apar form of *orumi* 'unite') 'unanimous'
16. *eeRRa* (pst-Apar form of *eel* 'accept') 'agreeable; suitable; proper'
17. *kaTandta* (pst-Apar form of *kaTa* 'go past') 'past; last'
18. *kaNTa* (pst-Apar form of *kaaN* 'see') 'all and sundry; irregular; ill-chosen'
19. *karutta* (pst-Apar form of *karu* 'become black') 'black'
20. *kanatta* (pst-Apar form of *kana* 'be heavy') 'heavy build'
21. *kuRitta* (pst-Apar form of *kuRi* note-down') 'concerning; regarding; about'
22. *kuRukiya* (pst-Apar form of *kuRuku* 'get shortened') 'narrow; short'
23. *kuRaindta* (pst-Apar form of *kuRai* 'come down; go reduced; lower; diminish') 'not high; low; insufficient'
24. *kuurttakuurndta* (pst-Apar form of *kuur* 'sharpen') 'sharp (intelligent)'
25. *keTTa* (pst-Apar form of *keTu* 'get affected; deteriorate') 'harmful; bad'
27. kozutta (pst-Apar form of kozu 'grow fat; be plump') 'huge; big'
28. caanRa (pst-Apar form of caal 'be abundant; be exquisite') 'having; being full of'
29. ciRandta (pst-Apar form of ciRa 'become eminent') 'eminent'
30. cemmaandta (pst-Apar form of cemmaa 'be exalted') 'exalted'
31. cevviya (pst-Apar form of cevvu 'excel') 'excellent; perfect'
32. cevviya (pst-Apar form of cevvu become red') 'red'
33. cezitta (pst-Apar form of cezi 'flourish; grow well') 'thick; chubby'
34. cenRa (pst-Apar form of cel 'go') 'last; previous'
35. ceerndta (pst-Apar form of ceer 'join') 'belonging to'
36. takundta (pst-Apar form of taku 'be appropriate; be suitable') 'appropriate; suitable'
37. taTitta (pst-Apar form of TaTi 'swell slightly; thicken') 'thick; heavy'
38. tazuviya (pst-Apar form of tazuvu 'embrace; hug') 'breadth and length of'
39. tazaindtta (pst-Apar form of tazai 'bring down') 'polite; soft'
40. taazhndta (PaRP form of taaz 'come down') 'low'
41. tiranNTa (pst-Apar form of tiraL 'gather; come together; assemble') 'vast; gist; essential'
42. tirRandta (pst-Apar form of tiRa 'open') 'open'
43. teLLiya (PaRP form of teLLu 'to become clear') 'clear; limpid'
44. teernldta (pst-Apar form of teer 'attain proficiency') 'highly skilled'
45. ndiINTa (pst-Apar form of ndiiL 'increase in length; lengthen') 'long'
46. nderungkiya (pst-Apar form of nderungku 'near; approach') 'intimate'
47. parandta (pst-Apar form of para 'be spread') 'vast; wide'
48. palatta (pst-Apar form of pala 'become heavy; grow severe') 'heavy; strong'
49. pazutta (pst-Apar form of pazu 'ripen') 'rich'
50. paRRiya (pst-Apar form paRRu 'hold; catch') 'concerning; regarding'

3.2. Compound forms

There are few types:
1. N + a set of in Verb in past adjectival participle forms
2. Adj+N+ a set of verbs in adjectival participle forms
3. N+N+ a set of verbs in adjectival participle forms

3.2.1. N+ verb in PaRP form

The pst-Apar forms aana, paTTa, iTTa, aRRa and keeTTa, of the verbs aaku ‘become’, paTu ‘suffer’, iTu ‘put’, aRu ‘snap’ and keTu ‘become bad’ respectively and a few other PaRP forms of the verbs are lexicalized as adjectives and find their way in a dictionary (KTTA).

N + aana

appaTTam 'openness; obvious' + aana > appaTTamaana 'blatant'
amukkam + aana > amukkamaana 'secretive'
uruppaTi + aana > uruppaTiyaana 'constructive'
eTuppu + aana > eTuppaana 'attractive'
kaNakku + aana > kaNakkaana 'in the region of'
kaNicam + aana > kaNicamaana 'considerable'
kamukkam + aana > kamukkamaana 'secretive'
kuur 'sharp tip' + aana > kuuraana 'pointed; sharp'
metu 'slowness; unhurriedness+ aana > metuvaana 'slow; unhurried'
meel 'being better; being superior' + aana > meelaana 'excellent; superior; better'
leecu 'lightness' + aana > leecaana 'light'

N + paTTa

appeer 'that name' + paTTa (pst-Apar form of paTu 'be acted upon; be affected; experience') > appeerppaTTa 'such a kind of'
aanaana + paTTa > aanaanappraTTa 'even the most powerful'
iTai 'middle' + paTTa > iTaippraTTa 'between'
ippeer 'this name' + paTTa > ippeerppaTTa 'such as'
uL 'inside' + paTTa > uTpaTTa 'below; within'
uTan 'being together' + piRandta (pst-Apar form of piRa 'be born') > uTanpiRandta 'born of the same parents; related by blood'
uur 'village' + paTTa > uurppaTTa 'more than usual'

EEKAM 'plenty' + paTTa > eekappaTTa 'excessive; enormous; innumerable'
onRu 'one' + paTTa > onRupaTTa 'united'
campandtam 'relevance; connection' + paTTa (pst-Apar form of paTu 'be acted upon; be affected') > campandtappaTTa 'connected; related; concerned'
tani 'separate; independent' + paTTa > tanippaTTa 'personal; individual'
ndaal 'day' + paTTa > ndaaLpaTTa 'of a pretty long time; chronic; old'
paN 'fitness; good quality; suitbleness' + paTTa > paNpaTTa (pst-Apar form of paNpaTu 'become cultivable or arable; get refined') 'cultured; cultivated; seasoned; sophisticated'

PIN 'back' + paTTa > piRpaTTa (pst-Apar form of piRpaTu 'lag behind (in time)') 'later'
meel 'top; above' + paTTa > meeRpaTTa 'more than'
mun 'front' + paTTa > 'muRpaTTa (pst-Apar form of muRpaTu 'initiate') 'prior; pre-' N+ iTTa
kuRippu 'note' + iTTa (PaRP form of iTu 'put') > kuRippiTTa (paRP of kuRippiTu 'make a specific mention of; indicate') 'selected; specified'
kooTu 'line' + iTTa (PaRP form of iTu 'put') > kooTiTTa 'blank indicated by a line'

N+ aRRa
oppu 'equal; match' + aRRa (pst-Apar of aRu 'be cut off; snap') > oppaRRA 'peerless; unique'
tikku 'direction' + aRRa (PaRP form of aRu 'be cut off; snap') > tikkaRRA 'with nobody to support or nowhere to go; destitute'
maTTu 'limit' + aRRa (pst-Apar form of aRu 'be cut off') > maTTaRRA 'overwhelming; limitless'

N+ keTTa
keeTu 'damage' + keTTa (pst-Apar form of keTu 'spoil; ruin') > keeTuKeTTa 'wretched; despicable'
taRi 'post; stake' + keTTa > taRikeTTa 'without restraint; uncontrollable'

N + other ceyta type of forms
oru 'one' + paTittu 'type' + aana > orupaTittaana 'homogeneous'
oru one' + manatu 'mind' + aana > orumanataana 'unanimous'
oru + muakam + aana > orumukamaana 'unanimous'
perum + paal + aana > perumpaalaana 'majority of'

3.2.2. Adj + N + PstAprt forms aana and paTTa

Adj + N + aana

There are four forms of this type listed in KTTA.
oru 'one' + iNaiNaiNdta (pst-Apar of iNai 'join') > orungkiNaiNdta 'integrated'
onRu 'one' + viTTa (pst-Apar of viTu 'leave') > onRuviTTa 'one generation removed'
kai 'hand' + kaNTa (pst-Apar form of kaaN 'see') > kaikaNTa 'efficacious; of proven effect'
kai 'hand' + teerndta (pst-Apar form of teer 'select') > kaiteerndta 'adept'
cekkar 'redness' + civandta (pst-Apar form of civa 'become red') > cekkaccivandta 'bright red'
talai 'head' + aaya (pst-Apar form of aa 'become') > talaiyaaya 'foremost; principal'
tuppu 'ability; resource; competeness' + keTTa > tuppukkeTTa 'having no competence'
ndaaL 'day' + aarndta (pst-Apar form of aar 'to become full') > ndaaLaandta 'daily'
paaTal 'song' + peRRa (pst-Apar form of peRu 'get') > paaTal peRRa 'being the distinction of being sung by'

3.2.2. Adj + N + PstAprt forms aana and paTTa

3.2.2. Adj + N + aana

There are four forms of this type listed in KTTA.
oru 'one' + paTittu 'type' + aana > orupaTittaana 'homogeneous'
oru one' + manatu 'mind' + aana > orumanataana 'unanimous'
oru + muakam + aana > orumukamaana 'unanimous'
perum + paal + aana > perumpaalaana 'majority of'
Adj + N + paTTa

Two forms are listed in KTTA

\[ pala \ 'many' + taram 'quality' + paTTa \rightarrow palatarapaTTa \] of all sorts; different kinds of

\[ pala \ 'many' + tiRam 'ability; capacity' + paTTa \rightarrow palatiRappaTTa \] of all sorts; different kinds of

3.2.3. N + N + pst-Apar forms aana and aRRa

N+N+aana

Twelve forms are listed in KTTA.

\[ aakkam \ 'constructiveness' + puurvam 'basis' + aana \rightarrow aakkapuurvamaana \] 'constructive'

\[ aaNi + taram + aana \rightarrow aaNittamaana \] 'firm; emphatic'

\[ icai + keeTu + aana \rightarrow icaikeTaana \] 'awkward'

\[ kalai + puurvam + aana \rightarrow kalaapuurvamaana \] 'artistic'

\[ cootanai + puurvam + aana \rightarrow cootanaippuvamaana \] 'experimental'

\[ tarkkam + riiti + aana \rightarrow tarkkaitaaTaana \] 'logical'

\[ potu + paTai + aana \rightarrow potuppaTaTaana \] 'general'

\[ manam + puurvam + aana \rightarrow manappuurvamaana \] 'wholehearted'

\[ muraN + paTa + aana \rightarrow muraNpaTaTaana \] 'contradicting'

\[ meel + oTTam + aana \rightarrow meeloTTamaana \] 'superficial'

\[ rattinam + curukkam + aana \rightarrow rattinacurukkamaana \] 'brief; precise; concise'

\[ vilaa + vaari + aana \rightarrow vilaavaariyaana \] 'elaborate'

N+N+aRRa

Only one form is listed in KTTA.

\[ maacu \ 'dirt; dross; polution' + maRu 'spot; blemish' + aRRa \rightarrow maacumaRuvaRRa \] 'blemish-less; spotless'

3.2.4. V-pstAprt+V+ pstAprt

Only one form is found in KTTA
aaki 'having become' + vandta (pst-Apar form of vaa 'come') > aakivandta 'considered lucky'

kaTaindtu 'having churned’ + eTutta (pst-Apar form of eTu 'take') > kaTaindteTutta 'downright; out-and-out'

3.2.5. N+ Verb in past participle form + V+ pst-Apar

Only one form is found in KZTTA

cel 'termite’ + arittu 'having eaten’ + poona (pst-Apar form of poo 'go’) > c ellarittuppoona 'termite eater'

3.2.6. Verb in infinitive form + V+ pst-Apar

Only one form is found in KTTA.

taazttta (pst-Apar form of taazh 'lower' + paTTa > taazhtappattaTa 'scheduled; backward'

ceyta-type of form is considered as past tense marked relative participle form by the traditional grammarians. They are called adjectival participle form as they come before nouns to attribute them. The relative participle formation is considered as a productive inflectional process and not as a derivational process. But as they develop some idiosyncrasy in their meaning they are considered lexicalized forms and they are listed as adjectives in KTTA. Relative participle forms can be taken as potential source from which adjectival forms can be formed when they develop some idiosyncratic meaning.

4. Grammaticalization of NMEs into ajectivalizer or adjective marker

When we analyze the N + relative participle (pst-Apar) form which have been lexicalized as adjectives, we can infer that some of the relative participle forms have been grammaticalized into adjectivalizer or adjective marker or suffix. They are aana (the past relative participle form of aaku 'become'), paTTa (the past relative participle form of paTu ‘suffer’, iTTa (the past relative participle form of the verb iTu ‘put’, aRRa (the past relative participle form of al ‘be not’, keTTa (the past relative participle form of keTu ‘become bad’ and enRa (the relative participle form of the verb en ‘say’). So they are dealt separately below.

5. Compounded nouns with NME interpretation or deletion

Traditional grammars in Tamil presume that certain compound nouns need to be expanded by a phrase with relative participle form for the interpretation of their meaning or that the compound nouns are formed by the deletion of certain grammatical and lexical elements. The following examples illustrate the statement.
According to traditional grammars, the is formed by the deletion of the case suffix *illiruntu* along with a past participle form of a suitable verb (*eTukkappaTu* 'be taken').

According to the traditional grammars, the first element of the compound which is a verbal element needs to be expanded into a form with past tense suffix -*T* + *a* or the present tense suffix -*kinR* + *a* or future tense suffix -*um*.

According to traditional grammars the comparative participle form *poonRa* (*pool*-nR-*a*; *pool* 'resemble') is deleted while forming the compound.

According to traditional grammars, the bahuvrihi or exocentric compound is formed by the deletion of the comparative particle *poonRa* (<*pool*-nR-*a*; *pool* 'resemble'), the second case suffix -ai, the linking verbal element *uTaiya* 'having' and the exocentric head noun *peN* 'woman'.

### 6. Nominalization of relative clauses

Adjectival clauses of the structure Verb + Tense + adjective participle is sometime considered as relative clause derived from verb and they are considered at par with relative clauses in English, for example the *boy who came*. If English example is seen above is the structure of a relative clause, then the nominalized form of the structure Verb + Tense + adjective participle particle + noun or nominal suffix should be considered as relative clause in Tamil. That means the relative clause is a noun phrase consisting of adjectival participle form and a noun or nominal suffix nominalizing it. Rajendran (2001) discussed elaborately about the nominalization on adjectival participle clauses.

Four types of nominalization are noted by Rajendran (2001) on adjective participle clause. One is nominalization by the argument nouns belonging to the verb in adjective particle form (discussed in 17 items in the NEMs list).

*avan nay-aip paar-rt-aan*
Depending on the function of the argument the nominalization the nominalization can be described as subject nominalization, object nominalization, indirect object nominalization, instrument nominalization, locative nominalization and so forth.

The second one is nominalization by the complement nouns which are not arguments

\[ \text{ndaan } i\text{Ra-ndt-a } ceyti \]

I die-pst-apar news

'The news that I died'

The third type of nominalization by pronominal suffixes which are pronominal suffixes agreeing with the of the arguments (participants of the verbal action) of the verb in adjective participle form.

\[ \text{ndaan } r\text{aaman-aip paartteen} \]

I Raman-acc see-pst-1s

'I saw Raman'

\[ \text{ndaan } p\text{aar-tt-avan} \]

I see-pst-apar-3ms

'the male person I saw'

\[ \text{ndaan } l\text{aiyil } c\text{aappiT-T-een} \]

I leaf-loc eat-pas-1s

'I ate on the leaf'

\[ \text{ndaan } c\text{aappiT-T-a ilai} \]

I eat-pst-apar leaf

'the leaf on which I ate food'

\[ \text{ndaan } c\text{aappiT-T-a-tu ilaiyil} \]

I eat-pst-apar-p3ns
'the leaf on which I ate food'

The fourth type of nominalization on adjective participle clause is by *atu* which can be taken as a gerundive suffix.

\[
\text{avaL nndeRRu vTTukkuL nduzai-nd-aAL}
\]

'She yesterday house-dat-inside enter-pst-3fs

'She entered the house yesterday'

\[
\text{avaL nndeRRu vTTu-kk-uL nuzai-ndt-a-tai naan paar-tt-een}
\]

'she yesterday house-dat-inside enter-pas-ger I see-pst-1s

'I saw her entering the house'

This can be called as event nominalization as *-atu* refers to the event denoted by the embedded clause.

7. Nominalization by *en*-complementizers

Another interesting set of nominalization is nominalization by the nominal complementizes *enRatu, enkiRatu* and *enpatu*. The complementizers *enRatu, enkiRatu* and *enpatu* are tense inflected abstract nouns of *en*. They too embed an S in finite clause, that is the verb of the embedded S is in finite form. Only *enkiRatu* and *enpatu* are used as complementizers in Modern Tamil; *enRatu* is not in use; *enpatu* is more commonly used than *enkiRatu*. *enpatu*-clause can be complemented by verbal and non-verbal predicates. *enpatu* can complement a verbal as well as non-verbal predicate clauses.

\[
\text{avan cennai poo-y-viT-T-aan enkiRatu/enpatu enakkut terium}
\]

he Chennai go_PAST_PART_leave_PAST_he COMP I_DAT know_FUT

'I know that he has gone to Chennai'

\[
\text{aruN oru paaTTukkaaran enkiRatu/enpatu enakkut teriy-um}
\]

Arun a singer I_DAT know COMP know_FUT

‘I know that Arun is a singer’.
Arun a murderer COMP true
‘It is true that Arun is a murderer’
avan vandtuviTTaan enkiRatu/enaptu uNmai
he come_PAST_PART_leave_PAST_he COMP true
'It is true that he has come’

The complements of the *enpatu*-clauses of the first and fourth sentences of the above examples have verbal predicates whereas the second and the third have nominal predicates. In the first and second sentences the matrix predicates are verbal whereas in the third and the fourth the matrix predicates are nominal.

The construction consisting of the embedded S and *enpatu* has the categorical status of a nominalized clause or noun phrase. So an *enpatu*-clause can be complemented by cases which in turn can be complemented by postpositions. It occurs in all NP positions except the predicate position.

1. *enpatu*-clause in subject relation
oru kaNippoRi vaangk-a-veeNT-um enpatu enatu aaca
one computer buy_INF_want_fut COMP my desire
'My desire is to buy a computer’

2. *enpatu*-clause in object relation
ndaaLai paLLi illai enpat-aik keeLvippaT-T-een
Tomorrow school not NOM_ACC learn_PAST_I
‘I learned that there is no school tomorrow’.  

3. *enpatu*-clause in sociative relation
aruN aparaatam kaT-T-in-aan enpatoTu ciRaikkum cen-R-aan
Arun fine remit_PAST_ he COMP_SOCI jail go_PAST_he
‘Arun not only remitted the fine but also went to Jail’

*enpatu*-clause is synonymous with *atu*-clause as can be inferred from the following examples.

*avaL inRu varu-v-aaL enpatu en-akkut teriy-um*
she today come_FUT_she COMP I_DAT know_FUT
'I know that she will come’
avaL inRu varu-v-atu en-akkut teriy-um
she today come_FUT_it I_DAT know_FUT
'I know that she will come'

enRpatu-clause is synonymous with enRu-clause in certain contexts.

avan var-a-maaTT-aan enpatu en-akkut teriy-um
he come_INF_not_he COMP I_DAT know_FUT
'I know that he will not come'

avan var-a-maaTT-aan enRu en-akkut teriy-um
he come_INF_not_he COMP I_DAT know_FUT
'I know that he will not come'

Larkin (1972:49) feels that object complement clauses of enRu and enpatu are not semantically identical as exemplified by the following examples. If the speaker feels that he is giving information that is new to us he uses enRu-clause; on the other hand, if the speaker wants to remind or point out a known fact he uses enpatu-clause.

maRupaTiyum avar teertal-il tooRRuviT-T-aar enRu con-n-aaL
again he election_LOC fail_PAST_he COMP say_PAST_she
'She told that he lost the election again'

again he election_LOC fail_PAST_he COMP say_PAST_she
maRupaTiyum avar teertail tooRRuviTTaar enpataic connaan
'She told that he lost the election again'

Reference


Despite Zeno Vendler’s point quoted above, linguistic theory has made little progress toward a satisfactory understanding of the phenomenon of nominalization, and how nominalizations, as the products of this process, function in grammar. This seminar attempts to lay theoretical foundations of nominalization, characterize major types of nominalizations, and to explicate how they function in grammar. Proper understandings of these undermine many theoretical assumptions held in the current analysis of such prominent phenomena collectively dabbed “subordinate clauses”, including relativization and complementation. The problems are not unique a particular theoretical framework, obtaining equally in typological and functional, as well as formal linguistics.

While nominalization phenomena are receiving increasing attention in recent years, most studies are narrow in scope, are shallow in the analysis, and overall lack a proper understanding of the relationship between grammatical structures and their uses. None of the studies delve into the cognitive underpinning of the nominalization process, preventing them from gaining an insight and understanding of the semantic properties of nominalizations. We demonstrate that nominalization is a metonymic process by which a range of denotations is potentially evoked based on the nominalization structures. Just like ordinary metonymic expressions (e.g., “Drink a glass a day”, “India defeated Ireland 5-2”), verbal-based nominalizations, for example, denote a wide range of substantives metonymically related to verbal events, such as Event protagonists/participants (Agent, Patient, etc.), Resultant product, Instrument, and Location, and the precise denotation is contextually determined per the Gricean Cooperative Principle.

We distinguish between lexical and grammatical nominalizations, and between event nominalizations and argument nominalizations. We then demonstrate that grammatical nominalizations, like ordinary nouns, have two major uses; namely, an NP-use, where a nominalization heads an NP and a modification-use, where a nominalization modifies a noun head within an NP. We argue that so-called “complements” and “relative clauses” are simply an NP-use of event nominalizations and a modification-use of argument nominalizations, respectively. One of the major claims made is that there are no distinct structures such as “(clausal) complements” and “relative clauses” apart from grammatical nominalizations. Briefly discussed here is the distinction among nominalizations, clauses, and sentences—one of the most neglected topics in modern linguistic theory.

We then take up the topic of nominal-based nominalizations, where we argue that so-called genitive/possessive forms, such as mine and John’s in English and other languages are in fact nominalizations of nominals, i.e., pronouns, nouns, and noun phrases. Just like verbal-based nominalizations, nominal-based nominalizations have two major uses of NP-use and modification-use. Our analysis obviates such parts of speech distinctions as “possessive pronouns” (e.g., mine, his) and “possessive adjectives” (e.g., my book, his book)—the former
are an NP-use of pronoun-based nominalizations and the latter a modification-use of the same. Included here is a discussion on how so-called “genitive case” differs from true case forms both semantically and syntactically, justifying our treatment of it as a nominal-based nominalization. We show that (numeral) classifiers are also nominalizers for numerals and other parts of speech in many languages of the world. The importance of nominal-based nominalizations is demonstrated in terms of the spread of nominalization markers, which often starts out in nominal-based nominalizations and then spreads to verbal-based nominalizations.

Among the far-reaching theoretical conclusions reached by this study is that the various types of relative clauses (e.g., free/headless RCs, internally-headed RCs, restrictive RCs) recognized in the typological literature are actually no more than epiphenomena arising from the different uses of grammatical nominalizations. This and other pertinent issues discussed are illustrated and supported by a wide-spectrum of language data from around the globe, including Indic and Dravidian languages.
Grammatical nominalizations and their uses in Meche
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Meche is a Tibeto-Burman language (Bodo-Garo) spoken in the eastern part of Nepal and northern West Bengal. In this presentation, I will argue that “cookie-cuttered” classifications such as “complement clauses”, “relative clauses” and “noun complement clauses” are not necessary but that the functional definition of nominalization presented by Shibatani identifies all the phenomena as different uses of grammatical nominalization in this language as well.

“Complement clause”

(1) \[goga\; mən=nai]=ya\; aŋ=kəu\; saji-bai.\]

cold get=NMLZR=NOM 1SG=ACC bother-PST

‘Catching cold has bothered me.’

“Relative clause”

(2) \[miya\; bun\; undu=nai\; (mansi)\; təy-bai.\]

yesterday here sleep=NMLZR man go-PST

‘The man/one who was sleeping/slept here has gone.’

“Noun complement clause”

(3) \[pradanməntrī\; təi=nai\; kəbor\]

prime.minister die=NMLZR news

‘the news that the Prime Minister has died’

Furthermore, the functional definition of nominalization explains the nominalized construction in (4), which is not understood as a “relative clause”.better than the traditional framework.

(4) \[bom\; bedpru=nai\; rau=kəu\; aŋ\; kənə-bai.\]

bomb burst=NMLZR sound=ACC 1SG hear-PST

‘I heard the sound such that a bomb exploded.’
I also discuss the role of the genitive marker =ni in the modification use in (5), arguing that the “genitive” is actually a nominalizer that evokes a new denotation, which makes the difference in the b-example.

(5) a. [bisa undu=nai](=ni) cau=au si kob-bai.
   child sleep=NMLZR=GEN top=LOC cloth cover-PST
   ‘I laid a sheet over the sleeping child.’

b. [bisa undu=nai]#(=ni) gahai=yau Renta undu-dəŋ.
   child sleep=NMLZR=GEN under=LOC PN sleep-CONT
   ‘Renta is sleeping under the place where a child is sleeping. (With =ni)’
   ‘Renta is sleeping on the lower bed where a child is sleeping. (Without =ni)’

Finally, I will discuss that the difference in (5b) has something to do with noun-modification by other categories such as demonstrative, numeral classifiers and adjectives in Meche.
On the relationship between nominalization and NP-use markers—Japanese-Korean contrastive and historical perspective
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In the recent studies on grammatical nominalizations there are two related basic issues that require clarification and further studies. One is the distinction between nominalizers and NP-use markers and the nature of NP-use markers themselves. Horie 2011, Yap, Grunow-Håstra and Wrona 2011, and Frellesvig 2012, for example, identify the Japanese particle no in a form like (1a) as a nominalizer.

(1) Japanese
a. [[anata ga kata] no] o misete.
   you NOM bought PART ACC show
   ‘Show me the one that you bought.’
b. [[anata ga kata] hon] o misete.
   you NOM bought book ACC show
   ‘Show me the book that you bought.’

However, a comparison of the pattern of occurrence of this particle and that of true nominalizers such as Mandarin de and Thai ti reveals that while nominalizers occur in all the use contexts, the Japanese particle in question occurs only when nominalizations are used as NP-heads, as in (1a).

(2) Mandarin
a. Gěi wǒ kàn [[nǐ mǎi de]] .
   GIVE I see you buy NMLZR
   ‘Show me the one that you bought.’
b. Gěi wǒ kàn [[nǐ mǎi de] shū].
   GIVE I see you buy NMLZR book
   ‘Show me the book that you bought.’

Clearly, Japanese no is an NP-use marker, which signals that the nominalization that it marks is used as an NP-head and plays a referential function.

The Korean counterpart of the Japanese NP-use marker no (known as juntai-joshi in traditional Japanese grammar) is kes, which has received two different interpretations. In traditional Korean studies kes has been characterized as a noun or formal noun with the meaning of “thing”. More recently, kes has been identified as a nominalizer (Horie 2011, Rhee 2011, 2015). Again, a comparison of Korean and Mandarin reveals that kes is not really a nominalizer, as it occurs only in an NP-use context, just like Japanese no.

(3) Korean
The traditional claim that *kes* is a (formal) noun also lacks evidence that it was/is a noun meaning “thing”, since it cannot be used as an independent noun with that meaning in Modern Korean, unlike the Japanese noun *mono* “thing”, and since there is no historical evidence that it was ever used as a noun.

Our claim in this presentation is that the “thing” reading of *kes*-marked nominalizations like the one in (3a) derives from the nominalization itself, rather than from the particle. In other words, *kes* marks what has already been nominalized, just to indicate that the nominalization in question is being used as an NP-head playing a referential function.

Our point can be proven rather easily in the case of Korean because it shows nominalizing morphology clearly, compared to Modern Japanese, which shows no formal distinction between the finite verb form and the nominalized verb form. The –*n* ending in (3), which, like Mandarin *de*, occurs in both NP-use and modification context, is a nominalizer. Both Japanese and Korean cases can be clarified in historical perspective, where earlier nominalization structures were/may not be marked by *no* or *kes*. These markers are a later development in the history of the two languages.

My presentation thus has an important implication to those proposals (e.g. Yap, Grunow-Hästra and Wrona 2011) that grammatical nominalizations arise from something like relative clauses with a noun head of general meanings such as “thing”, “person”, and “place”. What my talk suggests is that these start out as a NP-use marker that marks what is already nominalized when it is used as an NP head, and that they cannot be the origins of nominalizations, contrary to Christofaro’s (2019) recent speculation.
Within the Indo-European tradition, as elsewhere, nominalization studies have mostly focused on lexical nominalizations, while grammatical nominalizations lack proper recognition as such largely because the structures corresponding to grammatical nominalizations in other languages display structure *internal* verbal properties to varying degrees, as in the case of those labeled as “infinitive” and “participle”. While these are principal structures used as both nominal heads and noun modifiers, IE languages typically have some additional structures that include a finite verb, which also function as noun complements and relative clauses similarly to grammatical nominalizations in other languages, as shown in the following Marathi examples.

Noun complement

(1) [{Exhopaḍpaṭṭi-lā āg lāg-l-yā-č-i} bāṭmi]
   hutments.OBL-DAT fire catch-PVF-INF-GEN-F.SG news.F.SG
   šahar-ā-t pasar-l-i
town-OBL-in spread-PFV-F.SG

   ‘The news that the hutments caught fire spread in the town.’

(2) mi [{mukhy.mantri ho-n-yā-ʦ-ʦ} svapn]
   I.ERG chief.minister become-FUT-INF-GEN-N.SG dream.N.SG
   pāh.i-l-ā
   see-PFV-N.SG

   ‘I was a dream of becoming a chief minister.’

Relative clauses:

Participial type: Non-finite type

(3) [{Ø dāru pi-NDAR-ā} basčālak]
   liquor.PRS bus.driver.M.SG
   drink-PRS.PTCP-M.SG

   ‘the bus driver who drinks liquor’

(4) [{Ø dāru pyāy-lel-ā} basčālak]
   liquor.F drink-PST.PTCP-M.SG bus.driver.M.SG

   ‘the bus driver who drank liquor’

Relative-Correlative type: Finite-type

(5) [{j-yā-(basčālak-ā)-ne} dāru pyāy-l-i
   RELP-OBL-(bus.driver-OBL)-ERG liquor.F drink-PFV-F

   ‘the bus driver who drank liquor’
Based on the data from Marathi, this presentation argues for the treatment of these structures, both finite and non-finite ones, as grammatical nominalizations.

We first show that grammatical categories are determined on the basis of semantics and structure external syntactic properties. We then show that Marathi finite and non-finite structures that function as verb arguments and noun modifiers, including those identified as relative clauses, are both semantically and syntactically nominal, justifying our analysis of them as grammatical nominalizations.

Phenomena such as gender and number marking present crucial evidence that the relevant structures are denoting substantive entities, rather than predicating and asserting as clauses and sentences do.

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