The nominalizer *su* and sentence-final *soo* in Kikaijima Ryukyuan:
Comparison with Japanese *no*(da) and *(no)*dewanaika

Lukas RIESER Rihito SHIRATA

1 Introduction

In this article, we compare Kikaijima Ryukyuan (henceforth KR) constructions with the nominalizer *su* and Japanese constructions with the nominalizer *no*. First, we discuss scope-adjusting and expressive nominalization in Japanese and KR, arguing that Japanese *no*(da)-constructions have counterparts with *su* in KR, with two distinct forms for expressive nominalization in KR due to distinct realizations of the copula and the assertion morpheme. We also show that recent analyses observing evidential properties of Japanese *no* also apply to *su* in positive polar questions and polar questions with outer negation. Next, we discuss syntactically outer negation in polar questions as an expression of speaker bias in both KR and Japanese, and sentence-final expressions derived from it. We argue that parallel to Japanese *jan*, *soo* is a reduced form of syntactically outer negation in polar questions. We show overlapping uses of *jan* and *soo* as well as uses unique to *soo*. Finally, we attempt to explain the selectional properties of *soo* by its morphological structure and its grammaticalization to a sentence-final particle, which has further progressed than that of its Japanese counterpart *jan*.

1.1 Kikaijima Ryukyuan

The examples presented here are elicited data or taken from transcribed texts, both obtained during fieldwork conducted by the second author RS from 2011 to 2014 with the help of six consultants from Kamikatetsu village (called *hatitu* in the local language), who are in their seventies or older. KR is an endangered Ryukyuan language spoken on Kikaijima, Kagoshima Prefecture. The Ryukyuan languages are divided into two major groups: Northern and Southern Ryukyuan, KR belonging to the former. Fluent speakers of KR in Kamikatetsu village are mostly in their fifties or older; younger generations generally have only a passive knowledge or limited lexical knowledge of the language.

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1 This fieldwork was supported by a Grant in Aid for JSPS fellows (Grant number 12J06463).
1.2 The predicate and sentence-final elements in KR

The structure of the indicative finite verb is given in (1) below. The polarity slot following the verb stem is occupied by the negative suffix *raa* (or allomorphs) in case of negation, and remains vacant when there is no negation. Either of nonpast *ii* or past *ti* (or allomorphs) occur in the tense slot.\(^3\)

(1) **STEM - (POLARITY) - TENSE**

(2) Verb forms of Kikaijima Ryukyuan:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NPST affirmative</th>
<th>“eat”</th>
<th>“hang”</th>
<th>“be”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kam-ii</td>
<td>kee-ii</td>
<td>ur-i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kam-in</td>
<td>kee-in</td>
<td>u-n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPST negative</td>
<td>kam-aa-∅</td>
<td>kee-raa-∅</td>
<td>ur-aa-∅</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kam-an-∅</td>
<td>kee-ran-∅</td>
<td>ur-an-∅</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PST affirmative</td>
<td>ka-di</td>
<td>kee-ti</td>
<td>u-ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka-dan</td>
<td>kee-tan</td>
<td>u-tan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PST negative</td>
<td>kam-an-ti</td>
<td>kee-ran-ti</td>
<td>ur-an-ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kam-an-tan</td>
<td>kee-ran-tan</td>
<td>ur-an-tan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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\(^2\) We thank Thomas Pellard (CRLAO-CNRS) for offering us the maps shown here. We rearranged them and added the place names.

\(^3\) In the following sections, we will refrain from showing the morpheme boundaries between stems and polarity/tense markers and omit NPST from the glosses for convenience.
Examples of KR verb forms are shown in (2). Tense morphemes have two allomorphs depending on the sentence-final elements following them. Two classes of sentence-final elements can be distinguished: those which can not, and those which can follow other sentence-final elements. We label the former Class 1, the latter Class 2 sentence-final elements. Those belonging to Class 1 select verbal elements in a form with final -n. The sentence-final elements of Class 1 occurring in the data presented in this article are the assertion marker doo, the yes-no question marker na, and the question marker ka; the sentence-final elements of Class 2 in our data are the sentence-final particles yo and yaa.

Further bound allomorphs of the tense morphemes occur when they are followed by suffixes such as the nominalizer su, which is central to our discussion. Further bound allomorphs of the tense morphemes occur when they are followed by suffixes such as the nominalizer su, which is central to our discussion.

### (3) Tense morpheme allomorphs before the nominalizer su:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>“eat”-NMLZ</th>
<th>“hang”-NMLZ</th>
<th>“be”-NMLZ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NPST</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affirmative</td>
<td>kam-i-su</td>
<td>kee-i-su</td>
<td>u-∅-su</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>kam-an-∅-su</td>
<td>kee-ran-∅-su</td>
<td>ur-an-∅-su</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PST</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affirmative</td>
<td>ka-da-su</td>
<td>kee-ta-su</td>
<td>u-ta-su</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>kam-an-ta-su</td>
<td>kee-ran-ta-su</td>
<td>ur-an-ta-su</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nominal predicates consist of a nominal element followed by the copula ja. In the case of affirmative nonpast indicatives, the copula cannot co-occur with Class 1 SFPs and the particles directly follow the NP. Among Class 2 SFPs, yaa can follow the affirmative nonpast indicative copula while yo cannot. The copula has a suppletive form ar- (from the existential verb) when it hosts the negation or the past suffix. Both yaa and yo can follow the assertion marker doo and can be directly attached to finite verbs.

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4 When the yes-no marker follows the nonpast form in, the cliticized form nya occurs instead of na.

5 The question marker ka tends to be used for the case where the speaker is not quite sure whether the addressee has the answer to the question, as well as for self-questioning.

6 The phoneme /s/ is optionally debuccalized to /h/ when it is adjacent to a morpheme boundary. Thus, su and soo, the elements we focus on in this article, have the allomorphs fu and hoo, respectively.

7 Other suffixes that can attach to tense morphemes are the inference markers roo and ra, and the emphatic marker ru.

8 When the copula is negated, the nominal predicate takes an apparently topicalized form. However, we will not use the gloss TOP in that case because it does not function as a topicalizer.
2 Sentence nominalization

We use the term “sentence nominalization” for constructions in which the nominalizers su (KR) and no (Japanese) are used not to make a verbal element nominal (e.g. transform a VP into an NP to use it as an argument of a predicate), but to adjust the scope of negation or assertion (scope-adjusting nominalization), or to enrich the expressive meaning of an utterance (expressive nominalization).9 The term “nominalization” and the label “nominalizer” for su and no might be somewhat misleading, as they have functions beyond “plain” nominalization, and as no (and thus most likely su) is syntactically a complementizer rather than a nominalizer in the structures we discuss. We use the expression “sentence nominalization” in lack of another term to cover the uses of su and no described here.

2.1 Scope-adjusting nominalization

The function of scope-adjusting nominalization is to adjust the scope of negation or assertion. Since in the case of assertion scope-adjusting and expressive nominalization can be realized as a single instance and thus become indistinguishable on the surface, we focus on cases where the scope of negation is adjusted, but maintain that in principle our claims can be extended to cases without negation. We will show parallel KR and Japanese examples (in this order throughout the article) where sentence nominalization adjusts the scope of negation, and, for completeness, examples where a contrastive topic marker achieves the same effect. Next, we will show another use of scope-adjusting nominalization where no focused element is singled out for negation.

2.1.1 Focus constructions

One use of scope-adjusting nominalization are focus constructions of the structure shown in (4), where the nominalizer directly follows the tense morpheme10 heading a TP so that only a focused element, here given as XP11 following Hiraiwa and Ishihara (2002), is asserted or negated. The symbols ASS and NEG are placeholders for assertion (the copula in Japanese, an assertion morpheme in KR) and negation (the negated copula in

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9 We follow the distinction between “no(da) of scope” and “no(da) of mood” made in Noda (1997).
10 In Japanese, nominal elements can also be targeted by sentence-final nominalization, in which case an additional copula is inserted between the nominal element and the nominalizer. Since this is not possible in KR, we exclude these cases from the discussion here.
11 We are neutral as to whether the focused element actually has to be a maximal projection or a constituent.
both Japanese and KR), respectively,\(^\text{12}\) and do not represent a specific morphological realization of these functions.

(4) \[[\text{TP} \ldots \text{XP}_{\text{FOC}} \ldots \text{T}] \text{NMLZ ASS/NEG}\]

Compare “plain” negation or assertion, which is realized as follows:

(5) \[[\text{TP} \ldots \text{VP}_{\text{FOC}} \ldots \text{V}] (\text{NEG}) \text{T}] \text{ASS}\]

In order for (5) to get the reading (4) gets by default, the XP to be negated or asserted needs to be marked as a contrastive topic. Focus intonation is also necessary to mark this XP in (4). We will show a case without focus intonation (“scope expansion”) at the end of this section.

The following examples of scope-adjusting nominalization are felicitous replies to the question “Is Takashi coming from Okinawa?”, where the question under discussion is where Takashi is coming from, not whether or not he is coming.

(6) \textit{Takasee Kagoshima-kara shii-soo araa.}  
\hspace{0.5cm} \text{PN.TOP PN-from come-NMLZ COP.NEG}  
\hspace{0.5cm} \text{Okinawa-kara shii-su doo.}  
\hspace{0.5cm} \text{PN-from come-NMLZ ASS}

(7) \textit{Takashi-wa Kagoshima-kara kuru-n-janai.}  
\hspace{0.5cm} \text{PN-TOP PN-from come-NMLZ-COP.NEG}  
\hspace{0.5cm} \text{Okinawa-kara kuru-n-da.}  
\hspace{0.5cm} \text{PN-from come-NMLZ-COP}

“Takashi isn’t coming from Kagoshima, he’s coming from Okinawa.”

In the first sentence in (6), the nominalizer \textit{su}, parallel to Japanese \textit{no} in (7), separates negation from the predicate “come” so that it targets the focused constituent “from Kagoshima” (rather than the entire clause). In the second sentence, “from Okinawa” is asserted, the rest of the clause backgrounded.

\(^{12}\) “Assertion” and “negation” are used in a contrastive sense here — \textit{i.e.} “assertion” means that a proposition is asserted without negation and “negation” that a negated proposition is asserted. We gloss over the question of what happens to the rest of the clause when a (negated) focused phrase is asserted. We maintain that it is backgrounded, but may also be asserted depending on the definition of this term.
Utterances with negation attaching directly to the predicate without scope-adjusting nominalization are not felicitous in the same context:

(8) # Takasee Kagoshima-kara kuuraa.

PN.TOP PN-from come.NEG

(9) # Takashi-wa Kagoshima-kara konai.

PN-TOP PN-from come.NEG

In terms of truth conditions, (8) and (9) are the same as (6) and (7), respectively. The only difference is their felicity in regard to information structure in the sense of what the utterance is about or what the question under discussion is. In order to get a reading compatible with the question “Is Takashi coming from Kagoshima?” without scope-adjusting nominalization, “from Kagoshima” needs to be marked as a contrastive topic in KR to be felicitous (similar observations can be made for Japanese), as in this version of (8):

(10) Takasee Kagoshima-kara #(-a) kuuraa.

PN.TOP PN-from -CTOP come.NEG

“Takashi isn’t coming from Kagoshima”

We are not concerned with what differences in conveyed meaning there are between (10) and the version with scope-adjusting nominalization in (6). The observation we would like to make is that for the intended reading (8) is not possible, and that scope-adjusting nominalization and contrastive topic marking are two strategies to convey it. We also note that scope-adjusting nominalization can be used for focus constructions in KR and Japanese alike.

A parallel example of scope-adjusting nominalization where the phrase targeted by negation is the main verb but not the entire clause is shown in (11).

(11) [Noticing that the speaker has some new thing] A: “Did you buy that?”

hootaa soo araa. hata-su doo.

buy.PST-NMLZ COP.NEG borrow.PST-NMLZ ASS

“I didn’t buy it. I borrowed it.”

13 Thus, what we dubbed scope-adjusting nominalization could also be considered expressive in the sense of not contributing to the truth-conditional meaning of the utterance. We argue that negation in the scope-adjusting examples is semantically active in that it targets part of the clause and negates it. This is not the case with what we call expressive nominalization.
In (11), the nominalizer adjusts the scope of negation, parallel to (6), so that it targets the focused verb stem “buy” rather than the entire clause. The utterance thus conveys that the denoted event was one of borrowing rather than buying. A version without scope-adjusting nominalization is degraded in the same utterance situation:

(12) ? hoowanti. hata-su doo.
buy.NEG.PST borrow.PST-NMLZ ASS
“I didn’t buy it. I borrowed it.”

We assume that (12) is bad because the (buying / borrowing) event is negated, which is not the intended reading. The speaker wants to convey that an acquisition event took place, but it was one of borrowing, not of buying. Again, another felicitous option without using scope-adjusting nominalization is contrastive topic marking:

(13) hooenoo nee. hata-su doo.
buy.SEQ.CTOP NEG borrow.PST-NMLZ ASS
“I didn’t buy it. I borrowed it.”

A different negation morpheme from (12) is used here, and the tense morphology is different. This is due to requirements of the contrastive topic marker, the details of which we are not concerned with.

### 2.1.2 Scope expansion

Scope-adjusting nominalization is not limited to focus constructions,\(^\text{14}\) that is, to cases where there is a focused XP which is targeted by negation / assertion. More generally, it separates the predicate from negation, as in the following example. The utterance is a felicitous reply to the question “Are we going to collect firewood in the mountain?”

(14) suu-ya yama-jen tammu turi-soo aran-su doo.
today-TOP mountain-LOC firewood collect-NMLZ COP.NEG-NMLZ ASS
hatee ijen hansuu wiii-su doo.
field go.SEQ sweet_potato plant-NMLZ ASS
“We’re not going to collect firewood in the mountain.
We’re going to the field to plant sweet potatoes.”

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\(^{14}\) We thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing this out and giving us the example (14) in Japanese.
In (14), scope-adjusting nominalization does not result in negation singling out one element of the clause. However, it serves the purpose of detaching the predicate from negation, as the same utterance with negation attaching directly to the verb “collect” is degraded in the same utterance situation.

There is a clear similarity between examples like (11) and (14) in that by using sentence nominalization, the speaker conveys that there is some event that is taking place (or has taken place), but that it is a different kind of event from that assumed by the addressee. Whether or not this can be unified under the label of “scope expansion” is a topic for further research.

### 2.1.3 Clefts

Parallels in meaning and structure between focus constructions with no(da) and (pseudo-)clefts have been pointed out in the literature on scope-adjusting nominalization in Japanese (cf. Hiraiwa and Ishihara (2002); Noda (1997); Ono (2006)). In (pseudo-)clefts, the non-focused part of the clause followed by the nominalizer is topicalized and the focused constituent negated or asserted to yield the structure in (15).15

(15) \[[TP \ldots T]\ NMLZ\text{-TOP} \ XP_{\text{FOC}} \ ASS/\text{NEG}\]

This structure is found in both KR and Japanese clefts.16

(16) wannaa-nu sansuu narata-soo Yamada-shinsee-kara doo.
     1EXPL\text{-NOM} arithmetic learn.PST-NMLZ\text{-TOP} PN\text{-teacher-from} ASS

to illustrate the surface string found in KR and Japanese (pseudo-)clefts.

(17) watashitachi-ga sansuu-o naratta no-wa
     1PL\text{-NOM} arithmetic-ACC learn.PST NMLZ\text{-TOP}
     Yamada-sensei-kara da.
     PN\text{-teacher-from} COP

“It’s Mr. Yamada we learned arithmetic from.”

Note that in the KR example (16), the nominalizer su merges with the topic marker a to form soo. The same string appears in (6) and subsequent examples as part of the negated

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15 Whether the structure shown here is the result of a derivation process from a focus construction as proposed in Hiraiwa and Ishihara (2002) is not relevant for our purposes. (15) is only intended to illustrate the surface string found in KR and Japanese (pseudo-)clefts.

16 We judge the Japanese example shown here to be a cleft rather than a pseudo-cleft, as the nominalizer can not be substituted by a full NP and no-ga-conversion is not possible, two tests for clefts in Hiraiwa and Ishihara (2002). We assume that the cleft status also holds for the KR example.
copula, but they serve different functions in the two examples — here, the topic marker serves to mark the non-focused phrase as a topic; as part of the negated copula it has no such function. While this distinction is not apparent from the phonological forms of the two instances of soo in KR, it is observable in the Japanese examples, as the topic marker wa merges with the morpheme de to form a string ja as part of the negated copula in (7), but not in (17), yielding the strings n-ja and no-wa, respectively. We conclude that KR su and Japanese no have parallel uses not only in scope-adjusting nominalization, but also in cleft constructions.

2.2 Expressive nominalization

We distinguish scope-adjusting nominalization from what we call “expressive” sentence nominalization, where negation following the nominalizer is not semantically active as it does not truth-conditionally negate (part of) the clause it selects. Examples for expressive nominalization will be discussed in the following two sections. Next, we will show that recent analyses of Japanese no as having evidential properties also apply to KR su to some extent. Noda (1997) subdivides occurrences of “no(da) of mood” into “connective” vs. “non-connective”, and “factual” vs. “personal” uses, all four possible combinations of which can be observed in Japanese. “Connective” uses are those in which there is a connection, such as causality, between the proposition of the no(da)-clause and the proposition of some antecedent. We focus on non-connective uses here as they are more economical to present (no antecedent is needed) and as only few of our informants accepted the connective use in KR.

2.2.1 Personal expressive nominalization

“Personal” (“taijinteki”) uses are those in which the speaker intends for the addressee to accept the truth of the proposition, which is presented as a “given fact”. In “factual” (“taijiteki”) uses, the utterance is not (necessarily) directed at an addressee, but expresses that the state of affairs denoted in the proposition has just come to the speaker’s attention.

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17 It would be straightforward to assume that the same goes for assertion, although it is not clear to us what “non-truth conditional assertion” could be.

18 Some of the uses analyzed as “connective” by Noda (1997) could be out because of the lack in KR of a counterpart to the Japanese causal expression node, which is related to noda and thus to expressive nominalization.

19 This notion of “givenness” or “settledness” is the subject of an ongoing discussion in the literature. See Najima (2007, pp. 11–16) for a discussion of problems in previous analyses including “settledness” as well as Noda’s classification.
also presenting it as a “given fact” (Noda, 1997, pp. 66–71). We are not concerned with the details of what the exact contribution of expressive nominalization to the utterance is, but maintain that both its personal and factual flavors are avialable with KR su.

In (18) and (19), felicitous replies to: “So TAKASHI is coming today, right?”, instances of scope-adjusting and expressive nominalization co-occur. Expressive nominalization attaches to a clause with scope-adjusting nominalization (the latter negating that the person coming is Takashi), demonstrating the distinctness of the two kinds of sentence nominalization.

[“I told you before,...”]

(18) suu-ya Takashi-nu shii-soo aran-su doo (yo).
today-TOP PN-NOM come-NMLZ COP.NEG-NMLZ ASS SFP

(19) kyoo-wa Takashi-ga kuru-n-janai-n-da (yo).
today-TOP PN-NOM come-NMLZ-COP.NEG-NMLZ-COP SFP

“It isn’t Takashi who’s coming today!”

The sentence-final occurrences of nominalization are instances of expressive nominalization in its personal use: the communicative intention of the speaker is for the addressee to accept the truth of the proposition (“It’s not Takashi who’s coming”), which is a “given fact” in the sense that the speaker has mentioned it before. Since the minimal alternative to (18) (which does not convey that the proposition is presented as a “given fact”) is the same utterance without the nominalizer su (the assertion morpheme doo can be directly adjacent to clauses headed by tense morphemes), we conclude that the expressive meaning conveyed by Japanese no in personal expressive nominalization is conveyed by su in KR.

There is a strong tendency to add the sentence-final particle yo (homophonous and close in meaning in KR and Japanese) to these utterances. Its contribution overlaps with personal expressive nominalization in that it prompts the speaker to accept the truth of the proposition. Considering this, the core meaning of personal (as that of factual) ex-

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20 An anonymous reviewer has pointed out that this is similar to the reminding use of soo and jan (see 3.3.1). Considerations about the distinction between those and personal expressive nominalization go beyond the scope of this paper. We speculate that the difference lies in whether the speaker reminds the addressee of a fact they have already accepted or wants them to accept a proposition (which the speaker may have asserted before).

21 For more precise definitions and formal analyses of this property, see Takubo and Kinsui (1997);
pressive nominalization comes down to “givenness” — note, however, that the conveyed meanings of (18) and (19) do not significantly change when yo is left out, so it does not seem to be the case that yo alone contributes this aspect to the utterances’ meanings.

2.2.2 Factual expressive nominalization

(20) and (21) show the factual use of expressive nominalization. Both convey that the state of affairs denoted in the proposition has just come to the speakers’ attention.

[Looking at an instructions manual]

(20) $un$ switchi $\{ ushi-su \quad ja \quad / \quad #ushii \} \quad (yaa)$.
   
   this switch push-NMLZ COP push SFP

(21) $kono$ switchi-o $\{ osu-n-da \quad / \quad #osu \} \quad (na)$.
   
   this switch-ACC push-NMLZ-COP push SFP

“So it’s this switch you have to flip.”

Note that in the KR utterance, su is not followed by the assertion morpheme $doo$ (as in personal expressive nominalization), but by the non-negated copula $ja$. This contrast does not exist in Japanese, as the copula $da$ doubles as the assertion morpheme. If $su$ is completely parallel to Japanese $no$ in these examples, this means that expressive nominalization is realized as $su-doo$ (NMLZ-ASS) in its personal use and as $su-ja$ (NMLZ-COP) in its factual use. However, we can conclude from the fact that $ja$ is mandatory in such contexts that it marks the utterance as factual independently of $su$. We thus have to consider two possibilities: either $su$ and $ja$ mark factual expressive nominalization together (and $su$ contributes the “givenness” part as in the personal flavor), or $ja$ functions as a marker of “factual modality” in KR, nominalization being only necessary to satisfy its selectional restrictions when following a clause headed by a tense morpheme.

There is a strong tendency to add the sentence-final particles $yaa$ (KR) and $na$ (Japanese) to these utterances, much like $yo$ in the case of personal expressive nominalization. However, (20) and (21) are infelicitous without the NMLZ-COP string — we thus conclude that expressive nominalization is necessary to convey the factual flavor of these utterances, and that the sentence-final particles may overlap with sentence nominalization in their contribution to the conveyed meaning of such factual utterances, but are not necessary to convey it.

McCready (2005); Oshima (2012) — we thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing this out.
2.2.3 The nominalizer and evidentiality in polar questions

There are some recent analyses of the Japanese nominalizer *no* in which evidential properties are observed. In this section we discuss its use in polar questions where it obligatorily marks “compelling contextual evidence” (cf. Sudo (2013) for the analysis of Japanese, Büring and Gunlogson (2000, p. 12) for the original definition of the evidence conditions), and in the next section its use in *daroo*-utterances conveying assumptions of the speaker, where *no* is obligatory when there is direct evidence for the truth of the proposition. Comparing KR *su* with Japanese *no* in polar questions, we found parallels in positive polar questions and those with outer negation. There are, however, cases in which the evidence conditions differ.

The utterances in (22) and (23) are positive polar questions which are uttered in a situation where the speaker has no evidence for or against the truth of the proposition.

[S and A are at a restaurant for the first time, looking at the menu.]

(22) *karee tamm-* { -in-nya / # -i-su na }?
   curry order- -NPST-YNQ -NPST-NMLZ YNQ

(23) *karee tanomu* { ∅ / #*no* }?
   curry order NMLZ

“[Are you] having curry?”

Both utterances are bad when *su* and *no* are added, respectively. In an utterance situation where the speaker sees that the addressee is looking at the menu page which lists different curries, the versions with *su* and *no* are good. This can be explained if we assume that positive evidential bias is a felicity condition of *su* and *no*.

However, there is an important difference between the two nominalizers: when there is contextual evidence for the truth of a proposition, *no* is mandatory in positive polar questions, but *su* is not, as shown in (24) and (25).

The details of how to analyze contrast between (24) and (25) have to be left for further research. Our observations can be explained if we assume that positive evidence is a felicity condition for both *no* and *su*, but that the evidence conditions of positive polar questions differ in KR and Japanese in that the “neutrality condition” (neither positive nor negative evidence acceptable) on Japanese positive polar questions does not apply to KR ones, which, parallel to English, are felicitous as long as there is no negative evidence.
The addressee enters the windowless room with a dripping wet raincoat on.

(24) **nama ami fur-** { -on-nya / -oo-su na }?
    now rain fall- -PROG-YNQ -PROG-NMLZ YNQ

(25) **ima ame futteiru** { ∅ / #no }?
    now rain fall.PROG NMLZ

“Is it raining now?”

Next, KR polar questions with outer negation are felicitous in contexts with negative evidence, but degraded without a nominalizer.\(^{22}\) Consider these examples of negative polar questions disambiguated towards their outer negation readings with the PPIs *taruka* (KR) and *dareka* (Japanese) (“somebody”):

[At a meeting, A knows who is supposed to attend.]
A: “We’re all here now. Shall we start?”

(26) **taruka fuka-en kuran- #(fu) na?**
    someone other-DAT come.NEG-NMLZ YNQ

(27) **dareka hoka-ni ko-nai # (no)?**
    someone other-DAT come.NEG NMLZ

“Isn’t someone else coming?”

When there is evidence against the truth of the proposition “There is somebody else coming” as in the situation above, both (26) and (27) are degraded without a nominalizer. In an alternative utterance situation where there is no evidential bias, both are fine without one. If we assume that the nominalizer marks evidence of the polarity of whatever it attaches to (like positive evidence as in (24) and (25) above), we have to assume that in polar questions with outer negation, it attaches to the negated proposition (although negation is “outer”, i.e. not semantically active). We conclude here that the nominalizer in KR has evidential properties, just as Japanese *no* does. A complete survey of its effect on the evidence conditions of different kinds of polar questions is left for further research.

---

\(^{22}\) We have observed data pointing to different behaviors of polar questions with outer negation in Japanese and KR — the nominalizer *su* is needed in the latter to express epistemic bias; in Japanese, outer negation as such is sufficient for this. We only look at evidential bias here.
2.2.4 The nominalizer in *daroo*-utterances and KR

Regarding evidential properties of no in *daroo*-utterances, Hara (2006, pp. 123–126, 131) observes that they are infelicitous without no when the speaker has contextual evidence on which to base the conjecture which leads to the assumption expressed in the proposition. Alternatively, Takubo (2009, pp. 165–166) explains this contrast through scope expansion by no, letting no-*daroo* convey kinds of inference different from those conveyed by plain *daroo* (abduction can only be conveyed when no is added). Comparing (no)*daroo*-utterances with occurrences of *su* in *jaroo*-* and *jara*-utterances (both sentence-final elements marking assumptions of the speaker in KR), we did not observe the same evidence conditions. We speculate that this is due to differing properties of *daroo* and *jaroo* / *jara* in regard to evidentiality rather than due to a difference in the properties of no and *su*.

The context in (28) is that the speaker hears an ambulance passing by and, based on this, guesses that somebody in another part of town has taken a fall. The basis of the speaker’s conjecture is contextual evidence (and this evidence is the result of the event described in the proposition, thus the inference is abductive).

[Hearing an ambulance passing by.]

(28) Sachama-en taruka-nu toori- { -tan / -ta-su } jara.
PN-LOC someone-NOM collapse- -PST -PST-NMLZ INFR

(29) Sakiyama-de dareka-ga taoretta #(no) daroo.
PN-LOC someone-NOM collapse-PST NMLZ INFR

“ Somebody in Sakiyama must have collapsed!”

Note that in (29) no is mandatory in this context, which is not the case for *su* in (28). The inference marker ra can directly attach to a tense morpheme, appear in combination with the copula ja (directly following a tense morpheme, however, which the copula in isolation can not), or appear with both the nominalizer *su* and the copula ja. The question of what the nominalizer *su* contributes to (28) aside, it does not behave parallel with Japanese no in (29). One possible explanation is that *jara* (and the similar *jaroo*) does not have any evidential properties whatsoever and/or does not express any specific kind of inference. If this is the case, they might actually be used like plain epistemic modals rather than expressions of inference in KR, the nominalizer serving a personal or factual expressive function.
3 Polar questions with syntactically outer negation

Sentence nominalization does not only occur in assertions, but also in polar questions with outer negation. We differentiate between polar questions with semantically outer negation which can be disambiguated towards by a PPI as in (26) and (27), and polar questions with what we label syntactically outer negation. We focus on the latter here. Their structure is given in (30).\footnote{For ease of exposition, we are not looking at cases where the negated copula attaches to a nominal element here as they behave differently in Japanese and KR. We assume that similar observations can be made for them.}

\begin{equation}
(30) \quad [TP \ldots T] \text{NMLZ COP.NEG-Q}
\end{equation}

3.1 Expressions of speaker bias

In this section, we are concerned with polar questions with syntactically outer negation which are used as expressions of speaker bias. Nominalization in these questions is expressive rather than scope-adjusting as it is not semantically active, that is, not truth-conditional. Ito and Oshima (2014) observe that for polar questions with outer negation, an interpretation with positive speaker bias is preferred when there is no pitch accent on the negation morpheme, and that such a pitch accent is necessary for an interpretation with semantically active (\textit{i.e.} inner in Ladd (1981)’s sense) negation. We are only concerned with examples where no pitch accent on the negated copula following the nominalizer is possible. These have been analyzed as expressions conveying speaker bias (\textit{cf.} Miyazaki (2002b, pp. 137–142) who analyses them as expressions of inference), which is a parallel to English polar questions with preposed negation obligatorily expressing speaker bias (\textit{cf.} Romero and Han (2004, pp. 609–611)).

(31) and (32) were elicited in a context in which speaker and addressee are wondering whether some task will be done in their absence. The speaker is expecting someone else (here: “Takashi”) to complete the task in their stead, for example because that person knows that the tasks needs to be done and would usually help. (31) conveys the belief that the speaker, knowing Takashi, is pretty sure he will do the job, without requesting information from the addressee.
[“I think it should be alright...”]

(31)  
\[
\text{Takashi-nu waa-kawari-en sen} \\
\text{PN-NOM 1S.GEN-stead-DAT do.SEQ} \\
\{ \text{kurii-soo aran / #kuriran} \} \text{ ka?} \\
\text{BEN-NMLZ.TOP COP.NEG BEN.NEG Q}
\]

(32)  
\[
\text{Takashi-ga watashi-no kawari-ni shite} \\
\text{PN-NOM 1SG-GEN stead-DAT do.SEQ} \\
\{ \text{kureru-n-janai / #kurenai} \} \text{ ka?} \\
\text{BEN-NMLZ-COP.NEG BEN.NEG Q}
\]

“[I’m pretty sure that] Takashi will do it for us.”

We observe that in both Japanese and KR, syntactically outer negation using the nominalizer is necessary to make a negative polar question licit when used as an expression of speaker bias (when there is a high degree of certainty).

### 3.2 Reduced forms of outer negation

In the remainder of this section, we will focus on reduced forms of outer negation, derived in Japanese from polar questions with outer negation which have lost interrogative force altogether. We will present data showing a parallel distribution between KR soo and Japanese jan supporting their status as sentence-final elements derived from syntactically outer negation in polar questions.

Japanese jan is a reduced form of syntactically outer negation in polar questions, that is, of a string NMLZ-COP.NEG-Q, evidenced by the availability of forms like (n(o)-) dewanai-ka, (n(o)-)janai-ka, (n-)janai, and (n-)jan-ka alongside (n)jan. We claim that soo is also a reduced form of outer negation, but that in KR grammaticalization has further progressed; that is, reduction to soo from soo-aran-ka (NMLZ-COP.NEG-Q) is obligatory in its sentence-final use and no intermediate forms are synchronically available. The derivation of soo from outer negation is shown in (33); the parallel derivation of jan in (34). In Japanese, the nominalizer is optional in confirmation requests. The morpheme de and the topic marker wa optionally merge to ja. The minimally reduced form of dewanaika used in confirmation requests is jan, the merged form of the two morphemes with a residual form n of negation. In KR, there is no morpheme corresponding to Japanese de; therefore, the nominalizer su and the topic marker a are directly adjacent in the case
of a negated copula. Due to an obligatory phonological process, they merge to soo, that is, the short vowel of su is lengthened. In confirmation requests, outer negation is reduced to soo (there are no intermediate forms, such as Japanese janai-ka). Since the derivation of both jan and soo from outer negation is possible and they also have parallel uses as we will show in the next section, it is plausible to assume that soo, like jan, is a reduced form of outer negation.

\[(33)\]  
\begin{align*}  
\text{i} & \quad [su-a]-aran-ka \quad \rightarrow \quad soo-aran-ka \quad \text{(reduction)} \\
& \quad \text{NMLZ-TOP-NEG-Q} \quad \text{NMLZ-TOP-NEG-Q} \\
\text{ii} & \quad sooaran-ka \quad \rightarrow \quad soo \quad \text{(deletion)} 
\end{align*}

\[(34)\]  
\begin{align*}  
\text{i} & \quad n(o)-[de-wa]-nai-ka \quad \rightarrow \quad n(o)-ja-nai-ka \quad \text{(reduction)} \\
& \quad \text{NMLZ-PRT-TOP-NEG-Q} \quad \text{NMLZ-PRT-TOP-NEG-Q} \\
\text{ii} & \quad (n)ja-nai-ka \quad \rightarrow \quad (n)jan \quad \text{(deletion)} 
\end{align*}

There are two differences between soo and jan relevant to our analysis. First, soo is a reduced form of outer negation with the nominalizer su, while jan does not include the nominalizer no, which is optional in confirmation requests. Second, soo is the only reduced form of outer negation used in KR confirmation requests, while in Japanese the non-reduced form (no)dewanaika as well as less reduced forms such as janaika can also be used.

### 3.3 KR soo as a sentence-final element

When the speaker is convinced of the truth of the proposition and wants the addressee to accept this belief as well, the nominalizer no can be omitted in Japanese and outer negation with the full form dewani-ka frequently appears in reduced forms, such as janai-ka, janai, or jan. We follow the general consensus in the literature that jan-utterances should not be considered questions but are not concerned with the details of their meaning, limiting ourselves to the observation that KR soo as a sentence-final element has a number of uses that are shared with jan, but can be used in a wider range of utterances.

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\[24\] For details on the meaning and function of jan and its less reduced form see Miyazaki (2002a, 204–208) and Hasunuma (1995) for descriptive accounts of “dewanaika” and “janaika” as expressions used in “confirmation requests”, or Wungpradit (2006) for an analysis of janaika based on Discourse Management Theory accounting for mirative and reminding uses, among others.

\[25\] In the sense that it can only be followed by sentence-final particles such as yaa or yo, and in contrast to its occurrence after the non-focused part of the clause in clefts.
3.3.1 Reminding use

(35) and the Japanese parallel example (36), show the reminding use of soo and jan, respectively.

[In reply to: “Why did you go there?”.]

(35) \( \text{da-nu} \ \text{iki-ten} \ \text{icha-soo} \ (yo). \)
\[\text{2S-NOM} \ \text{go.IMP-QUOT} \ \text{say.PST-soo} \ \text{SFP}\]

(36) \( \text{kimi-ga} \ \text{ike-tte} \ \text{itta} \ \text{jan}. \)
\[\text{2S-NOM} \ \text{go.IMP-QUOT} \ \text{say.PST} \ \text{jan}\]

“[But] you told me to go there!”

The communicative intention of the speaker is not to convey the proposition “you told me to go there” as new information, but to remind the addressee of this fact, in reaction to the question “Why did you go there?” (as the addressee, having ordered the speaker to go, should be aware of the reason). Outer negation appears in its most reduced form jan.26 In the parallel KR utterance in (35), the same communicative effect is achieved with soo. We label this the “reminding” use of soo and jan.

3.3.2 Mirative use

Another use that is parallel to Japanese jan is what we label the “mirative” use of soo. In this use, soo conveys that the speaker has just noticed the state of affairs denoted by the proposition, expressing some degree of surprise. (37) and (38) convey surprise over the degree to which the child has grown, and that this state of affairs has just come to the speaker’s attention. This mirative use of soo and jan shares some similarities with factual expressive nominalization, as both convey that the speaker has just noticed the state of affairs denoted by the proposition.

---

26 We only give examples with jan, the most reduced form of outer negation, as we consider it the closest correspondent to soo. For space, we gloss over differences in acceptability between the various reduced forms of dewanai-ka in some cases.
[Meeting a relative’s child after some time.]

(37) *ittuki miran madu oodoo naroo-soo.*
    a_while see.NEG while big become.RES-soo

(38) *shibarakur minai uchini ookiku natta jan.*
    a_while see.NEG while big become.PST jan

“[How much you] have grown since last time!”

In other cases, *sooljan* and factual expressive nominalization (a string NMLZ-COP, realized as *su-ja* in KR and *no-da* in Japanese) are in contrastive distribution:

[Hearing the weather report.]

(39) *achaa ami furi- { -su ja yaa / -soo }.*
    tomorrow-TOP rain fall- -NMLZ COP SFP -soo

(40) *ashita-wa ame-ga furu { -n-da naa / ??(?-n-)jan }.*
    tomorrow-TOP rain-NOM fall -NMLZ-COP SFP -NMLZ-jan

“[Seems like] it’s going to rain tomorrow.”

In the KR example (39), both *soo* and factual expressive nominalization (*su-ja-yaa*) are good, while in the Japanese version (40), *jan* is somewhat degraded, but better with the addition of the nominalizer *no*. As this example illustrates, KR *soo* is more widely used in factual utterances than Japanese *jan*, the reasons for which have to be left for further research.

We do not argue that there is any difference in meaning between the reminding and mirative uses of *soo* and *jan*. The difference between the two is entirely dependent on the context in which they are uttered, and we expect cases where it is not easily possible to distinguish between these uses. We assume that the evidential properties of *soo* lacking in *jan*, which also show in its use in *why*-questions, influence the speaker’s choice between *soo* and expressive nominalization in KR.
3.3.3 Use in why-questions

A property of *soo* not shared with *jan* is that it can occur in *why*-questions (but not other *wh*-questions) as shown in (41). (42) shows that the same string is not licit in Japanese.

\[
\text{(41) } \text{nuwa} \{ \text{kurau-u} \mid \text{kurau-soo} \}?
\]

\[
\text{why come.NEG-EMPH come-soo}
\]

\[
\text{(42) } \# \text{naze konai} \text{ } \text{} \text{jan}?
\]

\[
\text{why come.NEG } \text{jan}
\]

“Why [aren’t you/isn’t he] coming?”

It is surprising that *soo* can be used in *wh*-questions at all, as it is a reduced form of outer negation in polar questions, which exclude *wh*-elements. This means that when *soo* occurs in *why*-questions, there is no corresponding question with the full form of outer negation. Thus, the properties of *soo* must have departed from those of outer negation in a way that made them compatible with *wh*-questions. Also, neither *soo* nor *jan* occur in canonical questions, but rather in utterances the proposition of which the speaker takes to be true. However, a *wh*-question does not have such a proposition; instead, there is a set of possible true propositions depending on which individual the *wh*-expression is resolved to. Recall that *soo* only occurs in *why*-questions. It has been argued that *why*-questions are fundamentally different from other *wh*-questions in terms of the strength of the presuppositions that arise from them. Tomioka (2009, pp. 263–264) shows that a “*wh*-independent presupposition” arises with *why*-, but not with other *wh*-questions. In (41), this presupposition is “You/he aren’t/isn’t coming” — we consider it a likely possibility that it is this proposition that *soo* selects.

An additional puzzle is the evidential component of *soo*-questions. In the example above, *soo* is not felicitous when uttered in reaction to “I am not coming”; that is, when the addressee herself has asserted that she is not coming. It is fine when asking about someone who is not a discourse participant. Also, *soo* is felicitous in *why*-questions when the addressee has not asserted the proposition in question (here: “[I am] not coming.”). We can only speculate about the reasons for this; however, the fact that the kind of evidence makes a difference shows that there is some evidential meaning component to *soo*, most likely inherited from the nominalizer *su* contained in it.
3.3.4 Remembering use

Another distinct use of soo not available with jan is its remembering use, in which the speaker is remembering a state of affairs in the past.

(43) terebi-nu nen naren ohon asubee nen-fu ja-hoo.

TV-NOM not_exist because such a pastime.TOP not_exist-NMLZ COP-soo

“Since there was no TV [back then], such a pastime didn’t exist.”

In (43), there is not only an instance of sentence-final soo, but also an instance of su-ja (NMLZ-COP) preceding it, which is a clear difference from Japanese, where such a string (*no-da-jan) is not possible. There is no contextual evidence in the sense of Büring and Gunlogson (2000) and Sudo (2013), as the speaker is remembering the past, but there is factual expressive nominalization (su-ja). The tense of the main clause predicate is nonpast rather than past, even though the state of affairs denoted by the proposition does not hold at utterance time.

If su-ja is an instance of factual expressive nominalization here, we have to explain its felicity without perceptual evidence. One possible explanation is that this is a conventionalized use, in which the speaker conveys that she is “reliving” the past, making the description more immediate by using expressive nominalization. This is compatible with the use of nonpast tense, conveying that utterance time and event time overlap. The use of soo in this utterance is also somewhat of a puzzle, as we have seen that soo and NMLZ-COP are usually in contrastive distribution in factual utterances. Whether soo here is actually an instance of its personal use remains a question for further research.

3.4 Selectional properties of soo and grammaticalization

In this section, we argue that soo has further grammaticalized to a particle than jan, which accounts for its wider distribution. The well-formedness of strings consisting of Japanese jan (the same distribution holds for its less- and non-reduced forms) and KR soo followed by a tense morpheme, a nominal element, and the copula is shown in (44).

(44)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-jan</th>
<th>-soo</th>
<th>-nodewaika</th>
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<tr>
<td>T-</td>
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<td>*</td>
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<tr>
<td>(?N-)COP-</td>
<td>*</td>
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</table>
The assumption that the selectional properties of soo and jan are determined by their initial morphemes does not explain why:

- **Soo**, but not su, can follow the copula ja.
- **Jan** can follow tense morphemes.

We assume that jan, parallel to its non-reduced form dewanaika, has retained the property to be licit after clauses headed by a tense morpheme from outer negation in polar questions; that is, no-dewanaika. The nominalizer is optional when jan directly follows tense morphemes, its addition not changing the utterance meaning significantly. An overt version of the nominalizer is only needed when it serves some semantic function, such as marking contextual evidence. In contrast to syntactically outer negation expressing speaker bias (nodewanai-ka), jan (as well as its non-reduced form dewani-ka) can directly follow tense morphemes without addition of the nominalizer no (the nominalizer can be added to yield n-jan as for example in (40), but is not required for jan to select tense morphemes). As for soo, we need to explain why it can follow the copula ja, while the nominalizer su cannot, which is the extent of their selectional differences. We assume that the copula in such cases serves to let soo select nominal elements, which its first morpheme, the nominalizer su, cannot. We have observed well-formed strings of the copula ja followed by soo in these environments:

- Mirative use: N-ja-soo
- Remembering use: T-su-ja-soo

In the mirative use of soo, the copula ja only appears after nominal elements, while tense morphemes are directly followed by soo; that is, the copula is not contrastive in this case. We assume that ja here serves to satisfy the selectional requirements of soo, which is not licit after nominal elements. If ja were to mark “factual modality” in mirative soo-utterances, we would expect su-ja to appear between tense morphemes and soo. This prediction is borne out, as we were able to elicit utterances with su-ja-soo, two of which we show here.

First, in (45) an example of the mirative use of soo where su-ja can optionally be added (we were not yet able to determine how the meaning changes when su-ja is added):

---

27 Assuming the structure proposed in Ono (2006), this can be explained as jan sharing a syntactic position with daroo, which can also directly follow the copula, accounting for its selectional properties.
[Realizing that it’s raining]

(45)  \[ami \{ furoo-soo / furoo-su ja-soo \}.\]
     rain fall.PROG-soo fall.PROG-NMLZ COP-soo

“Oh! It’s raining!”

Second, \textit{soo} can be felicitously added to our example of factual expressive nominalization in (20), repeated here as (46). We assume that \textit{soo} is an instance of its mirative use.

[Looking at an instructions manual]

(46)  \[un switchi ushi-su ja-soo (yaa).\]
     this switch push-NMLZ COP-soo SFP

“So it’s this switch you have to flip.”

In such utterances, where the string \textit{su-ja-soo} directly follows a tense morpheme, the string \textit{su-ja} (NMLZ-COP) is not necessary for \textit{soo} to select the clause headed by a tense morpheme, as \textit{soo} selects verbal elements in the first place. This means that, in such utterances, an instance of factual modality is followed by \textit{soo}.

We argue that \textit{soo} can occur after the copula because of grammaticalization towards a sentence-final particle. Recall that KR \textit{soo} is in contrastive distribution with \textit{(su)-ja-yaa} in factual or mirative utterances. With clauses headed by a nominal element, \textit{soo} would not be available, as its selectional restrictions prevent it from following nouns. We assume that in analogy to sentence-final particles such as \textit{yaa}, the selectional restrictions of \textit{soo} have changed towards it accepting the copula \textit{ja}, while retaining the property of the nominalizer \textit{su} of not selecting nominal elements. One difference from \textit{jan} is that \textit{soo} always appears in its minimally reduced form, which may have contributed to its grammaticalization towards a particle.

Two other possible directions for the grammaticalization of \textit{soo} would be towards an illocutionary morpheme like \textit{doo} or to a mood morpheme like \textit{-roo}. With \textit{doo}, \textit{soo} shares the property of being used in assertions (with some additional expressive meaning), in what appears to be contrastive distribution.\textsuperscript{28} However, their selectional properties differ: while \textit{soo} selects verbal morphemes, use of \textit{doo} is possible after verbal and nominal elements.

\textsuperscript{28} It is also used in \textit{why}-questions in contrastive distribution with the question particle \textit{u}, which, like \textit{doo}, carries illocutionary force.
morphemes. When *doo* follows a tense morpheme, an additional element *n* obligatorily intervenes between the two, supporting the assumption that the selectional properties of *doo* and *soo* are not parallel. Crucially, *doo* can never follow the copula *ja*, thus we can not explain the well-formedness of *ja-soo* by grammaticalization of *soo* towards an assertion morpheme.

The mood morpheme *-roo* can directly follow the copula *ja*, parallel to *soo*. However, although the first morpheme in *ja-roo* is the copula, it can directly follow a tense morpheme, which is neither possible for the copula in isolation nor for the string *ja-soo*. That is, *roo* is a mood morpheme that together with the copula *a* forms an expression that has different selectional properties from the copula, while *soo* remains an independent element which is preceded by the copula to meet its selectional restrictions when following nominal elements, and happens to be directly adjacent to the copula in some cases (like the reminding use, where the copula marks factual modality).

## 4 Conclusion

We have shown that sentence nominalization with KR *su* is parallel to that with Japanese *no* in scope-adjusting uses and clefts. Expressive sentence nominalization with *su* and *no* are also similar in their contribution to utterance meaning, with the difference that in KR the assertion morpheme *doo* follows the nominalizer in personal uses, the copula *ja* in factual uses (while in Japanese, there is no assertion morpheme distinct from the copula). We have also shown that *su* and *no* both have evidential properties in that the presence of contextual evidence is a felicity condition for polar questions they occur in and speculated that observed differences in evidence conditions are due to properties of KR and Japanese polar questions.

Syntactically outer negation in polar questions using *su* and *no*, respectively, to separate negation from the predicate is parallel in KR and Japanese expressions of speaker bias. Also, reduced forms of syntactically outer negation have a number of parallel uses in KR and Japanese; in the former as *soo* only, in Japanese as *jan* and a number of less reduced forms. There are some differences in usage between *soo* and *jan*, however, *soo* being licit in more types of constructions. We described two of its uses which are not possible with *jan*: its use in *why*-questions and its remembering use.

Based on the selectional restrictions of *soo* we argued that it has further grammaticalized to a sentence-final particle than Japanese *jan*, thus accounting for its wider distribution. *Soo* can not select nominal elements, a property likely inherited from the nominal-
The nominalizer *su* and sentence-final *soo* in Kikaijima Ryukyuan: Comparison with Japanese *no*(da) and (*no*)dewanaika

izer *su*, the first morpheme in *soo*. The selectional restrictions of *soo* have changed towards it selecting the copula *ja* when following nominal elements, and being licit after a string *su-ja* (NMLZ-COP), which is a position usually restricted to sentence-final particles. Also, *soo* can occur together with sentence-final particles (which are in principle combinable), while *jan* and its less- and non-reduced forms cannot. These observations can be explained by assuming grammaticalization towards a sentence-final particle to a higher degree than Japanese *jan*.

**References**


Oshima, D. Y. (2012). The Japanese Particle *yo* in Declaratives: Relevance, Priority, and


### Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<td>1EXPL</td>
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<td>first person plural</td>
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<td>RES</td>
<td>resultative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEQ</td>
<td>sequential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFP</td>
<td>sentence-final particle</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOP</td>
<td>topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YNQ</td>
<td>yes/no question</td>
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琉球語喜界島方言の名詞化接辞 *su* と文末要素 *soo*

―日本語の ノ(ダ)及び(ノ)デハナイカとの対照―

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**要旨**

本稿は喜界島（鹿児島県大島郡喜界町）で話される琉球語喜界島方言（以下喜界島方言）の名詞化接辞 *su* 及び文末要素 *soo* の機能について、それぞれ日本語のノ(ダ)、(ノ)デハナイカとの対照に基づき記述する。主な観察・主張は以下である。

*su* とノ

喜界島方言は、テンスをとった動詞に後接して名詞化する接辞 *su* を持つ。この *su* と日本語のノの対照から、以下の相違点が指摘できる。

- *su* とノはともに否定や焦点のスコープを調整する役割を担う。
- *su* とノはいわゆる「ムードのノダ」の用法を持つ点でも共通しているが、喜界島方言では対事的用法の場合 *su* に後続する要素がコピュラ *ja* ではなく断定の文末助詞 *doo* である点が日本語の場合と異なる。
- *su* とノは証拠性に関して共通点が見られる。
- *su* とノはともに、否定接辞から述語を切り離す外部否定疑問文（*soo ar-an ka* /～ノデハナイカ）に用いられる。

*soo* と（ノ）デハナイカ

日本語においてノ・デハナイカの縮約した形であるジャンなどの形式が用いられるのと並行的に、喜界島方言においても外部否定疑問文の末尾が縮約された *soo* （逐語的には *su* と主題助詞 *a* の融合形）が用いられる。この *soo* とジャンの差異として、以下が指摘できる。

- *soo* は以下の点で対事的な用法における使用の範囲がジャンより広い。
  - *nuwa* 「なぜ」を用いて理由を問う疑問文に用いられる。
  - 回想的な用法などで *su ja-soo* （NMLZ COP-soo）という構文で現れる。
- 選択制限が異なり、*soo* の方がジャンより分布が広いことから、文末助詞としての文法化がより進んでいると言える。