

Structure of noun phrases in Ilocano

Kyosuke Yamamoto

Abstract: This study describes the structure of noun phrases in Ilocano. Ilocano noun phrases are divided into three subclasses: simple noun phrases, which consist of nouns plus modifying words such as articles, demonstratives, adjectives, or numerals; complex noun phrases, which involve complex modifiers such as genitive modifiers and relative clauses; noun phrases without head nouns. The findings reveal that noun phrases in Ilocano are exocentric constructions, that is, constructions in which there are no constituents having a special status as heads. This description of Ilocano noun phrases contributes to better understanding of cross-linguistic variation of noun phrases*.

Keywords: Ilocano, Austronesian, noun phrases, headless constructions

1 Introduction

The aim of this paper is to describe the structure of noun phrases in Ilocano. In the current paper I distinguish three types of Ilocano noun phrases: (a) simple noun phrases, which consist of nouns plus articles, numerals, demonstratives, or adjectives modifying the nouns; (b) complex noun phrases, which contain nouns plus more complex modifiers like genitive modifiers and relative clauses; (c) noun phrases without head nouns.

In the traditional view, the noun is the head of the noun phrase. But Ilocano has noun phrases which contain no noun or pronoun, and the constituents of such noun phrases are only words that normally function as modifiers of nouns. This fact leads us to argue that noun phrases in Ilocano are exocentric constructions, constructions in which there are no constituents having a privileged status as heads.

* First, I am grateful to the Ilocano people for their support and assistance. My thanks also go to two anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments. This work was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (Grant-in-Aid # 17J08516).

Although I use the label ‘noun phrases’ in this study, it should not be taken as intending a special grammatical relationship between nouns and noun phrases. Following Dryer (2007), I use the term as just a descriptive label to refer to syntactic constructions that function in ways that are typical of English noun phrases such as arguments of verbs and objects of prepositions. The current study investigates how such constructions functionally corresponding to noun phrases in other languages are structured in Ilocano.

In this study, the conception of ‘head’ is defined on semantic grounds rather than syntactic ones. A constituent is the head of a construction iff the construction describes a kind of the thing encoded by the constituent (Zwicky 1985; 1993; Croft 2001). By using noun phrases without nouns, I intend noun phrases lacking a noun that expresses the kind of thing to which the referent encoded by the noun phrase belongs.

In the rest of the paper, I first provide some elements of Ilocano grammar. Then I describe noun phrase structures in Ilocano in the following three sections. Section 6 discusses the exocentricity of noun phrases. Section 7 concludes this study.

2 Background information

Ilocano is a Malayo-Polynesian language of the Austronesian family (Blust 2013) and is spoken by around nine million people in the northwest of Luzon Island in the Philippines (Rubino 2005). This language is considered a member of the Cordilleran language family of Northern Philippine languages, and to form its own branch within the language group (Reid 1989).

This language distinguishes fifteen consonants, /p, b, t, d, k, g, ʔ, s, m, n, ŋ, l, w, j/, and four vowels, /a, i, e, u/. /u/ is lowered into [o] in the final syllable. Stress assignment is sensitive to syllable weight. A stress falls on the penultimate syllable if it is heavy, but otherwise is on the final syllable. The domain of stress assignment is taken to indicate the boundaries of the word.

Ilocano, like other Philippine languages, is a VS/VAP agglutinative language. Core arguments appear in the ergative or absolutive case when they are pronominal. All of S, A, and P are marked in the same way when they are nominal.

Verbs are derived with affixes that indicate the category I termed ‘focus’, following Schachter and Otnes (1972). For the purposes of the current study, it suffices to say that the four focus categories — actor focus (AF), patient focus (PF), locative focus (LF), and conveyance focus (CF) — are distinguished morphosyntactically. Actor focus verbs take a

core argument (S) functioning as an actor, while non-actor focus verbs take two core arguments, an actor (A) and undergoer (P). Verbs inflect for view point aspect and three formal inflectional categories are identified: zero-marked, perfective, and imperfective. The perfective and imperfective verbs denote perfective and imperfective aspect, respectively. Zero-marked verbs, verbs that lack overt morphological marking, are interpreted either perfectly or imperfectly depending on the semantics of the verb root. Some simple examples are given in (1–2), which consist of an actor focus verb and a non-actor focus verb, respectively.

- (1) l<imm>awak ti=desjerto.
 <PFV.AF>expand ART.SG.C=desert
 ‘The desert expanded.’
- (2) ?<in>abak-Ø ni=Randy ni=Raymart.
 <PFV>defeat-PF ART.SG.P.C=Randy ART.SG.P.C=Raymart
 ‘Randy defeated Raymart.’

Ilocano nouns are members of an open lexical class with referencing function (as encoding concrete things or abstract entities). Nouns are classified into personal and non-personal nouns on the basis of what articles they take (see Section 3.1)¹. Ilocano pronouns encode case, person, and minimal-augmented number values (Thomas 1955). The term ‘minimal’ means the minimum amount of individuals necessary to satisfy each person value. For example, for the speaker-addressee person the minimal amount is two and for the other persons this is one. In contrast, the term ‘augmented’ means any amount of individuals more than the minimum (Bobaljik 2008; de Schepper 2012).

Independent pronouns are used predicatively, while ergative and absolutive pronouns are second position enclitics (see Table 1). Ergative pronouns are used to indicate a possessor as well as the actor of a transitive verb. Note that all of the enclitic pronouns have stress so that they are independent phonological words.

¹ A further classification of non-personal nouns is made depending on their plural formation. See Rubino (1997) for detailed discussions.

Table 1 Ilocano pronouns

Person	Number	Independent	Absolutive	Ergative ²	Oblique
Speaker	Minimal	<i>sjak</i>	<i>=ak</i>	<i>=ko, =k</i>	<i>kanjak</i>
	Augmented	<i>dakami</i>	<i>=kami</i>	<i>=mi</i>	<i>kanjami, kadakami</i>
Speaker-Addressee	Minimal	<i>data</i>	<i>=ta</i>	<i>=ta</i>	<i>kanjata, kadata</i>
	Augmented	<i>datajo</i>	<i>=tajo</i>	<i>=tajo</i>	<i>kanjatajo, kadatajo</i>
Addressee	Minimal	<i>sika</i>	<i>=ka</i>	<i>=mo, =m</i>	<i>kanjam, kenka</i>
	Augmented	<i>dakajo</i>	<i>=kajo</i>	<i>=jo</i>	<i>kanjajo, kadakajo</i>
Other	Minimal	<i>ʔisu:na, ʔisu</i>	$\emptyset$, <i>ʔisu:na, ʔisu</i>	<i>=na</i>	<i>kanjana, kenkwana</i>
	Augmented	<i>ʔisu:da</i>	<i>=da</i>	<i>=da</i>	<i>kanjada, kenkwada</i>

3 Simple noun phrases

3.1 Articles

While Ilocano permits noun phrases consisting of just a noun when the noun is a pronoun or demonstrative, this is not allowed with only a common or proper noun. In these cases, articles are required to form noun phrases, unless they are preceded by demonstratives (see examples given in 13–16). Articles in Ilocano vary for number (singular and plural), for case (core and oblique), and for whether the noun they are connected to is a personal or non-personal noun.

Table 2 Non-personal articles³

	Core	Oblique
Singular	<i>ti, taj, djaj</i>	<i>(ʔi)ti, kentaj, kendjaj</i>
Plural	<i>dagiti, dagitaj, dagidjaj</i>	<i>kadagiti, kadagitaj, kadagidjaj</i>

² *=ko* and *=mo* appear as *=k* and *=m* after a vowel, respectively.

³ It is unclear whether there are any differences in function and frequency among the three forms of each class. I leave the issue open for future research.

Table 3 Personal articles

	Core	Oblique
Singular	<i>ni</i>	<i>kenni</i>
Plural	<i>da</i>	<i>kada</i>

Articles precede the noun they combine with. Articles do not have stress and procliticize to the following word. The noun phrase in (3) contains a core argument personal article. In (4), *palda* ‘skirt’ and *baba:ʔi* ‘woman’ are marked by *ti* and *ʔiti*, respectively, forming noun phrases. In (5), the noun phrase contains an oblique article and serves as the object of a preposition, *para* ‘for’.

- (3) na-sinpet [NP ni=Randy].
 ST-gentle ART.SG.P.C=Randy
 ‘Randy is gentle.’
- (4) na-jlet [NP ti=palda] [NP ʔiti=baba:ʔi].
 ST-tight ART.SG.C=skirt ART.SG.OBL=woman
 ‘The skirt is tight for the woman.’
- (5) para [NP kadagiti=babbla:saj].
 for ART.PL.OBL=PL:young.lady
 ‘For the young ladies.’

Unlike other languages such as English, these articles in Ilocano do not encode the definiteness of nouns. For illustration, consider the following examples. In (6), the noun marked with *ʔiti* is indefinite while the noun marked with *ti* is definite. In (7), in contrast, the core argument is indefinite while the oblique referent is definite.

- (6) nanan [NP ti=ʔubin] [NP ʔiti=ʔempana:da].
 PFV.AF.eat ART.SG.C=child ART.SG.OBL=empanada
 ‘The child ate an empanada.’
- (7) na-disw-an [NP ti=bato] [NP ʔiti=ʔu:lo=na].
 PFV.POT-fall-LF ART.SG.C=stone ART.SG.OBL=head=3MINI.GEN
 ‘A stone fell onto his/her head.’

- Instead, noun phrases with articles have to do with referentiality. That is, they are expressions used to refer to a particular object or a particular set of objects in the external world (cf. Huang 2014). Compare the pair of the sentences in (9). In (9a), *ni Maria*, which functions predicatively, refers to an individual person named Maria. On the other hand, in (9b), the nominal predicate without an article is nonreferential and does not refer to any object in the external world.

- Similarly, the nominal predicate with the article *ti* in (10a) is referential, while the nominal predicate without an article in (10b) is an expression denoting a property, rather than an entity.

- 6 —

- b. maestro ni=Randy.
teacher ART.SG.P.C=Randy
‘Randy is a teacher.’

Noun phrases with articles can also be used to make a generic reference, that is, reference to a class of objects rather than to a specific or non-specific object of that class. *ti kaldin* in (11) and *ti bi:ko* in (12) have a generic reference.

- (11) na-jmas [_{NP} ti=kaldin].
ST-delicious ART.SG.C=goat
‘Goats are delicious.’
- (12) na-sam?it [_{NP} ti=bi:ko].
ST-sweet ART.SG.C=rice.cake
‘Rice cakes are sweet.’

3.2 Demonstratives

Ilocano has nominal demonstratives with a three-term system opposing so-called proximal, medial, and distal, as can be seen in Table 4. Like the pronouns and articles, nominal demonstratives also code case and plurality. These demonstratives are used either to point things out in terms of the deictic center, or to track referents previously introduced in discourse.

Table 4 Nominal demonstratives

Case	Number	Proximal	Medial	Distal
Core	Singular	<i>dajtoj</i>	<i>dajta</i>	<i>dajdjaj</i>
	Plural	<i>dagitoj</i>	<i>dagita</i>	<i>dagidjaj</i>
Oblique	Singular	<i>kadajtoj</i>	<i>kadajta</i>	<i>kadajdjaj</i>
	Plural	<i>kadagitoj</i>	<i>kadagita</i>	<i>kadagidjaj</i>

Nominal demonstratives may occur by themselves as noun phrases, as in (13) and (14).

- (13) ʔasi:na [_{NP} dajtoy]?
 who PROX.C
 ‘Who is this?’
- (14) g<in>ataŋ-Ø=na [_{NP} dajdjaj].
 <PFV>buy-PF=3MINI.GEN DIS.C
 ‘S/he bought that.’

They also can function as demonstrative modifiers of nouns in the same form, simultaneously serving as case markers, as shown in (15) and (16). They usually precede the noun they modify and the ligature =*ŋa*/=*ʔa*⁴, which is an invariant morpheme procliticizing to the following word, may or may not intervene between them.

- (15) ʔammo=m [_{NP} dajdjaj=ʔa ta:ʔo]?
 know=2MINI.GEN DIS.C=LIG person
 ‘Do you know that man?’
- (16) ʔi-ja:wid=mo [_{NP} dajta=pinakbet].
 CF-take.home=2MINI.GEN MED.C=vegetable.dish
 ‘Take home that pinakbet.’

3.3 Adjectives

Adjectives in Ilocano are words characterised by a number of formal properties. They, for instance, can occur with the moderative adverb *medjo*, and do not inflect for aspect nor voice (see also Rubino 1997). Ilocano adjectives are underived words and may take comparative, superlative, and admirative affixation (e.g. *dak~dakkal* COM~big ‘bigger’, *ka-dakkal-an* SUP-big-SUP ‘biggest’). Adjectives can appear as predicates without copulas.

Stative verbs, a distinct subclass of verbs, also denote meanings corresponding to words called adjectives in English. They share a number of grammatical properties with adjectives, and a number of grammatical properties of other verbs. Like adjectives, stative verbs may undergo comparative and superlative affixation, but unlike adjectives, stative verbs are derived

⁴ *ʔa* may occur before consonants other than the glottal stop while *ŋa* can occur in all environments.

words. Stative verbs are derived with affixes such as *na-* (e.g., *na-?imbag* ‘good’, *na-?a:si* ‘compassionate’, *na-baknaŋ* ‘rich’), *ma-* (e.g., *ma-sakit* ‘sick’), and *ag-* (e.g., *?ag-pada* ‘same’). Since stative verbs are semantically not so different from adjectives, I use ‘adjectives’ to refer to words of both classes in the following discussion.

Adjectives functioning attributively may precede or follow the noun they modify, although adjective-noun order is dominant (Rubino 2005). The ligature necessarily intervenes between attributive adjectives and the modified items, as can be seen in (17–19).

- | | | | | | | |
|------|----|-----------------------------|--------|----|-------------------------|----------------|
| (17) | a. | ti=ba:ro=?a | ba:do | b. | ti=ba:do=?a | ba:ro |
| | | ART.SG.C=new=LIG | dress | | ART.SG.C=dress=LIG | new |
| | | ‘a/the new dress’ | | | ‘a/the new dress’ | |
| | | | | | | |
| (18) | a. | ti=bassit=?a | ?u:leg | b. | ti=?u:leg=?a | bassit |
| | | ART.SG.C=small=LIG | snake | | ART.SG.C=snake=LIG | small |
| | | ‘a/the small snake’ | | | ‘a/the small snake’ | |
| | | | | | | |
| (19) | a. | ti=na-la?iŋ=?a | pu:sa | b. | ti=pu:sa=?a | na-la?iŋ |
| | | ART.SG.C=ST-intelligent=LIG | cat | | ART.SG.C=cat=LIG | ST-intelligent |
| | | ‘a/the intelligent cat’ | | | ‘a/the intelligent cat’ | |

3.4 Numerals

Numerals in Ilocano can be treated as a distinct class on semantic and morphological grounds. Cardinal numerals fall into two subclasses, basic numerals (from 1 to 9) and derivational numerals (from ten onwards). The basic cardinal numerals are as follows:

<i>majsa</i>	‘one’	<i>?innem</i>	‘six’
<i>dwa</i>	‘two’	<i>pito</i>	‘seven’
<i>tallo</i>	‘three’	<i>walo</i>	‘eight’
<i>?uppat</i>	‘four’	<i>sjaŋ</i>	‘nine’

The radix is ten in this numeral system, so that numbers over nine are expressed by combinations of the basic numerals above with the following base ten groups: *pu:lo* ‘group of ten’, *gasot* ‘group of one hundred’, *ri:bo* ‘group of one thousand’, *laksa* ‘group of ten

language. In cases where there is no pragmatic contrast between the numeral and noun, numeral-noun order is about ten times as frequent as noun-numeral order in my corpus (twenty-nine tokens versus three tokens).

4 Complex noun phrases

4.1 Genitive constructions

Genitive constructions are constructions in which a noun is modified by a different noun phrase expressing a possessor. The range of meanings covered with genitive constructions includes not only possession or ownership (e.g. *his shirt*) but also kinship relations (e.g. *Benjamin's mother*), and part-whole relations (e.g. *Mary's hands*, *the inside of the box*). Thus, the term ‘possessor’ is used in a broader sense in order to refer to the modifying noun phrase in the genitive construction.

The possessor rather than the possessum is marked in the genitive construction. The possessor is marked with a core argument article when it is nominal, as in (24).

- (24) a. ti=balaj [NP ni=Randy]
 ART.SG.C=house ART.SG.P.C =Randy
 ‘Randy’s house’
- b. ti=ʔa:so [NP ti=baket]
 ART.SG.C=dog ART.SG.C=old.woman
 ‘an/the old woman’s dog’

The possessor occurs in the ergative case when it is pronominal, as in (25).

- (25) a. ti=kawbasan [NP =da]
 ART.SG.C=vineyard=3AUG.GEN
 ‘their vineyard’
- b. ti=sijnsij [NP =ko]
 ART.SG.C=ring=1MINI.GEN
 ‘my ring’

In addition to alienable possession, genitive constructions are used to express inalienable

possession. Inalienable possession involves inherent relations such as kinship relations and part-whole relations. (26) illustrates kinship relations and (27) part-whole relations.

- (26) a. ti=ʔuliteg [NP ni=Mannel]
 ART.SG.C=uncle ART.SG.P.C=Mannel
 ‘Mannel’s uncle’

- b. ti=ma:nanj [NP =mi]
 ART.SG.C=older.sister=1 AUG.GEN
 ‘our elder sister’

- (27) a. ti=pinpiŋ [NP =mo]
 ART.SG.C=cheek=2MINI.GEN
 ‘your cheek’

- b. ti=teŋŋed [NP ti=kaldiŋ]
 ART.SG.C=neck ART.SG.C=goat
 ‘a/the goat’s neck’

- c. ti=ʔi:gid [NP ti=da:lan]
 ART.SG.C=edge ART.SG.C=street
 ‘the edge of the/a street’

Genitive constructions also serve to encode various abstract relations. For example, (28) expresses an action and its participant and (29) the national language of the Philippines.

- (28) ti=isanpet [NP =tajo]
 ART.SG.C=arrival=1/2AUG.GEN
 ‘our arrival’

- (29) ti=pagsasaʔo [NP ti=pilipi:nas]
 ART.SG.C=language ART.SG.C=Philippines
 ‘the language of the Philippines’

4.2 Relative clauses

A relative clause is a clause delimiting the potential reference of a noun phrase (Andrews

- (30) na-tajag [NP djaɟ=lala:ki=ɟa [na-ki:ta-Ø=k ʔitaj]].
ST-tall ART.SG.C=man=LIG POT.PFV-see-PF=1MINI.ERG a.while.ago
'The man I saw a while ago is tall.'

- (31) [NP ti=maika-dwa=ŋa bassit=ŋa ʔubinj=ŋa [ʔag-tawen ʔiti=tallo]]
 ART.SG.C=ORD-two=LIG small=LIG child=LIG ZERO.AF-year ART.SG.OBL=three
 ‘the second young three-year old child’

- (32) a. ti=pansit=ɲa ʔin-ja:wid ti=kabsat=ko
ART.SG.C=noodle=LIG PFV.CF-bring.home ART.SG.C=sibling=1MINI.GEN
'the noodles that my brother brought home'

- (33) a. ti=lu:gan=ŋa g<in>ataŋ-Ø ni=Maricon
ART.SG.C=car=LIG <PFV.AF>buy-CF ART.SG.P.C =Maricon
'a/the car that Maricon bought'

- b. *ti=lu:gan=ŋa g<imm>ataŋ ni=Maricon
 ART.SG.C=car=LIG <PFV.AF>buy ART.SG.P.C=Maricon
 Intended: ‘a/the car that Maricon bought’

It is worth noting that in Ilocano, there are cases where it is difficult to identify relative clauses. Examples in (34) and (35) are structurally ambiguous as to whether the modifying element is just a word or a clause consisting of a predicate but lacking the argument (indicated by an underline).

- (34) dokto:ra [NP djaj=baba:ʔi=ŋa [na-laʔiŋ (___)]].
 doctor ART.SG.C=woman=LIG ST-intelligent
 ‘The intelligent woman is a doctor.’/
 ‘The woman who is intelligent is a doctor.’
- (35) na-ki:ta-Ø=na [NP ti=birkog=ʔa [naka-ba:roŋ (___)]].
 POT.PFV-see-PF=3MINI.ERG ART.SG.C=thief=LIG POT.PFV.AF-dress.shirt
 ‘S/he saw the/a thief wearing a dress shirt.’/
 ‘S/he saw the/a thief who was wearing a dress shirt.’

5 Noun phrases without nouns

This section describes noun phrases without nouns. In the traditional view, the noun is the head of the noun phrase so that all noun phrases are assumed to consist of nouns. But Ilocano, like other Philippine languages, allows noun phrases comprising only words that normally function as modifiers of nouns⁶. In (36) and (37), for example, the P argument consists of an article plus an adjective but no noun.

- (36) kajat=ko [NP dagiti=dakkel].
 want=1MINI.ERG ART.PL.C=big
 ‘I want the big ones.’

⁶ Similar characteristics have also been described in other Philippine languages such as Tagalog (Himmelman 2005; 2008; Gil 1993) and Cebuano (Dryer 2004).

- Similarly, the following examples contain a noun phrase with a numeral, but no noun⁷.

- Ilocano even allows headless relative clauses, which do not modify overt nouns or pronouns. Headless relative clauses in Ilocano have the same form as headed relative clauses, and they are noun phrases involving an article followed by a clause but lacking a head noun and the ligature, as can be seen in (40). The actor focus verb in (40b) indicates that the referent of the entire noun phrase is an actor of the crying event.

- Similarly, the predicate in the relative clause is a non-actor focus verb when the referent of the entire noun phrase is a patient, as in (41) and (42). The fact that headless relative clauses are subject to the same grammatical constraint as headed relative clauses such as (40a) justifies

– 15 –

the treatment of headless relative clauses as a subtype of relative clauses.

- (41) [NP ti=t<in>alaw-an ni=Randy ?iti=kalsa:da]
 ART.SG.C=<PFV>abandon-LF ART.SG.P.C=Randy ART.SG.OBL=street
 ‘the person/thing that Randy abandoned on the street’
- (42) na-pintas la unaj [NP ti=?aj~?ajat-e=m].
 ST-beautiful just very ART.SG.C=IMPF~love-PF=2MINI.ERG
 ‘The one who you love is very beautiful.’

Rubino (1997) describes noun phrases of this sort as phrases consisting of nominalized verbs (1997: 314–316). But his approach confuses lexical category with syntactic function. As shown above, Ilocano also allows noun phrases with adjectives or numerals but no nouns. In other words, the phenomenon is productive for members of various lexical categories. This fact suggests that this syntactic behaviour has nothing to do with a certain lexical category, so that there is little motivation for positing nominalization in the language.

One might attempt to analyse noun phrases without nouns as involving ellipsis of head nouns. Such an approach argues that a noun phrase with no noun has a noun which is not overtly expressed but which is recoverable to the hearer. However, a noun phrase without an overt noun can be used in situations where the speaker cannot provide an appropriate noun.

- (43) ?ag-pa-ki:ta=da kanjak
 ZERO.AF-CAUS-show=3AUG.ABS 1MINI.OBL
 [NP ?iti=?<in>ala-Ø=da] ?inton madamdama.
 ART.SG.OBL=<PFV>get-PF=3AUG.ERG when later
 ‘They will show me later what they got.’
- (44) ?adda [NP ti=ma-ki:ta-Ø=k=ŋa
 EXST ART.SG.C=POT.ZERO-see-PF=1MINI.ERG=LIG
 na-ŋi:sit ken na-bukel].
 ST-black and ST-round
 ‘I see something black and round.’

Since a noun phrase with no noun can be used in situations in which a specific noun cannot be recoverable, an ellipsis analysis is not plausible. One might still claim that nouns with general

meanings such as ‘thing’ or ‘person’ are ellipted in constructions such as those in (43) and (44) above. However, such an ellipsis analysis could not distinguish cases where ellipsis is involved from cases where ellipsis is not involved. Under this analysis, for example, a simple noun phrase consisting of just a noun *baba:ʔi* ‘woman’ may be analysed as an elliptical version of (45b), because a construction where *baba:ʔi* functions as a modifier is also grammatical. There seems to be no argument for and against this analysis and thus I conclude that there is little motivation for assuming ellipsis of head nouns in Ilocano.

- (45) a. *ti=baba:ʔi*
 ART.SG.C=woman
 ‘a/the woman’
- b. *ti=ta:ʔo=ŋa* *baba:ʔi*
 ART.SG.C=person=LIG woman
 ‘a/the female person’

One other potential analysis of noun phrases without nouns in Ilocano is that it is articles that are the heads of noun phrases (cf. Van Langendonck 1994; Hudson 2004). While this view solves the problem of such noun phrases, it gives rise to another problem. In Ilocano, it is not always the case that noun phrases contain articles. For example, noun phrases lack an article when they begin with demonstratives, as in (46–47).

- (46) *kukwa=na* [_{NP} *dajta=(ʔa)* *lu:gan*].
 own=3MINI.ERG MED.C=LIG car
 ‘S/he owns that car.’
- (47) [_{NP} *dajdjaj=(ʔa)* *ʔisto:rja*] *p<in>erdi-Ø* *djaj=paʔa:la*.
 DIS.C=LIG issue <PFV>break-PF ART.SG.C=party
 ‘That issue split the party.’

One might argue that demonstratives are also included in the article class. But they behave differently from other articles syntactically: articles like *ti* and *djaj* precede a noun while demonstratives may follow a noun, cooccurring with such articles, as can be seen in (48). Thus, there is little motivation for positing a category covering articles and demonstratives, and the view of article as head does not seem to be a good solution to headless noun phrases in

- ## 6 Discussion

7 Conclusion

The description presented here shows Ilocano allows noun phrases without nouns, and nouns have no privileged status within noun phrases. I have argued that noun phrases in Ilocano are exocentric constructions since there is little motivation for positing ellipsis of nouns.

The following abbreviations and symbols are used in the paper: ABS-absolutive, AF-actor focus, ART-article, AUG-augmented, C-core argument, CAUS-causative, CF-conveyance focus, COM-comparative, DIS-distal, ERG-ergative, EXST-existential, GEN-genitive, IMPF-imperfective, LF-locative focus, LIG-ligature, MED-medial, MINI-minimal, OBL-oblique, ORD-ordinal, P-proper noun, PF-patient focus, PFV-perfective, PL-plural,

POT-potential, PROX-proximal, SG-singular, ST-stative, SUP-superlative, ZERO-zero marked, 1-speaker, 2-addressee, 3-other, 1/2-speaker and addressee, ‘~’-reduplicant

References

- Andrews, Avery D. (2007) Relative clauses. In Timothy Shopen (ed.), *Complex Constructions, Language Typology and Syntactic Description*, Vol. 2, 206–236. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Blust, Robert (2013) *The Austronesian Languages*. Revised edition. Canberra: Asia-Pacific Linguistics.
- Bobaljik, Jonathan D. (2008) Missing persons: A case study in morphological universals. *The Linguistic Review* 25, 203–230.
- Croft, William (2001) *Radical Construction Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Comrie, Bernard (1989) *Language Universals and Linguistic Typology*. Second edition. Oxford: Blackwell.
- de Schepper, Kees (2012) Against a minimal-augmented analysis of number. In Marion Elenbaas and Suzanne Aalberse (eds.), *Linguistics in the Netherlands 2012*, 134–146. Amsterdam: Benjamins
- Dixon, R. M. W. (2010) *Basic Linguistic Theory, Vol. 1, Methodology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dryer, Matthew (2004) Noun phrases without nouns. *Functional Linguistics* 11, 43–76.
- Dryer, Matthew (2007) Noun phrase structure. In Timothy Shopen (ed.), *Complex Constructions, Language Typology and Syntactic Description*, Vol. 2, 151–205. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gil, David (1993) Tagalog semantics. *Proceedings of the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society*, 390–403.
- Himmelman, Nikolaus P. (2005) Tagalog. In Alexander Adelaar & Nikolaus P. Himmelman (eds.), *The Austronesian Languages of Asia and Madagascar*, 350–376. London; New York: Routledge.
- Himmelman, Nikolaus P. (2008) Lexical categories and voice in Tagalog. In Peter K. Austin and Simon Musgrave (eds.), *Voice and Grammatical Relations in Austronesian Languages*, 247–293. Stanford: CSLI Publications.
- Huang, Yan (2014) *Pragmatics*. Second edition Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hudson, Richard (2004) Are determiners heads? *Functions of Language* 11, 7–42.

- Reid, Lawrence A. (1989) Arta, another Philippine Negrito language. *Oceanic Linguistics* 28(1), 47–74.
- Rubino, Carl (1997) A Reference Grammar of Ilocano. Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Santa Barbara.
- Rubino, Carl (2005) *Iloko*. In Alexander Adelaar & Nikolaus P. Himmelmann (eds.), *The Austronesian Languages of Asia and Madagascar*, 326–349. London; New York: Routledge.
- Schachter, Paul and Fe T. Otones (1972) *Tagalog Reference Grammar*. University of California Press.
- Thomas, David D. (1955) Three analyses of the Ilocano pronoun system. *Word* 11, 204–208.
- Van Langendonck, Willy (1994) Determiners as heads. *Cognitive Linguistics* 5, 243–259.
- Zwicky, Arnold M. (1985) Heads. *Journal of Linguistics* 21, 1–29.
- Zwicky, Arnold M. (1993) Heads, bases and functions. In Greville G. Corbett, Norman M. Fraser and Scott McGlashan (eds.), *Heads in Grammatical Theory*, 292–315. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

イロカノ語の名詞句の構造

山本 恭裕

要旨

本研究はイロカノ語の名詞句の構造を記述することを目的とする。本稿では次の三つのサブタイプを区別する。一つ目は単純な名詞句であり、この名詞句は名詞と冠詞、指示詞、形容詞あるいは数詞などの単純な修飾要素から構成される。二つ目は属格名詞句や関係節といった複雑な修飾要素を含む名詞句である。そして三つ目は、主要部名詞を欠く名詞句を指す。本研究の主な発見は、イロカノ語の名詞句は必須の要素を持たない構文であるという点である。従って、イロカノ語の名詞句は主要部を持たない外心構造であると結論づける。本研究におけるイロカノ語名詞句の記述は、項や付加詞として機能する構造の通言語的バリエーションの理解に貢献する。

受領日 2018年10月9日
受理日 2018年12月31日