ON THE INNOVATIVE NATURE OF SAKHALIN AINU: FOCUSING ON NOMINALIZATION

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This paper focuses on the innovative nature of Sakhalin Ainu with respect to nominalization. Based on a cross-dialectal comparison, I suggest that zero-nominalization \([(n..) V]_{NP}\) reflects the oldest stage (I), while the strategy of adding a nominalizing word \([(n..) V \text{ nmz}]_{NP}\), which proliferates in Hokkaido Ainu, may be regarded as the next stage (II). Finally, in Sakhalin Ainu, non-finite verbal forms containing possessive-style marking \([(n..) V\text{-poss}]_{NP}\) (III), which can also be used as non-embedded (finite) structures \([(n..) V\text{-poss}]_{MC}\) (IV) in a broad range of presuppositional contexts, may be regarded as the last and most innovative stage.

1. INTRODUCTION

Ainu (lit. ‘people’) speakers, traditionally hunter-gatherers, formerly inhabited not only the Island of Hokkaido, but also the northern part of Honshu, the southern part of Sakhalin, the Kurile Islands, and very likely the southern part of Kamchatka. The three primary linguistic divisions are geographically based, and distinguish between the dialects once spoken on Hokkaido, Sakhalin, and the Kurile Islands; there are almost no data on Kurile Ainu. Today scholars generally believe the Ainu ethnic group to be descendants of a subpart of the Neolithic population of the Jōmon Culture which existed in Japan 11,000–1,000 BC and...
was characterized by the utilization of “cord-patterned” pottery. The Iron Age, known as the Yayoi period in mainland Japan (300 BC – AD 300) never extended to Hokkaido. According to archaeologists, a Neolithic Epi-Jōmon period persisted there until it was replaced by the Satsumon culture (from Northern Honshu) in Southwestern Hokkaido around AD 700 and by the Okhotsk culture (from the lower Amur river) in Northeastern Hokkaido around AD 500–600. Eventually, around AD 1,000, the Okhotsk culture was absorbed into the Satsumon culture, leading to the emergence of what we know as the Ainu ethnic group. These events are reflected in Ainu oral literature. Against this archaeological/historical background, it is significant that there still remain major linguistic distinctions between the Southwestern and Northeastern Hokkaido groups of Ainu dialects. The date of the arrival of the Ainu into Sakhalin (and the Kuriles) is an as yet unresolved issue. According to the archaeologist Kikuchi (1999: 50), the Ainu reached Sakhalin in the thirteenth century.

In this paper, I will use data from the Raichishka dialect of West Coast Sakhalin Ainu (Murasaki 1976; 1979) and show its innovative nature with regard to nominalization. Unlike Hokkaido Ainu, West Coast Sakhalin Ainu has developed a special clausal nominalization strategy attaching the nominal possessive suffix to the verb, which can also occur as a non-embedded (finite) form in a broad range of presuppositional contexts; in studies to date, this feature has yet to receive specific attention.

A number of better-known innovations of West Coast Sakhalin Ainu, which are not observed in Hokkaido Ainu, include merging /p t k r/ in coda position into /h/, the loss of the first person inclusive vs. exclusive distinction, as well as the development of possessive forms for all nouns and the development of plural possessive marking on nouns and third person plural marking on verbs. While all these differences clearly distinguish Hokkaido varieties and West Coast Sakhalin Ainu, most of them are less conspicuous in East Coast Sakhalin varieties (Piłsudski 1912), but this issue should be addressed separately.

2. BASIC PROPERTIES OF AINU

Ainu is agglutinating, polysynthetic, and incorporating. It employs more prefixation than suffixation, which is unusual for this area of the world. It is predominantly head-marking. It has postpositions, but no prepositions.

The basic constituent order is SV/AOV. Arguments in Ainu (either nouns or pronouns) are not marked for case. Adjuncts are marked by postpositions. Ainu has mixed alignment: in verbal cross-referencing, the first person singular has nominative-accusative alignment, the second and third persons neutral align-
ment, and the first person plural exclusive and indefinite tripartite alignment. Overall, it is possible to distinguish three sets of verbal cross-referencing markers (which partially overlap): for the intransitive subject (s), transitive subject (a), and object (o). The A set of markers is also used to encode the person and number of the possessor in the possessive construction (see further below).

The indefinite person (IND) is worth a special note. It has four functions: (i) the indefinite person proper (= the impersonal), (ii) the first person plural inclusive, (iii) the second person singular/plural honorific, and (iv) logophoric (person of the protagonist). The logophoric use is common in folktales because they have the structure of reported discourse with the whole story being a quote. For convenience, the indefinite form with the logophoric function is translated as 'I', although it is glossed as IND, see (1) below.

As mentioned, the opposition of transitive and intransitive verbs is clear-cut, and so is the opposition of transitive verbs and nouns. However, all intransitive verbs can, in principal, function as nouns without any change in their stem morphology, for example, *uwepeker* i. ‘to tell a folktale’, ii. ‘a folktale’.

### 3. THEORETICAL PREREQUISITES

Following Genetti et al. (2008: 98), I will use the term “nominalization” to refer to a general process by which non-nominal elements become grammatical nominals, cf. Comrie & Thompson (1985: 349) who define nominalization as “turning something into a noun”. The major distinction is between clausal (= grammatical) and derivational (= lexical) nominalizations corresponding to high (CP, Conom, TP, Tnom) vs. low (vP, n, VP) nominalizations in Kornfilt & Whitman (2011). Importantly, most authors recognize that there is no clear-cut distinction between the two, see scalar approach in Koptjevskaja-Tamm (1993), scalarity of finiteness in Givón (2009: 88), and nominalization/verbalization in Malchukov (2004; 2006).

In this paper, I will focus on the clausal nominalization in Ainu, which is conceived of as a syntactic process allowing a clause to function as a noun phrase within a broader syntactic context without necessarily creating a derived noun as the head.

As noted in Shibatani (2009), nominalizations are forms, which crosslinguistically often function as:

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1 Most examples in this paper are from folktales, hence the high frequency in the use of the indefinite person.
(a) modifiers of nouns (within noun phrases), resulting in relative clauses and nominal complement clauses;

(b) arguments of verbs (within clauses), resulting in verbal complement clauses; and

(c) independent clauses (in the position of main clauses).

Thus, nominalizations employed in functions (a) and (b) are essentially dependent structures, firstly, because they are embedded, and secondly because they are often non-finite, that is, they may lack TAM and person/number markers and such (Genetti 2007).

4. NOMINALIZATIONS IN HOKKAIDO AINU

Henceforth, I will try to look for nominalizations in the above-mentioned syntactic contexts in Hokkaido Ainu (HA). First, I will examine (a) modifiers of nouns, namely, relative clauses as in (1), nominal complement clauses as in (2), and adverbial clauses as in (3). Note that the latter may be traced to modifiers of nouns only diachronically because the erstwhile head noun, for example, *rapok* ‘interval’ in (3), was reanalyzed as a subordinating conjunction ‘when’.

(1) (Bugaeva 2004: 187–188)

\[
[a=roski \ a] \ ind.inaw.
\]

\text{IND.A=stand.PL \ PERF. \ inaw.prayer.sticks}

‘All the *inaw* [willow prayer sticks] (which) I had erected (fell down).’

(2) (Bugaeva 2004: 339)

\[
[kamuy-utar nuwap kor okay] \ ind.haw-e.
\]

\text{god-PL \ groan \ and \ exist.PL \ voice-POSS}

‘(I heard) the voices of fish gods’ groaning.’

Lit. ‘(I heard) the voice (that) gods groaned.’

(3) (Oda, I.)

\[
[a=unu-hu \ isam] \ rapok, \ aca \ ek.
\]

\text{IND.A=mother-POSS \ not.exist \ interval \ uncle come.SG}

‘When our mother was out, an uncle came (and brought one deer foreleg).’

Lit. ‘(At) the interval of our mother’s not being (home), an uncle came.’
Since all predicates in (1)–(3) lack any special subordinating morphology on verbs and retain pronominal and aspectual marking, they cannot be regarded as nominalizations: the structures are embedded, but not non-finite.

Next, I will look at (b) arguments of verbs (within the main clause) resulting in verbal complement clauses.

(4a) (Bugaeva 2004: 248)

\[
\text{[ene } a=\text{kar } hi \text{ ka } a=\text{ye } hi \text{ ka]}
\]
like.this IND.A=do NMZ even/also IND.A=sayNMZ even/also

\[
a=\text{erampewtek } \text{pe } ne \text{ kusu...}
\]
IND.A=not.know NMZ COP because

‘I didn’t know what to do or say in this way, so...’

(4b) (Bugaeva 2004: 285)

\[
[a\text{pun-no } a=\text{reska } \text{pirka } a=\text{reska] } \text{ki } \text{wa}.
\]
peaceful-ADV IND.A=bring.up good IND.A=bring.up do and

‘We were peacefully bringing them up, we were gently bringing them up.’
Lit. ‘Did peacefully our bring(ing) up, (did) well our bring(ing) up.’

Some complement-taking predicates require the use of nominalizing words such as \text{hi} ‘thing/place/time’ and \text{pe} ‘thing/person’ in (4a), but some do not, which results in zero-nominalization \[(\text{NP}...)\text{ v}\text{NP}], that is, in a morphologically unmarked clause that is employed in a nominal function as in (4b). I suggest that zero-nominalization \[(\text{NP}...)\text{ v}\text{NP}] reflects the oldest stage of nominalization in Ainu and that a nominalizing word strategy \[(\text{NP}...)\text{ v}\text{NMZ}\text{NP}] appeared later as it is the case in Japanese (Shibatani 2009) and some Tibeto-Burman languages (Post 2011).

It is noteworthy that even in (4a), there are no signs of nominalization other than the use of nominalizing words; note the retention of verbal personal marking and lack of non-finite morphology in both (4a) and (4b).

As is commonly accepted, the verbal morphology of HA shows no distinction between finite vs. non-finite forms, that is, all verbs in HA exhibit finite morphology.² Yet, the term “nominalization” (\text{J meishika}) is often employed in Ainu studies.

² The lack of subordinating morphology on verbs is commonly regarded as a polysynthetic feature (Mithun 1984; Baker 1996; Evans & Sasse 2002). Cf. also “extreme finite languages” in Givón (2009: 90) with reference to Iroquois (Mithun 1991), in which even lexical nominalizations look like finite clauses.
**What is usually regarded as “nominalization” in HA?**

As shown in the previous section, neither relative clauses nor nominal or verbal complement clauses can be regarded as fully-fledged nominalizations in Ainu because verbs do not bear any subordinating morphology. Yet, the term “nominalization” (J *meishika*) is found in Ainu studies. This term is often used with the reference to syntactic constructions with the structure of “(NP...) V NMZ” in which NMZ (nominalizer) is a kind of light (= “formal”) noun, which can be traced back to the erstwhile “head”. We may distinguish between the following five types of construction:

(i) Lexical nominalizations;
(ii) Clausal nominalizations;
(iii) Adverbial clauses;
(iv) Evidential/modal/aspectual sentences with a copula;
(v) Main clauses (sentence-final), without copula.

In the following, I will briefly describe each of these so-called nominalization types in Ainu.

(i) Lexical nominalizations [(NP...) V-NMZ ]_NP are derived with the following nouns as heads: hi ‘thing/place/time’, pe ‘thing/person’, kur ‘man’, and others. Diachronically, they originate in relative clauses with full-fledged nominal heads which gradually became reanalyzed as nominalizers: N(oun) > NMZ (nominalizing word) > -NMZ (nominalizing suffix).

(5a) \( ci=ronnu-p \)
\( \text{1PL.EXC.A=kill.PL-thing/NMZ} \)
‘a fox’, lit. ‘things (that) we kill’

(5b) \( ape-o-i \)
\( \text{fire-enter-place/NMZ} \)
‘hearth’, lit. ‘the place (where) the fire enters’

(ii) Clausal nominalizations. The same nominalizers hi ‘thing/place/time’ and pe ‘thing/person’ are commonly employed in clausal nominalizations. In (6), the clausal nominalization functions as the subject of the verb *pirka* ‘good’.
(6) (Tamura 2000: 126)

\[ ku=kemeyki kor ku=itak hi iyotta pirka. \]

1SG.S=sew while 1SG.S=talk NMZ most good

'It is the best (for me) to talk while I’m sewing.’
Lit. ‘My sewing while my talking is the best.’

(iii) Adverbial clauses. The erstwhile head noun hi ‘thing/place/time’ (7) and a few other nouns like rapok ‘interval’ in (3) were reanalyzed as subordinating conjunctions with various meanings.

(7) (Bugaeva 2004: 140)

\[ rek a rek a kor an hi ta patek, \]

sing ITR sing ITR and exist.SG when/NMZ LOC only

‘Only when (lit. at the time) the cuckoo was singing and singing,

\[ a=an-te-hoku ipe ka somo ki no. \]

IND.A=exist.SG-CAUS-husband.POSS eat even NEG do and

my husband didn’t eat.’

(iv) Evidential/modal/aspectual sentences with a copula. The following light nouns express evidential, modal, and aspectual meanings. In declarative sentences, they are followed by the equative copula ne as in (8) and (9) and, in content questions as in (10), by the existential copula an.

a. Evidential:

ru-w-e (trace/footprint-EP-POSS) ‘the trace of’ — inferential, also used as a modality marker of certainty
haw-e (voice-POSS) ‘the voice of’ — reportative
sir-i (sight-POSS) ‘the sight of’ — visual
hum-i (sound-POSS) ‘the sound of’ — non-visual sensory

b. Modal:

kus-u (reason-POSS) ‘the reason of’ — intentional
kun-i-p (obligation?-POSS-thing/person) ‘should’ — deontic
pe/p ‘thing/person’ — assertive/pragmatic imperative
kat-u (shape-POSS) ‘the shape/manner of’ — assertive
hi ‘place/time/thing’ — assertive
c. Aspectual:

*us-ke* (place-poss) ‘(just now) being in progress’ (Bugaeva 2013: 668)

Such sentences are viewed as biclausal by Tamura (2000: 227) in her description of evidentials: “The expressive nominalizers *ruwe* eEVD, *hawe* eSAID, *siri* eSEEN, and *humi* eFELT can be placed after sentences that end with verb phrases, where they nominalize the sentence, and the copula *ne* is placed afterwards to complete the phrase”, see also the “external relative clause analysis” in Okuda (1989) and Satō (2008: 175). In Bugaeva (2013: 669), I suggested that although the original construction is undoubtedly biclausal, that is, [[Clause] NP Noun-poss]NP COP, the erstwhile nouns are considerably grammaticalized and the construction in question is in the process of turning into a monoclausal complex-predicate construction.

(8) (Bugaeva 2004: 254)

\[\text{tane aynu kotan hanke ru-w-e ne.} \]
\[\text{already Ainu village be.close trace-ep-poss/inf.ev cop} \]
‘I infer that an Ainu village is already nearby.’
Lit. ‘It is the trace (that) the Ainu village is already close.’

(9) (Nakagawa 1995: 54)

\[\text{pirka uepeker ne haw-e ne wa.} \]
\[\text{be.good folktale cop voice-poss/rep.ev cop fin} \]
‘It is said to be / I assume that it is a good folktale.’
Lit. ‘It is the voice (that) the folktale is good.’

(10) (Bugaeva et al. 2015)

\[\text{makanak ne an i an?} \]
\[\text{what as exist.sg thing/place/time/nmz exist.sg} \]
‘(Did you pay money) or what?’
Lit. ‘...What kind of thing was there?’ (assertive mood)

(v) Evidential/modal/aspectual sentences without copula, that is, main clauses. The final copula is omitted in polar questions and exclamations, so sentences end just in nouns/nominalizers, that is, nominalizations are used as non-embedded (finite) structures \[([\text{NP...}] \text{v-poss})_{MC}.\]
Sentences like those in (11)–(14) can possibly be regarded as instances of the so-called insubordination, as adduced in Evans (2007).
To summarize: verbal forms that are usually regarded as nominalizations in Hokkaido Ainu do not bear any non-finite morphology, so “nominalization” is associated solely with the use of a nominalizing word in the case of lexical nominalizations, clausal nominalizations, and in evidential/modal/aspectual sentences with or without a sentence-final copula, but not in relative clauses and nominal complement clauses.

These nominalizing words are, strictly speaking, distinct from genuine nominalizers, because they are not used for deriving adnominal forms.3

5. NOMINALIZATIONS IN SAKHALIN AINU

Sakhalin Ainu (SA) is noteworthy for its non-finite possessive-style marking on verbs, viz. V-poss, which is not found elsewhere in Ainu. I propose to regard such forms as genuine nominalizations; they occur mostly in the same contexts as the nominalizing words (NMZ) of Hokkaido Ainu. Since the V-poss forms are materially identical with the possessive forms of nouns, first I should say a few words about nouns.

Possessive marking on nouns

In the possessive construction, the possessee takes the so-called possessive form with the possessive suffixes -hV or -V(hV), which indicate the bound status of the form in question and is marked with one of the A prefixes for the person and number of the possessor (the 3rd person is zero-marked), so pronominal (and even nominal) possessor NPs are commonly omitted.

\[
\begin{align*}
(15a) & \quad ku=sapa-ha & & 1SG.A=head-poss & & \text{‘my head’} \\
(15b) & \quad ci=setur-u & & 1PL.A=back-poss & & \text{‘our backs’} \\
(15c) & \quad e=haw-e & & 2SG.A=voice-poss & & \text{‘your voice’} \\
(15d) & \quad kamuy rus-i & & \text{bear fur-poss} & & \text{‘bear-skin’}
\end{align*}
\]

The possessive suffixes -hV or -V(hV) often copy a root-final vowel with an epenthetic /h/ being inserted, that is, -ha/-hu/-bo/-he/-hi for vowel-final (15a) and a(ha)/-u(hu)/-o(bo)/-e(be)/-i(hi) for consonant-final roots. However, roots ending with w/y always trigger -e(be) (15c) and a few other irregular nouns take a

3 Similarly, Shibatani (2009) prefers to treat the Japanese no (and other NMZs) not as a nominalizer but as a “noun phrase use marker” (Shibatani, pers. comm.) and distinguishes it from such “genuine nominalizers” as Western Old Japanese -u/-uru/-ru or Modern Korean -neun which are used for deriving adnominal forms.
default suffix -i(hi) (15d) originating in the bound noun hi ‘thing/place/time’ (also used as a nominalizer). The difference between “short” (e.g. ci=setur-u ‘our (EXC) backs’) and “long” (ci=setur-uhu ‘our (EXC) backs’) possessive forms is unclear. Overall, the possessive form derivation is not a straightforward process. As suggested in Shibatani (1990: 15), this phenomenon originated probably in some kind of tongue root harmony [RTR], which is regarded as a characteristic areal feature of Northeast Asia in Ko, Joseph & John Whitman (2014: 141).

In Hokkaido Ainu, not all nouns have possessive forms and the above-mentioned possessive construction is used for inalienable possession only. Alienable possession in HA is encoded by the relative clause-based periphrastic construction with kor ‘have sth/sb’ as the predicate and the possessor as the subject; the possessee is left unmarked as in (16).

(16) a=kor mosir (HA)
1PL.A=have country
‘our country’, lit. ‘the country (that) we (you and I) have’

Unlike in Hokkaido Ainu, in Sakhalin Ainu (17), all nouns have developed possessive forms and the possessive construction is used to encode both inalienable and alienable possessive relations, cf. (16).

(17) (Murasaki 1979: 5)
an=mosir-ibhi (SA)
1PL.A=country-POSS
‘our country’

**Possessive marking on verbs in Sakhalin Ainu**

As mentioned above, in addition to the possessive marking for all nouns, Sakhalin Ainu has developed possessive marking on verbs, namely v-POSS, which will be regarded here as a nominalized form. The v-POSS form is employed in:

(i) Adverbial clauses marked with adverbial conjunctions;
(ii) Modal sentences marked with modal auxiliaries;
(iii) Clausal nominalizations;
(iv) Evidential/modal/aspectual sentences with a nominalizing word and a copula;
(v) Main clauses (sentence-final), without a copula.
The v-poss form is not employed in relative clauses, noun and verbal complement clauses or lexical nominalizations. Note that the functions (iii)–(v) are basically the same as those containing nominalizing words (nmz) in HA, while the functions (i)–(ii) show some peculiarities.

(i) Adverbial clauses marked with adverbial conjunctions. The conjunctions used in these constructions contain synchronically or diachronically the copula ne(e) as the initial (or the only) component: v-poss conj (< be.cop+?).

The manner conjunction nee-no ‘as/like’

(18) (Murasaki 1979: 139)

ene e=ramu-bu nee-no pirka no kii wa.
like.this 2sg.a=think-poss cop-adv be.good adv do fin

‘Do (it) well, like you think.’

(19) (Murasaki 1979: 139)

e=sinka-ha nee kunii-ne an=e=nukara.
2sg.s=be.tired-poss cop as-cop ind.a=2sg.o=see

‘You look tired.’ Lit. ‘I see you as you are being tired.’

The cognates of these conjunctions in HA, namely ne-no ‘as’ and ne kuni ‘as (if)’, are preceded by regular (finite) verb forms.

The adversative conjunction ne-ya ‘but’

(20) (Murasaki 1979: 139)

an=nukara-ha ne-ya nani hempah isam.
ind.a=see-poss cop-q soon how.many not.exist

‘I saw it, but (it) was immediately gone.’

The concessive conjunction ne-yah ‘although’

(21) (Murasaki 1979: 51)

an=oyra-pe-be an= bunara kusu paye=an-ihi ne-yah
ind.a=forget-nmz-poss ind.a=search in.order go.pl=ind.s-poss cop-if

‘Although we went to search for (what) we had left (lit. ‘our left things’),
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(ii) Modal sentences marked with modal auxiliaries. These auxiliaries contain synchronically or diachronically the copula ne as the initial component: V-POSS AUX (< be.COP+?).

The affirmative auxiliary nee-ko ‘surely’

(22) (Murasaki 1979: 68)

\[ \text{tani 'uunas an=ee-he nee-ko.} \]
\[ \text{now/already early IND.A=eat-POSS COP-?} \]
\[ \text{‘Definitely, I have just eaten.’} \]

The dubitative auxiliaries ne-'an ‘probably’ and nee nankor ‘probably’

(23) (Murasaki 1979: 95)

\[ \text{ku=ramah-sak-ibi ne-'an kusu.} \]
\[ \text{1SG.S=heart-lack-POSS COP-exist.SG because} \]
\[ \text{‘Since I am probably not stupid.’} \]

(24) (Murasaki 1979: 95)

\[ \text{pohke-no mokoro 'anah pirika-ha nee nankor.} \]
\[ \text{warm-ADV sleep if be.good-POSS COP probably} \]
\[ \text{‘It is probably good if he sleeps (keeping ) warm.’} \]

Some of these auxiliaries have no equivalents in HA, as, for example, nee-ko ‘surely’ and ne-'an ‘probably’, while others have equivalents that do not require the use of the copula ne as an initial component in HA, as, for example, nankor ‘probably’ in (25), cf. nee nankor ‘probably’ of SA in (24).

(25) (Nakagawa & Bugaeva 2012: K8010301UP.114)

\[ \text{tunas e=unu-hu ka isam nankor (HA)} \]
\[ \text{quickly 2SG.A=mother-POSS even/also not.exist probably} \]
\[ \text{‘Your mother will probably die soon, so.’} \]

(iii) Clausal nominalizations. In (26)–(27), the clausal (event) nominalization functions as the subject (s) of the main clause. In the same grammatical context
in HA, the verb is used in its regular (finite) form, but it should be followed by a nominalizing word, cf. (6).

(26) (Murasaki 1979: 141)

\[ \text{isa oh-ta } ku=oman \text{ keray-kusu } ku=araka-ha \text{ pirka.} \]
\[ \text{doctor place-LOC } 1SG.S=go.SG \text{ thanks-because } 1SG.S=be.sick-POSS \text{ be.good} \]

‘Because I went to the doctor, my sickness got better.’

(27) (Murasaki 1979: 95)

\[ \text{ku=ye-he } \text{ sunke} \]
\[ 1SG.S=say-POSS \text{ lie/be.untrue} \]

‘(What) you said is not true.’

(iv) Evidential/modal/aspectual sentences with a nominalizing word and a copula. The nominalizing word in these cases is preceded by the equative copula nee and followed by the locative copula an: \( v \text{-POSS nee NMZ an.} \)

(28) (Murasaki 1979: 46)

\[ \text{tara aynu } \text{ itah-no-ho } \text{ nee } \text{ sir-ihi } \text{ an.} \]
\[ \text{this Ainu/person speak-much-POSS COP sight-POSS/VIS.EV exist.SG} \]

‘It looks that this person speaks too much.’

(29) (Murasaki 1979: 113)

\[ \text{nab kanneka } \text{ itah } \text{ ku=wante-he } \text{ nee } \text{ ruu-he } \text{ an.} \]
\[ \text{that like even/also speech } 1SG.A=know-POSS \text{ COP track-POSS/INF.EV exist.SG} \]

‘I think I remember the language so (well).’

Recall that in HA the verb is used in its regular (finite) form and followed directly by a nominalizing word without the equative copula ne. Also, it is the equative copula ne that is used in HA in declarative sentences after the nominalizing word, not the locative copula an as in SA, cf. (8) and (9).

(v) Main clauses (sentence-final), without a copula. [(NP...) \( v \text{-POSS}\)]\text{MC} is typically found in a broad range of presuppositional contexts, that is, assertions, polar, and content questions. Recall that in HA the sentence-final copula is similarly omitted in exclamations, as in (11a) and (12a), and polar questions, as in (11b), (12b), (13), and (14).
(30) (Murasaki 2013)

ku’ani tani uwas ku=ek-ihii.
I now only 1SG.S=come.SG-POSS
‘I just came.’ (Assertion)

(31) (Murasaki 2009: 95)

Harumi neya otoopempe ee-he uwa.
Harumi N.PRT sweets eat-POSS FIN
‘Harumi has eaten the sweets.’ (Assertion)

(32) (Murasaki 2009: 95, cf. (13) in HA)

pirika-ha aa?
be.good-POSS FIN(?)
‘Have you recovered?’ (Polar Q)

(33) (Murasaki 2013)

siriman poro-n-no eci=tarap-ihii?
last.night be.many-EP-ADV 2PL.S=dream-POSS
‘Did you see a lot of dreams last night?’ (Polar Q)

(34) (Murasaki 2013)

hemanta kusu e=cis-ibi, tara hekaci?
what reason 2SG.S=cry-POSS this boy
‘Why are you crying, boy?’ (Content Q)

(35) (Murasaki 2009: 26, cf. (10) of HA)

atay-ehe hempah-no an-ibi?
price-POSS how.much-ADV exist.SG-POSS
‘How much is the price of (it)?’ (Content Q)

Searching for a common function

Next, I would like to find out whether there is anything in common between all those versatile uses of the nominalizing form v-POSS occurring in: (i) adverbial clauses marked with adverbial conjunctions and (ii) modal sentences marked with modal auxiliaries, which synchronically or diachronically contain the equative
copula *ne*, (iii) clausal nominalizations which are used as arguments in the main clause, (iv) evidential/modal/aspectual sentences with a nominalizing word, and (v) main clauses (sentence-final).

My hypothesis is that the nominalizing form *v-poss* always occurs in presuppositional contexts, so first I would like to clarify the term “presupposition” based on various sources.

Karttunen & Peters (1979: 1) define “presupposition” as contents that survive embedding under operators like negation or modals, and as “propositions which the sentences are not primarily about”; see also Simons, Tonhauser, Beaver & Roberts (2010). Similarly, Horton & Hirst (1988: 255) characterize “presupposition” as “a proposition that is conveyed by a sentence or utterance but is not part of the main point”. For Potts (2005) presuppositions are not at-issue, that is, not the main point of the utterance. Evidential implications across languages have been argued to be not at-issue (e.g. Faller 2002). Finally, according to Lambrecht (1994: 52), “Pragmatic presupposition: the set of propositions lexicogrammatically evoked in a sentence which the speaker assumes the hearer already knows or is ready to take for granted at the time the sentence is uttered.” To summarize, grammatically presuppositions can survive embedding under negation, and in combination with modals and evidentials, and pragmatically they refer to old information.

I suggest that grammatically, in uses (i)–(iv) of the nominalizing form *v-poss*, we are dealing with presuppositions, and that crosslinguistically those contexts often refer to old information. Next, I will show that the sentence-final use (v) $[(\text{NP}... \; \text{v-poss})_{\text{MC}}]$ has also to do with the discourse flow and information structure: *v-poss* refers to old information while finite verbal forms refer to new information. Consider the following conversational passage from Murasaki (1976: 3–5). Owing to lack of space I have excluded some parts of the original Ainu text.

F:  
*tan*  
*unarpe-he.*

this  
aunt-poss

‘Aunt,’

’t*esinnisab-ta*  
’e*numa*  
y*ke*  
hemata  
’e*kipi-hii?* [1]

this.morning-loc  
2sg.s=wake.up  
then  
what  
2sg.a=do-poss

what did you do this morning?’

O:  
*numa=’an*  
teh  
suke=’an  
tek

wake.up=1sg.s  
and  
cook=1sg.s  
and

‘I woke up, cooked and
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_yama  ‘oh-ta makap=’an teh_
mountains  place-LOC  go=1SG.S  and
went to the mountains and,

_nii=cey-teh  ‘ay=se wa sapa=’an tek_
tree-hand  1SG.A=carry.on.back  and  descend=1SG.S  and
carrying on my back tree branches, I came down and

_tani  ‘an=tuye hemaka._
now  1SG.A=cut  finish
now I finished cutting them.

F:  _e=niina teh_
2SG.S=fetch.firewood  and
‘You have fetched firewood and

‘orowa  e=’i=wooneka kusu
then  2SG.A=1SG.O=go.to.have.a.look.at  because
then, in order to see me,

_tee-ta  ’e=sa-n-ihi  ne’-anike ‘aa!
here=LOC  2SG.S=descend-POSS  COP-ADM  PERF
you came down here!’

Since you came down to see me, let’s talk. A young lady from a faraway village, from a faraway country came because she wants to hear various stories, because she wants to talk to grandmothers. Aunt, tell her something!

O: You tell her as much as you know!

F: I am telling her every day all I know. I let her listen and we are mutually very happy. So we live. You too should tell her something in the language of your village.

O:  _hemata ay=yee-bee..._
what  1SG.A=say/tell-POSS
‘What should I tell her?’

There was a lot of salmon in our village. Salmon was in abundance and we used to go to the river, catch it and eat with children.
F:  kerasuyka keera’an ceh pateh ‘e=’ee-bee!’ [4]
very delicious fish only 2SG.A=eat-POSS
‘You ate only very delicious fish!’

As to me, when I lived there in my village Raychishka I also ate a lot of delicious fish. There was a lot of salmon, herring, dace etc. Tell her what kind of fish used to live in your village?

O: By Russian order, we left our village (in Sakhalin) and came to Hokkaido. And now we do not eat fish at all. Now, I am only bones (= lost a lot of weight). I want to go to my village again and eat there this delicious fish once again before I die.

you even/also such heart/thought 2SG.S=have-POSS
‘You also have such thoughts?!

‘ku’ani ka nah’an ram ‘e=kor-obo. [6]
I even/also such heart/thought 2SG.S=have-POSS
‘I (myself) have such thoughts (too).’

(Then F switches to a new topic and there are no more v-POSS forms.)

To summarize, the form [(NP...) V-POSS]MC occurs in the text in the following contexts: assertions [6], content questions [1, 3], polar questions [5], and exclamations [2, 4].

In previous research on SA, Murasaki (1979: 72) does not identify “hVV” with the possessive endings of nouns. She writes it as a separate word and does not explain why the vowel alternates. However, her description of the functions of hVV may serve as a useful reference: “hVV. Assertion. Is used when talking about events of the past or to emphatically explain facts of the present; ...hVV. The speaker is asking the addressee with a good understanding of his/her feelings. Compassionate question.”

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4 Interestingly, similar uses of non-embedded nominalizations are attested in many Tibeto-Burman languages and in Nepali (Thomas Owen-Smith, ALT 10).
6. CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have focused on the forms \((NP...) v N Mz\) in HA and \(v\)-Poss in SA, which are regarded here as nominalizations. I have shown that both forms are used in similar syntactic and semantic contexts (Table 1).

\(\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
 & Lexical N & Clausal N & Adverbial clauses & Evidential/modal/aspectual sentences & Main clauses (sentence-finally) \\
\hline
(NP...) \(v\) N Mz & + & + & + & + & + \\
\hline
v-Poss & - & + & + & + & + \\
\hline
\end{array}\)

The actual modal and aspectual markers triggering nominalizations in HA and SA do not overlap completely, cf. (25) and (24). Thus, in SA, the form \(v\)-Poss is, in most cases, followed by forms (conjunctions/auxiliaries), which synchronically or diachronically contain the equative copula \(ne(e)\). The copula is absent only when the form \(v\)-Poss occurs in clausal nominalizations and main clauses. In HA, the form \((NP...) v N Mz\) requires the use of the copula \(ne\) in sentence final position only when a nominalizing word functions as a marker of evidentiality, modality or aspect.

In this concluding section, I would like to propose a tentative grammaticalization scenario for the development of nominalizations in Ainu. Based on a cross-dialectal comparison, I suggest that zero-nominalization \([(NP...) v]_{NP}\) attested in HA, reflects the oldest stage (I), the strategy of adding a nominalizing word \([(NP...) v N Mz]_{NP}\) which proliferates in HA, is regarded as the next stage (II). And finally, in SA, non-finite verbal forms containing a possessive style agreement \([(NP...) v-Poss]_{NP}\) (III), which can also be used as non-embedded (finite) structures \([(NP...) v-Poss]_{MC}\) (IV) in a broad range of presuppositional contexts, are regarded as the last and most innovative stage.

The emergence of \(v\)-Poss may have started from adverbial clauses, which synchronically or diachronically contain the copula \(ne(e)\) ‘to (be)come sth/sb’, for example, \(v\)-Poss \(neya\) ‘if...’, \(v\)-Poss \(nee-no\) ‘as’, and so on \((v\)-Poss CON) < be.COP+?). Next, the use of \(v\)-Poss was extended to sentences with evidential/modal/aspectual “heads” (NMZ), but these had previously lacked a copula, so \(v\)-Poss forms could not be directly embedded. Therefore, a copula had to be inserted: \(v\)-Poss be.COP EV.NMZ exist.COP. Finally, the main-clause use \([(NP...) v-Poss]_{MC}\) emerged and got fixed in a broad range of presupposition contexts (assertions, polar, and content questions, etc.) acquiring illocutionary force by itself.
The innovative form \( v\text{-poss} \) in SA may have developed under the influence of the Tungusic languages spoken in Sakhalin (especially Uilta?), which, unlike HA, do have subordinating non-finite verbal forms, but the issue requires a detailed investigation.

Ainu presents a fine example of a language where the development of nominalized structures has occurred in a cycle: through embedding, independent structures gradually developed into dependent structures, and then the latter gradually turned back into independent structures again.

**ABBREVIATIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HA</th>
<th>Hokkaido Ainu</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>Sakhalin Ainu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- derivational boundary  
= inflectional boundary  
1 first person  
2 second person  
3 third person  
A transitive subject  
ADM admirative  
ADV adverbial  
APPL applicative  
AUX auxiliary verb  
CAUS causative  
COM comitative  
CONJ conjunction  
COP copula  
DIM diminutive  
EP epenthetic consonant  
EV evidential  
EXC exclusive  
FIN final particle  
INC inclusive  
IND indefinite  
INF inferential  
ITR iterative  
LOC locative  
MC main clause  
N noun  
NEG negation  
NMZ nominalizer  
NP noun phrase  
O object  
PERF perfect  
PL plural  
POSS possessive  
PRT particle  
Q question marker  
REC reciprocal  
REFL reflexive  
REP reportive  
S intransitive subject  
SG singular  
TAM tense, aspect, mood  
V verb  
VIS visual
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