

REMARKS ON SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF NOUNS IN JAPANESE*

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Abstract

In this paper, I discuss some characteristics of Japanese nouns. First, I point out some syntactic phenomena concerning nouns. Second, I insist that they can be explained only by classifying nouns into two types according to the “argument” of nouns. Third, I show how nouns are classified into these two types: 1-place nouns, which take an argument syntactically obligatorily, and 0-place nouns, which take no argument obligatorily. Fourth, I present the argument structure for both noun types. Fifth, I explain the aforementioned phenomena in terms of their argument structure. Sixth and finally, I comment on textual functions of nouns and show that nouns have a potential to create a complete text.

Keywords: noun, 1-place noun, 0-place noun, argument structure, textual function

I. *Introduction*

To start, let us compare the following sentences¹:

- (1) Gakkai no heya de, Tanaka-sensei ga tyosyo ni me o toosite orareta.
Society GEN room at Prof. Tanaka NOM book-of was reading HON
Prof. Tanaka was reading his book at a room in the academic society.
- (2) Gakkai no heya de, Tanaka-sensei ga hon ni me o toosite orareta.
Society GEN room at Prof. Tanaka NOM book was reading HON
Prof. Tanaka was reading a book at a room in the academic society.

The only apparent difference between (1) and (2) lies in the underlined nouns; yet, the meanings of the two sentences differ:

While *tyosyo*, book-of, refers to Mr. Tanaka's book in (1), *hon*, book, in (2) can only refer to an indefinite book. That is, *hon* fails to specify that the book is Mr. Tanaka's.

In this paper, I investigate the reasons behind this difference in meaning, and discuss the textual functions inherent to some nouns which underpin it.

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¹ The abbreviations used in this paper are as follows:

ACC: accusative COP: copula GEN: genitive HON: honorific INT: interjection NODA: *noda*
NOM: nominative SFP: sentence final particle TOP: topic

II. 1-place Nouns and 0-place Nouns

It is reasonable to think that the difference in meaning between (1) and (2) above arises from the fact that the two nouns *tyosyo* and *hon* are different. Now, let us compare two more sentences:

- (3) A: Nani o site iru n desu ka?
What are you doing?
B: Hon o yonde iru n desu.
Book ACC am reading NODA
I am reading a book.
A1: Aa, sou desu ka.
INT so is SFP
I see.
- (4) A: Nani o site iru n desu ka?
What are you doing?
B: Tyosyo o yonde iru n desu.
Book-of ACC am reading NODA
I am reading one of his/her books.
A1: #Aa, sou desu ka.²
I see.
A2: E, dare no?
INT Who GEN
Whose book (are you reading)?

While one can finish the discourse by “*Aa, sou desu ka.* (I see.)” in (3), it is not possible to end the discourse using “*Aa, sou desu ka.*” in (4). In fact, (4)B necessarily evokes the question “*E, dare no?* (Whose?)”.

Let us consider some other related examples:

- (5) A: Kuriimusoda o nonda souda yo.
Cream soda ACC drank I hear SFP
I hear (he/she) drank a glass of cream soda.
B1: #Aa, sou desu ka.
B2: E, dare ga?
Who NOM
Who did?
- (6) A: Kono mae Tarou wa kaita souda yo.
The other day Taro TOP wrote I hear SFP
I hear Taro wrote (something) the other day.
B1: #Aa, sou desuka.
B2: E, nani o?
What ACC

² # indicates that the sentence is unacceptable in the intended reading.

TABLE 1. EXAMPLES OF 1-PLACE NOUN

Type	Japanese examples	English translation
Body part	<i>atama/kao</i>	head/face
Part of thing	<i>huta/totte</i>	cap/grip
Kinship noun	<i>otouto/tuma</i>	younger brother/wife
Title of job	<i>daitouryou/butyō</i>	president/general manager
Relative noun	<i>ue/mae</i>	upstairs/front
Place	<i>kaizyou/honba</i>	meeting place/best place
Gerund	<i>zitugen/syuuri</i>	realization/repair
Quantity	<i>taihan/10 paasento</i>	most of/10%
Others	<i>desi/sakusya/sikin</i>	pupil/author/fund

Taro wrote what?

(7) A: Kinou Tarou wa itta souda yo.

Yesterday Taro TOP went I hear SFP

I hear Taro went (to somewhere).

B1: #Aa, sou desu ka.

B2: E, doko e?

Where to

Taro went to where?

In (5) to (7), it is impossible to finish the discourse meaningfully by answering A with B1, and A would inevitably elicit the clarifying question B2. If we consider the underlined phrases in each B2, we find that they correspond to the respective missing arguments in A from (5) to (7). This kind of grammatical test frame was used in Teramura (1982) and other studies to identify the argument of a sentence. Now let us return to (4).

(4) A: Nani o site iru n desu ka?

B: Tyosyo o yonde iru n desu.

Book-of ACC am reading NODA

I am reading his/her book.

A1: #Aa, sou desu ka.

A2: E, dare no?

Whose book (are you reading)?

The reasoning above makes it easy to see that “*dare no?* (Whose?)” refers to a missing argument, which is the argument of “*tyosyo* (book-of)”. This is summarized as follows:

The *sou desu ka* test

When a speaker A, in a discourse-initial position, utters a sentence in which all arguments of its predicate are realized and which contains a noun (N), and if a co-operative hearer B can finish the discourse by saying “*Aa, sou desu ka.*” as a reply to the utterance, then the noun (N) is identified as a “0-place noun (*0-kou meisi*)”, which means “a noun taking no argument”. On the other hand, if the hearer B cannot finish the discourse by saying “*Aa, sou desu ka.*” and a question such as “*E, dare no?*” is necessarily evoked³, then the noun

³ Questions that are evoked have a construction of “question word + *no?*” such as “*dare no?*”, “*nani/nan no?*”, “*itu no?*”, “*doko no?*” and so on.

(N) becomes a “1-place noun (*1-kou meisi*)”, which means “a noun taking an argument”. Notice that while 1-place nouns always take an argument syntactically obligatorily, 0-place nouns do not take any argument obligatorily.

There are some examples of 1-place nouns in Table 1. Notice that the labels in the table are tentative and that whether a noun takes an argument or not is determined only by the *sou desu ka* test.

III. Previous Studies

In this section, I will review some previous studies: Teramura (1968), Nishiyama (1990, 2003), and Nitta (1977=2010).

Teramura (1968) discusses “*soutai meisi* (relative nouns)”⁴. In short, relative nouns are a subset of 1-place nouns; all relative nouns are 1-place nouns, but not vice versa.

For example, in (10), “*ue* (upstairs)” is a relative noun, and therefore “*Watasitai ga benkyou site iru* (where we were studying)” is not upstairs but “downstairs: i.e., someone was practice judo *upstairs relative to* where we were studying”.

- (8) *Watasitai ga benkyou site iru ue de dareka ga judo no*
 We NOM were studying upstairs on someone NOM judo GEN
rensyuu o site ita. (Teramura 1968)
 practice ACC was doing
 Someone was practicing judo on the upstairs of the place where we were studying.

On the other hand, “*kerai* (servant)”, also a 1-place noun, can be used in the same type of relative clause constructions as 0-place nouns, like in (9), so “*kerai*” is not a relative noun.

- (9) *Kare wa Shogun Yoshimune ga Kishuu kara maneita kera i datta.*
 He TOP Shogun Yoshimune NOM Kishu from summoned servant COP
 He was a servant Shogun *Yoshimune* summoned from *Kishuu*.

Notice also 1-place nouns include derived nouns such as “*hakai* (destruction)”, which is derived from “*hakai suru* (destroy)”, and “*utukusisa* (beauty)”, which is derived from “*utukusii* (beautiful)”, because 1-place noun is a purely syntactic concept. Thus, 1-place nouns differ from relative nouns.

Nishiyama (1990, 2003) discusses “*houwa meisi* (saturated nouns)” and “*hi-houwa meisi* (non-saturated nouns)”. According to Nishiyama, a noun is non-saturated if its referent cannot be determined unless the “parameter” of the referent is specified; if its referent can be determined, the noun is saturated. For example, while both “*kentikusya* (person who builds something)” and “*sakusya* (person who makes something)” are non-saturated nouns, “*kentikuka* (architect)” and “*sakka* (novelist)” are saturated ones.

Using this distinction, Nishiyama argues that only when N is a non-saturated noun can a completely meaningful “*X wa Y ga N da.*” be derived from “*Y ga X no Z da.*”⁵ For example, Nishiyama points out that while (10b) can be derived from (10a), such a derivation is not

⁴ Okutsu (1974) also discusses similar issues.

⁵ “*Wa*” is a topic, “*ga*” is nominative, “*da*” is a copula, and “*no*” is genitive.

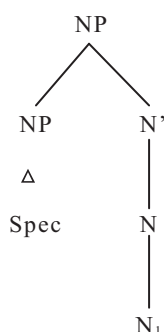
- (14) *Gozitu* watasi wa Osaka e itta.
 Later day I TOP Osaka to went
 I went to Osaka on another day.

To use Nitta's terminology, "*gozitu*" is an example of a "time noun taking an indefinite point of time as the referent point (*huteizi o kizyun to suru souteiteki tokimeisi*)" while "*kinou*" is that of a "time noun taking the utterance time as the referent point (*hatuwazi o kizyun to suru souteiteki tokimeisi*)".⁸ The 1-place noun is a concept which broadens Nitta's concept of the former to apply to all nouns. Nitta's concept differs from all similar concepts in one key way: it recognizes the fact that nouns of the type of "*gozitu*" have a textual function.⁹

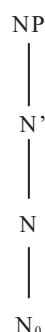
IV. *The Argument Structure of Nouns*

The discussion thus far has illustrated that there are two types of nouns in Japanese: 1-place nouns, which take a syntactic argument obligatorily and 0-place nouns, which do not take any arguments obligatorily. In this section, I will discuss the difference in the argument structures of these two types.

a. 1-place nouns: $N_1(x)$



b. 0-place nouns: N_0



⁸ Note that the two kinds of time nouns differ from each other in another aspect: the "*kinou*" type nouns are deictic and the "*gozitu*" type nouns are non-deictic. So, if Tanaka said (a) to me when I met him three days ago, then I can report this to another friend of mine using both (b) and (c), but cannot using (d) nor (e). ("*Zenzitu* (previous day)" is a "*gozitu*" type noun.)

(a) Tanaka: Watasi wa kinou eiga o mita yo.
 movie ACC saw SFP
 "I saw a movie yesterday."

(b) Tanaka-san wa "Watasi wa kinou eiga o mita yo." to itta. (deictic)
 Tanaka said "I saw a movie yesterday."

(c) Tanaka-san wa zenzitu eiga o mita to itta. (non-deictic)
 Tanaka told me that he had seen a movie on the previous day.

(d) #Tanaka-san wa "Watasi wa zenzitu eiga o mita yo." to itta.
 Tanaka said "I saw a movie on the previous day."

(e) #Tanaka-san wa kinou eiga o mita to itta.
 Tanaka told me that he saw a movie yesterday.

⁹ For a more detailed discussion, see Iori (2007: Ch. 5).

Since argument is a syntactic element, it must be encoded in the argument structure of nouns. In this paper, I consider the argument structures of 1-place nouns and 0-place nouns as in a and b.

In this paper, I adopt a presentation format based on the X-bar theory outlined by the Government and Binding Theory (GB theory). As this diagram shows, only 1-place nouns are considered to have a specifier (Spec) position, which is on the sister position of a N-bar, the intermediate projection of noun; 0-place nouns have no Spec position.¹⁰

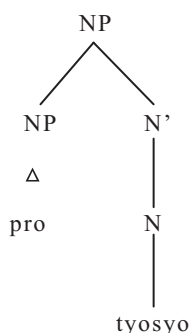
V. Explanation

Now let us return to (1) and (2), and I will explain how their difference in meaning comes about:

- (1) Gakkai no heya de, Tanaka-sensei ga tyosyo ni me o toosite orareta.
 Prof. Tanaka was reading his book at a room in the academic society.
 (2) Gakkai no heya de, Tanaka-sensei ga hon ni me o toosite orareta.
 Prof. Tanaka was reading a book at a room in the academic society.

Since “*tyosyo* (book-of)” in (1) is a 1-place noun and “*hon* (book)” in (2) is a 0-place noun, their argument structures look like this:

a. 1-place noun



b. 0-place noun



As these diagrams show, there is a Spec position in (19a) and a “pro” (i.e., a pronoun without phonetic form) occupies it. Since the “pro” in (19a) must be co-referred with someone in the sentence, it becomes co-referent with “Tanaka-sensei” in (1). In contrast, “*hon*” in (2) cannot mean “Prof. Tanaka’s book”, as there is no Spec position and so no pronoun can occupy it.

¹⁰ For a more detailed discussion on X-bar theory and the GB theory in general, see Mihara (1994).

VI. *Related Issues*

In this section, I discuss some issues related to 1- and 0-place nouns.

1. *Daikousizi*

The determiners “*kono*” and “*sono*” have two types of usage: *siteisizi* and *daikousizi* (cf. Iori 2007, Hayashi 1972=2013).

While *siteisizi* is the case in which “*kono* (this)+NP” and “*sono* (that)+NP” as a whole co-refer with their antecedents, *daikousizi* is the case in which “*kono*” and “*sono*” are used to mean “*kore no*” and “*sore no*”, respectively, and only “*ko-*” in “*kono*” and “*so-*” in “*sono*” co-refer with their antecedents. For example:

- (15) Senzitu Ginza de sushi o tabeta n dakedo, kono/sono sushi wa oisikatta.
 The other day at ACC ate NODA but this/that TOP good
 I ate sushi at Ginza the other day, and it was good.
- (16) Senzitu Ginza de sushi o tabeta n dakedo, kono/sono azi wa yokatta.
 taste was good
 I ate sushi at Ginza the other day, and its taste was good.

In this paper, I will only discuss *daikousizi*.¹¹ There are two cases within *daikousizi*: when the co-reference between determiners (*kono* and *sono*) and their antecedents takes place in the same clause without crossing a tense, which I call “co-reference within tense (CWT)”, and when the co-reference takes place while crossing a tense, which I call “co-reference over tense (COT)”. The followings are examples of each case:

- (17) Zikken de wa sono kekka ga zyuuyou dearu. (CWT)
 Experiment in TOP its result NOM important COP
 The result is important in an experiment.
- (18) Senzitu zikken ga owatta. Sono kekka wa mousugu wakaru. (COT)
 The other day experiment NOM was over its result TOP soon see
 The experiment finished the other day. You will see its results soon.

“*Sono kekka*” in (17) and (18) differ from each other for the reasons in the followings:

- a. “*Kono*” cannot be used in cases of CWT, but can be used in COT.
- b. Whether “*sono*” is used or not, the meaning is unchanged both in CWT and COT.

Examples like (19) and (20) illustrate the respective principles a and b.

- (19) a. *Zikken de wa kono kekka ga zyuuyou dearu.¹² (CWT)
 The result is important in an experiment.
- b. Senzitu zikken ga owatta. Kono kekka wa mousugu wakaru. (COT)
 The experiment finished the other day. You will see its result soon.

¹¹ See Iori (2007, 2012) for a detailed discussion on *siteisizi*.

¹² * indicates ungrammaticality.

- (20) a. Zikken de wa {sono/ \varnothing } kekka ga zyuuyou dearu.¹³ (CWT)
 b. Senzitu zikken ga owatta. {Sono/ \varnothing } kekka wa mousugu wakaru. (COT)

1) Co-reference within tense (CWT)

In this section, I will explain the reasons for the principles in a and b.

As the definition of *daikousizi* demonstrates, “*kono*” and “*sono*” are used to mean “*kore no*” and “*sore no*” in *daikousizi*. Let us consider “*sore*”.

Iori (1995, 2007) points out that “*sore*” has two usages. Consider the following:

- (21) Kinou suupaa de houtyou o katta. Sore de yasai o kittara yoku kireta.
 Yesterday supermarket at knife ACC bought vegetable ACC cut well cut
 I bought a knife at a supermarket yesterday. It cut well when I cut vegetables with it.
 (22) Yamada-kun no houtyou to Tanaka-kun no sore de wa dotira ga
 GEN knife and TOP which NOM
 yoku kireru darou ka.
 I wonder
 I wonder which knife cuts well: Yamada’s knife or Tanaka’s one.

It seems that the referents of “*sore*” in (21) and (22) are the same, but they are not. In (21), “*sore*” can be replaced with “*sono houtyou*” without changing the meaning of the sentence:

- (21)’ Kinou suupaa de houtyou o katta. Sono houtyou de yasai o kittara yoku kireta.

However, this is not the case in (22), as (22)’ shows:

- (22)’ #Yamada-kun no houtyou to Tanaka-kun no sono houtyou de wa dotira ga yoku kireru darou ka.

Although (22)’ is grammatical when “*sono houtyou*” refers to a knife in a place (deictic¹⁴) or when it refers to a knife mentioned in a previous context (anaphoric), such interpretations do not apply to (22). So, “*sore*” in (22) cannot be replaced by “*sono houtyou*”, as its counterpart in (21) can be. Now I will show how such a difference in interpretation comes about.

In (21)’, “*sono houtyou*” is not a mere (i.e., unspecified) knife but is a knife specified in the context: it is given a *textual meaning*, to use Iori’s (2007) term.¹⁵ To put it more concretely, “*sono houtyou*” in (21)’ is not a mere knife, but the “knife I bought at a supermarket yesterday (*kinou suupaa de katta houtyou*)”. In this case, “*sono houtyou*” is a full NP¹⁶ and therefore “*sore*” in (21), which can be replaced by “*sono houtyou*”, is also a full NP.

“*Sore*” in (22) is not a full NP since it cannot be replaced by “*sono houtyou*”; it only co-refers with “*houtyou*”. Consider the N-bar-level projection in (23):

- (23) a. Yamada-kun no houtyou to Tanaka-kun no sore
 b. [NP Yamada no [N’[N houtyou]]] to [NP Tanaka no [N’[N sore]]]

¹³ \varnothing indicates the lack of an overt element.

¹⁴ For simplicity, I ignore deictic interpretations throughout this paper.

¹⁵ Textual meaning is a concept which is a theoretically sophisticated version of Nagata’s (1984) “*motikomi*”.

¹⁶ A NP is a full NP when it has a referent in the real, physical world.

As can be seen in (23b), “*sore*” in (22) is not a full NP and has no referent in the real, physical world.

This usage of “sore” corresponds to Halliday & Hasan’s (1976) concept of “substitution”, of which the following are examples:

- (24) a. My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper one.
b. You think John already knows?—I think everybody does.

(Halliday & Hasan 1976)

In these cases, the elements *one* and *do* are substituted for *axe* and *knows*. In nominal substitution, which is very similar to the case of “*sore*” under discussion, *one* in (24a) does not refer to a full NP.¹⁷ So, “*sore*” in (22) can be regarded as corresponding to *one* in (24a). That is, “*sore*” in (22) is a case of substitution in Japanese. To acknowledge this identity, I refer to “*sore*” in (22) as a filler, or “*renketusi*” in Japanese. We can see the fact stated in the followings, as the discussion so far shows:

Only “sore” can be used as a filler (*renketusi*); “kore” has no such usage.

Now we can explain a and b more fully, which is reprinted below.

- a. “*Kono*” cannot be used in cases of CWT, but can be used in COT.
- b. Whether “*sono*” is used or not, the meaning is unchanged both in CWT and COT.

As for a, co-reference of X with textual meaning is impossible in CWT, and so the only possibility is using a filler: only “sono” can be used. For (24b), since “sore” in CWT is a filler, which is semantically vacant, whether it exists explicitly or not does not change the meaning of the sentence.

2) Co-reference over tense (COT)

Now the discussion can progress to the case of co-reference over tense (COT). In some instances, “kono” can be used as in the examples below:

- (25) Washington Post si no kisywa wa Hillary hujin wa senkyo'undou de
GEN reporter TOP Mrs. TOP campaign at
idou suru sai ni hikouki o tukatteori, sikamo faast kurasu o riyou
move when airplane ACC take moreover first class ACC take
site iru to houzita. Kono (/sono/φ) hiyou ga zeikin de makanawarete
reported cost NOM tax by paid
iru kara kizini natta no de aru.¹⁸ (Mainichi Shinbun 2000.3.21)
 because article became NODA
 A reporter in the Washington Post reported that Mrs. Hillary was
 taking airplanes for her presidential campaign, and moreover she

¹⁷ To replace with a full NP, one must use “it” as in the following:

(a) My axe is too blunt. My father gave it to me when I was a boy.

¹⁸ In examples cited from real materials, the first expression, "kono" in this case, is the one used in the material, and expressions in the bracket, "sono" and " φ " in this case, are the ones that are in a paradigmatic relation to the expression used in the material.

was taking first class. This became an article because its cost was paid by tax.

The reason why “*kono*” can be used in COT could be that by crossing a tense boundary, “*ko-*” in “*kono*” can co-refer to its antecedent at the textual level, as in normal cases of co-reference. This reasoning is supported by the fact that in examples like (32), “*kono*”, which is equivalent to “*kore no*”, can be replaced by “*kono koto no*”. This means that “*kore*”, contracted to “*ko-*” at the surface level, is not a filler, but rather refers to a full NP.

Discussed so far have been cases of COT in which the antecedents are inanimate. Now let us turn to slightly more complicated cases in which the antecedents are human beings. Consider the following:

- (26) Taro wa akarui seikaku de minna no ninkimono da ga,
 TOP cheerful character everyone GEN popular person COP but
 {a. ??kono/b. sono/c. \varnothing } otouto wa ranboumono de minna ni kirawarete iru.
 younger brother TOP toughie everyone by disliked
 Taro has a cheerful character and is loved by everyone, but his
 younger brother is a toughie and is disliked by everyone.
- (27) Taro wa akarui seikaku de minna no ninkimono da ga,
 TOP cheerful character everyone GEN popular person COP but
kono Taro no otouto wa ranboumono de minna ni kirawarete iru.
 younger brother TOP toughie everyone by disliked
 Taro has a cheerful character and is loved by everyone, but his
 younger brother is a toughie and is disliked by everyone.

“*Kono*” in (26) is less acceptable though “*kono Taro*” in (27), the counterpart expression of “*kono*” in (26), is perfectly acceptable. This could be explained as follows: when its antecedent is a person, in the course of the derivational stage, “*kore*” must refer to a person, as in “*kono Taro no*” > “*kore no*” > “*kono*”. This conflicts with a pragmatic restriction outlined by Kondo (1992) that referring to a person with *re*-type demonstratives (*kore*, *sore*, *are*) should be avoided. Thus, such a derivation would not be used and therefore “*kono*” in (26) is less acceptable.

VII. Textual Functions of 1-place Nouns

After having discussed 1-place nouns so far, I shall discuss specifically the textual functions of 1-place nouns in this section. Consider the following:

- (28) 1975nen Tokyo de 3okuen o tunda yusousya ga osoware
 In 1975 in 300 million yen ACC carried car NOM attacked
 genkin ga nusumareru to iu ziken ga atta. Daikibona sousa
 money NOM robbed incident NOM happened massive investigation
 ga okonawareta ga, han'nin wa tukamaranakatta. Sinsou wa
 NOM taken place but criminal TOP not arrested truth of case TOP
 ima mo humei dearu.
 now also unknown COP

In 1975, a car carrying 300 million yen was attacked and the money was stolen. In spite of massive investigations, the criminal was not arrested. The truth of the case is still unknown.

In (28), “*sinsou*” is a 1-place noun and creates a cohesive tie (cf. Halliday and Hasan 1976). I will show how this is done. First, consider the following:

- (29) Watasi no heya ni wa aburae ga kazatte aru. Kono aburae wa
 I GEN room in TOP oil painting NOM demonstrated COP
 kekkon no oiwai ni moratta mono da.
 marriage GEN present as was given thing COP
 An oil painting hangs on the wall of my room. I was given this
 painting as a present for our marriage.
- (30) Boku no tomodati no Yamada-kun wa sakka dearu. Watasi ga kare
 I GEN friend GEN TOP novelist COP GEN he
 to siriatta no wa 2nen mae dearu.
 met 2 years ago COP
 Yamada-kun, a friend of mine, is a novelist. It was two years ago when we first met.

Both in (29) and (30), the sentences that contain the underlined words are cohesive with the previous sentence. Considering the second sentence of (29) can illustrate how this can be done:

- (29)' Kono aburae wa kekkon no oiwai ni moratta mono da.

This sentence cannot be interpretable if removed from its context. The sentence contains a demonstrative, “*kono*”, which is an index that must be co-referred to something. The co-reference can be either deictic or anaphoric (cf. Iori 2012), and only the latter can create a cohesive tie in order to make a text, sentence, or sentence complex that is semantically united (cf. Halliday and Hasan 1976, Iori 2007). This is illustrated as follows:

- (29) Watasi no heya ni wa aburae ga kazatte aru. Kono aburae wa kekkon no oiwai ni
 moratta mono da.

In (29), “*kono aburae*” implies a partner for co-reference, and puts out a “feeler (*syokusyuu*)” in search of it to the previous sentence. When its antecedent is found (“*aburae*” in the case of (29)), the co-reference is completed and a complete text is created. The same kind of explanation applies to the case of pronouns, as in (30).

Now let us turn to 1-place nouns.

- (31) 1975nen Tokyo de 3okuen o tunda yusousya ga osoware genkin ga
 nusunareru to iu ziken ga atta. Daikibona sousa ga okonawareta ga,
 han'nin wa tukamaranakatta. Sinsou wa ima mo humei dearu.

If the last sentence of this example is extracted, it can be broken down as follows because “*sinsou*” is a 1-place noun.

- (31)' φ (no) sinsou wa imamo humei dearu.

Here, “ φ (no)” is a pronoun with no phonetic form and must be co-referred. So it puts out

its “feeler” and unites the sentences to create a text, just like in the cases in (29) and (30). This can be outlined as follows:

- (31) 1975nen Tokyo de 3okuen o tunda yusousya ga osoware genkinga nusumareru to iu ziken ga atta. Daikibona sousa ga okonawareta ga, han'nin wa tukamaranakatta.
- ↑
- φ(no) sinsou wa ima mo humei dearu.

In this way, 1-place nouns can create a complete text: that is, 1-place nouns have a textual function.

VIII. Summary

In this paper, I discussed some of the textual functions of Japanese nouns. First, I pointed out a key difference that exists in Japanese nouns, and showed how they can be classified accordingly into two types: 1-place nouns, which take an argument syntactically obligatorily, and 0-place nouns, which take no argument obligatorily. Second, I explained some grammatical phenomena using the differences in the argument structures of nouns. Finally, I showed that 1-place nouns can contribute to creating a completely meaningful text.

Nouns in other languages that correspond to 1-place nouns in terms of meaning should take an “argument” in a sense. For example, an “*otouto* (younger brother)” must always be a “*dareka no otouto* (younger brother of someone)” and therefore requires an “argument” corresponding to “*dareka no*” in Japanese: this trait must be language-universal. The most important point to consider to this end is whether or not such “arguments” should be described in syntax, semantics, or pragmatics in a given language. There is yet much research to be done; however, I believe that this paper shows, at least in Japanese, that “argument” affects syntactic phenomena and contributes to the creation of textual meaning. What this paper has demonstrated should be re-examined in all the other languages, which may lead to unknown breakthroughs in research pertaining to them.

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