

# Differential Subject Marking (DSM) and the Development of Nominative *ga* in the History of Japanese

## Abstract

The subject of various types of subordinate or nominalized clauses in Old Japanese (700-800) is marked in one of three different ways: with the postpositional particle *ga*, *no* or zero. This paper argues that the opposition between case marked and unmarked subjects fit into cross-linguistically well attested patterns of differential subject marking (DSM). Following Woolford (2008), it shows that the syntactic and semantic characteristics of these case marking patterns reveal that OJ displays two kinds of DSM effects which are associated with distinct grammatical levels. This paper also examines three possible scenarios for the loss of DSM, which occurred in Early Middle Japanese (EMJ 800-1200). The OJ and EMJ data suggest that case systems do not simply shift from one alignment pattern to another, as sometimes assumed (cf. Harris & Campbell 1995: 258). Instead, the morphological features of individual case markers change incrementally over time, ultimately giving rise to global changes in the overall system.

## 1. Introduction

Modern Japanese (ModJ) displays a straightforward nominative-accusative system. Transitivity does not affect the case marking on the subject (1).<sup>1</sup>

### (1) Modern Japanese (ModJ)

a. *Taroo ga sake o non-da koto* (transitive)  
Taroo NOM sake ACC drink-PST that  
'that Taroo drank sake.'

---

<sup>1</sup> List of abbreviations: ABS: absolutive, ACC: accusative, ADN: adnominal, AGT: agent, ASP: aspect, AUX: auxiliary verb, CONC: concessive, CONCL: conclusive, CONJ: conjunctive, DAT: dative, DIM: diminutive, ERG: ergative, EXCL: exclamative, F: female, FOC: focus marker, FUT: future, GEN: genitive, HON: honorific, IMPERF: imperfective, LOC: locative, MID: middle, MOD: modal, NEG: negative, NMLZ: nominalizer, NOM: nominative, NONFUT: non-future, OBJ: object marker, PST: past, PL: plural, PRT: second position particle (an evidential), PERF: perfective, 1P: first person, 2P: second person, Q: question particle.

b. *sakura ga sai-ta koto* (Intransitive)  
 cherry.blossom NOM bloom-PST that  
 ‘that Cherry blossoms bloomed.’

In ModJ the case markers *ga* and *o* mark the subject and object respectively as grammatical case markers; these particles display no semantic effects.

In Old Japanese (OJ; 8th century), *ga* is a genitive case marker. *Ga* marks the possessor of noun phrases (2) and the subject of various types of subordinate or nominalized clauses (3). Personal pronouns and human nouns intimate to the speaker as in *seko* ‘lover’ and *kimi* ‘lord’ are obligatorily marked by *ga*, while non-human animate and inanimate NPs are predominantly marked by the other genitive *no*, or zero.<sup>2</sup>

- (2) a. [*wa ga sekwo ga yadwo*] (MYS 4303)  
 I GEN lover GEN house  
 ‘my lover’s house’
- b. [*ayu no si ga pata*] (MYS 4191)  
 sweetfish GEN it GEN fin  
 ‘sweetfish’s fins’
- (3) a. [*wa ga sekwo ga motomu-ru omo ni ika-masi mono wo*] (MYS 2926)  
 I GEN lord AGT ask-ADN nurse DAT go-AUX thing EXCL  
 ‘I would go as the wet nurse that my lord asks for.’
- b. [*mizu no tama ni nita-ru mimu*] (MYS 3837)  
 water GEN pearl DAT resemble-ADN see  
 ‘(I) see water resembles a pearl.’
- c. [*pisaki Ø<sub>s</sub> opu-ru kiyoki kapara-ni*] (MYS 925)  
 catalpa grow-ADN clear riverbank-on  
 ‘on the banks of the clear river where catalpas grow’

<sup>2</sup> OJ data in this study are taken from the *Man’yōshū* (MYS, compiled in mid-8th century), the earliest written record of OJ, comprising 4516 long (*chōka*) and short (*tanka*) poems. The data is taken from electronic text “*Man’yōshū Search System*” (Yamaguchi University, Japan) as well as the Oxford Corpus of Old Japanese (University of Oxford). For periodization, I follow Frellesvig (2010). Old Japanese (abbreviated ‘OJ,’ approximately 700–800), Early Middle Japanese (‘EMJ’ 800–1200), Late Middle Japanese (‘LMJ’ 1200–1600), Early Modern Japanese (‘EModJ’ 1600–1800).

コメントの追加 [CC1]: Is it really the case? I thought there is first interchange with *-wa* in the latter case there is no *-ga*; then, as Lee 2002 and some others have pointed out *ga* may be dropped in colloquial speech. Moreover, they distinguish between the exhaustive *-ga* and some other uses of *-ga* which means that it does have semantics.

Yuko:

"obligatoily" is deleted. The presence or absence of *=ga* in main clauses is sensitive to information structure. The nominative=*ga* in embedded clauses, however, is not sensitive to IS, and *ga* has no exhaustive list reading (focus) and cannot be dropped in embedded clauses.

A number of researchers argue that adnominal verb ending *-ru* (with a different set of endings on adjectives and auxiliaries) as in (3a-c) had nominalizing functions (see Miyagawa 1989, Yanagida & Whitman 2009, Robbeets 2015).<sup>3</sup> The subject of a nominalized verb is marked in one of three ways. The semantic difference between *ga* and *no* has been treated in the literature (cf. Ohno 1977, Nomura 1993), but bare subjects as in (3c) have not been integrated into this discussion; they are generally set aside as instances of stylistic case drop. Below I show that the alternation between case marked and unmarked arguments in OJ fits into cross-linguistically attested patterns of differential subject marking (DSM). Under this approach, unmarked arguments cannot be viewed as mere stylistic case drop, but they have both syntactic and semantic significance.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 briefly discusses the general approach to DSM which I adopt: DSM is realized through the interaction of three distinct levels: (i) argument structure, (ii) syntax and (iii) PF (morphological spell-out), as proposed by Woolford (2008). In section 3, I argue that *ga* and *no*, each functions in opposition to the zero form, are associated with different levels of DSM: *ga* is a morphological realization of active case assigned to an external argument within the vP phase. It follows independently motivated PF constraints relatable to Silverstein's (1976) nominal hierarchy. Genitive *no* is assigned to any NPs in the CP phase, where they receive specific interpretations. Section 4 examines three possible scenarios for the loss of DSM, which occurred in Early Middle Japanese (EMJ; 800–1200). I argue that development of nominative *ga* results from the reanalysis of psych transitive predicates as intransitive taking a single theme argument. The present study suggests that the loss of DSM cannot be interpreted as a simple, one-step shift in alignment or case marking, as such changes are sometimes presented in work on diachronic syntax (cf. Harris & Campbell 1995). Instead, the morphological features of individual case markers change incrementally over time, only after time giving rise to global changes in the overall system.

---

<sup>3</sup> Robbeets (2015) suggests that the adnominal form *-ru* has undergone a grammaticalization from deverbal noun suffix to clausal nominalizer to relativizer and, finally, to finite form.

## 2. Differential Subject Marking (DSM)

I assume with Woolford (2008) that DSM effects are associated with three distinct grammatical levels. The first level of DSM is closely linked to  $\theta$  role assignment (canonically, Agent) to subjects, and to contexts where inherent (or non-structural) Case is assigned to external arguments. This level of DSM is identified as the argument structure (or  $vP$  phase), which corresponds to the representational level of D-structure in the government-binding theory of Chomsky (1981). The second level of DSM is associated with syntax above  $vP$ . It behaves in parallel to differential object marking (DOM) in that case alternation depends on the syntactic position of the subject: often, subject or object arguments which move outside  $vP$  are morphologically marked (by an affix or by triggering agreement) and assigned language particular interpretative properties, such as specificity, definiteness, animacy etc (cf. Diesing 1992, Chomsky 2001). The third level of DSM involves post-syntactic PF constraints; this is the level at which abstract case features are spelled out morphologically. According to Woolford (2008), DSM at this level involves markedness, which she defines in relation to Silverstein's (1976) nominal hierarchy. Cases at the more marked end of the hierarchy are more likely to be morphologically marked.

In both the typological and theoretical literature, active alignment is often classified as a subtype of ergative (cf. Comrie 1973, 1978, Silverstein 1976, Bittner and Hale 1996). Active, however, differs crucially from ergative alignment in that transitivity plays no role. In Hindi, for example, the case marker *-ne* appears on the agent subject of both transitive (4a) and unergative intransitive verbs (4b), while the theme subject of unaccusatives (4c) is unmarked:

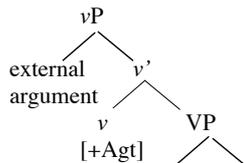
(4) Hindi (Mohanani 1994:71, 107)

- a. *raam-ne lakdii kaatii*  
Ram-ERG wood.NOM cut.PERF.F  
'Ram cut wood.'
- b. *raam-ne nahaayaa*  
Ram-ERG bath.PERF  
'Ram bathed.'

c. *raam* (\*-ne) *giraa*  
 Ram (\*-ERG) fall.PERF  
 ‘Ram fell.’

According to Woolford (1997, 2008), DSM effects in Hindi are determined at argument structure. The external argument (AGENT) is  $\theta$ -marked and at the same time inherently case-assigned by *v* in a *v*P projection above VP, as represented in (5).<sup>4</sup>

(5) DSM at argument structure



The analysis of ergative (or active) as inherent case assigned to the external argument in the specifier position of *v*P originates with Woolford (1997) and is shared by many researchers such as Legate (2002, 2008), Aldridge (2004, 2008) and Anand & Nevins (2006). I maintain that while ergative is assigned to the external argument in the specifier position of [+transitive] *v*, active is assigned to the external argument in the specifier of [+Agent]*v* (Yanagida & Whitman 2009).

### 3. Two Types of DSM in OJ

#### 3.1. DSM: *ga* vs. *zero*

Yanagida (2007) and Yanagida & Whitman (2009) argue that while in OJ main declarative clauses have a nominative-accusative pattern; the subjects of both transitive and intransitive verbs are morphologically unmarked, various types of embedded or nominalized clauses, exemplified by the adnominal clauses (3) and (6), show active

<sup>4</sup> The descriptive generalization that supports the view that ergative is an inherent case comes from the fact that ergative subjects in some instances occur in non-finite clauses while structural nominative subjects cannot (cf. Legate 2002, Aldridge 2004). Derived subjects are never ergative; that is, no language promotes objects to ergative through operations such as raising or passive. A reviewer points out that this fact may have a functional explanation, but the structural consequence remains the same: ergatives are assigned inherent case.

alignment.<sup>5</sup>

Adnominal clauses:

- (6) a. [Saywopimye no kwo **ga** pire Ø puri-si] yama (MYS 868)  
Sayohime GEN child AGT scarf wave-PST.ADN mountain  
'the mountain where the child Sayohime waved her scarf'
- b. [wa **ga** yuku] miti ni (MYS 3443)  
1P AGT go.ADN road LOC  
'...on the road I travel.'
- c. [pisakwi Ø opu-ru] kiywoki kapara (MYS 925)  
catalpa grow-ADN clear riverbank  
'the banks of the clear river where catalpas grow'

As we see in (6), the subjects of intransitive verbs display two distinct patterns; the agent subjects of the transitive and active intransitive verbs (6a-b) are marked by *ga*, but the patient subject of the inactive intransitive (6c) is morphologically unmarked in the same way as the transitive object in (6a).

OJ behaves in parallel to Hindi in that morphological case appears on agent subjects, but theme subjects of unaccusatives are *zero* marked. OJ, however, differs crucially from Hindi in that it displays a nominal-based split. Nominal based split ergative languages show an ergative pattern with some NPs, and a nominative pattern with others. This interacts with Silverstein's (1976) nominal hierarchy (7). Silverstein's nominal hierarchy as is well known, references the feature specification of noun phrases and makes crucial use of featural markedness. Pronouns are specified for [person (+ego, 1P)/(+tu, 2P)], [±number], [±gender], etc. Noun phrases are specified for [±human][ ±animacy] etc.

(7) **The Nominal Hierarchy** (Silverstein 1976)

pronouns > proper nouns > human > animate > inanimate  
1st > 2nd > 3rd person

---

<sup>5</sup> Main declarative clauses and embedded clauses selected by the cognitive/speech verb such as *ip-* 'say' or *omop-* 'think', appear with the verb in the *shūsikei* 'conclusive form' V-*u*, with a different set of endings on adjectives and auxiliaries. In conclusive clauses, both subject and object are morphologically unmarked. The subject is never marked by *no* or *ga*.

Nominative in a nominative-accusative system and absolutive in an ergative-absolutive system are unmarked (in terms of MARKEDNESS), typically phonologically zero. The accusative in the one system and ergative in the other are marked. Silverstein observes that “if the noun phrases of a language have accusative case-marking at a certain plus-value of a feature [Fi], and ergative case-marking for [-Fi], then noun phrases are accusative for all features above [Fi] in the hierarchy and ergative for all feature below [Fi] in the hierarchy” (Silverstein 1976: 123). Dixon (1979) interprets the hierarchy to “roughly indicate the overall *agency potential* of any given NP” (1979:86-87), and observes that a number of languages have split case marking exactly on this principle.

Woolford (2008), whom I follow in the discussion below, argues that MARKEDNESS as expressed in Silverstein’s nominal hierarchy is a PF constraint (to be exact, a constraint on morphological spell-out). PF is the level where “decisions are made concerning the overt realization of (abstract) features from syntax” (Woolford 2008:29). On this view, nominals lower on the hierarchy are atypical subjects; thus they are marked ergative at PF, while those higher on the hierarchy are atypical objects, and thus they are marked accusative. Nominals that realize typical subject and object grammatical functions are unmarked morphologically. In other words, ergative case is assigned to all transitive subjects, but in nominal based split ergative languages, the more marked subjects are those that lie lower on the hierarchy. Accusative, on the other hand, is the mirror image of ergative. The more marked categories for the object are those that lie higher in the hierarchy.

A split based on the nominal hierarchy is also typical of active alignment, but crucially, the nominal hierarchy applies to the argument NPs in the opposite direction as first suggested by Dahlstrom (1983). As Mithun (1991) points out, case markers based on *agency* are frequently restricted to nominals referring to human beings. Mithun identifies the semantic basis of the active marking of various non-accusative languages, both synchronically and diachronically. The *active system* in Batsbi (Tsova-Tush) is limited to first and second persons. Central Pomo has an active system in nominals referring to humans only. The Georgian active system is restricted to human beings. The Yuki system is restricted to animates. From these cross-linguistic observations, the implication follows that active marking is exactly the opposite of the right-to-left application of the hierarchy proposed by Silverstein for ergative languages. The relationship between active marking and the nominal hierarchy is as stated in (8) (cf.

コメントの追加 [CC2]: Precisely, active/inactive is only about the semantic roles, not about nominal hierarchies ☺

Yuko:

The semantic role (agent) of the subject interacts with the nominal hierarchies. To be precise, the choice btw ga= and no= is determined by the NH. But the choice between zero marking for subjects and =ga or =no is determined by thematic role. As (6c) shows, unambiguous patient subject verbs like opu- ‘grow’ take zero-marked subjects. Verbs like ‘ku- come’ and ‘nak- ‘cry’ display a not uncommon split: agentive subjects may be marked with =ga or =no, but nonagentive subjects get zero marking.

This brings up another point. As the references to Dahlstrom (1983) and Mithun (1991) make clear, agency plays a role in active systems. Agency is not part of the NH; it’s a completely separate dimension.

コメントの追加 [CC3]: ergative vs. accusative subsystems are conditioned by whether it is a ½ person pronoun or not, but not active/inactive.

Yuko:

This is not true. Mithun (1991: 536-7) writes: “Crosslinguistically, case systems based on agency are frequently restricted to nominal referring to human beings... A similar system in Haida appears only in 1sg. and 1plu... Tonkawa exhibits a case distinction in pronominal affixes based on control, and affixes exist only for first and second persons... The Tsova-Tush control distinction ... is limited to first and second persons...” The examples go on and on.

Yanagida & Whitman 2009):

(8) **The active marking hierarchy (AMH)**

In active languages, if active marking applies to an NP type  $\alpha$ , it applies to every NP type to the left of  $\alpha$  on the nominal hierarchy.

Assignment of active case is dependent not just on the thematic role assigned by the verb, but on the place of S on the nominal hierarchy. Klimov (1974, 1977) emphasizes this point, stressing that in active languages both the semantics of the predicate and the subject NP govern the distribution of active case.

In OJ the active marking appears when the S argument has control over the activity and the inactive pattern appears when control is lacking. Consider (9-10):

Old Japanese

- (9) a. [*kimi ga yuk-u*] *miti no nagate* (MYS 3724)  
Lord ACT go-ADN road GEN length  
'the length of the road my lord travels'
- b. [*wa ga naku*] *namita* (MYS 177)  
IP AGT cry.ADN tear  
'the tears that I cry'
- c. [*papa ga kap-u*] *kwo* (MYS 2991)  
mother AGT breed-ADN silkworm  
'the silkworms bred by my mother'
- (10) a. [*asuka-gapa Ø yuku*] *se wo paya-mi* (MYS 2713)  
Asuka river go.ADN shallows OBJ fast-CONJ  
'since the shallows where the Asuka River flows are fast'
- b. [*pototogisu Ø naku*] *kope* (MYS 3352)  
cuckoo (AGT) cry.ADN call  
'the call of the cuckoo crying'
- c. [*aki no nwo ni tuyu Ø opye-ru pagwi*] *wo ta-wora-zu* (MYS 4318)  
fall GEN field LOC dew cover-ADN bush.clover OBJ hand-break-not  
'without breaking off the dew-laden bush clover in the fall meadow'

The verbs *yuku* 'go' and *naku* 'cry' are classified as active, more specifically,

コメントの追加 [CC4]: The nominal marking hierarchy?

Yuko:

This is O.K as it is. We are not restating the Nominal Hierarchy. We are pointing out that in active systems, if the system is restricted by slots on the NH, active alignment occurs higher on the hierarchy than non-active alignment.

Mithun and Dahlstrom have already said much the same thing, as we point out.

unergative verbs, and hence the subject NPs are case assigned by *v*[+Agent] (see ex. (5) above), but whether the subject NP is morphologically realized depends on the semantic features of the nominals. The use of *ga* is obligatory for personal pronouns such as *wa* ‘I’ and *kimi* ‘you/lord’. The human NPs higher on the hierarchy are associated with prototypical agents, which express volition and control, whereas the non-human or inanimate NPs lower on the hierarchy are not transitivity prototype. This correlates with the fact that transitive subjects are marked by *ga*, but never marked by *zero* in embedded nominalized clauses in OJ.

The most crucial syntactic property of transitive clauses in OJ is that *wo*-marked objects necessarily move over the *ga*-marked subject, resulting in OSV word order (11). When objects are unmarked, they have canonical SOV word order (12) (Yanagida 2007, Yanagida & Whitman 2009). *Wo*-marked objects are specific, while zero marked objects are non-specific.<sup>6</sup>

[Object *wo* Subject *ga* V]

(11) a. **ware wo** yami ni ya **imo ga** kwop-i-tutu aru ram-u? (MYS 3669)

I OBJ dark LOC Q wife AGT longing.for be AUX-ADN

‘Would my wife be longing for me in the dark?’

b. **kimi wo aga** mat-an-akuni (MYS 3960)

lord OBJ I.AGT wait-not-NMLZ

‘without me waiting for you’

c. **aga te wo tono no wakugwo ga** torite nageka-mu (MYS 3459)

my hand OBJ lord GEN child AGT take weep-AUX.ADN

‘Will my lord’s child take my hand and weep again tonight?’

[Subject *ga* Object  $\emptyset$  V]

(12) a. Saywopimye no kwo ga pire  $\emptyset$  puri-si yama (MYS 868)

Sayohime GEN child AGT scarf wave-PST.ADN mount

‘the mountain where the child Sayohime waved a scarf/did scarf-waving’

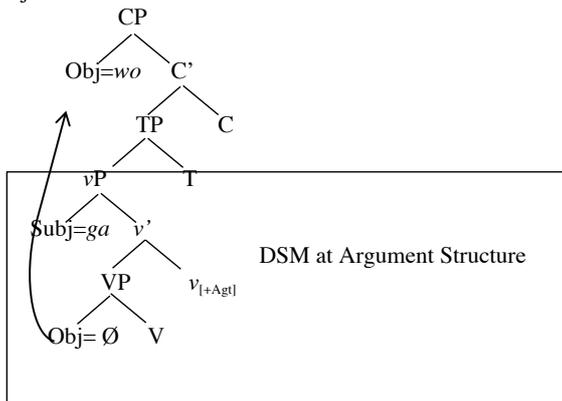
b. kanasiki kwo-ro ga ninwo  $\emptyset$  pos-aru kamo (MYS 3351)

<sup>6</sup> In Yanagida & Whitman (2009), Frellesvig, Horn & Yanagida (2015), and Frellesvig, Horn & Yanagida (in this volume), we argue that OJ displays DOM effects associated with specificity (cf. Aissen 2003).

sad child-DIM AGT cloth hang out-ADN Q  
 'The sad child has hung out a piece of cloth.' (Eastern Old Japanese)

Given our assumption that ergative/active is assigned by *v* in a *vP* projection (5), the accusative is not licensed inside *vP*; the OSV dominant word order is derived by movement of the object to the left peripheral topic position; namely, the specifier of CP, as represented in (13) (cf. Yanagida, to appear).

(13) Object movement



As discussed extensively in Yanagida (2007), when the subject is marked by *ga*, the objects that follow the subject are without exception non-branching noun heads, as in *pire* 'scarf' and *ninwo* 'cloth' (12a-b). These noun heads are syntactically incorporated into the verb.<sup>7</sup> Noun incorporation, which is widely observed in ergative languages, is a detransitivizing process on a par with antipassives, in that both involve a shift in valency, creating a derived intransitive (see Baker 1988). In other words, the transitive verbs with the object in (12) pattern like unergative intransitives; the subject is marked by *ga*, but the incorporated object is not assigned structural accusative case from the verb.

<sup>7</sup> ModJ does not have noun incorporation in a strict sense. Noun incorporation discussed by Kageyama (1980) such as *kosi o kakeru* 'sit a seat' vs. *kosi-kakeru*, *tema o toru* 'take time' vs. *tema-doru* are not productive. These expressions are possibly analyzable as lexical compounds.

In this section, I have proposed that the alternation between *ga* and zero, as illustrated in Table 1, arises within a smaller domain of a nominalized clause, namely *vP* (13).<sup>8</sup>

Table 1: DSM *ga* vs. *zero* in OJ<sup>9</sup>

	Active	Inactive
Subject	<i>ga</i>	∅
Object	∅	

The external argument is assigned active case by  $v_{[+Agnt]}$ , in the same way as Hindi. OJ, however, displays Woolford’s (2008) third level of DSM effects. The actual exponence or marking of the feature [+Agent] is independently determined by language particular PF constraints, relating to Silverstein’s (1976) nominal hierarchy. Subject NPs higher on the nominal hierarchy appear with active predicates, and NPs lower on the hierarchy appear with inactive predicates.<sup>10</sup>

### 3.2 Experiencer Predicates

Ergative (or active) languages often mark the subject of an experiencer verb with ergative (or active) case, treating them like an external argument. This is illustrated by Basque and Hindi, respectively in (14-15).

(14) Basque (isolate; Woolford 2008:24)

*Mikel-ek ni haserretu nau*  
 Michael-ERG 1SG.NOM angry.PERF AUX  
 ‘Michael angered me.’

<sup>8</sup> In subsection 3.3, we discuss the other type of DSM which arises a higher domain of nominalized clauses; namely CP phase.

<sup>9</sup> As noted above, active marking is sensitive not only to the semantics of NPs but also to the semantics of predicates. The subjects of transitive verbs and active intransitive verbs are necessarily marked by *ga* (or *no*), but never by *zero*. (See subsection 3.3 for *no*.)

<sup>10</sup> Klimov (1977:95-96) discusses a similar correlation between subject NPs and their predicates in active languages.

(15) Hindi (Indo-Aryan; Mohanan 1994:142)

*tusaar-ne vah kahaanii yaad kii*  
Tushar-ERG that story.NOM memory.NOM do.PERF  
'Tushar remembered that story.'

In Basque, the theme argument is marked by ergative case (14), while in Hindi, the experiencer is marked by ergative case (15).

Kikuta (2012) points out that OJ *ga* appears on the non-agentive theme subject of experiencer verbs, such as *wasur-* 'forget' *omop-* 'think', *mi* 'see' etc, and that this raises a problem for Yanagida & Whitman's (2009) hypothesis that *ga* is an active case. However, all of Kikuta's examples of these psych verbs with *ga*-marked theme subjects appear with an unspecified first person experiencer and a form of the auxiliary *yu* (stem *ye-*), which derives middles, passives, and potentials.<sup>11</sup>

(16) Old Japanese

a. *imo ga kopisiku wasur-a-ye-nu-kamo* (MYS 4407)  
my.lover AGT miss forget-MID -NEG-Q  
'Did I miss my dear and cannot forget her?'

b. *yama kopeni-si, kimi ga omop-o-yu-raku-ni* (MYS 3191)  
mountain cross-PST you/lord AGT think-MID-NMLZ-LOC  
'when you came to my mind as I was crossing over the mountains'

*-Yu* is arguably related to the acquisitive light verb *u* (stem *e-*) 'get', which Whitman (2008) proposes as the source of the well-known transitivity alterations in *-e-* in OJ and later stages of the language. *-E* derives both transitives and intransitives, a property of

<sup>11</sup> The productive passive auxiliary *-yu* in OJ appears after the irrealis (*mizenkei*) *a*-stem of the verb as in (16a). With a small number of verbs such as *omopoyu* in (16b) *-yu* appears after a different stem vowel, probably reflecting an older fossilized pattern. The reviewer pointed out to me that current linguistic scholarship (c.f. Whitman 2008, Frellesvig 2010, Robbeets 2015) has mostly agreed with Ono (1953) that the *a*-stem of consonant verbs is nothing but a surface stem that diachronically reflects re-segmentation of suffixes in initial *\*a-*. With a polysyllabic vowel final stem followed by a polysyllabic vowel initial suffix, we would expect the first vowel to drop, thus *\*omop-ayu*. However, the productive medial OJ *-(a)yu* may have been derived from the copula *\*a-* 'to be' followed by the original causative/medial *\*-yu* (Robbeets 2015). Adding *omopo-* and *-yu* would give the expected result.

コメントの追加 [CC5]: There is something wrong with glosses. Please check. It might be that "do memory" is the complex predicate with a light verb of which "that story" is the DO.

Yuko:

I checked the original and added "nominative" to "that story". In a generative tradition, many researchers, like Mohanan 1994, do not distinguish between nominative and absolutive: they are both unmarked case. Some (such as Legate 2002, 2008) argue that there is no absolutive case.

コメントの追加 [CC6]: I think PERF is for perfect whereas PRV/PRF is for perfective. In any event, the past tense must also be indicated somehow.

Yuko:

The example is cited from Mohanan (1994). In Mohanan (1994) PERF means PERFECTIVE. If I should change it, I must change all other examples.

コメントの追加 [CC7]: The semantic role is rather *stimulus* and not *theme*. Consider correcting.

Yuko:

Kikuta (2012), as well as Woolford (2008) and Mohanan (1994) in (14, 15) use the term "theme". This reflects a generative tradition where a more restricted set of thematic roles is used.



b. [*tada pitorigo ni aru*]            *ga*    *kuru-si sa*            (MYS 1007)  
 only one.child DAT be.ADN    AGT    painful-do NMLZ  
 ‘I am pained that I am the only child...’

Although the two types of *ga*, genitive *ga* and *ga* marking the clausal complement of psych adjectives, have been widely recognized, the historical relation between the two has not been examined. In (18a-b) the theme argument of psych verbs appears in external argument position marked by *ga* and an unspecified (or implicit) experiencer is an internal argument identified as first person singular (i.e. the speaker).

(18) are apparently related to (16a-b) in that they originate from a psych-transitive predicate with an unspecified first person experiencer object. Thus, (18a) literally means that ‘parting from my mother made me sad’, as represented in (19).

(19) [ ... V.ADN] *ga* [VP PRO<sub>[+ISG]</sub> [AP...]] *si* ‘do’ ]

The clausal subject in (18), as in the case of (16), serves as the causer, thus agentive, of the matrix predicate *po-si* ‘do-wanting’, *kana-si* ‘doing sad’. Below in section 4, I will argue that after OJ, this psych transitive construction was reanalyzed as intransitive, taking a single theme argument; this was the historical source of nominative *ga*.

### 3.3 DSM in syntax

In subsection 3.1, I show that DSM effects identified at the argument structure within *vP* constitute semantically motivated case alternation between *ga* and zero. In this section, we discuss the other type of DSM associated with the alternation between *no* and *zero*. The latter type of DSM occurs when the subject NP is located in the position lower on the nominal hierarchy. A primary question to be addressed is: What is the difference between *no*-marked NP and *zero*-marked NPs, given that both appear on the nominals whose semantic features are lower in the hierarchy? Examples (20a-b) indicate that OJ has DSM associated with a specific/non-specific distinction on a par with DSM in Turkish and other languages with genitive subjects in nominalized clauses:

- (20) a. [*u no pana no saku*] *tukwi tati-nu* (MYS 4066)  
 deutzia GEN flower GEN bloom month pass-PERF  
 ‘it was the month when the deutzia flower blooms’
- b. [*okitu mo no pana Ø saki-tara*]-*ba ware ni tuge koso*  
 offspring seaweed flower bloom-PERF-if I DAT tell FOC  
 ‘If seaweed flowers were to bloom in the offspring, tell me.  
 (But they would not bloom.)’

In (20a) the author composes the song at the sight of the deutzia flower in the garden where the banquet was held, thus referring to a specific entity. In (20b), on the other hand, the flower in the subjunctive conditional *ba* ‘if’-clause is unambiguously non-specific, since it is not at the sight of the author, nor previously mentioned in the preceding context.

In Turkish, as is well known, subjects of subordinate clauses marked by genitive are always specific, but when the subordinate subject is nominative, that is, *zero*-marked, its referent is interpreted as non-specific. Woolford (2008) argues that DSM in Turkish is determined at the level of syntax. Consider (21a-c).

(21) Turkish (Turkic; Kornfilt 2003)

- a. [*(bir)ari-nin bugün cocug-u sok-tug –un*]-*u duy-du-m*  
 bee-GEN today child-ACC sting-F.NOM-3SG-ACC hear PST-1SG  
 ‘I heard that the bee/a bee (+specific) stung the child today.’
- b. [*cocug-u bugün (bir)ari sok-tug –un*]-*u duy-du-m*  
 child-ACC today bee sting-F.NOM-3sg-ACC hear PST-1SG  
 ‘I heard that today bees/a bee [-specific] stung the child.’
- c. \*[(*bir)ari Ø cocug-u bugün sok-tug –un*]-*u duy-du-m*  
 bee child-Acc today sting-F.Nom-3sg-Acc hear Past-1sg  
 ‘I heard that today bees/a bee [-specific] stung the child.’

As originally observed by Kornfilt (2003, 2009), genitive subjects move outside *vP*, thus, appearing before the object (21a). Unmarked nominative subjects in subordination must appear adjacent to the verb, resulting in OSV order (21b-c). OJ *no*-marked vs. *zero* marked subjects behave exactly like Turkish, as evidenced by (22a-b).

(22) Old Japanese

- a. *ipe pito no idura-to ware wo topa-ba ikani ipa-mu* (MYS 3689)  
home someone GEN where-that I OBJ ask-if how say-AUX  
'How should (I) say if someone in your family asks me where (you) are?'
- b. *waga kosi wo pito Ø mike-mu kamo* (MYS 2665)  
IP.AGT coming OBJ someone see-FUT.ADN Q  
'Would someone see me coming?'

In (22a), the *no*-marked subject *pito* 'person' has a SPECIFIC reading; it picks out someone in the family member.<sup>12</sup> Example (22b), in contrast, has a NON-SPECIFIC reading: the existence of a set of individuals is completely undefined in previous discourse. Subjects marked by *no*, unlike *ga*-marked subjects, can appear preceding the *wo*-marked object. Unmarked subjects, in contrast, appear strictly adjacent to the verb. Yanagida (2007) provides quantitative data for zero-marked subjects in the *Man'yōshū*. For a total of 667 zero-marked subjects found in *Man'yōshū*, 580 occur immediately adjacent to the verb and 9 instances of non-conclusive transitive clauses have the pattern [Object *wo* Subject Ø V], given in (22b). These examples, however, without exception, appear in main clauses (Yanagida 2007:183). Transitive subjects are never marked *zero* in embedded clauses.<sup>13</sup>

The word order facts indicate that OJ nominalized clauses employ DSM in parallel to DOM associated with a specific/non-specific distinction. They are configurationally determined in the syntax. While the zero-marked subject of transitive verbs remains in the external argument position, namely the specifier of *vP*, the subject marked by genitive moves to the specifier of TP. This is represented in (23).

<sup>12</sup> I assume that SPECIFIC entities presuppose the existence of a set of individuals; the set of individuals is discourse-linked and refers to a previously mentioned set (cf. Enç 1991).

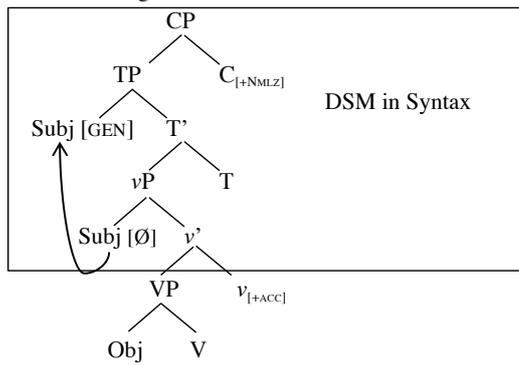
<sup>13</sup> As noted in footnote 5, OJ displays main/embedded split case systems. In main clauses, the subjects of both transitive and intransitive verbs are marked by *zero*.

コメントの追加 [CC8]: Consider adding here the crucial figures from Yanagida 2007.

Yuko:

Thanks. The figures are included.

(23) Nominative-genitive conversion



The genitive subject construction (23) has a nominative-accusative pattern; the genitive subject is case-licensed by  $C_{[+NMLZ]}$ , and the accusative object is case-licensed by  $v$ .

**4. The historical development of nominative *ga***

It is well known that *ga* in both possessor and subject/agent marking functions drastically decreased after OJ. The ratios between *ga* and *no* in the *Man'yōshū* (OJ; 8<sup>th</sup> century) and in *Genji monogatari* (Early Middle Japanese (EMJ); 11<sup>th</sup> century) taken from the Corpus of Historical Japanese (CHI) produced by the National Institute of Japanese Language and Linguistics are given below:

Table 2: The ratios between *ga* and *no* in the *Man'yōshū* (8<sup>th</sup> c.)

	= <i>ga</i>	= <i>no</i>
Subject	372 (48%)	411 (52%)
Possessor	606 (10%)	5711 (90%)
clausal subject	19 (100%)	0

(from Koji 1988)

コメントの追加 [CC9]: What is the difference between “Subject” in the first row and “clausal subjects”? Is it the distinction about the matrix and embedded subject? If so, please specify

Yuko:

As shown in footnote 14, subject refers to NP subjects and clausal subject refers to an adnominal clause serving as the subject of the sentence, as in example (18). The NINJAL corpus is not designed to search main/embedded clauses.

Clausal subjects = Sentential subjects. They are subjects that are themselves clauses, e.g. “That John is a fool is obvious.”

Table 3: The ratios between *ga* and *no* in *Genji Monogatari* (ca. 1008)<sup>14</sup>

	= <i>ga</i>	= <i>no</i>
Subject	57 (4%)	1358 (96%)
Possessor	78 (0.7%)	11302 (99.3%)
clausal subject	261(98%)	4 (2%)

(CHJ)

These two tables indicate that *ga* in both subject and possessor functions was significantly reduced in *Genji monogatari*, written in the Early Middle Japanese (EMJ) period. In *Genji*, 39 out of 57 tokens of *ga*-marked subjects are personal pronouns, of which 24 are first person *waga*, which was already the lexicalized first person pronominal form for both possessor and subject. In contrast, instances of *ga* marking clausal subjects which select psych-predicates, as illustrated in (18), drastically increases after OJ.<sup>15</sup>

A further significant change in EMJ is that the OSV dominant order associated with *ga* was completely lost. This change directly results from the fact that **transitive subjects** were no longer marked by *ga* in EMJ, but came to be either *zero*-marked or marked by genitive *no* as in (24), resulting in [S (no) O wo V] basic word order, as represented in (24).

(24) Early Middle Japanese

[*ki no miti no takumi*] *no*      *yorodu no mono wo tukuri idasu mo*  
 wood GEN tool GEN craftsman GEN.SUBJ various GEN thing OBJ make out EXCL  
 ‘The craftsman invents various things.’

(Papakigi; *Genji*)

These observations suggest that EMJ is characterized as displaying the transition from

<sup>14</sup> The quantitative data taken from the corpus is limited to the sequence of Noun+*ga/no* Verb (Subject), Noun+*ga/no*+Noun (Possessor), and Adnominal Clause+*ga/no* +Verb respectively, due to the design of the corpus. It is therefore not precisely the total occurrence of *ga/no* in the subject/possessor/clausal patterns.

<sup>15</sup> The NINJAL corpus is not designed to make distinctions between clause types. However, it is well known among traditional Japanese grammarians that the subject marker *ga/no* is restricted to what Yanagida & Whitman (2009) identified as nominalized clauses in OJ and EMJ. While *no* remains genitive marker throughout the history, *ga* started to mark the subject in main clauses in Late Middle Japanese (see Table 5 cited from Yamada 2000). By this period, the adnominal endings have been reanalyzed as matrix clause endings.

コメントの追加 [CC10]: Do you mean embedded or already matrix subjects?

Yuko:

In EMJ it is known that *ga* is used to mark the subject of embedded clauses, but not of main clauses. I simply follow here Yamada’s (2000) point that as in Table 5, *ga* started to appear in main clauses in the late 16 th century. The main/embedded distinctions are not searchable by the NINJAL corpus. Footnote 15 is inserted.

コメントの追加 [CC11]: Give an example

Yuko:

Yes, the example is inserted in (24).

an active system to an accusative system. In the following, I will discuss three possible scenarios for this shift in alignment in the history of Japanese.

### Scenario 1: Antipassive > Accusative

A number of researchers propose that alignment change from ergative/active to accusative arises as a result of reanalysis of antipassives (cf. Harris & Campbell 1995, Bittner & Hale 1996, Aldridge 2011).<sup>16</sup> The transition from ergative to accusative begins when the oblique object in antipassives is reanalyzed as accusative. This explanation for alignment change may be applicable to ergative languages that have antipassive constructions. Not all languages do, of course: Dryer & Haspelmath (2013) in WALS online identify 14 ergative and 2 active languages with no antipassives. OJ had no antipassives. Thus the reanalysis of antipassives is not a possible diachronic pathway from **non-accusative** to accusative for Japanese.

### Scenario 2: Active > Nominative

Harris & Campbell (1995: 258) describe as a possible but hypothetical change a shift from active to accusative alignment caused by reanalysis of an active case marker as nominative.<sup>17</sup> King (1988) suggests a somewhat similar hypothesis on the basis of the view that the Korean nominative marker *-i* was originally an ergative marker that underwent a shift to nominative, as shown in Table 4. King hypothesizes that *-i* originates as an ergative case and the nominative function of *-i* arises as a result of ergative *-i* coming to mark intransitive subjects.

Table 4: Alignment change in Korean (King 1988)

	Direct Object	Subject Intransitive	Subject Transitive
Before change: Ergative	Ø	Ø	<i>-i</i>
After change: Accusative	Ø/-l	Ø/ <i>-i</i>	Ø/ <i>-i</i>

However, Whitman & Yanagida (2015) show that King's hypothesis is not supported by the Korean data. In the case of Japanese, ModJ nominative *ga* does not directly descend

<sup>16</sup> In antipassives, the external argument has absolute status rather than ergative, while the notional object is either dropped or marked as an oblique.

<sup>17</sup> Klimov (1974, 1977) also suggests that the development from active into nominative is a widespread development.

コメントの追加 [CC12]: Again, I am not sure OJ was non-accusative.

It seems that the nominal hierarchy splitting the cluster A/S into animate (*ga*), specific (*no*) and inanimate (?) non-specific (*zero*) does not yield ergativity or active-type language.

Yuko: OJ is non-accusative. The transitive subject is marked by *ga* (or *no*), but never marked by *zero*. Intransitive subjects are marked by *zero* (or *no*), but never marked by *ga*.

An alternation between *ga/no* is determined by the position in the nominal hierarchy. By contrast, the alternation between *no/zero* is determined by specificity.

コメントの追加 [CC13]: Note that Klimov is considered as out-dated by some.

Moreover, I am not sure your notion of active and his are identical, hence, the implications may not be applied straightforwardly to you.

Yuko:

It does not matter if Klimov is considered outdated by some. Klimov is responsible for a specific hypothesis about active > accusative shifts that we are citing here. There is a direct continuity between Klimov's notion of active alignment and Mithun's, and it is the latter I use in this paper.

コメントの追加 [CC14]: This is unclear. If *-i* marked only A's then it was not an active but rather an ergative system. If it marked both all A's and some S's, then yes, it was active language. Please be more specific here to avoid misunderstandings ☺.

Yuko:

Thanks. I revised Table 4. King in fact suggests that *-i* was ergative, and shifted to nominative.

from OJ genitive *ga* used to mark active subjects. *Ga* became highly infrequent as an NP subject marker in EMJ around the 9-10th centuries.

Yamada (2000) examines the reappearance of *ga* as nominative in the text known as the *Amakusa Heike*, which was published in the late 16th century. Table 5, cited from Yamada (2000), shows that while subject marker *ga* was restricted to embedded clauses in OJ and EMJ, it started to reappear in main clauses in Late Middle Japanese (LMJ).

Table 5: *Ga* in main clauses (Amakusa Heike 1592, Yamada 2000)<sup>18</sup>

	Genitive	transitive	unergative	adjective	unaccusative	total
Ga	0(0%)	2(2%)	13 (16%)	15(18%)	54(64%)	84(100%)

According to Yamada, nominative *ga* in LMJ starts out as a marker for the subject of intransitive verbs, in particular, unaccusative verbs, and rarely marks the subject of transitive verbs. *Ga* appears on transitive subjects after the mid 17 century. Table 6 presents the ratios between *ga* and *no* in the *Toraakira-bon* published in 1642.

Table 6: the ratios between *ga* and *no* in the *Toraakira bon* (1642)

	= <i>ga</i>	= <i>no</i>
Subject	1622 (76%)	503 (24%)
Possessor	353 (7%)	5267 (93%)
clausal subject	20 (100%)	0 (0%)

(CHJ)

The data in the *Toraakira bon* reveal that transitive clauses came to appear in the canonical [S *ga* O *wo* V] pattern in Early Modern Japanese (EModJ, 1600-1800), as shown by the data in (25):

- (25) Early Modern Japanese (*Toraakira bon* 1642)
- ano mono **ga** orusu **wo** itase-ba...
- that person NOM watch.house ACC do-if
- 'if that person watches over the house...'

<sup>18</sup> The *Amakusa Heike* is a romanized version of the *Heike Monogatari*. It was composed as a textbook to teach Japanese to foreign missionaries.

コメントの追加 [CC15]: Is this a year or just a reference?

Yuko:

This is the year, as mentioned above.

コメントの追加 [CC16]: But is this really an independent clause? Since it has "if" which may function as subordinator (e.g. in German "if" yields subordinate clause syntax)

Yuko:

This is the dependent clause. I cited this example in order to show that [S *ga* O *wo* V] started to appear in EMJ.

These facts raise a basic question concerning the assumption that case systems shift from active to accusative: If OJ active *ga* is the ancestor of ModJ nominative *ga*, why did *ga* decrease drastically in frequency in EMJ only to reappear in unaccusative rather than transitive verbs.

To account for these facts, I propose a third scenario; that is, a global shift from active to nominative never took place in Japanese. Instead, change in the semantic features of individual case markers, *ga* and *wo*, reorganized the overall grammatical structure of the language.

### Scenario 3: Impersonal psych transitive > Intransitive

Japanese is a so-called pro-drop language throughout its history; sentences often contain no overt subject. This means that learners of OJ were presented with scant evidence that the object moved to the left of the subject, since direct evidence for OSV would be available only in sentences with overt subjects. As a result, object movement was eventually lost. The loss of object movement then results in a reanalysis of *wo* as a pure structural accusative case.<sup>19</sup> The reanalysis of *wo* subsequently led to another change. That is, *ga*-marked subjects were unable to remain in the specifier of *vP*. Yanagida (forthcoming) proposes that this is attributable to the subject *in-situ* generalization (SSG), originally proposed by Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou (A&A) (2001). The SSG is analyzed as the general condition on structural case, which states that if two DP arguments are merged in the *vP* domain, at least one of them must externalize. A&A argue that the SSG applies synchronically in a variety of constructions across languages. I suggest that the SSG provides a diachronic explanation for the loss of *ga* marked subjects of transitive verbs. That is, once *wo* was reanalyzed as structural accusative and the object remained inside *vP* domain, the subject was no longer able to stay in the specifier of *vP*; it must move outside *vP*. This results in the dramatic increase in tokens of the [DP *no* DP *wo* V] construction (23).

Recall that (26) is the impersonal psych transitive construction that involves an implicit first person experiencer object.

<sup>19</sup> Frellesvig, Horn and Yanagida (in this volume) argue that DOM is no longer operative in EMJ. In EMJ, *wo* was established as the structural accusative case. Its range of use was expanded to mark direct objects even with non-specific reading. Because of this change, the division between *wo* marked objects and unmarked objects became semantically opaque.

コメントの追加 [CC17]: Do you imply that "watch" above is unaccusative? (I think it may be both depending on the control properties of the experiencer) If so please indicate that you treat watch as unaccusative.

Yuko:

"watch.house (house-sitting)" is a deverbal noun; it is marked by *wo*. It is the object of the transitive verb 'do'. This is an example AFTER the change, when *-wo* has begun to appear in transitive clauses.

コメントの追加 [CC18]: Alternatively, one could say that *wo* has been expanded onto all objects including postverbal ones and non-specific ones.

Yuko:

We don't know exactly how the reanalysis of *wo* as accusative relates historically to the loss of DOM. So I would rather leave it as it is.

- (26) [papa wo panarete yuku] **ga** kana-si sa (MYS 4338)  
 mother OBJ part go.ADN AGT sad-do NMLZ  
 ‘I am sad about parting from Mother.’

As shown in Table 6 above, examples like (26) significantly increased in frequency after OJ. Some examples are given in (27) cited by Ohno (1977:142). Ohno (1977, 1987) observes that in EMJ, adnominal clauses marked by *ga* are used predominantly with psych predicates with a first person experiencer (27a), as is the case in OJ, but that they began to appear with non-psych intransitive verbs (27b).

(27) Early Middle Japanese

- a. [kokorobape wo mi-ru] **ga** wokasi-u mo (Kocho, Genji)  
 kindness ACC see-ADN AGT thankful-CONCL EXCL  
 ‘Seeing (someone’s) kindness makes (me) thankful.’
- b. [kumo no usuku watare-ru] **ga** nibi iro na-ru wo (Usugumo, Genji)  
 cloud GEN shallow pass away-ADN AGT red color become-ADN EXCL  
 ‘the clouds passing thinly away become red’

In (27b) the adnominal clause marked by *ga* is the subject of a non-psych intransitive verb, and it involves no implicit first person experiencer. A further change in EMJ is that while this psych predicate construction was used only in nominalized clauses in OJ, it came to appear in non-nominalized main clauses as in (27a). Based on Middle Japanese (MJ, 800-1600) data, I hypothesize that ModJ nominative *ga* is descended from *ga* marking the clausal complements of psychological predicates. Following Ohno’s observations and data collected from the corpus, nominative *ga* developed as a result of a reanalysis of impersonal psych-transitive as intransitive where the *ga* marked argument came to be the sole argument of the predicate, that is, nominative. *Ga* reappeared in LMJ as a nominative postposition, marking the theme argument of intransitives, and it was extended to mark the subjects of transitive verbs in EModJ. This scenario gives a straightforward explanation for why nominative *ga* started to mark the subject of intransitive verbs, as observed by Yamada (2000).

## 5. Summary

I have argued that the semantic opposition between case marked vs. *zero* marked subjects in OJ nominalized clauses show two types of DSM effects which fit with well-established crosslinguistic patterns. I have also argued that the reanalysis of *wo* as structural accusative is a direct cause of the loss of active *ga* marking the subject of transitive verbs. The quantitative data in EMJ and LMJ suggest that nominative *ga* emerges as a result of a reanalysis of psych-transitive predicates as intransitive where the *ga* marked argument is the sole argument of the predicate. It has been widely believed that case systems change from non-accusative to accusative or accusative to non-accusative alignment. The OJ data support the view that case systems do not merely shift from one alignment to another due to a single change. Instead, a cascade of changes in the morphological/semantic features of individual case markers, as exemplified by OJ and EMJ *ga* and *wo*, occur over time, eventually leading to overall change of case marking systems in a given language.

### Digitalized texts

The Corpus of Historical Japanese, the National Institute of Japanese Language and Linguistics, <https://maro.ninjal.ac.jp/>

The Oxford Corpus of Old Japanese, <http://vsarpj.orinst.ox.ac.uk/corpus/>

*Man'yōshū* Kensaku, Yamaguchi University

[http://infux03.inf.edu.yamaguchi-u.ac.jp/~manyou/ver2\\_2/manyou.php](http://infux03.inf.edu.yamaguchi-u.ac.jp/~manyou/ver2_2/manyou.php)

### References

- Aissen, Judith. 2003. Differential object marking: Iconicity vs. economy. *Natural language & Linguistic Theory* 21:435-448.
- Aldridge, Edith. 2004. *Ergativity and word order in Austronesian languages*. Ithaca: Cornell University. (Doctoral dissertation.)
- Aldridge, Edith. 2008. Generative approaches to ergativity. *Language and linguistics compass: Syntax and morphology* 2.5: 966-995.
- Aldridge, Edith. 2011. Antipassive in Austronesian alignment change. *Grammatical change: origins, nature, outcomes*. In Dianne Jonas, John Whitman, Andrew Garrett (eds), 331-345. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Alexiadou, Artemis & Elena Anagnostopoulou. 2001. The subject-in-situ generalization and the role of case in driving computations. *Linguistic Inquiry* 32(2). 193-231.
- Anand, Pranav & Andrew Nevins. 2006. The locus of ergative case assignment: Evidence from scope, In Alana Johns, Diane Massam, & Juvenal Ndayiragije (eds), *Ergativity: Emerging Issues, Studies in Natural language and Linguistic Theory*, 3-25. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Bittner, Maria & Ken Hale. 1996. The structural determination of case and agreement. *Linguistic Inquiry* 27.1-68.
- Comrie, Bernard. 1973. The ergative: variations on a theme. *Lingua* 32, 239-253.
- Comrie, Bernard. 1978. Ergativity. In W.P. Lehmann (ed.), *Syntactic Typology: Studies in the Phenomenology of Language*. 329-74. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Chomsky, Noam. 1981. *Lectures in Government and Binding*. (Studies in generative grammar 9.) Dordrecht: Foris.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2001. Minimalist inquiries: the framework. In Roger Martin, David Michaels & Juan Uriagereka (eds.), *Step by step: Essays on minimalist syntax in honor of Howard Lasnik*, 89-156. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Dahlstrom, Amy. 1983. Agent-patient languages and split case marking systems. *Proceedings of the 9th Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistic Society, BLS 9*. 37-46.
- Diesing, Molly. 1992. *Indefinites*. Cambridge, MA. : MIT Press.
- Dixon, R. M.W. 1979. Ergativity. *Language* 55. 59-138.
- Dryer, Matthew S. & Martin Haspelmath. 2013. *WALS online*.
- Enç Mürvet. 1991. The semantics of specificity. *Linguistic Inquiry* 22. 1-25.
- Frellesvig, Bjarke. 2010. *A history of the Japanese language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Frellesvig, Bjarke, Stephen Horn, & Yuko Yanagida. 2015. Differential object marking in Old Japanese: A corpus based study. In Dag Haug et al. (eds.), *Historical linguistics: Current issues in linguistic theory*. 195-211. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Harris, Alice, & Lyle Campbell. 1995. *Historical syntax in cross-linguistic perspective*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kageyama Taro. 1980. *Goi no kozo*. Shohakusha, Tokyo.

- Kikuta, Ciharu. 2012. *Jodai Nihongo no ga-kaku nituite* (On the case marker *ga* in Old Japanese) *Dosisha Daigaku Jinbun Gakkai* (The Literary Association), Doshisha University 89. 89-123.
- King, Ross. 1988. Towards a history of transitivity in Korean. (Paper given at the 24th Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society.)
- Klimov, Georgij A. 1974. On the character of languages of active typology. *Linguistics* 131. 11-25.
- Klimov, Georgij A. 1977. *Tipologija jazykov aktivnogo stroja* [Typology of languages of the active type]. Moscow: Nauka.
- Koji, Kazuteru. 1988. *Man'yōshū joshi no kenkyū*. Tokyo: Kasama Shoin.
- Kornfilt, Jaklin. 2003. Subject case in Turkish nominalized clauses. In Uwe Junghanns & Luka Szusich (eds.), *Syntactic structures and morphological information*, 130-214. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kornfilt, Jaklin. 2009. DOM and two types of DSM in Turkish. In Helen de Hoop & Peter de Swart (eds.), *Differential subject marking*, 79-111. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Legate, Julie. 2002. *Warlpiri: Theoretical implications*. MIT. (Doctoral dissertation.)
- Legate, Julie. 2008. Morphological and abstract case. *Linguistic Inquiry* 39(1). 55-101.
- Mithun, Marianne. 1991. Active/agentive case marking and its motivations. *Language* 67(3). 510-546.
- Miyagawa, Shigeru. 1989. *Structure and case marking in Japanese*. *Syntax and semantics* 22. New York: Academic Press.
- Mohanan, Tara. 1994. *Argument structure in Hindi*. Stanford: CSLI Publications, Center for the Study of Language and Information.
- Nomura, Takashi. 1993. Jōdaigo no *no* to *ga* ni tsuite [On the particles *no* and *ga* in Old Japanese]. *Kokugo Kokubun* 62. 1-17.
- Ohno, Susumu. 1977. Shukaku joshi *ga* no seiritsu [The development of the nominative case particle *ga*], *Bungaku* 45. 102-117.
- Ohno, Susumu. 1987. *Bunpo to goi* [The grammar and the lexicon] Tokyo: Iwanai.
- Robbeets, Martine. 2015. *Diachrony of verb morphology: Japanese and the transeurasian language*. Mouton de Gruyter.
- Silverstein, Michael. 1976. Hierarchy of features and ergativity. In Dixon R.M.W. (ed.), *Grammatical categories in Australian languages*, 112-171. Canberra: Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies.

- Whitman, John. 2008. The source of the bigrade conjugation and stem shape in pre-Old Japanese. In Frellesvig, Bjarke & John Whitman (eds.) *Proto-Japanese*, 159-174. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Whitman, John & Yuko Yanagida. 2015. A Korean grammatical borrowing in Early Middle Japanese kunten texts and its relation to the syntactic alignment of earlier Korean and Japanese. *Japanese/Korean Linguistics* 21. 121-135.
- Woolford, Ellen. 1997. Four-way case systems: Ergative, nominative, objective, and accusative. *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* 15. 181-227.
- Woolford, Ellen. 2008. Differential subject marking at argument structure, syntax and PF. In Helen de Hoop & Peter de Swart (eds.), *Differential subject marking*, 17-40. Dordrecht: Springer.
- Yamada, Masahiro. 2000. Shugo hyôji *ga* no seiryoku kakudai no yôso [The expansion of the use of the subject denotor *ga*: A comparison between the original text of the *Tale of Heike* and Amakusaban *Heike*]. *Kokugogaku* 51(1). 1-14.
- Yanagida, Yuko. 2007. Jôdaigo no nôkakusei ni tsuite [On ergativity in Old Japanese]. In *Nihongo no shubun genshō* [Main clause phenomena in Japanese], ed. by Nobuko Hasegawa, 147-188. Tokyo: Hituzi Shobo.
- Yanagida, Yuko & John Whitman. 2009. Alignment and word order in Old Japanese. *Journal of East Asian Linguistics* 18. 101-144.
- Yanagida, Yuko. forthcoming. Differential argument marking (DAM) and object movement: A revision of Yanagida & Whitman (2009). In Nishiyama Kunio, Hideki Kishimoto & Edith Aldridge (eds). *Topics in Theoretical Asian Linguistics*. John Benjamins.