



Japanese Particles in an HPSG Grammar

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1 Introduction

In Japanese, case markers and other particles occur after the phrases they mark. Particles can have various functions:

- Case particles mark subcategorized verbal arguments.
- $\bullet\,$ Postpositions mark adjuncts and have semantic attributes.
- Topic particles mark topic or topicalized verbal adjuncts.
- ullet no marks an attributive nominal adjunct.

A comprehensive investigation of Japanese particle was missing up to now. General implications were set up without the fact that a comprehensive analysis was carried out. [PS94] mention a manuscript that was written by Tomabechi in 1989 that seems not to be available any more. Two kinds of solutions have previously been proposed: (1) The particles are divided into case particles and postpositions. The latter build the heads of their phrases, while the former do not (cf. [Miy86]). (2) All kinds of particles build the head of their phrases (cf. [Gun87]). Both kinds of analyses lead to problems: If postpositions are heads, while case particles are nonheads, a sufficient treatment of those cases where two or three particles occur sequentially is not possible, as we will show. If on the other hand there is no distinction of particles, it is not possible to encode their different behaviour in subcategorization and modification.

We offer a lexicalist treatment of the problem. Instead of assuming different phrase structure rules we state a type hierarchy of Japanese particles. This makes a uniform treatment of phrase structure as well as a differentiation of subcategorization patterns possible.

Our analysis is based on a large amount of dialogue data. 800 Japanese dialogues concerning appointment scheduling were collected and transcribed in the Verbmobil project, which deals with English, German and Japanese machine translation¹. These are the basis for the development of the Japanese syntax in Verbmobil. The HPSG² syntax that is described in this paper is used for the deep analysis of Japanese dialogues in the project. We clarify the questions which common characteristics and differences between the individual particles exist. A classification in categories was carried out. After that a model hierarchy could be set up for an HPSG grammar. The simple distinction into case particles and postpositions was proved to be as not sufficient.

2 The Japanese Particles

2.1 ga

In most cases the ga-marked noun phrase is the subject of the sentence:

However, this is not always the case. Notably stative verbs subcategorize for ga-marked objects. An example is the stative verb dekimasu:

These and other cases are sometimes called 'double-subject constructions' in the literature. But these ga-marked noun phrases do not behave like subjects. They

¹see [Wah97] for further information

 $^{^{2}[}PS94]$

are not subject to restrictions on subject honorification or reflexive binding. This can be shown by the following example:

yukkuri hanashi dekimasu no hou ga gogo ga(3)afternoon NO side GAat ease talking GAcan ne SAP

(We can talk at ease in the afternoon.)

hanashi does not meet the semantic restriction [+animate] stated by the verb dekimasu for its subject. Nor is it constrained by subject honorification or subject binding of jibun in the following variants:

(4) watashi ga yukkuri hanashi ga dekite-orimasu I GA at ease talking GA can-HON $(I \ can \ talk \ at \ ease.)$

The honorification of dekite-orimasu does not refer to hanashi, but to watashi.

(5) jibun ga yukkuri hanashi ga dekimasu self GA at ease talking GA can
(? can talk at ease.)

The antecedent of jibun in 5) is outside of the sentence. There are even ga-marked adjuncts, as in example 3) and the following:

go-tsugou yoroshii deshou itsu ka. ga ga (6)when **HON-circumstances** GACOP QUE GAgood (When does it suit you?)

The first NP-ga in these examples (3 and 6) is not a subject. It is not subcategorized for by the verb. It is the interrogative word in 6) that is marked by ga. dekimasu in 3) subcategorizes for two ga-marked NPs, but gogo no hou ga can neither be the subject nor the object, as it does not fulfill the semantic restrictions for these. [Kur92] assumes these 'double-subject constructions' to be derived from genitive relations. This means that the following sentence from [Far84] is derived from one with a no-marked NP:

- (7) yama ga ki ga kirei desu mountain GA tree GA pretty COP (The mountains: Their trees are pretty.)
- (8) yama no ki ga kirei desu mountain NO tree GA pretty COP (The mountain's trees are pretty.)

But this analysis seems not to be true for example 3), because the following sentence is wrong:

*gogo hou yukkuri hanashi dekimasu no no ga(9)side GAtalk GAafternoon NOat ease canSAP

ga marks a verbal adjunct in this example.

To summarize, ga is a case particle that usually marks the sentence subject. Sometimes the object is marked by ga. This means that the grammatical function is not allocated by the case particle, but by the verbal valence. In some cases ga can even mark an adjunct.

2.2 *o*

The case particle o normally marks the direct object of the sentence:

Sawada no hou zasshi intabyuu ga no (10)NO PNside GAjournal NO interview 0 ukemasu node SAP give

(Sawada gives an interview to a journal.)

In contrast to ga, no two complements may be marked by o. This restriction is called 'Double-o-Constraint' in research literature (see, for example, [Tsu96]:249ff.). Consider the following examples from the Verbmobil corpus:

kakuniN koNdou $_{
m ni}$ mo saido O shite mimasu (11)PNNItooagain confirmation O do try keredomo SAP

(I will confirm (it) with Mrs. Kondou again.)

(12) koNdou no sukejuuru o kakuniN itashimasu PN NO plan O confirmation HON-do (I confirm Mrs Kondou's schedule.)

suru can occur with an o marked argument or with an unmarked argument. The argument kakuniN is marked with o in 11) and not marked in 12). The marking in 12) would not be possible, according to the 'double-o constraint', because there is already an o-marked argument in the sentence:

The restriction is not valid for embedded sentences:

koNdou keNkyuushitsu jitsueN hou de no O (14)PNDEinstitute side 0 NO presentation suru to iu yotei o tatete iru N desu keredomo do 0 built COP SAP COMPL plan (There is a plan to perform the presentation at Mr Kondou's institute.)

Actually there are some violations of the restriction in the Verbmobil data corpus. Examples are:

kyou o-deNwa shita no wa hoN(P) (h) /eto/ (15)today telephone did NO WA book shuppaN geNkou suru tame ni o o sono O publication that 0 tun because manuscript kou shitara itsu issho $_{
m ni}$ uchiawase o when joint NIappointment 0 do(Kond) so to iu o-deNwa yoroshii ka koto de(P) telephone good QUE COMPL NOM DEitadaita N desu keredomo sashite HON COP doSAP

(This is the reason, why I am calling today: When would it suit you to have a joint discussion of that manuscript?)

uchi no satou gakkaishi no ga (16)(P) /ano/ NO PNGAacademic journal NO we koNdou tokushuu shuppitsu keikaku no (P) (h) 0 PNspecial edition NO article timetable seNseiuchiawase shitai moushite t.o O to Prof. 0 TO with appointment want to do say orimashita keredomo AUX-Past SAP

(Our Mr. Satou said that he would like to agree upon an appointment to discuss the timetable for the article in the special edition of the academic journal.)

But these examples were described as not acceptable by Japanese native speakers. They are very complex. In both cases there are pauses between the o marked entities. The o marked nominal phrases sono geNkou and gakkaishi no tokushuu no shuppitsu keikaku are not subcategorized by uchiawase. The examples become acceptabe if one replaces o with nitsuite and thus marks the NPs as adjuncts. These exceptions of the 'double-o-constraint' are therefore rare effects of spoken language and shall not be introduced into the grammar.

Object positions with o-marking as well as subject positions with ga-marking can be saturated only once. There are neither double subjects nor double objects. It will be shown that this restriction is also valid for indirect objects. Found arguments must be assigned a saturated status in the subcategorization frame, so that they cannot be saturated again (as in German and English). The verbs subcategorize for at most one subject, object and indirect object. Only one of these arguments may be marked by o, while a subject and an object may both be marked by ga. These attributes are determined by the verbal valency.

The o-marked argument is not adjacent to the verb³. It is possible to reverse NP-ga and NP-o as well as to insert adjuncts between the arguments and the verb:

³For the notion of adjacency see [Gun91]

- koukaN sashite ikeN shimazu hou no ga (17)opinion exchange PN NO do 0 side GAitadakitai to iu koto o-deNwa sasete itadakimashita de HON-want COMPL NOM DEtelephone do-HON-Past (I've called today because Mr Shimazu would like to exchange opinions (with you))
- (18) paneru disukasshoN o koNdo okonau N desu kedomo panel discussion O next time perform COP SAP (Next time we will perform a panel discussion)

2.3 *ni*

The particle ni can have the function of a case particle as well as that of an adjunct particle modifying the predicate. [SK95] also identify homophoneous ni that can mark adjuncts or complements. They use the notion of 'affectedness' to distinguish them. This is however not useful in our domain. [Ono94] suggest to test the possibility of passivization. This is helpful in many cases.

Some verbs subcategorize for a *ni*-marked object, as for example *naru*:

(19) raigetsu ni naru N desu ga next month NI become COP SAP (It will become next month.)

As ga-marked subjects and o-marked objects ni-marked objects cannot occur twice in the same clause. The 'double-o constraint' is neither a specific Japanese restriction nor a specific peculiarity of the Japanese direct object. It is based on the wrong assumption that grammatical functions are assigned by case particles.

There are a lot of examples with double NP-ni. But these are adjuncts, as in the following one:

keNkyuushitsu juuji ni hou $_{
m ni}$ o-ukagai (20)10 o'clock NIinstitute NO side NIcomeitashimasu AUX-HON

(I'll come to your institute at 10 o'clock.)

ni as a modifying particle can be found very often in temporal or locative expressions in the Verbmobil data.

- (21) saNji ni kaigi ga owarimasu 3 oʻclock NI meeting GA end (The meeting ends at three oʻclock.)
- keNkyuushitsu watakushi sochira ukagawanai gano ni (22)T GANO you institute NI not visit ikenai toomoimasu toSAP ΤO must not do TO think (I think I'll have to come to your institute.)

2.4 de

de can be a verb modifying particle. It has a temporal, locative or instrumental meaning. The temporal meaning of de ist restricted to stative verbs:

juuji gurai kara juuniji $_{\rm made}$ no (23)morning 10 o'clock KARA 12 o'clock MADE NO ca. aida de N desu keredomo yaritai toomou COP interval DEwant to do TO think SAPikaga deshou ka good COP QUE

(I would like to do it between 10 and 12 o'clock in the morning. Would that suit you?)

The locative usage of de is non-directional:

keNkyuushitsu de jikkeN jitsueN shitai no (24)institute experiment NO performance want to do N desu keredomo SAP COP

(I would like to perform the experiment in the institute.)

An example for the instrumental usage is:

(25) basu de kimasu bus DE come (I'll come by bus.)

de ist not described as a case particle in literature on this subject. For example [Tsu96] assigns the particle to the class of postpositions. There are, however, examples in the Verbmobil-corpus that show that de can also mark verbal arguments:

- (26) Nouchi seNsei de gozaimasu ka PN Prof. DE HON-be QUE (Are you Professor Nouchi?)
- ichiji kara saNji gurai no aidade (27)1 o'clock KARA 3o'clock NO interval DEca. ikaga deshou ka QUE COP good

(Would it suit you from one o'clock to three o'clock?)

The verb *irasshaimasu* can take a *de*-marked subject. Constructions with adjective and copula also very often occur with a *de*-marked subject. The verb *aru* can also take a *de*-marked argument, but it is the object in this case. The meaning of such a construction is honorific: sentences with a *de*-marked argument signal subject honorification.

This indicates that de should also be treated as an ambiguous particle.

2.5 *e*

e is a non-ambigous particle. It is verb modifying and has a directional function cooccuring with verbs of movement. e shares this function with ni:

(28) ku ji ni/*e sochira ni/e ukagaimasu 9 o'clock NI/*E you NI/E go
(I'll come to you at 9 o'clock.)

2.6 kara, made, naNka

The postpositions kara and made mark verb modifying adjuncts. These are - as far as the Verbmobil data is concerned - mainly temporal and locative expressions:

o uchi seNsei no kara tooi nodeo hiru (29)Prof. NO **HON-home** KARA far because HON-noon kara shimashou $_{
m ni}$ ka. KARA NIshall do QUE

(Shall we start from noon, because it's far from your home?)

Time periods are realized with $kara \dots made$:

kaigi juuichiji kara hiru gaasa no no (30)NO 11 o'clock KARA NO meeting GAa.m. p.m. ichiji madearimasu keredomo 1 o'clock MADE exist SAP

(There is a meeting from 11 a.m. to 1 p.m.)

kara as well as made can be complements of desu:

(31) $\frac{\text{saNji}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{kara}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{desu}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{ka}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{desu}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{ka}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{desu}}{3}$ $\frac{\text{desu}}$

kara and made are non-ambiguous modifying particles, as e is. I will call them 'postpositions'. They subcategorize for nominal phrases. Another particle in this category is naNka. This word has one function as an adverb and one as a postposition. The postposition naNka marks a verb modifying adjunct. An example is:

(32) gogo naNka o-jikaN yoroshii deshou ka afternoon NANKA HON-time good COP QUE (Would the time in the afternoon be good for you?)

Further postpositions are to-shite and to-shimashite.

2.7 no

no is a particle that modifies nominal phrases. This is an attributive modification and has a wide range of meanings, as the following examples indicate: 4

- $(33) \begin{array}{ccc} hoka & no & hi \\ another & NO & day \\ (another day) \end{array}$
- (34) tsugi no hi next NO day (next day)
- $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{(35)} & \underset{\text{I}}{\text{watakushi}} & \text{no} & & \text{keNkyuushitsu} \\ & \text{I} & & \text{NO} & & \text{institute} \\ & & & \text{(my institute)} \end{array}$
- (36) nijuukunichi no gozenchuu 29th. NO afternoon (the afternoon of the 29th.)
- (37) kyouto daigaku no kawamura Kyoto university NO PN (Kawamura of Kyoto university)

[Tsu96]:134ff. assigns no to the class of case particles. However, the criteria he sets up to distinguish between case particles and postpositions do not apply to this classification of no:

- Tsujimura's postpositions have their own semantic meaning. Case particles have a functional meaning. *no* however has a semantic, namely attributive meaning.
- Tsujimura's postpositions are obligatory in spoken language, case particles are optional. *no* is as obligatory as *kara* and *made*.
- Case particles can as Tsujimura states follow postpositions, but postpositions cannot follow case particles. According to this criterion, *no* behaves like a case particle.

no combines qualities of case particles with those of modifying particles (which Tsujimura calls 'postpositions'). This means that a special treatment of this particle is necessary.

The particle no subcategorizes for a noun, as the other particles do. It also modifies a noun. This separates it from the other modifying particles. NP-no is an adjunct to a nominal phrase. As a result, the analysis of multiple NP-no is possible:

⁴See also [TH96]

seNseikeNkyuushitsu no hou daigaku no no (38)Prof. NO university NO side NO institute N desu ni ukagaeba ii ne go (COND.) NIgood COP SAP

(It would be good to come to your institute, wouldn't it?)

Besides the function of a particle, the word *no* can also have the function of a nominalizer⁵. In this case, it subcategorizes for a verbal head and builds an NP (and can thus be followed by any particle):

o-deNwa koNdo sasete itadaita no wa no (39)HON-telephone do HON NOM WA next NO(PART) koueNkai naN desu kedo COP SAP talk

(I am calling because of the next talk.)

2.8 *wa*

The topic particle wa can mark arguments as well as adjuncts. In the case of argument marking it replaces the case particle (see example 40). In the case of adjunct marking it can replace the verb modifying particle (see example 41) or it can occur after it (see example 42):

- (40) gogo wa aite orimasu node afternoon WA be free HON-AUX SAP (The afternoon is free.)
- nijuuhachinichi getsuyoubi kaigi no wa gagogo (41)28 thNO Monday WA meeting GAafternoon haitte ni orimasu NIbe inserted HON-AUX (On Monday the 28th there is a meeting in the afternoon.)
- koNgetsuchuu zehi o-ai shitai ni wa toomou (42)in this month NIWA certainly want to meet TO think N desu COP SAP

(I would certainly like to meet you within the month.)

The main problem in the syntactic analysis of wa is to decide whether the topic particle marks an argument or an adjunct, when it occurs without a verb modifying particle. This is difficult because of the optionality of verbal arguments in Japanese. If it marks an argument, it has to be decided which grammatical function this argument has. This problem can often not be solved on the purely syntactic level. Semantic restrictions for verbal arguments are necessary:

⁵See [Nig96] for a detailled description of this function of no

dou shimashou basho hou ka no wa (43)place NO side how shall do QUE WA (How shall we resolve the problem of the place?)

Subject and object of the verb *shimashou* are suppressed in this example. The sentence can be interpreted as having a topic adjunct, but no surface subject and object, when using semantic restrictions for the subject (*agentive*) and the object (*situation*).

2.9 mo, koso

mo is similar to wa in some aspects. It can mark a predicative adjunct and can follow de and ni. But it can also follow wa, an adjective and a sentence with question mark:

- (44) gogo de mo kekkou desu afternoon DE MO good COP (It would also be good in the afternoon)
- (45) isogashii mo node ... busy MO because ... (Because I am busy...)
- (46) dekiru ka mo shiremaseN can QUE MO do not know (I don't know if I can)

koso is another topic particle that can occur after nouns, postpositions or adverbial particles.

2.10 to

to fulfills a series of extremely different tasks.

Firstly, to marks complement sentences that are subcategorized for by verbs like omou, iu or kaku. These complement sentences are adjacent:

- (48) sore no hou ga ii to omoimasu that NO side GA good TO think (I think that would be better.)

Secondly, there are intransitive verbs that only subcategorize for the $\it to$ argument:

(49) uchiawase o shinai to ikemaseN ne meeting WO do not TO not go SAP (We have to meet.)

The complement sentence is an utterance that can be marked with sentence particles:

uchiawase shiyou sorosoro o ka to omou (50)soon meeting WO let's do QUE TO think no desu gaNOM COP SAP

(I think we should soon arrange a meeting.)

Other verbs subcategorize for a to marked object:

hi kono $_{
m mo}$ chotto hito toau yotei (51)that day too somewhat people TO meet plan gozaimasu ga GAexist

(That day too, there is a plan to meet some people.)

This object can be optional (as in example 51) or obligatory with verbs like *kuraberu*. The particle behaves like a case particle.

The fourth possibility is that to marks an adjunct to a predicate:

shimizu seNseitoteNjikai go-issho sasete (52)Shimizu Prof. TO exhibition WO together do itadaku HON

(I would like to organize an exhibition with Prof. Shimizu.)

In this case, the adjunct is a PN. But *to* can also mark utterances that are adjuncts to other utterances:

nijuukunichi desu tokaigi haitte orimasuga (53) $29 \mathrm{th}$ COP TOHON meeting GAinserted (If it is the 29th, I have a meeting.)

[Shi98] as well as [IG98] describe the relation as a conditional or temporal relation, and not as a conjunctional one.

to can finally be an NP conjunction (which will not be considered at the moment):

saNjuunichi tosaNjuuichinichi wa chotto mou (54)30 thTO 31rst WA somewhat already yotei haitte orimasu ga HON plan GAinserted

(On the 30th and 31rst there are already plans inserted.)

2.11 Cooccurrence of particles

The discrimination of particles is motivated by their modificational behaviour and by the fact that a Japanese noun phrase can be modified by more than one particle at a time. We carried out an empirical analysis, based on our dialogue data and a questionary with Japanese native speakers⁶. Table 1 shows the possibilities for

⁶Thanks to Atsuko Shimada and Akira Shintani

cooccurrence of some particles.

$left \downarrow / right \rightarrow$	ga	wo	ni	de	e	kara	$_{ m made}$	no	wa	mo	naNka
ga	-	-	•	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
wo	-	-	•	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ni	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
de	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
е	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
kara	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
$_{ m made}$	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-
no	-	-	•	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
wa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
mo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
na Nka	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	-

Table 1: Cooccurrence of Particles

ga can follow the particles ni, de, e, kara, made and no, but not o and wa. Concerning ni and de, it has to be said that they can be followed by ga only in their modifying function, but not in their case marking function:

- (55) juuji ni ga ikaga deshou ka 10 o'clock NI GA good COP SAP (Would 10 o'clock suit you?)
- (56) *raigetsu ni ga naru next month NI GA become

The reason is obvious: ga in combination with another case marking particle would lead to a conflict concerning case marking.

o behaves like ga.

ni can follow de, e, kara, made and no. It cannot follow case particles. Here is an example for kara-ni:

de also cannot follow case particles. It can follow verb modifying particles in its case marking function:

In their modifying function de and ni can follow postpositions, in their case marking function they can follow all kinds of verb modifying particles. It is even possible to have the cooccurrence of the case particle de (respectively ni) with its modifying counterpart:

(Would it suit you (to meet in) Tokyo?)

kara as well as made and e cannot follow any other particles. no can follow some modifying particles, such as de, e, kara and made, but not ni. wa cannot follow case particles or mo, but all other kinds of (analyzed) particles. mo behaves like wa, except that it can follow it.

In some case three particles occur in a row, as for example:

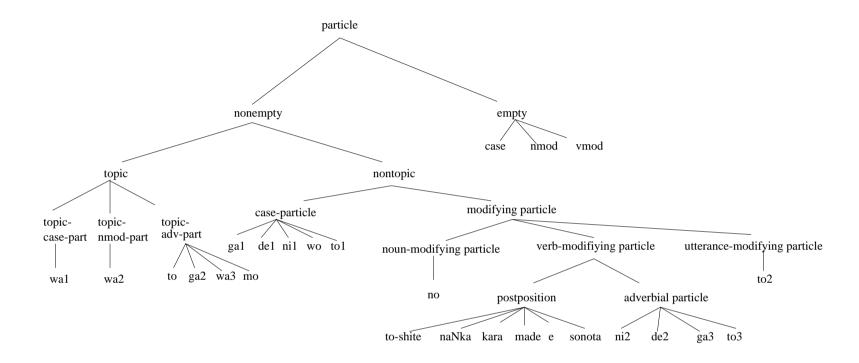
(I will phone you before about 5 o'clock.)

The reason is that wa can follow an adverbial particle ni. This again can follow a postposition. Another linearization like e.g. made-wa-ni or ni-made-wa would not be possible.

3 The Type Hierarchy of Japanese Particles

After considering the individual particles, it is now possible to set up a type hierarchy. We shall then feature the individual types of particles.

Firstly, the Japanese particles have to be divided into empty and nonempty particles. Nonempty particles are those with topic function and without topic function. Non-topic particles are further divided into case particles and modifying particles. Case particles receive an entry for case that makes it possible to be subcategorized for by the verbs. Modifying particles get an entry for MOD, specifying the head they can be adjuncts to. The modifying particles separate into noun modifying, verb modifying and utterance modifying ones. Verb modifying particles are postpositions and adverbial particles:



4 Case Particles

There is no number nor gender agreement between noun phrase and verb. The verbs assign case to the noun phrases. This is marked by the case particles. Therefore these have a syntactic function, but not a semantic one. Different from English the grammatical functions cannot be assigned through positions in the sentence or c-command-relations, since Japanese knows no fixed word position for verbal arguments. Hence, the following variations are possible, for example:

- (61) Hanako ga hon o kaimasu Hanako GA book O buy
- (62) hon o Hanako ga kaimasu book O Hanako GA buy (Hanako buys a book.)

The assignment of the grammatical function is not achieved by the case particle alone but only in connection with the verbal valency. There are verbs that require ga-marked objects, while in most cases the ga-marked argument is the subject:

Japanese is described as a head-final language. [Gun87] therefore assumes only one phrase structure rule: $M \longrightarrow DH$. However, research literature questions whether this also applies to nominal phrases and their case particles. [PS94]:45 also assume Japanese case particles to be markers.

[Miy86] has two arguments for the assumption that the NP is the head in a phrase NP+case particle. He first finds that a distinction between case particles and 'postpositions' is semantically necessary. The reason is that the case particles assign no θ -role to the marked NPs. The second argument concerns the numeral classifiers. They can occur within or outside the NP+case particle (called 'NP' by Miyagawa) which they classify. But they cannot occur outside of an NP+'postposition' (called 'PP' by Miyagawa):

(Exmpl. of [Miy86]: 162):

- hito ga futatsu no chiisai mura kara kita (66)GANO village come(PAST) people smallfrom (People came from two small villages.)

([Miy86]:157):

The restriction that [Miy86]:162 sets up is based on phrase structure:

Definition: X is bijacent to NP, iff:

- X is a sister to NP, or
- X is immediately dominated by a sister of NP.

(Last year 30.000 Americans visited Japan.)

This restriction for numeral classifiers says that the classifier must be bijancent to the antecedent. Thus, every structure in which the antecedent of the numeral classifier is embedded in a PP is excluded.

Bijacency is however not a sufficient restriction for numeral classifiers, as the following example from [GH98] shows:

kyoneN 3,0000-ninAmerikajin Nihon wa. o ga(68)last year GA O 30.000 persons WA Americans Japan otozureta visit (PAST)

It is not possible to set up adequate restrictions on an (exclusively) syntactic base. The phrase-structural distinction between case marked nominal phrases and nominal phrases marked with modifying particles does not further help here. [GH98] show that instead of syntactic restrictions for numeral classificators semantic ones should be used. They use the notions of measurability, coercion, contrastivity and incremental theme in order to explain the phenomena of connection of numeral classifiers and discover two conditions ([GH98]:71):

- a Coercion Coerced quantification caused by an adverbial measurement.
- b *Intervention* Intervention of an adverbially measurable NP in an NP-MP pair.

When both conditions are fulfilled, the sentence is assigned as not accepable.

On the one hand, there are several reasons to distinguish case particles and modifying particles, as has been shown. On the other hand, I doubt whether it is necessary to assume different phrase structures for NP+case particle and NP+modifying particle.

[Yos97]:35 argues that Japanese case particles cannot function as heads, because they can be omitted in spoken language. Ellipsis would be universally seen as a criterion to divide heads and non-heads. However, the ellipsis of heads also often occurs in other languages, as for example in German:

(69) Wen hat Klaus geküßt?
whom has PN kissed

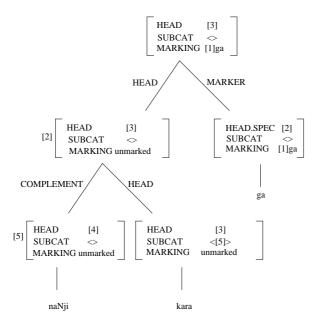
Maria
PN

(Who did Klaus Kiss? - Maria.)

The following example comes from the Verbmobil corpus:

(At what time would you like to start?)

If one now assumes that the modifying particle kara is head of naNji as well as of the case particle ga, the following results for naNji kara ga with the head-marker structure described in [PS94]:⁷



The case particle ga would have to allow nouns and modifying particles in SPEC. The latter are however normally adjuncts that modify verbal projections, as the following example shows:

(Would it suit you if we come to your institute?)

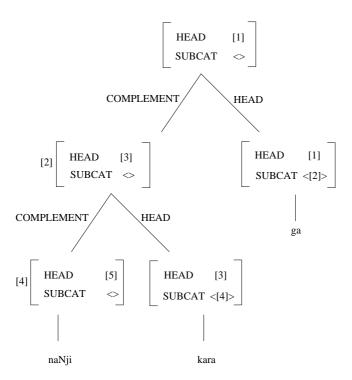
Therefore the head of kara entails the information that it can modify a verb. This information is inherited to the head of the whole phrase by the Head-Feature

 $^{^7}$ The Marking Principle says: In a headed phrase, the MARKING value is token-identical with that of the MARKER-DAUGHTER if any, and with that of the HEAD-DAUGHTER otherwise [PS94].

Principle as is to be seen in the tree above.⁸ As a result, this is also admitted as an adjunct to a verb, which leads to wrong analyses for the following sentences:

- *naNji sochirakara ga ga jikaN ga(72)what time from GAyou GAtime GAcan take QUE
- *seminaa GAnaNji irasshaimasu haitte kara ga(73)AUX-HON seminar GAwhat time GAfrom inserted ka

If, on the other hand, case particles and topic markers are heads, one receives a consistent and correct processing of this kind of example too. This is because the head information [MOD none] is given from the particle ga to the head of the phrase $naNji\ kara\ ga$. Thus this phrase is not admitted as an adjunct:



[PS94] describe english complementizers as markers. However, a problem results, if to is described as a marker. Let's have a look at the following sentence:

⁸The Head Feature Principle says: The HEAD value of any headed phrase is structure-shared with the HEAD value of the head daughter.[PS94].

(If it is like this, it will be a lot earlier.)

The complement sentence *sou narimasu* cannot be adjunct to a sentence or a VP. Therefore its head contains the entry [MOD none]:

The complement sentence with to – on the other hand – can modify a sentence, as example 74) shows. It must therefore have the information [MOD utterance] in his head. The modification could not be realized, if to would be marker and sou narimasu would be head. Thus, we view to as the head of its phrase⁹.

Instead of assuming different phrase structure rules, a distinction of the kinds of particles can be based on lexical types. HPSG offers the possibility to define a common type and to set up specifications for the different types of particles.

We assume Japanese to be head-final in this aspect also. All kinds of particles are analysed as heads of their phrases.

The relation between case particle and nominal phrase is a 'Complement-Head' relation. The complement is obligatory and adjacent, as the following examples show:

- $\begin{array}{cc} (76) & {\rm *ga} \\ {\rm GA} \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{ccc}
 \text{ie} & \text{ga} \\
 \text{house} & \text{GA}
 \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{cccc} (78) & \begin{array}{cccc} \text{ookii} & \text{ie} & \text{ga} \\ \text{large} & \text{house} & \text{GA} \end{array} \\ & \text{(the large house)} \end{array}$
- (79) sono ookii ie ga that large house GA (that large house)
- $(80) \begin{array}{c} *ie & ookii & ga \\ house & large & GA \end{array}$
- (81) $_{\text{house}}^{\text{*ie}}$ sono ookii ga $_{\text{house}}$ that large $_{\text{GA}}$

Normally the case particle ga marks the subject, the case particle o the direct object and the case particle ni the indirect object. There are, however, many exceptions. We therefore use predicate-argument-structures instead of a direct assignment of grammatical functions by the particles (and possibly transformations).

⁹See [Mue97] and [Kis95] for an argumentation against analyzing German complementizers as markers, which is similar to ours.

The valency information of the Japanese verbs does not only contain the syntactic category and the semantic restrictions of the subcategorized arguments, but also the case particles they must be annotated with¹⁰.

As in other languages, there are transitive, intransitive and ditransitive verbs in Japanese. However, ditransitive verbs are rare in the processed domain, so none occur in the lexicon up to now. The transitive verbs have to be distinguished depending upon which kind of case particles they require for their subcategorized arguments. The Japanese arguments which are subcategorized for by the verb are optional, unlike the German or English ones. This requires a fundamentally different treatment of subcategorization. We will not address this point here, however.

- intransitive: NP-ga, e.g.
- ga-o-transitive: NP-ga NP-o, e.g.:
- ga-ga-transitive: NP-ga NP-ga, e.g.
 - (84) nantoka yotei ga toreru N desu ga somehow time GA can take COP SAP (I can find some time somehow.)
- aru-transitiv: NP-ni NP-ga or NP-ga NP-ga or NP-ni NP-de or NP-ga NP-de, e.g.
 - watakushi niji kara $_{\rm made}$ kaigi gagoji (85)Ι GA 2 o'clock from 5 o'clock till meeting arimashite ga GAhave (I have a meeting from 2 o'clock to five o'clock.)
- naru-intransitiv: NP-ni, e.g.

The lexicon entries of case particles get a case entry in the HEAD. Possible values are ga, o, ni, de and to. They are neither adjuncts nor specifiers and thus get the entries [MOD none] and [SPEC none]. They subcategorize for an adjacent object. This can be a noun.

 $^{^{10}}$ [Ono94] investigates the particles ni, ga and wo and also states that grammatical functions must be clearly distiguished from surface cases

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\begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ CASE & case \\ MOD & none \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix}
SUBCAT \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \end{bmatrix}
```

ga and o can, in addition, subcategorize for a verb modifying particle. The case particle de can additionally subcategorize for a ni-marked phrase, to can additionally subcategorize for a VP.

5 Modifying Particles

An essential problem is to find criteria for the distinction of case particles and modifying particles. On the semantic level they can be distinguished in that modifying particles introduce semantics, while case particles have a functional meaning. According to this distinctive feature the particle no is a modifying one, because it introduces attributive meaning, as opposed to ([Tsu96]:134), who classifies it as a case particle. Another criterion for distinction that is introduced by [Tsu96]:135 says that modifying particles¹¹ are obligatory in spoken language, while case particles can be omitted. Case particles are indeed suppressed more often, but there are also cases of suppressed modifying particles. These occur mainly in temporal expressions in our dialogue data:

Finally Tsujimura gives the criterion that case particles can follow modifying particles while modifying particles cannot follow case particles. This criterion in particular implies that a finer distinction is necessary, as we have shown that it is not that easy. This can be realized with HPSG types. According to this criterion, no behaves like a modifying particle, while according to the criterion on meaning, it behaves like a case particle. Our first distincion is thus a functional one: Modifying particles differ from case particles in that their marked entities are not subcategorized for by the verb. Case particles get the head information [CASE case] that controls agreement between verbs and their arguments. Modifying particles do not get this entry. They get the information in MOD that they can become adjuncts to verbs (verb modifying particles) or nouns (the noun modifying particle no) and semantic information. They subcategorize for a noun, as all particles do. The modifying particles share the following features in their lexical entries:

¹¹He calls them 'postpositions'.

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD & synsem \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

5.1 Verb Modifying Particles

The verb modifying particles specify the modification of the verb in SYNSEM/LOC/CAT/HEAD/MOD.

5.1.1 Postpositions

The postpositions are *e*, *kara* and *made*. They modify a (nonauxiliary) verb as an adjunct and subcategorize for a nominal object.

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & nonaux \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

5.1.2 Adverbial Particles

[Nig96] treats ni and de as the infinitive and the gerund form of the copula. To account for this, it has to be clarified what the qualities of an infinitive and a gerundive form, a copula and a verb modifying particle are in our type system. Let us first consider the infinitive form. In our syntax, it has the following peculiarities:

- not honorific concerning addressee
- present tense
- indicative
- possible to use with n desu (jikan ga toreru n desu ka)
- possible as a relative sentence (V-ru koto/N)
- $\bullet\,$ possible as a complement sentence (V-ru to omou/iu)
- can be modified by an adverb

This is clearly distinct from the characteristics of ni.

The gerundive form, a copula and a verb modifying particle are defined as follows:

- A gerundive form is not finite, it can modify a verbal phrase and be specifier of an auxiliary.
- A copula is a nonauxiliary verb. It subcategorizes for an oblique object, which is an unmarked noun, a postpositional phrase or an adjective. It further subcategorizes for an optional subject, which is marked with ga.
- A verb modifying particle is a particle that modifies a nonauxiliar verbal phrase, subcategorizes for an oblique object. I would define adverbial particles as subcategorizing for a noun or a postposition.

The adjunctive form 'de' has both qualities of a gerundive copula and qualities of a particle:

- Subcategorizing for an unmarked noun or a postposition
- Beeing adjunctive to a verbal head
- Its semantic behaviour (see [Nig96])

There are arguments for treating it as a copula:

- Historical derivation (see [Nig96])
- \bullet de arimasu behaves like desu
- The form deshite exists

But there is some data that shows different behaviour of de and other gerundives. Firstly, it concerns the cooccurrence possibilities of de and other particles, compared to gerundive forms and particles:

- de wa V-te wa
- de mo V-te mo
- de ga *V-te ga
- de wo *V-te wo
- de ni *V-te ni
- de de *V-te de
- de no *V-te no

Secondly, a gerund may modify auxiliaries, e.g. shite kudasai, shite orimasu, but de may not.

Additionally there is something which distinguishes de of a copula: It may not subcategorize for a subject.

A word that is an adjunct to verbs, subcategorizes for an unmarked noun or a phrase with a postposition and is subcategorized for by several particles (see above) fits well into the description of a verb modifying particle.

The adverbial particles ni, de and to subcategorize for a noun or a postposition:

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & nonaux \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/postposition \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

5.2 The Noun Modifying Particle NO

The particle *no* modifies a noun phrase and occurs after a noun or a verb modifying particle.

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/vmod - p \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

5.3 The Utterance Modifying Particle to

to can mark utterances that are adjuncts to other utterances. Thus, HEAD and SUBCAT look as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & utterance \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & utterance \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

5.4 Particles of Topicalization

5.4.1 Topic-wa

[Gun91] analyses Japanese topicalization with a trace that introduces a value in SLASH and the 'Binding Feature Principle' that unifies the value of SLASH with a wa-marked element¹². This treatment is similar to the one introduced by [PS94] for the treatment of English topicalization. There as well a trace introduces a SLASH value which is bound by the topicalized element. However, Japanese topicalization is fundamentally different from English one. Firstly, it occurs more frequently. Up to 50% of the sentences are concerned ([Yos97]). Secondly, there are examples where the topic occurs in the middle of the sentence, unlike the English topics that occur sentence-initially. [Yos97] gives the example:

There are also examples in the Verbmobil dialogue corpus:

Thirdly, Japanese verbal arguments are optional. Suppressing of verbal arguments could be called more a rule than an exception in spoken language. The SLASH approach would introduce traces in almost every sentence. This, in connection with scrambling and suppressed particles, could not be restricted in a reasonable way. If one follows Gunji interpretation of those cases, where the topic-NP can be interpreted as a noun modifying phrase, a genitive gap has to be assumed. But this leads to assuming a genitive gap for every NP that is not modified. Further, genitive modification can be iterated.

Fourth, two or three occurences of NP-wa are possible in one utterance:

(Concerning your plans: Would next week suit you?)

Thus, we decided to assign topicalized sentences the same syntactic structure as non-topicalized sentences and to resolve the problem on the lexical level.

The topic particle gets three lexical entries, because it is ambiguous. The first one is for the verb modifying variant. Its head is the same as the one of all verb modifying particles. Its subcategorization frame is like the one of adverbial particles.

¹²The Binding Feature Principle says:

The value of a binding feature of the mother is identical to the union of the values of the binding feature of the daughters minus the category bound in the branching. [Gun91]

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & nonaux \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/postposition \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

The second entry is for the case marking variant of wa. It gets the same head as the other case marking particles, but the CASE entry is underspecified. It subcategorizes for a nominal complement or a complement with a verb modifying particle.

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ CASE & case \\ MOD & none \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/vmod - p \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

The third one is for the noun modifying variant of the topic particle.

$$\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/vmod - p \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

5.4.2 Other topic particles

As we have already shown, mo is a particle that has the head of a topic-adverbial particle, but a different subcategorization frame as wa:

```
\begin{bmatrix} HEAD & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & nonaux \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/vmod - p/\\ & i - adj/\\ & utt(modusque) \end{bmatrix}
```

Another topic particle is koso:

$$\begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & nonaux \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun/ \\ & postposition/ \\ adv - p/ \\ noun \end{bmatrix}$$

6 Omitted Particles

Some particles can be omitted in Japanese spoken language. Here are two examples from the Verbmobil corpus:

This phenomenon can be found frequently in connection with pronouns and temporal expressions in the domain of appointment scheduling. [Hin77] assumes that exclusively wa can be suppressed. [Yat93] however shows that there are contexts, where ga, o or even e can be omitted. He assigns it as 'phonological deletion'.

[Kur92] analyses omitted o particles and explains these with linearization: A particle o can only be omitted, when it occurs directly before a verb. [Yat93] however gives examples to prove the opposite. One of these shall be shown here. He assigns it as 'slightly awkward but acceptable':

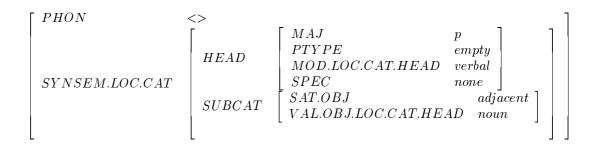
(Do you remember which student I have hit?)

The Verbmobil data of Japanese dialogues does not contain information about phonological phenomena of pitch. It is therefore not possible at this stage to include this kind of information into our analysis. However, it is peculiar that quite often pauses occur instead of particles. This hints at a phonological phenomenon.

Therefore we propose a phonological-lexical treatment. The empty particle is analyzed as a lexical underspecified particle with empty phonetics. It inherits the features of a particle. It can get the functions of a case particle (as in example 93), of an adverbial particle (as in example 94) or of a noun modifying particle (as in the examples 91 and 92). In any case, it subcategorizes for a noun. It is necessary to distinguish empty and overt particles by a feature called 'PTYPE'. PTYPE can have 'overt' or 'empty' as its value. This is in order to prevent an interpretation with empty particle in, for example, NP+wa as NP+empty-nmod-particle+wa. Therefore, all particles get this additional feature.

(Up to now I have no plans for the afternoon.)

$$\begin{bmatrix} PHON & <> \\ & & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ PTYPE & empty \\ CASE & case \\ MOD & none \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\begin{bmatrix} PHON & <> \\ \\ SYNSEM.LOC.CAT & \begin{bmatrix} MAJ & p \\ PTYPE & empty \\ MOD.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \\ SPEC & none \end{bmatrix} \\ SUBCAT & \begin{bmatrix} SAT.OBJ & adjacent \\ VAL.OBJ.LOC.CAT.HEAD & noun \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

7 Exhaustivization

One can find several examples with ga marked adjuncts in the Verbmobil data. This phenomenon is called 'exhaustivization' in research literature (c.f. [Gun87]), because the meaning of those NP+ga is 'only the NP'. Gunji analyses these syntactically in the same way as he analyzes his 'type-I topicalization'. They build adjuncts that control gaps or reflexives in the sentence. He designs ga marked adjuncts without control relations as relying on a very specialized context. Gunjis lexicon entries for exhaustive ga are:

- a) POS P; PFORM ga; SUBCAT PP [PFORM pf; SEM α]; ADJUNCT V [SLASH PP [PFORM pf; SEM α]] where pf is not qa, wo, ni or no.
- b) POS P; PFORM ga; SUBCAT NP [SEM α]; ADJUNCT V [SLASH PP [PFORM pf; SEM α]] where pf is ga, wo, ni or no.
- c) POS P; PFORM ga; SUBCAT NP [SEM α]; ADJUNCT V [REFL PP [SBJ; SEM α]]

However, this treatment leads to the following problems:

- 1. In all cases, where ga marks a constituent that is subcategorized as ga-marked by the verb, a second reading is analyzed that contains a ga marked adjunct controlling a gap. This is not reasonable. The treatment of the different meaning of ga marking and wa marking belongs to the semantics and not into the phrase structure.
- 2. This treatment assumes gaps. We already criticized this in connection with topicalization.
- 3. The Verbmobil dialogue data contains virtually no reflexives. Therefore, we do not need reflexive control at the moment. However, it contains mostly examples with ga marked adjuncts without syntactic control relation to the rest of the sentences.

The examples of the Verbmobil dialogues can be classified into two kinds:

- a) The NP describes a temporal entity:
 - watakushi tsugou nijuuhachinichi wa (95)Ι 28 thNO side NO circumstances WA ikkeN haitte ga gogo ni kaigi ga GAafternoon NImeeting GA at first inserted orimasu HON-AUX

(On our side, there is at first a meeting inserted at the afternoon of the 28th.)

- kochira getsuyoobi chotto sukeiuuru wa. ga(96)GAschedule WA Monday somewhat we gaippai naN desu keredomo GAfull COP SAP (On our side, the schedule is full on Monday.)
- **b)** The NP describes a personal entity:
 - (97) watakushi ga juuniji ni kaigi ga owarimasu I GA 12 o'clock NI meeting GA end (As far as I am concerned, the meeting ends at 12 o'clock.)

All these cases are predicate modifying. To further restrict exhaustivizational interpretations, we introduced selectional restrictions for the marked NP. Only NPs of the sorts 'time' or 'person' are allowed.

8 Conclusion

The syntactic behaviour of Japanese particles has been analyzed using the Verbmobil dialogue data. It has been possible to set up a type hierarchy of Japanese particles. We have therefore adopted a lexical treatment instead of a syntactic treatment based on phrase structure. This is based on the different kinds of modification and subcategorization that occur with the particles. It is necessary to have a finer distinction than just the distinction into case particles and postpositions. The assignment of the grammatical function is done by the verbal valency and not directly by the case particles. The topic particle is ambiguous. Its binding is done

by ambiguity and underspecification in the lexicon and not by the Head-Filler Rule as in the HPSG for English ([PS94]). Empty particles are also inserted into the lexicon underspecified, similar to the topic particle. The approach presented here is implemented in the PAGE system [UBB⁺94]. It is part of the syntactic analysis of Japanese in Verbmobil.

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