The origin and architecture of existential indeterminates in Okinawan
Ken Hiraiwa*

Abstract. In a number of languages, an indeterminate is combined with various particles to yield different indefinite pronouns. This has been called an indeterminate system (Kuroda 1965, Cheng 1991, Haspelmath 1997, Jayaseelan 2001). As Haspelmath (1997) and Jayaseelan (2001) observe, existential indeterminates are often built with disjunction markers. On the other hand, a disjunction particle and a question particle are often morphologically identical cross-linguistically (see Hagstrom 1998, Jayaseelan 2001). Thus, a question that I ask here is whether the alleged homophony between a disjunction marker and a marker that forms an existential quantifier is principled (Jayaseelan 2001, Szabolcsi et al. 2014) or coincidental (Haspelmath 1997, Cable 2010). In this paper, I argue that the observation about homophony is misguided and hence support Haspelmath’s hypothesis, based on the data obtained from my fieldwork on Okinawan, an endangered Ryukyuan language. I propose an analysis where existential indeterminates in Okinawan have a clausal structure of an embedded question and are derived by deletion.

Keywords. indeterminates; existential quantifiers; question; disjunction; deletion

1. Introduction. In a number of languages, an indeterminate is combined with various particles to yield different indefinite pronouns. This has been called an indeterminate system (Kuroda 1965, Cheng 1991, Haspelmath 1997, Jayaseelan 2001). In Malayalam, Japanese, and Nanay, for example, an indeterminate ‘who’ is interpreted as existential ‘someone’, when combined with a disjunction particle (1b–3b). In Basque and Russian, an indeterminate ‘who’ receives a free choice interpretation when combined with a disjunction particle (4b-5b) (the data are cited from Haspelmath 1997).

(1) a. aarə ‘who’ b. aar(ə)-oo ‘someone’ (Malayalam)
(2) a. dare ‘who’ b. dare-ka ‘someone’ (Japanese)
(3) a. uj ‘who’ b. uj-nuu ‘someone’ (Nanay)
(4) a. nor ‘who’ b. edo-nor ‘whoever’ (Basque)
(5) a. kto ‘who’ b. kto-libo ‘whoever’ (Russian)

As Haspelmath (1997) and Jayaseelan (2001) observe, existential indeterminates and free choice indeterminates are often built with disjunction markers. On the other hand, a disjunction particle and a question particle are often morphologically identical cross-linguistically (see Hagstrom 1998, Jayaseelan 2001). Thus, a question that I ask here is whether the alleged homophony between a disjunction marker and a marker that forms an existential quantifier is principled

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(Jayaseelan 2001, Szabolcsi et al. 2014) or coincidental (Haspelmath 1997). In this paper, I argue that the observation about homophony is misguided and hence support Haspelmath’s hypothesis, based on the data obtained from my fieldwork on Okinawan, an endangered Ryukyuan language. I propose an analysis where existential indeterminates in Okinawan have a clausal structure of an embedded question and are derived by deletion.

2. Indeterminates in Okinawan. Japanese has an indeterminate system (Kuroda 1965, 2013, Shimoyama 2008, Hiraiwa 2015, 2017). Okinawan also has an indeterminate system, just as Japanese does (see Sugahara 1996 and Hiraiwa 2019; see Miyara 2000, 2015b, 2019 for a general grammatical description of Okinawan). Each of the five indefinite pronouns in Okinawan combines an indeterminate pronoun and one of the quantificational particles (∅/n/gana/yatin).¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>+nominal</th>
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<tr>
<td>Wh ‘wh X’s</td>
<td>Universal ‘every X’</td>
<td>Existential ‘some X’</td>
<td>NPI ‘any X’</td>
<td>Free Choice ‘wh-ever’</td>
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<tr>
<td>who</td>
<td>taa-CASE</td>
<td>taa-CASE -n</td>
<td>taa’-gana-CASE</td>
<td>taa-n</td>
<td>taa’-yatin</td>
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<td>nuu-CASE</td>
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<td>maa-CASE</td>
<td>maa-CASE -n</td>
<td>maa’-gana-CASE</td>
<td>maa-n</td>
<td>maa’-yatin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Indeterminate system in Okinawan (partial)

(1) Okinawan
   a. Taa-ga choo-ta ga?
      who-NOM come-PST Q
      ‘Who came?’
   b. Taa-ga-n chuu sa.
      who-NOM-N come SFP
      ‘Everyone will come.’
   c. Taa-gana-ga ch-an
      who-GANA-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone came.’
   d. Taa-n kuu-n-tan.
      who-N come-NEG-PST
      ‘No one came.’
   e. Taa-yatin chuu sa.²
      who-YATIN come SFP
      ‘Anyone will come.’


¹ The [+nominal]/[-nominal] distinction is based on whether case-marking is possible. ’ indicates the position of pitch accent. See Hiraiwa (2015, 2017) for a detailed analysis of Japanese indeterminates.

² Evidently, the morpheme yatin is complex, consisting of the copula yati, and the additive particle n. See Section 4 on its clausal status. A similar decompositional analysis will be proposed for gana, too. See also Hiraiwa & Nakani- shi (to appear) for arguments that free choice indeterminates (e.g., dare-demo ‘whoever’) are syntactically an unconditional clause, exactly in the same way as taa-yati-n ‘whoever’ in Okinawan.
(2) Japanese
   a. dare  ‘who’
   b. dare- **mo**  ‘any/everyone’
   c. Taro- **mo**  ‘Taro, too’

(3) Japanese
   a. dare  ‘who’
   b. dare- **ka**  ‘someone’
   c. Taro- **ka** Hanako- **ka**  ‘Taro or Hanako’

While it has an additive conjunction particle *n* (the cognate of *mo* ‘also’ in Japanese), which is used to build a universal quantifier and an NPI, Okinawan lacks a simple morpheme that expresses nominal disjunction and the morpheme *gana* used for building existential indeterminates does not have a disjunctive function.

(4) Okinawan
   a. taa  ‘who’
   b. taa- **n**  ‘any/everyone’
   c. Taa-n  ‘Taraa, too’

(5) Okinawan
   a. taa  ‘who’
   b. taa- **gana**  ‘someone’
   c. *Taraa-gana Maziruu-gana*  ‘Taraa or Maziruu’

On the other hand, the language does have a sentence-final question particle *ga* (for wh-question) and *(m)i* (for yes-no question), as (6a) indicates. This question particle is distinct from the yes-no question particle *-mi* as shown in (6b). Importantly, however, these particles cannot build an existential indeterminates (or disjoin phrases), either, as shown in (7).

(6) Okinawan
   a. Taa- **ga** ichu **ga**?
      who-GA-NOM go Q
      ‘Who will go?’
   b. Jiraa- **ga** ichu **mi**?
      Jiraa-NOM go Q
      ‘Does Jiraa go?’

(7) Okinawan
      who-GA-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone came.’
   b. *Taa- **mi**-ga ch-an.
      who-MI-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone came.’
   c. *Taraa- **ga** Maziruu- **ga**
      Taraa-GA Maziruu-GA
      ‘Taraa or Maziruu’

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Clausal disjunction in alternative question in Okinawan does not employ any overt marker.

(8) Okinawan

Shinshi-ya Taraa-nkai [ichu-\textit{mi} ika-n-i] chich-an.
teacher-TOP Taraa-DAT go-Q go-PRS-NEG-Q ask-PST

‘The teacher asked Taraa whether he would go or not go.’

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>nominal disjunction</th>
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<th>wh-question</th>
<th>yes-no question</th>
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<td>\textendash</td>
<td>\textit{gana}</td>
<td>\textit{mi}</td>
<td>\textit{gana}</td>
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Table 2. disjunction, question, and existential markers in Japanese and Okinawan

These facts show that (i) Okinawan lacks a disjunction particle and hence that (ii) its question markers cannot build existential indeterminates, contrary to the languages listed in (1).

4. **Existential indeterminates in Okinawan as clausal questions.** As noted in the previous sections, existential indeterminates in Okinawan employ the mysterious morpheme \textit{gana}, which is not a disjunction particle.

(9) Okinawan

Taa-\textit{gana}-ga ch-an.

‘Someone came.’

Although the morpheme \textit{gana} is likely to be composed of the Q-particle \textit{ga} and \textit{na}, the status of the latter is not immediately clear. Putting aside \textit{gana} for a moment, it is interesting to look at another form of existential indeterminate in Okinawan, as shown in (10).

(10) Okinawan

Taa-\textit{gayara} ch-an.

‘Someone came.’

Importantly, this form is identical to an embedded self-question structure, as shown in (11).\(^3\) Evidently, \textit{gayara} in (11) is syntactically complex: \textit{ga} is a Q-complementizer, \textit{yara} is a conditional form of copula.

(11) Okinawan

a. [Taa ga ya-ra] wakara-n.

‘I don’t know who it is.’

\(^3\) von Fintel & Iatridou (2019) discuss particles that make questions “unasked questions”. It is interesting that existential indeterminates are derived from unasked question forms (or self-question forms) both in Okinawan and Japanese. See Section 5 (especially, examples (22)–(23)) and Hiraiwa & Nakanishi (to appear) on Japanese.
b. Taa ga ya-ra.
   who Q COP-RA
   ‘(I wonder/I don’t know) Who it is.’


(12) Okinawan
   a. {Taa/*Taraa} ga choo-ta ga?
      who/Tara-NOM come-PST Q
      ‘Who came? / *Did Tara come?’ (Wh-question)
   b. {Taa/Taraa} ga ga choo-ta-ra?
      who/Tara-NOM-Q come-PST-RA
      ‘I wonder who came. / I wonder if Tara came.’ (Focus-concord self-question)

Wh-question in (12a) is information-seeking. The Q-particle appears at the end of the clause as a Q-complementizer and requires a wh-phrase. In contrast, focus-concord question in (12b) is a self-question and hence not information-seeking. The Q-particle ga necessarily attaches to the focus of the sentence and the predicate takes the focus-concord suffix -ra (see Miyara 2000, 2007, 2015a for a detailed description). Thus, the existential indeterminate in (10) and the self-question in (11) are both derived from the focus-concord question construction in (12b).

Interestingly, Okinawan employs this self-question structure in (11) and (12b) to build the existential indeterminate in (10). More specifically, I propose that what looks like an existential indeterminate in (10) is derived from an embedded self-question ‘I wonder / don’t know wh- it is’ by dunno-deletion and question-internal ellipsis (or pseudo-sluicing) inside the embedded question (Ross 1969; see, Inamine 2005, Miyara 2007, and Kurafuji 2009 on sluicing in Okinawan, and Saito 2007 and Hiraiwa & Ishihara 2010 on (pseudo)-sluicing in Japanese), as illustrated in (13)–(14).[^5]

(13) Okinawan
   [Uree Taa ga ya-ra] wakara-n shiga, chuu ndi doo.
   it.TOP who Q COP-RA know-NEG but come C.say SFP
   ‘I heard that someone would come.’ (lit.) I don’t know who it is, (I heard) (he/she) will come.’

[^4]: While the sentence-final Q-complementizer ga in Okinawan in (12a) requires a wh-phrase, the Q-particle ga in (12b) does not.

[^5]: gayara, yarawan, and yatin are not always interchangeable, as the latter two are unconditional/free choice forms.

(i) Okinawan
   Koohii-{yatin/*gayara} ucha-{yatin/*gayara} kwimisooree.
   coffee-YATIN/GAYARA tea-YATIN/GAYARA give.me.please.IMP
   ‘Please give me some coffee or tea.’
(14) Okinawan

[Uree Taa ga ya-ra] wakara-n (shiga), chuu ndi doo.

‘I heard that someone would come.’ (lit.) I don’t know who it is, (I heard) (he/she) will come.’

The predicate wakara-n (shiga) ‘I don’t know’, which takes the embedded self-question, is deleted. The embedded question has the following structure in (15). The topicalized nominal demonstrative, which refers to the antecedent clause, undergoes ellipsis. The Q-particle attaches to the wh-phrase taa ‘who’ and agrees with the sentence-final focus-suffix -ra (focus Concord).

(15) I don’t know who it is, but …

Haspelmath makes an important observation that existential quantifiers in some European languages have a sentential structure ‘I don’t know who’, as their source. This is illustrated in (16).

(16) Haspelmath (1997, 131)\(^6\)

a. neizwer ‘somebody’ <ne weiz wer ‘(I) don’t know who’ (Middle High German)

b. náthwā ‘somebody’ <newāt hwā ‘(I) don’t know who’ (Old English)

c. nekker ‘somebody’ <ne wait ik hwarir ‘I don’t know who’ (Old Norse)

d. nestine ‘some’ <Latin: nescio quis ‘I don’t know who’ (Romanian (dialectal))

e. na(m)koj ‘somebody’ <ne znam koj ‘I don’t know who’ (Bulgarian (dialectal))

\(^6\) Another way to build an existential indeterminate is reduplication.

(i) a. Taa-taa-ya kuu-n-tan.

‘(I don’t know their name, but) a certain person/certain people didn’t come.’


‘(I don’t know their name, but) a certain person/certain people didn’t come.’

As the translations indicate, it seems that reduplicated indeterminates is specific-unknown. Reduplicated indeterminates are also possible with universal indeterminates and NPIs. (e.g., taa-ga-n taa-ga-n ‘everyone’, taa-n taa-n ‘anyone’).
f. někůto ‘somebody’ <ne vě kůto ‘I don’t know who’ (Old Church Slavonic)
g. je ne sais quel ‘some kind of’ <cf. je ne sais (pas) quel ‘I don’t know which’ (French)

Haspelmath refers to this type of grammaticalization path of existential quantifiers as dunno-type and observes that it is restricted to the European languages, but our analysis in (13)–(14) demonstrates that it is a general mechanism, observed outside the particular language family (see also Section 5 on Japanese).

I argue that the lack of a disjunction particle and the question-based existential indeterminates provide strong evidence against the homophony between a disjunction particle and a particle that forms existential indeterminates. Rather, it must be the Q-complementizer that plays a crucial role in deriving existential indeterminates in Okinawan.

Finally, let us return to gana. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, ga should be a Q-particle of a focus-concord question. I propose that gana is derived from ga ya-ra in (17).

(17) Okinawan
   ga ya-ra
   Q COP-RA

Suppose that the underlying structure of taa-gana ‘someone’ is taa ga ya-ra in (14). If deletion applies to the copula ya alone, leaving the focus-concord suffix intact, then we obtain the form *taa-gara in (17b). Assuming that /t/ undergoes phonological change to /n/, we obtain the form taa-gana in (17c).

(18) a. taa ga ya-ra ‘(I wonder) who it is’
    b. taa ga ya-ra copula deletion
    c. taa ga yana /t/→/n/

The phonological fortition rule in (18c) is common cross-linguistically (see Proctor 2009). van der Lubbe (2017) observes that the form gara in (18b) is indeed employed in an embedded (self)-question in Okinoerabu Ryukyuan (see also van der Lubbe & Tokunaga 2015).

(19) Okinoerabu Ryukyuan (Van der Lubbe 2017, 303)
   Ichi ki-n gara waka-ra-n.
   when come-IND GARA know-NEG-IND
   ‘I don’t know when he will come.’

Furthermore, the analysis in (18) is also independently supported by the fact that the counterpart of gana in Irabu is gagara (see footnote 7).

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7 Shimoji (2008) observes similar data, wh-gagara (or wh-gara), from Irabu, a southern Ryukyuan language. If my analysis of Okinawan and Japanese is on the right track, then question-based existential indeterminates may well be a wide-spread feature of the languages across Japan. I suspect that the doubling ga in Irabu is due to non-complementary distribution of the Q-particle ga and the Q-complementizer ga in wh-focus-concord question in Irabu (see Shimoji 2008, 447–448).

(i) Irabu (Shimoji 2008, 242–243)
   Tau-gagara-nu-du sǐn-tar-ca.
   who-GAGARA-NOM-FOC die-PST-HS
   ‘Someone has died, they say.’

8 Thanks to Feng-Fan Hsieh for bringing this to my attention. The existence of glide-nasal alternation is also observed in Irabu (see Shimoji 2008, 448).

9 Thanks to Chris Davis for bringing my attention to the dialectal data.
5. Japanese existential indeterminates as embedded question. The analysis of existential indeterminates as hidden embedded question is corroborated by Japanese. Nakanishi & Hiraiwa (2019) and Hiraiwa & Nakanishi (to appear) argue that there is indeed evidence that they are clausal in its origin and the particle ka is a Q-complementizer. The existential indeterminate dare-ka in example (20a) has long been considered to be an indeterminate combined with a nominal disjunction particle ka. However, we also find a semantically equivalent clausal expression (20b) in Japanese, just like in Okinawan. If we apply dunno-deletion, we obtain (20). If the copula is further deleted, we obtain the form (20d), which is identical to (20a).

(20) Japanese (Hiraiwa & Nakanishi to appear)
   a. [Dare-ka]-ga kit-ta.
      who-KA-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone came.’
   b. [Dare dat-ta ka] shira.nai-ga ki-ta.
      who COP-PST Q know.NEG-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone (lit. I don’t know who it was) came.’
   c. [Dare dat-ta ka] shira.nai-ga ki-ta.
      who COP-PST Q know.NEG-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone (lit. I don’t know who it was) came.’
   d. [Dare dat-ta ka] shira.nai-ga ki-ta.
      who COP-PST Q know.NEG-NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone (lit. I don’t know who it was) came.’

Crucially, Japanese has another existential indeterminate expression (21), where only the sentential negation is elided from (20b) (with optional copula deletion).

(21) Japanese
   a. [Dare dat-ta ka] shira-nai ga ki-ta.
      who COP-PST Q know.NEG NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone (lit. I don’t know who) came.’
   b. [Dare dat-ta ka] shira-nai ga ki-ta.
      who COP-PST Q know.NEG NOM come-PST
      ‘Someone (lit. I don’t know who) came.’

10 Incidentally, this form, ga ya-ra can also convey disjunction.

(i) Kunu sumuchee, [Taraa mun ga ya-ra], [Jiraa mun ga ya-ra], ya sa.
    this book Taraa thing COP-RA Jiraa thing Q COP-RA COP SFP
    ‘This book is Taraa’s or Jiraa’s.’ (lit.) This book is, I wonder if it is Taraa’s or if it is Jiraa’s.’

Two other forms yarawan and yatin can also be used for expressing what amounts to disjunction. They are also concessive conditional (or unconditional) clauses and the latter is also used as free choice expression (see table 1).

(ii) Okinawan
   a. Pan ya-ra-wa-n kume ya-ra-wa-n masiyasi kara irabee.
      bread COP-RA-COND-also rice COP-RA-TOP-also better from choose.IMP
      ‘Choose what you like better, whether bread or rice.’
   b. Pan yati-n kume yati-n masiyasi kara irabee.
      bread COP-COND-also rice COP-COND-also better from choose.IMP
      ‘Choose what you like better, whether bread or rice.’

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The forms in (21) cannot be explained if \textit{ka} were a nominal disjunction particle, because then it would not be able to be selected by the verb ‘know’.

From the perspective of the proposed analysis of existential indeterminates in Okinawan, the closest Japanese counterpart of the Okinawan example in (14) is (22).\textsuperscript{11}

\begin{flushleft}
(22) Japanese
\begin{itemize}
  \item a. [Dare \textit{yara}] \textit{ki-ta}.
  \begin{itemize}
    \item who \textit{YARA} come-PST
    \end{itemize}
  \end{itemize}
  ‘Someone came.’
\begin{itemize}
  \item b. [Nani \textit{yara}] \textit{ki-ta}.
  \begin{itemize}
    \item what \textit{YAERA} come-PST
    \end{itemize}
  \end{itemize}
  ‘Something came.’
\end{flushleft}

Just as the form \textit{ga-ya-ra} in Okinawan is used as a self-question, the form \textit{yara} is also used as a self-question in Japanese.

\begin{flushleft}
(23) Japanese (Hiraiwa & Nakanishi to appear, footnote 12)
\begin{itemize}
  \item Dare-ga \textit{kuru} no \textit{yara}.
  \begin{itemize}
    \item who-NOM come \textit{C} \textit{YARA}
    \end{itemize}
  \end{itemize}
  ‘I wonder/don’t know who will come.’
\end{flushleft}

6. \textbf{Conclusion}. In this paper, I have demonstrated that existential indeterminates in Okinawan have a clausal structure. The morpheme \textit{gana} in Okinawan is neither a disjunction particle nor a Q-particle, lending support for the claim that the alleged morphological affinity between disjunction particles and morphemes building existential quantifiers is coincidental. Rather, I have argued that existential indeterminates in Okinawan are syntactically derived from an embedded focus-concord self-question \textit{wh-ga...ya ra} through \textit{dunno}-deletion. It is claimed, then, that the form \textit{gana} has emerged from deletion of the copula \textit{ya} and liquid-nasal alternation.

\textbf{References}


\textsuperscript{11} This is another example of bare indeterminates discussed in Nakanishi & Hiraiwa (2019) and Hiraiwa and Nakanishi (2020).


