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Recommended Citation
DOI: https://doi.org/10.7275/ee1j-x783
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Corpus-Based Investigation of the Markedness and Frequency of Japanese Passives in Contemporary Written Japanese

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Abstract

Japanese passives are traditionally considered to have two types: direct and indirect passives. However, more recent studies, such as Ishizuka (2012), suggest the two types can be unified under the same syntactic movement analysis. Utilizing the Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ; Maekawa, 2008; Maekawa et al., 2014), this study aims to investigate how likely different types of passives appear in the naturally occurring texts, especially in relation to markedness-based hierarchy called Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH; Keenan and Comrie, 1977), and to investigate if true indirect passives occur in contemporary written Japanese.

1 Introduction

1.1 Types of Japanese Passives

Japanese allows for a construction called indirect passive, which roughly means the use of passive voice with intransitive verbs (i.e., no internal argument), as exemplified by the difference between (1) and (2) (Ishizuka, 2012):

1. a. Ken-ga keisatu-ni tukamae-rare-ta
   Ken-SUB police-DAT catch-PASS-PST
   Ken was caught by the police.

   b. Keisatu-ga Ken-o tsukamae-ta
   police-SUB Ken-ACC catch-PST
   The police caught Ken.

2. a. ?Naomi-ga Ken-ni oyog-are-ta
   Naomi-SUB Ken-ACC swim-PASS-PST
   Ken went and swam on Naomi.

   b. Ken-ga *(Naomi-o) oyoi-da
   Ken-SUB Naomi-ACC swim-PST
   Ken swam Naomi.

In (1), the nominative NP Ken-ga in the passive sentence (1a) has a clear source in its active counterpart (1b), which is Ken-o. Therefore, (1a) can be called a passive construction with an -o marked accusative NP as its active source. On the other hand, in (2), the nominative NP Naomi-ga in the passive sentence (2a) has no source in its active counterpart, and its grammaticality is controversial. This type of passive construction is called indirect passive, whose nominative NP does not have a source in its active counterpart.

Traditionally, these two types of passive have been treated separately as direct and indirect passives (e.g., Hoshi, 1999). However, Ishizuka (2012) showed that the seemingly absent source of the nominative NP in an indirect passive is in fact present, and that it is marked as either one of the following three grammatical Cases in the active sentence: -ni marked dative Case, -kara marked ablative Case, or -no marked genitive Case, which corresponds to following examples (3), (4), and (5), respectively:

3. a. Ken-ga Naomi-ni raburetaa-o
   Ken-SUB Naomi-DAT raburetaa-ACC
   give-PASS-PST
   Ken was given a love letter by Naomi.

   b. Naomi-ga Ken-ni raburetaa-o
   Naomi-SUB Ken-DAT raburetaa-ACC
   give-PST
   Naomi gave a love letter to Ken.

4. a. Ken-ga Naomi-ni niger-are-ta
   Ken-SUB Naomi-DAT escape-PASS-PST
   Ken was escaped from by Naomi.

   b. Naomi-ga Ken-kara niger-ta
   Naomi-SUB Ken-ABL escape-PST
   Naomi escaped from ken.

5. a. Ken-ga hahaoya-ni shin-are-ta
   Ken-SUB mother-DAT die-PASS-PST
   Ken was died on by his mother.

   b. Ken-no hahaoya-ga shin-da
   Ken-GEN mother-SUB die-PST
   Ken’s mother died.

In this analysis, a passive sentence whose matrix
NP cannot be analyzed as any one of the above-mentioned four Cases (accusative -wo, dative -ni, ablative -kara, and genitive -no), must be ungrammatical. Indeed, Ishizuka (2012) claims that (2a) is ungrammatical because the nominative NP Naomi-ga cannot exist in the active source (2b). In other words, changing the Case of Naomi-o to -ni, -kara, or -no does not make (2b) any less ungrammatical. This unified analysis (i.e., that all passives have active source) leaves us with a question of whether or not it is supported by empirical evidence. Although Ishizuka (2012) provides the result of grammaticality judgement tests (GJTs) to support her claim, artificial GJTs only measure the perception grammar and not the production grammar, which are arguably different from each other. Hence, this warrants an investigation of corpora of naturally occurring texts.

In hypothesizing the occurrences of various passives, it is unreasonable to assume that all passives discussed above occur equiprobably because so-called indirect passives seem to be more marked than direct passives, as is clear from the fact that indirect passives are not allowed in many other languages, including English (e.g., * Naomi was died by her mother). The next section will discuss the markedness of various passives, on which the predicted frequency order will be based.

### 1.2 Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy

In determining which passives are expected to occur more in a corpus, we focus on the similarity between Japanese passive construction and relative clause construction. Consider the following examples:

(6) a. Otoko-no hahaoya-ga shin-da  
Man-GEN mother-SUB die-PST  
A man’s mother died.

b. Otoko-ha hahaoya-ni shin-are-ta  
Man-TOP mother-DAT die-PASS-PST  
A man was died by his mother.

c. Hahaoya-ga shin-da otoko  
Mother-SUB die-PST man  
A man whose mother died.

The passivization from (6a) to (6b) and the relativization from (6a) to (6c) has an interesting property in common: the grammatical Case of the source NP is masked after the alteration. More concretely, the -no marked genitive NP otoko (man) is no longer -no marked in either (6b) or (6c), obscuring the source. Ishizuka (2012) cogently puts this point:

> The absence of original Case under movement is in fact a general property of Japanese; it is also operative in relative constructions (...). This property obscures the source of the nominative NP in the passive and has often misled linguists to conclude that the indirect passive is gapless (p. 8).

Based on this common property, a framework used for relativization could be extended to passivization.

Keenan and Comrie (1977) proposed Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH), a hierarchy of relative clause construction based on cross-linguistic markedness, which is reproduced below:

\[
\text{SU > DO > IO > OBL > GEN > OCOMP}
\]

SU, DO, IO, OBL, GEN, and OCOMP stands for subject, direct object, indirect object, oblique, genitive, and object of comparison, respectively. As has been discussed in the previous section, the source of nominative NP in passives is either DO (-o marked direct passive), IO (-ni marked indirect passive), OBL (-kara marked indirect passive), and GEN (-no marked indirect passive). Although true indirect passives with no source NP do not exist purportedly, if it does at all, its frequency ranking should be after OCOMP in the above hierarchy. Table 1 summarizes the parts of the hierarchy relevant to this study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>NPAH</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>DO</td>
<td>-o</td>
<td>nagur-(to punch)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DO</td>
<td>-o</td>
<td>homer-(to praise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>IO</td>
<td>-ni</td>
<td>watas-(to pass)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>OBL</td>
<td>-kara</td>
<td>niger-(to escape)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>GEN</td>
<td>-no</td>
<td>shin-(to die)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>nak-(to cry)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>ner-(to sleep)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>∅</td>
<td>aruk-(to walk)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Expected Frequency Ranking of Japanese Passive Types based on NPAH.

### 1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

In light of all these, the following research questions and hypotheses were formulated:
1. What is the relationship between the grammatical Case of a source NP and the frequency of its passivization?
(a) It is hypothesized that, the relative frequency of passivization for each verb follows NPAH proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977).

2. Are there any truly indirect passive constructions, whose matrix NPs do not have active sources?
(a) It is hypothesized that, based on the unified analysis by Ishizuka (2012), no true indirect passives exist.

2 Methodology
This section introduces the corpus used in this study, data extraction, and data annotation.

2.1 Corpus
In this study, Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ; Maekawa, 2008; Maekawa et al., 2014) was used. BCCWJ is a richly annotated 104.3 million words corpus, freely available to anyone upon registration. It contains written Japanese from various genres, including books, magazines, newspapers, blogs, online bulletin boards, textbooks, and laws.

2.2 Data Extraction
Because no semantic annotation is included in the corpus, relevant matches were searched based on the lemma of the verbs and suffixes. In Japanese, depending on the verb’s conjugation type, one of the two passivization suffixes, -reru or -rareru is attached to the verbs with imperfective form. For example, to search for all occurrences of passivized verb naguru (to punch), lemma was specified as -reru, preceded by a verb with lemma naguru. For verbs of a different conjugation type, such as neru (to sleep), lemma was specified as -rareru, preceded by a verb with lemma neru.

2.3 Data Annotation
Because Japanese morphology is highly polysemous, the abovementioned passivization suffixes, -reru and -rareru, have several different meanings, such as honorific, potential, and passive. For example, an imperfective form of the verb taber- (to eat) followed by the passivization suffix -rarer, which combines to taberareru, can mean (1) to be able to eat, (2) (honorific) to eat, and (3) to be eaten, and these meanings can only be disambiguated by looking at the contexts. Therefore, once all the matching occurrences are exported to a spreadsheet, each occurrence was manually checked by a Japanese native speaker (i.e., the author) for the semantic disambiguation.

Besides the disambiguation of the suffixes, the presence and absence of a -ni phrase was annotated for each occurrence of passive constructions. This was a rather straightforward task for intransitive and transitive verbs; however, for ditransitive verbs, the first task was to decide which one of the two objects is passivized, and the second task was to decide if corresponding postpositional phrases were present or not. For example, an active sentence with a ditransitive verb watas- (to pass), typically takes the following construction (7a), and passivizes into either (7b) or (7c):

(7) a. Naomi-ga hon-o Ken-ni
   Naomi-SUB book-ACC Ken-DAT
   watas-ta pass-PST
   Naomi passed the book to Ken.

b. Hon-ga Naomi(-karal-ni) Ken(-hel-ni)
   book-SUB Naomi-ABL/DAT Ken-DAT
   watas-rer-ta pass-PASS-PST
   The book was passed (from|by) Naomi to Ken.

c. Ken-ga Naomi(-karal-ni)
   Ken-SUB Naomi-DAT
   hon-wo watas-rer-ta
   Ken-ABL/DAT pass-PST
   Ken was passed a book (from|by) Naomi.

Because only the passive sentences whose matrix NP originated from the -ni marked dative Case NP in the active sentence qualify for IO in NPAH, only the passivization in (7c) was counted.

On a related note, -no marked NPs (GEN category in Table 1) have to be annotated with a special care, making sure that a sensible relationship can be naturally established between the two NPs. For example, the grammaticality of (5b) is licensed by the fact that the two NPs (i.e., Ken and mother) have a natural -no markable relationship (i.e., mother-son relationship). Hence, for GEN category, only the passive sentences that satisfy this criterion were counted. Conversely, for $\emptyset$, only the passive sentences where no natural -no markable relationship can be established between the two NPs were counted, since they would otherwise belong to GEN category.
3 Results

3.1 Research Question 1

The summary of the absolute and relative frequencies of passivization and the presence of -ni phrase for each verb lemma is shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lemma</th>
<th>all</th>
<th>pass.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>-ni</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nagur-</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homer-</td>
<td>2381</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watas-</td>
<td>5041</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niger-</td>
<td>5930</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shin-</td>
<td>16081</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nak-</td>
<td>7071</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ner-</td>
<td>10679</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aruk-</td>
<td>18130</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Absolute and Relative Frequencies of Passivization and -ni Phrase for each Verb Lemma. The columns correspond to all occurrences of the lemma (all), frequency of passivization (pass.), pass. / all (%), passivization with an accompanying -ni phrase (-ni), and -ni / pass. (%), respectively.

The first % column represents the proportion of passive sentences of all occurrences of the corresponding verb lemma in the row. The second % column represents the proportion of passive sentences with -ni phrase out of all the passive sentences of the corresponding verb lemma in the row. As shown above, the relative frequency of passivization differs substantially among verb lemmas. To test if these differences are significant, a series of pairwise proportion tests were conducted. To correct for the multiple testing, Bonferroni correction, one of the more conservative correction methods, was employed. Table 3 summarizes the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>nagur-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>homer-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>watas-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>niger-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>shin-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>nak-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ner-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>aruk-</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Pairwise Proportion Tests. Note: * indicates \( p < .0001 \)

In Figure 1, the relative frequency ranking follows the NPAH hierarchy almost perfectly. That is to say, the following relationship was empirically observed: DO > IO > OBL > GEN > None. The only deviation is the unexpectedly frequent passivization of verb nak-.. Although this will be further discussed in the next section, given that the differences between shin- (GEN) and ner- (None) and between shin- (GEN) and aruk- (None) were statistically significant (see Table 3), it is reasonable to say that the inequality GEN > None was maintained in general, with the verb nak- deviating from the rest of None category.

Similarly, the significant difference within the DO category (i.e., nagur- and homer-) was unexpected; however, it could be due to the adversative connotation that commonly accompanies passivization, which is clearly more compatible with nagur- (to punch) than with homer- (to praise).

3.2 Research Question 2

Especially noteworthy in Table 2 is the occurrences of passivized verbs of None category; namely, passives whose matrix NP does not have a source in their active counterpart. The equally infrequent passivization of the verbs neru and aruku (\( p = 1 \)), imply that they indeed belong to the same category (which we call None). Although they are both extremely unlikely, the fact they both occur in naturally occurring texts must be accounted for. Also, the proportion of -ni phrase in passive sentences

different between all possible pairs of verbs after Bonferroni correction, except for the differences between verbs nak- (to cry) and shin- (to die), and between aruk- (to walk) and ner- (to sleep). To determine what these differences mean in terms of NPAH, verbs are grouped into NPAH categories in Figure 1.
for None type verb, presented in Figure 2, indicates its distinctive property.

![Figure 2: Relative Frequencies of -ni Phrase in Passive Sentences for each Verb Lemma.](image)

For DO, IO, and OBL type passives, the proportion of sentences with -ni phrase ranges from about 20% to 40%. This optional nature of -ni phrase does not seem to hold for GEN type passives, as the proportion exceeds 80%. This is presumably due to the fact that omitting a -ni phrase in GEN type passive results in a floating genitive marked NP in its active counterpart:

(8) a. Ken-ga (hahaoya-ni) shin-are-ta
   Ken-SUB mother-DAT die-PASS-PST
   Ken was died by his mother.

   b. Ken-no (hahaoya-ga) shin-da
      Ken-GEN mother-SUB die-PST
      Ken’s mother died.

Omitting the parenthetical -ni phrase in the passive sentence (8a) is equivalent to omitting the parenthetical nominative -ga phrase in the active counterpart (8b), which results in the clearly ungrammatical floating genitive -no marked phrase. This is one plausible explanation of the strong preference to attach a -ni phrase in GEN type passive sentences.

Given this analysis, the low proportion of sentences with -ni phrase for None type passives seems to suggest that they constitute a unique category different from GEN type. The None type passive is indeed indirect in that they have no active source, as shown below in the actual example taken from the corpus (ID: LBI7_00047):

(9) a. Taako-ni-ha mou-ichi-do
    Taako-DAT-TOPIC another-one-time
    nak-are-ta-koto-ga aru.
    cry-PASS-PST-event-SUB exist.
    There is another occasion where I was cried by Taako.

In this indirect passive, the omitted subject (i.e., I) does not have a source in its active counterpart; in other words, there is no possible Case (neither -wo, -ni, -kara, nor -no) that the omitted subject (i.e., I) can be marked with, such that its active sentence can be grammatically formed.

4 Conclusion

This paper has shown that the relative frequency of passivization follows the NPAH proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977), and that although extremely infrequent, true indirect passives do occur in naturally occurring written Japanese, as opposed to the claim by Ishizuka (2012).

However, given that the sample size is rather small in this study, and that only 8 verbs were considered, the results have to be interpreted with caution. For example, the observed differences could have been due to the unique semantic properties of each verb, rather than the larger syntactic categories verbs were coerced into (e.g., IO). To tackle this problem, future studies could annotate a wider range of verbs, and compare the within-class differences and the between-class differences to test if NPAH overrides the differences among individual verbs.

References


