

Semantically Explaining Grammatical Properties of Two Types of Relative Clauses in Oriya

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1. Background and the Aim

Oriya (an Indo-Aryan language, spoken in Orissa, India) has such two types of relative clauses as are illustrated in (1) and (2). (It has other types that will not concern us.)

(1) *jie* *seThi basich-i*, *se* *mo saanga*.

who(R).NOM there is.sitting-3s *he.NOM my friend*

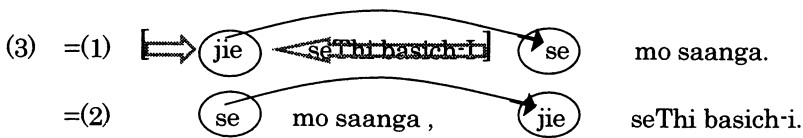
‘The one who is sitting there is a friend of mine.’

(2) *se* *mo saanga*, *jie* (*ki*) *seThi basich-i*.

he.NOM my friend *who(R).NOMPRT there is.sitting-3s* ‘=(1)’

The parts and types of sentences such as above are referred to as follows. Of the two constituent clauses of a sentence, the one containing the relative pronoun (the pronoun beginning with *j-*) will be called as **relative clause**, and the other, as **head clause**. The coreferent noun phrases in the relative and head clauses are respectively called **relative phrase** and **head phrase**. Of the two types of relative clauses, the one which precedes the head clause, as in (1), will be called **left-adjoined** relative clause, and the one which follows the head clause, as in (2), **right-adjoined** relative clause. The particle *ki*, cliticized to the relative pronoun, occurs optionally in the right-adjoined relative clause, but never in the left-adjoined relative clause.

The referents of the relative and head phrases are determined as schematically illustrated in (3). With the left-adjoined relative clause such as (1), the relative phrase (*jie*) gives as its referent an instance of entity fitting into the setting given by the relative clause, and then the head phrase (*se*) anaphorizes (that is, adopts the referent of) the relative phrase. With the right-adjoined relative clause, the head phrase presents its referent and then the relative phrase (*jie*) anaphorizes the head noun phrase.



These semantic aspects explain differential application of structural constraints to the two constructions. Sections 2–4 to follow each discuss one such case.

4. (I) Structural (Un-)Boundedness of the Relativization

A first difference between left- and right-adjoined relative clauses concerns the structural boundedness or unboundedness. Relativization with a left-adjoined relative clause is bounded by some structures, while relativization with a right-adjoined relative clause is not.

Left-adjoined relativization is bounded by some clause structures. The force of bounding varies from structure to structure. It is most robust with the structures of relative clause, bracketed in (4), and of the adversative conditional clause, bracketed in (5). (Both clauses are finite, in which the verb conjugates for person and number.) Applying left-adjoined relativization beyond these structures results in totally unacceptable sentences. Identical subscripts indicate the sameness in reference. (The boundedness of relativization by a relative clause, as in (4), is observed by Kachru 1978:20 for Hindi, and Mohanan 1984:375 for Malayalam.)

- (4) * [jeu~ jhia_i jaahaa_j rosei kar-e], taahaa_j tume khaa-ibaa-ku caahuch-a,
which(R) girl what(R) cooking does-3s it you.NOM eat-GER-OBJ are.wanting-2p
 se_i kie?
she.NOM who(Q).NOM

‘Who is she such that_i [you want to eat the thing_j which_j that girl_i cooks]?’

- (5) * [jie_i aas-u naa kaahi~ki] tume khusi heb-a ni,
who(R).NOM come.OPT-3s or why you.NOM glad will.become-2p not
 semiti_i loka-ku Daakib-a ni.
of.that.sort man-OBJ will.call-2p not

‘Don’t invite such_i a man as [even if he_i comes you won’t be glad].’

This fact derives in this way. (i) The relative pronoun can only get interpretation in relation to its context. (ii) It is prone to get interpreted in a minimal constituent containing it.

The relative pronoun can only occur within one of such contexts as are able to

determine its interpretation. Thus, it cannot occur in a declarative clause: Sentence (6) is judged either as simply unacceptable or as involving a colloquial abbreviation of *jie hele* ‘anyone: who(R).NOM become-COND’.

- (6) * *jie aas-i paare.*
who(R).NOM come-CP can-3s

The concessive clause is one of the contexts able to host a relative pronoun in it.

- (7) *jie_i aas-u naa kaahi~ki mu~ khusi heb-i ni.*
who(R).NOM come.OPT-3s or why me.NOM glad will.become-1s not
 ‘Whoever comes I won’t be glad’

The relative pronoun can scope exactly over the finite concessive clause, as in (8), but cannot do so beyond it, as in (5).

Incidentally, the fact is not that simple with *non*-finite concessive clauses. A non-finite concessive enables a relative pronoun to occur in it, as in (7), and does not prevent the relative pronoun from having a scope beyond it, as in (9).

- (8) *jie aas-ile bi mu~ khusi heb-i ni.*
who(R).NOM come.COND even me.NOM glad will.become-1s not ‘=(7)’

- (9) *jie aas-ile bi tume khusi heb-a ni,*
who(R).NOM come.COND even you.NOM glad will.become-2p not
semiti_i loka-ku Daakib-a ni.
of.that.sort man-OBJ will.call-2p not ‘=(5)’

Right-adjoined relativization, unlike left-adjoined relativization, *can* go into a relative clause as in (10), and into an adversative conditional clause as in (11).

- (10) *se_i kie,*
she.NOM who(Q).NOM
 [jeu~ jhia_i (ki) jaahaa_j rosei kar-e], taahaa_j tume khaa-ibaa-ku caahuch-a?
which(R) girl PRT what(R) cooking does-3s it you.NOM eat-GER-OBJ are.wanting-2p
 ‘Who is she such that_i [you want to eat the thing_j which_j that girl_i cooks]?’

- (11) *emiti loka-ku Daakib-a ni,*
of.this.sort man-OBJ will.call-2p not
 [jie_i (ki) aas-u naa kaahi~ki] tume khusi heba ni.
who(R).NOM PRT come.OPT-3s or why you.NOM glad will.become-2p not
 ‘Don’t invite such_i a man as [even if he_i comes you won’t be glad].’

In (10) and (11), the particle *ki* is preferably present to make it explicit that the relative

phrase refers to a phrase preceding it. The possibility of sentences like (10) (a case of right-adjoined relativization out of a left-adjoined relative clause) is also noted by Hock (1989:109,122,fn.14) for Sanskrit and Hindi, and illustrated with Sanskrit (12) and its Hindi translation.

- (12) Sā_i vai daivī vāg
it(f) surely divine speech(f)
 [yayā_i yad yad_j eva vadati] tad tad_j bhavati
which(R)(f).INST what(R) what(R)(n) exactly say-3s it it(n) occur-3s
 ‘Divine speech is a faculty such that *i* [what you speak by means of it *i*, that comes about].’ (*Bṛhad-A-raṇyaka-Upaniṣad* 1.3.27, cited in Hock p.109.
 Translation modified and gloss added. (*f*)=feminine, (*n*)=neuter)

Thus, the structural position of the relative phrase in the relative clause matters left-adjoined relativization but not right-adjoined relativization. (In the latter case, the relative phrase needs to come linearly toward the beginning of the relative clause. See section 5.) The contrast between the two relativization strategies can be accounted as follows. In left-adjoined relativization, the referent of the relative phrase is fixed by the relative clause, which restricts the range of potential referents. The relative clause is delineated in structural terms: It cannot expand over the minimal clause eligible for this purpose, which is the smaller relative clause in (4) and the adversative clause in (5). This requirement is a case of the “chain-of-command principle” of Langacker (1969): If (i) two identical nodes A1 and A2 both command some other node B; and (ii) A1 commands A2, and (iii) A2 does not command A1; then any transformation involving A and B can apply only with respect to A2 and B and not A1 and B. In (5), the relative clause is A1, and the concessive clause is A2, and the relative phrase is B.

In the right-adjoined relative clause, the referent of the relative phrase is fixed by anaphorizing the head phrase, without reference to the expression in its context. The relative clause here is imparting an attribute to the referent fixed in the head clause. This implicates no concern with the structure of the expression containing the relative phrase. Accordingly no effect is observed of the structural embedding of the relative phrase.

It now remains to explain why English relativization cannot operate into a relative clause, a well-known fact: **the book_i which_i you know the man who wrote ___i: *the girl_i who_i you want to eat a thing which has been cooked by ___i*. The relative phrase follows the antecedent, and therefore, on our present view, it anaphorizes the antecedent. The process of fixing the referent of the relative phrase does not implicate reference to the

structure of the relative clause. However, in English, reference to the structure of the relative clause is made, for a reason not pertinent in Oriya. English lacks such unmarked ordering possibility as a structurally deeply embedded relative phrase would happen to be placed at the beginning of the whole clause, which is available in Oriya. In order for the relative phrase to occur at the beginning of the relative clause, it must be displaced through the structure of the relative clause, thereby marking its reference to the structure. This operation is constrained by the Chain-of-Command Principle.

3. (II) (Im-)Possibility of a Bare Noun as the Head Phrase

The second difference concerns the possibility of the head phrase being bare, that is, without a demonstrative pronoun in it. It is impossible in a left-adjoined relative clause, and possible in a right adjoined relative clause.

A left-adjoined relative clause does not admit a bare head phrase (Srivastav 1991:648–650, Subbarao 1984:12–13). The sentence in (13) is only possible with the demonstrative pronoun *sei* ‘that’.

- (13) *jeu~ pilaa kaali aasithil-aa, *(sei) pilaa mo saanga.*
 which(R) child yesterday had.come-3s that child my friend
 ‘The child who came yesterday, that child is my friend.’

The necessity of the demonstrative pronoun is motivated by the fact that the head phrase anaphorizes the relative phrase. (Essentially the view of a reviewer of Srivastav 1991, though rejected in p.650,fn.14, *ibid.*)

I should note that the demonstrative pronoun is also necessary if the relative clause has non-restrictive (rather than restrictive) interpretation, as in (14). (Non-restrictive usage with a left-adjoined relative clause is confined to a narrow range of cases. See Yamabe 1998.)

- (14) *jeu~ maami kaanduthil-aa, *(sei) maami ebe hasuch-i.*
 which(R) Mami was.weeping-3s that Mami now is.laughing-3s
 ‘Mami, who was weeping, is now laughing.’

This restriction is a particular case of a more general restriction applicable also outside the relative clause construction. With the left-hand adjunction of a noun phrase (rather than a relative clause), as in (15) and (16), the noun phrase in the head clause cannot be bare but calls for a demonstrative pronoun.

(15) kaali aasith-ibaa pilaa, *(sei) pilaa mo saanga.
yesterday had.come-GER boy that boy my friend
 ‘The child who came yesterday, (that) boy is my friend.’

(16) kaanduthib-aa maami, *(sei) maami ebe hasuch-i.
be.weeping-GER Mami that Mami now is.laughing-3s
 ‘Mami who was weeping, she is now laughing.’

A right-adjoined relative clause does admit a bare head phrase. Here the direction of anaphora is reversed so that that the head phrase does not anaphorize any phrase.

(17) (sei) Mami ebe hasuch-i, jie kaanduthil-aa.
that Mami now is.laughing-3s who(R).NOM was.weeping-3s
 ‘Mami is now laughing, who was weeping.’

Similarly, the right-hand adjunction of a noun phrase does not necessitate a demonstrative pronoun, as in (18).

(18) (sei) maami ebe hasuch-i, kaanduthib-aa maami.
that Mami now is.laughing-3s be.weeping-GER Mami
 ‘Mami is now laughing, Mami who was weeping.’

I will cite three constructions below, in which the relative pronoun is going with a bare head noun. They are possible only with the left-adjoined, but not right-adjoined, relative clause. Functionally, they bring fresh information into the discourse. In them the head phrase introduces its referent into the discourse, while with a demonstrative pronoun as in (2) it presents its referent as already given in the discourse.

One is to reveal the identity of the head and relative phrases, as in (19).

(19) a. goTie maatra desa-re sabu dharma-ra loka rahuch-anti,
one only country-LOC all religion-GEN man are.living-3p
 jaahaa-ra naama ki bhaarata.
who(R)-GEN name PRT India

‘There is only one country in which people of all religions live;
 its name is India.’

b. jaNe maatra loka ahinsaa dvaaraa samastan-ku jaya kari paarithil-e,
one one man non-violence by all-OBJ victory do-CP could-3p
 jie ki heuch-anti mahaatmaa gaandhi.
who(R).NOM PRT was.becoming-3p Mahatma Gandhi

‘Only one person was capable of defeating everyone by non-violence;

that is, Mahatma Gandhi.’

The relative phrases are referring to the indefinite head phrases *goTie maatra desa* ‘only one country’ in (19a) and *jaNe maatra loka* ‘only one person’ in (19b).

Another usage involves *jathaa/jemiti* ‘which.way(R)’, which is followed by a pause (or a written dash) and can be translated as ‘For example’ or ‘Thus’. (For a mention of the Hindi counterpart, *jaise* ‘for example’, as a form of the relative pronoun, see Sharma 1969:99.) A pause occurs after *jathaa/jemiti*, as indicated with a dash in (20).

- (20) apaadaana kaaraka-re paancami bibhakti hu-e.
removal case.relation-LOC fifth case become-3s
 jathaa — gacha-ru phaLa jhaD-ilaa.
 in.which.way(R) tree-ABL fruit fell(past)-3s

‘For the case relation of removal the fifth [=ablative, *-ru*] case occurs.

For example, *gacharu phaLa jhaDilaa* ‘A fruit dropped down from the tree.’

(Mahapatra and Das 1994:49, in the text)

The relative pronoun *jathaa* is anaphorizing the whole head clause.

The usage last to be mentioned is to reveal a property. Sentence (21a) is acceptable as an answer to the question “What sort of guy is Nabin?”: Its relative clause imparts the property sought for. The relative phrase refers to *emiti pilaa* ‘such a guy.’ In (21b), **emiti* ‘like this’ yields a meaningless sentence. The sentence with *semiti* ‘like that’ does not serve as an appropriate answer.: It would be presupposing the property as given in the discourse, meaning: “Given that you are looking for such a person, Nabin is one.”

- (21) a. nabina {emiti/ semiti} pilaa, jaahaa-ku ki samaste bhalapaa-aanti.
 Nabin like.this/like.that guy who(R)-OBJ PRT all.NOMJ like-3p
 ‘Nabin is such a guy as everybody likes him.’

- b. jaahaa-ku samaste bhalapaa-anti, nabina {*emiti/ #semiti} pilaa.

4. (III) (Im-)Possibility of the Relative Pronoun + the Particle *bi* ‘ever’

The third difference between the left- and right-adjoined relative clauses concerns the possibility of the relative phrase with the particle *bi* ‘also, even, ever’, to convey indifference about the identity of the referent. It is possible in a left-adjoined relative clauses, as in (22a), but not in a right-adjoined relative clause, (22b). The observation is originally made by Verma (1971:119) for the Hindi cognate *bhii* ‘ever’.

- (22) a. jie bi paDh-e, se paas hu-e.
 who(R).NOM ever study-3s he.NOM passed become-3s
 ‘Whosoever studies passes the exam.’

- b. se paas hue, jie (*bi) paDh-e. ‘=(22a)’

The relative pronoun, when added with the particle *bi*, ceases to be anaphoric, hence the ill-formedness of sentence (22a). (The relative pronoun + *bi* refers to something lying outside the currently immediate domain of attention, something incompatible with being anaphoric. See Yamabe 1999.) The anaphorizing role of the demonstrative pronoun in (22a) is not affected by the addition of *bi* to the relative pronoun.

5. (IV) The Linearly Regulated/Free Word Order of the Relative Phrase

The difference last to be mentioned concerns the linear (as distinct from structural) position of the relative phrase. In a right-adjoined relative clause the relative phrase occurs toward the beginning of the clause, while in a left-adjoined relative clause it is free from that regulation. As for the facts of right-adjoined clauses, we find the descriptions in the literature in Indo-Arian languages to diverge from each other.

According to Dasgupta (1983:29 – 30), in Bengali right-adjoined relatives, the non-clause-initial positioning of the relative pronoun as in (23a) is ‘acceptable, though less than’ the clause-initial positioning. As for his example in (23a), it is to be noted that the relative pronoun is not just in non-clause-initial position, but it is very far away from it, preceded by more than one constituent, and that even then the sentence is only less than perfect (?) rather than unacceptable.

- (23) a. ? o ki ni-te ceyechil-o [tumi o-ke jaa ni-te da-o ni] ?
 he what(Q) take-INF wanted-3 you he-OBJ what(R) take-INF gave-2 not
 ‘What did (s) he want to take that you didn’t let him/her take?’

- b. o ki ni-te ceyechil-o [jaa tumi o-ke ni-te da-o ni] ?

(Dasgupta 1983, notation and gloss modified. *INF=infinitive*)

Kachru’s (1978:21) comment comes near to this: [In the right-adjoined relative clause] ‘the relative marker J [=relative pronoun] is generally moved to the front of the relative clause. [...] [In the left-adjoined relative clause] there is no preference attached to such fronting of the relative marker.’ According to my observation for Oriya, the preference is slight but discernible: The further away from the beginning the relative phrase is, the more uncommon (if not unacceptable) the sentence is felt to be.

Some find the preference to be absolute. Bal (1990:75–76) reports the observation in Oriya, attributing it to Probal Dasgupta (p.80,fn.6), that in right-adjoined relatives, the relative must be at the beginning of the relative clause, as in (iiib) and (iiic).

- (24) a. [jaadu jaahaa·ku maarithil·aa], se aaji aasib·a.
Jadu who-OBJ had.beat-3s he.NOM today will.come-3s
 ‘The one whom Jadu beat will come today.’
- b. * se aaji aasib·a, [jaadu jaahaa·ku maarithil·aa].
- c. se aaji aasib·a, [jaahaa·ku jaadu maarithil·aa].

(Bal 1990:75–76, gloss adapted, translation modified)

The ungrammaticality of sentences like (25b) in Hindi-Urdu is mentioned by Bains (1989:78,104,106,139,141).

Still others find no preference of this kind, making no distinction on the matter between the left- and right-adjoined types. According to Bhatia (1993:57–58), in Punjabi, the relative pronoun may remain in non-initial position, whether the relative clause (embraced in []) follows the head clause, as in (25a), or immediately follows the head noun, as in (25b), or precedes the head clause, as in (25c).

- (25) a. ma~i ó kataab vekhii [raam ne ji (s) nüü likhiaa].
me.NOM that book saw Ram ERG what(R) OBJ wrote
 ‘I saw the book which Ram wrote.’ (gloss modified. ERG=ergative)
- b. ma~i ó kataab [raam ne ji (s) nüü likhiaa] vekhii.
me.NOM that book Ram ERG what(R) OBJ wrote saw
- c. [raam ne ji (s) kataab nüü likhiaa] ma~i ó vekhii.
Ram ERG whcih(R) book OBJ wrote me.NOM it saw

Gambhir (1981:164) gives judgments in Hindi that go with (25b).

Generalizing over the above on a right-adjoined relative clause, there are two aspects to the constraint as a “tendency”: (i) The relative phrase most typically comes clause-initially, and (ii) the degrees of tolerance for the deviation from this vary from language to language, and within one language from speaker to speaker. The relative phrase here is referring to something preceding it (and has no discursal function related to prominence such focus), so it preferably comes early. Note that tendency can be better explained in interpretative terms rather than in structural ones such as movement to some hierarchical position.. In a left-adjoined clause, the relative phrase is not anaphorizing, so no comparable tendency is observed.

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Pronunciation aa=[a], a=[ɔ], D,T,L=retroflexes, ~ =vowel nasalization

Abbreviations ABL=ablative, COND=conditional, CP=conjunctive participle (roughly, an adverbial form of a verb), NOM=nominative, GER=gerund (roughly, a nominalized form of a verb), LOC=locative, OBJ=objective, OPT=optative, PRT=particle *ki*, p=plural, (Q)=interrogative pronoun, (R)=relative pronoun, s=singular, 1, 2, 3=1st, 2nd, 3rd person