

This paper deals with a class of morphological alternations that seem to involve syntactic adjacency. More specifically, it deals with alternative realizations of syntactic terminals that occur when a particular phrase immediately follows a particular head. We argue that this type of allomorphy is not conditioned by a syntactic adjacency condition. Instead, it is found when the head and phrase in question are contained in the same prosodic phrase at the interface that connects syntax and phonology (PF). We illustrate our approach with six case studies, concerning agreement weakening in Dutch and Arabic, pronoun weakening in Middle Dutch and Celtic, and pro drop in Old French and Arabic.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Various apparently syntactic phenomena seem to be conditioned by adjacency. Perhaps the best-known example is case assignment in English. Abstracting away from details, a DP dependent on the verb for case must be adjacent to it, whereas the distribution of caseless elements, such as PP complements, is not restricted in the same way (Stowell 1981):

- (1) a. John read (\*slowly) the book  
b. John read (slowly) to his children

We assume that syntax deals with hierarchical rather than linear relationships, which means that linear locality conditions such as adjacency are alien to it. Hence, linear locality conditions that are syntactic at first blush must be reanalyzed in one of two ways. The first is to develop a hierarchical account that happens to have the adjacency effect as a by-product. This is essentially the approach Chomsky (1995) adopts for the data in (1). The alternative is to analyze the adjacency requirement

in terms of the phonology-syntax interface, which by its very nature deals with matters of linear order and therefore provides a natural locus for linear locality conditions.

We do not address the issue of case adjacency in this paper (see Neeleman & Weeman 1999 for a prosodic account). Instead, we show that for a range of phenomena that are apparently conditioned by syntactic adjacency, a PF approach is more attractive, both conceptually and empirically. The data we discuss involve agreement weakening under subject-verb inversion in Dutch (section 3) and Standard Arabic (section 4); object cliticization in Middle Dutch (section 5), subject cliticization in Celtic (section 6), and pro drop in Old French (section 7) and Arabic (section 8). Before we turn to these phenomena, however, we make explicit our assumptions about the syntax-phonology mapping and discuss the kind of rules we will employ.

## 2. ALLOMORPHY RULES AT THE PF INTERFACE

As is well known, phonological representations are not necessarily isomorphic to syntactic representations, and phonological and syntactic primitives are members of disjoint sets. A simple example illustrating this, borrowed from Jackendoff (1997:26), is given in (2). In syntax, *a big house* is a DP that consists of a determiner and a complex NP complement. In phonology, it consists of two phonological words, the first of which is formed by the determiner and the adjective. So, both constituency and labels differ.

- (2) a. [DP a [NP [AP big] house]]  
b. [<sub>φ</sub> [<sub>ω</sub> a big] [<sub>ω</sub> house]]

One interpretation of the different nature of syntactic and phonological representations is that syntax and phonology each constitute an autonomous generative system that creates structures governed by its own wellformedness principles.

This hypothesis in turn entails that there must be an interface, usually referred to as PF, at which syntactic representations are mapped to their phonological counterparts. We assume that the following operations take place at this interface, in the given order. These can be seen as a series of mappings or as a derivation that connects autonomous syntactic and phonological representations.

- (3) a. Linearization of syntactic terminals
- b. Initial prosodic phrasing, on the basis of syntactic information
- c. Application of context-sensitive allomorphy rules
- d. Spell-out of terminals

The first thing that happens in the mapping from syntax to PF is the introduction of linear order. We will not discuss the principles that determine this linearization here; the only relevant observation for our concerns is the trivial one that this process is sensitive to syntactic constituency.

Next, an initial prosodic phrasing is determined. The principles responsible for this are sensitive to both syntactic constituency and linear order. The main operation is one that aligns certain syntactic boundaries with certain prosodic boundaries. The prosodic domains thus derived determine the application of the rules of allomorphy that form the topic of this paper. These rules can change the featural content of a terminal in the presence of another terminal in the same prosodic domain.

Finally, phonological material is associated with the bundles of features in the terminals. For example, English has a lexical rule that relates the feature bundle [D, 3<sup>rd</sup> person, singular, feminine, accusative] to the phonological form /her/. (Where relevant, we place phonological material between forward slashes). After spell-out, within the phonological module, the prosodic structure can be adjusted on the basis of properties of the inserted phonological material and perhaps factors like speech rate. Such adjustments can, amongst other things, be made to ensure correct weight

distribution. For example, if the initial prosodic structure contains a  $\phi$  that is not prominent enough from a phonological point of view, such a  $\phi$  is usually joined with a preceding or following  $\phi$  (see Nespor & Vogel 1986: 172-174 for such restructuring of phonological phrases; compare also the ‘wrapped’ structures in Truckenbrodt 1999). Because the rules of allomorphy that we discuss operate at the PF interface, they are not be sensitive to these ‘late’ phonological adjustments of the prosodic structure (compare also Kaisse’s (1985) model).

This view on the interface between syntax and phonology has a close affinity with the model of Distributed Morphology (see Halle & Marantz 1993 and subsequent work) and precursors of this model (like Pranka 1983). In particular, we adopt from this framework the notion of spell-out (or vocabulary insertion) and the idea that there are post-syntactic allomorphy rules that adjust the feature content of terminals in particular environments. The main difference concerns the claim that allomorphy rules can be sensitive to initial prosodic phrasing. The Morphology module in Distributed Morphology, which is where the relevant allomorphy rules operate, precedes all phonology (but see Adger 2001, where an argument is made for initial prosodic word structure as the conditioning environment for certain allomorphy rules). We will show that, as a consequence of this difference, the scope of context-sensitive allomorphy rules is extended to a class of phenomena usually dealt with in syntax.

Let us now discuss in some more detail the principles of initial prosodic phrasing and the allomorphy rules sensitive to this phrasing, starting with the former.

As noted, the initial prosodic structure is determined by alignment conditions that associate boundaries of syntactic categories with boundaries of phonological categories (see Selkirk 1986, McCarthy & Prince 1993, Truckenbrodt 1995, amongst others). In English, for example, the right edges of syntactic XPs arguably correspond to the right edges of prosodic phrases ( $\phi$ s). We can hence state the following mapping rule for this language:

- (4)           Align (<right edge, XP>, <right edge,  $\phi$ >)

Thus, the (partial) syntactic structure in (5a) corresponds to the (partial) prosodic structure in (5b). (Here and below  $\phi$  boundaries are indicated by braces).

- (5) a.     [[A friend [of Mary's]] [showed [some pictures] [to John]]]  
b.     {A friend of Mary's} {showed some pictures} {to John}

There is language variation with respect to the direction of alignment. Some languages adhere to (4), whereas others align left edges of syntactic maximal projections with left edges of prosodic phrases. From the research on this variation a generalization has emerged: head-initial languages typically opt for right alignment and head-final languages for left alignment (see Selkirk 1986). Tokizaki (1999) gives the following lists of languages to illustrate the generalization:

- (6) a.     *Right-alignment in head-initial languages:*  
Chimwi:ni (Kisseberth & Abasheikh 1974, Selkirk 1986), Kimatuumbi (Odden 1987), Xiamen (Chen 1987)  
b.     *Left-alignment in head-final languages:*  
Ewe (Clements 1978), Japanese (Selkirk & Tateishi 1991), Korean (Cho 1990), Northern Kyungsang Korean (Kenstowicz & Sohn 1996), Shanghai Chinese (Selkirk & Shen 1990)

The languages we discuss in this paper are either strictly or mainly head-initial. Therefore, if the generalization is correct, they will adhere to (4), rather than display left alignment.

Although the analyses we present all rely on right alignment as in (4), it goes without saying that there are various other mapping principles that govern the association of syntactic and prosodic structures. For example, the left edge of finite CPs in English coincides with the left edge of an intonational phrase, as observed by Chomsky & Halle (1968:372). Given that prosodic phrases

must be properly contained in intonational phrases, the syntactic structure in (7a) is not mapped onto the prosodic structure in (7b), as one would expect on the basis of (4) alone, but rather onto (7b') (parentheses indicate intonational phrases).

- (7) a. [[John] [believes [<sub>CP</sub> that [Mary] [loves [Bill]]]]]]  
 b. \*({John} {believes} (that Mary) {loves Bill})  
 b'. ({John} {believes}) ({that Mary} {loves Bill})

Conversely, some boundaries triggered by (4) can be erased again. In particular, prosodic boundaries are erased between a modifier and a following  $\phi$  that contains the material it modifies: in such structures, modifier and modified material form a single prosodic phrase. For instance, the earlier example in (2b) is a single prosodic phrase. This rule must operate at the PF interface, and cannot be a 'late' phonological adjustment of the type mentioned above, since its application is determined by syntactic rather than phonological factors (the modifier-modifiee relation is a syntactic one). Consequently, allomorphy rules will be sensitive to the output of this rule.

It has been argued by a number of authors that there exists a type of allomorphy that involves a change in the feature content of terminals.<sup>1</sup> In particular, features can be deleted postsyntactically but prior to spell-out. This is the essence of Bonet's (1991, 1995) rules of impoverishment. Bonet notes that such feature reduction does not take place arbitrarily, but requires a certain context (compare also Halle & Marantz's (1993) notion of 'conditioned allomorphy'). Our main hypothesis is that one type of context to which allomorphy can be sensitive is the initial prosodic domain as determined by the principles just discussed. In other words, languages may have rules of the type in (8), which state that features of a terminal contained in the same  $\phi$  as a particular other terminal are deleted. (The order of A and B in (8) is not meant to be part of the structural description of the rule).

$$(8) \quad \{ \dots [{}_A F_1 F_2] \dots [{}_B F_1 F_3] \dots \} \rightarrow \{ \dots [{}_A F_2] \dots [{}_B F_1 F_3] \dots \}$$

Obviously, this will affect the phonological realization of A (the terminal whose feature content is changed) if the language has spell-out rules that crucially refer to the deleted feature:

$$(9) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & [{}_A F_1 F_2] \rightarrow /a/ \\ \text{b.} & [{}_A F_2] \rightarrow /a'/ \end{array}$$

Usually, the element A will be realized as /a/ when it bears the features  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ , but as a result of (8) it will be realized as /a'/, the form that normally surfaces when  $F_1$  is absent.

Let us now consider the effects the prosodic phrasing determined by (4) has for the application of rules like (8). Consider structures in which A is a head in whose projection a phrase BP appears. If the language forms phonological phrases in accordance with (4), A and B will occur in the same prosodic phrase if BP immediately follows A. In all other contexts, A and B will not be contained in the same prosodic phrase. This means that a feature deletion rule like (8), which affects A only if B is present in the same local prosodic domain, can apply in (10) but not in (11) (where BP precedes A) or (12) (where a maximal projection intervenes between A and BP).<sup>2</sup>

$$(10) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & \text{after linearization:} & [{}_{AP} [{}_A F_1 F_2] [{}_{BP} [{}_B F_1 F_3]]] \\ \text{b.} & \text{after application of (4):} & \{ [{}_A F_1 F_2] [{}_B F_1 F_3] \} \\ \text{c.} & \text{after application of (8):} & \{ [{}_A F_2] [{}_B F_1 F_3] \} \\ \text{d.} & \text{after spell-out (cf. (9b))}: & \{ /a'/ /b/ \} \end{array}$$

$$(11) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & \text{after linearization:} & [{}_{AP} [{}_{BP} [{}_B F_1 F_3]] [{}_A F_1 F_2]] \\ \text{b.} & \text{after application of (4):} & \{ [{}_B F_1 F_3] \} \{ [{}_A F_1 F_2] \} \end{array}$$

- c. (8) not applicable:  $\{[_B F_1 F_3]\} \{[_A F_1 F_2]\}$
- d. after spell-out (cf. (9a)):  $\{/b/\} \{/a/\}$
- (12) a. after linearization:  $[_{AP} [_A F_1 F_2] [_{XP} X] [_{BP} [_B F_1 F_3]]]$
- b. after application of (4):  $\{[_A F_1 F_2] X\} \{[_B F_1 F_3]\}$
- c. (8) not applicable:  $\{[_A F_1 F_2] X\} \{[_B F_1 F_3]\}$
- d. after spell-out (cf. (9a)):  $\{/a/ /x/\} \{/b/\}$

By its very nature, spell-out is language-specific. Languages simply do not realize the same feature bundles in the same way. If this is true of spell-out in general, it also holds of the class of allomorphy rules under discussion. However, although the content of such rules is language-specific, there are general restrictions on their format and application.

Concerning their format, we can distinguish two general types. The first consists of rules of the format in (8), which delete a morpho-syntactic feature.<sup>3</sup> We assume that such suppression of a morpho-syntactic feature is subject to a notion of recoverability: the target of the rule and the terminal mentioned in the rule's context must agree:

(13) *Recoverability*

Rules of suppression operate under agreement

This does not imply that each suppressed feature must be related to an unsuppressed agreeing feature, but rather that the terminal whose features are suppressed must be in a relation of agreement with a terminal whose features are not suppressed. Suppression of non-agreeing features can be parasitic on this agreement relation.

The second type of allomorphy rule states that if a particular terminal finds itself in the same prosodic domain as some other terminal, its phonological realization is altered. For example, the



rule can state that a pronoun is to be realized as a simple clitic in the presence of another terminal in the same prosodic domain. Since a simple clitic forms a phonological word with its host, this type of allomorphy rule can have the form in (14), where angled brackets indicate phonological word ( $\omega$ ) boundaries.

$$(14) \quad \{ \dots A \dots [_{\text{B}} F_1 F_3] \dots \} \rightarrow \{ \dots \langle A \dots [_{\text{B}} F_1 F_3] \rangle \dots \}$$

Rules like (14) do not delete a morpho-syntactic feature in their target, and hence are not subject to the condition in (13). This means that such rules will not require that A shares certain features with B. However, since *some* terminal must be present in the same  $\Phi$  as B, the rule must mention one or more features that identify this terminal. This has the effect that cliticization on the basis of rules like (14) will typically apply after a certain class of syntactic heads only.

This kind of rule, too, can lead to an alternative spell-out of a terminal, namely if the usual form of B is itself a phonological word. In that case, insertion of this form is incompatible with the output of the rule, since by the strict layer hypothesis (Selkirk 1984) prosodic structure is not recursive. There must then be a special spell-out for the clitic form in order to comply with the output of (14). Thus, the language contains two spell-out rules for B, one which realizes it as an independent phonological word (see (15a)), and one that inserts something smaller than a phonological word, for instance a syllable ( $\sigma$ ; see (15b)).

$$(15) \quad \begin{array}{ll} \text{a.} & [_{\text{B}} F_1 F_3] \rightarrow /b_{\omega}/ \\ \text{b.} & [_{\text{B}} F_1 F_3] \rightarrow /b_{\sigma}/ \end{array}$$

The form in (15b) can only be inserted if a rule like (14) has applied, as otherwise a syllable would be directly dominated by a prosodic phrase rather than a prosodic word, again in violation of the strict layer hypothesis.

It is also possible that the language contains a specific spell-out rule for the complete phonological word derived by (14), next to spell-out rules for the individual host and pronoun. In that case, the inserted form need not resemble the normal realization of either the host or the pronoun:

- (16) a.  $A \rightarrow /a/$   
 b.  $[_B F_1 F_3] \rightarrow /b/$   
 c.  $\langle A [_B F_1 F_3] \rangle \rightarrow /c/$

Like the rule in (8), the one in (14) will only apply if BP, the phrase headed by B, is contained in AP and immediately follows A. Thus  $[_{AP} A BP]$  is mapped onto  $\{ \langle /a/ /b_\sigma/ \rangle \}$  or  $\{ \langle /c/ \rangle \}$ , depending on the spell-out rules of the language. If BP precedes A or some other phrase intervenes between A and BP, A and B will not end up in the same initial prosodic phrase, and hence  $[_{AP} BP A]$  and  $[_{AP} A XP BP]$  are mapped onto  $\{ /b/ \} \{ /a/ \}$  and  $\{ /a/ /x/ \} \{ /b/ \}$ , respectively.

Our second type of allomorphy rule, as schematized in (14), resembles Pranka's (1983) notion of S-structure merger. Pranka proposes that languages may have rules that join the features of adjacent terminals at surface structure into a single node. This node can then be spelled out in a way that deviates from the phonological realization of the merged terminals in isolation. Indeed, the Irish data to be discussed in section 6 below, which we analyze in terms of a rule of the type in (14), are analyzed by Pranka in terms of merger.

Although S-structure merger and prosodic word formation at PF express essentially the same insight, we believe that the main advantage of making the rule sensitive to initial prosodic domains is that this correctly predicts in which contexts it can apply. To begin with, as just explained, it follows that the order between heads and phrases affected by the rule is not arbitrary: the phrase must follow the head. Pranka captures the data by stating a particular linear order as part of the structural description of the rule. However, it does not follow why this linear order condition

should select head-XP order, rather than XP-head. Similarly, Pranka states as an extra condition on the application of merger that it requires adjacency between terminals at S-structure.

As explained in the introduction, PF allomorphy rules provide an alternative to syntactic adjacency conditions.<sup>4</sup> Interestingly, they do not always require strict linear adjacency between the elements mentioned in the rule. Locality is an effect of prosodic domain formation and hence in principle elements can intervene as long as they do not trigger  $\phi$ -closure. However, rules of the type in (14) form prosodic words, which means that any material that intervenes between the terminals they mention and that must form a prosodic word itself will block their application. Hence, the only material that can intervene are other clitics.

The situation is different for rules that suppress morpho-syntactic features. These do not necessarily derive prosodic words. Hence, it is predicted that the terminals that instantiate A and B in (8) can be separated as long as no  $\phi$ -boundary intervenes. In practice, they can be separated by a modifier of B (recall that there is no prosodic phrase boundary between a modifier and following modified material) or a functional head in the extended projection of B.<sup>5</sup>

Let us now consider what kind of data can be accounted for in terms of this system.

### 3. DUTCH AGREEMENT WEAKENING

The Dutch verbal agreement paradigm has a curious property: the conjugation of the second person singular depends on the position of the agreeing verb with respect to the subject. As will be clear from the regular present tense endings in (17), the second person singular is usually marked by *-t*:

(17)	ik loop	wij loop-en
	<i>I walk</i>	<i>we walk-pl</i>
	jij loop-t	jullie loop-en
	<i>you walk-2sg</i>	<i>you walk-pl</i>

hij loop-t	zij loop-en
<i>he walk-3sg</i>	<i>they walk-pl</i>

Dutch has verb second in root clauses, a fact traditionally analyzed in terms of V-to-C raising in root environments followed by the fronting of an arbitrary constituent to spec-CP (see Den Besten 1983). Thus, when a constituent other than the subject is fronted, the net effect is subject-verb inversion:

- (18) a. [CP dat [Marie vandaag naar het vioolconcert van Sibelius luistert]]  
*that Mary today to the violin-concerto by Sibelius listens*  
‘that Mary listens to the violin concerto by Sibelius today’
- b. [CP Marie [C luistert [t<sub>DP</sub> vandaag naar het vioolconcert van Sibelius t<sub>V</sub>]]  
*Mary listen-3sg today to the violin-concerto by Sibelius*
- c. [CP Vandaag [C luistert [Marie t<sub>AdvP</sub> naar het vioolconcert van Sibelius t<sub>V</sub>]]]  
*today listen-3sg Mary to the violin-concerto by Sibelius*

Although agreement is not in general sensitive to this type of inversion, the *-t* ending that marks the second person singular is omitted in inversion structures. This results in a form homophonous to the first person singular (that is, a form without an overt ending):

- (19) a. [CP dat [jij dagelijks met een hondje over straat loopt]]  
*that you daily with a doggy in the street walk-2sg*  
‘that you walk with a doggy in the street every day’
- b. [CP Jij [C loopt [t<sub>DP</sub> dagelijks met een hondje over straat t<sub>V</sub>]]]  
*you walk-2sg daily with a doggy in the street*

- c. [CP Dagelijks [C' loop [jjj t<sub>AdvP</sub> met een hondje over straat t<sub>V</sub>]]]  
*daily walk you with a doggy in the street*

Although Dutch is head-final within VP, it is head-initial in most, if not all, other projections (for example, in DP, NP, PP, AP and CP). Given the generalization that head-initial languages comply with (4), Dutch will build up its initial prosodic structure by right-alignment as well. Thus, a sentence like (20a) receives an initial prosodic phrasing as in (20b), rather than (20c) (which would follow from left-alignment of prosodic and syntactic phrases).

- (20) a. [CP dat [IP [DP Han] [VP [PP aan [DP een [NP boek [PP over [DP Coltrane]]]]] werkt ]]]]  
*that Han on a book about Coltrane works*  
 ‘that Han works on a book about Coltrane’
- b. {dat Han} {aan een boek over Coltrane} {werkt}
- c. \*{dat} {Han} {aan} {een} {boek} {over} {Coltrane werkt}

For the most part, the structure in (20b) is uncontroversial, except that the object and the verb are initially parsed into different prosodic phrases. A right-alignment account of Dutch hence requires a post-PF adjustment rule that joins an unstressed verb with the prosodic phrase on its left (see section 2 for the notion of prosodic restructuring). A left-alignment account of Dutch, on the other hand, will have to undo almost all of the initial phrasing in (20c).

It follows from (4) that when there is subject-verb inversion, the subject DP is realized in the same prosodic phrase as the verb. This is illustrated in (21c), the prosodic structure corresponding to (19c). In contrast, in (21b) the subject’s right XP-boundary induces a  $\Phi$ -boundary between it and the verb. In the embedded clause in (21a) even more  $\Phi$ -boundaries intervene.

- (21) a. {dat jij} {dagelijks} {met een hondje} {over straat} {loopt}  
*that you daily with a doggy in the street walk-2sg*
- b. {Jij} {loopt dagelijks} {met een hondje} {over straat}  
*you walk-2sg daily with a doggy in the street*
- c. {Dagelijks} {loop jij} {met een hondje} {over straat}  
*daily walk you with a doggy in the street*

Consequently, (21a,b) require that subject agreement is spelled out in the regular way. However, if there is a specific allomorphy rule of the type in (8), it can apply in (21c). The omission of the inflectional ending in (20c)/(22c) can indeed be attributed to such a rule. To make this clear, let us consider the feature system underlying the (Dutch) person/number paradigm. (Here we will partially follow proposals by Kerstens (1993) and Harley & Ritter (2002)).

We assume the following rules for the realization of verbal agreement in the Dutch present tense. The features [Prt], [Add] and [Plr] are unitary and stand for participant (in the speech act), addressee and plural, respectively. Which rule applies is dictated by the elsewhere condition. (Note that the apparent syncretism of second and third person singular is a historical accident; various dialects of Dutch still have a distinct second person *-st* ending.)

- (22) a. [Prt] → ∅  
 b. [Prt, Add] → /-t/  
 c. [Plr] → /-en/  
 d. elsewhere form: /-t/

The agreement alternation illustrated in (19) and (21) can now be captured by an allomorphy rule that mentions prosodic phrases as its domain of application:

(23) *Dutch Agreement Weakening*

{[V Prt Add] [D Prt Add]} → {[V Prt] [D Prt Add]}

This rule states that the verb's [Add] feature is not realized if the verb is in the same prosodic domain as a second person DP. Consequently, the verb appears in its [Prt] form, that is, as the first person singular. (The rule will only apply in the present tense, since there is no person agreement in the past tense to begin with).

If the alternation in (21) is due to context-sensitive spell-out, it is predicted that a verb agreeing with a [Prt, Add] subject can only appear in its [Prt] form if no XP intervenes between the two. Intervention of an XP would have the consequence that the verb and the subject are no longer in the same prosodic phrase, in contrast to what the structural description of the rule demands. Indeed, fronting a constituent to a position between a verb in C and the subject is generally possible ((24)), except if the used form of the verb depends on the special rule in (23). This is shown in (25b) (see Paardekooper 1961 and Hoekstra 1996 for related discussion and observations).<sup>6</sup> Note that there is no strict adjacency condition on verb and pronoun in weakening contexts, since a modifier of the pronoun can intervene (there is no  $\phi$ -bracket between modifier and modifiee). In the example in (25a), the relevant modifier is the focus particle *zelfs* 'even'.<sup>7</sup>

(24) a. {Volgens mij} {gaat zelfs hij} {op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {naar het park}

*according-to me go-3sg even he on the hottest day of the year to the park*

'I think that even he goes to the park on the hottest day of the year.'

a'. {Volgens mij} {gaat op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {zelfs hij} {naar het park}

*according-to me go-3sg on the hottest day of the year even he to the park*

b. {Volgens mij} {ging zelfs jij} {op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {naar het park}

*according-to me went even you on the hottest day of the year to the park*

'I think that even you go to the park on the hottest day of the year.'

b'. {Volgens mij} {ging op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {zelfs jij} {naar het park}  
*according-to me went on the hottest day of the year even you to the park*

(25) a. {Volgens mij} {ga zelfs jij} {op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {naar het park}  
*according-to me go even you on the hottest day of the year to the park*

b. \*{Volgens mij} {ga op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {zelfs jij} {naar het park}  
*according-to me go on the hottest day of the year even you to the park*

When the allomorphy rule cannot apply, all agreement features are spelled out as usual. Thus, (25b) should improve if the *-t* ending expressing [Prt, Add] is used. Indeed, (26) is better than (25b).

(26) ?{Volgens mij} {gaat op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {zelfs jij} {naar het park}  
*according-to me go-2sg on the hottest day of the year even you to the park*

The example is not perfect, but this is presumably due to a parsing difficulty rather than to a principle of the grammar. Examples with a fronted constituent between verb and inverted subject are relatively rare. This means that the presence of a *-t* ending on a verb in structures with subject-verb inversion is a statistically reliable indication that a third person subject will follow. (Recall that, if there is no intervening material between verb and inverted subject, only third person singular subjects induce a *-t* ending on the verb). In general, it pays off in parsing to create predictive shortcuts. Hence, we speculate that if a speaker of Dutch encounters the string in (27), where XP is not the subject, he or she will expect a third person singular subject, with the consequence that the continuation in (26) creates a garden-path effect.<sup>8</sup>

(27) XP V-*t* ...



We may note that the effect gets weaker with repetition or if more material intervenes between verb and subject, as expected if it is psycholinguistic in nature. Real mismatches in agreement, as in (28) for instance, are much worse than (26) to begin with, and do not improve either with repetition of the type of example or if the distance between verb and subject is enlarged.

- (28) \*{Volgens mij} {gaan op de heetste dag van 't jaar} {zelfs jij} {naar het park}  
*according-to me go-pl on the hottest day of the year even you(sg) to the park*

So far, we have assumed the traditional analysis of verb second, which treats the phenomenon as uniform V-to-C raising. In other words, we assume that subject-initial and non-subject-initial root clauses differ with respect to the position of the subject (which is in spec-CP or spec-IP, respectively). Travis (1984) and Zwart (1997) advocate an alternative view, according to which it is the position of the verb that is different in the two cases. When there is subject-verb inversion the verb is still assumed to be in C, but in subject-initial structures the verb is assumed to be in I (which is taken to precede its complement in Dutch); the subject occupies spec-IP in both cases:

- (29) a. [<sub>IP</sub> Marie [<sub>I'</sub> luistert [vandaag naar het vioolconcert van Sibelius t<sub>V</sub>]]]  
*Mary listen-3sg today to the violin-concerto by Sibelius*
- b. [<sub>CP</sub> Vandaag [<sub>C</sub> luistert [<sub>IP</sub> Marie [<sub>I'</sub> t<sub>V</sub> t<sub>AdvP</sub> naar het vioolconcert van Sibelius t<sub>V</sub>]]]]  
*today listen-3sg Mary to the violin-concerto by Sibelius*

The proposed allomorphy rule is compatible with either analysis of verb second, as it does not mention the syntactic position of the verb. Hence, we will not try to decide between the two approaches (see Weerman 1989, Vikner & Schwartz 1996 and Williams 1998 for some discussion). However, at first sight the asymmetric theory of verb second seems to make available an alternative account of the Dutch agreement alternation in terms of an allomorphy rule that is sensitive to the

syntactic position of the verb. It could be argued that if V is in I or its base position, second person singular is realized as *-t*; while if it is in C, this ending is omitted. Using the features introduced above, this can be expressed by the rule in (30).

- (30) *Dutch Agreement Weakening*  
 [Prt Add] → [Prt] / [c \_\_\_]

Such an alternative account is not satisfactory. First, it is arbitrary that the weakening rule should mention C rather than I or the verb's base position. The distribution of full and weakened agreement could just as well have been the other way around. In contrast, our account ties the possibility of applying the weakening rule to the presence of an agreeing element in the same prosodic domain. Thus, it is no coincidence that it only applies when there is subject-verb inversion.

Second, the adjacency effect illustrated in (25) remains a mystery if agreement weakening is conditioned by the syntactic position of the verb only. In both (25a) and (25b) the verb is in C, the only difference being that in (25b) a constituent intervenes between verb and subject. That such intervention blocks application of the weakening rule suggests that the syntactic position of the verb is irrelevant. What the rule should state instead is that verb and subject must be in a local relation.

Third, Travis' and Zwart's analyses incorporate the traditional analysis of verb second as a subcase. It is still possible to raise the verb to C and move an arbitrary constituent to spec-CP. There is nothing in the theory as such that rules out derivations in which this arbitrary constituent is the subject. Thus, unless additional statements are added, subject-initial clauses are predicted to be ambiguous between a CP and an IP analysis. However, in that case subject-initial clauses should optionally show agreement weakening, in accordance with the rule in (30). This is not the case:

- (31) a. [IP Jij [I' loopt [dagelijks met een hondje over straat t<sub>v</sub>]]]  
*you walk-2SG daily with a doggy in the street*

- b. \*<sub>[CP Jij [<sub>C</sub> loop [<sub>IP</sub> t<sub>DP</sub> t<sub>V</sub> [dagelijks met een hondje over straat t<sub>V</sub>]]]]</sub>  
*you walk daily with a doggy in the street*

This last problem can be circumvented if subjects are barred from moving to spec-CP. For example, Zwart (1997) suggests that movement of an argument to spec-CP is triggered if it is either old information (a topic) or contrastive. Subjects can have these interpretations in situ (or at any rate in a position lower than spec-CP), and hence economy prevents them from moving into the COMP domain.

The assumption that movement of an argument to spec-CP is blocked in case it does not make available a new discourse function seems untenable to us. Objects, too, can be interpreted as contrastive or old information in their base position or a position lower than spec-CP. Nevertheless, they optionally move to spec-CP, as illustrated below for a contrastively focussed object. There does not seem to be a difference in the discourse status of *Jan* in the examples in (32).

- (32) a. JAN heb ik een boek gegeven, niet Piet  
*John have I a book given, not Pete*  
 ‘I have given a book to John, not to Pete.’
- b. Ik heb JAN een boek gegeven, niet Piet  
*I have John a book given, not Pete*

It could be that for some unknown reason subjects in general cannot be moved to topic or focus positions. But this would have to be a principle specific to Dutch, since in a language like Hungarian topic subjects and focussed subjects obligatorily move to the designated positions in the left periphery of the clause. Hence, the principle would serve no other function than to exclude the undesired examples of the type in (31b), making it ad hoc. Once an allomorphy rule sensitive to prosodic phrasing is adopted, however, it is no longer necessary to prevent the subject from moving

to spec-CP. If the subject precedes the verb, the rule will not apply, no matter whether the clause is a CP or IP.

#### 4. ARABIC AGREEMENT WEAKENING

In Dutch, agreement weakening is restricted to the second person singular (it targets the [Add] feature). Of course, similar rules may affect other features in other languages. In fact, a context-sensitive rule of suppression that targets the [Plr] feature can account for a well-known agreement alternation in Modern Standard Arabic.<sup>9</sup>

The basic observation is as follows. Standard Arabic is a VSO language which allows for the movement of various constituents to a preverbal position. If the subject is fronted, yielding SVO order, there is full agreement in person, number and gender (strong agreement). But if the subject remains in situ (or in spec-IP on some analyses), agreement is restricted to person and gender only (weak agreement). This is illustrated in (33) (unless indicated otherwise, all examples in this section are from Fassi Fehri 1993:28-32).

- (33) a.     daxal-at n-nisaaʔ-u makaatib-a-hunna  
*entered-FEM the-women-NOM office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*  
‘The women entered their offices.’
- a’.     \*daxal-na n-nisaaʔ-u makaatib-a-hunna  
*entered-FEM-PLR the-women-NOM office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*
- b.     n-nisaaʔ-u daxal-na makaatib-a-hunna  
*the-women-NOM entered-FEM-PLR office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*
- b’.     \*n-nisaaʔ-u daxal-at makaatib-a-hunna  
*the-women-NOM entered-FEM office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*

There is one exception to this general pattern: there is obligatory full agreement with postverbal pronominal subjects. We abstract away from this here, but return to it in section 8.

Although there seems to be general consensus that preverbal subjects are topics, their syntactic status is a matter of debate. It is sometimes suggested that they are uniformly in a left-dislocated position. On this view, strong agreement can be analysed as an incorporated subject pronoun (see section 6 on Irish); this pronoun would then be linked by coreference with a dislocated nominative DP. Such an analysis appears to be corroborated by the fact that there is a parallel construction involving objects:

- (34)            al-ʔawlaad-u darad-tu-hum  
                  *the-children-NOM beat-I-them*  
                  ‘The children, I beat them’

However, as Fassi Fehri (1993) points out, the view that preverbal subjects are uniformly left-dislocated is untenable. Note first that preverbal objects need not be accompanied by a resumptive clitic:

- (35)    a.        baqarat-an šaahad-tu  
                  *cow-ACC saw-I*  
                  ‘A cow, I saw’  
      b.        kull-a rajul-in ʔ-ahtarim-u  
                  *every-ACC man-GEN I-respect-INDIC*  
                  ‘Every man, I respect’

Thus, there are two constructions in which an object DP appears in preverbal position: a dislocation structure and a topicalization structure. The former involves coreference with a

resumptive pronoun, the latter is derived by movement. Fassi Fehri shows that not every type of DP that can be topicalized can occur in dislocation. In particular, indefinites and quantifiers can only be topicalized, as the contrast between (35) and (36) shows.

- (36) a. \*ʔbaqarat-un dabah-tu-haa  
*cow-NOM cut.throat-I-her*  
 ‘A cow, I cut its throat’
- b. \*ʔkull-u rajul-in ʔ-ahtarim-u-hu  
*every-NOM man-GEN I-respect-INDIC-him*  
 ‘Every man, I respect him’

Moreover, elements in dislocation cannot follow a question particle (or a complementizer), but topicalized elements can:

- (37) a. ʔa zayd-an raʔay-ta  
*Q Zayd-ACC saw-you*  
 ‘Is it Zayd that you saw?’
- b. \*ʔʔa zayd-un raʔay-ta-hu  
*Q Zayd-NOM saw-you-him*

Crucially, preverbal subjects can be indefinites or quantifiers, and they can follow a question particle:

- (38) a. baqarat-un takallam-at  
*cow-NOM spoke-3SG.FEM*  
 ‘A cow has spoken’

- b. kull-u rajul-in y-ahtarim-u haadaa  
*every-NOM man-GEN 3-respect-INDIC this*  
 ‘Every man respects this’

- (39) ʔa zayd-un qaal-a haadaa  
*Q Zayd-NOM said-3SG.MASC this*  
 ‘Is it Zaid that said this’

These data show that preverbal subjects need not be dislocated. This in turn entails that strong agreement is genuine agreement, not an incorporated pronoun. Otherwise, subject topicalization structures should show weak agreement, contrary to fact.<sup>10, 11</sup>

The agreement alternation in Arabic can be dealt with by the same type of context-sensitive allomorphy rule that is responsible for the agreement alternation in Dutch. Let us assume that VSO word order is derived by fronting of the verb to some functional head F (cf. (40a)), while SVO order is derived by movement of the subject to spec-FP (cf. (40b)); see Sproat 1985, McCloskey 1996 and others, also for discussion of the nature of F, something irrelevant to our present purposes). As will be clear from the previous sections, the two structures differ in whether or not the verb is realized in the same prosodic phrase as the subject. Given the mapping principle in (4) this is only the case in the VSO order, as indicated in (40a’,b’). (In the PF representations in (40) ‘subject’ and ‘object’ stand for the relevant terminal nodes; recall there is no syntactic structure at PF. For convenience, we will also occasionally represent the terminals in an XP at PF as ‘XP’).

- (40) a.  $[_{FP} [_F V] [_{IP} \text{subject } t_V [_{VP} t_V \text{object}]]]$   
 a’. {V subject} {object}  
 b.  $[_{FP} \text{subject} [_F V] [_{IP} t_{\text{subject}} t_V [_{VP} t_V \text{object}]]]$   
 b’. {subject} {V object}

As a consequence, an agreement weakening rule of the type discussed in section 3 can affect (40a'), but not (40b'). The rule in question is formulated in (41).

(41) *Arabic Agreement Weakening*  
 $\{[V \text{ Plr } \dots] [D \text{ Plr } \dots]\} \rightarrow \{[V \dots] [D \text{ Plr } \dots]\}$

The idea that the Arabic agreement alternation is a PF phenomenon also forms the basis of Benmamoun's (2000) account. It is developed differently, however: Benmamoun proposes a process of PF merger (rebracketing under adjacency) that affects subject and verb. It has the effect that the number feature on the subject counts as exponent of the number feature on the verb, so that the latter is not expressed independently anymore. This is very similar to what the rule in (41) expresses. The difference between the two accounts lies in the characterization of the configuration that triggers agreement weakening. Benmamoun does not provide a specific theory of PF merger from which it follows that only postverbal subjects can undergo the process. Topicalized subjects, too, are adjacent to the verb, so it is not immediately clear what should stop PF merger and thus suppression of the verb's number feature.

The rule in (41) straightforwardly accounts for a further set of data discussed by Benmamoun (2000). In structures containing both an auxiliary verb and a main verb, the subject can either be placed between the two verbs or in sentence-initial position. Agreement covaries with order: only verbs that follow the subject show strong agreement, as illustrated in (42) (from Benmamoun 1996:109).

- (42) a. kaanat T-Taalibaat-u ya-ʔkul-na  
*be-PAST-3sg-FEM the-students-FEM-PLR-NOM 3-eat-FEM-PLR*  
 'The students were eating'



- b. T-Taalibaat-u kun-na ya-ʔkul-na  
*the-students-FEM-PLR-NOM be-PAST-3-FEM-PLR 3-eat-FEM-PLR*
- b'. \*kun-na T-Taalibaat-u ya-ʔkul-na  
*be-PAST-3-FEM-PLR the-students-FEM-PLR-NOM 3-eat-FEM-PLR*

We assume that the auxiliary is generated in an Aux position (perhaps T) and moved to F, as in (43a). The optional subject movement discussed above then results in (43b). As the corresponding prosodic structures show, agreement weakening can apply to the auxiliary in (43a'), but not in (43b'). Neither structure allows for weakening the main verb's agreement.

- (43) a.  $[_{FP} [_F V_{aux}] [_{AuxP} \text{subject } t_{aux} [_{VP} V_{main} \text{object}]]]$
- a'.  $\{V_{aux} \text{subject}\} \{V_{main} \text{object}\}$
- b.  $[_{FP} \text{subject} [_F V_{aux}] [_{AuxP} t_{subject} t_{aux} [_{VP} V_{main} \text{object}]]]$
- b'.  $\{\text{subject}\} \{V_{aux} V_{main} \text{object}\}$

So, the Arabic data can be analyzed as involving agreement weakening in prosodic phrases. An alternative, syntactic, analysis might be that strong agreement obtains when the subject and the verb are in a specifier-head configuration in overt syntax. Analyses based on such an assumption have indeed been proposed by Huybregts (1991), Fassi Fehri (1993), Bolotin (1995) and Guasti & Rizzi (2002). Let us consider this type of syntactic account.

Suppose that strong agreement in Standard Arabic requires the verb and its subject to be in a specifier-head configuration in overt syntax. Then, the data in (42) can be analyzed as follows. In (42b), both the main verb and the auxiliary have strong agreement, which implies the subject must move from a specifier position in which it checks the main verb's features (say spec-FP<sub>2</sub>) to spec-FP, where it checks the auxiliary's features, as in (44a). In (42a), only the main verb has strong

agreement, with the consequence that movement of the subject to spec-FP is procrastinated (or takes the form of feature movement).<sup>12</sup> This is illustrated in (44b).<sup>13</sup>

- (44) a.  $[_{FP} \text{ subject } [_F V_{aux}] [_{AuxP} t_{subject} t_{aux} [_{FP_2} t_{subject} [_{F_2} V_{main}] [_{VP} t_{v-main} \text{ object}]]]]]$   
 b.  $[_{FP} [_F V_{aux}] [_{AuxP} \text{ subject } t_{aux} [_{FP_2} t_{subject} [_{F_2} V_{main}] [_{VP} t_{v-main} \text{ object}]]]]]$

With this in mind, let us return to the examples that do not involve an auxiliary. Assuming the same structures as before, the SVO and VSO orders must be analyzed as in (45a) and (45b) respectively. However, if the trace of the subject can check strong agreement against the main verb in  $FP_2$  in structures with an auxiliary as in (44), there is no reason why it cannot do so in (45b). In other words, there is no reason why strong agreement should be incompatible with VSO order, as in fact it is. (Possibly the *AuxP* is not present in (45), so that the overt subject would be located in spec- $FP_2$ . This does not affect the argument.)

- (45) a.  $[_{FP} \text{ subject } [_F V] [_{AuxP} t_{subject} t_V [_{FP_2} t_{subject} [_{F_2} t_V] [_{VP} t_V \text{ object}]]]]]$   
 b.  $[_{FP} [_F V] [_{AuxP} \text{ subject } t_V [_{FP_2} t_{subject} [_{F_2} t_V] [_{VP} t_V \text{ object}]]]]]$

The only difference between (44) and (45b) is that in the latter structure agreement is checked by the verb's trace, rather than by the head of the verbal chain. This means the syntactic account can be salvaged by assuming that only overt verbs can check strong agreement in Arabic. However, traces are copies of their antecedents (Chomsky 1995), which means that there is no reason to expect that they could not participate in checking relations. In fact, verbal traces can perfectly well participate in regular syntactic checking. For example, agreeing verbs in verb-second languages can move to C across the subject without this leading to any problems.<sup>14</sup>

## 5. CLITICIZATION IN DUTCH

### 5.1 *Middle Dutch*

Like present-day Dutch (see section 3), Middle Dutch has verb second in root contexts. As opposed to modern Dutch, it has a set of object clitics, in addition to the strong and weak pronouns that exist in both languages. These clitics occupy a fixed position in the clause: they immediately follow the head in C, with which they form a phonological word. Thus, in main clauses they attach to the fronted verb, whereas in embedded clauses they attach to the complementizer (the observation and the examples are due to Weerman 1989:15):

- (46) a. Nu moete-ne onse vrouwe bewaren  
*now must-him our lady save*  
‘Now, our lady must save him.’
- b. Soe troest-se de hope vander goetheit Gods  
*Thus consoles-her the hope of-the goodness god-GEN*  
‘Thus, the hope of the goodness of God consoles her.’
- c. datt-en God niet en spaert  
*that-him God not NEG saves*  
‘that God does not save him.’
- d. dat-si de moeder wacht  
*that-them the mother awaits*  
‘that the mother awaits them.’

We will argue that this type of cliticization involves another allomorphy rule sensitive to initial prosodic phrasing, this time of the type in (14).

According to one view, clitics are nominal elements which are base-generated on the verb and which absorb the verb’s internal  $\Theta$ -role and accusative features (see for instance Miller & Sag

1997, Monachesi 1999 and references mentioned there). For Middle Dutch object clitics, however, such an analysis cannot work.<sup>15</sup> The data in (46c,d) show that the clitic attaches to C even if this position is occupied by a complementizer rather than the verb. Since the clitic is the internal argument of the verb all the same, it seems that for this type of cliticization it must be assumed that the clitic starts out as the verb's complement and moves to its surface position.

This ties in with another popular view of cliticization, according to which the phenomenon is an instance of head movement. Note, however, that an analysis of Middle Dutch object clitics according to which they move from their base position directly to C violates Travis' (1984) head movement constraint, as illustrated in (47). (We assume that clitics are D heads, see Corver & Delfitto 1993, amongst others).

(47)            [CP ... C-D [IP ... [VP ... [DP  $t_D$ ] V] ... ]]

This means that cliticization to C must be a two-step process. As Cardinaletti & Roberts (1991) propose for analogous cases, the object DP first undergoes phrasal movement to the left periphery of IP (thus avoiding a violation of the head movement constraint), after which its head cliticizes to C. Independent evidence for the existence of the conjectured phrasal movement is that full pronouns can undergo it as well. They, too, can be found in a position to the left of the subject (cf. (48a,b)), as well as in a position lower in the tree (cf. (48c,d)) (Middle Dutch examples from Van Gestel et al. 1992:112,150).

(48)    a.        Doe so bat heme Lanceloet  
                   *then so asked him Lancelot*  
                   ‘Then Lancelot asked him thus’

- b. dat mi die crancheit sal doen dolen  
*that me the illness will do wander*  
 ‘that the illness will make me err’
- c. Soe moetti [...] mine mesdaet mi vergheven  
*so must-be my crime me forgive*  
 ‘So he must forgive me my crime’
- d. In hebbe niet mi gheset daertoe  
*I-NEG have not me applied there-to*  
 ‘I have not applied myself to that’

Cardinaletti & Roberts (1991) view cliticization in the cases under discussion as an instance of head movement. The D-head of the pronominal DP incorporates into the host. The complete derivation is given in (50), where the first step of DP movement consists of adjunction to IP (Cardinaletti & Roberts analyze it as movement to the specifier position of a functional projection, but this does not affect the argumentation here).

(49) [CP ... C-D [IP [DP t<sub>D</sub>] [IP subject ... [VP ... t<sub>DP</sub> V] ... ]]]

Although this derivation does not involve head movements that skip a head, the step of incorporation in (49) violates Huang’s (1982) condition on extraction domains, which bans movement from adjuncts and specifiers (see also Baker 1988 for arguments that incorporation out of adjuncts or specifiers is impossible).<sup>16</sup> Moreover, if object cliticization is achieved through movement, it remains unclear why it invariably takes the form of encliticization rather than procliticization in Middle Dutch. As we will now argue, a prosodic account of the actual step of cliticization fares better in these respects.

The DP movement to the left edge of IP, which is independently available for object pronouns in Middle Dutch, creates a context in which a pronoun finds itself in the same prosodic phrase as the complementizer or the fronted verb in C. This contrasts with what is the case when the pronoun remains in its base position or is shifted to a position following the subject. The relevant structures are given in (50).

- (50) a. [CP ... C [IP pronoun [IP subject ... [VP ... t<sub>pron</sub> V] ... ]]
- a'. {...} {C pronoun} {subject} {...} {V}
- b. [CP ... C [IP subject ... [VP pronoun [VP ... t<sub>pron</sub> V] ... ]]
- b'. {...} {C subject} {...} {pronoun} {...} {V}
- c. [CP ... C [IP subject ... [VP ... pronoun V] ... ]]
- c'. {...} {C subject} {...} {pronoun} {V}

In (50a'), but not in (50b') or (50c'), an allomorphy rule of the type in (14) can apply:<sup>17</sup>

- (51) *Middle Dutch Pronoun Weakening*
- {... C ... [D (Prt) (Add) ... ] ...} → {... <C ... [D (Prt) (Add) ... ]> ...}

In contrast to the cases discussed in the previous sections, the allomorphy affects the prosodic status of the pronoun, rather than the feature make-up of the terminal. Note, however, that the alternation in question cannot be derived by a purely phonological (post-interface) rule, since in several cases there is no plausible phonological relation between the full pronoun and the associated clitic. For example, the object pronoun for the third person feminine singular is *haer* (/ha:r/), whereas the clitic is *se* (/sə/). There must be independent spell-out rules for these two forms, and application of (51) forces insertion of a pronominal form smaller than a prosodic word: a clitic. If

(51) does not apply, insertion of the clitic form is blocked by the strict layer hypothesis (see section 2).

As opposed to the allomorphy rule discussed in section 3, it appears that the rule in (51) applies optionally: full pronouns can occur in precisely the same position as clitics (see (48a,b)). This may seem awkward at first glance. However, the rule differs from the ones discussed before in that it has an effect on interpretation. In particular, since a clitic cannot bear stress, interpretations that rely on the presence of stress (such as focus or contrastive topic) can only obtain if the rule does not apply. In other words, we can maintain that rule application is obligatory, but relative to a target interpretation. The full pronouns in (48a,b) should hence have a discourse status which differs from that of the clitics in (46). Although likely, this is obviously hard to test for a dead language.

There is an issue of execution related to this suggestion: how does PF ‘know’ that the pronoun must be contrastive and hence receive stress? This is an instantiation of the more general problem of how intonation and interpretation are linked, given that in the traditional T-model there is no direct relation between phonology and semantics. Two possible solutions present themselves. One could assume that foci and contrastive topics are marked as such by a feature in syntax, the module that connects semantics and phonology in the T-model. These features can then be taken to block application of the rule in (51). Alternatively, one could adjust the T-model in such a way that PF is directly linked to pragmatic interpretation (see Reinhart 1995 and Szendroi 2001). If so, the pragmatic module may require stress on the pronoun, which would again block application of (51).

The prosodic approach to Middle Dutch object cliticization accounts for the distribution of clitics without running into the problems mentioned in connection with the syntactic alternative. It also explains why cliticization to C consistently involves encliticization. Given that Middle Dutch is a verb-second language, XPs in general, and so pronouns as well, can be fronted to a position preceding C in main clauses (as in (52a)). However, pronouns cannot reduce to clitics if fronted to this position, since they do not find themselves in the same prosodic domain as the verb in C. In

other words, the structural description for the weakening rule in (51) is not met in (52b) (with DP the pronoun). Similarly, in (50c,c') the pronoun cannot procliticize to the verb that follows it, since there is a  $\phi$ -boundary that separates them.

- (52) a. [CP pronoun [C V] [IP subject ... [VP ... t<sub>pron</sub> t<sub>V</sub>] ... ]]  
 b. {pronoun} {V subject} {...}

Note, finally, that the distribution of Middle Dutch object clitics is not accounted for by only stating that they require a phonological host on their left; the rule in (51) must be involved. If it were not, it would be unclear why an object pronoun cannot cliticize in its base-position, or in a scrambled position below the subject.

## 5.2 *Modern Dutch*

Let us now compare the situation in modern Dutch with the Middle Dutch state of affairs. Modern Dutch has lost object cliticization to C:

- (53) \*dat-‘t Jan gedaan heeft  
*that-it John done has*  
 ‘that John has done it’

This can be explained in terms of the above analysis. Modern Dutch differs from Middle Dutch in that object pronouns can no longer be shifted across the subject.<sup>18</sup> This is illustrated in (54) (compare with the Middle Dutch examples in (48)).

- (54) a. \*Toen vroeg hem Lancelot waar de jonkvrouw was  
*then asked him Lancelot where the lady was*



- b. \*dat mij de ziekte zal doen dwalen  
*that me the illness will make wander*
- c. Toen vroeg Lancelot hem waar de jonkvrouw was  
*then asked Lancelot him where the lady was*  
 ‘Then Lancelot asked him where the lady was.’
- d. dat de ziekte mij zal doen dwalen  
*that the illness me will make wander*  
 ‘that the illness will make me wander’

Given the absence of this type of movement, object pronouns do not immediately follow C. Therefore, the structural description of a rule like (51) is not met; only the representations in (50b,b’) and (50c,c’) exist. Such a rule can hence not be acquired in modern Dutch. As a consequence, the language does not have specific clitic forms for objects any more, only strong and weak object pronouns (see Cardinaletti & Starke 1999 on the distinction between weak pronouns and clitics).

In fact, the analysis predicts that one type of pronoun can still be cliticized onto C in modern Dutch. Subject pronouns are usually realized in the same prosodic phrase as the complementizer or the fronted verb (the pronoun in (55) is a subject):

- (55) a. [CP ... C [IP pronoun ...  
 b. {...} {C pronoun} {...

In (55b), the subject pronoun could undergo an allomorphy rule of the type under discussion. Modern Dutch does indeed have one clitic form, namely for third person singular masculine subjects. This is the form *ie* (pronounced /i:/), the clitic counterpart of the full form *hij* (pronounced /hɛi/). The following spell-out rules are thus part of modern Dutch grammar:

- (58) a. [D, Masc] → /hɛi<sub>ω</sub>/  
 b. [D, Masc] → /i:σ/

The distribution of the clitic form is regulated by the rule in (57) (in conjunction with the strict layer hypothesis).

- (57) *Modern Dutch Hij Weakening*  
 {... C ... [D Masc] ...} → {... <C ... [D Masc]> ...}

If *ie* is not just a weak pronoun but a clitic form that results from application of (57) it should behave on a par with the Middle Dutch object clitics. Indeed it does: in all contexts where the subject is not right-adjacent to C, *ie* cannot appear. This is the case when a constituent is fronted to a position between C and the subject, as in (58c,c’), as well as when the subject is topicalized in a main clause, as in (58d,d’):<sup>19</sup>

- (58) a. {dat hij} {gisteren} {de afwas} {deed}  
*that he<sub>STRONG</sub> yesterday the dishes did*  
 ‘that he did the dishes yesterday’  
 a’. {dat ie} {gisteren} {de afwas} {deed}  
*that he<sub>CL</sub> yesterday the dishes did*  
 b. {Gisteren} {deed hij} {de afwas}  
*yesterday did he<sub>STRONG</sub> the dishes*  
 b’. {Gisteren} {deed ie} {de afwas}  
*yesterday did he<sub>CL</sub> the dishes*  
 c. {dat gisteren} {hij} {de afwas} {deed}  
*that yesterday he<sub>STRONG</sub> the dishes did*

- c'. \*{dat gisteren} {ie} {de afwas} {deed}  
*that yesterday he<sub>CL</sub> the dishes did*
- d. {Hij} {deed gisteren} {de afwas}  
*he<sub>STRONG</sub> did yesterday the afwas*
- d'. \*{Ie} {deed gisteren} {de afwas}  
*he<sub>CL</sub> did yesterday the dishes*

We find, then, that the possibility of cliticization depends on whether or not the syntax allows a pronoun to immediately follow a head. This confirms the view that this type of cliticization is conditioned by prosodic phrasing.

The proposed analysis seems to predict that object cliticization could occur in specific circumstances in Modern Dutch after all. It is possible for the object to end up to the immediate right of a fronted verb when the subject is topicalized, as in (59).

- (59) a. [<sub>CP</sub> subject [<sub>C</sub> V] [<sub>IP</sub> t<sub>subject</sub> [<sub>VP</sub> pronoun t<sub>V</sub>]]]  
 b. {subject} {V pronoun}

Still, there are no special reduced (clitic) forms for object pronouns in this context. The following data illustrate this:<sup>20</sup>

- (60) a. {Bob} {vergeet haar} {nooit}  
*Bob forgets her<sub>STRONG</sub> never*  
 ‘Bob will never forget her.’
- b. {Bob} {vergeet d'r} {nooit}  
*Bob forgets her<sub>WEAK</sub> never*

c. \*{Bob} {vergeet ze} {nooit}

*Bob forgets her<sub>CL</sub> never*

Note, however, that in the syntactic representation of these sentences there *is* an element between the verb and the object, namely the trace of the subject (see (59a)). The assumptions made in section 2 imply that traces of phrasal movement give rise to  $\phi$ -boundaries in the initial prosodic representation, even though they are not represented in phonology proper. Since initial prosodic phrasing occurs on the basis of syntactic information (see (3b)), and since traces of maximal projections are maximal projections themselves, additional assumptions would have to be made for traces *not* to trigger  $\phi$ -closure. Right alignment of syntactic and prosodic phrases will hence have the result that (59a) is mapped to the initial prosodic representation in (61) rather than to the one in (59b).

(61) {subject} {V} {pronoun}

In this representation the object pronoun and the fronted verb are not in the same prosodic phrase, so the structural description for a hypothetical rule of cliticization in modern Dutch is not met.

There are other phenomena that can be understood more easily if traces trigger  $\phi$ -closure. Although we cannot discuss this in detail, we think that *wanna* contraction in English is a case in point. This process can be analyzed as largely parallel to cliticization in Dutch: if *to* finds itself in the same prosodic domain as a verb, the two elements are realized as a single prosodic word:

(62) *English to contraction*  
 {... V ... I<sub>INF</sub> ...} → {... <V ... I<sub>INF</sub>> ...}

The English lexicon has a special spell-out rule for the combination of *want* and *to* when these form a single phonological word (compare (16) in section 2):<sup>21</sup>

(63) <want I<sub>INF</sub>> → /wanna/

Forms like *wanna* must be listed as such in the lexicon because only combinations of *to* with a specific set of verbs are spelled-out in an idiosyncratic manner. (The idea that forms like *wanna* are listed also underlies Postal & Pullum's (1982) and Roberts' (1997) analyses).

There is indeed evidence that the rule in (62), whose application is necessary for *wanna* contraction to occur, is sensitive to  $\Phi$ -boundaries: *wanna* contraction is blocked when *want* and *to* are contained in different prosodic phrases. The examples in (64) illustrate this (compare Postal & Pullum 1982 and Goodall 2001).

- (64) a. [It seems [like [to want]] [to regret that one does not have]]  
b. [I don't want [anyone [who continues [to want]]] [to stop wanting]]  
c. [One must [want] [to become an over-effective consumer]]

In these examples there is at least one right XP bracket between *want* and *to*. As a result, the two do not end up in a single prosodic phrase. (In fact, they are in different intonational phrases in at least (64a) and (64b)). *Wanna* contraction is hence impossible in these contexts.<sup>22</sup>

If *wanna* contraction is indeed sensitive to prosodic phrasing, the old observation that traces block *wanna* contraction (see Lakoff 1970) can be understood if these elements indeed trigger  $\Phi$ -closure. In (65b,b'), the right edge of the trace induces a  $\Phi$ -boundary that separates *want* and *to*.<sup>23,24</sup>

- (65) a. [Who do [you want [to meet  $t_{WH}$ ]]]  
 a'. {Who} {do you} {want to meet}  
 b. [Who do [you want [ $t_{WH}$  to meet John]]]  
 b'. {Who} {do you} {want} {to meet John}

Thus, the rule that derives a phonological word <want to> cannot apply in (65b'), with the consequence that the spell-out rule in (63) cannot apply either:

- (66) \*Who do you wanna meet John

For precisely the same reason, the presence of the subject trace in (59) blocks application of an object pronoun reduction rule in Dutch.

This is not to say that prosodic structures as in (61) will surface as such. As argued in section 2, there are phonological operations that apply beyond the PF interface, after allomorphy rules have applied. These deal with weight distribution, amongst other things. Following Nespor & Vogel (1986) and Truckenbrodt (1999), we assumed that phonological phrases that do not contain enough material trigger restructuring: they are joined with an adjacent prosodic phrase. This may happen to the  $\phi$  that only contains the verb in (61), resulting in the representation in (67).

- (67) {/subject/} {/verb/ /pronoun/}

Because of late restructuring rules of this type, and because traces are not spelled-out, we expect that phonological processes that apply beyond the PF interface will not be sensitive to traces. This appears to be correct (see Nespor & Vogel 1986:48-57 for detailed discussion).

## 6. CELTIC SUBJECT CLITICIZATION

The above account of object cliticization in Middle Dutch supports an analysis of pro drop in some Celtic languages in the spirit of Anderson (1982), Pranka (1983) and Doron (1988). Consider Irish. The most striking property of this language from the perspective of this paper is that the agreement morphology that is present in pro drop structures (resulting in the so-called synthetic form of the verb) is omitted when the subject is overtly realized (resulting in the so-called analytic form of the verb). In this respect, Irish differs from classic pro drop languages like Italian, in which agreement is always present. The examples in (68), from McCloskey & Hale 1984, illustrate the phenomenon. (Hendrick (2000) notes that certain verb-pronoun combinations do not partake in the agreement alternation; we will ignore this fact below, as it does not affect the analysis).

- (68) a.      Chuirfinn isteach ar an phost sin  
              *put-COND-1sg in on that job*  
              ‘I would apply for that job’
- a’.      \*Chuirfinn mé isteach ar an phost sin  
              *put-COND-1sg I in on that job*
- b.      \*Chuirfeadh isteach ar an phost sin  
              *put-COND in on that job*
- b’.      Chuirfeadh Eoghan isteach ar an phost sin  
              *put-COND Owen in on that job*

Several analyses of the complementary distribution between agreement and subject assume that the apparent agreement ending in (68a) is in fact an incorporated subject pronoun.<sup>25</sup> There are two basic variants of this view. In one it is assumed that the pronoun is incorporated through syntactic head-to-head movement; the other assumes a phonological or morphological reanalysis.

The syntactic approach faces a couple of problems, one of which it shares with the syntactic analysis of object cliticization in Middle Dutch: the condition on extraction domains excludes incorporation out of subject DPs. Moreover, as pointed out by McCloskey & Hale (1984), the pronoun can be incorporated from the lefthand part of a coordinated subject, as illustrated in (69). If the incorporation involved syntactic movement, this would violate the coordinate structure constraint.

- (69)           da mbeinn-se agus tusa ann  
                   *if be-COND-1sg-CONTR and you-CONTR there*  
                   ‘if I and you were there’

The alternative relies on either phonological or morphological adjustment of the verb-pronoun sequence (Pranka 1983, Doron 1988, Adger 2000). Evidently, the type of allomorphy rule proposed here can provide an account of the data along such lines. The analysis runs entirely parallel to that of Dutch clitics in the previous section.

Note first that the VSO ordering of the Celtic languages has the consequence that verb and subject are realized in the same prosodic phrase. Assuming that VSO word order is derived by verb movement to a functional head F, the following structures obtain (see also section 4 on Arabic):

- (70)   a.       [<sub>FP</sub> [<sub>F</sub> V] [<sub>IP</sub> subject t<sub>V</sub> [<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>V</sub> object]]]  
           b.       {V subject} {object}

Since the verb and the subject are in the same  $\phi$  in (70b), they can be subject to an allomorphy rule of the format in (14). The data in (68) fall out from (71), which is identical to the rule that governs the distribution of objects clitics in Middle Dutch, except for the specification of the pronoun’s host:



(71) *Irish Pronoun Weakening*

{ ... [-N] ... [D (Prt) (Add) ...] ... } → { ... < [-N] ... [D (Prt) (Add) ...] > ... }

This rule must of course be combined with spell-out rules for verbs, regular pronouns and pronouns that form a phonological word with the verb. The rule mentions the categorial feature [-N], rather than the category V, because after prepositions one finds the same complementary distribution of overt DPs and (apparent) agreement (see Acquaviva 2000 and the references mentioned there). This is of some interest, since it shows that the syntactic function of the pronoun with respect to its host is irrelevant in structures that allow weakening. The crucial factor is that the pronoun and its host must be in the same prosodic phrase.

A feature in which Irish pronoun weakening differs from its Middle Dutch counterpart is that the rule seems to apply obligatorily. As Doron (1988:203) notes: “when a synthetic form exists, such as *chuirfínn*, it is in general ungrammatical to use an analytic form together with a pronominal subject.” This is illustrated by Doron’s example in (72) (compare with (68b’); all Irish and Welsh examples below are taken from Doron).

(72) \*Chuirfeadh mé isteach ar an phost sin

*put-COND I in on that job*

For Middle Dutch we noted that the optionality of cliticization was only apparent. The full pronoun can only occur in the position fitting the structural description of the weakening rule if it is in focus or a contrastive topic. These interpretations require stress on the pronoun, which is incompatible with realization as a clitic. In Irish, however, an alternative means of marking contrastiveness is employed, namely insertion of the suffix *-se*. This suffix is compatible with full as well as reduced pronouns; the latter option is demonstrated in (73). The existence of this way of marking contrastiveness has the consequence that interpretational requirements cannot block application

of the pronoun weakening rule. Hence, it applies obligatorily whenever its structural description is met.

- (73)           Chuirfinn-se  
                   *put-COND-1.sg-CONTR*

The availability of a special suffix marking contrastiveness in Irish but not Dutch explains a further difference between pronoun weakening in the two languages. Whereas Irish allows reduction of the first part of a coordinated subject, as was illustrated by (69), the same is impossible in Dutch:

- (74)   a.       dat hij en Jan naar huis gaan  
                   *that he<sub>STRONG</sub> and John to home go*  
                   ‘that he and John go home’  
        b.       \*dat ie en Jan naar huis gaan  
                   *that he<sub>CL</sub> and John to home go*

Note that, as such, the phenomenon of first conjunct reduction finds a natural explanation on our account. The alignment condition in (4) has the effect that the verb and the subject’s first conjunct form a prosodic phrase from which the second conjunct is excluded:

- (75)   a.       [<sub>FP</sub> [<sub>F</sub> V] [<sub>IP</sub> [pronoun & pronoun] t<sub>V</sub> [<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>V</sub> ...]]]  
        b.       {V pronoun} {& pronoun} {...}

Hence, the weakening rule may affect the first, but not the second, conjunct.

The reason why this nevertheless does not occur in Dutch is that coordinated pronouns are typically interpreted as being contrastive (cf. Cardinaletti & Starke 1999). Consequently,

destressed forms like clitics or weak pronouns cannot be coordinated in languages that mark contrastiveness by stress, see (76). The coordinated pronoun in the first conjunct of (74) can therefore not undergo reduction to *ie*.

- (76) a. Ik zie hem en haar  
*I see him<sub>STRONG</sub> and her<sub>STRONG</sub>*
- b. \*Ik zie 'm en d'r  
*I see him<sub>WEAK</sub> and her<sub>WEAK</sub>*

Use of the contrastive *-se* suffix in Irish, which is compatible with reduced forms, avoids this problem. There is no difficulty in weakening a coordinated pronoun, as long as *-se* is present. Indeed, omission of *-se* results in ungrammaticality; compare (77) with (69):

- (77) \*da mbeinn agus tu(sa) ann  
*if be-COND-1sg and you(-CONTR) there*  
 'if I and you were there'

As was the case for Dutch, our theory predicts that pronoun weakening is blocked if the pronoun precedes the verb, since in that case pronoun and verb are not in the same  $\phi$ . Thus it is no coincidence that the type of agreement alternation discussed is typical of languages whose syntax allows or requires VSO structures (such as Irish, Hebrew (in past and future tenses; see Doron 1988) and Chamorro (see Chung 1982)).

The relation between VS order and pronoun weakening is corroborated more directly by Welsh. Welsh shows the same alternation between synthetic and analytic forms of the verb as does Irish, but in Welsh it seems to be optionally possible to have a pronoun accompany a synthetic verb form, as in (78).

- (78) 'r oeddwn (i) 'n cwyno  
 COMP *be-PAST-1.sg (I) in complain*  
 'I was complaining'

We assume that the spell-out rules for pronouns in both languages are essentially the same: in postverbal subject position a pronoun undergoes weakening, and obligatorily so. The only difference between the two is that, as argued by Doron, the contrastive marker is spelled out as *-se* in Irish, while it takes the form of a reduplicant pronoun in Welsh (see also Rouveret 1991). A parallel type of doubling can be observed with object pronouns in French. Unfocused pronouns are obligatorily cliticized to the verb (by syntactic cliticization, see note 13). When the object is in focus, however, a tonic double appears in its base position. Kayne (2001) argues that the clitic and its double start out as one complex DP (see also Uriagereka 1995 and Papangeli 2000 for analyses of object clitic doubling in other languages based on different variants of this idea). Subsequently, the tonic pronoun is stranded by movement of the clitic, as in (79a).<sup>26</sup>

- (79) a. Je [<sub>VP</sub> [<sub>V</sub> le vois] [<sub>DP</sub> t<sub>D</sub> [<sub>DP</sub> lui]]]  
*I him see him*  
 'It is him that I see.'
- b. \*Je [<sub>VP</sub> vois [<sub>DP</sub> lui]]  
*I see him*

Note that doubling is obligatory in these contexts, as (79b) shows. This implies that the tonic form is not simply a full counterpart of the clitic, but indeed a double that accompanies the clitic in instances of focus, as assumed for Welsh.

A syntactic difference between Welsh and Irish is that, in addition to VSO order, Welsh allows fronting of the subject, yielding SVO order. If a verb is combined with a pronominal subject

in this order, the pronoun cannot undergo weakening and the verb must appear in its analytic form (see (80)). Moreover, if the pronoun is focussed, there is overt doubling; that is, two instances of the pronoun. Thus, this confirms that the synthetic form of the verb is the result of an allomorphy rule of the type in (71), which cannot apply if the pronoun precedes the verb.

- (80)           yfi oedd(\*wn) yn cwyno  
                   *I-REDUP be-PAST(-1.sg) in complain*  
                   ‘It was I that was complaining’

We have now seen two processes of pronoun weakening conditioned by prosodic phrasing. In the next section, we discuss a radical variant of pronoun reduction. Old French pronouns can be reduced to zero in exactly the predicted context.

## 7. OLD FRENCH PRO DROP

The distribution of pro drop in Old French, as discussed by Adams (1987), displays curious asymmetries between root and embedded clauses and between structures with and without subject-verb inversion. Old French was a verb-second language. Pro drop turns out to be possible in exactly one context, namely in main clauses in which subject-verb inversion would occur if the subject were overt (an observation that goes back to Foulet 1928). Thus, it is possible in declarative main clauses in which a constituent other than the subject is fronted and in yes/no questions, but it is unattested in embedded clauses and subject-initial declaratives; see (81) ((81a,b) are from Adams 1987, (85c,d) are constructed examples of unattested structures).

- (81)   a.       Einsi corurent \_\_\_ par mer tant que il vindrent à Cademelée  
                   *thus ran-3PLR by sea until they came-3PLR to Cadmée*  
                   ‘Thus they ran by the see until they came to Cadmée.’

- b. Oserai \_\_\_ le vous demander?  
*dare-1SG it you ask*  
 ‘Do I dare ask it of you?’
- c. \*Einsi corurent li Grieu par mer tant que \_\_\_ vindrent à Cademelée  
*thus ran-3PLR the Greeks by sea until came-3PLR to Cadmée*
- d. \*\_\_\_ corurent ainsi par mer tant que il vindrent à Cademelée  
*ran-3PLR thus by sea until they came-3PLR to Cadmée*

The generalization emerging from these data is that omitted subjects must immediately follow the inflected verb. Such a right-adjacency condition can be derived from the prosodic theory of reduction developed above. Only if the subject immediately follows the inflected verb is it grouped in the same prosodic phrase as this head:

- (82) a. [<sub>CP</sub> XP [<sub>C</sub> V-agr] [<sub>IP</sub> subject ... [<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>V</sub> ...] ... ]]
- a'. {XP} {V-agr subject} {...
- b. [<sub>CP</sub> C [<sub>IP</sub> subject ... [<sub>VP</sub> V-agr ...] ... ]]
- b'. {c subject} {...} {V-agr ...} {...
- c. [<sub>CP</sub> subject [<sub>C</sub> V-agr] [<sub>IP</sub> t<sub>subject</sub> ... [<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>V</sub> ...] ... ]]
- c'. {subject} {V-agr ...} {...

One may therefore assume that this type of pro drop is the result of an allomorphy rule, on a par with the reduction rules for pronouns discussed in sections 5 and 6. There is an important difference, however. The earlier reductions affected the form of the pronoun, rather than the spell-out of its features: the pronoun was realized as a clitic or an affix, but nevertheless all its features were expressed. In contrast, in the Old French case the reduction involves the spell-out of the pronoun’s features, since (rather obviously) none of these features is overtly realized in the

examples in (81a,b). As suggested in section 2, suppression of features is only possible under agreement with another element in the prosodic phrase that contains the affected element (see (13)). The consequence is that Old French pro drop has a more limited distribution than pronoun weakening in Middle Dutch or Celtic. Whereas the latter is possible when the pronoun is right-adjacent to a verbal head, Old French pro drop requires right-adjacency to a head that agrees with the pronoun. This is precisely what the data in (81) show. These data are hence accounted for by the following rule:

$$(83) \quad \textit{Old French Pro Drop}$$

$$\{ \dots [X \text{ (Plr) (Prt) (Add)}] \dots [D \text{ (Plr) (Prt) (Add)}] \dots \} \rightarrow$$

$$\{ \dots [X \text{ (Plr) (Prt) (Add)}] \dots [ ] \dots \}$$

The rule deletes all features of the subject pronoun, with the consequence that no vocabulary insertion will take place. (Notice that the pronoun may contain features that do not partake in the agreement relation with the finite verb (there is, for instance, no agreement for gender). This is in line with the intended reading of the recoverability condition in (13); see section 9 for related discussion.)

Old French pro drop is thus analyzed on a par with Dutch second person agreement weakening (see section 3). It, too, presents an instance of the rule scheme in (8). The difference with the Dutch case is that in Old French the pronoun, rather than a feature of the agreeing verb, fails to be spelled out.

As was the case in Middle Dutch, Old French pronoun weakening appears to be optional. But again this is only apparent, since the structure with the overt pronoun and the structure with the reduced (null) pronoun fulfill different discourse functions. According to Sprouse & Vance (1999:274) “null and overt pronouns in postverbal position, although they are referentially equivalent, carry the potential for a discourse distinction that is realized in declaratives”. In

particular, covert postverbal subject pronouns are associated with thematic (old) information in spec-CP, whereas overt pronouns can be associated with new information in this position (Vance 1997). Moreover, Adams (1987:6, fn.6) notes that Old French also did not have a series of special tonic forms of the pronouns, but used one series for both nonemphatic and emphatic contexts. This means that, as assumed for Middle Dutch (but, again, hard to test for a dead language), the overt post-V subject pronouns may also have been emphatic, a reading obviously incompatible with the null form.

As before, it is imaginable that French *pro* drop is subject to a syntactic adjacency condition. This is, in fact, what Adams (1987) proposes. She analyzes Old French *pro* drop as involving an empty pronominal subject *pro*. Following Rizzi (1986), she assumes that the occurrence of *pro* is subject to two conditions: both its content and its position must be identified. The general consensus seems to be that content identification of *pro* relies on rich agreement, which Old French has. Adams further argues that positional identification of *pro* takes the form of head government in a particular direction. This is summed up in (84) (Adams's (8)).

- (84) a. The position and content of *pro* must be identified
- i. The position of *pro* is identified by a governing head
  - ii. The content of *pro* is identified by coindexation with the proper features
- b. Government of *pro* (a.i) must be in the canonical direction.

On the further assumptions that the governing head mentioned in (84a.i) is  $I^0$ , and that this head governs to the right (Old French is a VO language), the data in (81) follow.

Again, however, it seems to us that the prosodic account has advantages over an account in syntactic terms, in this case government. Apart from the fact that the syntactic account does not extend to the other cases unified under the prosodic account, some of the properties of the phenomenon at hand are quite unexpected. First of all, the licensing conditions in (84) must



crucially involve the surface position of *pro*. In subject-initial declarative main clauses, a trace of the subject is governed in the canonical direction by the inflected verb (see (85a)). It is unclear why this is not sufficient to license a fronted *pro*. Other properties of nominal elements that require government in GB theory, such as case licensing of object DPs, can be licensed by government of a trace of the element in question (see (85b)).

- (85) a.  $*[_{CP} \textit{pro} [_{C} \textit{V-AGR}] [_{IP} \textit{t}_{\textit{pro}} \dots [_{VP} \textit{t}_V \dots] \dots ]]$   
 b.  $[_{CP} \textit{DP-acc} [_{C} \textit{V-agr}] [_{IP} \textit{subject} \dots [_{VP} \textit{t}_V \textit{t}_{DP} \dots] \dots ]]$

In contrast, a PF account does explain why it is the surface position of the element to be reduced that counts.

Moreover, in the syntactic account it is accidental that it is  $I^0$  that must govern *pro*. After all, there is no reason why the licenser of *pro*'s content (which undoubtedly is  $I^0$ ) and the licenser of its position should be one and the same. It must hence be stipulated in the syntactic account that government by C is not sufficient for positional licensing of *pro* (government by C would license the ungrammatical (81c)). In the end, then, the syntactic account of the ungrammaticality of *pro* drop in embedded clauses in Old French is based on a stipulation. The prosodic account, on the other hand, explains why right-adjacency to an agreeing head (rather than to an arbitrary head) is expected in cases of non-spell-out.

## 8. ARABIC PRO DROP

In section 4 we discussed the phenomenon of agreement weakening in VSO structures in Standard Arabic. As it turns out, Arabic has a second prosodically conditioned reduction rule, one which targets the subject rather than the verb. This second rule is identical to the rule of *pro* drop in Old French, proposed in the previous section. Pronominal subjects can fail to be spelled out if they

follow an agreeing head, a situation captured by the following rule (which is identical to (83), except for the [Fem(inine)] feature required for gender agreement):

- (86) *Arabic Pro Drop*
- $$\{ \dots [X \text{ (Plr) (Prt) (Add) (Fem)}] \dots [D \text{ (Plr) (Prt) (Add) (Fem)}] \dots \} \rightarrow$$
- $$\{ \dots [X \text{ (Plr) (Prt) (Add) (Fem)}] \dots [ ] \dots \}$$

This rule must apply in VSO structures like (87a,a') (abstracting away from contrastive readings of the subject); in SVO structures like (87b,b') the structural description of the rule is not met, and hence a pronominal subject must be spelled out.

- (87) a.  $[_{FP} [_F V] [_{IP} \text{subject } t_V [_{VP} t_V \text{object}]]]$
- a'.  $\{V \text{ subject}\} \{ \text{object} \}$
- b.  $[_{FP} \text{subject} [_F V] [_{IP} t_{\text{subject}} t_V [_{VP} t_V \text{object}]]]$
- b'.  $\{ \text{subject} \} \{V \text{ object}\}$

At first sight, it would seem difficult to prove that only postverbal subjects undergo pro drop. Omission of the subject in both SVO and VSO structures results in a surface VO string. Moreover, since pro drop is only possible if there is full agreement on the verb, and full agreement is typical precisely of SVO order (see section 4), one might be inclined to draw the opposite conclusion, namely that pro drop is restricted to preverbal subjects. However, there is what seems to be conclusive empirical evidence for postverbal, and against preverbal, pro drop. The data involve clauses introduced by one of two complementizers, the first of which exclusively shows up in VSO clauses, while the second requires SVO order.

The complementizer *ʔanna* (or *ʔinna* in main clauses) assigns accusative case to a subject to its right under adjacency. Hence, it only occurs in SVO clauses, not in VSO clauses (Fassi Fehri 1993:50):

- (88) a. *ʔinna n-nisaaʔ-an daxal-na makaatib-a-hunna*  
*that the-women-ACC entered-FEM-PLR office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*
- b. *\*ʔinna daxal-at n-nisaaʔ-u / n-nisaaʔ-an makaatib-a-hunna*  
*that entered-FEM the-women-NOM / the-women-ACC office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*

Now, as noted by Mohammad (1990:100) “the complementizer *ʔanna* ‘that’ never allows *pro* to follow it”. Mohammad provides the following data in support:

- (89) a. *al-ʔawlaad-u qaaluu ʔanna-hum saafaruu*  
*the-boys-NOM said-3PLR-MASC that-they departed-3PLR-MASC*
- b. *\*al-ʔawlaad-u qaaluu ʔanna \_\_ saafaruu*  
*the-boys-NOM said-3PLR-MASC that departed-3PLR-MASC*

This shows that *pro* drop is impossible in preverbal position.

The second complementizer is *ʔan*, which does not have case assigning properties and perhaps as a result of this does not license SVO order (see Fassi Fehri 1993:78). VSO order is obligatory, as (90) shows.

- (90) a. *\*ʔan n-nisaa ʔ-u / n-nisaa ʔ-an daxal-at makaatib-a-hunna*  
*that the-women-NOM / the women-ACC entered-FEM office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*
- b. *ʔan daxal-at n-nisaaʔ-u makaatib-a-hunna*  
*that entered-FEM the-women-NOM office-PLR-ACC-their-FEM*

As observed by Plunkett (1993:236), pro drop is licensed in these structures. She gives the example below in evidence:

- (91)           y-uriid-u ʔan ya-xruju-a \_\_\_  
*want-3.M.SG that leave-3-MASC-SG-SUBJ*  
‘He wants to leave.’

This shows that pro drop is possible in postverbal position, in accordance with the rule in (86).

As noted, subject omission in Arabic does not only bear on the theory of pro drop, but also on accounts of strong versus weak agreement. The reason is that we unexpectedly find obligatory strong agreement in pro drop structures, which, as we have just seen, have a postverbal subject (see (92); compare Benmamoun 2000:127). (In contrast, VSO structures with an overt subject show weak agreement, see section 4).

- (92)           ya-dxul-uuna \_\_\_ al bayt-a  
*enter-3.MASC.PLR the house-ACC*  
‘They entered the house’

It seems hard to account for this observation in the minimalist syntactic analysis of Arabic agreement sketched in section 4. Recall that in this account, strong agreement triggers overt raising of the subject to the specifier of an agreement projection, while weak agreement is only checked after spell-out (covertly). Hence, given that pro drop must be licensed by strong agreement, it should be restricted to preverbal position. Put differently, if strong agreement must be checked in overt syntax, it is hard to see how lack of phonological content in the subject would void this requirement.

In the prosodic approach the difference in agreement in VSO clauses with and without pro drop can be explained in the following way. Both pro drop and weak agreement are the result of reduction rules, which affect the subject and the verb respectively. The question raised by the obligatory strong agreement in pro drop structures, then, is why application of the pro drop rule would block application of the agreement weakening rule. Why can both reduction rules not apply at the same time?

The reason is that application of agreement weakening destroys the context for the pro drop rule and vice versa. The rule for agreement weakening is repeated below:

- (93) *Arabic Agreement Weakening*  
 $\{[V \text{ Plr } \dots] [D \text{ Plr } \dots]\} \rightarrow \{[V \dots] [D \text{ Plr } \dots]\}$

The rule in (86) requires a fully agreeing verb in the context of the pronoun, whereas (93) deletes one of the verb's phi-features. Conversely, the rule in (93) requires a pronoun with a [Plr] feature in the context of the verb, whereas (86) deletes all features of the pronoun. So, in either order application of one rule blocks application of the other, with the effect that pro drop is accompanied by strong agreement.

To conclude this section, let us return to an issue left open in section 4. Whereas overt postverbal lexical DP subjects trigger agreement weakening, overt postverbal pronominals do not. This is demonstrated by the following examples from Aoun et al. (1994:209):

- (94) a. Naamuu hum  
*slept-MASC-PLR they*  
 b. \*Naama hum  
*slept-MASC-SG they*

Given the above discussion of pro drop in Arabic, this fact can now be analyzed on a par with the co-occurrence of synthetic verb forms with an overt pronominal subject in Welsh and the co-occurrence of object clitics with tonic pronominal doubles in French. Following Doron (1988), we have assumed that (apparent) pro drop in Welsh is in fact obligatory: postverbal subject pronouns are always reduced to phonological affixes. However, when the subject is focussed, the reduced pronoun is doubled by a full form (see (95a,a')). Similarly, emphasis is reconciled with object cliticization in French by a tonic pronominal double (see (95b)).

- (95) a. [FP V [IP [[pronoun<sub>1</sub>] pronoun<sub>2</sub>] ...]]  
 a'. {<V pronoun<sub>1</sub>> pronoun<sub>2</sub>} {...}  
 b. Je [VP [V le vois] [DP t<sub>D</sub> [DP lui]]]

The same pattern is found in Arabic. Pro drop is obligatory. However, if the subject is focussed, it is doubled by a tonic pronoun (see also Benmamoun 2000:127; for discussion of pronoun doubling in general in Arabic, see the papers in Eid 1996). Since pro drop blocks weakening of verbal agreement, as we have just seen, the structure will require strong agreement:<sup>27</sup>

- (96) a. [FP V-agr [IP [[pronoun<sub>1</sub>] pronoun<sub>2</sub>] ...]]  
 b. {V-agr [ ] pronoun<sub>2</sub>} {...}

## 9. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper we have argued that certain allomorphy rules are sensitive to initial prosodic phrasing. If a terminal finds itself in the same prosodic phrase at PF as a certain other terminal, its feature content may be altered, or the two terminals may be grouped together in a phonological word. In both cases the result can be that the terminal receives a spell-out different from the one it usually receives. We have seen six examples of this. In Dutch and Arabic, a feature of an inflected verb is

deleted prior to vocabulary insertion if the subject is in the same  $\phi$ . In Middle Dutch and Celtic, a pronominal argument is realized as clitic when it is in the same  $\phi$  as another head. In Old French and Arabic, finally, a pronominal argument is reduced to zero when it is in the same  $\phi$  as an agreeing verb. Syntactic analyses of the relevant phenomena do not seem adequate; moreover, they do not seem to allow for a generalization covering all these cases, as opposed to the prosodic analysis.

The local domain employed in the allomorphy rules discussed here may play a role in other grammatical processes as well. In particular, since the morpho-syntactic features of terminals are accessible at PF, one can imagine that the process of feature checking may in certain cases take place at PF rather than in syntax proper. If so, such cases of feature checking should be sensitive to the initial prosodic phrasing as well. We believe that there are indeed checking relations that can be analyzed in this way, in particular case checking in SVO and VSO languages (see Neeleman & Weerman 1999) and complementizer agreement in certain Germanic dialects (see Ackema & Neeleman 2002). We cannot go into this here. Instead, we will conclude by clarifying a remaining issue concerning the proposed allomorphy rules.

The first type of allomorphy rule we discussed suppresses a morpho-syntactic feature in a terminal under agreement with another terminal in the same  $\phi$ . There is an asymmetry with respect to which of the two terminals is affected by suppression, however. If only one feature is suppressed, this will be a feature of the agreeing verb, not of the DP argument. For example, a second person singular pronoun is never spelled out as a first person singular pronoun when it immediately follows a second person singular verb. An agreement alternation as in the hypothetical Dutch examples in (97) is not attested, as far as we know.

- (97) a. Jij loopt dagelijks met een hondje over straat  
*you walk-2sg daily with a doggy in the street*  
 ‘Every day you walk with a doggy in the street’

- b. Loopt ik dagelijks met een hondje over straat?  
*walk-2sg I daily with a doggy in the street*  
 ‘Do you walk with a doggy in the street every day?’

Thus, there is no allomorphy rule of the type in (98) (compare with (23)).

- (98) *Hypothetical Dutch Agreement Weakening*  
 $\{[V \text{ Prt Add}] [D \text{ Prt Add}]\} \rightarrow \{[V \text{ Prt Add}] [D \text{ Prt}]\}$

On the other hand, it is not impossible to suppress features of the DP: they can be suppressed entirely, giving rise to pro drop of the Old French and Arabic type.

Apparently, there is a PF condition that has the effect that either none or all of the features of an argument can be suppressed, whereas verbs allow suppression of just one of their features. The relevant condition can be formulated as follows:

- (99) If a predicate agrees with an argument, then the phi-features in the predicate form a subset of the phi-features in the argument

A rule like (98) cannot exist, because its output would violate the PF condition in (99): the features of the subject are no longer a superset of those in the predicate. (Note that (99) is satisfied if argument and predicate have the same features, since it mentions a subset rather than a proper subset). In contrast, full pro drop is compatible with (99) because it suppresses the argument altogether. Hence, at PF there is no longer an agreement relation, so that (99) is satisfied vacuously.

We speculate that (99) has a functional basis, in terms of interpretive strategies employed in parsing. The simplest way for a hearer to determine the reference of an argument is to consider the interpretable features associated with the form that spells out this argument. In case one of the



features of the argument is deleted, this strategy will give the wrong result. But if no argument at all is present, this strategy cannot apply. Instead, the hearer will rely on the uninterpretable features on the verb to determine the reference of the dropped pronoun.<sup>28</sup>

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## NOTES

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1. Allomorphy conditioned by purely phonological features or stress will not be discussed.
2. We need not stipulate that BP is contained in AP. If it were not, as in [AP BP], the  $\phi$ -boundary triggered by AP's right edge will intervene between A and B. We assume that this line of argumentation extends to structures in which BP is extraposed and adjoined to AP (indeed, extraposed material forms a separate prosodic domain). What is possible, though, is that BP is a specifier or adjunct located at the left edge of the complement of A; A and B will then end up in the same prosodic domain, as (i) shows. We will discuss several instantiations of this pattern.

- (i) a. [AP A [XP BP [X ... ]]]  
b. {A B} {X ...}

3. It has been proposed by Noyer (1998) and Harbour (2001) that rules of allomorphy can also insert features. We will not discuss this option here; for the type of data under consideration it is not necessary.

4. There are various proposals on the relation between adjacency and certain kinds of restructuring (see Halle & Marantz 1993 on morphological merger, Van Riemsdijk 1998 on V-to-V raising, Bobaljik 2002 on affix hopping and Embick & Noyer 2001 of PF movement). It would take us too far afield to discuss these here. However, we should perhaps point out that our general approach to word formation differs from Distributed Morphology in that we do not assume that inflectional or derivational affixes head syntactic projections. Rather, we believe that morphosyntactic structures are generated by a distinct morphosyntactic module. This implies that, although our approach shares much with Distributed Morphology, we reject analyses in which an affix is combined with its host either in the syntax or by postsyntactic processes. See Ackema & Neeleman 2002 for more discussion.

5. We expect that in general lexical heads cannot intervene, despite the fact that A and B in (i) are contained in the same prosodic phrase. The point is that in many cases agreement relations cannot be established across lexical heads and consequently feature suppression in either A or B will violate the recoverability condition in (13).

- (i) a.  $[_{AP} A [_{LP} L [_{BP} B]]]$   
 b.  $\{A L B\}$

6. It is sometimes suggested (for instance, by Paardekooper 1961) that a topicalized XP cannot intervene between the fronted verb and an inverted first person singular subject either. We think the relevant judgement is related to the fact that it is harder to meet the pragmatic conditions that hold of the relevant type of construction in case the subject is first person singular. In particular, when an XP is fronted across the subject, the XP is typically construed as a contrastive topic, while the subject is construed as contrastively focussed. But since the speaker is always given in discourse, the favoured discourse status of a first person singular subject is as a noncontrastive topic, not as a focus. However, if the right context is provided, fronting across a first person singular subject

is unproblematic, as shown in (i). In the same context, fronting across a second person singular subject is still incompatible with agreement weakening.

- (i) Speaker A: We moeten morgen en dinsdag nog aardappels halen.  
*we must tomorrow and tuesday still potatoes get*  
‘We still have to get potatoes tomorrow and on Tuesday’
- Speaker B: Ik kan morgen als ik terugkom van de kapper.  
*I can tomorrow when I back-come from the hairdresser*  
‘I can do it tomorrow when I come back from the hairdresser’
- Speaker A: Ok, dan ga op DINSDAG IK wel.  
*ok then go on Tuesday I alright*  
‘Ok, then I will go on Tuesday’

7. Hoekstra (1996) also judges sentences of the type in (25a), where the subject contains a DP-internal modifier, unacceptable. To us, it seems perfect. Indeed, a brief search of the internet reveals that the pattern is frequently attested. We speculate that Hoekstra’s idiolect contains an additional allomorphy rule of the type in (14), stating that verb and second person singular pronoun must be realized as a prosodic word. In this case, the clitic form of the pronoun happens to be identical to that of the full pronoun. (The situation may be compared to that in Frisian, which does have a distinct clitic form of the second person singular pronoun in these contexts, see for instance De Haan 1997).

8. No predictive shortcut will be adopted in parsing if there is no statistically significant predictor of what is to follow. This means that in the absence of an allomorphy rule of the type under discussion, a verbal agreement marker compatible with different types of inverted subjects will not give rise to expectations in parsing beyond the general expectation that the subject be compatible with the agreement marker. Hence, there will be no garden path effects with such agreement.

9. For the sake of brevity, we will sometimes refer to Modern Standard Arabic as ‘Arabic’ (though the agreement alternation under discussion is not generally found in the modern dialects of Arabic).

10. Of course, if the subject is referential it can occur in both topicalization and dislocation structures. In contrast to dislocated objects, dislocated subjects are not accompanied by an overt resumptive pronoun, because Arabic drops pronominal subjects (at least nonfocussed ones; see section 8 for some discussion).

11. Ouhalla (1991) argues against a movement analysis of topicalization structures on the basis of the fact that in ECM constructions preverbal subjects appear in the accusative, which implies that they cannot have moved from another case position. For an alternative account, compatible with the assumptions made here, see Neeleman & Weerman (1999:195-202).

12. Huybregts (1991) in fact assumes that there is overt agreement checking in VSO structures as well, the difference with SVO being that there is an empty expletive specified as third person singular present in the higher subject position in apparent VSO structures. This assumption also underlies the analyses in Fassi Fehri 1989 and Mohammad 1990. Fassi Fehri (1993:38-42) points out a number of disadvantages of this view, however. Most importantly, it seems to us, is that it just shifts the problem, since the question now is why the empty expletive must be specified as singular while being associated with a plural subject.

13. In line with minimalist assumptions, checking takes place in the functional domain. The subject may have been base-generated in spec-VP, something from which we abstract away in (44). Finally, we assume that the subject moves to the regular subject position, spec-IP, in order to check nominative case, but this, too, is irrelevant for the argument.

14. A possible problem for the approach to the Arabic agreement alternation we propose are VOS orders, in which agreement is weak. This fact cannot be due to a rule of phonological reduction, given that verb and subject are not in the same prosodic domain. One alternative would be to

assume that in the case of VOS order no [Plr] feature can be generated on the verb in the first place. Suppose, for example, that such a feature must be checked in syntax, and that syntactic checking requires the relevant phrase to precede the head (as is standard in minimalism). This would make a verb bearing [Pl] compatible with VSO and SVO sentences (in which the subject precedes the verb or its trace), but incompatible with VOS order. Thus, weak agreement with VOS order would be a case of non-generation rather than reduction. As explained in the main text, an account based on syntactic checking cannot as such be responsible for agreement weakening in VSO contexts.

15. This analysis (or the syntactic analysis in terms of head movement mentioned below) appears to be more appropriate for cliticization of the type found in Romance. In Romance, as opposed to Germanic, clitics move along with the verb and show up in positions from which their pronominal counterparts are barred.

16. This problem can perhaps be avoided by adopting a view on clitics originally proposed by Muysken (1982), according to which they are simultaneously heads and maximal projections. On this view, there is no extraction of a head from an adjunct or specifier when the clitic incorporates. However, the analysis faces another problem. In order for the first movement (to the left edge of IP) not to violate the head movement constraint, a phrasal chain must be formed. Syntactic incorporation of phrases into heads is presumably impossible, however, so the second movement step must involve a head chain. The resulting composite chain therefore violates chain uniformity (cf. Chomsky 1995; or, alternatively, the lowest trace violates Müller & Sternefeld's (1993) principle of unambiguous binding).

17. At this point, we should note that the rule can apply recursively. Consider the situation in which the head in C is followed by a subject pronoun and an object pronoun. The initial prosodic phrasing allows for cliticisation of the subject pronoun, as this element is contained in the same  $\phi$  as the preceding head. On the plausible assumption that edges of clitics cannot support  $\phi$ -

boundaries, subject cliticisation leads to an adjustment of the prosodic structure, such that the object pronoun finds itself in a  $\Phi$  with material it can cliticise to. As a result, a post-C subject-object clitic cluster can arise, as the example in (i) shows (from Van Gestel et al. 1992:147). Note that this example illustrates that a clitic does not have to be string-adjacent to C, as long as the material that intervenes does not form an independent prosodic word (see section 2).

- (i)           Soe darict u vertellen wel  
               *so dare-I-it you tell well*

18. Focused elements or contrastive topics can be fronted to a position preceding the subject (see (24a',b') for examples). Object pronouns can undergo this movement as well. This does not affect the argument, however, since reduction of foci and contrastive topics is impossible to begin with, as argued above.

19. Note that the order in (58c,c') favours a contrastive reading of the subject, which precludes the use of a weak pronoun or clitic as well. However, if something else in the sentence is focussed, weak pronouns can be used in this order, whereas use of *ie* still leads to ungrammaticality. An example is given below:

- (i)    a.     dat op mooie dagen ze alleen over reisjes naar het zuiden wil praten  
               *that on beautiful days she<sub>WEAK</sub> only about trips to the South wants to-talk*  
               ‘that on beautiful days she only wants to talk about trips to the South’  
       b.     \*dat op mooie dagen ie alleen over reisjes naar het zuiden wil praten  
               *that on beautiful days he<sub>CL</sub> only about trips to the South wants to-talk*

20. Here we borrow the object clitic form  $\zeta_e$  from Middle Dutch. The same form does in fact still occur in some variants of Dutch today. These dialects still have object cliticization to C and pronoun fronting across the subject, on a par with Middle Dutch. An example is West-Flemish, see

Haegeman 1990.

21. The form *want* in (63) stands for the morphosyntactic feature bundle that instantiates this verb in syntax, not for its phonological form (which is not present at PF). This type of rule of vocabulary insertion is, of course, quite common. It accounts for forms like German *zum* which spells out a prosodic word consisting of *zu* ‘to’ and *dem* ‘the.DAT’, or French *du* (from *de le* ‘of the.MASC.SG’).

22. *Wanna* contraction is also impossible if either *want* or *to* is part of a coordinated constituent. Although we do not have an explanation for this, we speculate that it is related to the fact that weakened forms are barred from being coordinated (see section 6). If so, it is in line with a prosodic account of the phenomenon.

23. The argument is based on the assumption that examples like (65a) do not contain a PRO subject (as argued by Brame 1976, Manzini & Roussou 2000 and others) and hence no  $\phi$ -boundary between *want* and *to*. Alternatively, if there is a PRO subject, it could be assumed to follow the embedded VP or to appear between *to* and the embedded verb (not being exceptionally case-marked by the matrix verb).

24. Anderson & Lightfoot 2002 suggest that, as a result of a general locality condition on reduction, *wanna* contraction is only possible if *to* is the highest element in the complement of *want*. Thus their approach, like ours, accepts that the trace in (65b,b’) is instrumental in blocking the rule.

An anonymous reviewer suggests that this conclusion might be avoided if it can be argued that the left bracket of the ECM complement in (65b,b’) triggers a prosodic boundary that in turn blocks contraction. Although left edges of certain clauses (such as finite CPs) indeed coincide with left edges of intonational phrases, it is unlikely that the same is true of ECM complements. The most natural prosodic phrasing of the example in (i) is as indicated.

(i)      {The happy couple} {wanted their friends} {to attend their wedding} {in Peru}



The reviewer's suggestion might be helpful in ruling out *wanna* contraction in the following example from Anderson & Lightfoot, if the CP in subject position can be argued to be a type of clause whose left edge coincides with the left edge of a prosodic domain:

- (ii) They don't want [<sub>CP</sub> to win games] to be their only goal

25. Similar data in other Celtic languages have also been argued to involve pronoun incorporation, see for instance Anderson 1982 on Breton and Adger 2000 on Scottish Gaelic. Stump (1984) provides a critique of Anderson's incorporation analysis. We believe that the more serious of the problems he mentions are problems for the syntactic incorporation analysis only, as discussed below.

As an alternative to an incorporation analysis, Stump (1984) proposes what he terms an 'agreement analysis' for Breton. According to this analysis, agreement is optional, but required to license a *pro* subject (as would be expected on the basis of traditional analyses of Italian-style *pro* drop). For the Irish data, comparable analyses have been proposed by McCloskey & Hale (1984) and Legate (1999). The main problem these analyses face is that they need an additional assumption to account for the complementary distribution between overt pronouns and agreement, as compared to incorporation analyses. In addition to the claim that agreement is optional, something must be said about the impossibility of combining an overt pronoun with agreement (as is possible in *pro* drop languages of the Italian type).

Stump simply stipulates this. Legate argues that Irish has a null pronominal form that can realize any set of phi features, but that can only be inserted if the phi features of the verb are spelled out. According to Legate, this means that the null pronoun requires a more specific context than an overt pronoun, which can be used regardless of whether the phi features of the verb are spelled out. If so, the elsewhere principle rules out insertion of an overt pronoun in contexts licensing the null pronoun. Note, however, that overt pronouns cannot be inserted in just any context: as

opposed to the null pronoun, they must spell out a specific set of phi features. This means that the contexts in which an overt pronoun can be inserted do not form a superset of the contexts that allow insertion of the null pronoun. For instance, first person singular agreement blocks insertion of an overt third person singular pronoun, but it does license the null pronoun. Conversely, the analytic form of the verb licenses an overt pronoun, but not the null pronoun. Hence, a particular overt pronoun never stands in an elsewhere relation with the null pronoun.

Another potential drawback of agreement analyses is that they do not explain why VSO structures are the typical environment in which complementarity between pronouns and agreement is found (see Roberts & Shlonsky 1996).

26. French allows subject clitics to be doubled by full DPs or contrastive pronouns. The relevant data cannot be analyzed along the same lines, as the condition on extraction domains would then be violated. The general consensus seems to be that such structures either involve left dislocation of the double or, in some varieties of French, reanalysis of the clitic as agreement.

27. This accounts for the grammaticality of (94a). It does not yet account for the impossibility of combining weak agreement with a phonologically realized pronoun (as in (94b)), or with two pronouns in the case of doubling. Such structures could be derived by applying agreement weakening instead of pro drop (compare the discussion above). This will not happen, however. Apart from the double in focus constructions, pronouns are weak in Arabic (so, pronoun focussing involves a weak pronoun doubled by a strong one). It is a general property of languages that allow pro drop that weak pronouns cannot be used in positions where pro drop is possible.

28. As a reviewer points out, the argumentation in this section seems at odds with Bonet's (1995) analysis of feature suppression in Romance clitic clusters, which assumes deletion of only some phi-features in the affected clitic. It would take us too far afield to discuss this issue here, but we would speculate that the difference between the two types of suppression has to do with their triggers. In the case of the Dutch second person ending, suppression avoids local repetition of identical

features, while in Romance clitic clusters it avoids local repetition of identical forms.