

## Chapter 9

# Constituent order

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### 1 Introduction

This chapter deals with constituent order with a focus on local order variants. English is the language that is treated most thoroughly in theoretical linguistics but it is also the most boring language as far as the possibilities of reordering constituents is concerned: the order of subject verb and object is fixed in sentences like (1):

- (1) Kim likes bagels.

Of course there is the possibility to front the object as in (2) but this is a special, non-local construction that is not the topic of this chapter but is treated in **chapters/udc** Chapter 13 of this volume.

- (2) Bagels, Kim likes.

This chapter deals with scrambling (the local reordering of arguments) and with alternative placements of heads (called head movement in some theories). Examples of the former are the sentences in (3) and an example of the latter is given in (4):

- (3) a. [weil] der Mann der Frau das Buch gibt (German)  
because the.NOM man the.DAT woman the.ACC book gives  
b. [weil] der Mann das Buch der Frau gibt  
because the.NOM man the.ACC book the.DAT woman gives



- c. [weil] das Buch der Mann der Frau gibt  
because the.ACC book the.NOM man the.DAT woman gives
  - d. [weil] das Buch der Frau der Mann gibt  
because the.ACC book the.DAT woman the.NOM man gives
  - e. [weil] der Frau der Mann das Buch gibt  
because the.DAT woman the.NOM man the.ACC book gives
  - f. [weil] der Frau das Buch der Mann gibt  
because the.DAT woman the.ACC book the.NOM man gives
- (4) Gibt der Mann der Frau das Buch? (German)  
gives the.NOM man the.DAT woman the.ACC book  
'Does the man give the woman the book?'

(3) shows that in addition to the unmarked order in (3a) (see Höhle (1982) on the notion of unmarked order), five other argument orders are possible in sentences with three-place verbs.

(4) shows that the verb is placed in initial position in questions in German. This contrasts with the verb final order in (3a). This alternation of verb placement is usually treated as head movement in the transformational literature (Bach 1962; Bierwisch 1963: 34; Reis 1974; Thiersch 1978: Chapter 1). Declarative main clauses in German are V2 clauses and the respective fronting is usually treated as a non-local dependency (see **chapters/udc** Chapter 13 of this volume). Hence, these sentences will not be handled here.

The following sections deal with the theoretical options within the HPSG framework for dealing with these phenomena. I first discuss the separation of grammar rules in the immediate dominance part and a linear precedence component in Section 2 and then flat vs. binary branching structures (Section 3). While flat structures allow verbs to be ordered finally or initially, this is not the case for binary branching structures. Proposals with binary branching structures are usually paired with so-called head-movement approaches. These are explained in Section 4. Section 5 introduces an extension to standard HPSG developed by Reape (1994): constituent order domains. Such constituent order domains allow for discontinuous constituents and have been used to account for languages like Warlipri (Donohue & Sag 1999). Section 6 shows how such languages can be analyzed without admitting discontinuous constituents.

## 2 ID/LP format

HPSG was developed out of GPSG and Categorical Grammar. The ideas concerning linearization of daughters in a local tree were taken over from GPSG (Gazdar, Klein, Pullum & Sag 1985). In GPSG a separation between immediate dominance and linear precedence is assumed. So, while in classical phrase structure grammar a phrase structure rule like (5) states that the NP[nom], NP[dat] and NP[acc] have to appear in exactly this order, this is not the case in GPSG and HPSG:

- (5)  $S \rightarrow \text{NP}[\text{nom}], \text{NP}[\text{dat}], \text{NP}[\text{acc}], V$

The HPSG schemata corresponding to the phrase structure rule in (5) do not express information about ordering. Instead there are separate linearization rules. A schema like (5) licenses 24 different orders: the six permutations of the three arguments that were shown in (3) and all possible placements of the verb (to the right of NP[acc], between NP[dat] and NP[acc], between NP[nom] and NP[dat], to the left of NP[nom]). Orders like NP[nom], NP[dat], V, NP[acc] are not attested in German and hence these linearizations have to be filtered out. This is done by linearization rules, which can refer to features or to the function of a daughter in a schema. (6) shows some examples of linearization rules:

- (6) a.  $X < V$   
 b.  $X < V[\text{INI}-]$   
 c.  $X < \text{Head} [\text{INI}-]$

The first rule says that all constituents have to precede a V in the local tree. The second rule says that all constituents have to precede a V that has the INITIAL value  $-$ . One option to analyze German would be the one that was suggested by Uszkoreit (1987) within the framework of GPSG: one could allow for two linearization variants of finite verbs. So in addition to the INI $-$  variant there could be a INI $+$  variant and this variant would be linearized initially. The LP rule in (6c) is more general than (6b) in that it does not mention the part of speech but instead refers to the function of the constituent. The rule says that a head that has the INI value  $-$  has to be linearized to the right of all other elements in the local tree.

This treatment of constraint on linearization has an advantage that was already pointed out by researchers working in GPSG: it captures the generalizations regarding linearization. For instance the order of verbs and their arguments is the same in embedded sentences in German independent of the finiteness of the verb:

- (7) a. dass er dem Mann das Buch gab  
       that he the man the book gave  
       ‘that he gave the man the book’  
     b. dass er versucht, [dem Mann das Buch zu geben]  
       that he tried the man the book to give  
       ‘that he tried to give the man the book’

This is also true for the relative order of dative and accusative object in (7). The constraints regarding linearization hold across rules. By factoring these constraints out, the generalizations can be captured.

### 3 Flat and binary branching structures

The previous section discussed LP rules and used flat phrase structure rules for illustration. The corresponding flat structures are also used in HPSG. Schema 1 shows a Head-Complement schema that combines a head with all the complements selected via the COMPS list.

#### Schema 1 (Head-Complement Schema)

*head-complement-phrase*  $\Rightarrow$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ll} \dots | \text{COMPS} & \langle \rangle \\ \text{HEAD-DTR} & \left[ \dots | \text{COMPS } \boxed{1} \right] \\ \text{NON-HEAD-DTRS} & \text{synsem2sign}(\boxed{1}) \end{array} \right]$$

*synsem2sign* is a relational constraint mapping *synsem* objects as they are contained in the COMPS list onto objects of type *sign* as they are contained in daughters (Pollard & Sag 1994).<sup>1</sup> How this schema can be used to analyze VPs like the one in (8) is shown in Figure 1.

- (8) Kim gave Sandy a book.

Researchers working on English usually assume a flat structure but assuming binary branching structures would be possible as well, as is clear from analyses in Categorical Grammar, where binary combinatory rules are assumed (Ajdukiewicz 1935; Steedman 2000). For languages like German it is usually assumed that structures are binary branching (but see Reape (1994: 156) and Bouma & van Noord

<sup>1</sup>In Sign-Based Construction Grammar the objects in valence lists are of the same type as the daughters. A relational constraint would not be needed in this variant of the HPSG theory.

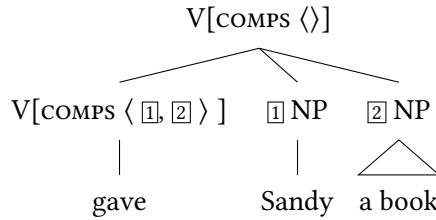


Figure 1: Analysis of the VP *gave Sandy a book* with a flat structure

(1998: 51)). The reason for this is that adverbials can be placed anywhere between the arguments as the following example from Uszkoreit (1987: 145) shows:

- (9) *Gestern hatte in der Mittagspause der Vorarbeiter in der*  
 yesterday had during the lunch.break the foreman in the  
*Werkzeugkammer dem Lehrling aus Boshaftigkeit langsam zehn*  
 tool.shop the apprentice maliciously slowly ten  
*schmierige Gußeisenscheiben unbemerkt in die Hosentasche gesteckt.*  
 greasy cast.iron.disks unnoticed in the pocket put  
 ‘Yesterday during lunch break, the foreman maliciously and unnoticed,  
 put ten greasy cast iron disks slowly into the apprentice’s pocket.’

A straightforward analysis of adjunct placement in German and Dutch is to assume that adjuncts can attach to any verbal projection.

Binary branching structures with attachment of adjuncts to any verbal projection also accounts for recursion and hence the fact that arbitrarily many adjuncts can attach to a verbal projection. Of course it is possible to formulate analyses with flat structures that involve arbitrarily many adjuncts (Kasper 1994; van Noord & Bouma 1994; Bouma et al. 2001), but these analyses involve relational constraints in schemata or in lexical items. In Kasper’s analysis the relational constraints walk through lists of daughters of unbounded length in order to compute the semantics. In the other two analyses adjuncts are treated as valents, which may be problematic because of scope issues. This cannot be dealt with in detail here but see Levine & Hukari (2006) and Chaves (2009) for discussion.

The following schema licenses binary branching head-complement phrases:

**Schema 2 (Head-Complement Schema (binary branching))**

*head-complement-phrase*  $\Rightarrow$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ll} \text{COMPS} & \boxed{1} \oplus \boxed{2} \\ \text{HEAD-DTR} & \left[ \text{COMPS } \boxed{1} \oplus \langle \boxed{3} \rangle \oplus \boxed{2} \right] \\ \text{NON-HEAD-DTRS} & \left\langle \left[ \text{SYNSEM } \boxed{3} \right] \right\rangle \end{array} \right]$$

$\oplus$  (append) is a relational constraint that concatenates two lists. The COMPS list of the head daughter is split into three lists: a beginning ( $\boxed{1}$ ), a list containing  $\boxed{3}$  and a rest ( $\boxed{2}$ ).  $\boxed{3}$  is identified with the SYNSEM value of the non-head daughter. All other elements of the COMPS list of the head daughter are concatenated and the result of this concatenation ( $\boxed{1} \oplus \boxed{2}$ ) is the COMPS list of the mother node. This schema is very general. It works for languages that allow for scrambling since it allows to take an arbitrary element out of the COMPS list of the head daughter and realize it in a local tree. The schema can also be “parametrized” to account for languages with fixed word order. For head final languages with fixed order  $\boxed{2}$  would be the empty list and for head-initial languages with fixed order (e.g., English)  $\boxed{1}$  would be the empty list.

The alternative to using relational constraints as in Schema 2 is to use sets rather than lists for the representation of valence information (Gunji 1986; Hinrichs & Nakazawa 1989; Pollard 1996; Engelkamp, Erbach & Uszkoreit 1992). The Head-Complement Schema would combine the head with one of its complements. Since the elements of a set are not ordered, any complement can be taken and hence all permutations of complements are accounted for.

The disadvantage of set-based approaches is that sets do not impose an order on their members but an order is needed for various subtheories of HPSG (see **chapters/case** Chapter 7 of this volume on case assignment, and **chapters/binding** Chapter 20 of this volume on Binding Theory). In the approach proposed above and in Müller (2003b; 2015a,b), the valence lists are ordered but the schema allows for combination with any element of the list. For valence representation and the order of elements in valence lists see **chapters/arg-st** Chapter 8 of this volume.

## 4 Head movement vs. constructional approaches assuming flat structures

The Germanic languages signal the clause type by verb position. All Germanic languages with the exception of English are V2 languages: the finite verb is in second position in declarative main clauses. The same holds for questions with *wh* phrases. Yes/no questions are formed by putting the verb in initial position. English is a so-called *residual V2 language*. While declarative clauses are in base order (SVO), questions follow the pattern that is known from other Germanic languages.

(10) What<sub>*i*</sub> did Kim read  <sub>*i*</sub>?

Analyses assuming flat structures (or flat linearization domains, see Section 5) usually treat alternative orders of verbs in Germanic languages as linearization variants (Reape 1994; Kathol 2001; Müller 1995; 2003b; Bjerre 2006), but this is not necessarily so as Bouma and van Noord's analysis of Dutch clauses show (Bouma & van Noord 1998: 62, 71). The alternative to verb placement as linearization is something that is similar to verb-movement in Government & Binding: a trace takes the position of the verb in its canonical position and the verb is realized in initial or second position. The following subsection deals with such approaches in more detail. Subsection 4.2 deals with a constructional approach.

### 4.1 Head movement approaches

Borsley (1989) showed that in addition to the analysis of auxiliary inversion in English that was suggested in GPSG (Gazdar et al. 1985) an analysis that is similar to the movement-based analysis in GB is possible in HPSG as well. The technique that is used in the analysis is basically the same that was developed by Gazdar (1981) for the treatment of nonlocal dependencies in GPSG. A trace is assumed and the information about the missing element is passed up the tree until it is bound off at an appropriate place (that is by the fronted verb). The analysis of (11) is shown in Figure 2.

(11) Did Kim get the job?

A special variant of the auxiliary selects a full clause in which an auxiliary is missing. The fact that the auxiliary is missing is represented as the value of `DSL`. The value of `DSL` is a *synsem* object, that is something that contains syntactic and semantic information (⌈2 in Figure 2). `DSL` is a head feature and hence available everywhere along a projection path (see `chapters/properties` Chapter 1 of this

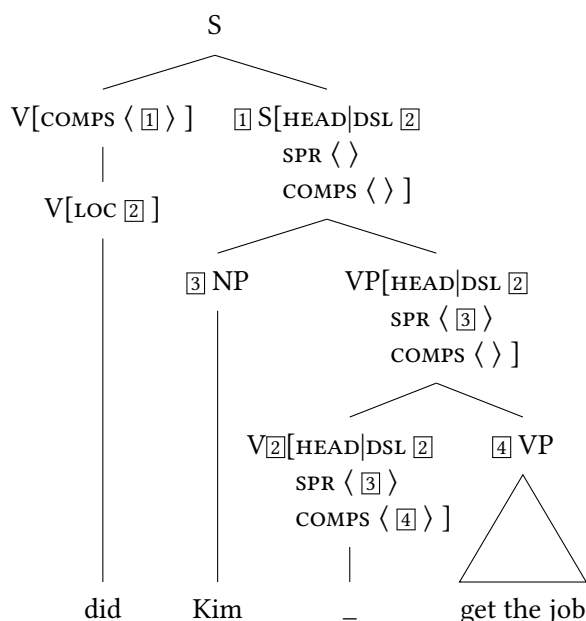


Figure 2: Analysis of English auxiliary constructions as head-movement following (Borsley 1989)

check reference to Chapter 1.

volume for the Head Feature Principle). The trace for head movement is rather simple:

$$(12) \begin{bmatrix} \text{word} \\ \text{PHON} & \langle \rangle \\ \text{SYNSEM|LOC } 1 & \begin{bmatrix} \text{CAT|HEAD|DSL } 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

It states that there is an empty element that has the local requirements that correspond to its DSL value. For cases of verb movement it says: I am a verb that is missing itself. The fronted auxiliary is licensed by a lexical rule that maps a non-fronted auxiliary onto one that selects a complete clause from which the input auxiliary is missing.

Such head-movement analyses are assumed by most researchers working on German (Kiss & Wesche 1991: Section 4.7; Oliva 1992; Netter 1992; Kiss 1993; Frank 1994; Kiss 1995; Feldhaus 1997; Meurers 2000; Müller 2005a; 2017) and also by (Bouma & van Noord 1998: 62, 71) in their work on Dutch, by Müller & Ørsnes (2015) in their grammar of Danish and by Müller (2018) for Germanic in general.



## 4.2 Constructional approaches

The alternative to head-movement-based approaches is a flat analysis with an alternative serialization of the verb. This was already discussed with respect to German, but I want to discuss English auxiliary constructions here, since the figured prominently in linguistic discussions. In the analysis of (13) shown in Figure 3, the auxiliary *did* selects for the subject *Kim* and a VP *get the job*.

(13) Did Kim get the job?

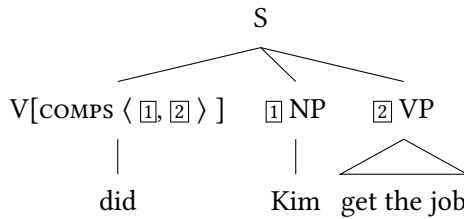


Figure 3: Analysis of English auxiliary constructions according to (Sag et al. 2018)

The tree in Figure 3 is licensed by a schema combining a head with its subject ([1]) and its VP complement ([2]) in one go. As is common in HPSG since 1995 (Sag 1997) phrasal schemata are organized in type hierarchies and the general schema for auxiliary initial constructions has the type *aux-initial-cxt*. Fillmore (1999) and Sag et al. (2018) argue that there are various usages of auxiliary-initial constructions and assign the respective usages to subconstructions of the general auxiliary-initial construction. Technically this amounts to stating subtypes of *aux-initial-cxt*. For example, Sag et al. (2018) posit a subtype *polar-int-cl* for polar interrogatives like (14a) and another subtype *auxinitial-excl-cl* for exclamatives like (14b).

- (14) a. Are they crazy?  
b. Are they crazy!

Chomsky (2010) compared the various clause types used in HPSG with the – according to him – much simpler Merge-based analysis in Minimalism. Minimalism assumes just one very general schema for combination (External Merge is basically equivalent to our Schema 2 above, see Müller (2013)), so this rule for combining linguistic objects is very simple, but this does not help in any way when considering the facts: there are at least three different meanings associated with auxiliary initial clauses and these have to be captured somewhere in

a grammar. One way is to state them in a type hierarchy as is done in some HPSG analyses and in SBCG, another way is to use implicational constraints that assign meaning with respect to actual configurations (see Section 4.3) and a third way is to do everything lexically. The only option for Minimalism is the lexical one. This means that Minimalism has to either assume as many lexical items for auxiliaries as there are types in HPSG or to assume empty heads that contribute the meaning that is contributed by the phrasal schemata in HPSG (Borsley 2006: Section 5; Borsley & Müller 2018). The latter proposal is generally assumed in Cartographic approaches (Rizzi 1997). Since there is a fixed configuration of functional projections that contribute semantics, one could term these Rizzi-style analyses *Crypto-Constructional*.

### 4.3 Mixed approaches

The situation with respect to clause types is similar in German. Verb first sentences can be yes/no questions (15a), imperatives (15b), conditional clauses (15c), and declarative sentences with topic drop (15d).

- (15) a. Kommt Peter? (German)  
       comes Peter  
       ‘Does Peter come?’  
       b. Komm!  
       come  
       c. Kommt Peter, komme ich nicht.  
       comes Peter come I not  
       ‘If Peter comes, I won’t come.’  
       d. Kommt. (Was ist mit Peter?)  
       comes what is with Peter  
       ‘What about Peter?’ ‘He comes.’

Verb second sentences can be questions (16a), declarative sentences (16b), or imperatives (16c).

- (16) a. Wer kommt?  
       who comes  
       b. Peter kommt. (German)  
       Peter comes

- c. Jetzt komm!  
 now come  
 ‘Come now!’

While one could try and capture this situation by assuming surface order-related clause types, such approaches are rarely assumed (but see Kathol (2001) and Wetta (2011). See Section 5.4.2 on why such approaches are doomed to failure). Rather researchers assumed binary branching head-complement structures together with verb movement (I assumed linearization domains (see Section 5) for ten years and then switched to the head-movement approach (Müller 2005a,b; 2017)).

As was explained above, the head movement approaches are based on lexical rules or unary projections. These license new linguistic objects that could contribute the respective semantics. As Borsley (2006) pointed out, this would mean that one needs seven versions of fronted verbs to handle the seven phrasal types that would have to be stipulated in phrasal approaches. But there is a way out of this: one can assume one lexical item with underspecified semantics. HPSG makes it possible to use implicational constraints referring to a structure in which an item occurs. Depending on the context the semantics contributed by a specific item can be further specified. Figure 4 shows the construction-based and the lexical rule-based analysis for comparison. In the construction-based analysis the daughters

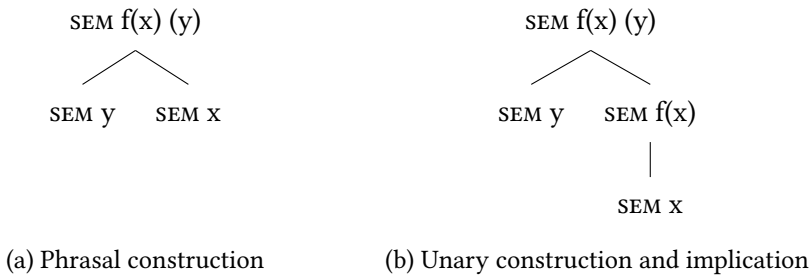


Figure 4: Construction-based, phrasal approach and approach with implicational constraint

contribute  $x$  and  $y$  as semantic values and the whole construction adds the construction meaning  $f$ . In the lexical rule- or unary projection-based analysis, the lexical rule/unary projection adds the  $f$  and the output of the rule is combined compositionally with the other daughter. Now, implicational constraints can be used to determine the exact contribution of the lexical item (Müller 2016). This is

shown with the example of a question in Figure 5. The implication says: when the

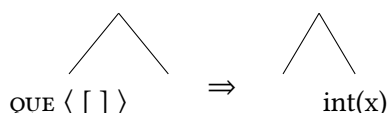


Figure 5: Implication for interrogative sentences

configuration has the form that there is a question pronoun in the left daughter, the output of the lexical rule gets question semantics. Since HPSG represents all linguistic information in the same AVM, such implicational constraints can refer to intonation as well.

Note that in Constructional HPSG as layed out by Sag (1997) implicational constraints can refer to the structure of a complete utterance. Hence items with a complex internal structure can be seen as contributing a certain meaning. This is ruled out by design in Sign-Based Construction Grammar, where linguistic objects of type *phrase* do not have daughters.

## 5 Constituent order domains

There is an interesting extension to standard HPSG that opens up possibilities for analyses that are quite different from what is done otherwise in theoretical linguistics: Mike Reape (1991; 1992; 1994) working on German suggested formal tools that allow for the modeling of discontinuous constituents. His original motivation was to account for scrambling of arguments in verbal complexes but this analysis was superseded by Hinrichs and Nakazawa’s analysis (Hinrichs & Nakazawa 1989; 1994) since purely linearization-based approaches are unable to account for agreement and the so-called remote passive (Kathol 1998: Section 5.1, Section 5.2; Müller 1999: Chapter 21.1). Nevertheless, his work was taken up by others and was used for analyzing German (Kathol & Pollard 1995; Kathol 2000; Müller 1995; 1996; 2004; Wetta 2011; Wetta 2014). As will be discussed below, there were reasons for dropping analyses of German assuming discontinuous constituents (Müller 2005b; 2017) but constituent order domains still play a major role in analyzing ellipsis (**chapters/ellipsis** Chapter 19 of this volume) and coordination (**chapters/coordination** Chapter 16 of this volume).

### 5.1 A special representational layer for constituent order

The technique that is used to model discontinuous constituents in frameworks like HPSG goes back to Mike Reape's work on German (1991; 1992; 1994). Reape uses a list called `DOMAIN` to represent the daughters of a sign in the order in which they appear at the surface of an utterance. (17) shows an example in which the `DOM` value of a headed-phrase is computed from the `DOM` value of the head and the list of non-head daughters.

$$(17) \text{ headed-phrase} \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{HEAD-DTR} | \text{DOM} \quad \boxed{1} \\ \text{NON-HEAD-DTRS} \quad \boxed{2} \\ \text{DOM} \quad \boxed{1} \circ \boxed{2} \end{array} \right]$$

The symbol ' $\circ$ ' stands for the *shuffle* relation. *shuffle* relates three lists A, B and C iff C contains all elements from A and B and the order of the elements in A and the order of the elements of B is preserved in C. (18) shows the combination of two sets with two elements each:

$$(18) \quad \langle a, b \rangle \circ \langle c, d \rangle = \langle a, b, c, d \rangle \vee \\ \langle a, c, b, d \rangle \vee \\ \langle a, c, d, b \rangle \vee \\ \langle c, a, b, d \rangle \vee \\ \langle c, a, d, b \rangle \vee \\ \langle c, d, a, b \rangle$$

The result is a disjunction of six lists. *a* is ordered before *b* and *c* before *d* in all of these lists, since this is also the case in the two lists  $\langle a, b \rangle$  and  $\langle c, d \rangle$  that have been combined. But apart from this, *b* can be placed before, between or after *c* and *d*.

Every word comes with a domain value that is a list that contains the word itself:

(19) Domain contribution of single words, here *gibt* 'gives':

$$\boxed{1} \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{PHON} \quad \langle \textit{gibt} \rangle \\ \text{SYNSEM} \quad \dots \\ \text{DOM} \quad \langle \boxed{1} \rangle \end{array} \right]$$

The description in (19) may seem strange at first glance, since it is cyclic, but it can be understood as a statement saying that *gibt* contributes itself to the items that occur in linearization domains.

The constraint in (20) is responsible for the determination of the PHON values of phrases:

$$(20) \text{ phrase} \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{PHON } [1] \oplus \dots \oplus [n] \\ \text{DOM } \left\langle \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{sign} \\ \text{PHON } [1] \end{array} \right], \dots, \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{sign} \\ \text{PHON } [n] \end{array} \right] \right\rangle \end{array} \right]$$

It states that the PHON value of a sign is the concatenation of the PHON values of its DOMAIN elements. Since the order of the DOMAIN elements corresponds to their surface order, this is the obvious way to determine the PHON value of the whole linguistic object.

Figure 6 shows how this machinery can be used to license binary branching structures with discontinuous constituents. Words or word sequences that are

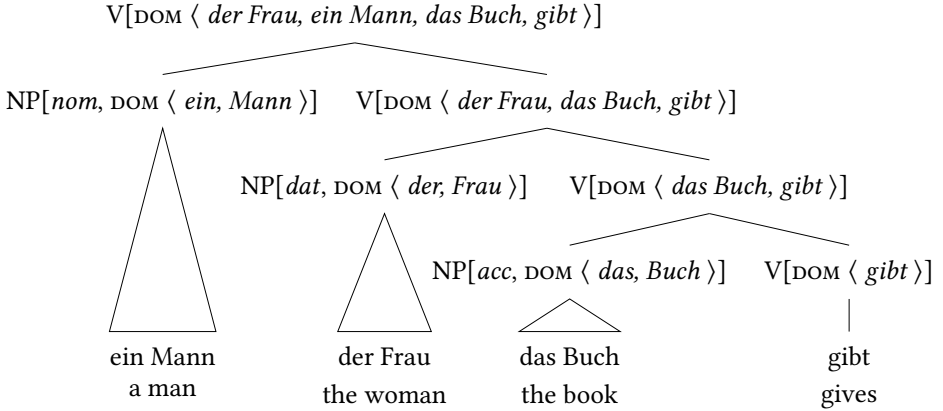


Figure 6: Analysis of *dass der Frau ein Mann das Buch gibt* ‘that a man gives the woman the book’ with binary branching structures and discontinuous constituents

separated by commas stand for separate domain objects, that is, < das, Buch > contains the two objects *das* and *Buch* and < das Buch, gibt > contains the two objects *das Buch* and *gibt*. The important point to note here is that the arguments are combined with the head in the order accusative, dative, nominative, although the elements in the constituent order domain are realized in the order dative, nominative, accusative rather than nominative, dative, accusative, as one would expect. This is possible since the formulation of the computation of the DOM value using the shuffle operator allows for discontinuous constituents. The node

for *der Frau das Buch gibt* ‘the woman the book gives’ is discontinuous: *ein Mann* ‘a man’ is inserted into the domain between *der Frau* ‘the woman’ and *das Buch* ‘the book’. This is more obvious in Figure 7, which has a serialization of NPs that corresponds to their order.

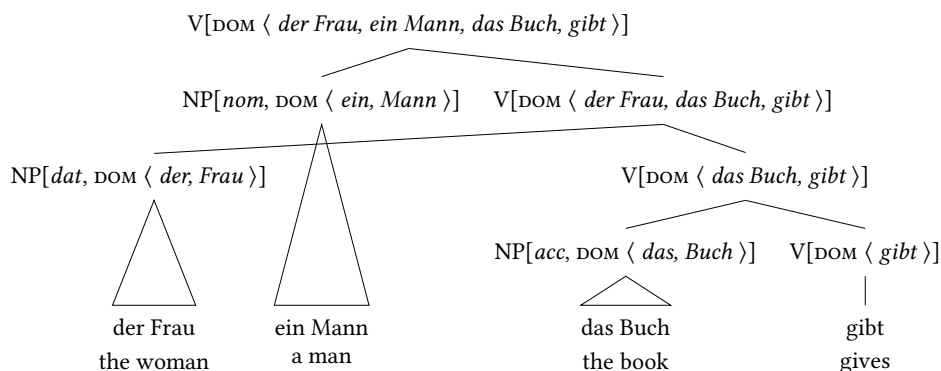


Figure 7: Analysis of *dass der Frau ein Mann das Buch gibt* ‘that a man gives the woman the book’ with binary branching structures and discontinuous constituents showing the discontinuity

## 5.2 Absolutely free

While German is more exciting than English in terms of constituent order it is still boring in comparison to languages like Warlpiri which have much freer constituent order. In Warlpiri the auxiliary has to be in first or in second position (Donohue & Sag 1999: 8) and apart from this even parts of what are noun phrases in German and English can appear separated from each other. For example, the two parts of the NP *Kurdu-jarra-rlu wita-jarra-rlu* ‘child small’ may appear discontinuously since they are marked with the same case:

- (21) *Kurdu-jarra-rlu ka-pala maliki wajili-pi-nyi wita-jarra-rlu.*  
 child-DU-ERG PRS-3DU.SUBJ dog.ABS chase-NPAST small-DU-ERG  
 (Warlpiri)

‘Two small children are chasing the dog.’ or  
 ‘Two children are chasing the dog and they are small.’

Donohue & Sag (1999) developed an analysis for this that simply liberates domain elements and inserts them into the next higher domain. (22) shows how this is formalized:

Mistake in  
glossing.  
Should  
*pi-nyi* be  
*pi.nyi*?

$$(22) \text{ liberating-phrase} \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{DOM} \quad \delta_0 \circ \delta_1 \circ \dots \circ \delta_n \\ \text{HEAD-DTR} \quad \left[ \text{DOM} \quad \delta_0 \right] \\ \text{NON-HEAD-DTRS} \quad \left\langle \left[ \text{DOM} \quad \delta_1 \right], \dots, \left[ \text{DOM} \quad \delta_n \right] \right\rangle \end{array} \right]$$

Rather than inserting the complete daughters into the domain of the mother as in (17), the DOM values of the daughters are shuffled into the domain of the mothers. So instead of having the NPs in the same domain as the verb as in the German example in the previous section one has all the parts of NPs in the next higher domain. Hence, a single nominal element being placed in front of the auxiliary in second position is explained without problems. Figure 8 shows the analysis of Donohue & Sag (1999). *child* and *small* form an NP. They contribute

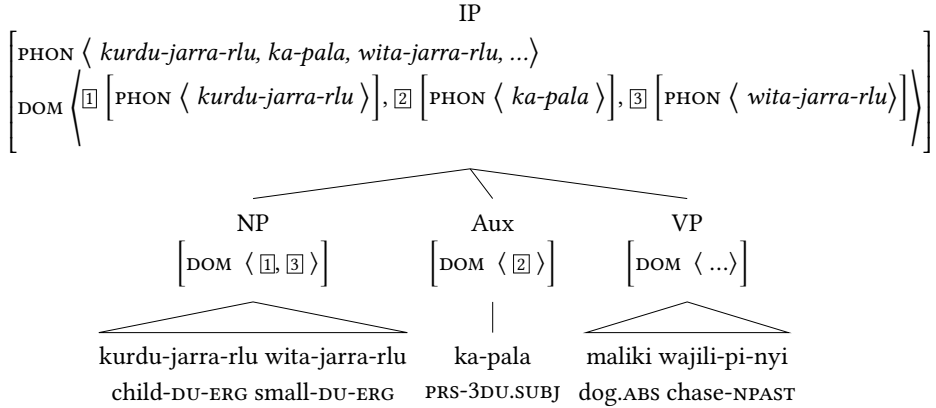


Figure 8: Analysis of free constituent order in Warlpiri according to Donohue & Sag (1999)

two independent domain objects ( $\boxed{1}$  and  $\boxed{3}$ ) to the domain of the mother. The second element in this domain has to be the auxiliary ( $\boxed{2}$ ),  $\boxed{1}$  is realized initially and  $\boxed{3}$  follows the auxiliary.

We have seen so far an analysis that inserts complete objects into the domain of the mother, an analysis that inserts all domain objects of objects into the domain of the mother and in the next subsection I want to look at an intermediate case, so-called *partial compaction*.



### 5.3 Partial compaction (extraposition)

Kathol & Pollard (1995) developed an analysis of extraposition that is a mix of the strategies discussed in the two subsections: most of one NP object is inserted into the domain of the mother as a single object, only those parts that are extraposed are liberated and inserted as individual domain objects into the domain of the mother. Kathol & Pollard's analysis of (23) is given in Figure 9.

- (23) einen Hund füttern, der Hunger hat (German)  
 a dog feed that hunger has  
 'feed a dog that is hungry'

*einen Hund, der Hunger hat* 'a dog who is hungry' consists of three domain objects: *einen* 'a', *Hund* 'dog', and *der Hunger hat* 'who hungry is'. The two initial ones are inserted as one object (the NP *ein Hund* 'a dog') into the higher domain and the relative clause is liberated. While the formation of the new domain at the mother node is relatively straight-forward in the cases discussed so far, a complex relational constraint is needed to split the relative clause ([3]) from the other domain objects and construct a new domain object that has the determiner and the noun as constituents ([2]). Kathol and Pollard have a relational constraint called *compaction* that builds new domain objects for insertion into higher domains. *partial compaction* takes an initial part of a domain and forms a new domain object from this returning the remaining domain objects for separate insertion into the higher domain. Due to space limitations, this constraint will not be discussed here but see Müller (1999: 244) for a refined version of Kathol and Pollard's constraint. The effect of partial compaction in Figure 9 is that there is a new object [2] and a list containing the remaining objects, in the example ⟨ [3] ⟩. A list containing the new object ⟨ [2] ⟩, a list containing the remaining objects ⟨ [3] ⟩ are shuffled with the domain list of the head [4]. Since the relative clause is in the same domain as the verb, it can be serialized to the right of the verb.

### 5.4 Problems with order domains

Constituent order domains may seem rather straight-forward since linearization facts can be handled easily. I assumed constituent order domains and discontinuous constituents for German myself for over a decade (Müller 1995; 2004). However, there are some problems that seem to suggest that a traditional GB-like head-movement approach is the better alternative. In what follows I want to discuss just two problematic aspects of linearization approaches: spurious ambiguities and apparently multiple frontings.

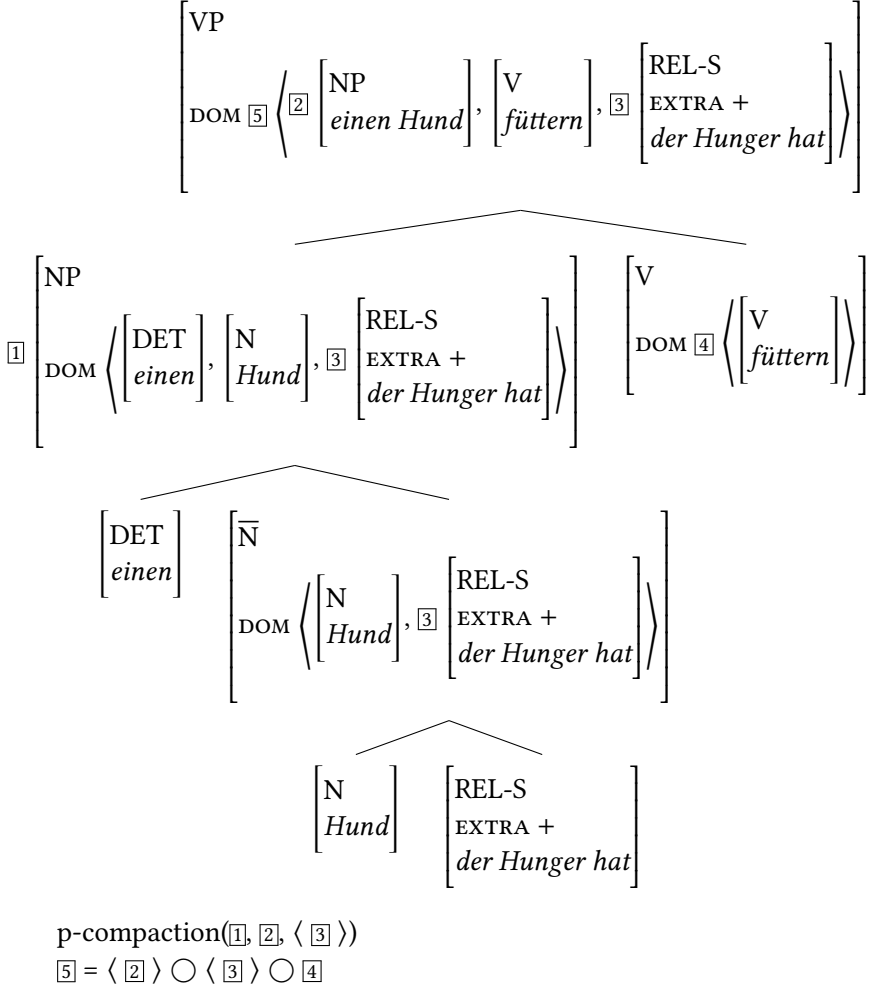


Figure 9: Analysis of extraposition via partial compaction of domain objects according to Kathol & Pollard (1995)

### 5.4.1 Partial fronting and spurious ambiguities

Kathol (2000) suggests an analysis with binary branching structures in which all arguments are inserted into a linearization domain and can be serialized there in any order provided no LP rule is violated. Normally one would have the elements of the COMPS list in a fixed order, combine the head with one element from the COMPS list after the other, and let the freedom in the DOM list be responsible for the various attested orders. So both sentences in (24) would have analyses in which the verb *erzählt* ‘tells’ is combined with *Geschichten* ‘stories’ first and then *Geschichten erzählt* ‘stories tells’ is combined with *den Wählern* ‘the voters’. Since the verb and all its arguments are in the same linearization domain they can be ordered in any order including the two orders in (24):

- (24) a. weil er den Wählern Geschichten erzählt (German)  
           because he the voters stories tells  
           ‘because he tells the voters stories’  
       b. weil er Geschichten den Wählern erzählt  
           because he stories the voters tells

The problem with this approach is that examples like (25) show that grammars have to account for combinations of any of the objects to the exclusion of the other:

- (25) a. Geschichten erzählen sollte man den Wählern nicht. (German)  
           stories tell should one the voters not  
           ‘One should not tell the voters such stories.’  
       b. Den Wählern erzählen sollte man diese Geschichten nicht.  
           the voters tell should one these stories not

Kathol (2000: Section 8.9) accounts for examples like (25) by relaxing the order of the objects in the valence list. He uses the shuffle operator in the valence representation:

- (26)  $\langle \text{NP}[\textit{nom}] \rangle \oplus (\langle \text{NP}[\textit{dat}] \rangle \circ \langle \text{NP}[\textit{acc}] \rangle)$

This solves the problem with examples like (25) but it introduces a new one: sentences like (24) now have two analyses each. One is the analysis we had before and another one is the one in which *den Wählern* ‘the voters’ is combined with *erzählt* ‘tells’ first and the result is then combined with *Geschichten* ‘stories’. Since both objects are inserted into the same linearization domain, both orders can be derived. So we have too much freedom: freedom in linearization

and freedom in the order of combination. The proposal that I suggested has just the freedom in the order of combination and hence can account for both (24) and (25) without spurious ambiguities.

#### 5.4.2 Surface order, clause types, fields within fields, and empty elements

Kathol (2001) develops an analysis of German that uses constituent order domains and determines the clause types on the basis of the order of elements in such domains. He suggests the topological fields 1, 2, 3, and 4, which correspond to the traditional topological fields *Vorfeld* ‘prefield’, *linke Satzklammer* ‘left sentence bracket’, *Mittelfeld* ‘middle field’, *rechte Satzklammer* ‘right sentence bracket’. Domain objects may assigned to these fields and they are then ordered by linearization constraints stating that objects assigned to 1 have to precede objects of type 2, type 3, and type 4. Objects of type 2 have to precede type 3, and type 4 and so on. For the *Vorfeld* and the left sentence he stipulates uniqueness constraints saying that at most one constituent may be of this type. This can be stated in a nice way by using the linearization constraints in (27):

- (27) a.  $1 < 1$   
 b.  $2 < 2$

This trick was first suggested by Gazdar et al. (1985: 55, Fn. 3) in the framework of GPSG and it works since if there were two objects of type 1 than each one would be required to precede the other one resulting in a violation of the linearization constraint. So in order to avoid such constraint violation there must not be more than one 1.

Kathol (2001) assumes the following definition for V2 clauses:

$$(28) \quad V2\text{-clause} \Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{c} S[fin] \\ \text{DOM} \left\langle [1], \left[ \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ V[fin] \end{array} \right], \dots \right\rangle \end{array} \right]$$

This says that the constituent order domain starts with one element assigned to field 1 followed by another domain object assigned to field 2. While this is in accordance with general wisdom about German, which is a V2 language, there are problems for entirely surface-based theories: German allows for multiple constituents in front of the finite verb. (29) shows some examples:

- (29) a. [Zum zweiten Mal] [die Weltmeisterschaft] errang Clark 1965 ... <sup>2</sup>  
           to.the second time the world.championship won Clark 1965  
           ‘Clark won the world championship for the second time in 1965.’
- b. [Dem Saft] [eine kräftige Farbe] geben Blutorangen.<sup>3</sup>  
           the.DAT juice a.ACC strong color give blood.oranges  
           ‘Blood oranges give the juice a strong color.’

Müller (2003a) extensively documents this phenomenon. The categories that can appear before the finite verb are almost unrestricted. Even subjects can be fronted together with other material (Bildhauer & Cook 2010: 72; Bildhauer 2011: 371). The empirical side of these apparent multiple frontings was further examined in the Collective Research Center 632, Project A6 and the claim that only constituents depending on the same verb can be fronted together (Fanselow 1993; Hoberg 1997: 1634) was confirmed (Müller 2017: Chapter 3). A further insight is that the linearization properties of the fronted material (NPs, PPs, adverbs, adjectives) correspond to the linearization properties they would have in the *Mittelfeld*. The example in (30) are even more interesting. It shows that there can be a right sentence bracket (the particle *los*) and an extraposed constituent (something following the particle: *damit*) before the finite verb (*geht* ‘goes’):

- (30) *Los damit geht es schon am 15. April.*<sup>4</sup>  
       off there.with goes it PRT on 15. April  
       4 5 2 3 3 3  
       ‘The whole thing starts on the 15th April.’

In Kathol’s system, *los* would be of type 4 and *damit* would have to be of type 5 (an additional type for extraposed items). Without any modification of the general system, we would get a 4 and a 5 ordered before a 2 (a right sentence bracket and a postfield preceding the left sentence bracket), something that is ruled out by Kathol’s linearization constraints.

Müller (2002), still working in a domain-based framework, developed an analysis assuming an empty verbal head to explain the fact that the fronted constituents have to depend on the same verb and that there is a separate topological area that is independent of the remaining clause. So, *los* and *damit* are domain

<sup>2</sup>(Beneš 1971: 162)

<sup>3</sup>Bildhauer & Cook (2010) found this example in the *Deutsches Referenzkorpus* (DeReKo), hosted at Institut für Deutsche Sprache, Mannheim: <http://www.ids-mannheim.de/kl/projekte/korpora>, 2018-09-13.

<sup>4</sup>taz, 01.03.2002, p. 8.

objects within a larger domain object placed in the prefield. Wetta (2011) suggests an analysis in which two or more constituents are compacted into one domain object, so *los* and *damit* would form one object that is inserted into the domain containing the finite verb. However, this begs the question what kind of object it is that is formed. Section 5.3 dealt with partial compaction of NPs. Some of the elements from an NP domain were liberated and other elements were fused into a new object that had the same category as the object containing all material, namely NP. But the situation with examples like (29) and (30) is quite different. We have a particle and a pronominal adverb in (30) and various other combinations of categories in the examples collected by Müller (2003a) and Bildhauer (2011). It would not make sense to claim that the fronted object is a particle or a pronominal adverb. Note that it is neither an option to leave the category of the fronted object unspecified since HPSG comes with the assumption that models of linguistic objects are total, that is, maximally specific (King 1999, see also **chapters/formal-background** Chapter 3 of this volume). Leaving the category and valence properties of the item in the prefield unspecified would make such sentences infinitely many times ambiguous. Of course Wetta could state that the newly created object is a verbal projection but this would just be stating the effect of the empty verbal head within a relational constraint, which I consider less principled than stating the empty element.

However, the empty verbal head that I stated as part of a linearization grammar in 2002 comes as a stipulation since its only purpose in the grammar of German was to account for apparent multiple frontings. Müller (2005b; 2017) drops the linearization approach and assumes head-movement instead. The empty head that is used for accounting for the verb position in German can also be used to account for apparent multiple frontings. The analysis is sketched in (31):

- (31) [<sub>VP</sub> [Zum zweiten Mal] [die Weltmeisterschaft] <sub>-V</sub>]<sub>i</sub> errang<sub>j</sub> Clark  
       to.the second time the world.championship won Clark  
       1965 <sub>-i</sub> <sub>-j</sub>.  
       1965

The details cannot be explained here but the analysis treats apparent multiple frontings parallel to partial verb phrase frontings. A lexical rule is used for multiple frontings which is a special case of the head-movement rule that was discussed in Section 4. So apparent multiple frontings are analyzed with means that are available to the grammar anyway. This analysis allows to keep the insight that German is a V2 language and it also gets the same-clause constraint and the linearization of elements right. See Müller (2005a,b; 2017) for details.

The paper so far discussed the tools that have been suggested in HPSG to account for constituent order: flat vs. binary branching structures, linearization domains, head-movement via DSL. I showed that analyses of German relying on discontinuous constituents and constituent order domains are not without problems and that head-movement approaches with binary branching and continuous constituents can account for the data. I also demonstrated in Section 5.2 that languages like Warlpiri that allow for much freer constituent order than German can be accounted for in models allowing for discontinuous constituents. The following section discusses a proposal by Bender (2008) showing that even languages like the Australian free constituent order languages can be handled without discontinuous constituents.

## 6 Free constituent order languages without order domains

Bender (2008) discusses the Australian language Wambaya and shows how phenomena parallel to those treated by Donohue & Sag (1999) can be handled without discontinuous constituents. The trick is that all arguments of a head are projected to higher nodes even when they are combined with the head, that is, arguments are not canceled off from valence lists. See also Meurers (1999); Przepiórkowski (1999) and Müller (2008) for earlier non-cancellation approaches. The example (21) from Section 5.2 can be recast with continuous constituents as is shown in Figure 10. The figure shows that arguments are not removed from the valence representation after combination with the head. Rather they are marked as satisfied. Since they are still in the representation, schemata may refer to them. Bender suggests a schema that identifies the MOD value of an element that could function as an adjunct in a normal head-adjunct structure with an element in the valence representation. In Figure 10 the MOD value of the second ergative nominal *wita-jarra-rlu* ‘small’ is identified with an argument of the auxiliary verb (①). The adjunct hence has access to the referential index of the argument and it is therefore guaranteed that both parts of the noun phrase refer to the same discourse referent. The NP for *kurdu-jarra-rlu* is combined with the projection of the auxiliary to yield a complete sentence. Since ① not just contains the semantic index and hence information about number (the dual) but also case information, it is ensured that distributed noun phrases have to bear the same case. Since information about all arguments are projected along the head path, ② would also be available for an adjunct referring to it. So in the place of *wita-jarra-rlu* ‘small-DU-ERG’ we could also have another adjunct referring to *maliki* ‘dog.ABS’. This shows that even languages with constituent order as free as the Australian languages

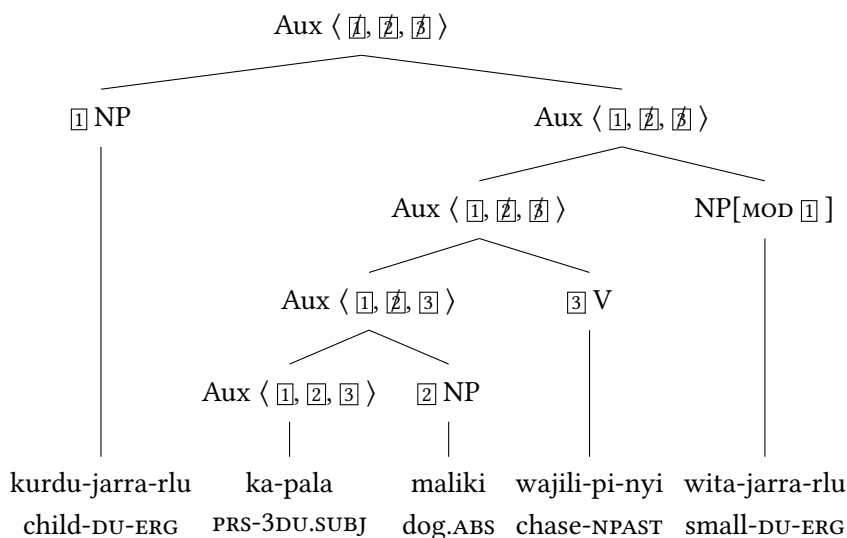


Figure 10: Analysis of free constituent order in Warlpiri using non-cancellation

can be handled within HPSG without assuming discontinuous constituents.

## 7 Summary

This paper discussed general approaches to constituent order in HPSG. On the one hand there are approaches assuming flat constituent structure allowing permutation of daughters as long as no LP constraints are violated and on the other hand, there are approaches assuming binary branching structures. Approaches that assume flat structures can serialize the head to the left or to the right or somewhere between other daughters in the structure. Approaches assuming binary branching have to use other means. One such means is “head movement”, which is analyzed as a series of local dependencies by passing information about the missing head up along the head path. The alternative to head movement is linearization of elements in special linearization domains, allowing for discontinuous constituents. I showed that there are reasons for assuming head-movement for German and how even languages with extremely free constituent order can be analyzed without assuming discontinuous constituents.



## Acknowledgements

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