

Case competition in headless relatives

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List of abbreviations

| | |
|------|----------------|
| 1 | first person |
| 3 | third person |
| ABS | absolute |
| ACC | accusative |
| AN | animate |
| AUX | auxiliary |
| COMP | complementizer |
| DAT | dative |
| DEF | definite |
| ERG | ergative |
| EXT | external case |
| F | feminine |
| GEN | genitive |
| INAN | inanimate |
| INT | internal case |
| M | masculine |
| MG | Modern German |
| N | neuter |
| NOM | nominative |
| OBJ | object |

| | |
|------|-----------------|
| OHG | Old High German |
| PL | plural |
| PRES | present tense |
| PROG | progressive |
| REL | relative |
| SG | singular |
| SUBJ | subject |

Chapter 1

Introduction

This dissertation is about case competition, a situation in which two cases are assigned but only one of them surfaces. One of the constructions in which case competition appears is relative clauses that lack a head, i.e. headless relatives.

I show that one aspect about case competition in headless relatives holds for all languages (under discussion here at least). That is, there is a fixed order which decides which case wins the competition. I let this follow from what we observe in morphology. Another aspect of case competition in headless relatives differs per language. That is, whether the competition takes place to begin with. I connect this variable to the morphology of the language in question.

Case competition in headless relatives has been described as some special property of a few special languages. Therefore, language-specific rules have been postulated to account for the data. My goal is to show that this phenomenon can be captured with ‘normal’ syntactic processes, like ellipsis, c-command. The account makes predictions about how a language behaves based on the shape of its relative pronouns. And we see that case competition in headless relatives is actually more wide-spread than what has been assumed.

In this introduction I first introduce what I mean exactly with case competition in headless relatives. Then I introduce the topics I discuss in this dissertation.

1.1 Introducing the title

Languages can use case to mark the grammatical role of a noun phrase in a clause (cf. Moravcsik, 2009). Consider the two Modern German sentences in (1). The what can descriptively be called subject of the predicate *mag* ‘likes’ is marked as nominative. The what can be described as object of *mag* ‘likes’ is marked as accusative. The case marking of the noun phrases is reflected on the determiner in the noun phrase. In (1a), *der* in *der Lehrer* ‘the teacher’ appears in nominative case, because it is the descriptive subject in the clause. *Den* in *den Schüler* ‘the pupil’ appears in accusative case, because it is a descriptive object of *mag* ‘likes’. In (1b), the grammatical roles are reversed: *der* in *der Schüler* ‘the pupil’ appears in nominative case, because it is the descriptive subject in the clause. *Den* in *den Lehrer* ‘the teacher’ appears in accusative case, because it is the descriptive object of *mag* ‘likes’.

- (1) a. Der Lehrer mag den Schüler.
 the.NOM teacher likes the.ACC student
 ‘The teacher likes the pupil.’
 b. Der Schüler mag den Lehrer.
 the.NOM student likes the.ACC teacher
 ‘The pupil likes the teacher.’

Not only full noun phrases, but also other elements can be marked for case, such as relative pronouns. Modern German marks relative pronouns, just like full noun phrases, for the grammatical role they have in the clause. Consider the two sentences in (2). These two sentences both contain a main clause that is modified by a relative clause. In (2a), the relative clause *der nach draußen guckt* ‘that looks outside’ modifies *den Schüler* ‘the pupil’. *Schüler* ‘pupil’ is called the head (noun) or the antecedent of the relative clause. *Den* in *den Schüler* ‘the pupil’ appears in accusative case, because it is the descriptive object of *mag* ‘likes’ in the main clause. The relative pronoun *der* ‘REL.NOM.SG.M’ appears in nominative case, because it is the descriptive subject of in the relative clause.

In (2b), the relative clause *den er beim Verstecktspiel sucht* ‘that he is searching for playing hide-and-seek’ modifies *den Schüler* ‘the pupil’. *Den* in *den Schüler* ‘the pupil’ appears again in accusative, because it is the descriptive object of *mag* ‘likes’

in the main clause. The relative pronoun *den* ‘REL.ACC.SG.M’ appears in accusative case, because it is the descriptive object of *sucht* ‘searches’ in the relative clause.

- (2) a. Der Lehrer mag den Schüler, der nach draußen
 the.NOM teacher likes the.ACC student REL.NOM.SG.M to outside
 guckt.
 looks
 ‘The teacher likes the pupil that is looking outside.’
- b. Der Lehrer mag den Schüler, den er beim
 the.NOM teacher likes the.ACC student REL.ACC.SG.M he at the
 Versteckspiel sucht.
 hide-and-seek game searches
 ‘The teacher likes the pupil that he is searching for playing hide-and-seek.’

Compare the two sentences in (2). In both sentences the head is marked as accusative because it is the descriptive object in the main clause. The case of the relative pronoun in (2b) is also accusative, because it is the descriptive object in the relative clause. The case of the relative pronoun in (2a) is nominative, because it is the descriptive subject in the relative clause. So, the case of the relative pronoun in (2a) differs from the case of the head.

The focus of this dissertation lies on headless relatives. As the name suggests, this type of relative clause lacks a head.¹ Even though Modern German also has case competition in headless relatives, I turn to Gothic now. The first part of the dissertation can be illustrated best with Gothic, and not with the Modern German, in which the pattern differs slightly.

I give an example of a headless relative in Gothic in (3). There is no head that this relative clause modifies, because it is a headless relative. This is different from the examples from German I gave above, which each had a head. The predicate *arma*

¹This ‘missing noun’ has been interpreted in two different ways. Some researchers argue that the noun is truly missing, it is absent, cf. Citko 2005; Van Riemsdijk 2006. Others claim that there is actually a head, but it is phonologically zero, Bresnan and Grimshaw 1978; Groos and van Riemsdijk 1981; Grosu 2003. At this point in the discussion this distinction is not relevant. I return to the issue in Chapter 5.

it appears on the relative pronoun.³ This means that the internal and external case come together on the relative pronoun. In other words, there is case competition going on in headless relatives. (3) is indeed the first example I gave of case competition in a headless relative. It is an uninteresting one, because the two competing cases are identical.

Consider the example in (4), in which the internal case is dative and the external case is accusative. The internal case is dative. The preposition *ana* ‘on’ takes dative objects, as indicated by the subscript on the preposition. The external case is accusative. The predicate *ushafjands* ‘picking up’ takes accusative objects, indicated by the subscript on the predicate. The relative pronoun *þamm(a)* ‘REL.DAT.SG.N’ appears in dative. This dative can only come from the preposition *ana* ‘on’, which is the internal case here. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause.

- (4) *ushafjands* ***ana*** ***þamm*** ***-ei*** ***lag***
 picking up_[ACC] on_[DAT] REL.DAT.SG.N -COMP lay
 ‘picking up (that) on which he lay’
 (Gothic, Luke 5:25, adapted from Harbert 1978: 343)

The conclusion that follows is that the relative pronoun can take the internal case. At this point it remains unclear what happened to the external accusative case.

Now consider the example in (5), in which the internal case is accusative and the external case is dative. The internal case is accusative. The predicate *jains* ‘sent’ takes accusative objects, as indicated by the subscript on the predicate. The external case is dative. The predicate *galaubjaiþ* ‘believe’ takes dative objects, as indicated by the subscript on the predicate. The relative pronoun *þamm(a)* ‘REL.DAT.SG.M’ appears in the dative case. This dative can only come from the predicate *taujau* ‘do’, which is the external case here. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause.

- (5) *ei* *galaubjaiþ* ***þamm*** ***-ei*** ***insandida jains***
 that believe_[DAT] REL.DAT.M.SG COMP sent_[ACC] he
 ‘that you believe on (him) whom he has sent’

³Later on I will argue that this indirect process is ellipsis.

(Gothic, John 6:29, my translation)

The conclusion that follows is that the relative pronoun can take the external case. At this point it remains unclear what happened to the internal accusative case.

The examples in (4) and (5) have shown that the relative pronoun in headless relatives can take either the internal or the external case. In the examples, the predicates (or preposition) take accusative and dative, and in both cases, the relative pronoun appeared in dative case. In other words, there was a competition between accusative and dative, and dative won.

In the next section, I discuss the content of this dissertation. Before that, I comment on two notational conventions I use throughout this dissertation. First, I place subscripts on the glosses of the predicates. They indicate what the internal or external case is. The subscript on the predicate in the relative clause indicates the internal case. The subscript on the predicate in the main clause indicates the external case. This subscript can mean different things. For *ushaffands* ‘picking up’ (3) the subscript indicates which case the complement of the verb appears in. The subscript on *taujau* ‘do’ (5) refers to the case of the indirect object of the predicate. Another possibility is that the subscript is placed on a preposition and refers to the case the preposition combines with, as for *ana* ‘on’ in (4). A last possibility is that the subscript is [NOM] and refers to the case the descriptive subject appears in, of which examples will emerge in the next chapter. In other words, the subscript can refer several elements: a subject, object or indirect object of a predicate. There is no overarching theoretical notion that the subscript makes reference to. The subscript simply indicates which case is required within the (main or relative) clause.

Second, I write the relative clause in bold. When the relative pronoun takes the internal case, I mark it in bold as well, as shown in (4). When the relative pronoun takes the external case, I leave it black, indicating it patterns with the main clause. An example of that is (5).

1.2 The content of this dissertation

In the previous section I introduced the notion of case competition, and I illustrated how it appears in headless relatives. This dissertation discusses two question re-

garding this phenomenon. The first one is which case is going to win the case competition, i.e. which case surfaces. I discuss this in Part I. The second question is whether both competitors are able to compete in the competition, i.e. whether one of the cases is surfacing or both are ungrammatical. I discuss this in Part II. For both I will show that morphology is leading. What we observe in syntax is a reflex of the morphology.

In Part I I discuss the pattern observed in headless relatives in Gothic. This pattern has also been described for German, Greek, etc. etc. references references. The pattern that arises in headless relatives is not restricted to headless relatives. It can also be observed in another syntactic phenomenon: the accessibility hierarchy. This is.. Lastly: the pattern we observe in these two syntactic phenomena is what we know from morphology. I discuss patterns in morphology: formal containment, syncretism patterns, suppletion patterns.

In Part I I discuss an aspect of headless relatives that differs per language. That is, not all languages act like Gothic.

(6) Modern German

a. accusative dative

„

b. dative accusative

„

(7) Old High German

a. accusative dative

„

b. dative accusative

„

(8) Italian

a. accusative dative

“

b. dative accusative

“

So far people said.. I connect this crosslinguistic variation to morphology.. so i reduce it to differences in the lexicon

In Part III I show how all of this can be derived in derivations.

Part I

The stable case facts

Chapter 2

A recurring pattern

This chapter introduces the pattern that forms the focus of the first part of the dissertation. In Section 2.1 I show that case competition in headless relatives adheres to the case scale in (1).

- (1) $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$

Then I show that this pattern is not unique to headless relatives. It appears in more syntactic and morphological phenomena. Section 2.2 discusses two implicational hierarchies that show the same case ordering. The hierarchies concern agreement and relativization across languages. Section 2.3 shows that the case scale also shows up in morphological patterns. It can be observed in patterns of syncretism and in morphological containment.

2.1 In headless relatives

As the name suggests, headless relatives are relative clauses that lack an (overt) head. The internal case, the case from the relative clause, and the external case, the case from the main clause, compete to surface on the relative pronoun. It has been argued in the literature that the two competing cases always adhere to a particular case scale (cf. Harbert, 1978; Pittner, 1995; Vogel, 2001; Grosu, 2003; Bergsma, 2019; Caha, 2019). This is the scale I gave in the introduction, repeated here in (2).

Elements more to the right on this scale win over elements more to the left on this scale.¹

(2) NOM < ACC < DAT

This can be reformulated as follows. In a competition, dative wins over accusative, and dative wins over nominative. Additionally, accusative wins over nominative. In this section I illustrate this scale with examples. When two cases compete, the relative pronoun always appears in the case more to the right on the case scale. It does not matter whether it is the internal or the external case. I illustrate this with examples from headless relatives in Gothic (Harbert, 1978).

I start with the competition between dative and accusative. Following the case scale in (2), the relative pronoun appears in dative case and never in accusative.

Consider the example in (3), repeated from the introduction. In this example, the internal case is dative and the external case is accusative. The internal case is dative. The preposition *ana* ‘on’ takes dative complements. The external case is accusative. The predicate *ushaffands* ‘picking up’ takes accusative objects. The relative pronoun *þamm(a)* ‘REL.DAT.N.SG’ appears in the internal case: the dative. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just like as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause. Examples in which the internal case is dative, the external case is accusative and the relative pronoun appears in accusative case are unattested.

(3) ushaffands **ana** **þamm** -ei lag
 picking up_[ACC] on_[DAT] REL.DAT.N.SG -COMP lay
 ‘picking up (that) on which he lay’

(Gothic, Luke 5:25, adapted from Harbert 1978: 343)

Consider the example in (4), repeated from the introduction. In this example, the internal case is accusative and the external case is dative. The internal case is ac-

¹In the literature about headless relatives, the genitive is often discussed together with the nominative, accusative and dative (cf. Harbert, 1978; Pittner, 1995). In this dissertation I do not discuss the genitive. The reason is that I restrict myself to cases that appear in all possible case competition combinations. As the genitive does not fulfill that requirement, it is therefore excluded. In Chapter 8 I briefly return to the issue.

cusative. The predicate *jains* ‘sent’ takes accusative objects. The external case is dative. The predicate *galaubjaip* ‘believe’ takes dative objects. The relative pronoun *þamm(a)* ‘REL.DAT.M.SG’ appears in the external case: the dative. The relative pronoun is not marked in bold, just like as the main clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the main clause. Examples in which the internal case is accusative, the external case is dative and the relative pronoun appears in accusative case are unattested.

- (4) ei galaubjaip þamm -ei **insandida jains**
 that believe_[DAT] REL.DAT.M.SG sent_[ACC] he
 ‘that you believe on (him) whom he has sent’
 (Gothic, John 6:29, my translation)

I continue with the competition between dative and nominative. Following the case scale in (2), the relative pronoun appears in dative case and never in nominative.

Consider the example in (5), in which the internal case is dative and the external case is nominative. The internal case is dative. The predicate *fraletada* ‘is forgiven’ takes dative objects. The external case is nominative. The predicate *frijod* ‘loves’ takes nominative subjects. The relative pronoun *þamm(a)* ‘REL.DAT.M.SG’ appears in the internal case: the dative. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause. Examples in which the internal case is dative, the external case is nominative and the relative pronoun appears in nominative case are unattested.

- (5) iþ **þamm** -ei leiti **fraletada** leiti frijod
 but REL.DAT.M.SG -COMP little is forgiven_[DAT] little loves_[NOM]
 ‘but the one whom little is forgiven loves little’
 (Gothic, Luke 7:47, adapted from Harbert 1978: 342)

Consider the example in (6), in which the internal case is nominative and the external case is dative. The internal case is nominative. The predicate *sind fraþjaip* ‘are above’ takes a nominative subject. The external case is dative. The predicate *fraþjaip* ‘think on’ takes dative indirect objects. The relative pronoun *þaim* ‘REL.DAT.PL.N’ appears in the external case: the dative. The relative pronoun is not marked in bold,

- (8) jah þo -ei ist us **Laudeikaion** jus ussiggwaid
 and REL.ACC.N.SG -COMP is_[NOM] from Laodicea you read_[ACC]
 ‘and read that which is from Laodicea’
 (Gothic, Col. 4:16, adapted from Harbert 1978: 357)

A summary of the Gothic data as a whole is given in Table 2.1. The left column shows the internal case between square brackets. The upper row shows the external case between square brackets. The other cells indicate the case of the relative pronoun. The diagonal is left blank, because these are instances in which the internal and external case match. The remaining six cells show instances where the internal and external case differ. Within the cells, two cases are given. The case in the lower left corner stands for the relative pronoun in the internal case. The case in the upper right corner stands for the relative pronoun in the external case. The grammatical examples are marked in gray. The unattested examples are marked with an asterisk and are unmarked.²

Table 2.1: Case competition in Gothic headless relatives

| EXT INT | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| [NOM] | | ACC *NOM | DAT *NOM |
| [ACC] | *NOM ACC | | DAT *ACC |
| [DAT] | *NOM DAT | *ACC DAT | |

The three instances in the lower left corner correspond to the examples (7), (5) and (4). In the attested examples, the relative pronoun appears in the internal case.

²Throughout this dissertation * stands for ‘not found in natural language’. For extinct languages this means that there are no attested examples. For modern languages it means that the examples are ungrammatical.

The three instances in the upper right corner correspond to the examples in (8), (6) and (3). In the attested examples, the relative pronoun appears in the external case.

Table 2.2: Summary of Gothic matching headless relative data

| INT^{EXT} | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| [NOM] | | ACC | DAT |
| [ACC] | ACC | | DAT |
| [DAT] | DAT | DAT | |

To sum up, case competition in headless relative is subject to the case scale, repeated in (9).

$$(9) \quad \text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$$

If two cases compete, dative wins over accusative and nominative, and accusative wins over nominative. In this section I gave examples from Gothic that illustrate this. As I mentioned in the introduction of this section, this case scale is not specific for Gothic, but it holds across languages (cf. see Pittner 1995 for Modern, Middle High and Old High German, Grosu 2003 for Ancient Greek and Daskalaki 2011 for Modern Greek).³

In the remainder of this chapter I show that headless relatives are not the only place where the case scale shows up. Instead, it appears with more syntactic phenomena. Moreover, exactly this scale is also reflected in morphology.

³These languages differ from Gothic in that they are subject to an additional constraint. That is, they only allow either the internal or the external case to win case competitions. If the other case is more to the right on the case scale (9), the result is ungrammatical. Old High German is an example of a language that only allows the external case to win the case competition. If the internal case is more to the right on the case scale, the headless relative is ungrammatical. Modern German is an example of a language that only allows the internal case to win the case competition. If the external case is more to the right on the case scale, the headless relative is ungrammatical. This topic is the main focus of Part I of this dissertation.

2.2 In syntax

In this section I discuss two additional syntactic phenomena that reflect the $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$ scale. The first one is an implicational hierarchy that concerns agreement. The second one is an implicational hierarchy about relativization.

2.2.1 Agreement

Agreement can be seen as “a systematic covariance between a semantic or formal property of one element and a formal property of another” (Steel, 1978). Put differently, the shape of one element changes according to some properties of an element it relates to. In this section I discuss the agreement between a predicate and its arguments.

It differs per language with how many of its arguments a predicate agrees. However, it is not random with which agreement takes place. Instead, there is an implicational hierarchy that is identical to the one observed for headless relatives: $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$.

Moravcsik (1978) formulated the implicational hierarchy in terms of grammatical functions subject, direct object and indirect object.⁴ The hierarchy is schematically represented in Figure 2.1. It should be read as follows: if a language allows the predicate to agree with the argument in a particular circle, it also allows the predicate to agree with the argument in the circle around it.

Then, there are four types of languages possible: first, a language that does not show any agreement; second, a language that shows agreement only with the subject and not with the direct and indirect object; third, a language that shows agreement with the subject and direct object but not with the indirect object; and fourth, a language that shows agreement with the subject, the direct object and the indirect object.

The implicational hierarchy holds for languages, not for sentences. That is, it is not the case that in a language of a particular type all instances of the grammatical function show agreement. To be more precise, in a language of the second type,

⁴Moravcsik (1978) also included adverbs on the lowest end of the hierarchy. I leave them out here, because they are not relevant for the discussion.

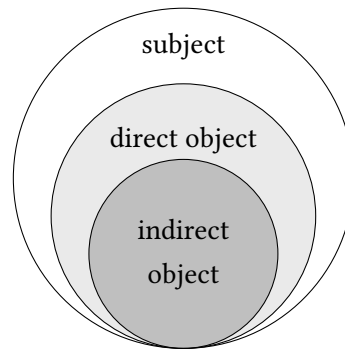


Figure 2.1: Moravcsik's 1978 schema

that only shows agreement with the subject, not all subjects have to show agreement. Particular types of subject, such as experiencer subjects often do not show any agreement.

Japanese is an example of a language that does not show any agreement on the predicate. An example is given in (10). The predicate *okutta* 'sent' does not agree with the subject *Tarooga* 'Taro', with the direct object *nimotuo* 'package' or with the indirect object *Hanakoni* 'Hanako'.

- (10) Taro_o-ga Hanako-ni nimotu-o okutta.
 Taro-NOM Hanako-DAT package-ACC sent
 'Taro sent Hanako a package.' (Japanese, Miyagawa and Tsujioka 2004: 5)

German is an example of a language that shows agreement with the subject of the clause. An example is given in (11). The predicate *gibst* 'give' contains the morpheme *-st*, marked in bold. This morpheme is the agreement morpheme for second person singular subjects (in the present tense). The predicate *gibst* 'give' agrees in person and number with the subject *du* 'you'. There is no agreement with the direct object *das Buch* 'the book' or the indirect object *mir* 'me'.

- (11) Du gib **-st** mir das Buch.
 you give -2SG.PRES me the book
 'You give me the book.' (German)

Hungarian is an example of a language that shows agreement with the subject and the direct object of a clause. An example is given in (12). The predicate *adom* ‘give’ contains the morpheme *-om*, marked in bold. This is a portmanteau morpheme for a first person singular subject and a third person object agreement. The predicate *adom* ‘give’ agrees with the subject *én* ‘I’ and the direct object *a könyvet* ‘the book’. There is no agreement with the indirect object *neked* ‘you’. Agreement with the first person singular subject *én* ‘I’ and second person singular indirect object *neked* ‘you.DAT.SG’ is ungrammatical, as indicated by the ungrammaticality of *-lak*.

- (12) (Én) *neked* *ad* **-om**/ *-lak *a könyv-et*
 I you.DAT.SG give -1SG.SUBJ>3.OBJ -1SG.SUBJ>2.OBJ the book -ACC
 ‘I give you the book.’ (Hungarian, András Bárány p.c.)

Basque is an example of a language that shows agreement with the subject, the direct object and the indirect object. Basque is an ergative-absolutive language, so in transitive clauses subjects are marked as ergative and objects are marked as absolutive. An example from the Bizkaian dialect is given in (13). The stem of the auxiliary *aus* combines with the morphemes *d-*, *-ta* and *-zu*, marked in bold. The morpheme *d-* is the agreement morpheme for third person singular as direct objects, which is here *liburua* ‘the book’. The morpheme *-ta* is the agreement morpheme for first person singular indirect objects, which is here *niri* ‘me’. The morpheme *-zu* is the agreement morpheme for second person singular ergative subjects, which is here *zuk* ‘you’.

- (13) *Zu-k ni-ri liburu-a emon d -aus -ta -zu.*
 you-ERG me-DAT book-DEF.ABS given ABS.3SG -AUX -DAT.1SG -ERG.2SG
 ‘You gave me the book.’
 (Bizkaian Basque, adapted from Arregi and Molina-Azaola 2004: 45)

Putting the languages in Moravcsik’s (1978) figure gives the following result.

Gilligan (1987) performed a typological study among 100 genetically and areally diverse languages, which confirms the picture. The results are shown in Table 2.3. There are 23 languages that do not show any agreement, like Japanese. There are 31 languages that show agreement only with the subject and not with the direct

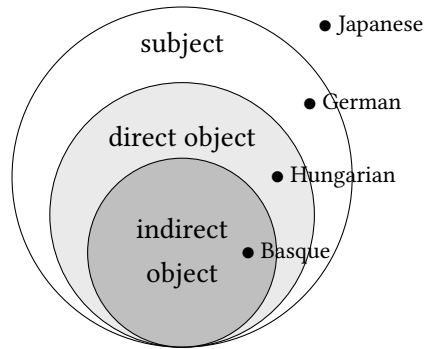


Figure 2.2: Moravcsik's 1978 schema with languages

and indirect object, like German. There are 25 languages that show agreement with the subject and direct object but not with the indirect object, like Hungarian. There are 23 languages that show agreement with the subject, the direct object and the indirect object, like Basque.

Table 2.3: Agreement accessibility

| agreement with | | | number of languages | example |
|----------------|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|-----------|
| subject | direct object | indirect object | | |
| * | * | * | 23 | Japanese |
| ✓ | * | * | 31 | German |
| ✓ | ✓ | * | 25 | Hungarian |
| ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | 23 | Basque |
| ✓ | * | ✓ | (1) | - |
| * | ✓ | ✓ | 0 | - |
| * | x | * | 0 | - |
| * | * | ✓ | 0 | - |

Icelandic is a language that has dative subjects. If agreement takes place with the grammatical subject, it is expected that the dative subject agrees with the predicate. This is not what happens, as illustrated in (14). The dative subject *morgum studentum* ‘many students’ is plural. The sentence is ungrammatical with the predicate *líka* ‘like’ inflecting for plural as well. So, the dative subject does not agree in number with the predicate. In other words, it is not the grammatical subject that shows agreement.

- Instead, it is the nominative object that agrees with the verb. This is illustrated in (15). The dative subject *konunginum* ‘the king’ is singular. The nominative object *ambáttir* ‘slaves’ is plural. The predicate *voru* ‘were’ is inflected for plural, agreeing with the nominative object. This is expected if morphological case determines agreement: it is the nominative that shows agreement. The grammatical role, the fact that this nominative is an object, does not influence agreement.

- The second type of evidence that Bobaljik gives comes from ergative-absolutive lan-

guages. In these languages, absolutive marks the object of a transitive clause and it marks the subject in an intransitive clause.

Reformulating Figure 2.1 in terms of case instead of grammatical function gives the schema in Figure (15). Default case can be nominative or absolutive case (in transitive clauses), and dependent case can be accusative and ergative case.

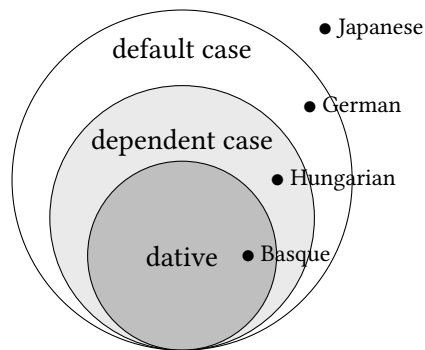


Figure 2.3: Bobaljik's 2006 actual schema

First, Japanese is a language that does not show any agreement, as shown in (10). There is no agreement with the default case (here the nominative), not with the dependent case (here the accusative) and not with the dative case. Second, German is a language that shows agreement only with the default case, as shown in (11). The morpheme *-st* on the predicate agrees with the element in default nominative case *du* 'you'. There is no agreement with the dependent accusative case or with the dative case. Third, Hungarian is a language that shows agreement with the default and the dependent case, as shown in (12). The portmanteau morpheme *-om* on the predicates agrees with the element in default nominative case *én* 'I' and the element in dependent accusative case *a könyvet* 'the book'. Last, Basque is a language that shows agreement with the default, the dependent and the dative case, as shown in (13). The morpheme *-zu* on the auxiliary agrees with the element in default ergative case *zuk* 'you'. The morpheme *d-* on the auxiliary agrees with the element in dependent absolutive case *liburua* 'the book'. The morpheme *-ta* on the auxiliary agrees with the element in dative case *niri* 'me'.

In the languages I discuss in this dissertation, I focus on languages that have

nominative as default case and accusative as dependent case, so Figure (15) suffices.

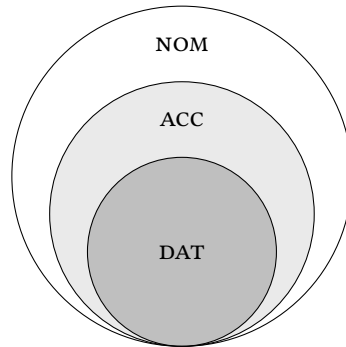


Figure 2.4: Bobaljik's 2006 simplified schema

In sum, this section has shown that agreement follows the same implicational hierarchy as the case scale in headless relatives: $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$.

2.2.2 Relativization

Relativization refers to the process in which a relative clause is derived from a non-relative clause. An example of the non-relative clause is given in (16a). The relative clause derived from that is shown in (16b). The head of the relative clause is *woman* and precedes the clause. The relative pronoun follows the head. The head of the head does not appear in the relative clause anymore.

- (16) a. You like the woman.
 b. **the woman**, who you like

In (16b), it is the object of the clause that is relativized. It differs per language which elements can be relativized with a particular strategy. Just like the distribution was not random for agreement, it is not random which elements can be relativized. Instead, there is an implicational hierarchy that is identical to the one observed for the case scale: $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$.

Keenan and Comrie (1977) formulated the implicational hierarchy in terms of the grammatical functions subject, direct object and indirect object.⁵ The impli-

⁵Keenan and Comrie (1977) also included obliques, possessives and objects of comparison on the

cational hierarchy is schematically represented in Figure 2.5. It should be read as follows: if a language allows a particular relativization strategy of the grammatical function in a particular circle, it also allows this relativization strategy of the grammatical function of the circle around it. The languages in the figure give examples of the circles they are in.

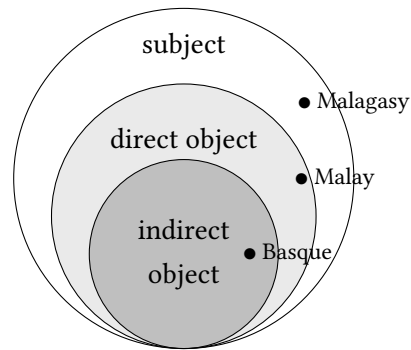


Figure 2.5: Schema for relativization

There are four types of languages possible: first, a language that allows only the subject to be relativized with a particular strategy and not the direct and indirect object; second, a language that allows the subject and direct object to be relativized with a particular strategy but not the indirect object; and third, a language that allows the subject, the direct object and the indirect object to be relativized with a particular strategy.

Malagasy is an example of a language that allows subjects to be relativized using a particular strategy, but not direct and indirect objects. (17) is an example of a declarative sentence in Malagasy. It is a transitive sentence that contains the subject *ny mpianatra* ‘the student’ and the direct object *ny vehivavy* ‘the woman’.

- (17) Nahita ny vehivavy ny mpianatra.
 saw the woman the student
 ‘The student saw the woman.’ (Malagasy, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 70)

In (18), the subject from the declarative sentence, marked in bold, is relativized. The lowest end of the hierarchy. I leave them out here, because they are not relevant for the discussion.

subject *ny mpianatra* ‘the student’ appears in the first position of the clause. It is followed by the invariable relativizer *izay* ‘that’. After that, the rest of the relative clause follows, in this case *nahita ny vehivavy* ‘saw the woman’.

- (18) **ny mpianatra** izay nahita ny vehivavy
 the student that saw the woman
 ‘the student that saw the woman’

(Malagasy, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 70, my boldfacing)

The object of (17) cannot be relativized in the same way, as shown in (19). Here the object *ny vehivavy* ‘the woman’, marked in bold, appears in the first position of the clause. It is again followed by the relativizer *izay* ‘that’ and the rest of the relative clause, which is here *nahita ny mpianatra* ‘saw the student’. This example is ungrammatical.

- (19) ***ny vehivavy** izay nahita ny mpianatra
 the woman that saw the student
 ‘the woman that the student saw’

(Malagasy, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 70, my boldfacing)

Later in this section I draw the parallel between subject and nominative, direct object and accusative and indirect object and dative (after Caha, 2009). As Malagasy does not have any overt morphological system, it does not hold that the subject corresponds to the nominative in this case. German is another example of a language that allows subjects to be relativized using a particular strategy, but not direct and indirect object. This strategy is the participle construction (Keenan and Comrie, 1977). This strategy is a secondary strategy that exist besides the main strategy that can be used to relativize direct and indirect objects. (20) is an example of a declarative sentence in German. It is a transitive sentence that contains the subject *die Frau* ‘the woman’ and the object *der Mann* ‘the man’.

- (20) Die Frau küsst den Mann.
 the woman kisses the man
 ‘The woman is kissing the man.’

(German)

Indirect objects cannot be relativized using the same strategy. (24) is an example of a ditransitive sentence in Malay. The indirect object *kapada perempuan itu* ‘to the woman’ cannot be relativized using *yang*.

- (24) Ali beri ubi kentang itu kapada perempuan itu.
 Ali give potato the to woman the
 ‘Ali gave the potato to the woman.’ (Malay, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 71)

This is illustrated by the examples in (25). In (25a), the direct object *perempuan kapada* ‘to the woman’, marked in bold, appears in the first position of the clause. It is followed by the relativizer *yang* ‘that’ and the rest of the relative clause *Ali beri ubi kentang itu kapada* ‘Ali gave the potato to’. This example is ungrammatical. The example in (25b) differs from (25a) in that the preposition *kapada* ‘to’ has been moved such that it precedes the relativizer *yang* ‘that’. This example is ungrammatical as well, indicating this was not the reason for the ungrammaticality.

- (25) a. ***perempuan** yang Ali beri ubi kentang itu kapada
 woman that Ali give potato the to
 b. ***perempuan kapada** yang Ali beri ubi kentang itu
 woman to who Ali give potato that
 (Malay, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 71, my boldfacing)

Basque is an example of a language that has a particular relativization strategy for subjects, direct objects and indirect objects. (26) is an example of a declarative ditransitive sentence in Basque. The sentence contains the subject *gizonak* ‘the man’, the direct object *liburua* ‘the book’ and the indirect object *emakumeari* ‘the woman’.

- (26) Gizon-a-k emakume-a-ri liburu-a eman dio.
 man-DEF-ERG woman-DEF-DAT book-DEF.ABS give has
 ‘The man has given the book to the woman.’
 (Basque, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 72)

A relative clause in Basque appears in the prenominal position and it is marked by the invariable marker *-n*.⁶ (27a) shows the three relativizations that are derived

⁶ Additionally, the relativized positions do not appear in verbal agreement anymore, but this not

from (26). In (27a), the ergative subject *gizonak* ‘the man’ from (26) is relativized. The head *gizona* ‘the man’, marked in bold, has lost its ergative marker *-k*, and follows the relative clause *makumeari liburua eman dio* ‘who has given the book to the woman’. The suffix *-n* is attached to the relative clause. In (27b), the absolutive direct object *liburua* ‘the book’ from (26) is relativized. The head *liburua* ‘the book’, marked in bold, follows the relative clause *gizonak emakumeari eman dion* ‘that the man has given to the woman’.⁷ The suffix *-n* is attached to the relative clause. In (27c), the dative indirect object *emakumeari* ‘the woman’ from (26) is relativized. The head *emakumea* ‘the man’, marked in bold, has lost its dative marker *-ri*, and follows the relative clause *gizonak liburua eman dion* ‘that the man has given the book to’. The suffix *-n* is attached to the relative clause.

- (27) a. emakume-a-ri liburua eman dio-n **gizon-a**
 woman-DEF-DAT book-DEF.ABS give has-REL man-DEF
 ‘the man who has given the book to the woman’
- b. gizon-a-k emakume-a-ri eman dio-n **liburu-a**
 man-DEF-ERG woman-DEF-DAT give has-REL book-DEF
 ‘the book that the man has given to the woman’
- c. gizon-a-k liburua eman dio-n **emakume-a**
 man-DEF-ERG book-DEF.ABS give has-REL woman-DEF
 ‘the woman that the man has given the book to’
- (Basque, Keenan and Comrie 1977: 72, my boldfacing)

Caha (2009) restates the implicational hierarchy in terms of case. Subject corresponds to nominative, direct object corresponds to accusative, and indirect object corresponds to dative.

Again, the case scale $NOM < ACC < DAT$ can be observed.

visible in the example, because they are all phonologically zero.

⁷The absolutive direct object *liburua* ‘the book’ does not have an additional overt absolutive marker, so this difference cannot be observed when it is relativized.

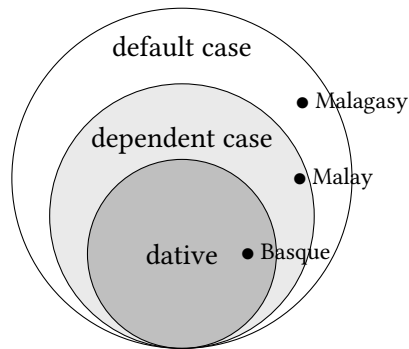


Figure 2.6: Schema for relativization

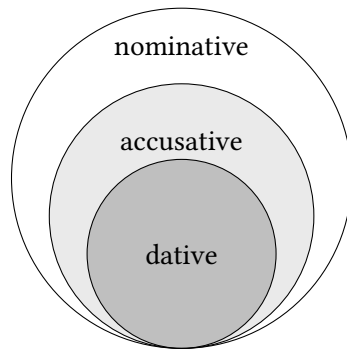


Figure 2.7: Schema for relativization

2.3 In morphology

In the two previous sections I showed that the case scale $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$ can be observed in three syntactic phenomena. First, it shows up in case competition in headless relatives. Second, the case scale forms the basis for the implicational hierarchy observed in agreement across languages. Third, the identical implicational holds for relativization strategies cross-linguistically.

In this section, I show that this same case scale also shows up in morphology. First, syncretism only targets continuous regions on the case scale. Second, several languages show formal containment that mirrors the case scale.

2.3.1 Syncretism

Syncretism refers to the phenomenon whereby two or more different functions are fulfilled by a single form (cf. Baerman, Brown, and Corbett, 2002). In this section I discuss literature that shows that syncretism patterns among nominative, accusative and dative are not random. Instead, they pattern along the case scale $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$.

It has widely been observed that syncretism is restricted by the linear sequence $\text{NOM} - \text{ACC} - \text{DAT}$ (Baerman, Brown, and Corbett, 2005; Caha, 2009; Zompì, 2017) (and see McFadden 2018; Smith et al. 2019 for similar claims concerning root suppletion). That is, if one orders cases in this linear sequence, only contiguous regions in the sequence turn out to be syncretic. Following that, four possible patterns are attested crosslinguistically. First, all three cases are syncretic. Second, nominative and accusative are syncretic and the dative is not. Third, the accusative and the dative are syncretic and the nominative is not. Fourth, all cases are non-syncretic.

There is one pattern that is not attested crosslinguistically. This pattern does not target continuous regions, but non-contiguous ones: nominative and dative are syncretic and accusative is not. In other words, there is no ABA pattern (in which a form B intervenes between the two identically formed As) (Bobaljik, 2012).

Table 2.4 shows examples for each of these possible patterns. I give an example from a syncretism between nominative, accusative and dative from Dutch. The second person plural pronoun is *jullie* ‘you.PL’ is syncretic between nominative, accusative and dative. I give an example from a syncretism between nominative and accusative but not dative from German. The third person singular feminine *sie* ‘she/her’ is syncretic between nominative and accusative. The dative has a separate form: *ihr* ‘her’. I give an example from a syncretism between accusative and dative but not nominative from Icelandic. The first person singular plural is *okkur* ‘us’ is syncretic between accusative and dative. The nominative has a separate form: *við* ‘we’ (Einarsson 1949: 68). I give an example from three distinct forms from Faroese. The second person singular is *tú* ‘you’ for nominative, *teg* ‘you’ for accusative and *tær* ‘you’ for dative (Lockwood 1977: 70). Crucially, to the best of my knowledge, there is no language in which the nominative and the dative are syncretic but the accusative is not.

Table 2.4:

| pattern | | | NOM | ACC | DAT | translation | language |
|---------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|-------------|--------------|
| A | A | A | jullie | jullie | jullie | 2PL | Dutch |
| A | A | B | sie | sie | ihr | 3SG.F | German |
| A | B | B | við | okkur | okkur | 1PL | Icelandic |
| A | B | C | tú | teg | tær | 2SG | Faroese |
| A | B | A | | | | | not attested |

In sum, case syncretism follows the ordering of the case scale in headless relatives: NOM < ACC < DAT.

2.3.2 Formal containment

This section shows a second way in which NOM < ACC < DAT is reflected in morphology: formal containment (cf. Caha, 2010; Zompì, 2017; Smith et al., 2019). In some languages, the form that is used for the accusative literally contains the form that is used for the nominative. In turn, the forms for the dative contains the form for the accusative. I illustrate this phenomenon with examples from Khanty.

Khanty (or Ostyak) shows formal containment in some of its pronouns (Nikolaeva 1999: 16 after Smith et al. 2019). Three examples are given in Table 2.5.

The nominative form for the first person singular is *ma* ‘I.NOM’. The form for the accusative is *ma:ne:m* ‘me’. This is the form for the nominative *ma* plus the accusative marker *-ne:m*. The form for the dative is *ma:ne:mna* ‘me’. This is the form for the accusative *ma:ne:m* plus the dative marker *-na*. So, dative formally contains the accusative, and the accusative formally contains the nominative.

The third person singular and first person plural show the same pattern. The accusative forms *luwe:l* ‘him/her’ and *muŋe:w* ‘us’ contain the nominative forms *luw* and the *muŋ* plus the accusative marker *-e:l* or *-e:w*. The dative forms *luwe:lna* ‘him/her’ and *muŋe:wna* ‘us’ contain the accusative forms *luwe:l* and *muŋe:w* plus the dative marker *-na*. Again, the dative formally contains the accusative, which in turn contains the nominative.

Table 2.5: Case containment in Khanty

| | 1SG | 3SG | 1PL |
|-----|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| NOM | ma | luw | muŋ |
| ACC | ma:- ne:m | luw- e:l | muŋ- e:w |
| DAT | ma:- ne:m-na | luw- e:l-na | muŋ- e:w-na |

Other languages that show this phenomenon are West Tocharian (Gippert, 1987) and Vlach and Kalderaš Romani (respectively Friedman 1991 and Boretzky 1994).

In sum, some languages morphologically look like NOM-ACC-DAT. This exactly reflects the case scale $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$.

2.4 Summary

Case competition in headless relatives adheres to the case scale in (28). If the internal and external case differ, cases more on the right of the scale win over cases more to the left on the case.

(28) $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$

This case scale is not only found in case competition in headless relatives. Implicational hierarchies regarding two syntactic phenomena appear across languages. The first one concerns agreement. If a language shows agreement with datives, it also shows agreement with accusatives and nominatives. If a language shows agreement with accusatives, it also shows agreement with nominatives. The second implicational hierarchy concerns relativization. If a dative in a language can be relativized with a particular strategy, an accusative and a nominative can be too using the same strategy. If an accusative can be relativized with a particular strategy, so can a nominative with this strategy.

The case scale also shows up in morphological patterns. First, if the cases are ordered according to the case scale, syncretism only target continuous forms, no ABA pattern appears. Second, some languages show how the dative formally contains

accusative, and how the accusative formally contains the nominative.

These phenomena show that the pattern observed in headless relatives is not something that stands on itself. The scale is a pattern that recurs across languages and across different phenomena. Therefore, it should not be treated as a special process with its own stipulated rule. Instead, it is something general that should also follow from general processes in languages.

The next chapter shows how features of the nominative, accusative and dative are organized. All facts presented in this chapter can be derived from the organization of these features.

Chapter 3

Case decomposition

At the beginning of the previous chapter I showed that the case scale $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$ appears in headless relatives. In most accounts for headless relatives (cf. Harbert 1978; Pittner 1995; Vogel 2001; Grosu 2003, an exception to this is Himmelreich 2017) the case scale is stipulated. Headless relatives simply obey to that hierarchy. Pittner (1995: 201:fn.4) makes this explicit: “One of the reviewers notes that an explanation in terms of a Case hierarchy is rather stipulative. However, as far as I know, nobody has suggested a nonstipulative explanation for these facts.”

What I showed as well in the previous chapter is the case scale $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$ is a wide-spread phenomenon: it recurs. The scale can be observed in at least two more syntactic phenomena: agreement en relativization.¹ The case scale also appears within morphology in syncretism patterns and formal containment. Pittner (1995: 201:fn.4) makes this link to morphology as well: “Furthermore, the Case hierarchies receive some independent support by morphology as shown by the various inflectional paradigms.”

I am not after a theory in which the case hierarchy is not something construction specific, and syntax and morphology both have their own case hierarchy. I argue that there is a single trigger that is responsible for the case scale in different subparts of language (cf. Caha, 2019, on numeral constructions). Specifically, I show that the observed case scale naturally follows on the assumption that the case hierarchy is

¹In this dissertation I do not work out accounts for these two syntactic phenomena. They merely serve as an illustration that the pattern is reflected in other syntactic phenomena as well.

deeply anchored in syntax. The case scale in morphology and syntax are merely reflexes of how case is organized in language.²

This chapter is structured as follows. First, I introduce a specific case decomposition (Caha, 2009). In the next two sections, I show how this case decomposition is able to derive the syncretism and formal containment facts from the previous chapter. I make this concrete in the framework Nanosyntax (Starke, 2009). Finally, I show how the case decomposition translates to the case scale observed in headless relatives.

3.1 The basic idea

Caha (2009, 2013) (followed by cf. Starke 2009; Bobaljik 2012; McFadden 2018; Van Baal and Don 2018; Smith et al. 2019) has extensively argued that case should be decomposed into privative features. Specifically, the decomposition is cumulative: each case has a different number of case features, and the number grows monotonically. This is illustrated in Table 3.1. Accusative has all the features that nominative has (here F1) plus one extra (here F2). Dative has all the features accusative has (F and F2) plus one extra (F3).

Table 3.1: Case decomposed

| case | features |
|------|------------|
| NOM | F1 |
| ACC | F1, F2 |
| DAT | F1, F2, F3 |

So, the case scale, repeated in (1), actually indicates containment. Nominative corresponds to a set of features (namely F1) that is contained in the set of features of accusative (which is namely F1 and F2). Similarly, nominative corresponds to a set of features that is contained in the set of features of dative (which is namely F1, F2, and F3).

²Himmelreich (2017) works this intuition out in a different way.

F1, F2 and F3). Lastly, accusative corresponds to a set of features (F1 and F2) that is contained in the set of features of dative (F1, F2 and F3).

(1) $NOM < ACC < DAT$

The decomposition in Table 3.1 forms the basis to derive the case scale effects observed in the previous chapter. The next sections show how case containment and syncretism effects follow naturally. After that, I show how the decomposition also derives the case competition facts in headless relatives.

3.2 Deriving syncretism

Case syncretism follows the ordering of the case scale in headless relatives: $NOM < ACC < DAT$. Along this scale, only contiguous regions in the sequence are syncretic. In this section I show how case syncretism patterns can be derived from the case decomposition in Table 3.1. I repeat an example that shows the possible and impossible syncretism patterns in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Syncretism pattern

| pattern | | | NOM | ACC | DAT | translation | language |
|---------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|-------------|--------------|
| A | A | A | jullie | jullie | jullie | 2PL | Dutch |
| A | A | B | sie | sie | ihr | 3SG.F | German |
| A | B | B | við | okkur | okkur | 1PL | Icelandic |
| A | B | C | tú | teg | tær | 2SG | Faroese |
| A | B | A | | | | | not attested |

The syncretism facts follow in a system in which the case is decomposed as in Table 3.1 and in which lexicalization that relies on containment. That means that a phonological form is not only inserted if a particular feature specification matches, but also when the features form a subset of the particular feature set.

The intuition is the following. Syncretic forms are realized by a single lexical entry from the lexicon. A lexical entry can be applied if it contains all features, as

long as there is no more specific one. So, a lexical entry specified for $[F1, F2, F3]$ can also apply to $[F1]$, if there is no other lexical entry. Now, if there is an entry specific for only $[F1, F2]$.

GO THROUGH ALL POSSIBILITIES?

The proposal in this dissertation is worked out in Nanosyntax. I provide background assumptions on the framework whenever necessary to follow the discussion as I proceed. At this point I discuss the general architecture of Nanosyntax, its lexicon, phrasal spellout and matching between syntax and the lexicon.

The architecture of Nanosyntax is schematically shown in Figure 3.1 (from Caha, 2019; Vanden Wyngaerd et al., 2020). In Nanosyntax, syntax starts with atomic features, and it builds complex syntactic trees. Specifically, there are no ‘feature bundles’ that enter the syntax. The only way complex feature structures come to exist is as a result of merge. After syntax (actually, each instance of merge), the syntactic structure is matched against the lexicon for pronunciation. The lexicon ‘translates’ between syntactic representations on the one hand and phonology (PF) and concepts (CF) on the other hand. So, Nanosyntax is a late insertion model: (lexical) insertion takes place late, namely after syntax.

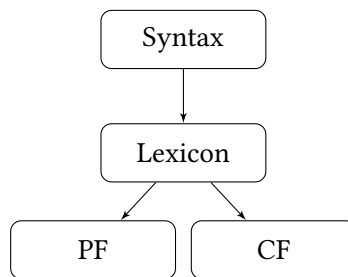


Figure 3.1: Nanosyntactic model of grammar

In Nanosyntax, the lexicon is nothing but links between syntactic representations, phonological representations and conceptual representations (Starke, 2014).³

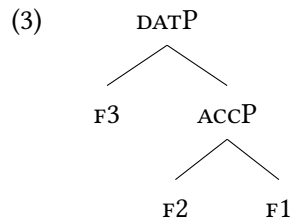
³The syntactic representation does not have to correspond to both a phonological and a conceptual representation. Syntactic representation that only correspond to a conceptual representations and not to phonological representations are (phrasal or clausal) idioms. Syntactic representations that only correspond to phonological representations but not to conceptual representations are for instance irregular plurals.

I leave the conceptual representation out of discussion for now, as it not relevant for the discussion here. The fact that only syntax can create complex feature structures also has a consequence for the content of the lexicon. Syntactic structures are constrained by certain principles, such that only well-formed syntactic structures exist. Since the lexical items from the lexicon link syntactic representation to phonological and conceptual representation, these syntactic representations are constrained by the same principles as syntactic trees are. As a result, the lexicon only contains well-formed syntactic structures. The lexicon does not contain unstructured ‘feature bundles’, because they could never be created by syntax.

Following this logic, the syntactic representation for a lexical entry as in (2) cannot exist. The feature bundle cannot have entered syntax, because syntax starts with atomic features. It can also not be created by syntax, because complex structures can only be created with merge.

(2) [F1, F2, F3]

Instead, a possible syntactic representation for a lexical entry looks as in (3). The features are merged one by one in a binary syntactic structure.

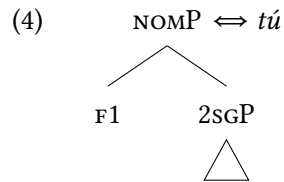


This structure leads to the concept of phrasal spellout: not terminals but multiple syntactic heads (phrases) are realized with a single piece of phonology (i.e. a single morpheme). A necessary requirement is that these multiple syntactic heads form a constituent.

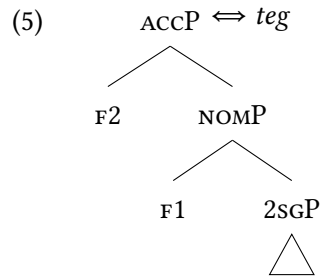
Let me illustrate all of the above with the Faroese pronouns from Table 3.2. I simplify the situation in two respects. First, I do not show the internal complexity of the pronouns, including person and number features. Instead, I give a triangle, indicating that this is a complex syntactic structure. I refer to it as the person-number phase it refers to, so e.g. 3SGP. Second, in this simplified representation

I consider the Faroese pronouns to be monomorphemic. I ignore the fact that all three pronouns clearly have the stem *t* with a suffix on it.

The lexical entry for *tú* is given in (4). The syntactic representation consists of the complex syntactic structure that corresponds to the third person singular pronoun (the 3sgP), and F1, making it a NOMP. The phonological representation that is linked to the syntactic representation in *tú*. Throughout the dissertation, I use syntactic structures and phonological forms connected by a double arrow (\Leftrightarrow) to refer to a lexical entry.



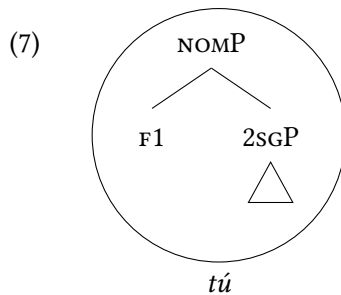
The lexical entry for *teg* is given in (5). The syntactic representation contains all the features of the syntactic structure in (4), plus F2, making it an ACCP. The linked phonological representation is *teg*.



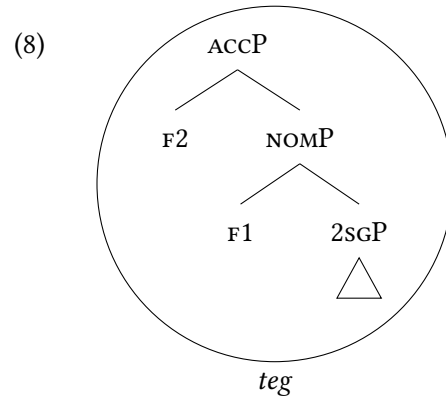
The lexical entry for *tær* is given in (6). The syntactic representation contains all the features of the syntactic structure in (5), plus F3, making it a DATP. The linked phonological representation is *tær*.



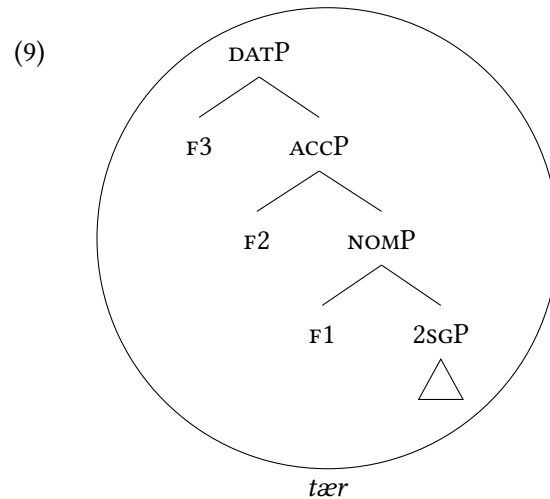
This brings me to the part of the discussion about matching. The syntactic structures and their phonological counterparts I gave in (4) to (6) are lexical entries. These are matched against the actual syntactic structure that is to be realized. Examples of syntactic structures are given in (7) to (9). The syntactic structure in (7) matches the syntactic structure of the lexical entry in (4). Therefore, this syntactic structure is spelled out as *tu*. Throughout this dissertation I circle the part of the structure that corresponds to a particular lexical entry, and I place the corresponding phonology under it.



(8) matches the syntactic structure of the lexical entry in (5), and it is spelled out as *teg*.



(9) matches the syntactic structure of the lexical entry in (6), and it is spelled out as *tær*.



In the Faroese examples above, the syntactic structure in the syntax always exactly matched the syntactic structure of the lexical entry. However, to be a successful match, identity is not a necessary requirement. Instead, matching relies on a containment relation. A lexical entry applies when it contains all features. This is formalized as in (10).

(10) **The Superset Principle** Starke (2009):

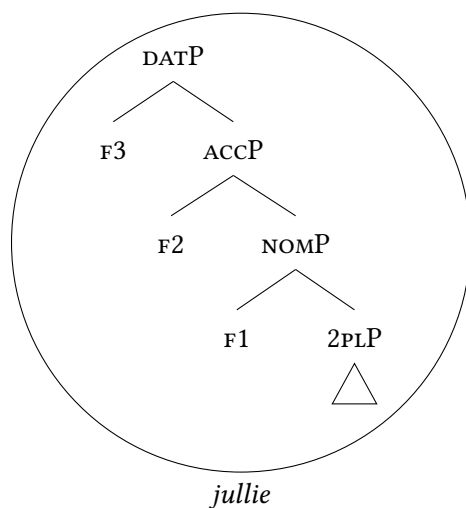
A lexically stored tree matches a syntactic node iff the lexically stored tree contains the syntactic node.

Let me illustrate this with the Dutch second person plural pronoun from Table 3.2. This pronoun is syncretic between the nominative, accusative and dative. The lexicon only contains a single lexical entry, namely (11). The syntactic representation consists of the complex syntactic structure that corresponds to the second person plural pronoun (the 2PLP), and F1, F2 and F3 making it a DATP. The phonological representation that is linked to the syntactic representation in *jullie*. The nominative, the accusative and the dative can all be spelled out with this lexical entry.



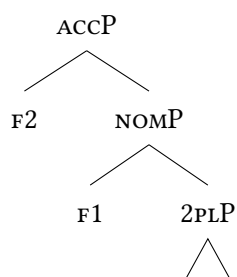
The syntactic structure of the dative, given in (12), is the least exciting of the three. It is an exact match to the syntactic structure in the lexical entry (11), and therefore, spelled out as *jullie*.

(12)

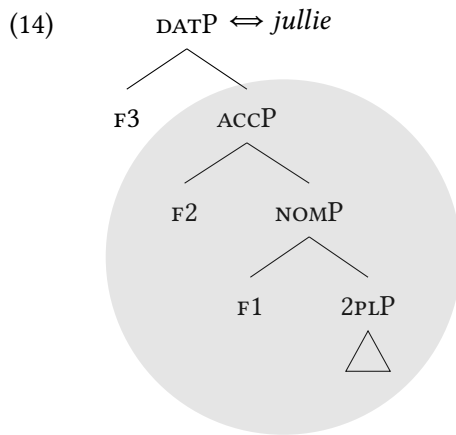


The syntactic structure of the accusative is given in (13).

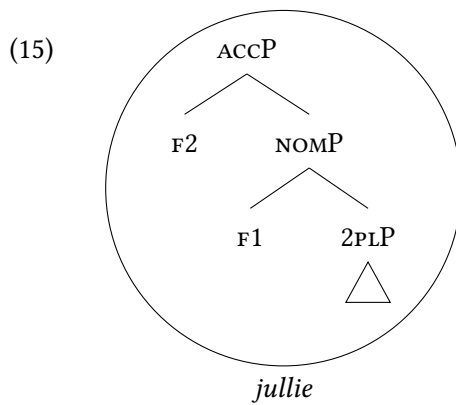
(13)



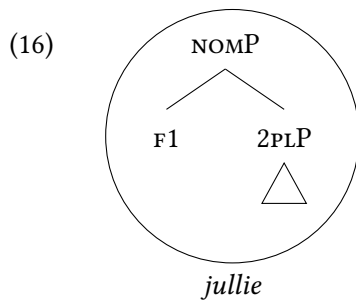
This syntactic structure does not exactly match the syntactic structure in the lexical entry in (11). However, the syntactic structure in the lexical entry contains the syntactic structure of the accusative. I repeat the lexical entry for *jullie* in (14), marking the subpart of the tree that matches the syntactic structure in gray.



As a result, the accusative is spelled out as *jullie*, shown in (15).

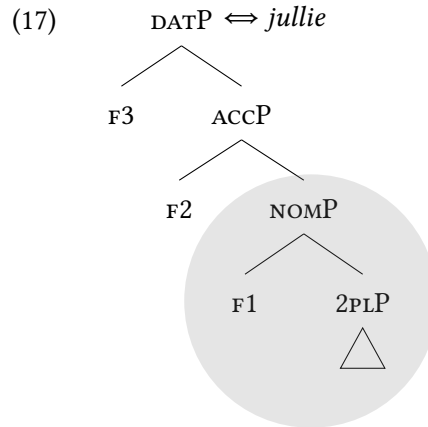


The same holds for the nominative. The syntactic structure is given in (16).

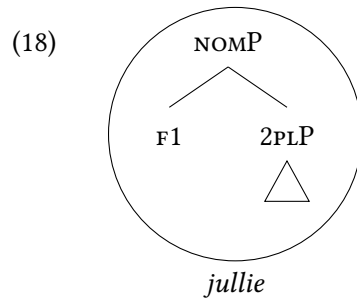


This syntactic structure does not exactly match the syntactic structure in the lexical entry in (11). However, again, the syntactic structure in the lexical entry contains

the syntactic structure of the nominative. I repeated the lexical entry for *jullie* in (17), marking the subpart of the tree that matches the syntactic structure in gray.



As a result, the nominative is spelled out as *jullie*, as shown in (18).



A question arises at this point. Why are the accusative and nominative in Faroese not spelled out by the lexical entry for the dative (and why is the nominative not spelled out by the lexical entry for the accusative)? These syntactic structures are namely contained in the lexical entry for the dative (and the accusative). The reason for that comes from how competition between lexical entries is regulated in Nanosyntax. When two lexical entries compete, the best fit wins. The best fit is the lexical entry with the least unused features. This is formalized as in (19).

- (19) **The Elsewhere Condition** (Kiparsky 1973, formulated as in Caha 2020):
 When two entries can spell out a given node, the more specific entry wins.
 Under the Superset Principle governed insertion, the more specific entry is

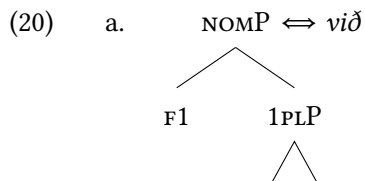
the one which has fewer unused features.

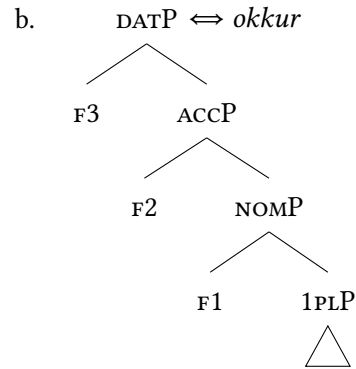
I show how the Superset Principle and the Elsewhere Condition interact in a competition with the Faroese lexical entries. Consider first again the syntactic structure for the nominative in (7). All the Faroese lexical entries (4), (5) and (6) contain the syntactic structure for it. (6) has two unused features: F2 and F3. (5) has one unused feature: F2. (4) has the least amount of unused features (namely zero), so it wins the competition over the other two.

Regarding the syntactic structure for the accusative in (8), the lexical entries (5) and (6) contain the syntactic structure. (4) is not a candidate here, because it does not contain the syntactic structure (i.e. it lacks F2). (6) has fewer unused features than (8), so it wins.

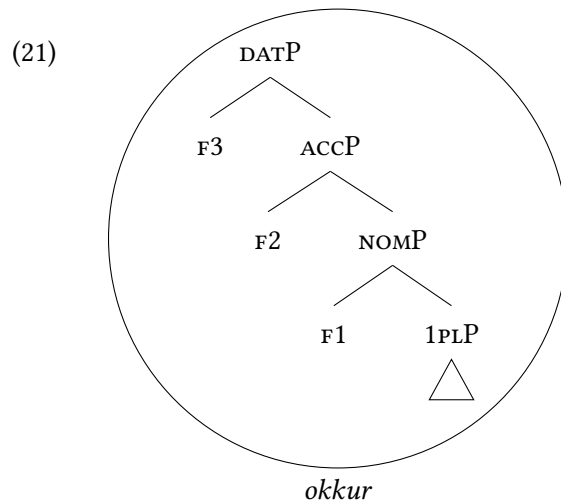
Table 3.2 contains two more attested patterns: the ABB in Icelandic and the AAB in German. In the remainder of this section I show how these two patterns are derived. I also show how the system is unable to derive an ABA, which is crosslinguistically unattested.

Consider the Icelandic pattern. For the first person plural, Icelandic uses *við* as nominative and *okkur* as accusative and dative. Two lexical entries are needed for that. The first one in (20a) contains pronominal syntactic structure and F1, and corresponds to the phonology *við*. The second one is given in (20b). It contains in addition to (20a) also the feature F2 and F3. The phonological representation that is linked to it is *okkur*.

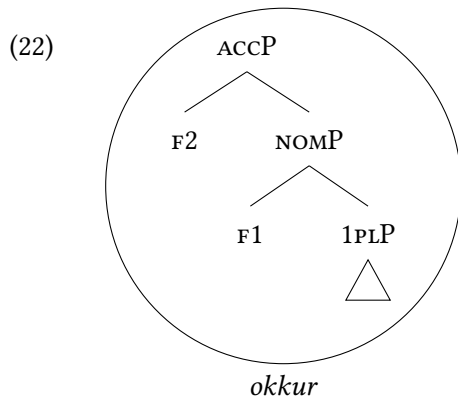




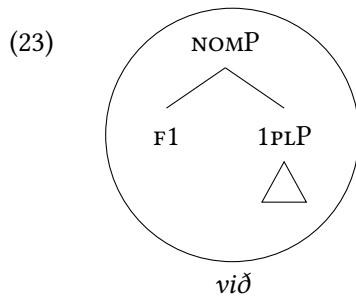
The syntactic structure for the dative is given in (21). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry (20b), and therefore, spelled out as *okkur*. The lexical entry in (20a) is not considered, because it does not contain F2 and F3.



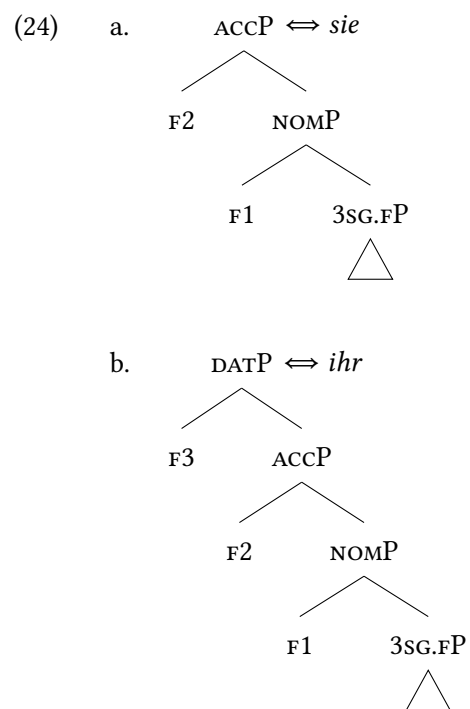
The syntactic structure for the accusative is given in (22). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry (20b), and therefore, spelled out as *okkur*. The lexical entry in (20a) is not considered, because it does not contain F2.



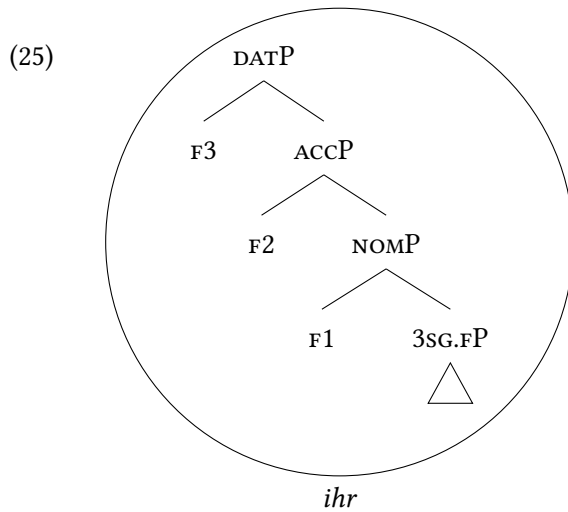
The syntactic structure for the nominative is given in (23). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry (20a) and in (20b). The former, (20a), has no unused features. The latter, (20b), has two unused features: F2 and F3. Therefore, (20b) wins the competition, and the syntactic structure is spelled out as *við*.



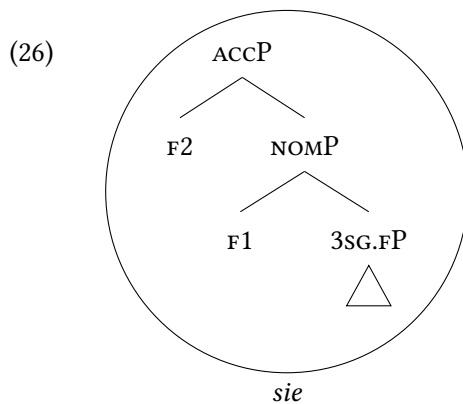
For the third person singular feminine, German uses *sie* as nominative and accusative, and *ihr* as dative. Two lexical entries are needed for that. The first one in (24a) contains pronominal syntactic structure, F1 and F2. It corresponds to the phonology *sie*. The second one is given in (24b). It contains in addition to *sie* in (24a) also the feature F3. It corresponds to the phonology *ihr*.



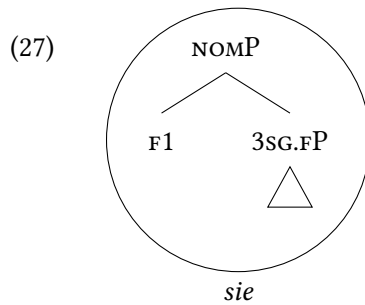
The syntactic structure for the dative is given in (25). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry (24b), and therefore, spelled out as *ihr*. The lexical entry in (24a) is not considered, because it does not contain F3.



The syntactic structure for the accusative is given in (26). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry (24a) and in (24b). The former, (24a), has one no unused features. The latter, (24b), has one unused feature: F3. Therefore, (24a) wins the competition, and the syntactic structurer is spelled out as *sie*.



The syntactic structure for the nominative is given in (27). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry (24a) and in (24b). The former, (24a), has one unused feature: F2. The latter, (24b), has two unused features: F2 and F3. Therefore, (24a) wins the competition, and the syntactic structurer is spelled out as *sie*.



This last example also illustrates that the laid out system is unable to derive an ABA pattern. The inability of the system to derive such a pattern is a welcome one, since the pattern is unattested cross-linguistically. In an ABA pattern, the nominative and the dative are syncretic, to the exclusion of the accusative. Such a language would be like German but then the nominative would be *ihr* instead of *sie*.

This result could never be derived with the lexical entries given in (24a) and (24b). *Ihr* is inserted for the dative and the cases contained in it (so accusative and nominative), unless a more specific lexical entry is found. *Sie* is the more specific lexical entry that is found from the accusative on. From the accusative on, *sie* will be inserted until a more specific entry is found. If no entry is specified for nominative, *sie* will surface. *Ihr* will not resurface, because the lexical entry for *sie* will remain to be more specific.

To summarize, xxxx

3.3 Deriving case containment

In for instance Khanty, the phonological form of the accusative literally contains the phonological form of the nominative. In turn, the form of the dative contains the form of the accusative. In this section I show how morphological case containment can be derived from the case decomposition in Table 3.1. I repeat an example from Khanty that shows morphological case containment in Table 2.5 (Nikolaeva 1999: 16).

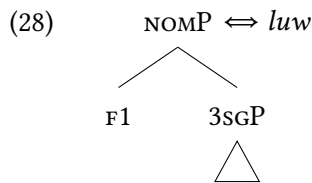
The intuition is the following. The morphological form of the pronouns mirror the cumulative feature decomposition given in Table 3.1. That is, the accusative has the morphology that the nominative has (*luw*) plus something extra (*-e:l*). The

Table 3.3: Containment in 3SG in Khanty

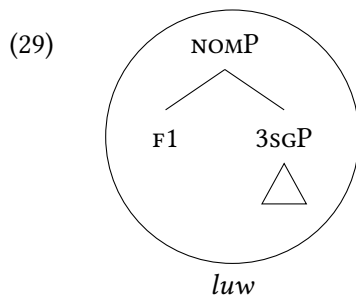
| | 3SG |
|-----|--------------------|
| NOM | luw |
| ACC | luw- e:l |
| DAT | luw- e:l-na |

dative has the morphology that the accusative has (*luw-e:l*) plus something extra (*luw-e:l-na*). In what follows I make it concrete how syntactic features translate to morphological form.

First, I give the lexical entry for the nominative third person singular. It contains pronominal syntactic structure and the feature F1. The phonological form associated with the structure is *luw*. The lexical entry is given in (28).



The syntactic structure in for the nominative is given in (29). It is contained in the syntactic structure of the lexical entry in (29), and the nominative is spelled out as *luw*.



In the previous section I only gave examples in which the forms were syncretic

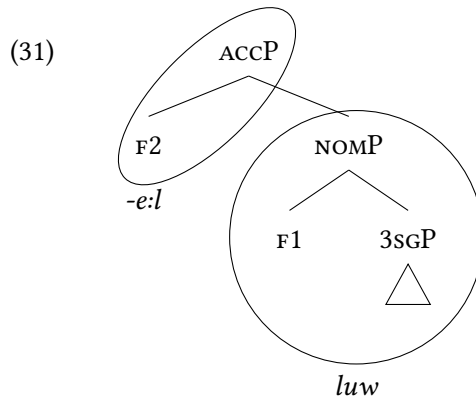
(i.e. formally identical) or suppletive (i.e. formally unrelated). All (pronoiminal and case) features were spelled out by a single lexical entry. The examples from Khanty are different. The accusative pronoun formally contains the nominative pronoun. This can be modeled by letting the NOMP contained in the ACCP be realized by the same NOMP that is spelled out in the nominative. F2 has their own realization that builds upon the nominative (and so does F3 on top of the accusative).⁴

Accordingly, I give the lexical entry for the accusative marker *-e:l* in (30).

- (30) ACCP \Leftrightarrow *-e:l*
 |
 F2

So, *luw-e:l* consists of two morphemes that both correspond to their own piece of syntactic structure: *luw* and *e:l*. But how do these two morphemes combine? This issue brings me to another detour into the Nanosyntactic theory, which is about spellout driven movement.

As discussed in the previous section, spellout in Nanosyntax only targets constituents. That means that it is impossible to let ACCP spell out as *e:l* while it contains NOMP.⁵



The lexical entry in (30) can only be a match for the syntactic structure if NOMP

⁴Note that it is crucial here to have a theory in which the features that form an accusative contain the features that form a nominative. If not, it would be a surprise that the nominative form is contained in the accusative form. The same holds for the accusative and dative.

⁵Notice that this also gives the incorrect order of the morphemes: *e:l-luw* instead of *luw-e:l*.

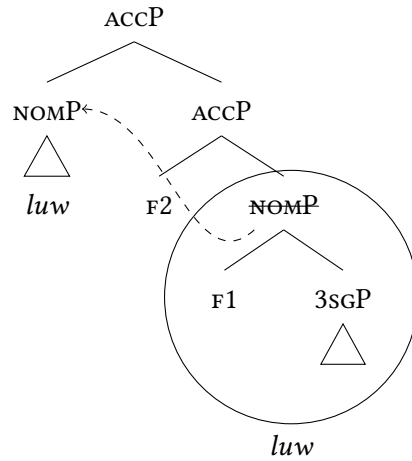
moves away, leaving the ACCP containing F2 behind. In other words, the complement of F2 needs to be moved away.

Exactly this movement is one of the two so-called ‘evacuation movements’ that is part of the spellout procedure in Nanosyntax. As I illustrated in Section 3.2, lexical entries are matched using the Superset Principle and the Elsewhere Condition. However, if there is no match in the lexicon for a particular syntactic structure, two types of movement can take place, in a fixed order.⁶ The movement types change the syntactic structure in such a way that they generate new constituents that are possible matches for spellout.⁷ For the discussion in this section, only the second type of movement is relevant: complement movement. In this type of movement, the complement or a particular feature moves to the specifier of that same particular feature.

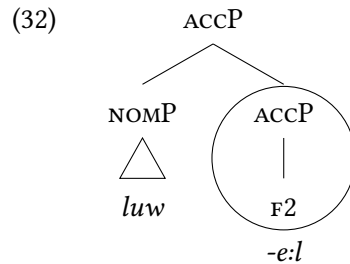
This is exactly the type of movement I described necessary for the Khanty pronoun. The movement is displayed in (31). The complement of F2, the NOMP, the lower right circled portion in the structure, moves to the specifier of ACCP. In its landing position the internal structure of the NOMP is no longer shown (taking away the necessity for the circle), and its phonological form is placed under the triangle. The strikethrough of the lower NOMP indicates that the complement of F2 disappears.

⁶The two movement types are Cinque’s complement and spec to spec movement that we need anyway to get different surface orders in our syntax.

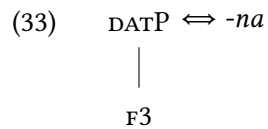
⁷This type of movement is different from syntactic movement. It is driven by spellout, it does not have any interpretational effects, and it does not leave any traces. In Section XX I discuss ‘regular’ syntactic movement in Nanosyntax.



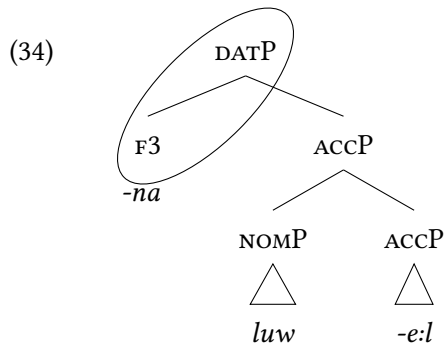
The result of the movement is given in (32). The syntactic structure of the lexical entry in (30) matches the syntactic structure, and ACCP is spelled out as *e:l*.



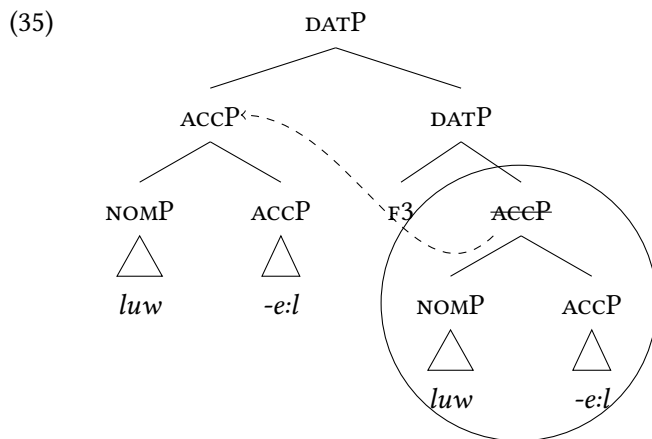
Just as Khanty has an additional morpheme that shows up in the accusative, it also has a morpheme that shows up in the dative. This morpheme *-na* combines with the phonological form for the accusative, which leads to the lexical entry given in (33).



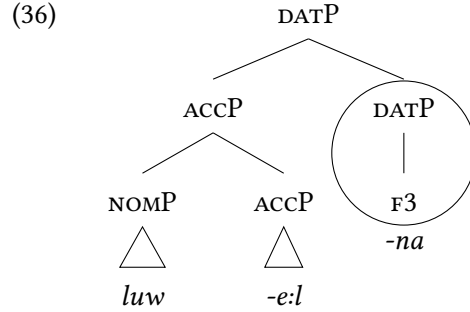
Again, because spellout only targets constituents, F3 cannot be spelled out right after it has been merged, as shown in (34).



The same movement has to take place, which is shown in (35). The complement of F3, the ACCP, the lower right circled portion in the structure, moves to the specifier of DATP. In its landing position the internal structure of the ACCP is no longer shown (taking away the necessity for the circle), and its phonological form is placed under the triangle. The strikethrough of the lower ACCP indicates that the complement of F3 disappears.



The result of the movement is given in (36). The syntactic structure of the lexical entry in (33) matches the syntactic structure, and DATP is spelled out as *na*.



To summarize, xxxx

3.4 Deriving the case scale in headless relatives

In headless relatives, the internal case and the external case compete to surface on the relative pronoun. The two competing cases adhere to the case scale $\text{NOM} < \text{ACC} < \text{DAT}$, in which cases more to the right always win over cases more to the left. In this section I show how case competition in headless relatives can be derived from the case decomposition in Table 3.1.

I repeat the summary of the data pattern for Gothic in Table 3.4. I gave the cells different shadings depending on which cases compete. The dark gray cells are the ones in which dative and the accusative compete, and the dative wins. The light gray cells are the ones in which the dative and the nominative compete, and the dative again wins. The uncolored cells are the ones in which the accusative and the nominative compete, and the accusative wins.

Table 3.4: Summary of Gothic matching headless relative data

| INT^{EXT} | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| [NOM] | | ACC | DAT |
| [ACC] | ACC | | DAT |
| [DAT] | DAT | DAT | |

The intuition is the following. The headless relatives reflect the cumulative fea-

ture decomposition given in Table 3.1. A case wins the competition if it contains all features the other case has. So, the dative contains all features that the accusative has, so the dative surfaces. Similarly, the dative contains all features the nominative has, and again the dative surfaces. The same holds for the last pair: the accusative contains all features the nominative has, so the accusative surfaces. I illustrate this per case pair.

I start with the competition between dative and accusative, in which dative wins. The corresponding cells are marked dark gray in Table 3.4. In (37) I show the syntactic structure of a dative relative pronoun. It contains the syntactic features for a relative pronoun, F1, F2 and F3. Contained in this structure is an accusative relative pronoun, marked in gray. This consists of the syntactic features for the relative pronoun, F1 and F2.

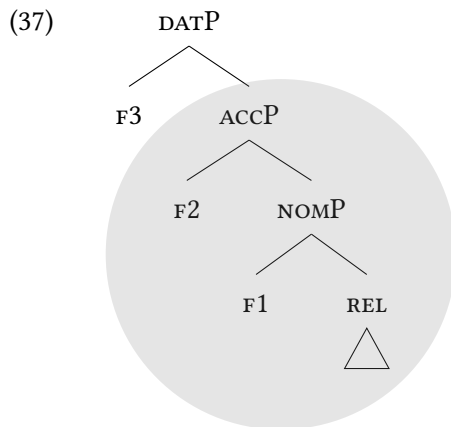
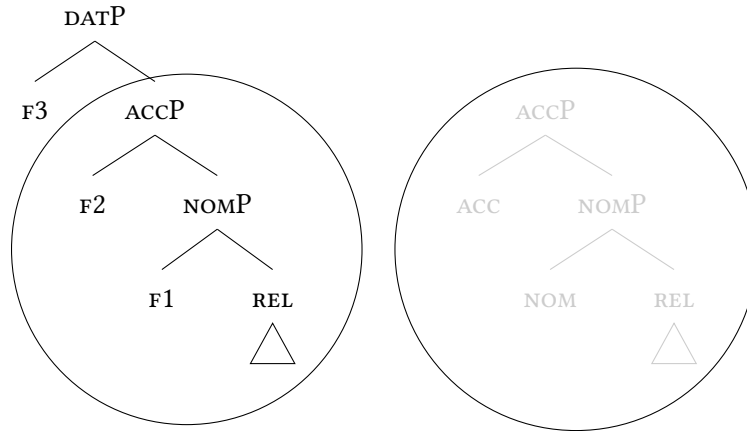


Table (37) shows the situation in which the dative and the accusative compete against each other. The bigger structure deletes the smaller structure: the dative wins.⁸

⁸I am not discussing the mechanics within a larger syntactic context here, but only the intuition.

Table 3.5: DATP deletes ACCP



Next is the competition between dative and nominative, in which dative wins. The corresponding cells are marked light gray in Table 3.4. In (38) I show the syntactic structure of a dative relative pronoun. It contains the syntactic features for a relative pronoun, F1, F2 and F3. Contained in this structure is an nominative relative pronoun, marked in gray. This consists of the syntactic features for the relative pronoun and F1.

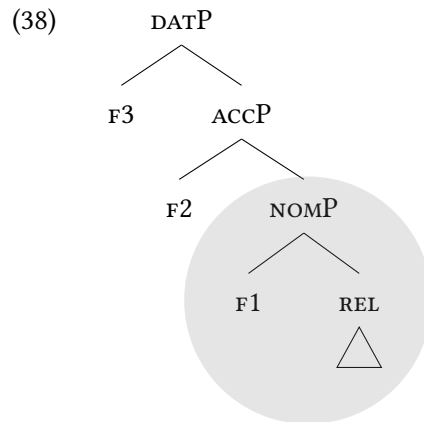
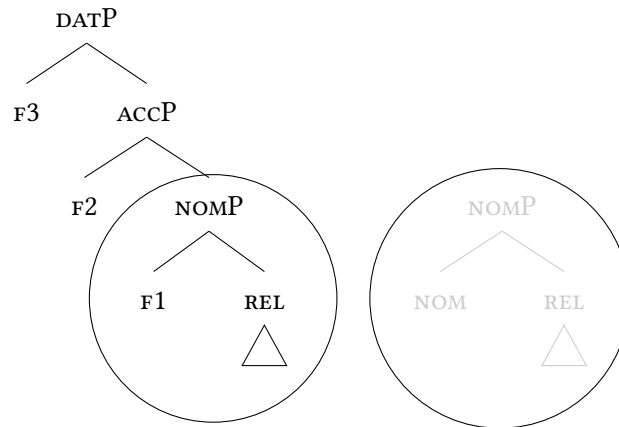


Table ?? shows the situation in which the dative and the nominative compete against each other. The bigger structure deletes the smaller structure: the dative wins.

Table 3.6: DATP deletes NOMP



Finally there is the competition between accusative and nominative, in which accusative wins. The corresponding cells are uncolored in Table 3.4. In (39) I show the syntactic structure of an accusative relative pronoun. It contains the syntactic features for a relative pronoun, F1 and F2. Contained in this structure is a nominative relative pronoun, marked in gray. This consists of the syntactic features for the relative pronoun and F1.

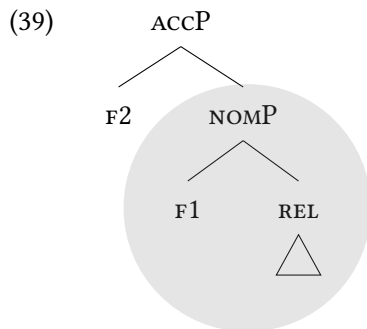
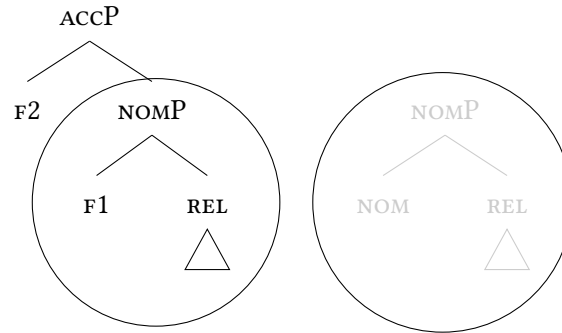


Table (39) shows the situation in which the accusative and the nominative compete against each other. The bigger structure deletes the smaller structure: the accusative wins.

Table 3.7: ACCP deletes NOMP



In this section I discussed how the case scale in case competition of headless relative can be derived from a cumulative case decomposition. The idea is that a case wins the competition if it contains all features the other case has. As the dative is featurally the richest (it contains F1, F2 and 3), it wins over the accusative (which consists of F1 and F2) and the nominative (which contains only F1). Finally, the accusative wins over the nominative, because the former is featurally richer than the latter.

3.5 Summary

Case can be decomposed cumulatively. Then in a nanosyntax fashion: each feature is a syntactic head. This can derive syncretism facts and formal containment fact. Also: case scale in headless relatives: a case more to the right on the scale contains the case more to the left on the scale, and it can be licensed in that way. The question: is it deleted or was it there never to begin with will be addressed later.

Part II

Differences within Germanic

Chapter 4

The variation

4.1 Generalizations

- when a language's light-headed relatives are D - WH, non-matching is never allowed
- with WH morphology, the internal case can win
- with D morphology, the external case can win (or is it when the relative pronoun can take a complement)

4.2 Two D-examples

4.2.1 D in OHG

works via attraction

4.2.2 D in Gothic

does not work via attraction, but complementizer(?)

4.3 **wh** in German

show how this is different from d-relatives (the impossibility for non-matching for
in w light headed relative languages has to follow from this)

old variation

4.4 OHG and MG have the same winner

4.4.1 MG

let me show that the claim I made for Gothic holds for MG as well: DAT wins over ACC wins over NOM.

Examples in which the internal case is dative, the external case is accusative and the relative pronoun appears in accusative case is ungrammatical.

- (1) *Ich lade ein wen **auch Maria vertraut.**
I invite_[ACC] REL.ACC.AN also Maria trusts_[DAT].
'I invite whoever Maria also trusts.' (Vogel 2001: 344)

Examples in which the internal case is dative, the external case is accusative and the relative pronoun appears in accusative case is ungrammatical.

- (2) *Uns besucht wer **Maria vertraut.**
us visits_[NOM] REL.NOM.AN Maria trusts_[DAT]
'Who visits us, Maria trusts.' (Vogel 2001: 343)

Examples in which the internal case is accusative, the external case is nominative and the relative pronoun appears in nominative case is ungrammatical.

- (3) *Uns besucht wer **Maria mag.**
Us visits_[NOM] REL.NOM.AN Maria.NOM likes_[ACC]
'Who visits us likes Maria likes.' (Vogel 2001: 343)

Examples in which the internal case is accusative, the external case is dative and the relative pronoun appears in accusative case is ungrammatical.

- (4) *Ich vertraue **wen** **auch Maria mag.**
 I trust_[DAT] REL.ACC.AN also Maria likes_[ACC].
 ‘I trust whoever Maria also likes.’ (Vogel 2001: 345)

Examples in which the internal case is nominative, the external case is dative and the relative pronoun appears in nominative case is ungrammatical.

- (5) *Ich vertraue, **wer** **Hitchcock mag.**
 I trust_[DAT] REL.NOM.AN Hitchcock likes_[NOM]
 ‘I trust who likes Hitchcock.’ (Vogel 2001: 345)

Examples in which the internal case is nominative, the external case is accusative and the relative pronoun appears in nominative case is ungrammatical.

- (6) *Ich lade ein, **wer** **mir sympathisch ist.**
 I invite_[ACC] REL.NOM.AN me nice is_[NOM]
 ‘I invite who I like.’ (Vogel 2001: 344)

4.4.2 OHG

same holds for OHG but you just can’t give the ungrammatical examples. but they are not attested.

4.5 The different patterns

In Gothic, the more complex case wins. In OHG, the more complex case wins, only if it is external. In MG, the more complex case wins, only if it is internal. In Italian, case mismatch is not allowed.

Table 4.1: Variation

| | INT>EXT | EXT>INT |
|--------|---------|---------|
| MG | ✓ | * |
| OHG | * | ✓ |
| Gothic | ✓ | ✓ |

4.5.1 Both: Gothic

| INT ^{EXT} | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|--------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| [NOM] | | ACC | DAT |
| [ACC] | ACC | | DAT |
| [DAT] | DAT | DAT | |

4.5.2 Only from internal: Modern German

4.5.2.1 external case = ungrammatical

INT:NOM, EXT:ACC

- (7) *Ich lade ein, wen **mir sympathisch ist**.
 I invite_[ACC] REL.ACC.AN me nice is_[NOM]
 ‘I invite who I like.’

(Vogel 2001: 344)

INT:NOM, EXT:DAT

- (8) *Ich vertraue, wem **Hitchcock mag**.
 I trust_[DAT] REL.DAT.AN Hitchcock likes_[NOM]
 ‘I trust who likes Hitchcock.’

(Vogel 2001: 345)

INT:ACC, EXT:DAT

- (9) *Ich vertraue *wem* **auch Maria mag**.
 I trust_[DAT] REL.DAT.AN also Maria likes_[ACC].
 ‘I trust whoever Maria also likes.’ (Vogel 2001: 345)

4.5.2.2 internal case = grammatical

Consider the example in (10). In this example, the internal case is dative and the external case is accusative. The internal case is dative. The predicate *vertraut* ‘trusts’ takes dative objects. The external case is accusative. The predicate *lade ein* ‘invite’ takes accusative objects. The relative pronoun *wem* ‘REL.DAT.AN’ appears in the internal case: the dative. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just like as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause.

- (10) Ich lade ein **wem** **auch Maria vertraut**.
 I invite_[ACC] REL.DAT.AN also Maria trusts_[DAT].
 ‘I invite whoever Maria also trusts.’ (Vogel 2001: 344)

Consider the example in (11). In this example, the internal case is dative and the external case is nominative. The internal case is dative. The predicate *vertraut* ‘trusts’ takes dative objects. The external case is nominative. The predicate *besucht* ‘visits’ takes nominative subjects. The relative pronoun *wem* ‘REL.DAT.AN’ appears in the internal case: the dative. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just like as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause.

- (11) Uns besucht **wem** **Maria vertraut**.
 us visits_[NOM] REL.DAT.AN Maria trusts_[DAT]
 ‘Who visits us, Maria trusts.’ (Vogel 2001: 343)

Consider the example in (12). In this example, the internal case is accusative and the external case is nominative. The internal case is accusative. The predicate *mag* ‘likes’ takes accusative objects. The external case is nominative. The predicate *besucht* ‘visits’ takes nominative subjects. The relative pronoun *wen* ‘REL.ACC.AN’ appears in the internal case: the accusative. The relative pronoun is marked in bold, just like as the relative clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the relative clause.

- (12) Uns besucht **wen** **Maria** **mag**.
 Us visits_[NOM] REL.ACC.AN Maria.NOM likes_[ACC]
 ‘Who visits us likes Maria likes.’ (Vogel 2001: 343)

Table 4.2: Summary of MG matching headless relative data

| _{INT} ^{EXT} | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| [NOM] | | | |
| [ACC] | ACC | | |
| [DAT] | DAT | DAT | |

4.5.3 Only from external: Old High German

4.5.3.1 external is grammatical

Consider the example in (13). In this example, the internal case is accusative and the external case is dative. The internal case is nominative. The predicate *zalta* ‘named’ takes accusative objects. The external case is dative. The predicate *furira* ‘older’ takes dative objects. The relative pronoun *thên* ‘REL.DAT.PL’ appears in the external case: the dative. The relative pronoun is not marked in bold, just like as the main clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the main clause. Examples in which the internal case is accusative, the external case is dative and the relative pronoun appears in accusative case are unattested.

- (13) bistû furira Abrahame, ouh thên **man hiar nû zalta?**
 are you older_[DAT] Abraham and REL.DAT.PL one here just named_[ACC]
 ‘are you really older than Abraham and (those) who have been mentioned here?’ (OHG, Otfrid III 18:33, Behaghel 1923-1932: 761, after Delbrück)

Consider the example in (14). In this example, the internal case is nominative and the external case is dative. The internal case is nominative. The predicate *sprah* ‘spoke’ takes nominative subjects. The external case is dative. The predicate *an-tuurta* ‘replied’ takes dative objects. The relative pronoun *demo* ‘REL.DAT.M.SG’ ap-

pears in the external case: the dative. The relative pronoun is not marked in bold, just like as the main clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the main clause. Examples in which the internal case is nominative, the external case is dative and the relative pronoun appears in nominative case are unattested.

- (14) aer antuurta demo **zaimo sprah**
 he replied_[DAT] REL.DAT.M.SG to him spoke_[NOM]
 ‘he replied to the one who spoke to him’
 (OHG, Mons. 7:24, Behaghel 1923-1932: 761, after Pittner 1995: 199)

Consider the example in (15). In this example, the internal case is nominative and the external case is accusative. The internal case is nominative. The predicate *chisetzit* ‘pull through’ takes nominative subjects. The external case is accusative. The predicate *bibringu* ‘bring to light’ takes accusative objects. The relative pronoun *dhen* ‘REL.ACC.M.SG’ appears in the external case: the accusative. The relative pronoun is not marked in bold, just like as the main clause, showing that the relative pronoun patterns with the main clause. Examples in which the internal case is nominative, the external case is accusative and the relative pronoun appears in nominative case are unattested.

- (15) ih bibringu fona (iacobes samin endi) Iuda dhen
 I bring to light_[ACC] about (Jacob together end?) Judas REL.ACC.M.SG
mina berga chisetzit
 my mountains through pull_[NOM]
 ‘I bright to light the one who wanders through my mountains about Jacob
 and end of Judas’ (OHG, Isid. 34:3, Behaghel 1923-1932: 761)

4.5.3.2 internal is ungrammatical

- (16) INT:ACC, EXT:NOM
 a. ACC not attested
 b. NOM not attested
- (17) INT:DAT, EXT:NOM
 a. DAT not attested

- b. NOM not attested
- (18) INT:DAT, EXT:ACC
- a. DAT not attested
 - b. ACC not attested

Table 4.3: Summary of OHG matching headless relative data

| INT^{EXT} | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| [NOM] | | ACC | DAT |
| [ACC] | | | DAT |
| [DAT] | | | |

Chapter 5

Relativization

5.1 Relativization in general

two features: topic and relativization
topic = the movement
relativization = the morpheme
some languages have both, so it has to be at least two features

5.2 Shape of relative pronoun

Table 5.1: Shape of relative pronoun per language

| | rel pron in headless rel | rel prons in light-headed rel |
|--------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Gothic | A + C | A + A + C |
| OHG | A | A + A |
| MG | B | A + A |

5.2.1 Gothic

5.2.1.1 Headless relatives

D + COMP

Table 5.2: Relative pronouns in headless relatives in Gothic

| | N.SG | M.SG | F.SG |
|-----|----------|----------|-----------|
| NOM | þ-at-ei | s-a-ei | s-ō-ei |
| ACC | þ-at-ei | þ-an-ei | þ-ō-ei |
| DAT | þ-amm-ei | þ-amm-ei | þ-izái-ei |
| | N.PL | M.PL | F.PL |
| NOM | þ-ō-ei | þ-ái-ei | þ-ōz-ei |
| ACC | þ-ō-ei | þ-anz-ei | þ-ōz-ei |
| DAT | þ-áim-ei | þ-áim-ei | þ-áim-ei |

Gothic relative pronouns are built from the demonstratives plus the complementizer *ei*. Under *ei*, two phonological processes take place. First, *s* changes into *z*, e.g. in *þ-ōs* to *þ-ōz-ei*. Second, on bisyllabic elements, final vowels disappear e.g. *þ-ata* to *þ-at-ei*.

Table 5.3: Gothic demonstratives

| | N.SG | M.SG | F.SG |
|-----|--------|--------|----------|
| NOM | þ-ata | sa | sō |
| ACC | þ-ata | þ-ana | þ-ō |
| DAT | þ-amma | þ-amma | þ-i-z-ái |
| | N.PL | M.PL | F.PL |
| NOM | þ-ō | þ-ái | þ-ōs |
| ACC | þ-ō | þ-ans | þ-ōs |
| DAT | þ-áim | þ-áim | þ-áim |

The suffixes that appear on demonstratives are also found on 3sg pronouns. The only difference is that the demonstratives attach to a *þ(a?)*-stem and the pronouns

attach to an *i*-stem. This does not hold for all forms, some seem to be suppletive.

Table 5.4: Gothic 3SG pronouns

| | N.SG | M.SG | F.SG |
|-----|-------|-------|--------|
| NOM | i-ta | i-s | si |
| ACC | i-ta | i-na | i-ja |
| DAT | i-mma | i-mma | i-z-ái |
| | N.PL | M.PL | F.PL |
| NOM | i-ja | eis | i-jōs |
| ACC | i-ja | i-ns | i-jōs |
| DAT | i-m | i-m | i-m |

Table 5.5: Gothic *giba* ‘gift’ (F)

| | SG |
|-----|--------|
| NOM | gib-a |
| ACC | gib-a |
| DAT | gib-ái |
| | PL |
| NOM | gib-ōs |
| ACC | gib-ōs |
| DAT | gib-ōm |

Table 5.6: Gothic *dags* ‘day’ (M)

| SG | |
|-----|---------|
| NOM | dag-s |
| ACC | dag-Ø |
| DAT | dag-a |
| PL | |
| NOM | dag-ōs |
| ACC | dag-ans |
| DAT | dag-am |

5.2.1.2 Light-headed relatives

D, D + COMP

5.2.2 Old High German

5.2.2.1 Headless relatives

D

Table 5.7: Relative pronouns in headless relatives in OHG

| | N.SG | M.SG | F.SG |
|-----|------------|-----------------|----------------|
| NOM | d-az | d-ër | d-iu |
| ACC | d-az | d-ën | d-ea/-ia/(-ie) |
| DAT | d-ëmu/-ëmo | d-ëmu/-ëmo | d-ëru/-ëro |
| | N.PL | M.PL | F.PL |
| NOM | d-iu/-ei | d-ē/-ea/-ia/-ie | d-eo/-io |
| ACC | d-iu/-ei | d-ē/-ea/-ia/-ie | d-eo/-io |
| DAT | d-ēm/-ēn | d-ēm/-ēn | d-ēm/-ēn |

5.2.2.2 Light-headed relatives

D, D

Wouldn't we now not expect that Modern German patterns with Old High German wrt attraction in headed constructions. Yes, we would. And yes, this is exactly what we see. Paper by Bader on case attraction.

5.2.3 Modern German

5.2.3.1 Headless relatives

WH

Table 5.8: Relative pronouns in headless relatives in MG

| | INAN | AN |
|-----|------|------|
| NOM | w-as | w-er |
| ACC | w-as | w-en |
| DAT | - | w-em |

5.2.3.2 Light-headed relatives

Pattern in light-headed relatives: D, D

5.3 Bringing this together

Table 5.9: Variation and relative pronoun shape

| | rel pron in headless rel | rel prons in light-headed rel | INT>EXT | EXT>INT |
|--------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|---------|---------|
| Gothic | A + C | A + A + C | ✓ | ✓ |
| OHG | A | A + A | * | ✓ |
| MG | B | A + A | ✓ | * |

And how can we now derive this?

5.4 Two points: all or nothing

5.4.1 No matches work

Italian doesn't allow any of them, because it has *d*, *wh* as light headed relative?

5.4.2 All allow for matching ones (and syncretic ones! whuut)

First, I discuss the matching headless relatives, in which the internal and external case match.

Consider the example in (1), repeated from the introduction. In this example, the internal case and the external case are accusative. The relative clause, including the relative pronoun, is marked in gray. The internal case is accusative. The predicate *arma* 'pity' takes accusative objects. The external case is accusative as well. Here the predicate *gaarma* 'pity' takes accusative objects. The relative pronoun *pan(a)* 'who.ACC' appears in the accusative.

- (1) gaarma þan -ei arma
 pity_[ACC] who.ACC -COMP pity_[ACC]
 ‘I will pity (him) whom I pity’ (Gothic, Rom. 9:15, after Harbert 1978: 339)

Consider the example in (2), in which the internal case and the external case are nominative. The relative clause, including the relative pronoun, is marked in gray. The internal case is nominative. The predicate *matjai* ‘eats’ takes nominative subjects. The external case is nominative as well. Here the predicate *gadauþnai* ‘die’ takes nominative subjects. The relative pronoun *sa* ‘who.NOM’ appears in the nominative.

- (2) ei sa -ei þis matjai, ni gadauþnai
 that who.NOM -COMP of this eats_[NOM] not die_[NOM]
 ‘that (he) who eats of this may not die’
 (Gothic, John 6:50, after Harbert 1978: 337)

Consider the examples in (3), in which the internal case and the external case are dative. The relative clauses, including the relative pronoun, is marked in gray. The internal case is dative. The predicates *gabaur* ‘tribute’, *mota* ‘custom’, *agis* ‘fear’ and *sweriþa* ‘honour’ takes dative objects. The external case is dative as well. The same predicates as in the relative clause take dative objects. The relative pronouns *þamm(a)* ‘who.DAT’ appear in the dative.

- (3) a. þamm -ei gabaur gabaur
 who.DAT -COMP tribute_[DAT] tribute_[DAT]
 ‘tribute to (him) whom tribute is due’
 b. þamm -ei mota mota
 who.DAT -COMP custom_[DAT] custom_[DAT]
 ‘custom to (him) whom custom is due’
 c. þamm -ei agis agis
 who.DAT -COMP fear_[DAT] fear_[DAT]
 ‘fear (him) whom fear is due’

- d. þamm -ei swerþa swerþa
 who.DAT -COMP honour_[DAT] honour_[DAT]
 ‘honour (him) whom honour is due’

(Gothic, Rom. 13:7, after Harbert 1978: 339)

So far only the diagonal line is filled. These are the matching examples, the examples in which the internal case matches the external case. The relative pronoun appears in the case which is the internal and external case. The nominative is given in (2), the accusative in (1), and the dative in (3).

Table 5.10: Summary of Gothic matching headless relative data

| EXT INT | [NOM] | [ACC] | [DAT] |
|------------|-------|-------|-------|
| [NOM] | NOM | | |
| [ACC] | | ACC | |
| [DAT] | | | DAT |

5.5 Deriving the different languages

give only the ‘end point’, no derivations

5.5.1 Old High German

In OHG, proper attraction in headless relatives can be derived from headed relatives. The relative pronoun is the determiner from the main clause. Under a double-headed Cinque-analysis, it is the internal DP that is deleted.

- (4) DAT instead of ?

- a. was allon them ando, them thar quamun at erist tuo
 what all d.DAT do to d.DAT there x as first do?
 ,,

than is im so them salte them (the M) man bi seuues Stade oido teuuirpit, 1370.

Hon them erlscipie them thar inne uuas, 2768.

allon them ando them thar quamun at erist tuo, 3435.

fon them herrosten them thes hnse giuueld, 3344 C.

sagda them alat them (the M) thar all giscaop, 4636. —

- (5) ACC instead of NOM

- a. unde ne wolden nîet besên den mort den dô was
 and not wanted not see the murder.ACC that.ACC there had
 geschên
 happened
 ‘and they didn’t want to see the murder that had happened.’
 (MHG, Nib. 1391,14, Behaghel 1923-1932: 756, after Pittner 1995: 198)

5.5.2 Modern German

In German, inverse attraction in headed relatives can be shown to be very different from inverse attraction in headless relatives. I am not set on an analysis yet. Under a double-headed Cinque-analysis, it is the external DP that is deleted. Grafting is also still an option.

5.5.3 Gothic

In Gothic, ?

Part III

Details

Chapter 6

Technical implementation

6.1 Background

(1) **Spellout Algorithm:**

Merge F and

- a. Spell out FP.
- b. If (a) fails, attempt movement of the spec of the complement of F, and retry (a).
- c. If (b) fails, move the complement of F, and retry (a).

When a new match is found, it overrides previous spellouts.

(2) **Cyclic Override** (Starke, 2018):

Lexicalisation at a node XP overrides any previous match at a phrase contained in XP.

If the spellout procedure in (1) fails, backtracking takes place.

(3) **Backtracking** (Starke, 2018):

When spellout fails, go back to the previous cycle, and try the next option for that cycle.

If backtracking also does not help, a specifier is constructed.

- (4) **Spec Formation** (Starke, 2018):
If Merge F has failed to spell out (even after backtracking), try to spawn a new derivation providing the feature F and merge that with the current derivation, projecting the feature F at the top node.
- (5) Merge F, Move XP, Merge XP

6.2 Gothic vs. Modern German

adjectives

so, these things are suffixes, they have to be following that.. blablabla

6.2.1 Grafting story

6.2.2 Deleted head story

argument for this: languages like Polish do not have a morpheme like this that can be deleted. so first the morpheme has to be there and then it can be deleted

how would this work in the grafting stor? how could polish be excluded?

Chapter 7

Stuff

7.1 Diachronic story

7.2 D also in Modern German

7.3 Why FEM does not have WH-pronouns

7.4 syncretism

7.5 Polish etc

7.6 Icelandic, Greek?

Chapter 8

Conclusion

8.1 Coming back to the genitive

In Gothic headless relatives, there is data available of the genitive in case competition with the accusative. The genitive wins in this competition. I give an example in which the internal case is accusative and the external case is genitive in (1). The relative clause is marked in bold, the relative pronoun is not. The internal case is accusative. The predicate *gasehvun* ‘saw’ takes accusative objects. The external case is genitive. The noun *waiht* ‘thing’ combines with a genitive. The relative pronoun *piz(e)* ‘what.GEN’ appears in the external case: the genitive.

- (1) ni waiht **piz -ei gasehvun**
 not thing_[GEN] what.GEN -COMP saw_[ACC]
 ‘not any of (that) which they saw’

(Gothic, Luke 9:36, adapted from Harbert 1978: 340)

If the internal case is genitive and the external case is accusative, the genitive wins as well. Crucially, there are no attested examples in Gothic of genitives in case competition with nominatives or datives.

The same holds for the two other main languages discussed in this thesis: Modern German and Old High German. In Modern German, case competitions have been reported between all possible case combinations, so also between genitives and nominatives, between genitives and accusatives, and between genitives and

datives (cf. Vogel, 2001). The genitive wins over the nominative and the accusative. In a competition between the genitive and the dative neither of them gives a grammatical result. Old High German might show some examples of case competition between genitives and accusatives and genitives and nominative. In these cases, the genitive always wins. No examples of datives against genitives are attested (Behaghel, 1923-1932). In sum, the genitive does not appear in all possible case competition combinations in all three languages, and is therefore excluded.

What do I predict for the genitive? Starke: S-acc – S-dat – gen – B-acc – B-dat hierarchies for each language individually. Gothic syncretisms: acc-dat, acc-nom, nom-gen(!). Modern German: nom-acc-dat-gen? Old High German: ? then the predictions would be..

The genitive differs from the other cases in a particular way. That is, nominative, accusative and dative are dependents of the verb (or prepositions). Genitives can be dependents of verbs, or they can be dependents of nouns, as possessors or partitives. Consider the example in (1). The genitive relative pronoun *piz(e)* ‘what.GEN’ is a dependent of the noun *waiht* ‘thing’. Most of the examples in headless relatives contain genitives that depend on nouns and not those that depend on verbs. The (genitive) possessor is also placed far away from the other three cases in Keenan and Comrie’s (1977) relativization hierarchy.

I leave it for future research..

8.2 Diachronic part

First, German only had the d-pronoun and attraction. The pattern of attraction that came with that pronoun is ext only. At some point, German invented the wh-pronoun. Helmut showed how it emerged. With that came the other pattern: int only. Some people lost the attraction (but everybody kept the d-pronoun) and with that the pattern disappeared. So the patterns in headless relatives follow from the relative pronouns in the language.

Primary texts

| | |
|--------|----------------------------|
| Col. | Colossians, New Testament |
| Isid. | Der althochdeutsche Isidor |
| John | John, New Testament |
| Luke | Luke, New Testament |
| Mons. | The Monsee fragments |
| Nib. | Das Nibelungenlied |
| Otfrid | Otfrid's Evangelienbuch |
| Rom. | Romans, New Testament |

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