

VP Nominalization and the Final-over-Final Condition

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Abstract

The Final-over-Final Condition has emerged as a robust and explanatory generalization for a wide range of phenomena (Biberauer et al. 2014; Sheehan et al. 2017). In this paper, we argue that it also holds in another domain, nominalization. In languages which show overt nominalization of VPs, we find that one word order is routinely unattested, namely a head-initial VP with a suffixal nominalizer. This typological gap can be accounted for by the FOFC, if we allow it to hold within mixed extended projections. Furthermore, we show that this view also makes correct predictions about agentive nominalizations, as well as nominalized serial verb constructions.

1 Introduction

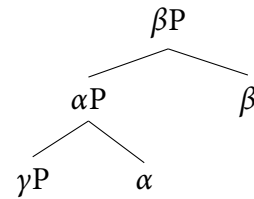
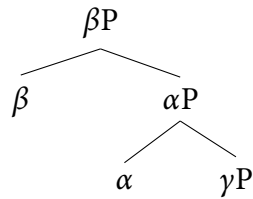
Biberauer et al. (2014) argue that the following restriction on the linearization of phrase structure is a syntactic universal:¹

- (1) *The Final-over-Final Condition (FOFC)* (Holmberg 2000:124; Biberauer et al. 2014:171):
A head-final phrase αP cannot immediately dominate a head-initial phrase βP , if α and β are members of the same extended projection.

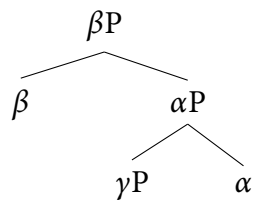
A consequence of this is that head-final phrases must select other head-final phrases (i.e. ‘if final, then final’). This means that, of the four logically possible abstract patterns, only three are predicted to be attested. These are the two harmonic orders, *initial-over-initial* (2a) and *final-over-final* (2b) and only one disharmonic order, *initial-over-final* (2c).

¹The FOFC was originally proposed as an acronym for *Final-over-Final Constraint*. In Sheehan et al. (2017), *constraint* was replaced with *condition*, since ‘syntactic constraints are typically named after a construction where some operation or relation is not permitted, for example *Complex NP Constraint*’ (Holmberg 2017:2). Since the FOFC enforces, rather than prohibits, final-over-final structures, it seems more appropriately termed a ‘condition’. We therefore adopt this nomenclature in the following paper.

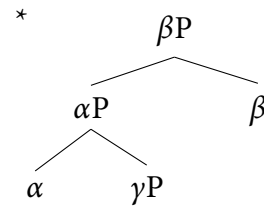
- (2) a. *Consistent head-initial* (harmonic) b. *Consistent head-final* (harmonic)



- c. *Initial-over-final* (disharmonic)



- d. *Final-over-initial* (disharmonic)



One of the original observations that led to the postulation of the FOFC came from the possible orders of auxiliaries, verbs and direct objects in Finnish. [Holmberg \(2000\)](#) noticed that Finnish allows for various permutations of auxiliaries and VP-internal constituents (3a–c), but crucially not the order V O AUX (3d).

- (3) 3/4 orders possible in Finnish ([Holmberg 2000:128](#)):

- a. Milloin Jussi [_{AuxP} olisi [_{VP} kirjoittanut romaanin]] ?
 when Jussi AUX written novel
 ‘When would Jussi have written a novel?’ (AUX V O)
- b. Milloin Jussi [_{AuxP} olisi [_{VP} romaanin kirjoittanut]] ?
 when Jussi AUX novel written
 ‘When would Jussi have written a novel?’ (AUX O V)
- c. Milloin Jussi [_{AuxP} [_{VP} romaanin kirjoittanut] olisi] ?
 when Jussi novel written AUX
 ‘When would Jussi have written a novel?’ (O V AUX)
- d. *Milloin Jussi [_{AuxP} [_{VP} kirjoittanut romaanin] olisi] ?
 when Jussi written novel AUX
 ‘When would Jussi have written a novel?’ (*V O AUX)

It is this configuration that corresponds to the one disharmonic order prohibited by the FOFC in (2d). Similar 3/4-patterns with regard to the order of V, O, and AUX have been documented for Basque ([Haddican 2004:116](#)) and Kaaps ([Biberauer et al. 2010](#)).

The FOFC not only constrains the possible linearization of VPs and auxiliaries within a single language, but also across languages. It has been observed that of the six logically possible word order permutations between the three elements AUX (including restructuring verbs), V and O, only five are attested across the Germanic languages (see a.o. [Travis 1984](#); [Kiparsky 1996](#); [Fuss & Trips 2002](#)). These are given in (4).

(4) 5/6 orders attested across Germanic (Biberauer et al. 2014:173ff.):

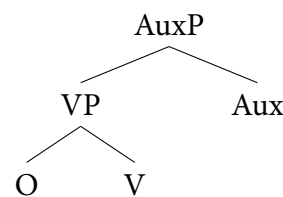
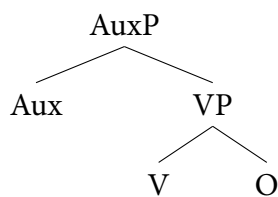
- a. ...dass Johann [_{AuxP} [_{VP} das Buch gelesen] hat]
 that Johann the book read.PTCP has
 ‘...that Johann has read the book.’ (German; O V AUX)
- b. ...oyb dos yingl [_{AuxP} vet oyfn veg [_{VP} zen a kats]]
 whether the boy will on.the way see a cat
 ‘...whether the boy will see a cat on the way.’ (Yiddish, AUX V O)
- c. ...da Jan [_{AuxP} wilt [_{VP} een huis kopen]]
 that Jan wants a house buy.INF
 ‘...that Jan wants to buy a house.’ (West Flemish; AUX O V)
- d. ...dat Jan het boek wil lezen.
 that Jan the book wants read.INF
 ‘...that Jan wants to read the book.’ (Dutch; O AUX V)
- e. ...þæt he mot ehtan godra manna.
 that he might persecute.INF good men
 ‘...that he might persecute good men.’ (Old English; V AUX O)

All of these orders are compliant with the FOFC. Importantly, what we do not find is a language such as the hypothetical German’ in (5), where a final auxiliary embeds a head-initial VP.

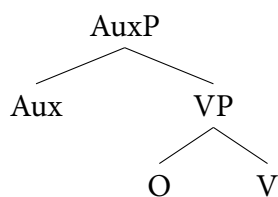
- (5) *... dass Johann [_{AuxP} [_{VP} gelesen das Buch] hat]
 that Johann read the book has
 ‘that Johan has read the book.’ (German’; *V O AUX)

Under the assumption that the auxiliary directly embeds the VP, the missing order in both Finnish and German, namely V-O-AUX, corresponds exactly to the configuration prohibited by the FOFC, as indicated in (6) (Biberauer et al. 2008, 2014).

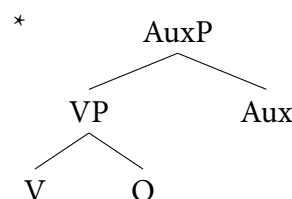
- (6) a. Consistent head-initial (English) b. Consistent head-final (German)



- c. Initial-over-final (West Flemish)



- d. Final-over-initial (German’)



The FOFC has since been argued to hold in a number of different empirical domains, e.g. sentence-final particles (Erlewine 2017), VP-internal word order under negation (Branan 2019), adverbs (Sheehan 2017a; Erlewine to appear), NP-internal order (Holmberg 2000; Roberts 2017a), word

formation (Myler 2009; Roberts 2017b), the distribution of complementizers (Biberauer et al. 2014), extraposition (Biberauer & Sheehan 2012), and diachronic change (Ledgeway 2012). As such, it constitutes an important potential universal constraint on word order. In this paper, we argue that the scope of the FOFC should be extended to nominalizations. In particular, doing so correctly derives the 3/4 pattern we find with overt VP nominalization in many West African languages, where VO order is avoided in nominalizations with suffixal nominalizers.

2 Word order and the FOFC in VP nominalization

Many languages (West African languages in particular) require a verb phrase to be nominalized in certain contexts. These contexts include focus fronting and embedding under some predicates or aspect markers. Nominalization is often detectable by an overt morpheme that is attached to the VP in question. In this section, we will see that of the four logical possible patterns between the elements V, O and NMLZ, only three are found. Not only is the order VO-NMLZ unattested, it is actively avoided in all the cases in which we might expect it to arise. We will argue that this can be captured under a FOFC-based approach.

2.1 VO languages with prefixal nominalizers

We will start by considering VO languages with prefixal nominalizers. Consider the data from Mani (Mel, Niger-Congo), which shows VO order in ordinary declarative clauses (7a). When a VP is nominalized in a predicate focus construction, the nominalizing prefix *ù-* attaches to the verb with no change in VP-internal word order (7b).

(7) *Mani* (Childs 2011:148, 219):

- a. Û ká [VP tòk dòmò mì]
1SG PST wash shirt 1SG
'I washed my shirt.' (V O)
- b. Û- [VP bán wóm] kó mbòm wò bán-yè
NMLZ- build boat PRO.FOC Mbom 3SG build-STAT
'It is building a boat Mbom did.' (NMLZ V O)

This is a relatively common pattern cross-linguistically and is also found in other West African languages such as Limbum (Grassfields Bantu) (8) and Yoruba (Niger-Congo) (9), as well as in Thai (Kra-Dai) (10).

(8) *Limbum* (Becker & Nformi 2016:58, 74f.):

- a. Nwè fō àm [VP tí ngū]
man DET PST3 cut wood
'The man cut the wood.' (V O)
- b. Á r- [VP yū msān] (cí) njīnwè fō bí gī
FOC NMLZ- buy rice COMP woman DET FUT1 do
'The woman will BUY RICE.' (NMLZ V O)

- (9) *Yoruba* (Manfredi 1993:19f.):
- a. Ajé [_{VP} ra iwé]
Aje buy paper
'Aje {is buying/bought} {a book/books}.' (V O)
 - b. Rí- [_{VP} rà iwé] ni Ajé ra iwé
NMLZ- buy paper FOC Aje buy paper
'It is book-buying that Aje {is doing/did}.' (NMLZ V O)
- (10) *Thai* (Jenks 2011:17,166):
- a. Nát [_{VP} kin thúrìan] kǽw
Nat eat durian already
'Nat already ate the durian.' (V O)
 - b. kaan- [_{VP} khiian còt-mǎay] nǎa-búa
NMLZ- write letters boring
'Writing letters is boring.' (NMLZ V O)

In each case, a head-initial VP retains VO order when combined with an overt prefixal nominalizer.

2.2 VO languages with suffixal nominalizers

There is, however, another class of VO languages which do exhibit a change in word order under nominalization. Importantly, all of these languages have a suffixal, rather than prefixal nominalizer. To see this, consider the data from Buli (Gur, Niger-Congo) in (11). Like the languages in the preceding section, Buli shows VO order in discourse-neutral declarative clauses (11a). If the VP is focused, however, it appears in the left periphery of the clause and bears the overt nominalizer *-kā* (11b). What is striking here is that the order of object and verb is now OV, and obligatorily so.

- (11) *Buli* (Hiraiwa 2005a:262; Hiraiwa 2005b:546):
- a. Àtìm [_{VP} dè mǎngò-kú-lá] diēm
Àtìm ate mango-DEF-DEM yesterday
'Àtìm ate that mango yesterday.'
 - b. (Ká) [_{VP} mǎngò-kú dē]-kā àlì/àtì Àtìm dè diēm
FOC mango-DEF eat -NMLZ C Àtìm ate yesterday
'It is eating the mango that Àtìm ate yesterday (not e.g. buying a banana).'

Buli is by no means extraordinary in this regard. Other languages in which the word order inside the VP is usually VO also require a switch to OV when the VP is nominalized. In Dagaare (Gur, Niger-Congo) (12) and Ewe (Gbe, Niger-Congo) (13), this occurs in VPs which are nominalized in focus fronting constructions.

- (12) *Dagaare* (Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008:802,805):
- a. Ñ dà [_{VP} dá lá bóó]
1SG PST buy FOC goat
'I bought a goat.' (V O)
 - b. [_{VP} Bóó dáá]-ó lá ká ní dà dà
goat buy -NMLZ FOC C 1SG PST buy
'It is buying a goat that I did (as opposed to e.g. selling a hen).' (O V NMLZ)

(13) *Ewe* (Buell 2012):

- a. Đèví lá [VP dù àkò dú]
child the eat banana
'The child ate a banana.' (V O)
- b. [VP Mólì dù]-gé mè-lè
rice eat -NMLZ 1SG-be.at
'I am about to EAT SOME RICE.' (O V NMLZ)
- c. [VP Núkà dù]-m nè-lè?
what eat -NMLZ 2SG-be.at
'What are you eating?' (O V NMLZ)

In Dangme (Kwa, Niger-Congo), formation of a gerund requires nominalization of the VP, and a concomitant shift from VO to OV order (14).

(14) *Dangme* (Ameka & Kropp Dakubu 2008:273,274):

- a. Ì [VP kǎné womi ɔ]
1SG read book DEF
'I read the book' (V O)
- b. [VP womi ɔ kǎné]-mĩ
book DEF read -NMLZ
'reading the book' (O V NMLZ)

Gengbe (Gbe, Niger-Congo) differs somewhat in requiring overt nominalization of VPs under certain aspect markers, e.g. the progressive marker *lè*. This results in OV order inside the complements of these markers (15) (also see Sande et al. 2019).

(15) *Gengbe* (Manfredi 1997:90; Aboh 2005:165f.):

- a. Mù [VP dù nú]
1SG eat thing
'I ate (something).' (V O)
- b. Kwésí lè [VP mólú dù]-ò
Kwesi AUX rice eat -NMLZ
'Kwesi is eating rice' (O V NMLZ)
- c. [VP Mólú dù]-ò yè Kwésí lè
rice eat -NMLZ FOC Kwesi AUX
'Kwesi is EATING RICE.' (O V NMLZ)

Finally, in Asante Twi/Akan (Kwa, Niger Congo), VPs are nominalized in focus fronting contexts (16b), as well as in a gerund-like usage when embedded under predicates such as 'hate' (16c) and 'like' (16d) (see Kobele & Torrence 2004).

(16) *Asante Twi/Akan* (Hein 2017:7; S. Korsah, p.c.):

- a. Kofí [VP á-si dán]
Kofi PRF-build house
'Kofi has built a house.' (V O)
- b. [VP Dán sí](-é) na Kofí á-yó
house build -NMLZ FOC Kofi PRF-do
'Kofi has BUILT A HOUSE. (not e.g. bought a boat)' (O V NMLZ)

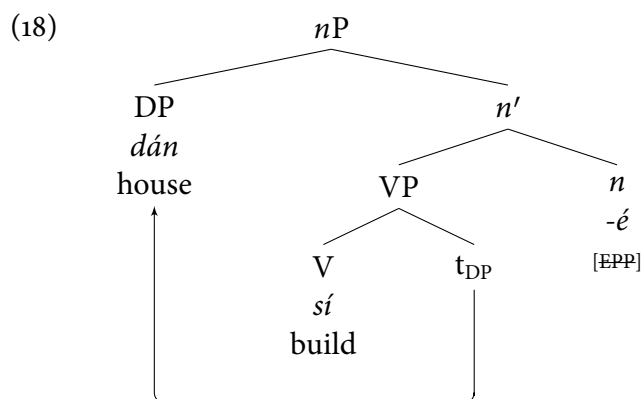
- c. Me-kyiri [_{VP} dan si](-e)
 1SG-hate house build -NMLZ
 'I hate building houses.' (O V NMLZ)
- d. Ghánaní bíará pɛ [_{VP} nam di](-e)
 Ghanaian every like fish eat -NMLZ
 'Every Ghanaian likes eating fish.' (O V NMLZ)

Strikingly, all of the languages discussed in this section show an obligatory change in word order from VO to OV under nominalization. What all of these VO languages have in common, and also what distinguishes them from the VO languages discussed in the preceding section, is that the nominalizer is a suffix, rather than a prefix. In fact, we were not able to find any language with a suffixal nominalizer that retains VO order under nominalization. For this reason, we propose the empirical generalization in (17).

(17) *Generalization:*

No language retains VO word order inside a nominalized VP if the nominalizer is a suffix.

The change from VO to OV inside nominalized VPs has often been analyzed as object shift in previous analyses, i.e. movement of the object DP to a higher position above the verb (e.g. [Manfredi 1997](#); [Aboh 2004, 2005](#); [Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008](#)). While this may be reasonable analysis within a given language, it fails to capture the cross-linguistic generalization in (17) in a satisfactory way. Object shift can be implemented as an EPP feature on *n* triggering movement of the object to Spec-*n*P (18) (cf. [Chomsky 2000](#); [Hiraiwa 2001](#)). This analysis is shown below for example (16a).



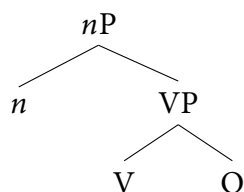
The problem with this view, however, is that it gives us no obvious explanation for the suffix/prefix-asymmetry. It is unclear why an arbitrary movement-triggering feature should be seemingly obligatory if the head happens to be realized as a suffix, whereas optional or absent if it is a prefix. What we need is an explanation that captures why the change from VO to OV order is required only with a suffixal nominalizers. The following section argues that this explanation follows if we are dealing with a repair to a violation of the Final-over-Final Condition.

2.3 The Final-over-Final Condition in nominalizations

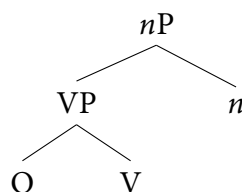
The key part of the generalization in (17) is that the morphological realization of the nominalizer, i.e. prefix vs. suffix, determines whether or not VO is possible inside the nominalized VP.

Crucially, the configuration which is avoided, namely VO-NMLZ, is one which would violate the FOFC, assuming that suffixes realize head-final projections. To see this, consider the abstract nominalization configurations in (19). Of these four combinations of verb, object and nominalizer, three of them (19a–c) are compatible with the FOFC. A final nominalizer embedding a head-initial VP is predicted to be impossible (19d).

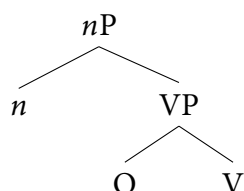
(19) a. *Consistent head-initial*



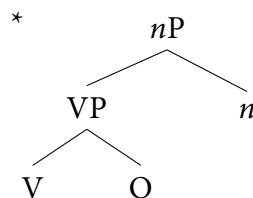
b. *Consistent head-final*



c. *Initial-over-final*



d. *Final-over-initial*



We argue that VO languages with a suffixal nominalizer constitute precisely this illicit configuration and that this accounts for why we do not find VO order with suffixal nominalizers. Instead, this structure is neutralized to the consistent head-final configuration in (19b) by reversing the order of verb and object. A prefixal nominalizer attaching to a head-initial VP realizes the structure in (19a) and is therefore unproblematic from the point of view of the FOFC. This FOFC-based analysis explains why VO order is incompatible with suffixal nominalizers. This provides a principled account for the generalization in (17), whereas it would be an odd conspiracy under a standard object shift analysis.² The important point is that the mere possibility of object shift is not enough to explain the typological pattern we observe.

Furthermore, the FOFC account also makes predictions. For example, we have seen overt instantiations of both harmonic orders in (19a) and (19b), we also predict one disharmonic order, namely the initial-over-final configuration in (19c). As the following section will show, this order is indeed also attested.

²A potential alternative explanation, suggested by a reviewer, would be that the object of the nominalized VP is realized as a possessor (analogous to *John's death* or *the death of John*). For example, [Atlamaz & Baker \(2018:204\)](#) show that the object of a nominalized verb is realized as an oblique phrase (like possessors) in Kurmanji (also cf. [Bodomo 2004](#) on Dagaare SVCs). If possessors are prenominal in the languages in question, then this could explain why the object appears before a nominalized verb. However, this cannot provide a general explanation of the VO→OV switch described in section 2.2. While some of the discussed languages do not mark prenominal possessors in any way, i.e. Buli ([Sulemana 2012:103](#)) and Dagaare ([Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008:818](#)), many of the other languages indicate prenominal possessors with an overt morpheme, e.g. *fɛ* in Ewe ([Ameka 2010:164](#)), *sín* in Gengbe ([Aboh 2010:31](#)) and *ne* in Akan (Sampson Korsah, p.c.). Crucially, this possessive morpheme cannot occur with the object in nominalized VPs.

2.4 Prefixal nominalizers with OV order

There are some VO languages with prefixal nominalizers that also exhibit OV order in nominalizations. This would then be an instantiation of the third pattern in (19c) that the FOFC predicts to be attested. Perhaps the clearest example comes from Krachi (Kwa, Niger-Congo) (also see [Hansford 1990:243](#) who describes the same pattern in Chumburung). The discourse neutral word order in Krachi is SVO, as shown in (20a). It has a prefixal nominalizer *kɛ-* that attaches to VPs. As expected, VO order is possible (20b), but what makes Krachi different is that OV order is also possible in nominalized VPs (20c).

(20) *Krachi* ([Kandybowicz & Torrence 2016:227f.](#)):

- a. ɔkyɪ wɔ [_{VP} ɛ-dɪkɛ i-gyo]

 woman the PST-cook PL-yam

 ‘The woman cooked yams.’ (V O)
- b. Kɛ- [_{VP} dɪkɛ i-gyo] yɪ ɔkyɪ wɔ ɛ-dɪkɛ

 NMLZ- cook PL-yam FOC woman the PST-cook

 ‘The woman only cooked yams (i.e. she did nothing else).’ (NMLZ V O)
- c. Ke- [_{VP} i-gyo dɪkɛ] yɪ ɔkyɪ wɔ ɛ-dɪkɛ

 NMLZ- PL-yam cook FOC woman the PST-cook

 ‘It was COOKING YAMS that the woman did (not eating rice).’ (NMLZ O V)

Thus, we see two possible word orders (regular VO and switched OV) with a prefixal nominalizer.³ The nominalizer *kɛ-* here exhibits clitic-like properties in that it can ‘lean’ onto whichever VP-internal constituent follows it (also see Dan in section 2.6). This provides evidence for the nominalizer attaching outside the VP.

The Krachi case is important, since the prefixal nominalizer is a proclitic and can attach to the adjacent object in its OV complement. In other languages, the nominalizer is strictly a verbal affix and must therefore attach to the verb. In such languages, we expect to find a surface O NMLZ-V order. We do in fact find language of this kind which, like Krachi, clearly exhibit a change from VO to OV order in such configurations. In Yoruba, the nominalizing prefix *V-* (which harmonizes with the linearly preceding vowel) is affixed to the verb. In these nominalized VPs, both the standard VO order (21a) and the switched OV order (21b) is possible.

(21) *Yoruba* ([Manfredi 1997:96](#)):

- a. Mo fẹ [_{VP} ẹ-hun aso]

 1SG want NMLZ-weave cloth

 ‘I want to weave (some) cloth.’ (NMLZ-V O)
- b. Mo fẹ [_{VP} aso ọ-hun]

 1SG want cloth NMLZ-weave

 ‘I want to weave (some) cloth’ (O NMLZ-V)

³Note from the translations that the two orders have different meanings, in that they express different types of focus ([Kandybowicz & Torrence 2016:227](#)). VO order in (20b) expresses exhaustive predicate focus, whereas the alternative OV order in (20c) yields a contrastive focus interpretation. It is not clear why the change in word order would be required for a contrastive focus interpretation. Furthermore, the proclitic nature of the nominalizer *kɛ-* means that we can be confident that the object has not scrambled out of the fronted VP. Since we are clearly dealing with word order variation internal to the nominalized VP, this pattern therefore falls under the auspices of the FOFC.

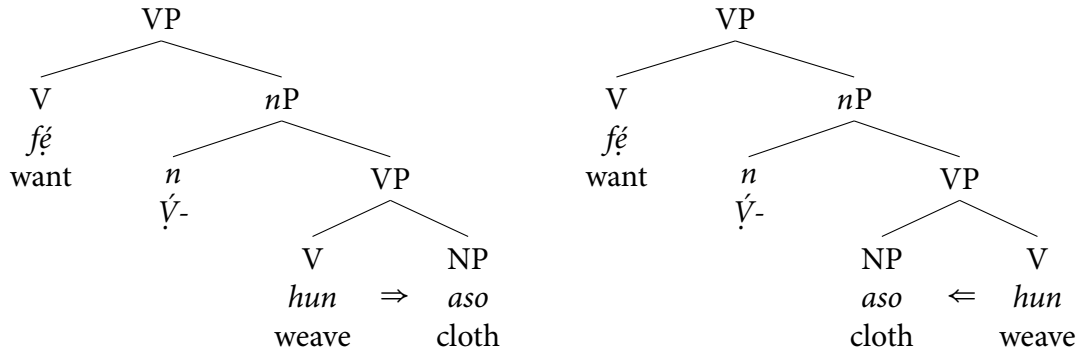
In Igbo, the neutral word order is SVO, as in embedded infinitival clauses (22a). Nominalized VPs exhibit a switch to OV order and the nominalizing prefix appears attached to the verb (22b).

(22) *Igbo* (Manfredi 1997:97f.):

- a. Ó kúzhì-ri m [VP i-gbá igwè]
 3SG teach-ASP 1SG INF-move iron
 ‘S/he taught me to ride a bike.’ (NMLZ-V O)
- b. Ó mára-na [VP igwè a-gbá]
 3SG know-PERF iron NMLZ-move
 ‘S/he knows how to ride a bike.’ (O NMLZ-V)

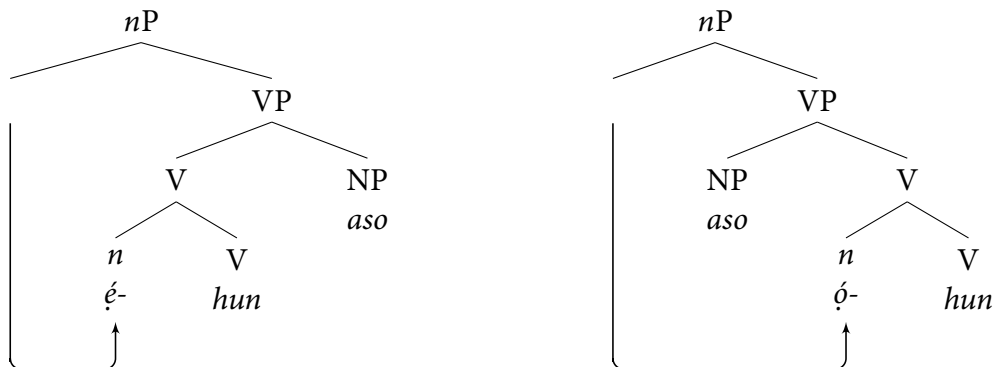
We claim that the underlying structures in Yoruba and Igbo are the same as in Krachi (20c), i.e. they are NMLZ-OV configurations with a later process of affixation to derive the surface O NMLZ-V order. In Yoruba, merging a nominalizer leads to flexible linearization inside the embedded VP (23). This could be implemented as the deletion of previous established linearization statements (see Sheehan 2013b; Richards 2016 on establishing linear relations in syntax).

(23) *Flexible linearization of verb and complement in Yoruba:*



Independent of the word order change, which is optional in Yoruba and obligatory in Igbo, the affix in *n* must be attached to a verbal host. We implement this as postsyntactic Lowering (Embick & Noyer 2001) as shown in (24).

(24) *Postsyntactic lowering of prefixal nominalizer:*



On this view, Yoruba and Igbo also show the basic Krachi pattern of a (potentially optional) shift from VO to OV under a prefixal nominalizer, with independent affixation of the nominalizer.

Yoruba and Igbo are examples of VO languages that allow OV order with a nominalizing prefix. Another possible source for this order would be a head-final OV language with a nominalizing prefix. Due to the strong tendency for head-final languages to be suffixing, this pattern is rather rare (see section 2.5). However, Amharic seems to instantiate it. As (25) shows, the basic word order of Amharic is OV.

(25) *Basic OV order in Amharic* (Baker & Kramer 2014:142):

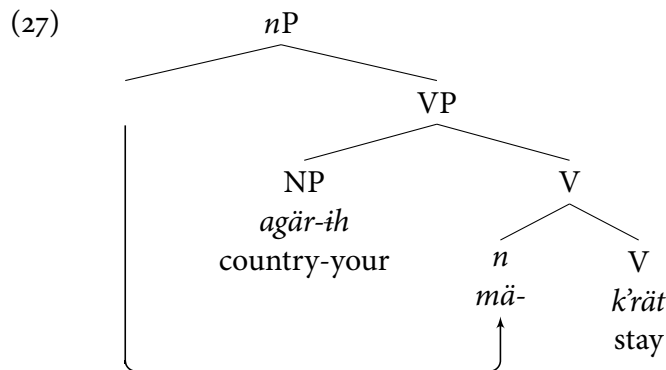
Almaz [_{VP} bet-u-n ayy-ät[tʃ]
 Almaz house-DEF-ACC see-3.FSG
 ‘Almaz saw the house.’

What are analyzed as VP nominalizations by Baker & Kramer (2014) involve the nominalizing prefix *mä-* attached to the verb (26).

(26) *OV with prefixal nominalizer in Amharic* (Leslau 1995:395ff.; Baker & Kramer 2014:152):

- a. [_{VP} agär-ih mä-k’rät-u-n] bi-tti-wädd ...
 country-your NMLZ-stay-DEF-ACC if-2SG-want
 ‘If you want to stay in your country...’
- b. [_{VP} mist-u-n bä-mä-gdäl] tä-kässäs-ä
 wife-his-ACC against-NMLZ-kill PASS-accuse-3MSG
 ‘He was accused of murdering his wife.’

We can employ the same analysis here, where the nominalizing prefix is lowered postsyntactically to the verb (27).⁴ Importantly, the underlying configuration prior to lowering would be the disharmonic initial-over-final configuration permitted by the FOFC.



An important implicit assumption for this argument is that there is a relatively strict correlation between headedness and affix type. In other words, the headedness of a phrase mirrors whether or not its head is a prefix or a suffix. We make this assumption explicit in (28).

(28) *Affix-directionality correlation:*

Prefixes realize head-initial structures, suffixes realize head-final structures.

We have taken this as the null hypothesis for our investigation of nominalization and assume that it is at least a strong tendency across languages, although principled deviations from it

⁴Also note that the preposition-like morpheme *bä* appears on the nominalized verb in (26b). This incorporation of the preposition could provide further support that postsyntactic Lowering is at work in Amharic.

may be possible (see e.g. Mithun 2003). For example, it may only hold for derivational, but not inflectional affixes (see section 3.4). This assumption receives some post-hoc justification by the generalization in (17). If languages could vary arbitrarily with regard to whether suffixes occupy either head-initial or head-final phrases, then we would not expect this morphological property to correlate with what appears to be a syntactic restriction (i.e. the FOFC). The strongest form of (28) therefore leads us to postulate that both Krachi and Amharic instantiate underlying NMLZ-VO and NMLZ-OV configurations, respectively. Furthermore, if something like (28) did not hold, we might expect that a language could opt to change the headedness of the *n*P headed by a suffix to avoid a FOFC-violating final-over-initial configuration. If this were to happen, we would expect to find exceptions to the generalization in (17). Instead, what we have seen is that languages manipulate the word order inside the VP, rather than change the directionality of the *n* head. This restriction makes sense in light of (28).

Note that this analysis is not unfalsifiable. It makes the clear prediction that we should not find VO languages with a surface V-NMLZ O order. Under the present account, this could only derive from an underlying FOFC-violating final-over-initial configuration (VO-NMLZ) prior to lowering of the nominalizer. While we have seen languages with affixal nominalizing prefixes with both VO and OV order, we have been unable to find genuine instances of this unpredicted configuration (however, see section 3.4 for discussion of English gerunds).

2.5 OV languages

We have seen examples of OV-NMLZ pattern from VO languages, where the change in word order is motivated by the FOFC. However, we also find instantiations of the OV-NMLZ pattern in OV languages, for example in Korean (29), Southern Paiute (30), Khoekhoe (31) and Bzhedug Adyghe (32).

(29) *Korean* (Choi 2000:333; Cho & Kim 2002:679):

- a. John-i [VP Mary-lul manna-ss-ta]
 John-NOM Mary-ACC meet-PST-DECL
 ‘John met Mary.’ (O V)
- b. [VP Sakwa-lul mek]-ki-nun John-i mek-ess-ta.
 apple-ACC eat -NMLZ-TOP John-NOM eat-PST-DECL
 ‘As for eating apples, John did.’ (O V NMLZ)

(30) *Southern Paiute* (Givón 2011:229f.):

- a. ’Áapachi ’u [VP kwanachi ’uway paqha-qa]
 boy the eagle the kill-ANT
 ‘The boy killed the eagle.’ (O V)
- b. [VP ’Inay kwanachi paqha]-ta ka-’ay-wa-tt ’ura-qa.
 this eagle kill -NMLZ NEG-good-NEG-NMLZ be-ANT
 ‘Killing this eagle was bad.’ (O V NMLZ)

(31) *Khoekhoe* (den Besten 2002:25,37):

- a. Tita ge [VP ti ||naoba [goro gurin ei-!â] ge mú]
 1SG DECL 1SG.POSS uncle five years ago RM.PST see
 ‘I have seen my uncle five years ago.’ (O V)
- b. [VP ||nãã‘n hòá‘nà ||nãũ]-s
 that all hear -NMLZ
 ‘hear all that’ (O V NMLZ)

(32) *Bzhedug Adyghe* (Ershova 2015:99,103):

- a. Hače-me s-ja-že.
 guest-PL 1SG.ABS-3PL.IO-wait
 ‘I’m waiting for guests.’ (O V)
- b. [VP Hač’e-xe-m ja-je-že]-n Zarine jəʔʷef.
 guest-PL-OBL 3PL.POSS-DAT-wait -NMLZ Zarina POSS.work
 ‘Waiting for guests is Zarina’s task.’ (O V NMLZ)

The FOFC-based account advocated here predicts that we should also find OV languages with prefixal nominalizers. In section 2.4, we saw that Amharic can be viewed as an example of this. So far, we have not been able to find other examples of OV languages with prefixal nominalizers. This is perhaps not too surprising though, since head-final languages tend to be overwhelmingly suffixal (Hawkins & Gilligan 1988:230). The result of this is that, although NMLZ-OV order is theoretically possible, it is rare due to the overwhelming preference for suffixation in OV languages.

2.6 Postverbal arguments in Dan

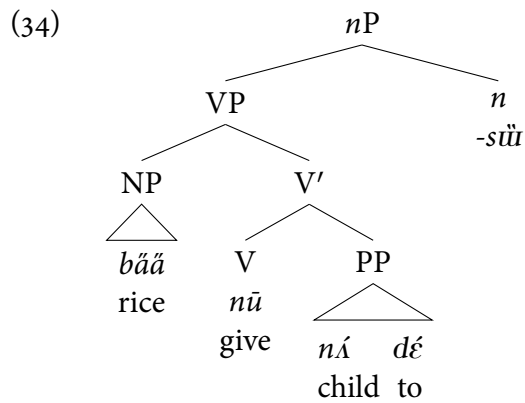
Thus far, we have seen that the FOFC account correctly predicts the absence of head-final VPs in the presence of suffixal nominalizers. An interesting challenge to this view comes from the Mande language Dan spoken in Côte d’Ivoire (Doneux 1968; Gondo 2014; Baker & Gondo 2020).⁵ In Dan, ditransitive VPs show the order NP-V-PP (33a). When a VP is nominalized, we do not observe any change in word order (33b).

(33) *VP nominalization in Dan* (Baker & Gondo 2020:22):

- a. Klà ě [VP báá nū Zõtádé]
 Kla 3SG.PRS rice give Zota to
 ‘Kla gives rice to Zota.’
- b. [VP báá nū ná dé]-sũ ě s̄
 rice give child to -NMLZ 3SG.PRS good
 ‘Giving rice to a child is good.’

Baker & Gondo (2020) assign the ditransitive VP an analogous structure to what is typically assumed for English prepositional datives (e.g. Larson 1988; Bruening 2001), where the direct object c-commands the goal argument PP (34). The nominalizing suffix attaches to the entire VP and leans onto the final constituent, as we saw for the nominalizing prefix in Krachi (20).

⁵Thanks to an anonymous reviewer for bringing the relevance of Dan to our attention.



The structure in (34) would be a violation of the FOFC, since a head-final *n* embeds a head-initial VP phrase (a *final-over-initial* configuration).

However, there is an alternative view that would be compatible with the aforementioned generalization. First, consider that, with nominal direct objects, the VP in Dan is strictly head-final (35a) (Doneux 1968:77). Under nominalization, this OV order within the VP is maintained (35b).

(35) *Nominalization with nominal object in Dan* (Gondo 2014:111; Baker & Gondo 2020:2):

- a. Klà ě [VP bǎǎ bỳ]
 Kla 3SG.PRS rice eat
 ‘Kla eats rice.’
- b. [VP bǎǎ bỳ]-sũ ě sĀ
 rice eat -NMLZ 3SG.PRS good
 ‘Eating rice is good.’

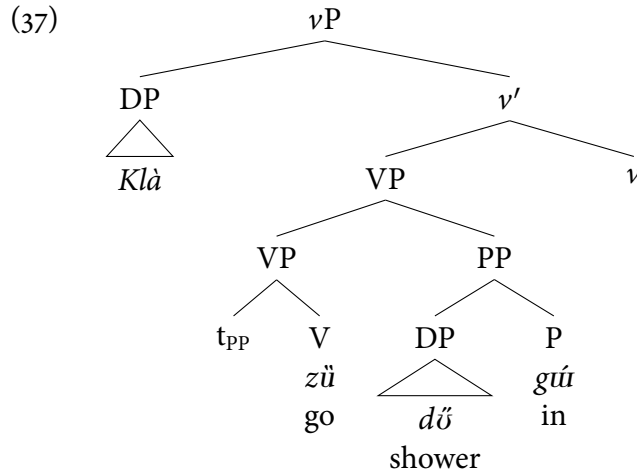
Unlike canonical object arguments, goal arguments (36a) and PPs (36b) appear post-verbally (also see Nikitina 2009:20 on the related language Wan). Furthermore, they appear in the same postverbal position as adverbs (36c) (which can also be part of VP nominalizations).

(36) *PPs and adverbs are post-verbal in Dan* (Gondo 2014:157, 184, 281):

- a. Klà ě [VP dò plýý]
 Kla 3SG.PRS go village
 ‘Kla goes to the village.’
- b. Klà ě [VP zũ [PP dũ gú]]
 Kla 3SG.PRS go shower in
 ‘Kla is washing himself in the shower.’
- c. Zòtǎ bà gò [VP dò [AdvP vǎvǎdý]]
 Zota POSS car go quickly
 ‘Zota’s car goes fast.’

One way of accounting for this apparent mixed headedness would be to assume that the surface position of goal arguments is not the complement of the verb. As we saw in (36), they occupy the same surface position as rightward VP adjuncts. We will therefore propose that such goal arguments are either projected as rightward specifiers, or undergo obligatory short extraposition

to the right edge of VP, the same structural position as adjuncts.⁶ The latter option is shown in (37).



When nominalized, these postverbal constituents do not change their order (Baker & Gondo 2020:22). This is true for directional arguments (38a), adverbs (38b) and PP adjuncts (38c).

- (38) a. [_{VP} Klà dó plǎ́]-súú è s̄ā
 Kla go village -NMLZ 3SG.PRS good
 ‘Kla going to the village is good.’
 b. [_{VP} ml̄èè tà [_{AdvP} vǎvǎ́]]-sũũ è s̄ā
 snake go quickly -NMLZ 3SG.PRS good
 ‘The snake’s going along quickly is good.’
 c. [_{VP} Zõtǎ bǎ tǎ-bō [_{PP} Klà gú]]-súú è s̄ā
 Zota POSS song-pick Kla in -NMLZ 3SG.PRS good
 ‘Zota’s singing in Kla is good.’

We analyze such nominalizations as the *n* suffix attaching to the VP containing the extraposed argument or adjunct.

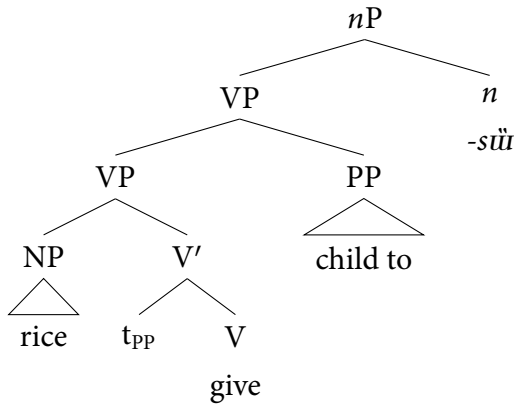
With this in mind, the potentially problematic example in (33b) can be reanalyzed as in (39), where the PP argument has undergone short extraposition to VP (an alternative could be simply projecting the PP in a rightward specifier; see Bruening 2010b on ‘R-dative shift’ in English).

- (39) [_{VP} báǎ nū nǎ dé]-sũũ è s̄ā
 rice give child to -NMLZ 3SG.PRS good
 ‘Giving rice to a child is good.’

⁶Nikitina (2007) notes that in the related Mande language Wan, PPs are obligatorily extraposed. This can be seen particularly clearly in cases of VP subordination, where the PP associated with the embedded verb appears after the matrix predicate (i).

(i) È [_{VP} [_{VP} t_{pp} kúnǎ] ságǎ] [_{PP} yrē é gó]
 3SG.NOM climb started tree DEF in
 ‘He began to climb (on) the tree.’

We can assume that in Wan and Dan, extraposition targets the highest accessible VP node. In restructuring configurations like (i), this would be the matrix VP.



On this view, Dan would not constitute a counterexample to the proposed generalization. Here, the head-final nominalizer in *n* embeds a head-final VP. Importantly, the position of a specifier does not change the head-directionality of a given phrase (however, see [Sheehan 2017a](#) on adverbs).

2.7 Interim summary

In this section, we have seen that there are various configurations for VP nominalization. A summary of the languages investigated is given in (40).

(40) *Typology of VP nominalization:*

	Base order	Nominalized	
Bzhedug Adyghe	OV	OV-NMLZ	(Ershova 2015)
Jamsay	OV	OV-NMLZ	(Heath 2008)
Khoekhoe	OV	OV-NMLZ	(den Besten 2002)
Korean	OV	OV-NMLZ	(Cho & Kim 2002)
Southern Paiute	OV	OV-NMLZ	(Givón 2011)
Amharic	OV	O NMLZ-V	(Leslau 1995)
Akan	VO	OV-NMLZ	(Hein 2017)
Buli	VO	OV-NMLZ	(Hiraiwa 2005a,b)
Dagaare	VO	OV-NMLZ	(Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008)
Dangme	VO	OV-NMLZ	(Ameka & Kropp Dakubu 2008)
Ewe	VO	OV-NMLZ	(Buell 2012)
Gengbe	VO	OV-NMLZ	(Aboh 2005)
Krachi	VO	NMLZ-OV	(Kandybowicz & Torrence 2016)
Igbo	VO	O NMLZ-V	(Manfredi 1997)
Yoruba	VO	O NMLZ-V	(Manfredi 1997)
Krachi	VO	NMLZ-VO	(Kandybowicz & Torrence 2016)
Limbum	VO	NMLZ-VO	(Becker & Nformi 2016)
Mani	VO	NMLZ-VO	(Childs 2011)
Thai	VO	NMLZ-VO	(Jenks 2011)
Yoruba	VO	NMLZ-VO	(Manfredi 1993)

As can be seen in (40), one pattern is not only unattested, but consistently avoided in the languages in which we would expect it to arise. In all of the VO languages with a suffixal nominalizer that we could find, VO order is changed to OV inside the nominalized VP. In VO languages with a prefixal nominalizer, we find VO order inside the nominalized VP, and sometimes even OV order.

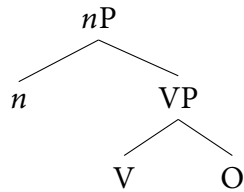
Furthermore, there are many OV languages with a suffixal nominalizer. As we saw, this gives rise to the descriptive generalization in (17), repeated below.

(41) *Generalization:*

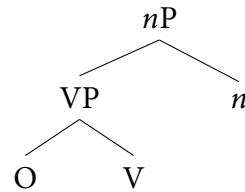
No language retains VO word order inside a nominalized VP if the nominalizer is a suffix.

We have argued that this generalization follows from the assumption that the FOFC also constrains word order within nominalizations. Allowing the FOFC to apply to nominalization structures such as those in (42) successfully predicts the three attested patterns in (42a–c) and rules out the unattested one (42d).

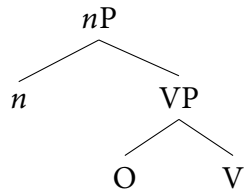
(42) a. *Consistent head-initial*
(e.g. Yoruba, Mani)



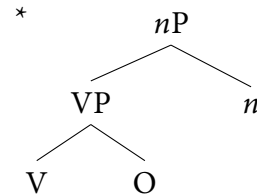
b. *Consistent head-final*
(e.g. Dagaare, Gengbe)



c. *Initial-over-final*
(e.g. Krachi, Amharic)



d. *Final-over-initial*
(unattested?)



Assuming that suffixes occupy head-final positions, a suffixal nominalizer cannot embed a head-initial VP. In other words, the syntactic configuration VO-NMLZ is predicted to be impossible, since it violates the FOFC. The other three patterns that are compliant with the FOFC (NMLZ-VO, NMLZ-OV, OV-NMLZ) are attested in (42). The FOFC therefore provides an explanatory account for the generalization in (41). Furthermore, it also has some consequences for our understanding of the FOFC and nominalization more generally, which will be discussed in the following section.

3 Discussion

3.1 Mixed extended projections

Recall that the definition of the FOFC in (1), repeated below in (43), states that it holds within an extended projection.

(43) *The Final-over-Final Condition (FOFC)* (Holmberg 2000:124; Biberauer et al. 2014:171):
A head-final phrase α P cannot immediately dominate a head-initial phrase β P, if α and β

are members of the same extended projection.

This qualification is necessary since there are cases in which the scope of the FOFC would be too broad, e.g. in ruling out acceptable cases of head-initial DPs selected by head-final VPs, as in German (44).

- (44) Ich will [VP [DP das [NP Buch]] lesen]
 I want the book read
 'I want to read the book.'

Since DPs are part of a different extended projection from VPs, namely a nominal one, structures such as (44) fall outside the scope of the FOFC and are therefore permitted.

If *n* and *V* do not belong to the same extended projection, then we would not necessarily expect the FOFC to hold inside nominalizations, as it seems to. In order to maintain the present analysis, *n* and *V* must count as belonging to the same extended projection so that the FOFC is enforced. To this end, we assume that deverbal nominalizations constitute *mixed extended projections* (Borsley & Kornfilt 2000; Bresnan & Mugane 2006; Pietraszko 2019; *pace* Grimshaw 1991). One way of achieving this technically would be to assume that nominalizers act as 'switches' in the sense of Panagiotidis (2015). For Panagiotidis (2015:143), switches are functional heads that bear both an interpretable [*X*] and an uninterpretable [*uX*] categorial feature. A nominalizer would bear the categorial features [*N*, *uV*]. As long as extended projections are defined based on two heads bearing the same categorial feature (either interpretable or uninterpretable), then deverbal nominalizers will also count as part of the extended projection of *V*. This leads to the following consequence for the FOFC (45):

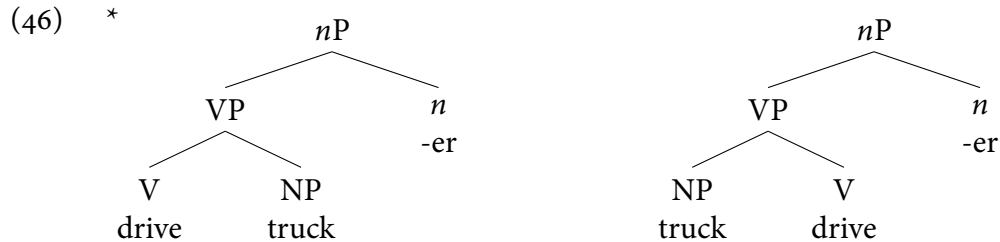
- (45) The FOFC holds for mixed extended projections (i.e. nominalizations)

There is some precedent to assuming that the restriction of the FOFC to extended projections is perhaps too strong. For example, Biberauer & Sheehan (2012) argue that the FOFC can account for obligatory extraposition of clausal complements in underlying [*C-TP*]-*V* configurations. Also, Biberauer et al. (2014:186ff.) attribute the absence of [*N-PP*]-*P* in Finnish to the FOFC (see Holmberg 2000). According to Grimshaw (2000:120), *V-CP* and *P-NP* should not constitute extended projections, and are therefore problematic for the definition of the FOFC in (43) (see Sheehan 2013a for relevant discussion). Nominalizations present a similar problem *prima facie*, but can perhaps be somewhat better captured under the notion of mixed extended projections than these other cases.

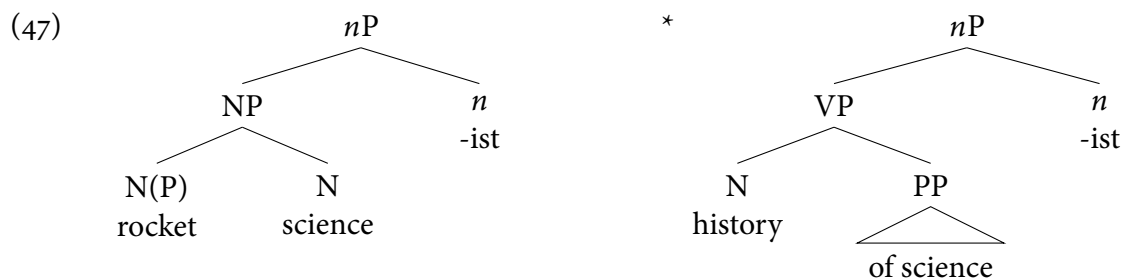
3.2 The FOFC in agent nominalizations

We might also expect that FOFC effects should be found in other kinds of nominalizations. So far, we have focused on event nominalizations, but there is also reason to believe that the FOFC constrains agentive nominalizations (Myler 2009; Roberts 2017b:342f.). For example, consider a canonical agent nominalization such as *truck driver*, which presumably contains the VP *drive truck* (e.g. Roeper & Siegel 1978; Fu et al. 2001; Alexiadou 2001; Bruening 2013). When the nominalizing

suffix *-er* selects this VP, an illicit final-over-initial configuration is created (46). We observe the same kind of re-linearization that we saw with event nominalizations above. This explains why nominalization of *drive truck* must be *truck driver* and not **drive trucker*, despite the form *trucker* itself being possible.⁷



Further evidence for the activity of the FOFC in agent nominalizations comes from observations made by Ackema & Neeleman (2004). Namely, the nominalizing suffix *-ist* can attach to a nominal compound such as *rocket science* to form *rocket scientist*. However, *-ist* cannot combine with nouns taking complements, e.g. *history of science*, to form **history of scientist* (Ackema & Neeleman 2004:171). As (47) shows, *rocket scientist* is FOFC-compliant since compounds are presumably head-final, following Williams' (1981) *Righthand Head Rule* (also see Myler 2009). However, nominalization of a noun taking a genuine PP complement, as in **history of scientist*, results in a final-over-initial structure that is correctly ruled out by the FOFC (cf. the *Head-Final Filter*; Williams 1982 and Sheehan 2017b on its relation to the FOFC).⁸



This is further bolstered by the observation by Ackema & Neeleman (2004:171) that heads taking

⁷ A reviewer asks how we can know that the constituency of *truck driver* is *[[truck drive] -er]* as in (46), rather than a N-N root compound such as *[truck [driv-er]]* (e.g. Selkirk 1982; Di Sciullo & Williams 1987; also see Spencer 2005:88ff. for discussion). A compelling argument for the former structure comes from idioms. As Ackema & Neeleman (2004:56f.) point out, the idiomatic meaning of VP idioms such as *break the ice* is preserved in synthetic compounds like *ice-breaker*, but lost in other agent nominalizations such as *#breaker of the ice*. Further examples include *trouble-maker* vs. *#maker of trouble* and *whistle-blower* vs. *#blower of whistles*. Assuming that parts of an idiom must either form an underlying constituent (Koopman & Sportiche 1991:224) or a transitive selectional relationship (e.g. O'Grady 1998; Bruening 2010a, 2017), then the VP idiom parts in a synthetic compound must form a constituent to the exclusion of *-er* (ia). In the structure of *breaker of the ice*, the relevant idioms parts (*break* and *ice*) do not form a constituent (ib) and thus lack the idiomatic reading.

- (i) a. *[[ice break] -er]*
 b. *#[[break-er] [of the ice]]*
 c. *#[[ice] [break-er]]*

In the alternative N-N compound structure in (ic), the conditions for preservation of idiomatic meaning are equally not met. Thus, if this were the correct structure, we would expect it to pattern with (ib) in losing the idiomatic interpretation, contrary to fact.

⁸We assume that *historian of science* involves a lexical nominalization strategy, as discussed in (55a), where *-ian* attaches to *history* directly.

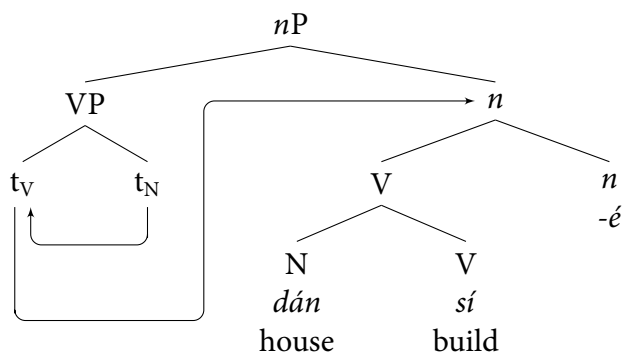
PP complements can appear inside a nominalization if the verb is head-final.⁹ In the Dutch example in (48), the suffix *-aar* embeds a head-final VP, a structure which respects the FOFC.

- (48) [_{nP} [_{VP} [_{PP} aan [_{DP} de weg]] timmer] -aar]
 on the way hammer -er
 ‘careerist’

3.3 Against an incorporation analysis

There are other approaches to the kind of nominalizations discussed here. In the spirit of Baker (1988), Harley (2009:136) argues that synthetic compounds such as *truck driver* are the result of noun incorporation via head movement (also see Punske 2016; Iordăchioaia et al. 2017). In the case of *truck driver*, this is formed by successive instances of head-movement from the object, to the verb, and then to *n* (but see Barrie & Mathieu 2016 for an alternative). The OV order results from the way that the resulting complex head is linearized. It is also possible to adopt a similar approach for the event VP nominalizations we discussed. An example such as (16b) would then have an analysis such as (49), where the noun first incorporates into the verb and this complex head subsequently moves to *n*.¹⁰

- (49) *Incorporation approach to VP nominalization:*



One of the properties that is supposedly captured by a head-movement account is that only bare roots/*n* can act as goals for incorporation. Thus, **trucks driver* is ill-formed because it would require a Num-head to bear a feature triggering head movement (Harley 2009:141). Furthermore, an incorporation analysis is also assumed to derive the fact that complex phrasal material cannot appear inside such compounds (see e.g. Roeper & Siegel 1978; Bresnan & Mchombo 1995). However, the exclusion of phrases from compounds is by no means absolute (see e.g. Botha 1981; Ackema &

⁹Ackema & Neeleman (2004) offer a different explanation for the distinction between head-initial and head-final VPs with suffixal nominalizers. They assume that an affix that selects a phrase can only do so if it takes the head of that phrase as a host, and therefore requires adjacency (Ackema & Neeleman 2004:164f.). We have seen counter-examples to this in Krachi (20c) and Dan (38), where the nominalizing morpheme is not adjacent to the verb.

¹⁰One might wonder whether the basic change from VO to OV under nominalization cannot simply be achieved by head movement from V-to-*n*. This is insufficient for several reasons. First, it has been argued by Ackema & Neeleman (2002) that there is a general restriction on rightward head movement that it cannot cross a dependent of that head (also see van Riemsdijk 1998). This rules out rightward movement of V to a head-final *n* position. Furthermore, it is clear that the change from VO to OV with initial nominalizers in Krachi, Yoruba and Igbo cannot be derived by head movement to *n*, so something additional is required in any case.

Neeleman 2004; Sato 2010; Bruening 2018). Indeed, the event VP nominalizations we are focusing on here show some degree of variation in the complexity of the nominal argument. For example, we see in Krachi (20) that the object can bear a plural marker, unlike in English (cf. **trucks driver*). In Buli, the object can be marked as definite (50).

(50) *Definite DP object in Buli VP nominalization* (Hiraiwa 2005a:262):

(Ká) [_{VP} mángò-kú dē]-kā àlì/àtì Àtìm dē dīēm.
 FOC mango-DEF eat -NMLZ C Àtìm ate yesterday
 ‘It is eating the mango that Àtìm ate yesterday. (not e.g. buying a banana)’

Dagaare is even less restrictive and allows for a definite DP modified by an adjective and a demonstrative inside a nominalized VP (51).

(51) *Modified object in Dagaare VP nominalization* (Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008:805):

[_{VP} À bó-vèlàà ná dáá]-ó lá ká n (dá) dá.
 DEF goat-good DEM buy -NMLZ FOC C 1SG PST buy
 ‘It is buying that good goat that I did.’

This would not be expected if these were genuine cases of noun incorporation (see Baker 2009:153). From this we conclude that the shift from VO to OV in nominalizations cannot always be the result of incorporation via head movement in the languages investigated here. Some languages do seem to impose a ‘bareness’ requirement on the complement of the verb, however there is significant cross-linguistic variation in this regard. It is possible that the nominal object in deverbal nominalizations is subject to varying degrees of pseudo-incorporation, which often requires it to surface as a bare nominal (see Massam 2001).

3.4 Gerunds in English

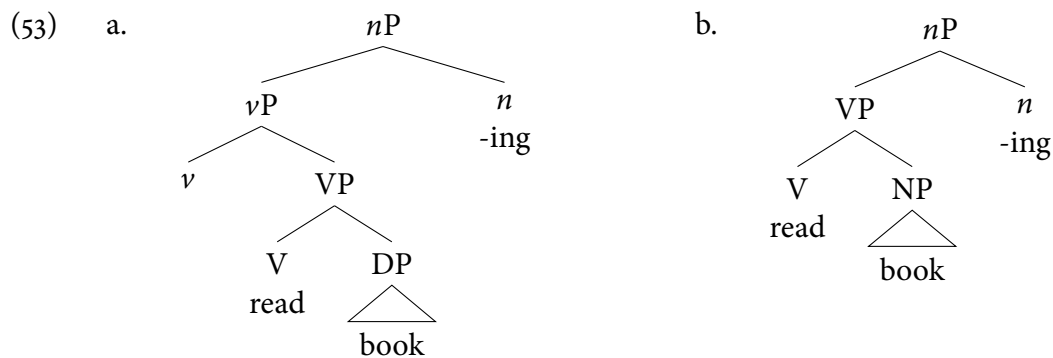
Recall that a prediction of the *affix directionality correlation* we proposed in section 2.4 was that we should not find a VO language that derives the order V-NMLZ O from lowering because the underlying configuration VO NMLZ would violate the FOFC. English gerunds such as *read-ing books (is fun)* pose a challenge to this view, given our assumption that suffixes like *-ing* occupy head-final projections. Assuming that the FOFC holds in nominalizations, we would expect to find a shift to OV order in the VP. There are, however, analyses which would avoid this problem. For example, one could assume, as Ackema & Neeleman (2004:177f.) do, that the *-ing* in English gerunds is not actually a nominalizer, but instead an inflectional suffix. If we assume that English gerunds contain rich functional structure, potentially including TP (Abney 1987; Alexiadou 2001; Pires 2001; Moulton 2004), then *-ing* could occupy the head of T as in (52). This would also account for why *-ing* is in complementary distribution with tense (Johnson 1988).

(52) [_{DP} D [_{TP} [_T -ing] [_{VP} [_{VP} read books]]]]

We could assume that the affix-directionality correlation that we proposed in (28) only holds for categorizing heads, such as those involved in derivational morphology. Since there is reason to believe that English TP is head-initial, we avoid a FOFC-violation in a structure such as (52).

Furthermore, note that *-ing* can realize *n* in English when it attaches to VPs, as in *book read-ing*, which we discuss further below.

If we did want to treat *-ing* in gerunds as a nominalizer, then an alternative analysis could be that there is no FOFC violation because *n* selects a larger verbal projection e.g. *vP* or *VoiceP* (53a) (e.g. Fu et al. 2001; Alexiadou 2001; Baker & Vinokurova 2009; Bruening 2013). The fact that gerunds contain this structure can be seen by their ability to host adverbs (e.g. *reading books thoroughly*) (Fu et al. 2001) and certain instrumental modifiers *reading books with a magnifying glass* (Bruening 2013), in contrast to smaller VP nominalizations such as *book read-ing* (53b). It would be this structural difference, shown in (53), which leads to the absence of a FOFC effect in gerunds. In particular, we could assume that the presence of the *vP/VoiceP* projection in gerunds in (53a) introduces an additional phase boundary and that the FOFC only holds within a phase (e.g. Biberauer et al. 2008; Erlewine 2017; Biberauer 2017). This additional phase boundary is absent in (53b), thereby leading to OV order inside the VP by means of a FOFC repair (as with the languages surveyed in section 2.2).



Not all such FOFC-violating configurations are necessarily repaired, however. Ackema & Neeleman (2004) argue that the nominalizing suffix *-ing* in Norwegian cannot nominalize VPs. This nominalizer only attaches to the verb directly as a kind of ‘lexical nominalization’ (54a), as shown in (55a).¹¹ A syntactic nominalization strategy, on the other hand, where *n* combines with an entire VP is ungrammatical (54b).

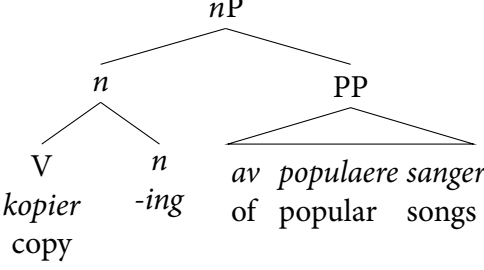
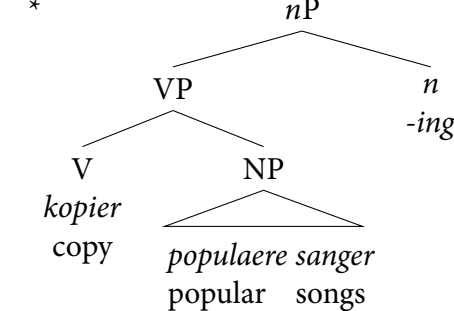
(54) *No phrasal nominalization in Norwegian* (Ackema & Neeleman 2004:181):

- a. den ulovlige kopier-ing-en [PP av populaere sanger]
that illegal.DEF copy-NMLZ-DEF of popular.PL songs
- b. *den ulovlige [VP kopier-ing-en populaere sanger]
that illegal.DEF copy-NMLZ-DEF popular.PL songs
‘that illegal copying of popular songs.’

The nominalization in (54b) has the FOFC-violating structure in (55b) with the affix being lowered

¹¹Following Chomsky (1970), we assume that this kind of lexical nominalization may co-exist alongside a syntactic nominalization strategy even within a given language (see Baker & Gondo 2020 for recent discussion). These strategies give rise to distinct morphological marking of the internal argument, i.e. ‘of’-marking in *reading of books* and no marking in *book reading*. While these two nominalization strategies can be distinguished in English, for example, the majority of languages we investigated show no case marking on the internal argument, thus making it difficult to rule out a lexical nominalization strategy. That said, lexical nominalization tends to result in additional morphological marking and the absence of FOFC effects, e.g. in (54a). Neither of these properties is characteristic of the kind of VP nominalization we focus on here.

to the verb to give rise to the surface order V-NMLZ O. Recall that this was the pattern that we predict not to be attested, given (28). Here, we do not find OV order inside the nominalized VP as a repair, but instead this nominalization strategy is simply unavailable.

- (55) a.  b. * 

This suggests that not all violations of the FOFC in nominalizations will result in a ‘repair’ based on re-linearization, but instead sometimes in simple ungrammaticality.

4 Nominalized serial verb constructions

Recall that in VO languages with a suffixal nominalizer such as Dagaare (12), the word order inside the VP changes to OV when nominalized. There are also more complex VP structures in some of these languages, often referred to as serial verb constructions (SVCs). In Dagaare, these show the word order V_1 O V_2 where the direct object is shared between the two verbs (56).

- (56) *Verb serialization with shared object in Dagaare* (Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008:796):
- a. Ò dà [_{VP} sɛ́₁ lá **nénè** ðò̀₂]
 3SG PST roast FOC meat eat
 ‘He roasted meat and ate it’ (V₁ O V₂)
- b. *Ò dà [_{VP} sɛ́₁ lá ðò̀₂ **nénè**]
 3SG PST roast FOC eat meat
 ‘He roasted meat and ate it’ (*V₁ V₂ O)

When this complex VP is nominalized, it shows a different word order, however. The base V_1 O V_2 in (56a) changes to O V_1 V₂ (57).

- (57) *Word in nominalized SVCs in Dagaare* (Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008:798):
- [_{VP} **Nénè** sɛ́₁ ðò̀₂]-ó lá ká ó sɛ́₁ ðò̀₂.
 meat roast eat -NMLZ FOC C 3SG roast eat
 ‘It is roasting meat and eating it that he did’

The same pattern is also found in Buli (58) (Hiraiwa 2005a).

- (58) *Verb serialization with shared object in Buli* (Hiraiwa 2005a:263):
- a. Atim [_{VP} sè₁ **lām** ɲòbí₂]
 Atim roast meat eat
 ‘Atim roasted and ate meat.’

- b. (ká) [_{VP} **lām** sè₁ ɲòbí₂]-kā àlì/átí Atim sé₁ ɲòbí₂
 FOC meat roast eat -NMLZ C Atim roast eat
 ‘It’s roasting and eating meat that Atim did.’

A central feature of these SVCs is that the object is ‘shared’ between the two verbs. There have been a number of proposals for how to reconcile object-sharing with strict binary branching (Hale 1991; Collins 1997; Aboh 2009). Simplifying somewhat, we could imagine two basic constituencies for the object sharing configuration in Dagaare and Buli (59).

- (59) a. [_{VP} V [_{VP} O V]]
 b. [_{VP} [_{VP} V O] V]

However, Hiraiwa & Bodomo (2008) provide evidence from extraction that neither is adequate. As (60a) shows, it is possible to move the first verb (V₁) in the series together with the direct object. Furthermore, the direct object can also be fronted along with V₂ (60b). Finally, it is possible to extract both verbs together with the shared object (60c).¹²

(60) *Extraction in SVCs in Dagaare* (Hiraiwa & Bodomo 2008:798):

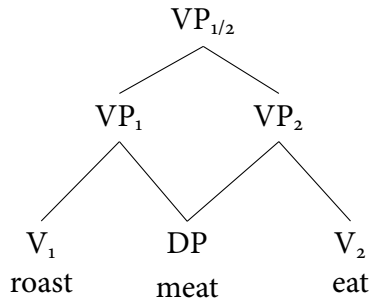
- a. [_{VP₁} **Nénè** séé₁]-ó lá ká ó sé₁ òò₂.
 meat roast -NMLZ FOC C 3SG roast eat
 ‘It is roasting meat that he did and ate (it)’ (extraction of DP+V₁)
- b. [_{VP₂} **Nénè** òò₂]-ó lá ká ó sé₁ òò₂.
 meat eat -NMLZ FOC C 3SG roast eat
 ‘It is eating meat that he roasted and did’ (extraction of DP+V₂)
- c. [_{VP_{1/2}} **Nénè** sé₁ òò₂]-ó lá ká ó sé₁ òò₂.
 meat roast eat -NMLZ FOC C 3SG roast eat
 ‘It is roasting meat and eating it that he did’ (extraction of DP+V₁+V₂)

These data suggest that the direct object forms a constituent both with V₁ and V₂ to the exclusion of the other verb. Thus, neither of the structures in (59) alone can account for these constituency facts. The same is also true for the structure proposed in Bodomo (2004:19), where the object is analyzed as a possessor.

To capture this, Hiraiwa & Bodomo (2008) argue that object-sharing SVCs involve a ‘double-headed’ VP in the sense of Baker (1989) and Baker & Stewart (1999). Object sharing is the result of a multidominant structure (e.g. Citko 2005, 2011; Gračanin-Yüksek 2013; Bachrach & Katzir 2017) as in (61), where each verb takes the DP as its complement.

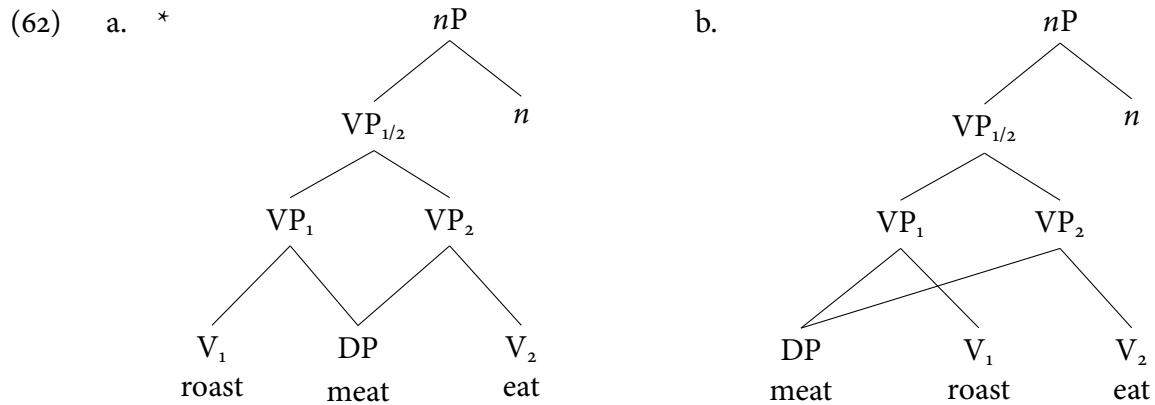
¹²Note that extracted verbs are doubled in their base-position, as is often found in predicate focus constructions (see e.g. Hein 2017, 2018). Hiraiwa & Bodomo (2008:804) assume that this construction involves movement in Dagaare since it is both unbounded and constrained by islands. Hiraiwa (2005b:551f.) shows that Buli predicate fronting is also sensitive to islands and additionally shows reconstruction effects.

(61) *Multidominance approach to sharing in SVCs:*



This now provides three phrasal constituents that can be targeted for movement, corresponding to the extraction possibilities in (60). Either of the lower VP constituents (VP₁ or VP₂) can be moved, corresponding to (60a) and (60b) respectively. In addition, the larger VP_{1/2} constituent can also be extracted, as in (60c).

Importantly, when the entire VP_{1/2} constituent is nominalized under extraction, we do not find the otherwise expected V₁ O V₂ order, but rather a shifted O V₁ V₂ configuration inside the VP. We argue that this follows from the structure in (61) and the assumption that the FOFC holds in nominalizations. The nominalizer attaches to the larger VP_{1/2} constituent, which consists of a head-initial VP₁ and a head-final VP₂ (62a). This creates a FOFC-compliant structure with regard to V₂, but a banned final-over-initial configuration with regard to V₁. The prediction of the FOFC account is that we should find an obligatory change in word order in VP₁, but not in VP₂, leading to head-final order in VP₁ (62).¹³



Recall from (60c) that this is indeed what we find, namely a change of word order from V₁ O V₂ to O V₁ V₂. Thus, when double-headed VP structures such as (61) are nominalized, the FOFC must be respected by each VP independently.

¹³That said, these structures propose an interesting challenge for the interpretation of ‘immediately dominates’ in the definition of the FOFC in (1). Descriptively, it seems that the shared node VP_{1/2} is ignored for the purposes of immediate dominance. This might follow more generally as property of these double-headed structures if, for example, they each count as direct complements of *n* for the purposes of selection too.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we have argued that the scope of the Final-over-Final Condition should be extended to nominalizations. The motivation for this comes from the consistent avoidance of VO order inside nominalized VPs with a suffixal nominalizer. No comparable restriction was found with prefixal nominalizers. We have argued that this directional asymmetry follows naturally under an explanation that invokes the FOFC, since the unattested order would constitute an illicit final-over-initial configuration. Extending the FOFC to nominalizations is somewhat problematic given the fact that has been assumed to only hold within an extended projection (Biberauer et al. 2014). This can be accommodated by assuming that nominalizations constitute mixed extended projections (Borsley & Kornfilt 2000), which would then also fall under the scope of the FOFC.

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