

(3) *[[_{RC1} [_{RC2} ~~sinsi-ga huku-o~~ Kiteiru] ~~sinsi-ga~~ koron-da] huku]-wa ana-ga aita.
 is.wearing man-NOM fall-PAST clothes-TOP hole-NOM make-PAST.
Int. 'The [clothes_i that the [gentleman who was wearing (them)_i] fell] got a hole.'

observation provides additional support for Han and Kim's (2004) analysis, showing that the gap in the relative island is not the source of the relativized head. The latter two observations motivate a possessor-raising analysis. In many languages, such as Chamorro, Chichewa, Acehnese, and Swahili, possessor raising is only possible from (underlying) internal arguments (see Massam 1985:283, Baker 1988:274, Ura 1996, Landau 1999 and references therein).⁵ Taking observation (iii), the restriction on the predicate type, as a manifestation of the well-attested condition on possessor raising, I pursue the idea that the outer relative in cases seemingly violating the CNPC is a MNC, which is derived through possessor-raising.

2. Relativization in Japanese

The relative clause in Japanese is prenominal (i.e., it precedes the head noun) but finite, unlike other languages with prenominal relatives, which are robustly non-finite (cf. Keenan 1985). It lacks relative pronouns but can relativize a wide range of arguments: nominative subjects, accusative objects, dative goals, and adjuncts, such as locative, manner, reason and time phrases, as exemplified below:

- (6) a. [[_{t_i} Seijika-o koogekisi-ta] repoota_i]-ga hisyo-o home-ta. [Nom]
 statesman-ACC attack-PAST reporter-NOM secretary-ACC praise-PAST
'The reporter who attacked the statesman praised the secretary.'
- b. [[Seijika-ga _{t_i} koogekisi-ta] repoota_i]-ga hisyo-o home-ta. [Acc Obj]
 statesman-NOM attack-PAST reporter-NOM secretary-ACC praise-PAST
'The reporter who the statesman attacked praised the secretary.'
- c. [[Seijika-ga _{t_i} tomodachi-o syookaisi-ta] repoota_i]-ga hisyo-o home-ta. [Dat Goal]
 statesman-NOM friend-ACC introduce-PAST reporter-NOM secretary-ACC praise-PAST
'The reporter who the statesman introduced to his friend praised the secretary.'
- d. [[Ken-ga _{t_i} hon-o yoku ka-u] mise_i-ga _{t_j} tubure-ta] riyuu-wa wakara-na-i. [Loc/Reason]
 Ken-NOM book-ACC often buy-PRES shop-NOM bankrupt-PAST reason-TOP know-NEG-PRES
'I don't know the reason the store where John often bought books went bankrupt.'

As for possessors, relativization is restricted to inalienable ones—possessors in *part-whole* or *body-part* relations. Alienable possessors cannot directly undergo A-bar movement, as shown below.⁶

- (7) a. Naomi-ga [_{t_i} kawa]-o mui-ta ringo_i-ga kusati-tei-ta. [Inalienable]
 Naomi-NOM skin-ACC peel-PAST apple-NOM rotten-ASP-PAST
'The apple whose skin John peeled was rotten.'
- b. *Naomi-ga [_{t_i} aisukuriimu]-o tabe-ta tomodachi_i-ga okot-ta. [Alienable]⁷
 Naomi-NOM ice.cream-ACC eat-PAST friend-NOM get.angry-PAST
Int. 'The friend whose ice cream Naomi ate got angry.'

The picture of possessor relativization is quite complex. Alienable possessors can be relativized but need to land in an A-position (i.e., nominative position) and receive structural case before undergoing A-bar movement (see (4-b) and (4-c)). The rest of the paper deals with alienable possessors only, and the term 'possessor' is used to refer to alienable possessors.

⁵ However, there are exceptions. For example, Broadwell (1990) points out that possessor-raising from a subject of an unergative verb is possible in Chickasaw.

⁶ Ura (1996) also points out asymmetries between alienable and inalienable possessors, but the asymmetry he discusses is different from the one I point out here. Moreover, the way he divides alienable and inalienable possessors in Japanese differs from the dichotomy I propose here: he treats kinship as inalienable relation, whereas in my data kinship possessors behave more like alienable possessors (i.e., they don't directly feed into A-bar movement). See Ishizuka (in progress) about asymmetries between alienable and inalienable possessors.

⁷ (7-b) was included in the questionnaire reported in fn.3. The mean score was [1.44] out of 5, thus unacceptable to many speakers.

A difficulty in analyzing Japanese relatives is that the relativized head does not retain the original case, instead carrying the case determined in the matrix clause: neither double-marking of structural case (e.g., *NP-acc-nom) nor stranding of case in the extraction site is possible in Japanese. This property obscures the source of the relative head. In fact, relative clauses like (7) are alleged to lack a gap corresponding to the head noun and have been taken as a piece of evidence for the base-generation approach (Murasugi 2000).

- (8) a. [[Musuko-ga [syuusyoku-ga muzukasi-i] bunya]-ni susun-da.
 son-NOM getting.a.job-NOM difficult-PRES field-DAT join-PAST
'The son joined the field in which getting a job is difficult.'
- b. [Sakana-ga yak-e-ru] nioi
 fish-NOM grill-MID-PRES smell
 \approx_{DP} *'the smell when the fish is grilled'*

However, similar to the ideas pursued by Teramura (1982) and Kameshima (1989), I analyze (7-a) and (7-b) as instances of relativizing adjuncts as indicated in the English translations.

Another difficulty in analyzing Japanese relatives is the presence of *pro*. It is not easy to identify whether a gap is a *pro* or a trace created by movement. In fact, a relative clause can contain two gaps, a trace and a *pro*, yielding sentences like (9-a). The subject of (9-a) can be further relativized, yielding (9-b).

- (9) a. Sono syoonen_i-ga [[*pro*_i kinoo ~~huku-o~~ ki-ta] huku]-o kyoo arat-ta.
 that boy-NOM he yesterday wear-PAST clothes-ACC today wash-PAST
'That boy washed the [clothes [that he wore yesterday]] today.'
- b. [_{RC1} syoonen_i-ga [[_{RC2} *pro*_i kinoo ~~huku-o~~ kita] huku]-o kyoo arat-ta] syoonen_i
 he yesterday wear-PAST clothes-ACC today wash-PAST boy
 $_{DP}$ *'the boy who_i washed the [clothes [that he_i wore yesterday]] today'*

The only reason we know that the subject gap inside the relative island in (9-b) is not the source of the relativized head 'boy' is because there is a subject gap corresponding to the head noun in the outer relative.

The next section discusses one non-movement-like property of Japanese relative constructions: apparent violation of the CNPC.

3. Apparent violation of the CNPC

Japanese is alleged to allow violation of the CNPC. However, the distribution of such cases is quite restricted (cf. (3)). Inoue (1976) and Hasegawa (1981) propose the following descriptive generalizations:

(10) Inoue—Hasegawa's conditions (modified):

The relativization of a phrase in a relative clause is allowed, if

- (i) the relativized NP is the subject of the inner relative
- (ii) the head of the inner relative serves as the subject of the outer relative

Inoue-Hasegawa's generalizations capture the grammaticality of many sentences, including ones like (3), which is an instance of long relativization of an object out of the inner relative clause; and (11), where an inner relative clause modifies the object in the outer relative clause.

- (11) *[Inu-ga [[~~kodomo-ga e-o~~ kai-ta] e]-o yabut-ta] kodomo]-ga nai-ta.
 dog-NOM draw-PAST picture-ACC rip-PAST child-NOM cry-PAST
Int. 'The [child_i who the dog ripped the [picture_j which (he_i) drew t_j]] cried.'

The ill-formedness of (11) is not due to a temporary ambiguity of processing *dog* as a subject of the embedded verb 'drew,' since scrambling the relativized object before *dog* does not make (11) well-formed.

The analytical question is why Inoue-Hasegawa's generalizations should hold. This is not an easy question; as far as I know, no accounts have been proposed to explain this distribution. If (1-a), repeated

(12) a. [_{RC1} [sin-si-ga huku-o ki-tei-ru] huku-ga yogo-re-tei-ru] sin-si
wear-ASP-PRES clothes-NOM dirty-MID-ASP-PRES gentleman
Lit. DP ‘the gentleman_i who the clothes_j that (he)_i is wearing t_j are dirty’

b. [_{RC1} huku-ga yogo-re-tei-ru] sin-si
clothes-NOM dirty-MID-ASP-PRES gentleman
Lit. DP ‘the gentleman who the clothes are dirty’

The second generalization in Inoue-Hasegawa's conditions is also puzzling. Why does the inner relative need to modify a subject? This is not a restriction on short relativization, as shown in (13):

- In (13), the relative clause modifies the object of the matrix clause, *e* 'picture', and the sentence is well-formed. The asymmetry between short and long relativizations is something that needs to be accounted for.

(14) [_{RC1} **sinsi-ga** [_{DP} **sinsi-no** [_{RC2} *pro*_i ~~**huku-o**~~ Kiteiru] **huku**]-ga **yog-ore-tei-ru** **sinsi**_i
he is.wearing clothes-NOM dirty-MID-ASP-PRES gentleman
Lit. _{DP} ‘the [gentleman who_i *t*_i the [clothes that *he*_i is wearing] are dirty]’

4. New generalizations with respect to apparent violation of the CNPC

Although Inoue-Hasegawa’s conditions capture many sentences that seemingly violate the CNPC, they turn out to be incomplete. This section introduces three novel observations that give counter-examples to Inoue-Hasegawa’s generalizations and motivate the proposed possessor-raising analysis.

4.1. *Pro*-like distribution of the gap inside the relative island

Subject-object asymmetries regarding embedded *pro* have been well-documented in the literature: embedded object *pro* cannot be bound by the matrix argument in many languages including Japanese, Chinese, Korean, and Brazilian Portuguese (see Huang 1984, Hasegawa 1981, and Kuroda 1965). The following examples are adopted from Hasegawa (1981:290):

- (15) a. John_i-ga [*pro*_{i/j} Mary-o nagut-ta-to] it-ta.
 John-NOM *he* Mary-ACC hit-PAST-C say-PAST
 ‘John_i said that *he*_{i/j} hit Mary.’
- b. John_i-ga [Mary-ga *pro*_{?*i/j} nagut-ta-to] it-ta.
 John-NOM Mary-NOM *him* hit-PAST-C say-PAST
 ‘John_i said that Mary hit *him*_{?*i/j}.’

In (15-a), the subject *pro* in the embedded clause can be bound by the matrix subject *John*, as index *i* indicates. It can also refer to another person identifiable in the discourse, which is indicated by index *j*. On the other hand, (15-b) shows that the object *pro* cannot be bound by the matrix subject, even though it can refer to someone previously mentioned in the discourse (see Huang 1984 for more on this topic).

The new observation is that adding a compound verbal *kure-ru* ‘give (from a receiver’s perspective)’ to the gerundive embedded verb allows object *pro* to be bound by the matrix subject, as illustrated in (16):

- (16) John_i-ga [Mary-ga *pro*_{i/j} nagut-te kure-ta-to] it-ta.
 John-NOM Mary-NOM *him* hit-GER give-PAST-C say-PAST
 ≈ ‘John_i said that Mary gave (*him*_i the favor of) hitting *him*_{i/j}.’

In (16), the embedded object *pro* may be bound by the matrix subject *John* or somebody else identifiable from context (e.g., *John’s son*).

What is this compound verbal, *kure-ru*? According to Kuno (1973:29),

“action verbs are often followed by *yar-u* ‘give’ and *kure-ru* ‘give (to the speaker)’. In the former compounds, the actions represented by the main verbs are understood to be a favor given by the subjects. In the latter, actions represented by the main verbs are understood to be a favor received by the speaker.”

The following examples are taken from Kuno (1973:29)

- (17) a. John-ga Mary-ni hon-o yon-de yar-u.
 John-NOM Mary-DAT book-ACC read-GER give-PRES
 ≈ ‘John gives Mary (the favor of) reading a book.’
- b. John-ga hon-o yon-de kure-ru.
 John-NOM book-ACC read-GER give-PRES
 ≈ ‘John gives (me the favor of) reading a book.’

This distinction between *yar-u* ‘give’ and *kure-ru* ‘give (to the speaker)’ is similar to the distinctions between *come* vs. *go* or *take* vs. *bring* in English.

Setting aside the analysis of how *kure-ru* allows object *pro* to be bound by a matrix subject, what is interesting is that the above distribution of embedded *pro* is exactly the same as that of the gap inside the relative island. Namely, object gap inside the relative island can refer to the relativized NP if *kure-ru* is added to the embedded verb. In other words, contra Inoue-Hasegawa’s generalization, the presence of *kure-ru* ‘give’ allows apparent long relativization of the object (e.g., *inu* ‘dog’ in (18)), as shown below:

- (18) [_{RC1} ~~inu_j-ga~~ [_{RC2} ~~inu_j-no~~ [_{RC2} ~~kainusi_i-ga~~ *pro*_j kawaigat-*(te-kure)-ta] kainusi_i]-ga sinde-simat-ta]
 it nurture-GER-give-PAST owner-NOM die-PERF-PAST
 inu_j-wa byooki-ni nat-ta.
 dog-TOP sick-DAT become-PAST
 Lit. ‘The [dog_j [that the owner who { *nurtured *t_j* / gave (it the favor of) nurturing *t_j* } died]] became sick.’

Without *kure-ru* ‘give’, the sentence is much degraded. This is not the case with short relativization of an object; short relativization of an object is always possible regardless of the presence of *kure-ru*:

- (19) [kainusi-ga ~~inu-o~~ kawaigat-(te-kure)-ta] inu
 owner-NOM nurture-GER-give-PAST dog
Lit. DP ‘the dog_i that the owner {has nurtured t_i/ gave (it_i the favor of) nurturing t_i}’

Neither the embedded object *pro* nor the gap inside the relative island may be bound by the matrix subject, unlike their subject counterparts. Further, they both show sensitivity to the presence of the compound verbal *kure-ru*: thus, I conclude that the gap inside the relative island is a *pro* but not a trace (i.e., the source of the relativized NP). This straightforwardly accounts for the first generalization (10-i) of Inoue-Hasegawa’s conditions: it looks as if only the subject of a relative clause can be relativized, but this is just the distributional property of the embedded *pro*. Object *pro* in general cannot be bound by the matrix argument (unless the compound verbal *kureru* is added to the embedded verb).

4.2. Genitive relationship between two relative heads

The second new observation is that not only the structural position of the two relativized heads, but also the thematic relation between them plays a determining role in well-formedness of the sentence, as illustrated in the following examples:

- (20) a. [_{t_i} [_{pro_i} t_j aishiteru] musuko_j-ga obore-ta] titioya_i]-wa isoi-de umi-ni tobi-kon-da.
 have.loved son-NOM drown-PAST father-TOP hurry-GER sea-DAT jump-into-PAST
Lit. ‘The [father who_i the [son who_j (he_i) loves] drowned] jumped quickly into the sea.’
- b. *[_{t_i} [_{pro_i} t_j hajimete mita] inu_j-ga obore-ta] sinsi_i]-wa isoi-de umi-ni tobi-kon-da.
 first.time saw dog-NOM drown-PAST man-TOP hurry-GER sea-DAT jump-into-PAST
Int. ‘The [gentleman who_i the [dog which_j (he_i) saw for the first time] drowned] jumped quickly into the sea.’
- c. *[_{t_i} [_{pro_i} t_j sira-naï] syoonen_j-ga obore-ta] sinsi_i]-wa isoi-de umi-ni tobi-kon-da.
 know-NEG boy-NOM drown-PAST man-TOP hurry-GER sea-DAT jump-into-PAST
Int. ‘The [gentleman who_i the [boy who (he_i) didn’t know] drowned] jumped quickly into the sea.’

These three examples have the syntactic structure meeting Inoue-Hasegawa’s generalizations: the two relativized heads in each of the examples are the subject of the inner relative and the subject of the outer relative respectively. Yet there is a sharp contrast in terms of well-formedness: (20-a) is well-formed, whereas (20-b) and (20-c) are not.⁸ The crucial difference between (20-a) and (20-b,c) is that the two relativized heads in the former sentence stand in a genitive relationship (i.e., *father-no son* ‘father HAVE son’), while those in the latter two sentences do not (i.e., *#gentleman-no dog* ‘gentleman HAVE dog’, *#gentleman-no boy* ‘gentleman HAVE boy’). In (20-b) and (20-c), the predicate in the inner relative clause makes it clear that there is no prior relation between the gentleman and the dog/boy, thus it is difficult to license a genitive relationship to them. The new generalization here is that the two relativized heads have to stand in a genitive relation (loosely speaking, a possessive relationship), crucially with the head of the outer relative being a possessor, and the head of the inner relative being a possessee.⁹

4.3. Restriction on predicate types

⁸ (20-a) and (20-c) were also included as fillers in the questionnaire mentioned in fn. 3. The mean score of (20-a) was [3.59] and that of (20-c) was [1.67]. Note that the ungrammaticality of (20-c) is not due to the negation contained in the inner relative (cf. (2-b)). (20-b) does not contain a negation but is also ill-formed.

⁹ This is not a bijective relation. The two relativized heads have to stand in a possessive relation that can be independently expressed as ‘DP-no NP’ for this type of sentence to be acceptable. Nevertheless, not all the possessors in the ‘DP-no NP’ frame can serve as relativized heads of this type of construction. In Ishizuka (2008, in progress) I analyze the possessor marker *-no*, which is usually taken as a genitive case marker, as a D introducing a reduced relative clause with a primitive silent predicate. The possessors that can undergo relativization are restrictive ones but not non-restrictive ones, such as *singer-NO Naomi* ‘Naomi, who is a singer.’

¹⁰ Nevertheless, there seem to be interspeaker variabilities in terms of acceptability of the MNC with transitive and unergative predicates; this is not surprising given that possessor raising constructions in Romance languages show a considerable amount of interspeaker variability (Vergnaud & Zubizarreta 1992, among others). Ura (1996) reports that the MNC is compatible with any type of predicate (but this seems to be incompatible with the questionnaire results reported in fn. 11). On the other hand, Kuroda (1986) argues that the MNC is only compatible with statives, which are a subset of *be*-type predicates. Statives do not include passives; see Kuroda (1986:272) for his definition of stativity. It might be the case that speakers like Ura allow possessor-raising out of an external argument; in that case, we would expect those speakers to accept all the related constructions in which possessor raising underlies the derivation.

(23) New generalizations regarding apparent violation of the CNPC:

- (i) The two relativized heads stand in a genitive relation, with the outer relative head being a possessor and the inner relative head being a possessee.
- (ii) The predicate of the outer clause must be a *be-type* predicate.

4. Proposal: when possessor raising feeds into relativization

(25) Generalizations regarding the MNC

- (i) The two nominative DPs must stand in a genitive relation, with the first DP being a possessor and the following one being a possessee.
- (ii) The predicate is restricted to a *be-type* predicate.

¹² Due to space limitations, I am unable to highlight the differences between the proposed analysis and the previous analyses proposed for the MNC. The well-adopted analysis is the base-generation approach, where the major subject is

One question that might arise is why the MNC is incompatible with the *transitive* predicate. In other words, why is possessor raising not possible from the internal argument of the transitive predicate? This is due to the A-position landing site of the possessor. Let me illustrate this point with examples from Kuno (1970:70):

(26) a. **Transitive predicate**

*John_i-ga sensei-ga [_{t_i} kodomo]-o sikat-ta.
 John-NOM teacher-NOM child-ACC scold-PAST
 'John, the teacher scolded (his) child.'

b. **Passive predicate**

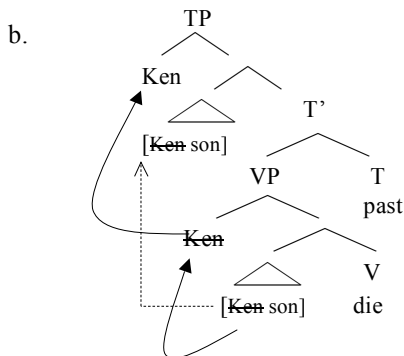
John_i-ga [_{t_i} kodomo]-ga sensei-ni sikar-are-ta.
 John-NOM child-NOM teacher-DAT scold-PASS-PAST
 'John, (his) child was scolded by the teacher.'

Both (26-a) and (26-b) denote the same event about *John's child*. The intended derivation is that *John* is merged as a possessor of the internal argument *child* and raises to the nominative position in both cases. However, only (26-a) is well-formed. This is because the movement to the nominative position is A-movement: no A-position can intervene because of relativized minimality. In (26-a) the external argument *teacher* intervenes. Therefore, the MNC is incompatible with transitives, which license an intervening external argument. This leaves accounting for the incompatibility of the MNC with the unergative predicate. Relativized minimality does not explain why possessor raising is not possible from external arguments. How can we make sense of this restriction?

Based on possessive dative data in Hebrew and Romance languages, Landau (1999:10) proposes that possessor raising is case-driven and only possible from internal arguments because the available A-position for the external possessor is low, i.e., the dative case position. The derivation Landau proposes takes the following steps: (i) a possessor is generated with dative case features in a case-less Spec position within the possessee; (ii) the possessor then raises to check its case features with V (Landau, 1999:9). Nevertheless, the Japanese facts show that regardless of the A-position landing site (nominative in Japanese), extraction of a possessor is only possible from (underlying) internal arguments. Therefore, Landau's proposal does not account for the incompatibility with the unergative predicate in the MNC in Japanese.

My working hypothesis is that extraction of a possessor requires an escape hatch for the possessor to locally bind its trace and make the extraction licit. The escape hatch is located at the edge of VP (Spec,VP in (27-b)) hence is not accessible by the possessor of an external argument. The derivation of the MNC I propose is a case-driven possessor raising analysis similar to the one proposed by Landau (1999) for possessive datives. The derivation of (27) is given below:

(27) a. Ken-ga musuko-ga sin-da.
 Ken-NOM son-NOM die-PAST
 Lit: 'Ken, his son died.'



The derivation of the MNC involves the following steps:

- The possessor *Ken* is generated with nominative case features in a case-less Spec position within the possessee *son*.
- An unaccusative predicate *die* is merged.
- The possessor moves to Spec,VP, an escape hatch located at the edge of VP.
- Tense projection is merged and both the possessor *Ken* and the remnant possessive DP raise to check their nominative case features with T respectively (multiple agree in Hiraiwa's sense (2001)).

licensed through syntactic predication or *aboutness* relation with the rest of the clause (e.g., Saito 1982, Heycock 1993, Vermeulen 2005), but it does not account for the restriction to *be*-type predicates. Possessor-raising analyses have also been proposed (e.g., Kuno 1973, Fukuda 1991, and Tateishi 1994), but they uniformly assume possessor raising out of the surface subject and fail to account for the restriction on the predicate type reported here.

Keeping the proposed derivation for the MNC in mind, let us return to the apparent violation of the CNPC. The proposed structure and derivation are presented below:

- b. **The derivation** (Japanese words are rendered in English):
- The object *clothes* is relativized, forming the relativized NP *clothes that (he) is wearing*.
 - The possessor *gentleman* is merged with the relativized NP *clothes that (he) is wearing*, forming a possessive DP *gentleman's clothes that (he) is wearing*.
 - The outer predicate *are dirty* is merged with the possessive DP.
 - Possessor-raising takes place, yielding the MNC (following the steps given in (27-b)).
 - The major subject *gentleman* is relativized, deriving the apparent violation of the CNPC.

5. Conclusion

The proposed analysis likens Japanese to many other languages in terms of relativization as well as conditions on possessor raising. First, sentences that are alleged to violate the CNPC are no longer a threat to the movement approach to Japanese relativization. In fact, the paper adds more evidence in favor of the movement approach, such that (i) Japanese relativization is in fact subject to the CNPC and (ii) the gap created by short relativization does not show the distribution of the embedded *pro*. Second, the fact that possessor raising is restricted to *be-type* predicates means that possessor raising in Japanese is also only possible from (underlying) internal arguments, contrary to the widely-acknowledged view that Japanese allows possessor raising from surface subjects (Ura 1996, among others).

References

- Baker, M. C. 1988. *Incorporation: a theory of grammatical function changing*. Univ. of Chicago Press.
- Belletti, A. and L. Rizzi. 1981. Psych-verbs and theta-theory, *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory*, 6, 3, 291-352.
- Broadwell, G.A. 1990. Extending the binding theory: A Muskogean case study, Doctoral dissertation, UCLA.
- Chomsky, N. 2000. Minimalist inquiries: the framework. (eds.) R. Martin, D. Michaels & J. Uriagereka. *Step by Step: Essays on Minimalist Syntax in Honor of Howard Lasnik*. 89—155. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. 2001. Derivation by phase. (ed.) Kenstowicz, M. *Ken Hale: a life in language*. 1-52, Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- Fukuda, M. 1991. A movement approach to multiple subject constructions in Japanese. *Journal of Japanese Linguistics* 13:21-51.
- Fukui, N., and Y. Takano. 2000. Nominal structure: An extension of the symmetry principle. (ed.) Svenonius, P. *The derivation of VO and OV*. 219-254. Amsterdam ; Philadelphia : J. Benjamins
- Han, C., and Kim, J.B. 2004. Are there ‘double relative clauses’ in Korean? *Linguistic Inquiry* 35:315-337.
- Hasegawa, N. 1981. A lexical interpretive theory with emphasis on the role of subject.
- Heycock, C. 1993. Syntactic predication in Japanese. *Journal of East Asian Linguistics* 2:167-211.
- Hiraiwa, K. 2001. Multiple agree and the defective intervention constraint in Japanese. *MIT Working Papers in Linguistics* 40:67-80.
- Hoshi, K. 2004. Parametrization of the external D-system in relativization. *Language, Culture and Communication* 33:1-50.
- Huang, C. T. J. 1984. On the distribution and reference of empty pronouns. *Linguistic Inquiry* 15:531-574.
- Inoue, K. 1976. *Henkei-Bunpou to Nihongo*. Tokyo: Taishukan.
- Ishii, Y. 1991. Operators and empty categories in Japanese. Doctoral Dissertation, Univ. of Connecticut.
- Ishizuka, T. 2008. Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses in Japanese: antisymmetric approach. ms., UCLA.
- Ishizuka, T. in progress. Possessor raising constructions in Japanese. Doctoral dissertation. UCLA.
- Kameshima, N. 1989. The syntax of restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses in Japanese. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, MI.
- Keenan, E.L. 1985. Relative clauses. *Language Typology and Syntactic Description* vol.2. 141-170. Cambridge University Press.
- Kuno, S. 1973. *The structure of the Japanese language*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- Kuroda, S.Y. 1965. Generative grammatical studies in the Japanese language. PhD. Doctoral Dissertation.
- Kuroda, S.Y. 1986. Movement of noun phrases in Japanese, volume 229272. Walter de Gruyter & Co.
- Landau, I. 1999. Possessor raising and the structure of VP. *Lingua* 107:1-37.
- Massam, D. 1985. Case theory and the projection principle. Doctoral Dissertation. MIT. Cambridge, MA
- Murasugi, K. 2000. An antisymmetry analysis of Japanese relative clauses. *The Syntax of Relative Clauses* 231-263. (ed.) Alexiadou, A. John Benjamins Publishing Company
- Perlmutter, D.M. 1972. Evidence for shadow pronouns in French relativization. 73-105. Chicago Linguistic Society.
- Ross, J.R. 1967. Constraints on variables in syntax. Doctoral Dissertation, MIT. Cambridge, MA.
- Saito, M. 1982. Case marking in Japanese: a preliminary study. ms., MIT.
- Sakai, H. 1994. Complex NP constraint and case-conversions in Japanese. *Current topics in English and Japanese* 179-200.
- Takezawa, K. 1987. A configurational approach to case-marking in Japanese. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Washington.
- Tateishi, K. 1994. *The Syntax of ‘Subjects.’* vol.3. CSLI Publications and Kuroshio Publishers.
- Teramura, H. 1982. *Nihongo-no Sintakusu-to Imi (Japanese Syntax and Meaning)*. vol.3. Tokyo: Kuroshio.
- Ura, H. 1994. Multiple feature-checking: a theory of grammatical function splitting. Doctoral dissertation, MIT, Cambridge, Mass.
- Vergnaud, J.R. and Zubizarreta, M.L. 1992. The definite determiner and the inalienable constructions in French and in English, *Linguistic Inquiry*. 595-652
- Vermeulen, R. 2005. The syntax of external possession: its basis in theta-theory. Doctoral dissertation, University College London, London