

1 The representation of syntactic action at a distance

2

3 Abstract

4 It is a common understanding that Merge effectively explains the preponderance of
5 displacement in language. That is, at least since Chomsky 2001, the mechanism that
6 captures displacement (Internal Merge) has been recognized as something that
7 comes 'for free' along with Merge. However, the particular representation of that
8 displacement has been subject to disagreement with some researchers assuming a
9 copy-theoretic view and others a multidominance view. In this paper I show that
10 previous means of adjudicating between the two do not succeed and present two
11 novel means of distinguishing them. The previous arguments comparing the two
12 representations fail on one of two counts. They either 1) rely on interface-dependent
13 notions about which too little is known to be used to distinguish the two or 2) depend
14 on issues of mathematical power that are not a priori relevant. The new arguments
15 presented here rely on syntax-internal notions and interface notions that are on more
16 solid empirical footing. The results of these clearer means of adjudication work out
17 in favor of the copy theory over multidominance.

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19 Keywords: movement, copy theory, multidominance

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1 1 Introduction

2 Displacement is of course ubiquitous in human language. Linguistic elements are
3 often expressed in positions temporally distal from the words that they are most
4 closely associated with in meaning. In short, meaning does not always
5 straightforwardly follow form. A simple case of this can be seen in the English
6 topicalization construction in (1). Here, *carrots* appears apart from the verb *like*
7 despite sharing a close intuitive relation with that verb.

8
9 (1) Carrots, I like.

10
11 But to note that displacement is commonplace is to use a loaded term: it
12 suggests evacuation from a proper or unmarked original position. This is not
13 obviously the case and must instead be argued for. The stance implicit in the term
14 was most famously posited by Chomsky (1955,1957) when he first argued for a
15 transformational grammar for human language. He captured the intuitive relation of
16 *carrots* and *like* in (1) by doing a simple thing: he put them together. In less glib
17 terms, Chomsky posited there is a representation causally related to (1) in which the
18 two relevant terms in fact *were* right next to each other and comprised a unit unto
19 themselves. This related representation is baldly sketched in (2) below.

20
21 (2) I like carrots.

22
23 As is well known, Chomsky argued for a transformational relation between (1)
24 and (2) not out of brute necessity, but out of a drive for a more enlightening
25 explanatory theory.¹ He contended that non-transformational approaches were

¹ Chomsky clearly states that non-transformational accounts of the sentence in (1) are possible and indeed entire productive schools of thought have taken this other route (Johnson and Postal

1 certainly powerful enough to capture displacement effects, but that they did so in a
2 theoretically unexplanatory fashion. He saw transformations as a promising first step
3 towards a more concise theory of displacement.

4 But the mere adoption of transformations is no exercise in etiology. It does
5 nothing to shed light on *why* the effects of displacement arise in the first place. Once
6 such concerns came to the fore (Chomsky 1993,1995), transformations and the
7 displacement they effect became a source of puzzlement (see Chomsky 1997). Why
8 should there be displacement when the semantic effects in question could have
9 been taken care of in situ? Why should we expect displacement in the first place?

10 This puzzlement was relatively short-lived. It became clear that a distinct
11 displacement operation could be reinterpreted as the anodyne result of the basic
12 means of combining two linguistic elements in the first place: Merge (Chomsky
13 1995). Under this view, displacement is not a surprise but an expectation.² Simply
14 put: if there is an operation merge that can take two elements and combine them
15 and the result can in turn be input to that same operation, then it would take a
16 stipulation to the contrary to rule out combining an element with a sub-part of itself. If
17 merge can take A and B to create C as in (3) and C is an object that is subject to the
18 same operation that created it, we should expect it to be able to take B and C to
19 make D as in (4).

20
21 (3) Merge(A,B) → _c[A B]

1980, Gazdar, Klein, Pullum, and Sag 1985, Pollard and Sag 1994, Bresnan 2001, etc.). In this paper I take transformational grammar as a premise. In particular, I take Merge as an explanation of displacement as a premise (cf. Neeleman and van De Koot 2010)

² As a reviewer notes, this cannot be the whole story. In contemporary theory, something is required to spur the internal merge to begin with (say a feature of some type). Without such motivation, the effects of internal merge would never be apparent.

1 (4) Merge(B,C) → _o[B _c[A B]]

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3 In (4) we find our elusive displacement arising without special theoretical
4 dispensation. There is a representation of B that is structurally distant from its
5 original location and depending on when an operation like that in (4) occurs, a
6 representation of B could end up very far from its original position indeed.

7 This is an important step forward, but the representation in (4) obscures a
8 deep resultant puzzle. There is still a sense in which merge fails to fully account for
9 displacement phenomena. In (4) there are two instances of B equally represented.
10 This parity of representation is clearly not the case in most instances of
11 displacement. For instance, in (1) there is only one overtly instantiated instance of
12 *carrots*. There needs to be some explanation of how we go from two instances of
13 *carrots* at some level of representation to one instance of *carrots* in another.

14 There are two logically possible explanations. We must either treat positions
15 or elements in positions differently. One option, there are two instances of *carrots*
16 and the lower, original instance is somehow rendered phonologically null. Another
17 option, there is truly only one instance of *carrots* and it is expressed in its most
18 recently derived position. Both of these options have been pursued in the past and I
19 attempt to arbitrate between them here.

20 The driving question is, in other words, what is the result of undergoing merge
21 twice? Does it result in two objects in their own position or one object in two
22 positions? In this paper I argue that displacement via merge results in two objects
23 each in their own position. Merge does not result in a single token in multiple
24 positions.

1 Much like Chomsky's original argument in favor of transformations, arguing
2 for this position relies on theoretical concerns as well as the ability for the theory to
3 capture the data in enlightening ways. Basic empirical facts and issues of formal
4 capacity are not suited to adjudicate the two options. Both approaches equally
5 capture the basic empirical facts in principle and differences in their formal power are
6 not clearly conclusive. Instead, it is the shape the theory necessary to account for
7 the facts that will be dispositive. The theory in which there are two copies of a
8 moving element is able to account for certain empirical matters in a more
9 enlightening manner. Before getting into this, I discuss in the next section the basic
10 background to this particular issue.

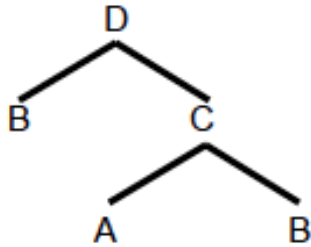
11 12 2 The issue

13 As introduced above, the theoretical advantage of Merge (explaining the ubiquity of
14 displacement) concerns its application to a term that has already been subject to it.
15 The result of this second merge *is* the displacement. So much is clear and in this
16 section I lay out the ways this can be represented.

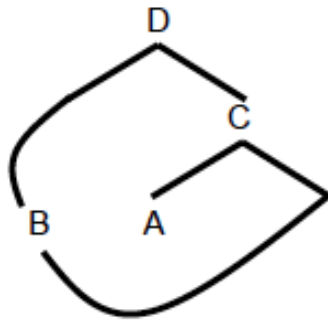
17 There are two logically possible ways of representing the way in which Merge
18 effects displacement. It can create an entirely new term in what is commonly called
19 the Copy Theory of Movement (CTM) and is discussed in Chomsky 1995 and Nunes
20 2001,2004 among others. This is sketched in (5) below. The other logical possibility
21 is that no new instance of the moving element is created, but rather the displaced
22 element is introduced into a new position without vacating its old one. This is
23 represented in (6) below and represents Multidominance (MD) accounts as
24 discussed by a large number of researchers including Epstein et al. 1998, Starke
25 2001, and Gärtner 2002 among others for simple, 'upward' movement. In (5) we find

two distinct instances of the displaced element whereas in (6) we find essentially the same structural relations represented using but one instance of the element in question.

(5)



(6)



The issue at hand is: does (5) or does (6) better represent displacement?

Does displacement in the form of re-merge result multidominance or copies?

The answer to these questions will have repercussions elsewhere. The obvious import of the answer lies in the fact that the merge-based explanation of displacement is one of the major theoretical innovations of modern syntactic theory and answering the above questions will of course be inherently important for that very reason. Additionally, the choice between the two representations will be practically important in terms of the demands that the competing representations make on other parts of the grammar. CTM and MD each require different things of

1 the interfaces and opting for one representation over another forces the interfaces to
2 have certain properties.

3 Also, in attempting to answer the questions above, I note that comparing the
4 resultant shape of the interfaces given one representation or the other is not on its
5 own a viable means to adjudicate between them. Too little is known about the nature
6 of the interfaces to make a convincing principled comparison. This is especially true
7 given the seeming scant empirical means to distinguish the two approaches in the
8 first place. Instead, adjudication between the two must take one of two forms. One, it
9 must be shown that one representation requires a theoretical impossibility, not
10 merely something ungainly. Here I show that MD analyses require that Merge not
11 operate over terms, but rather positions, which is not possible if one assumes a
12 Merge approach to structure building. Two, it must be shown that, given empirically
13 established interface effects, one approach cannot capture a paradigm without
14 recourse to ad hoc stipulation. Here I argue that (anti-)reconstruction effects show
15 that sometimes scattered interpretations of the displaced element are necessary and
16 that MD accounts cannot handle this. Without arguments like these, our
17 understanding of the interfaces on their own is too rudimentary at this point to serve
18 as a means of arbitration. In section 4 I provide an instance of each type of
19 argument.

20 Finally, In addition to the authors cited above who focus their attention on
21 ‘upward’ MD displacement that results in c-command, there is an even larger
22 number of researchers who focus on MD that works akin to the sideward
23 movement of Nunes 2001,2004. That is, MD where the two positions of the
24 element are not in a c-command relation to each other. These works include but

are not limited to McCawley 1982, Ojeda 1987, Blevins 1990, Wilder 1999, Guimarães 2004, Chung 2004, Citko 2005, de Vries 2005, van Riemsdijk 2006, Chen–Main 2006, Gracanin–Yuksek 2007, Bachrach & Katzir 2009, and Citko 2011. In this article I focus solely on ‘upward’ displacement and do not attempt to distinguish copy-theoretic sideward movement and sideward MD. It is already non-trivial to distinguish CTM from MD in terms of upward movement. Doing the same for sideward movement is beyond the powers of this researcher. Furthermore, the existence of sideward MD is predicated on the existence of upward MD. If the latter does not exist, then neither does the former.

In the next section I rehearse the well-known interface requirements of the competing representations and contend their differences are not dispositive.

3 How not to adjudicate

In this section I will discuss differences between the two approaches but contend that these differences are in principle incapable of adjudicating between the two in any rigorous sense. First I discuss how interface mechanisms deal with the two approaches. Second I discuss the differences in computation power required by the two approaches. The interface mechanisms that each approach requires are different, but these differences hold at a level of representation where there is little firm methodological footing. The differences in power, while provable are not necessarily relevant as has been shown repeatedly in the past.

3.1 Interface mechanisms

Let us recall what displacement effects. For both approaches, CTM and MD, displacement results in two (or more) separate yet derivationally related structural

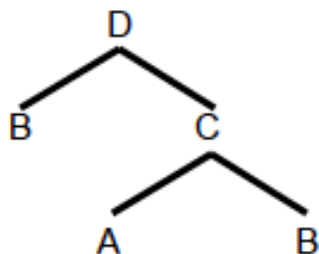
positions that each have pronounceable material in them. However, for each of these approaches, only one of the related structural positions ends up being the one with something pronounced in it. The challenge for CTM and MD is to capture how it comes to be the case that only one position has the privilege of pronunciation.

Similarly, for both approaches the same two (or more) positions wind up with semantically interpretable material in them. Moreover, the semantically interpretable material in these positions identical as far as Merge is concerned. Merge does not alter the semantics of that which it works over. The challenge for CTM and MD here is that these two positions must somehow be distinguished semantically given the obvious fact that displaced elements frequently serve distinct semantic purposes in their distinct positions.

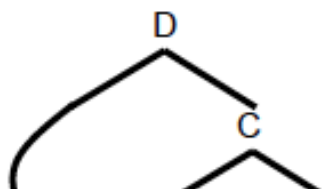
The challenges that the approaches face are extremely similar to one another. Any interface mechanism that would interpret a CTM structure will need to differentially interpret derivationally related *terms* (the atoms that comprise syntactic expressions). Any interface mechanism that would interpret a MD structure will need to differentially interpret derivationally related *positions* (the location of the term in an expression).

To see how this is achieved in action, take the toy cases in (7) below:

(7) a.



b.



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7 A descriptively adequate interpretive mechanism for (7a) would need both a

8 means and a motivation to disregard the lower instance of term B as far as the

9 pronunciation is concerned. One well worked-out approach can be found in Nunes

10 2001,2004. This work posits that that pronunciation is determined by the number of

11 checked features on a copy. In English, the highest copy is generally going to be the

12 one with the most checked features and as such it will be spelled out. Crucially, this

13 requires a mechanism that cannot allow the pronunciation of unchecked features.

14 In a toy example, the reasoning works as follows. A wh-word with an

15 uninterpretable feature is merged a second time into the spec,CP position where that

16 feature is rendered interpretable. This is shown in (8a). The idea in Nunes's system

17 is that the copies with uninterpretable features cannot be pronounced. This demands

18 that the lower copy not be pronounced, as seen in (8b).

19

20 (8) a. What_F did Becky see what_{uF}

21 b. What_F did Becky see ~~what_{uF}~~

22

23 This basic approach is what is demanded by CTM theories. They require

24 some means of distinguishing copies of the moved element.

25 For MD, the interface mechanism needs to be able to distinguish the

26 structurally lower position of B from its higher one and ignore it. Kural 2005 as well

1 as de Vries 2009 posit a means to achieve this goal via ‘graph traversal’, a common
2 type of algorithm from computer science. Under this approach the sketch in (7b)
3 (interpreted as derived graph) is traced by an algorithm that determines the linear
4 order of the terminals based on which ones were encountered first. In the case of
5 wh-movement in English, the tree traversal algorithm would, by stipulation, hit upon
6 B in its higher position prior to any other. Crucially, this requires a mechanism must
7 somehow know to ignore that lower position of B in terms of pronunciation (B is
8 somehow marked as already pronounced upon each subsequent encounter along
9 the traversal.).

10 To see how this would work, let’s take the same simply example from (8)
11 above. An example of a simple tree traversal algorithm would be one in which the
12 parser starts at the root node and, for example, investigates left branches before
13 exploring right branches. If the parser hits upon a terminal node, it will spell it out.
14 Once it hits a terminal node, it will retrace its steps until it gets to a node with a right
15 branch, in which case it will explore that path.

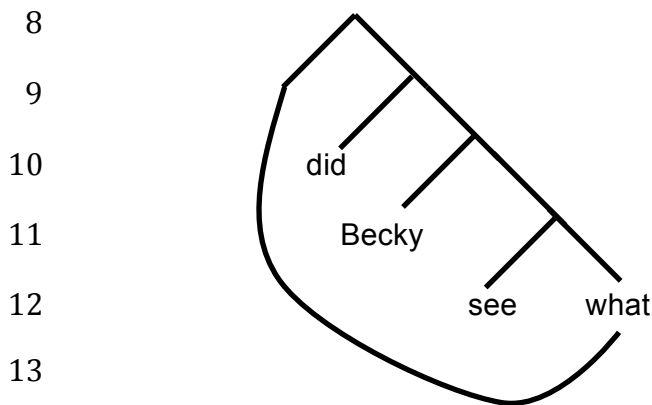
16 For the tree in (9a), starting at the root and exploring the left branch leads the
17 parser to terminal node ‘what’. It then spells out that node, as shown in (9b). Having
18 reached a terminal node, the parser retraces it steps up one node (which happens to
19 be the root). Here it explores the right branch from the root node. Dropping down a
20 node, it explores the left branch and hits upon the terminal node ‘did’, and spells it
21 out to the right of ‘what’, again shown in (9b). It does this through the rest of the tree.

22 The interesting bit arises when it hits the terminal node ‘what’ a second time.
23 We do not want the parser to spell out this node again, so a constraint is placed on
24 the parser. A simple means of excluding this second ‘what’ is proposed in Frampton
25 2004 which effectively says that a given terminal node is irrelevant to linearization if

1 it has a parent node that dominates the local parent node. So in (9a), the lower
2 position of 'what' indeed has a parent node (the root) that dominates its local parent
3 (the node immediately dominating 'see' and 'what'. As such, that position does not
4 play a role in linearization and only the higher position is pronounced. In short, the
5 lower position is treated differently than the higher one.

6

7 (9) a.



14 b. what, did, Becky, see

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16 These two approaches are not necessarily the only possible approaches to
17 the challenge, but they are representative and embody the minimally conceptually
18 necessary characteristics of a successful approach. That is, they differentially treat
19 either a term or a position. However, we are not in a position to adjudicate between
20 CTM and MD based on a comparison of these interface strategies. Each of these
21 mechanisms does a perfectly adequate job of meeting the fundamental empirical
22 challenge, either via unchecked features or already-traversed elements,
23 pronunciation will only happen once. As such, they are indistinguishable based on
24 the basic facts.

1 There could be an argument that one type of mechanism or the other aligns
2 better with the syntactic structure that feeds it. This would take a form like: tree
3 traversal works better with MD, therefore MD. Any gesture in that direction would
4 simply be begging the question since it is exactly the nature of the syntactic structure
5 that is in question.

6 So, the basic fact that the moving element is usually only pronounced in one
7 position is not a viable venue to tackle this issue. Instead, a comparison must be
8 made based on whether one approach or the other is more plausible *as a PF-*
9 *interface mechanism*, However, there is no currently known sense in which we
10 should consider one mechanism more plausible in this sense. For example, one
11 mechanism deals in terms, the other positions. Yet, there is no independent
12 interface-based notion that compels us in either direction. Why? There is no sense in
13 which terms and not positions (or vice versa) are the natural purview of the PF-
14 interface. Perhaps in the future some notion will be developed, but as yet no such
15 thing exists. Without this prerequisite, these two approaches are equal. It appears
16 that the only realm of comparison possible is that of the empirical facts. As said
17 before, the approaches are on equal footing there.

18 The same concern holds for the meaning side of things. First let us rehearse
19 how the two approaches rise to the challenge of differential interpretation. The
20 challenge that faces the CTM account is that two terms that are non-distinct in the
21 syntax must somehow bear differing denotations at the semantic interface. Take the
22 concrete example in (10). The higher instance of *which person* must be interpreted
23 as an operator and the lower instance of it must be interpreted as a variable.

24
25 (10) Which person did you see <which person>?

1
2 Given that there are two different terms in the CTM version, it is logically
3 possible to treat them different at the LF-interface. One way of doing this has been
4 explored by Fox 2002 as well as Sauerland 2004 and has been dubbed ‘trace-
5 conversion’ (though it of course works with copies just as well as traces). This
6 proposed interface operation takes the structure implicated in (10) and converts the
7 lower version into a definite description bearing a bindable variable as shown in (11)
8 below (after λ -abstraction):

9
10 (11) Which person λx [you saw the person x]

11
12 This tactic again of course succeeds in rendering the syntactic results of CTM
13 appropriate for the semantic interpretation they require.

14 The problem of differential semantic interpretation in different positions is on
15 the surface much more difficult for MD approaches. Any approach that follows the
16 intuitions of trace conversion would require the self-same element to be interpreted
17 differentially.³

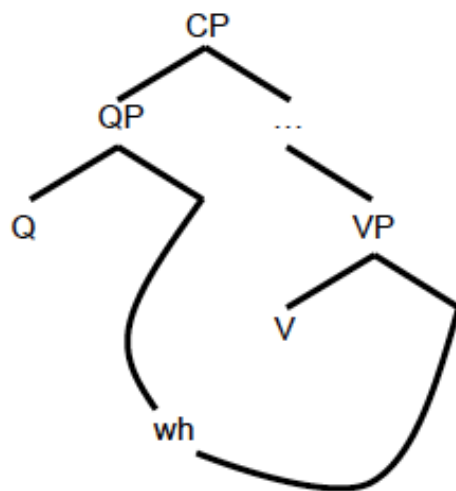
18 Johnson 2012 skirts this issue by denying that the displaced element needs
19 to be so dually interpreted. Instead he posits that the wh-phrase functions solely as
20 the variable. By analogy with the approach sketched for CTM, under Johnson’s
21 analysis the wh-phrase functions like the lower copy in (11) and something else
22 serves as the operator. The operator rule is fulfilled by a Q-head of the sort

³ This would be possible only if the element that is represented a single object in the syntax is ‘copied’ in some sense in at the LF-interface. This is of course possible, but it is not without its intuitive problems for the task at hand here. For example, as an argument for MD in the syntax, this sort of mechanism would involve some sort of inverse question begging. Instead of presuming the conclusion, it would require presuming a conclusion that does not follow from the argument. It could also be possible sub-parts of the multiply dominated element could be interpreted at different points. The degree to which this is possible for MD, it is also possible for CTM. So again, we cannot profitably distinguish the two here.

hypothesized by variety of researchers among them Hagstrom (1998), Kishimoto (2005), and Cable (2007, 2010).

Under this approach, the displaced wh-phrase does not find itself multiply dominated in its base position and spec,CP. Instead, the Q-element heads up a QP phrase in spec,CP and the wh-phrase is multiply dominated in its base position and as the complement of the QP. To clarify, this structure is given below in (12).

(12)



Again, we find two approaches that are equally well-positioned to capture the driving empirical fact: the displaced wh-phrase is involved in an operator-variable relationship. This being the case we are again in a position where it is not possible to argue for CTM or MD over one another on empirical grounds. Further, we are once again in a position where arguing for CTM or MD based on how well these approaches align with those approaches begs the question.

Given the facts as they stand here, the only legitimate way to compare CTM and MD is whether the interface-mechanisms required of these approaches are more plausible again *as LF-interface mechanisms*. The CTM approaches requires something like trace conversion and the MD version, as admitted by Johnson

1 requires “a theory of the syntax/semantics interface that does not force sisters to
2 systematically combine” (Johnson 2012:20). Much like with the PF-interface
3 question, too little is known about the nature of the LF-interface to arbitrate between
4 these two mechanisms. This is not to say that they are in principle indistinguishable,
5 but that they currently are.

6 In short, CTM and MD approaches to displacement do not in and of
7 themselves solve the displacement problem better than their competitor. They both
8 require interface mechanisms to capture the basic empirical facts. As we have seen,
9 it is possible to devise such mechanisms that are both coherent and empirically
10 adequate. However, arguments in favor of CTM or MD cannot be adduced based on
11 these mechanisms for reasons both empirical and logical.⁴

12 In fact, the logic goes the other way. If it were possible to somehow conclude
13 that CTM or MD was correct, then it would be possible to make interesting claims
14 about what the nature of the interface mechanisms would need to be. Before that, in
15 the next subsection I will discuss another possible means of arguing for CTM or MD,
16 one that also ends up insufficient.

17 18 3.2 Power issues

19 Another means to potentially distinguish CTM from MD and in turn favor one or
20 another is via formal computational power comparisons. In this subsection I discuss
21 some previous instances of this sort of reasoning and argue that they too miss the
22 mark. Much like with the previous discussion with interface mechanisms, this is not
23 to deny the results or import of these investigations. Rather, I intend to deny that the

⁴ Later I provide what amounts to an interface-based argument in favor of CTM, but crucially this argument relies on a more established generalization concerning idioms and binding principle reconstruction.

1 results ought to be used to determine whether CTM or MD is the correct
2 representation. To the contrary, the results of investigations into the relative power of
3 CTM and MD serve to make clear the unavoidable consequences of the correct
4 representation.

5 As a guide to our current discussion, it is helpful to return to the issues
6 mentioned at the outset of this paper. Before Chomsky argued in favor of
7 transformations, he used computational power to arbitrate between two conceptions
8 of grammar. Finite state machines were shown to be fundamentally incapable of
9 expressing the sort of patterns found in human language. In light of this result, it was
10 necessary to posit a conception of the grammar that was at least as powerful as a
11 phrase structure grammar. The upshot of this story is to note that this sort of reason
12 is clear of ambiguity or dispute. If there are patterns of human language that are
13 inexpressible assuming CTM or assuming MD, the decision between the two will be
14 simple.

15 On the other hand, the decision between CTM and MD conceptions of
16 displacement may end up like the distinction between basic phrase structure
17 grammars and those with the additional power of transformations. As noted above,
18 choosing one option over the other was not an issue of formal capacity, but rather
19 one of theory. Phrase structure grammars alone could produce the strings of human
20 language, it is just that transformations were arguably theoretically a *better* option. If
21 turns out that CTM and MD are equal in their capacity to express the patterns we
22 find in human language, then of course that result will not allow a ready decision like
23 the previous case did. It is also important to note that this sort of result also will not
24 entail that such a decision is not possible.

1 This sort of equality in expressive power occurs in the comparison of a trace
2 theory of displacement (as in Chomsky 1981) versus the CTM that supplanted it.
3 Compare the representations in (13). In (13a) there is an inherently silent trace in the
4 direct object position where as in (13b) there is an unpronounced copy of the moved
5 term.

- 6
7 (13) a. What_i did you see t_i
8 b. What_i did you see <what_i>

9
10 It is trivially the case that these two options are of equal expressive power:
11 any position that movement could have stemmed from could equally leave a trace or
12 an unpronounced copy. The way to distinguish these two options is via empirical
13 evidence and theoretical concerns. Reconstruction effects are the empirical
14 evidence in favor for CTM (as argued in Chomsky 1993). On the theoretical side, the
15 Inclusiveness Condition (Chomsky 1995) serve to eliminate trace theory as an viable
16 option. Again, even if two options have the same expressive power, they can still be
17 theoretically and empirically distinguished.

18 An additional note. A few years after transformational grammar was posited,
19 Peters and Ritchie (1973) showed that transformations were not just sufficient to
20 capture the patterns in human language, they were powerful enough to express *any*
21 possible pattern. This immense power was widely considered undesirable (see
22 Gazdar 1985 for example). However, Chomskyan transformational syntax continues,
23 not because of irrational stubbornness, but due to the fact that this mathematical
24 result is not necessarily problematic. Transformations as currently conceived have
25 been greatly constrained so as to moot potential concerns. Moreover, the sort of
26 theoretical explanations made possible by transformations further justify their use.

1 As a result, we should not necessarily take even massive differences in
2 computational power to be dispositive in the comparison of CTM and MD.

3 To recapitulate the previous discussion: One, equality in terms of expressive
4 power does not entail that linguistic distinctions (empirical or theoretical) cannot be
5 made. Two, expressive power “overkill” is not necessarily damning. Three,
6 insufficient expressive power is indeed dispositive.

7 With this background in mind, let us explore the results of some mathematical
8 investigations into CTM and MD. One notable investigation is that of Kracht (2001).
9 He argues CTM and MD are very similar and while not identical, they are “identical
10 for all linguistic purposes” (Kracht 2001:527). He shows this by proving various
11 mathematical mapping relations between the two. As it turns out, the formal
12 mathematical properties of CTM and MD do not relevantly distinguish the two.
13 Anything that can be stated in one can be stated in the other. Because of this, he
14 argues, they are linguistically identical.

15 This should remind the reader of the trace-theory versus CTM discussion
16 above. There too it is the case that anything that can be expressed in one can be
17 expressed in the other. In other words, the argument that CTM and MD are
18 linguistically identical is not necessarily true. As a general point, It should be well
19 known that when doing cognitively- and biologically-minded linguistics mathematical
20 considerations are not necessarily the final word. Berwick and Weinberg (1982:177)
21 argue persuasively that “mathematical relevance need not imply cognitive
22 relevance.” However it is this implication that Kracht attempts to make.

23 Note that this is not to dispute the basic results of this work (though see
24 Kepser 2010 with some criticism), but to maintain that they are not necessarily the
25 sort of results that help us choose between CTM and MD. The goal here does not

1 concern formal computational equivalence or lack thereof between CTM and MD.
2 Instead, it is whether a particular choice of encoding is 'better' with respect to
3 syntactic theory and empirical considerations.

4 The notion of superior encoding relates to another issue raised in Kracht
5 (2001) as well as Gärtner (1999). Both discuss the exponential growth in
6 computational complexity that CTM theories entail in the limit. Kracht in particular
7 proves that in some “worst case” scenarios there are exponentially many more CTM
8 structures than MD structures. In other words, despite their identical ability to encode
9 relations, there are many more different ways for CTM to achieve this. This may
10 be seen as a reason to reject the CTM approach, but Kracht himself warns against
11 this and maintains that this result does not constitute an argument against CTM.
12 Why? Well, for the same reason that the Peters and Ritchie results were insufficient
13 to render transformations untenable. Immense potential power does not entail
14 psychological implausibility.

15 In short, much like with the interface mechanisms, the results shown by
16 Kracht do not determine whether CTM or MD is the correct one. However, again
17 much like with the interface mechanisms, his results serve to define the
18 repercussions of the correct choice between CTM and MD, whichever is correct in
19 the end. Still, they do not eliminate the need for empirical and theoretical arbitration.
20 Loosely following Kripke: There is no mathematical substitute for linguistics.

21 In the next section I present arguments that effectively compare CTM and MD
22 in a way that allows us to make an informed choice between them.

23
24 4 How to adjudicate

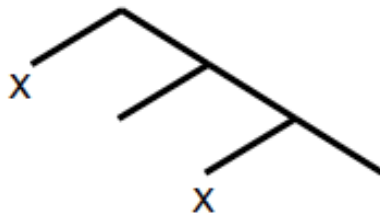
As we saw in the above sections, it is difficult to clearly determine whether CTM or MD is the correct representation of displacement. We know too little about the interfaces to support either representation over another and the mathematical concerns, while interesting, do not on their own force the adoption of one over the other. In this section I provide two means of successfully distinguishing between the two. The first involves fundamental notions of what the target of the Merge options is and the second concerns the possibility of, and constraints on, 'scattered' interpretation.

4.1 The Target of Successive Merges

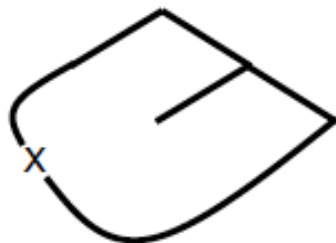
Prior to displacement, as in a structure like that in (14) below, there is only one token instance of X and as such it is at this point that CTM- and MD-style representations are identical. It is only after displacement (second Merge) has occurred that the representations differ along the lines shown in (15).

(14) [... X ...]

(15) a.

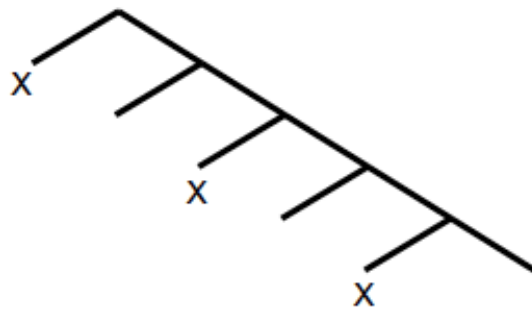


b.

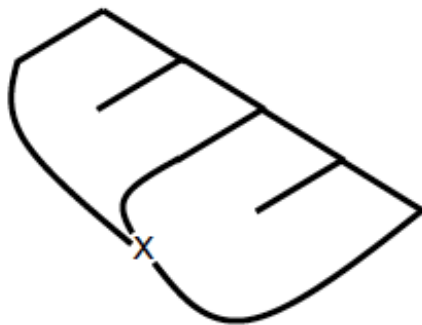


In (15a), there are now two token instances of X whereas in (15b) there is still but one. Of course displacement does not necessarily halt after one hop. Rather, displacement can happen again and again in an iterated fashion as argued by McCloskey 1979, Torrego 1984, Henry 1995, and McCloskey 2001 among others. That is, if X were to continue to be Merged into higher positions, we would be left with representations like those in (16).

(16) a.



b.



However, in (16b) it is always the case that X is *still there* in its base position even though it also finds itself much higher in the structure as well. This contrasts with CTM where there exist higher tokens of X structurally independent of the base position copy. This distinction lay at the heart of the differing interface strategies outlined in the previous section. In those instances, work went into trying to capture how CTM or MD worked with grammatically licit structures and as we saw, there was little to distinguish them by. That is, each system was powerful enough to capture

1 the licit structures as they pertain to interface interpretation. In this section, I employ
2 a different method.

3 What other discussions neglect is how the differing interpretations of
4 displacement fare when dealing with grammatically illicit structures and interface-
5 independent notions. In this section, I will argue that MD is not in a position to
6 explain certain ungrammatical sentences based on these narrowly syntactic
7 concerns. In fact, the syntax-internal wedge that will serve to distinguish the two
8 approaches will be Merge, the operation that prompted this discussion of CTM and
9 MD to begin with,

10 The logic will be as follows. In order to capture the ungrammaticality of certain
11 island violations, MD analyses require something that the system does not allow: the
12 targeting of non-terms by Merge. Because Merge necessarily works over terms, this
13 means that MD representations are incapable in principle of being used to capture
14 island effects.

15 It has long been known that displacement cannot occur over an arbitrarily
16 great structural distance in a single derivational step. To take a classic example from
17 Ross (1967), displacement cannot occur across a complex noun phrase like in (17).

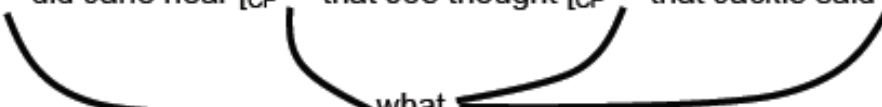
18
19 (17) *What did Jane hear the rumor that Joe saw?

20
21 Chomsky (1973 et seq.) analyzed this constraint as one of moving too great a
22 distance. The precise formulation of the short-steps constraint has changed over the
23 years, but the basic notion still holds: displacement cannot take place over an
24 arbitrarily great distance.⁵

⁵ A contemporary interpretation of the prohibition on movement over too great a distance is found in phase-theory (Chomsky 2001, 2008). Under phase-theory, lower structure is periodically

However, under MD accounts, movement relations in fact *do* hold over arbitrarily great distances. An MD-style representation of the sentence in (18) requires that there be a Merge-derived relation between the base position of X and its final position. This is abstractly sketched in (19).⁶

(18) What did Jane hear that Joe thought that Jackie said?

(19) [CP did Jane hear [CP that Joe thought [CP that Jackie said]]]


In (19) there is in effect a movement relation that holds across a very great distance. Contrast this with the CTM representation in (20) where there are only local relations.

(20) [CP What did Jane hear [CP <what> that Joe thought [CP <what> that Jackie said <what>]]]



This distinction alone is not sufficient to prefer CTM over MD as it could easily be argued that somehow in virtue of the myriad shorter dependencies in (19) the very long distance dependencies are rendered licit. Perhaps the fact that a series of short hops are instantiated in (19) is sufficient. That is, in virtue of there being a licit 'route' from base position to final derived position, the representation is grammatical.

rendered inaccessible for grammatical operations. This causes independent problems for MD analyses as it would require that the moving element be rendered inaccessible to further operations as well: an unwanted consequence. If the moving element were somehow not rendered inaccessible, this would force a nonsensical state of affairs wherein a VP would be rendered inaccessible, but not its constituent parts.

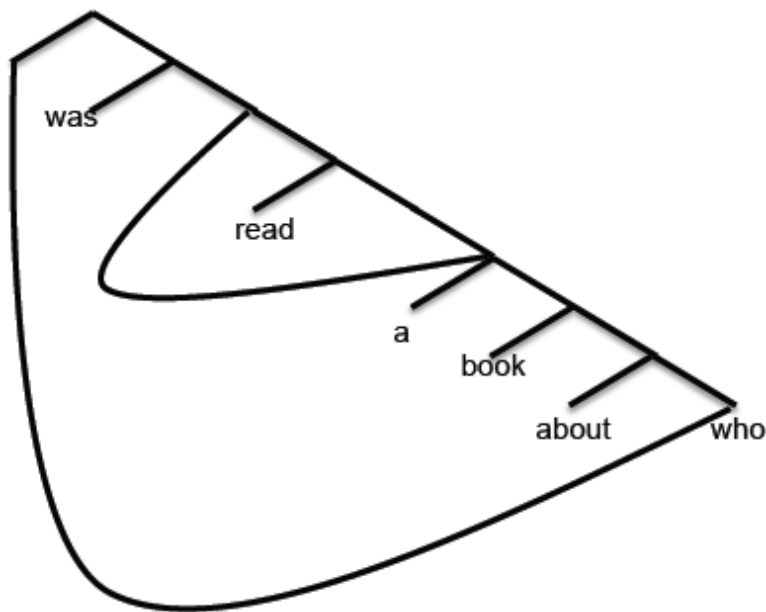
⁶ I ignore here landing sites other than Spec,CP for expository purposes.

1 At each step in the derivation there was a position that X was in that was accessible
2 for further movement, even though there were other position that X was in which
3 were inaccessible. Call this the 'whatever works' interpretation.

4 This 'whatever works' interpretation of MD movement runs into immediate
5 problems when looking at freezing effects like those in Wexler and Culicover (1980).
6 Such effects are found when movement is attempted out from within an element that
7 itself has already moved. This can be seen in (21) where the subject of the sentence
8 has A-moved from its base position as the internal object of the verb. From within
9 this derived subject, a wh-word has been extracted, leading to ungrammaticality. The
10 sentence in (21) as depicted under MD would be like that in (22).

11
12 (21) *Who was a book about read (by Jane)?

13 (22)



28 Note that the 'whatever works' approach here makes the wrong prediction.
29 Moreover, it makes the wrong prediction for CTM as well. There in fact exists a licit
30 'route' between the base position or copy of *who* and its final position: via the base

1 position or copy of the derived subject. As seen in (23), movement from within the
2 noun phrase in object position is perfectly licit. For some reason, it is only the most
3 recent position that the moving elements are in that matters, for both MD and CTM.
4 This will become more relevant presently.

5
6 (23) Who did Jane read a book about?

7
8 As such, the ‘whatever works’ approach does not seem tenable. Another
9 plausible approach would be to restrict operations to just between the root of the tree
10 and ‘structurally closest’ instantiation of the to-be-moved element. This is a MD
11 version of Shortest Move (Chomsky 1995): create the shortest link. For the
12 representation in (22), the wh-word is effectively in two positions. It is within the
13 larger DP in the lower, PP-complement position as well as within the DP in the
14 higher, subject position. If we adopt the ‘structurally closest’ stricture, movement of
15 the wh-word is necessarily assessed as if it came from the subject position. Since
16 this closer position is an island for movement, the sentence is correctly ruled out.

17 However, even the ‘structurally closest’ approach cannot be viable. There are
18 instances where extraction from the structurally closest position is also illicit. Take,
19 the following subject-internal parasitic gaps sentence.

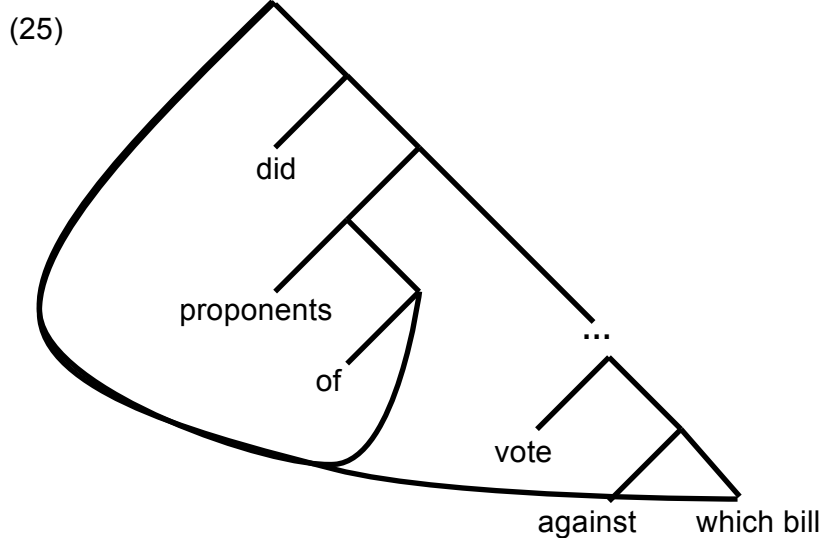
20

21 (24) Which bill did even proponents of decide they had to vote against?

22

23 Following the approach to parasitic gaps found in Nunes 2001,2004, the
24 above sentence is derived by the wh-word beginning its derivational life within the
25 subject. It then sideways moves into the complement position of *against* before
26 making its way to the left periphery of the matrix clause (crucially before the incipient

subject is merged to the spine of the tree and thus becomes an island). The MD representation is sketched in (25) below.



In this sort of parasitic gap, the structurally highest position of the moving wh-word is an island for movement as seen in (26) below where there is no alternate position to assess:

(26) *Which bill did even proponents of arrive?

If one were to adopt the 'structurally closest' approach, the assessment of whether the movement is licit would be restricted to the subject-internal position. Since that position is island-internal, the sentence should be ruled out, contrary to fact.⁷

⁷ It should be noted, as a reviewer points out, that if the sideward movement approach to parasitic gaps is not assumed, this argument cannot be made.

1 In sum, it's not that any licit link rules in a sentence, nor is it the case that as
2 long as the shortest link is licit, the sentence is ruled in. Instead it seems that
3 *recency* is what matters. For CTM it is the most recent *copy* of the moving element
4 that can be targeted; for MD it is the most recent *position* of the moving element that
5 can be targeted.⁸

6 Herein lies the problem for MD accounts. Merge does not operate over
7 positions, but rather terms in the sense of the constants and variables that constitute
8 sentences (Chomsky 1995). In the minimalist program, terms are taken to be
9 elements like *the* and *dog*, but not relations between them.⁹ One such relation
10 between terms is that of sisterhood. Sisterhood can be used to identify a position,
11 but neither the sisterhood relation or the position that it defines are terms. This will
12 cause problems for MD accounts.

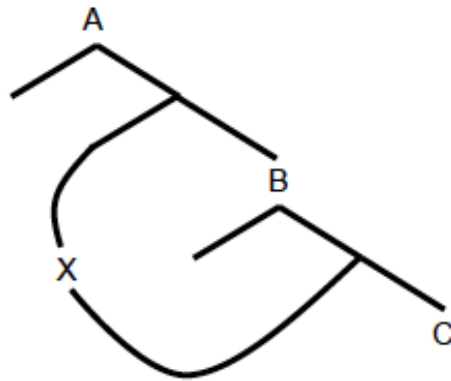
13 Take the MD representation in (27). Here, the only licit means for X to be
14 Merged with A is for the position "sister of B" to be operated over by Merge. It cannot
15 be the case that that X itself is targeted for Merge because X is also in its too distant
16 base position. Recall that it is simply not enough to say that Merge with X is licit in
17 virtue of there being some licit extraction site. As we saw with the freezing effects
18 above, the existence of a licit extraction site is necessary but not sufficient. If Merge
19 targeted X, it would in effect be targeting an inaccessible term. Only the most recent

⁸ For CTM analyses, the notion that only the most recent copy is relevant for further Merge could be (and is) easily implemented in phase-theory wherein previous copies are rendered inaccessible throughout the derivation. In such a case, the most recent position can be determined and the term in that position can enter into the Merge operation.

⁹ That operations target terms in positions is not a novelty of Merge. Rather, terms have always been that which grammatical operations target going back through move alpha (Lasnik and Saito 1994) on through to Chomsky 1955.

position can be operated over. The position (sister of B) is not a term and as such cannot be operated over by Merge.

(27)



Because MD requires Merge to operate over non-terms, it cannot be maintained as a possible representation of displacement. For MD accounts to work, it must be the case that Merge be altered so as to be able to operate on more than just grammatical terms.

It is perhaps an option to amend Merge such that it can operate over positions (defined in terms of sisterhood: $\{X,Y\}$, X and Y being sisters) instead of or in addition to terms. However, given Bare Phrase Structure, there is no narrow syntax distinction between terms and their positions. Previously, under X-bar-theoretic conceptions of phrase structure (Chomsky 1970 and Jackendoff 1977), structural positions were in fact reified things (Spec,XP, for instance, existed independent of the term in that position.). As such, it would theoretically possible to target a position as such. This is not the case under Bare Phrase Structure. The Inclusiveness condition (Chomsky 1995:225) prohibits novel entities like positions to

1 be syntactically reified and because of this, Merge can not be amended so as to be
2 able to target them.¹⁰

3 So if it is not possible to amend Merge to save MD, perhaps Merge should be
4 scrapped in favor of something different. This option renders the entire comparison
5 of CTM and MD moot as it is premised upon Merge's existence. In short,
6 successfully ruling in long-distance successive cyclic movement while at the same
7 time ruling out sub-extraction from a moved element cannot be done by adopting
8 both Merge and MD in principle. Contrast this with CTM implementations of
9 displacement which are in principle capable of making those distinctions while
10 maintaining Merge.

11 12 4.2 Scattered Interpretation

13 Above I presented a theoretical reason why CTM is to be preferred over MD. In this
14 section I present what is at heart an empirical case. As seen above, such arguments
15 are not easy to make in any decisive way. Here an interface-related argument that is
16 not only sound, but one that could serve as a template for other interface arguments
17 is presented. The argument relies on developing an empirical generalization that can
18 serve as the stable fulcrum for an argument.

19 The basic empirical point is found in Chomsky 1993. He notes that in a
20 sentence like (28) there is a correlation: when *Bill* is antecedent of the reflexive, the
21 sentence is ambiguous between an idiomatic reading in which *take a picture* means
22 *photograph* and one where it means *take possession of*. In contrast, when *John* is
23 the antecedent the sentence only has the second non-idiomatic interpretation.

24

¹⁰ Note that this does not preclude the reification of positions outside of narrow syntax at the interfaces.

1 (28) John wondered which picture of himself Bill took

2

3 Chomsky accounts for the contrast by positing differing LF interpretations of
4 the string in (28). For us, the crucial interpretation is the one where *John* is the
5 antecedent and the idiomatic reading is not possible. For such an interpretation, the
6 LF is like that in (29). Here, the reflexive covertly adjoins to the T-head that *John* had
7 already overtly Merged with, thus ensuring its construal with *John*.

8

9 (29) [John_i [$\text{himself}_i + T^\circ$] wonders [$_{CP}$ which picture of ~~himself~~_i [Bill took which
10 ~~picture of himself~~_i]]]

11

12 Chomsky argues that the idiomatic reading is ruled out in such an instance
13 because of three things. One, the reflexive must move to the matrix T and be
14 interpreted there at LF for the relevant construal with *John* to arise. Two, it is not
15 possible to interpret a copy of *picture* without interpreting the copy of *himself* that it
16 dominates. That is, there can be no scattered interpretation of *picture* and *himself*.
17 Three, in the framework at hand, DS no longer exists and as such the requirement
18 that idioms be constituents at that level is reanalyzed as holding of LF instead.
19 Because of this, the idiomatic reading requires that *picture* (and *himself* in turn) be
20 interpreted in its base position. This precludes the simultaneous idiomatic
21 interpretation and matrix subject construal of the reflexive.

22

23 Chomsky is not entirely technically explicit here, but the basic interface-
24 theoretic notion is clear: The interpretation of a given head at LF necessitates the
25 interpretation of that which it dominates. When the head is interpreted low, so too
26 should its dependents. It should be clear from the previous discussions that MD
approaches can easily capture this interface generalization. As far as the reflexive is

1 concerned, one of its positions is sufficiently local to *John* and one to *Bill*. Further,
2 one position of *picture* feeds an idiomatic interpretation and one does not. We can
3 encode the interpretive dependences in the MD idiom as in (30).

4
5 (30) If position 1 of element X is interpreted, then all elements Y that X dominates
6 are also interpreted in position 1.

7
8 Something like (30) prevents the scattered interpretations of constituents for
9 MD, mimicking the analogous prohibition against scattered deletions discussed
10 above in the context of the CTM. More particularly, (30) would prohibit interpreting
11 the higher position of the *himself* and the lower position of *picture* in (28).

12 Again, we find ourselves in a position where CTM and MD are equally able to
13 account for the data, given certain assumptions: If the head is interpreted, so too
14 must be its complement. However, something like what we have in (30) cannot be
15 the last word. Sometimes scattered interpretations are in fact required. An example
16 of this can be found in what are commonly known as Lebeaux-effects (Lebeaux
17 1988, 1991 and Chomsky 1995). That is to say, that for the following sentences, it is
18 still possible to get the idiomatic readings. Nevertheless, the adjunct to the wh-
19 phrase is not interpreted low down in the idiom: There are no Principle C effects.

20
21 (31) a. Which picture that Bill_i hated did he_i say that Mary took?

22 b. Which habit that Bill_i hated did he_i say that Mary finally kicked?

23
24 CTM accounts can rely on the late adjunction of the relative clause to capture
25 these anti-reconstruction effects (as in Stepanov 2001 and others). After movement
26 of the wh-phrase to its non-base position, an adjunct can Merge with it and not the
27 copy left in situ. The higher copy can be manipulated independently of the lower one

1 and if the relative clause is appended to the higher copy only, no Principle C effects
2 are predicted. MD accounts can surely also resort to late adjunction, but this is going
3 to have an unwanted effect: the adjunct is late-adjointing low as well as high and the
4 lack of Principle C effects is not predicted.

5 Perhaps the injunction against scattered interpretations in (30) could be
6 altered so as to make reference to segments and the non-standard assumption that
7 the relative clause adjoins to the DP 'which picture' not the NP 'picture'. In this case,
8 the moving DP will not *fully* dominate relative clause adjunct. But even then, we
9 could further embed the adjunct such that it would be fully dominated by
10 something.¹¹

11
12 (32) Which picture of [the dog that Bill_i hated] did he_i say that Mary took?

13
14 What injunction could be made such that an MD account could handle these
15 anti-reconstruction effects? Perhaps a 'whatever works' sort of approach that would
16 absolve any Binding Principle violation if at least one occurrence obeyed them. This
17 would falsely predict that non-adjunctions would also show anti-reconstruction
18 effects:

19
20 (33) *Which picture of Bill_i did he_i say that Mary took?

21
22 One could claim that idiom-internal adjuncts are immune to binding theory
23 strictures. Though this would also make the incorrect predictions:

¹¹ A reviewer notes that this test might not be entirely useful since Nunes 2001 argues that reconstruction-driven Principle C effects are not as strong when the R-expression is embedded more generally, even within nominal complements which should obligatorily reconstruct with their host. However, it is hard to construct the correct test with the picture idiom since the picture would need to be of a noun that takes a complement clause (like 'rumor' or 'claim') and such nouns are not generally things that can be photographed.

1
2 (34) *He_i took some pictures that Bill_i hated.

3
4 In short, the scattered interpretation facts can be cleanly captured under CTM
5 but cannot be so captured by MD theories. CTM allows for the independent
6 manipulation of terms in a way that cannot be said of MD. That is, late adjunction of
7 adjectives allows for anti-reconstruction effects in certain instances but obligatory
8 reconstruction for certain complements. The same cannot be said for MD. Again, the
9 distinction comes down to dealing with terms or positions. In this case, we assume
10 that adjuncts attach to terms and not to positions. If the adjuncts above could adjoin
11 to positions to the exclusion of the term in them, then the problem for MD would not
12 arise. However, this is not possible in a Merge-based system that deals in terms. This
13 is not to say that MD accounts cannot in principle somehow capture this data, but
14 much like Chomsky's argument from transformations, that approach would be less
15 enlightening.

16 17 5. Conclusion

18 Merge as an explanation of displacement is an important conceptual step forward in
19 the explanation of grammatical properties. The otherwise problematic fact of
20 syntactic action at a distance is rendered much tamer by this re-interpretation of
21 structure building. Coupled with other current guiding principles in syntax, it has lead
22 to a question about the result of an object undergoing Merge more than once.

23 The two logically possible options, each reasonable in its own right, have
24 been assumed, adopted, and argued for in the past, but here we have seen that
25 there has been little clear basis for those moves. The clear differences between the
26 copy theory and multidominance do not readily translate into strong arguments in

1 favor of one over another. Each approach asks something of the interface, but too
2 little is known about the interface for that to be a deciding factor. Each approach
3 carries with it its own expressive power, but much like other such instances in the
4 past, we cannot use these differences to make the case for one over the other.

5 Instead I have shown that to adjudicate between the two requires discussion
6 of interface-independent notions (such as what is targetable by Merge) or interface
7 generalizations that enjoy some empirical support. When comparisons of that sort
8 are made, it becomes possible to argue for one approach over another. In the
9 instances relayed above, it was shown that a copy-theoretic conception of
10 displacement is preferable.

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