Two types of resumptive pronouns in Swahili[1]

Abstract

In this paper, I demonstrate that Swahili distinguishes two types of
resumptives pronouns: i) lower Ā-movement copies and ii) base gener-
ated bound pronouns. These two types of resumptive pronouns are mor-
phologically distinct: the presence of (local) person features reflects a
base-generated derivation and the absence of person features reflects Ā-
movement. Crucial data comes from local person pronominal clefts de-
rived from islands (bound pronoun context) and parasitic gaps (movement
copy context). Inspired by van Urk (2017), I analyze this pattern using
Landau's (2006) theory of chain reduction in which only movement copies
create chains and are then subject to an algorithm which deletes person
features. KEYWORDS: resumption, pronouns, person features, movement,
copy deletion

1 Introduction

In long distance dependencies such as relative clauses, phrasal elements are related to
at least two positions in the sentence, which are in some sense 'dependent' on each
other. It is typical for the element to be fully pronounced in one position only, with
the other positions appearing as silent 'gaps.' However, resumptive pronouns- instead
of gaps- have been observed in a wide range of long distance dependencies in lan-
guages from Irish (McCloskey 1999, 2006) to Vata (Kru) (Koopman 1980). One analysis
of resumptive pronouns is that they are syntactically bound pronouns that are not re-
lated to the head of the dependency via movement (McCloskey 2006). However, some
resumptive pronouns seem to be sensitive to movement restrictions (Koopman 1980,
Engdahl 1985), evidence that in some cases, resumptive pronouns are lower copies of

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a Ā-movement chain. Sichel (2014) shows for Hebrew that both bound resumptive pronouns and movement resumptive pronouns can co-exist in a single language.

Until now, scholars have yet to find a language in which the two types of resumptive pronouns are morphologically distinct. In this paper I present novel data from adjunct islands and parasitic gaps showing that two distinct resumptive pronoun forms are used in Swahili[1], reflecting the presence or absence of movement in the derivation. Ngonyani (2006b) notes that resumption in Swahili is only found in PPs, patterning similarly to Hebrew. In local person pronominal cleft constructions, bound resumptive pronouns obligatorily surface with local person features while movement resumptive pronouns obligatorily surface as a pronoun without person features. Both types of resumptive pronouns match in noun class, which is reflected in the glosses with numbers 1-18, with noun class 1 and 2 being the singular and plural animate noun classes, respectively. While in simple relative clauses resumptive pronouns may optionally surface with person features, shown in (1),[2] the adjunct island in (2) shows that bound resumptive pronouns obligatorily surface with person features. The parasitic gap construction in (3) shows that movement resumptives obligatorily surface without person features.

(1)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye Bahati a-li-kutana na-mi/-ye.
       1SG   COP-1 amba-1 Bahati 1-PST-meet with-1SG/-1
       'It's me who Bahati met with.'

Bound pronoun:
(2)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-ondoka   kwa sababu u-li-cheza   na-**mi**/*-ye.
       1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-leave for   reason 1-PST-dance with-1SG/*-1
       'It's me who you left because you danced with (me).'

Movement copy:
(3)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-enda   na-**ye**/*-mi$_t$ kabla ya ku-cheza na-ye$_p$.
       1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-go with-1/*-1SG before of 15-dance with-1
       'It's me who you went with ___$_t$ before dancing with ___$_p$'

I argue that this pattern is predicted by the copy theory of movement taken together with a theory of chain reduction whose goal is to delete or reduce all copies

except one in a movement chain. Under these theories, in a canonical situation, movement copies will be deleted fully. Landau (2006) argues for a chain reduction algorithm which partially pronounces copies which are associated with a phonological requirement that bans full deletion. Van Urk (2017) shows how this can be applied to Ā-movement in Dinka Bor; the result is copied pronouns at the edge of *v*P which obligatorily surface as the 3rd person pronoun, nearly identical to the pattern in (3). The chain reduction algorithm analysis accounts for this pattern if 3rd person pronouns are partially pronounced versions of local person pronouns.

The different distributions of person-matching and person non-matching pronouns in (2) in (3) Swahili is easily captured by the fact the chain reduction algorithm applies to movement copies but not bound pronouns, resulting in reduced movement resumptive pronouns and non-reduced bound resumptive pronouns. The Swahili data adds to our understanding of the typology of resumptive pronouns, namely that i) a language can have movement resumptive pronouns which are morphologically distinct from bound resumptive pronouns and ii) if a language has both types and they are morphologically distinct, the movement resumptive pronouns will be a reduced version of the bound resumptive pronouns.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the typology and literature on resumptive pronouns. Section 3 gives an overview on the structure and form of Swahili relative clauses and clefts, highlighting the discrepancies between previous analyses of their structure and derivation. Section 4 presents novel data from adjunct islands and parasitic gap constructions supporting the conclusion that Swahili employs both bound resumptive pronouns and movement resumptive pronouns. In Section 5 an analysis of the Swahili resumption pattern is developed drawing on chain reduction at PF and the structure of Bantu DPs. Section 6 concludes.

2 Resumption Background

As Asudeh (2004:3) points out, it is difficult to give a unified definition of resumptive pronouns. The informal definition in (4) will do for present purposes:

(4) **Resumptive pronoun**

A resumptive pronoun is a pronoun in a long distance dependency construction (i.e- *wh*-question, relative clause, etc.) which is not the head of the dependency.

Ā-movement was originally thought to leave behind a trace ('gap') which was phonologically null but indicated that something had moved from that position. Asudeh (2004:4)'s 'Definition 1' (later revised) states: 'A resumptive pronoun is a pronoun that occurs where a gap might otherwise occur.' It was noticed that resumptive pronouns are only used in English when movement would violate a restriction particular to movement, such as subjacency. Thus, resumption was seen as a 'last resort device' (Aoun 2000) which was used to save an otherwise ungrammatical sentence by inserting a pronoun instead of employing Ā-movement. This generalization was strengthened by the observation that resumption and gaps in other languages show the same distinct distribution. For example, in Palestinian Arabic, gaps and resumptive pronouns are in complete complimentary distribution (Shlonsky 1992). McCloskey (1990, 2002, 2006) showed that for Irish, a gap corresponds to a movement trace and a resumptive pronoun is a syntacticly bound pronoun. In (5), the resumptive pronoun is in a *wh*-island.

(5) **na hamhrain** sin   nach . bhfuil fhios   ce   a chum   **iad**
    the songs   DEMON NEG C is   knowledge who C composed **them**
    'those songs that we don't know who composed them'[3]   (McCloskey 2006:99)

Two developments, one theoretical and one empirical, challenged the movement versus resumption dichotomy. The first is the birth of the copy theory of movement

(Chomsky 1993). Under this theory, when a head or phrase undergoes movement, instead of leaving behind a trace (or traces), each iteration of movement leaves behind a full copy of the moved element. The copies are then subject to a different mechanism which dictates which copies and how much of those copies get pronounced. The copy theory of movement accounts for reconstruction phenomena because lower, unpronounced copies can still be interpreted fully at LF. Independent empirical evidence emerged in further support of the copy theory of movement from verb copying (Kandybowicz 2007a,b and others) and resumptive pronouns in Ā constructions which are sensitive to restrictions on movement.

The second development which challenged the movement versus resumption dichotomy was empirical evidence supporting the prediction that resumptive pronouns in long distance dependencies *can* have the distribution of gaps. Koopman (1984) for the Kru languages Vata and Gbadi, Engdahl (1985) for Swedish, (and others) showed that resumptive pronouns can be sensitive to movement restrictions, in essence behaving like movement 'traces'. Endgdahl (1985) shows that resumptive pronouns in Swedish license parasitic gaps, give rise to weak crossover effects, and worsen island violations, in further support that resumptive pronouns can be movement copies. The prediction follows that a single language can have both types of resumptive pronouns: movement copies and bound pronouns.

Sichel (2014) shows this prediction is born out in Hebrew. There are two types of resumption in Hebrew: optional and obligatory. Resumption is optional for direct objects, but it is obligatory within PPs and NPs. When resumption is optional, a resumptive pronoun has the distribution of a bound pronoun and a gap is a movement trace. This is evident from the ungrammaticality of the direct object gap in the weak crossover construction in (6). The resumptive pronoun *oto* is used to make the sentence acceptable.

(6)   ze [ha-yeled]$_1$ še-ima   šelo$_1$ ohevet oto$_1$ / *t$_1$.
            he the-boy$_1$ that-mother his$_1$ loves   him$_1$ / *t$_1$.
            'This is the boy who his mother loves him.   (Sichel 2014:666)

However, unlike resumptive pronouns which alternate with gaps, obligatory resumptive pronouns always display movement properties. Resumptive pronouns in PPs, for examples, show reconstruction properties and generally have the distribution of movement copies. When the object of the preposition in an idiom is relativized in (7), the idiomatic interpretation still holds, indicating that the object *ec* underwent movement from its base position as object of the preposition *al*. A resumptive pronoun is used in this example, showing that resumptives can be used to spell out a movement copy.

(7)   ha-**ec**$_1$ še-hu tipes   al**av**$_1$
            the-**tree** that-he climbed on.**it**
            'the high position he took'   (Sichel 2014:661)

It is clear at this point that the term "resumption" represents a heterogeneous group of phenomena. The presence of a resumptive pronoun does not automatically indicate the underlying structure. We also know that both movement and bound resumptive pronoun can co-exist in a single language. Swahili adds to this typology by giving evidence that the two types of resumptive pronouns can co-exist and be morphologically distinct. The Swahili data are of particular interest in that the movement resumptive is more (featurally) reduced than the bound resumptive. This is predicted from two theoretical perspectives: i) the copy theory of movement (Chomsky 1993) and ii) the idea that movement copies are subject to a chain reduction algorithm at PF (Landau 2006). Taken together, these theories predict that cross-linguistically, movement resumptives will be more reduced than bound resumptives. Swahili shows that this prediction is born out within a single language.

3 Swahili Relative Clauses

3.1 Amba Relative Clauses

There are three ways to form relative clauses in Swahili. This work is only concerned with the type with the overt complementizer *amba*, which is related to the verb 'say' *ku-amba*. For an overview of the three types and their differences see Ngonyani 2006a, Buell 2002, Demuth & Harford 1999, Keach 1980, and Schadeberg 1989. Following Gould and Scott (2019) I will refer to the overt complementizer relative clauses as '*amba*-RCs'. The head of the *amba*-RC appears before the complementizer, which appears before the relative clause itself.

Amba- always appears with a suffix that agrees with the head of the relative clause in noun class. This can be seen in (9) where the head of the relative clause is of noun class 8, evident by the *vi*- prefix, and the suffix on *amba* takes the agreeing form *-vyo*.

(8) U-li-vi-menya vi-azi.
     2SG-PST-8-PEEL 8-potato
     'You peeled the potatoes.'

(9) Ni-li-kula   vi-azi   [amba-vyo u-li-vi-menya ____].
     1SG-PST-EAT 8-potato [amba-8   2SG-PST-8-PEEL *e*   ]
     'I ate the potatoes that you peeled."

The relative clause in (9) shows that object *amba*-RCs leave a gap in the embedded clause. This is also the case for subject *amba*-RCs. In addition, subject and object marking is obligatory on the verb in the embedded clause. Swahili does not show Anti-Agreement Effects (AAE) for subject or object extraction, unlike other Bantu languages such as Kinande (Schneider-Zioga, 2000) and Bemba (Cheng 2006); subject and object agreement on the verb always reflects full ϕ-features of the subject and object respectively, shown in (11) by the subject prefix *a* which cross-references the subject *mtoto*.

(10) M-toto a-na-deka.
1-child 1-PRS-whine
'The child is whining.'

(11) M-toto [amba-ye ____ a-na-deka] a-na-it-wa Hadija .
1-child [amba-1 *e* 1-PRS-whine] 1-PRS-call-PASS Hadija
'The child who is whining is called Hadija.

I assume that *amba* clefts are formed by the same mechanism as *amba*-RCs. *Amba* clefts appear almost identical to *amba*-RCs, with one extra piece: an emphatic copula which takes the same suffix as *amba*.

(12) M-toto huyu ndi-ye amba-ye a-na-deka.
1-child DEM.1 COP-1 amba-1 1-PRS-whine.
'It's this child who is crying.'

As (12) shows, the clefted constituent precedes the emphatic copula *ndi-ye*, followed by *amba* and the main verb. It is worth noting that in clefts like (12), a construction which is often preferred lacks *amba* and instead the relative agreement marker appears in the verbal complex; I limit the scope of the analysis to *amba* relative clauses. Clefts will be the main source of Swahili relative clause data presented in this paper.

3.2 Previous analyses of Swahili *amba*-RCs

Swahili *amba*-RCs have been analyzed in potentially opposing ways; their derivation has been claimed to be through base-generation and binding (Keach 1980, 2004; Barrett-Keach 1985) as well as through movement (Ngonyani 2001, 2006a). I will discuss each analysis in turn and conclude that *amba*-RCs can be formed either through pronoun binding or movement.

Keach (1980:72) analyzes *amba*-RCs as static dependencies derived through base-generation of the relative clause head and binding of a null pronoun in the embedded clause. Evidence for the non-movement strategy comes from the grammaticality of extraction out relative clause islands, shown in (13). However, we'll see that this ar-

gument relies on the assumption that relative clauses are islands for movement in Swahili, an assumption which will be rejected here.

(13) M-tu   amba-ye ni-li-wa-ona   wa-toto amba-o a-na-wa-penda...
      1-person amba-1   1SG-PST-2-see 2-child   amba-2 1-PRS-2-like
      Person who I saw the children who (he) likes (them)...' (Keach 1980:71; Gloss

      added.)

Contra Keach (1980), Ngonyani (2001, 2006a) argues that *amba*-RCs are derived via raising of the relative clause head NP. The main piece of evidence in favor of the movement analysis is reconstruction effects. The objects of verbs in idiomatic constructions can be relativized using *amba*- and retain the idiomatic interpretation. In (14) the idiom *kupiga maji* 'to hit water' means 'to drink alcohol in excess.' The object, *maji* is the head of the relative clause and is separated from the verb *piga*. The idiomatic interpretation still holds, suggesting that the object is being interpreted as a reconstructed constituent with the verb, further suggesting movement of the head of the relative clause.

      Idiom reconstruction
(14) Maji   amba-yo   komba   a-li-pig-a   ya-li-kuwa   ma-kali
      6-water amba-6.REL 1.bushbaby 1-PST-hit-FV 6-PST-15-be-FV 6-strong
      'The beer that the bushbaby drank was very strong.'   Ngonyani (2001:68)

Gould & Scott (2019) point out that the two conflicting analyses described above are based on different data sets. To attempt to resolve the movement versus non-movement debate, they constructed a hybrid data piece: extraction from a relative clause island of a quantified noun phrase. What they found is that in the sentence in (15), the following inverse scope reading is possible: 'for each doctor, there are two unique patients who are treated by that doctor and I called each pair of patients.'

Gould and Scott (2019)

(15) Ni-li-wa-ita   *[wa-gonjwa wa-wili]*$_2$ amba-o duka   la dawa   hili
      1SG-PST-2-call 2-patients   2-two   amba-2 5.store of medicine 5.DEM
      li-li-m-pa   vi-donge **[kila daktari]**$_1$ amba-ye [**t**$_1$ a-li-wa-pima t_2].
      5-PST-1-give 8-pills   every doctor   amba-1 t$_1$ 1-PST-2-examine t$_2$.
      "I called the two patients that this pharmacy gave pills to every doctor that

      treated (them)."

(16) [... $\boxed{2_2}$]$_{\text{REL}}$ ...this pharmacy ... $\boxed{\forall_1}$ [$_{\text{REL}}$ **t**$_1$ ...**t**$_2$]   ✓∀ > 2

They take the inverse scope interpretation to indicate that Swahili *amba*-RCs are i) not islands for movement and ii) derived by movement. If *amba*-RCs are not islands for movement, then Keach's conclusion no longer stands; grammatical relative clause island data is not indicative of a non-movement derivation. The lack of relative clause island effects is explained by the fact that relative clauses are not islands, therefore it is perfectly fine to derive them through movement.

In this paper I will present data showing that only a subset of resumptive pronouns are allowed in adjunct islands, which do act as islands for movement in Swahili, from which I argue that some resumptive pronouns arise through movement and some arise through base-generation and binding. Thus, *amba*-RCs can be derived through base-generation and binding in addition to movement. The availability of both relativization strategies makes sense of Keach's island data and Ngonyani's reconstruction data: if both strategies for relativization are available, we expect both island immunity *and* reconstruction effects.

3.3   Resumption

Subject and object extraction does not trigger resumption in Swahili.[4] This can be seen in (17) and (18), where neither a full (*yeye/wao*) nor a reduced (*ye/o*) pronoun can fill the subject or object position in the relative clause. While pronouns are ungrammatical as resumptives in relative clauses, subject and object marking is obligatory.

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(17) M-toto amba-ye (**yeye/*ye)** a-na-deka   a-an-it-wa   Hadija.
     1-child amba-1 (*1.PRO)   1-PRS-whine 1-PRS-call-PASS Hadija
     'The child who is whining is called Hadija.'

(18) Wa-tu   amba-o ni-na-wa-penda (**wao/*o)** ni   wa-aminifu.
     2-people amba-2 1SG-PRS-2-like   (*2.PRO)   PRS.be 2-honest
     'The people who I like are honest.'

Unlike subjects and direct objects, relativization of objects of mono-syllabic prepositions always results in a resumptive pronoun, shown in (19). (20) shows that pied piping of the pronoun is ungrammatical. [5]

(19) a. Ni-li-mw-ona   mwanafunzi amba-ye u-li-on-ana   na-*(ye).
         1SG-PRS-1.O-1-know 1-person   amba-1   1SG-PST-see-RECP with-*(1)
         'I saw the student who you met with'

     b. Ni-li-vi-nunua vi-kombe amba-vyo u-li-safiri   na-*(vyo).
         1SG-PST-8-buy 8-cup   amba-8   2SG-PST-travel with-*(8)
         'I bought the cups that you traveled with.'

(20) *M-kurugenzi amba-na-ye ni-li-kutana   a-li-staafu   kazi.
     1-director   amba-to-1   1SG-PST-meet 1-PST-retire 9.work
     Intended: 'The director with whom I met retired from work.'

The preposition *na* covers a large semantic territory yielding translations 'with' (19-b), 'to', and 'by'. The form *na* also functions as a coordinator, though that will not play a role in what follows.

Resumption in Swahili is not triggered by the preposition because of its category P^0. It is possible that resumption is a special property of prepositions in some languages, however, this is not the case in Swahili. First, resumption is obligatory on monosyllabic 'connectives', which are used in possessive constructions across Bantu (Van de Velde 2013). When the noun *kiti* is extracted from object position of the agreeing connective *mwa*, the monosyllabic connective cannot be stranded; it takes the suffix *-ke* creating the possessive pronoun *mwake*.[6]

(21) a. Nadya anakaa   uvungu-ni mw-a   ki-ti.
          Nadya 1-PRS-sit under-LOC 18-CON 7-seat
          'Nadya is sitting under a chair.'

      b. Ni-na-taka   ku-safisha ki-ti   amba-cho Nadya a-na-kaa uvunguni
          1SG-PRS-want 15-clean   8-seat amba-8   Nadya 1-PRS-sit underneath
          mw-a-*(ke).
          18-CON-POSS
          'I want to clean the chair that Nadya is sitting under.'

The *mw-a-ke* form, while showing that resumption is not limited to prepositions, also shows that resumption is also not limited to the particular from of the pronoun. Instead, resumption is triggered when a mono-syllabic word (*ya, na, mwa,* etc.) would otherwise be stranded. The evidence points to the motivation for resumption in Swahili as a strict phonological Minimality requirement (Park 1995, Scott 2015). Park (1995) argues for a disyllabic Minimality requirement for Swahili words, with evidence from reduplication in pronouns. Scott (2015) argues for a bimoraic Minimality requirement, with evidence from vowel lengthening in loan words. Both accounts posit a two-unit minimal word, which would be violated in mono-syllabic (and simultaneously mono-moraic) preposition stranding. In Swahili, stress is assigned to the penultimate syllable of a word, providing a probable motivation for a two-unit minimal word.[7] All mono-syllabic prepositions and connectives appear with resumptive pronouns, supporting the claim that it is their small phonological shape which triggers resumption.

Further evidence supporting the phonological motivation for resumption comes from the fact that multi-syllabic prepositions do not show resumption. Instead, when the object of a multisyllabic preposition is relativized, either the preposition is dropped, or locative relative agreement is used. In (22), the preposition *katika* is trisyllabic; when its object, *kazi* 'work' is extracted the preposition is dropped as in (23). (23) also shows that resumption with the trisyllabic preposition is ungrammatical.

(22) A-me-weka pingamizi katika kazi   y-ake.
      1-PERF-put conditions on   9.work 9-POSS
      'He put conditions on his work.'

(23) Kazi   amba-yo a-li-weka pingamizi (*katika/*katika-yo) i-na-endelea.
      9.work amba-9   1-PST-put conditions on/on-9   9-PRS-continue
      'The work that he put conditions on continues.'

Katika is not the only trisyllabic word with a prepositional meaning. Words like *uvun-guni* 'underneath' (21), *chini* 'below', *kando* 'beside' are all translated to English prepositions. However, in Swahili these words are noun-like: they must be followed by a (monosyllabic) connective like the construction in (21). *Katika* is not followed by a connective and thus behaves more like the true preposition *na*. However, due to its large phonological size, resumption is not observed.

To summarize the distribution of resumptive pronouns in Swahili, first, resumption in Swahili is phonologically motivated. The minimal word size in Swahili is two units and leaving a gap in relative clauses with mono-syllabic prepositions violates the minimal word size by stranding the mono-syllabic preposition. To repair the Minimality violation, resumptive pronouns are used, creating disyllabic words. Further evidence for a phonological motivation comes from the fact that multisyllabic prepositions do not show resumption.[8]

3.4   Features of resumptive pronouns

With the distribution of resumptive pronouns established, let us now turn to the form and features that the pronouns have. First, there are two options for resumptive pronouns in simple clefts: i) person matching resumptives[9] and ii) person-less resumptives, shown by the options *mi* and *ye* in the first person cleft in (24) and *we* and *ye* in the second person cleft in (25).

First person cleft
(24) Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye Bahati a-li-pika   na-mi/ye.
      1SG   COP-1 amba-1 Bahati 1-PST-cook with-1SG/1
      'It's me who Bahati cooked with.'

Second person cleft

(25) Wewe ndi-ye amba-ye Bahati a-li-pika   na-we/ye.
      2SG   COP-1 amba-1 Bahati 1-PST-cook with-2SG/1
      'It's you who Bahati cooked with.'

In order to understand why the different pronouns are available in (24) and (25), we have to first establish the inventory of pronouns in Swahili and what features they express. Comparing the pronouns in (26) and (27), resumptive pronouns in Swahili look morphologically identical to regular pronouns.

(26) Ni-li-kutana   na-**ye**.
      1SG-PST-meet with-**1**
      'I met with her.'

(27) M-walimu amba-ye ni-li-kutana na-**ye**...
      1-teacher amba-1   1SG-PST-met with-1...
      'The teacher that I met with...

The isomorphic relationship between regular pronouns and resumptive pronouns holds across the entire person and number paradigm. Table 1 gives the full form of the personal pronouns. The relationship to the resumptive pronouns in Table 2 is obvious. In fact, the forms given in Table 2 also constitute the prepositional pronouns in matrix clauses, like the one in (26).

Table 1: Full Form Personal Pronouns

	Singular	Plural
1st	mimi	sisi
2nd	wewe	nyinyi
3rd	yeye	wao

Table 2: Resumptive Personal Pronoun

	Singular	Plural
1st	-mi	-si
2sg	-we	-nyi
3rd	-ye	-o

I adopt Carstens' (1991) analysis of noun class in Bantu as the expression of number specified for gender. Table 3 illustrates that different number and gender combinations constitute different noun classes. This table shows noun classes 1-10 only. There are up to 18 noun class in any Bantu language, with Swahili having 1-10 and 14-18 (not shown). The resumptive pronouns for noun classes 1-10 in Swahili are also given

in Table 3.

Table 3: Noun Class is Number and Gender

	Singular	Singular RP	Plural	Plural RP
Gender A	Noun Class 1	-ye	Noun Class 2	-o
Gender B	Noun Class 3	-o	Noun Class 4	-yo
Gender C	Noun Class 5	-lo	Noun Class 6	-yo
Gender D	Noun Class 7	-cho	Noun Class 8	-vyo
Gender E	Noun Class 9	-yo	Noun Class 10	-zo

Important for the current analysis is that the 3rd person resumptive pronouns from Table 2 are also the pronouns for gender A singular and plural (noun classes 1 and 2) from Table 3. Using a Distributed Morphology framework (Halle and Marantz 1993) I analyze *-ye* and *-o* as the 'default' in the personal pronoun paradigm. Specifically, *-ye* and *-o* do not expone person features, only animacy (all nouns in noun classes 1 and 2 are animate) and number. Below are the vocabulary items for Swahili resumptive pronouns.

(28)   Vocabulary Insertion Rules:

$$[\varphi(\text{PERS: 1, GEN: ANIM, NUM: SG})] \longleftrightarrow /\text{-mi}/$$
$$[\varphi(\text{PERS: 1, GEN: ANIM, NUM: PL})] \longleftrightarrow /\text{-si}/$$
$$[\varphi(\text{PERS: 2, GEN: ANIM, NUM: SG})] \longleftrightarrow /\text{-we}/$$
$$[\varphi(\text{PERS: 2, GEN: ANIM, NUM: PL})] \longleftrightarrow /\text{-nyi}/$$
$$[\varphi(\text{GEN: ANIM, NUM: SG})] \longleftrightarrow /\text{-ye}/$$
$$[\varphi(\text{GEN: ANIM, NUM: PL})] \longleftrightarrow /\text{-o}/$$

While resumptive pronouns in personal pronoun clefts optionally surface as person-less animate pronouns, resumptive pronouns always match in number (shown in (29)) and gender (shown in (30)).[10]

Singular cleft

(29)   a.   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye Hadija a-li-kutana na-mi/ye/*si/*o.
                1SG   COP-1 amba-1   Hadija 1-PST-meet with-1SG/1/*1PL/*2
                'It's me who Hadija met with.'

          b.   Wewe ndi-ye amba-ye Hadija a-li-kutana na-we/ye/*nyi/*o.
                2SG   COP-1 amba-1   Hadija 1-PST-meet with-2SG/1/*2PL/*2
                'It's you who Hadija met with.'

Inanimate cleft

(30)   a.   Hivi   ndi-vyo amba-vyo Hadija a-li-safiri   na-vyo/*o/*zo.
              8.DEM COP-8   amba-8   Hadija 1-PST-TRAVEL with-8/*2/*10
              'It's these that Hadija traveled with.'

        b.   Hili   ndi-lo amba-lo Hadija a-li-safiri   na-lo/*ye/*zo.
              5.DEM COP-5 amba-5 Hadija 1-PST-travel with-5/*1/*10
              'It's this that Hadija traveled with.'

To summarize resumption in Swahili: i) resumptive pronouns are only found as objects of mono-syllabic prepositions, ii) resumptive pronouns look identical to ordinary pronouns, iii) *ye* and *o* are the pronouns unspecified for person features, iv) resumptive pronouns in personal pronoun clefts optionally surface as the person-less animate pronouns, and v) resumptive pronouns obligatorily match the extractee in number and gender. The optional person features of resumptive pronouns in Swahili motivate an investigation into whether the two options for resumption in the examples above truly have the same distribution. Since we know that languages can employ resumption for different underlying structures, it is valuable to test whether the availability of a person-mismatching resumptive pronoun can give deeper insights into the structure of relative clauses in Swahili.

4   Two types of resumptive pronouns

4.1   Islands versus parasitic gaps

Based on the cross-linguistic characterization of resumptive pronouns into two types (movement and base-generated), the prediction follows that the options for resumption in Swahili each correspond to one of the two types. I will provide evidence from adjunct islands and parasitic gap constructions that show that the the person-less resumptives like *ye* are movement resumptives. The prediction that one type of resumptive is a movement copy and the other is a bound pronoun can be tested by using typical movement diagnostics. Since Ross 1967 and Chomsky 1977, a class of

constructions- island constructions- have been known to block movement of an XP in the island to outside the island. In many languages, it has been claimed that while leaving a gap in an island is ungrammatical, using a resumptive pronoun is acceptable. This is explained by saying that the pronoun is related to the head of the dependency via binding- not movement- whereas a gap represents a true movement trace (McCloskey 2001, 2006). Thus, islands provide a good testing ground for movement.

Because relativization never leaves a gap after a preposition in Swahili, it is not the presence or absence of a resumptive pronoun that we are looking for, but whether the choice between -*mi*/-*ye* still exists. In adjunct islands, shown in (31) through (33), the choice of resumptive pronoun is limited to the pronoun that matches in person features: second person *we* in (31) and first person *mi* in (32) and (33). The person-less pronoun *ye* is unacceptable in these constructions.

'Because' island
(31)   Wewe ndi-ye amba-ye ni-li-hama   kwa sababu ni-li-ach-ana
       2SG   COP-1 amba-1 1SG-PST-move for   reason 1SG-PST-leave-RECIP
       na-we/*ye.
       with-2SG/*1
       'It's you who I moved because I left you.'

'When' island
(32)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye Nadya a-li-anguka a-li-po-cheza na-mi/*ye.
       1SG   COP-1 amba-1 Nadya 1-PST-fall   1-PST-16-play with-1SG/*1
       'It's me who Nadya fell when she played with me.'

'While' island
(33)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-tabasamu wakati u-na-fanya kazi   na-mi/*ye.
       1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-smile while 2SG-PST-do work with-1SG/*1
       'It's me who you smiled while working with me.'

Resumptive pronouns in adjunct islands obligatorily match in person features. If movement is blocked from adjunct islands, then the grammaticality of (31)-(33) suggest that the resumptive pronoun is a bound pronoun, not a movement copy. Further, it shows that the person-less pronoun cannot act as a bound pronoun, only the person-

matching pronoun can be bound.[11]

We can isolate movement constructions in Swahili using parasitic gaps. In a parasitic gap construction, the 'parasitic gap' is only licensed for movement if the other gap is a 'true gap' (Engdahl 1985). I interpret 'true gap' from Engdahl 1985 to mean 'true movement site' even if that movement site is not phonologically null. An example of a parasitic gap construction in English:

(34)   Which articles did John file _____$_t$ without reading _____$_p$?   (Engdahl 1985)

The claim made for parasitic gap constructions like (34) is that the gap labeled p for 'parasitic gap' is only a licit movement site if the gap labeled t for 'true gap' is also a movement site. To test the behavior of the different pronouns in Swahili, we want to look a parasitic gap construction with the two 'gaps' as resumptive pronominal objects of monosyllabic prepositions, shown in (35).

(35)   Habiba ndi-ye amba-ye ni-li-kaa   na-**ye**$_t$ baada ya ku-kutana na-ye$_p$
        Habiba COP-1 amba-1 1SG-PST-stay with-1 after of 15-meet   with-1
        'It's Habiba who I stayed with __$_t$ after meeting with __$_p$.'

For Swahili parasitic gap constructions, the difference between 'gap' and 'pronoun' is the difference between the pronouns *ye* and *mi*, respectively. We predict that *ye* in the parasitic position forces *ye* to appear in the true gap position. This is exactly what we find in Swahili parasitic gap constructions. The only way to license the movement pronoun *ye* is if the true gap position is also *ye*, shown in (36). The parasitic pronoun *ye* is not licit if the other pronoun is a bound pronoun *mi*, shown in (37).

(36)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-pika   na-**ye**$_t$ kabla ya ku-ondoka na-ye$_p$
        1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-cook with-1 before of 15-leave   with-1
        'It's me who you cooked with __$_t$ before leaving with __$_p$'

(37)   Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-pika   na-**mi**$_t$ kabla ya ku-cheza na-ye$_p$
        1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-eat with-1SG before of 15-eat   with-1
        #'It's me who you ate with <u>me</u>$_t$ before dancing with <u>me</u>$_p$' Meaning: 'It's me

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who you ate with $\underline{me}_t$ before dancing with $\underline{her}_p$'

The sentence in (37) does not convey the same meaning as (36). The pronoun ye must be interpreted as third person and it crucially cannot refer to the speaker, indicating that it is not a parasitic gap construction, but a single extraction context. The other logically possible combinations (*ye...mi*) and (*mi...mi*) turn out to be judged differently by different speakers. However, the variation is compatible with the analysis of *ye* as a movement copy and *mi* as a bound pronoun.

4.2 Supporting evidence from inter-speaker variation

The parasitic gap construction gives us clear predictions regarding whether the 'parasitic gap' can be a movement site or not. The predictions for whether that position can be a bound pronoun are less clear, and this is indeed where we see variation between speakers. The variation for all possible pronoun combinations in parasitic gaps is given in Table 4. Rows 1 and 2 shows that the main prediction regarding parasitic gaps holds for all speakers: ye_t ... ye_p is good while mi_t ... ye_p is bad.

Table 4: Parasitic gap inter-speaker variation

	$\underline{\quad}_t$ ... $\underline{\quad}_p$	Form	Speaker One	Speaker Two	Speaker Three
1	Move ... Move	*ye ... ye*	✓	✓	✓
2	Pronoun ... move	*mi ... ye*	*	*	*
3	Pronoun ... Pronoun	*mi ... mi*	*	✓	✓
4	Move ... Pronoun	*ye ... mi*	*	✓	*

Speaker One shows an extremely limited set of felicitous options: both pronouns must be *ye*. While the unacceptability of mi_t ... mi_p and ye_t ... mi_p is not directly predicted, it can be explained by the following constraint: for Speaker One, only movement is allowed in parasitic gap constructions. This is unsurprising for this speaker, as this speaker also only tolerates movement copy pronouns (*ye*) in simple extraction cases. For Speaker One, bound pronouns are only grammatical in islands, constructions in which movement is prohibited. Where movement is licit, it is required.

Perhaps the most obvious prediction is that all combinations except mi_t ... ye_p should be felicitous. This is indeed the pattern that Speaker Two shows. The generalization for Speaker Two is that if the true gap is a movement site, the parasitic gap must also be a movement site; however, if the 'true gap' position is a pronoun, the 'parasitic gap' position is free to be a movement site or bound pronoun.

Speaker Three presents a third pattern in which both sites must match in form (only ye_t ... ye_p and mi_t ... mi_p are felicitous). For Speaker Three, the two pronoun positions are closely related; only a movement site licenses a movement site (classic parasitic gap generalization) and only a bound pronoun licenses a bound pronoun.

One prediction that the current analysis makes is that a bound pronouns (like *mi*) might be able to alternate with a phonologically full pronoun (*mimi*). Movement copies should not be able to alternate with full pronouns because they are only pronounced to fulfill a disyllabic phonological requirement. This is indeed the pattern we see with Speaker Three: *mi* can alternate with *mimi* (38), but *ye* crucially cannot alternation with *yeye* (39).

(38) Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-pika   na-mi/✓**mimi**$_t$ kabla ya ku-cheza
      1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-cook with-1SG   before of 15-play
      na-mi/ ✓**mimi**$_p$
      with-1
      'It's me who you cooked with __$_t$ before playing with __$_p$'

(39) Mimi ndi-ye amba-ye u-li-pika   na-ye/*__**yeye**$_t$ kabla ya ku-cheza
      1SG   COP-1 amba-1 2SG-PST-cook with-1SG   before of 15-play
      na-ye/*__**yeye**$_p$
      with-1
      'It's me who you cooked with __$_t$ before playing with __$_p$'

I conclude that there are two types of resumptive pronouns in Swahili. Resumptive pronouns with person features are syntactically bound pronouns. Resumptive pronouns without person features are the tails of movement chains. This conclusion supports Sichel's (2014) claim that the tails of relative clause movement chains are re-

alized as the least specified form available. The conclusion presented here is also the first case to show that not only can both types of resumptive pronouns co-occur in a single language, but they can be morphologically distinct.
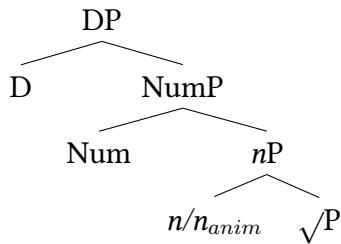
5 Analysis

An analysis of the two types of resumptive pronouns presented here must capture three main empirical facts: i) bound resumptives express person features and movement resumptives do not express person features, ii) all resumptives express gender and number features, iii) resumption is only found on mono-syllabic prepositions. In this section I develop an analysis of Swahili resumptive pronouns which captures these three facts.

5.1 Structure of DPs

I adopt the view that the structure for pronouns is minimally different from lexical DPs: the only difference is the sister of *n*: PersonP for pronouns and $\sqrt{}$P for lexical DPs (Moskal 2015, van Urk 2017).
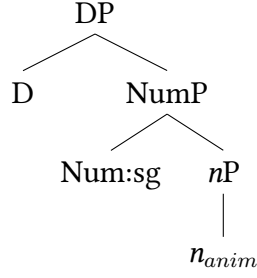
(40) Lexical DP structure

```
            DP
          /    \
         D     NumP
              /    \
            Num     nP
                   /   \
            n/n_anim    √P
```

(41) Pronoun Structure

```
            DP
          /    \
         D     NumP
              /    \
            Num     nP
                   /   \
             n_anim    PersP
```
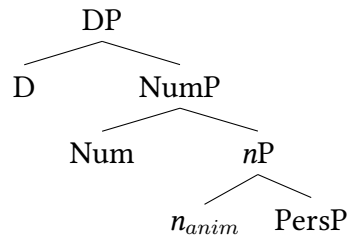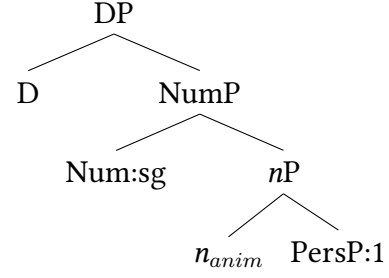
As I showed in Section 3, the pronoun *ye* does not express person features, suggesting a lack of a Person projection. Thus, the structure in (41) represents local person pronouns only. (42) shows the structure for the pronoun *ye*, while (44) represents the structure for local person pronouns, exemplified by the 1sg pronoun *mi.*

(42)   Noun class 1 pronoun: ye

```
            DP
          /    \
         D     NumP
              /    \
          Num:sg    nP
                    |
                  n_anim
```

(43) $[\text{sg} + n_{anim}] \longleftrightarrow \boxed{\text{/-ye/}}$

(44)   1sg pronoun: mi

```
            DP
          /    \
         D     NumP
              /    \
          Num:sg    nP
                   /   \
               n_anim  PersP:1
```

(45) $[\text{sg} + n_{anim} + 1] \longleftrightarrow \boxed{\text{/-mi/}}$

In addition to assuming that Person has its own projection in the DP, which is very low (see also Harbour 2016), I follow Kramer (2015) and Fuchs and van der Wal (2018) by assuming that gender features are on *n*. For Bantu languages, gender and number are always expressed together. The Bantu portmanteau morphemes are a result of the adjacency between Num and n.[12] For example, the noun class 7 pronoun /-cho/ is spelled out from Num and n_D (*n* specified for gender "D."). The spell out rule is: $[\text{sg} + n_D] \longleftrightarrow$ /-cho/.[13] Following Fuchs & van der Wal, I assume that the various inanimate noun classes are represented by various flavors of *n* specified for different genders.[14]

5.2   Chain reduction

Under the copy theory of movement, both the head pronouns and the resumptive pronouns in the clefted examples in (36) are simply separate copies of the same pronoun. Because each instance is a copy, the two copies are expect to be identical. Recall that the lower movement copies in Swahili *amba*-RCs never surface with person features and thus are not identical to the higher copies when pronouns are local person pronouns. For the movement-derived resumptives which lack person features, some mechanism must be responsible for the removal of person features of the lower copy. In this section, I will develop an analysis of the removal of person features via deletion of the constituent within pronouns which houses person features. The deletion

analysis calls on Landau's (2006) chain reduction as the mechanism which motivates deletion of movement copies at PF and MaxElide as the mechanism which decides how much of a given copy is deleted.

Under the structural deletion analysis, an XP moves cyclically through the derivation, leaving copies at each landing site resulting in a chain of copies of the same XP. Landau (2006) argues that a chain reduction algorithm calculates which copies of a chain will be pronounced and which will be deleted. The algorithm invokes the Economy of Pronunciation principle which tries to delete as many copies as possible. This competes with the principle of Phonologcial-Recoverability which requires elements associated with phonetic content to pronounced, resulting in pronunciation of the highest copy and possibly pronunciation of intermediate copies that are in positions with specific phonological requirements.
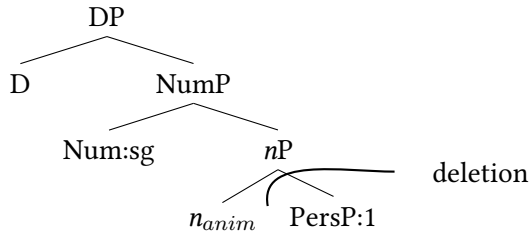
When a position is specified with a phonological requirement, the role of Economy of Pronunciation shifts from 'delete all chain copies' to 'delete content within a chain copy' in order to leave *some* content to be pronounced. Further, I propose that deletion *within* a chain copy is *not* limited to phases (as proposed by van Urk 2017) but instead follows a principle of deletion, MaxElide, which deletes the largest constituent such that what remains is able to be spelled out (this is similar to a principle of spelling out as little as possible proposed by Harizanov & Mikkelsen 2018). MaxElide constrains Economy of Pronunciation and Phonological Recoverability by stating the following: Elide the biggest deletable constituent (Merchant 2001, 2008; Takahashi 2006). MaxElide will result in deletion of different constituents depending on the language- and construction- specific vocabulary available. The output of MaxElide will be phonological material of the most structurally reduced form.

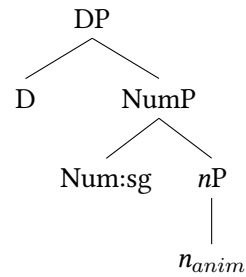## 5.3   Chain reduction in Swahili resumptive pronouns

Recall that the difference between the realization of the pronouns *ye* and *mi* is in the size of the structure they realize. When the first person singular pronoun undergoes Ā-movement, it leaves an identical copy in its base position. As a movement copy, it is subject to the chain deletion algorithm. In Swahili, subject and object positions do not have a phonological requirement and the lower copies are fully deleted as dictated by Economy of Pronunciation. Objects of mono-syllabic prepositions *do* have a phonological requirement, namely, that they cannot be stranded due to a minimal word requirement. Instead of full deletion, objects of such prepositions unergo partial deletion. Max Elide applies and the largest possible constituent is deleted.

As we have seen, in Swahili, Num and *n* are spelled out together as noun class morphology. Therefore, Max Elide cannot delete *n*P because there is no vocabulary item to spell out Num alone. PersP can be deleted because there is a vocabulary item, /-ye/, which spells out [sg + n_{anim}]. Since PersP can be deleted, it is deleted and /-ye/ is inserted.

(46)   Step 1: Deletion of PersP   (47)   Step 2: PF object

(48)   Step 3: Spell out

[sg + n_{anim}] $\leftrightarrow$ /-ye/

Bound pronouns are not subject to the chain reduction algorithm because the resumptive pronoun is not a copy of the pronoun that is the head of the relative clause. Because an identity relationship does not hold between the two pronouns, the algorithm is blind to bound pronouns. Thus, the morphological distinction between move-

ment and bound pronouns in Swahili is captured by the fact that movement copies undergo reduction from full person pronouns to animate pronouns while bound pronouns do not undergo reduction and are spelled out with person features.

6 Conclusion

In this paper I have shown that resumptive pronouns in Swahili can be either movement copies or bound pronouns. Evidence for movement copy pronouns comes from resumptive pronouns in parasitic gap constructions; evidence for bound pronouns comes from resumptive pronouns in adjunct islands. The Swahili island data support the view that islands are a syntactic phenomenon, not just a phonological one. It is not the case that replacing a gap with an overt pronoun ameliorates the island effect. Both the grammatical and ungrammatical constructions have phonologically overt resumptive pronouns, showing that the island effect is not due to a phonological requirement to have any pronoun, but due to a syntactic constraint on movement.

This constraint can be observed in Swahili because the two types of resumptive pronouns are morphologically distinct. Movement resumptives obligatorily surface without person features; bound resumptives obligatorily match the head of the relative clause in person features. Further, resumption only occurs with objects of monosyllabic prepositions, revealing that the motivation for resumptive pronouns in general is phonological in nature.

The pattern of resumption in Swahili is captured by appealing to a chain reduction algorithm that applies to movement copies at PF (Landau 2006). The reduction algorithm operates according to a Principle of Economy which deletes as many chain copies as possible. A principle of Phonological Recoverability imposes a requirement that material cannot be fully deleted when in a position specified with a phonological requirement. Phonological-Recoverability may results in partial deletion which is constrained by Max Elide. Partial deletion has been shown to be the case for Swahili

movement resumptives: partial deletion applies to the most inner constituent of the pronoun– PersP. The result is that movement resumptives express number and gender, but never person.

The chain reduction mechanism described above accounts for several cross-linguistic patterns about copied pronouns, one being that if the copied pronouns match in person, they also match in number. This follows from the constituent deletion analysis: Num is structurally higher than Pers. I have shown that featurally reduced pronouns in movement dependencies undergo constituent deletion before spell out, accounting for the phonological form of movement resumptives. A question still remaining is how the bound pronouns acquire person features. If bound pronouns are simply variables, presumably when they enter the derivation, they are feature-less. If this is the case, there needs to be an account of why bound variables obligatorily acquire person features. Regardless of the analysis, the resumption pattern in Swahili shows that resumptives can be movement copies as well as bound pronouns, and that this distinction can influence the morphological shape of the pronouns.

Notes

[1]I would like to first thank my three Swahili language consultants, Habiba Kiongoli, Iddi Nurudin, and Bahati Kiongoli, who graciously gave me the Swahili judgements. For additional comments and encouragement on earlier versions of this project, I am grateful to Peter Jenks, Line Mikkelsen, Boris Harizanov, Nico Baier, Ivy Sichel, and audiences at UC Berkeley, LSA 92, ACAL 49, and Stanford.

[1]Given the immense amount of variation in Swahili (with 47 million speakers in Tanzania alone (Eberhard et. al. 2019)) there is bound to be disagreement on the well-formedness of some of the constructions presented in this paper. I make no claims about grammaticality across all Swahili dialects; I simply show that for the three native Swahili speakers consulted for this project, the patterns are robust and deserve

an analysis. Three native Swahili speakers living in Tanzania were consulted for the judgements given in this paper. Speaker One is a 40 year old woman living in Kibiti, Tanzania. Speaker Two is a 49 year old woman living in Ikwiriri, Tanzania. Speaker Three is a 40 year old man living in Mloka, Tanzania. All data not cited are from these three speakers and all inter-speaker variation is discussed. All speakers learned Swahili in the home and are Swahili dominant in daily life although they may be fluent in other local languages.

[2]Abbreviations used include: 1SG/1PL=first person singular/plural, 2SG/2PL=second person singular/plural, 1,2,3, etc=noun classes, CON=connective, COP=copula, DEM=demonstrative, HAB=habitual, SG=singular, PL=plural, PST=past, PRS=present, POSS=possessive, RECP=reciprocal, REFL=reflexive, REL=relativizer.

[3]All data from external sources contain original glosses unless noted.

[4]I thank an anonymous reviewer for highlighting that there remains an open question whether object agreement functions like resumption. This is an interesting and complex question and I point the reader to Allen (1983), Seidl and Dimitriadis (1997) and Reidel (2009) for discussion of Swahili, and more broadly, Bantu object marking. As I am focused on objects of prepositions, a deeper discussion of object marking is outside the scope of this paper.

[5]Baker (2008:191-194) analyzes the agreeing suffix on *na* as agreement, not as a resumptive pronoun. Under his analysis, P cannot agree with NP when NP is its complement; NP must move to position which c-commands P. It is clear that the form of these morphemes is directly related to the emphatic pronouns, and for this reason I do not entertain the idea that the resumptive pronouns are actually agreement.

[6]I follow Van de Velde (2013) in treating *a* as a connective morpheme which is related to the possessive form present in constructions like (49). I thank an anonymous reviewer for bringing it to my attention that this is an assumption.

(49) a. nyumba y-a   Habiba
          9.house 9-CON Habiba

'Habiba's house'

b. nyumba y-a-ke.
9.house 9-CON-POSS
'her house'

[7]The notion of 'word' as it's used here is 'phonological word' which I take to be the phonological constituent size of a mono-syllabic preposition and it's complement together, which is larger than a 'grammatical word'. Keach (1986) argues that the subject agreement and tense on the Swahili verb (a unit smaller than a 'grammatical word') seem to attract stress in a penultimate pattern as well.

[8]A phonological analysis of resumption in Swahili predicts that stranding multi-syllabic prepositions should be okay, but (23) shows that it is not. Why this is the case could have to do with the status of these words as prepositions, but further analysis is beyond the scope of this paper.

[9]Speaker One routinely does not accept the person-matching resumptive pronouns in simple extraction cases, though this speaker does accept them in island contexts. I take this to indicate that for Speaker One, when movement is available, it is obligatory.

[10]Free variation is not always observed for first and second person plural clefts. Speakers give much weaker judgements and disagree as to whether the person matching or person mismatching pronoun is the grammatical form, if any alternation exists at all. I take this to reflect differences in the availability of movement versus base generation in the simple extraction cases.

[11]Extraction from relative clauses was rejected or found to be degraded and confusing by all speakers. This result may point to the restriction on extraction from relative clauses as something separate from general island restrictions.

[12]I assume that a DM-style morphological operation such as fusion occurs between Num and n, resulting in portmanteau noun class marking. The analysis presented here does not rely on this particular implementation. When any n is in the context of a root, it is spelled out as a noun classes nominal prefix as opposed to a pronoun.

[13]I assume that D^0 is spelled out as null in Swahili. This follows from the fact that Swahili does not have augment vowels, unlike other Bantu languages in which the augment is typically analyzed as a D^0 (Fuchs & van der Wal 2018).

[14]I propose that all animate nouns have a *n* specified for animacy. The n_{anim} can co-occur with *n* specified for other genders. This configuration results in animate nouns that i) take inanimate noun class prefixes but ii) show animate agreement on with the verb (see Carstens (1991) for more on *Animacy Override*). See Fuchs and van der Wal (2018) for arguments for different flavors of *n* as well as selectional requirements. See Kramer (2015) for arguments that when *n* stacks on top of another, agreement can only see the highest *n*.

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