

Treegrowth Dynamics*

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Abstract

In this paper we address the challenge of clitic clusters in Romance languages and the puzzling gaps in the clitic templates which they display, and show how the distribution of clitics and these apparent gaps are grounded in one and the same structural restriction, a restriction on tree-growth. The restriction is a parsing-inspired restriction that in building up structurally underspecified relations, only one such relative weak relation can be constructed at a time. This is a core restriction underpinning concepts of tree growth central to the Dynamic Syntax framework which argues that natural-language syntax is grounded in tree growth mechanisms that reflect on-line processing dynamics. We apply this constraint to explain the restriction on the morphological clitic templates of Romance currently referred to as the Person Case Constraint (PCC). We show that the explanation of such gaps in terms of preclusion of more than one structurally weak relation is grounded in the diachronic calcification of tree-growth strategies that had earlier constituted a freely available set of options for building up interpretation via flexible word orders, individual clitics and clitic clusters severally displaying the various strategies. Apparent counterexamples

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to the constraint are explained in terms of the availability of an alternative adjunct strategy not involving any such underspecification which, in those languages apparently violating the constraints, had led to homonymy in the clitic system. Finally, the force of the structural basis for the PCC is buttressed by the demonstration of its applicability to explain the object-marking puzzle of Otjiherero, a Bantu language which, despite allowing construal of object agreement markers as both indirect and direct object, never allows both to be co-present.

1 Preliminaries

In this paper, we address the challenge of explaining clitic clusters in the Romance languages, with the puzzle of apparent Person Case Constraints that are associated with these clusters which, though very widespread, by no means universally hold, with variation between otherwise very closely related languages. Such clitic clusters are often characterised as irreducibly opaque morphological templates, little more than a cleaned-up disjunctive statement of the facts of the matter. We argue that these clusters and the gaps in the paradigms associated with them can be explained in terms of a constraint on procedures for building up representations of content in real time, a constraint which also serves to determine limits on NP-placement in free scrambling languages. Our case study is the clustering properties displayed in the Romance languages, our principal focus being on Latin and Medieval Spanish. What we show is that the various types of clitic behaviour match the range of strategies available for the structure-building mechanisms underpinning construal of sequences of NPs in Latin, with its free scrambling of NPs before the verb; and we argue that the emergence of the clitic systems of Romance was a calcification of these strategies variously associated with individual lexical specifications. We go on from this to demonstrate that the gaps in these paradigms, in particular the so-called Person Case Constraint, can also be explained in terms of very same constraint that underpins scrambling of NPs. So the explanation both of clitic clusters and their constraints is essentially syntactic, but with a twist, as the structural explanation to be provided makes essential use of the growth of representation of content to be attributed to the string, so essentially semantic.

What we argue is that mechanisms for inducing structural representations of content involve constructing structurally underspecified relations, in particular for structural relations before a verb is processed; and, as we shall show, all natural language systems are defined so as to preclude the building of more than one such weak structural relation at a time. This, we claim, is a core structural restriction underpinning all tree growth mechanisms in natural language, a property of the tree logic in which such mechanisms are grounded. In the case of the clitics, the restriction is largely but not exclu-

sively realised by the structurally syncretic case forms, and we argue that the syncretic morphology accurately depicts the structural lack of specification in the tree-relation constructed. Apparent counterexamples can be explained in terms of the availability of an alternative parsing mechanism that does not involve such a structurally underspecified relation which, through its widespread use in those languages apparently violating the constraint, became encoded as a homonymous clitic form. Independent evidence of the form of explanation is demonstrated by the applicability of the same procedural tree-growth restriction to explain a gap in the paradigm of object marking in Otjiherero, a Bantu language allowing only one object marker in ditransitive constructions and disallowing any such object marker in the corresponding passive construction. We will conclude that the broad applicability of the constraint of only one type of underspecified relation at a time within both syntax and morphosyntax is strong evidence of the parsing grounding of structural properties of language, hence that core mechanisms of grammar should reflect processing dynamics.

1.1 The Person Case Constraint: A Sketch

The Person Case Constraint is a label for a puzzling pair of restrictions in morpho-syntax. In languages that have pronominal clitic systems, these commonly cluster together either occurring immediately preverbally, or in some not very clearly definable second position. Over and above the strictly syntactic problem of how to characterise this position, these clusters display such heterogeneity in the internal orderings which individual languages and/or dialects license, that their variability is said to warrant a separate morphology component within the grammar. Nonetheless, they are subject to restrictions that hold with striking regularity across different language families. Though some gaps are random, others never, or almost never, occur. The most well-known of these has come to be known as the Person Case Constraint, of which there are two variant forms. The most widespread is that construal of either first and second person forms as an accusative can never co-occur with third person dative, a restriction which holds in all the Romance languages as long as we keep distinct the various usages of the dative clitic as ethical, reflexive, and impersonal. Thus, though there are occurrences of first or second person construed as dative followed by third person accusative in Medieval Spanish, just as in other Romance languages, as in (1), there is no reported occurrence of construal of either as accusative, with dative third person:

- (1) *agora quiero uos lo descubrir*
 now want.1.SG you.PL it reveal.INF

‘Now I want to reveal it to you.’

Data from Granberg 1988: 176

The lack of first or second person Accusative forms with a third person dative is a puzzling gap if such clitic forms are thought to be a mere listing of possible morphological forms. There is also a further restriction displayed by a subset of these languages: that first and second person pronominal forms should not co-occur. In this case, the restriction is less definitive, and in Latin and Spanish such examples are wellformed, a problem which we return to:

- (2) *Il me t'a fait montrer une livre
 He me you have.3.SG made show.INF a book
 He made me show you a book [French]
- (3) qui me tibi fecerit hostem
 whoNOM.SG me.ACC you.DAT.SG make.3SG.PERF enemy.ACC.SG
 'who would make me an enemy to you.' Lucan DBC 1.
- (4) *Te me recomendaron.*
 you me they-recommend [Modern Spanish]
 'They recommended you to me.'

Such gaps, and indeed the less common lack of any such gap in some languages, are mysterious, since they appear to lack syntactic, semantic, or phonological explanation (Anderson (2005), Monachesi (2005)). That this is neither a semantic or pragmatic restriction can be shown by the fact that in all these languages the restriction can simply be side-stepped by realizing one of these arguments as a strong pronoun or full NP:

- (5) Se de nos te non partes..
 If from us CL.DO not depart....
 If you do not leave us [Med.Spanish Rivero (1997)]

In the face of the various challenges which these clustering facts present, many authors settle for a discrete morphological form of explanation, not characterising the phenomenon within the syntactic domain at all (see eg Nevins (2007). Rivero (2007)). In this paper, however, we explore a perspective in which these restrictions can be seen as a consequence of a strong structural restriction, one that is a constraint on growth of interpretation. The restriction is a constraint debarring more than one underspecified structural relation at any one point in the unfolding construction process of establishing interpretation. We shall argue that the reason it emerges as a morpho-syntactic restriction in the Romance clitic systems is that the patterns which Romance clitics severally display each constitutes a calcification of some processing strategy that was freely operative in the earlier Latin system, subject to general constraints on growth of interpretation, so the debarred clitic cluster sequences currently known collectively as the Person

Case Constraint (PCC) (eg Adger and Harbour (2006)) cannot arise because the earlier pattern of NP sequencing was precluded. The difficulty for any such structural account of this constraint is that some languages apparently fail to display PCC effects. So making this move will impose the challenge of explaining the apparent exceptions, but that too we will argue can be seen as a consequence of adopting a parsing perspective. The account as given here, though within a formal framework, is largely informal (see Cann and Kempson forthcoming, Bouzouita forthcoming, in preparation for detailed lexical specifications).

2 Background: Latin scrambling puzzles and the emergence of pronominal clitic systems

The background against which this account is set is the challenge posed by clitics, whose positioning and clustering behaviour are problematic, given current theoretical assumptions.

2.1 Clitic mysteries

Pronominal clitics are typically weakened quasi-affixal, quasi-pronominal devices, with a characteristic preference for occurring at some relatively early position in a finite clausal sequence, in some languages immediately following some first constituent or word (as seen in the Baltic languages, Medieval Spanish, among others), in other languages immediately preceding the verb (most Romance languages, including Modern Spanish). The first of these alternatives, the second-position clitic placement, is hosted by a heterogeneous set of categories, commonly including complementisers, *wh* expressions, negation-marker, focused expressions, relative pronouns, verbs (if nothing else precedes), and in some cases conjunction markers¹:

- (6) ... *quien te algo prometiere* ..
 who 2.CL-IO something would-promise

‘the one who would promise something to you.’

Data from Rivero 1997

- (7) *Quant le connocio Abdias, homillosle*
 when 3M.CL-DO recognised.3sg Abdias lowered-CL-CL

‘When Abdias recognised him, he bowed for him.’

¹In the main, illustrations are from 13th century Medieval Spanish; and are taken from a corpus of Medieval Spanish collected by Miriam Bouzouita culled from the *Fazienda de Ultramar*, which dates from around 1230. All Medieval Spanish examples given are from this text unless stated otherwise.

- (8) *Que te dixo Heliseus?*
 What 2.CL-IO said.3sg Heliseus
 ‘What did Heliseus tell you?’
- (9) *Non los destroyré [...]*
 not 3.CL-DO will-destroy.1sg [...]
 ‘I will not destroy them [...].’
- (10) *.ij. mios fijos te dexaré [...]*
 two my sons 2.CL-IO will-leave.1sg [...]
 ‘My two sons, I will leave you [...].’
- (11) *Con aquellas se aiunto Salomon [...]*
 with those CL-REFL joined.3sg Salomon [...]
 ‘With those women, Salomon (sexually) joined himself [...].’
- (12) *Oyol Ruben [...]*
 heard.3sg-CL-DO Ruben [...]
 ‘Ruben heard it [...].’

This set of environments resists any unitary syntactic characterisation. The puzzle, from a syntactic perspective, is what this array of variation can be grounded in?

Construal of clitics is also puzzling, as, for some clitics, their argument-role is fully determined by their form, but for others it is not. Accusative clitic pronouns in Romance for example are relatively clearcut in indicating a direct-object argument. Dative pronouns on the other hand invariably display a flexibility in construal which is displayed also in Latin, where the Greco-Latin tradition describes dative NPs as dividing into at least ten distinct types, from the marking of direct and indirect objects through to widely varying semantic uses, including possession, advantage, result and ‘interest’ (reported in (Hoecke (1996))). Latin examples include:

- (13) *an tibi quisquam in curiam*
 Q you.DAT anyone.NOM.SG into senate-house.ACC.SG
venienti assurexit?
 coming.DAT.SG get-up.3SG.PERF
 ‘Did anyone get up for you (to your benefit) when you came into the senate house?’

Cicero Pis. 26

- (14) *quid mihi Celsus agit?*
 what me.DAT Celsus.NOM.SG do.3.SG.PRES
 ‘How, pray, is Celsus?’ (Lit. ‘What to me Celsus does?’)

Horace Ep. 1, 3, 15²

Following this Latin usage, the first and second dative clitic pronouns in the Romance languages are commonly associated with a large number of distinct construals, the particular range varying from language to language, and even from environment to environment. For example, first and second person clitics in (Medieval) Spanish have a single form which may variously be construed as reflexive, direct or indirect object, or as ethical datives, (15).

- (15) *Testimonias me sed oy*
 witnesses 1.CL-IO be.imp today
 ‘Be witnesses on my behalf today.’

Yet another aspect of the clitics puzzle is that where there is more than one clitic in a clausal string, they generally cluster together, so that for any statement purporting to restrict the occurrence of the clitic pronoun to immediately following some preceding category of expression or immediately preceding some verbal form, the statement has to be complicated by the fact that another clitic may intervene between it and such a host:

- (16) *e ella dixogelo* [...] [...]
 and she told.3sg.CL-IO.3sg.CL-DO [...] [...]
 ‘And she told it to him [...].’

- (17) *ca ya non telo mandava matar*
 because already not 2.CL-IO.3sg.CL-DO I-order to-killbib
 ‘because I do not order you any longer to kill him.’

Data from Granberg 1988: 132

Finally, there is the complication that the relative ordering of these clitics may vary between closely related languages and even within a single language without any distinction of interpretation. Of these, perhaps the most striking is French which licenses pairs of third person clitics only in a DO-IO sequence (excluding the order *le lui*), but requires pairs of third and first/second person clitics to occur only in the inverse IO-DO sequence (as in the Spanish example (17)).³ The basis for such clusterings is thus generally agreed not to have a semantic basis. But there is also morphological idiosyncrasy, so that a purely phonological explanation doesn’t seem appropriate either - in particular restrictions on Spanish clustering differ according as the neutral dative form *se* is construed as ethical dative, indirect object, or reflexive. There is also notorious variation across dialects, with ‘leista’

²The phrase *quid agis?* in Latin is generally used for ‘How are you?’ or ‘How’s it going?’.

³We do not give French examples in detail, as a DS account of French remains to be developed.

effects in which the dative *le* appears to be spreading to include accusative uses, but with also ‘loista’ and even ‘laista’ dialects in which it is rather the masculine *lo* (or feminine form *la*) which is becoming the form that can cover both direct and indirect object construals (Company (1998)).

The intransigence of clitic positioning to syntactic, semantic, or phonological explication has led to debates as to whether these clusters interact with syntactic processes at all. In minimalist analyses, variant clitic properties are seen by some as associated with distinct features, hence distinct triggers for movement, inducing movement of the clitic to the requisite checking site (Cardinaletti (forthcoming)), others see them as subject only to feature-geometry forms of explanation (Cuervo (2005), ?), yet others a mixture of the two (Adger and Harbour (2006)) There have been debates over which clitics should have which features, what processes they trigger and, for those that argue for feature geometries, whether there should be rules making reference to concepts of domination displayed on the feature hierarchy (Heap (2005)). In the majority of cases, the specifications proposed lack independent motivation, and so amount to little more than stipulated invocation of syntactic structure or feature geometry to directly reflect the idiosyncratic orders observed. Cardinaletti’s account of the array of idiosyncracies displayed in Italian (Cardinaletti (forthcoming)) involves distinguishing *gli* (the realisation of dative *le* when immediately preceding *lo*) as having a +person feature while its alternative realisation *le* has only a +number feature without that person feature. Rivero (2007), in addressing cluster properties in association with Spanish psych predicates, defines a newly distinctive mental-state +m feature, whose positing critically provides the necessary count of feature-strength to determine appropriate orderings on which her account depends. Adger and Harbour and others argue over whether there should be binary Participant, Author, and Hearer features over and above other features assigned, and there are debates as to whether Person should be posited as a feature at all (Anagnostopoulou (2005) “No”, Rivero (2007) “Yes” with both overt and covert variants) and over whether features should be binary (the Adger and Harbour (2006) account of the problematic morphological gaps posits both binary and non-binary features). Cuervo (2005) defines template positions onto which feature complexes have to be mapped (eschewing a movement-based account), and though noting the problems raised by morphological gaps, provides no account of them. Against these, structural accounts persist: Ormazabal and Romero (2007) for example argue for an agreement-based account, that for any language displaying VP-internal agreement, no more than one such agreement pairing is possible.

Things are little better in other theoretical frameworks. In optimality-theoretic frameworks, for example, the set of constraints is defined is highly particular to particular clusterings involving for example *PERSONRIGHT*, *PERSONLEFT*, *EDGEMOST(Dat)*, *EDGEMOST(Acc)*, and *PARSE* constraints (Grimshaw (2001), Legendre (2003)), all defined to allow appropri-

ate flexibility under appropriate conditions; but with the consequence that there is no restriction on possible clusterings, the constraints doing no more than matching the facts. In Monachesi (2005) and Anderson (2005), such clustering is taken to motivate the postulation of a morphology component defined as independent of either syntax and semantics, a move which means that lack of independent explanation of the data is turned into a design feature of the grammar. Licensed co-occurrences per language are defined as varying morphological templates onto which the language-sequences have to be mapped, with no attempt in that system to explain why such clustering behaviour should occur. The overall impression from this increasing wealth of literature devoted to clitics is that there is little indication of anything approaching a principled explanation.

2.2 Word Order Variation

There is an unexpected twist on clitic variability which in this paper we wish to bring out. Looked at as a set of distributions, the sequence of clitics with respect to the verb is redolent of the patterning of full NPs relative to the accompanying verb in Latin, occurring regularly before the verb, and restrictedly after it. We shall argue that far from being a trivial observation, this is indeed the source of the explanation.

Latin constituent order variation is syntactically free in simple clauses at least, with NPs able to occur in any order and with any one or more NP able to occur before the verb, or after it. In consequence, there is no apparent indication from the order itself as to how the various parts are to be semantically combined:

- (18) *Catullus Lesbiam amavit*
 Catullus.NOM Lesbiam.ACC loved.3.SH.PERF
 ‘Catullus loved Lesbia.’
- Lesbiam Xerxes amavit.*
Amavit Xerxes Lesbiam.
Amavit Lesbiam Xerxes.
Lesbiam amavit Xerxes.
Xerxes amavit Lesbiam.

It is, of course, the case specifications of the NPs which are largely responsible for the construal of the argument roles they project relative to the verb, rather than anything intrinsic to the ordering in the string. And it is these case specifications that get lost in the Romance systems. So it should be no surprise to find parallelism between Medieval Spanish and Latin distributions in the only set of nominals - the clitic pronouns - that retain some aspect of the Latin case system which was otherwise entirely lost. The assumption that case determines construal is however only partially true, in

that, as with most case-marking systems, much of the Latin case system is syncretic, with only partial determinism of thematic role from the morphological form of the NP-expressions. Nominative and accusative forms of nouns are syncretic invariably in the neuter (as generally in Indo-European) and also regularly in the plural of the consonant stems. In the development of the Romance languages, phonological changes caused massive syncretism within nominal paradigms giving rise in Vulgar Latin to just two or three forms in many cases. For example, the first declension classical forms *rosa*, *rosam*, *rosā*, *rosās*, *rosārum*, (singular nominative, accusative, ablative and plural accusative, genitive, respectively) are reduced to *rosa* while the late form *rose* stands for the rest of the paradigm, except for the dative/ablative plural. Ultimately, this led to a loss of case distinctiveness amongst the Romance languages (except for Romanian which retains oblique/non-oblique forms in certain declensions), and became general for NPs in Medieval Spanish. Syncretism also affected the weak pronominal system so that in medieval Spanish some clitics, *me* and *te* amongst others, are not differentiated as to accusative/dative cases.

Despite such variable determinism in the case system in Latin, word order freedom extends beyond mere local “scrambling”, as constituents can be dislocated even across clausal boundaries:

- (19) *Stercilinum magnum stude ut habeas*
 dunghill.ACC big.ACC ensure.IMP.SG that have.2.PS.SING
 ‘See that you have a large dung hill’

Cato De Re Rust. 6

In these classic long-distance dependency constructions, case specifications cannot be seen as contributing anything more than a constraint on their construal, given their arbitrary dislocation from the expression on which they depend.

Nevertheless, despite such flexibility, word order in Latin is very far from being a total free-for-all. Even though more than one constituent can be dislocated and placed at the left periphery, in all cases involving dislocation from an embedded finite clause, there is invariably a restriction that all the constituents so dislocated must be interpreted as local to each other, as in (20, 21):

- (20) [*Ventus ad praefurnium caveto ne*
 wind.NOM to furnace-door.ACC beware.IMP NEG-COMP
accedat
 come near.3SG

‘Take care that the wind doesn’t blow on the furnace door.’

Cato op. cit. 38

- (21) [*digitum supra terram*] *facito semina*
 finger.ACC above earth.ACC make.IMP *seeds.NOM/ACC*
emineant
 project.3PL
 ‘Make the seeds project a finger above the earth.’

Cato op. cit. 46

This rigid local pairing of NP-expressions receives an echo in the subsequent clitic systems that emerged, with their rigid ordering before the verb, but essential locality with respect to each other. Until quite recently, surface word order had been taken to be a linearisation matter to be handled as a surface property not impinging on the structural core of syntax-internal mechanisms. But this leaves unexplained the rigid locality of any two such dislocated expressions relative to each other, a pattern that occurs quite generally with clitic sequences which, like multiple long-distance dependencies, cannot be split.

What we argue is that the patterns attributable to scrambling are indeed reflected in the distribution of medieval Spanish clitics: and we will sketch an account that formally defines an explanation in these terms. In informal terms, local scrambling requires constructive use of case (Nordlinger (1998)), with case specifications determining argument role in the presented structure in an on-line way in Latin. Long-distance scrambling, in which an expression can be dislocated arbitrarily far from its dependency site, indicates to the contrary that some case specifications do not perform any such local constructive role, but merely act as some kind of filter on appropriate identification of where they contribute to the overall structure. Multiple long-distance scrambling, in which pairs of such dislocated expressions may occur together at some early position in a string, can be modelled by a mechanism that induces an essentially localised sub-structure, to be resolved in the overall structure as a unit. Finally, parenthetical construals can be available for any expression, so that some expressions can be analysed as in some sense independent of the structure within which they are contained. It is then the effects of these general mechanisms that underpin what has been seen as requiring clitic template specifications, with the various effects displayed in the distribution of clitics being modelled as a calcification of the sequences of actions which had in the earlier Latin system been induced by these general mechanisms, in different combinations.

An account of scrambling has been argued for in detail elsewhere with respect to Japanese and Korean (Cann et al. (2005), Kiaer (2007)). Our primary aim in the first half of this paper is to show how that account as applied to Latin can be used as a basis for explaining clitic behaviours in Romance as the freezing of a set of parsing strategies, with the Person Case constraint on clitic clustering effects explained as a result of the general tree-growth restriction preventing any of the offending clusters from

ever emerging, notwithstanding the existence of apparently systematic exceptions.

3 Towards a Dynamic Syntax of Latin

The novel property of Dynamic Syntax as a syntactic theory is that the concept of structural underspecification and growth of interpretation intrinsic to processing is taken as the core syntactic notion. The syntax of the natural-language system is thus defined as a set of strategies for establishing the interpretation of some string of words in the order in which they appear, reflecting possibilities for choice in on-line parsing. The process involves the incremental development of tree structures representing a semantic interpretation for a string which are decorated by labels that progressively provide the information needed to determine the appropriate interpretation. Generation is defined in exactly the same terms: the very same rules apply in production as in parsing, the only difference between production and parsing being that whereas the parser may not know in advance the interpretation to be constructed, the producer in contrast must do so (Purver and Otsuka (2002), Purver et al. (2006)). Hence, in generation there is from the outset a ‘goal tree’ which represents the interpretation to be conveyed, together with a defined constraint that in generation, each update step licensed by the parsing mechanism has to constitute an enrichment towards completing that ‘goal tree’ (formally a subsumption relation is required to hold between the parse tree and the goal tree (Purver and Otsuka, 2002)).

As the basis of the processing system is parsing, we begin by defining the general parsing strategies used in the framework. The starting point of this process is a tree with just a rootnode and a requirement to construct some propositional formula. The endpoint is a fully decorated binary branching tree structure encoding functor-argument structure of a familiar sort.⁴ As figure 1 displays, each completed interpretation is represented as a binary-branching tree whose rootnode is the propositional formula established and its daughter nodes the various sub-formulae that together yield this formula.

The process of tree-growth is the sole basis of syntactic explanation: a sentence is defined to be well-formed just in case there is at least one possible route through that process that leads to a complete propositional tree with no requirements outstanding (see below).⁵ Tree growth involves the emer-

⁴*Fo* is a predicate that takes a logical formula as value, *Ty* a predicate that takes logical types as values, *Tn* a predicate that takes tree-node addresses as values, e.g. *Tn*(0) being the rootnode. In general we omit the *Fo* predicate in tree diagrams for simplicity. The \diamond is a pointer, indicating the node currently under development.

⁵Quantification is expressed in terms of variable-binding term operators, so that quantifying NPs like all other NPs are of type *e*. The underlying logic is the epsilon calculus, the formal study of arbitrary names, with term-expressions whose internal structure is made up of an epsilon binder, ϵ , a variable, and a restrictor: e.g. $\epsilon, x, Man'(x)$. Since in

(LOFT: Blackburn and Meyer-Viol (1994)) with two basic modalities, $\langle \downarrow \rangle$ and $\langle \uparrow \rangle$, such that $\langle \downarrow \rangle \alpha$ holds at a node if α holds at its daughter, and its inverse, $\langle \uparrow \rangle \alpha$, holds at a node if α holds at its mother. Function and argument relations are distinguished by defining two types of daughter relation, $\langle \downarrow_0 \rangle$ for argument daughters, $\langle \downarrow_1 \rangle$ for functor daughters (with their inverses $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle, \langle \uparrow_1 \rangle$). Domination relations are then definable through Kleene star operators, e.g. $\langle \uparrow_* \rangle Tn(a)$ for some node identified as dominated by treenode $Tn(a)$; a node decorated as $\langle \uparrow_* \rangle Tn(a), ?\exists \mathbf{x}. Tn(\mathbf{x})$ is a node that is dominated by some node $Tn(a)$ along some arbitrary sequence of mother relations. Such modal statements can be used to formulate requirements. These may be general, eg the requirements on an introduced proposition-requiring node for an argument-daughter node and a predicate-daughter node: such a node would be decorated with $?Ty(t), ?\langle \downarrow_0 \rangle Ty(e), ?\langle \downarrow_1 \rangle Ty(e \rightarrow t)$. Such requirements constitute subgoals on a wellformed derivation, and are filters on the output.

Requirements may also however be defined as lexically imposed filters on output: and this is the initial basis for modelling case specifications where this is structurally definable. For example, a nominatively marked expression is defined as projecting onto a subject node of the emergent tree an output filter requirement of the form $?\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle Ty(t)$ (the requirement that its immediately dominating node be of a formula of type t); an accusatively marked expression projects onto the immediate argument-daughter node of some emergent predicate-requiring node the requirement $?\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle Ty(e \rightarrow t)$. Thus case specifications, like all other generalisations, are expressed in terms of possible forms of tree growth. And so it is that a range of what in other frameworks are taken to be morphological or syntactic properties can in this framework be expressed as requirements on growth of semantic representation.⁷

Restrictions at the interface of syntax and semantics are also naturally expressible in these terms. An uncontroversial aspect of underspecification of content is that associated with anaphoric expressions, their intrinsic contribution to interpretation being that they provide only some partial specification of any occasion-specific interpretation, the particular value being determined by the context relative to which the uttered expression is understood. In this representational perspective, this is expressed by defining all such context-dependent expressions as projecting an interim place-holding device, adding to the basic *Formula* vocabulary the metavariables $\mathbf{U}, \mathbf{V} \dots$, each associated with a requirement for a fixed value to be provided either

⁷The specification of case in these terms is naive in the sense that it assumes that particular cases determine directly the semantic function of the term projected by some noun phrase. This is not generally true (e.g. nominative expressions may be a semantic object in some passive construction while other cases have ‘semantic’ counterparts). Some effects of this are noted below, but a more sophisticated theory of case in DS remains to be articulated.

from the context so far accrued in the interpretation process or subsequently from within the construction process. Whatever restrictions there are on the domain within which individual anaphoric expressions have to be construed are also defined in tree-growth terms as constraints on the (sub)-tree within which the values of metavariables have to be found. For example, in the case of reflexives, the value for the projected metavariable has to be found at some node $Tn(a)$ along a path $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle \langle \uparrow_1^* \rangle \langle \downarrow_0 \rangle Tn(a)$ from the node being decorated by the reflexive – that is from some co-argument along some unspecified but uninterrupted functor spine. Conversely, metavariables projected by pronouns cannot take such a local value, a constraint expressed as part of the process of substitution (see Kempson et al. 2001:97).

3.1 Scrambling

More controversially, the very same perspective is adopted with what in other frameworks is taken to constitute evidence of either feature passing (Sag et al. (2002)) or syntactic movement (e.g. Hornstein et al. (2005)). Instead of positing morphologically empty sites in a string which are paired with some non-contiguous (left-peripheral) expression as a basis for articulating the contribution of that expression to interpretation of the string, a parsing-based perspective that follows the dynamics of processing of strings in real time presents such dislocated left-peripheral expressions at the early point in the string as associated with underspecified structural information, that has to be updated later. Matching this explanation, one core mechanism is the license to construct a node dominated by some proposition-requiring node whose tree-relation is not fully specified with respect to that node. This is achieved by a rule of **Adjunction* (read ‘star-adjunction’) which creates an “unfixed” node with precisely this property, described in the tree-logic language as $\langle \uparrow_* \rangle Tn(a)$ with respect to some treenode $Tn(a)$. The exact role of such unfixed nodes is thus not specified at the point of introduction in the emergent tree structure, but is required to be determined at some later stage in the grammatical process by an enrichment process updating that underspecified relation to a fixed relation identifying its role as subject, direct-object, or indirect object.

There is also a more locally restricted process of introducing unfixed nodes (*Local*Adjunction*), for which an argument-node is constructed that is also underspecified with respect to some type- t -requiring node but with a tighter constraint that this relation be within the subtree from the node from which the underspecified tree relation is constructed. This is characterised on its introduction as having a modality $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle \langle \uparrow_1^* \rangle Tn(a)$ with respect to some treenode $Tn(a)$. This specifies that the unfixed node is an argument ($\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle$) that is related to an unspecified series of functor nodes to the dominating node ($\langle \uparrow_1^* \rangle$). This has the effect of ensuring strict locality within a single predicate-argument array. Both underspecified tree relations are twinned

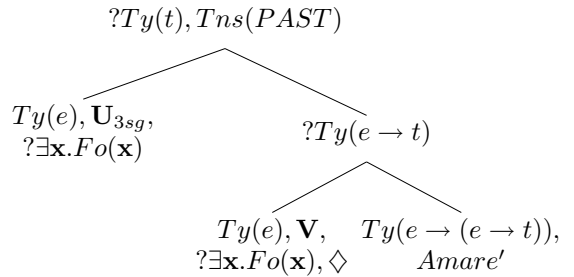
with a requirement for update ($?\exists\mathbf{x}.Tn(\mathbf{x})$) so that a subsequent fixed tree-node relation must be provided in all wellformed derivations.

There are limits on how such underspecified relations can be constructed. A defining property of trees and the nodes they contain is that a node in a tree is uniquely defined by its relation to all other nodes in the containing tree (Blackburn and Meyer-Viol, 1994). This has a consequence for the tree construction process that there can only be one unfixed node of a type at a time in any partial tree, as all such nodes are characterisable only by their relatively weak modality. This is not a constraint that has to be externally imposed: any duplication of some tree relation simply induces the immediate collapse of any such putative pair of nodes, which invariably leads to an incoherent treenode decoration unless the individual decorations of the duplicated nodes are compatible. It is this constraint, as we shall see in due course, that underpins Latin word order effects, restrictions on clitic cluster combinations in Romance and also Bantu object marker restrictions.

A common basis for crosslinguistic variation is the minor variation that lexical actions for related categories of expression in the differing languages may display. For example, with its relatively free word order and possibility of pro-drop, the parsing of a Latin verb induces a propositional structure whose argument nodes are decorated with metavariables, $\mathbf{U}_{3sg.}$, \mathbf{V} , ..., capturing the effect of null pronouns in such languages without the assumption that these exist as parts of a *linguistic* string. The left hand side of the following display provides the lexical actions to be carried out by a parse of *amavit* ‘loved’, with the resulting partial tree shown on the right.⁸

(22)

<i>amavit</i>	
IF	$?Ty(t)$
THEN	$put(Tns(PAST));$ $make(\langle\downarrow_0\rangle); go(\langle\downarrow_0\rangle);$ $put(Ty(e), Fo(\mathbf{U}_{3sg.}), ?\exists\mathbf{x}.Fo(\mathbf{x}));$ $go(\langle\uparrow_0\rangle); make(\langle\downarrow_1\rangle); go(\langle\downarrow_1\rangle);$ $put(?Ty(e \rightarrow t));$ $make(\langle\downarrow_1\rangle); go(\langle\downarrow_1\rangle);$ $put(Fo(Amare'),$ $Ty(e \rightarrow (e \rightarrow t)), [\downarrow\perp];$ $go(\langle\uparrow_1\rangle); make(\langle\downarrow_0\rangle); go(\langle\downarrow_0\rangle);$ $put(Fo(\mathbf{V}), Ty(e), ?\exists\mathbf{x}.Fo(\mathbf{x}))$
ELSE	Abort



This property is not shared by verbs in non-pro-drop languages whose ar-

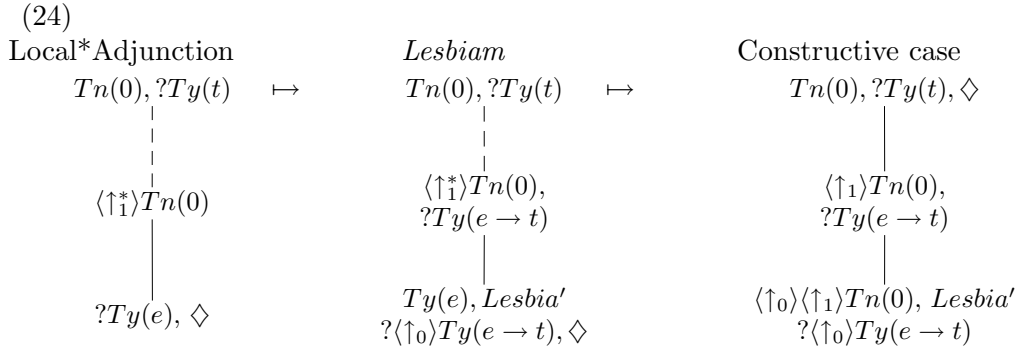
⁸The applicability of specific rules or lexical actions depends on appropriate positioning of the pointer, \diamond , and while there is considerable freedom of the pointer back down a tree in anticipation of further development of nodes, movement of the pointer up the tree is highly restricted, and possible only if the type-requirement on some node has been satisfied, and then, only to the immediate mother node or, in the case of unfixed nodes, to the node from which the underspecified relation was constructed.

gument nodes, as projected from the verb, bear the weaker characterisation of the requirement $?Ty(e)$, without metavariables, thereby imposing the requirement of morphologically explicit argument expressions.

Given the common language of lexical and computational actions, the lexical projection of propositional structure by a verb freely interacts with the construction of nodes, for example by application of Local*Adjunction prior to the parse of a verb, where scrambling effects are driven by constructive use of case.

- (23) *Lesbiam Catullus amavit*
 Lesbia.ACC Catullus.NOM love.3SG.PERF
 ‘Catullus loved Lesbia.’

Despite case specifications being defined to ensure that the term projected by some nominal expression is fixed in an appropriate position as an output filter, nothing prevents early update of the underspecified tree relation, by constructive use of case that guarantees the ultimate satisfaction of the output filter. The succession of steps required for the processing of (23) begins with the parsing of the accusative noun *Lesbiam* as decorating a locally unfixed node, followed by a series of steps of abduction to ensure that the accusative case constraint will be satisfied during the parse. Abduction proceeds in two steps: from the case constraint $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle Ty(e \rightarrow t)$ on the argument-node to an annotation on the mother of $?Ty(e \rightarrow t)$, to ensure that the accusative requirement is satisfied; and then from $\langle \uparrow_1^* \rangle Tn(0)$ to $\langle \uparrow_1 \rangle Tn(0)$ to satisfy the tree-node requirement on the functor node.⁹



A second step of Local*Adjunction takes place, and the parsing of *Catullus* is then taken to fix the value of the underspecified tree relation $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle \langle \uparrow_1^* \rangle Tn(0)$ of Local*Adjunction into $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle Tn(0)$ providing the basis for satisfying the nominative-induced requirement $?\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle Ty(t)$:

⁹This sequence of steps can apply to all argument relations including subject: the Kleene* intrinsic to defining $\langle \uparrow_* \rangle$ and other operators is satisfied by the empty set, so $\langle \uparrow_0 \rangle \langle \uparrow_*^1 \rangle Tn(a)$ is true also of the subject relation.

sumption, the case specification serves merely as a filter on update that is not immediately enriched to a fixed position, and in consequence no other unfixed node can be introduced by this step. As a discrete operation, Local*Adjunction nevertheless remains available for the processing of some matrix subject NP that might follow (*Catullus* in (23)). The consequence is that the sequence of strategies for constructing a string-interpretation pairing is by no means unique. Indeed arguably the only major difference in the way *Adjunction and Local*Adjunction apply lies in the fact that immediate case-update to a fixed tree relation cannot take place in the former, because there is no presumption that the term is local to the primary predicate-argument array.

Unlike this alternative derivation of (23), a derivation involving *Adjunction is of course needed essentially for dependencies that are not local.

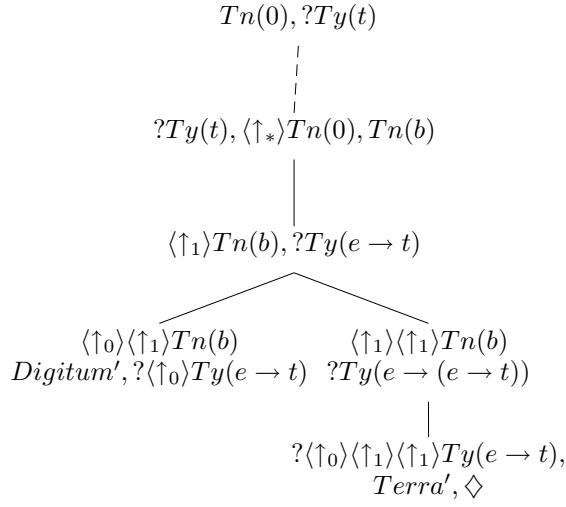
- (19) *Stercilinum magnum stude ut habeas*
 dunghill.ACC big.ACC ensure.IMP.SG that have.2.PS.SING
 ‘See that you have a large dung hill’

Furthermore, this similarity of processes underpinning long-distance and short-distance scrambling effects provides an immediate explanation for multiple long-distance dependency effects. With both processes involving the building of an unfixed node, we expect the possibility of a feeding relation between *Adjunction and Local*Adjunction, resulting in multiple long-distance dependency:

- (21) [*digitum supra terram*] *facito semina emineant*
 finger.ACC above earth.ACC make.IMP seeds.NOM project.3PL
 ‘Make the seeds project a finger above the earth.’

In the DS account, such patterns are directly expected. *Adjunction would allow the construction of a propositional unfixed node decorated with the requirement $?Ty(t)$. Within in this unfixed propositional domain successive steps of Local*Adjunction may apply to construct partial propositional structures to be associated with the first two constituents in (21), on the assumption that prepositions can play the role of case in determining additional arguments for the accompanying predicate, yielding partial trees such as figure 2.¹¹ In this way a sequence of argument nodes can be constructed. The position of the cluster of argument nodes is then resolved at a subsequent point in the construction process, in (21) with introduction of

¹¹On this analysis, we assume an account of prepositional phrases following Marten 2002, in which prepositional phrases function as optional arguments, and here we simply stipulate the relation of *supra terram* as being that of third argument for some upcoming predicate. Many details of the analysis are omitted here, including the way in which the effect of the preposition is to over-ride the otherwise default construal of accusative as the highest argument within the predicate structure. The essence of the analysis stands, however.

Figure 2: Parsing *digitum (supra) terram*.

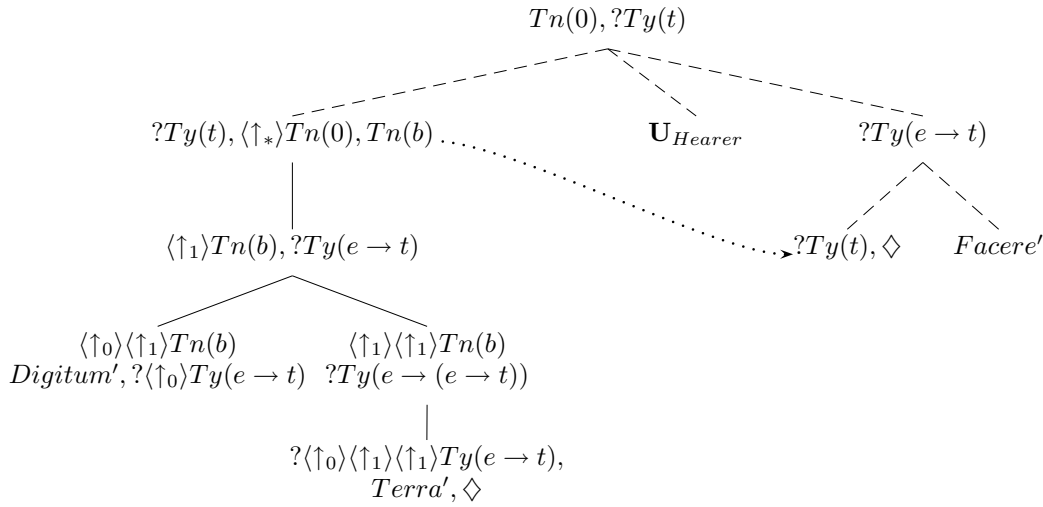
the propositional complement argument of *facito* to yield the tree in figure 3).

What is notable about such intermediate structures in the present connection is the construction of proposition-requiring structures which, at some intermediate juncture, may contain only an array of argument nodes, as yet lacking the predicate node which is essential to completing that structure.

There is one further general tree-construction strategy yet remaining before we have anything approximating to a complete sketch of the mechanisms which the DS framework licenses. There are also mechanisms for building paired structures, where structures are taken to be twinned by being the result of a construction process which ensures the sharing of some term in two such so-called linked trees. This process is defined in DS for construal of relative clauses, clausal adverbials, and also external topic constructions. Such secondary structures may have an attendant requirement that the newly introduced proposition-requiring tree have somewhere within it a copy of that term (specified as $?\langle \downarrow_* \rangle Fo(\alpha)$: see Cann et al. (2005) for details).¹²

The significance of this process for the overall DS perspective is that it extends the range of alternatives whereby strings can be processed, so leading to an additional possible structure as a form of interpretation, without the

¹²The process of inducing such pairs of semantic trees is permitted by defining an additional modal operator in the tree logic $\langle L \rangle$, and its inverse $\langle L^{-1} \rangle$; and a rule is defined to yield a transition from an arbitrary node in one tree across a LINK relation to the topnode of a new propositional tree.

Figure 3: Parsing *digitum (supra) terram facito*.

$$\langle L \rangle Tn(0), Fo(\alpha), Ty(e) \quad Tn(0), ?Ty(t), ?\langle \downarrow_* \rangle Fo(\alpha)$$

Figure 4: Building Link transitions for relative-clause and left-dislocation construal

string itself necessarily displaying overt reflex of this additional alternative. For example, in a pro-drop language, such a linked structure may indeed be decorated with a term provided by a full NP, with the requirement that it be identified with one of the arguments of the subsequent structure. They can be satisfied by information provided by the verb, hence without need of any morphologically explicit anaphoric device. And should the NP taken to decorate the linked structure be a dative clitic pronoun, it may constitute some additional add-on to the remainder of the clausal sequence, without any further duplication of the information that it provides. Consider how the analysis of (14) might proceed.

- (14) *quid mihi Celsus agit?*
 what me.DAT Celsus.NOM.SG do.3.SG.PRES
 ‘How, pray, is Celsus?’ (Lit. ‘What to me Celsus does?’)

Parsing the interrogative *quid* proceeds via *Adjunction to give an unfixed node and then, since all computational actions are optional, one move could be to construct a node LINKed to the main propositional node with the requirement to construct a term ($?Ty(e)$). The dative pronoun is parsed and the node is decorated with a metavariable constrained to be substituted

by a term that denotes the speaker (figure 5).¹³

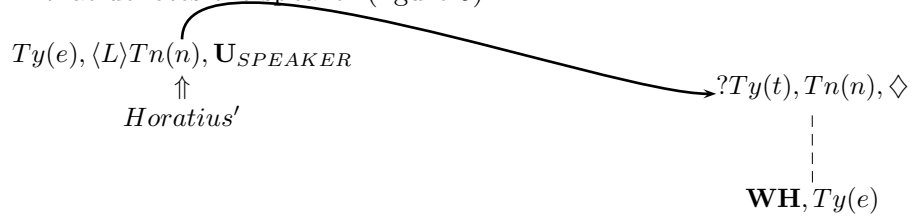


Figure 5: Parsing *quid mihi*

By assumption, in this context, the term projected by *mihi* and identified as picking out the speaker, here assumed to be Horace, is not in this linked structure associated with a case constraint to find a particular function for the term so constructed (a polysemy effect which we shall see persists in Spanish); and the parse of the main clause continues. We end up with a tree like that in figure 6 indicating that the speaker, Horace, is only tangentially associated with the event denoted by the main verb, allowing, through normal inference driven by relevance considerations, a broad range of relations to be construed between Horace and what he has said.

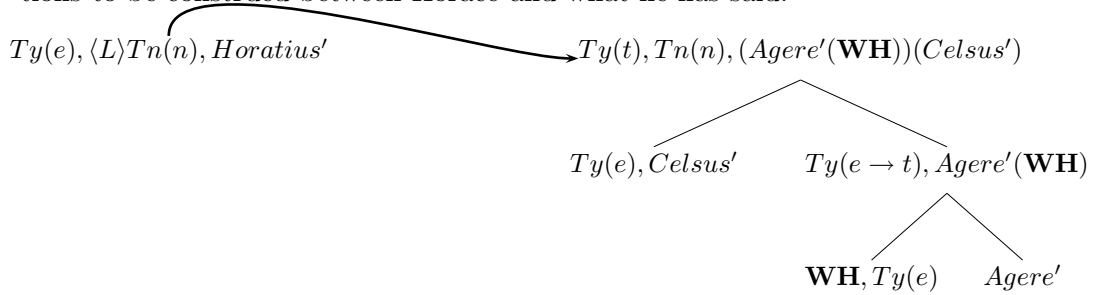


Figure 6: Parsing *quid mihi Celsus agit?*

The consequence of this flexibility is that there are a number of moves available at any stage of a parse sequence, in particular in the early stages when so little structural specification is as yet determined.

3.2 Processing pressures, word order and pragmatics

We now turn to how performance considerations might dictate preferred choices amongst these alternative strategies. General constraints on production and parsing will ensure that speakers and hearers maximise the use

¹³In this analysis, no term is shared between the LINKed structure and the main proposition, making it like an analysis of gapless topics in languages like Chinese (see Wu 2005). However, an alternative would be to relate the term that substitutes for the 1st person metavariable with an event variable that is shared between both structures. See Cann and Wu 2007 for an analysis of the Chinese *bei* construction along these lines.

by a term representing the hearer.¹⁶ Such a device induces actions that by definition mark an emergent propositional boundary, being associated with introduction of a proposition-requiring node (decorated with $?Ty(t)$) without any decorations other than the imposition of such a requirement. If, in anticipation of explaining the split that occurred between stressed and unstressed uses of pronouns, we turn to what the non-stressed uses of pronouns have in common, it is simply that they will lack this property: they will NOT be associated with those very structural devices which serve to identify some initiation of an emergent propositional structure, they will solely have a regular anaphoric function of context dependence. An interesting example of this occurs in (27) in which a strong pronoun (*ego*), appears immediately before the two weak pronouns (*te*, *ei*):

- (27) *quod scribis* *de illo* *Preciano*
 what write.2SG.FUT about that.ABL.SG Precianus.ABL.SG
iure consulto, ego te ei non
 jurist.ABL.SG I.NOM you.ACC him.DAT.SG not
desino *commendare.*
 abandon.1SG.PRES commend.INF
 ‘Whatever you write about that jurist, Precianus, **I** do not stop
 recommending you to him.’

Cicero. Ad Fam. 7.8.2

The strong pronoun *ego*, by analysis, decorates an unfixed node as the initial step in constructing some novel propositional structure following on from the building of an adjunct linked structure, and this choice clearly reflects a clearly emphatic form of construal. The actions of the weak pronouns that follow are then part of the progressive construction of this introduced structure, building, decorating and updating locally unfixed nodes.

Strong pronouns are of course not the sole means of introducing novel propositional domains. Other linguistic indicators of the emergence of a propositional structure include focused noun phrases, expressions containing a negative element, relative pronouns, (28), complementizers (29), subordinate temporal adverbials, and verbs (30): indeed this is the only property common to this structurally heterogeneous set (examples culled from Adams (1994)). Like their “strong” counterparts, positioning of pronouns under this use will be driven by relevance considerations for these, by assumption, are ever-present. This provides the functionalist underpinnings that explain the weak pronoun usage:¹⁷

¹⁶The verb is omitted because the predicate, like the structural patterning, is recoverable from the context.

¹⁷For visibility reasons, we have highlighted in bold the weak pronouns under consideration. Examples of the other types of left-edge identifiers can be found in Kempson and Bouzouita 2005 and Cann and Kempson forthcoming.

- (28) *quae tibi nulla debetur*
 which.NEUT-PL you.DAT no.NEUT-PL is-owed
 ‘nothing of which is owed to you.’

Cicero, In Act. 1.16

- (29) *rogo ut mi mittas dalabram*
 ask.1SG.PRES that me.DAT send.2SG mattock.ACC.SG
 ‘I ask that you send to me a mattock.’

Terentianus 251.27

- (30) *delectarunt me tuae litterae*
 delighted.3PL.PRES me.ACC your letter.NOM.PL
 ‘I was delighted with your letter.’

Cicero, Ad Fam. 9.16.1

What these share is the characteristic that, once an emergent propositional structure is identified by some OTHER expression, they will get placed as closely following as possible, decorating some locally unfixed node duly updated through its case specification, and so, like the strong pronouns, hugging the left edge of any such emergent structure as closely as commensurate with them NOT constituting a stressed/contrastive use.¹⁸

4 Latin to Medieval Spanish

We now have everything in place to sketch out the assumptions a parsing perspective on grammar formalisms would lead us to expect in the explanation of the emergence of the clitic systems of the Romance languages from Latin. Medieval Spanish contains a codification of what had become two phonologically and functionally discrete uses of earlier pronominal forms: strong and clitic. What the clitic pronouns display is two distinct types of property: where they occur in a string, and what kind of tree update the clitic induces. On the one hand, since they constitute the only remaining reflex of earlier nominal case-marking, it is their triggers that are a direct reflex of the earlier set of environments that yielded pragmatic identification of propositional boundary marking, now encoding this information directly as calcified reflexes of that earlier more liberal system. Their positioning is like that of weak pronouns in Latin, i.e. following focussed elements, negative elements, complementisers, relative pronoun subordinators and verbs

¹⁸Following Sperber and Wilson (1995), if there are specific inferential effects to justify commensurate enlargement of the context to be searched, this would explain the lack of tight correspondence between weak pronoun positioning in Latin and any fixed second position noted by Adams (1994), even assuming that such putative second-position effects are clause by clause (or “colon” by “colon” to use his terminology).

(for a detailed account see Bouzouita, 2002, in preparation; Bouzouita and Kempson, 2006 from which these data are taken):

- (31) *Esto es el pan de Dios que vos da a comer*
 this be.3SG the bread of God that CL give.3SG to
 eat.INF
 ‘This is the bread of God that he gives you to eat.’
- (32) *e dize que lo tenie del prior de Sancti Johannis*
 and said.3SG that textscl had.3SG of-the prior of Saint
 John
 ‘And he said that he got it from the prior of Saint John.’
 Data from Granberg 1988: 46
- (33) *Connocio-la Jacob*
 recognised.3sg-CL Jacob
 ‘Jacob recognised her.’

In Latin, as we’ve already seen, a sequence of NPs (Devine and Stephens, 2006) can cluster before the verb, and this pattern too emerges in Medieval Spanish with the clitic pronouns:

- (34) *Et los dioses me quisieron mal e me lo quieren*
 And the gods CL wanted.3PL harm and CL CL want.3PL
 ‘And the gods wanted to harm me and they still want to.’
 Data from Granberg 1988: 235

4.1 Placement of clitic pronouns: the production pressures

On the other hand, the structural relations induced by the clitic pronouns also show similarity to NP distribution in Latin, and this is not just a trivial continuation of fixed argument relations associated with individual clitics, for though some induce a fixed node for a given argument relation, others induce an underspecified node without fixing the argument relation, and yet others induce pairs of nodes. Rather, the range of update actions provided by the clitics matches the variation in update actions which a sequence of computational actions plus lexical actions provided in the earlier Latin system. First, there is the building of a fixed tree relation. The accusative clitic displays a fixed interpretation corresponding to the construction of a fixed structural relation, with the non-syncretic accusative forms, *lo*, *los*. and their feminine-marked counterparts signalling only direct object function:

- (35) *Al señor lo faras.*
 To the gentleman 3sg.CL-DO you-will do

‘You will do it to/for the gentleman.’

Data from Granberg 1988: 135

- (36) *cuando lo ganó*
 When 3sg.CL-DO he won

‘When did he win it?’

Data from Granberg (1988): 135

These echo the earlier free availability of Local*Adjunction plus abductive update, here apparently lexicalised into a macro of actions leading directly to a fixed tree relation. Given that the ONLY difference between computational and lexical actions may be that the actions in question become associated with a lexical trigger, the construction of a fixed tree relation is only one such possibility. There is also the action of constructing a locally unfixed node as though by Local*Adjunction. And, in this connection, the dative clitic and the first and second person clitics arguably induce the construction of an underspecified structural relation, displaying, as they do, a large range of interpretations. The consequence of this lack of determination of interpretation is that their contribution to the emergent structure may not be able to be determined immediately, but only in combination with the verb with which they are associated:¹⁹

- (37) *Yo vos defiendo que non vengades y màs et*
 I 2sg.CL-IO insist that not you-come and, more, and
si non ho vos cegaré et vos mataré
 if not I 2pl.CL-DO I will blind and 2pl.CL-DO I will kill
 I forbid you to come and if not, I myself will blind you and kill you
 Data from Granberg 1988: 235

In (37), the first occurrence of *vos* is construed as indirect object, the second and third as direct object; but the morphological input is undifferentiated between these, suggesting that these reflect the construction of a locally unfixed node without update, leaving the relatively weak structural relation having to be updated by the later projection of structure by the verb. And finally there are the clitic clusters, which occur in the same relative position as the singleton occurrences, sometimes written as a single item, inducible as an individualised lexical sequence of actions reflecting the earlier building of construals of clustered NPs by a combination of *Adjunction and sequenced combinations of Local*Adjunction plus update, all listed as a single lexical entry with actions to induce the construction of a cluster of argument terms/nodes.²⁰

¹⁹Notice in (37) the initial strong pronoun *yo* ‘I’, in contra-distinction to the weak form *ho* in the following conjunct.

²⁰Notice in passing how, in the first conjunct of (34), it is unclear whether the dative-marked expression is really serving as argument to what is a nominal *mal* or whether it

The range of effects we see displayed in the clitic pronouns of Medieval Spanish is thus broadly the range of effects seen in local scrambling in Latin. This is precisely what we would expect in a transition in which the availability of case specifications on a general basis disappears, being replaced by case specifications only within the pronominal system. As noted above, in the DS framework, general computational actions and lexical actions are expressed in exactly the same terms. Lexical actions, like their general counterpart, characteristically induce the construction of nodes in some partial tree in addition to providing decorations for the nodes which the actions associated with the word in question triggers. Thus a shift in tree-update actions from a sequence of general actions inducing nodes for which words provide decoration to a macro of actions associated with an individual word inducing both structure and decorations is exactly what one might expect in a shift from general to lexically triggered actions. And in this shift, any one word would normally be associated with only one such sequence of actions (unless its precursor in the source language was ambiguous): and so it is that the various clitic pronouns reflect one or other such action-sequence. Seen in processing terms, the clitic-template phenomenon is thus a freezing of scrambling strategies, hence explicable as a progressive shift, each lexical specification reflecting one of a set of strategies for early NP placement.

4.2 The Person Case Constraint Explained

But we can go further than this, as we now have a ready explanation of the Person Case Constraint. This, recall, was the non-cooccurrence of first and second person clitics, and the non-cooccurrence also of first/2nd person clitics with third-person dative clitic. Both variants of the Person Case Constraint now fall into place: the morphological gaps follow from the tree-logic restriction that there can be no more than one underspecified tree relation of a type at any point in the tree-growth process. The power of this explanation is that it automatically provides an explanation for why the gaps in the clitic template possibilities associated with the Person Case Constraint do not occur.

4.2.1 The Strong Person Case Constraint

Let us take the more comprehensively satisfied restriction first, the preclusion of any co-occurrence of first or second case specifications construed as DO with a third person dative specification construed as IO (the so-called strong form of the Person Case Constraint taken to hold whether or not the form is syncretic: Bonet (1995), Nevins (2007), Ormabazal and Romero (2007)). Recall that there was no need of stipulation that there should

is merely an indicator that “grounds the event structure in relation to the speech participants” as de Jonge’s characterisation of what the dative intrinsically encodes indicates.

be only one unfixed node of a type at a time: in all putative cases where more than one such underspecified tree-relation might be introduced, they collapse as undifferentiable, with all cases where the resulting treenode decoration is inconsistent being necessarily debarred. This is precisely the scenario which these morphological gaps present. Given the analysis of dative as intrinsically underspecified as to whether the node being decorated is a direct or indirect object (or a semantically weak adjunct), the syncretic first and second person forms will be predicted not to co-occur with any such form, irrespective of order, since they too have a form that fails to discriminate between the various argument roles they can satisfy. Upon an analysis of tree growth that reflects this underspecification, both must be taken to decorate a locally unfixed node. Neither 1st or 2nd person markers could accordingly ever be constructed together with a third person dative marker, let alone be constructed sufficiently often to get routinised into a stored clustered form: both are defined as inducing the construction of a locally unfixed node without any case basis for inducing appropriate update ahead of the verb. Their lack of co-occurrence is immediately predicted. It is not the occurrence of these syncretic forms construed as indirect object with an accusative third person form which is problematic. Indeed, it is not the specific construals of these pronouns that provide the appropriate explanation for the oddity of the precluded forms. It is the fact that these forms, being syncretic, are associated with inducing only the building and decorating of some locally unfixed argument-relation, and so cannot co-occur with a dative or any other case-specification which is itself associated with inducing exactly the same weak tree relation.

It might be argued that this falls into the trap of identifying case-underspecification with structural underspecification, equating gaps in a paradigm with syncretism. As pointed out by Adger and Harbour, accounts which turn on case syncretism as reflecting relative weakness of specification are at best insufficient, since the same restriction is displayed in clitic systems with no syncretism in the clitic forms. In particular, this is displayed by Greek, with its distinct nominative/genitive forms for both first/second person subject and object marking:²¹

- (38) *su me sistisan
 you.GEN me.ACC recommended.3.PS.PL [Mod. Greek]
 They recommended me to you

Yet, as it turns out, such examples buttress the DS account, for they illustrate the one further type of tree growth that the DS system leads us to expect. So far, we have itemised the induction of an unfixed argument node that is taken to give rise to immediate enrichment, the induction of a linked structure, and the building of sequences of locally unfixed nodes from an

²¹In Greek, the indirect object relation is expressed by genitive case.

intermediate node. But we haven't had an instance analogous to the core mechanism underpinning long-distance dependency, which is the specification of case as decorating an unfixed node which does NOT induce immediate update. But this is the scenario provided by Greek. In these cases, the morphological specification for direct and indirect object arguments is distinct. If however, we assume that one of the options for tree growth that might get calcified is precisely such a non-constructive use of case, then we have the basis for analysing Greek, despite the lack of syncretism in first and second person clitic pronouns. All the clitic forms decorate an unfixed node, each with a filter on output encoding the appropriate constraint, with $?(↑_0)Ty(e \rightarrow t)$ for accusative, and some weaker specification for dative, dative being type-underspecified as between adjunct and argument construals and so of necessity underspecified as to tree position. This account of Greek clitic case specifications as frozen reflexes of case filters has the added bonus of completing the picture of possible calcification updates that clitic systems might reflect. So one type of problem isn't a problem for the analysis at all: to the contrary, it buttresses it.

4.2.2 The Weak variant of the PCC

This explanation of the Person Case Constraint in terms of a structurally weak relation and no more than one at a time should, without doubt, carry over to anticipate equally that co-occurrence of first and second person pronouns should also be impossible, at least in a language such as Spanish in which the forms are syncretic. In many languages first and second person clitics are indeed mutually complementary, and indeed, as we would expect on the analysis just outlined, they are precluded in Greek:

(39) *Mas.1.PL.GEN se.2.ACC edosan
They gave you to us

(40) *Sas.2.PS.GEN me.1.SG.ACC edosan
They gave me to you

Surprisingly, however, many cases are fully acceptable in Modern Spanish and they occurred albeit rarely in Medieval Spanish also:

(41) *No te me acerques*
Not CL CL come-closer
'Don't come closer to me.'

[Mod.Spanish]

Examples like these might be taken to indicate that at least this subcase of the PCC is not grounded in a strong structural restriction, indeed is no more than a reflection of the fact that events describable by ditransitives in which both participants described are human are not common, and so didn't

happen to lead to routinisations and encodings in the clitic clusterings that emerged (Haspelmath (2004)). However, there is evidence that the stronger structural explanation is correct, simply obscured by the presence of polysyny of the relevant dative for some languages, specifically in Spanish (and Latin). It is certainly the case that in all languages, dative construals show a flexibility between an adjunct vs an argument form of construal, suggesting the necessity of saying that the dative is intrinsically underspecified for its logical type, and so must be associated with relatively weak structural specification, at least upon one analysis. Furthermore, in many languages, the apparently adjunct form of construal includes so-called *ethical* datives, in which the expression which is dative-marked may be only loosely linked with the predicate associated with the verb, characteristically associated with first and second person forms as utterance participants, implied to be indirectly affected by the event described by the verb plus its arguments. Spanish has very rich use of such datives, as did Latin before it:

- (15) *Testimonias me sed oy* [Med.Spanish]
 witnesses 1.CL-IO be.imp today
 ‘Be witnesses on my behalf today.’

- (42) *y te me devuelven vivo*
 and you me bring-back alive
 ‘and may he bring you back to me alive
 (may he bring you back alive for my benefit).’

- (43) *Me le gritaron a mi hijo*
 me.1SG.DAT 3ps.3PS.DAT shout.3PS.PL at my son
 Mod.Spanish
 They shouted at my son and that affected me.

Greek also has ethical datives.

- (44) *mou arostise to pedi* [Mod. Greek]
 me.GEN was-ill the child
 The child was ill on me (the child was sick and this concerned me)

The question is whether such dative construals are sufficiently distinct to warrant a discrete lexical basis. Cuervo 2005, arguing for feature-geometry style of analysis, provides extensive evidence that in Spanish they do. Such ethical dative construals also occur in Greek, but the distribution of dative clitics is much more restricted than in Spanish:

- (45) *mu ton malosan to gio mu* [Mod.Greek]
 me.GEN him.ACC shouted-at the son mine
 They shouted at my son and that affected me.

As already noted, first and second person clitics never co-occur in Greek; and, in addition, no more than one dative clitic is ever possible (unlike the double dative illustrated in (43)). Finally, in Spanish, under certain circumstances, more than two clitics may be possible, indeed sometimes with more than one dative clitic (data from Cuervo 2005, though not accepted by speakers of all dialects):

- (46) *te nos lo comiste*
 you_{2sg.DAT} us_{3pl.DAT} it ate_{2.sg}
 You ate it for you to our disadvantage
- (47) *te me le lleve los cassettes*
 you_{2sg.DAT} me_{1sg.REFL} pro_{3ps.sg} took_{1.sg} the tapes
 I took for myself his tapes from you
- (48) *me le lleve el auto a Emilio*
 me_{1.sg.DAT} pro_{3ps.sg.DAT} took_{1.ps.sg} from Emilio
 I took for myself Emilio's car from him
- (49) *en serio te se lo llevas*
 really you_{2sg.DAT} him_{3sg.DAT} it_{3.sg.ACC} took_{2.ps.sg}
te
 you_{2sg.DAT}
 Really you took it for yourself from him?

This is never possible in Greek, which has nothing analogous to these data.

If we follow up on the Cuervo 2005 analysis within a DS perspective, we find a natural basis for distinguishing Spanish (under some variants) and Greek. On the one hand, the ethical dative as an adjunct construal can be analysed as inducing an independent LINK relation, so that all such dative instances would be decorating a node within a distinct tree, quite unlike the analysis of the dative that within an individual structure induces an unspecified tree relation. On this assumption, Spanish is seen as having evolved homonymous dative forms, the one initiating a transition onto a linked structure, the other inducing a weakly specified tree relation within a single structure. On this analysis we expect wellformed examples such as (41), despite the preclusion by the system of two unfixed nodes of a type at a time, since for all the apparent PCC violations, an alternative strategy is available in which only one unfixed node is constructed, the other clitic being taken to induce the construction of a fixed LINK relation, hence not in conflict with the tree-structural restriction. More generally, since all the dative clitics, first, second and third person, all allow ethical dative construals, on this account, we expect all combinations to be wellformed, even though not perhaps occurring often enough to have become a stored,

routinised pairing.²² Furthermore, as independently noted by van Hoeske (Hoeske (1996)), ethical datives and argument-construal of datives merge seamlessly into one another, in particular for all first and second person clitic pronouns, since all first and second person specifications by definition constitute specification of the speech participants and their relation to the event described, so that there are grounds for positing an analysis in terms of a LINK transition for a dative pronoun without necessarily restricting the applicability of such a strategy to any particularly idiosyncratic non-argumental role.

On this analysis, the challenge is to explain why a language such as Spanish can side-step the weaker variant of the PCC but not the stronger. This is straightforward. The stronger form of the PCC is a restriction on cooccurrence of first/second person pronouns construed as accusative and a third person dative construed as an indirect object, i.e. on how internal subcategorised arguments to a predicate can be realised by a clitic cluster. But with this limitation on the range of interpretations for both first/second person pronoun clitics and on the 3rd person dative clitic, the type of construal for either of these clitics cannot be expressed through the alternative strategy of a LINK relation, for this is by definition external to the array of structure associated with a predicate plus its arguments. Hence the universality of the restriction, even applying in a language such as Spanish which allows *me/te* forms to co-occur.

This account of the potential for variability in the extent to which a language can sidestep the restriction underpinning the PCC resides in whether homonymy has emerged in the diachronic development of the language. This provides an immediate clue to the cross-language variation: we can see the languages in which both variants of the PCC hold as languages in which the ethical dative construal did not develop into any discrete homonymic form. In particular, one might argue, Greek presents such a case. In these more restricted languages, the dative clitic simply has the weakly specified form, inducing a structural relation that is compatible with a number of construals; but, with no alternative set of actions to induce, no first and second person clitics will ever co-occur, nor, more generally, will there ever

²² A further form of explanation for the rare cases of co-occurring first and second person clitics that can be observed in medieval Spanish, as indicated by the scribal transcription of the pair of clitics in (i)

Qui-d	nos	dio	pro alcalde?
Who-CL.2.SG.DO	CL.1.PL.IO	gave.3.SG	as mayor?

‘Who gave you to us as mayor?’

Notice the phonological cliticisation of the second person on the *wh* form, suggesting these are the result of an early step of *Adjunction feeding the building of clustered subject and object argument nodes associated with that first unfixed node. Under this derivation, the subsequent occurrence of *nos* will be able unproblematically to decorate a node locally unfixed with respect to the root, even though the ultimate position of the first cluster is itself not resolved until the verb is parsed.

be more than one dative clitic. So the language differentiation turns on whether, as in Spanish (at least in some dialects), the dative is polysemous between a characterisation that induces a LINK transition in addition to the characterisation that induces a weakly specified structural relations, or whether, as in Greek, the dative has merely a single specification. Hence the Person Case Constraint can be seen as grounded in a strong universally sustained restriction, with all apparent violations of the constraint explicable through the effects of variation in construal leading to the encoding of a distinct strategy. This account has the further advantage that one would expect exceptions only on a lexical basis, given the grounding of these exceptions in polysemy. With these set aside, the constraint holds absolutely: the gaps in the morphological paradigms in question arise because the individual sequence of actions to induce the precluded tree growth process could never have occurred, let alone have occurred often enough to have become routinised as a lexically triggered macro of actions.

5 The PCC in the larger perspective

With the PCC data seen as a mere consequence of a much more general structural constraint, the account can be evaluated by the potential applicability of this type of explanation. A structural constraint of this generality should be expected to have reflexes elsewhere in the grammar, acting as a constraint in quite different areas. Here we can do no more than signal the type of case one might expect, as indicative of the methodology of argument that this form of explanation leads to. Phenomena where, puzzlingly, only one type of relation is possible, despite apparent diversity in the structural effects, constitute a case in point. One such is a pattern in the verbal morphology of many Bantu languages, here illustrated with Otjiherero. As in other Bantu languages, Otjiherero displays a complex prefixed sequence of subject tense and object markings. These prefixes are very generally syncretic. In particular *vé* is a class two (human plural) marker which can be construed as either direct or indirect object.²³ These sequences are subject to some puzzling restrictions. One such restriction is in the object marking. Otjiherero agreement marking ranges freely over both indirect and object indications, yet despite the fact that their class-marking would serve to distinguish them, only one possible object marking is allowed, construed as either indirect or direct object:

²³The numbers in the literal indicate the class-marking, eg OM2 indicates direct object marking construed as a set of people. In fact, *vé* can also serve as a plural subject marker denoting humans, relying on the immediately following tense marker to disambiguate it as subject-marking, so the syncretism may be across all possible argument construals:

- (i) vé-mún-á òvi-kùryá
 SM1-see-FV 8-food
 They see food.

- (50) *ú-térék-èr-à* *òvá-éndà* *ònyàmà* *p-òngàndà.* [Otjiherero]
 SM1-cook-APPL-FV 2-guests 9.meat 16-9.house
 ‘S/he cooks meat for the guests at home.’
- (51) *ú-vé-térék-èr-à* *ònyàmà* *p-òngàndà.*
 SM1-OM2-cook-APPL-FV 9.meat 16-9.house
 ‘S/he cooks them meat at home.’
- (52) *ú-í-térék-èr-à* *òvá-éndà* *p-òngàndà.*
 SM1-OM9-cook-APPL-FV 2-guests 16-9.house
 ‘S/he cooks it for the guests at the house.’
- (53) *ú-pé-térék-èr-à* *òvá-éndà* *ònyàmà.*
 SM1-OM16-cook-APPL-FV 2-guests 9.meat
 ‘S/he cooks meat for the guests there.’

Trying to use two leads to ungrammaticality

- (54) **ú-vé - í-térék-èr-à* *p-òngàndà.*
 SM1-OM9-cook-APPL-FV 2-guests 16-9.house
 ‘S/he cooks it (for) them at the house.’
- (55) **ú-í-vé -térék-èr-à* *p-òngàndà.*
 SM1-OM9-cook-APPL-FV 2-guests 16-9.house
 ‘S/he cooks it (for) them at the house.’

There are thus grounds to warrant the hypothesis that this entirely distinct Bantu-internal morphological problem is subject to explanation in terms of the very same constraint as the Person Case Constraint. This analysis is indeed fruitfully explored in Marten 2006 to notable effect, with potential for explaining both languages that conform to the constraint and those that do not.

This explanation of the complexity of clitic clustering competes on the one hand with accounts which have been taken to justify the specification of morphological templates within in some syntax-independent morphology component, and on the other hand with accounts of such clusters in terms of feature-geometry which are at best only a trigger for structural processes and are not intrinsic to the structural processes themselves. Relative to these, the present perspective suggests a much stronger and more restrictive alternative - that morpho-syntactic phenomena, like syntactic processes more generally, can be explained solely in terms of the dynamics of the ongoing process of building up interpretation, with morpho-syntactic particularities displaying frozen reflexes of these general structure building processes. Whether this novel perspective on morpho-syntax and syntax can be sustained as a general hypothesis might be seen as remaining an open question, but the competitiveness of the present account of the PCC against current alternatives gives grounds for optimism.

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