



PP-over-V meets Universal 20

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Received: 28 February 2016/Accepted: 31 August 2016/Published online: 11 April 2017 © The Author(s) 2017. This article is an open access publication

Abstract It has proven hard to force a decision between rival analyses of Universal 20. This is because new typological data are scarce, and the number of syntactic tests applicable in the noun phrase is relatively small. I therefore consider a related set of facts that involve language-internal word order variation in the verb phrase. I first show that the pattern of grammatical and ungrammatical orders in Dutch verb phrases containing three PPs closely matches the pattern of attested and unattested orders in the noun phrase. I then use the distribution of the particle *pas* 'only' to argue that PP extraposition results from variation in the linearization of sister nodes. This means that the symmetric account of Universal 20 in Abels and Neeleman (Syntax 15:25–74, 2012) extends to the Dutch data, but the antisymmetric account in Cinque (Linguist Inquiry 36:315–332, 2005) does not.

Keywords Universal 20 \cdot PP extraposition \cdot Dutch \cdot Phrase structure \cdot Linearization

1 Introduction

This paper is about two sets of data that are—I think—instantiations of the same abstract pattern. The first data set consists of observations collected by Cinque (2005) under the rubric of Universal 20. The second data set consists of the distribution of prepositional phrases in Dutch, as described in Koster (1974) and Barbiers (1995). Although patterns resembling Universal 20 have been found in a variety of structures (see Cinque 2009 and Abels 2016), the unmistakable similarity of the two data sets is noteworthy in itself, given that Universal 20 is a typological

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generalization about word order in the noun phrase, whereas the Dutch data involve language-internal word order variation in the verb phrase. This implies that the constraints that give rise to Universal 20 must be general enough to apply to both noun phrases and verb phrases, and moreover exert their influence in grammars of individual languages, as well as at the typological plane. This is as expected if the constraints in question are principles of Universal Grammar.

Considering Universal 20 and the distribution of PPs in Dutch in tandem is likely to be informative in two ways: insights into Universal 20 may bear on the analysis of the distribution of PPs and—more importantly—insights into the distribution of PPs may bear on the analysis of Universal 20. The latter should be of considerable interest to syntacticians and typologists working on word order. It has proven very difficult to decide between competing analyses of Universal 20 using typological data pertaining to the noun phrase, essentially because new typological data are scarce, and the number of syntactic tests applicable in the noun phrase is relatively small. By contrast, it is quite easy to run syntactic tests that diagnose detailed properties of the Dutch verb phrase. This implies that the parallel between Universal 20 and the distribution of PPs in Dutch offers an opportunity to make some genuine headway.

Universal 20, as originally proposed by Greenberg (1963), is given in (1). It states that there is an asymmetry in the order of pre- and postnominal modifiers. Relevant prenominal modifiers come in a fixed order, but the order of postnominal modifiers is variable:

(1) When any or all of the items—demonstrative, numeral, and descriptive adjective—precede the noun, they are always found in that order. If they follow, the order is either the same or its exact opposite.

In most recent literature, Universal 20 is understood to be a generalization over 'neutral' or 'basic' orders. Thus, as illustrated in (2a), there are languages in which the neutral order in the noun phrase is Demonstrative—Numeral—Adjective—Noun. Similarly, there are languages with N-Dem-Num-A or N-A-Num-Dem as the neutral order [see (2b,c)]. However, there are no languages in which A-Num-Dem-N is attested as the neutral order.

(2)	a.	these	five	five empty			es					
	b.	i-kombe	bi-bi	i bi-tan	10	bi-tu	ne		Kîîtharaka (Peter Muriungi, p			
		8-cup	8-th	is 8-fiv	e	8-red						
		'these fi	ve red	cups'								
с	c.	távò dàxó xóxó à		àton	éhè lo l		lε		Gungbe (Aboh 2004			
		table	big	old	three	DEM	SPF	PL				
		'these th										

The two accounts of Universal 20 I will consider are the antisymmetric analysis in Cinque (2005) and the symmetric analysis in Abels and Neeleman (2012). Although these accounts are very different, Universal 20 emerges in both of them from the interaction of an invariant hierarchy of modifiers with two further analytical components: a mirroring device and standard leftward movement of the noun or a constituent containing the noun. The mirroring device is responsible for the alternation

in (3I,II). Leftward noun movement derives (3III) from (3I). However, on the assumption that there is no rightward noun movement, (3IV) cannot be derived from (3II) (here and below shaded orders in tables are unattested/ungrammatical).

(3)	Ι	II	III	IV		
	Dem Num A N	N A Num Dem	N [Dem Num A t_N]	$[t_N A Num Dem] N$		

The full set of attested and unattested orders, as described in Cinque (2005), is given in (4) (see also Dryer 2009/2011 and Cinque, in prep.). The mirroring device is again deemed responsible for the data in columns I and II, where each grammatical structure has a grammatical counterpart with reversed order. The derivation of the orders in column III crucially involves (leftward) movement. It is therefore predicted that that none of these orders have a grammatical mirror image (see the unattested orders in column IV).

(4)		Ι	Π	III	IV
	a.	Dem Num A N	N A Num Dem	N Dem Num A	A Num Dem N
	b.	Dem Num N A	A N Num Dem	Dem N Num A	A Num N Dem
	c.	Dem A N Num	Num N A Dem	A N Dem Num	Num Dem N A
	d.	Dem N A Num	Num A N Dem	N Num A Dem	Dem A Num N
	e.	A Dem Num N	N Num Dem A	N Dem A Num	Num A Dem N
	f.	A Dem N Num	Num N Dem A	N A Dem Num	Num Dem A N

The main disagreement between Cinque (2005) and Abels and Neeleman (2012) concerns the nature of the mirroring device. Cinque claims that mirroring is a consequence of roll-up movement, while Abels and Neeleman claim that mirroring is a consequence of variation in the linearization of sister nodes. At the root of this dispute are diverging assessments of the validity of Kayne's (1994) Linear Correspondence Axiom (LCA), which is compatible with roll-up movement, but not with variation in linearization.

The distribution of prepositional phrases in Dutch also results from a combination of mirroring and leftward head movement. In embedded clauses, PPs mirror around the verb, a phenomenon I will refer to as 'PP-over-V', following Koster (1974) and Barbiers (1995):¹

¹ In addition to PP-over-V, Dutch allows right dislocation of arguments, as well as (certain) adverbials:

(i)	a.	Ik	heb	'n	gisteren	gekocht [_{DP}	die	jas].
		Ι	have	him	yesterday	bought	that	coat
		ίI	oought	it yes	terday, that	coat.'		
	b.	Ik	heb	die	jas	gekocht [AdvP	gisteren].	
		Ι	have	that	coat	bought	yesterday	
		ίŀ	nought	that c	oat vesterda	nv.'		

Examples of this type require one of two intonations: either the right-dislocated material is stressed and preceded by a prosodic break, or it is destressed and not preceded by a prosodic break.

One may wonder whether (ib) really is right dislocation, as there is no preverbal 'placeholder' for the adverbial. Note, however, that on analyses in which right-dislocated material appears in a separate

(5)	a.	dat	hij	[[door	een	stuu	rfout] ₃	[met	een	knal]	2 [op	
		that	he	by	а	steer	ring-error	with	a	bang	on	
		het	hek] ₁	$strandde_V$]								
		the	fence	got.stuck								
		'that h	e got st	tuck on the f	ence v	vith a	bang becau	ise he i	nade	a steer	ing error	c'
	b.	dat	hij	$[strandde_V]$	[op	het	hek]1	[n	net ee	en l	knal] ₂	
		that	he	got.stuck	on	the	fence	и	vitha	l	bang	
		[door	een	stuurfout]3]							
		by	a	steering-er	ror							

In addition, Dutch has V-to-C in main clauses (Koster 1974, 1975; Den Besten 1977):

Footnote 1 continued

sentence whose further content is elided (see Ott and De Vries 2014; Truckenbrodt 2016 and references mentioned there), such placeholders are not expected to be an obligatory component of right dislocation. In fact, abstracting away from information-structural constraints, right dislocation should be possible as long as the sequence of sentences on which it is based is felicitous, with the second providing a further specification of the information provided by the first. This is indeed true of the two sequences in (ii).

(ii)	a.	Ik	heb	'n	gisteren	gekocht –	ik	heb	die	jas	gisteren -	gekocht.
		Ι	have	him	yesterday	bought –	Ι	have	that	coat	yesterday	bought
	b.	Ik	heb	die	jas	gekocht –	ik	heb	die	jas	gisteren	gekocht.
		Ι	have	that	coat	bought –	Ι	have	that	coat	yesterday	bought

Could PP-over-V be an instance of right dislocation? I do not think so. Right-dislocated material cannot answer a wh-question. Thus, there is a sharp contrast between the examples in (iii) and (iv).

(iii)	a.	[Context: What did you buy yesterday?]						b.	[Context: When did you buy that coat?]					
		lk	heb	die	jas	gisteren	gekocht.		Ik	heb	die	jas	gisteren	gekocht.
		Ι	have	that	coat	yesterday	bought		Ι	have	that	coat	yesterday	bought
	'I bought that coat yesterday.'						ΊI	bought	that co	at yester	day.'			

(iv) a. [Context: What did you buy yesterday?]
b. [Context: When did you buy that coat?]
*Ik heb 'm gisteren gekocht [DP die jas]. *Ik heb die jas gekocht [AdvP gisteren]. *I have him yesterday bought that coat I have that coat bought yesterday*'I bought it yesterday, that coat'
'I bought that coat yesterday.'

This fact about right-dislocation follows from the analyses mentioned above. *Ik heb'm gisteren gekocht* 'I bought it yesterday' is not a felicitous answer to the question 'What did you buy yesterday?', and *Ik heb die jas gekocht* 'I bought that coat' is not a felicitous answer to the question 'When did you buy that coat?'.

By contrast, extraposed PPs can answer wh-questions:

 (v) [Context: When did you buy that coat?] Ik heb die jas gekocht [PP op maandag]. *I have that coat bought on Monday* 'I bought that coat on Monday.'

Moreover, extraposed PPs are acceptable even if the sentence that hosts them does not have the kind of intonation that facilitates right dislocation. These observations of course do not imply that PPs cannot appear in dislocation. However, they do show that PP-over-V and right dislocation cannot be the same phenomenon.

- (6) a. dat Jan zijn moeder op-belde that John his mother up-called 'that John called up his mother'
 - b. Jan belde z'n moeder op $t_{\rm V}$. John called his mother up 'John called up his mother.'

If we consider possible and impossible orders of the verb and three PPs, putting together data from main and embedded clauses, we arrive at the table in (7). While the parallel with Universal 20 is not perfect, it seems unquestionable (assuming PP₃ corresponds with Dem, PP₂ with Num, PP₁ with A, and N with V). Indeed, the similarity between (4) and (7) is highly statistically significant (that is, whether or not a noun phrase order is attested is a good predictor of whether or not the corresponding verb phrase order is grammatical).²

(7)		Ι	Π	III	IV	
	a.	PP ₃ PP ₂ PP ₁ V	V PP ₁ PP ₂ PP ₃	V PP ₃ PP ₂ PP ₁	PP1 PP ₂ PP ₃ V	
	b.	PP ₃ PP ₂ V PP ₁	PP ₁ V PP ₂ PP ₃	PP ₃ V PP ₂ PP ₁	PP ₁ PP ₂ V PP ₃	
	c.	$PP_3 PP_1 V PP_2$	PP ₂ V PP ₁ PP ₃	PP ₁ V PP ₃ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₃ V PP ₁	
	d.	PP ₃ V PP ₁ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₁ V PP ₃	V PP ₂ PP ₁ PP ₃	PP ₃ PP ₁ PP ₂ V	
	e.	PP ₁ PP ₃ PP ₂ V	V PP ₂ PP ₃ PP ₁	V PP ₃ PP ₁ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₁ PP ₃ V	
	f.	PP ₁ PP ₃ V PP ₂	PP ₂ V PP ₃ PP ₁	V PP ₁ PP ₃ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₃ PP ₁ V	

In what follows I therefore explore the implications of the hypothesis that Universal 20 and the distribution of PPs in Dutch are indeed the same phenomenon (at an appropriate level of abstraction).

Current insights into Universal 20 have one clear implication for the analysis of PP-over-V: the phenomenon should not be treated as resulting from PP movement. I show that, to the extent that this can be tested, there is indeed no evidence for traces of either PP extraposition or PP intraposition.

The main finding of the paper, however, concerns an implication of PP-over-V for the analysis of Universal 20. The diagnostic tool I will make use of in my analysis of the Dutch verb phrase involves the particle *pas* 'only'. This particle can associate with PPs, but only if a very strict locality condition is met: as argued by Barbiers (1995:65), *pas* must immediately c-command its associate. This condition is satisfied if the c-command domain of *pas* does not contain a category closer to *pas* than its associate (with the exception of categories that dominate the associate).

² Some details: The null hypothesis is that there is no relation between attested noun phrase orders and grammatical verb phrase orders. The alternative hypothesis is that a verb phrase order is grammatical if and only if the corresponding noun phrase order is attested. The data show that the alternative hypothesis makes the correct prediction for 21 out of 24 pairs of corresponding noun phrase and verb phrase orders [compare the tables in (4) and (7)]. The chance of such a result, or a more extreme result, obtaining under the null hypothesis equals 2325 (the number of ways 21 or more pairs can be selected out of 24) times 0.5^{24} (the chance of any of these selections under the null hypothesis). This yields a *p* value of 0.00014.

The upshot is that association with *pas* can be used as a highly sensitive 'distance detector'. This is useful, because a standard antisymmetric account of PP-over-V in terms of 'roll-up movement' requires more structure between *pas* and a postverbal PP than a symmetric account that relies on variation in the linearization of sister nodes³:



As a consequence, an antisymmetric analysis of PP-over-V predicts that it should be impossible for *pas* to associate with a postverbal PP. In the antisymmetric structure in (8a), *pas* does not immediately c-command the postverbal PP—the fronted VP is closer to *pas* and therefore counts as an intervener. By contrast, association with a postverbal PP is predicted to be possible on a symmetric account. In (8b), *pas* does immediately c-command the postverbal PP—its VP sister is equally far away from *pas* and therefore does not count as an intervener. The fact of the matter is that postverbal PPs *can* associate with *pas*. This implies that a symmetric view of phrase structure permits a straightforward unification of the analyses of Universal 20 and the distribution of PPs in Dutch. The antisymmetric view does not, and—as I will demonstrate—attempts to remedy this problem must fail, essentially because various configurations in which association with *pas* must be ruled out are isomorphic to (8a).

This is not the only argument I will present, but I highlight it here as, to the best of my knowledge, it is a new kind of argument. Existing objections against antisymmetry are based on locality constraints incompatible with the movements required to generate surface order (see Abels and Neeleman 2009, 2012). The argument sketched above shows that there are additional empirical problems that originate in the increased size of syntactic representations required under antisymmetry. This is striking, as symmetric and antisymmetric representations are notational variants in terms of gross constituency.

The paper is organized as follows. In Sect. 2, I sketch three ways in which mirror image effects can be accounted for: variation in the linearization of sister nodes, movement of dependents of the head, and roll-up movement. In Sects. 3 and 4, I

³ I should briefly clarify the labeling conventions used here and below. Where labels are not relevant to the point under discussion, they are omitted. Throughout, I reserve labels like XP and YP for dependents in an extended projection; I label functional projections using integers. I further follow Cinque's (2005) practice of labeling functional projections that host landing sites for movement as Agr-projections. These conventions are intended to increase presentational clarity; nothing of substance hinges on them.

then outline the symmetric analysis of Universal 20 (based on mirroring through variation in linearization) and the antisymmetric analysis (based on mirroring through roll-up movement). Section 5 discusses the basics of PP-over-V. As Sects. 3, 4, 5 consist primarily of necessary background information, those well versed in the debate surrounding antisymmetry may wish to skip Sects. 3 and 4, and those well versed in Dutch syntax may wish to skip Sect. 5. The remainder of the paper (Sects. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10) deals with the syntax of the particle *pas* 'only', which, as mentioned, can associate with temporal PPs under very strict locality (Barbiers 1995). This strict locality makes it possible to test exactly what mirroring device is involved in PP-over-V. First, the data show that PP-over-V is not a result of PP movement, as predicted if Universal 20 and the distribution of PPs in Dutch are of a kind. Second, the data show that PP-over-V cannot be analyzed as involving roll-up movement either. This leaves variation in linearization as the only remaining option, contra antisymmetric accounts of Universal 20 and PP-over-V. Section 10 summarizes the main findings of the paper.

2 Three ways of mirroring

As I tried to make clear in the introduction, the syntax of mirror image effects is central to the issues dealt with in this paper. There are three options that I will consider. The first is that mirror image effects result from variation in the linearization of trees. If YP must c-command XP when both are merged in the extended projection of a lexical head L, then reordering sister nodes will straightforwardly lead to reversed orders when YP and XP both precede or both follow L:



While variation in linearization is certainly the simplest way of deriving mirror image effects, it is not the only way. One alternative is to make use of movement of YP and XP, the 'dependents' of L. This kind of analysis comes in two variants: one could rely on rightward movements that link the base structure in (9a) to a representation like (10a), or on leftward movements that link the base structure in (9b) to a representation like (10b).





Of course, in order to derive mirror image effects, we need a condition that bans a reversal of landing sites: it should not be possible to link (9a) to (11a), or (9b) to (11b).



There is an off-the-shelf solution for this in the form of a chain-based version of Relativized Minimality (as proposed in Starke 2001). The main difference between this constraint and standard Relativized Minimality is that interveners are not simply constituents in the path of movement, but rather full chains (comprising a constituent and all its traces). The constraint can be formulated as in (12).

- (12) A chain C_{α} headed by α blocks formation of a chain C_{β} headed by β if and only if
 - (i) C_{α} and C_{β} are of the same type, and
 - (ii) all of the links in C_{α} are c-commanded by β and c-command a trace of $\beta.$

The chain-based version of Relativized Minimality was designed to capture order preservation effects in derivations that involve multiple movements of the same type. However, in case the movements in question all cross the lexical head of an extended projection, (12) bans a non-mirroring order of landing sites. It rules out the representations in (11), because in both (11a) and (11b) XP is structurally separated from its trace by a full chain {YP, t_{YP} }. By contrast, (10a) and (10b) are well formed, because neither XP nor YP is structurally separated from its trace by a full chain its trace by just the chain link t_{YP} , while YP is separated from its trace by just the chain link XP.⁴

A second alternative to base-generated mirroring is roll-up movement, a technique used to capture mirror image effects in much of the antisymmetric literature. Antisymmetry requires an underlying structure that is rightward descending. Specifiers of functional heads can host YP and XP in such a structure, making it possible to base-generate the YP-XP-L order. The reverse order is derived by first moving LP across XP and subsequently moving a category that dominates LP in its derived position across YP. In order to make this work and adhere to standard antisymmetric constraints on phrase structure, two additional functional projections must be postulated, whose specifiers function as landing sites for the required movements:

⁴ I do not wish to suggest that (12) is the only principle that can ensure mirroring effects. What (12) does is guarantee *shape conservation* in the sense of Williams (2003) under extraposition and intraposition. There are other ways of achieving this. However, in order to keep things manageable, I will restrict myself here to shape conservation through Relativized Minimality.



All three techniques of capturing mirror image effects have precedents in the literature. Mirroring through rightward movement is used in Koster's (1974) analysis of PP-over-V. The analyses of Universal 20 sketched in the next two sections use variation in linearization and roll-up movement, respectively.

3 Universal 20 symmetric

I now turn to the analysis of Universal 20. The pattern in (3) permits a simple analysis based on mirroring through variation in linearization (see Ackema and Neeleman 2002; for an earlier antisymmetric account, see Cinque 1996). Three assumptions are necessary. The first is that there is a universal hierarchy Dem > Num > A > N; that is, the noun combines with adjectives before it combines with numerals and demonstratives, and it combines with numerals before it combines with demonstratives. If so, the two orders in (3I,II) can be base-generated⁵:



The second assumption is that neutral word order can result from leftward, but not rightward noun movement. This allows the attested order in (3III) to be derived from (14a), as in (15a), but blocks a derivation in which (3IV) is derived from (14b), as in (15b):

 $^{^{5}}$ As long as the constraints in (17)/(22) are in place, the pattern in (4) is generated. This is true even if no restrictions are imposed on the X-bar theoretical status of modifiers, the range of landing sites for movement or the types of movement involved (see Abels and Neeleman 2012). This is why the trees in this section are left unlabeled.



The third assumption is that neutral orders cannot be derived by movement of a dependent of the head noun. Otherwise, leftward movement of the adjective and the numeral could produce the unattested order in (3IV) after all [see (16)]. This is not a surprising restriction. While head movement typically does not have interpretive effects, phrasal movement almost always does (see Chomsky 1995). In line with this, movement of modifiers can only deliver orders that are marked and that therefore fall outside the realm of Universal 20.



The account developed so far can be summarized as follows:

- (17) (i) There is a universal hierarchy Dem > Num > A > N.
 - (ii) Neutral orders are base-generated or derived (to be revised) by X⁰-movement.
 - (iii) X^0 -movement is asymmetric: it must be leftward. (to be revised)

So far I have limited myself to the minimal data set (3). Does the account scale up to reality; that is, does it capture the full set of data in (4), repeated in (18) for convenience? Abels and Neeleman (2012) argue that only one minor adjustment is necessary. In addition to the structures in (14), three other symmetric pairs can be generated without movement. The relevant trees are given in (19a,b), (19c,d) and (19e,f); they deliver the attested orders in (18Ib,IIb), (18Ic,IIc) and (18Id,IId), respectively.

	Ι	Π	III	IV	
a.	Dem Num A N	N A Num Dem	N Dem Num A	A Num Dem N	
b.	Dem Num N A	n Num N A A N Num Dem I		A Num N Dem	
с.	Dem A N Num	em A N NumNum N A Demem N A NumNum A N Dem		Num Dem N A	
d.	Dem N A Num			Dem A Num N	
e.	A Dem Num N	N Num Dem A	N Dem A Num	Num A Dem N	
f.	A Dem N Num	Num N Dem A	N A Dem Num	Num Dem A N	
	a. b. c. d. e. f.	Ia.Dem Num A Nb.Dem Num N Ac.Dem A N Numd.Dem N A Nume.A Dem Num Nf.A Dem N Num	IIIa.Dem Num A NN A Num Demb.Dem Num N AA N Num Demc.Dem A N NumNum N A Demd.Dem N A NumNum A N Deme.A Dem Num NN Num Dem Af.A Dem N NumNum N Dem A	IIIa.Dem Num A NN A Num DemN Dem Num Ab.Dem Num N AA N Num DemDem N Num Ac.Dem A N NumNum N A DemA N Dem Numd.Dem N A NumNum A N DemN Num A Deme.A Dem Num NN Num Dem AN Dem A Numf.A Dem N NumNum N Dem AN A Dem Num	



In addition to (15a), three more grammatical structures can be generated by movement of the noun, as demonstrated by the trees in (20), which deliver the attested orders in (18IIIb,d,e).



The final two attested orders in (18IIIc,f) can also be generated though movement if a small change is made in the assumptions in (17ii,iii): noun movement must be allowed to pied-pipe adjectives, as in (21). In order to accommodate pied-piping, I have substituted X^+ for X^0 in the revised conditions below— X^+ stands for the lexical head or a constituent containing the lexical head.



- (22) (i) There is a universal hierarchy Dem > Num > A > N.
 (ii) Neutral orders are base-generated or derived (final version) by X⁺-movement.
 - (iii) X^+ -movement is asymmetric: it must be leftward. (final version)

Let me conclude this section with a brief discussion of how the unattested orders in (18) are ruled out. Given the hierarchy of merger in (22i), A and N must be adjacent in any base-generated structure. Conversely, if they are separated, movement must have taken place. Since neutral orders cannot be derived by movement of adjectives, and since the noun cannot move rightward, it is impossible under the assumptions in (22) to separate an adjective and a noun if they come in this order [see (23a)]. Similarly, given that numerals must be adjacent in any base-generated structure to the substring comprising the adjective and the noun, the order in (23b) is excluded. As a consequence, (18Ie,f) and all of (18IV) are ruled out.

(23) a. *A ... X ... N b. *Num ... X ... A+N

Two unattested orders remain, namely (18IIe,f). In these orders, the adjective and the noun are separated, suggesting that N has moved (leftward, as required). But if that is the case, the base structure for both (18IIe) and (18IIf) must have been either Num-Dem-A-N or Num-Dem-N-A. Neither of these orders can be generated under the assumptions in (22) [compare (18IVc,f)].⁶

4 Universal 20 antisymmetric

The analysis of Universal 20 outlined in the previous section is a symmetric reinterpretation of the antisymmetric analysis in Cinque (2005), which I summarize in (24). The two analyses are based on very similar sets of assumptions. However, instead of a ban on rightward X⁺-movement, Cinque adopts Kayne's (1994) Linear Correspondence Axiom (LCA). This principle dictates that every projection has the same fixed shape: [XP specifier [XP X complement]]. That is, the head is combined with at most two phrasal categories, such that the higher (the specifier) precedes the head and the lower (the complement) follows it. This has a number of consequences. First, the hierarchy in (22i) must be implemented in an expanded structure [as expressed in (24i)]. Second, there is only one base-generated order, namely Dem-Num-A-N; every other order must be derived by N⁺-movement.⁷ In particular, mirror image effects must result from roll-up movement, rather than variation in linearization. This is why (24i) mentions Agr1, Agr2 and Agr3, whose specifiers function as landing sites for movement. Third, given its characterization of the syntax as fundamentally asymmetric, the LCA implies that movement must be leftward. A moving category will simply not find c-commanding positions to its right.

 $^{^{6}}$ In principle, various orders that are base-generated according to Abels and Neeleman (2012) can, on the assumptions in (22), be derived through movement as well. This may seem to lead to a certain degree of redundancy. However, it is likely that learners disprefer movement and posit it only when they have to. This weeds out the unwanted derivations. Notice that there is evidence for this learning strategy from typological frequencies: as it turns out, orders that *must* be derived by movement are systematically rarer than orders that can be derived through base generation.

⁷ In recent work, Cinque (2016) suggests that even the Dem-Num-A-N order is (typically) derived by movement, basing himself on the order of postnominal functional heads. However, this refinement of the original proposal does not affect the argumentation in this paper, so I abstract away from it here.

- (24) (i) The underlying structure of the extended projection of the noun is projected from a series of heads that come in a fixed hierarchy: Agr3 > 3 > Agr2 > 2 > Agr1 > 1 > N, where

 a. 3 hosts DemP in its specifier
 b. 2 hosts NumP in its specifier, and
 c. 1 hosts AP in its specifier
 - (ii) Neutral orders are base-generated or derived by X⁺-movement.
 - (iii) Projections have the shape [XP specifier [XP X complement]].

The structure described in (24i) unfolds as in (25), where the positions labeled α , β and γ are landing sites for movement. All derivations have this representation as their starting point.

(25)
$$\left[\operatorname{Agr3P}_{\gamma} \operatorname{Agr3}\left[\operatorname{Bgr3P}_{\beta} \operatorname{Dem 3}\left[\operatorname{Agr2P}_{\beta} \operatorname{Agr2}\left[\operatorname{Bgr3P}_{2P} \operatorname{Num 2}\left[\operatorname{Agr1P}_{\alpha} \operatorname{Agr1}\left[\operatorname{Bgr3P}_{1P} \operatorname{A 1} \operatorname{NP}\right]\right]\right]\right]\right]\right]$$

The simplest derivation involves no movement at all and therefore yields Dem-Num-A-N. All the other attested orders can be derived as well; their derivations are given in (26b–n).

(26)	a.	Ia: No movement	(Dem-Num-A-N)
	b.	Ib: NP moves to α	(Dem-Num-N-A)
	c.	Ic: Agr1P moves to β	(Dem-A-N-Num)
	d.	Id: NP moves to α , Agr1P moves to β	(Dem-N-A-Num)
	e.	IIa: NP moves to α , Agr1P moves to β ,	(N-A-Num-Dem)
		Agr2P moves to γ	
	f.	IIb: Agr1P moves to β , Agr2P moves to γ	(A-N-Num-Dem)
	g.	IIc: NP moves to α , Agr2P moves to γ	(Num-N-A-Dem)
	h.	IId: Agr2P moves to γ	(Num-A-N-Dem)
	i.	IIIa: NP moves to γ	(N-Dem-Num-A)
	j.	IIIb: NP moves to β	(Dem-N-Num-A)
	k.	IIIc: Agr1P moves to γ	(A-N-Dem-Num)
	1.	IIId: NP moves to β , Agr2P moves to γ	(N-Num-A-Dem)
	m.	IIIe: Agr1P moves to β , NP moves to γ	(N-Dem-A-Num)
	n.	IIIf: NP moves to α , Agr1P moves to γ	(N-A-Dem-Num)

Equally importantly, none of the unattested word orders in (18) can be derived under the assumptions in (24). The logic is much the same as in Sect. 2.

Given that the symmetric and antisymmetric analyses of Universal 20 generate the exact same typology, there are no simple testable predictions that can be used to decide between the two proposals. This problem is compounded by the fact that the symmetric and antisymmetric analyses group material together in very similar ways. I illustrate this for N-Dem-A-Num in (27a,b) and for N-A-Num-Dem in (28a,b). In both pairs the antisymmetric analysis is given first, with its symmetric counterpart below it. If one only considers overt material and traces of long movement (that is, non-roll-up movement), the two representations in each pair are isomorphic.

(27)	a. b.	[Agr3P	NP [₃₁ N [P Dem Dem	•[Agr2P	[Agr11 [e t _{NP} [] t _N	$\mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{1P}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{P} \ t_{\mathrm{N}}$	P]][2P]	Num Num	P t _{Agr1}	P]]]]]]]
(28)	a. b.	[Agr3P [[Agr21 [P [Agr1]	NP[1F N	AP t A	'np]][2]	P NumP Num	$t_{\rm Agr1P}$]] [3P]	DemP Dem	<i>t</i> _{Agr2P}]]

This is not a quirk of these two particular orders. Abels and Neeleman (2009) demonstrate that the two analyses assign the same gross constituency to overt material and traces of long movement in all attested orders. The proof is based on two automatic dominance-preserving procedures that can be used to translate one analysis into the other. These procedures, dubbed shrinking and stretching, are given below:

- (29) *Shrinking* (partial definition, omitting label adjustments)
 - (i) Prune the antisymmetric tree by deleting the functional heads and their intermediate projections, maintaining dominance.
 - (ii) Delete any trace whose antecedent is the sister of the trace's mother.
 - (iii) Prune all non-branching non-terminals, maintaining dominance.
- (30) Stretching (partial definition, for right adjuncts/specifiers only) In a structure [$_{Y} X \alpha$], where Y is projected from X and α is A, Num or Dem,
 - (i) insert a node $F_{\alpha}P$ between α and its mother;
 - (ii) insert a trace of X under $F_{\alpha}P$ and to α 's right;
 - (iii) relabel Y as $AgrF_{\alpha}P$.
 - (iv) For every headless node β , insert one identically labeled node γ between β and β 's right daughter, and a second identically labeled node as γ 's left daughter.

In practical terms, then, the difference between the two proposals seems to be one of quantity. The proposals generate the same typology and assign very similar structures to the orders in that typology. However, the symmetric analysis uses small trees and few movements, while the antisymmetric analysis uses large trees and many movements. The question I will focus on here is whether the extra movements and extra structure required by antisymmetry are harmful.

Abels and Neeleman (2012) do not identify harmful effects of the extra structure, but they do show that the extra movements postulated under antisymmetry are qualitatively different from the ones needed under the symmetric account—they

violate independently motivated conditions on movement. The conditions in question are anti-locality, the ban on stranding of pied-piped material and the A-over-A condition. I refer to the article for detailed discussion, but will briefly summarize the issue raised by the ban on stranding of pied-piped material (see Abels 2008 and Neeleman and Van de Koot 2010 for an account of this constraint and the circumstances under which it is applicable). The effects of the ban on stranding of pied-piped material are illustrated in (31c), which is ungrammatical because a preposition pied-piped in a first step of *wh*-movement is left behind in an intermediate landing site by a subsequent step of *wh*-movement (see Postal 1972). The examples in (31a,b) show that each of the movements in (31c) is well formed in itself; it is the specific combination of movements that is ruled out.

- (31) a. [PP With which friend] did you say [t_{PP} that she went home t_{PP}]
 - b. [NP Which friend] did you say [t_{NP} that she went home with t_{NP}]
 - c. *[NP Which friend] did you say [[PP with t_{NP}] that she went home t_{NP}]

The antisymmetric analysis of Universal 20 violates, and must consequently reject, the ban on stranding of pied-piped material. The N-Dem-A-Num order can only be derived by a first step of movement that pied-pipes the adjective, followed by a second step of movement that strands it [see (27a)]. By contrast, the symmetric analysis in (27b) does not assume the first step of movement (which is of the roll-up type), and therefore does not violate the ban on stranding of pied-piped material either. We see, then, that the antisymmetric analysis is at a disadvantage here, as it must develop a new account for the ungrammaticality of (31c) and related data.⁸

Below, I will demonstrate that the extra structure required by antisymmetry is also problematic, basing my argument on data involving PP-over-V.

5 PP-over-V

Koster (1974) was perhaps the first to observe mirror-image effects in the order of preverbal and postverbal PPs in Dutch.⁹ Koster's primary interest in the phenomenon did not lie in the mirror-image effect itself, but rather in the evidence

⁸ Rizzi (2015) discusses examples like (31c), arguing that their ungrammaticality follows from restrictions on labeling (rather than from constraints on movement interactions). However, as Klaus Abels (p.c.) points out, Rizzi's account also disallows labeling in the crucial nominal structure—[N [Dem [[A t_N] Num]])—unless A and Num share with N the feature required for labeling. If they do share this feature, then there is a danger that the antisymmetric account can no longer explain the generalization in (24ii). The explanation for (24ii) proposed in Cinque (2005) and adopted by Abels and Neeleman (2012) is that movements that derive neutral orders target a labeling feature unique to the head of the extended projection. If this feature is not unique to N, it is unclear why neutral orders cannot be derived by movement of Num or A.

⁹ The pattern has also been identified in German, although the data are not as crisp as they are in Dutch (see Schweikert 2005). It would take me too far afield, though, to discuss contrasts between Dutch and German extraposed PPs.

it provides for verb movement in main clauses (verb-second). I think it is useful to summarize Koster's beautifully argued paper, which was published in Dutch, for reasons that will be obvious by the end of this section.

Koster's starting point is an unexpected contrast between Dutch and English main clause word order. While the order of (certain) postverbal PPs in English is fixed [as shown in (32)], the order of the corresponding postverbal PPs in Dutch is variable [as shown in (33)]. This contrast is obviously something that requires analysis.

(32) a. John thought [of his father]₁ [during the break]₂.
b. ??John thought [during the break]₂ [of his father]₁.

(33)	a.	Jan	dacht	[aan	zijn	vader] ₁	[tijdens	de	pauze] ₂ .
		John	thought	of	his	father	during	the	break
	b.	Jan	dacht	[tijdens	de	pauze] ₂	[aan	zijn	vader] ₁ .
		John	thought	during	the	break	of	his	father

Koster's explanation of the contrast between (32) and (33) is based on the observation (already mentioned in the introduction) that in Dutch embedded clauses prepositional phrases mirror around the verb. That is, the preferred preverbal order in (34) is the reverse of the preferred postverbal order in (35).

(34)	a.	dat	Jan	[tijdens	de	$pauze]_2$	[aan	zijn	vader] ₁	dacht
		that	John	during	the	break	of	his	father	thought
		'that	John t	hought of	f his fa	ather dur	ring the b	reak'		
	b.	??dat	Jan	[aan	zijn	vader] ₁	[tijdens	de	pauze] ₂	dacht
		that	John	of	his .	father	during	the	break	thought
(35)	a.	dat	Jan	dacht	[aan	zijn v	/ader]1	[tijde	ens de	pauze] ₂
		that	John	thought	of	his f	ather	duri	ing the	break
	b.	??dat	Jan	dacht	[tijde1	ns de p	bauze] ₂ [a	an zi	jn vader] ₁	
		that	John	thought	durir	ng the l	oreak a	of hi	is father	

Koster demonstrates that, given this fact, the variable order in Dutch main clauses can be understood if the verb moves from the position it occupies in embedded clauses. This is easy to see. Following the verb in (36a)—the scheme for embedded clauses—only one order of PPs can be generated (PP_1-PP_2). However, following the verb in (36b)—the scheme for main clauses—two orders are admissible (PP_2-PP_1 and PP_1-PP_2).

(36) a. *that* ...
$$[[V]]$$

b. V ... $[[t_V]]$

The analysis also explains the contrast between Dutch and English main clauses. As PPs must be generated to the right of the verb in English, the only admissible order is $V-PP_1-PP_2$.

Koster's next move is the highlight of the article. He notes that his analysis does not predict complete freedom in Dutch main clauses. In case there are *three* PPs merged according to a strict hierarchy, two of the six logically possible orders are ruled out. A strict order of merger gives rise to the scheme in (37a), or (37b) once verb movement is factored in. Fixing the position of the PPs in (37b) in various ways yields the orders in (38a–d), but crucially (38e,f) cannot be generated.

(37) a.
$$[[[V]]]$$

b. V ... $[[[t_V]]]$

Although it is not trivial to find cases of three PPs that come in a fixed preverbal order, they exist, and therefore these predictions can be tested. The examples in (39) form the baseline. They have the right profile, as all alternative pre- and postverbal orders are marked or ungrammatical, a point explored in some detail in Barbiers (1995).

(39) a. dat hij [door een stuurfout]₃ [met een knal]₂ that he by a steering-error with a bang [op het hek]₁ strandde fence on the got.stuck 'that he got stuck on the fence with a bang because he made a steering error' b. dat hij strandde $knal]_2$ [op het hek]₁ [met een that he got.stuck on the fence with a bang [door een stuurfout]₃ by steering-error а

If we now consider possible main clause orders, we find exactly the predicted pattern. The orders in (40a–d) are grammatical, but the ones in (40e,f) are not.

(40)	a.	Hij	strandde	e [door	een	stuurfe	out] ₃	[met	een	knal] ₂
		he	got.stuc	k by	а	steerir	ıg-error	with	a	bang
		[op	het ł	$nek]_1$.						
		on	the f	ence						
		'He got s	tuck on t	he fence	e with	a bang l	because	he made	e a ste	eering error.'
	b.	Hij	strandde	e [door	een	stuurfou	ut] ₃	[op het	t hek	[] ₁
		he	got.stuc	k by	a	steering	g-error	on the	e fen	се
		[met	een k	$[nal]_2.$						
		with	a b	oang						
	c.	Hij	strandde	e [met	een	n kn	al] ₂ [o	p het	t hek	[] ₁
		he	got.stuc	k with	a	ba	ng o	n the	e fen	се
		[door	een s	tuurfout]3.					
		by	a s	teering-	error					
	d.	Hij	strandde	e [op	het	hel	k]1 [n	net een	n kna	ul] ₂
		he	got.stuc	k on	the	fen	ice w	vith a	bar	ıg
		[door	een s	tuurfout]3.					
		by	a s	teering-	error					
	e. '	∗Hij	strandde	e [met		een	$knal]_2$	[door	een	
		he	got.stuci	k with		a	bang	by	a	
		stuurfout]3 [op he	et	hek] ₁ .				
		steering-e	error	on th	е	fence				
	f. '	∗Hij str	andde [op he	et	hek] ₁	[door	een		
		he goi	t.stuck	on th	е	fence	by	а		
		stuurfout]3 [met ee	n	knal] ₂ .				
		steering-e	error	with a		bang				

What emerges, then, is that Koster's (1974) analysis of word order in Dutch prefigures current analyses of Universal 20 in employing the combination of leftward head movement and a mirroring device. Indeed, if we take a step back and collate the data from root and non-root environments in a single table, looking only at the order of the verb and the three PPs, the pattern that emerges is the one already given in the introduction to this paper¹⁰:

1)		Ι	Π	III	IV
	a.	PP ₃ PP ₂ PP ₁ V	V PP ₁ PP ₂ PP ₃	V PP ₃ PP ₂ PP ₁	PP ₁ PP ₂ PP ₃ V
	b.	$PP_3 PP_2 V PP_1$	PP ₁ V PP ₂ PP ₃	PP ₃ V PP ₂ PP ₁	$PP_1 PP_2 V PP_3$
	c.	PP ₃ PP ₁ V PP ₂	PP ₂ V PP ₁ PP ₃	PP ₁ V PP ₃ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₃ V PP ₁
	d.	PP ₃ V PP ₁ PP ₂	$PP_2 PP_1 V PP_3$	V PP ₂ PP ₁ PP ₃	PP ₃ PP ₁ PP ₂ V
	e.	$PP_1 PP_3 PP_2 V$	V PP ₂ PP ₃ PP ₁	V PP ₃ PP ₁ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₁ PP ₃ V
	f.	PP ₁ PP ₃ V PP ₂	PP ₂ V PP ₃ PP ₁	V PP ₁ PP ₃ PP ₂	PP ₂ PP ₃ PP ₁ V

¹⁰ PPs can undergo A'-movements of various kinds, including fronting to the left periphery of main clauses. The table in (41) abstracts away from such movement.

(4)

This pattern is largely identical to the one established by Cinque for the typology of the noun phrase [see (4)]. There are three cells where the correlation breaks down [namely (41IIIb,c,f)]. It is not a mystery why this should be so. First, verb second (as opposed to noun movement) takes the verb all the way to the left periphery of its extended projection, ruling out (41IIIb). Second, verb second (as opposed to noun movement) does not permit pied-piping, ruling out (41IIIc) and (41IIIf). These are properties specific to verb second. Should a typological study uncover a larger range of V⁺ movements, one would expect to find a full match.

I take it as self-evident that PP-over-V and Universal 20 should be treated, if at all possible, as resulting from the same abstract principles: a hierarchy and either (22ii,iii) or (24ii,iii). As I will argue below, pursuing this desideratum has consequences for both the analysis of PP-over-V and that of Universal 20. I start with the former. Two predictions are made about Dutch syntax. First, PP-over-V should not be the result of movement of PPs [as this is ruled out by (22ii) and (24ii)]. Second, Dutch should have no rightward verb movement [as this is ruled out by (22iii) and (24iii)]. As regards the second prediction, it is in fact well known that there is no evidence for rightward verb movement in Dutch, and that rightward verb movement would in fact cause difficulties if it were postulated (see Reuland 1990). The first prediction is addressed below, in Sect. 8.

6 Pas: Basic syntax and semantics

In the following four sections, I will explore the consequences of the distribution of the 'qualifier' *pas* for the analysis of PP-over-V. The distribution and interpretation of *pas* have been described in detail by Barbiers (1995), and the observations that follow are his, except where indicated. The analysis sketched in this section also adopts many of Barbiers' theoretical claims, but crucially not all of them—see Sect. 10 for a discussion of Barbiers' proposal.¹¹ Finally, 'qualifier' is a term borrowed from Barbiers, but used here more narrowly to refer to *pas* and related elements.

Barbiers argues that the basic meaning of *pas* is $(\log(\neg \Phi))$. In this formula, Φ stands for a proposition expressed by the structure in which *pas* occurs. Insertion of *pas* implies that, within a contextually given interval, the period in which Φ does not hold is characterized as long compared to the period in which it does:¹²

¹¹ To be concrete, I adopt from Barbiers the hypothesis that the temporal modifier *pas* means 'long(Φ)' (see immediately below) and the locality restriction in (50). The idea that *pas* always modifies VP, encoded through a selectional requirement [QL], is mine.

¹² Pas has a second use as a numeral qualifier. In this guise, it appears local to a numeral whose value it characterizes as low. Thus, in pas na tien jaar therapie 'only after ten years of therapy', ten years is characterized as long, but in na pas tien jaar therapie 'after only ten years of therapy', it is characterized as short. (N.B. Some speakers reject na pas tien jaar therapie in favor of na slechts tien jaar therapie 'only after ten years of therapy', but I find it grammatical and many examples of this type can be found on the web.).



All else being equal, this suggests that the truth of Φ is recent. Indeed, *pas* is interpreted in this way in examples like (43): the period following John's move to Amsterdam is taken to be short compared to the period preceding that event.

(43) Jan is pas naar Amsterdam verhuisd. John is PAS to Amsterdam moved 'John has recently moved to Amsterdam.'

There are temporal modifiers that have a comparable semantics. Examples are 'after ten minutes' and 'as of ten minutes ago' in (44). We can depict the semantic contribution of these modifiers as in (45).

(44)	a.	Jan	kon	na	tien	minuten	weer	lachen.
		John	could	after	ten	minutes	again	laugh
		'John	was able	to laugh	again	after ten	minutes.'	
	b.	Jan	kan	sinds	tien	minuten	weer	lachen.
		John	can	since	ten	minutes	again	laugh
		'As of	f ten min	utes ago,	John l	has been a	able to laug	gh again. ¹

(45) a. |------| 10 min.b. |------| $-\Phi$ 10 min.

Interestingly, *pas* can be associated with such modifiers. If this happens, the result is an alignment of the temporal structures of *pas* and the modifier. Thus, the examples in (46) differ from those in (44) in that a subjective judgment is expressed about the length of the ten-minute period the modifiers measure. In (46a) this period is characterized as long [see (47a)], while in (46b) it is characterized as short compared to the preceding period in which John was not able to laugh [see (47b)]. (Throughout I use underlining to indicate association.)

(46)	a.	Jan	kon	pas	[<u>na</u>	tien	minuten]	weer	lachen.
		John	could	PAS	after	ten	minutes	again	laugh
		'John	was only	able	to laugh	again	after ten m	inutes.'	
	b.	Jan	kan	pas	[sinds	tien	minuten]	weer	lachen.
		John	can	PAS	since	ten	minutes	again	laugh
		'Only	as of ten	ı minı	ites ago l	has Jol	hn been able	e to laug	gh again.'



Note that it is crucial that the interpretation of *pas* is linked to a contextually given interval. The boundaries of this interval make it possible to compare the spans of time during which Φ holds and does not hold. Otherwise, the time during which $\neg \Phi$ holds in (47a) would be open-ended on the right, while the time during which $\neg \Phi$ holds in (47b) would be open-ended on the left.

Pas differs from temporal adverbials like *recent* 'recently', which do not permit alignment under association. Thus, the examples in (48) are interpreted with 'recently' modifying 'was able to laugh again after ten minutes'. While such an interpretation is acceptable in (48a), it is very strange in (48b).

- (48) a. ?Jan lachen. kon recent tien minuten weer na John could recently after ten minutes again laugh 'It happened recently that John was able to laugh again after ten minutes.'
 - b. *Jan kan sinds tien minuten lachen. recent weer John can recently since ten minutes again laugh "It is recent that John has been able to laugh again as of ten minutes ago.'

In sum, I propose that *pas* enters into two relations: it always modifies a verbal category and in addition it can be associated with a temporal modifier.

Modification and association are subject to distinct syntactic constraints. The syntax of *modification* involves, I assume, a selectional requirement introduced by *pas* and satisfied under sisterhood by a verbal category. I will represent this selectional requirement as a feature [QL] (for 'qualification') and I will use the diacritic # to indicate its satisfaction, as below:

(49) VP pas [QL#] VP

The syntax of *association* is largely regulated by a very strict locality constraint: as already argued by Barbiers (1995:65), *pas* must immediately c-command its associate. I formulate this constraint as in (50).

(50) *Pas* must c-command its associate XP, and there can be no YP such that *pas* asymmetrically c-commands YP, and YP asymmetrically c-commands XP.

The constraint in (50) allows *pas* and its associate to be merged separately, as in (51a) (this option was presupposed in the discussion above). In addition, it allows *pas* to form a constituent with its associate, as in (51b). Note that in the latter case,

[QL] must be copied upwards to the node dominating *pas* in order for it to find a verbal sister to modify.

(51)a.



Both structures indeed exist. The examples in (52) demonstrate that *pas* does not have to form a constituent with its associate. The associate can be fronted while the particle remains in situ. Such movement would violate the adjunct island constraint if *pas* and the fronted PP formed a constituent in the underlying representation.

(52) a. [PP Na hoeveel jaar therapie] praatte Jan volgens jou pas tPP after how-many year therapy talked John according.to you PAS zonder blozen? without blushing
'After how many years of therapy did you say John could talk without blushing?'
b. [PP Na tien jaar therapie] praatte Jan volgens mij pas tPP After ten year therapy talked John according.to me PAS zonder blozen.

```
without blushing
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'I think that John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy.'

In the examples in (53), *pas* and its associate are fronted together to the first position in a main clause. Given that there is only one position preceding the finite verb in main clauses, *pas* and its associate must form a constituent in these examples.

tien jaar therapie]] praatte Jan volgens PAS after ten year therapy talked John according.to zonder blozen. mij $t_{\rm PP}$ without blushing тe 'I think John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy.' tien jaar therapie] pas] praatte Jan volgens b. [PP Na John according.to after ten year therapy PAS talked mij t_{PP} zonder blozen. without blushing тe 'I think John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy.'

Please note that that these data also show that apparently no ordering restrictions are imposed on *pas* and its associate when they are merged. Thus, in addition to (51b), the structure in (54) is well-formed. (I will come back to this in the next section.)

VP

Deringer

The XP-pas order is of course also found when no fronting takes place:

(55) dat Jan volgens mij [PP [PP na tien jaar therapie] pas] that John according.to *vear* therapy me after ten PAS blozen zonder praatte without blushing talked 'that John, I think, talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy'

The very strict locality imposed by (50) is not surprising. *Pas* can associate with a wide range of categories. These include PPs (as illustrated above), AdvPs [see (56a)], DPs [see (56b)], and CPs [see (56c)].^{13,14} If, as suggested by these data, there are no syntactic restrictions on the categories that *pas* can associate with, then the expectation is that any category will act as an intervener.

(56)	a.	Jan	ging	pas [_{AdvP}	gister	ren] na	aar huis				
		John	went	PAS	yeste	rday to	hom	e			
		'John	went	home only	yester	rday.'					
	b.	Jan	ging	pas [_{DP}	de	derde	week	van	augustus] naa	r huis.
		John	went	PAS	the	third	week	of	August	to	home
		'John	went	home only	in the	e third w	veek of A	August	.,		
	c.	Jan	ging	pas [_{CP}	toen	de	wijn	ор	was]	naar	huis.
		John	went	PAS	when	the	wine	ир	was	to	home
		'John	went	home only	when	the wir	ne ran ou	ıt.'			

The strict locality that (50) insists on implies that *pas* cannot be linearly separated from an in situ preverbal associate, not even when it is not merged with that associate. A structure like (57a) is ruled in, but in (57b) XP is asymmetrically c-commanded by *pas* and asymmetrically c-commands the intended associate, in violation of the requirement of immediate c-command.



¹³ Of course, the extent to which association is insensitive to syntactic properties of the associate can only be tested with potential associates that permit a temporal interpretation. Therefore, I would be hesitant to suggest more than insensitivity to syntactic category.

¹⁴ Marcel den Dikken (p.c.) suggests that the bracketed constituents in (56) are in fact all PPs. However, the constituents labeled AdvP in (56a) and DP in (56b) cannot undergo PP-over-V (footnote 1), so I would maintain that they are unlikely to be PPs. *Toen* 'then' has the same distribution in isolation, but can extrapose when it takes a clausal complement. This is consistent with an analysis as either a PP or a CP (given that CPs extrapose in Dutch).

This is the right result. For example, *pas* cannot be associated with a preverbal temporal PP across another PP, as demonstrated by the contrast between (58a) and (58b) (both non-root clauses)¹⁵:

therapie]₂ (58) a. dat Jan [volgens mij]3 pas [na tien jaar John according.to me year therapy that PAS after ten blozen]₁ praatte zonder without blushing talked 'that John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy, I think' b. *dat Jan [volgens tien jaar pas mij]₃ [na therapie]₂ that John PAS according.to тe after ten vear therapy blozen]₁ praatte [zonder without blushing talked

The effect is not limited to PPs: any category that intervenes between *pas* and a preverbal associate leads to ungrammaticality. I illustrate this in (59) for intervening DPs, AdvPs and VPs.

(59)	a. *dat Jan	pas [_{DP} het	boek]	[na tien	jaar] gel	ezen heeft
	that John	PAS the	book	after ten	year red	ıd has
	intended:	'that John re	ad the bo	ook only af	ter ten yea	rs.'
	b.*dat Jan	een boek	pas [Adv	vaak]	[na tien	jaar] leest
	that John	a book	PAS	often	after ten	year reads
	intended:	'that John of	ften reads	s a book or	nly after ter	n years.'
	c. *dat Jan	pas [_{VP} aan	Marie de	enkend]	[na tien	minuten] zag
	that John	PAS of	Mary th	inking	after ten	minutes saw
	dat ik v	voor 'm	stond			
	that I b	pefore him	stood			
	intended:	'that John, b	ecause h	e was thinl	king of Ma	ry, saw that I was
	standing i	in front of hi	m onlv a	fter ten mi	nutes.'	-

In all likelihood, *pas* is a maximal projection (as assumed tacitly above). When not attached to its associate, *pas* does not block verb movement to C. This follows if it is an adjunct rather than a functional head. When merged with its associate, *pas* does not project either. Evidence for this comes from locative inversion, which reliably diagnoses PPs in Dutch (see Zwart 1992 for discussion and references). In structures involving locative inversion, PPs are fronted in the preferred absence of an expletive. The example in (60) thus shows that the combination of *pas* and a PP can undergo locative inversion. Consequently, this combination must itself be a PP, rather than a projection of *pas* [thanks to Marcel den Dikken (p.c.) for pointing out these facts].

¹⁵ Volgens mij 'according to me' is often used as a parenthetical. The judgment in (58b) presupposes an absence of the intonational contour that licenses parenthetical use. In the presence of such an intonation, the example is perhaps a little more palatable, though I would still classify it as ungrammatical.

(60) $\left[\underset{PAS}{PP} \xrightarrow{Pas} \left[\underset{PP}{Pas} \right] \xrightarrow{Pas} \left[\underset{P}{PP} \xrightarrow{in de derde kist}\right] zat (??er) een lijk.$ 'Only in the third coffin sat (there) a body 'Only in the third coffin could a body be found.'

However, I will briefly explore the alternative hypothesis that *pas* is a functional head in Sect. 9, showing that this would not materially affect my main argument against antisymmetry.

With the basics in place, I will now confront various theories of PP-over-V with challenges emerging from the distribution of *pas*. In addition to the above data, there are two core observations to be accounted for. First, PP-over-V does not seem to affect the ability of PPs to associate with *pas*. The data in (61) show that the associate can appear to the right of the verb, and that it can be preceded by other postverbal PPs.

(61)	a.	dat	Jan	[volgen	IS	mij] ₃	pas	[zonder	blozen] ₁	praatte
		that	John	accora	ling.to	те	PAS	without	blushing	talked
		[<u>na</u>	tien	jaar	therap	$ie]_2$				
		after	ten	year	therap	у				
		'that J	ohn tal	lked wit	hout bl	ushing	only	after ten	years of th	nerapy'
	b.	dat	Jan	[volgen	IS	mij]3	pas	praatte	[zonder	blozen]1
		that	John	accora	ling.to	me	PAS	talked	without	blushing
		[<u>na</u>	tien	jaar	therap	$ie]_2$				
		after	ten	year	therap	у				

Second, when *pas* is attached to its associate (either to the left or to the right), PP-over-V is blocked (henceforth, I will refer to such combinations as pas+PP):^{16,17}

(62) a. *dat zonder blozen Jan praatte [PP pas [PP na tien jaar John without blushing talked PAS after ten that vear therapie]] therapy 'that John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy'

¹⁶ The inability of *pas*+PP to appear in postverbal position might follow on an analysis in which *pas* is never attached to its associate, so that it cannot be affected by PP-over-V (compare Büring and Hartmann 2001). However, I am skeptical of such an approach, partly because of examples like (53), which show that *pas*+PP can form a constituent.

¹⁷ Some speakers find examples like (62b) slightly better than examples like (62a). This might be due to the fact that there is an alternative parse – [PP P [DP *DP pas*]] – for the relevant string. On this parse, *pas* would not block extraposition (see also footnote 23). For most speakers, this alternative parse cannot have the interpretation targeted here (it would mark 'ten' as a low number in the context, while what is intended is that 'ten years' represents a long period of time). However, isolated examples can be found on the web in which a modifier [PP P [DP *pas* DP]] is interpreted as if it were structured [PP *pas* [PP P DP]]. An example is given in (i).

 ⁽i) Hij vertegenwoordigde de harde lijn, maar kreeg na pas weken onderhandelen zijn zin. *he represented the hard line but got after pas weeks negotiating his way* 'He was a tough negotiator, but got his way only after weeks of negotiations.' (http://www.mihai.nl/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/Boekenstijn-en-van-Agt.pdf; 29 July 2016)

So, if the contrast between (62a) and (62b) turns out to be real, this may be behind it.

b. *dat Jan zonder blozen praatte [PP [PP na tien jaar that John without blushing talked after ten vear therapie] pas] therapy PAS 'that John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy'

I will look at four analyses of PP-over-V, which respectively capture the mirrorimage effect uncovered by Koster in terms of variation in linearization (Sect. 7), PPmovement (Sect. 8), roll-up movement in standard antisymmetric trees (Sect. 9) and roll-up movement in shrunken trees (Sect. 10).

7 Pas: base-generated PP-over-V

To the best of my knowledge, Weerman (1989) was the first to suggest an account of PPover-V that relies on variation in linearization. Neeleman and Weerman (1999) highlight the fact that such an analysis captures the mirror image effect observed by Koster (1974). Here I show that a base-generation account can also deal in a straightforward manner with the observation that PP-over-V does not affect association with *pas*.

If linear order can vary, while dominance and labeling relations remain constant, (50) permits linear separation of *pas* and its associate, as long as the associate is an extraposed PP merged high enough. This is shown in (63); except for their linearization, the representations given are identical to the tree in (57a) (with XP instantiated as PP_1), and therefore they satisfy the requirement of direct c-command.



This explains the grammaticality of the examples in (61), for which I give structures below:

(64)	a.	dat	Jan	[volgen	IS	mij]3	pas	[[[zonder	blozen]1	praatte]
		that	John	accord	ling.to	me	PAS	without	blushing	talked
		[<u>na</u>	tien	jaar	therap	<u>ie]</u> 2]				
		after	ten	year	therap	у				
	b.	dat	Jan	[volgen	IS	mij] ₃]	pas	[[praatte [:	zonder blo	$[zen]_1$]
		that	John	accord	ling.to	me I	PAS	talked	without blı	ıshing
		[na	tien	jaar	therap	ie] ₂]				
		after	ten	year	therap	у				

Crucially, PP-over-V will not always allow association with *pas*. If there is an intervening XP, the structure is still predicted to be unacceptable. In (65), PP₃ is c-commanded by *pas* and c-commands PP₂, the intended associate, in violation of the requirement of direct c-command.



Indeed, if *pas* is generated too high, it cannot associate with a PP, whether that PP is pre- or postverbal. The examples in (66) are as bad as the one in (58b):

(66)	a. *dat	Jan	pas	[[volgens	mij]3	[[[zonder	blozen]1	praatte]
	that	John	PAS	according.to	me	without	blushing	talked
	[na	tien	jaar	therapie]2]]				
	after	ten	year	therapy				
	b. *dat	Jan	pas	[[volgens	mij] ₃	[[praatte	[zonder	blozen]1]
	that	John	PAS	according.to	me	talked	without	blushing
	[na	tien	jaar	therapie]2]]				
	after	ten	year	therapy				

There is nothing else to be said, except to emphasize that the data follow so easily because on a base-generation analysis of PP-over-V, a PP in postverbal position will not be any higher or any lower in the structure than the same PP in preverbal position. This explains straightforwardly why PP-over-V does not feed or bleed association with *pas*.

I now turn to the fact that *pas*+PP cannot appear postverbally. In a symmetric theory of syntax there must be parameters that determine the way sister nodes are ordered. The idea of a single unified head parameter has proven too coarse-grained. For example, the analysis of Universal 20 requires that in the noun phrase the linearization rules for demonstrative, numeral and adjective are, or at least can be, independent. In the verbal extended projection, too, the head parameter must be unpacked into various category-specific linearization rules. For example, while in Dutch DP arguments precede V, PPs may precede or follow and CP-complements must follow (a fact not illustrated here).¹⁸ The question, then, is what linearization rule regulates the placement of *pas*.

My proposal is that there is no rule that mentions *pas* as such, but rather that linearization is sensitive to [QL], the selectional requirement used to encode modification by *pas*. In particular, categories in which [QL] is satisfied must precede their sister, as stated in (67).

(67) If [QL] is satisfied in XP, then XP precedes its sister.

This linearization rule captures three generalizations. First, it has the consequence that *pas*, if attached to its associate, can either precede or follow its sister, a fact already illustrated in (53). The reason is that [QL], while introduced by *pas*, is not

¹⁸ The growth in word order parameters in this proposal has a counterpart in antisymmetric theories. For every linearization parameter necessary in a symmetric theory of syntax, antisymmetry will require that a movement parameter be postulated.

satisfied in *pas* in a structure of this type. Rather, it is copied up and satisfied in a higher node. Since, by hypothesis, no linearization rule mentions *pas* directly, no particular order is imposed:



Second, (67) predicts that *pas* must precede its sister if it is merged separately from its associate or if it does not have an associate at all. In that case, [QL] must be satisfied in *pas*:



This accounts for the ungrammaticality of the examples in (70). In (70a), *pas* has no associate; the example has the structure in (69b), with XP absent.¹⁹ In (70b), *pas* immediately c-commands its associate, as required, but appears postverbally. This example has the structure in (69b), with XP present. Finally, (70c) has the same structure, except that XP follows rather than precedes its sister.

(70)	a.	*[dat	Jan	naar	Am	sterdar	n verhuisd	is pas] ver	baast me.
		that	John	to	Ams	sterdan	n moved	is pas	am	azes me
		'That	John has	recentl	y mo	ved to	Amsterdam	n I find	surpi	ising.'
	b.	*dat	Jan	[[<u>na</u>	tien	jaar	therapie]2	[[zon	nder	blozen]1
		that	John	after	ten	year	therapy	with	hout	blushing
		praatt	e]] <u>pa</u>	<u>s</u>						
		talkee	d PAS	5						
	c.	*dat	Jan [[[z	onder	bloz	$[\text{zen}]_1$	praatte]	[<u>na</u>	tien	jaar
		that	John v	vithout	blus	shing	talked	after	ten	year
		therap	$\underline{\text{pie}}_2$] particular	8						
		thera	py PAS	5						

¹⁹ Barbiers (1995) points out that some speakers permit postverbal *pas* when it does not have an associate, but is interpreted as 'recent' (other speakers do not accept the relevant examples). I think that this judgment has its origin in the general ability of temporal adverbials to appear in right dislocation (compare footnote 1). Indeed, if postverbal *pas* exists, it certainly cannot be used to answer *wh*-questions:

⁽i) [Context: When did you buy that coat?]

a.	Ik	heb	die	jas	PAS	gekocht.	b.	*Ik	heb	die	jas	gekocht	PAS.
	Ι	have	that	coat	PAS	bought		Ι	have	that	coat	bought	PAS
	'I bought that coat yesterday.'								ought	that c	oat on	Monday.'	

So, the star in (70a) reflects the ungrammaticality of extraposition of *pas* other than through right dislocation.

Third, and most relevant in the current context, a constituent consisting of *pas* and its associate must precede its sister. After all, in such structures [QL] is copied up and satisfied in the node that immediately dominates *pas*:



This, of course, accounts for the data in (62).

Interestingly, the ban on PP-over-V of *pas*+PP has a counterpart in a ban on PP-over-V of PPs that, like *pas*, are qualifiers. An example of such a PP is discussed by Barbiers (1995). *Op z'n minst* 'at its least' (at least) associates with DPs that contain a numeral and has a distribution very similar to *pas*. Core examples demonstrating this are given below:

(72)	a.	Jan	heeft	[volgens	S	mij]	[<u>op</u>	z'n	minst]	[<u>ti</u>	ien
		John	has	accord	ing.to	me	at	its	least	te	en
		boeken]	gekocht.								
		books	bought								
		'I think .	John has b	ought at	least t	en boo	oks.'				
	b.	*Jan	heeft	[op	z'n	minst	t] [v	olge	ns	mij]	[tien
		John	has	at	its	least	-	accor	rding.to	me	ten
		boeken]	gekocht.						Ū.		
		books	bought								
	c.	[Tien	boeken]	heeft	Jan	[vol	gens		mij]	[op	z'n
		Ten	books	has	John	acc	cordi	ng.to	me	at	its
		minst]	gekocht.								
		least	bought								
	d.	[[Op	z'n	minst]	tie	n bo	eken] hee	eft Jan	volg	gens
		at	its	least	ten	ı bo	oks	has	s Joh	n acco	ording.to
		mij	gekocht.								
		me	bought								
	e.	[Tien	boeken	[op	z'n	minst	t]] he	eeft	Jan	volger	ıs
		ten	books	at	its	least	h	ıs	John	accor	ding.to
		mij	gekocht.								Ũ
		me	bought								

Crucially, op z'n minst (and other qualifying PPs) cannot be extraposed²⁰:

 $^{^{20}}$ To the extent that this example is well formed, it must have the intonation of right dislocation under focus:

⁽i) ?Dat Jan boeken] gekocht heeft -[TIEN [op z'n MINST] verbaast me. that John books its ten bought has at least - surprises me 'that John bought at least ten books I find surprising'

(73)	*Dat	Jan	[tien	boeken]	gekocht	heeft	[<u>op</u>	z'n	minst]	verbaast	me.
	that	John	ten	books	bought	has	at	its	least	surprises	me

This follows from the rule in (67) if *op* z'*n minst* is indeed a qualifier. If so, its top node will contain [QL_#], which implies that it must precede its sister, even though it is a PP.

In sum, a base-generation account of PP-over-V, in conjunction with (67), captures all known data about the distribution of *pas*.

8 Pas: PP-over-V as PP movement

An obvious alternative to a base-generation analysis of PP-over-V is to make use of a movement operation that shifts PPs across the verb (or the verb's trace in main clauses). In fact, this is the analysis assumed in Koster (1974). PP-over-V is taken to result from the transformational rule in (74), which is meant to apply to preverbal PPs from left to right.

(74) ... - PP - X - V - ... 1 2 3 \rightarrow 2 3+1 (optional)

If applied in this way, (74) will generate mirror orders. Starting with the string in (75a), a first application of the rule will deliver (75b). A second application will tuck PP_1 in below the surface position of PP_2 , as in (75c). This is because the rule states that each PP is shifted to the immediate right of the verb.

A second potential confound (in addition to right dislocation) is the fact that *op z'n minst*, much like *althans* 'at least' and *tenminste* 'at least', can introduce material that limits the conditions under which a proposition holds. In this guise, it often appears in parenthetical expressions. This is relevant because parentheticals can appear clause-finally, giving the impression that *op z'n minst* can undergo PP-over-V together with a PP associate:

(ii)	dat	die	feiten	algemeen	bekend	zijn – althans	/tenminste	/op	z'n	minst	
	that	those	facts	generally	known	are – at.least	/at.least	lat	its	least	
	in	de	syntactische	literatuur							
	in	the	syntactic	literature							
	'that those facts-at least in the syntactic literature-are generally known'										

PP-over-V is blocked, however, when a parenthetical analysis is ruled out:

<<u>op</u> (iii) dat Jan een nieuw artikel z'n minst vijftig collega's> geeft aan that John a new article at its least to fifty colleagues gives <*op z'n vijftig collega's> minst aan at its least to fifty colleagues 'that John gives a new article to at least fifty colleagues'

Footnote 20 continued

(75) a. PP₂ PP₁ V
b. PP₁ V PP₂
c. V PP₁ PP₂

This analysis can be updated in various ways. Here I consider a reinterpretation in which the order of PP landing sites is regulated by the chain-based version of Relativized Minimality in (12), repeated below for convenience:

- (76) A chain C_{α} headed by α blocks formation of a chain C_{β} headed by β if and only if
 - (i) C_{α} and C_{β} are of the same type, and
 - (ii) all of the links in C_{α} are c-commanded by β and c-command a trace of β .

As explained in Sect. 2, the condition in (76) yields mirror orders in case two or more movements of the same type cross the lexical head of an extended projection. Thus, (77a) is grammatical, because PP₁ is separated from its trace by none of the chain links of {PP₂, t_2 }, and (77b) is grammatical because only t_2 intervenes. But the anti-mirror order in (77c) is ruled out, because PP₁ is now separated from its trace by the full chain {PP₂, t_2 }.

(77) a. $[[t_2 [[t_1 V] PP_1]] PP_2]$ b. $[[[t_2 [t_1 V]] PP_1] PP_2]$ c. $*[[[t_2 [t_1 V]] PP_2] PP_1]$

Note that this account does not require preverbal generation of PPs plus rightward movement (henceforth 'PP extraposition'). The mirroring effect could also result from postverbal generation of PPs plus leftward movement (henceforth 'PP intraposition'). The structures in (78) have the same properties as those in (77), except for linear order:

(78) a. $[PP_2 [[PP_1 [V t_1]] t_2]]$ b. $[PP_2 [PP_1 [[V t_1] t_2]]]$ c. $*[PP_1 [PP_2 [[V t_1] t_2]]]$

One complication with this way of deriving mirror image effects is that it relies on a notion of type-identical chain. While it is sensible to assume that multiple instances of PP extraposition or intraposition are of the same type, it is not equally obvious that this is true of movements of two or more distinct categories. This means that it would not be a good idea to try and analyze the mirror effects relevant to Universal 20 using movements, regulated by the principle in (76), of adjectives, numerals and demonstratives. There simply is no guarantee that such movements would give rise to mirror image effects.

Moreover, once movement of constituents that do not contain the lexical head is used to derive neutral orders, overgeneration seems unavoidable. Even if we assume that movements of modifiers of the noun always belong to the same type, there is no reason why a trivial chain consisting of a modifier in its base position should be of the same type as a chain created by movement of a lower modifier. Yet this must be the case if we want to account for the fact that prenominally the universal hierarchy of modifiers translates into a universal linear order (Dem-Num-A): (79) a. *[Num [Dem $[t_{Num} N]]$] b. *[A [Num $[t_A N]]$] c. *[A [Dem $[t_A N]]$]

Although movement regulated by (76) is unhelpful in analyzing Universal 20, it may still be the right way to capture the mirror image effects found with PP-over-V. I will evaluate this hypothesis by considering how a PP-movement analysis could deal with the distribution of *pas*.

The central question in evaluating the PP-extraposition and PP-intraposition analyses must be whether there is evidence for traces of PPs that have supposedly moved. I begin by looking at the fact that pas+PP cannot show up postverbally. In the previous section, I have attributed this to a linearization rule that is sensitive to the presence of $[QL_{\#}]$. This account must be adjusted if it is to be adopted in an account of PP-over-V based on PP-movement. The normal sequence of events regarding the interaction of modification and movement is that modification takes place in a modifier's underlying position. Hence, one would expect that when pas+PP moves, [QL] is satisfied in the trace, rather than in the head of the chain. But this would imply that there should be no problem with extraposition of pas+PP, contrary to fact:

(80)
$$\left[\left[t_{pas+PP} \mathbf{V} \right] pas + PP \right] \right]$$

 $\left[\mathbf{QL}_{\#} \right]$

The only solution I see is to postulate that [QL] is exceptional in that its satisfaction must take place in the head of the chain created by PP extraposition. This would rule out V-*pas*+PP order as a violation of the linearization rule in (67):

(81) *
$$\left[\left[t_{pas+PP} \mathbf{V} \right] pas + PP \right] \right]_{[QL_{\#}]}$$

If we want to adopt an intraposition analysis of PP-over-V and maintain that (67) restricts the distribution of pas+PP, a very similar assumption must be made. On such an analysis, intraposition of pas+PP must be made obligatory, and the only way this can be achieved is by stipulating that [QL] can only be satisfied in the head of the chain created by PP intraposition:

(82)
$$[pas+PP [V t_{pas+PP}]]$$

 $[QL_{\#}]$

As it turns out, then, both the extraposition and intraposition analyses of PP-over-V would have to deny any relevance of traces of PP movement to the satisfaction of [QL]. This of course suggests that such traces do not exist, and hence that PP-over-V does not involve PP movement.

The distribution of *pas* when merged separately from its associate can also be used to test whether PP extraposition leaves a trace. If it did, we might expect it to be possible for *pas* to associate with the trace while the PP takes scope in its derived position, or for *pas* to associate with the PP in its derived position while the PP undergoes reconstruction for scope.

Such separation of the scopal position of an extraposed PP and the position in which it associates with *pas* should be unproblematic in principle. Reconstruction for scope is commonplace. Moreover, there can be no doubt that *pas* can associate with traces as well as extraposed PPs. The possibility of association with a trace was already illustrated in (52), which is repeated in (83) for convenience.

(83)	a.	[PP	Na	hoeveel	jaar	therapie]	praatte	Jan	volge	ens
			after	how-man	ny year	therapy	talked	John	acco	rding.to
		jou	pas i	t _{PP} zond	er bloz	en?				
		you	PAS	witho	out blus	hing				
		'Aft	er hov	v many ye	ears of th	erapy did y	ou say J	John co	ould ta	lk without
		blus	hing?	,						
	b.	[_{PP}	Na	tien	jaar	thera	apie] pi	raatte	Jan	volgens
			after	· ten	year	there	apy ta	ılked	John	according.to
		mij	p	as t _{PP}	zonder	blozen				
		me	PA	45	without	blushir	ıg			
		'I ti	hink tl	hat John t	alked wit	thout blush	ing only	v after	ten yea	ars of therapy.

The example in (84) shows that *pas* must also be allowed to associate with an extraposed PP:

pas [$[t_{PP} zonder$ (84) dat Jan blozen praatte PP na tien e]], that John PAS without blushing talked after ten, en [tpp zonder] blozen danste PP na vijftien jaar therapie]₂]] and without blushing danced after fifteen *vear* therapy 'that John only talked without blushing after ten years of therapy, and only danced without blushing after fifteen'

Each conjunct in (84) contains a postverbal PP. Given that the time span denoted by each of the extraposed PPs is to be taken as long, association with *pas* must take place in an across-the-board fashion, which in turn implies that *pas* must be merged externally to the coordination as a whole. Therefore, *pas* asymmetrically c-commands the extraposed PPs and each extraposed PP asymmetrically c-commands its trace. It then follows from (50) that *pas* must associate with the PPs in their surface position; it cannot associate with the putative traces of extraposition, as these are too deeply embedded.

We can determine whether the scopal position of an extraposed PP and the position in which it associates with *pas* can be distinct by considering the structures in (85). If separation of functions is permitted, (85a) should permit a reading in which the PP takes scope over AdvP (low association with *pas*; high scope), while (85b) should allow a reading in which AdvP takes scope over the PP (high association with *pas*; low scope).

(85) a. [AdvP [pas [t₁ V]]] PP₁
b. [pas [[AdvP [t₁ V]] PP₁]]

However, the fact of the matter is that such readings do not exist. The order in (85a) requires that AdvP takes scope over the PP, while the order in (85b) requires that the PP takes scope over AdvP. This is demonstrated by the data below. The example in (86a) unambiguously expresses that John often wants to see two successful trials of a dish before he prepares it for guests. The example in (86b) unambiguously expresses that only after two successful trials will John prepare a dish for guests on a regular basis.

(86) a. dat Jan een maaltijd vaak pas voor gasten bereidt that John meal guests a often PAS for prepares na twee geslaagde pogingen after successful trials two 'that it is often only after two successful trials that John prepares a meal for guests' often > after two trials; *after two trials > often b. dat Jan een maaltijd vaak voor gasten pas bereidt that John a meal PAS often for guests prepares twee geslaagde na pogingen after two successful trials 'that it is only after two successful trials that John prepares a meal often for guests' *often > after two trials; after two trials > often

In sum, there is no evidence from the distribution of *pas* for a trace of PP extraposition.

Next consider PP intraposition. If PPs move leftward across the verb, they should leave a trace in postverbal position. Given that it is possible for *pas* to associate with traces, this particle should therefore be able to show up to the right of an associated PP that it does not form a constituent with, as in (87). The example in (88) shows that this prediction is incorrect, however:

(87) *PP [XP [pas [V t_{PP}]]]

(88)	*dat	Jan	[volgens		mij]3	[na	tien	jaar	therapie]2	
	that	John	accord	ling.to	me	after	ten	year	therapy	
	[zonder	blozen]1	pas	praatt	e					
	without	blushing	PAS	talkea	l					
	641 T. 1.	11 1	1 1.1	1.1.1	1 . 0			C (1)	т.1.1.1,	

'that John talked without blushing only after ten years of therapy, I think'

This means that there is also no evidence from the distribution of *pas* for a trace of intraposition.

While the absence of evidence for traces is predicted by the base-generation account, it is embarrassing for PP-movement accounts that the various relations a PP enters into cannot be distributed across chain members.²¹

9 Pas: PP-over-V as roll-up movement

The third analysis of PP-over-V that I consider is an antisymmetric analysis modeled on Cinque's (2005) account of Universal 20. On this account, mirror image effects result from roll-up movement. Antisymmetry implies that (89) is the minimal representation that can accommodate two adverbial PPs.



However, in order to allow for roll-up movement, and hence mirrored orders, additional landing sites must be postulated, as in (90).

(ii) $[_{XP} \dots [_{:P} e_{PP} [: PP]] \dots V \dots] = [_{:P} [_{XP} \dots e_{PP} \dots V \dots] [: PP]]$

²¹ Koster (2001) analyzes PP-over-V in terms of an alternative notion of 'parallel construal'. Parallel construal is a rule that equates two structures, one in which two categories α and [ω δ] are merged and another in which [ω δ] is merged with a category containing α :

⁽i) $[_{XP} \dots [_{\omega P} \alpha [\omega \delta]] \dots] = [_{\omega P} [_{XP} \dots \alpha \dots] [\omega \delta]]$

The rule applies only if ω is a head that functions as a Boolean operator and if certain other conditions are met (see Koster 2000 for details).

Koster (2001) argues that PP-over-V involves parallel construal facilitated by a silent Boolean operator, which is represented in (ii) by a colon. The interpretation of a :P is such that the complement of : narrows down the interpretation of its specifier. In the case of PP-over-V, the specifier is taken to be an empty category:

If applied to PP-over-V in this way, parallel construal shares crucial properties with rightward movement: there must be an empty category in preverbal position (e_{PP}), and this empty category must be c-commanded by the extraposed category (:P). This means that much of the discussion of mirroring through rightward movement will potentially be relevant to parallel construal as well. Whether it is in fact depends on properties of the rule not spelled out in Koster (2000, 2001).



Notice that this analysis inherits some problems from Cinque's account of word order in the noun phrase. For instance, roll-up movement in the extended verbal projection is incompatible with the ban on the stranding of pied-piped material. In main clauses, the verb must be allowed to move out of a moved VP if that VP precedes any PP modifiers:

(91) ..., V_{fin} ... [[_{VP} ... t_{fin} ...] ... [PP ... t_{VP} ...]]

The antisymmetric analysis of PP-over-V in (90) faces two further significant problems when confronted with the distribution of *pas*.

First, it cannot capture the fact that *pas*+PPs cannot surface in postverbal position [see (62)]. Apparently, VP must be able to move across a PP, but not across a PP modified by *pas* [as shown in (92)]. There is no obvious reason why this should be so. More specifically, there is no reason why PP modifiers should project some sort of minimality barrier for movement of VP, but only if accompanied by *pas*.



Second—and that is the main argument of the paper—the antisymmetric analysis of PPover-V is incompatible with (50), the locality constraint on association with *pas*. This incompatibility arises because on the antisymmetric analysis of PP-over-V the constraint in (50) is violated in certain grammatical structures. The crucial configuration is one in which *pas* precedes VP, while its associate is in postverbal position:

(93) dat Jan pas [VP] een fiets kocht] [PP] na drie jaar onderzoek] *that John PAS* a bicycle bought after three year research 'that John only bought a bicycle after three years of research'

A partial antisymmetric representation of (93) is given in (94a). Notice that *pas* does not immediately c-command the PP it is associated with. After movement, the VP (i.e., *een fiets kocht* 'bought a bicycle') asymmetrically c-commands the PP and is asymmetrically c-commanded by *pas*. This makes (94a) exactly the kind of configuration that (50) is designed to rule out. I should emphasize that this difficulty is a direct consequence of the stretching of syntactic representations under antisymmetry. The more conventional structure in (94b) does satisfy (50).



It is helpful to compare these structures with those assumed for sentences in which an intervening category XP blocks association with *pas*. While there is a clear difference between the symmetric structures in (94b) and (95b), the antisymmetric structures in (94a) and (95a) are isomorphic in crucial respects. This means that a principle like (50) can differentiate between (94b) and (95b), but not between (94a) and (95a).



There is no easy way out of this problem. It cannot be that verbal categories do not count for (50), given that intervention of a VP in (59c) leads to ungrammaticality. It

also cannot be that (50) may be satisfied prior to movement of VP ('at D-structure'). Other moved categories that surface in between *pas* and its associate do violate (50). For instance, the examples in (96) show that a so-called R-pronoun extracted from a PP can land above *pas* or below its PP associate, but not in between the two. The pattern in (97) is identical, except that the movement in this case is that of a contrastively focused PP.

(96)	a.	Jan	heeft	er	pas	[<u>na</u>	drie	jaar]	wat $t_{\rm R}$	over	gelezen.
		John	has	there	PAS	after	three	year	something	about	read
		'John	has on	ly read	l somet	hing ab	out that	at after	three years	s.'	
	b.	*Jan	heeft	pas	er	[<u>na</u>	drie	jaar]	wat $t_{\rm R}$	over	gelezen.
		John	has	PAS	there	after	three	year	something	about	read
	c.	Jan	heeft	pas	[na	drie	jaar]	er	wat $t_{\rm R}$	over	gelezen.
		John	has	PAS	after	three	year	there	something	abou	t read

(97) a. Jan heeft DAAR-over [na drie jaar] wat tpp pas John has there-about after three years PAS something gelezen. read

'John has only read something about THAT after three years.'

- b. *Jan heeft <u>pas</u> DAAR-OVER [<u>na drie jaar</u>] wat t_{PP} John has PAS there-about after three year something gelezen. read
- c. Jan heeft <u>pas</u> [<u>na</u> drie jaar] DAAR-OVER wat t_{PP} John has pas after three year there-about something gelezen. read

There is a way of ruling in examples like (93) on an antisymmetric approach. Kayne (1994) adopts a *Barriers*-style definition of c-command, roughly as in (98) (see May 1985; Chomsky 1986). He also reanalyzes intermediate categories as the lower segments of a multi-segmented maximal projection. On these assumptions, it matters whether unattached *pas* is a maximal projection or a functional head. If it is a maximal projection, as in (94a), *pas* asymmetrically c-commands the fronted VP. However, if it is a functional head, as in (99), *pas* and the fronted VP stand in a relation of mutual c-command. That *pas* c-commands VP is unsurprising. VP also c-commands *pas*, because it is only dominated by a single segment of the multi-segmented category Agr1P—therefore the first category that dominates VP is *pas*P, and *pas*P also dominates *pas*. The condition in (50) characterizes interveners for association with *pas* in terms of asymmetric c-command. VP therefore does not count as an intervener in (99), and consequently the grammaticality of (93) is now in line with expectations.

- (98) (i) α c-commands β if and only if the first category that dominates α also dominates β .
 - (ii) A category γ dominates α if every segment of γ dominates α .



The fatal flaw in this proposal is that it does not just rule in examples like (93), but also examples that should be ruled out. Consider the structure in (100), where XP is a category merged between *pas* and its associate. In this structure, XP does not count as an intervener either, because (on a *Barriers*-style definition of c-command and the assumption that *pas* is a functional head) it c-commands *pas*, just like the VP in (99).



As a consequence, the strict locality of association with *pas* can no longer be guaranteed. Instead, it is predicted—incorrectly—that *pas* can link to a prospective associate if no more than one maximal projection is merged between them. (A structure in which two maximal projections are merged between *pas* and its prospective associate is ruled out because the lower of the two maximal projections *will* be asymmetrically c-commanded by *pas*).

In conclusion, the interaction between association with *pas* and PP-over-V provides a strong argument against an antisymmetric analysis of mirror image effects modeled on Cinque (2005). Crucially, this is an argument of a type absent in Abels and Neeleman (2009, 2012). Antisymmetry is incompatible with the independently motivated constraint in (50), not because of the movements it relies on, but because of its stretched trees. In combination with the earlier argument about the inability of *pas*+PP to be extraposed, this shows that an analysis of PP-over-V modeled on Cinque's (2005) account of Universal 20 runs into serious trouble when confronted with the distribution of *pas*.

10 Roll-up movement in shrunken trees

The conclusion we can draw from the previous section is that, if Universal 20 and PP-over-V are to be treated on a par, the evidence favors symmetric over antisymmetric accounts. Abels and Neeleman (2012) already demonstrated that the

extra movements involved in antisymmetric analyses violate independently motivated conditions on movement. I have now shown that the extra structure required by standard antisymmetry also leads to problems, namely in accounting for the distribution of qualifiers like *pas*.

At this point, it may be useful to consider the analysis of PP-over-V in Barbiers (1995). This is because Barbiers develops an account that is antisymmetric in outlook, but that does not involve stretched trees. As a consequence, it will be possible to determine to what extent the difficulties that standard antisymmetry runs into are rooted in the notion of antisymmetry itself and to what extent they lie in the stretched trees that standard antisymmetry requires.

The basic hypothesis explored by Barbiers is that all semantic relations are instantiated in syntax through a triplet of nodes: two nodes α and β between which the relation holds, and a third node R that specifies the content of the relation. The configuration in which these nodes appear is regulated by the Principle of Semantic Interpretation:

(101) A node R establishes a semantic relation between a node α and a node β if and only if α immediately c-commands R and R immediately c-commands β .

At first sight, these assumptions make it impossible for the syntax to encode monadic semantic relations. After all, monadic relations have the form $R(\alpha)$ and therefore appear to involve two, rather than three elements. However, Barbiers argues that monadic relations can be derived from the general dyadic scheme $R(\alpha, \beta)$ by equating α and β . There is more than one way of doing this. For the cases of interest here, it is achieved through movement: β is a trace of α .

Before looking at specific structures, I need to introduce one more component of Barbiers' theory, namely his definition of c-command. A simplified version of this definition appears in (102) (I have removed aspects not relevant to PP-over-V).

- (102) A node α c-commands a node β if and only if
 - (i) α does not dominate β and β does not dominate α , and
 - (ii) there is a path of left branches from γ , the minimal node that dominates α and β , to α .

I cannot discuss this definition in detail, but it is important to realize that it differs from the standard first-branching-node definition in two important ways. First, it allows c-command out of constituents on a left branch. Second, it implies that c-command is exclusively left-to-right.

The stage is now set for the analysis of PP-over-V. Barbiers takes PP modifiers to be left-adjoined to VP, as in (103). In this structure PP_1 and PP_2 are intended to modify VP_a and VP_b , respectively. However, the structure as it stands does not permit this. The relationship of modification that connects each PP to its VP sister is monadic. While PP_1 immediately c-commands VP_a and PP_2 immediately c-commands VP_b , there are no copies of these VPs that c-command the PPs in return, so the structure is in danger of violating the Principle of Semantic Interpretation.



Barbiers argues that this can be fixed through roll-up movement: VP_a and VP_b each move and adjoin to their PP sister, as in (104). Note that these movements are licit, given that on the definition in (102) the fronted VPs c-command their traces. The movements in (104) add two further relevant c-command relations: VP_a immediately c-commands PP₁, and VP_b immediately c-command PP₂. This means that two triplets have now been created—< VP_a, PP₁, $t_a >$ and < VP_b, PP₂, $t_b >$ —that each encode a monadic semantic relation in a manner consistent with the Principle of Semantic Interpretation.



If these movements may be either overt or covert, the free ordering of PPs with respect to the verb is captured, as well as the mirror image effect observed by Koster (1974).

Exactly because (104) is not 'stretched' in the standard antisymmetric way, Barbiers' (1995) analysis makes it possible to associate both pre- and postverbal PPs with *pas* while respecting the strict locality condition in (50).²² Consider first the representation in (105a): since *pas* is merged immediately above the PP, association is possible. Crucially, the same is true of (105b). In contrast to its counterpart in (94a), the fronted VP in (105b) does not count as an intervener for association with *pas*. By (102), domination precludes c-command. The fact that VP_a is adjoined to PP₂ therefore implies that VP_a does not c-command PP₂ and consequently cannot be a closer c-commanding category either.



²² In fact, this condition is subsumed under the Principle of Semantic Interpretation, which requires immediate c-command (i.e., c-command without an intervener). For details see immediately below.

The actual analysis that Barbiers offers for *pas* is more complicated. The reason for this is that the relation between *pas* and its associate is monadic, which implies that the associate must move to c-command *pas*. Barbiers assumes that it attaches to *pas*, in much the same way that a VP moves and adjoins to a PP modifier. Thus, the derivation in (105) must continue to yield (106).



In the same vein, when *pas* is directly merged with a PP modifier, as in (107a), two movements must take place, one that facilitates association with *pas* [see (107b)] and one that facilitates modification of VP [see (107c)].



Not only must the movement of VP to PP be allowed to be either overt or covert, but so must the movement of PP to *pas*. This is because both the order *pas*–PP and the order PP–*pas* are grammatical. Thus, the derivations in (105)/(106) and (107) generate the following strings.

(108)		(105)/(106)	(107)
	No overt movement.	pas-PP-VP	pas-PP-VP
	PP moves overtly.	PP–pas–VP	PP-pas-VP
	VP moves overtly.	pas-VP-PP	VP–pas–PP
	PP and VP move overtly.	VP–PP–pas	VP–PP–pas

Among these orders there are two that are in fact ungrammatical [those boldfaced in (108); see (62)].²³ Thus, while Barbiers' analysis is an improvement over a standard antisymmetric account in that it is consistent with the strict locality that association with *pas* is subject to, it is not clear that it captures the fact that PP-over-V does not affect *pas*+PP.

There are two other downsides to Barbiers' reinterpretation of antisymmetry. The first of these it inherits from standard antisymmetric mirroring through roll-up movement: the account is incompatible with certain constraints on movement. (i) VP must be transparent for extraction after it has adjoined to PP, in contravention of the adjunct island constraint [see (109)]. Barbiers suggests that extraction from the base position may provide a way out, but this is likely to go against restrictions on interacting movements (see Williams 2003; Abels 2008; Neeleman and Van de Koot 2010).

(109)	a.	Wat	heeft	Jan [_{VP} [_{PP}	in	Ams	terdam] [·	Wh gekocht]]?	
		what	has	John	in	Ams	terdam		bought
		'What	did Jo	hn buy in A	mst	erdar	n?'		
	b.	What	heeft	Jan [_{VP} [_{PP}	[vp	$t_{\rm Wh}$	gekocht]	in	Amsterdam] $t_{\rm VP}$]?
		what	has	John			bought	in	Amsterdam

(ii) Stranding of pied-piped material must be permitted, as a finite verb moves to C in main clauses even if VP has moved across a PP. (iii) The account violates antilocality (see Abels 2003, 2012). If a head and a complement cannot recombine through movement because they are sisters in the underlying representation, then the fact that VP and PP are sisters ought to also block recombination through movement.

The second downside of Barbiers' analysis has to do with the definition of c-command that it relies on. Whereas the standard first-branching-node definition can be derived from more fundamental phrase-structural notions (see Neeleman and van de Koot 2002), this is unlikely to be true of the definition in (102). Given that c-command, if taken as a primitive, is quite a baroque notion, this constitutes a problem.

None of these issues affects the base-generation account of PP-over-V. My assessment, then, is that while it is a good first step to remove the stretched trees required by standard antisymmetry, it is even better to do away with antisymmetry altogether.

 (i) Jan heeft gewerkt in EEN stad pas. John has worked in one city PAS 'John has worked in only one city.'

This is *pas* in its guise as a numeral qualifier (see footnote 11). However, as a numeral qualifier, *pas* could be attached to the DP *EEN stad* 'one city' rather than to the extraposed PP *in EEN stad* 'in one city' (see (ii)). Hence, it is not clear that this example shows what it is supposed to show. If the structure of the extraposed PP in (i) is [*in* [[*EEN stad*] *pas*]], the example does not bear on the issue at hand.

Jan heeft gewerkt [in [pas [EEN stad]]].
 John has worked in PAS one city
 'John has worked in only one city.'

²³ Barbiers suggests that the order V-<u>PP-*pas*</u> is grammatical, providing the example in (i) (see footnote 17 for discussion of comparable examples).

11 Conclusions

Let me summarize the main conclusions of this paper.

First, Universal 20 and the distribution of PPs in Dutch must be regarded as instances of the same phenomenon (mirroring plus movement of the lexical head or a constituent containing the head). This is because of the similarity of the data patterns in (4) and (7).

Second, existing accounts of Universal 20 suggest that PP-over-V should not result from PP movement, whether leftward or rightward. This is confirmed by the distribution of the qualifier *pas*. *Pas* cannot be associated with the traces left behind by these putative movements, and modification by pas+PP cannot rely on reconstruction.

Third, the distribution of *pas* is at odds with standard antisymmetric analyses of mirror image effects in terms of roll-up movement. A standard antisymmetric account is incompatible with the strict locality condition that governs association with *pas*, and it also cannot explain why *pas*+PP should block roll-up movement.

Fourth, roll-up movement in shrunken trees, as proposed in Barbiers (1995), explains why PP-over-V does not affect association with *pas*. However, it has some difficulty in explaining why *pas*+PP must appear preverbally, and it is incompatible with independently motivated syntactic restrictions.

The only theory compatible with all the data discussed above treats mirror image effects as resulting from variation in linearization, in line with the supposition that symmetry needs no explanation.

Acknowledgements Earlier versions of this paper were presented during a course on current issues in syntax at UCL (Autumn 2015) and at a workshop on non-local dependencies in the nominal and verbal domain (Lisbon, November 2015). I would like to thank the participants for useful discussion. This paper has further benefitted hugely from comments from Klaus Abels, Peter Ackema, Guglielmo Cinque, Marcel den Dikken, Hans van de Koot, Dirk Neeleman, Susi Wurmbrand, and two anonymous reviewers.

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