

Optimality, Markedness, and Word Order in German

Gereon Müller (Universität Tübingen)*

Abstract

The main goal of this article is to develop an approach to free word order structures in German that reconciles the findings of two different lines of research: competition-based models that center around the interaction of factors like definiteness, animacy, Case, and focus on the one hand, and optimality theoretic syntax with its violable and ranked constraints on the other. The analysis relies on the existence of a syntactic scrambling operation. The major claims are: (i) Scrambling is triggered by a subhierarchy of violable and ranked linearization constraints. (ii) Optimality under at least one linearization constraint results in grammaticality, optimality under the whole subhierarchy results in an unmarked structure (unmarked structures do not correspond to D-structures, as is often assumed). (iii) The distinction between subhierarchies and matrix hierarchies in optimality theory parallels the traditional distinction between weak and strong rules. It accounts for the difference between weak pronoun fronting to a Wackernagel position, which results in a fixed order, and scrambling to VP, which does not. (iv) Language-specific variation with respect to scrambling options is due to constraint reranking.

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1. Introduction

Recent research has accumulated substantial evidence in support of a scrambling operation (cf. Ross (1967)) as the basis of free word order structures in German (and other languages), and many of its properties have been unravelled. However, notwithstanding the progress that has been made, there are several problems that arise with free word order structures which have not received a convincing solution so far. I will address four of these in what follows. First, given economy constraints that block unforced movement (cf. Chomsky (1995)), scrambling cannot strictly speaking be an optional movement operation; rather, a trigger must be identified that forces scrambling. It is, however, not quite clear what this trigger might look like.¹ Second, the issue of markedness arises: Clause-internal word order in scrambling languages often exhibits degrees of markedness, rather than complete wellformedness or illformedness, and this fact is still in need of an explanation. Third, it must be clarified why a free word order language like German does in fact exhibit a fixed order domain in the *Mittelfeld*, viz., the *Wackernagel* position, to which weak pronouns are fronted. Finally, the question arises of how language-specific variation with respect to scrambling options is to be accounted for.

The goal of this article is to present solutions to these problems. To this end, I will try to combine insights of two different lines of research. First, it has repeatedly been suggested (especially in work with an orientation that is primarily empirical) that variable word order in the *Mittelfeld* of German clauses should be understood as the result of the interaction of factors which center around notions like definiteness, animacy, focus, Case, etc.; see Lenerz (1977, 27 & 62f), Hoberg (1981, 62), Lötscher (1981, 58-59), Uszkoreit (1984, 174ff; 1986, 896-899), Lerot (1985, 141), Reis (1986, 27ff), Jacobs (1988, 17ff), Stechow & Sternefeld (1988, 455), Siewierska (1993, 830ff), Dietrich (1994, 41), and

¹Suggestions that have been advanced in the literature include (a) semantic factors (cf. Diesing (1992), de Hoop (1992), Meinunger (1995), Büring (1997), Kidwai (1997), Neeleman & Reinhart (1997), and much related work); (b) Case reasons (cf., e.g., van den Wyngaerd (1989), Zwart (1993)); (c) purely formal features (cf., e.g., Sauerland (1997), Müller (1998), Grewendorf & Sabel (1999)); and (d) combinations thereof (cf. some of the above). For space reasons, I cannot discuss these approaches here in any detail. However, regarding (a), it seems to me that while there can be little doubt that different S-structure orders of scope-bearing elements yield different (preferred) patterns of interpretation, it is both problematic and unnecessary to account for all attested scrambling operations by invoking semantic factors as a trigger for movement – it is problematic because non-scope-bearing items can be scrambled (e.g., proper names), and because even scrambling of scope-bearing items can sometimes lead to a non-distinct semantic interpretation (most obviously if only non-scope-bearing elements are crossed, but also in other cases); and it is unnecessary because the semantic effects of scrambling can usually be accounted for by a model of semantic interpretation where S-structure representations are highly relevant for relative scope relations; cf. Jackendoff (1972), Kroch (1974), among many others. (In line with this, topicalization often has the same effects on relative scope as scrambling). Turning next to (b), it seems clear that an analysis of scrambling as Case-driven movement faces severe problems of under-generation – for one thing, categories other than NPs can be scrambled in German (PPs, CPs, and even, to some extent, APs and VPs); and for another, whereas Case-driven movement typically targets fixed positions (resulting in an invariant NP order), NP scrambling in German creates permutation effects (all six orders are basically possible with three NP arguments). Finally (c), assuming a scrambling feature without inherent content may lead to a descriptively adequate analysis, but still has the flavour of an ad hoc-assumption, motivated mainly by the existence of economy constraints.

Primus (1994, 40-48), among others. It is often held that these factors are by themselves “weak” and not equally important. Competition-based models of this type have proven successful from an empirical point of view, but they have always raised a conceptual problem: The interplay of weak factors of varying importance did not otherwise appear to play a role in grammar. Hence, to the extent that competition-based models of free word order were theoretically implemented, the resulting system was very different from that which was otherwise employed in grammatical theory.²

However, with optimality theory (cf. Prince & Smolensky (1993)), a second line of research has recently come into existence that views grammatical constraints as systematically violable and ranked. For this reason, a unified approach does not seem to be impossible anymore. Thus, in what follows I would like to suggest that an approach to scrambling that reconciles some of the leading ideas of competition-based models with the basic tenets of optimality theory can provide solutions to the problems noted above. However, we will see that there is a price to be paid: It is a crucial optimality theoretic assumption that a suboptimal candidate is invariably ill formed, but in order to maintain this assumption in light of the empirical evidence from word order variation in the German Mittelfeld, a modification of standard optimality theory must be made somewhere. I will suggest that the constraint hierarchy must be split up into a matrix hierarchy and a subhierarchy. This modification will accommodate the scrambling evidence in German and leave previous reasonings in optimality theoretic syntax intact.

2. Basic Assumptions

2.1. Clause Structure and Scrambling

I will presuppose the following clause structure of German:

- (1) [CP - C [TP - [π P - [VP Adj [VP SUBJ [V' DO [V' IO [V' OBL V]]]]] π] T]]

Here, SpecC is the landing site for wh-movement. SpecT(ense) is the landing site for subject raising (cf. Chomsky (1995)); this movement is optional in German (cf. Grewendorf (1989) and Diesing (1992), among others). Spec π is the position that I assume to be the landing site for weak pronoun movement, i.e., the ‘Wackernagel’ position (also cf. Johnson’s (1991) μ P); evidence for this projection will be presented in section 5. Next, (certain) adverbs are base-adjoined to VP. Finally, the D-structure order of subject (SUBJ), direct object (DO), and indirect object (IO) is always (i.e., with all types of verbs) as in (1). In particular, the direct object (typically, the THEME) must asymmetrically c-command the indirect object (typically, the GOAL) in the base (cf. Larson (1988)); I will show that this assumption is supported by evidence from anaphoric binding and weak pronoun fronting.

²It is in principle possible to assume an interplay of weak factors and at the same time do without an explicit notion of competition. See, e.g., the coalition model proposed in Dietrich (1994; 1999), which assigns numerical precedence indices to constituents that are determined by factors like definiteness, agentivity, and focus. On this view, a “good” word order is one in which precedence indices decrease from left to right. Still, the conceptual problem remains: This mechanism is not needed in other domains of grammar.

Closest to the base position of V are oblique arguments; these are realized either by NPs bearing lexical Case (e.g., genitive), or by PPs. The word order determined by (1) can be changed by movement to a specifier position (SpecC, SpecT, Spec π), or by scrambling.

Throughout this article, I adopt the scrambling approach to free word order phenomena in German, and not an approach in terms of base-generation (as pursued by Haider (1989), Bayer & Kornfilt (1994), and Fanselow (1997), among others). It is impossible to review the evidence in support of a scrambling operation in any detail here; so I will confine myself to pointing out one phenomenon that is quite suggestive, and notoriously difficult to account for under a base-generation approach. As observed in Koster (1987), Fanselow (1988), and Müller (1995), scrambling does not only affect co-arguments; rather, the target position of extraction from PP (postposition stranding) and of extraction from NP can also be Mittelfeld-internal:

- (2) a. daß der Fritz [_{NP} da]₁ wahrscheinlich nicht [_{PP} t₁ mit] gerechnet hat
 that ART Fritz there probably not with counted has
- b. daß Maria [_{PP} über die Liebe]₁ gestern abend [_{NP} ein Buch t₁]
 that Maria about the love yesterday evening a book
 gelesen hat
 read has

Given that there is strong evidence that extractions from PP and NP in German involve the creation of a trace, the examples in (2) must involve a TP-internal movement operation, i.e., scrambling. But if (2) is derived by scrambling, there is every reason to also hold this operation responsible for the creation of other word order variation effects, such as the permutation of two argument NPs. Accordingly, a language like English, which does not exhibit free word order phenomena, also lacks movement operations as in (2).

Furthermore, I will assume that scrambling in German can only be adjunction to VP (not to π P, TP, or CP, and not to NP or PP either);³ and that it is a property of adjunction operations to be iterable (in contrast to specifier movements – note that this is in conflict with the view in Chomsky (1995)). The moved item is typically an NP, PP, or CP, with AP and VP being marginal options that will be ignored in what follows.

Finally, the question has been much discussed whether scrambling is to be viewed as an A- or an A-bar movement (-like) operation (see, e.g., the contributions in Corver & van Riemsdijk (1994), and references cited there). Here, I will not take a firm stand on this issue. However, all that follows is directly compatible with the A-bar movement approach, whereas an A-movement approach may necessitate additional assumptions.

2.2. Binding of Anaphors

A first consequence of the structure in (1) and the existence of scrambling as adjunction to VP concerns binding theory. Suppose that principle A of the binding theory is formulated

³Evidence against adjunction to TP will be presented in section 5. Other free word order languages may have more landing sites for scrambling. Thus, it seems that Russian permits scrambling to TP, CP, and NP (but not to PP); see Müller (1995) for discussion.

in a purely structural way, as requiring c-command of the anaphor by a co-indexed item in an A-position (cf. Chomsky (1981)). Then we predict that binding of an IO anaphor by a preceding DO should be possible in German, whereas binding of a DO anaphor by a preceding IO should not be. The reason is that the order IO \succ DO can only be derived by scrambling under present assumptions. However, if scrambling is an A-bar movement operation, it cannot create new A-binding options.⁴ As shown in (3) for reciprocals and in (4) for reflexive pronouns, these predictions are borne out (cf. Grewendorf (1988) for the original observation, and also Webelhuth (1992) and Müller & Sternefeld (1994)).⁵

- (3) a. daß man die Gäste₁ einander₁ vorstellte
 that one the guests_{acc} each other_{dat} introduced
 b. *daß man den Gästen₁ einander₁ t₁ vorstellte
 that one the guests_{dat} each other_{acc} introduced
 c. daß ich diese Leute₁ einander₁ von Herzen gönne
 that I these people_{acc} each other_{dat} from heart not begrudge
 d. *daß ich diesen Leuten₁ einander₁ t₁ von Herzen gönne
 that I these people_{dat} each other_{acc} from heart not begrudge
 e. daß die UNO die Feinde₁ einander₁ nicht ausliefern darf
 that the UNO the enemies_{acc} each other_{dat} not extradite may
 f. *daß die UNO den Feinden₁ einander₁ t₁ nicht ausliefern darf
 that the UNO the enemies_{dat} each other_{acc} not extradite may
- (4) a. daß der Arzt den Patienten₁ sich₁ im Spiegel zeigte
 that the doctor the patient_{acc} himself_{dat} in the mirror showed
 b. ?*daß der Arzt dem Patienten₁ sich₁ t₁ im Spiegel zeigte
 that the doctor the patient_{dat} himself_{acc} in the mirror showed

⁴If scrambling is A-movement, we can end up with the same consequence if we adopt Rizzi's (1986) constraint on A-chain formation – on this view, A-movement of the IO across the DO would result in an illicit crossover configuration.

⁵There is some variability in the judgements of the reflexive pronoun cases in (4); however, the general tendency is clear enough. Also note that it does not help to assume (as is sometimes done) that binding of a DO reciprocal is in general impossible in the presence of a dative NP, and hence, that the ill-formed data in (3) do not tell us anything about the argument order at D-structure. As shown in (i-ab), a DO reciprocal can be bound by the subject NP despite the presence of the IO.

- (i) a. daß die Gastgeber₁ dem Besucher₂ einander₁ t₂ vorstellten
 that the hosts_{nom} the visitor_{dat} each other_{acc} introduced
 b. daß die Gastgeber₁ einander₁ dem Besucher₂ vorstellten
 that the hosts_{nom} each other_{acc} the visitor_{dat} introduced

Finally, it has sometimes been claimed that an IO can in fact bind into a DO and thereby license a DO-internal anaphor. While examples of this type are indeed radical improvements over the ungrammatical sentences in (3) and (4), these NP-internal anaphors in German behave in every respect like their counterparts in English, for which Reinhart & Reuland (1993, 681-685) have shown that they are logophoric and do not obey structural binding conditions.

- c. daß der Vater die Kinder₁ sich₁ (selbst) überließ
 that the father the children_{acc} themselves left
- d. *daß der Vater den Kindern₁ sich₁ (selbst) t₁ überließ
 that the father the children_{dat} themselves left

Furthermore, the prediction is that an anaphor in an oblique PP argument can be A-bound by both a DO and an IO; this is the case (cf. Grewendorf (1988)).

- (5) a. daß man die Gäste₁ [_{PP} an einander₁] verwies
 that one the guests_{acc} to each other referred
- b. daß man der Frau₁ die Augen t₁ [_{PP} über sich₁] öffnete
 that one the woman_{dat} the eyes about herself opened

On the basis of these background assumptions, let me now turn to the problems noted above, and begin with the issue of markedness.

3. Markedness

3.1. The Empirical Determination of Markedness

The grammaticality of a given sentence is usually verified by invoking the intuitions of native speakers. An obvious question that arises with a graded notion like that of relative markedness is whether it can or must be determined in another way. Several suggestions have been made in the literature. A straightforward way of determining relative markedness relies on the concept of statistical frequency (in texts, discourses, etc.). This means of measuring markedness is now commonly believed to be highly unreliable (cf, e.g., Lenerz (1977, 28)), and I will not adopt it here. Second, one could do the same thing as with the notion of grammaticality and simply rely on speakers' intuitions. Indeed, it seems to me that speakers usually have fairly clear intuitions about, e.g., which of two competing grammatical linear orders represents the more marked one. Finally, Höhle (1982, 102 & 141) (based on earlier work by Lenerz (1977, 27)) has come up with a way of determining markedness that can to some extent be viewed as a formal account of speakers' intuitions, and that strikes me as most reliable. The basic idea is simple: The more context types a given sentence can occur in, the less marked it is. This idea can be formalized as in (6) (irrelevant terminological differences are tacitly adjusted):

- (6) A candidate α is less marked than a candidate β if α, β are in the same candidate set, and α can have more foci than β (i.e., can occur in more context types), given appropriate stress assignment.

Following Höhle (1982), two candidates are in the same candidate set if they differ only with respect to word order and/or stress assignment. Note that if, as a special case of (6), a candidate α permits maximal focus projection (or maximal focus spreading, i.e., the whole sentence can be the focus), it is always unmarked. In what follows, I will presuppose that relative degrees of markedness can be empirically determined in one of the two ways envisaged here, i.e., either by directly invoking speakers' judgements, or by adhering to the number of context types in which the candidate is possible.

3.2. The Grammatical Implementation of Markedness

3.2.1. The DTC-Based Approach

Next, the question arises of how the empirically verifiable degrees of markedness of free word order structures can be predicted by the grammar. A commonly adopted approach builds on a concept that plays a crucial role in the classic Derivational Theory of Complexity (henceforth DTC, cf. Watt (1970)). According to the DTC, syntactic transformations are costly for the parser; simplifying somewhat, the more transformations have applied to a sentence, the longer parsing takes on this view. This idea also shows up in what I would like to call the DTC-based theory of markedness, which can be formulated as in (7), and which is adopted (in some form, though perhaps not always with this rigour) by Lenerz (1977, 85), Frey & Tappe (1991, 6ff), Haider (1992, 7), Fortmann & Frey (1997, 145), Wunderlich (1997, 45), and Haider & Rosengren (1998, 14), among others.

- (7) The D-structure order of arguments is the unmarked one; clause-internal order-changing movement operations create markedness.

An immediate consequence of (7) is that different D-structure orders must be assumed for different classes of double object verbs, and this point is indeed emphasized by Haider (1992). On this view, the unmarked sentences in (8), (9), and (10) exhibit the base-generated argument order; the marked sentences are derived by scrambling. Consider first the sentences in (8):

- (8) a. ?daß man diesem Einfluß die Kinder ausgesetzt/ ausgeliefert/
that one this influence_{dat} the children_{acc} exposed/ extradited/
entzogen hat
taken away from has
b. daß man die Kinder diesem Einfluß ausgesetzt/ ausgeliefert/
that one the children_{acc} this influence_{dat} exposed/ extradited/
entzogen hat
taken away from has

Here, the unmarked order is DO \succ IO, and accordingly the DTC-based approach views (8-b) as exhibiting base-generated argument order, and (8-a) as being derived by IO scrambling. The situation is reversed in (9):

- (9) a. daß er der Maria den Erfolg gönnt
that he ART Maria_{dat} the success_{acc} not begrudges
b. ?daß er den Erfolg der Maria gönnt
that he the success_{acc} ART Maria_{dat} not begrudges
c. daß er dem Fritz die Zeitung überließ
that he ART Fritz_{dat} the newspaper_{acc} left
d. ?daß er die Zeitung dem Fritz überließ
that he the newspaper_{acc} ART Fritz_{dat} left

Now, different verbs are involved, and it seems that here, the unmarked order is IO \succ DO. Thus, Haider (1992) assumes that with these verbs, IO \succ DO is the base-generated argument order, and DO \succ IO is derived by DO scrambling. Finally, consider (10):

- (10) a. daß man dem Fritz das Geld gegeben hat
 that one ART Fritz_{dat} the money_{acc} given has
 b.(?)daß man das Geld dem Fritz gegeben hat
 that one the money_{acc} ART Fritz_{dat} given has
 c. daß ich der Maria den Peter vorgestellt habe
 that I ART Maria_{dat} ART Peter_{acc} introduced have
 d.(?)daß ich den Peter der Maria vorgestellt habe
 that I ART Peter_{acc} ART Maria_{dat} introduced have

There is disagreement about the data in this case. On the one hand, Haider (1992), Höhle (1982), Reis (1986), Fanselow (1997), and Fortmann & Frey (1997) postulate that both orders are equally unmarked with verbs like geben ('give') or vorstellen ('introduce'). On the other hand, Lenerz (1977), Haftka (1981), Stechow & Sternefeld (1988), Webelhuth (1992), and Meinunger (1995) assume that only the order IO \succ DO can be unmarked here. I will adopt the latter view. Then, given the DTC-based approach, (10-a) and (10-c) could be base-generated, whereas (10-b) and (10-d) would have to involve a scrambling operation, just as in (9). Thus, notwithstanding the empirical uncertainty surrounding the sentences in (10), the DTC-based approach offers a straightforward explanation of the markedness properties associated with the sentences of this subsection. Still, closer inspection reveals that this approach is untenable.

3.2.2. Arguments Against the DTC-Based Approach

First, it is worth bearing in mind that, despite some suggestions to the contrary that can be found in the literature, (7) does not follow from anything. Thus, as pointed out by Höhle (1982, 137-138), there is no reason why relative degrees of markedness should reflect the degree of deviation from the D-structure order of arguments.⁶

Second, the evidence involving binding of anaphors that was discussed in subsection 2.2 above clearly suggests that the D-structure order is uniformly DO \succ IO, irrespective of the type of verb involved. Thus, a verb like ausliefern ('extradite') in (3) typically induces DO \succ IO as the unmarked order (cf. (8)), whereas the unmarked order with verbs like gönnen ('not begrudge') and vorstellen ('introduce') in (3) appears to be IO \succ DO (cf. (9) and (10)) – however, the evidence from anaphoric binding strongly suggests a D-structure order DO \succ IO in all cases. Similarly, the verbs zeigen ('show') and überlassen ('leave to') are double object verbs that typically trigger the unmarked order IO \succ DO (cf., e.g., (9)); but again, with respect to binding theory, they unambiguously show that the D-structure order must be DO \succ IO; cf. (4). Thus, given the clear evidence from anaphoric licensing, it seems impossible to assume that verbs that behave differently with respect to unmarked argument order at S-structure can have different argument orders at D-structure.

⁶The situation might be different with parsing; cf. Schlesewsky, Fanselow, & Kliegl (1997, 16).

A third argument against the DTC-based approach rests on data involving weak pronoun movement to the Wackernagel position. If both DO and IO are weak pronouns that undergo movement, they have to reassemble in the order $DO \succ IO$ (i.e., in exactly the order that I have argued to be the D-structure one). Strikingly, this order is again invariant across verb classes; verbs like gönnen ('not begrudge') and geben ('give') (which otherwise appear to induce an unmarked argument order $IO \succ DO$; cf. (9) and (10), respectively) must obey it in the same way as verbs like entziehen ('take away from') (which usually have $DO \succ IO$ as the unmarked order; cf. (8)). As noted by Reis (1986, 20), all the sentences exhibiting fixed pronoun order in (11) allow maximal focus projection; hence, the only order that is permitted is also unmarked, given Höhle's (1982) notion of markedness in (6).

- (11) a. daß es₁ ihm₂/*ihm₂ es₁ der Fritz t₁ t₂ gegeben hat
 that it him/him it ART Fritz given has
 b. daß es₁ ihm₂/*ihm₂ es₁ der Fritz t₁ t₂ gegönnt hat
 that it him/him it ART Fritz not begrudged has
 c. daß es₁ ihm₂/*ihm₂ es₁ der Fritz t₁ t₂ entzogen hat
 that it him/him it ART Fritz taken away from has

Clearly, there is no obvious way to reconcile the evidence in (11) with the idea that markedness is related to argument order at D-structure.

Fourth, basically the same point can be made with sentences in which only one of the two objects is a weak pronoun. The pronoun always precedes the non-pronominal object NP, no matter whether the pronoun is the DO or the IO, and whether the verb otherwise induces $IO \succ DO$ or $DO \succ IO$ as the unmarked argument order:

- (12) a. daß man es₁ Maria₂ gegeben hat
 that one it_{acc} Maria_{dat} given has
 b. daß man es₁ Maria₂ gegönnt hat
 that one it_{acc} Maria_{dat} not begrudged has
 c. daß man ihm₂ die Kinder₁ entzogen hat
 that one him_{dat} the children_{acc} taken away from has

Thus, (12-a) and (12-b) have $DO \succ IO$ as the only possible order (because DO is a weak pronoun, and IO is a lexical NP), even though geben and gönnen otherwise seem to induce the order $IO \succ DO$. Conversely, (12-c) has the order $IO \succ DO$, but the verb entziehen otherwise induces the unmarked order $DO \succ IO$. Still, maximal focus projection appears possible in all these sentences, and they are clearly unmarked (again, cf. Reis (1986, 20)).

Finally, it turns out that, depending on the animacy status of its objects, one and the same verb can exhibit two different unmarked orders; cf. Fanselow (1995, 30) and Vogel & Steinbach (1995, 106; 1998, 70). Consider, e.g., the verb entziehen. Thus far, we have seen that with two non-pronominal object NPs, the unmarked order seems to be $DO \succ IO$; the relevant data (cf. (8)) are repeated here in (13-ab). However, note that here the IO is [-animate], whereas the DO is [+animate]. Interestingly, if both IO and DO are [+animate], the unmarked order is reversed; cf. (13-cd).

- (13) a. ?daß man diesem Einfluß₂ die Kinder₁ t₂ entzogen hat
 that one this influence_{dat} the children_{acc} taken away from has
 b. daß man die Kinder₁ diesem Einfluß₂ entzogen hat
 that one the children_{acc} this influence_{dat} taken away from has
 c. daß man der Maria₂ die Kinder₁ t₂ entzogen hat
 that one ART Maria_{dat} the children_{acc} taken away from has
 d. ?daß man die Kinder₁ der Maria₂ entzogen hat
 that one the children_{acc} ART Maria_{dat} taken away from has

To make this evidence compatible with the DTC-based approach to markedness, one would have to assume that the difference in animacy is reflected in the D-structure order of arguments already, such that the D-structure order would be DO \succ IO with entziehen if IO is [-animate], and IO \succ DO if IO is [+animate], clearly an undesirable result if this implies a proliferation of lexical entries.

To sum up so far, it seems that the DTC-based approach to markedness is both conceptually unmotivated and empirically problematic. I would like to conclude from this that another grammatical implementation of markedness is called for, one that does not determine relative markedness of a sentence by measuring the degree to which it deviates from D-structure. In the following sections, I will argue that the markedness problem can indeed receive a straightforward solution under an optimality theoretic approach, which also covers the other problems noted at the beginning of this article.

4. Optimality Theory

4.1. Basic Assumptions

An optimality theoretic syntax takes the following form (cf. Grimshaw (1997) and Pesetsky (1998), among others): One part of the grammar (GEN) consists entirely of constraints that are neither violable nor ranked, just as in standard approaches. GEN generates the set of candidates $\{K_1, K_2, \dots\}$. These candidates are then subjected to the second, optimality theoretic part of the grammar (H-EVAL, ‘Harmony Evaluation’) that determines the optimal candidate(s) K_i in $\{K_1, K_2, \dots\}$. The constraints in this latter part of the grammar are assumed to be universal, violable, and ranked, and it is these constraints that I will focus on in what follows. Central to the theory is the notion of competition: The grammaticality of a candidate K cannot be determined by solely looking at internal properties of K ; rather, external factors (the competition of K and other candidates) are decisive. More specifically, grammaticality is viewed as synonymous with optimality, and can be defined as in (14) (cf. Grimshaw (1997)).

- (14) Grammaticality:
 A candidate K_i is grammatical (optimal) iff, for every candidate K_j in the same candidate set, K_i satisfies the highest-ranking constraint B_i of the constraint hierarchy $\langle B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n \rangle$ on which K_i and K_j differ better than K_j .

It remains to be clarified what kinds of formal objects the candidates created by GEN are, and how the candidate set is defined. I will assume here that candidates are $\langle D$ -

structure, S-structure > pairs, and that the candidate set is defined more or less as in Chomsky (1995): Two candidates are in the same candidate set iff they have the same numeration, i.e., simplifying somewhat, the same lexical material.⁷

4.2. Constraints

Let us turn next to the constraints of the H-EVAL system. Two types of constraints will become relevant in what follows, viz., (a) markedness constraints that trigger movement (X-Criteria); and (b) faithfulness constraints that prohibit (or minimize the effects of) movement. Among the first class of constraints I assume to be a constraint that forces weak pronouns to show up in the domain of the functional head π at S-structure: the Pronoun Criterion, or PRON-CRIT. This constraint is inspired by Johnson (1991), but it can be traced back in its essentials at least to Thiersch's (1978, 84) rule C₁.⁸

- (15) PRON-CRIT:
Weak pronouns must be in the domain of π at S-structure.

Here, the domain of a head X comprises SpecX and XP adjuncts, perhaps even X adjuncts. I will assume that only one pronoun can be substituted in Spec π so as to fulfill PRON-CRIT, and further pronouns must be adjoined to π P. Next, the Extended Projection Principle (EPP, cf. Chomsky (1982; 1995)) demands that NPs with a nominative Case feature are in SpecT at S-structure.⁹

- (16) EPP:
NP_{nom} must be in SpecT at S-structure.

Turning now to faithfulness constraints, the first constraint that will play a role is Economy of Derivation, or STAY, which prohibits overt movement (cf. Chomsky (1991; 1995) for the

⁷Both assumptions may eventually turn out to be too simplistic, but they may suffice for present purposes. See Grimshaw (1997), Müller (1997), Ackema & Neeleman (1998), and Legendre, Smolensky, & Wilson (1998) for general discussion and more elaborate concepts that, i.a., incorporate the notion of (intended) identity of meaning/LF in candidate sets.

⁸PRON-CRIT is analogous to other criteria as they have been proposed in the literature; cf. in particular the Wh-Criterion that is assumed by May (1985), Lasnik & Saito (1992), and Rizzi (1996), among others, and adopted within optimality theory in one form or another by Grimshaw (1997), Müller (1997), Ackema & Neeleman (1998), and Legendre, Smolensky, & Wilson (1998). The standard formulation of the Wh-Criterion is composed of two conjunctive statements, one that forces wh-phrases to move, and one stating that a C node bearing a [+wh] feature requires a lexical element in its domain. Indeed, it seems to me that the criteria adopted here should yield the same effect as the conjunctive formulation of the Wh-Criterion. In the case at hand, I will presuppose that indeed only weak pronouns can show up in the domain of π at S-structure (and not, e.g., lexical NPs). This could be achieved by adding a statement to this effect in (15). Alternatively, we may assume that there is a general and undominated (i.e., inviolable) constraint (that we may call F-MATCH) which demands that α can be moved to a position β only if α is equipped with features that match those of position β ; F-MATCH ensures that there is no movement of [-wh] phrases to SpecC_[+wh]; and it also implies that there can be no movement of non-pronominal NPs to the π domain.

⁹I will leave open the question of whether PRON-CRIT and EPP can also be satisfied by traces.

concept, and Grimshaw (1997) and Legendre, Smolensky, & Wilson (1998) for optimality theoretic applications).

- (17) STAY:
S-structure movement is not allowed.

Finally, I will presuppose another faithfulness constraint that has the effect of minimizing the effect of syntactic movement operations, viz., Parallel Movement (PAR-MOVE), which is extensively motivated in Müller (1999) on the basis of fixed word order properties of, e.g., Scandinavian object shift (cf. Holmberg (1986), Vikner (1990), Collins & Thráinsson (1996)), multiple wh-movement in Bulgarian (cf. Rudin (1985)), simple wh-movement in English (superiority), and quantifier raising in German.

- (18) PAR-MOVE:
If α c-commands β at level L_n , then α c-commands β at level L_{n+1}
(where α, β are arguments).

Markedness constraints and faithfulness constraints impose conflicting requirements on candidates, which must be resolved by constraint ranking. For German, I will assume the ranking in (19), with PRON-CRIT dominating PAR-MOVE and STAY, and STAY and EPP being equally ranked, i.e., tied (cf. Prince & Smolensky (1993) for this concept):

- (19) PRON-CRIT \gg EPP, STAY \gg PAR-MOVE

This does not yet account for scrambling; however, it correctly predicts the distribution of weak pronouns in German.

5. Weak Pronouns

5.1. Empirical Evidence

As observed by Lenerz (1977; 1992), Haftka (1981), Hoberg (1981), Reis (1986), Haider & Rosengren (1998), and many others, weak (i.e., unstressed) pronouns in German show up in the left periphery of the Mittelfeld, and their order is fixed.¹⁰ A subject pronoun must precede an object pronoun:

- (20) a. daß sie₁ es₂ wahrscheinlich nicht t₁ t₂ lesen wollte
that she_{nom} it_{acc} probably not read wanted
b. *daß es₂ sie₁ wahrscheinlich nicht t₁ t₂ lesen wollte

Similarly, as noted above, a DO pronoun precedes an IO pronoun:

¹⁰The situation is different with strong (stressed) and clitic pronouns, neither of which obey PRON-CRIT. Essentially, strong pronouns behave like non-pronominal NPs and can be scrambled, whereas clitic pronouns must cliticize onto a (phonologically) appropriate host. Accordingly, all ungrammatical sentences in this section can be made grammatical by stressing or cliticizing the pronouns. In what follows, I will disregard non-weak pronouns.

- (21) a. daß es₁ ihm₂ der Fritz t₁ t₂ gegeben hat
 that it_{acc} him_{dat} ART Fritz_{nom} given has
 b. *daß ihm₂ es₁ der Fritz t₁ t₂ gegeben hat

In the case of three pronominal arguments, the fixed order is SUBJ \succ DO \succ IO:

- (22) a. daß sie₁ es₂ ihm₃ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ t₃ schenken
 that she_{nom} it_{acc} him_{dat} probably for birthday give
 wird
 will
 b. *daß sie₁ ihm₃ es₂ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ t₃ schenken wird
 c. *daß es₂ sie₁ ihm₃ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ t₃ schenken wird
 d. *daß es₂ ihm₃ sie₁ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ t₃ schenken wird
 e. *daß ihm₃ sie₁ es₂ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ t₃ schenken wird
 f. *daß ihm₃ es₂ sie₁ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ t₃ schenken wird
 g. *daß sie₁ es₂ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ ihm₃ schenken wird
 h. *daß wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag sie₁ es₂ ihm₃ schenken wird

5.2. Analysis

These data follow from (19). The partial ranking PRON-CRIT \gg STAY implies that weak pronouns must undergo raising to the domain of π at S-structure, either to Spec π or, in cases of multiple pronoun fronting, to a π P-(left-)adjoined position. Hence, they must precede VP adjuncts and VP-internal objects (on subjects, see subsection 5.3). The fixed order property of fronted pronouns is an immediate consequence of PAR-MOVE. Under the partial ranking PRON-CRIT \gg PAR-MOVE, weak pronouns can cross non-pronominal NPs, thereby selectively violating PAR-MOVE in order to fulfill the higher-ranked PRON-CRIT. However, if two (or more) pronouns undergo fronting to the domain of π , all orders fulfill PRON-CRIT equally well, and the lower-ranked PAR-MOVE becomes relevant. A low-ranked PAR-MOVE predicts that, if possible, the D-structure order of arguments should be preserved at S-structure, and this is exactly what the data in the previous subsection show: The order among weak pronouns is identical to the D-structure order postulated above for all German verbs, on the basis of evidence involving anaphoric binding. Thus, given PAR-MOVE, we now have a second strong argument for postulating the clause structure in (1), with DO uniformly preceding IO at D-structure (also recall that the order of weak pronouns is independent of the choice of verb).

Abstracting away from optional subject raising triggered by the EPP for the moment, the competition underlying (21), from which K₁ (= (21-a)) emerges as the optimal candidate, is illustrated in tableau T₁.

The optimal candidate violates PAR-MOVE (and STAY) twice (both DO and IO are c-commanded by the subject at D-structure and c-command the subject at S-structure), but makes up for this by respecting the higher-ranked PRON-CRIT, in contrast to the suboptimal candidates K₃ – K₅ which incur a fatal violation of PRON-CRIT by leaving either one or both pronouns in situ. Thus, PAR-MOVE can be violated, but the violation must be kept minimal, which it is not in K₂: Here, an additional, hence fatal, PAR-MOVE violation occurs because the fronted DO and IO pronouns do not show up in their D-

Tableau T₁: Pronoun Movement of DO and IO:

Candidates	PRON-CRIT	STAY	PAR-M
\Rightarrow K ₁ : es ₁ ihm ₂ der Fritz t ₁ t ₂ ...		**	**
*K ₂ : ihm ₂ es ₁ der Fritz t ₁ t ₂ ...		**	***!
*K ₃ : es ₁ der Fritz t ₁ ihm ₂ ...	*!	*	*
*K ₄ : ihm ₂ der Fritz es ₁ t ₂ ...	*!	*	**
*K ₅ : der Fritz es ₁ ihm ₂ ...	*!*		

structure order. Next, tableau T₂ shows that in the case of three weak pronouns (cf. (22)), the candidate emerges as a winner that respects both PRON-CRIT (by moving all three pronouns) and PAR-MOVE (by reassembling the pronouns in the π domain in their D-structure order), and violates STAY three times.

Tableau T₂: Pronoun Movement of SUBJ, DO, and IO

Candidates	PRON-CRIT	STAY	PAR-M
\Rightarrow K ₁ : sie ₁ es ₂ ihm ₃ ... t ₁ t ₂ t ₃		***	
*K ₂ : sie ₁ es ₂ ... t ₁ t ₂ ihm ₃	*!	**	
*K ₃ : sie ₁ ihm ₃ ... t ₁ es ₂ t ₃	*!	**	*
*K ₄ : sie ₁ ihm ₃ es ₂ ... t ₁ t ₂ t ₃		***	*!
*K ₅ : es ₂ sie ₁ ihm ₃ ... t ₁ t ₂ t ₃		***	*!
*K ₆ : es ₂ ihm ₃ sie ₁ ... t ₁ t ₂ t ₃		***	*!*
*K ₇ : ihm ₃ sie ₁ es ₂ ... t ₁ t ₂ t ₃		***	*!*
*K ₈ : ihm ₃ es ₂ sie ₁ ... t ₁ t ₂ t ₃		***	*!***
*K ₉ : ... sie ₁ es ₂ ihm ₃	*!***		

5.3. Pronoun Fronting and Subjects

Assuming that scrambling applies only VP-internally, it follows that VP adjuncts and non-pronominal object NPs cannot precede weak pronouns clause-internally in German. However, SpecT asymmetrically c-commands the π domain, and this implies that subjects (and only these) should be able to precede weak pronouns in the Mittelfeld, provided that they have undergone optional NP raising. As shown in (23), both predictions are borne out:

- (23) a. daß Fritz es₁ der Frau₂ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂
that Fritz_{nom} it_{acc} the woman_{dat} probably for birthday
schenken wird
give will
b. *daß Fritz der Frau₂ es₁ wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag t₁ t₂ schenken wird
c. *daß Fritz wahrscheinlich zum Geburtstag es₁ der Frau₂ schenken wird

Even with a subject NP in SpecT, the fixed order among weak pronouns must be respected. This is shown in (24), which minimally contrasts with (21).

- (24) a. daß der Fritz₃ es₁ ihm₂ t₃ t₁ t₂ gegeben hat
that ART Fritz_{nom} it_{acc} him_{dat} given has
b. *daß der Fritz₃ ihm₂ es₁ t₃ t₁ t₂ gegeben hat

At this point, the tie of EPP and STAY becomes relevant (ties being a standard optimality theoretic device to derive optionality). I will here assume a global concept of tie (cf. Prince & Smolensky (1993, 50)), according to which a candidate is grammatical if it is optimal under one ranking of tied constraints.¹¹ It now turns out that, even though (21-a) and (24-a) are part of the same candidate set, they are both optimal, depending on whether the tie is resolved into a ranking STAY \gg EPP (under which (21-a), with the subject in situ, is optimal), or into a ranking EPP \gg STAY (under which (24-a), with the subject in SpecT, is optimal). This is shown in tableau T₃, an extension of T₁ (K₂ – K₅ are not repeated again; K₆, K₇ underlie the sentences in (24-a) and (24-b), respectively):¹²

Tableau T₃: Pronoun Movement of DO and IO, plus EPP Effects:

Candidates	PRON-CRIT	EPP	STAY	PAR-M
\Rightarrow K ₁ : es ₁ ihm ₂ der Fritz t ₁ t ₂ ...		*	**	**
\Rightarrow K ₆ : der Fritz ₃ es ₁ ihm ₂ t ₃ t ₁ t ₂ ...			***	
*K ₇ : der Fritz ₃ ihm ₂ es ₁ t ₃ t ₁ t ₂ ...			***	*!

Thus, by assuming a global tie of EPP and STAY, the optionality of subject raising to SpecT in German can be accounted for. I will henceforth tacitly presuppose this tie, but since I will be exclusively concerned with VP-internal scrambling in what follows, I will abstract away from EPP-driven movement, and from candidates that are optimal under the ranking EPP \gg STAY.¹³

5.4. Conclusion

To sum up this section, it has turned out that the rigid order of weak pronouns in German follows from the interaction of PRON-CRIT and PAR-MOVE.¹⁴ Furthermore, in addition to the data on anaphoric binding, the rigid order of weak pronouns (in interaction with

¹¹Prince & Smolensky also envisage a local concept of tie (via “crucial non-ranking”) that would not be compatible with the analysis below, due to the two PAR-MOVE violations of K₁ in T₃ that K₆ does without. See Müller (1999a) for a general discussion of ties in syntax.

¹²Other candidates that fulfill EPP by raising the subject NP, but fail to move one of the weak pronouns (or both), are blocked as involving fatal PRON-CRIT violations, such as K₃ – K₅.

¹³A reviewer points out that object infinitives may precede weak pronouns clause-internally; cf.:

- (i) daß [den Hund zu füttern] sie keinem befohlen hat
that the dog to feed she no-one ordered has

The literature does not agree on whether infinitive fronting in (i) qualifies as an instance of scrambling (cf. the discussion and references in Müller (1995, ch. 3)). This movement operation shares properties with both scrambling and topicalization. It targets a TP-adjoined position, and it requires an I-topicalization (rise/fall) contour and topic interpretation. I will here assume that this movement is not triggered by the same constraint that triggers regular NP scrambling (SCR-CRIT, see below), but I will leave the exact nature of the constraint in question open.

¹⁴A bit more must be said about complex constructions, though. Coherent infinitives exhibit the same fixed order among fronted pronouns:

PAR-MOVE) offers a second argument for the base order $DO \succ IO$ in German (cf. (1)). On the basis of the system as it has emerged so far, let me now turn to scrambling.

6. Scrambling

6.1. Illformedness vs. Markedness

Recall that scrambling structures pose an economy problem and a markedness problem. In present terms, the economy problem can be rephrased as follows: Because of STAY and PAR-MOVE, each scrambling operation must be triggered by a higher-ranked constraint (a “criterion”), the nature of which remains to be clarified. The markedness problem arises straightforwardly under the standard optimality theoretic notion of grammaticality (i.e., optimality) in (14), according to which suboptimal candidates are invariably ungrammatical. It seems that this result does not reflect the actual data situation: Mittelfeld-internal argument orders often have an intermediate status that calls for a treatment in terms of relative markedness, and not complete well- or illformedness.¹⁵

A solution of the markedness problem that, at first sight, looks appealing is proposed by Keller (1996, 50). The basic idea is to give up the assumption that suboptimal candidates are invariably ungrammatical. More specifically, the notion of grammaticality in (14) is replaced by the notion of suboptimality in (25) (which, however, still uses (14) as

-
- (i) a. daß es₂ ihm₃ keiner t₃ [_α t₂ zu lesen] empfohlen hat
 that it_{acc} him_{dat} no-one_{nom} to read recommended has
 b. ?*daß ihm₃ es₂ keiner t₃ [_α t₂ zu lesen] empfohlen hat
 that him_{dat} it_{acc} no-one_{nom} to read recommended has

If coherent constructions have a bisentential structure, as in (i), it seems that PAR-MOVE would wrongly predict the ill-formed S-structure order in (i-b) rather than the well-formed S-structure order in (i-a). Such a problem would not necessarily arise under a monosentential approach to coherent infinitives, as in Haider (1993). Alternatively, the data in (i) could be taken to indicate the activity of a high-ranked output/output faithfulness constraint in the sense of McCarthy & Prince (1995), such that the pronoun order in complex clauses must reflect the pronoun order in simple clauses, which is in turn derived from PAR-MOVE; essentially, this would be an optimality theoretic implementation of the classical concept of analogy. For reasons of space and coherence, I will not pursue these matters here.

¹⁵Choi (1996), Büring (1997), and Costa (1998) devise optimality theoretic approaches to free word order according to which all clause-internal word orders are perfect realizations with respect to a given context. On this view, the notion of grammaticality in (14) is unproblematic. However, I would like to contend that this is the wrong move in view of the empirical evidence. Recall first that markedness is understood here in terms of context types, and is empirically verifiable by invoking native speaker intuitions. If all grammatical word orders are equally perfect, there is no simple grammar-internal way to derive that one sentence is less marked than a competing sentence. Hence, either additional assumptions have to be made grammar-internally (Costa suggests that unmarked sentences are optimal candidates that satisfy discourse-oriented constraints vacuously), or the concept of relative markedness of sentences as such must be given up, and be replaced by a concept of relative markedness of contexts (cf. Choi, Büring). Second, there are sentences which are not perfect realizations in any context, but nevertheless appear to be grammatical (see below); and this cannot be accounted for under the approaches of Choi (1996), Büring (1997), and Costa (1998). As we will see, the approach to be developed here evades both these problems.

an auxiliary definition that covers the notion of optimality in (25)).

(25) Suboptimality:

A structure S_i is suboptimal with respect to a structure S_j if there are subsets R_i and R_j of the candidate set such that S_i is optimal for R_i and S_j is optimal for R_j and $R_i \subset R_j$ holds. A structure S_i is less grammatical than a structure S_j if S_i is suboptimal with respect to S_j .

Reinterpreting “less grammatical” in (25) as “more marked,” it follows that the optimal candidate according to (14) is now viewed as the least marked, the second-best candidate is more marked than the optimal candidate, but less marked than the third-best candidate, and so forth. However, this graded approach to grammaticality faces a fundamental problem: It is a characteristic of most (if not all) syntactic analyses that have been developed within optimality theory that the “second-best” candidate is not less marked than the “third-best.” In fact, in most cases, all suboptimal candidates are decidedly ungrammatical, with no variability involved. An arbitrarily chosen example from Grimshaw (1997, 378) may illustrate this (the same conclusion would apply in the case of pronoun fronting in German that was discussed above). Grimshaw adopts constraints that force wh-movement (OP-SPEC), prohibit empty heads (OB-HD), and prohibit movement in general (STAY); the English ranking of these constraints is assumed to reflect the order in which I have presented them. From these assumptions it follows that (26-a) is optimal, and (26-bcd) are blocked as suboptimal (as matrix wh-questions), with (26-b) emerging as the second-best candidate (OP-SPEC is satisfied, but OB-HD is not), (26-c) as the third-best (OP-SPEC is violated, OB-HD and STAY are respected), and (26-d) as the worst (OP-SPEC and STAY are violated).

- (26) a. What will John read ?
b. *What John will read ?
c. *John will read what ?
d. *Will John read what ?

Clearly, by adopting Keller’s (1996) concept of suboptimality, we should expect that the sentences in (26-bcd) are not completely ill formed, and that their degree of markedness should increase from top to bottom. Neither prediction seems correct, though. Thus, if the optimality theoretic concept of grammaticality in (14) is replaced by the concept of suboptimality in (25), this implies abandoning the main bulk of analyses that have been proposed in optimality theoretic syntax.

How, then, can we maintain the standard assumption that suboptimal candidates are ungrammatical, and at the same time permit markedness differences among grammatical candidates? I would like to suggest that this dilemma can be solved by distinguishing two constraint levels, a matrix hierarchy and a subhierarchy. Fatal violations on the matrix hierarchy induce strict ungrammaticality. The constraints discussed up to now all belong to this hierarchy, and accordingly, suboptimal candidates in the competitions discussed above are correctly predicted to be ill formed. In contrast, fatal violations on the

subhierarchy only induce markedness.¹⁶ The constraints that trigger scrambling belong to this latter hierarchy, and accordingly, we find degrees of markedness with (grammatical) candidates in this domain.¹⁷

6.2. A Subhierarchy

Suppose that scrambling is triggered by a Scrambling Criterion (SCR-CRIT) that outranks STAY, just like PRON-CRIT does. However, unlike PRON-CRIT, SCR-CRIT is in itself a subhierarchy of (potentially conflicting) linearization constraints. Among the linearization constraints are those listed in (27).¹⁸

- (27) SCR-CRIT: In the VP domain,
- a. NOM ('Nominative constraint'): [+nom] precedes [-nom] >
 - b. DEF ('Definiteness constraint'): [+def] precedes [-def] >
 - c. AN ('Animacy constraint'): [+animate] precedes [-animate] >
 - d. FOC ('Focus constraint'): [-focus] precedes [+focus] >
 - e. DAT ('Dative constraint'): [+dat] precedes [+acc] >
 - f. ADV ('Adverb constraint'): [+NP] precedes [+adv] >
 - g. PER ('Permutation constraint', 'Anti-Par-Move'): If α c-commands β at level L_n , then α does not c-command β at level L_{n+1} .

I continue to indicate ranking on the matrix hierarchy by using the symbol \gg ; in contrast, ranking on the subhierarchy is indicated by $>$. As for the ranking on the matrix hierarchy, it is clear that SCR-CRIT must dominate STAY and PAR-MOVE in German (since scrambling exists and may change the order of NPs). Moreover, PRON-CRIT must dom-

¹⁶The notion of subhierarchy here must not be confused with that used by Bakovič (1998) and Legendre, Smolensky, & Wilson (1998). In these latter approaches, constraints in subhierarchies behave like other constraints with respect to violability (i.e., a fatal violation creates ungrammaticality, not markedness).

¹⁷Note that this closely corresponds to the distinction between “weak” rules and what may be called “strong” rules that has been introduced by Daneš (1967); also cf. Lenerz (1977) and Reis (1986).

¹⁸The formulation of these constraints should by and large be self-explanatory; note, however, that $[\pm\text{focus}]$ encodes a syntactic feature – it characterizes the focus exponent, but not necessarily the semantic focus (which can be enlarged by focus projection). Similarly, in the other linearization constraints, semantic/pragmatic properties are encoded as syntactic features; thus, all these subconstraints are strictly syntactic, and not semantic/pragmatic (this evades the pertinent objections in Reis (1986)). All of these constraints have, in one form or another, been proposed in the literature. (To choose an example that may be somewhat less obvious: PER has often been viewed as the ultimate rationale behind scrambling in German; see, e.g., Frey & Tappe (1991) and Haider (1992; 1993), where it is explicitly argued that scrambling in German is licensed only if it reverses the D-structure order of arguments. In the present framework, PER is the “weakest” possible trigger for scrambling.) However, the list in (27) is not exhaustive; in fact, several aspects of Mittelfeld-internal word order variation in German will be ignored in what follows (e.g., those concerning psych verb and unaccusative constructions, and those concerning scrambling of non-NPs). More generally, what follows should be viewed as the sketch of a model in which to tackle word order in German, rather than a comprehensive account. In line with this, even though I think that the specific rankings in this subhierarchy may not be too far off the track, they certainly demand further empirical (ideally, experimental) verification.

inate SCR-CRIT because, rather than showing up in the VP domain in order to satisfy (some subconstraint of) SCR-CRIT, weak pronouns must move to the π domain (where the linearization constraints in (27) do not apply):

(28) PRON-CRIT \gg SCR-CRIT \gg EPP, STAY \gg PAR-MOVE

In accordance with the distinction between matrix hierarchy and subhierarchy, we can now define two different notions of optimality, viz., optimality as grammaticality and optimality as unmarkedness. The revised concept of grammaticality that takes into account the existence of subhierarchies is given in (29) (compare (14)):

(29) Grammaticality (revised):

A candidate K_i is grammatical iff, for every candidate K_j in the same candidate set, K_i satisfies the highest-ranking constraint B_k of the matrix hierarchy $\langle B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n \rangle$ on which K_i and K_j differ better than K_j , where B_l is replaced by some C_i in $\langle C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n \rangle$ if B_l is a subhierarchy $\langle C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n \rangle$.

Basically, the determination of grammaticality works as before; however, in the case of a constraint that is a subhierarchy, a winning candidate must be optimal under some replacement of the subhierarchy itself by a constraint belonging to that subhierarchy. In other words, with respect to the notion of grammaticality, the subhierarchy is interpreted via logical disjunction of the subhierarchy constraints; the internal ranking of the subhierarchy is irrelevant. In the case at hand, suppose that SCR-CRIT is the highest-ranking constraint on which competing candidates differ. Then a candidate will be grammatical if it is optimal under a ranking in which SCR-CRIT is replaced by one of the linearization constraints of this subhierarchy, e.g., under a ranking in which SCR-CRIT is replaced by NOM, or under a ranking in which SCR-CRIT is replaced by DEF, and so on. This means that the trigger for scrambling, and hence for VP-internal word order variation, is fairly weak. This theoretical prediction will be shown to be corroborated by empirical evidence – it is indeed the exception rather than the rule for a VP-internal word order in German not to be grammatical at all.¹⁹

The notion of unmarkedness can be defined similarly:

(30) Unmarkedness:

A candidate K_i is unmarked iff, for every candidate K_j in the same candidate set, K_i satisfies the highest-ranking constraint B_k of the matrix hierarchy $\langle B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n \rangle$ on which K_i and K_j differ better than K_j , where B_l is replaced by $\langle C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n \rangle$ if B_l is a subhierarchy $\langle C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n \rangle$.

The crucial difference here is that the unmarked candidate is determined not by taking one constraint of the subhierarchy and substituting it for the subhierarchy itself (here, SCR-CRIT), but by substituting all of the ranked subhierarchy constraints for the subhierarchy (SCR-CRIT). Thus, to determine unmarkedness, the distinction between matrix hierarchy and subhierarchy is ignored. It follows that an unmarked candidate must be grammatical,

¹⁹A similar result holds in certain competition-based approaches; cf. especially Uszkoreit (1984; 1986).

but not vice versa. What remains to be accounted for is the notion of degree of markedness, and here I will employ Keller’s (1996) concept of suboptimality in (25): Among the grammatical candidates of a candidate set (determined according to the definition of optimality in (29)), a candidate K_j is more marked than another candidate K_i if K_j is suboptimal with respect to K_i according to the definition of optimality in (30) – i.e., the worse the constraint profile of a grammatical candidate, the more marked it is.

With this theory as background, let me now turn to the empirical evidence. For reasons of space, I will not extensively motivate each of the partial rankings in (27); the outlines of the approach should become clear, though.

6.3. Empirical Evidence

6.3.1. Nominative vs. Definiteness

First, consider the pair of sentences in (31):

- (31) a. daß eine Frau den Fritz geküßt hat
 that a woman_{nom} ART Fritz_{acc} kissed has
 b. ?daß den Fritz₂ eine Frau₁ t₂ geküßt hat
 that ART Fritz_{acc} a woman_{nom} kissed has

Both orders are grammatical, but (31-a) is generally assumed to be less marked than (31-b). There is a constraint conflict here between NOM (which requires the unmarked order in (31-a)) and DEF (which demands the marked order in (31-b)), and we can thus conclude that NOM dominates DEF in the subhierarchy. The competition is shown in tableau T₄.²⁰

Tableau T₄: NOM > DEF:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
⇒→K ₁ : eine Frau ₁ den Fritz ₂		*					*		
⇒ K ₂ : den Fritz ₂ eine Frau ₁ t ₁	*?							*	*

K₁ is grammatical under substitution not only of NOM, but of any of the subconstraints of SCR-CRIT except for DEF and PER. The reason is that substitution of any of the constraints on which the two candidates do not differ (such as, e.g., AN) will pass on the decision to the lower-ranked constraints STAY and PAR-MOVE, and since K₁ does not involve scrambling (whereas K₂ does), it has an “inherent advantage” and will be optimal in this case. K₂, on the other hand, is grammatical under substitution of either DEF or PER, which can thus be seen as triggering the scrambling operation. However, only K₁ is unmarked: If the ordered constraints of the subhierarchy replace SCR-CRIT as a whole, only this candidate emerges as optimal.

²⁰A remark on notation: A fatal violation of a grammatical candidate that renders it marked is indicated by “?” instead of “!”, which I continue to assume (in line with the usual practice) to indicate a fatal violation that makes a candidate ungrammatical. In addition, whereas ⇒ continues to identify a grammatical candidate, unmarkedness will be indicated by →.

6.3.2. *Definiteness vs. Animacy*

The examples in (32) exhibit a conflict of DEF and AN and suggest the partial ranking DEF > AN:

- (32) a. daß der Verkäufer den Wein₁ einem Kunden₂ empfahl
 that the shop assistant_{nom} the wine_{acc} a customer_{dat} recommended
 b. ?daß der Verkäufer einem Kunden₂ den Wein₁ t₂ empfahl
 that the shop assistant_{nom} a customer_{dat} the wine_{acc} recommended

Given the uniform D-structure order DO \succ IO argued for above, K₁ in tableau T₅ ((32-a)) does without scrambling and is therefore grammatical not only under DEF substitution, but also under substitution of NOM, FOC, and ADV (where the two candidates do not differ). In contrast, K₂ ((32-b)), which involves IO scrambling, is grammatical under substitution of AN, DAT, and PER, which thus act as triggers for scrambling in this case. Given that DEF dominates AN, K₁ is predicted to be unmarked, and K₂ as marked with respect to K₁, in line with what is observed in Stechow & Sternefeld (1988, 453).²¹

Tableau T₅: DEF > AN:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
\Rightarrow K ₁ : d. Wein ₁ e. Kunden ₂			*		*		*		
\Rightarrow K ₂ : e. Kunden ₂ d. Wein ₁ t ₂		*?						*	*

6.3.3. *Animacy vs. Dative*

In determining the ranking of AN and DAT, we can now return to the examples in (13) that turned out to be problematic for a DTC-based approach to markedness (cf. subsection 3.2.2 above). First, the data in (33) clearly suggest that if IO and DO differ with respect to animacy, the object that is [+animate] always precedes the one that is [-animate] in the unmarked candidate, irrespective of the issue of Case (other things being equal). Thus, in (33-ab) and (33-cd), the IO is [+animate], and in (33-ef), the DO is [+animate]. What distinguishes verbs like *geben* ('give') from verbs like *entziehen* ('take away from') or *aussetzen* ('expose') on this view is not a different D-structure order of arguments (which we have seen evidence against), but rather the fact that the first class of verbs tend to have an IO that is [+animate] and a DO that is [-animate], whereas the second class often selects an IO that is [-animate] and a DO that is [+animate].

- (33) a. daß man dem Fritz₂ das Buch₁ t₂ gegeben/geschickt hat
 that one ART Fritz_{dat} the book_{acc} given/sent has

²¹Note that T₅ shows very clearly that the absolute number of SCR-CRIT violations of a candidate is irrelevant, as predicted under (30) – the unmarked candidate K₁ has more SCR-CRIT violations than the marked candidate K₂. The irrelevance of cumulative violations of lower-ranked subconstraints in the present analysis can also be verified by considering tableau T₇ below.

- b. ?daß man das Buch₁ dem Fritz₂ gegeben/geschickt hat
 that one the book_{acc} ART Fritz_{dat} given/sent has
- c. daß man der Claudia₂ den Wagen₁ t₂ zeigen/gönnen/verweigern muß
 that one ART Claudia_{dat} the car_{acc} show/not begrudge/deny must
- d. ?daß man den Wagen₁ der Claudia₂ zeigen/gönnen/verweigern muß
 that one the car_{acc} ART Claudia_{dat} show/not begrudge/deny must
- e. ?daß man diesem Einfluß₂ die Kinder₁ t₂ entzogen/
 that one this influence_{dat} the children_{acc} taken away from/
 ausgeliefert/ ausgesetzt hat
 extradited/ exposed has
- f. daß man die Kinder₁ diesem Einfluß₂ entzogen/ ausgeliefert/
 that one the children_{acc} this influence_{dat} taken away from/ extradited/
 ausgesetzt hat
 exposed has

If the demands imposed by AN and DAT coincide (and higher-ranked linearization constraints do not differentiate between the candidates), as in (33-a-d), the unmarked candidate has IO \succ DO (the marked one is rendered grammatical under substitution of any constraint on which the two candidates do not differ, e.g., of NOM); cf. tableau T₆. If, however, AN and DAT conflict, as in (33-ef), the unmarked candidate respects the former constraint and violates the latter (cf. Fanselow (1995)); cf. tableau T₇ (note that the marked candidate K₁ emerges as grammatical only under substitution of DAT or PER).

Tableau T₆: AN > DAT – ‘gönnen’, ‘überlassen’ etc.:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
\Rightarrow K ₁ : dem Fritz ₂ das Buch ₁ t ₂								*	*
\Rightarrow K ₂ : das Buch ₁ dem Fritz ₂			*?		*		*		

Tableau T₇: AN > DAT – ‘entziehen’ etc.:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
\Rightarrow K ₁ : dem Einfluß ₂ die Kinder ₁ t ₂			*?					*	*
\Rightarrow K ₂ : die Kinder ₁ dem Einfluß ₂					*		*		

Tableau T₆ also highlights a general property of the present approach to markedness that is worth emphasizing: Scrambling does not automatically lead to markedness, as presupposed under the DTC-based approach, but can in fact apply so as to create the unmarked candidate (K₁, in this case) – this holds if the application of the movement operation results in an optimal constraint profile (with respect to (30)).

Consider now the case where the animacy factor is excluded, i.e., where the candidates exhibiting the two object orders do not differ with respect to AN because both objects are [+animate]. All other things being equal (in particular, assuming that focus is not involved, see below), we expect that the decision (concerning unmarkedness) is passed on

to the lower-ranked constraint DAT, and that the unmarked candidate will always be the one in which IO scrambling across the DO has taken place. As shown by the data in (34), this prediction is borne out:

- (34) a. daß er dem Fritz₂ die Maria₁ t₂ empfahl/vorstellte
 that he ART Fritz_{dat} ART Maria_{acc} recommended/introduced
 b. ?daß er die Maria₁ dem Fritz₂ empfahl/vorstellte
 that he ART Maria_{acc} ART Fritz_{dat} recommended/introduced
 c. daß man der Claudia₂ diesen Mann₁ t₂ zeigen/gönnen/verweigern muß
 that one ART Claudia_{dat} this man_{acc} show/not begrudge/deny must
 d. ?daß man diesen Mann₁ der Claudia₂ zeigen/gönnen/verweigern muß
 that one this man_{acc} ART Claudia_{dat} show/not begrudge/deny must
 e. daß man der Maria₂ die Kinder₁ t₂ entzogen/ zugeführt/
 that one ART Maria_{dat} the children_{acc} taken away from/ brought to/
 ausgeliefert hat
 extradited has
 f. ?daß man die Kinder₁ der Maria₂ entzogen/ zugeführt/
 that one the children_{acc} ART Maria_{dat} taken away from/ brought to/
 ausgeliefert hat
 extradited has

The sentence pairs (34-ab) and (34-cd) exhibit the same pattern as their counterparts in (33): IO precedes DO in the unmarked case. The underlying competition is illustrated in tableau T₈. More interesting in the present context are the data in (34-ef), with a verb like entziehen. Here, the unmarked order is not DO \succ IO (as in the counterparts in (33)), but rather IO \succ DO. This is shown in tableau T₉.

Tableau T₈: DAT – ‘gönnen’ etc.:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
$\Rightarrow \rightarrow K_1$: d. Claudia ₂ d. Mann ₁ t ₂								*	*
$\Rightarrow K_2$: d. Mann ₁ d. Claudia ₂					*?			*	

Tableau T₉: DAT – ‘entziehen’ etc.:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
$\Rightarrow \rightarrow K_1$: der Maria ₂ die Kinder ₁ t ₂								*	*
$\Rightarrow K_2$: die Kinder ₁ der Maria ₂					*?			*	

If a verb like entziehen selects an IO that is [+animate], and a DO that is [-animate], as is prototypically the case with a verb like geben, it behaves as expected – both AN and DAT favour the order IO \succ DO:

- (35) a. daß man dem Fritz₂ das Buch₁ t₂ entzogen hat
 that one ART Fritz_{dat} the book_{acc} taken away from has

- b. ?daß man das Buch₁ dem Fritz₂ entzogen hat
 that one the book_{acc} ART Fritz_{dat} taken away from has

Thus, the ranking AN > DAT appears well motivated. More generally, we end up with the following picture concerning alleged verb classes in German: Instead of different base orders for different verbs, there is a uniform base order DO > IO; IO > DO orders are derived by scrambling. IO scrambling leads to the unmarked candidate in what is probably the majority of cases, and this is so for two reasons: First, DAT directly favours IO > DO orders. And second, since verbs of giving and taking in a broader sense form the largest set of double object verbs in German (cf. Eisenberg (1986, 288)), and since these verbs usually realize the DO as [-animate], and the IO as [+animate], AN tends to favour IO > DO orders as well, albeit indirectly.²²

6.3.4. Focus vs. Animacy and Dative

In (27), FOC intervenes between AN and DAT. Consequently, it must be shown that AN > FOC, and that FOC > DAT. First, evidence for the ranking AN > FOC can be gained from the data in (36), which are versions of (33-f) ((36-ab)) and (33-e) ((36-cd)), with DO, IO as focus exponents (focus is indicated by capital letters). The competition is illustrated in tableau T₁₀.

²²In principle, we also expect unmarked IO > DO order to arise if both IO and DO are [-animate]. In many cases, DAT does indeed correctly single out the unmarked candidate (assuming that higher-ranked constraints are irrelevant for the decision); cf., e.g., (i-ab):

- (i) a. daß man dem Film₂ den Oscar₁ verliehen hat
 that one the film_{dat} the Oscar_{acc} given has
 b. ?daß man den Oscar₁ dem Film₂ verliehen hat
 that one the Oscar_{acc} the film_{dat} given has

However, sentence pairs like that in (ii) potentially pose a problem:

- (ii) a. daß man das Buch der Prüfung unterzogen hat
 that one the book the test subjected to has
 b. ??daß man der Prüfung das Buch unterzogen hat
 that one the test the book subjected to has

Here, DO precedes IO in the unmarked case, even though DAT is violated by this order (and AN is irrelevant). A possible explanation of this observation might rely on the fact that many of the pertinent examples involve light verb constructions (der Prüfung unterziehen ('examine') in the case at hand, similarly for der Gefahr aussetzen ('expose to danger')). As idioms, these constructions tend to resist syntactic split. This could be integrated into an optimality-theoretic system as a violable constraint that outranks linearization constraints like DAT. Alternatively, we might assume that the dative assigned in complex idiomatic expressions is always lexical, rather than structural, and DAT affects only NPs that bear structural Case (Gisbert Fanselow (p.c.)).

- (36) a. daß man die Kinder₁ diesem EINFLUSS₂ entzogen/ ausgesetzt
 that one the children_{acc} this influence_{dat} taken away from/ exposed
 hat
 has
- b. ?daß man die KINDER₁ diesem Einfluß₂ entzogen/ausgesetzt hat
- c. ??daß man diesem Einfluß₂ die KINDER₁ t₂ entzogen/ausgesetzt hat
- d. ?*daß man diesem EINFLUSS₂ die Kinder₁ t₂ entzogen/ausgesetzt hat

Tableau T₁₀: AN > FOC:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
⇒→K ₁ : d. Kinder ₁ d. EINFL ₂					*		*		
⇒ K ₂ : d. KINDER ₁ d. Einfl. ₂				*?	*		*		
⇒ K ₃ : d. Einfl. ₂ d. KINDER ₁ t ₂			*?					*	*
⇒ K ₄ : d. EINFL ₂ d. Kinder ₁ t ₂			*?	*?				*	*

Second, evidence for the ranking FOC > DAT comes from data like those in (37), which have often been discussed in the literature (cf. Lenerz (1977, 39ff) and Uszkoreit (1984, 182ff; 1986, 895-898), among others).

- (37) a. daß man der Maria₂ den FRITZ₁ t₂ vorstellte/ zeigte/ zum
 that one ART Maria_{dat} ART Fritz_{acc} introduced/ showed/ as
 Mann gab
 husband gave
- b. ?daß man den Fritz₁ der MARIA₂ vorstellte/ zeigte/ zum Mann gab
- c. ??daß man der MARIA₂ den Fritz₁ t₂ vorstellte/ zeigte/ zum Mann gab
- d. ?*daß man den FRITZ₁ der Maria₂ vorstellte/ zeigte/ zum Mann gab

Tableau T₁₁ shows that (37-a) (K₁) is grammatical and unmarked; that (37-b) (K₂) (which respects FOC but violates DAT) is grammatical (under, e.g., FOC substitution), but more marked; that (37-c) (K₃) is grammatical (under, e.g., DAT substitution), but, crucially, yet more marked than (37-b); and that (37-d) (K₄) is grammatical (under, e.g., NOM substitution – the candidate does not involve scrambling), but clearly more marked than all its grammatical competitors (since it has the worst constraint profile, violating both FOC and DAT).²³

²³Note that there does not seem to be a context type in which (37-d) could be the optimal realization (not even with contrastive focus, as claimed by Choi (1996)). Consequently, this sentence must be viewed as ungrammatical in the optimality theoretic approaches to word order that are developed by Choi (1996), Büring (1997), and Costa (1998), which define candidate sets with respect to identity of discourse functions (cf. footnote 15). However, this result appears to be at variance with the facts. As noted by Uszkoreit (1986, 896), sentences of this type “still appear more acceptable than sentences in which fixed-order constraints are violated” (where, in the present framework, fixed-order constraints are those that belong to the matrix hierarchy, like PRON-CRIT).

Tableau T₁₁: FOC > DAT:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
⇒→K ₁ : d. Maria ₂ d. FRITZ ₁ t ₂								*	*
⇒ K ₂ : d. Fritz ₁ d. MARIA ₂					*?		*		
⇒ K ₃ : d. MARIA ₂ d. Fritz ₁ t ₂				*?				*	*
⇒ K ₄ : d. FRITZ ₁ d. Maria ₂				*?	*?		*		

6.3.5. Adverbs

Finally, let me present some evidence for the linearization constraint ADV. As is well known, certain types of adverbs (e.g., locative adverbs) prefer to show up to the right of definite NP arguments (cf. Lenerz (1977), Haftka (1981), and Suchsland (1993), among many others). Thus, whereas all the examples in (38) (involving a nominative NP and an accusative NP) seem to be perfectly grammatical as such, only (38-a), with order-preserving VP-adjunction of both NPs above the VP-adjoined adverb, is unmarked; (38-b) is more marked than (38-a), and so forth:

- (38) a. daß der Fritz₁ die Maria₂ in der Kneipe t₁ t₂ getroffen hat
 that ART Fritz_{nom} ART Maria_{acc} in the pub met has
 b. ?daß der Fritz₁ in der Kneipe t₁ die Maria₂ getroffen hat
 c. ??daß in der Kneipe der Fritz₁ die Maria₂ getroffen hat
 d. ?*daß die Maria₂ der Fritz₁ in der Kneipe t₁ t₂ getroffen hat

Tableau T₁₂ illustrates the competition:²⁴

Tableau T₁₂: ADV:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
⇒→K ₁ : NP ₁ NP ₂ Adv t ₁ t ₂							*	**	
⇒ K ₂ : NP ₁ Adv t ₁ NP ₂						*?	*	*	
⇒ K ₃ : Adv NP ₁ NP ₂						*?*?	*		
⇒ K ₄ : NP ₂ NP ₁ Adv t ₁ t ₂	*?							**	*

²⁴This is only a rough indication of the direction that an articulated analysis might take. Other adverb types, e.g., may behave differently from locatives; similarly, the picture changes if indefinite NPs are taken into consideration. Cf. Müller (1998a) for a more comprehensive account. Furthermore, an interesting problem arises here because, in contrast to deriving the correct markedness degrees, the task of making sure that all candidates are grammatical in the first place is somewhat involved. K₁, K₃, and K₄ are grammatical under ADV, NOM, and PER substitution, respectively. However, it seems as though K₂ is not grammatical under substitution of any of the linearization constraints. This problem is solved if ADV is interpreted via reflexive local conjunction (cf. Legendre Smolensky, & Wilson (1998, 262)). Local conjunction of ADV with itself yields a new constraint ADV' which K₃ violates (because of two simple ADV violations) whereas K₂ does not. Thus, K₂ is grammatical under ADV' substitution.

6.4. String-Vacuous Scrambling

Thus far, we have seen that it is quite easy for candidates with different VP-internal word orders in German to be grammatical (and much harder to be unmarked); i.e., the trigger for scrambling as such is fairly weak. However, if scrambling does not lead to an improved behaviour towards any of the linearization constraints of SCR-CRIT, we expect ungrammaticality to arise. A classic case in point is the issue of string-vacuous scrambling. As has often been noted (cf., e.g., Ross (1967) and Frey & Tappe (1991)), one wants to rule out iterated scrambling to VP that does not have any effect; cf. (39-a) vs. (39-b):

- (39) a. daß [VP die Maria₁ [V' den Fritz₂ geküßt hat]]
 that ART Maria_{nom} ART Fritz_{acc} kissed has
 b. *daß [VP die Maria₁ [VP den Fritz₂ [VP t₁ [V' t₂ geküßt hat]]]]

As shown in tableau T₁₃, string-vacuous scrambling is straightforwardly blocked under present assumptions. Except for STAY, the two derivations have exactly the same constraint profile, and so STAY becomes decisive and rules out candidate K₂ in favour of the more economic K₁ – there is no “motivation” for string-vacuous scrambling, and hence it is excluded by economy.²⁵

Tableau T₁₃: String-vacuous scrambling:

Candidates	SCR-CRIT							STAY	PAR-M
	NOM	DEF	AN	FOC	DAT	ADV	PER		
⇒K ₁ : NP ₁ NP ₂							*		
*K ₂ : NP ₁ NP ₂ t ₁ t ₂							*	*!*	

7. Cross-Linguistic Variation

Having provided solutions to the first three problems mentioned in section 1 (economy, markedness, and fixed pronoun order), let me now indicate how the last problem (parametrization) can be addressed. First, it is worth pointing out that it seems wrong to assume that there is a parameter ±scrambling: Languages like Dutch and Icelandic exhibit more freedom of clause-internal word order than English, but considerably less than German (which in turn has less word order variability than Russian, see footnote 3). For instance, Dutch and Icelandic permit IO and DO to precede or follow adjuncts as long as the D-structure order of arguments is preserved (Icelandic only under typical conditions for object shift, i.e., if the main verb has left the VP); however, abstracting away from a few intervening factors (like unaccusative and so-called “focus-scrambling” constructions in Dutch), a VP-internal permutation of arguments is impossible (cf., e.g., Koster (1986)

²⁵In this context, it might also be worth pointing out that the present approach does not predict the co-existence of various grammatical candidates with different VP-internal NP orders to be always possible. As soon as there is a SCR-CRIT-independent constraint that is violated by one candidate and satisfied by another, optionality will break down. Relevant interfering constraints include those on weak crossover and binding theory – in (3) and (4), e.g., the order of DO and IO is strict, due to principle A.

and Neeleman (1994) on Dutch, and Collins & Thráinsson (1996) on Icelandic). Thus, scrambling seems to exist in Dutch and Icelandic as it exists in German, but it must be order-preserving.

Ideally, we would hope that cross-linguistic variation in this domain results from a reranking of constraints, which Prince & Smolensky (1993) identify as the major source of parametrization. Indeed, if SCR-CRIT dominates STAY (as in German) but is dominated by PAR-MOVE, languages of the Dutch/Icelandic type are predicted: Now all candidates that satisfy SCR-CRIT by changing the argument order are filtered out as ungrammatical by PAR-MOVE, whereas candidates that satisfy SCR-CRIT and at the same time maintain the argument order (e.g., by moving an NP across an adverb) are not.²⁶ Next, if the ranking differs from Dutch/Icelandic only in that SCR-CRIT is also dominated by STAY, languages of the English type are predicted, which prohibit all kinds of scrambling. Thus, on this approach, SCR-CRIT as a subhierarchy of linearization constraints is present as a constraint in English as it is in German; however, its effects are blurred by a higher-ranked STAY.²⁷

A direct consequence of this approach to variation in scrambling options is that parametrization is not tied to other, independently observed properties of a given language: The extent to which a language exhibits clause-internal free word order depends on the relative ranking of SCR-CRIT, PAR-MOVE, and STAY; it does not depend on, e.g., the presence of an articulated system of morphological Case (cf., e.g., Fanselow (1993)), or on the availability of V government in the canonical direction (cf. Webelhuth (1987), Reuland & Kosmeijer (1993), Haider (1993), and Deprez (1994)).²⁸ To integrate these latter ideas into the analysis presented here, one might introduce meta-constraints that restrict possible rankings. For instance, one might stipulate that SCR-CRIT \gg STAY only in languages in which canonical government by V is available for scrambling positions; or that SCR-CRIT \gg PAR-MOVE only if a rich system of Case morphology is present in the language. However, modifications of this type introduce further machinery that one would ideally want to do without; and they also threaten to undermine the standard optimality theoretic concept of parametrization. Fortunately, such a move is empirically inadequate to begin with: There are languages that allow scrambling of the German type but exhibit neither OV order, nor a rich system of Case morphology. One such language

²⁶It turns out that such an analysis of Dutch and Icelandic in addition requires certain assumptions about the D-structure order of Dutch and Icelandic as opposed to German; cf. Müller (1999).

²⁷It is unclear to me whether reranking can also apply within the SCR-CRIT subhierarchy, thus yielding language types which could, e.g., minimally differ from German by ranking DAT higher than AN. This would yield the consequence that a verb like *entziehen* ('take away from') has IO \succ DO as the unmarked order in both T₇ and T₉. Interestingly, if such reranking turned out not to be possible, this would correspond to what is the case with the concept of subhierarchy adopted by Bakovič (1998) and Legendre, Smolensky, & Wilson (1998) (which is otherwise radically different; cf. footnote 16).

²⁸Assuming that scrambling can only apply if the scrambled NP ends up in a position that is governed by V in the canonical direction, it would follow that OV languages generally permit scrambling, at least to some degree (German, Dutch vs. English, Danish), and that VO languages permit scrambling if they have V-to-I(T) movement (Icelandic vs. English, Danish) – if V is in I(T), scrambled objects are still canonically governed.

is Bulgarian, as discussed in Molxova (1970, 27), Rudin (1985, 13-39), and Müller (1995, 110). Bulgarian is a VO language whose Case system is impoverished (in fact, it closely resembles the English Case system); however, its scrambling options are very much like those of German (e.g., the D-structure order of arguments does not have to be preserved). Thus, it seems fair to conclude that, at present, there is no theory that correctly predicts the emergence of free word order phenomena in a given language on a purely synchronic basis, and an approach in terms of reranking is not called into question by the fact that it does not rely on a correlation of scrambling and other (morphological) properties.²⁹

8. Concluding Remarks

To end this article, let me summarize the main findings and point out some further consequences. I have tried to show that optimality theory makes it possible to develop a precise and testable account of free word order in German that respects the main insights behind traditional competition-based models: The interaction of factors like definiteness, animacy, focus, and Case is re-interpreted as the interaction of linearization constraints of a subhierarchy that are violable and ranked. This re-interpretation has made it necessary to modify optimality theory by adding a system of subhierarchies, with a specific semantics that differs from that required for the matrix hierarchy. However, this step leaves all previous reasonings in standard optimality theory intact – except for subhierarchies, everything works as in Prince & Smolensky (1993). Thus, if what precedes is tenable in its essentials, there is no reason to assume that clause-internal word order variation must be addressed by theoretical means that are largely unrelated to what is otherwise documented in grammatical theory, or that it cannot be addressed by grammatical theory at all.

More specifically, the approach developed here provides solutions to some fundamental problems that arise if we adopt a scrambling operation (but closer inspection reveals that these problems show up in some form under a base-generation approach as well): the economy problem (‘What is the trigger for scrambling?’), the markedness problem (‘Why do free word order structures often exhibit degrees of markedness rather than complete wellformedness or illformedness?’), the fixed order domain problem (‘Why do weak pronouns in the Mittelfeld exhibit fixed order when other NPs don’t?’), and the parametrization problem (‘Why, and to what extent, do languages differ with respect to scrambling options?’).

Needless to say, the present approach raises a lot of further issues, which I cannot possibly address here in any detail. First, the obvious question arises of whether there are constraints other than SCR-CRIT that take the form of subhierarchies. For conceptual reasons alone, it seems to me that there should be. At first sight, it looks as though a

²⁹Perhaps this result is indicative of a more general problem with morphology-based approaches to cross-linguistic variation in syntax. In line with what is proposed here, Grimshaw & Samek-Lodovici (1995) and Samek-Lodovici (1996) argue that the pro-drop parameter should in fact not be reduced to the morphological richness of subject (or, for that matter, object) inflection, but to constraint reranking. Also see Vikner (1999) for an approach to the V-to-I(T) raising parameter that relies on constraint reranking rather than the strength of verbal inflection.

subhierarchy is in fact nothing but a different notion of constraint tie. Ties and subhierarchies both create optionality (so that more than one candidate per candidate set can be optimal). Indeed, subhierarchies as defined here closely correspond to one notion of tie discussed in Broihier (1995) (which he calls “logical or” tie); cf. Müller (1999a). Furthermore, it is often the case that two or more optimal candidates that emerge as the result of a tie are not equally unmarked (cf. in particular Sells, Rickford, & Wasow’s (1996, 614) analysis of inversion in AAVE). However, in many other cases (like, e.g., in the case of the EPP/STAY tie proposed in section 5), there is no discernible markedness difference among optimal candidates resulting from constraint ties. More importantly, subhierarchies as employed here have the effect of completely removing subconstraints from the constraint ranking on the matrix hierarchy, as regards the determination of grammaticality. Thus, if we were to completely replace constraint ties by subhierarchies, this would yield potentially disastrous consequences. In the case at hand, STAY would be completely irrelevant (as far as grammaticality is concerned) for candidates that respect EPP in German, an untenable result. For these reasons, I conclude that subhierarchies cannot take over the role of ties in optimality-theoretic syntax. However, this does not mean that SCR-CRIT is the only possible instantiation of a subhierarchy. Another application that strikes me as worth exploring concerns extraction theory; in particular, argument extraction from weak islands often yields intermediate degrees of acceptability, which is not straightforwardly accountable for under standard optimality theory, but might be amenable to an analysis along the lines sketched here.

Second, empirical issues arise. Let me emphasize again that what precedes is mainly designed as a model in which the constraints on clause-internal word order variation can be reconciled with the constraints otherwise adopted in grammar; as noted, the specific proposals would demand verification by further empirical, psycholinguistic studies.³⁰ Also recall that I have systematically neglected clause-internal word order variation in certain constructions.³¹ What is more, it appears as though the linearization effects investigated here are not strictly confined to the VP domain (i.e., scrambling). They do not show up with pronoun movement to Spec π , but topicalization sometimes seems to obey similar markedness restrictions, and related issues arise with (multiple) extraposition of NPs. Again, an extension of the present approach seems promising, but it is beyond the scope of this article.

Finally, it has sometimes been proposed in the competition-based literature mentioned in section 1 that, in addition to the quality of linearization constraint violations, the quantity of these violations might be relevant. At least for the data discussed here, it seems to me that such a cumulative concept is not necessary (in fact, if naively applied, not even possible – recall footnote 21). Of course, the concept of cumulative violation could in

³⁰See, e.g., McDonald, Bock, & Kelly (1993) for a study that concentrates on AN. Also, relevant work is currently being carried out by research groups of Hans Jürgen Uszkoreit and Rainer Dietrich, at Universität des Saarlandes and Humboldt-Universität Berlin, respectively.

³¹This holds, e.g., for constructions that involve psych verbs or unaccusative verbs. These domains are covered by the optimality-theoretic approach to German word order in Heck (1999, 3.4), which locates the optimization of unmarked orders at D-structure (not at S-structure, as I am doing here).

principle be integrated into the definition of markedness adopted here (cf. (30)) without too much ado (and without simultaneously affecting the determination of grammaticality). However, this would reduce the convergence of constraints on the matrix hierarchy and constraints on the subhierarchy which, as it stands, strikes me as significant. Thus, in the absence of clear empirical support for such a move, I take it that matrix/subhierarchy differences (i.e., differences between “weak” and “strong” rules) should be minimized, so as to permit a unified approach.

9. References

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