

## Agreement between arguments? Not really\*

Maria Polinsky,<sup>a</sup> Nina Radkevich,<sup>b</sup> and Marina Chumakina<sup>c</sup>  
<sup>a</sup>Harvard University, <sup>b</sup>University of York, <sup>c</sup>University of Surrey

### Abstract

We present and analyze novel data on the northeast Caucasian language Archi illustrating a typologically unusual phenomenon of apparent agreement between 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns and absolutive-marked arguments. Apart from their typological significance, these facts challenge current approaches to agreement, which hold that Agree relations can be established only between heads and phrases. The apparent agreement between a 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun and an absolutive DP can be reduced to a more conventional agreement, namely, agreement between the absolutive DP and a series of *v* heads. We show that Archi has a contrast between strong and weak pronouns; the latter lack noun-class feature specification and must therefore copy a class feature from the closest *v*. In addition, Archi has complex pronouns (1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive) which are composed of 1<sup>st</sup> person exclusive pronouns and the focus marker *-ejt'u*. This focus marker is a D head which requires a noun-class feature and copies that feature from the closest *v* head.

### 1 Introduction

Agreement is traditionally understood as a relationship between an argument and a predicate. However, in some North-East Caucasian languages, pronominal arguments, as well as adverbs and particles, seem to agree with other arguments. This pattern appears in the Archi example below where the verb and the dative pronoun alike agree in noun class with the absolutive DP ‘that woman’:

- (1) a. To-r      ʔ:onnol                      **d-ez**                      e<ɾ>χni.  
         [that-II.SG woman.II.SG.ABS]    II.SG-1SG.DAT              <II.SG>forgot.PFV  
         ‘I forgot that woman.’

---

\*The work presented here was supported in part by grants from the Davis Center for Russian and Eurasian Studies at Harvard, the Max-Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, and by NSF grants SBR-9220219, BCS-0131946, and BCS-1144223 to Maria Polinsky. The authors would like to acknowledge support from the Arts and Humanities Research Council (AHRC) grant AH/I027193/1 to the University of Surrey. Any opinions, findings, conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are the authors’ and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Science Foundation, the United States Government, or other agencies. We would like to thank our Archi consultants Bulbul Musaeva and Zumzum Magomedova for sharing their language data with us. We are also grateful to Jonathan Bobaljik, David Erschler, Pavel Rudnev, Peter Sells, participants in the Little-*v* Workshop at Leiden University, and two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments on this paper. All errors are our responsibility.

This pattern of apparent argument-argument agreement may seem to challenge existing theories. The goal of this paper is to demonstrate that the theory is safe. We present and analyze this apparently irregular pattern of argument-argument in Archi and demonstrate that it can be reduced to the commonplace argument-predicate agreement.

Our account of the Archi agreement pattern relies on two analytical components. The first pertains to the presence of several functional layers within the verb phrase (vP), some of which are headed by phonologically null functional elements. We argue that all verbal heads participate in agreement and can have their unvalued features successively checked by immediately adjacent *v* heads. This conception of a layered verb phrase offers novel support to the existing proposals according to which external arguments are introduced by functional heads other than the internal-argument-licensing head. The layered vP conception is thus not specific to Archi; Archi is just one of the attested languages. The second component of the analysis is specific to Archi and pertains to the contrast between strong and weak pronouns. Weak pronouns are the forms implicated in argument-argument agreement. With these two components in tandem, the argument-argument agreement of Archi is no longer mysterious.

The paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we present an overview of Archi, highlighting the grammatical properties relevant for this paper. A reader familiar with North-East Caucasian languages can skip this section and go directly to Section 3, which presents the challenging data at the core of this paper. Section 4 provides an account of Archi clause structure, and section 5 builds upon that structure to present our analysis of the unusual argument-argument agreement. We determine that Archi has two types of agreeing pronouns: monomorphemic weak pronouns and complex pronouns, which include an agreeing emphatic particle. Section 6 is a summary of our main conclusions.

## 2 *The basics of Archi*

Archi is a Lezgian language of the North-East Caucasian (Nakh-Daghestanian) family spoken by about 1,200 people in a single village in the highlands of Daghestan (Russian Federation). Most Archi speakers are bilingual in Archi and Russian; some speak Avar as well. Alexander (Aleksandr) Kibrik and his colleagues produced a detailed description of Archi in the 1970s (Kibrik 1977a, b, c); in 2004, members of the Surrey Morphology group returned to the community to continue work on this language (Chumakina et al. 2007). In the examples below, text titles refer to the texts collected and glossed by Marina Chumakina during her fieldwork in 2004-2012.

### 2.1 *Word classes and declension*

Archi has the following lexical classes: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, postpositions, numerals, and (discourse) particles (Kibrik 1977b). Personal pronouns, which will be discussed below, contrast between 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person with an additional inclusive/exclusive distinction; 3<sup>rd</sup> person is expressed by a demonstrative (Kibrik 1977b: 124, 126-127) as is typical of NEC languages. Archi demonstratives are presented in Table 1 with all gender/number combinations shown. Unlike agreement on verbs, agreement on demonstratives and attributives does not distinguish noun class/gender in the plural:

**Table 1:** Archi demonstratives

I SG	II SG	III SG	IVSG	PL	GLOSS
ju-w	ja-r	ja-b	ja-t	j-eb	this, close to the speaker
jamu	jamu-r	jamu-m	jamu-t	jem-im	this, close to the hearer
to-w	to-r	to-b	to-t	t-eb	that, further away from the speaker
gud-u	god-or	god-ob	god-ot	gid-ib	that, lower than the speaker
ʁud-u	ʁod-or	ʁod-ob	ʁod-ot	ʁid-ib	that, higher than the speaker

Archi has an articulated system of cases, illustrated in Table 2, for the noun *baʁk* ‘ram’. Following Kibrik’s work, we distinguish between non-spatial (abstract) and spatial (local) cases (for Archi, see Kibrik 1977b: 58-61; for a more general discussion, see Comrie and Polinsky 1998); here we will only be concerned with non-spatial cases. These non-spatial cases are not uniform. Absolutive, ergative, genitive, and dative appear to comprise the “core” (argument) cases (see Kibrik 1977b, c for the distinction between core and non-core cases in Archi), and we will use this label throughout our discussion. In all case forms except the absolutive, endings attach to the oblique stem, which formally coincides with the form of the ergative for most nouns (Kibrik and Kodzasov 1990). That other cases listed in Table 2 are in fact postpositional forms is possible, but nothing in the present discussion hinges on this characterization.

**Table 2:** Non-spatial cases in Archi

	SG	PL
ABSOLUTIVE	baʁkʰ	baʁkʰ-ur
ERGATIVE	beʁkʰiri	baʁkʰ-ur-čaj
GENITIVE	beʁkʰiri-n	baʁkʰ-ur-če-n
DATIVE	beʁkʰiri-s	baʁkʰ-ur-če-s
CAUSALIS	beʁkʰiri-š:i	baʁkʰ-ur-če-š:i
COMITATIVE	beʁkʰiri-ł:u	baʁkʰ-ur-če-ł:u
COMPARATIVE	beʁkʰiri-χur	baʁkʰ-ur-če-χur
PARTITIVE	beʁkʰiri-qʰiš	baʁkʰ-ur-če-qʰiš
SIMILATIVE	beʁkʰiri-qʰdi	baʁkʰ-ur-če-qʰdi
SUBSTITUTIVE	beʁkʰiri-klʰena	baʁkʰ-ur-če-klʰena

## 2.2 Agreement

Archi has four noun classes (genders).<sup>1</sup> A fundamental design principle of Archi is that all DPs have a noun-class feature:

### (2) Noun-class Specification Principle

All Archi DPs, whether lexical or pronominal, must be specified for the [CL] feature

<sup>1</sup> The number of noun classes across NEC languages ranges from three to eight; Lezgian, Udi, and Aghul do not have noun classes. For a more detailed discussion of nominal class systems in NEC languages, see Corbett (1991; 2005), Plaster et al. (2013).

Denotations of male and female humans are in class I and class II, respectively; all other nouns belong to classes III and IV. Archi nouns do not have any obvious phonological predictors of class membership, and the principles of noun class assignment in this language are not well understood. In the discussion below, we assume class assignments as given.<sup>2</sup>

- (3)
- |     |                                   |
|-----|-----------------------------------|
| I   | dozja ‘grandfather’, PL dozja-t:u |
| II  | doba ‘grandmother’, PL doba-t:u   |
| III | noʃʃ ‘horse’, PL noʃʃ-or          |
| IV  | nokl’ ‘house’, PL nokl’-dor       |

There are two numbers, singular and plural. The four-way distinction in noun classes in the singular is neutralized to a two-way opposition in the plural: human (I and II) vs. non-human (III and IV); we will be glossing those as HPL and nHPL, respectively. If a group includes denotations from classes I/II and classes III/IV, plural agreement is always in the human class (HPL). Consider the following examples:

- (4)
- |    |                                 |                  |                            |
|----|---------------------------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| a. | doba-t:u                        | <b>ba-qʼa.</b>   |                            |
|    | grandmother-PL.ABS              | HPL-come.PFV     |                            |
|    | ‘Grandmothers came.’            |                  |                            |
| b. | noʃʃ-or                         | <b>qʼa.</b>      |                            |
|    | horse-PL.ABS                    | nHPL.come.PFV    |                            |
|    | ‘Horses came.’                  |                  |                            |
| c. | doba-t:u-wu                     | noʃʃ-o:t-u       | <b>ba-qʼa/*qʼa.</b>        |
|    | grandmother-PL.ABS-and          | horse-PL.ABS-and | HPL-come.PFV/nHPL.come.PFV |
|    | ‘Grandmothers and horses came.’ |                  |                            |

Noun-class agreement is registered on verbs and adjectives. Verbal agreement can be encoded via prefixes or infixes (Table 3). Morphophonemic factors can prevent some verbs from carrying class agreement markers, the discussion of which is beyond the scope of this paper (see Chumakina and Corbett, in press).

---

<sup>2</sup> In presenting language data here and below, we follow the Leipzig Glossing Rules. Additional abbreviations include: ABS—absolutive, ALL—allative, ATTR—attributive, COMIT—comitative, CONT—contessive, CVB—converb, DAT—dative, EL—elative, EMPH—emphatic, ERG—ergative, ESS—essive, EVID—evidencial, EXCL—exclusive, FIN—finalis, FUT—future, FOC—focus, GEN—genitive, HPL—human plural, INCL—inclusive, IPFV—imperfective, LOC—locative, MSD—masdar, nHPL—non-human plural, NEG—negative, NMLZ—nominalizer, OBL—oblique, PFV—perfective, PL—plural, PRS—present, PST—past, REFL—reflexive, SG—singular, SUP—superessive.

**Table 3:** Archi noun-class agreement exponents (as marked on verbs)

	SG	PL
I	w- / <w> <sup>3</sup>	b- / <b>
II	d- / <r>	
III	b- / <b>	Ø / < Ø >
IV	Ø / < Ø >	

The examples below illustrate noun class agreement on verbs and adjectives.

- (5) a. Be:χu-t:u            dozja                    q<sup>w</sup>a.  
          be.tall-ATTR.I.SG grandfather.I.SG.ABS I.SG.come.PFV  
          ‘A tall grandfather came.’
- b. Be:χu-t:u-r            doba                    da-q<sup>a</sup>a.<sup>4</sup>  
          be.tall-ATTR-II.SG grandmother.II.SG.ABS II.SG-come.PFV  
          ‘A tall grandmother came.’
- c. Be:χu-t:u-b            no<sup>s</sup>š                    ba-q<sup>a</sup>a.  
          be.tall-ATTR-III.SG horse.III.SG.ABS III.SG-come.PFV  
          ‘A tall horse came.’
- d. Be:χu-t:u-t            nokl’                    ak:u.  
          be.tall-ATTR-IV.SG house.IV.SG.ABS IV.SG.see.PFV  
          ‘(I) saw a tall house.’
- e. Be:χu-t:-ib            dozja-t:u                ba-q<sup>a</sup>a.  
          be.tall-ATTR-PL grandfather-PL.ABS HPL-come.PFV  
          ‘Tall grandfathers came.’
- f. Be:χu-t:-ib            doba-t:u                ba-q<sup>a</sup>a.  
          be.tall-ATTR-PL grandmother-PL.ABS HPL-come.PFV  
          ‘Tall grandmothers came.’
- g. Be:χu-t:-ib            no<sup>s</sup>š-or                    q<sup>a</sup>a.  
          be.tall-ATTR-PL horse.III-PL.ABS nHPL.come.PFV  
          ‘Tall horses came.’
- h. Be:χu-t:-ib            nokl’-dor                ak:u.  
          be.tall-ATTR-PL house.IV-PL.ABS nHPL.see.PFV  
          ‘(I) saw tall houses.’

Only absolutive arguments can determine agreement; as illustrated in (6)b and (7)b, ergative and dative subjects can never be agreement controllers.

<sup>3</sup> This exponent can be realized as a labialization of the following consonant, as in example (4a).

<sup>4</sup> When agreement is realized by a prefix on a consonant-initial verb, an epenthetic vowel is added. We follow the orthographic rule suggested by Alexander Kibrik and his colleagues (Kibrik 1977a, 1977b, 1977c) according to which the pretonic vowel is spelled the same as the stressed vowel (though in pronunciation, it is close to a schwa).

- (6) a. To-r-mi                      nošš                      darc'lršī      e<b>t'ni.  
           that-II.SG-SG.ERG horse.III.SG.ABS post.LOC      <III.SG>.tie.PFV  
           'She tied the horse to the post.' (based on Kibrik 1977b: 195)  
       b. \*To-r-mi                      nošš                      darc'lršī      e<r>t'ni.  
           that-II.SG-SG.ERG horse.III.SG.ABS post.LOC      <II.SG>.tie.PFV  
           ('She tied the horse to the post.')
- (7) a. To-w-mi-s                      Ajša                      d-ak:u.  
           that-I.SG-OBL.SG-DAT Aisha.II.SG.ABS II.SG-see.PFV  
           'He has seen Aisha (female).'  
       b. \*To-w-mi-s                      Ajša                      w-ak:u.  
           that-I.SG-OBL.SG-DAT Aisha.II.SG.ABS I.SG-see.PFV  
           ('He has seen Aisha.')

### 2.3 Basic clause types

Archi is a head-final, morphologically ergative language: subjects of intransitive verbs pattern with objects of transitive verbs and appear in the absolutive, and the subject of the transitive clause is ergative, as in (8)-(10). Certain verbs take dative subjects (10) or subjects in one of the locative (spatial) forms (Kibrik 1977b: 172-176).

- (8) Buwa                      **da-q'a.**  
       mother.II.SG.ABS      II.SG-come.PFV  
       'Mother came.'
- (9) Dija-mu                      buwa                      χir                      a<r>u.  
       father.I-SG.ERG      mother.II.SG.ABS behind      <II.SG>make.PFV  
       'Father brought Mother along.'
- (10) Laha-s                      buwa                      d-ak:u.  
       child.SG.OBL-DAT mother.II.SG.ABS II.SG-see.PFV  
       'The child saw Mother.'

Root clauses have a relatively free word order, (11), while embedded clauses have a rigid verb-final order, (12).

- (11) a. Zari                      buwo:                      q'w'arbikl'-mul                      kunne.  
           1SG.ERG mother.II.VOC      sweet.IV-PL.ABS      IV.PL.eat.PFV  
           'I, Mother, ate the sweets.' (Sisters: 81)  
       b. Kło-qi                      zari                      ja-t:-u.  
           IV.SG.give-FUT      1SG.ERG      this-IV.SG-and  
           'I will give her that too...' (lit: 'Will give I that...') (Sisters: 58)
- (12) a. Turali-ši                      jat:i-ši                      χa<b>t:i-t:ib  
           Tura.IN-ALL up-ALL      <HPL>go.FUT-ATTR.PL  
           χ:ams                      b-ak:u-li                      jij-me-s.  
           bear.III.SG.ABS III.SG-see.PFV-EVID      they-PL.OBL-DAT  
           'When they were going uphill to Tura, they saw a bear.'  
       b. \*χa<b>t:i-t:ib                      turali-ši                      jat:i-ši  
           <HPL>go.FUT-ATTR.PL Tura.IN-ALL up-ALL  
           χ:ams                      b-ak:u-li                      jij-me-s.

bear.III.SG.ABS III.SG-see.PFV-EVID they-PL.OBL-DAT  
 ('When they were going uphill to Tura, they saw a bear.')

The embedded clause in (12)a is headed by the participial form  $\chi a\langle b\rangle t:i-t:ib$  'going', in the clause-final position. No other order is allowed for this clause. In comparison, the dative subject *jijmes* 'they.DAT' freely appears as the final element in the main clause.

Turning to ways of expressing possession in Archi, we observe a distinction between the external-possessor genitive and the adnominal (internal-possessor) genitive. External-possessor genitives appear in existential clauses with the possessor in the genitive and possessum (possession) in the absolutive, as illustrated in (13). In this structure, the genitive DP is a separate constituent of the root clause, and it is not part of the subcategorization frame of the unaccusative verb 'to be; to exist'. Such co-occurrence of a free-standing possessor form with an existential construction is typical of external-possessor constructions (Vergnaud and Zubizarreta 1992). Cross-linguistically, the external possessor can appear in a variety of forms, genitive being one of the attested possibilities.

- (13) Dija-n                      noʃš                      b-i.  
 father.I.SG.OBL-GEN horse.III.SG.ABS III.SG-be.PRS  
 'Father has a horse.'

The Archi external-possessor genitive can appear either at the left or right periphery of a root clause. If both the possessum and possessor appear preverbally, the possessor must precede the possessum, which explains the ungrammaticality of (14)c:

- (14) a. Uš-mi-n                      os ɬ:onnol                      e⟨r⟩di.  
 brother.I-SG.OBL-GEN one woman.I.SG.ABS <II.SG>be.PST  
 'Brother had a wife.'  
 b. Os ɬ:onnol                      e⟨r⟩di                      uš-mi-n.  
 one woman.I.SG.ABS <II.SG>be.PST brother.I-SG.OBL-GEN  
 'Brother had a wife.'  
 c. \*Os ɬ:onnol                      uš-mi-n                      e⟨r⟩di.  
 one woman.I.SG.ABS brother.I-SG.OBL-GEN <II.SG>be.PST  
 ('Brother had a wife.')

In contrast, the adnominal use of the genitive, illustrated in (15)a, indicates an internal-possessor structure. The genitive *Patimatlin* 'Patimat's' in (15)a modifies the noun *laha* 'daughter', which appears in the ergative case and thus, is a subconstituent of the ergative. Unlike the external-possessor genitive, the internal-possessor genitive is inseparable from the head noun. For example, it cannot be extraposed to the right; compare the grammatical (14b) and the ungrammatical (15b). Unlike the external-possessor genitive, adnominal genitive forms are not limited to unaccusative existential clauses.

- (15)a. [Patimat-li-n                      laha]                      χ<sup>w</sup>alli                      a⟨b⟩u.  
 Patimat.II-SG.OBL-GEN child.II.SG.ERG bread.III.SG.ABS <III.SG>make.PFV  
 'Patimat's daughter made bread.'

- b. \*Laha                      χ<sup>w</sup>alli                      a<b>u  
       child.II.SG.ERG        bread.III.SG.ABS        <III.SG>make.PFV  
       Patimat-li-n.  
       Patimat.II-SG.OBL-GEN  
       (‘Patimat’s daughter made bread.’)

For the purposes of the present paper, we adopt the structures in (16) for external-possessor genitives where the possessor is base-generated as an argument of vP, as in (16)a and then moves to a higher projection, (16)b (but see Deal 2014 for an overview of other possible analyses of this phenomenon).

- (16) a. [<sub>VP</sub> DP<sub>GEN</sub> [<sub>VP</sub> DP<sub>ABS</sub> be] v]  
       b. [<sub>XP</sub> DP<sub>GEN</sub> [<sub>VP</sub> ~~DP<sub>GEN</sub>~~ [<sub>VP</sub> DP<sub>ABS</sub> be] v] x]

Evidence for the base-generation of the external-possessor genitive in the vP comes from its presence in untensed clauses such as masdar (verbal nominalization) clauses.<sup>5</sup> In (17), the predicate of the bracketed embedded clause is the masdar of the existential verb *i* ‘be’.<sup>6</sup>

- (17) [Dija-n                      duxriq<sup>ʃ</sup>                      noʃʃ                      b-i-kul]  
       father.I.SG.OBL-GEN    village.IV.SG.OBL.IN    horse.III.SG.ABS    III.SG-be-MSD  
       *pro* sini.  
       know.PRS  
       ‘I know that Father has a horse in the village.’

As previously mentioned, that the external-possessor genitive moves to a higher projection in the clause is standardly assumed. Two possible accounts for this movement have been offered. It may be theta-role related (Lee-Schoenfeld 2006, Rodrigues 2010, Landau 2010) or case-related (Deal 2013). It is also possible that the external possessor dislocates for information-structural reasons. For Archi, we assume here that the genitive case is an inherent case in spec, *v* and leave the motivation for its movement to future research.

This concludes our overview of Archi basic structures. In the next section, we examine the data which at first glance challenge existing theories of agreement.

---

<sup>5</sup> *Masdar* is the term for non-finite forms (verbal nouns) frequently used in the literature on languages of the Caucasus, and we will continue its use in this paper to reflect the existing literature on Archi. We will return to the details of masdar constructions in Section 4.1 where we argue that they have a vP-sized structure. For the moment, we simply note that external-possessor genitives are possible in masdar clauses, in the absence of tense.

<sup>6</sup> The form *i* of the Archi copula verb ‘be’ is ambiguous between its untensed form and present tense form.



### 3 Agreement between DPs?

In addition to argument-verb agreement, Archi noun-class-agreement exponents can appear on non-verbal elements (see Corbett 2013; Bond and Chumakina 2015, for an overview). As with the standard argument-verb agreement, an absolutive argument always determines this agreement. In this section, we concentrate on agreement between the absolutive DP and a subset of first person pronouns when they appear in the dative, ergative, and genitive.

First person pronouns in the dative case, regardless of number, demonstrate agreement with the absolutive DP. Thus, in (18)a, the dative of the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular pronoun agrees in noun class with the DP ‘that woman’; (18)b, c show a similar agreement pattern in the plural with the exclusive and inclusive ‘we’ respectively:

- (18) a. To-r      ɬ:onnol      **d-ez**      e(ɾ)χni.  
          [that-II.SG woman.II.SG.ABS]    II.SG-1SG.DAT      <II.SG>forget.PFV  
          ‘I forgot that woman.’  
       b. To-r      ɬ:onnol      **d-el**      e(ɾ)χni.  
          [that-II.SG woman.II.SG.ABS]    II.SG-1PL.EXCL.DAT      <II.SG>forget.PFV  
          ‘We (EXCLUSIVE) forgot that woman.’  
       c. To-r      ɬ:onnol      **d-ela(r)u**      e(ɾ)χni.  
          [that-II.SG woman.II.SG.ABS]    II.SG-1PL.INCL.DAT<II.SG>      <II.SG>forget.PFV  
          ‘We (INCLUSIVE) forgot that woman.’

When a 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun appears in the ergative, agreement with the absolutive is only present on the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural. Compare the following examples; in (19), the ergative form of ‘we’ shows class agreement with the DP ‘TV’, but in (20), the singular ergative pronoun does not display agreement:

- (19) **Nena<b>u**      b-is      tilivizor      mu  
       1PL.INCL.ERG<III.SG>    III.SG-1.SG.GEN    TV.set.III.SG.ABS    be.good  
       a<b>u.  
       <III.SG>do.PFV  
       ‘We fixed my TV.’  
       (20) **Zari**      b-is      tilivizor      mu      a<b>u.  
               1SG.ERG    III.SG-1.SG.GEN    TV.set.III.SG.ABS    be.good    <III.SG>do.PFV  
               ‘I fixed my TV.’

First person genitive pronouns in the external-possessor position also agree with the absolutive:

- (21) **B-is**      duχriqʰ      χʰon      b-i.  
       III.SG-1SG.GEN    village.IV.IN      cow.III.SG.ABS    III.SG-be  
       ‘I have a cow in the village.’  
       (22) a. Cimint      hinc      baran      e<b>di-tʰu  
               cement.III.SG.ABS      now      like      <III.SG>be.PST-NEG  
               **b-olo.**

III.SG-1PL.EXCL.GEN

‘We (EXCLUSIVE) did not have cement as (we do) now...’ (Sisters:16)

b. Cimint                      hinc          baran                      e<b>di-t’u  
 cement.III.SG.ABS          now          like                      <III.SG>be.PST-NEG  
**la<b>u.**

<III.SG>1PL.INCL.GEN

‘We (INCLUSIVE) did not have cement as (we do) now...’ (based on: Sisters:16)

There can be more than one agreeing pronoun per clause, as shown in the example below:

(23) **Nena<b>u**                      ja-b                      tilivizor                      **b-ez**  
 1PL.INCL.ERG<III.SG>          this-III.SG                      TV.set.III.SG.ABS                      III.SG-1SG.DAT  
 mu                      a<b>u.  
 be.good                      <III.SG>do.PFV  
 ‘We fixed this TV set for me.’

Pronouns can appear in all abstract non-locative cases, but agreement with the clause-mate absolutive argument is only registered on pronouns in the core cases: ergative, dative, and external-possessor genitive. As we will argue below, only these cases (and the absolutive) are licensed in the vP. Second person pronouns never display agreement. Table 4 presents non-spatial case forms of 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns; the agreeing forms are shown in boldface.

**Table 4:** Archi 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns (agreement with the absolutive is shown only for the absolutive goal in singular)

	SG		PL		
	1 <sup>ST</sup> PERSON	2 <sup>ND</sup> PERSON	1 <sup>ST</sup> PERSON		2 <sup>ND</sup> PERSON
			EXCL	INCL	
ABSOLUTIVE	zon	Un	nen	nen<t’>u	ž <sup>w</sup> en
ERGATIVE	zari			<b>nena-w</b> <sup>7</sup> <b>nena&lt;r&gt;u</b> <b>nena&lt;b&gt;u</b> <b>nen&lt;t’&gt;u</b>	
GENITIVE	<b>w-is</b> <b>d-is</b> <b>b-is</b> <b>Ø-is</b>			<b>la&lt;w&gt;u</b> <b>la&lt;r&gt;u</b> <b>la&lt;b&gt;u</b> <b>la&lt;t’&gt;u</b>	
DATIVE	<b>w-ez</b> <b>d-ez</b> <b>b-ez</b> <b>Ø-ez</b>		<b>w-el</b> <b>d-el</b> <b>b-el</b> <b>Ø-el</b>	<b>w-ela-w</b> <b>d-ela&lt;r&gt;u</b> <b>b-ela&lt;b&gt;u</b> <b>el&lt;t’&gt;u</b>	
CAUSALIS	za-š:i	wa-š:i	la-š:i		ž <sup>w</sup> a-š:i
COMITATIVE	za-l̥:u	wa-l̥:u	la-l̥:u		ž <sup>w</sup> a-l̥:u
COMPARATIVE	za-χur	wa-χur	la-χur		ž <sup>w</sup> a-χur

<sup>7</sup> The four variants of pronouns given in the same cell illustrate four possible agreement forms (with the four noun classes in the singular).

PARTITIVE	za-q <sup>ɕ</sup> iš	wa-q <sup>ɕ</sup> iš	la-q <sup>ɕ</sup> iš	ž <sup>w</sup> a-q <sup>ɕ</sup> iš
SIMILATIVE	za-q <sup>ɕ</sup> di	wa-q <sup>ɕ</sup> di	la-q <sup>ɕ</sup> di	ž <sup>w</sup> a-q <sup>ɕ</sup> di
SUBSTITUTIVE	za-kl'ena	wa-kl'ena	la-kl'ena	ž <sup>w</sup> a-kl'ena

The distribution of agreeing pronouns is subject to a number of syntactic constraints. First, an agreeing pronoun cannot be a subconstituent of a larger clausal constituent, particularly clear in (24) where the ergative agrees with the coordination ‘a beautiful girl and my brother’ in class 1PL but cannot agree with either ‘girl’ or ‘brother’ individually.

- (24) Nena<b>u/      \*nena-w/      \*nena<r>u      mu-t:u-r  
 <HPL>1PL.INCL/1PL.INCL-I.SG/<II.SG>1PL.INCL be.beautiful-ATTR-II.SG  
 lo-wu                      w-is                      ušdu-wu                      χir                      a<b>u.  
 child.II.SG.ABS-and    I.SG-1SG.GEN brother.I.SG.ABS-and    behind    <HPL>make.PFV  
 ‘We (INCLUSIVE) brought a beautiful girl and my brother.’

Second, pronominal XPs agree with the absolutive only. As (25)-(27) illustrate, dative, genitive, and ergative arguments can never control agreement. Example (25) illustrates an ungrammatical situation in which the genitive pronoun attempts to agree with its referent (the feminine speaker, i.e. class II). The dative and the ergative arguments in (26) and (27) similarly fail to determine agreement:

- (25) a. **B-is**                      duχriq<sup>ɕ</sup>                      χ<sup>ɕ</sup>on                      b-i.  
           III.SG-1SG.GEN village.IV.IN cow.III.ABS III.SG-be  
           ‘I have a cow in the village.’ (female speaking)  
       b. **\*D-is**                      duχriq<sup>ɕ</sup>                      χ<sup>ɕ</sup>on                      b-i.  
           II.SG-1SG.GEN village.IV.IN cow.III.ABS III.SG-be  
           (‘I have a cow in the village.’)  
 (26) a. **D-ez**                      Ajša                      d-ak:u.  
           II.SG-1.SG.DAT Aisha.II.SG.ABS II.SG-see.PFV  
           ‘I have seen Aisha (female).’ (male speaking)  
       b. **\*W-ez**                      Ajša                      d-ak:u.  
           I.SG-1.SG.DAT Aisha.II.SG.ABS II.SG-see.PFV  
           (‘I have seen Aisha.’)  
 (27) a. **Nena<b>u**                      hanžugur                      ſummar  
           <III.SG>1PL.INCL.ERG how                      life.III.ABS.SG  
           b-a<r>ča-r?  
           III.SG-<IPFV>carry.out-IPFV  
           ‘How are we to spend our life?’ (based on T3:4)  
       b. **\*Nen<t’>u**                      hanžugur                      ſummar  
           <1PL>1PL.INCL.ERG how                      life.III.ABS.SG  
           b-a<r>ča-r?  
           III.SG-<IPFV>carry.out-IPFV  
           (‘How are we to spend our life?’)

In sum, 1<sup>st</sup> person dative, ergative, and external-genitive pronouns agree with their clause-mate absolutive. This agreement is obligatory, does not depend on the tense of the

verb, and appears in both matrix and embedded clauses. Thus it appears to be a case of inter-DP agreement:

(28) *Argument agreement in Archi*

First person pronouns in non-absolutive core cases agree with the absolutive argument<sup>8</sup>

To develop an analysis of this pattern, we must first produce a general account of case and agreement licensing in Archi. We construct this account in section 4; in section 5, we develop an explanation for (28) based on our understanding of Archi syntax.

#### 4 Case licensing and agreement in Archi

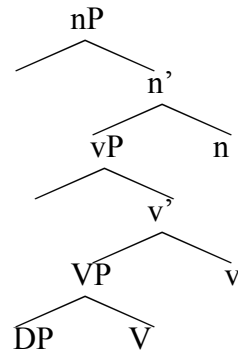
##### 4.1 Masdars (nominalizations)

Archi has a productive system of deverbal nominalizations, traditionally referred to as *masdars* (see fn. 5). Masdars have the following nominal properties: (i) they can appear in any argument position, (ii) they inflect for case with no restrictions on case forms, (iii) they can be pluralized, and (iv) they can be complements of postpositions (Kibrik 1977b: 311-313).

Archi distinguishes two types of masdars, which differ in their process of formation. The first type is formed on the basis of a bare verbal root; this type is relevant for our discussion below. The second masdar type is formed from a root and its aspectual affixes and is essentially a clausal nominalization (Kibrik 1977b: 110-112).

We analyze root-based masdars as vP-nominalizations with the following structure:

(29)



These masdars lack temporal or aspectual specifications and cannot host IP-level adverbs. However, their arguments bear the same case as the corresponding arguments of a finite clause. In particular, the sole argument of intransitive masdars (regardless of unaccusativity) appears in the absolutive case, (30). Masdars of agentive transitive verbs have an external argument in the ergative case and an internal argument in the absolutive case, (31). Masdars of affective verbs have a dative external argument and an absolutive internal argument, (32).

<sup>8</sup> The forms of 1SG ergative and 1 PL.EXCL ergative pronouns are an exception to this generalization.

- (30) [Pat'i                dogi-li-t:i-š                                d-ek-mul]                bo-qi.  
 Pati.II.SG.ABS   donkey.III.SG.OBL-SUP-EL   II.SG-fall-MSDR   say-FUT  
 'I will tell (the story about) how Pati fell off a donkey.'
- (31) [Rasul-li                tilivizor                b-uš-mul]  
 Rasul.I-SG.ERG   tv.set.III.SG.ABS   III.SG-buy-MSDR.IV.SG.ABS  
 b-ez                        sini.  
 III.SG-I SG.DAT   know  
 'I know that Rasul bought a TV set.'
- (32) [Rasul-li-s                ɬ:onnol                d-uχ-mul]                bo-qi.  
 Rasul.I-SG.OBL-DAT   wife.II.SG.ABS   II.SG-find-MSDR   say-FUT  
 'I will tell you how Rasul found/met (his) wife.'

The data in (30)-(32) indicate that all argument cases are available in non-finite contexts, i.e., all are licensed inside *v*P, rather than TP. Concomitantly, masdars agree with their absolutive argument in the same way as finite predicates. This property suggests that agreement between verbs and absolutive DPs occurs inside *v*P but not in TP, which implies that the *v* head is responsible for both case licensing and agreement in Archi.

Agreeing pronouns of the type described in section 3 are also found in masdar clauses, as illustrated in (33)-(34). These examples are titles of stories, a common context for masdars:<sup>9</sup>

- (33) nena<b>u                        s:ud                        **b-allej<b>u**  
 IPL.INCL.ERG<III.SG>   judgment.III.SG.ABS   III.SG-for.free<III.SG>  
**b-a-mul**  
 III.SG-do-MSD  
 '(a story of) how we judged for free'
- (34) d-ez                        ajša                        d-it:a<r>u                        d-ak<sup>w</sup>-mul  
 II.SG-I SG.DAT   Aisha.II.SG.ABS   II.SG-early<II.SG>   II.SG-see-MSD  
 '(a story) of how I saw Aisha early in the morning'

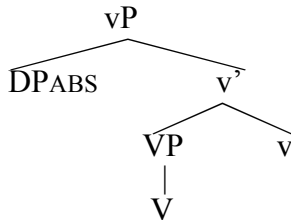
#### 4.2 Clause structure

All intransitive verbs in Archi take absolutive subjects. Within intransitives, at least three diagnostics may help distinguish between unergative and unaccusative verbs. First, intransitive verbs are divided into stative and dynamic verbs (see Kibrik 1977a: 100ff.), and this distinction roughly corresponds to the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives. The two subclasses of verbs combine with different nominalizing suffixes (Kibrik 1977a: 94-95). Second, agent nominals in *-či*, a suffix corresponding roughly to the English *-er*, can only be formed from unergatives and transitive verbs (Kibrik 1977a: 93). Finally, event nominalizations differ depending on whether they are built from unergatives or unaccusatives (Kibrik 1977c: 180).

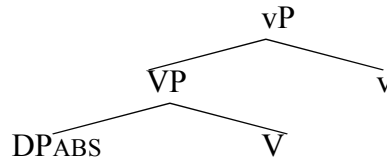
<sup>9</sup> Example (33) also includes an agreeing adverb, AGR-*allej*<AGR>*u*. The analysis of adverbial agreement is beyond the scope of this chapter; see Polinsky (2014) for a syntactic account of such agreement.

We assume that both unergative and unaccusative verbs have a  $vP$  dominating  $VP$ , as in (35). The  $vP$  of unaccusative verbs is defective: it does not have a specifier position where the external argument can be merged. We use standard representations for unergatives and unaccusatives; the absolutive is uniformly licensed low by the intransitive  $v$  head.

(35) a. unergative



b. unaccusative



In transitive clauses, the subject appears in the ergative and the object, in the absolutive. Archi ergative subjects are merged higher than absolutive object arguments. Support for this generalization comes from control and binding facts.

First, an ergative can serve as the subject of an embedded control clause, as shown in the example below where the object of the matrix clause is part of the control chain:<sup>10</sup>

- (36)  $\zeta$ Ali-mu<sub>i</sub>      Rasul<sub>k</sub>      u<w>k'u  
 Ali.I-SG.ERG    Rasul.I.SG.ABS    <I.SG>force.PFV  
 [PRO<sub>k</sub>    žun<t'>u<sub>i</sub>      ħurmat-q'imat      a-s].  
                  REFL.GEN<IV.SG> respect.IV.SG.ABS    IV.SG.do-FIN<sup>11</sup>  
 'Ali<sub>i</sub> made Rasul<sub>k</sub> [PRO<sub>k</sub> respect him<sub>i</sub>].'  
 NOT: 'Ali made Rasul be respected...'

Second, ergative subjects asymmetrically c-command absolutive arguments, as shown in the following example:

<sup>10</sup> The control clause includes a reflexive pronoun. Reflexive pronouns have a complex structure; they consist of a pronominal morpheme and the emphatic particle *ejt'u*. For instance, in (37), the oblique form of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronoun *inž* and the emphatic particle *–ejt'u* comprises the 3<sup>rd</sup> person reflexive pronoun *inža<r>u* (Kibrik 1977b: 127-128). The emphatic particle agrees with the clause-mate absolutive argument, not with the antecedent of the reflexive pronoun; we discuss this particle in detail in section 5, below. For the purposes of this chapter, nothing hinges on the internal structure of reflexives, and we do not show their morphological decomposition below.

<sup>11</sup> Finalis (FIN) is the term used in Kibrik (1977b: 63, 69, 201ff.) for infinitival forms.

- (37) a. Pat'i-mu            inža(r)u            čučebo.  
           Pati.II-SG.ERG    REFL.ABS<II.SG>    wash.PFV  
           'Pati washed herself.'
- b. \*že(r)u            Pat'i            čučebo.  
           REFL<II.SG>.ERG    Pati.II.SG.ABS    wash.PFV  
           ('Pati washed herself.')

These diagnostics argue for the structure presented in (38). We propose that the ergative subject merges in the specifier of the transitive *v*, which is generated above the first *v* layer. Some researchers characterize that head as Voice (Kratzer 1996, Arad 2003, and PAPERS IN THIS VOLUME). Here we adopt the more traditional approach and treat the respective head as *v*; however, the analysis proposed below is equally compatible with either approach.

We treat the ergative as a structural case, licensed in the specifier of that transitive functional head. In Archi, such a head can be projected only if the absolutive is already licensed. Thus, although we adopt the standard approach according to which case licensing is associated with particular functional heads, the availability of the ergative-licensing head only in the presence of an absolutive-licensing functional head brings our approach a step closer to configurational approaches to case (Marantz 1991/2000; Baker 2015; Levin and Preminger 2015).<sup>12</sup>

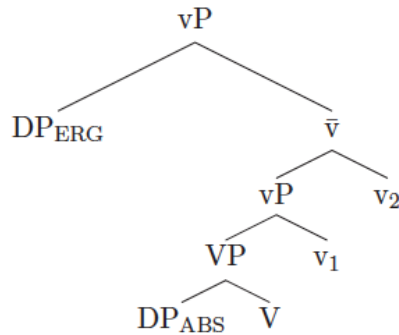
The evidence in support of the structural status of the ergative includes at least the following facts: the ergative and the absolutive can equally undergo conversion to the adnominal genitive in event nominalizations,<sup>13</sup> and the ergative is not preserved under causativization or raising. The status of the ergative as a structural case is peripheral to our discussion, and we would like to underscore that more work is required to ascertain that definitively.

---

<sup>12</sup> Configurational case licensing is not tied to the presence of any functional heads and is based on a case hierarchy which distinguishes between inherent cases (selected by specific lexical items or classes of lexical items) and two types of structural cases: independent cases and dependent cases. After the inherent cases are assigned, the first structural case assigned to a caseless DP is the independent case: the absolutive. If another caseless noun phrase within a local (c-command) domain (which for Archi, is the entire layered *vP*) exists, that caseless noun phrase enters into a case competition relationship with the structural absolutive. The second absolutive cannot be licensed, and instead, the dependent case must be assigned. In an ergative language like Archi, the licensing of the dependent case targets the higher of the two noun phrases, and the resulting case is the structural ergative.

<sup>13</sup> These event nominalizations are structurally smaller than the *masdars* discussed in this chapter. While *masdars* can be compared to English gerunds and similarly, can include manner adverbials (cf. *mysteriously destroying the evidence*), low event nominalizations are comparable to English *-tion* nominalizations and can be modified only by adjectives (as in the English *the mysterious destruction of the evidence*).

(38) Ergative subject and absolutive object



In addition to the standard transitive construction with the ergative subject, Archi has a special construction with predicates denoting psychological states, cognitive states, and perception where the experiencer appears in the dative, and the stimulus, in the absolutive. This structure, widely attested in NEC languages, is known as the “affective” construction; we adopt this term below (see Comrie and van den Berg 2006 for the distribution of this construction in NEC languages). For example,

- (39) Laha-s                      Rasul                      w-ak:u.  
 child.I.SG.OBL-DAT    Rasul.ABS.I.SG    I.SG-see.PFV  
 ‘A/The boy saw Rasul.’

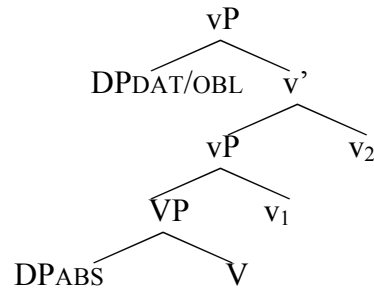
The thematic role of the dative argument is well defined, confirming the status of that argument as bearing an inherent case. Dative experiencers pattern with ergative subjects in asymmetrically c-commanding absolutes, as shown in (40).

- (40) a. Laha-s                      inžaw                      w-ak:u.  
          child.I.SG.OBL-DAT    REFL.ABS.I.SG    I.SG-see.PFV  
          ‘A/The boy saw himself.’  
       b. \*Žus:aw                      lo                      w-ak:u.  
          REFL.DAT.I.SG    child.I.SG.ABS    I.SG-see.PFV  
          (‘A/The boy saw himself.’)

The binding data indicate that the dative argument is generated higher than the absolutive object, as schematized in (41). Thus, we locate the dative/oblique subject-like argument in the specifier of the highest vP in the layered verb phrase. The main difference between this structure and the structure of the ergative clause in (38) pertains to the inherent versus structural status of the dative and ergative respectively.



(41) Dative/oblique subject and absolutive object



However, the dative case encodes not only subjects of affective clauses, as in (40), but also indirect objects. Such indirect-object datives are bound by the ergative but cannot bind it:

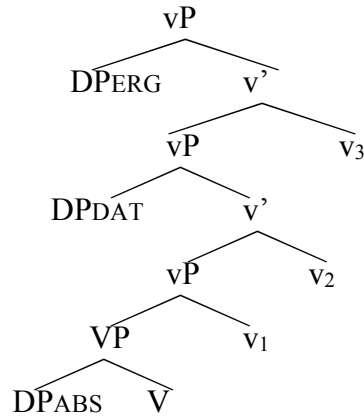
- (42) a.  $\zeta$ ali-mu       $\dot{z}$ usa<b>u      tilivizor      be-šde.  
 Ali.I-SG.ERG REFL.DAT<III.SG> tv.set.III.SG.ABS III.SG-buy.PFV  
 ‘Ali bought a TV set for himself.’  
 b. \* $\dot{Z}$ u<b>u       $\zeta$ ali-s      tilivizor      be-šde.  
 REFL.ERG<I.SG> Ali.I-SG.DAT tv.set.III.SG.ABS III.SG-buy.PFV  
 (‘Ali bought a TV set for himself.’)

Dative subjects are incompatible with ergative subjects whereas dative objects (indirect-object datives) co-occur with ergatives. Dative objects, licensed in the presence of an ergative argument, bind the absolutive object but not vice versa, as shown in (43). This asymmetry indicates that the dative object is generated above the absolutive object, presumably in the specifier of the lower  $v$  head, as shown in (44). One could represent that head as a dedicated applicative head, but nothing in the analysis here hinges on the distinction between  $v$  and *Appl*.<sup>14</sup>

- (43) a. Rasul-li      Fatimka-s      surat-li-t  
 Rasul.I-SG.ERG Fatimka.II.SG.OBL-DAT picture.IV-SG.OBL-SUP  
 inža<r>u      d-ak:u-s      a<r>u.  
 REFL.ABS<II.SG> II.SG-see-FIN <II.SG>do.PFV  
 ‘Rasul showed Fatimka<sub>i</sub> herself<sub>i</sub> in the picture.’  
 b. \*Rasul-li      Fatimka      surat-li-t  
 Rasul.I-SG.ERG Fatimka.II.SG.ABS picture.IV-SG.OBL-SUP  
 žes:-a<r>u      d-ak:u-s      a<r>u.  
 REFL.DAT<II.SG> II.SG-see-FIN <II.SG>do.PFV  
 (‘Rasul showed Fatimka<sub>i</sub> herself<sub>i</sub> in the picture.’)

<sup>14</sup> We have not observed examples where the dative experiencer subject (as shown in (40)a) and dative object (as shown in (42)a, (43)a) co-occur, but in principle, nothing rules out such a co-occurrence.

(44)



### 4.3 Modal verbs

Another piece of evidence for locating Archi case licensing in  $vP$  rather than  $TP$  comes from modal verbs. Modals often appear as restructuring verbs that take  $vP$ -sized complements (Wurmbrand 1999, 2001, Davis and Dubinsky 2004, a.o.).<sup>15</sup> Below, we show that two Archi modal verbs, ‘can’ and ‘must’, are restructuring verbs that take a  $vP$ . Our assumptions about modal verbs in Archi are as follows: they are  $v$  heads since they bear class markings on par with lexical and auxiliary verbs, and they embed under auxiliary verbs, as shown in (45).

- (45) q<sup>w</sup>e-s      ku<w>šu-li      i<w>t:t’u      zon  
 I.SG.go-FIN    <I.SG>must.PFV-CVB    <I.SG>AUX.PFV.NEG    1SG.ABS  
 ‘I did not have to go.’

These structures exhibit the same distribution of argument cases and agreement as *masdars* (and finite structures).

Consider the following sentences:

- (46) [Nes:en    zon    o<w>χuk<sup>w</sup>e-s]    ko<w>ša-r.  
 now    1.ABS    <I.SG>sleep-FIN    <I.SG>must-IPFV  
 ‘I must sleep now.’
- (47) [Tow-mu    jeb    a<b>čas-s]    k<sup>w</sup>a<b>šu-qī.  
 he-ERG    they.ABS    <HPL>kill-FIN    <HPL>must.PFV-FUT  
 ‘He will have to kill them.’ (Kibrik 2003: 985)

In (46) and (47), the verb ‘must’ displays agreement, controlled by the absolutive-marked arguments ‘I’ and ‘they’ respectively. On the standard locality assumption that agreement is clause bound (Chomsky 2000, 2001, a.o.), the pattern in (46) and (47) indicates the

<sup>15</sup> An anonymous reviewer raises an issue of the exact structure of clauses involving modal verbs. As shown in Wurmbrand (1999, 2001), modal verbs lack theta-assigning properties and are usually found in restructuring or raising contexts; this is the approach we adopt here.

complement of the Archi verb ‘must’ is smaller than CP. However, these facts are equally compatible with a TP- or vP-sized complement. In the rest of this section, we provide further syntactic evidence indicating that complements of the raising verbs under discussion are in fact vPs.

As we mentioned in section 2, Archi word order is relatively free in matrix clauses but rigid in embedded clauses. In particular, Archi does not allow cross-clausal scrambling. However, arguments of infinitival phrases can undergo displacement when used with a higher modal verb, as shown in (48). In (48)a, the agent and the theme of the infinitive ‘put on’ are contiguous, but in (48)b, the agent is dislocated to the right. This suggests that modals and their complements do not form separate clausal domains.

- (48) a. [<sub>vP</sub> **Zari**      baʁəʒa      a<b>kla-s]      b-eker.  
           1SG.ERG    ring.III.ABS.SG    <III.SG>put.on-FIN    III.SG-be.able  
           ‘I can put on a ring.’  
       b. [<sub>vP</sub> Baʁəʒa      a<b>kla-s]      b-eker      **zari**.  
           ring.III.ABS.SG    <III.SG>put.on-FIN    III.SG-be.able    1SG.ERG  
           ‘I can put on a ring.’ (Kibrik 2003: 565)

Another indication of the monoclausal status of modals constructions in Archi comes from negation. Archi negation must be located within the vP, given that negation can appear within masdars, as shown in (50)b below. Note, crucially, that Archi does not allow multiple negation within a single clause:

- (49) a. W-ez              Maq’sud    w-ak:u-li              i<w>di-t’u.  
           I.SG-1SG.DAT    Maqsud    I.SG-see.PFV-CVB    <I.SG>be.PST-NEG  
           ‘I haven’t seen Maqsud.’  
       b. \*W-ez              Maq’sud    w-ak:u-li-t’u              i<w>di-t’u.  
           I.SG-1SG.DAT    Maqsud    I.SG-see.PFV-CVB-NEG    <I.SG>be.PST-NEG  
           (‘I haven’t seen Maqsud.’)

Examples (50)a, b present biclausal structures featuring a converbal and a nominalized clause respectively; in both of those structures, negation is possible within each clausal domain:

- (50) a. [ʃali-mu      ʒ:ams      a<b>ču-t’u-mat]      laq’i<w>t:i-t’u.  
           Ali.I-SG.ERG    bear.III.SG.ABS    <III.SG>kill.PFV-NEG-CVB    <I.SG>finish.PFV-NEG  
           ‘Ali could not avoid killing a bear.’ (lit: could not do so that he did not kill a bear)  
       b. [ans              b-erq<sup>ʃ</sup>u-t’u-kul]      Ø-ez      sin-ši      Ø-ebt:’u.  
           bull.III.ABS.SG    III.SG-go-NEG-NMLZ    IV-I.DAT    know-CVB    IV-become.PFV.NEG  
           ‘I did not know the bull was not coming.’

Meanwhile, in constructions with the modal verbs ‘can’ and ‘must’, only one negation is possible, indicating that the complement of these modal verbs must be a vP rather than a TP/CP:

- (51) a. ʕali-mu      ʒ:ams              a<b>ča-s              e<b>t:i-t'u.  
           Ali.I-SG.ERG   bear.III.SG.ABS <III.SG>kill-FIN <III.SG>be.able-NEG  
           ‘Ali could not kill a bear.’
- b. \*ʕali-mu      ʒ:ams              a<b>ča-t'u-s              e<b>t:i.  
           Ali.I-SG.ERG   bear.III.SG.ABS <III.SG>kill-NEG-FIN <III.SG>be.able.PFV  
           (‘Ali could not kill a bear.’)
- c. \*ʕali-mu      ʒ:ams              a<b>ča-t'u-s              e<b>t:i-t'u.  
           Ali.I-SG.ERG   bear.III.SG.ABS <III.SG>kill-NEG-FIN <III.SG>be.able.PFV-NEG  
           (‘Ali could not kill a bear.’)

We conclude that complements of modal verbs are *v*Ps and that the resulting constructions instantiate restructuring. The *v*Ps embedded under the restructuring modals still manifest the same case and agreement as their finite counterparts.

Based on the data from masdars and modal verbs, we can establish that all Archi case licensing and agreement occur inside the *v*P. We will now examine this licensing in more detail.

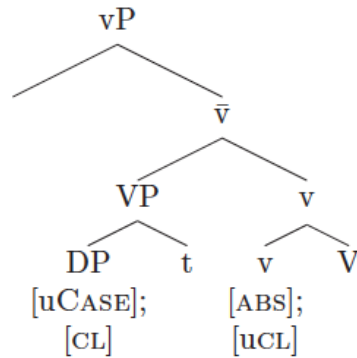
#### 4.4 *Putting it all together*

The absolutive is licensed by the lowest *v*, which carries both a case feature and an unvalued class feature, as shown in (52) below. In this and subsequent derivations, we assume that Archi has V-to-*v* head movement. The evidence for this movement derives from morphology, namely, from the order of roots and agreement markers on lexical verbs. The lexical verb corresponds to V in the syntactic structure, whereas agreement markers are the lexical realization of [CL] features on *v*. Archi lexical verbs are always inflected with agreement markers; these markers can be either prefixal or infixal, but never suffixal. Thus, we observe the sequences Agr-Root with a prefix and <Agr.Infix>-Root with an infix, but not \*Root-Agr (see also Table 3 above).<sup>16</sup> The licit orders correspond to *v*-V and <*v*>-V; the order \*V-*v* is excluded. One of the ways to derive these morpheme orders in a head-final (V-*v*) language is to assume that V undergoes head movement to *v*, yielding a complex head *v*-V,<sup>17</sup> as represented in the structure below:

<sup>16</sup> We assume that infixes are underlyingly prefixes that undergo insertion into the verb in the phonological component after vocabulary insertion. See Kibrik (1997c: 215-217) for some phonological requirements on infixation; but see also Chumakina and Corbett (in press) who argue that phonological rules cannot account for a substantial subset of infixing verbs in Archi.

<sup>17</sup> Another way to arrive at the licit morpheme order is to assume a post-syntactic operation of a morphological merger (Marantz 1988, Bobaljik 1995, a.o.). A detailed investigation of Archi verbal morphology goes beyond the scope of this paper, and we leave it for future research.

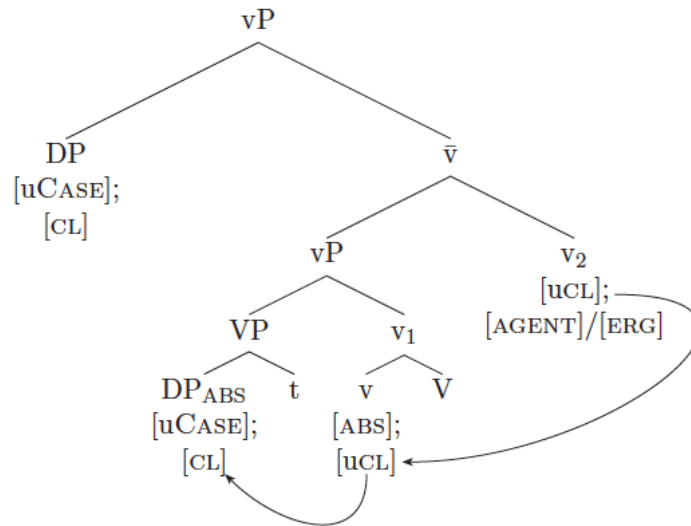
(52)



If the verb is unergative, then the sole argument merges in the specifier of  $vP$ . At this point in the derivation, only the  $v$  head can value  $[uCASE]$  on DP, since no other potential case-feature-valuing heads have yet been merged. Thus, the unergative argument receives absolutive case from  $v$ , capturing the uniform case assignment on intransitives found in Archi.

We have already characterized the ergative as a structural case and the dative, as an inherent case. Ergative and dative subjects are licensed as external arguments of the next functional head. The derivation for transitive verbs is shown schematically below:

(53)



As we previously stated, all  $v$  heads contain the  $[uCL]$  feature since no verbs can appear without agreement. Class features are valued by the closest absolutive argument. In principle, agreement with the ergative may be available (and such agreement is found in some ergative languages). However, in Archi, the absolutive is the only visible bearer of agreement features among DPs meaning higher agreeing heads (including  $v$  heads

without overt phonological realization) bypass the ergative DP and probe for agreement lower.

In principle, two possible operations may be available to derive such agreement: multiple probing (several probing heads value their features with the same goal) or successive valuation (cyclic Agree). Researchers have offered independently motivated considerations against multiple probing (see especially Režac 2003 for a general discussion and Baker and Willie 2010 for a particular test case in Ibibio). Assuming that multiple probing is unavailable or, at least, less preferred, we are left with successive valuation where only the [uCL] feature of the lowest  $v$  can be valued by an absolutive DP. Therefore, other [uCL] features must be valued by the closest  $v$  head that also has a valued class feature (cf. Collins 2003; Baker and Willie 2010 for a similar approach).

In (53), [uCL] on  $v_1$  is valued by the DP<sub>ABS</sub>. The [uCL] feature of  $v_2$  cannot be valued by the same DP; therefore, it is valued by the closest head with valued class features, namely  $v_1$ . If more  $v$  heads appear in the structure, they look to the closest head to value their class feature. The derivation for the affective construction is similar, except that  $v_2$  has the feature [EXP] and licenses an inherent dative. Finally, a  $vP$  phrase can also contain an indirect-object dative licensed by a  $vP$  (see (44) above); such a licensing  $v$  head is also expected to agree with the adjacent  $v$  head in the same manner as shown in (53).

The main properties of case licensing and agreement in Archi introduced in this section are summarized below:

(54) *Clausal design of Archi*

- a. all case licensing is done in  $vP$ :
  - i. absolutive on arguments in intransitive constructions (unaccusatives and unergatives) is always licensed by  $v_1$ ;
  - ii. ergative on external arguments is licensed by  $v_2$ ;
  - iii. dative on external arguments is licensed by  $v_2$  when it contains the [EXPERIENCER] feature;
- b. Archi verb phrases can include several  $vP$  layers. Each  $v$  head has [uCL] features, which can be valued either by a DP[ABS] or by the closest  $v$  head with valued [CL] features.

## 5 *Accounting for the agreeing pronouns*

In this section, we demonstrate that the apparent agreement between 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns in core cases and the absolutive DPs, as presented in section 3 above, is merely a surface effect. Agreeing pronouns, however, are not uniform; one type of analysis is warranted for 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and plural exclusive pronouns, whereas the 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronoun, which has more structure, will require a different analysis. In section 5.1, we present evidence for treating a subset of 1<sup>st</sup> person agreeing pronouns as weak pronouns based on their phonological properties and certain aspects of syntactic distribution. We discuss the analysis of 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and plural exclusive pronouns in section 5.2 and then turn to the inclusive pronouns in section 5.3.

### 5.1 Strong vs weak pronouns in Archi

A closer look at the pronouns that can have agreement exponents reveals that the pronouns are not uniform in their phonological properties. 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and 1<sup>st</sup> person plural-exclusive pronouns have the same phonological shape: VC(V) with an obligatorily non-obstruent consonant. Kibrik (1977a: 325-326) independently observes that only affixes lack obstruents in Archi; thus, pronouns with the VC(V) structure appear analogous to affixes, obviously violating an independent minimal word requirement.

In their phonological make-up, 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and 1<sup>st</sup> person exclusive pronouns seem different from other pronouns in a way that resembles the contrast between weak and strong pronouns. Weak pronouns differ from strong pronouns both phonologically and syntactically (cf. Cardinaletti and Starke 1994, Laenzlinger 1998, Grohmann 2000, a.o.), and the literature has suggested several tests to distinguish between them.

The discussion of strong-weak pronouns in the literature predominantly involves 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronouns; the presence of a strong-weak contrast within 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns in Archi rules out some standard diagnostics. For example, no conclusions can be drawn from the (im)possibility of indexing human referents (Cardinaletti and Starke 1994). However, some diagnostics are still applicable. In particular, weak pronouns are known to disallow focus modification (Cardinaletti and Starke 1994) and relatedly, to be impossible as fragment answers. Consider the following French examples:

- (55) a. C'est toi/\*tu qui sautes le plus haut.  
 It is 2SG.STRONG/2SG.WEAK jump.2SG.PRS DET most high  
 'It is you who jumps the highest.'  
 b. Qui a raconté son secret? -- Moi/\*Je.  
 who has told self's secret 1SG.STRONG/1SG.WEAK  
 'Who told their own secret?—I did.'

Applying these diagnostics to Archi, we find that the Archi agreeing pronouns cannot be modified by the focus marker *-ejt'u:*

- (56) \*Buwa-mu b-ez-ijbu χ<sup>o</sup>ošon a<b>u.  
 Mother-ERG III-I.DAT-III.FOC dress.III.ABS.SG make<III.SG>PFV  
 ('Mother made the dress for ME.')

This constraint can be circumvented by putting the respective pronoun in a reflexive form under emphasis, similar to the English *She made the dress for MYSELF*.

- (57) Buwa-mu b-ez-a<b>u χ<sup>o</sup>ošon a<b>u.  
 Mother-ERG III-1SG.DAT-REFL<III.SG>dress.III.ABS.SG make<III.SG>PFV  
 'Mother made the dress for ME.'

Turning now to fragment answers, we find that non-agreeing pronouns — i.e. the 'strong' pronouns — can appear in fragments in an appropriate case form without any additional verbal material. For example,

- (58) A: Buwa-mu                      ɬa-s                      χʰoʃon                      abu?  
          mother.II-ERG.SG      who.SG.OBL- DAT      dress.III.ABS.SG      make<III.SG>PFV  
          ‘Who did Mother make a dress for?’  
       B: Wa-s.  
          2SG-DAT  
          ‘For you.’

Meanwhile, agreeing pronouns must appear in their agreeing form:<sup>18</sup>

- (59) A: Buwa-mu                      ɬa-s                      χʰoʃon                      abu?  
          mother.II-ERG.SG      who.SG.OBL- DAT      dress.III.ABS.SG      make<III.SG>PFV  
          ‘Who did Mother make a dress for?’  
       B: B-ez/\*ez.  
          III-1SG.DAT/1SG.DAT  
          ‘For me.’

The fact that agreeing pronouns are possible in fragment answers should not be surprising. Archi has only one set of 1<sup>st</sup> person singular pronouns; that is, unlike French and other familiar languages, it lacks a strong–weak contrast in the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular. Accordingly, in Archi, the weak 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun is the only possible option. Furthermore, the possibility of weak, i.e., agreeing, pronouns in fragment answers is unsurprising. If we assume, following Merchant (2004), that fragment answers result from PF ellipsis — i.e., that the relevant parts of the sentence are elided after agreement and feature copying is done — weak pronouns are actually predicted to be possible in Archi.

Based on these observations, we suggest that Archi agreeing 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and plural exclusive pronouns are weak forms that are phonologically deficient:

- (60)      *Weak pronouns in Archi*  
          a. /is/, /ez/: 1sg  
          b. /(V)l(V)/: 1pl

Weak pronouns have also been argued to be deficient in structure, lacking some features present in strong pronouns (for an overview of such proposals, see Laenzlinger 1998, Grohmann 2000). Following this line of analysis, we propose that Archi weak pronouns are structurally deficient. Recall the principle in (2) above: all Archi DPs, whether lexical or pronominal, must be specified for the [CL] feature. Archi weak pronouns, however, lack class specification. Thus, the feature bundles of Archi pronouns are as shown in (61):

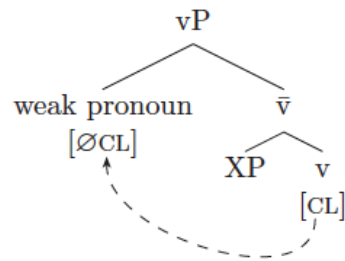
<sup>18</sup> The ungrammatical reply in (59)B is acceptable if the absolutive in the baseline sentence is in class IV (or plural class nIPL) in which case the agreement exponent is null. However, it is critical for our discussion that when the absolutive is in a different class, there must be agreement on the pronoun in the fragment answer.



- (61) strong pronouns: [CL], [PERSON], [NUMBER]  
 weak pronouns: [PERSON], [NUMBER]

Although weak pronouns are unspecified for the [CL] feature, they behave identically to strong pronouns and lexical DPs with respect to case licensing — i.e., they are merged in the regular DP position and assigned case in the same positions as all other DPs. Weak pronouns get their case feature valued by  $v$ : when a pronoun is serving as the external argument of an agentive transitive verb, it receives [ERG] from  $v_2$ ; when it appears in the affective construction, it receives [DAT] case from  $v_2$ . At this point in the derivation, the case feature on weak pronouns has been valued, but they lack a [CL] feature. Since all DPs must have that feature, per principle (2) above, weak pronouns receive a copy from the closest  $v$  head, as schematically shown in (62). Here and below we represent such feature copying by a dotted line.

(62)



As discussed above, some functional heads may be phonologically null, but they all still contain a [CL] feature. Therefore, the copying of that feature on a weak pronoun does not depend on the morphological exponents of the functional head that licenses that pronoun. Thus the structure in (62) crucially relies on our analysis of agreement in Archi where all  $v$  head have an [uCL] feature; this feature can be valued by a DPABS (=XP in (62)) or another  $v$  head with valued [CL] features.

Our proposal and the structure in (62) make several predictions. Since agreement and feature copying occur inside  $vP$ , we predict that only pronouns carrying cases licensed directly inside  $vP$  can have agreement markers; pronouns licensed outside the  $vP$  will not have class features. Stated differently, there should be no weak pronouns outside the  $vP$ .

Out of the many cases in the rich case system of Archi, only some are licensed in  $vP$ . Other cases may be licensed either inside DP or above the  $vP$ , as shown in the table below.

**TABLE 5:** Archi case-licensing loci

Licensed in vP	Licensed above vP	Licensed in PP	Licensed in DP/NP
Absolutive <b>Ergative</b> <b>Dative</b> <b>External- possession genitive</b>	Causalis (cf. Rizzi 1990:46-51; Cinque 1999; Kayne 2004)	Comitative Comparative Simulative Substitutive Spatial forms	Internal-possession genitive Partitive

The cases licensed inside vP, by different licensing heads, include ergative, dative, and the genitive of external possession, all shown in boldface above. Our proposal predicts that weak pronouns in these cases *only* will have agreement exponents. Pronouns associated with cases licensed above the vP are not expected to have agreement markers, since their features are copied from the *v* head. Unfortunately, causalis, the only case licensed above the vP without any apparent P head, is never observed with pronouns, unsurprising because it is used adverbially. However, as a result, this form is unavailable to test our prediction concerning agreement exponents. As for cases licensed inside a PP, our prediction is confirmed: pronouns bearing inherent cases licensed by a P head (comitative, comparative, simulative, substitutive, and a vast array of spatial cases) cannot bear an agreement exponent.

Similarly, the genitive of internal possession and the partitive, both licensed inside a DP, do not agree with the clausemate absolutive.<sup>19</sup> Given that DPs constitute a separate domain, DP-internal pronouns are not expected to be able to receive class features from *v*.

Table 6 presents a full paradigm of Archi 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns displaying their agreeing forms for vP-licensed cases.

**TABLE 6:** Archi 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns (only agreement with the absolutive singular shown)

	SG		PL		
	1 <sup>st</sup> person	2 <sup>nd</sup> person	1 <sup>st</sup> person		2 <sup>nd</sup> person
			EXCL	INCL	
ABSOLUTIVE	zon	un	nen	nen<t'>u	žwen
ERGATIVE	zari			<b>nen-a-w</b> <b>nen-a&lt;r&gt;u</b> <b>nen-a&lt;b&gt;u</b> <b>nen-a&lt;t'&gt;u</b>	
GENITIVE	<b>w-is</b> <b>d-is</b> <b>b-is</b> <b>Ø-is</b>			<b>la&lt;w&gt;u</b> <b>la&lt;r&gt;u</b> <b>la&lt;b&gt;u</b> <b>la&lt;t'&gt;u</b>	
DATIVE	<b>w-ez</b> <b>d-ez</b> <b>b-ez</b>			<b>w-ela-w</b> <b>d-ela&lt;r&gt;u</b> <b>b-ela&lt;b&gt;u</b>	
		wit	<b>Ø-ulu</b> <b>d-olo</b> <b>b-olo</b> <b>Ø-olo</b>		wiš
		was	<b>w-el</b> <b>d-el</b> <b>b-el</b>		wež

<sup>19</sup> Adnominal genitives demonstrate feature concord with the noun they modify, e.g., *w-is uš* ‘my brother’, where *w-* is class I marker, but this feature copying from the head noun inside the DP is irrelevant for the discussion here.

	<b>Ø-ez</b>		<b>Ø-el</b>	<b>Ø-el&lt;t&gt;u</b>	
CAUSAL	za-š:i	wa-š:i	la-š:i		ž <sup>w</sup> a-š:i
COMITATIVE	za-ł:u	wa-ł:u	la-ł:u		ž <sup>w</sup> a-ł:u
COMPARATIVE	za-χur	wa-χur	la-χur		ž <sup>w</sup> a-χur
PARTITIVE	za-q <sup>s</sup> iš	wa-q <sup>s</sup> iš	la-q <sup>s</sup> iš		ž <sup>w</sup> a-q <sup>s</sup> iš
SIMILATIVE	za-q <sup>s</sup> di	wa-q <sup>s</sup> di	la-q <sup>s</sup> di		ž <sup>w</sup> a-q <sup>s</sup> di
SUBSTITUTIVE	za-kl'ena	wa-kl'ena	la-kl'ena		ž <sup>w</sup> a-kl'ena

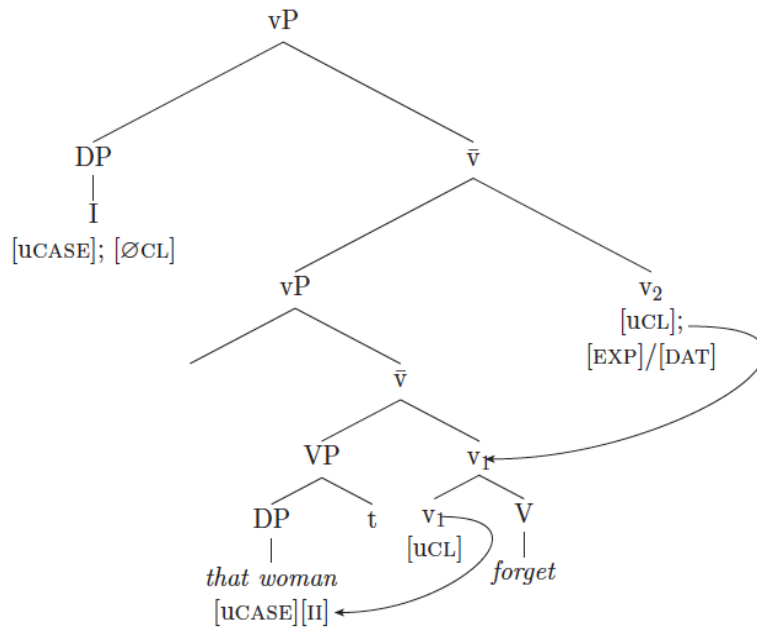
## 5.2 Weak pronouns in Archi clause structure

In this section, we present and analyze Archi data to illustrate how agreeing pronouns can be accounted for. The following example includes agreement marked on the dative argument:

- (63) To-r            ł:onnol            d-ez            e<r>χni.  
that-II.SG   woman.II.SG.ABS   II.SG-1SG.DAT   <II.SG>forget.PFV  
'I forgot that woman.'

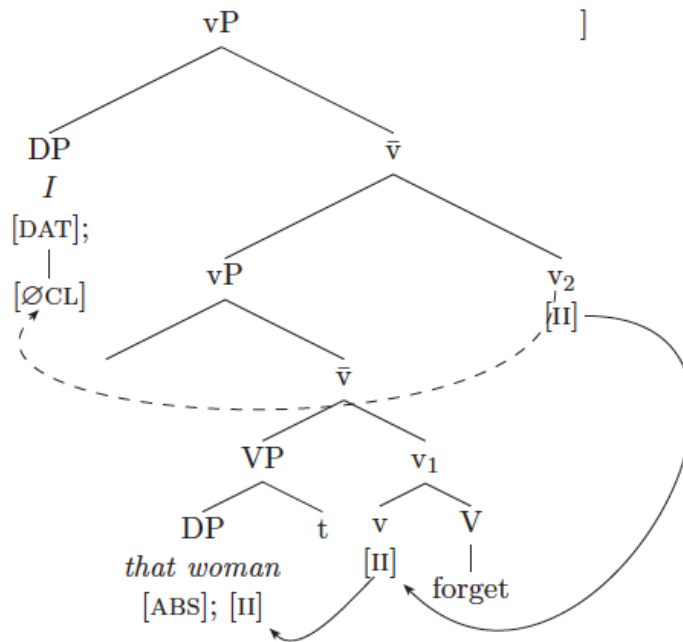
In the affective verb 'to forget', the lower  $v$  head ( $v_1$ ) carries [uCL] and [ABS] features, while  $v_2$  is specified for [uCL] and [DAT]/[EXP]. The internal argument gets its features valued by  $v_1$  and receives [ABS] case, while the external argument receives [DAT] from  $v_2$ . The absolutive DP determines agreement; thus, the unvalued class feature in  $v_1$  receives its value from DP<sub>ABS</sub> 'that woman', and  $v_2$  receives its value from  $v_1$  in turn, as shown below where we use English glosses for the sake of exposition:

(64)



The external argument ‘I-DAT’ is a weak pronoun, unspecified for the [CL] feature; this example violates the requirement on [CL] feature specification (2). To avoid the violation, the offending dative DP borrows a copy of the [CL] feature from the closest  $v$ ,  $v_2$ , as shown in (65) below:

(65)

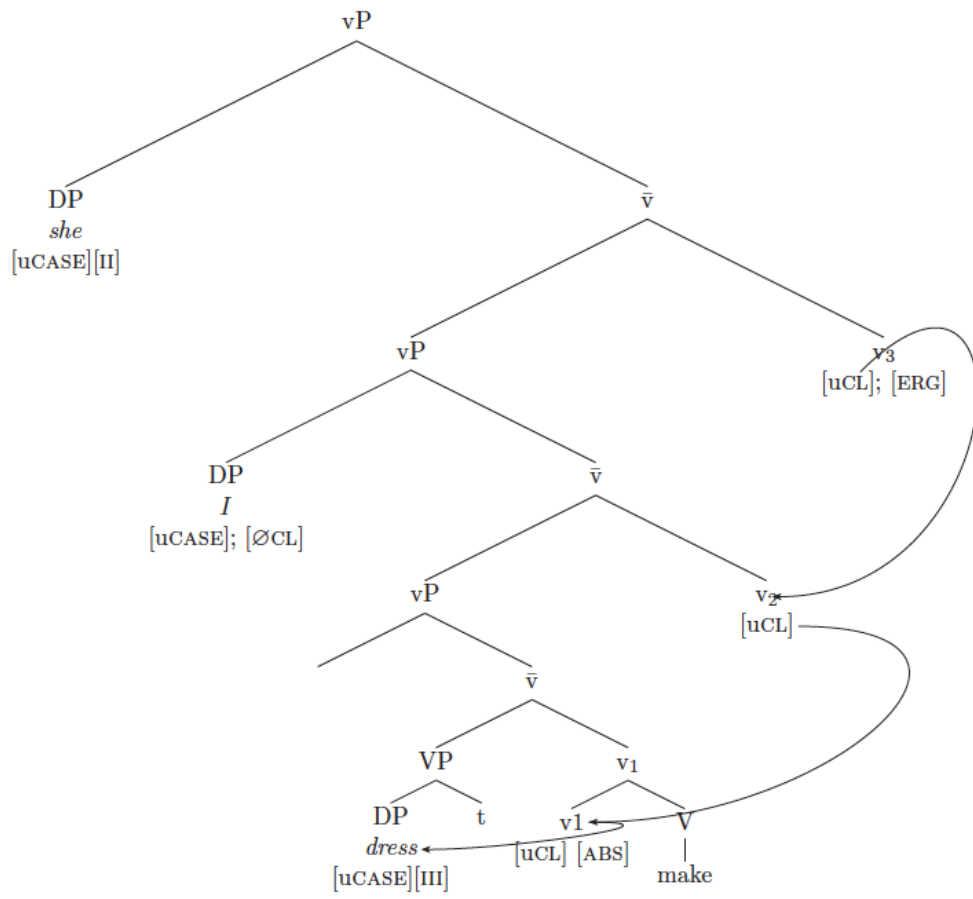


When weak pronouns are merged in lower positions, [CL] features are copied in the same manner. Consider the following sentence:

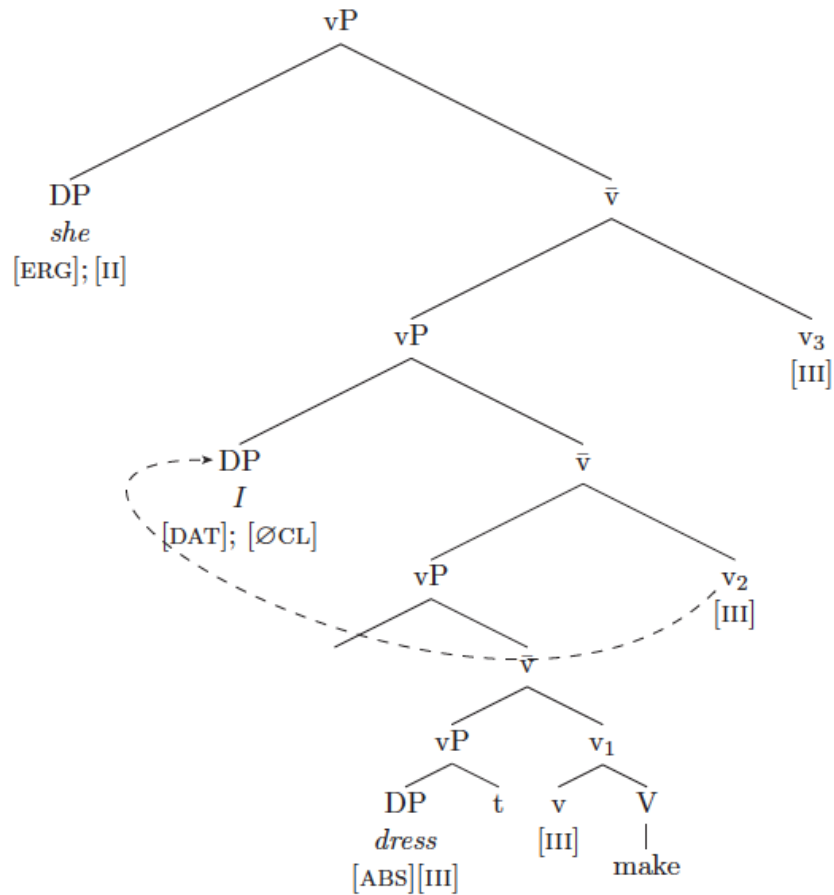
- (66) To-r-mi      b-ez      χ<sup>o</sup>ošon      a<b>u.  
that-II.SG-ERG III.SG-1SG.DAT dress.III.SG.ABS    .<III.SG>make.PFV  
‘She made me a dress.’

In (66), the weak pronoun bears the lexical dative case and “agrees” with the absolutive argument in [CL]. The derivation for this sentence proceeds in a similar way to (64) and (65). The internal argument χ<sup>o</sup>ošon ‘dress’ has its features valued by v<sub>1</sub> and receives [ABS]. Since the verb in (66) is agentive, v<sub>2</sub> comes with the [ERG] feature. The external argument receives its structural case from the higher v. The weak pronoun ‘me’ receives the dative case, which we treat as a morphological realization of the beneficiary theta role (Woolford 2006). But the dative DP in (66) does not have [CL] specification, which violates the principle in (2) above. Thus, this DP must copy the [CL] feature from the closest v, which in turn copies its class features from v<sub>1</sub>. The structure in (67) shows the successive valuation of agreement on verbal heads, and the structure in (68) shows the copying of class features on the weak pronoun from functional head v<sub>2</sub>.

(67)



(68)



Genitive forms of weak pronouns are only found in external-possession constructions where they are licensed by  $v$  (as in the case of dative arguments in the affective construction), as shown in (16) above.

Altogether, the sample derivations above allow us to account for the following agreeing weak pronouns: 1<sup>st</sup> person singular dative, 1<sup>st</sup> person singular genitive, 1<sup>st</sup> person plural dative, and 1<sup>st</sup> person plural genitive.

However, the proposal presented in this section cannot extend to 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns because they are clearly not weak. In the next section, we propose a different analysis of these pronouns, which reflects their complex structure.

### 5.3 Agreeing complex pronouns

1<sup>st</sup> person plural inclusive pronouns, when they appear in the core cases licensed inside  $vP$ , also exhibit agreement exponents. Unlike the set of pronouns discussed in the previous section, 1<sup>st</sup> person plural inclusive pronouns have a complex morphological structure. The first morpheme is identical to the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural exclusive, in the appropriate case; the second is the emphatic exponent *-ejt'u* (Kibrik 1977b: 125, 126, 326). Thus:

(69) 1<sup>st</sup> person plural inclusive = 1<sup>st</sup> person plural exclusive + the marker *-ejt'u*

Within the case paradigm, the first component of these inclusive pronouns is not uniform in its phonological structure: aside from one strong pronoun, all case forms of 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns are exclusive. The exception is the dative form *ela*, which is weak. Thus, the paradigm of inclusive pronouns is not fully uniform:

- (70) a. weak (dative, /ela/) + the marker *-ejt'u*  
 b. strong (all other forms) + the marker *-ejt'u*

The emphatic marker *ejt'u* demonstrates agreement when used in any context, not only with pronouns. It has two allomorphs (Kibrik 1977b: 127):<sup>20,21</sup>

- (71) a. a<CL>u/ C\_\_\_\_  
 b. ej<CL>u/ V\_\_\_\_

In what follows, we first discuss properties of *ejt'u* and then provide a detailed analysis of the pronouns under discussion.

### 5.3.1 *Emphatic -ejt'u*

The emphatic marker *-ejt'u*,<sup>22</sup> widely used outside the pronominal system, has the meaning ‘very’, ‘only’, ‘even’; for example,

- (72) To-w      bošor      to-t      s:aʔat-lit:-ej<w>u  
 this-I.SG    man.I.SG.ABS    that-IV.SG    hour-LOC-<I.SG>EMPH.SG  
 mač'a-ma      w-ak:o:-t'u-ši      e<w>t:i.  
 be.dark-CVB.LOC.ESS    I.SG-see.NEG.FUT-NEG-CVB    <I.SG>become.PFV  
 ‘That man became invisible AT THAT VERY MOMENT.’ (Kibrik 1977b: 326)

This suggests that *-ejt'u* bears the [FOCUS] feature. Further evidence for the association between *-ejt'u* and [FOCUS] derives from its combination with indeterminate pronouns. A

<sup>20</sup> Given this allomorphy, it may be reasonable to analyze *-ejt'u* morphologically as a suffix; Kibrik refers to it as a particle, which may reflect the long-standing tradition in Caucasiology. For our purposes, the actual morphological status of *-ejt'u* is irrelevant, and we will be referring to it agnostically as a ‘marker’.

<sup>21</sup> In addition to the phonologically conditioned cases of allomorphy exemplified in (71), the emphatic marker *-ejt'u* has several lexically specified allomorphs. When used as part of some reflexive pronouns, the emphatic marker has irregular forms. For example, the ergative singular form of the pronoun *inž-aw* ‘he himself’ is irregular, instead of the expected *\*inž-ejwu* predicted by the rule in (71) (Kibrik 1977b: 127).

<sup>22</sup> In the data here and elsewhere, this marker has two forms: *ejt'u* and *ijt'u* depending on when the examples were obtained. In the 1970s, the marker was pronounced [ejt'u], which is reflected in Kibrik’s spelling; thirty years later, a vowel shift led to the modern pronunciation [ijt'u], reflected in more recent fieldwork examples.



number of languages derive polarity items by adding a focus marker to pronouns, indeterminate expressions, and the word ‘one’ (cf. Haspelmath 1997 for an overview and Shimoyama 2008 for Japanese). In Archi, *-ejt’u* is used to derive polarity items from pronouns and the numeral ‘one’, supporting our analysis of this item as a focus marker:

- (73) Zari            os:-ej<t'>u-t:u-t                          os       adam                      açu-t'u.  
1.SG.ERG one-EMPH<IV.SG>-ATTR-I.SG     one   man.IV.SG.ABS   [IV.SG]kill.PFV-NEG  
'I did not kill a single person.' (Kibrik 1977b: 327)

As we show below, *-ejt'u* is also used to derive reflexive pronouns. Although this function alone would not constitute unequivocal evidence for its focus-marker status, focus markers used in the derivation of reflexives are certainly very common (see König 2001 and König and Siemund 2000 for a cross-linguistic overview showing the role of intensifiers in reflexive formation).

At the same time, the marker *-ejt'u* cannot combine with IP-level (high) adverbs; for example,

- (74) \***Talahliš-ijr'u/ijt'u** [χ<sup>ɛ</sup>el eχdi-t'aw]  
 fortunately-II.EMPH/IV.EMPH rain.IV.SG.ABS IV.SG.to.rain.PFV-CVB.NEG  
 da-q'a.  
 II.SG-come.PFV  
 ('FORTUNATELY, I (woman speaking) came back before it rained.')

Furthermore, the marker *-ejt'u* is also impossible on finite verbs, as shown below:

- (75) \*Lo ari-li-t:i-š u<w>klen  
 child.I.SG.ABS work.IV-SG.OBL-SUP-EL <I.SG>come.before  
 zari kummul aw-ij<t'>u.  
 1SG.ERG food.IV.SG.ABS [IV.SG].make.PFV-EMPH<I.SG>  
 ('BEFORE (my) son came (home) from work, I had made food.')

Given the data above, we suggest that the emphatic marker *-ejt'u* is licensed inside *vP*, making it too low to interact with IP-level adverbs and finite forms, which involve projections higher than *vP*. Additional evidence supporting this conclusion derives from the inability of *-ejt'u* to combine with DPs bearing *vP*-external cases, such as causalis, (76).<sup>23</sup>

- (76) \*W-irxw-mul-li-ši-j<w>u                                zon  
I.SG-work-MSD-CAUSALIS-EMPH<I.SG>      1.I.SG.ABS  
qʼas:-e<w>ti.  
get.tired-<I.SG>become.PFV  
(‘I got tired BECAUSE OF WORK.’) (Kibrik 1977b: 156)

<sup>23</sup> This example is based on Kibrik's description; modern speakers seem to be using *causalis* less often, replacing it with one of the locative forms.

Wherever *-ejt'u* appears, it is always marked for agreement. The example below illustrates its co-occurrence with a noun in an argument case, (77), a noun in a spatial case, (78), a nominalized verb, (79), a pronoun, (80), and an adverb, (81).

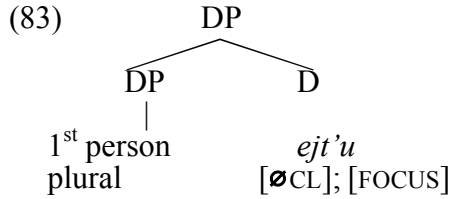
- (77) Gubčit-i-j<b>u                      kl'an b-ez.  
basket.III.SG.ABS-EMPH<III.SG> want III.SG-1SG.DAT  
'I want only a basket.' (implication: I do not want anything else)
- (78) Ja-t                  nokl'                      išköl-li-s                      çarak-ij<t'>u  
this-IV.SG house.IV.SG.ABS school.III-SG.OBL-DAT behind-EMPH<IV.SG>  
i.  
IV.SG.be.PRS  
'This house is right behind the school.'
- (79) Lo                      e<sup>s</sup>mmu                  d-ak:u-t:-ij<r>u  
child.II.SG.ABS cry.PFV II.SG-see.PFV-CVB-EMPH<II.SG>  
buwa                      da-q<sup>a</sup>.  
mother.II.SG.ABS II.SG-come.PFV  
'As soon as the mother saw that the girl cried, she came.' (lit.: at the seeing ...)
- (80) Buwa-kul-dija-kul                      zari-j<t'>u  
mother.II-NMLZ.IV.SG.ABS-father.IV-NMLZ.IV.SG.ABS 1SG.ERG-<IV.SG>EMPH  
uw-qi.  
IV.SG.do.PFV-FUT  
'It is me who will have to become their parent.'  
(lit.: 'only I will do motherhood and fatherhood') (T3: 18)
- (81) Arša                  horo:k-ej<b>u                      išköl                      dablu.  
Archi.INESS long.ago-<III.SG>EMPH school.III.SG.ABS open.PFV  
'A school opened in Archi a very long time ago.' (Kibrik 1977b: 326)

Regardless of its attachment site, the agreement on *-ejt'u* is always determined by the absolutive DP: in (78), the emphatic particle attaches to a noun in a spatial form and agrees with the object argument *jat nokl'* 'this house'; in (79), this marker modifies the converb *d-ak:u-t-ij<r>u* and agrees with the absolutive DP *lo* 'child'; in (80), *-ejt'u* is attached to the 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun *zari* 'I.ERG' and again, it agrees with the absolutive DP. Thus, the core properties of *-ejt'u* can be summarized as follows:

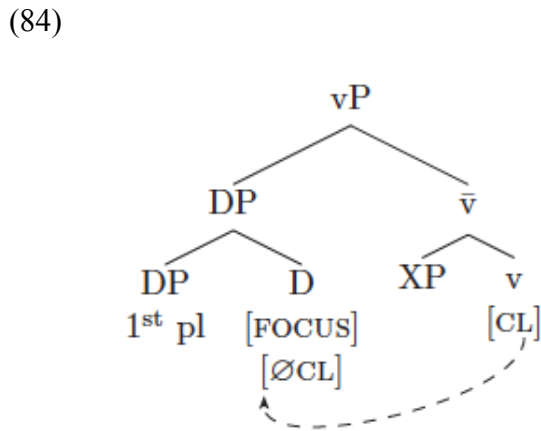
- (82) Distribution and agreement properties of *-ejt'u*  
The focus marker *-ejt'u* attaches to vP-internal material and agrees with the clausemate absolutive DP.

### 5.3.2 Complex structure of 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns

We are now ready to present our analysis of the agreeing inclusive pronouns. We propose that the 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronoun is a complex DP, headed by the focus marker *-ejt'u*, which takes 1<sup>st</sup> person plural pronouns (=DP) as its complement:



In (83), we present the focus particle as a lexical realization of the D head. Similar to the weak pronouns, this D head is unspecified for [CL], which is in violation of the principle that all nominal forms in Archi must be specified for class. To avoid such a violation, the D head *-ejt'u* resorts to copying [CL] features from the closest *v*, as shown below:

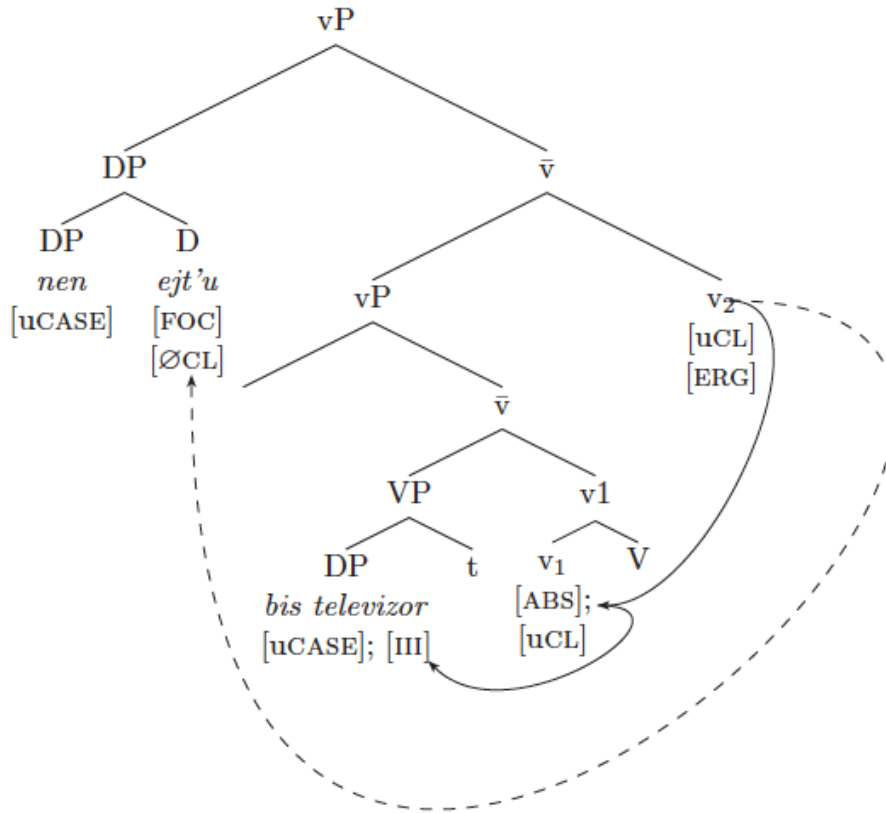


We can now illustrate the proposed analysis for the example presented in (85):

- (85) **Nen-a<b>u**                      b-is                      tilivizor                      mu  
 1PL.INCL.ERG-<III.SG>.EMPH III.SG-1.SG.GEN TV.set.III.SG.ABS be.good  
 a<b>u.  
 <III.SG>do.PFV  
 ‘We fixed my TV.’

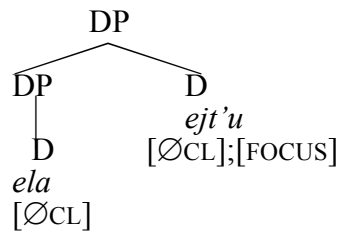
In (85), the ergative form of the 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronoun bears an agreement exponent, controlled by the DP<sub>ABS</sub> *tilivizor* ‘TV’, following our proposal that DP gets its case valued by the *v*<sub>1</sub> head. As agreement is always controlled by an absolutive-marked argument, DP<sub>ABS</sub> values [uCL] features on *v*<sub>1</sub>, which in turn values [uCL] on *v*<sub>2</sub>. The pronoun ‘I.INCL.ERG’ now has a D head, unspecified for [CL] in violation of (1). To avoid such a violation, D[FOCUS] copies a [CL] feature from the closest *v*, *v*<sub>2</sub>, as shown below:

(86)



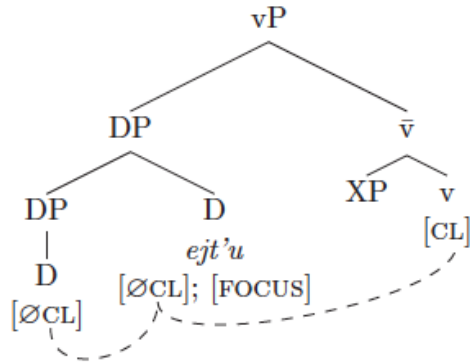
At the beginning of this section, we identified that not all 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns are identical in phonological structure: the core morpheme of the dative 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronoun is weak, while all others are strong. Unlike other agreeing pronouns, the dative form of the 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive has two agreement exponents (CL-*ela*-CL-*ejt'u*). The agreement properties of this pronoun follow directly from its structure, in which neither D head is specified for [CL]. The structure of this dative 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronoun is shown in (87).

(87)



Since there are two D heads with unspecified [CL] features, two copying processes occur: D[FOCUS] copies the class feature from the closest *v* head, and then the second D, *ela*, copies that class feature from D[FOCUS], as in (88).

(88)

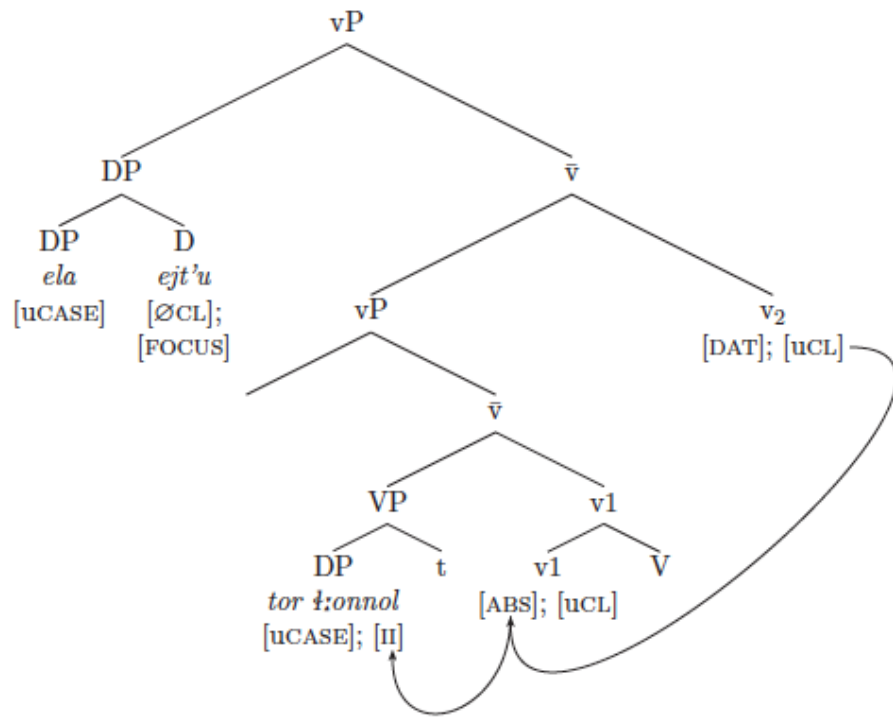


Let us now apply this structure to the derivation of the following sentence:

- (89) To-r            ł:onnol            d-ela<r>u            e<r>χni.  
          that-II.SG   woman.II.SG.ABS   II.SG-1PL.INCL.DAT<II.SG>   <II.SG>forget.PFV  
          ‘We (inclusive) forgot that woman.’

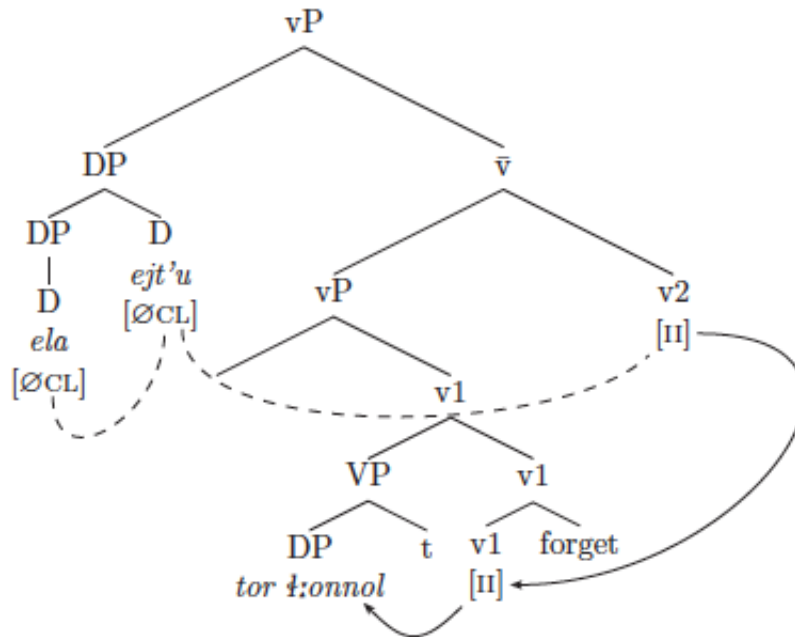
The dative form of the 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun *delaru* in (89) agrees with the absolutive argument *tor ł:onnol* ‘that woman’. The internal argument ‘that woman’ gets its case checked by  $v_1$ . The complex DP *delaru* gets its dative case checked by  $v_2$ . The internal argument values [uCL] on  $v_1$ , while  $v_1$  values the class feature on  $v_2$ , as in (90) below:

(90)



*Delaru* is a complex pronoun consisting of a 1<sup>st</sup> person exclusive pronoun and *-ejt'u* with both components unspecified for [CL]: the pronoun *ela* is weak and thus lacks [CL] specification, while *-ejt'u* is independently unspecified for [CL] for reasons outlined above. To avoid violating the requirement that all Archi DPs must be specified for class (1), first, D[FOCUS] receives the [CL] feature of the closest *v* head, *v*<sub>2</sub>, and second, the D head *ela* receives a copy of that class feature from D[FOCUS], as schematically shown in (91):

(91)



Our account of the complex structure of 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns predicts that the pronouns can bear agreement affixes only when their case is licensed inside vP. This prediction bears out: only 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns in the genitive, dative, and ergative can appear with agreement exponents.

All things considered, inter-DP agreement registered on 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns follows from their complex structure involving the focus marker *-ejt'u*. This marker is unspecified for [CL] and copies the relevant feature from the closest functional head *v*.

Before we conclude this section, we would like to consider why Archi inclusive pronouns, rather than their exclusive counterparts, are marked with agreement exponents. Cross-linguistically, languages where exclusive pronouns are more complex than inclusive pronouns seem predominant (Cysouw 2003). However, a pattern of more complex inclusive forms and less complex exclusive forms is also attested cross-linguistically, albeit not often. Compare the spoken French *nous*—*nous autres* or Ilocano *ta*—*tayo* (Cysouw 2003: 157); other languages with this pattern include Waiwai (Cysouw 2003: 152), Quechua (Weber 1989: 37, 54–55), and Limbu (Harbour 2013).

Archi is the only NEC language that has this pattern,<sup>24</sup> and there is a diachronic explanation for this unique situation. Historically, Proto-Lezgian distinguished between inclusive and exclusive pronouns with two independent forms, *\*dla<sup>ɛ</sup>-n* vs. *\*dža-n*

<sup>24</sup> Other NEC languages distinguish 1<sup>st</sup> person plural inclusive and exclusive pronouns, but they use two completely different roots (for actual forms, see Kibrik and Kodzasov 1990: 221–222).

respectively (Alekseev 1985: 70-71). Archi lost this Proto-Lezgian distinction and then developed a new way of distinguishing the two meanings by using 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive reflexive pronouns as non-reflexive 1<sup>st</sup> person plural inclusive pronouns. These pronouns have retained their complex structure but have lost their reflexive meaning.

## 6 Conclusions

In this paper, we presented novel data on Archi illustrating a typologically unusual phenomenon of apparent agreement between 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns and absolutive-marked arguments. Apart from their typological significance, these facts challenge current approaches to agreement, which hold that Agree relations can be established only between heads and phrases. We demonstrated that the apparent agreement between a 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun and an absolutive DP can be reduced to a more conventional agreement, namely, agreement between the absolutive DP and a series of *v* heads. Thus, the apparent challenge of irregular Archi agreement is merely an illusion; all the agreement facts, however intricate, follow a well-established mechanism of noun-verb agreement.

We proposed that weak pronouns lack noun-class feature specification and must therefore copy a class feature from the closest *v* to avoid violating the Archi-internal constraint that all DPs must have [CL] feature specification. We also showed that agreeing pronouns in Archi are not uniform in their internal structure: 1<sup>st</sup> person singular and 1<sup>st</sup> person plural exclusive pronouns are weak pronouns, whereas 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns are complex lexical items composed of 1<sup>st</sup> person exclusive pronouns followed by the restrictive (focus) marker *-ejt'u*. In the complex structure of 1<sup>st</sup> person inclusive pronouns, the focus marker is a D head which requires a noun-class feature and receives that feature via copying it from the closest *v* head.

From an empirical standpoint, we have used independently motivated properties of language design, such as distinctions between strong and weak pronouns and agreement between verbal heads and DPs, to probe deeper into the apparently unusual agreement pattern. On a more general level, our analysis demonstrates that quite often, subtle facts must be investigated to determine the syntax of the world's languages. Sometimes surface-oriented observations suggest 'exotic' or unfamiliar mechanisms, but closer, theoretically informed investigation shows that the underlying mechanism is not exotic at all.



## REFERENCES

- Alekseev, Mixail E. 1985. *Voprosy sravnitel'no-istoričeskoj grammatiki lezgijskix jazykov*. Moscow: Nauka.
- Arad, Maya. 2003. Locality constraints on the interpretation of roots: The case of Hebrew denominal verbs. *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* 21: 737 – 778.
- Baker, Mark C. 2015. *Case: Its principles and parameters*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baker, Mark C., and Willie Udo Willie. 2010. Agreement in Ibibio: From every head, to every head. *Syntax* 13: 99-132.
- Bobaljik, Jonathan. 1995. *Morphosyntax: the syntax of verbal inflection*. Ph.D. Dissertation, MIT.
- Bond, Oliver, and Marina Chumakina. 2015. Archi: Agreement domains and targets. Ms. University of Surrey.
- Cardinaletti, Anna and Michal Starke. 1994. The typology of structural deficiency on the three grammatical classes. *University of Venice Working Papers in Linguistics* 4: 41-109.
- Chumakina, Marina, Dunstan Brown, Greville Corbett, and Harley Quilliam. 2007. *Archi: A dictionary of the language of the Archi People, Daghestan, Caucasus, with sounds and pictures* (reference edition, DVD for Windows).
- Chumakina, Marina and Greville G. Corbett. In press. Gender-number marking in Archi: Small is complex. In Matthew Baerman, Greville G. Corbett, and Dunstan Brown (eds.) *Understanding and measuring morphological complexity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2000. Minimalist inquiries: the Framework. In Roger Martin, David Michaels, Juan Uriagereka, and Samuel Jay Keyser (eds.) *Step by step: Essays in minimalist syntax in honor of Howard Lasnik*, 89-156. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2001. Derivation by phase. In Michael Kenstowicz (ed.) *Ken Hale: A life in language (Current Studies in Linguistics 36)*, 1-52. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Collins, Chris. 2003. The internal structure of vP in Jul'hoansi and ≠Hoan. *Studia Linguistica* 57: 1-25.
- Comrie, Bernard and Maria Polinsky. 1998. The great Dagestanian case hoax. In Anna Siewierska and Jae Jung Song (eds.) *Case, typology and grammar: In honor of Barry J. Blake (Typological Studies in Language 38)*, 95–114. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Comrie, Bernard and Helma van den Berg. 2006. Experiencer constructions in Daghestanian languages. In Ina Bornkessel et al. (eds.) *Semantic role universals and argument linking: Theoretical, typological, and psychological perspectives*, 127-154. Berlin: de Gruyter.
- Corbett, Greville. 1991. *Gender*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Corbett, Greville. 2005. Systems of gender assignment. In Haspelmath, Martin, Matthew S. Dryer, David Gil, and Bernard Comrie (eds.) *The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS)*, 134-137. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Corbett, Greville. 2013. The unique challenge of the Archi paradigm. In Chundra Cathcart, Shinae Kang, and Clare S. Sandy (eds.) *Proceedings of the 37th Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society: Special Session on Languages of the Caucasus*, 52-67. Berkeley: Berkeley Linguistics Society.
- Cysouw, Michael. 2003. *The paradigmatic structure of person marking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Davies, William and Stanley Dubinsky. 2004. *The grammar of raising and control: A course in syntactic argumentation*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Deal, Amy Rose. 2013. Possessor raising. *Linguistic Inquiry* 37: 391-432.
- Deal, Amy Rose. 2014. External possession and possessor raising. In Martin Everaert and Henk van Riemsdijk (eds.) *The syntax companion*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Wiley-Blackwell
- Grohmann, Kleanthes. 2000. Towards a syntactic understanding of prosodically reduced pronouns. *Theoretical Linguistics* 26: 175-210.
- Harbour, Daniel. 2013. "Not plus" isn't "Not there": Bivalence in person, number, and gender. In Ora Matushansky and Alec Marantz (eds.) *Distributed morphology today: Morphemes for Morris Halle*, 135-150. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Haspelmath, Martin. 1997. *Indefinite pronouns*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kibrik, Aleksandr E. 2003. *Konstanty i peremennye jazyka*. Sankt-Peterburg: Aleteja.
- Kibrik, Aleksandr E., Sandro V. Kodzasov, I.P. Olovjannikova and D.S. Samedov 1977a. *Opyt strukturnogo opisanija arčinskogo jazyka, I: Leksika. Fonetika*. (Publikacii otdelenija strukturnoj i prikladnoj lingvistiki, 11). Moscow: Izdatel'stvo Moskovskogo universiteta.
- Kibrik, Aleksandr E. 1977b. *Opyt strukturnogo opisanija arčinskogo jazyka, II: Taksonomičeskaja grammatika*. (Publikacii otdelenija strukturnoj i prikladnoj lingvistiki, 12). Moscow: Izdatel'stvo Moskovskogo universiteta.
- Kibrik, Aleksandr E. 1977c. *Opyt strukturnogo opisanija arčinskogo jazyka, III: Dinamičeskaja grammatika*. (Publikacii otdelenija strukturnoj i prikladnoj lingvistiki, 13). Moscow: Izdatel'stvo Moskovskogo universiteta.
- Kibrik, Aleksandr E. and Sandro V. Kodzasov. 1990. *Sopostavitel'noe izučenie dagestanskix jazykov. Imya. Fonetika*. Moscow: Izdatel'stvo Moskovskogo universiteta
- König, Ekkehard. 2001. Intensifiers and reflexives. In Martin Haspelmath et al. (eds.) *Language Typology and Language Universals: An International Handbook*, 74-90. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- König, Ekkehard and Peter Siemund. 2000. Intensifiers and reflexives: A typological perspective. In Zygmunt Frajzyngier and Traci Walker (eds.) *Reflexives: Form and function*, vol. 1, 41-74. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Kratzer, Angelica. 1996. Severing the external argument from its verb. In Johan Rooryck and Laurie Zaring (eds.) *Phrase structure and the lexicon*, 109-137. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- Laenzlinger, Christopher. 1998. *Comparative studies in word order variation: Adverbs, pronouns and clause structure in Romance and Germanic*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Landau, Idan. 2010. *The locative syntax of experiencers*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Lee-Schoenfeld, Vera. 2006. German possessor datives: raised and affected. *Journal of Comparative Germanic Linguistics* 9: 101-142.

- Levin, Theodore and Omer Preminger. 2015. Case in Sakha: Are two modalities really necessary? *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* 33, 231-250.
- Marantz, Alec. 1988. Clitics, morphological merger, and the mapping to phonological structure. In Michael Hammond and Michael Noonan (eds.) *Theoretical morphology: Approaches in modern linguistics*, 253-270. San Diego: Academic Press.
- Marantz, Alec. 1991. Case and licensing. In Germán Westphal, Benjamin Ao, and Hee-Rahk Chae (eds.) *Eastern States Conference on Linguistics, Proceedings*, 234–253. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, Cornell Linguistics Club.
- Marantz, Alec. 2007. Phases and words. In S.-H. Choe (ed.) *Phases in the theory of grammar*, 191-222. Seoul: Dong-In Publishing Co.
- Merchant, Jason. 2004. Fragments and ellipsis. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 27: 661-738.
- Plaster, Keith, Maria Polinsky, and Boris Harizanov. 2013. Noun classes grow on trees. In Balthasar Bickel, Lenore A. Grenoble, David A. Peterson, and Alan Timberlake (eds.) *Language typology and historical contingency*, 153-170. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Polinsky, Maria. 2014. Agreement in Archi. Surrey project “From competing theories to fieldwork”:  
<http://www.surrey.ac.uk/englishandlanguages/research/smg/researchprojects/fieldwork/index.htm>
- Režac, Milan. 2003. The fine structure of cyclic Agree. *Syntax* 6: 156-182.
- Rodrigues, Cilene. 2010. Possessor raising through thematic positions. In Norbert Hornstein and Maria Polinsky (eds.) *Movement theory of control*, 119–146. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Shimoyama, Junko. 2008. Indeterminate pronouns. In Shigeru Miyagawa and Mamoru Saito (eds.) *The handbook of Japanese linguistics*, 372-393. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Vergnaud, Jean-Roger and Maria Luisa Zubizarreta. 1992. The definite determiner and the inalienable possession in French and in English. *Linguistic Inquiry* 23: 595-652.
- Weber, David John. 1989. *A grammar of Huallaga (Huánaco) Quechua*. (University of California Publications in Linguistics, 112.) Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Woolford, Ellen. 2006. Lexical case, inherent case, and argument structure. *Linguistic Inquiry* 37: 111-130.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 1999. Modal verbs must be raising verbs. In Sonya Bird et al. (eds.) *Proceedings of the 18th West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics (WCCFL)*, 599-612. Cascadia Press, Somerville, MA.
- Wurmbrand, Susi. 2001. *Infinitives: Restructuring and clause structure*. Mouton de Gruyter.