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**Bavarian Pronouns: The pronominal paradigms of
Traiskirchen, Lower Austria**

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1 Introduction

1.1 Pronouns

Personal pronouns are used to refer to DPs that, in most cases, have already been present in the discourse. Buring (2011:5) mentions that this reference to a DP can happen in three ways: bound, anaphoric, or deictic. He exemplifies the three types in three examples, which are given in (1):

- (1) a Every soprano brought her union card. (bound)
b Josh met a soprano. He liked her. (anaphoric)
c (*scenario: A woman walks in.*)
She must be a soprano. (deictic)

Buring (2011:1) describes pronouns as a “closed class of mostly one-word expressions [...], whose semantic content is limited to basic features, such as number, gender and person.” Languages have different systems of pronouns, expressing different distinctions of features. Standard German, for example, has personal pronouns for four grammatical cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative), while English only distinguishes subject and object pronouns, but does not have separate forms for direct or indirect objects. A comparison between Standard German and English direct and indirect object pronouns is given below in (2) and (3):

(2) Standard German

- a Ich liebe **sie** (direct/accusative)
I love her.DO
“I love her”
b Ich gebe **ihr** ein Geschenk (indirect/dative)
I give her.IO a present
“I give her a present”

(3) English

- a I love **her** (direct/accusative)
b I give **her** a present (indirect/dative)

Some languages have multiple pronominal paradigms: For example, Koromfe has free and clitic pronouns, which have a prefixed and a suffixed form. The paradigm is shown in Table 1:

	<i>prefix</i>		<i>suffix</i>		<i>free</i>	
<i>person</i> ↓	<i>sing.</i>	<i>pl.</i>	<i>sing.</i>	<i>pl.</i>	<i>sing.</i>	<i>pl.</i>
1 st	mə	ʊ	m(ɛ)	hō	məkɔ	ʊkɔ
2 nd	N	na	n(ɛ)	na	ŋkɔ	nakɔ
3 rd human	də	ba	d(ɪ)	ba	dəkɔ	bakɔ
3 rd non-human	gʊ	ɪ	gʊ	hɛ	gukɔ	ɪkɔ
3 rd diminutive	ga	---	ga	---	gakɔ	---

Table 1 Clitic and free personal pronouns of Koromfe (Rennison, 1997:247)

The existence of different paradigms is explained by structural differences in the literature: Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) argue that *weak* and *clitic* pronouns get their status through structural deficiency. Similar proposals have been made by Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) and Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017).

1.2 Traiskirchen's variant of Bavarian

In this thesis, I present the pronominal system of a variant of the Bavarian dialectal variety of German, spoken in Lower Austria in the community of Traiskirchen.



Figure 1 Location of Traiskirchen in Austria (map created using <https://umap.openstreetmap.fr>)

Traiskirchen is a town with approximately 20 000 inhabitants¹ consisting of five cadastral communities. The German variety spoken by older inhabitants is a variant of East Middle Bavarian, and very similar to the Viennese dialect. Some informants, however, claim to hear a difference between those variants of Bavarian.

I claim that in Traiskirchen's variety of German, there are four pronominal paradigms, which I call *demonstratives*, *strong pronouns*, *weak pronouns*, and *clitic/affixed pronouns*. For those four paradigms, I set up criteria to determine which pronominal form belongs to which paradigm.

1.3 A dialect study

To get the pronominal system, I conducted a study in late 2021, where I interviewed eight dialect speakers living in the cadastral communities Tribuswinkel, Möllersdorf and Traiskirchen. As two informants wanted to do the interview together, there were only seven interviews. In the interviews, I asked for grammaticality judgements about possible dialect sentences, which I had recorded with an additional dialect speaker who was not an interviewee. The sentences were played to the interviewees, who then had to decide whether the sentence was grammatically well-formed or not. For some sentences, I additionally asked the pronoun included in the sentence could be interpreted as bound. From the data that I collected, I set up four tables with pronominal forms, which I could then use to test the following hypotheses:

- There are demonstrative, strong, weak and clitic forms of pronominals. The order *demonstrative* > *strong* > *weak* > *clitic* is the order from strongest to weakest paradigm.
- Phonologically stronger forms tend to appear in stronger paradigms, phonologically weaker forms tend to appear in weaker paradigms.
- Some of these forms can appear in more than one paradigm.
- Accent does not have an impact on which paradigm a form belongs to. This hypothesis is based on Cardinaletti and Starke (1999:56-60), who argue that neither prosodic nor semantic focus is restricted to or obligatory on strong

¹ According to the community's website, there were 20 898 inhabitants by December 1st, 2021. (<https://www.traiskirchen.gv.at/portrait-traiskirchen/daten-fakten/>, consulted on February 14th, 2022, 15:11)

pronouns. (Except for clitics, whose key feature is being prosodically defective.)

- Just like in Weiß (1998), the clitic paradigm may have arbitrary gaps. As I am regarding a different variety of Bavarian, the gaps might differ from those found by Weiß. Other paradigms might have gaps as well.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is structured as follows: In chapter 2, I compare and discuss multiple proposals about pronominal structure; especially those by Cardinaletti and Starke (1999), Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002), and Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017). I discuss the structure of the pronominal paradigms *strong pronouns* (section 2.1), *weak pronouns* (section 2.2), *clitic pronouns* (section 2.3), *demonstrative pronouns* (section 2.4), and *pro-NPs* (section 2.5) and give a conclusion about the structures that I will use in my thesis in section 2.6.

Chapter 3 discusses cliticization. At first, I present generally accepted properties of clitics in section 3.1, then I discuss controversial properties in section 3.2 and determine how I will treat clitics in the rest of the thesis. In section 3.3, I summarize the properties of clitics, and due to their identity with affixes, I consider only using the term *clitic* or *affix*, but decide to use both terms as synonyms due to their appearance in the literature in section 3.4.

The conduction of the study is the topic of chapter 4. At first, I explain the methodology of the study in section 4.1, then I explain the parts of the questionnaire in sections 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4. The full questionnaire can be found in the appendix. The results of the survey are presented in chapter 5.

Chapter 6 contains the interpretation of the results: In section 6.1, I check whether the hypotheses are falsified or verified by the data and give examples for the questionnaire to illustrate my arguments. Section 6.2's purpose is to compare the data that I found to the pronominal data of Weiß' (1998) grammar of Bavarian.

In chapter 7, I make final remarks: In section 7.1, I list open questions and discuss future research questions that have arisen while performing and evaluating the study. Section 7.2 summarizes the results.

This thesis includes an online appendix, where the audio files used in the interviews can be accessed. The links as well as QR codes to the audio files can be found in the last appendix, which is chapter 11.

2 Pronominal shell structure

Pronouns do not constitute a single grammatical class; instead, they are an umbrella term for multiple grammatical constituents that form an extended projection. In pronoun literature, multiple layers of pronoun structure are proposed. Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) argue for three types of pronouns that are distinguished by structural deficiency: Strong pronouns consisting of a CP, a Σ P, and an IP, weak pronouns which lack the CP and clitic pronouns which also lack the Σ P. The IP embeds an LP, with L referring to any lexical category (cf. Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999:104). Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) also talk about three different pronoun types, which they name pro-DP, pro- φ P, and pro-NP: In a pro-DP, a DP embeds a φ P embedding an NP: the other pronoun types lack structure. According to Déchaine and Wiltschko, Cardinaletti and Starke's strong pronouns correspond to φ Ps with an embedded NP, weak pronouns are phrasal φ Ps with no NP embedded, and clitic pronouns are simplex φ s. With pro-DPs, there are now additional pronoun types to be distinguished. Contrary to Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002), Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) argue that both demonstrative pronouns as well as personal pronouns always contain a null NP. While personal pronouns consist of a DP embedding an NP, demonstratives have an additional DP shell which is responsible for deixis. Therefore, Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) differ between D_{det} P and D_{deix} P, the latter of which can only be found in demonstrative pronouns. They argue that clitic pronouns also have the D_{det} P, as well as a φ P, but that they lack an additional Σ P responsible for prosodic features that is present in personal pronouns. They assume that the Σ P as well as the φ P do not bear any semantic information, but only encode grammatical features.

In Table 2, I have listed the types of pronouns that the different authors name and show how they correspond to each other.

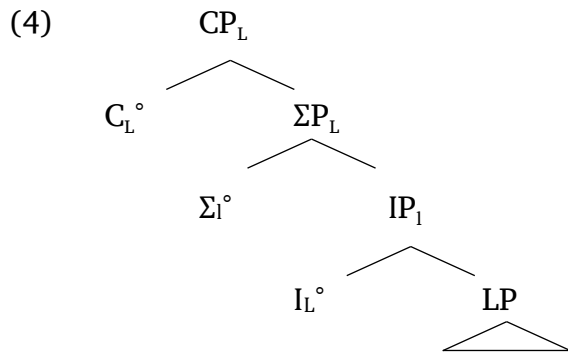
<i>Cardinaletti & Starke</i>	<i>Déchaine & Wiltschko</i>	<i>Patel-Grosz & Grosz</i>
		demonstratives (DP _{deix})
Strong pronouns	pro-DPs	personal pronouns
Weak pronouns	pro- φ Ps	
Clitic pronouns	simplex φ s	Clitic pronouns
	pro-NPs	

Table 2 Different pronoun types

Note that these types do not fully correspond to each other: As their classification has been done from different perspectives in different empirical domains, the categories are defined differently: While Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) categorize clitic pronouns as simplex φ s, Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) assume that clitic pronouns still contain a φ P, a D_{det}P and an NP. However, these categories can still be compared to each other and show clear correspondences. I will now discuss the differences as well as the motivations for setting the equivalents like this in greater detail.

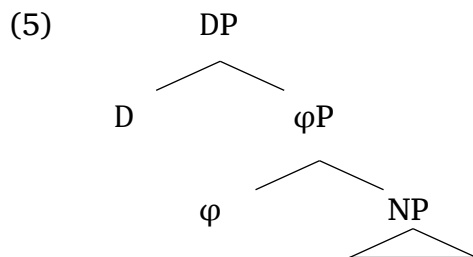
2.1 Strong pronouns

Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) propose to use structures parallel to verbal structures: Therefore, they assume that a DP is split into a CP and IP. By these terms, Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) do not exactly mean the verbal complementizer and inflectional phrases; instead, these categorical terms have been adopted by them to show that they construct pronouns parallel to the verbal domain. In the course of this thesis, I will adopt different terminology for these categories. Cardinaletti & Starke's (1999) structure of *strong pronouns* is shown in (4). Σ P is proposed to contain prosodic features; the LP stands for any lexical phrase: In the case of pronouns, it would be an NP.



(Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999:104)

The corresponding structure in Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) would be pro-DPs: The reason for this assumption lies in the observations that “strong, but not deficient elements have an index” (Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999:83) and that pro-DPs “have the binding-theoretic status of R-expressions” (Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002:412): An element that bears its own index cannot be bound by another constituent. pro-DPs have the structure in (5):

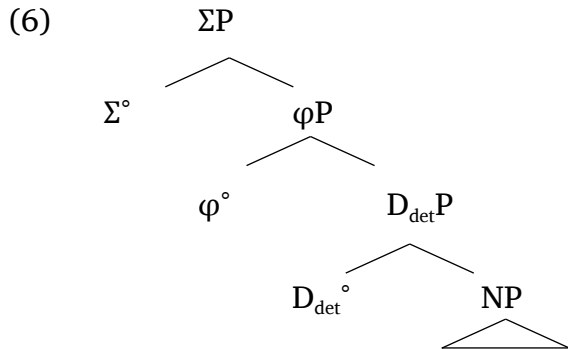


(based on Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002:412)

This means that this pronoun class should have the following properties (based on Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999 and Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002):

- can be coordinated, modified by DP modifiers
- may not phonologically restructure (no reduction, no liaison)
- bear their own range-restrictions
- morphologically complex
- always in argument position
- definite
- behave like R-expressions

In Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017), the corresponding pronoun type would be that of *personal pronouns* (abbreviated as PERS). They have the following structure:



(based on Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017:271)

I assume that they are PERS rather than demonstrative pronouns (DEMS) because pro-DPs behave like R-expressions (Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002) and DEMS need an anaphoric index, while PERS do not (Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017). In sum, we now have three slightly different structures for the same type of pronoun. To unify these structures, I would propose the following equivalents:

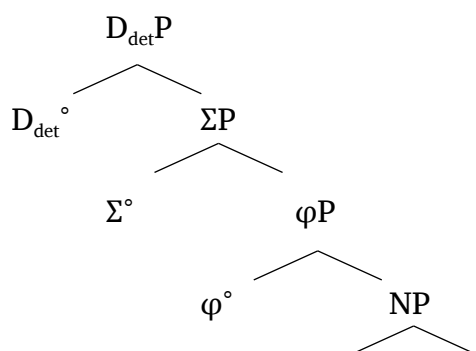
<i>Cardinaletti & Starke</i>	<i>Déchaine & Wiltschko</i>	<i>Patel-Grosz & Grosz</i>
LP	NP	NP
IP	φP	φP
ΣP	n/a	ΣP
CP	DP	D _{det} P

Table 3 Equivalents of grammatical categories in pronominals

As this thesis is solely about pronominals, I will be using the term *NP* rather than *LP* in the course of this thesis. Similarly, I will refrain from using Cardinaletti and Starke’s (1999) verb-related category names IP and CP and use the terms φP and DP instead. As I will need to split the DP into a D_{det}P and a D_{deix}P for the sake of demonstrative pronouns, I will be naming the CP/DP category D_{det}P from now on. This results in the adoption of the terminology used by Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017).

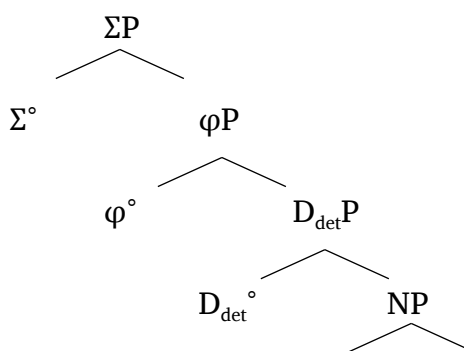
Based on the three pronominal theories, there are now two competing structures, which I show in (7) with unified nomenclature:

(7) a



(after Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999)

b

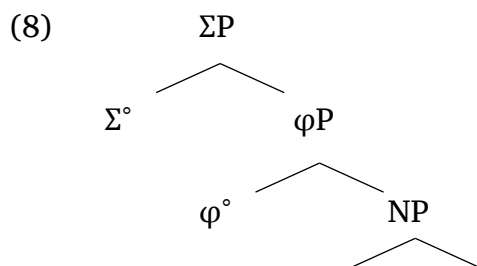


(after Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017)

In order to determine which structure suits better for pronominal theory, we need to consider the next weaker type of pronoun. Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) show that deficient pronouns are deficient due to a lack of structure: By reducing the structure, we get weak pronouns. Structure reduction does not happen arbitrarily, but structures are deleted starting with the highest constituents. This implies that the next weaker pronoun type either deletes the $D_{\text{det}}P$ if the structure in (7a) is correct, and it will delete the ΣP if the structure in (7b) is used. If prosody is located in its own constituent ΣP , this means that the loss of prosodic features is always a result of morphological reduction. Reduced morphology, on the other hand, does not necessarily imply the loss of prosodic features, but maybe semantic features or φ -features. I will now investigate which constituents are still needed for weak pronouns and argue for the structure based on Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) in (7a), with the $D_{\text{det}}P$ governing the other constituents.

2.2 Weak pronouns

While Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) do not have an equivalent for weak pronouns, Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) and Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) have proposed structures that have been reduced in comparison to their strong counterparts. The structure of Cardinaletti and Starke (1999:86) corresponds to the following in my nomenclature:



Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) do not include a ΣP in their pro- ϕ Ps; however, their example for this pronoun type, Shuswap pronouns, are independent pronouns, which means that they bear prosodic features. Σ° , in Cardinaletti and Starke’s pronoun typology, is “the locus of prosody related features” of the embedded head (cf. Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999:86). Therefore, the ΣP must be present in pro- ϕ Ps as well, but is not indicated in Déchaine and Wiltschko’s structure. The reason for patterning Cardinaletti and Starke’s weak pronouns together with Déchaine and Wiltschko’s pro- ϕ Ps is that in both frameworks, morphological reduction is a key feature of this pronoun type. Additionally, weak pronouns “must associate to an antecedent prominent in the discourse” (Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999:83) and “act like Condition B pronouns in that they can be bound outside their local domain, and they can function as bound variables” (Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002:415).

Due to the lack of the $D_{\text{det}}P$ projection, this type of pronouns has the following properties (based on Cardinaletti & Starke, 1999 and Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002):

- morphologically lighter than strong pronouns (less heads to realise)
- cannot be coordinated or modified by DP modifiers
- need to be in a case-assigning specAgrP at S-structure
- must have an antecedent
- can be predicates or arguments
- can function as bound variables

These properties show that there is definitely a difference between strong and weak pronouns and that weak pronouns need to be recognized as an own pronoun type. To mark their structural deficiency compared to strong pronouns, Cardinaletti and

Starke's (1999) structure proves superior to Patel-Grosz and Grosz' (2017) structure, which does not give the opportunity to get a weaker form from strong pronouns without removing the ΣP , i.e. prosodic properties. The pronoun type lacking the ΣP will be discussed in the next section.

2.3 Clitic pronouns

Clitic pronouns are even more deficient than their weak counterparts: Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) and Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) state that they lack the ΣP , which is responsible for phonological properties of pronouns. Indeed, the most prominent property of clitics is that they cannot form a prosodic domain on their own and must attach to an adjacent morpheme instead. However, while the above theories still assume that there is an embedded NP even in clitic pronouns, Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) argue that clitics are either pro-Ns or pro- ϕ s, depending on their properties: While French *en* is analysed as a pro-N because it can be modified by adjectives, the other French clitic pronouns are analysed as pro- ϕ s, as they can function as pro-arguments and pro-predicates. The following example shows that the French object pronouns *le* and *la* can be used to replace an argument, but *le* can also be used to replace a predicate. With a predicate, gender agreement is impossible; this is the reason why *la* is ungrammatical in (10 a).

- (9) a Jeanne *la* voit.
 Jeanne her sees
 b Jeanne *le* voit.
 Jeanne him sees

- (10) a Marie est une avocate, et Jeanne *le/*la* sera aussi.
 Marie is a lawyer(FEM) and Jeanne it will.be too
 b Jean est un avocat, et François *le* sera aussi.
 Jean is a lawyer(MASC) and François it will.be too

(Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002:428)

The remaining questions, however, concern the motivation for the elidation of the NP, as well as the reason why clitics are just heads instead of phrases. Cardinaletti and Starke (1999:94) argue that “only strong elements are ever generated in base”, which means that pronouns are always generated in their strong forms and delete structure afterwards. The phonological differences of deficient forms are thus explained by Late Insertion.

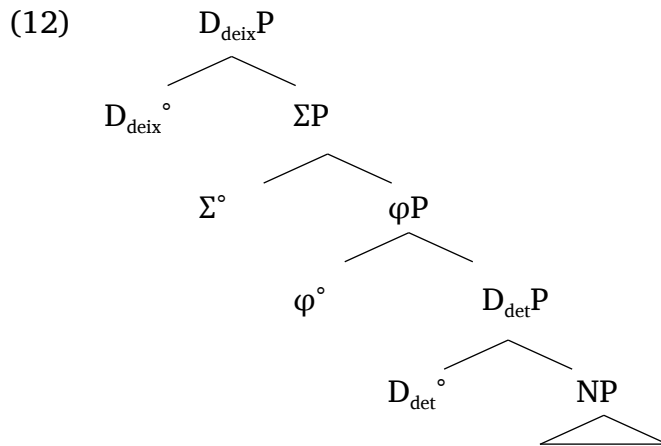
If clitic movement is a result of feature checking, it is possible to move just the ϕ instead of the whole ϕ P. This is only possible within a theory that allows for head movement. Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017:270) show that clitic pronouns do contain an NP, as their ϕ P agrees with an embedded null NP:

- (11) a Da Tim h t **an** **Leffl** gstuin. Und I h b’m gfundn.
the Tim has a.MASC spoon(MASC) stolen and I have = *pro*.MASC found
b Da Tim h t **a** **G bl** gstuin. Und I h b’s gfundn.
the Tim has a.FEM fork(FEM) stolen and I have = *pro*.FEM found
c Da Tim h t **a** **Messa** gstuin. Und I h b’s gfundn.
the Tim has a.NEUT knife(NEUT) stolen and I have = *pro*.NEUT found
‘Tim stole **a spoon / fork / knife**. And I found it.’

For now, I propose that clitics contain an NP in their base position, but only their ϕ is moved to the S-structure position. This would be a head-movement approach. Alternatively, it is also possible to assume phrasal movement of the whole ϕ P with NP ellipsis.

2.4 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are generally assumed to have larger structure than strong pronouns: Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) assume that they have an additional D_{deix} P governing the projections of strong pronouns. Similarly, D chaine and Wiltschko (2002) say that demonstratives are DPs, as the morphemes occurring in demonstratives are Ds and they cannot occur in predicate position. A structure of demonstrative pronouns is shown in (12):



(based on Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017:271)

The principle Minimize DP! blocks the use of demonstratives where they are not needed:

(13) *Minimize DP!* (Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017:279-280)

An extended NP projection α is deviant if α contains redundant structure, that is if

- a. there is an extended NP projection β that contains fewer syntactic nodes than α ,
- b. β is grammatical and has the same denotation as α (= Referential Irrelevance), and
- c. using α instead of β does not serve another purpose (= Pragmatic Irrelevance).

Uses of demonstratives include expressing emotivity, i.e. positive and negative speaker attitude towards an entity, disambiguation, and the use of particular registers (cf. Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017:280-288). Additionally, demonstratives are blocked from contexts where strong determiners are blocked. They can only appear in context where they refer to a specific referent. The example shows that the demonstrative pronoun *das* can only be used if it can directly refer to the overt NP *ein Kind* ‘a child’ and that it cannot be used if the NP is only implicitly present, as with the adjective *schwanger* ‘pregnant’. The personal pronoun *es* can be used in both contexts.

- (14) a Wenn ich schwanger werde, werde ich
 if I pregnant become will I
 {**es** / #**das**} auf jeden Fall behalten.
 it DEM on every case keep
 ‘If I get pregnant, I will definitely keep {**it** / #**DEM**} (= the baby).’
- b Wenn ich ein Kind kriege, werde ich
 if I a child get will I
 {**es** / **das**} auf jeden Fall behalten.
 it DEM on every case keep
 ‘If I have a child, I will definitely keep {**it** / **DEM**} (= the baby).’
- (15) a [**es**]^g = $\lambda x[\text{baby}(x)(s_r)]$ predicts: ✓(14a) / ✓(14b)
 [**das**]^g = $\lambda x[\text{baby}(x)(s_r) \ \& \ x = g(1)]$ predicts: *(14a) / ✓(14b)

(Patel-Grosz & Grosz, 2017:273)

2.5 pro-NPs

pro-NPs are described by Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002), but not by the two other works of pronominal literature used in this chapter, and have noun syntax: Japanese *kare* can be preceded by adjectives and possessive or demonstrative pronouns:

- (16) a tiisai *kare*
 small he
 ‘he who is small’
- b watasi-no *kare*
 I-GEN he
 ‘my boyfriend’
- c kono *kare*
 this he
 ‘this guy here’

(Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002:417)

They cannot function as bound variables, nor appear as arguments; however, they support coreference (cf. Déchaine & Wiltschko, 2002:417-418).

In Bavarian dialects, pronouns can be used as pro-NPs only metalinguistically, which means that they are limited to very specific contexts. I will give two examples (17) and (18) for this use and will not discuss this pronoun type further in my thesis.

- (17) Des is a schöner Hund!
 This is a beautiful dog
 Is des a ea oder a sie?
 Is this a he or a she
 “That’s a beautiful dog! Is it male or female?”

- (18) I tät ma a bissal an Respekt erbitten!
 I would me a bit a respect beg
 Für eich bin i a Sie, und ka Du!
 For you.PL am I a you.POLITE and not a you.FAMILIAR
 “I beg for a bit of respect! For you, I am to be addressed by ‘Sie’ and not by ‘Du’!” (i.e., the speaker has higher social status than the hearers)

2.6 Summary

There is agreement within the pronominal literature that the differences of different pronoun types can be expressed by different morphosyntactic structures; how these structures are exactly built differs from theory to theory. In this chapter, I have argued for a unified account consisting of the structures from Cardinaletti and Starke (1999), Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) and Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017).

The basic pronoun structure that I will use in the course of this thesis is the structure in (7a), repeated here in (19):

- (19)
-
- ```

graph TD
 DP[Ddet P] --- Ddet[Ddet°]
 DP --- SigmaP[ΣP]
 SigmaP --- Sigma[Sigma°]
 SigmaP --- phiP[φP]
 phiP --- phi[φ°]
 phiP --- NP[NP]
 NP --- Triangle[]

```

The structure shown here is that of a strong pronoun. Demonstratives additionally have a  $D_{\text{deix}}P$ , which embeds the other categories. Weak pronouns lack the  $D_{\text{det}}P$ , clitic pronouns lack the  $D_{\text{det}}P$  and the  $\Sigma P$  and are thus prosodically defective. I will discuss clitics in the next chapter.

### 3 Clitics

The term *clitic* stems from Ancient Greek grammar, where *enclitic* was a term for certain words that were prosodically dependent on adjacent words and sometimes caused stress changes on their hosts (cf. Haspelmath, 2015:288). Just as with pronouns, there exist different theories on the question what clitics are. In general, it is assumed that “[t]here is no criterial definition, but rather a list of tendencies, general characteristics, and typical features” (Klavans, 1985:117). Spencer and Luís (2013) define the canonical clitic as follows:

(20) The canonical clitic

“has the canonical form properties of an affix [monomoraic CV syllable, prosodically dependent] and the canonical distributional properties of a function word [phrasal placement, wide scope over coordination].” (Spencer and Luís, 2013:149, cited after Haspelmath, 2015:290)

Bonet (2019:2) defines clitics as “prosodically defective function words”; however, this definition does not include all defining features, but is rather the tip of the iceberg. On the other hand, the properties in this definition also apply to affixes, whose distinction from clitics is not clear. To illustrate this, also see Haspelmath (2015:277): “But there is no single set of properties that always and uniquely identifies clitics and distinguishes them from affixes”. Thus, Bonet’s (2019) definition cannot be used as a diagnostic tool, as clitics are usually distinguished from affixes, which also belong to closed categories and have special prosody. In section 3.2.3, I will discuss whether this distinction is necessary.

Van Riemsdijk (1999) notes that many researchers use the eight properties of clitics set up by Kayne (1975) as a starting point for their research (from van Riemsdijk, 1999:2-4):

- (i) Special position
- (ii) Obligatoriness

- (iii) Adjacency to V
- (iv) Obligatory presence of the verb
- (v) No modification
- (vi) No stress
- (vii) No conjunction
- (viii) Fixed and special order

However, those properties are problematic, because they can be used to describe French clitics, but fail to apply to clitics of other languages, van Riemsdijk notes. An example a clitic that has problems with these properties discussed by him is the Dutch clitic *er*, which is used to replace indefinite nouns: Different from Kayne's (1975) criteria and its French corresponding clitic *en*, it does not need to be adjacent to a verb. Therefore, van Riemsdijk (1999:5) considers that "it might turn out that there is no unified category of clitics".

Tools for diagnosis of clitics have been developed in the form of tests: Zwicky (1985) gives tests to distinguish clitics from words; Zwicky and Pullum (1983) have developed tests to distinguish clitics from affixes in order to argue that the English negational marker *n't* is an inflectional affix, rather than a clitic. In this chapter, I will argue that the divide between clitics and affixes is not necessary. These terms only describe different domains of attachment, but are essentially used for the same phenomenon.

A very prominent division of clitic types is the division in simple clitics and special clitics. Zwicky (1977) explains the difference as follows: Simple clitics are phonologically reduced forms of their non-reduced counterparts and appear in the same position as the full forms. Special clitics have the same cognitive meaning as the stressed free forms, but have special syntax: French object clitics like *me* 'me' must be placed before the verb, contrary to full object NPs. Zwicky (1977) additionally notes that French object pronouns are immune to certain rules, e.g. deletion under identity, as shown in (21) and (22) (examples from Zwicky, 1977:5, glossing by me):

(21) a Je connais Jean et je crains Jean.  
 I know Jean and I fear Jean  
 “I know John and I fear John.”

b Je connais et crains Jean.  
 I know and fear Jean  
 “I know and fear John.”

But:

(22) a Je le connais and je le crains.  
 I him.OCL know and I him.OCL fear  
 “I know him and I fear him.”

b \*Je le connais et crains.  
 I him.OCL know and fear

In this example, it is possible to delete the full object NP *Jean* once in the sentence (21), but it is not possible to delete the clitic object pronoun (22).

Zwicky (1977) also discusses a third class of clitics, which he calls bound words: Those are morphemes that bear no accent and have to be bound to another word, but there is much freedom regarding the word they attach to. While phonological attachment happens with a single word, semantic association is done with an entire constituent. One example for such bound words is the Latin conjunction *-que* ‘and’, which suffixes to the first word of the second constituent linked by the conjunction. The defining criterion is that the wide range of categories it can attach to.

Bound words are the point where the clitic typology gets complicated: As we have seen, Zwicky (1977) contrasts simple and special *clitics* with *bound words*. In this system, bound words are similar to clitics, but do not have clitic status. Seventeen years later, Zwicky (1994) describes the term *clitic* as an umbrella term that includes at least bound words and phrasal affixes. Generally, clitics, in this typology, are phenomena that are marked in certain components of grammar. Zwicky includes elements that are just marked in the lexicon, morphology, syntax, or phonology, and items with special properties in syntax and morphology. Bound words are called



“clitics *par excellence*” in Zwicky (1994:xix). As an example, he uses clitic elements in Tagalog which occupy the second position in a sentence. He notes that bound words have some freedom in ordering, but might have ordering conditions that differ from orders found in inflectional affixes. What Zwicky (1994) describes as bound words, resembles his bound words in Zwicky (1977), but also his special clitics. In fact, when talking about the cliticization process in Zwicky (1977), he patterns special clitics and bound words together. Generally, the distinction between bound words and special clitics is not very clear. Zwicky’s (1994) second type of cliticization are phrasal affixes: Their behaviour is similar to inflectional features, but they “located in an extra, outer layer of inflection of morphology” (ibid.:xix). As an example, he gives the English possessive marker ‘s; one of the examples given for bound words in Zwicky (1977).

Before I try to resolve this confusion, I would like to make things even more complex by including another theory: Klavans (1985:118) claims that “cliticization is actually phrasal affixation”, because she has found in her research that clitics mostly cliticize to phrasal nodes. Romance verbal clitics prove to be an exception because they seem to attach to V rather than V’. This should not pose a major problem to her theory, however, as Zwicky (1994) mentions a second analysis by Miller (1991) which also classifies Romance pronominal clitics as inflectional affixes. Most probably, the English negational marker *n’t* is an inflectional affix too (see Zwicky & Pullum, 1983).

I will now systematically compare the clitic theories and try to find a suitable theory to use in the course in this thesis: This theory will abolish the divide between clitics and affixes, and will make syntactic agreement processes responsible for the displacement of clitics. At first, I list the properties that are generally accepted for clitics in section 3.1. Then, I discuss the differences between clitic theories and argue for a suitable theory within the framework of Distributed Morphology (DM) in section 3.2. Section 3.3 provides a summary of my clitic theory. In section 3.4, I discuss if it is preferable to use the term *affixed pronouns*, rather than *clitic pronouns* and explain the terminology that will be used in the rest of the thesis.

### 3.1 What we know for sure

Bonet (2019) says that “clitics can be described as prosodically defective function words”. This includes two properties that are generally accepted as being inherent to clitics:

- Clitics are prosodically defective.
- Clitics are function words.

A third property that is important for the discussion of clitics is that they attach to a host: Haspelmath (2015:277) notes that they are “phonologically dependent”. Klavans (1985) makes a distinction between a syntactic and a phonological host. There is thus disagreement on the nature of the host and how the attachment works, but clitics are always described as dependent items.

- Clitics are dependent on a host.

Now what do these three properties really mean? I will discuss this question for each property below.

### 3.1.1 Clitics are prosodically defective

Being prosodically defective means two things, which are (i) differing from a corresponding stronger form by missing phonemes or using reduced vowels like [ə] and (ii) bearing no stress or accent.

As for pronouns and clitics, multiple different theories on accent and stress exist in the phonological literature. As the main focus of this thesis is not on prosodic theories, I will simply choose the terminology as defined by Szigetvári (to appear) instead of evaluating and merging multiple theories. His terminology is as follows: Stress comes from the lexicon, and every word must have at least one stressed vowel. Accent, on the other hand, is contextually determined by syntax and pragmatics, and cannot be marked in the lexicon. In most cases, accent falls on stressed vowels, but exceptions are possible. Similarly, stress usually falls on vowels, but stressed consonants are possible. Clitics are elements that do not have stress:

“Every word must contain at least one stressed vowel, if a word lacks stress altogether, it is not a word in the phonological sense, but a clitic.” (Szigetvári, to appear:4)

Having no stress is linked to a reduced vowel inventory: Szigetvári (to appear:7) notes for British English that vowels in unstressed positions are a subset of those which can occur in stressed positions:

|         | <i>front</i> | <i>central</i> | <i>back</i> |                         |
|---------|--------------|----------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| nonlow  | i            | ə <sup>2</sup> | u           | stressed and unstressed |
| nonhigh | e            | a              | o           | only stressed           |

*Table 4 British English stressed and unstressed vowels (Szigetvári, to appear:7)*

“Anomalously accented clitics”, i.e., clitics bearing stress, as noted in Zwicky (1977:14), do not pose a problem to this theory. Enclitic pronouns can receive stress after a verb when following another clitic. As this happens with verbs with prosodic prominence on the antepenultimate syllable, this is not a segmental phenomenon, like stress, but a rhythmic case and therefore accent. “Accent is contextually determined” (Szigetvári, to appear:4), thus accented clitics do not pose a problem to clitics being inherently unstressed. Their rare appearance additionally coincides with the rare appearance of accented, but unstressed segments (cf. Szigetvári, to appear:3).

Looking at the pronominal structures discussed in chapter 2, we see that there is a  $\Sigma P$ , which is the structural node reserved for phonological properties of the pronoun. Cardinaletti and Starke (1999:88) propose “that all prosody related features of  $L^\circ$  are realised in  $\Sigma^\circ$ ”. I would like to make this claim more precise and claim that it is specifically (at least) stress that is encoded in the  $\Sigma P$ . An absence of this  $\Sigma P$  then means an absence of stress and thus prosodic dependence on another morpheme, which leads to cliticization.

In the course of my thesis, I will follow Szigetvári’s terminology and formulate the first universally accepted property of clitics below:

- (23) Clitics are prosodically defective, meaning they do not bear lexically inherent stress. Structure-wise, this can be shown by the absence of the  $\Sigma P$ . This property leads to a reduced phonological inventory, as well as phonological dependency to linearly adjacent morphemes.

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<sup>2</sup> The British English variety discussed by Szigetvári (to appear) allows for schwa in stressed positions: His examples are *strut* and *nurse*.

### 3.1.2 Clitics are function words

Cliticization is a phenomenon that exists in numerous languages. Zwicky (1977:1) assumes that it takes place in “[m]ost languages – very possibly, all except those of the most rigidly isolating type”.

Although it is nearly impossible to make an assumption about every known language, I claim that clitics always belong to closed grammatical categories and are functional, rather than lexical morphemes. Bonet (2019) includes this in her “definition”, and Zwicky (1994) gives a list of different phenomena under the clitic umbrella that all belong to closed categories. Furthermore, I have only found morphemes named clitics so far that are functional morphemes. Muysken (2008:16) lists three main functions of functional categories:

- Locating the utterance in the context of utterance (indexicals or shifters)
- Connecting and organising parts of the information (connectives or linkers)
- Structuring the clause (structurers or projectors)

This classification means that a copula verb serves as a functional morpheme if it is used as an auxiliary (fulfilling the function as shifter and projector), but not if it is used as a full verb. Pronouns, which are the focus of this thesis, depend on context and therefore are classified as shifters.

Some examples of clitics in different languages are shown in Table 5. Note that this table does not list all clitics of the language, but only some well-described examples.

| <i>Language</i>   | <i>Clitic</i>                        | <i>Function</i>                             | <i>Described by</i>    |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Ingush            | ?a                                   | conjunction, focus, emphasis, subordination | Peterson (2001)        |
| German (Bavarian) | e, a, s, ma, me, de, (a)n, (a)s, ... | personal pronouns                           | Weiß (1998)            |
| Nganhcara         | ngu                                  | pronoun                                     | Klavans (1985)         |
| Kwakwala          | xa                                   | object                                      | Klavans (1985)         |
| Kwakwala          | sa                                   | oblique                                     | Klavans (1985)         |
| English           | n’t                                  | negation                                    | Zwicky & Pullum (1983) |
| Koromfe           | m(ɛ), n(ɛ), d(ɪ), ...                | pronouns                                    | Rennison (1997)        |
| Koromfe           | ba                                   | particle                                    | Rennison (1997)        |

*Table 5 Clitics and their functions in different languages (Schwingsandl, 2019)*

There are multiple possible reasons for the restriction on cliticization to functional categories. Firstly, the phonological shape of clitics is not always predictable. While cliticization is sometimes based on synchronic phonological reduction processes, there are various clitics where a phonological rule does not suffice to derive clitic versions of full forms: Take French object pronouns as an example:

|              | <i>Full form</i> | <i>phonetic transcription</i> | <i>Clitic form</i> | <i>phonetic transcription</i> |
|--------------|------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. P. Sg.    | moi              | [mwa]                         | me                 | [mə]                          |
| 2. P. Sg.    | toi              | [twa]                         | te                 | [tə]                          |
| 3. P. Sg. m. | lui              | [lqi]                         | le                 | [lə]                          |
| 3. P. Sg. f. | elle             | [ɛl]                          | la                 | [la]                          |
| 1. P. Pl.    | nous             | [nu]                          | nous               | [nu]                          |
| 2. P. Pl.    | vous             | [vu]                          | vous               | [vu]                          |
| 3. P. Pl. m. | eux              | [ø]                           | les                | [le] or [lɛ]                  |
| 3. P. Pl. f. | elles            | [ɛl]                          | les                | [le] or [lɛ]                  |

*Table 6 French object pronouns (phonetic transcriptions from <https://fr.wiktionary.org>)*

As we can see, it is possible to derive some of the clitic forms by rules: This is especially possible for first and second person singular. Serious problems arise with the third person singular pronoun of feminine genus, as well as with the third person plural pronoun for masculine genus. It is also remarkable that the first and second person plural pronouns do not change their phonological shape at all, although they have similar phonological complexity to other pronouns. We will see that this is also the case with some Bavarian pronominal forms in chapter 5. This shows that rules for cliticization can be idiosyncratic and lead to unpredictable allomorphy. This allomorphy, depending on the morphological theory applied, can be solved by more complex phonological rules or might just be saved as different Vocabulary Items in the mental lexicon. In every scenario, however, there is an idiosyncratic factor that needs to be recognized. This is a task that can be done for a small group of morphemes, like members of a closed grammatical category. It would need many more idiosyncrasies in order to have the possibility to cliticize items which belong to open categories. As clitic forms are not predictable, there would be a need for cliticization principles for every lexical item that is cliticized. Additionally, a productive cliticization strategy for new lexemes (loan words, neologisms, etc.) would be necessary.

Another reason for the restriction of cliticization to closed category morphemes, which is partially linked to the previous discussion, might be frequency: Idiosyncrasy is more prominent in frequent items, e.g. copulae. Cliticization is found in closed

category items, which occur very frequently in speech. Therefore, a correlation can be assumed between cliticization and (frequently occurring) closed category morphemes.

Lastly, closed category items rarely occur in isolated positions; their function often is to put items from an open category into relation. They do not contain any lexical semantics and need context in order to become interpretable. For example, a copula can be used to express identity. Only in special occasions, it can occur isolated in a short answer; in that case, *verum focus* is necessary. A subject is still necessary, but can be a semantically vacuous expletive:

- (24) Is it raining?  
a It is.  
b \*Is.

Even if the grammatically encoded function of a closed category item is under question (e.g. tense in a copula), it is not possible to use that item isolated in an answer:

- (25) Has Nova already been to the vet or will she be going?  
a She has already been.  
b ??Has already been.

Pronouns can do that more easily, but have a different manner of not being isolated: They need to be at least discourse-bound (also cf. Büring, 2011).

- (26) (*Policewoman enters a restaurant*)  
Who is in charge of this place?  
a Him. (*points at individuum*)  
b #Him. (*no ostensive signals*)

Lexical items belonging to open categories can occur in isolation more frequently.

- (27) Do you prefer to go swimming or skiing?  
Swimming.

The second universally accepted property of clitics therefore is:

(28) Only functional morphemes can cliticize.

### 3.1.3 Clitics depend on a host

This criterion is a consequence of the two previous criteria: Being prosodically defective has been defined as having no stress and thus needing to attach to an adjacent morpheme: This morpheme is the host. Additionally, not occurring in isolation is another hint that there is a dependency. In fact, there are two types of hosts, as noted by Klavans (1985): There is (i) a syntactic host, which is the constituent on which the clitic is structurally dependent and (ii) a phonological host, with linear dependency of the clitic.

Previous accounts have assumed that there is one host, and this host is responsible for both syntactic and phonological clitic attachment. Zwicky (1977) does not differentiate between phonological and syntactic attachment; however, the criteria for *second position* clitics can differ: In Warlpiri, second position clitics appear after the first constituent (syntactic criterion), Serbo-Croatian can target the position following the first word or the first constituent (morphological or syntactic criterion), in Tagalog, the first nonclitic word is targeted (morphological criterion), and Pashto puts second position clitics after the stressed vowel of a verb or after the first stressed constituent (mainly phonological criterion). If a *word* is defined purely phonologically, i.e., as a unit that bears at least one stressed segment, the morphological criteria also become phonological. Independent from whether words are recognized as a morphological unit or not, the criteria for *second position* clitics apply in different domains.

Klavans (1985) argues for a separation of syntactic and phonological host and gives three parameters for clitic attachment:

(29) Parameters of clitic attachment (Klavans, 1985:97-98)

- Parameter 1 (Dominance): INITIAL/FINAL
- Parameter 2 (Precedence): BEFORE/AFTER
- Parameter 3 (Phonological liaison): PROCLITIC/ENCLITIC

Parameters 1 and 2 are structural: Dominance determines whether the first or last constituent of the domain of cliticization is targeted; Precedence determines if the

clitic syntactically attaches before or after that constituent. Parameter 3 is linear and determines whether the clitic picks its preceding or following morpheme as its phonological host. The attachment process is called *liaison*. In most cases, Parameters 2 and 3 show identical patterns: BEFORE patterns with PROCLITIC and AFTER patterns with ENCLITIC; these are the cases that have already previously been shown by Zwicky (1977) and others, and which would make Parameter 3 redundant. In some languages, however, there exist so-called “dual citizenship” clitics, which, for example, syntactically attach to the preceding element, but phonologically attach to the following element. This is the reason why Klavans differentiates between the syntactic *host phrase* and the phonological *host word*. A structural scheme is shown in Figure 2:

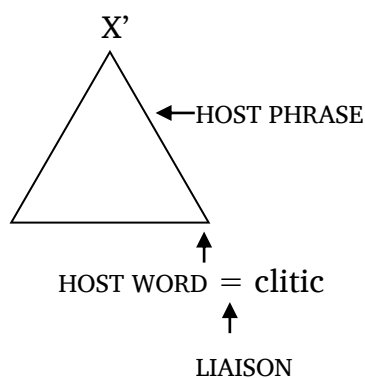


Figure 2 Syntactic and phonological cliticization hosts (Klavans, 1985:100)

Bonet (2019) points out that Parameter 1 actually encodes two parameters because it does not suffice to say which constituent of a domain is the host; additionally, the cliticization domain needs to be determined.

Klavans’ model predicts eight types of clitic/host relationships, and provides examples for each type:



|        | PARAMETER 1<br>INITIAL/FINAL | PARAMETER 2<br>BEFORE/AFTER | PARAMETER 3<br>PROCLITIC/ENCLITIC | EXAMPLE                    |
|--------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Type 1 | Initial<br>(under N')        | Before                      | Enclitic                          | Kwakwala NP markers        |
| Type 2 | Initial<br>(under N')        | Before                      | Proclitic                         | Greek article              |
| Type 3 | Initial<br>(under S)         | After                       | Enclitic                          | Ngiyambaa enclitics        |
| Type 4 | Initial<br>(under S)         | After                       | Proclitic                         | Tepecano = <i>an</i>       |
| Type 5 | Final<br>(under S)           | Before                      | Enclitic                          | Nganhcara clitics          |
| Type 6 | Final<br>(under S)           | Before                      | Proclitic                         | Sanskrit pre-verbs         |
| Type 7 | Final<br>(under V[-T])       | After                       | Enclitic                          | Spanish pronominal clitics |
| Type 8 | Final<br>(under S)           | After                       | Proclitic                         | Greek negative <i>ou</i> = |

*Table 7 Eight clitic types (Klavans, 1985:103)*

Not all of these examples have been undisputed: The existence of Type 5 clitics, for example, has been challenged. The Ingush clitic ?a might be a valid example for Type 5 (cf. Peterson, 2001). It has a wide range of uses; for examples, see Table 5 above.

The eight parameters exclude possibilities of endoclitisis or mesoclitisis, which are phenomena where clitics are infixes intra- or intermorphemically. Klavans (1985) argues that there is mesoclitisis, which is intermorphemic cliticization if the domain of cliticization is set right, but there cannot be any intramorphemic cliticization. Similarly, Smith (to appear) argues that clitics can never be placed inside a morpheme. However, they can appear like endoclititics if they need to “break the integrity of a morpheme to requirements external to the placement of the clitic” (ibid.:34).

The third universally accepted<sup>3</sup> property for clitics can thus be formulated as follows:

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<sup>3</sup> The need of a host for clitics is not entirely undisputed in clitic literature: Van Riemsdijk (1999) talks about “hostless clitics” (HLCs), which do not have an overt host. Van Riemsdijk states that they

- (30) Clitics need to attach to a host. This attachment happens in the phonological domain, as well as in the syntactic domain, where only certain constituent types (e.g., C) can serve as a host. The domains do not influence each other, although there is a strong tendency towards attachment in the same direction in both domains. Syntactic attachment can happen in different syntactic domains: Clitics can attach to both phrases and heads.

### 3.2 Uncertainties and disagreement

This section deals with the multiple problems and open questions that the concept *clitic* gives us. In order to clarify the status of certain particles, Zwicky (1985) develops criteria and tests in order to distinguish clitics from words. Morphological frameworks like Distributed Morphology (DM; Halle & Marantz, 1993, Marantz, 1997 among others) do not acknowledge the existence of words as a grammatical unit; they are purely morpheme-based. Depending on the framework used, the following questions arise:

- What is the difference between a clitic and a word?
- Are there sensible criteria for clitics vs. “words” in morpheme-based frameworks like DM?

The lexicalist tradition assumes that clitics have some word-like properties and some properties of affixes; therefore, they are a separate type of morpheme and need to be distinguished from affixes. Tests for clitics and affixes have been developed by Zwicky and Pullum (1983). In DM, this distinction could become obsolete, as clitics and affixes are both functional morphemes that phonologically attach to an adjacent morpheme. Klavans’ (1985) arguments for syntactic *and* phonological attachment underpin this view by arguing that clitics are also influenced by syntax.

- How can we distinguish clitics from similar phenomena like affixation?
- Do we need a distinction of cliticization and affixation?

As I have discussed in the beginning of this chapter, the tripartition of *bound words*, *simple clitics* and *special clitics* is not as clear as thought. The partition of clitic types

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should either be analysed parallel to scrambling or with a covert host. Also, he questions “the legitimacy of the inclusion of HLCs in the category of clitics” (van Riemsdijk, 1999:21).

should be rethought in terms of the grammatical domains involved and their impact on cliticization.

- Which types of cliticization are there?

At least some type of clitics, like French personal pronouns, appear at positions different from their non-clitic counterparts. There are different positions in the literature which argue whether this movement is caused by syntax, phonology, or is already lexically determined. A factor which must be taken into account are scope effects like past participle agreement in Romance languages (cf. e.g. Kayne, 1989).

- Which mechanism causes the displacement of clitics?

The purpose of this section is to find answers to these questions and to develop a theory of clitics that can serve as a foundation for the analysis of the Bavarian pronoun system in this thesis.

### 3.2.1 Clitics and words

The line between clitics and words cannot be exactly drawn. Generally, it has been assumed that clitics are located “between” words and affixes, which means that they have properties of both (cf. Zwicky, 1985:286). The tests given in Zwicky (1985) should serve to distinguish clitics from words, but pose some problems. I will now give an overview of these tests.

A clitic + word combination is assumed to be processed as a single unit by phonology. Therefore, internal sandhi, rather than external sandhi rules should apply within such a group. Prosodic phonology applying to clitic + word combinations should target phonological words, rather than phonological phrases. Similarly, vowel harmony applying to phonological words should also target clitics.

Zwicky’s (1985) next set of tests are of accentual nature. He says that an element that has no accent is probably a clitic. As discussed above and also noted by Zwicky, this should only include word accent (*stress* in the sense of Szigetvári, to appear), as accent can still come from general rules, e.g. emphasis. As a second problem, Zwicky notes that there are also many independent words which have no phrasal accent. As examples, he gives “English prepositions, determiners, and auxiliary verbs of English” (Zwicky, 1985:287). These elements should, however, have stress.

Another problematic test uses the criterion that clitics combine with stems or full words, while words combine with words or phrases. An element combining with a phrase should thus be an independent word. Even if we take into account the division of phonological and syntactic properties of clitics by Klavans (1985), this criterion proves unreliable: From the phonological perspective, it becomes obsolete, as phonological attachment is always linear and can either happen to a preceding or to a following phonological unit, never to a phrase. Syntactically, we need to take a look at English possessive 's: Zwicky (1994:xiii) notes that such a marker “combines with an entire NP, though it is phonologically dependent on the last word of this NP, as in *your friend from Chicago's arrival*”. Many more examples can be given for the phrasal attachment of possessive 's. Such elements are considered a clitic subtype called “phrasal affixes” by Zwicky (1994). Similarly, Klavans (1985:118) proposes that “cliticization is actually phrasal affixation”. Therefore, the test stating that clitics do not attach to phrases, is obsolete from a phonological point of view and empirically wrong from a syntactic stance.

(31) a Dos tu to! (Modern Greek)  
give-2.SG 3.M.GEN.IO 3.N.ACC.DO  
b Dos to tu!  
give-2.SG 3.N.ACC.DO 3.M.GEN.IO  
'Give it to him!'

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- (32) a Mama mu ga je opisala. (Slovenian)  
 Mom 3.M.DAT.IO 3.M.ACC.DO is described.F  
 b Mama ga mu je opisala.  
 Mom 3.M.ACC.DO 3.M.DAT.IO is described.F  
 ‘Mom described him to him.’

Both examples show the same pattern: A direct and an indirect object pronoun, both of which are clitics, according to the informants, can be rearranged without meaning differences. There is thus freedom in ordering with clitic pronouns.

A further criterion for clitics is that they have “distributions that can be described in a single principle” (Zwicky, 1985:288). These principles, however, seem to be able to apply to many different domains. Zwicky’s examples for such criteria are (ibid.):

- combines with the head verb of a clause (category-sensitive, structure-sensitive)
- combines with the first constituent of a clause (structure-sensitive)
- combines with the first word of a clause (phonology-sensitive<sup>5</sup>)
- combines with an NP (category-sensitive)

Though these distributions have indeed been described by “single principles”, they apply to so many domains that it becomes an unreliable criterion. Elements with a “simple distribution”, Zwicky argues, are either clitics or affixes; “complex distribution” hints an independent word. In fact, a clitic’s distribution can be determined by Klavans’ (1985) three parameters plus the domain under which the cliticization happens, so at least the same criteria can be used every time. Words can have “single principle” distribution as well; for example, take complementizers: Those always appear as the first constituent in a subordinate clause, in C°. However, they are clearly phonologically independent and can even be hosts for clitics or affixes, as in Complementizer Agreement (cf. Gruber, 2008 and Weiß, 1998 for Complementizer Agreement in Bavarian variants).

Additionally, Zwicky (1985) states that clitics are not morphologically complex. This claim seems to hold. However, clitics can be portmanteau morphemes; for example,

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<sup>5</sup> This applies if *words* are treated as a phonologically defined concept.

pronominal clitics contain multiple  $\varphi$ -features, as person, number, grammatical gender.

From a syntactic point of view, Zwicky argues that the difference between clitics and words is that words can be syntactic constituents, while clitics cannot. The classic tests for constituency should therefore not be able to target a clitic alone; instead, it should undergo the same process as its host word. This applies to deletion, replacement, and movement.

Additionally, clitics groups should never be able to be targeted by syntactic rules, as cliticization only applies after syntax in Zwicky's theory. The issue whether cliticization happens before, after, or during syntax will be discussed in section 3.2.5.

### 3.2.2 Status of clitics in Distributed Morphology

The criteria above can only apply if the concept *word* is available in a framework. In Distributed Morphology (DM; cf. Marantz, 1997), words are not considered lexical items: Instead, lexical roots and functional morphemes are drawn from the lexicon (List 1) and are being merged by the syntax. After all syntactic mechanisms (Merge, Agree, and sometimes Move) have been carried out, the derivation is sent to Spell Out, where phonological content from List 2 (Vocabulary Items) is inserted. This principle is called Late Insertion, as the phonological content is only available after syntactic processes have been executed. The notion of a *word* is not available in this framework; instead, morphemes are matched with their phonological correspondences. This means that the phonological form of a clitic can only be determined after all syntactic processes have been executed.

The Vocabulary Item that is inserted can only depend on the root and the syntactic context of the morpheme. Clitics can differ from their full form in both position and phonological form. As shown with French pronominals above, the phonological form of clitics cannot always be deducted by a single phonological rule. This serves as a clue that these clitics are indeed allomorphs of their full counterpart and need their own Vocabulary Item, instead of being phonologically modified after insertion. Therefore, they need to be in a syntactic context which triggers insertion of the clitic Vocabulary Item rather than the full one. Even if a clitic + host combination was subject to fusion, this fusion process would have to be triggered in the syntax, leading to

the insertion of a Vocabulary Item for a fused node instead of two separate adjacent nodes.

The syntactic derivation and phonological insertion are processed in phases (Chomsky, 2001); this means that certain parts of sentences are processed before others and their internal structure is untargetable for parts of later phases. I will assume that a morpheme that is realized as its clitic allomorph will only be able to cliticize to a morpheme that is merged within the same phase. This explains why only internal sandhi rules can apply between clitics and their hosts. Phases can also be used to explain examples from Zwicky (1977:11) like (33):

- (33) a Herman is the man I want to vanish  
b \*Herman is the man I wanna vanish

In this case, [to vanish] constitutes a phase that is merged and phonologically inserted before [I want]; therefore, *to* cannot cliticize to *want*.

In conclusion, cliticization in DM needs to be expressed as allomorphy; most probably, this allomorphy is syntactically conditioned. The clitic allomorphs lack stress. Phase boundaries in the syntactic derivation block cliticization.

### 3.2.3 Clitics and affixes

In section 3.2.1, I have discussed the criteria that have been set up to distinguish clitics from words. This section deals with the differences between clitics and affixes. The general assumption, which I have mentioned above, is that clitics are a class in between words and affixes, i.e., they share properties with affixes, but also with words. Zwicky (1977) gives criteria to determine whether something is an affix. The criteria given in Zwicky (1977) for determining whether or not something is an affix are problematic, as shown in van Riemsdijk (1999:8-12), who gives counterexamples to some of the criteria and concludes: “Either we accept the criteria proposed by Zwicky and conclude that some clitics are affixal in nature and some are syntactically independent morphemes, or we reject the notion that Zwicky’s criteria determine the status of clitics, either individually or collectively.”

In order to distinguish clitics from words, Zwicky (1985) has used the similarities between clitics and affixes as tests; in Zwicky and Pullum (1983), tests have been developed in order to be able to distinguish those as well.

The general idea expressed by Zwicky and Pullum (1983) is that affixes are in a closer relationship to their stems than clitics to their hosts. Based on this idea, they set up four morphological and two syntactic criteria which should serve to distinguish clitics from affixes.

Zwicky and Pullum argue that clitics do not have strong restrictions on the selection of their hosts, while affixes only attach to certain stems (= Criterion A). This stance is difficult to defend: The morphemes considered as clitics might have larger domains of cliticization than affixes, as encoded in Klavans' (1985) parameter 1, but are still restricted to certain positions in a sentence. Naturally, if they (syntactically) attach to the last element in the domain of S, i.e. the whole sentence, this gives them many possible categories to (phonologically) attach to. Elements considered as affixes, on the other hand, might just have smaller cliticization domains. Therefore, inflectional affixes always attach to verbs if their domain of attachment is the verbal domain.

Affixes are assumed to have more arbitrary gaps in combinations with their stems than clitics with their host (= Criterion B). As an example for arbitrary gaps in inflectional affixes, Zwicky and Pullum (1983:505) name the lack of a past participle for the English verb *stride*. For clitics, they state, there are “[a] number of GENERAL conditions on these combinations (involving syntactic structure, phonological properties of the host, category of the host, and sentence stress)” (ibid.). Assuming that affixes attach within a smaller domain than clitics, it is unsurprising to find more arbitrary gaps than general rules for smaller domains of attachment: A general rule can exclude a category as a host in a large domain of cliticization, but if the domain of cliticization is within a category (e.g., the verbal domain), such a general rule is not possible, making the gaps arbitrary. Similarly, phonological properties of the host seem more arbitrary if there are not as many possible hosts as in a larger cliticization domain.

Criterion C is of very similar nature: Zwicky and Pullum argue that morphophonological idiosyncrasies do not occur in clitic groups, but affixation can cause idiosyncrasies quite often. The domain of cliticization can also serve as an explanation for



this phenomenon: Therefore, we need to take a look at phases again: DM assumes that each lexical category morpheme consists of an acategorical root which is then merged with a categorizer (cf. Harley, 2014). This categorizer is an own constituent which can be *v* for verbs, *n* for nouns, *a* for adjectives, etc. Most importantly, these categorizers are phase-heads; i.e., after them being merged, phonological and semantic content is inserted, and the internal structure is made inaccessible for any other element that merges with this morpheme later on. Subsequently, clitics which attach outside this categorizer cannot trigger idiosyncratic allomorphy. Morphemes merged within this phase (affixes), however, can trigger the insertion of different Vocabulary Items and have much more power to create idiosyncrasies.<sup>6</sup>

Zwicky and Pullum's last morphological criterion (Criterion D) is that affixation can trigger semantic idiosyncrasies, while cliticization cannot. As an example, they give English superlatives like *last* or *most*, which have idiosyncratic meaning. Once again, we can look at the domain of affixation: Superlative affixes can be lowered into the adjectival phrase by Morphological Merger (cf. Bobaljik, 2012) and can trigger allomorphy. Similarly, semantic idiosyncrasies are also possible with superlatives, as their phonological and semantic content is inserted together (i.e. within the same phase). A clitic like possessive *'s* or *'ve* (Zwicky & Pullum's, 1983, examples) cannot possibly trigger semantic idiosyncrasies (nor allomorphy), as those are merged within a larger domain and cannot access the root meaning due to phase boundaries.

The syntactic criteria from Zwicky and Pullum (1983) can be explained in a very similar way: Criterion E states that syntactic operations can treat inflected words with affixes, but not words in combinations with clitics. This is in conflict with Zwicky (1985), where he gives criteria for wordhood that consist of syntactic processes not being able to target parts of [word + clitic] combinations. Parallel to the preceding criteria, I will also explain this criterion by using different domains of affixation: Inflectional affixes cannot be targeted by phrasal movement, as they have been merged within the minimal phrases of a sentence (which are also phases due to categorizers). Contrarily, affixes which are merged later can undergo syntactic processes independent from their hosts, or at least their hosts can undergo independent

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<sup>6</sup> A similar case occurs with semantic idiosyncrasies in Modern Hebrew and other Semitic languages: after merging roots with a categorizer, the variety of semantic content of the root cannot be accessed anymore by derivation morphemes. See Arad (2003) for a discussion in detail.

syntactic processes, as they are a phrase that can be targeted by such processes. The last criterion – clitics can attach to clitics, but affixes cannot attach to affixes – is resulting from the same structural conditions; only category-specific inflectional affixes can merge with the root; not every functional morpheme is allowed.

In conclusion, Zwicky and Pullum (1983) do not describe criteria which can be used to differentiate two distinct phenomena; instead, they describe criteria which can be used to determine whether the domain of affixation is within a minimal phrase (= "affixes") or if the affixation is to a phrase (= "clitics"). I therefore adopt Klavans' (1985:118) opinion: "I suggest that cliticization is phrasal affixation [...]."

### 3.2.4 Phonological and syntactic cliticization

In overviews about cliticization, there is often differentiation between multiple clitic types: For example, Zwicky (1977) differentiates "simple clitics", "special clitics" and "bound words", Zwicky (1994) compares "bound words" and "phrasal affixes", Bonet (2019) talks about "simple clitics" (or "phonological clitics") and "special clitics". Like with different pronoun theories in chapter 2, I will compare terminology from different authors and establish a unified terminology for different types which I will use in this thesis. The equivalents will be set like shown in Table 8:

|                | <i>Phonological clitics</i> | <i>Syntactic clitics</i> | <i>Bound words</i> |
|----------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|
| Zwicky (1977)  | Simple clitics              | Special clitics          | Bound words        |
| Zwicky (1994)  |                             | Phrasal affixes          | Bound words        |
| Bonet (2019)   | Simple clitics              | Special clitics          |                    |
| Klavans (1985) |                             | Phrasal affixes          |                    |

*Table 8 Equivalents of clitic types in clitic literature*

Zwicky's (1977) simple clitics are clitics which are unaccented versions of their full forms. When in their clitic form, they stay in the same place as their full form; their syntactic behaviour is equal to that of the full form (cf. Bonet, 2019:6). Bonet mentions the term "phonological clitic", which has been set up by Anderson (2005) and represents the peculiarity of this clitic type: The cliticization process happens fully phonologically; there is no other domain involved. As a result, this type of clitic can only become a clitic after insertion; it would be favourable to have synchronous phonological rules ("rules of reduction and deletion", Zwicky, 1977:11), so this clitic type can be described as post-insertional phonological weakening.

Examples for phonological clitics are English auxiliaries and modal verbs, like Bonet's (2019:6) example:

- (34) a I will go to the party.  
b I'll go to the party.

It is important to note at this point that not everything that looks like phonological cliticization upon the first gaze necessarily is phonological cliticization; it can also be syntactically triggered allomorphy, which might not cause overtly visible movement, and look like simple phonological reduction. A prominent example for this is the reduced negational marker *n't* in English, which Zwicky and Pullum (1983) show to behave like an inflectional affix, rather than just a reduced form of *not*.

Additionally, there are restrictions on where phonological cliticization is possible and where it cannot happen: Zwicky (1977:11) points out a phonological restriction, which is illustrated by the following examples, which are replicated here in (35)<sup>7</sup>:

- (35) a The party is in room 16.  
The party's in room 16.  
  
b I wonder where the party is.  
\*I wonder where the party's.

Zwicky (ibid.) states that these examples argue in favour of a "cliticize unstressed words" analysis, rather than a "destress cliticized words" one. The cliticized element needs to precede another element within the same domain, e.g., a complement, otherwise, cannot cliticize, like in (35b). An adjunct does not enable cliticization either because it is not within the same domain. This is illustrated in (36)<sup>8</sup>:

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<sup>7</sup> The examples have been orthographically and stylistically adapted.

<sup>8</sup> Thank you to my supervisor Susanne Wurmbrand for pointing this out and providing me with the examples and grammaticality judgements.

- (36) a This year's a leap year.  
 b \*I wonder what this year's.  
 c I wonder why this year's a leap year.  
 d \*I wonder what this year's in China.

Phonological cliticization is thus restricted to non-final positions within a domain; syntactic cliticization, or “special clitics”, have restrictions, some of which are linked to domains as well. They are allomorphs of corresponding full forms, but sometimes, there is no non-clitic version of some of their clitics (cf. Zwicky, 1977). Bonet (2019) notes that these are the clitics that have designated positions in a clause or phrase, and these positions can differ from the position of the full form. As an example, she gives Spanish pronominal object clitics, which appear before the verb, even though the object they replace would appear after the verb (example from Bonet, 2019:7-8):

- (37) a Vi                    las                    películas  
           see.1SG.PST    the.F.PL            movie.F.PL  
           ‘I saw the movies.’  
  
 b Las                    vi  
           3PL.F.ACC      see.1SG.PST  
           ‘I saw them.’

Two things have happened here: (i) The pronoun has changed place and (ii) the pronoun has been phonologically reduced – instead of *ellas*, it is realized as *las*. Now, there is the question of the order of these processes: Is the movement triggered by the phonological reduction or is the phonological reduction triggered by movement? Distributed Morphology as well as Minimalism provide a simple answer: At first, all syntactic processes (Merge and Agree) are carried out. Agree can cause displacement of a morpheme. Only after syntax, phonological content is inserted. The shape of this phonological content (i.e., the chosen Vocabulary Item) is determined by the morpheme itself (√dog gets the Vocabulary item /dɔg/ and not /kæt/), but also by its structural surroundings. The Spanish object pronoun (or at least the part of its struc-

In conclusion, Agree causes the  $\varphi$ P to move to a different position (pre-verbal in the Spanish example). After all syntactic processes have been carried out, the  $\varphi$ P is inserted with its corresponding Vocabulary Item. In this case, the  $\varphi$ P is not embedded in a  $\Sigma$ P, out of which it has been moved. This causes a different Vocabulary Item to be chosen. In a scheme based on Harley (2014), the instructions for the phonological form would look like this:

$\sqrt{x} \Leftrightarrow /'ejas/$  //  $[[\Sigma P] \text{ } \_\_\_\_ \sqrt{\quad}]$

$\sqrt{x} \Leftrightarrow /las/$  // elsewhere

The position and syntactic attachment of such a syntactic clitic thus depends on an uninterpretable EPP feature which attracts the  $\varphi$ P of its full form. This is another reason why only functional morphemes are subject to cliticization; lexical items do not have inherent  $\varphi$ -features, but only get them by affixed flexion morphemes. These morphemes check uninterpretable features, just like syntactic clitics. Clitic object pronouns can thus be compared to object marking on the verb in some languages<sup>10</sup>. So indeed, this type of clitic works just like affixation, but, as Klavans (1985) notes, at a phrasal level. The divide between a syntactic clitic and an affix is entirely based on the domain of attachment.

Now there is a third clitic type left, the so-called bound word. This type of clitic might prove difficult to integrate into the system. In fact, this term has mostly been used by Zwicky, and describes that “[c]ases where a morpheme that is always bound and always unaccented show considerable syntactic freedom, in the sense that they

<sup>10</sup> An example for a language where the verb agrees with the object is Zbu Rgyalrong: Its transitive verb paradigm depends on both the agent and the patient. See Gong (2014) for details.

can be associated with words of a variety of morphosyntactic categories” (Zwicky, 1977:6). The peculiarity about bound words, compared to other clitic types, is that they semantically represent a whole constituent, but are phonologically attached to one word. Zwicky’s examples include the Latin connector *-que* ‘and’, and the English possessive ‘s. Zwicky (1994) notes their special syntax: They are restricted to certain positions, like the Wackernagel position. Possessive ‘s, however, is classified as a phrasal affix there. This seems to be the more sensible variant of classification, as it adds a possessive feature (or genitive case) to a whole phrase. Bound words can be classified as whole constituents, rather than heads, that syntactically behave just like any other constituent, but lack inherent stress, causing them to phonologically attach to a neighbouring unit. In Klavans’ (1985) system, they would only need to have a value for Parameter 3 (phonological liaison) and would not need a domain of syntactic attachment, rendering Parameter 1 and 2 inapplicable.

### 3.2.5 Why can’t phonology just do the thing?

The last question that I want to discuss in this section is why we need syntactic processes to move clitics. At first glance, this might look a bit complicated: At first, syntax needs to move clitics to a different location, afterwards, phonology needs to insert a different Vocabulary Item. Could it not just all be done by post-syntactic processes? I claim that the answer to this question is probably no.

In French, there is past participle agreement, a phenomenon that only can apply with a clitic object pronoun, but not with a full object DP. This is the case because the clitic pronouns occupy a higher position in the sentence and stand in a c-command relation with the past participle, enabling them to trigger agreement on the past participle (cf. Kayne, 1989; Belletti, 2006; D’Alessandro & Roberts, 2008). If the pronouns were moved to their position only after all syntactic processes have happened, this effect would not be possible, as the agreement mechanism could not be triggered by a pronoun that is not in a c-command relationship with the past participle. This phenomenon is illustrated by the following example from Kayne (1989:25) (glosses and ungrammatical version are mine):

- (39) a Paul a repeint(\*es) les chaises.  
       Paul has repainted(\*.F.PL) the chairs.F.PL  
       “Paul has repainted the chairs.”
- b Paul les a repeintes.  
       Paul them.OBJCL.F.PL has repainted-F.PL  
       “Paul has repainted them.”

This example shows that agreement of the past participle is only possible if a pre-verbal object clitic (39a) is used instead of a full DP (39b). The data strongly suggest that movement and cliticization are indeed linked: The full DP cannot move to occupy the position occupied by the clitic pronoun in (39b), nor can it be replaced by the pronoun staying in situ. This means that either movement is triggered by cliticization or vice versa. In the Late Insertion approach pursued in this thesis, we need to assume that the syntactic movement triggers the insertion of a clitic allomorph, rather than the other way round.

According to Zeijlstra (2012), agreement is unidirectional. It needs a c-command relationship, where the goal is c-commanded by the probe, as shown in Zeijlstra’s (2012:514) definition of Agree shown in (40):

- (40) *Agree*:
- $\alpha$  can agree with  $\beta$  iff:
- a.  $\alpha$  carries at least one uninterpretable feature and  $\beta$  carries a matching interpretable feature.
  - b.  $\alpha$  c-commands  $\beta$ .
  - c.  $\beta$  is the closest goal to  $\alpha$ .

If we follow Zeijlstra’s view of agreement, a past participle can only agree with the object if it is c-commanded by the object: This is the case when the clitic pronoun is in place, occupying a higher position than the past participle. If this movement happens as a post-syntactic readjustment conditioned by phonology, this effect cannot be achieved, as Agree would not know that this movement is going to happen. If clitic placement was a phonological process, Agree would have to be post-syntactic. Due to the principle of Late Insertion and the two distinct positions for a full object

DP and an object clitic, I assume that clitic placement needs to be syntactic, rather than phonological. The insertion of the clitic is then carried out by phonology.

### **3.3 Summary**

The concept clitic is difficult to define: There is wide agreement that clitics are prosodically defective functional morphemes which attach to a host, but there is disagreement on numerous other factors. As I will adopt the framework of Distributed Morphology in my analysis, I will assume that clitics are allomorphs of their full form, lacking stress. This causes them to attach to a neighbouring morpheme either preceding or following them, independent from their syntactic position. Due to cyclic insertion of phonological content, cliticization is limited to happening within a phase: The attachment cannot happen across phase-boundaries.

The clitic's allomorphy can be phonologically conditioned (in Zwicky's terminology, "simple clitics"), i.e., productive phonological reduction processes cause its allomorphy and remove its stress, forcing it to attach to a neighbouring morpheme. The second possibility is syntactically conditioned allomorphy (Zwicky's "special clitics"): In this case, the syntactic environment causes the morpheme's reduced phonological form. This syntactic environment is often caused by movement through Agree. The morpheme is then attached to a phrase, and its lack of stress causes affixation. The domain of affixation is the only difference between a syntactic clitic and an affix: Therefore, Klavans (1985) identifies cliticization as affixation, but at a phrasal level. The third type of clitic discussed by Zwicky (1977, 1994) is called "bound word" and describes morphemes which always need to phonologically attach to a neighbouring morpheme, as they do not have a stress-bearing allomorph.

### **3.4 A terminological decision**

Having concluded that affixes and clitics are the same phenomenon on a different domain of attachment, it is time to decide which termini should be used in my analysis. As noted by Zwicky (1994), the term "clitic" is an umbrella term describing several similar phenomena, and additionally, the properties of "clitics" are widely disputed. "Affix", on the other hand, is a term describing phenomena of attachment to a morpheme that can be further specified, for example as in "inflectional affix". To avoid confusion, I will now explain how I use these terms, as I will use them to describe the same phenomenon.



As I have mentioned, the term “clitic” is problematic in many ways. However, it is also very commonly used with the type of pronouns discussed in section 2.3. Clitic pronouns, however, show behaviour that is very similar to inflectional affixes. Due to the thesis’ main research object being pronouns, I will henceforth talk about “affixed pronouns” as a synonym to clitic pronouns. As most of the literature uses the term “clitic pronouns” instead of “affixed pronouns”, it will not be possible to use only one term<sup>11</sup>. However, I would find it counter-intuitive to talk about “inflectional clitics” instead of “inflectional affixes”, so I prefer using the term “affix” instead of “clitic”.

Clitics whose allomorphy is phonologically conditioned will be called “clitics”, however, as they do not share properties with affixes, apart from not bearing stress. To avoid confusion, I will specify them as “phonological clitics”.

## 4 Data Collection

After clarifying the theoretical concepts *pronoun* and *clitic/affix*, the goal of this chapter is (i) to describe the methodology and the process of gathering dialectal data to have a full-blown table of the Bavarian pronoun system, including a clear division into the different types of pronouns, i.e. demonstratives, strong pronouns, weak pronouns and clitic/affixed pronouns, (ii) as well as discussing the acquired data which then can be used to verify or falsify my claims made in chapters 2 and 3. With the full pronominal paradigm, I can verify or falsify the following hypotheses:

- There are demonstrative, strong, weak and clitic forms of pronominals. The order *demonstrative* > *strong* > *weak* > *clitic* is the order from strongest to weakest paradigm.
- Phonologically stronger forms tend to appear in stronger paradigms, phonologically weaker forms tend to appear in weaker paradigms.
- Some of these forms can appear in more than one paradigm.
- Accent does not have an impact on which paradigm a form belongs to. This hypothesis is based on Cardinaletti and Starke (1999:56-60), who argue that neither prosodic nor semantic focus is restricted to or obligatory on strong

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<sup>11</sup> Haspelmath (2015) uses the term “affclitics” as “an intermediate between Affixes and Clitics” (ibid.:284). The term was coined to avoid Jukes’ (2006) term “affixal clitics”. I will refrain from using the term “affclitics” in this thesis.

pronouns. (Except for clitics, whose key feature is being prosodically defective.)

- Just like in Weiß (1998), the clitic paradigm may have arbitrary gaps. As I am regarding a different variety of Bavarian, the gaps might differ from those found by Weiß. Other paradigms might have gaps as well.

The hypotheses' verification or falsification will be discussed in section 6.1.

#### 4.1 Methodology

The data collection process has been carried out in interviews, based on a questionnaire which has multiple parts:

1. In my previous works, I have already tried to set up a table showing the Bavarian pronouns that can be found in accented and in unaccented contexts. From my intuitions, I had expected some forms which did not occur in the answers of the questioned individuals. In order to verify that these forms exist, this part consisted of a grammaticality judgement task of sentences that include these pronominal forms.
2. The criteria for different pronoun types based on the works of Cardinaletti and Starke (1999), Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) and Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) needed to be verified: I did this by giving the participants sentences which should be ungrammatical, as they combine properties of pronouns which should not be combinable, e.g. a bound demonstrative.
3. After verifying the missing pronominal forms and the criteria for the different pronoun types, I have applied those criteria to test whether certain pronominal forms belong to one or another category. This part consists of multiple sub-parts, each of which tests for a separate paradigm of pronominals: Demonstratives (3.1), Strong pronouns (3.2), Weak pronouns (3.3), and Clitic/affixed pronouns (3.4)

All test items were dialect sentences that I constructed as if they were authentic fragments of dialectal conversations. Some test items were short dialogues, which included a question and an answer to that question. After having those 120 sentences, some of which have multiple variants, written down, all of them, including the variants, were recorded by a male dialect speaker under my supervision, using a Zoom H4n Pro recorder as a microphone and Audacity as recording software. After

the recording session, I used Audacity to cut out each test item and store it in a separate .wav-file, resulting in 172 .wav-files.

Due to the high number of test items, I intended not to give every individual all of the sentences, as it might exceed their attention span or time capacities that they are willing to give for the survey. As part 1 and 2 are preliminaries for part 3, I classified those items of particular importance and included them in every group. Therefore, I created the following groups:

- Group 1: Part 1, 2, 3.1, 3.2
- Group 2: Part 1, 2, 3.3
- Group 3: Part 1, 2, 3.4

Parts 3.1 and 3.2 were put into one group because they contain approximately as many items in total as parts 3.3 or 3.4.

After creating the groups, I created six playlists with VLC media player, three containing the test items for each group and three containing the test items that were not dedicated for a group. Therefore, these playlists looked as follows:

- Gruppe\_1.xspf: Part 1, 2, 3.1, 3.2
- Gruppe\_1\_Zusatz.xspf: Part 3.3, 3.4
- Gruppe\_2.xspf: Part 1, 2, 3.3
- Gruppe\_2\_Zusatz.xspf: Part 3.1, 3.2, 3.4
- Gruppe\_3.xspf: Part 1, 2, 3.4
- Gruppe\_3\_Zusatz.xspf: Part 3.1, 3.2, 3.3

The playlists with the affix “Zusatz” were those containing the items that were not dedicated for that group. Their purpose was to have the option of giving the other groups’ test items to a participant after they had finished their dedicated group’s test items if they wanted to answer more questions.

The interviews were carried out in October 2021, with eight participants. Two participants, however, did the interview together, so their answers influenced each other, and their answers will be counted as one answer. As they have been a part of the same social surroundings for decades, I expect their grammars not to differ from each other to a large extent; so there were seven interviews in total. The participants’ age range was from 57 to 73 years. There were two male and six female par-

ticipants. All participants had their residence in the surroundings of Baden, Lower Austria for most of their lives and now live in different cadastral communities of Traiskirchen: Six of them in Tribuswinkel, one in Traiskirchen and one in Möllersdorf. One participant spent one year as a seasonal worker in the Caribbean and worked in Turkey for one season. Other than that, her residence has always been Tribuswinkel.

During the interviews, the test items were played to the participants from a laptop. The audio files in a playlist were ordered from shortest to longest to have a pseudo-randomized order, so not all variants of a test item are played consecutively. Unfortunately, the random order function of VLC media player does not take into account if an audio file has already been played, so using this function could cause some items to appear multiple times while others do not appear at all. For that reason, the method of ordering the files by length has been chosen. It bears the advantage that all participants belonging to the same group heard the items in the same order, making the interview conditions more comparable. Although the different variants of test items are very similar in length on paper, they were well distributed when ordered by length of audio file due to speech tempo and pauses at the start and the end of the audio files.

The participants were asked to judge whether they could imagine hearing the test items like on the recordings in public, e.g., at a restaurant, or if they would utter them themselves. For the test items that were ambiguous between binding and non-binding contexts, I asked about the sentence's meaning after receiving the grammaticality judgement. Some speakers made their grammaticality judgement dependent from binding in the first place. If a sentence was unclear or an interviewee could not acoustically understand it, I played the recording to them as often as requested by the participant. All participants except for one agreed to do the additional questions not meant for their group, so almost every participant gave a grammaticality judgement for every test item.

I will now give a detailed description of the parts of the questionnaire.

## **4.2 Verifying pronominal forms**

In my previous study in Schwingsandl (2018), I asked participants to fill in blanks in sentences where the use of a pronominal would be expected. In this task, I prompted

them the pronouns in the nominative, accusative and dative case for 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular and plural in an accented and in an unaccented environment. As there are more than two pronoun types to be found in the Lower Austrian variety of Bavarian (see chapter 2), not every possible pronominal form was mentioned during this study. From my dialect intuition, I expected some forms to occur that I included in the table, but which were not an outcome of the study. The pronominal system is shown below, with the results from the participants in bold letters and the forms from my intuition not in bold.

|             | <i>Nominative</i>           | <i>Accusative</i>              | <i>Dative</i>                    |
|-------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | <b>i</b>                    | <b>mi</b>                      | <b>mia</b>                       |
| 2. P. Sg.   | <b>du</b>                   | <b>di</b>                      | <b>dia</b>                       |
| 3. P. Sg. m | <b>dea, ea</b>              | den <sup>12</sup> , <b>eam</b> | <b>den, eam</b>                  |
| 3. P. Sg. f | <b>de, sie</b>              | <b>de, sie</b>                 | <b>dera, dea, ihr</b>            |
| 3. P. Sg. n | <b>des, es</b>              | des, <b>es</b>                 | <b>den, eam</b>                  |
| 1. P. Pl.   | <b>mia/wia</b>              | <b>uns</b>                     | <b>uns</b>                       |
| 2. P. Pl.   | <b>ees, ihr</b>             | <b>eich</b>                    | <b>eich</b>                      |
| 3. P. Pl.   | <b>de, se</b> <sup>12</sup> | <b>de, se</b>                  | <b>de (+ Prep.), denen, eana</b> |

*Table 9 Bavarian pronouns found in accented environment (Schwingsandl, 2018)*

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<sup>12</sup> These forms were missing in Schwingsandl (2018) and have been added here for the sake of completeness.

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i>          | <i>Dative</i>   |
|-------------|-------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | <b>i</b>          | <b>mi</b>                  | <b>ma, mia</b>  |
| 2. P. Sg.   | <b>Ø, du</b>      | <b>di</b>                  | <b>da, dia</b>  |
| 3. P. Sg. m | <b>ea, a</b>      | <b>eam, ‘(a)n</b>          | <b>eam</b>      |
| 3. P. Sg. f | <b>sie, s</b>     | <b>as/es</b>               | <b>ihr, dea</b> |
| 3. P. Sg. n | <b>es, s</b>      | <b>as/es, ‘s</b>           | <b>den, eam</b> |
| 1. P. Pl.   | <b>ma</b>         | <b>uns</b>                 | <b>uns</b>      |
| 2. P. Pl.   | <b>ees, Ø</b>     | <b>eich</b>                | <b>eich</b>     |
| 3. P. Pl.   | <b>de, se, ‘s</b> | <b>as, ‘s<sup>12</sup></b> | <b>eana</b>     |

*Table 10 Bavarian pronouns found in unaccented environment (Schwingsandl, 2018)*

The forms that needed to be checked are listed in Table 11. For each of these pronouns, I constructed a sentence or short dialogue including the pronoun in the right context. The participants were asked to rate whether these sentences are grammatical or not.

| <i>potential pronominal form</i> | <i>person</i>   | <i>number</i> | <i>gender</i> | <i>case</i> | <i>environment</i> |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|--------------------|
| <i>des</i>                       | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | neutral       | acc         | accented           |
| <i>den</i>                       | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | masculine     | acc         | accented           |
| <i>se</i>                        | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | plural        | all           | nom         | accented           |
| <i>eana</i>                      | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | plural        | all           | dat         | accented           |
| <i>da</i>                        | 2 <sup>nd</sup> | singular      | all           | dat         | unaccented         |
| <i>ea</i>                        | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | masculine     | nom         | unaccented         |
| <i>an</i>                        | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | masculine     | acc         | unaccented         |
| <i>s</i>                         | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | feminine      | nom         | unaccented         |
| <i>s</i>                         | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | neutral       | nom         | unaccented         |
| <i>Ø</i>                         | 2 <sup>nd</sup> | plural        | all           | nom         | unaccented         |
| <i>s</i>                         | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | plural        | all           | acc         | unaccented         |

*Table 11 Pronoun forms not found in original survey in Schwingsandl (2018)*

Additionally, in the 2<sup>nd</sup> person nominative, the complementizer agreement suffixes -*st* (singular) and -*s* (plural) can be found. Those can be combined with Ø forms as well as with overt nominative pronouns. The use of complementizer agreement in

the area of Baden bei Wien and its surroundings is expected to be similar to its use in Gmunden, which was the location of Gruber's (2008) dialect study on complementizer agreement. Equal to the variety spoken in Gmunden, but not the one in Bavaria, there are just 2<sup>nd</sup> person suffixes; the variety spoken in Bavaria has an additional suffix *-ma* in the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural; however, Weiß (1998:119) points out that it is disputed whether this suffix is obligatory or not. Due to the parallels to the variety of Gmunden, I have used the 2<sup>nd</sup> person suffixes in the questionnaire and combined them with the 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronominal forms from Table 9 and Table 10.

### 4.3 Verifying pronominal criteria

In chapter 2, I have reviewed the pronominal theories by Cardinaletti and Starke (1999), Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002), and Patel-Grosz and Grosz (2017) and combined the properties of their pronoun types into a pronoun typology that includes five different pronoun types: Demonstratives, strong pronouns, weak pronouns, pro-NPs and clitic pronouns. A bigger pronominal structure should only be used if it is needed (see *Minimize DP!* in (13)): Therefore, different pronoun types exhibit different properties. A non-exhaustive list of these properties is given below in Table 12 and will be used for verifying these criteria. pro-NPs are excluded from the table because they need separate treatment (see section 2.5).

| <i>Demonstratives</i>         | <i>Strong pronouns</i>                    | <i>Weak pronouns</i>            | <i>Clitic/affixed pronouns</i> |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| ←                             | ←                                         | prosodically independent        | no proper prosodic domain      |
| ←                             | no binding                                | can work as bound variables     | →                              |
| ←                             | can only be arguments                     | can be arguments and predicates | →                              |
| ←                             | can be coordinated                        | cannot be coordinated           | →                              |
| for disambiguation or emotive | ambiguity possible, no emotivity required | →                               | →                              |
| morphologically complex       | not as much morphological complexity      | →                               | →                              |

*Table 12 Distinctive properties of pronoun types. Arrows indicate that properties from adjacent pronoun type apply.*

Out of this table, I have extracted some combinations of properties which should not be possible and constructed potentially ungrammatical dialect sentences including

pronouns that should have these conflicting properties if the sentences were grammatical.

I used test items including the following combinations of features:

- bound + demonstrative
- bound + coordinated
- demonstrative as a predicate
- strong pronoun as a predicate
- coordination + no proper prosodic domain
- morphologically complex + no proper prosodic domain

The impossibility of all these combinations should verify that the criteria for the different pronoun types apply like discussed in chapter 2 and listed in Table 12.

#### 4.4 Pronominal forms and their types

The goal of this part of the study was to split the two tables with the Bavarian pronominal forms (Table 9 and Table 10) into four separate tables; one for each pronoun type. After having validated the criteria for the different pronoun types as discussed in 4.3, those can be used to determine which pronoun type a certain form is.

To simplify this process, I made two assumptions:

- (41) Third person pronominal forms starting with *d-* can be treated as demonstratives, as they are morphologically complex.<sup>13</sup>
- (42) Clitic/affixed pronouns can only be found in an unaccented environment, as they do not constitute a proper prosodic domain and cannot bear stress due to their missing  $\Sigma P$ . Vice-versa, non-clitic pronouns must be able to bear stress.

Thus, the following points need to be clarified:

- Which forms of first and second person pronouns (singular and plural) can occur as demonstratives?

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<sup>13</sup> This assumption is based on Wiltschko's (1998) assumption that the *d-* of so-called *d*-pronouns has its own structural node. In the pronominal theory used in this thesis, this node corresponds to  $D_{\text{deix}}$ .



- Which of the non-*d*-forms can occur as strong pronouns, which as weak pronouns?
- Which of the unstressed forms can occur as clitics/affixes?

Based on my hypotheses set up in the beginning of this chapter, note that homonymy is considered a possibility, i.e., one pronominal surface form can occur in multiple paradigms. Furthermore, not every slot needs to be filled in every paradigm; arbitrary gaps might be possible.

#### 4.4.1 Extracting the demonstratives

To answer the first question, I have constructed sentences using emotivity. I have not been able to use the disambiguation criterion here, as there can only be one speaker and one addressee in a conversation, so first and second person pronouns can never be ambiguous. Additionally, none of the forms show overt morphological complexity, so this criterion cannot be applied either.

All pronouns from the grammatical test sentences as well as all third person forms with *d*- constitute the demonstrative pronoun paradigm. I did not test whether other 3<sup>rd</sup> person forms can fulfil the purpose of a demonstrative pronoun as well, as the *d*-morpheme should be the element carrying the relevant features for a demonstrative.

#### 4.4.2 Finding strong and weak pronouns

The second question serves to split the non-*d*-forms into strong and weak pronouns. The criteria that distinguish between strong and weak forms are binding, the ability to be a predicate, and coordination: Strong pronouns cannot be bound, cannot be a predicate and can be coordinated. Weak pronouns can be bound, can be a predicate, but cannot be coordinated. As the predicative use of pronominals can only happen with subject pronouns, I took the binding and coordination criteria as diagnostics. The strong pronoun test sentences on the questionnaire use coordination as a criterion to determine which forms can be used as strong pronouns.

The binding criterion is used in the next set of sentences, the weak pronoun test sentences. The sentences that are grammatical include forms which can be used as weak pronouns. To ensure that there is binding and not just coreference, participants were asked to interpret some of the sentences, which were ambiguous between binding and coreference. An example is given in (43):

- (43) Ned nur mia hoffn, dass mia/wie/ma gsund bleiben.  
 not just we hope that we healthy stay  
 “Not just we hope that we stay healthy.”

What does this sentence express?

- O Others also hoping that we stay healthy (*coreference*)
- O Everyone else hoping that they stay healthy themselves (*binding*)

For English, Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) argue that only 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronouns can be bound, as they are pro- $\phi$ Ps (i.e., weak pronouns), while 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns are pro-DPs (i.e., strong pronouns) and thus cannot be bound. They do not give an opinion on any German variety, but it must be considered that Bavarian pronouns are also subject to this restriction. A counterargument comes from Rullmann (2004), who shows that English 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns can indeed be subject to binding and can even function as partially bound variables. If no 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronoun is approved in a bound environment, this would mean that weak pronouns can only appear in 3<sup>rd</sup> person. However, I expect that both strong and weak versions of Bavarian 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns exist, just like it seems to be the case in English due to Rullmann’s (2004:162) examples of possible sloppy readings, one of which are shown here in (44):

- (44) I got a question I understood, but John didn’t.

This sentence can mean two things:

- (45) a John did not get a sentence that I understood.  
 b John did not get a sentence that John understood.

Therefore, the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular pronoun *I* can function as a bound variable. I take this as evidence that 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns can indeed be bound, and that binding can be used as a criterion for weak pronouns not only in 3<sup>rd</sup> person.

#### 4.4.3 Finding the clitic/affixed pronouns

The third question serves to extract the clitic/affixed forms from the unaccented pronoun table. As seen in Table 12, the criterion to distinguish clitic pronouns from

their weak counterparts is the clitics' lacking prosodic domain. Additionally, the missing morphological structure, which is caused by an Agree process, causes the clitic pronoun to occupy higher positions than a demonstrative, strong or weak pronoun. We have seen in chapter 3 that Romance clitic pronouns move to a higher position by Agreement, and similar movement can happen with the  $\varphi$  of Bavarian pronouns. Those can be attracted by a verb or a complementizer and phonologically attached as an enclitic by phonological liaison (cf. Klavans, 1985). Once a pronominal form attached to a verb or a CP is proven clitic, every other form interfering between the complementizer and this form must be clitic as well. So the methodology for finding clitic forms consists of two steps: (i) to find forms that cannot bear stress (due to a lack of vowels) and (ii) test which other forms from the unaccented pronominals can intervene between a verb or a complementizer and the unstressable form.

For step one, I will thus list all unstressed pronominal forms that do not include a vowel:

| <i>pronominal form</i> | <i>person</i>   | <i>number</i> | <i>gender</i> | <i>case</i> |
|------------------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|
| <i>n</i>               | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | masculine     | acc         |
| <i>s</i>               | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | feminine      | nom         |
| <i>s</i>               | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | neutral       | nom         |
| <i>s</i>               | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | singular      | neutral       | acc         |
| <i>s</i>               | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | plural        | all           | nom         |

*Table 13 Vowelless pronominal forms*

This table only includes nominative and accusative forms, but no dative forms. Thus, I will mainly use the accusative forms as diagnostic elements, as Weiß (1998:90) points out that the default order of pronouns in Bavarian is Nominative – Dative – Accusative, and only dative pronouns that cannot cliticize stand after accusative pronouns. This default order is contrary to the standard German order, where it is Nominative – Accusative – Dative; however, this order might be a result of uncliticizable dative pronouns as well. The order Nominative – Dative – Accusative is ungrammatical in Standard German:

- (46) a Ich habe es dir gegeben.  
       I have it.AKK you.DAT given
- b \*Ich habe dir es gegeben.  
       I have you.DAT it.AKK given  
       “I have given it to you.”

Bavarian, however, allows both orders:

- (47) a I hob s da gebn  
       I have it.AKK you.DAT given
- b I hob da s gebn  
       I have you.DAT it.AKK given  
       “I have given it to you.”

The grammaticality of both (47a) and (47b) results from the pronominal status of the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular dative pronoun *da* as a weak (47a) or a clitic (47b) pronoun.

The sentences that are used to test will include the forms from Table 13 attached to the complementizer *weil* ‘because’, as there should not be a phonological problem with [l] or its vocalized allophone and the onset of any of the pronominal forms. The complementizer *dass* ‘that’ could cause an OCP-like problem with pronominal forms starting with /s/<sup>14</sup>. In my previous study in Schwingsandl (2018), such an occurrence was found ungrammatical or strongly dispreferred by the participants:

- (48) ??Ea hot uns’es gebm  
       He has us.DAT-it.AKK given  
       “He has given it to us”

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<sup>14</sup> Obligatory Contour Principle is a phonological principle. McCarthy (1986:208) defines it as follows:  
*Obligatory Contour Principle*

At the melodic level, adjacent identical elements are prohibited.

I take this principle not at melodic level, but at surface level to illustrate that adjacent /s/ are prohibited or at least dispreferred.

The first two sets of sentences assess the nominative and dative forms. For the dative forms, I have used two accusative forms as a diagnostic, which are certainly clitic: From the survey in Schwingsandl (2018), I know that (49b) and (50b) are not only grammatical, but even preferred over (49a) and (50a), which means that *ma* and *da* can be used as clitics as well.

- (49) a Ea hot's ma gebm  
       He has-it.AKK me.DAT given  
       b Ea hot ma's gebm  
       He has me.DAT-it.AKK given  
       “He has given it to me”
- (50) a Ea hot's da gebm  
       He has-it.AKK you.SG.DAT given  
       b Ea hot da's gebm  
       He has you.SG.DAT-it.AKK given  
       “He has given it to you (SG)”

Therefore, *ma* and *da* have been taken as diagnostics for the accusative forms, which stand in front of dative forms in the default pronominal order in Bavarian that has been discussed above. The third set of sentences were thus used to test for clitic accusative forms. All the forms that can grammatically intervene between a subject clitic and *ma* or *da* were classified as clitic pronouns themselves.

The following chapter will discuss the answers given by the interviewees.

## 5 Results of the survey

In this chapter, I discuss the results of my survey. The participants' grammaticality judgements for each test item are listed in the appendix. Here, I will not discuss every answer in detail, but will rather address the general consent on some items and unclear results on others, as well as problems with some test items that I encountered during the interviews.

## 5.1 Part 1: Testing for additional pronominal forms

These eleven sentences were meant to verify the existence of pronominal forms that were not found in the study in Schwingsandl (2018). All pronominal forms listed in Table 11 were approved by the interviewees. It is worth mentioning that one interviewee (I3) did not approve *an* as a valid unaccented 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular accusative form in test item (A7) and suggested the form *nan* instead. In the six other interviews, the test item to validate *an* was approved by the interviewees; however, *an* was rejected in two other interviews (I1 and I5) for all possible contexts, i.e. in (A37b) as a strong pronoun, (A61b) as a weak pronoun, and (A110) as a clitic pronoun. The participants I1 also suggested *nan* as an alternative. Interestingly, the informant I3, who initially disapproved *an*, accepted it in (A61b). Therefore, it seems that *an* might be restricted to certain (phonological) contexts, or not be present in every speaker's grammar. As *nan* has been suggested as an alternative in two separate interviews, it will be included as a possible form.

## 5.2 Part 2: Verification of pronominal criteria

In this part of the questionnaire, the interviewees were mostly confronted with sentences that combine two pronominal features that should not be possible to combine. For many criteria, all informants agreed that the combinations are not possible. Those clear cases were:

- bound demonstratives with emotivity
- coordination and no proper prosodic domain
- morphological complexity and no proper prosodic domain

In other cases, there was disagreement among the interviewees, some of which accepted the following cases, while others did not:

- demonstrative or strong pronoun as a predicate
- bound and coordinated pronoun

Let us turn to the predicate criterion first:

This criterion is based on Déchaine and Wiltschko's (2002) property of pro- $\phi$ Ps, their equivalent to weak pronouns, that those can function as a predicate or an argument. pro-DPs, the equivalent to strong pronouns, on the other hand, should not

function as an argument. Therefore, a strong or demonstrative pronoun as a predicate should not be possible. The test items (A14) and (A15) simulate such a situation. They are replicated here in (51) and (52):

(51) Der Josef is a Maler. Die Luise is des aa.  
 the Josef is a painter the Luise is DEMONSTRATIVE.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N too  
 “Josef is a painter. Luise is that too.”

(52) Der Josef is a Maler. Die Luise is es aa.  
 the Josef is a painter the Luise is STRONG.PRONOUN.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N too  
 “Josef is a painter. Luise is it too.”

In both cases, I expected the use of the pronoun to be impossible. However, the sentence containing the demonstrative was judged as grammatical in four of the seven interviews, and the sentence with the strong pronoun got approved in two interviews<sup>15</sup>. The other interviewees did not find the sentences grammatical and suggested alternatives using different constructions or using a reduced ‘s instead of the full *es* pronoun. Thus, there seems to be a preference for weaker forms in predicate position. Unfortunately, these two test items tested for a second criterion that I failed to recognize when constructing the test items: As *Josef* is a male name and *Luise* is a female name, the grammaticality judgement was also dependent on whether two names of a different grammatical gender can be grouped together. Informant I2 rejected both sentences specifically for that reason; she stated that *Luise* would have to be a *Malerin* ‘paintress’, rather than a *Maler* ‘painter’. The issue of grammatical gender was also discussed by I1, who nevertheless judged the sentence with the demonstrative as grammatical and only rejected the sentence containing *es* by correcting it to weakened ‘s. Therefore, the impact of the grammatical gender mismatch seems to be minimal. The predicate criterion, however, is challenged by these data: I propose to reformulate it as a tendency, rather than an absolute restriction. Due to its ab-

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<sup>15</sup> Interestingly, the sentence was approved in two interviews, although *es* did not get approved as a strong pronoun by any interviewee in test item (A42a). However, it got approved as a weak pronoun in test item (A66a) by all interviewees except for one. So the grammaticality of the predicative use of *es* for some informants in the test item discussed here, depicted in (52), might result from the pronominal not actually being a strong, but a weak pronoun, for which the predicative use is permitted.

sence as a test criterion in the rest of the study, the study's validity is not challenged by this outcome.

The criterion of binding has also subject to disagreement among the interviewees. As discussed in chapter 2, Cardinaletti and Starke (1999) note that only strong pronouns bear an index, and Déchaine and Wiltschko (2002) state that pro-DPs behave like R-expressions when it comes to binding, while pro- $\varphi$ Ps can be bound like condition B pronouns. As only strong pronouns are possible in a coordination context, a bound and coordinated pronoun should not be possible.

I tested this with test items (A13a) and (A13c), which are replicated here in (53) and (54):

- (53) A            jeder<sub>i</sub>        von    der            österreichischen    Nationalmannschaft  
           PARTICLE   everyone<sub>i</sub>   from   the            Austrian            national team
- glaubt,    dass        er<sub>i</sub>        und        der            Alaba  
          believes   that        he<sub>i</sub>        and        the            Alaba
- die        meisten    Tore    schießen   werden.  
          the        most        goals   shoot    will
- “Everyone<sub>i</sub> in the Austrian national team believes that he<sub>i</sub> and Alaba will score the most goals.”

- (54) A Wahrsagerin hat gsagt, dass zwa Fuaßballer a rote Kartn kriegn werdn. Einer davon is da Alaba.

Kana<sub>i</sub>            von            de        Fuaßballer            glaubt,        dass  
 Nobody<sub>i</sub>        from            the        football players        believes        that

         ea<sub>i</sub>            und            da        Alaba        de        rotn  
          he<sub>i</sub>            and            the        Alaba        the        red

         Kartn            kriegn        werdn.  
          card            get            will

         “A fortune teller said that two football players will get a red card. One of them is Alaba. Nobody<sub>i</sub> of the football players believes that he<sub>i</sub> and Alaba will get



the red card.”

In a bound interpretation, both sentences should be considered ungrammatical due to the pronoun being coordinated with a DP. However, the first sentence was approved with a bound interpretation in three interviews; the second sentence was approved with a bound interpretation in two interviews. Informants I3 and I7 found both sentences grammatical; I1 only accepted the first sentence with bound interpretation and needed an unbound interpretation for the second sentence to be grammatical. I4 and I6 stated that the test items are only grammatical with an unbound interpretation; I2 rejected the sentences because an individual can only speak for themselves and cannot predict whether another player (i.e., David Alaba) will score a goal or receive a red card. I5 said that the first sentence with a bound interpretation is flawed in its logic and suggested to reformulate the second sentence by using *er selber* ‘himself’ but also removing the coordination and adding *und aa ned der Alaba* ‘and neither Alaba’ in the end of the sentence instead.

The majority of the interviewees were not content with the sentences as they were constructed by me, and either only accepted the unbound interpretation or did not accept the sentence at all. The two outliers suggest that the criterion of binding might have to be reformulated as a tendency as well; however, it is a stronger tendency than with the predicate criterion. The rejection of the bound interpretation by those interviewees who rejected it was clearly due to its binding status, and the suggested alternatives removed the coordination of the pronoun in order to enable its binding (see above). The binding criterion can therefore still be applied, keeping in mind that it has to be treated as a tendency. Additionally, we will see in the results of the survey’s part 3 that morphologically lighter elements have been accepted more frequently in bound environments than their morphologically stronger counterparts; this supports the binding criterion, as weak pronouns have less heads to realize and therefore have morphologically lighter realizations than their strong counterparts.

### 5.3 Part 3: Categorizing pronominal forms

The questions in this part served to categorize the pronominal forms into the categories demonstrative, strong, weak, and clitic/affixed pronouns and verify or falsify the

hypotheses stated in the beginning of chapter 4. This part of the questionnaire had three subparts, which will be discussed individually.

### 5.3.1 Part 3.1: Demonstratives

In this part, I gave sentences using pronominals in an emotive context in order to determine whether they can be used as demonstrative pronouns or not. Due to my postulation made earlier in (41) that 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronominal forms starting with *d-* are demonstrative pronouns due to their morphological complexity, I only created test items for 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person forms. The approved forms are listed in Table 14:

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i>       |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                | mia                 |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du, Ø             | di                | dia, ?da            |
| 3. P. Sg. m | dea               | den               | den                 |
| 3. P. Sg. f | de                | de                | dera                |
| 3. P. Sg. n | des               | des               | den                 |
| 1. P. Pl.   | mia, wia          | uns               | uns                 |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr, Ø       | eich              | eich                |
| 3. P. Pl.   | de                | de                | de (+ Prep.), denen |

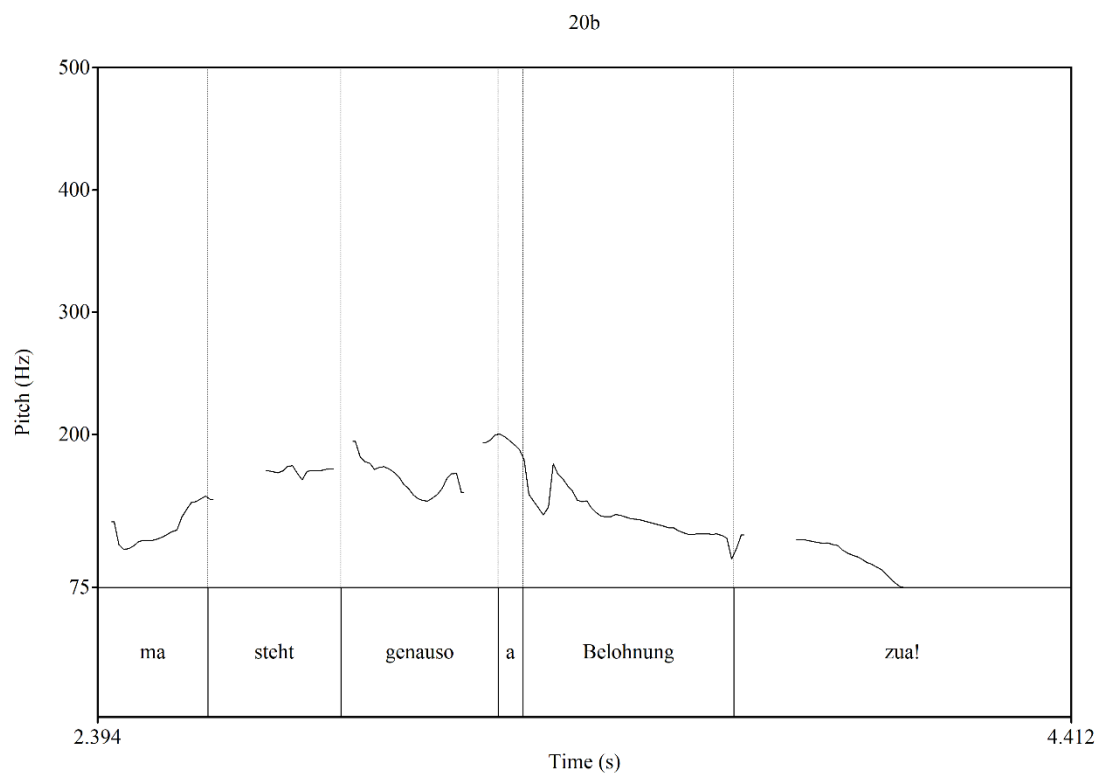
*Table 14 Demonstrative pronouns*

An unsure case is the *da* in 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular dative: This form was approved in five out of six interviews, with one speaker expressing a preference for *dia* in this context. The informant who expressed the preference added that *da* would have a more “general meaning”, while the emotive meaning can only be expressed by *dia*. The forms were tested by test items (A23a) and (A23b), which are replicated here in (55):

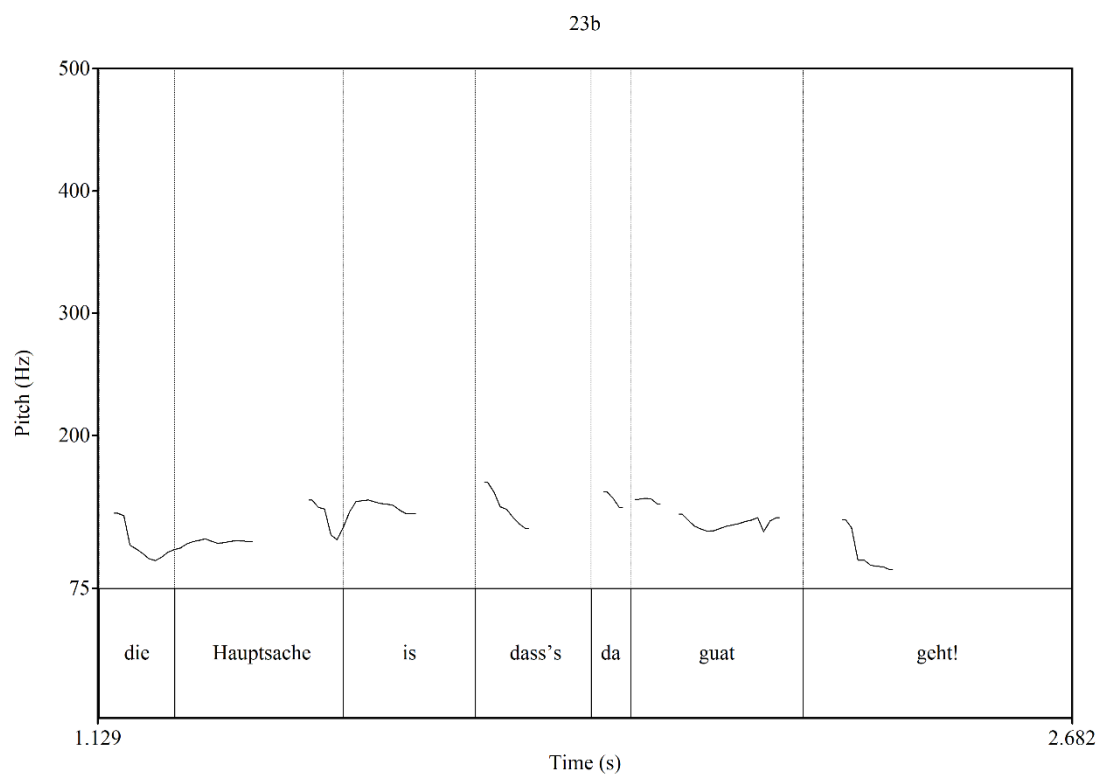
- (55) De            anderen   san        wurscht,        die  
       the           others   are        do-not-matter,   the
- Hauptsache   is            dass's   dia/da            guat   geht!  
       focus        is            that-it   PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.DAT   good   goes
- “The others don’t matter, it’s important that you are well”

In that case, the “general meaning” with *da* could mean that the sentence means that “it doesn’t matter what the others think”, while the “non-general meaning” with *dia* could have a contrastive meaning in the sense of “it doesn’t matter if the others are well” as well. This suggests that demonstratives can have contrastive meaning, while non-demonstrative pronouns cannot get this function.

The parallel case in 1<sup>st</sup> position is *ma* and *mia*, in which case *ma* was rejected by all interviewees. In the test item with *ma*, item (A20b), however, the pronominal form was placed in SpecCP, forcing it to be accented, while *da* in test item (A23b) was placed in its standard argument position in a subordinate clause. In the recording of test item (A23b), *da* was not accented, leading to a general non-emotive interpretation of the sentence. An accented *da* would probably not have been approved by the interviewees. The difference of the pitch of *ma* and *da* is shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4, which were created with Praat.



*Figure 3 Pitch of recording of test item (A20b) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*



*Figure 4 Pitch of recording of test item (A23b) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*

In the figures, it is visible that *ma* was uttered with rising pitch, while *da* had the same falling pitch pattern as the complementizer preceding it. Due to these circumstances, I doubt that *da* can be used as a demonstrative.

### 5.3.2 Part 3.2: Strong Pronouns

Based on the criterion of coordination, the results of the interviews suggest the pronominal forms in Table 15 to be part of the strong pronominal paradigm.

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                | mia           |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du                | di                | dia           |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ea                | eam, ?n           | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | sie               | sie               | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | n/a               | ?es               | n/a           |
| 1. P. Pl.   | mia, wia          | uns               | uns           |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr          | eich              | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | se                | se                | eana          |

*Table 15 Pronouns approved in a coordinated environment*

Two cases will be discussed in greater detail: The 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine accusative form *n* and the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral accusative form *es*.

The pronominal form *n* was approved in three interviews and rejected in three interviews as well in a coordinated environment. The sentence to test for this was test item (A37c), which is replicated here in (56):

(56) Wo is da Hans?

I hob n und in Hiasl beim Heurigen gsehn.

I have PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.M.ACC and the Hiasl at the Heurigen seen

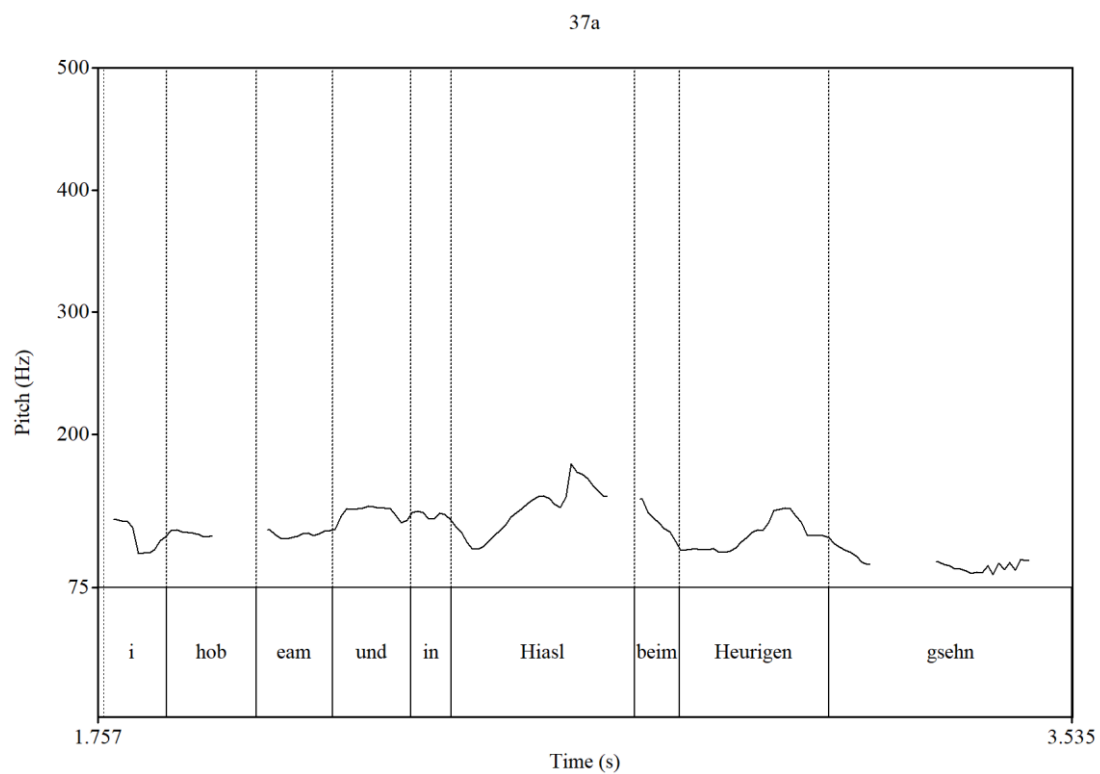
“Where is Hans? – I saw him and Hiasl at the Heurigen.”

Why *n* in a coordinated environment has such a high acceptance rate is not obvious. In every interview where this sentence was rejected, *eam* was suggested as an alternative to *n* in order to make the sentence grammatically well-formed. *n* definitely

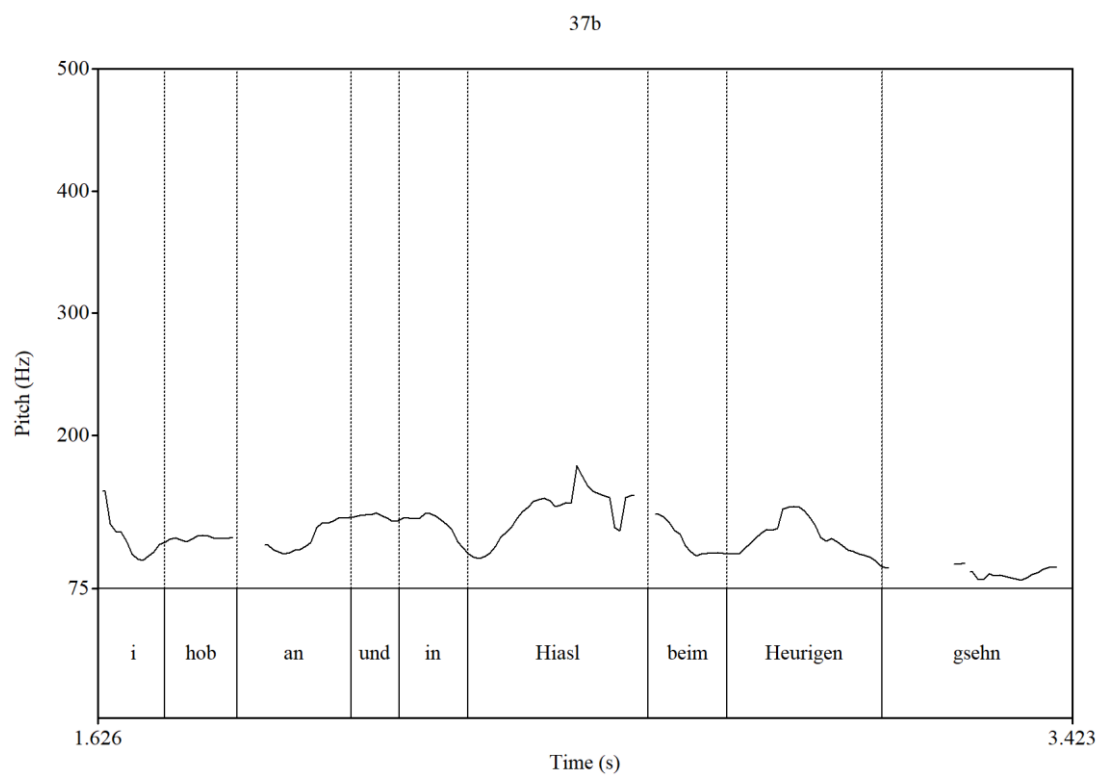
functions as a clitic form, but also seems to work for most speakers as a bound weak pronoun (except for I4, who suggested using *eam* instead in that context). As the most prominent property of a clitic pronoun is the absence of an own prosodic domain, the speakers approving the coordination might have processed the connector *und* not coordinating the pronominal with the DP, but rather the whole prosodic domain of the pronominal, i.e. *hob-n* and the DP *in Hiasl*. The coordination of a verb with a DP is also ungrammatical, but the phonological restriction is lifted if the coordinator is perceived this way. If the informants focused on the phonological component of grammar rather than morphosyntax when giving their grammaticality judgements, this might have influenced their judgement and rendered a coordinated *n* acceptable.

A pitch comparison of the three test items of (A37) does not show any particular differences between the three pronominal forms with respect to their relationship with the right-adjacent element; each form seems to be attached to the coordinator *und*. We can see, however, that only *n* in (A37c) is attached to the left-adjacent verb, which strongly suggests that it is a clitic form, other than the forms in (A37a) and (A37b). Interestingly, the probably clitic form *n* had a higher acceptance rate than the non-attached form *an* in (A37b), which has been rejected with coordination in all interviews. The pitch of all three versions of (A37) is shown in Figure 5 to Figure 7.

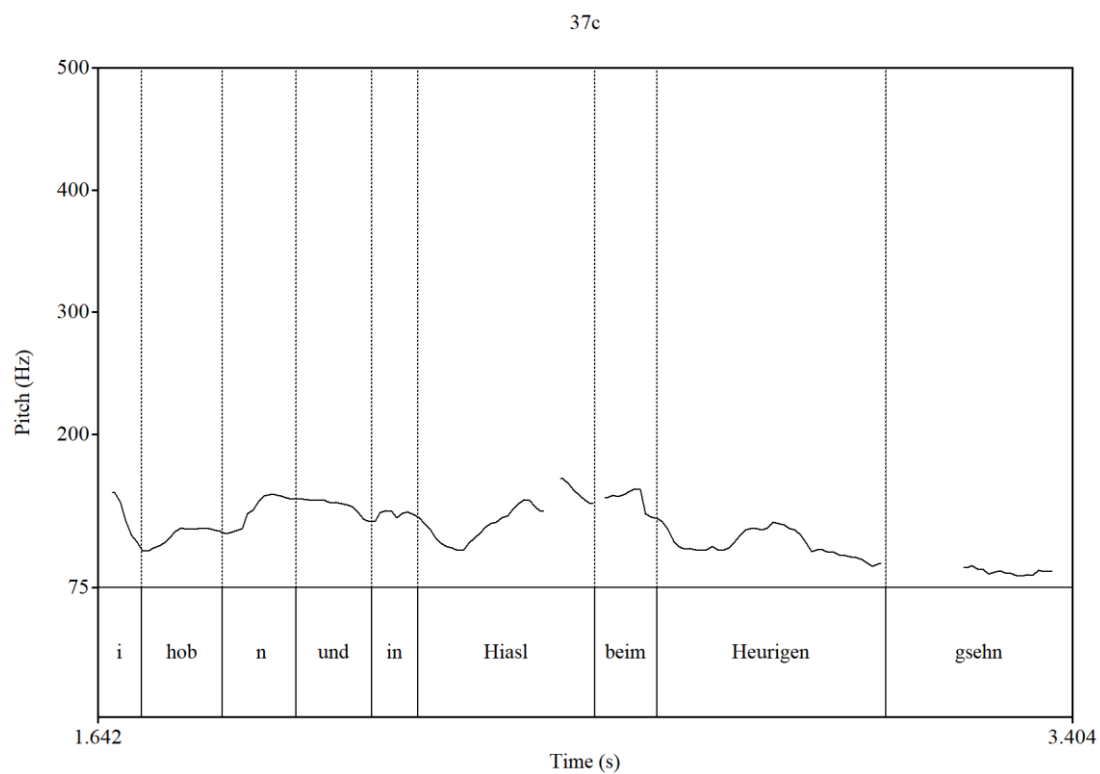
While I would have trouble pronouncing (A37c) with no pause between the pronominal form and the coordinator, my speaker managed to utter this sentence with no pause and with very natural prosody for the recording. This might have influenced the informants' judgements because the sentence sounded as if it was a well-formed sentence. I would have liked to compare the attachment of *n* in (A37) to that of *n* in a non-coordinated environment; however, in my test items, I have only cases where *n* is adjacent to the negative marker *ned*, and therefore is phonologically connected to it. This, for example, happens in (A94), where it is very difficult to draw a line between *n* and *ned*, shown in Figure 8.



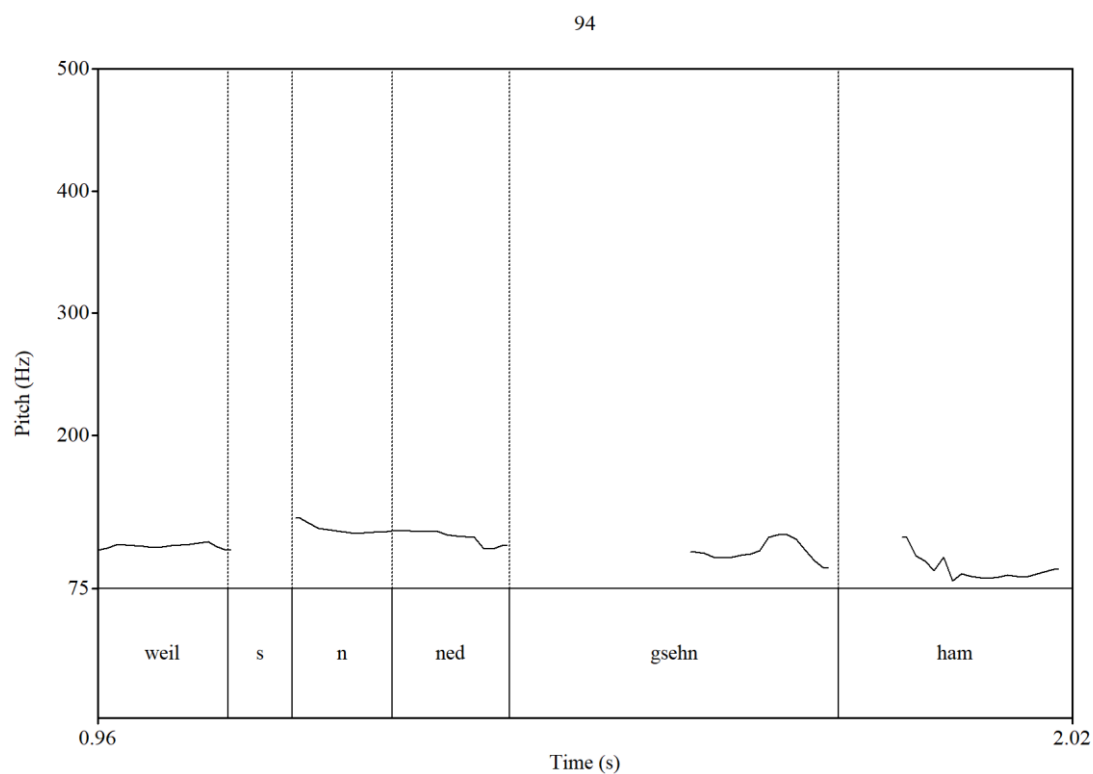
*Figure 5 Pitch of recording of test item (A37a) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*



*Figure 6 Pitch of recording of test item (A37b) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*



*Figure 7 Pitch of recording of test item (A37c) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*



*Figure 8 Pitch of recording of test item (A94) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*

The attachment of *n* to coordination as well as non-coordination thus leaves room for future research. Due to my assumption in (42) that non-clitic pronouns must be



able to bear accent, it should not have the status of a strong pronoun. My intuition also suggests not to accept *n* in this context as a strong pronoun, but due to the relatively high acceptance rate (50%), I will leave *n* in the table with a question mark.<sup>16</sup> I will now shortly discuss the second pronominal form in question.

The 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral accusative form *es* was tested in test item (A43a), which is replicated here in (57):

(57) Das Fenster is no offen.

|                                                            |                                |     |     |      |      |
|------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|------|
| Machst                                                     | es                             | und | die | Tür  | zua? |
| make.2.SG                                                  | PRON.3 <sup>RD</sup> .SG.N.ACC | and | the | door | shut |
| “The window is still open. Will you shut it and the door?” |                                |     |     |      |      |

The sentence was approved in two interviews and rejected in three interviews. Informant I6 understood *des* instead of *es*, and judged the sentence as grammatically well-formed. In the nominative, the same form *es* was rejected by all informants, which is consistent with the observation in Weiß (1998:101) that the full form *es* is uncommon in Bavarian. It is also explicitly stated that there is no full form *es* in the accusative (cf. *ibid.*:103). For the dative form *eam*, some informants stated that it can only describe a (grammatically masculine) person, and not an object like a window (which was the DP that was supposed to be replaced by *eam* in test item (A44)). Due to the rejection of all forms for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral in the nominative and dative, and Weiß’ (1998) observations, I doubt that there is a strong pronominal form in the accusative. Due to the acceptance rate of 40%, however, I will leave it in the table with a question mark.

### 5.3.3 Part 3.3: Weak Pronouns

The weak pronominal forms were identified by the criterion of binding; any form that can appear in a bound context is considered a possible weak pronoun. The test items were either constructed so that only a bound interpretation of the pronoun was possible or if both a bound and an unbound interpretation could be possible, the

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<sup>16</sup> At this point, I would like to note that only six grammaticality judgements have been given on this sentence. If there was a perception error by any interviewee, it is not compensated by the rest due to the low number of participants. Therefore, the data are preliminary and leave room for future research with a larger number of informants.

interviewees were asked how this sentence could be interpreted. All pronominal forms that have been accepted as bound variables are shown in Table 16:

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i>  | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|--------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                 | mia, ma       |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du, -st           | di                 | dia, da       |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ea, a             | ??eam, ?an, nan, n | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | sie, s            | ?sie, ??as, s      | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | es, s             | es, ?s             | eam           |
| 1. P. Pl.   | ?mia, ?wia, ma    | uns                | uns           |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr, -s      | eich               | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | se, s             | se, s              | eana          |

*Table 16 Pronouns approved in a bound environment*

While most of the forms included have been approved by all interviewees, there has been a relatively large amount of disagreement on forms in the weak paradigm, compared to the demonstrative and strong pronouns. The forms that need to be discussed are the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine accusative forms *eam* and *an*, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular feminine accusative forms *sie* and *as*, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral accusative form *s* and the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural nominative forms *mia* and *wia*.

Firstly, I will address the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine and feminine accusative forms: *eam* was approved in a bound interpretation in three interviews. This interpretation was rejected in four interviews. Thus, it seems possible for some speakers to use *eam* as a weak pronoun, but there is a tendency for it not to be used in this paradigm. Similar judgements were given for *sie* as a 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular feminine accusative pronominal. It was accepted as bound in four interviews, as unbound in two interviews and rejected as ungrammatical in one interview. This correlates with the binding criterion itself being a tendency, as discussed in section 5.2. Interestingly, the speakers who accepted *eam* or *sie* as bound and the speakers who accepted a bound coordinated item partially differ from each other, for a detailed comparison see Table 17.

|    | <i>bound coordination</i> | <i>bound 'eam' (acc)</i> | <i>bound 'sie' (acc)</i> |
|----|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| I1 | unsure                    | no                       | no                       |
| I2 | n/a                       | yes                      | no, neither unbound      |
| I3 | yes                       | no                       | yes                      |
| I4 | no                        | no                       | yes                      |
| I5 | no                        | yes                      | yes                      |
| I6 | no                        | no                       | no                       |
| I7 | yes                       | yes                      | yes                      |

*Table 17 Comparison of interviewees' judgements of bound coordination and bound 'eam' and 'sie' as accusative pronominals*

This suggests that the tendency binding being exclusive to weak pronouns as well as using phonologically weaker forms in bound contexts is a general phenomenon, rather than varying from speaker to speaker. The tendency to use phonologically weaker forms for bound contexts is represented by the two question marks as a diacritic for *eam*. As *sie* was slightly more accepted in the bound context, I have marked it with one question mark.

As a 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine accusative pronominal, *an* was approved by four interviewees as bound. In the other three interviews, it was not only rejected as a bound pronominal, but caused the test item to be ungrammatical. As in the strong paradigm, I1 suggested *nan* as an alternative. Therefore, it is also included in Table 16. In the grammar of the speakers who accept *an* as a pronominal form, it can be used as a weak pronoun. As it is not present in every speaker's grammar, it is included in the table with a question mark. Similar judgements were given for *as* in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular feminine accusative, which was found completely ungrammatical in three interviews, but, differently from *an*, only accepted as bound by two interviewees. Therefore, there is not only disagreement among the speakers whether *as* is an acceptable form at all, but even those speakers who accept it do not agree on its binding status. Due to the general disagreement on *an* as a pronominal form, I have tagged it with a question mark. *as* is tagged with two question marks, as there is not only disagreement on its acceptability as a pronominal form, but also on its binding status. Interestingly, *as* was accepted as only unbound in two interviews, but judged as ungrammatical in every interview as a strong pronoun, i.e., in coordinated context. Therefore, those speakers (I1 and I6) might have access to a pronominal form in their grammar which can neither be bound nor coordinated. Notably, I1 even ac-

cepted an overlap of these features in one test item. This would mean that their grammar allows pronominals that can be bound and coordinated at the same time, as well as pronominals that can neither be bound nor coordinated.

The pronominal form *s* in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral accusative has also faced unclear grammatical judgement. It was accepted in three interviews, rejected in three interviews and had an unsure judgement in one interview. The interviewee who judged it with a question mark suggested a different word order in the sentence for *s* to be acceptable. She suggested that word order not only for *s*, but also for *es*, which was approved by the other interviewees in the given word order. The test item containing *s* was (A67c), replicated here in (58):

- (58) A            jedes                            Kind    is            höflich, wenn die  
                  a            every                            child    is            polite    when the  
  
                  Eltern    s                                            guad    erzogn    haben.  
                  parents    PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.ACC    good    raised    have  
                  “Every child is polite if the parents raised it well.”

All four informants who rejected or doubted *s* in this position stated that they would have found it grammatical if it was placed before the subject DP *die Eltern* ‘the parents’, i.e., directly after the complementizer of the subordinate clause. This suggests that *s* is actually a clitic pronoun, rather than a weak one, as its preferred location is the Wackernagel position. *es*, on the other hand, was accepted in post-subject position, but I4 also suggested it to be put in front of the subject. Speaker I6 rejected *es* in post-subject position as well and only suggested *s* in Wackernagel position as the only possibility to make this sentence acceptable. Comparable forms in the paradigm are *n* for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine accusative and *s* for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular feminine accusative. Those, however, are both in Wackernagel position in their test item, so I have not tested if they would also be acceptable in post-subject position. I would expect similar results with those two forms if they were not in Wackernagel position. Generally, it is questionable if the forms consisting of a single consonant, as well as 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine nominative *a*, should be part of the weak paradigm, as they do not constitute an own phonological domain and cannot receive stress. If they are exclusively clitic pronouns, this means that clitic pronouns in general can be bound, as claimed in Table 12.

The forms *mia* and *wia*, both for 1<sup>st</sup> person plural nominative, both had disagreement in the judgement of their binding status as well. *mia* was accepted as bound in four interviews and only as unbound in three interview. *wia* was judged as non-dialectal by two speakers (as it is similar to Standard German *wir*); only two of the remaining interviewees accepted the bound interpretation, in the other three interviews, binding of *wia* was rejected. Again, there is the tendency to use the phonologically lighter *ma* in a bound context. Therefore, I have marked both *mia* and *wia* with a question mark.

In Table 16, the agreement suffixes *-st* and *-s* are included as well. Those can be attached to a complementizer and allow the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular or plural pronoun to be absent. It is also possible for them to appear in combination with a corresponding 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronominal form.<sup>17</sup> The insight that those suffixes can appear without an additional overt pronominal in a sentence that has bound interpretation suggests two possible consequences: (i) either the agreement suffixes can be bound and thus function as pronominal variables or (ii) there is a covert pronominal morpheme (a *minimal pronoun*, cf. Kratzer, 2009) that can be bound by the agreement suffix. The part of the sentence including binding in test item (A57b) could thus be analysed in two ways:

- (59) a Nur du<sub>i</sub> glaubst, dass- st<sub>i</sub> des schaffst.  
           only you.SG believe that AGR.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG that achieve
- b Nur du glaubst, dass- st<sub>i</sub> Ø<sub>i</sub> des schaffst.  
           only you.SG believe that AGR.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG PRON that achieve  
           “Only you<sub>i</sub> believe that you<sub>i</sub>’ll achieve that.”

The analysis in (59a) claims that the agreement suffix is the realisation of an empty pronominal, which has received its features through binding by the subject pronominal *du*. After receiving its features, it is pronounced as *st*. Thus, the agreement suffix is a feature bundle of  $\varphi$ -features, just like a (clitic/affixed) pronoun. The structure in (59b) suggests that there is an empty pronoun which receives its features from a

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<sup>17</sup> These morphemes are called *Gmunden morpheme* by Gruber (2008), but appear in many varieties of Bavarian and not only that of Gmunden. Weiß (1998:119) gives a third morpheme of this kind, *ma*, which appears in 1<sup>st</sup> person plural and can combine with the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural pronoun *mia*, but this variant is not possible in the Bavarian variety of the region around Baden.

head, which, in this case, is the agreement marker *-st*, a verbal functional head. The head's features are passed on to the empty pronoun by binding. This pronoun has been generated as an index and is called a *minimal pronoun* (cf. Kratzer, 2009).

In Table 16, I have listed all pronominal forms that have been approved in a bound environment. However, not all of them are part of the weak paradigm. Due to my assumption in (42) that all non-clitic pronominal forms must be able to bear stress, not all forms can function as weak pronouns, just as *n* in the strong paradigm. The possibility of binding validates that all forms in Table 16 are indeed pronominal forms weaker than strong pronouns, but the table can still include clitic forms. These clitic forms can be bound as well, as predicted by the criteria in Table 12, and as discussed above for *s* in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral accusative. Therefore, in Table 18, I have only listed forms that can bear stress and left out those which cannot do so because they only consist of a consonant. This suggests that not all pronouns that can be bound are automatically a part of the weak paradigm. As a result, the 2<sup>nd</sup> person agreement suffixes are not listed in Table 18 either. This leaves unchanged that they can be subject to binding and still upholds the possibility of both analyses in (59). Both clitic and weak pronouns can be bound, but non-accentable pronominal forms cannot be a part of the weak paradigm. The weak paradigm is thus shown in Table 18, which consists of all forms that are bindable and accentable.

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                | mia, ma       |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du                | di                | dia, da       |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ea, a             | ??eam, ?an, nan   | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | sie               | ?sie, ??as        | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | es                | es                | eam           |
| 1. P. Pl.   | ?mia, ?wia, ma    | uns               | uns           |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr          | eich              | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | se                | se                | eana          |

*Table 18 Pronouns approved in a bound environment that can bear stress, constituting the weak paradigm*

We will turn to clitic pronouns in the next section.

### 5.3.4 Clitic/affixed pronouns

The clitic paradigm was tested by word order: If a pronominal form can appear before another clitic pronoun, it is clitic itself. The forms *s*, *n*, *ma* and *da* served as diagnostics, as explained in section 4.4.3. The accepted forms are listed in Table 19.

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | ?mi               | ma, mia       |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du, -st           | di                | da, ?dia      |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ?ea, a            | ??eam, ?an, ?n    | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | ?sie, s           | es, ?as           | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | s                 | ?as, s            | ??eam         |
| 1. P. Pl.   | ma, ?mia          | n/a               | ??uns         |
| 2. P. Pl.   | -s                | ??eich            | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | ?se, s            | ?as, s            | eana          |

*Table 19 Clitic/affixed pronominal forms*

The two interviewees I2 and I6 rejected a vast amount of forms in clitic position. I2 rejected most dative forms (except for *ma* and *ihr*). I6 rejected all dative forms except for *ma*, and all accusative forms except for *s* in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral and *s* in 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural. The dative forms were suggested to be placed after the accusative clitic, rather than before. An example is given based on test item (A98), replicated in (60a), with the suggested variation given in (60b):

- (60) a Des Geld host ned, weil da  
the money have.you not because PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.DAT
- s da Hans ned gebm hat.  
PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.ACC the Hans not given has

- b Des Geld host ned, weil s  
the money have.you not because PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.ACC
- da da Hans ned gebm hat.  
PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.DAT the Hans not given has
- “You don’t have the money because Hans didn’t give it to you.”

For the accusative pronouns, the suggested alternatives were either putting the diagnostic dative clitic pronoun *ma* or *da* before the accusative form, or using a stronger version of the dative pronoun, i.e., *mia* or *dia*. According to the results of the questionnaire, those might as well function as clitics, but there is a tendency of using the phonologically weaker variants as clitics; so *mia* and *dia* would not be as reliable as diagnostic elements.

Although the test items for clitics have been constructed very parallel for all forms of a grammatical case, there have been remarkable differences in judgements between forms for which a similar judgement would have been expected, e.g., the accusative forms *mi* and *di*. They were tested by test items (A107) and (A108), which are shown here in (61) and (62):

- (61) Du kennst mi, weil’ s mi  
you know me because they PRON.1<sup>ST</sup>.SG.ACC
- da gestern vorgstellt ham.  
you.DAT yesterday presented have
- “You know me because they presented me to you yesterday.”
- (62) I kenn di, weil’ s di  
I know you because they PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.ACC
- ma gestern vorgstellt ham.  
me.DAT yesterday presented have
- “You know me because they presented me to you yesterday.”

Nevertheless, *mi* has been judged ungrammatical by two interviewees and questionable by two interviewees, and has only been approved in two interviews. *di*, on the



other hand, has been judged grammatical in four interviews, rejected by one informant (who rejected all accusative clitics and therefore is treated as an outlier) and judged as questionable by one informant. A similar thing happened to the dative forms *mia* and *dia*, where informant I7 accepted *mia* as grammatical, but she almost rejected *dia*, which led to a ?? judgement. *eam* as a dative pronoun was judged differently in its masculine and neutral form: While its masculine use was rejected by only the two informants who rejected almost every dative form in clitic position, two additional informants judged it as questionable to ungrammatical when used as a neutral pronoun.

As predicted, the forms that have unclear judgements are those with more phonological content than the forms that are widely accepted in clitic position. This serves as a confirmation that the criterion of not having an own prosodic domain for clitics, which has been used as a preliminary to find the diagnostic elements *s* and *n*, is valid.

It needs to be considered that some of the negative grammaticality judgements result from the Person-Case-Constraint (PCC), rather than from the (im-)possibility of cliticization of certain forms. Anagnostopoulou (2017) gives the following versions of this constraint:

(63) *The Strong PCC*

In a combination of a weak direct object and an indirect object [clitic, agreement marker or weak pronoun], the direct object has to be third person. (Bonet, 1991:182, cited after Anagnostopoulou, 2017:3)

(64) *The Weak PCC*

In a combination of a weak direct object and an indirect object [clitic, agreement marker or weak pronoun], if there is a third person it has to be the direct object. (Bonet, 1991:192, cited after Anagnostopoulou, 2017:4)

While Anagnostopoulou (2008) argues that German has the Weak PCC, the ungrammaticality of (61) and (62) for some informants would suggest that the Strong PCC applies here, as the Weak PCC would still allow a combination of first and second person objects. She gives the following examples, which she classifies as grammatical (Anagnostopoulou, 2008:27):

- (65) a weil        dich        mir        irgendwer vorgestellt hat  
          because you-ACC me-DAT someone introduced has  
          ‘because someone has introduced you to me’
- b weil        mich        dir        irgendwer vorgestellt hat  
          because me-ACC you-DAT someone introduced has  
          ‘because someone has introduced me to you’

These examples are similar to my test items that I have shown in (61) and (62), with the difference that my examples have the subject in front of the object pronouns, while Anagnostopoulou has the subject after the object pronouns. Anagnostopoulou (2008:26) notes that PCC effects are not present when the subject precedes the object pronouns. However, she does not state whether this also applies to clitic subjects or just full DP subjects and strong and demonstrative pronouns. If this is the case, the PCC cannot apply simply because there cannot be any clitic forms after a non-clitic subject. It is not clear either if a weak subject can have any impact on PCC effects, as well as how to deal with weak object pronouns: Anagnostopoulou has found that speakers have clearer judgements about clitics when it comes to PCC effects than about weak pronouns. This would suggest that there are weak, rather than clitic, pronouns in my test items (A107) and (A108), which causes more variation among speakers’ judgements (cf. Anagnostopoulou, 2008:29, generalization (ii)).

Additionally, Anagnostopoulou (2008) argues that German PCC effects can only be seen in the Wackernagel position, i.e., directly after the complementizer. The only pronoun type that I assume to occupy this position are clitic pronouns, so weak pronouns should not be able to cause PCC effects in this variety of German. The whole picture leaves room for future research, where tests for PCC effects are systematically included in the studies.

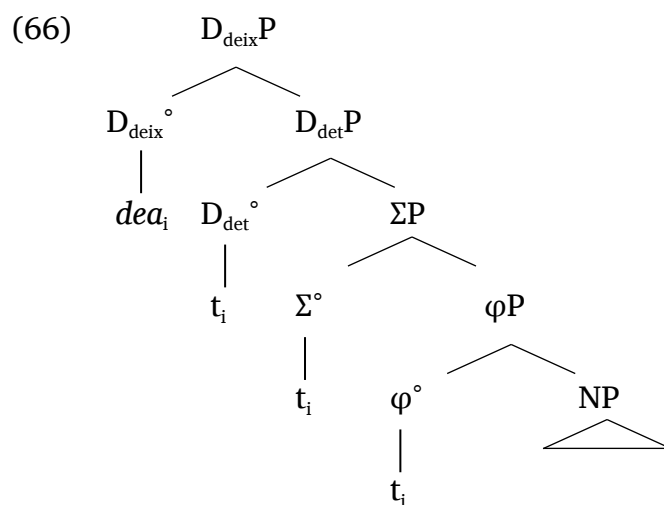
## 6 Interpretation of the results

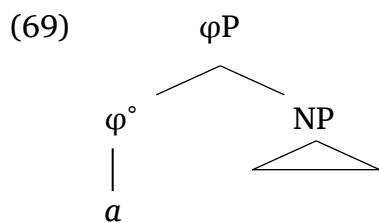
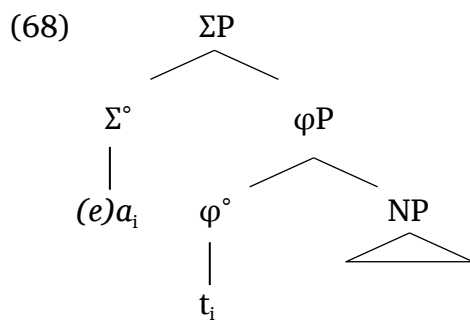
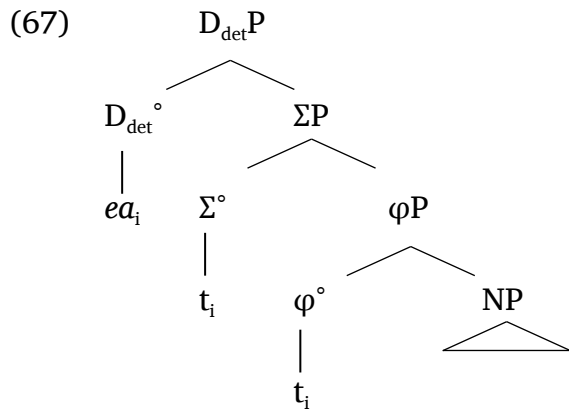
### 6.1 Checking the hypotheses

In this chapter, I will discuss whether the results of my study verify or falsify the hypotheses that I have set up in chapter 4. The hypotheses will therefore be discussed one by one.

- There are demonstrative, strong, weak and clitic forms of pronominals. The order *demonstrative* > *strong* > *weak* > *clitic* is the order from strongest to weakest paradigm.

The first hypothesis has been proven right: The pronominal forms found in Schwingsandl (2018) were indeed able to be sorted into four paradigms. No paradigms had a 100% overlap in their forms, which suggests that there are indeed four separate paradigms. The order from strongest to weakest is based on the internal structure of the different pronominal types, as discussed in chapter 2. These structures are shown below, based on the pronoun structure constructed in chapter 2: (66) shows the structure of a demonstrative pronoun, (67) that of a strong pronoun, (68) shows a weak pronoun's structure, and (69) shows the structure of clitic pronouns, but it is possible that just its  $\varphi^\circ$  is moved to the pronoun's surface location. Their surface form is exemplified by the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine pronoun. Some phonological content is already associated with the lowest head,  $\varphi^\circ$ , and then raised to the next head. In the demonstrative form, it is clear that the *d-* has only been added in  $D_{\text{deix}}^\circ$  because it is lacking in all other forms, but for strong and weak pronouns, it is not so clear where which part of the pronoun's phonological content surfaces first.  $\Sigma^\circ$  enables the pronoun to be accented. This head is lacking in the clitic structure, which, as a result, cannot have its own prosodic domain.





The stronger a pronominal, the more structure it contains. As demonstratives contain the most nodes and clitic pronouns contain the least, this order can be argued for this way.

- Phonologically stronger forms tend to appear in stronger paradigms, phonologically weaker forms tend to appear in weaker paradigms.

This hypothesis is predicted by the larger structure of stronger pronominals and has been validated by some forms: An example can be given based on 3<sup>rd</sup> person forms in Table 20:

|                          | <i>demonstrative</i> | <i>strong</i> | <i>weak</i> | <i>clitic/affixed</i> |
|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> Sg m Nom | dea                  | ea            | ea, a       | ?ea, a                |
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> Sg f Nom | de                   | sie           | sie         | ?sie, s               |

Table 20 Comparison of 3<sup>rd</sup> person nominative forms

We can see that there is a tendency of having phonologically stronger forms in stronger paradigms. This is especially clear in the masculine forms, where *dea* is phonologically stronger than *ea*, and where the weak paradigm accepts both *ea* and *a*, while the strong paradigm only accepts the phonologically richer *ea*, which has received a questionable rating for the clitic paradigm, leading to a strong preference for *a* in that paradigm.

However, not all personal forms display such clear tendencies. For 1<sup>st</sup> singular nominative pronouns, for example, there is only one form *i*, which is the only possibility in all paradigms. It is, however, remarkable, that apart from questionable *n* in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine accusative (see discussion in section 5.3.2), no form has been approved that is (i) phonologically weaker than any form of the next weaker paradigm or (ii) phonologically stronger than any form of the next stronger paradigm. Some more examples are given in Table 21:

|                          | <i>demonstrative</i> | <i>strong</i> | <i>weak</i> | <i>clitic/affixed</i> |
|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Sg Nom   | i                    | i             | i           | i                     |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Sg Acc   | di                   | di            | di          | di                    |
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> Sg m Dat | den                  | eam           | eam         | eam                   |
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> Sg n Nom | des                  | n/a           | es          | s                     |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Pl Acc   | uns                  | uns           | uns         | uns                   |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Pl Dat   | eich                 | eich          | eich        | eich                  |
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> Pl Nom   | de                   | se            | se          | ?se, s                |

Table 21 Comparison of some selected pronominal forms

- Some of these forms can appear in more than one paradigm.

This applies to the majority of forms: While some forms even appear in all paradigms (e.g. *i*, discussed above), other forms appear in two or three paradigms: The 1<sup>st</sup> singular dative pronoun *ma*, for example, was accepted in the weak and the clitic paradigm, and the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular dative pronoun *eam* was accepted in the strong, the weak, and the clitic paradigm.

In (70), we can see the test items for the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular dative form *ma*, which are (A20b) for the demonstrative, (A32b) for the strong pronoun, (A56b) for the weak pronoun, and (A95) for the clitic pronoun. Only as a weak or clitic pronoun, the form has been approved by the informants.

Test items for *ma*: (A20b), (A32b), (A56a), (A95)

(70) a \*Warum kriag i nix? Des is a Frechheit,  
(A20b) why get I nothing this is an atrocity

*ma* steht genauso a Belohnung zua!  
PRON.1<sup>ST</sup>.SG.DAT stands equally a reward to

“Why do I get nothing? That’s an atrocity, I am equally entitled to a reward!”

b \*Jo, da Grete und ma geht’s guat!  
(A32b) yes the.DAT Grete and PRON.1<sup>ST</sup>.SG.DAT goes.it well

“Yes, Grete and I are fine!”

c Mei Traum is, dass i  
(A56a) my dream is that I

*ma* (r) a Haus kauf.  
PRON.1<sup>ST</sup>.SG.DAT (intrusive r) a house buy

“My dream is buying myself a house.”

d Des Geld hob i ned, weil ma  
(A95) the money have I not because PRON.1<sup>ST</sup>.SG.DAT

s da Hans ned gebm hat.  
it the Hans not given has

“I don’t have the money because Hans hasn’t given it to me.”

As already stated above, some forms are phonologically identical for all four paradigms. In Table 22, I have listed all forms that appear in all four paradigms. Interestingly, those are only 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person forms, but not 3<sup>rd</sup> person forms:

| <i>person, number, case</i> | <i>form</i> |
|-----------------------------|-------------|
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Sg Nom      | i           |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Sg Acc      | mi          |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Sg Dat      | mia         |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Sg Nom      | du          |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Sg Acc      | di          |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Sg Dat      | dia         |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Pl Nom      | mia         |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> Pl Dat      | uns         |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Pl Acc      | eich        |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> Pl Dat      | eich        |

*Table 22 Phonologically identical forms in all four paradigms*

In (85), I show the corresponding test items for the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular accusative form *di* as an example, which were all accepted as grammatical by the informants. Those test items are (A22) for the demonstrative, (A34) for the strong pronoun, (A58) for the weak pronoun, and (A108) for the clitic pronoun.

- (71) a    *Was lästerst du immer über*  
 (A22)    *what gossip you always over*  
           *de anderen? Schau di amoi an!*  
           *the others look PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.ACC once on*  
           *“Why do you always gossip about the others? Have a look at yourself!”*
- b    *I hob di und in*  
 (A34)    *I have PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.ACC and the*  
           *Ferdl gestern beim Billa troffn.*  
           *Ferdl yesterday at Billa met*  
           *„I have met you and Ferdl at Billa (an Austrian supermarket).”*
- c    *Hast du di umzogn?*  
 (A58)    *have you PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.ACC changed clothes*  
           *“Have you changed clothes?”*

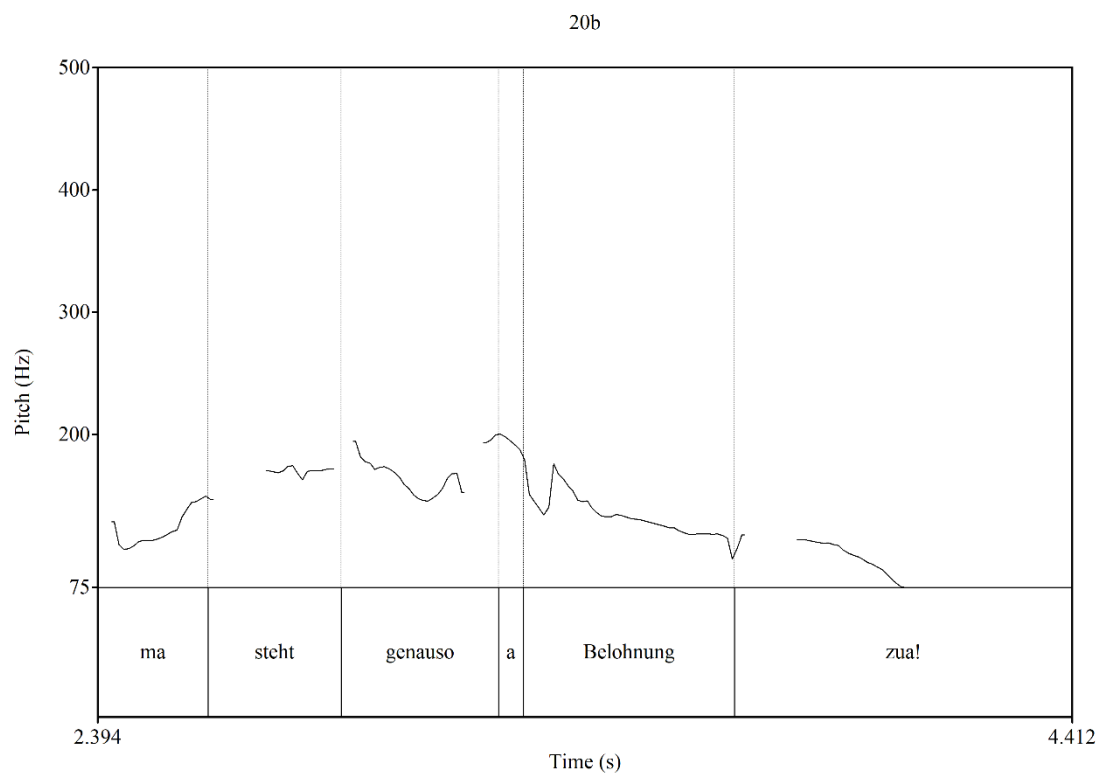
|        |                                                           |      |           |            |      |
|--------|-----------------------------------------------------------|------|-----------|------------|------|
| d      | I                                                         | kenn | di,       | weil       | s    |
| (A108) | I                                                         | know | you       | because    | they |
|        | di                                                        | ma   | gestern   | vorgstellt | ham. |
|        | PRON.2 <sup>ND</sup> .SG.ACC                              | me   | yesterday | presented  | have |
|        | „I know you, because they presented you to me yesterday.” |      |           |            |      |

The vast amount of forms in Table 22 raises the question whether the forms here really are forms of four paradigms, or if the existence of four paradigms is not necessary for all person, number and case combinations. In some, but not all of these slots in the paradigm, however, there exist forms that are not accepted in all four paradigms as well. The complementizer agreement suffixes *-st* and *-s* in 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular and plural, for example, are only available in the environment of clitic pronouns; the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural form *ma* is only accepted in the weak and clitic paradigm. Additionally, the grammaticality of the forms in Table 22 was not equally judged by the informants for each paradigmatic environment. On the other hand, there are forms like 1<sup>st</sup> person singular nominative *i*, which is exclusively accepted for its corresponding slots. There is the possibility that not all four paradigms exist for 1<sup>st</sup> person singular nominative, i.e., the phonological form *i* is not stored separately four times as a Vocabulary Item, but that one paradigm takes the place of the other paradigms here as well. This question is subject to future research.

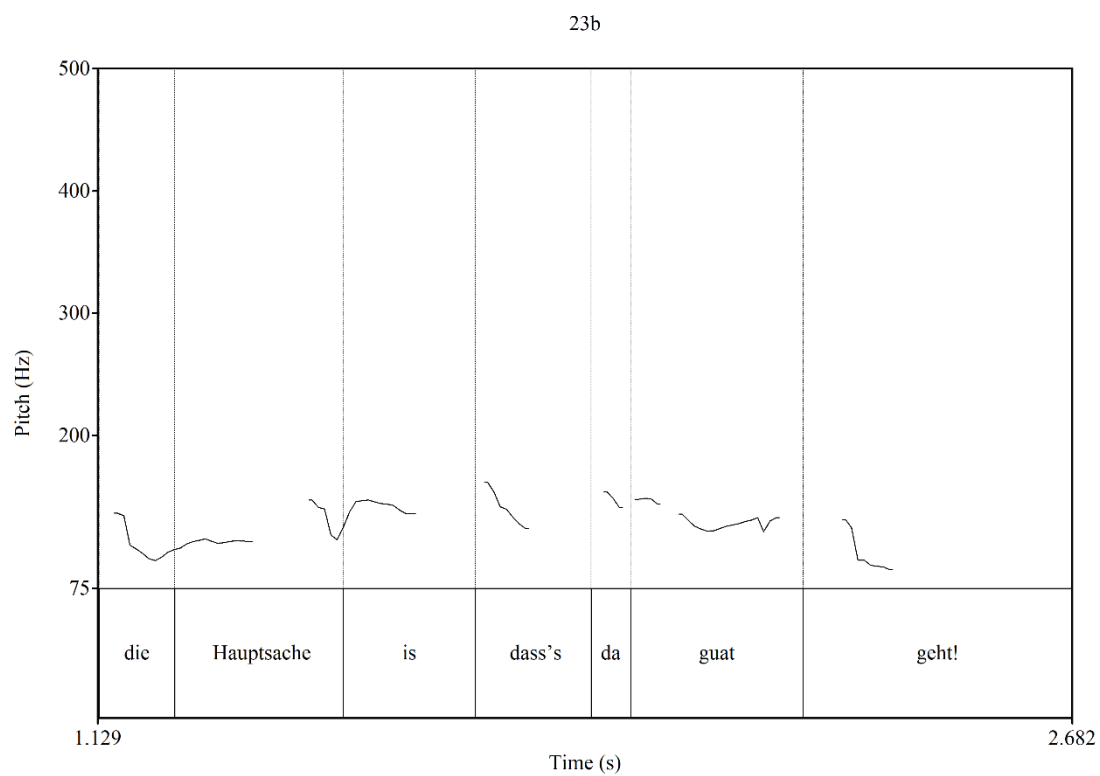
- Accent does not have an impact on which paradigm a form belongs to. This hypothesis is based on Cardinaletti and Starke (1999:56-60), who argue that neither prosodic nor semantic focus is restricted to or obligatory on strong pronouns. (Except for clitics, whose key feature is being prosodically defective.)

As we have seen with test items (A20b) and (A23b), accent does have an impact on the acceptability of certain pronominal forms: The acceptability of the forms *ma* and *da* in an emotive environment has been influenced by the pronominal form being accented or unaccented. This was shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4, which are repeated here as Figure 9 and Figure 10.





*Figure 9 Pitch of recording of test item (A20b) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*



*Figure 10 Pitch of recording of test item (A23b) (fragment containing the pronominal form)*

Another piece of evidence comes from strong pronouns: Those were tested in the environment of coordination. When recording the test items, the speaker had difficulties with the pronunciation of sentences where a coordinated element was not accentable, e.g., *s*. This problem arose for example when recording test item (A39b), which is repeated here in (72):

|     |       |     |                                |     |        |          |         |
|-----|-------|-----|--------------------------------|-----|--------|----------|---------|
| *De | Frida | und | s                              | san | zum    | Heurigen | gangen. |
| the | Frida | and | PRON.3 <sup>RD</sup> .SG.F.NOM | are | to the | Heurigen | gone    |

Forms where an articulation problem arose were also the forms that were not accepted as strong pronouns.

90

- (73) A        jeder        glaubt, dass    eam                    de    Leid  
           PARTICLE everyone.M thinks that PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.M.DAT the people  
           wieder    de            Stimm    geben    werdn.  
           again    the            vote    give    will  
           “Everyone (M)<sub>i</sub> thinks that the people will give him<sub>(i)</sub> the vote again.”

According to I2, the sentence could mean that everyone thinks that people are going to vote for a specific person if *eam* is accented, but it is only possible that everyone thinks they are getting votes themselves if *eam* is unaccented. Accent can thus make a difference in determining a pronominal form’s status with respect to binding, qualifying or disqualifying it as a weak pronoun.

Similarly, I6 suggested accenting the object pronoun rather than the potentially bound subject pronoun in test item (A57b) in order to have the bound interpretation. The test item is shown here in (74):

- (74) Ka Mensch is jemals in drei Stunden nach Tirol und wieder zruck gfaehn.  
           Nur    du    glaubst,    dasst    du                    das    schaffst.  
           only    you    believe    that-AGR PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.NOM    that    succeed  
           “No-one has ever driven to Tyrol and back in three hours. Only you believe that you can do it.”

In order for I6 to get a bound interpretation, i.e., “you are the only x that believes that x can do it”, the interviewee needed to have the accent on the object pronoun *das*, rendering the subject pronoun *du* unaccented. An accent on the subject pronoun *du* would cause the interpretation to be “you are the only x that believes that you can do it”.

I did not separately ask for anything related to accent, but these unprompted comments suggest that there is a tendency for weak pronouns to be preferred unaccented. Therefore, it seems to be the case that accent does have an impact on the paradigm that a form belongs to and this hypothesis does not hold.

- Just like in Weiß (1998), the clitic paradigm may have arbitrary gaps. As I am regarding a different variety of Bavarian, the gaps might differ from those found by Weiß. Other paradigms might have gaps as well.

Indeed, there are gaps in the paradigms: Those occur in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral nominative and dative in the strong paradigm, and in 1<sup>st</sup> person plural accusative in the clitic paradigm.

The gaps result from the following test items being judged as ungrammatical: (A42a) and (A42b) for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral nominative, (A44) for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral dative (both as strong pronouns), and (A117) for 1<sup>st</sup> person plural accusative.

The test items are shown here in (75), (76) and (77):

(75) Schaust du zum Fenster?

(A42) look you to the window

a \*Weil i glaub, dass es und  
because I think that PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.NOM and  
die Tür no offen san.  
the door still open are

b \*Weil i glaub, dass s und  
because I think that PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.NOM and  
die Tür no offen san.  
the door still open are

“Can you have a look at the window? Because I think that the window (*replaced by pronoun*) and the door are still open.”

(76) Warum ziaigts do so? Host du es Fenster offen?

(A44) \*Jo, i hob eam und da Tür  
yes I have PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.DAT and the door

an Flügel zum Streichen obagnummen.  
a panel to paint took down

“Why is it so breezy here? Do you have a window open? – Yes, I removed

a panel from the window (*replaced by pronoun*) and the door to paint them.”

- (77) \*Du kennst uns, weil s uns  
 (A117) you know us because they PRON.1ST.PL.ACC  
 da gestern vorgestellt ham.  
 you.DAT yesterday presented have  
 “You know us, because they presented us to you yesterday.”

As none of the two possible 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral nominative forms have been accepted in (A42), and the forms rejected in (A44) and (A117) were the only forms possibly available for these slots in the paradigm, those constitute the typological gaps. The ungrammaticality of (77), however, could also originate from the PCC, which I discussed above in section 5.3.4. This must be investigated in future research.

In the clitic paradigm, there are multiple forms that have received very questionable ratings and do not offer an alternative: Those include 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral dative (tested in (A103)), 1<sup>st</sup> person plural dative (A104), and 2<sup>nd</sup> person plural accusative (A118). The test items are shown in (78), (79) and (80):

- (78) ??Des Geld hat es Kind ned, weil  
 (A103) the money has the child not because  
 eam s da Hans ned gebm hat.  
 PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.DAT it the Hans not given has  
 “The child doesn’t have the money because Hans didn’t give it to them.”

- (79) ??Den Sessl ham ma ned weil  
 (A104) the chair have we not because  
 uns n da Hans ned gebm hat  
 PRON.1ST.PL.DAT it the Hans not given has  
 “We don’t have the chair because Hans didn’t give it to us.”

(80) ??I kenn eich weil s  
 (A118) I know you.PL because they  
 eich ma gestern vorgstellt ham  
 PRON.2ND.PL.ACC me yesterday presented have  
 “I know you (PL) because they presented you to me yesterday.”

Especially for (80), but also for the other examples above, the possibility of PCC restrictions influencing the grammaticality of these sentences needs to be checked in future research.

Generally, there are less gaps than in the clitic paradigm of Bavarian in Weiß (1998:87), which is shown in Table 23:

|     | <i>Nom</i>  |               | <i>Dat</i>  |               | <i>Acc</i>  |               |
|-----|-------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|
|     | <i>full</i> | <i>clitic</i> | <i>full</i> | <i>clitic</i> | <i>full</i> | <i>clitic</i> |
| ich | i           | e/a           | mia         | ma            | mi          | me            |
| du  | du          | sd            | dia         | da            | di          | de            |
| er  | ea          | a             | eam         | -             | eam         | (a)n          |
| sie | sie         | s             | iar         | -             | sie         | (a)s          |
| es  | -           | s             | (eam)       | -             | -           | (a)s          |
| ihr | es          | (d)s          | enk         | -             | enk         | -             |
| sie | se          | s             | ea          | -             | si          | s             |

*Table 23 Bavarian full and clitic pronouns (Weiß, 1998:87)*

Far more forms have been accepted as a clitic form than those listed in Weiß (1998): Especially for the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular dative forms, the forms used in stronger paradigms are also grammatical in clitic position. This suggests that the Bavarian variant of the community of Traiskirchen permits more forms to be affixed to a complementizer than the variant spoken in Bavaria. In the next section, I will address specific deviances from Weiß’ (1998) grammar, which might lead to some issues with his analysis of the pronominal system.

## 6.2 Comparison to the grammar of Bavarian in Weiß (1998)

The data from my study show multiple differences to the data from Weiß (1998), which have consequences on the theoretical assumptions about Bavarian pronouns stated in Weiß (1998). Those differences do not only concern the phonological shape

of the pronominal forms, but also their availability as well as their position in a sentence. Additionally, Weiß does not regard four paradigms, but only two; this is due to leaving out the demonstrative paradigm, but also due to the distinction between only full and clitic forms. He briefly discusses the pronominal systems of other German dialects as well, assuming that “unaccented” pronouns in those paradigms are to be taken as “clitic” pronouns. This leads to the question whether the weak pronominal paradigm, in his system, is integrated in the full or the clitic paradigm. The shape of the forms suggests that it is integrated in the full paradigm, as his clitic paradigm is very restricted to phonologically minimal forms.

Weiß (1998:88) notes that there are no full forms for 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular neutral nominative and accusative, but the form *eam* is available in the dative only for animate neutral, like *Kind* ‘child’ or *Mädchen* ‘girl’. This seems to be the case as well in Traiskirchen’s variant of Bavarian: Here, I tested the pronominal form *eam* in test item (A44), where it replaced the neutral noun *Fenster* ‘window’. The test item was shown in (76) and is repeated here in (81):

(81) Warum ziaigts do so? Host du es Fenster offen?

|      |   |      |                                |     |     |      |
|------|---|------|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|
| *Jo, | i | hob  | eam                            | und | da  | Tür  |
| yes  | I | have | PRON.3 <sup>RD</sup> .SG.N.DAT | and | the | door |

|    |        |     |           |             |
|----|--------|-----|-----------|-------------|
| an | Flügel | zum | Streichen | obagnummen. |
| a  | panel  | to  | paint     | took down   |

“Why is it so breezy here? Do you have a window open? – Yes, I removed a panel from the window (*replaced by pronoun*) and the door to paint them.”

It was rejected by all interviewees, the two interviewees I2 and I4 noted that *eam* can only refer to a person. Using it in a context where it replaces an animate noun thus could have had an impact on its grammaticality rating. In the weak paradigm in test item (A68), the form *eam* was accepted by all interviewees; here, it referred to the noun *Kind* ‘child’, which is an animate noun. This test item is shown in (82):

- (82) A jedes Kind is froh, wenn eam  
 PARTICLE every child is glad if PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.DAT  
 die Mama a Jausn mitgibt.  
 the mother a snack packs  
 “Every child is glad when their mother packs them a snack.”

In a future study, animacy should thus be considered when testing for neutral pronominal forms. This is a challenge to a part of the feature geometry as proposed by Harley & Ritter (2002): In their system, the CLASS node branches into the binary features *Animate* or *Inanimate/Neuter*, as shown in Figure 11, implying that neutral pronouns are automatically linked to inanimacy.

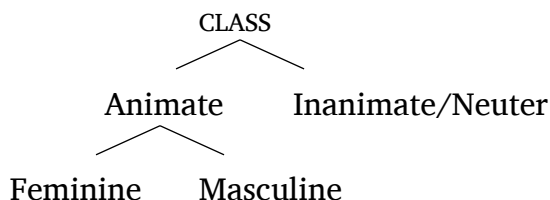


Figure 11 Structure of the CLASS node according to Harley and Ritter (2002:486)

The data from Weiß (1998) as well as from this study suggest that neutral pronouns can have different behaviour and acceptability, depending on their animacy status. This means that the CLASS node in Harley & Ritter’s (2002) feature geometry needs to be reconsidered in a way that allows inanimate as well as animate neutral pronouns and might look like in Figure 12. There are already ternary branches in their feature geometry, so the tripartition does not pose a problem.

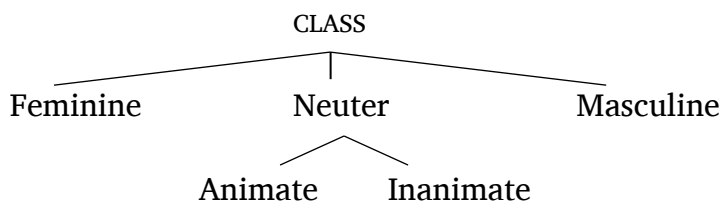


Figure 12 Possible structure of the CLASS node due to evidence from dialect data

There are two forms that have been approved by my interviewees which cannot be found in Weiß (1998): 1<sup>st</sup> person plural nominative *wia*, and 2<sup>nd</sup> person plural nominative *ihr*. Both forms are phonologically similar to the corresponding Standard



German forms, which are *wir* and *ihr*. Additionally, there is the form *enk* in the grammar in Weiß (1998), which is used for 2<sup>nd</sup> person plural accusative and dative, which could not be found in Traiskirchen's variant of Bavarian; instead, *eich* is used, which is phonologically more similar to the Standard German form *euch*. Due to the presence of more standard-near forms, I suggest that the variant investigated in my study has experienced more influences from Standard German than the variant described by Weiß (1998). There are multiple possible reasons for this:

- Time. The data from Weiß (1998) are at least 23 years older than my data. In German, there is a general tendency of losing dialects (cf. Fanta, 2015). The accessibility of media from Germany has been vastly enhanced during this time period, exposing people to variants of German different from the variant of their surroundings.
- Age. My participants' age range was from 57 to 73. It would have been favourable to have older participants; however, the availability of volunteers limited my freedom of choice of participants. The age of Weiß' (1998) informants, however, is unknown.
- Urbanity. The community of Traiskirchen is situated approximately 15 kilometres southern from the borders of Vienna, Austria's capital. It is part Vienna's metropolitan area, with a direct tram connection, as well as a second train line, a bus connection and a highway to Vienna. Many people commute to Vienna, and its population has grown due to its good connection to Vienna in the last years. Therefore, linguistic influences from Vienna are brought to Traiskirchen. In this area, it is uncommon among young people to speak the area's traditional dialect. (cf. Fanta, 2015)
- The researcher. I conducted the study myself. Although I only used audio material from a dialect speaker that was not me, I could still have influenced the interviewees' judgements by my presence. I am able to speak dialect, but usually use a colloquial variety of German which is more standard-oriented. Generally, I tend to use dialect with people who speak to me in dialect, (i.e., among others, my informants), but it is not my main variety, and therefore I am not as proficient in dialect as my interviewees and might cause them to adapt to my linguistic competence.

Another difference to Weiß' (1998) analysis regards the clitic form *s*: Weiß (1998) claims that it functions as a *simple clitic*, i.e., a phonological clitic. The claim is based

on its apparent ability to cliticize to full pronouns and not just clitic pronouns, with the restriction that it can only cliticize in its canonical position. A second restriction is that it can only cliticize to a dative pronoun and not a nominal dative object. Weiß (1998:104) speculates that the position after the dative pronoun lies within the ‘pronominal shell’ and therefore lies within a canonical pronominal area.

The data from my study challenge this view: There are multiple test items which have *s* cliticized to a dative pronominal and have been rejected. For example, test item (A92), where *s* stands after the demonstrative pronoun *de* was rejected in 5 out of 6 interviews. It is replicated in (84):

- (83) \*I        bin        traurig, weil        de  
          I        am        sad        because they (DEMONSTRATIVE)  
  
          s                    ned        gsehn    ham.  
          PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.ACC not        seen        have  
          “I am sad because they haven’t seen it.”

Two interviewees, I2 and I6 have even rejected almost every sentence that had *s* cliticized to a dative pronoun. Therefore, the properties of *s* seem to differ from Weiß’ view in the way that *s* functions as a syntactic clitic, rather than a phonological one. It might, however, be the case, that *s* functions differently in Bavaria than in Traiskirchen’s variant. A further argument against the phonological cliticization of *s* is that phonological cliticization can only happen in canonical positions (cf. Weiß, 1998:104). By having two possible orders of dative and accusative pronominals including *s*, it is shown that it is possible for *s* to cliticize at different positions. (49) and (50) were the examples given about this phenomenon, and will be repeated here in (84) and (85):

- (84) a Ea hot’s        ma                    gebm  
          He has-it.AKK me.DAT            given  
       b Ea hot        ma’s                    gebm  
          He has        me.DAT-it.AKK        given  
          “He has given it to me”  
  
       (85) a Ea hot’s        da                    gebm  
          He has-it.AKK you.SG.DAT        given

|   |                               |     |                   |       |
|---|-------------------------------|-----|-------------------|-------|
| b | Ea                            | hot | da's              | gebm  |
|   | He                            | has | you.SG.DAT-it.AKK | given |
|   | "He has given it to you (SG)" |     |                   |       |

If these examples also work in the variant of Bavaria, *s* must have the ability to function as a syntactic clitic, as well as a phonological one in that variety.

## 7 Next steps and conclusion

### 7.1 Open questions and future research goals

In the study that I conducted, some clear results were achieved, but there is also room for future research. In this section, I will summarise the questions that are yet to be answered as well as some issues that I encountered during my study.

With a relatively small number of six to seven grammaticality judgements per test item, the uncertain cases cannot be explained adequately. For test items where there was disagreement on their grammaticality, it is difficult to determine if one or even more answers are possible outliers. If the study included more participants, such outliers would be more visible: If there are six answers, and two interviewees have a perception error with a test item and therefore judge it as e.g. ungrammatical, this means that we have a 2:1 ratio of judgements, which I would mark as an unclear case. However, if the same two interviewees are part of a sample of 20 people, and are the only two people who have a perception error, this would make the ratio of judgements 9:1, marking them as clear outliers. I tried to acknowledge outliers when I noticed a pattern; e.g., when an interviewee would reject almost every test item where an *s* was cliticized to a pronoun. In that case, I treated that interviewee as an outlier, as the other interviewees found some of the test items grammatical and some ungrammatical, but that one particular interviewee did not like the construction PRONOUN = *s* in general, rendering *s* unusable as a diagnostic for cliticization. Due to these circumstances, it would be favourable to perform the study again with a larger sample.

Following the criteria for the different pronoun types, binding and coordination should be mutually exclusive. However, some informants accepted bound coordinated pronominal form, challenging those criteria. In this thesis, I therefore reformulated this criterion as a tendency in section 5.2. It would be favourable to further eval-

uate this criterion in the future with more test items and more informants, as this has consequences on the general theory of pronouns.

An open question that might be answered in a larger sample is why the (probably) clitic pronominal form *n* has been accepted by 3 out of 6 interviewees in a coordinated environment in test item (A37c). If it can be used this way, the criterion that weak and clitic pronouns cannot be coordinated would be rendered illegitimate. However, it is possible that the three interviewees that rated this sentence as grammatical had perception errors or were tricked into thinking that this sentence is grammatical by the fluency and natural prosody that this sentence was uttered with by the speaker.

Further research to be done concerns the Person Case Constraint: When constructing the test items, this was not considered. However, Anagnostopoulou (2008) claims that German has the weak PCC. The ungrammaticality of test items (A107) and (A108) for some informants, however, suggests that the strong PCC might apply in this variety of German. The strong and weak PCC are recalled in (85) and (86).

(86) *The Strong PCC*

In a combination of a weak direct object and an indirect object [clitic, agreement marker or weak pronoun], the direct object has to be third person. (Bonet, 1991:182, cited after Anagnostopoulou, 2017:3)

(87) *The Weak PCC*

In a combination of a weak direct object and an indirect object [clitic, agreement marker or weak pronoun], if there is a third person it has to be the direct object. (Bonet, 1991:192, cited after Anagnostopoulou, 2017:4)

The test items were shown in (61) and (62) and are repeated here in (88) and (89):

- (88) Du kennst mi, weil' s mi  
 you know me because they PRON.1<sup>ST</sup>.SG.ACC  
 da gestern vorgstellt ham.  
 you.DAT yesterday presented have  
 "You know me because they presented me to you yesterday."

- (89) I kenn di, weil' s di  
 I know you because they PRON.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG.ACC  
 ma gestern vorgstellt ham.  
 me.DAT yesterday presented have  
 “You know me because they presented me to you yesterday.”

The combination of a 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular direct (accusative) object with a 2<sup>nd</sup> or 1<sup>st</sup> person singular indirect (dative) object was rejected by some informants. As there is no 3<sup>rd</sup> person involved in this construction, this suggests that the strong PCC is present in their grammars. Alternatively, it would mean that the accusative pronouns *mi* and *di* are not available as clitic forms. To clarify this question, future research must determine whether more PCC effects (especially strong PCC) can be found in this variety of German.

With neutral gender, some informants stated that they found 3<sup>rd</sup> person object pronouns ungrammatical when they referred to an object (e.g., *Fenster* ‘window’) rather than a person (e.g., *Kind* ‘child’). Interviewees I2 and I4 stated that *eam* refers to a person and not an object, rendering test item (A44) ungrammatical. The test item is repeated in (90):

- (90) Warum ziagets do so? Host du es Fenster offen?  
 \*Jo, i hob eam und da Tür  
 yes I have PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.DAT and the door  
 an Flügel zum Streichen obagnummen.  
 a panel to paint took down  
 “Why is it so breezy here? Do you have a window open? – Yes, I removed a panel from the window (*replaced by pronoun*) and the door to paint them.”

The judgement uttered by the informants suggests that *eam* would be grammatical in a coordinated environment if it referred to a person. Therefore, it seems that animacy must be regarded as a criterion for grammaticality and that 3<sup>rd</sup> person neutral pronouns need to be tested with animate and inanimate DPs that are replaced by the

pronominal forms. We need to keep in mind, however, that *eam* is also the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine dative pronominal form and therefore a homophone. This could also mean that I2 and I4 would only accept masculine *eam* in a coordinated environment. The pronominal form *eam* was accepted as a neutral form referring to *Kind* ‘child’ in test item (A68), but this sentence did not test the possibility of coordination, but rather binding. Test item (A68) is repeated in (91).

- (91) A            jedes    Kind   is        froh,        wenn   eam  
           PARTICLE every    child   is        glad        if        PRON.3<sup>RD</sup>.SG.N.DAT
- die        Mama   a        Jausn   mitgibt.  
           the        mother   a        snack   packs
- “Every child is glad when their mother packs them a snack.”

From the data, it is not clear whether neutral *eam* can only be used referring to animate DPs or cannot be used as a strong pronoun. In a future study, this needs to be checked.

The data found in the study has not given us clues on the nature of clitics; there have not been any hints that suggest head movement or phrasal movement. It has been suggested by Roberts (2010) that clitics are simultaneously minimal and maximal elements, and that they undergo head movement. Sportiche (1996) suggests that clitic placement comes from a combination of base-generation and movement, and that there are two types of clitics, the first one behaving like functional heads that can license certain DPs, while the second type are analysed as pure agreement. In a future study, there could be more focus on clitics and their placement.

Related to agreement, my data lack an explanation why 2<sup>nd</sup> person allows agreement suffixes in the singular and the plural, which can, but need not, be combined with other pronominal forms and if those agreement suffixes really have the same status as clitic pronouns. In (59), I discussed two different analyses for test item (A57b), which are repeated here in (92):

- (92) a Nur du<sub>i</sub> glaubst, dass- st<sub>i</sub> des schaffst.  
only you.SG believe that AGR.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG that achieve
- b Nur du glaubst, dass- st<sub>i</sub> Ø<sub>i</sub> des schaffst.  
only you.SG believe that AGR.2<sup>ND</sup>.SG PRON that achieve  
“Only you<sub>i</sub> believe that you<sub>i</sub>’ll achieve that.”

It is possible that such agreement suffixes themselves are the realization of an empty bound pronoun, as in (92a), or that they bind a covert pronoun, as in (92b). Both possibilities need to be evaluated in future work.

## 7.2 Summary of the results

For this thesis, I performed a study where I asked eight dialect speakers in seven interviews for their grammaticality judgements about 120 test items. Some test items had sub-items, which lead to a total number of 172 sentences to be judged. Based on these sentences, I could set up the personal pronoun system of the Bavarian variety spoken in the community of Traiskirchen, Lower Austria. The four pronominal paradigms demonstrative, strong, weak and clitic/affixed pronouns are repeated in Table 24 to Table 27.

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i>       |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                | mia                 |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du, Ø             | di                | dia, ?da            |
| 3. P. Sg. m | dea               | den               | den                 |
| 3. P. Sg. f | de                | de                | dera                |
| 3. P. Sg. n | des               | des               | den                 |
| 1. P. Pl.   | mia, wia          | uns               | uns                 |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr, Ø       | eich              | eich                |
| 3. P. Pl.   | de                | de                | de (+ Prep.), denen |

*Table 24 Demonstrative pronouns*

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                | mia           |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du                | di                | dia           |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ea                | eam, ?n           | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | sie               | sie               | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | n/a               | ?es               | n/a           |
| 1. P. Pl.   | mia, wia          | uns               | uns           |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr          | eich              | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | se                | se                | eana          |

*Table 25 Strong pronouns*

|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | mi                | mia, ma       |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du                | di                | dia, da       |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ea, a             | ??eam, ?an, nan   | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | sie               | ?sie, ??as        | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | es                | es                | eam           |
| 1. P. Pl.   | ?mia, ?wia, ma    | uns               | uns           |
| 2. P. Pl.   | ees, ihr          | eich              | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | se                | se                | eana          |

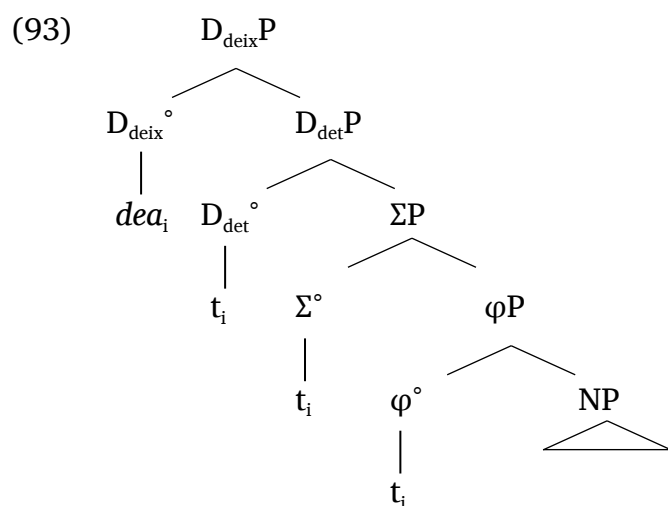
*Table 26 Weak pronouns*

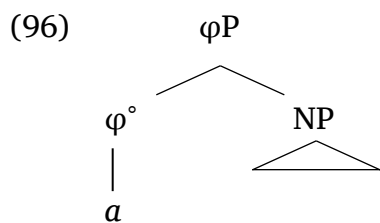
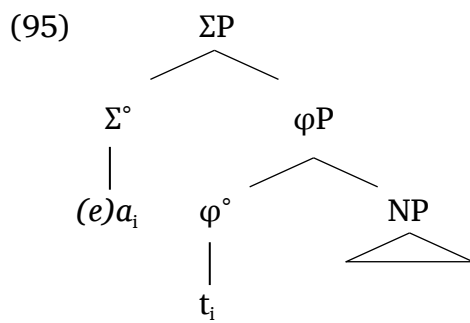
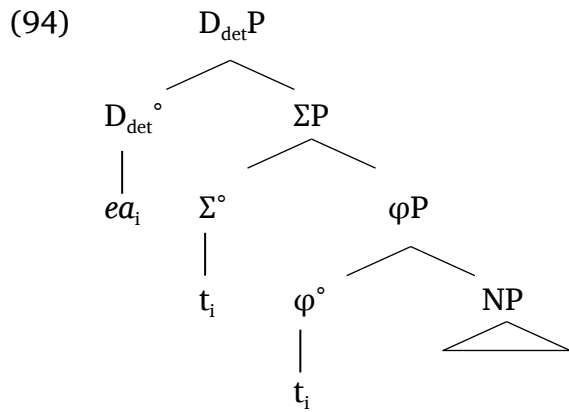


|             | <i>Nominative</i> | <i>Accusative</i> | <i>Dative</i> |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| 1. P. Sg.   | i                 | ?mi               | ma, mia       |
| 2. P. Sg.   | du, -st           | di                | da, ?dia      |
| 3. P. Sg. m | ?ea, a            | ??eam, ?an, ?n    | eam           |
| 3. P. Sg. f | ?sie, s           | es, ?as           | ihr           |
| 3. P. Sg. n | s                 | ?as, s            | ??eam         |
| 1. P. Pl.   | ma, ?mia          | n/a               | ??uns         |
| 2. P. Pl.   | -s                | ??eich            | eich          |
| 3. P. Pl.   | ?se, s            | ?as, s            | eana          |

*Table 27 Clitic/affixed pronouns*

The differences between the paradigms suggest that there is indeed the need for four separate pronominal paradigms. The internal structures of each paradigm are repeated in (93) for demonstratives, (94) for strong pronouns, (95) for weak pronouns, and (96) for clitic/affixed pronouns, exemplified with 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular masculine nominative forms:





Across the paradigms, multiple forms appear in more than one paradigm. On the other hand, there are gaps in some paradigms, which are not filled by a form. Phonologically stronger forms tend to appear in stronger paradigms, which have more internal structure. If forms are accented, they are more likely to belong to a stronger, rather than a weaker paradigm. In comparison to the pronominal system of Bavarian in Weiß (1998), my system is more complex, as there are not just full and clitic, but four pronoun types.

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## 9 Appendix: Questionnaire

### Part 1: missing pronominals

#### accented

- (A1) Willst du mein Schnitzl zamesn? – Na, des is a Hendl, **des** mog i ned.
- (A2) Wo is da Hans? – **Den** hob i scho lang ned gsegn.
- (A3) I bild ma zwar ein, dass i des Huber-Auto gestern vorbeifahrn gsehn hab, aber die Meiers san jetzt ned do. San **se** vielleicht mit dem Auto vo de Hubers weggfahrn?
- (A4) Host du de Laata zu meinen Eltern bracht? – Na, i hob's im Karl bracht, hätt i's **eana** bringen solln?

#### unaccented

- (A5) Host du gwusst, dass die Resl und da Max heiraten? – Jo, hob i **da** des ned dazöht?
- (A6) A jeder glaubt, dass **ea** da schönste is.
- (A7) Waast du wos vom Hans? Jo, i hob **an** gestern min Traktor fohrn gsegn.
- (A8) Warum steht da Katrin ihr Auto ned do? – Jo weil's nach Baden gfahrn is.
- (A9) Hast du dei' Kuchl scho zambaut? – Na, morgn wird's erst geliefert!
- (A10) Gestern woa ma in Neustadt. – Wos hobts'n dort dau? (Ø)
- (A11) Da Host und de Inge san wieder da! I hab's gestern in da Stadt gsehn!

### Part 2: impossible pronoun uses (should be ungrammatical)

#### (A12) bound demonstrative (with emotivity):

- a A jeder<sub>i</sub> glaubt, dass der<sub>i</sub> der Schönste ist. (Wer soll der Schönste sein? jeder/eine bestimmte Person)
- b Beim Preisschnapsn gestern hat a jede<sub>i</sub> vo de Fraun glaubt, dass de<sub>i</sub> des gewinnen wird. (Wer soll gewinnen? jede/eine bestimmte Person)
- c Heit spielt Tribuswinkel gegen Pfaffstätten, und beide san der Meinung, dass de des verlieren werden. (Wer wird verlieren? Tribuswinkel/Pfaffstätten/die eigene Mannschaft/die andere Mannschaft/ungrammatisch)



(A13) bound + coordinated:

- a A jeder<sub>i</sub> von der österreichischen Nationalmannschaft glaubt, dass er<sub>i</sub> und da Alaba de meisten Tore schießn werdn. (Von wem wird geglaubt, dass er gemeinsam mit Alaba die meisten Tore schießt? jeder von sich selbst/jeder von einer anderen Person)
- b A jeder von der österreichischen Nationalmannschaft glaubt, dass er die meisten Tore schießen wird. (should be grammatical, no coordination)
- c A Wahrsagerin hat gsagt, dass zwa Fuaßballe a rote Kartn kriagn werdn. Einer davon is da Alaba. Kana von de Fuaßballe<sub>i</sub> glaubt, dass ea<sub>i</sub> und da Alaba de rotn Kartn kriagn werdn.

(A14) demonstrative as a predicate (morphologically complex with a d-)

Der Josef is a Maler. Die Luise is des aa.

(A15) strong pronoun as a predicate (accented)

Der Josef is a Maler. Die Luise is es aa.

(A16) coordination + no proper prosodic domain

Kennst du schon den Hans und de Ruth? – Jo, da Peter hat ma’n und’s scho vorgstellt.

(A17) morphologically complex + no proper prosodic domain

Host du gwusst, dass da Hans scho vom Urlaub zruck is? – Jo, i hob’d’n gestern gsehn.

### Part 3: Pronoun types

#### Part 3.1: Demonstratives (emotivity)

(A18) Immer muass i des ausbaden!

(A19) An mi hat scho wieder kana denkt!

(A20) a Warum krieg i nix? Des is a Frechheit, mia steht genauso a Belohnung zua!

b Warum krieg i nix? Des is a Frechheit, ma steht genauso a Belohnung zua!

(A21) a Warum mischt sich da Koarl immer ein? – Koarl, wos host du damit

z'tuan?

- b Warum mischt sich da Koarl immer ein? – Koarl, wos host damit z'tuan?
- (A22) Wos lästerst du immer über de anderen? Schau di amoi an!
- (A23) a De anderen san wurscht, die Hauptsache is, dass's dia guat geht!  
b De anderen san wurscht, die Hauptsache is, dass's da guat geht!
- (A24) a I siech ned ein, dass mia den Schlamassel ausbaden miassn!  
b I siech ned ein, dass wia den Schlamassel ausbaden miassn!  
c I siech ned ein, dass ma den Schlamassel ausbaden miassn!
- (A25) Na es hat ja wieder genau uns treffen miassn!
- (A26) Wie's uns damit 'gangen ist, fragt ja keiner!
- (A27) a Damit hab I ned grechnet, dass ees jetzt do wohnts!  
b Damit hab I ned grechnet, dass ihr jetzt do wohnts!  
c Damit hab I ned grechnet, dass-s jetzt do wohnts!
- (A28) Wia hot's eich da her verschlagen?
- (A29) Von eich will i gar nix mehr wissen!

### Part 3.2: Strong pronouns (coordination)

- (A30) De Grete und i gengan morgn ins Wirtshaus.
- (A31) Host du de Grete und mi gestern gsehn?
- (A32) a Jo, da Grete und mia geht's guat!  
b Jo, da Grete und ma geht's guat!
- (A33) a Du und da Ferdl gengan morgn ins Kino, gell?  
b Du und da Ferdl gehts morgn ins Kino, gell?
- (A34) I hob di und in Ferdl gestern beim Billa troffn.
- (A35) a Wia geht's dia und in Ferdl?  
b Wia geht's da und in Ferdl?
- (A36) a Wo is da Hans? – Da Hiasl und ea san zum Heurigen gengan.  
b Wo is da Hans? – Da Hiasl und a san zum Heurigen gengan.
- (A37) a Wo is da Hans? – I hob eam und in Hiasl beim Heurigen gsehn.  
b Wo is da Hans? – I hob an und in Hiasl beim Heurigen gsehn.  
c Wo is da Hans? – I hob n und in Hiasl beim Heurigen gsehn.
- (A38) Wo is da Hans? I muass eam und in Hiasl no a Geld z'ruckgebn.
- (A39) a Wo is de Resl? – De Frida und sie san zum Heurigen gengan.  
b Wo is de Resl? – De Frida und s san zum Heurigen gengan.

- (A40) a Wo is de Resl? – I hob sie und die Frida beim Heurigen gsehn.  
 b Wo is de Resl? – I hob as und die Frida beim Heurigen gsehn.  
 c Wo is de Resl? – I hob es und die Frida beim Heurigen gsehn.
- (A41) Wo is de Resl? I muass ihr und da Frida no a Geld z'ruckgebn.
- (A42) a Schaust du zum Fenster? Weil i glaub, dass es und die Tür no offen san.  
 b Schaust du zum Fenster? Weil i glaub, dass s und die Tür no offen san.
- (A43) a Das Fenster is no offen. Machst es und die Tür zua?  
 b Das Fenster is no offen. Machst as und die Tür zua?  
 c Das Fenster is no offen. Machst s und die Tür zua?
- (A44) Warum ziagets do so? Host du es Fenster offen? – Jo, i hob eam und da Tür an Flügel zum Streichen obagnummen.
- (A45) a Dass die Meiers und mia ned im Telefonbuach stengan, is Obsicht.  
 b Dass die Meiers und wia ned im Telefonbuach stengan, is Obsicht.  
 c Dass die Meiers und ma ned im Telefonbuach stengan, is Obsicht.
- (A46) Gestern hat da Karl uns und die Meiers beim Heurigen getroffen.
- (A47) Der Fritz hat den Meiers und uns zum Hausbau gratuliert.
- (A48) a Warn ned de Hubers und ees gestern beim Heurigen?  
 b Warn ned de Hubers und ihr gestern beim Heurigen?  
 c Warts ned de Hubers und ees gestern beim Heurigen?  
 d Warts ned de Hubers und ihr gestern beim Heurigen?
- (A49) Wo hat des Taxi eich und de Hubers abholt?
- (A50) Wenn's eich und de Hubers in selben Briaf geschickt haben, dann muss das ja stimmen, oder?
- (A51) a Wo san da Horst und de Inge? – Die Bauers und se san zum Heurigen gangen.  
 b Wo san da Horst und de Inge? – Die Bauers und s san zum Heurigen gangen.
- (A52) a Wo san da Horst und de Inge? – I hab se und die Bauers beim Heurigen gsehn.  
 b Wo san da Horst und de Inge? – I hab as und die Bauers beim Heurigen gsehn.  
 c Wo san da Horst und de Inge? – I hab s und die Bauers beim Heurigen gsehn.
- (A53) Wo san da Horst und de Inge? I muass eana und denan Bauers no a Geld

z'ruckgebm.

### Part 3.3: Weak pronouns (binding)

- (A54) Wieso glaubst du ned, dass du an Lottosechser ham könntest? A jeder glaubt doch, dass a gwinnt, sogar i glaub, dass i gwinnt.
- (A55) I will mi ned in Unkosten stürzen.
- (A56) a Mei Traum is, dass i ma (r) a Haus kauf.  
b Mei Traum is, dass i mia (r) a Haus kauf.
- (A57) a Ka Mensch is jemals in drei Stunden nach Tirol und wieder zruck gfahrn. Nur du glaubst, dass du das schaffst.  
b Ka Mensch is jemals in drei Stunden nach Tirol und wieder zruck gfahrn. Nur du glaubst, dass du das schaffst.
- (A58) Hast du di umzogn?
- (A59) a Hast du dia die Hände gwaschn?  
b Hast du da die Hände gwaschn?
- (A60) a A jeder glaubt, dass ea es Preisschnapsen gwinnt. (Wer gewinnt? jeder/eine bestimmte Person)  
b A jeder glaubt, dass a es Preisschnapsen gwinnt. (Wer gewinnt?)
- (A61) a A jeder glaubt, dass eam de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen? Jeden/eine bestimmte Person)  
b A jeder glaubt, dass an de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen?)  
c A jeder glaubt, dass n de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen?)
- (A62) A jeder glaubt, dass eam de Leid wieder de Stimm geben werdn. (Wen?)
- (A63) a A jede glaubt, dass sie de nächste Wahl gwinnt. (Wer?)  
b A jede glaubt, dass s de nächste Wahl gwinnt. (Wer?)
- (A64) a A jede glaubt, dass sie de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen?)  
b A jede glaubt, dass as de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen?)  
c A jede glaubt, dass es de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen?)  
d A jede glaubt, dass s de Leid wieder wähl'n werdn. (Wen?)
- (A65) A jede glaubt, dass ihr de Leid wieder de Stimme geben werdn. (Wen?)
- (A66) a Jedes brave Kind macht de Hausübung glei nach der Schui, damit es nachher spielen kann.  
b Jedes brave Kind macht de Hausübung glei nach der Schui, damit s nachher spielen kann.

- (A67) a A jedes Kind is höflich, wenn die Eltern as guad erzogn habn.  
 b A jedes Kind is höflich, wenn die Eltern es guad erzogn habn.  
 c A jedes Kind is höflich, wenn die Eltern s guad erzogn habn.
- (A68) A jedes Kind is froh, wenn eam die Mama a Jausn mitgibt.
- (A69) a Ned nur mia hoffn, dass mia gsund bleiben. (Wer soll gesund bleiben?  
 Nur wir/alle anderen auch)  
 b Ned nur mia hoffn, dass wia gsund bleiben. (Wer soll gesund bleiben?)  
 c Ned nur mia hoffn, dass ma gsund bleiben. (Wer soll gesund bleiben?)
- (A70) Mia ham uns gestern für a Kreuzfahrt angemeldet.
- (A71) Mia ham uns gestern a neues Auto kauft.
- (A72) a Da Koarl hot gor kan Überblick über seine Termine. Ees orweits und stu-  
 dierts gleichzeitig und sogar ees wissts, obs ees morgen Zeit habts.  
 b Da Koarl hot gor kan Überblick über seine Termine. Ees orweits und stu-  
 dierts gleichzeitig und sogar ees wissts, obs ihr morgen Zeit habts.  
 c Da Koarl hot gor kan Überblick über seine Termine. Ees orweits und stu-  
 dierts gleichzeitig und sogar ees wissts, obs morgen Zeit habts.
- (A73) Hobts ees eich aa scho über de Bauarbeitn beschwert?
- (A74) Hobts ees eich aa a neues Auto kauft?
- (A75) a Wissen olle eigentlich, dass se a Packl kriagn?  
 b Wissen olle eigentlich, dass s a Packl kriagn?
- (A76) a Wissen olle eigentlich, wann se da Burgamasta besucht hat?  
 b Wissen olle eigentlich, wann as da Burgamasta besucht hat?  
 c Wissen olle eigentlich, wann s da Burgamasta besucht hat?
- (A77) Wissen olle, welche Schuitoschn eana ghört? (Wessen Schultasche? Alle  
 ihre eigene?)

#### Part 3.4: Clitic/affixed pronouns

##### Nominative

- (A78) I bin traurig, weil i's ned gsehn hab.
- (A79) I bin traurig, weil du's ned gsehn hast.
- (A80) I bin traurig, weilst'n ned gsehn hast.
- (A81) I bin traurig, weil ea's ned gsehn hat.
- (A82) I bin traurig, weil a's ned gsehn hat.
- (A83) I bin traurig, weil sie's ned gsehn hat.

- (A84) De Hilde kennt unsern Hauptplatz gar ned. I bin traurig, weil s'n ned gsehn hat.
- (A85) Des Kind kennt unsern Hauptplatz gar ned. \*I bin traurig, weil es'n ned gsehn hat.
- (A86) Des Kind kennt unsern Hauptplatz gar ned. I bin traurig, weil s'n ned gsehn hat.
- (A87) I bin traurig, weil ma's ned gsehn ham.
- (A88) I bin traurig, weil mia's ned gsehn ham.
- (A89) I bin traurig, weil ees'n ned gsehn habts.
- (A90) I bin traurig, weils ees'n ned gsehn habts.
- (A91) I bin traurig, weils'n ned gsehn habts.
- (A92) I bin traurig, weil de's ned gsehn ham.
- (A93) I bin traurig, weil se's ned gsehn ham.
- (A94) I bin traurig, weil s'n ned gsehn ham.

#### Dative

- (A95) Des Geld hob i ned, weil ma's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A96) Des Geld hob i ned, weil mia's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A97) Des Geld host ned, weil da's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A98) Des Geld host ned, weil dia's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A99) Des Geld hot a ned, weil eam's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A100) Des Geld hot's ned, weil ihr's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A101) Des Geld hot's ned, weil dea's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A102) Des Geld hot es Kind ned, weil den's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A103) Des Geld hot es Kind ned, weil eam's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A104) Den Sessl ham'ma ned, weil uns'n da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A105) Des Geld hobts ned, weil eich's da Hans ned gebm hat.
- (A106) Des Geld ham's ned, weil eana's da Hans ned gebm hat.

#### Accusative

- (A107) Du kennst mi, weil's mi da gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A108) I kenn di, weil's di ma gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A109) I kenn eam, weil's'eam'ma gestern vorgsellt ham.

- (A110) I kenn eam, weil's'an'ma gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A111) I kenn eam, weil's'n'ma gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A112) I kenn sie, weil's'es'ma gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A113) I kenn sie, weil's'as'ma gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A114) I kenn des, weil's'as'ma gestern zagt ham.
- (A115) I kenn des, weil's'es'ma gestern zagt ham.
- (A116) I kenn des, weil'a's'ma gestern zagt hat.
- (A117) Du kennst uns, weil's'uns'da gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A118) I kenn eich, weil's'eich'ma gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A119) Du kennst de zwa, weil's'as'da gestern vorgstellt ham.
- (A120) Du kennst de zwa, weil'a's'da gestern vorgstellt hat.

## 10 Appendix: Answers

|         | I1<br>73/69y | I2<br>65y | I3<br>72y | I4<br>60y | I5<br>69y | I6<br>57y | I7<br>60y |
|---------|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| (A1)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A2)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A3)    | √            | √         | √         | ?         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A4)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A5)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A6)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A7)    | √            | √         | *         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A8)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A9)    | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A10)   | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A11)   | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A12) a | √ (u)        | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     |
| b       | √ (u)        | ?? (u)    | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     | √ (u)     |
| c       | ?? (u)       | *         | √ (u)     | *         | ?? (u)    | √ (u)     | *         |
| (A13) a | √ (b)        | ??        | √ (b)     | √ (u)     | ? (b)     | √ (u)     | √ (b)     |
| b       | √            | √         | √         | √         | √         | √ (b)     | √         |
| c       | √ (u)        | ??        | √ (b)     | √ (u)     | ?         | √ (u)     | √ (b)     |
| (A14)   | √            | * (g)     | √         | ??        | *         | √         | √         |
| (A15)   | *            | * (g)     | √         | ??        | *         | ?         | √         |
| (A16)   | *            | *         | *         | *         | *         | *         | *         |
| (A17)   | *            | *         | *         | *         | *         | *         | *         |
| (A18)   | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A19)   | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A20) a | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| b       | *            | *         |           | *         | *         | *         | *         |
| (A21) a | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| b       | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A22)   | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |
| (A23) a | √            | √         |           | √         | √         | √         | √         |



|       |   |    |    |  |   |       |   |           |
|-------|---|----|----|--|---|-------|---|-----------|
|       | b | √  | *  |  | √ | √     | √ | √ (p 23a) |
| (A24) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | √  | √  |  | √ | ? (d) | * | √         |
|       | c | ?  | ?? |  | ? | ??    | * | *         |
| (A25) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A26) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A27) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | * | √         |
|       | c | √  | √  |  | ? | √     | √ | √         |
| (A28) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A29) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A30) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A31) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A32) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | *         |
| (A33) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | ?     | √ | √         |
|       | b | √  | √  |  | √ | ?     | √ | √         |
| (A34) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A35) | a | √? | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | ??    | * | √         |
| (A36) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | ?     | * | *         |
| (A37) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | *         |
|       | c | √  | *  |  | * | √     | * | √         |
| (A38) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A39) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | *         |
| (A40) | a | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | *         |
|       | c | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | *         |
| (A41) |   | √  | √  |  | √ | √     | √ | √         |
| (A42) | a | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | *         |
|       | b | *  | *  |  | * | *     | * | √?        |

|       |   |       |           |       |        |       |            |       |
|-------|---|-------|-----------|-------|--------|-------|------------|-------|
| (A43) | a | ✓     | *         |       | *      | *     | 18         | ✓     |
|       | b | ??    | *         |       | *      | ?     | *          | *??   |
|       | c | *     | *         |       | *      | ??*   | *          | ✓     |
| (A44) |   | ? ✓   | *         |       | *      | *     | *          | *     |
| (A45) | a | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
|       | b | ✓     | ✓ (p 45a) |       | ✓      | *     | *          | ✓     |
|       | c | *     | *         |       | *      | *     | *          | *     |
| (A46) |   | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A47) |   | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ?     |
| (A48) | a | ✓     | (f)       |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
|       | b | ✓     | ✓         |       | * (d)  | ✓     | * (d)      | ✓     |
|       | c | ✓     | (f)       |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
|       | d | ✓     | (f)       |       | ✓      | ✓     | * (d)      | ✓     |
| (A49) |   | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A50) |   | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A51) | a | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
|       | b | *     | *         |       | *      | *     | *          | *     |
| (A52) | a | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
|       | b | *     | *         |       | *      | *     | *          | *     |
|       | c | ??    | *         |       | *      | *     | *          | ??    |
| (A53) |   | ✓     | ✓         |       | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A54) |   | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A55) |   | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A56) | a | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ✓      | ✓     | *          | ✓     |
|       | b | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ?? (d) | *     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A57) | a | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
|       | b | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ✓      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A58) |   | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ??     | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A59) | a | ✓     | *         | ✓     | ?      | ✓     | ✓? (p 59b) | ✓     |
|       | b | ✓     | ✓         | ✓     | ?      | ✓     | ✓          | ✓     |
| (A60) | a | ✓ (b) | *         | ✓ (b) | ✓ (b)  | ✓ (b) | ✓ (b)      | ✓ (b) |
|       | b | ✓ (b) | ✓ (b)     | ✓ (b) | ✓ (b)  | ✓ (b) | ✓ (b)      | ✓ (b) |

<sup>18</sup> “es” was understood as “des”, leading to a well-formed grammaticality judgement ✓

|       |   |         |                      |           |       |         |           |       |
|-------|---|---------|----------------------|-----------|-------|---------|-----------|-------|
| (A61) | a | √ (u)   | √ (b)                | √ (u)     | √ (u) | √ (b)   | √ (u)     | √ (b) |
|       | b | *       | *                    | √ (b)     | √ (b) | *       | √ (b)     | √ (b) |
|       | c | √ (p u) | √ (b)                | √ (b)     | *     | √ (b)   | √ (b)     | √ (b) |
| (A62) |   | √       | √ (b <sup>19</sup> ) | √ (b)     | √ (b) | √ (b)   | √ (u)     | √ (u) |
| (A63) | a | √ (b)   | √ (b)                | √ (u)     | √ (b) | √ (b)   | √ (u)     | √ (b) |
|       | b | √ (b)   | √ (b)                | √ (b)     | √ (b) | √ (p u) | √ (b)     | √ (b) |
| (A64) | a | √ (u)   | *                    | √ (b)     | √ (b) | √ (b)   | √ (u)     | √ (b) |
|       | b | √ (u)   | *                    | √ (b)     | *     | *       | √ (u)     | √ (b) |
|       | c | *       | *                    | √ (b) (g) | *     | *       | *         | *     |
|       | d | √ (b)   | √ (b)                | √ (b)     | √ (b) | √ (b)   | √ (u)     | √ (b) |
| (A65) |   | √ (b)   | √                    | √ (b)     | √     | √       | √ (u)     | √ (b) |
| (A66) | a | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | *         | √     |
|       | b | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A67) | a | ?       | √                    | *         | ?     | *       | *         | ?     |
|       | b | √       | √                    | √         | ?     | √       | *         | √     |
|       | c | √       | *                    | √         | ?     | *       | *         | √     |
| (A68) |   | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A69) | a | √ (u)   | √ (u)                | √ (b)     | √ (u) | √ (b)   | √ (b)     | √ (b) |
|       | b | √ (u)   | √ (b)                | √ (b)     | ? (u) | √ (u)   | ? (d)     | ? (d) |
|       | c | √ (b)   | √ (b)                | √ (b)     | √ (b) | √ (b)   | √ (b)     | √ (b) |
| (A70) |   | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A71) |   | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A72) | a | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
|       | b | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √ (p 72a) | √     |
|       | c | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A73) |   | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A74) |   | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A75) | a | √       | √?                   | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
|       | b | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |
| (A76) | a | √       | √                    | √         | ??    | √       | *         | √     |
|       | b | *       | *                    | *         | ??    | *       | *         | ?     |
|       | c | √       | √                    | √         | √     | √       | √         | √     |

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<sup>19</sup> if unaccented

|        |       |       |       |       |       |       |       |
|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| (A77)  | √ (b) | √ (b) | √ (b) | √ (b) | √ (b) | √ (b) | √ (b) |
| (A78)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A79)  | √     | *     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A80)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A81)  | √     | *     |       | ?     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A82)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A83)  | √     | *     |       | √     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A84)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A85)  | *     | *     |       | *     | *     | *     | *     |
| (A86)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A87)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A88)  | √     | *     |       | ?     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A89)  | *     | *     |       | ?     | *     | *     | *     |
| (A90)  | *     | *     |       | ?     | *     | *     | ?     |
| (A91)  | √     | √     |       | ?     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A92)  | *     | *     |       | *     | *     | √     | *     |
| (A93)  | √     | *     |       | √     | √     | *     | *     |
| (A94)  | √     | √     |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A95)  | √     | √?    |       | √     | √     | √     | √     |
| (A96)  | √     | *     |       | ?     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A97)  | √     | *     |       | ?     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A98)  | √     | *     |       | ?     | √     | *     | ??    |
| (A99)  | √     | *     |       | √     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A100) | √     | √     |       | ?     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A101) | *     | *     |       | *     | *     | *     | *     |
| (A102) | *     | *     |       | ??    | *     | *     | ?     |
| (A103) | √     | *     |       | ??*   | ?     | *     | √     |
| (A104) | √     | *     |       | ??    | *     | *     | √     |
| (A105) | √     | *     |       | √     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A106) | √     | *     |       | √     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A107) | √     | *     |       | ?     | ?     | *     | √     |
| (A108) | √     | √     |       | ?     | √     | *     | √     |
| (A109) | √     | *     |       | *     | ?     | *     | √     |
| (A110) | √?    | √     |       | √     | *     | *     | √     |

|        |    |   |  |    |   |   |   |
|--------|----|---|--|----|---|---|---|
| (A111) | √? | √ |  | ?  | * | * | √ |
| (A112) | √  | √ |  | ?  | √ | * | √ |
| (A113) | √? | √ |  | ?  | * | * | √ |
| (A114) | √  | √ |  | ?  | * | * | √ |
| (A115) | ?? | * |  | ?  | * | * | * |
| (A116) | √  | * |  | √? | √ | √ | √ |
| (A117) | *  | * |  | ?? | ? | * | √ |
| (A118) | √  | * |  | *  | √ | * | √ |
| (A119) | √  | * |  | ?  | √ | * | √ |
| (A120) | √  | √ |  | √  | √ | √ | √ |

(u) = only unbound interpretation is possible

(b) = bound and unbound interpretation is possible

(g) = gender mismatch

(f) = formulated differently by interviewee

(d) = not dialectal

(p xy) = preference for xy

## 11 Appendix: Audio Files

The audio files used in the interviews can be accessed via the following links or by scanning the corresponding QR code. To avoid unavailability of the files, I have uploaded them to two file-sharing services, in case one service gets shut down. Additionally, I have included a Linktree page, where updated links can be accessed if both services are subject to changes that will make the files unavailable via the links posted here. I hope that this will guarantee accessibility to the audio files for a long time.

Google Drive:

<https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1bY2NB6TkZmTsbEIp3WLVzV7jJXfrF1Zn?usp=sharing>



Microsoft OneDrive:

<https://1drv.ms/u/s!AgyPbP36uXOshaQMMW1E6vgMp9PcgA?e=BgOFRo>



Linktree:

If there are problems with both links, I will update them on the following Linktree page:

[https://linktr.ee/schwingsandl ma](https://linktr.ee/schwingsandlma)



## 12 Abstract

A language can have multiple pronominal paradigms: Many languages have pronominal systems that differentiate between full and clitic forms. In the Bavarian variety of German, there seem to be four different paradigms: Demonstrative pronouns, strong pronouns, weak pronouns, and clitic/affixed pronouns. In this thesis, I discuss pronominal theories and the internal structure of pronominal forms from the different paradigms. I additionally evaluate clitic theories and argue that clitics and affixes should be treated equally; specifically, I claim that the terms *clitic* and *affix* are synonyms. Those theoretical preliminaries are used as criteria for the four pronominal paradigms, whose forms I surveyed in a pilot dialect study conducted in the community of Traiskirchen, Lower Austria. I created a questionnaire with 172 dialect sentences, which include pronominal forms in different contexts. These sentences were recorded by a dialect speaker and then presented to eight informants in seven interviews, who were asked for their grammaticality judgements. From the interviewees' answers, I systematically set up the pronominal system of Traiskirchen's variant of Bavarian. Not every pronominal form was judged equally by all the informants, leaving room for a larger future study to resolve differences and catalogue more fine-grained variation. The data show that there are forms that can appear in multiple paradigms, but there are also typological gaps in some paradigms. The results also suggest that Traiskirchen's variant of Bavarian is different from the variant spoken in Bavaria.



### 13 Deutsche Kurzzusammenfassung

Eine Sprache kann über mehrere pronominale Paradigmen verfügen: Viele Sprachen haben Pronominalsysteme, welche zwischen Vollformen und klitischen Formen unterscheiden. In der bairischen Varietät des Deutschen scheint es vier verschiedene Paradigmen zu geben: Demonstrativpronomina, starke Pronomina, schwache Pronomina und klitische/affigierte Pronomina. In dieser Arbeit diskutiere ich Pronomentheorien und die interne Struktur der Pronominalformen der verschiedenen Paradigmen. Zusätzlich evaluiere ich Klitikatheorien und argumentiere, dass Klitika und Affixe gleich behandelt werden sollten; ich nehme an, dass die Begriffe *Klitikum* und *Affix* synonym sind. Diese theoretischen Grundlagen dienen als Kriterien für die vier Pronominalparadigmen, deren Formen ich in einer Pilot-Dialektstudie untersuchte, welche in der Gemeinde Traiskirchen, Niederösterreich, durchgeführt wurde. Ich erstellte einen Fragebogen mit 172 Dialektsätzen, welche Pronominalformen in verschiedenen Kontexten beinhalten. Diese Sätze wurden zunächst von einem Dialektsprecher aufgenommen und anschließend acht Informant:innen in sieben Interviews vorgespielt. Die Informant:innen wurden nach ihren Grammatikalitätsurteilen gefragt. Ausgehend von den Antworten der interviewten Personen wird das Pronominalsystem von Traiskirchens Variante des Bairischen erstellt. Nicht jede Pronominalform wurde von allen Informant:innen gleich beurteilt; dies lässt Raum für zukünftige Untersuchungen mit einer größeren Studie, um unklare Urteile zu klären und Variation genauer zu katalogisieren. Die Daten zeigen, dass es Formen gibt, welche in mehreren Paradigmen auftreten können, aber auch, dass typologische Lücken in manchen Paradigmen existieren. Die Ergebnisse suggerieren auch, dass sich Traiskirchens Variante des Bairischen von der in Bayern gesprochenen Variante unterscheidet.