Agreeing Adpositions in Avar and the Directionality of Valuation Debate*

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Given the central spot afforded to unvalued features in current theorizing, the directionality of feature valuation is the subject of a lively debate in the syntactic literature. The traditional conception of upward valuation, whereby the unvalued probe inherits features from a valued goal in its c-command domain (Chomsky 2000, 2001, Carstens and Diercks 2013, Preminger 2013), has to compete with downward valuation (Zeijlstra 2012), Hybrid Agree (Bjorkman and Zeijlstra 2019), bidirectional Agree (Baker 2008), amongst others.

The present squib discusses, using data from Avar, a crosslinguistically rare phenomenon of adposition agreement, whereby certain adverbs, postpositions and locative case forms undergo agreement with an absolutive argument. I set the stage by sketching the mechanism of case assignment and argument-predicate agreement in Avar (§1) and introduce the phenomenon of adposition agreement (§2). I then show that the agreement morphology on agreeing adpositions is a result of agreement rather than concord (§3). The remaining sections explore the consequences of adposition agreement in Avar for upward and downward valuation, and conclude that upward valuation is better equipped to account for the observed patterns.

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1 Argument-predicate Agreement in Avar

All agreement in Avar is noun class agreement: traditionally, four noun classes—masculine (m), feminine (f), neuter (n) and plural (pl)—are identified. Not all verbs spell out agreement but those that do agree in noun class with their absolutive arguments in all clause types, as shown in (1) for a finite clause (1a), an infinitival clause (1b), and a low nominalization (1c), where the agreeing transitive verb cm–ič- ‘sell’ takes on the neuter agreement prefix b– coreferencing the noun class feature of the absolutive object DP mašina ‘car.abs’.

(1) a. was-as mašina b–ič- an- a son-erg car.abs n–√sell-pst-fin ‘The son has sold the car.’ [finite]
  
b. insu- e b–oł’- ana [was-as mašina b–ič- ize ] father.obl-dat n–want-pst son-erg car.abs n–√sell-inf ‘Father wanted his son to sell the car.’ [infinitival]
  
c. [was-as mašina b–ič- ı ] lik’a–b iš b–ugo son-erg car.abs n–√sell-nmlz good–n thing.abs n-be.prs ‘The son selling the car is a good thing.’ [nominalization]

In addition to the verb displaying identical agreement in both finite and non-finite clauses, case marking on the arguments is also identical: in (1a), (1b) and (1c), the external argument wasas ‘son’ invariably carries ergative marking, whereas the internal argument appears unmarked.

The same uniform case marking and agreement patterns obtains in intransitive clauses, as shown in (2), for finite, infinitival and nominalized clauses.

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1 Avar (iso 639-3 ava) is an East Caucasian language spoken natively by roughly 700,000 people mostly in the Republic of Dagestan in the Russian Federation. This is according to the 2010 census: [http://www.gks.ru/free_doc/new_site/perepis2010/croc/Documents/Vol4/pub-04-05.pdf](http://www.gks.ru/free_doc/new_site/perepis2010/croc/Documents/Vol4/pub-04-05.pdf) (in Russian). It is a head-final, morphologically ergative language with an extensive use of nominalization in the realm of clausal embedding. There is no English-language reference grammar of the language, but Rudnev (2015:ch. 2) and Forker, to appear are two reasonably detailed grammar sketches of Avar syntax and morphology respectively.

2 Unless otherwise indicated, the Avar examples in this squib come from the author’s field notes. I use the following abbreviations: ABS = absolutive, APL = apudlative, CM = class marker, DAT = dative, ERG = ergative, F = feminine, FIN = finiteness, GEN = genitive, ILL = illative, INESS = inessive, INF = infinitive, LAT = lative, LOC = locative, M = masculine, N = neuter, NMLZ = nominalizer, NOM = nominative, OBL = oblique, PL = plural, PRS = present, PST = past, PTCP = participle.
(2) a. was w–eker- an- a insuqe
   boy.abs m–√tüm-pst-fin father.apl
   ‘The boy ran to his father.’ [finite]

b. [was insuqe w–eker- i ] lik’a–b iš b–ugo
   boy.abs father.apl m–√tüm-nmlz good–n thing.abs n–be.prs
   ‘The boy running to his father is a good thing.’ [nominalization]

c. kinazego b–ol’ana [was insuqe w–eker- ize ]
   everyone.dat n–wan.pst boy.abs father.apl m–√tüm-inf
   ‘Everyone wanted the boy to run to his father.’ [infinitive]

I conclude from the identity of patterns of agreement and case assignment across finite
and non-finite clauses that high functional heads such as T are not implicated in negoti-
ating either case or agreement, as has also been proposed for several related languages
(cf. Gagliardi et al. 2014 for Lak and Tsez, Polinsky 2016 for Archi).

Two more sets of facts speak in favor of treating infinitival clauses like (1b) and low
nominalizations like (1c) as vPs, and therefore divorcing case and agreement from the
presence of T in the syntactic structure. Firstly, neither clause type is compatible with
clausal negation (Rudnev 2015: ch. 2), which signals their small size. In particular,
I follow Wurmbrand (2001) in interpreting the incompatibility with clausal negation
displayed by the infinitival and nominalized clauses in Avar as a hallmark of restruct-
uring. Given the presence of the external argument, however, I depart from Wurmbrand
(2001) and claim that the restructuring domain in Avar is vP rather than VP.

Secondly, nominalizations consist of a verbal root and a thematic vowel, and contain
no tense marking morphology. Avar infinitives, in turn, morphologically derive from
nominalizations (cf. b–ič-i ‘selling’ and b–ič-i-ze ‘to sell’ in (1) above), and serve as
complements of the causativization head (Rudnev 2015:18). Given standard assump-
tions about causativization, those complements are more likely to be vP-sized rather
than fully clausal. Therefore, I contend that the relevant domain for case assignment
and agreement in Avar is the vP.

With regard to structural relations between a verb’s arguments, existing work on
Avar and related languages (Gagliardi et al. 2014, Rudnev 2015, Polinsky 2016, Polin-
sky et al. 2017, Ganenkov to appear) is unanimous in claiming the ergative argument
in transitive clauses to asymmetrically c-command the absolutive one, displaying the
characteristics of a prototypical subject in nominative-accusative languages. More
specifically, the ergative can bind the absolutive but the converse does not hold; the
ergative but not the absolutive changes to locative under causativization; the ergative
but not the absolutive is the addressee of imperatives (Rudnev 2015:56–57).

We can therefore adopt the following (simplified) implementation of vP-internal
case assignment and agreement licensing. To keep the discussion short, I adopt a
configurational approach to case (Marantz 1991, Bittner and Hale 1996, Levin and Preminger 2014) whereby ABS is the unmarked case, and ERO arises as a result of case competition applying upwards (3a). Since only the unmarked case is accessible for the purposes of agreement in A var, argument-predicate agreement in A var arises as a result of a featural dependency between an [uφ] feature on v and a corresponding valued feature on the absolutive argument (3b).

(3) **Low case and agreement in Avar**

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{a. } & [v_P \text{“} \text{ERG} \text{”} DP_1 \ldots DP_2 ] \quad \text{Case} \\
\text{dependent} \\
\text{b. } & [v_P \text{DP}_{[v]} \quad [v_P \text{DP}_{[v]} \text{V } v[\phi]]] \quad \text{AGREEMENT}
\end{align*}
\]

Having sketched the mechanism for case assignment and argument-predicate agreement, I now turn to agreeing adpositions.

### 2 Adposition Agreement

In addition to verbs containing a slot for agreement with the absolutive argument, three kinds of adpositional expressions can also display agreement with the absolutive argument of the host clause in A var: some low adverbs, postpositions and (PP-like) noun phrases in a number of locative cases. Let us consider them in turn.

Firstly, certain locative (4) and directional adverbs (5) can agree with the absolutive argument in A var:

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3 This is for convenience only. I make no deep-going theoretical commitments regarding the status of the morphologically unmarked case in A var: as far as I can see, viewing it as being absolutive/unmarked/nominative/accusative or referring to unmarked DPs as caseless (Kornfilt and Preminger 2015) has little bearing on the discussion of agreement in this paper so long as there is a mechanism rendering all non-absolutive DPs inside a relevant domain unsuitable for agreement before -feature valuation can commence. What is clear, though, is that the A var absolutive is neither the “high-ABS”/ABS=NOM nor “low-ABS/ABS=DP” (Legate 2008), being entirely independent of heads like T conventionally viewed as assigning the unmarked (nominative) case. I thank an anonymous reviewer for alerting me to there being several analytic options available for what is traditionally called absolutive case.

4 A var is by no means unique in having agreeing adpositions, and the phenomenon is mentioned in passing in the existing grammatical descriptions of the language (Uslar 1889, Alekseev and Ataev 1997, Alekseev et al. 2012). In particular, similar phenomena have been documented for the Ripano dialect of Italian (D’Alessandro 2011), Kutchi Gujarati (Grosz and Patel-Grosz 2014), Archi (Bond and Chumakina 2016, Chumakina and Bond 2018), unlike A var and Archi, whose agreeing adpositions are discussed from an Agree-based perspective in Polinsky 2016, agreement in the other languages is not confined to vP, with potentially different consequences for the directionality of valuation debate. This is a promising direction for future research.
(4) a. jacal hani–w wac w–uyana
   sister.erg here–m brother.abs m–beat.pst
   ‘The sister beat up her brother here.’

   b. jasaz hani–j jac j–uyana
   girls.erg here–f sister.abs f–beat.pst
   ‘The girls beat up their sister here.’

The verb beat in (4) takes an ergative and an absolutive argument, and has a slot for the agreement marker. The ergative argument is specified as f in (4a) and pl in (4b), whereas the absolutive one as m in (4a) and f in (4b). The adverb hani–cm ‘here’ carries the noun class features of the absolutive argument.

Examples (5a) and (5b) illustrate non-interrogative and interrogative directional adverbs hani–cm e ‘here’ and ki–cm e ‘where to’. In both cases, the adverb contains a noun class suffix covarying with the noun class of the absolutive argument.

(5) a. insu–ca jas hani–je j–i’t–ana
   father.obl-erg girl.abs f–here.lat f–send-pst
   ‘Father sent the girl here.’

   b. ki–r e insu–ca timal r–i’t–a ra–l
   f–pl where.lat father.obl-erg kids.abs pl–send-pst-ptcp–pl
   ‘Where did father send the children to?’

The verb in Avar wh-questions obligatorily takes the form of a (tensed) participle, and the wh-phrase can either be fronted or remain in situ. I only illustrate the fronting option, but the in-situ option, which I omit for reasons of space, displays identical agreement properties.

The second class of adpositions displaying agreement with the clause’s absolutive argument is represented by several locative and directional postpositions. These derive etymologically from corresponding adverbs and differ from them in having a dependent noun phrase to which they assign oblique case: ce–cm e ‘in front of’; ask’ o–cm ‘next to’; horl’ o–cm ‘in the middle of’; żani–cm ‘inside of’; ćadu–cm ‘behind’.

5 The participial morphology on the Avar verb is a hallmark of relativization. See Rudnev (2015:ch. 4) for a detailed discussion of the syntax of Avar wh-questions, their semantic interpretation, as well as an analysis in terms of clefting.
In (6) above, the transitive verb cm–uχ– ‘beat up’ is an agreeing verb that agrees with the absolutive argument was ‘boy’ in (6a), and wasal ‘boys’ in (6b). The external argument’s noun class specification, on the other hand, is the invariant f. We can see that the noun class morphemes on the postposition ask’o–cm ‘next to’ are identical to the agreement morphology on the verb.

Finally, noun phrases in the inessive and illative cases agree with the verb’s absolutive argument in the same manner as we have seen above for adverbs and postpositions. In Avar, the inessive is formed by attaching a class marker to the genitive form of the noun, and the illative is formed by attaching the lative suffix -e to the inessive. The pair of examples in (7) illustrates.

The DP rašin ‘barrel’ is specified with the inessive case in the intransitive clause (7a) and the illative case in the transitive clause (7b), and agrees with čayır ‘wine.abs’ in both examples.

3 Adposition Agreement Is Agreement, Not Concord

Before I proceed, I would like to address—and ultimately dismiss—the option of treating agreement morphology on agreeing adpositions in Avar as an instance of concord rather than agreement, which would arguably remove it from the purview of the theory of syntactic feature valuation (see Norris 2014 and references there). Three considerations support classing adposition agreement together with argument-predicate agreement.

Firstly, as noted by Norris (2014), agreement establishes a relationship between two distinct extended projections, whereby features present in one can be realized on the
other. In prototypical instances of concord, on the other hand, the features of a (nominal) head are realized on constituents inside the extended projection of that same head. In the Avar case at hand, the agreement relation is established between an adposition situated outside of the extended projection of the agreement-controlling DP and that DP.

Secondly, the connection between agreement and case, which has so far not been established for concord (Bobaljik 2008, Preminger 2014), suggests that agreeing adpositions in Avar display agreement and not concord: as mentioned earlier, agreeing adpositions, like verbs and unlike demonstratives and adjectives, carry the noun class features of the absolutive DP rather than those of their own nominal complements to which they assign oblique cases (8).

(8) [ c’ija– new– b / w ] jasal wac w–uχ- ana
    new–N school.obl-loc near– N M girl.erg brother.abs M–beat-pst
‘Next to the new school, the girl beat up her brother.’

Sentence (8) contains both concord (dashed line), and agreement (solid line). Crucially, concord obtains, internally to the PP, between an AP (c’ijab ‘new.n’) and a neuter NP (školalda ‘school.loc’) in the locative case but fails to obtain between the same noun phrase and the agreeing postposition ask’ow ‘next to’, which instead agrees with the masculine internal argument of wuχ- ‘beat’, just like the verb itself.

The third consideration is an Avar-internal observation concerning the exponents of concord and agreement. While the singular m (w), f (j) and n (b) are the same for agreement and concord, they diverge in the case of pl: r signals agreement and l concord.

(9) c’ija–l/*r limal hani–r/*l–e t/*l–ač’– ana
‘New children have come here.’

The AP c’ijal ‘new.pl’ in (9) undergoes concord with the head noun limal ‘kids’ and carries, as a result, the plural concord suffix -l. The AdvP hanir ‘here.pl’, in contrast, is specified with the same plural morpheme -r as the finite verb r–ač’ana.

Having seen that adposition agreement in Avar is an instance of genuine φ-agreement, let us now consider the challenges that Avar agreeing adpositions pose for existing accounts of φ-agreement. The discussion to follow examines the structural relations between the φ-probes and absolutive goals in two distinct structural configurations: one where the adposition attaches to the vP which already contains all of the verb’s core arguments (vP-peripheral adpositions, §4), and one where the adposition is situated low in the vP, lower than the external argument (vP-internal adpositions, §5).
the two configurations are indeed distinct is evidenced by their semantic interpreta-

4 vP-peripheral Adpositions

One set of prototypical environments for vP-level adverbials and PP-modifiers such as (10a) and (10b) involves their adjunction to vP effecting event modification.

(10) a. školal- da ġadu- w jasal was w–uχana
   school.obl-loc behind–m girl.erg boy.abs m–beat.pst
   ‘The girl beat the boy up behind the school.’

b. minajal- da ask’o–b jasal- da moc’ b–ixana
   house.obl-loc near–n girl.obl-loc moon.abs n–see.pst
   ‘The girl saw the moon near the school.’

As just mentioned, the locative PPs in (10) specify the location of the entire event involving both the internal and external arguments rather than that of the internal argument only: the beating event in (10a) can only be described as such if both the beater and the beatee are behind the school. Nor is it plausible for the moon in (10b) to be located near the school—in order for the sentence to be felicitous, the external argument must be located near the school to perform the seeing. Consequently, event-modifying locative PPs in A var cannot be viewed as being predicated of the lower argument inside VP, and therefore not amenable to the small-clause analysis discussed in the next section.

Given the relevance of absolutive case for adposition agreement alluded to above, case will be negotiated, as sketched in (3a), before -agreement can be licensed. With case taken care of, only absolutive DPs will be “visible” for the purposes of -agreement, which I notate by graying out the non-absolutive ones in the representations below.

(11) \[ vP [PP DP^{LOC} P_{[\phi]} ] [vP DP^{ERG} [vP [VP DP_{ABS}^{abs} V ] v_{[\mu\phi]} ]] ]

To model adposition agreement, I postulate unvalued noun class features ([\mu\phi]) on agreeing adpositional heads alongside v.

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6 Given the identity of agreement patterns in adverbs and postpositions, I assume they arise under identical conditions, the nature of the particular head involved in such a relation (Adv/v) being immaterial for my purposes. Whether all locative and directional adverbs in Avar and crosslinguistically are PPs is beyond
**Consequences for upward valuation** Since the P^0 probe does not c-command any absolutive DPs, XPs should be able to act as probes alongside X^0 s, as per Bare Phrase Structure (Chomsky 1995), for upward valuation to obtain (Rezac 2003, Carstens 2011, 2015). The [\(\upsilon\phi\)] feature on P will therefore also appear on PP. Once the PP merges with vP, the [\(\upsilon\phi\)] feature on the PP will be valued against either against the absolutive object directly or against the valued [\(\phi\)] feature on v, which will act as an intermediate goal for valuation by virtue of being structurally closer to the \(\phi\)-probe.

\[(12) \quad [vP [PP[\upsilon\phi] DP^{LOC} P ] [vP DP^{ERG} [vP [VP DP^{ABS} V ] v[\upsilon\phi] ]]]\]

Alternatively, the PP should in principle also be able to attach to VP, appearing lower than v but still c-commanding the absolutive internal argument, as schematized in (13).

\[(13) \quad [vP DP^{ERG} [vP [VP [PP[\upsilon\phi] DP^{LOC} P ] [VP DP^{ABS} V ] v[\upsilon\phi] ]]]\]

Here, too, upward valuation is able to operate without hindrance. Because the PP is now closer to the absolutive goal than v is, the PP will, once its own [\(\upsilon\phi\)] has been valued, act as an intermediate goal for v. Upward valuation, therefore, derives the agreement facts effortlessly without introducing any additional assumptions.

**Consequences for downward valuation** Turning to the implications of agreeing adpositions for downward valuation approaches to \(\phi\)-agreement, the assignment of abs inside the vP rather than from T outside it as well as the absolutive argument’s low position with respect to the other arguments make it impossible for the [\(\upsilon\phi\)] on v to find a c-commanding agreement controller.

\[(14) \quad [vP [PP[\upsilon\phi] DP^{LOC} P ] [vP DP^{ERG} [vP [VP DP^{ABS} V ] v[\upsilon\phi] ]]]\]

Even assuming feature percolation, it will be the unvalued [\(\upsilon\phi\)] features that will percolate, and as a result, v will fail to have its [\(\upsilon\phi\)] feature valued. Consequently, when P’s [\(\upsilon\phi\)] feature probes upwards, it too will fail to find an agreement controller against which to be valued (14). The same reasoning applies in the case of VP-adjunction such as (13) discussed above, since the absolutive DP carrying a valued \(\phi\)-feature will still not c-command the [\(\upsilon\phi\)] on P.

Two potential workarounds aimed at salvaging the downward valuation analysis present themselves. The first one is to assume that the absolutive DP moves to a higher Spec, vP, possibly followed by further similar movements of the external argument and the agreeing PP to derive the linear order. While argument-rearranging movements

\[\text{the scope of this paper.}\]

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in Avar are attested and therefore hard to argue against, they are optional, and it is unclear what purpose they would serve other than to recreate the original word order. Moreover, such derived orders are invariably accompanied by information-structural or discourse-structural effects, resulting in the prediction that the availability of adposition agreement should correlate with the information-structural status of the absolutive argument. This prediction is clearly false, since the adpositions at hand agree with the absolutive argument irrespective of information-structural considerations. Furthermore, in the absence of such a movement there would be no way for agreement to obtain, which would entail both verbal agreement and adposition agreement being optional, contrary to fact.

A second way to ensure v’s $\{u\phi\}$ feature is valued via downward valuation is to appeal, following Preminger and Polinsky (2015), to a structure like (15b) mimicking the effects of upward valuation (15a). In such a structure, the Agree relation would be established between an additional head $F^0$ in the c-command domain of the absolutive goal, followed by head movement of that head $F^0$ to the head spelling out the agreement features, $X^0$.

(15) **Upward valuation as downward valuation via head movement**

\begin{enumerate}
\item [a.] \[
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\text{XP} \\
\text{X}^0 \\
\text{DP} \\
\text{F}^0 \\
\text{Y}^0 \\
\vdots
\end{array}\right]
\]
\item [b.] \[
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\text{XP} \\
\text{F}^0 + X^0 \\
\text{DP} \\
\text{F}^0 \\
\text{Y}^0 \\
\vdots
\end{array}\right]
\]
\end{enumerate}

While Preminger and Polinsky (2015) conclude from the availability of the reanalysis in (15) that local $\phi$-agreement is unreliable as a testing ground for the directionality of valuation debate, the combination of adposition agreement and argument-predicate agreement in Avar creates precisely the configuration not amenable to the reanalysis in (15). In the case at hand, either the additional head would have to appear lower than both the absolutive argument and the lexical verb, or V itself would have to be specified with $\{u\phi\}$ instead of $v$, followed by the head in question undergoing head movement to $v$ (16). This captures the argument-predicate agreement facts.

(16) \[
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\text{VP} \\
\text{PP} \\
\text{DP} \\
\text{LOC} \\
\text{P} \\
\vdots
\end{array}\right] \\
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\text{VP} \\
\text{DP} \\
\text{ERG} \\
\text{VP} \\
\text{DP} \\
\text{ABS} \\
\text{V} \\
\vdots
\end{array}\right] \\
\text{v} + \text{V}
\]

The second $\phi$-probe within the same domain, however,—the agreeing P—will still fail to get its $\{u\phi\}$ feature valued because, once valued, the $\phi$-feature on V will not be able to reach a position from which it would c-command the agreeing P for reasons having to do with the nature of head movement. In particular, V moving to $v$ in (16) would...

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7 I thank an anonymous reviewer for formulating this prediction.
be an instance of word-forming head movement, which at least since Chomsky 2001 has been viewed by many as being postsyntactic and thus incapable of feeding feature valuation. However, it is equally far from obvious without additional assumptions that V will come to c-command the φ-probe out of the complex V+v head even if head movement is properly syntactic (cf. Matushansky 2006, Roberts 2010).

We have seen that downward valuation faces severe difficulties with deriving the adposition agreement patterns when the PP/AdvP/KP attaches to vP/VP. The traditional upward valuation account, on the other hand, captures the agreement facts effortlessly.

5 vP-internal Adpositions

A different set of syntactic environments are situations when agreeing adverbials are introduced low during the construction of the vP as adpositional objects in, for instance, the double-object construction in (17), repeated from above:

(17) čaɣir raʃini–
    wine.abs barrel.loc–n-lat pour.pst
    ‘They poured (the) wine into a/the barrel.’

Two lines of analysis have been proposed for PP-objects. According to one, schematized in (18a), PP-objects like in the barrel in (17) above are generated as complements to the verb, with the direct object being introduced in the specifier (Larson 1988, Borer 2005, Ramchand 2008). The other analysis, shown in (18b), relates the direct object and the PP-argument via a small clause (Hoekstra and Mulder 1990, den Dikken 1995). In both cases, the external argument is introduced by v in the customary manner.

(18) a. **PP-complement analysis of PP-objects**
    \[ vP \ D^\text{erg} \ [ vP \ [DP_{\phi} \ [vP \ [DP_{\text{ABS}} \ [PP \ [DP_{\text{GEN}} \ P_{\phi} ] V ] ] v_{[\phi]} ] ] ] ] \]

b. **Small-clause analysis of PP-objects**
    \[ vP \ D^\text{erg} \ [vP \ [SC \ [DP_{\phi} \ [PP \ [DP_{\text{GEN}} \ P_{\phi} ] ] V ] ] v_{[\phi]} ] ] \]

The two analyses in (18) have distinct consequences for vP-internal agreement in Avar.

**Consequences for upward valuation** On an upward valuation analysis, φ-agreement will be preceded by case assignment: first, the directional P will assign gen to its com-

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8 An anonymous reviewer observes that upward valuation is indistinguishable from downward valuation in the case of the small-clause analysis since the PP and the absolutive argument are merged as sisters, the resulting structure being unable to contribute to the directionality of valuation debate. While the reviewer’s observation regarding valuation under sisterhood is correct, their conclusion is not: as the discussion below shows, it is the existence of the second φ-probe within the same syntactic domain (V or v) which will determine the viability of a particular analysis.
plement, rendering it invisible for \( \phi \)-agreement. Structure-building will continue until \( v \) enters the structure and case is assigned configurationally as per the procedure outlined in (3a): abs to the internal argument ’\( \text{ayır} \) wine’ and erg to the silent pro in the position of the external argument, whereupon \( v \)’s [\( \nu \phi \)] feature can be valued against the absolutive DP. Now the two analyses of PP-objects diverge: on the PP-complement version of the analysis (19), the [\( \nu \phi \)] feature on P will remain trapped inside the PP, being unable to find an appropriate goal in its c-command domain even given percolation, which will stop at the level of PP.

(19) **Upward valuation on the PP-complement analysis**  
\[ [v_P \text{DP}_{abs} [v_P \text{VP}_{abs} [v_P \text{PP} P [\nu \phi ] V ] v_{[\nu \phi ]} ]] \]

This problem does not arise for the small clause analysis schematized in (20): assuming feature percolation, PP will inherit the [\( \nu \phi \)] feature from P, which will be valued against the absolutive argument under sisterhood. The [\( \nu \phi \)] feature on \( v \) will be valued in the customary manner as shown in (3b) above.

(20) **Upward valuation on the small-clause analysis**  
\[ [v_P \text{DP}_{abs} [v_P \text{VP} [\text{SC} \text{PP} P [\nu \phi ] V ] v_{[\nu \phi ]} ]] \]

The success of upward valuation, therefore, crucially depends on the structure in (20) being the correct analysis of PP-arguments (see Bruening 2010, 2018 for arguments against this), making the analysis fragile. Therefore, before discarding upward valuation in relation to the PP-complement structure in (18a), let us check whether the purported downward valuation required for the [\( \nu \phi \)] feature on P to be valued can be recast as upward valuation as sketched in Preminger and Polinsky 2015. As a part of their argument against using local agreement for testing theories of feature valuation, Preminger and Polinsky (2015) show that in most cases, structures involving downward valuation of a feature on a head \( X^0 \) from a c-commanding DP goal (21a) can be reanalyzed as upward valuation if the DP moves to Spec.XP from a lower position in the c-command domain of \( X^0 \) (21b). The unvalued features on \( X^0 \) are thus valued against the DP in its original, pre-movement position.

(21) **Downward valuation as upward valuation via short movement to Spec**

a. \[ [x_P \text{DP} _{\nu \phi} [X^0 \ldots ]] \]

b. \[ [x_P \text{DP} _{\nu \phi} [X^0 \text{PP} [x_P \text{DP} [\nu \phi \ldots \text{DP} \ldots ]] \]] \]
The availability of such a reanalysis of downward valuation as disguised upward valuation in the case of PP-complements is contingent on the availability of a PP-internal position of the absolutive DP. There is, however, no evidence of the absolutive DP having originated inside the PP. The PP-complement analysis with upward valuation is untenable; moreover, we see once again that local agreement is relevant, pace Preminger and Polinsky 2015.

**Consequences for downward valuation** Unlike upward valuation, downward valuation derives the adposition agreement facts on both the PP-complement analysis and the small clause analysis of PP-objects. The two analyses will, however, diverge when it comes to accounting for argument-predicate agreement, which, as shown in (16) above, can be made compatible with downward valuation if V is endowed with an [uφ] feature.

(22) a. **Downward valuation on the PP-complement analysis**

\[
\begin{align*}
&[\text{vP } D_{\text{PERG}}] \\
&[\text{vP } [\text{vP } D_{\text{ABS}}^{\phi}]] \\
&[\text{vP } [\text{PP } D_{\text{GEN}}^{\phi} P_{[\text{vP }]}]] \\
&V_{[\text{vP }]} \\
&v
\end{align*}
\]

b. **Downward valuation on the small-clause analysis**

\[
\begin{align*}
&[\text{vP } D_{\text{PERG}}] \\
&[\text{vP } [\text{vP } [\text{SC } D_{\text{ABS}}^{\phi}]]] \\
&[\text{vP } [\text{PP } D_{\text{GEN}}^{\phi} P_{[\text{vP }]}]] \\
&V_{[\text{vP }]} \\
&v
\end{align*}
\]

On the PP-complement analysis in (22a), the absolutive DP occupies the specifier of VP, thus c-commanding both φ-probes. Downward valuation can proceed unimpeded.

Because of the structural proximity of the PP-object to the absolutive object enforced by the small clause analysis in (22b), the [uφ] feature on P will be able to probe upwards and receive a value from the absolutive argument čayır ‘wine’. This value will not, however, be able to reach a position c-commanding the [uφ] feature on V for downward valuation to obtain: since the absolutive DP is situated inside a symmetrical structure, neither its features nor those of PP will be inherited by the small clause, remaining invisible for the [uφ] on V. Thus, downward valuation can accommodate all the observed agreement facts on the PP-complement analysis only.

6 Conclusions

In this squib, I have shown, by using the interactions of argument-predicate agreement with adposition agreement in Avar, that local agreement can inform theories of feature valuation (pace Preminger and Polinsky 2015). Having examined two distinct types of structure, vP-peripheral and vP-internal adpositions, I concluded that downward valuation is inferior to upward valuation (Chomsky 2000, 2001). In particular, the
agreement pattern involving vP-internal adpositions can be reconciled with both upward and downward valuation but requires different analyses of PP-objects (the small-clause analysis for upward valuation and the PP-complement analysis for downward valuation). Therefore, while vP-internal adpositions by themselves do not conclusively rule out the downward-valuation analysis, they make conflicting predictions about the analysis of PP-objects, which space limitations prevent me from exploring. The deciding case, then, is that involving vP-peripheral adpositions, whose behavior with respect to Φ-agreement can only be accounted for on an upward-valuation analysis. Since only upward valuation captures all of the adposition agreement facts, it emerges as a clear winner.

References


Gagliardi, Annie, Michael Goncalves, Maria Polinsky, and Nina Radkevich. 2014. The biabsolutive construction in Lak and Tsez. Lingua 150:137–170.


