

# INVERSION IN EMBEDDED CLAUSES IN MODERN ICELANDIC

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**JOAN MALING**

*Program in Linguistics and Cognitive Science  
Center for Complex Systems  
Brandeis University  
Waltham, Massachusetts 02254*

Word order in Icelandic prose is quite free, especially in main clauses. Although the most usual, or unmarked, word order in declarative sentences is subject + finite verb + . . . , almost any sentence constituent can be found in sentence-initial position. I call this phenomenon—the fronting of stressed elements of the predicate to sentence-initial position—*topicalization*.<sup>1</sup> Whatever the discourse function of topicalization may be, there is an obvious syntactic consequence: the finite verb must then be moved into second position through inversion with the subject noun phrase (NP), if any. I refer to this general feature of Icelandic word order as the *verb-second constraint* (V2).

In this article inverted word orders in Modern Icelandic prose are studied in order to test the generality of V2 as a principle of Icelandic word order. This study is limited to embedded clauses, where V2 applies most generally. The article is organized as follows. In section 1, I argue for a general principle of what counts as second position, particularly in questions and relative clauses. In section 2, I look at examples of inversion and argue for a distinction between two kinds of fronting processes, topicalization and another kind of movement referred to as *stylistic fronting*. I argue that stylistic fronting, unlike topicalization, applies only in clauses containing a subject gap, and that this kind of fronting can therefore be viewed as a generalization of V2 to clauses that would otherwise begin with the finite verb. In section 3, this subject-gap condition on stylistic fronting is shown to provide an argument for the existence of oblique subjects.

Finally, in section 4, various conditions on what can precede the finite verb are discussed, including conditions on the use of the dummy *það*, and on the occurrence of unfilled subject gaps.

## 1. DEFINING SECOND POSITION

Topicalization in main clauses in Icelandic is fairly common. One study of Icelandic word order, Kossuth (1978), reported that, on the average, 20% of declarative sentences in Modern Icelandic prose begin with an element other than the subject. Topicalization in embedded clauses is much less frequent. However, it is by no means true that only subjects can precede the finite verb in embedded clauses, as has often been asserted.<sup>2</sup> An example of topicalization in an embedded clause is given in (1); the topicalized object NP is in boldface type.

- (1) *Sigga Ólína mundi vel eftir því, að **Brynjólf** hafði hún  
Sigga Olina remembered well after it, that Brynjólf (ACC) had she  
oft og mörgum sinnum getað fengið.  
often and many times been-able-to get.*

'Sigga Ólína remembered well that she had time and again been able to get Brynjólf (as a husband).'

(Gestur Pálsson, "Tilhugalíf," Ch. 5)

Note that the finite verb is in second position in the embedded clause, as indicated by the numbering. V2 applies equally to both main and embedded clauses in Icelandic.<sup>3</sup> First position for the finite verb (V1) is typically reserved for main clauses, namely, for direct questions, imperatives, and the so-called narrative style characteristic of Icelandic. In embedded clauses, the finite verb comes first in conditional sentences without the conjunction *ef*. Ignoring such conditionals, let us explore the hypothesis that V2 holds without exception in embedded clauses in Icelandic.<sup>4</sup>

Of course, in order to determine the position of the finite verb, we need to know where the embedded clause begins: what counts as first position? Consider the examples in (2).

- (2) a. *Þeir sögðu, að amma hefði ekki lesið bókina.  
they said that grandma had not read the-book.*

(Haugen, 1976:84)

- b. *Ég vissi aldrei, hvort hann kæmi eða ekki.  
I knew never whether he would-come or not*

- c. *Þeir vissu, hvern amma hafði hitt í bænum.  
they knew whom grandma had met in town*

- d. *Maðurinn, sem amma hafði hitt í bænum, heitir Pétur.*  
 the-man that grandma had met in town is-named Peter

As indicated by the numbering, the subject NP counts as first position. Conjunctions such as *að* 'that' and *hvort* 'whether' are ignored, that is, they are considered to be outside the embedded clause. The same principle usually applies to interrogative pronouns such as *hvern* 'whom', as illustrated in (2c), and the relative particle *sem*, as illustrated in (4d). But suppose that the embedded clause does not have a subject NP overtly present, as will be the case whenever the subject NP has been questioned or relativized. The relative particle *sem* and the interrogative pronouns are traditionally counted as subjects just in case the finite verb comes next. Thus, in the word order study referred to above, Kossuth (1978:446) states that "the relative particles *sem* and *er* were counted as C (= conjunction), but if appropriate, also as S (= subject)." It is clear that what is intended by "if appropriate" are sentences in which the subject NP has been relativized, and hence there is no subject to count as filling first position. Similarly, in his discussion of the possible positions of the finite verb in Scandinavian languages, Haugen (1976:84) gives the example shown in (3a) with the indicated numbering.

- (3) a. *Þeir vissu, hver genginn væri/væri genginn.*  
 they knew who (NOM) gone was/ was gone  
 'They knew who had gone.'
- b. *Maðurinn, sem farinn var/ var farinn heim, heitir Pétur.*  
 the-man that gone was/was gone home is-named Peter  
 'The man that had gone home is named Peter.'

Haugen does not give an example of a comparable relative clause, but he would presumably count the position of the finite verb as indicated in (3b). Note that the finite verb is counted as being in third position if the past participle has been inverted.

It is precisely for these cases that I propose a change from the traditional treatment of word order: even in the cases of subjectless sentences the finite verb should be counted as being in second position, as illustrated in (4):

- (4) a. *Þeir vissu hver farinn var/ — var farinn heim.*  
 'They knew who had gone home.'
- b. *Maðurinn sem farinn var/ — var farinn heim heitir Pétur.*  
 'The man who had gone home is named Peter.'
- c. *Maðurinn sem — kom í gær heitir Pétur.*  
 the-man that came yesterday is-named Peter  
 'The man who came yesterday is named Peter.'

If the past participle is fronted, then it counts as filling first position; if it is not fronted, then the first position of the embedded clause will be considered empty, as indicated by the dash. In either case, the finite verb is in second position. The same is true of an embedded clause with a simple past tense verb as given in (4c): the subject NP has been relativized, leaving first position in the relative clause empty, and the finite verb *kom* 'came' is in second position. The relative particle *sem* is not counted as subject.

What I am suggesting, then, is that sentences such as those in (4) are simply another type of subjectless sentence. There are two advantages of this analysis over the traditional way of determining second position. First, it provides a uniform treatment of conjunctions, including interrogative pronouns and the relative particles: they *never* count as filling first position but are always considered to be outside the clause boundaries. Second, this analysis allows the simplest possible description of the conditions under which various inverted word orders are possible in embedded clauses. This is the topic of the next section.

## 2. FRONTING IN EMBEDDED CLAUSES

In addition to the topicalization of stressed elements of the predicate, there is another type of fronting that is extremely common in embedded clauses and that is characteristic of Icelandic (and Faroese) as opposed to the other Scandinavian languages. This kind of fronting, which I refer to as stylistic fronting, is illustrated by the examples in (5)–(7). These examples were taken at random from two short stories by Gestur Pálsson (1970), "Tilhugalíf" and "Hans Vöggur," but all are typical of the inverted word orders one finds in Icelandic prose. The examples have been divided into three categories, according to whether the embedded clause begins with (1) a past participle, (2) an adjective, or (3) some adverbial. Especially typical of the third category are negative adverbs such as *ekki* 'not' and verbal particles such as *fram* 'forward'. The fronted constituent is in boldface type.

- (5) a. *Honum mætti standa á sama, hvað sagt væri um hann.*  
 him (DAT) might stand on same what said was about him  
 'It might be all the same to him what was said about him.'  
 ("Tilhugalíf," Ch. 5)
- b. *og hann léti þá vita, að hann . . . kæmi ekki heim,*  
 and he would-let them know that he . . . would-come not home,  
*eins og ráðgert hafði verið*  
 as planned had been  
 'and he would let them know that he wouldn't be coming home as had  
 been planned'  
 ("Tilhugalíf," Ch. 1)

- c. *Hún benti á ýmsa roska trésmiði í bænum, sem byrjað höfðu*  
 she pointed to various old carpenters in town that begun had  
*með engum efnum.*  
 with nothing (“Tilhugalíf,” Ch. 1)
- (6) a. *Hann raulaði þá vísuna sína nokkuð hærra en venjulegt var.*  
 he hummed then tune his somewhat louder than usual was  
 ‘Then he hummed his tune somewhat louder than usual.’  
 (“Hans Vöggur”)
- b. *Engum datt í hug, að vert væri að reyna til að kynna*  
 No one (DAT) fell to mind that worth was to try P to know  
*honum.*  
 him  
 ‘It didn’t occur to anyone that it was worth trying to get to know him.’  
 (“Hans Vöggur”)
- c. *Þeir voru að tala um . . . hvað hægt hefði verið.*  
 they were to talk about . . . what possible had been  
 ‘They were talking about what had been possible.’  
 (“Tilhugalíf,” Ch. 1)
- (7) a. *og nú eigum við að vita . . . hvort ekki finnst meira*  
 and now ought we to know . . . whether not finds more  
*þýfi hjá piltinum.*  
 stolen-goods on the-boy  
 ‘and now we are supposed to find out whether any more stolen goods  
 can be found where the boy lives.’  
 (“Tilhugalíf,” Ch. 1)
- b. *Hún horfði á þennan stóra sterka mann, sem aldrei hafði beygt lund*  
 She looked at this big strong man that never had bent will  
*sína fyrir nokkrum kvenmanni.*  
 his for any woman  
 ‘She looked at the big, strong man who had never changed his mind  
 because of a woman.’  
 (“Tilhugalíf,” Ch. 1)
- c. *og Sveinn fór smátt og smátt að . . . muna eftir öllu, sem*  
 and Svein began little and little to . . . remember after all that  
*fram hafði farið.*  
 on had gone  
 ‘and little by little Svein began to remember all that had happened.’  
 (“Tilhugalíf,” Ch. 6)
- d. *Þá gæti enginn sagt með vissu, að svo hefði verið.*  
 then could no-one say with certainty, that so had been  
 ‘Then no one could say with certainty that it had been that way.’  
 (“Tilhugalíf,” Ch. 5)

- c. *Aldrei var Hans ánægðari en þegar svo bar undir.*  
 never was Hans happier than when so happened  
 'Never was Hans happier than under such circumstances.'  
 ("Hans Vöggur")

## 2.1. Topicalization versus Stylistic Fronting

A preliminary dichotomy between topicalization and stylistic fronting is given in (8) below. The distinction between the two fronting processes is sometimes a fuzzy one, particularly when it comes to the fronting of adverbials (see section 4.2), and needs to be investigated further. Note the postverbal position of *ekki* in (2a), however, which illustrates that adverbs do not generally precede the finite verb in embedded clauses in Icelandic, as opposed to the other Scandinavian languages.

(8) Topicalization	Stylistic Inversion
Applies to object NPs, PPs, etc.	Applies to past participles, adjectives, some adverbs, particles, etc.
Emphasis or focus on fronted constituent	Emphasis or focus on fronted constituent not necessarily present
Uncommon in embedded Ss	Common in embedded Ss
Judgments vary on fronting in relatives, questions, etc.	Accepted by all speakers
Unbounded	Clause bounded
Subject gap not required	Subject gap required

The most obvious difference between the two fronting processes lies in the frequency of occurrence. As noted above, topicalization in embedded clauses is quite unusual. The sentence given in (1) was the only example I found in approximately seventy-five pages of text, whereas the examples in (5)–(7) are but a small sample of the stylistic fronting extant within the same corpus.<sup>5</sup> Furthermore, the fronting of object NPs within questions and relative clauses is unacceptable for many speakers, whereas stylistic fronting is accepted by all speakers in the same environments (see section 5.1). Only topicalization can move a constituent outside of the clause in which it originates. Finally, there is a condition on the application of stylistic fronting that topicalization does not share; this condition is stated in (9).

- (9) STYLISTIC FRONTING in an embedded clause is possible only if there is a subject gap in that clause.

Note the presence of the subject *hún* in the example of topicalization given in (1). In contrast, the examples in (5)–(7) all contain embedded clauses that are in

some sense subjectless. I hypothesize that it is precisely this property that makes stylistic fronting possible. The generalization given in (9) can only be stated, of course, if the relative particle *sem* and interrogative pronouns are not themselves counted as subjects.

## 2.2. Evidence for the Subject-Gap Condition

Subject gaps can be created in one of three ways in Icelandic: (1) through extraction of the subject NP by unbounded transformational rules such as relativization, question formation, comparative clause formation, topicalization, and clefting; (2) through use of impersonal passives or lexically impersonal predicates; and (3) through indefinite-NP postposing.<sup>6</sup> The latter two cases of subject gaps can easily be recognized by the obligatory occurrence of *það* in initial position if the sentence is used as a main-clause declarative. Let me emphasize here that my use of the term *subject gap* for these impersonal constructions is not meant to attribute subject status to the dummy *það*.<sup>7</sup>

In this section, data are given in support of the subject-gap condition on stylistic fronting stated in (9). The three types of subject gaps are considered in turn.

### 2.2.1. SUBJECT EXTRACTIONS

Many of the examples of stylistic fronting in (5)–(7) are instances of subject extraction. Three examples are repeated here for the reader's convenience, together with the normal, uninverted word order. In the (a) versions of the sentences, stylistic fronting has served to fill the subject gap of the (b) versions, indicated by a dash, which would otherwise remain empty.

- (10) a. *Honum mætti standa á sama, hvað sagt væri um hann.* (=5a)  
 b. *Honum mætti standa á sama, hvað — væri sagt um hann.*
- (11) a. *Hún benti á ýmsa roska trésmíði í bænum, sem byrjað höfðu með engum efnum.* [(=5c)]  
 b. *Hún benti á ýmsa roska trésmíði í bænum, sem — höfðu byrjað með engum efnum.*
- (12) a. *Sveinn fór að muna eftir öllu, sem fram hafði farið.* (cf. 7c)  
 b. *Sveinn fór að muna eftir öllu, sem — hafði farið fram.*

However, if the subject NP had not been extracted from the embedded clause, that is, if some other NP had been questioned or relativized, then stylistic fronting would be unacceptable. This is illustrated by the examples in (13)–(15), which all have definite subjects.<sup>8</sup>

- (13) \**Honum mætti standa á sama, hvað sagt hefði Hjördís um hann.*  
to-him might stand same, what said had Hjördís about him
- (14) a. \**Hún bentí á bæinn, þar sem byrjað höfðu trésmiðirnir með engum efnum og orðið heimsfrægir síðar.*  
she pointed to the-town where that begun had the-carpenters with nothing and become world-famous later  
b. \**Hún bentí á bæinn, þar sem byrjað hafði Sveinn með engum efnum og orðið heimsfrægur síðar.*  
she pointed to the-town where begun had Svein with nothing and become world-famous later
- (15) a. \**Hann man þá stund þegar burtu fór pabbi hans.*  
he remembered the time when away went daddy his  
b. \**Hann man ekki nákvæmlega daginn, þegar fram hafði leikurinn farið.*  
he remembered not exactly the-day when on had the-play gone

## 2.2.2. IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTIONS

The same contrasts can be found in impersonal constructions. Stylistic fronting is possible in the impersonal (subjectless) passive uses of a verb, but not in the corresponding personal uses of the same verb in the active voice with expressed subject NP. This is illustrated by the contrasts in (16)–(18).

- (16) a. *Það var hætt að rigna þegar komið var þangað.*  
it was stopped to rain when arrived was thither  
'It had stopped raining when they/we arrived there.'  
b. \**Það var hætt að rigna þegar komin var rútan þangað.*  
it was stopped to rain when arrived was the-bus thither  
'It had stopped raining when the bus arrived there.'
- (17) a. *Það fór að rigna, þegar farið var af stað.*  
it began to rain when gone was from place  
'It began to rain when we left.'  
b. \**Það fór að rigna, þegar farið var barnið heim.*  
it began to rain when gone was the-child home  
'It began to rain when the child had gone home.'
- (18) a. *Verðbólgan varð verri en búist hafði verið við.*  
inflation became worse than expected had been PRT  
'Inflation was worse than had been expected.'  
b. \**Verðbólgan varð verri en búist hafði ríkisstjórnin við.*  
inflation became worse than expected had the-government PRT  
'Inflation was worse than the government had expected.'



The ungrammatical (b) versions all have definite subjects, whereas the grammatical (a) versions are subjectless impersonal passives.

The same point can be made for predicate adjectives such as *hægt* 'possible' or *venjulegt* 'usual', which can occur with dummy subject *það* but which often invert with the copula, instead. This type of fronting in embedded clauses was illustrated in (6). In general, these copular predicates are lexically impersonal and do not have corresponding personal uses.<sup>9</sup> However, there is a personal construction with preposition *til* preceding an infinitive complement, which is illustrated in (19); this construction cannot take dummy *það*.

- (19) a. *Hann er líklegur til að koma.*  
           he is likely (masc) to come  
       b. *Hún er líkleg til að koma.*  
           she is likely (fem) to come

With such personal copular predicates, stylistic fronting is possible only if the subject NP has been extracted; this is illustrated by the contrasts in (20).

- (20) a. *Hann er sá eini sem ekki er líklegur til að koma.*  
           he is the only that not is likely P to come  
           'He is the only one who isn't likely to come.'  
       b. *\*Hún spurði hvort ekki væri hann líklegur til að koma.*  
           she asked whether not was he likely P to come  
           'She asked whether he wasn't likely to come.'  
       c. *\*Hún spurði hvort líklegur væri hann til að koma.*  
           she asked whether likely was he to come

The ungrammatical sentences in (20b–c) have definite subjects in the embedded clause, whereas in the grammatical sentence (20a), the subject NP has been relativized.

### 2.2.3. INDEFINITE-NP POSTPOSING

Icelandic has a rule of indefinite-NP postposing that is much more general than its English counterpart, *there*-insertion (Thráinsson, 1979, Ch. 7). The contrast in (21) shows that the rule is sensitive to the definiteness of the subject NP. In main-clause declaratives, the resulting subject gap must be filled.

- (21) a. *\*Það eru trésmiðirnir í bænum.*  
           there are the-carpenters in town  
       b. *Það eru nokkrir trésmiðir í bænum.*  
           there are some carpenters in town

This contrast is reflected in the acceptability of stylistic fronting in embedded clauses.

- (22) a. \**Hún benti á bæinn þar sem byrjað höfðu trésmiðirnir með engum efnum og orðið heimsfrægir síðar.*  
 she pointed to the-town where that begun had the-carpenters with no material and become world-famous later
- b. *Hún benti á bæinn, þar sem byrjað höfðu nokkrir trésmiðir með engum efnum og orðið heimsfrægir síðar.*  
 she pointed to the-town where that begun had some carpenters with no material and become world-famous later

Additional examples of indefinite-NP postposing are given in (23) and (24).

- (23) *Það eru margir frægir Íslendingar fæddir í þessum bæ.*  
 there are many famous Icelanders born in this town  
 'Many famous Icelanders were born in this town.'
- (24) a. *Þetta er bærinn þar sem margir frægir Íslendingar eru fæddir.*  
 this is the-town where many famous Icelanders are born  
 'This is the town where many famous Icelanders were born.'
- b. *Þetta er bærinn þar sem fæddir eru margir frægustu menn þjóðarinnar.*  
 this is the-town, where born are many most-famous men the-nation(GEN)  
 'This is the town where many of the most famous men of the nation were born.'

Indefinite-NP postposing creates a subject gap that makes stylistic fronting of the adjective *fæddir* (nom-masc-pl) in (24b) possible. Note that stylistic fronting is possible in (24b), even though for many speakers *það*-insertion is not possible, as illustrated by the ungrammaticality of (25).<sup>10</sup>

- (25) \**Þetta er bærinn, þar sem það eru margir frægir Íslendingar fæddir.*  
 this is the-town where there are many famous Icelanders born

The contrast between (24b) and (25) shows clearly that indefinite-NP postposing is independent of *það*-insertion in Icelandic. Other examples are given in (26)–(27).

- (26) a. *Það eru ekki til draugar.*  
 there are not P ghosts
- b. *Það sem ekki er til eru draugar.*  
 that which not is P are ghosts  
 'What doesn't exist is ghosts.'
- c. \**Það sem það er ekki til eru draugar.*  
 that which there is not P are ghosts
- (27) a. *Þetta er nokkuð sem ekki er hægt að gera við.*  
 this is something that not is possible to fix PRT  
 'This is something that can't be fixed.'

- b. \**Þetta er nokkuð sem það er ekki hægt að gera við.*  
 this is something that it is not possible to fix PRT

Where *það*-insertion is impossible in declarative sentences because indefinite-NP postposing cannot apply, I predict that stylistic fronting is impossible for the same reason, namely, there is no subject gap to be filled. This prediction is borne out, as illustrated in (28).

- (28) a. \**Það skrifaði Helgi bréfið.*  
 there wrote Helgi the-letter  
 b. \**Ég held að ekki skrifaði Helgi bréfið.*  
 I think that not wrote Helgi the-letter  
 c. \**Þetta er bréfið, sem ekki skrifaði Helgi.*  
 this is the-letter that not wrote Helgi  
 d. \**Þetta er bréfið, sem skrifaði hefur Helgi þrisvar.*  
 this is the-letter that written has Helgi thrice

### 2.3. An Accessibility Hierarchy

Section 2.2 provided evidence for the hypothesis stated in (9) that stylistic fronting serves to fill subject gaps created by independently motivated rules of Icelandic syntax. We have seen that subject gaps can be filled by past participles, predicate adjectives, verbal particles, and adverbs such as *ekki* 'not'. The obvious question is what happens if the embedded clause contains more than one of these elements. Stylistic fronting seems to be governed by the following accessibility hierarchy:

- (29) *ekki* > predicate adjective >  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{past participle} \\ \text{verbal particle} \end{array} \right.$

Consider the contrast illustrated in (30):

- (30) a. *Þeir voru að tala um hvað hægt hefði verið.* (=6c)  
 they were to talk about what possible had been  
 'They were talking about what had been possible.'  
 b. \**Þeir voru að tala um hvað verið hefði hægt.*  
 they were talking about what been had possible

Data in support of the hierarchy in (29) are given in examples (31)–(36).

- (31) a. *Þetta er glæpamaðurinn sem*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ekki} \quad \text{hefur verið dæmdur.} \\ \text{not} \quad \text{had been convicted} \end{array} \right.$   
 this is the-criminal that  
 b. \**dæmdur hefur ekki verið.*  
 c. \**verið hefur ekki dæmdur.*
- (32) a. *Það fór að rigna, þegar*  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{búið} \quad \text{var að borðða.} \\ \text{finished was to eat} \end{array} \right.$   
 it went to rain when  
 b. \**ekki var búið að borða.*  
 c. \**búið var ekki að borða.*

- (33) a. *Þetta er nokkuð, sem* { *ekki er hægt að gera við.*  
 this is something that { not is possible to fix PRT  
 b. { *\*hægt er ekki að gera við.*
- (34) a. *Fundurinn, sem* { *ekki hefur farið fram ennþá, mun fjalla*  
 the-meeting that { not has gone on yet will talk  
 { *um málfræði.*  
 about linguistics  
 b. { *\*fram hefur ekki farið ennþá*  
 'The meeting, which hasn't taken place yet, will be about linguistics.'
- (35) a. *Fundurinn sem* { *fram hafði farið í Ósló var skemmtilegur.*  
 the-meeting that { on had gone in Oslo was fun  
 b. { *farið hafði fram í Ósló*  
 'The meeting that took place in Oslo was fun.'
- (36) a. *Verðbólgan varð verri en búist hafð verið við.* (=18a)  
 inflation became worse than expected had been PRT  
 b. *við hafði verið búist.*  
 c. *\*við hafði búist verið.*  
 d. *\*verið hafði búist við.*

Example (36d) shows that if there is more than one past participle, only the last one can front.

### 3. OBLIQUE SUBJECTS

Icelandic has many verbs that appear to have oblique (i.e., non-nominative) subjects; the NP that precedes the finite verb in the stylistically unmarked word order is not in the nominative case. Some examples of such verbs are given in (37):

- (37) a. *Mig vantar skó.*  
 me (ACC) lacks shoes (ACC)  
 'I lack shoes.'  
 b. *Mér nægja tvær bækur.*  
 me (DAT) suffice two books (NOM)  
 'Two books is enough for me.'  
 c. *Þeim nægir tvær bækur.*  
 them (DAT) suffices two books (NOM)  
 'Two books is enough for them.'

Thráinsson (1979, Ch. 7) argues at length that these preverbal NPs should be analyzed as subjects rather than as preposed objects, despite their non-nominative

case marking, even when the postverbal NP is nominative as in (37b–c).<sup>11</sup> The argument is straightforward: such preverbal oblique NPs behave syntactically like subjects. In particular, they behave like subjects with respect to the subject–verb inversion resulting from topicalization, and also with respect to the narrative verb-first order found in main clauses.

The subject-gap condition on stylistic fronting in embedded clauses provides yet another argument for the subjecthood of these NPs. If verbs that take preverbal oblique NPs occur in embedded clauses, then stylistic fronting is unacceptable if that oblique NP is overtly present. This fact is illustrated by the following contrasts:

- (38) a. *Hún benti á myndina sem hana hafði langað að selja.*  
 she pointed to the-picture that she (ACC) had longed to sell  
 b. \**Hún benti á myndina, sem langað hafði hana að selja.*
- (39) a. *Hún benti á manninn sem henni samdi ekki við.*  
 she pointed to the-man that she (DAT) got-along not with  
 'She pointed to the man that she didn't get along with.'  
 b. \**Hún benti á manninn, sem ekki samdi henni við.*  
 c. \**Hún benti á manninn, sem við samdi henni (ekki).*

If the preverbal oblique NPs in (38a) and (39a), namely, *hana* and *henni*, are analyzed as subjects, then the unacceptability of stylistic fronting follows from the subject-gap condition stated in (9). If they are not analyzed as subjects, then we cannot attribute the unacceptability of the (b) versions to the presence of a subject NP, and the generalization expressed in (9) is lost. Note that it is, in principle, possible to invert such preverbal oblique NPs with the finite verb to form questions, or if topicalization has applied, as illustrated in (40).<sup>12</sup>

- (40) *Í gær langaði hana til Grænlands, í dag langar hana*  
 yesterday longed she (ACC) [to go] to Greenland, today longs she  
*til Hollands, og hver veit, hvað hana langar á morgun.*  
 to Holland and who knows what she (will) long-for tomorrow  
 'Yesterday she wanted to go to Greenland, today she wants to go to Holland, and who knows what she'll want tomorrow.'

The conclusion that Icelandic does indeed have oblique subjects seems inescapable.<sup>13</sup>

#### 4. WHAT CAN PRECEDE THE FINITE VERB?

In this section I discuss two problems related to V2 and the question of what can precede the finite verb in Modern Icelandic prose. In section 4.1 it is hypothesized that the finite verb appears to be in first position in an embedded clause

only if that clause contains a subject gap. Conditions on the filling of subject gaps with dummy *það* are discussed. Section 4.2 notes some problems with respect to the application of topicalization in embedded clauses.

#### 4.1. Constraints on Filling Subject Gaps

In section 2 it was suggested that the function of stylistic fronting is to fill various kinds of subject gaps in order to satisfy V2. In this section, we look more generally at the treatment of subject gaps in Modern Icelandic prose, and at apparent exceptions to V2. In particular, when is it possible for an embedded clause (other than a conditional clause) to begin with the finite verb?

Subject extraction by unbounded transformational rules such as relativization often creates embedded clauses in which the finite verb appears to be in first position; examples have been given in (4c) and (10b)–(12b). Impersonal constructions can also give rise to apparent instances of verb-first order. This is illustrated for impersonal passives by the example in (41).

- (41) *Hann spurði hvar — væri ennþá ekið vinstra megin.*  
 he asked where was still driven left side  
 'He asked where people still drove on the left side of the road.'

Verb-first order is not possible, however, if a subject NP is present, as shown by the contrast in (42):

- (42) a. *Þetta er handritið sem hann skrifaði eftir.*  
 this is the-manuscript that he copied from  
 b. \**Þetta er handritið sem skrifaði hann eftir.*

Such contrasts suggest the following hypothesis:

- (43) The finite verb will appear to be in first position in an embedded clause only if the clause contains a subject gap.

The subject-gap hypothesis stated above allows us to maintain the claim that V2 applies to embedded clauses without exception, but it forces us to rephrase the question of exceptions to V2 in the following way: how are subject gaps treated in Icelandic syntax?<sup>14</sup>

The data presented in section 2 suggest that subject gaps can always be filled by stylistic fronting. But can they be filled in other ways, and when can they be left empty? It is well known that dummy *það* is often used to begin subjectless sentences. In main-clause declaratives, *það* occurs in sentence-initial position if and only if nothing has been fronted. The same is true of embedded declaratives, as shown by the contrast in (44):

- (44) a. *Ég veit að það er ekið vinstra megin í Ástralíu.*  
 I know that there is driven left side in Australia  
 'I know that people still drive on the left in Australia.'  
 b. \**Ég veit að — er ekið vinstra megin í Ástralíu.*

It is clear that subject gaps in declaratives must be filled in order to satisfy V2, either by stylistic fronting or by *það*-insertion, if nothing has been topicalized. (Let me emphasize again that I am not attributing subject status to either kind of filler.)

However, there are other clause types that do allow subject gaps to remain unfilled. This seems to be generally true of clauses that inherently contain gaps, for example, relatives, questions, and comparatives, although the gap that leads to apparent verb-first order need not be the result of subject extraction, as was illustrated in (41).<sup>15</sup> An example for relative clauses is given in (45).

- (45) *Bretland er eina landið þar sem — er ennþá ekið vinstra megin.*  
 Britain is only country where is still driven left side  
 'Britain is the only country where people still drive on the left.'

In such clauses, subject gaps due to impersonal constructions can be filled by stylistic fronting, but many speakers do not accept *það*-insertion (cf. section 2.2.3), as illustrated in (46)–(47):

- (46) a. *Hann spurði hvar ekið væri ennþá vinstra megin.*  
 he asked where driven was still left side  
 'He asked where people still drove on the left.'  
 b. \**Hann spurði hvar það væri ennþá ekið vinstra megin.*
- (47) a. *Bretland er eina landið þar sem ekið er ennþá vinstra megin.*  
 Britain is only country where driven is still left side  
 'Britain is the only country where people still drive on the left.'  
 b. \**Bretland er eina landið þar sem það er ennþá ekið vinstra megin.*

Similarly, for comparative clauses:

- (48) a. *Hann raulaði þá vísuna sína nokkuð hærra en venjulegt*  
 he hummed then tune his somewhat louder than usual  
*var. (=6a)*  
 was  
 'Then he hummed his tune somewhat louder than was usual.'  
 b. *Hann raulaði þá vísuna sína nokkuð hærra en — var venjulegt.*  
 c. ?*Hann raulaði þá vísuna sína nokkuð hærra en það var venjulegt.*

While there is considerable variation among speakers as to the acceptability of *það* in such contexts, it is clear that *það* can never be used to fill a subject gap created by an extraction rule, as noted by Maling and Zaenen (this volume: 383–407). This is illustrated by the contrast in (49):

- (49) a. *Hver heldur lögreglan að — hafi framið glæpinn?*  
 who think the-police that has committed the-crime  
 'Who do the police think committed the crime?'  
 b. \**Hver heldur lögreglan að það hafi framið glæpinn?*

This completes a brief sketch of word order in embedded clauses in modern Icelandic prose. It has been argued that V2 is an extremely general principle of word order in Icelandic, and that almost all apparent exceptions in embedded clauses should be analyzed as instances of unfilled subject gaps. Stylistic fronting was shown to bring subjectless sentences of various kinds into surface conformity with V2.

#### 4.2. Constraints on Topicalization

I conclude by mentioning briefly some tentative conditions on the application of topicalization in embedded clauses. In section 2 it was noted that topicalization is much more restricted in embedded clauses than it is in main clauses, and that grammaticality judgments often vary greatly from speaker to speaker. The situation is particularly complicated with respect to the fronting of adverbials. Not all adverbs are equally acceptable in initial position, nor are even different uses of the same adverb equally acceptable. Consider the subtle contrast illustrated in (50):<sup>16</sup>

- (50) a. ??*Hann fann stól sem vandlega hafði verið smíðaður.*  
 he found a-chair that carefully had been carved  
 'He found a chair that had been carved carefully.'
- b. *Hann fann mynd sem vandlega hafði verið falin.*  
 he found a-picture that carefully had been hidden  
 'He found a picture that had been carefully hidden.'
- c. *Hann fann setningu sem vandlega hafði verið reynt að þegja*  
 he found a-sentence that carefully had been tried to be-silent  
*yfir.*  
 about  
 'He found a sentence that they had carefully tried not to mention.'

It is unclear whether it is sufficient to distinguish between manner and modal uses of adverbs.

These problems with adverbs serve to point out that the distinction between topicalization and stylistic fronting is sometimes a fuzzy one. In general, stylistic fronting is a more local process involving elements of the verbal complex, and often without the emphatic feel of topicalization. Fronting of verbal arguments, especially NPs, can cross clause boundaries and is considerably more restricted than stylistic fronting, especially in clauses such as relatives or embedded questions that already contain a gap. Extraction out of topicalized sentences generally produces sentences of very low acceptability, as noted for Icelandic by Zaenen and Maling (1977) and Thráinsson (1979:472). The definiteness and heaviness of the fronted NP seems to affect acceptability, suggesting that only presupposed NPs may be fronted in embedded clauses.<sup>17</sup> Consider the contrasts illustrated below:



- (51) a. *Þetta er hundurinn sem minkinn drap.*  
 this is the-dog that the-mink (ACC) killed  
 'This is the dog that killed the mink.'  
 b. ?\**Þetta er hundurinn sem minka drepur.*  
 this is the-dog that minks (ACC) kills  
 'This is the dog that kills minks.'
- (52) a. *Þetta er maðurinn sem smásögunna skrifaði.*  
 this is the-man that the-short-story (ACC) wrote  
 'This is the man that wrote the short story.'  
 b. ?\**Þetta er maðurinn sem smásögur skrifar.*  
 this is the-man that short-stories writes  
 'This is the man that writes short stories.'
- (53) a. *Hún benti á trésmiðina sem húsgögnin höfðu smíðað.*  
 she pointed to the-carpenters that the-furniture had made  
 b. ?\**Hún benti á trésmiðina sem húsgögn höfðu smíðað.*  
 furniture had made  
 c. ?\**Hún benti á trésmiðina sem úr eik höfðu smíðað vönduð en ódýr*  
 of oak had made bad but cheap  
*húsgögn.*  
 furniture

Verbal complements such as locatives can sometimes be fronted, as illustrated by the acceptability of (54), whereas predicate nominals cannot be fronted in relatives, as illustrated in (55) (although they can be fronted in *að* 'that'-clauses).

- (54) *Hann fann stól sem hér hafði staðið.*  
 he found a-chair that here had stood  
 'He found a chair that had stood here.'
- (55) ?\**Þarna er konan sem forseti Íslands var kosin.*  
 there is the-woman that president Iceland (GEN) was elected  
 'There is the woman who was elected President of Iceland.'

Whatever the conditions on topicalization may be, note that all of these embedded clauses freely allow stylistic fronting of a past participle when it occurs:

- (56) a. *Þetta er hundurinn sem drepð hefur fimm minka.*  
 this is the-dog that killed has five minks  
 'This is the dog that has killed five minks.'  
 b. *Þetta er maðurinn sem skrifað hefur margar smásögur.*  
 this is the-man that written has many short-stories  
 c. *Hún benti á trésmiðina sem smíðað höfðu vönduð en ódýr*  
 she pointed to the-carpenter that made had bad but cheap  
*húsgögn.*  
 furniture  
 'She pointed to the carpenter who had made bad but cheap furniture.'

- d. *Barna er konan sem kosin var forseti Íslands.*  
 there is the-woman that elected was president Iceland (GEN)  
 'There is the woman who was elected President of Iceland.'

These differences support the distinction drawn in section 2 between the two fronting processes, topicalization and stylistic fronting.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This article was written during the summer of 1980, and appeared later the same year in *Íslenskt mál og almenn málfræði* 2, 175–193; it is reprinted here with two changes: the addition of English glosses for the Icelandic examples, and (except in the title) a change of terminology from the original "stylistic inversion" to the more appropriate "stylistic fronting." With hindsight, I feel that the statement made in the very first sentence—that Icelandic word order is "quite free"—is misleading; in fact, the apparent freedom vis-à-vis English is almost entirely restricted to the choice of phrases that can occur in sentence-initial position. For references to the more recent literature on Icelandic word order, see Rögnvaldsson and Thráinsson (this volume: 3–40).

Preparation of this article was supported in part by Grant No. BNS78–16522 to Brandeis University from the National Science Foundation, whose support is hereby gratefully acknowledged. I am particularly indebted to Annie Zaenen; many of the ideas in this article have developed during our joint study of Germanic syntax over the last few years. Many thanks to the following native speakers for their patient help with data, and to the linguists among them for useful discussion, references, and comments on an earlier draft: Aldís Sigurðardóttir, Helgi Bernódsson, Höskuldur Thráinsson, Jóhann G. Jóhannsson, Jón Friðjónsson, Kristján Árnason, Magnús Fjalldal, Sigríður Magnúsdóttir, and Úlfur Ragnarson. Last, but certainly not least, special thanks to the inmates of Room 306, Árnagarði, for the use of their personal libraries and the c-sick typewriter on which the first draft was typed, and to the Føroyamálsdeild of the Fróðskaparsetur Føroya for the use of a typewriter without which this article would never have gone to press on time.

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup>The term *topicalization* may be somewhat of a misnomer, but it has become standard usage in the transformational literature. It is unclear if the discourse function of topicalization is related to the topic–comment distinction; moreover, different languages may put the same syntactic construction to different uses. For some discussion of the discourse function of topicalization in Icelandic, see Thráinsson (1979:64–66).

<sup>2</sup>For example, Haugen (1976:84).

<sup>3</sup>See Maling and Zaenen (1978, and this volume: 383–407) for discussion of the consequences of this fact for the derived constituent structure of questions and topicalizations.

<sup>4</sup>Although V2 is the general rule in embedded clauses, there are some examples of the finite verb in third position as the result of an adverb in second position, a possibility not noted by Bergsveinsson (1969) in his otherwise exhaustive study of adverb positions. Some examples are given in (i), with the adverbs in bold face type.

- (i) a. *eins og hann varð rólfær . . . að hann dag og dag varð lasinn.*  
 just as he became that he now and then become sick  
 ("Hans Vöggur")
- b. *Þegar ég loksins fann lagið*  
 when I finally found the-tune
- c. *Þegar ég síðast hitti hann*  
 when I last met him
- d. *Þegar mér allt í einu datt í hug að*  
 when to-me suddenly occurred that

Note that Icelandic is unlike the other Scandinavian languages in that the negative adverb *ekki* does not occur in second position in embedded clauses; a sentence such as (ii) is felt to be a Danicism.

- (ii) \**Þó að ég ekki hefði fundið hann*  
 although I not had found him

Second position for adverbs seems to have the effect of emphasis, but not all adverbs or adverbial PPs can occur in this position. Note the contrasts in (iii):

- (iii) *Þegar ég*

{	<i>fyrir löngu</i> 'long ago' <i>loksins</i> 'finally' <i>??um helgina</i> 'on the weekend' <i>??í fyrsta sinn</i> 'for the first time' <i>*með Sigu</i> 'with Sigga'	}	<i>hitti hann</i> met him
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Just what class(es) of adverbs can occur in second position remains to be determined. (For further discussion, see Rögnvaldsson and Thráinsson, this volume: 3–40.)

<sup>5</sup>Kossuth (1978) observes that an average of 6.5% (with a range of 1–14 percent) of embedded clauses begin with nonsubjects, as opposed to 20% of main clauses. Unfortunately, the two kinds of inversion are lumped together in her study, making it difficult to evaluate the significance of the different frequencies, which may or may not be entirely attributable to the markedness of topicalization in embedded clauses.

<sup>6</sup>See, e.g., Baker (1978) for an introduction to the basic properties of topicalization and clefting. Some properties of these transformations in Icelandic are discussed in Thráinsson (1979). Indefinite-NP postposing is the Icelandic equivalent of *there*-insertion in English. For a discussion of subjectless constructions in Icelandic, see Thráinsson (1979, Ch. 7).

<sup>7</sup>For a discussion of the role of dummy *það* in Icelandic syntax, see Andrews (this volume: 165–185), Maling and Zaenen (this volume: 383–407), and Thráinsson (1979, ch. 7).

<sup>8</sup>I have used only definite-subject NPs in these examples in order to rule out the possibility of indefinite-NP postposing, which also creates subject gaps; see section 3.2.3.

<sup>9</sup>In transformational terms, Icelandic lacks a subject-to-subject raising construction with copular predicates. In English syntax, subject-to-subject raising relates pairs of sentences such as (i) and (ii):

- (i) *It is not likely that George will be elected.*  
 (ii) *George is not likely to be elected.*

In (i) the copular predicate *be likely* takes a dummy subject *it* and a *that*-clause complement, whereas (ii) takes an ordinary NP subject and an infinitival complement. The subject of the *that*-clause complement in (i) corresponds to the subject of the copular predicate in (ii). See Thráinsson (1979:409ff.).

<sup>10</sup>I found considerable variation among speakers as to the acceptability of *það* in such contexts. Most speakers reject *það* in the starred examples in (25)–(27), but others find it quite acceptable, especially in *þar sem* relatives and in spoken as opposed to written style. Use of *það* is undoubtedly on the increase.

<sup>11</sup>These examples were brought to my attention by Helgi Bernóðsson; the vacillation in number agreement is noted by Björn Guðfinnsson (1958:60, Ath. 1).

<sup>12</sup>Note that this difference provides further support for the distinction between topicalization and stylistic fronting.

<sup>13</sup>Yet another argument that preverbal oblique NPs are actually subjects rather than preposed objects comes from the variety of possible infinitival phrases. Consider the following:

- |      |  |   |                      |   |   |   |               |
|------|--|---|----------------------|---|---|---|---------------|
| (i)  | <i>Að vanta skó</i><br><i>*Að mig vanta</i><br><i>**Að vanta mig</i><br><i>*Að vanta mig skó</i> | } | <i>er slæmt.</i>     | } | 'To lack shoes<br>'To me lack<br>'To lack me<br>'To lack me shoes       | } | is awful'.    |
| (ii) | <i>Að nægja tvær bækur</i><br><i>*Að nægja þeim</i><br><i>**Að nægju þeim tvær bækur</i>         | } | <i>er furðulegt.</i> | } | 'To suffice two books<br>'To suffice them<br>'To suffice them two books | } | is horrible'. |

Assuming that infinitival phrases are simply subjectless clauses, then, regardless of whether they are base generated as such (e.g., as VPs) and their subjects supplied interpretatively, or whether they are generated as full sentences with subjects that are transformationally deleted, the contrasts illustrated in (i)–(ii) support the analysis of preverbal oblique NPs as subjects. Infinitival phrases containing an inverted subject NP, while at the same time missing a topicalized object NP, are not even "remotely plausible," as noted by Thráinsson (1979:469) for infinitives produced by EQUI. He makes a similar argument for the subjecthood of these preverbal oblique NPs.

<sup>14</sup>But see n. 4.

<sup>15</sup>This generalization is Annie Zaenen's. See Zaenen (1980) for a more detailed discussion of the environments in which apparent verb-first orders are possible. (For a different point of view, see Sigurðsson, this volume: 41–69.)

<sup>16</sup>This contrast was brought to my attention by Kristján Árnason.

<sup>17</sup>These observations are Kristján Árnason's.

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