

THE RETURN OF THE SUBSET PRINCIPLE

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1. The Subset Principle, proposed by Berwick (1985), can be formulated as follows:
 - (1) “the learner must guess the smallest possible language compatible with the input at each stage of the learning procedure” (Clark & Roberts 1993:304-5)

This principle has the important conceptual advantage of being founded upon what seems to be a clear fact about language acquisition: that acquirers do not have access to negative evidence. Because of this, it is impossible for an acquirer to retreat from a superset hypothesis since the only evidence that would force this to happen would be evidence regarding the impossibility of certain strings, i.e. unavailable negative evidence. Acquisition therefore has to proceed on a highly conservative basis as described in (1). Conceptually well-motivated though it may be, the Subset Principle has arguably foundered as a useful principle for guiding the setting of parameters in language acquisition since most parameters seem to define intersecting languages* rather than languages in a subset-superset relation (*taking a language to be the set of strings generated by a grammar). This is particularly clear in the case of word-order parameters, such “OV” vs. “VO”, since the parameter defining these options defines an intersecting set of grammatical strings, as shown in (2):

- (2)

<i>Joe Sue loves</i> G1 (OV)	<i>Joe walks</i>	<i>Joe loves Sue</i> G2 (VO)
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In this paper we wish to argue that, once the role of true formal optionality is fully taken into consideration, the Subset Principle once again becomes useful, and indeed can explain certain changes in a natural way, relying essentially on the reasoning above: if evidence for the grammar which generates the larger language is not sufficiently robust, acquirers “default” to a grammar generating a smaller language. We will develop this idea in relation to two types of change: one where a pied-piping option is lost (in favour of obligatory stranding), and the other what we call *restriction of function*, i.e. the narrowing down of an operation to a subset of the contexts in which it formerly applied.

2. Schematically, pied-piping arises when a category which properly contains a Goal, rather than just the Goal, is moved by a Probe’s EPP-feature. This possibility is clearly allowed by the system in Chomsky (2001 *et seq.*), and would have to be stipulated not to exist. In (3), pied-piping is the case where YP moves as opposed to Z(P):

- (3) ... X_{PROBE} ... [Y_P ... Z_{GOAL} ...] ...

We propose that, where X probes Z and has an EPP-feature, UG offers the parametric options of satisfying this feature by moving ZP alone, obligatorily pied-piping YP or optionally pied-piping YP (i.e. moving either ZP or YP). These options give rise to grammars which generate the following range of strings:

- (4)

a.	ZP-movement only:	[X _P ZP X [Y _P ... (ZP) ...]]
b.	Obligatory pied-piping:	[X _P [Y _P ... ZP ...] X (YP)]
c.	Optional pied-piping:	[X _P ZP X [Y _P ... (ZP) ...]] AND [X _P [Y _P ... ZP ...] X (YP)]

It is clear that (4c) represents a superset language in relation to both (4a) and (4b); as such this parametric option must, in accordance with (1), be very robustly triggered.

3. A case where a system like (4c) developed into (4a) is word-order change in Middle English (ME). Following Biberauer & Roberts (2005), assume that Old English (OE) T and *v* both probed a D-feature (i.e. the subject and the direct object respectively) and had an EPP-feature. At this stage, pied-piping of *v*P and VP respectively was optional. In conjunction with V-to-*v* movement, these options therefore gave rise to the following orders:

- (5)

a.	VP pied-piping:	[_{vP} [_{VP} ... DP-OB ...] V+ <i>v</i> (VP)]
b.	VP “stranding”:	[_{vP} DP-OB V+ <i>v</i> [_{VP} .. (DP) ..]]
- (6)

a.	<i>v</i> P pied-piping:	[_{TP} [_{vP} DP-SU [_{VP}] V+ <i>v</i>] T (<i>v</i> P)]
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